Sensitization of knee-innervating sensory neurons by tumor necrosis factor-α activated fibroblast-like synoviocytes: an in vitro, co-culture model of inflammatory pain.

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Abstract

Pain is a principal contributor to the global burden of arthritis with peripheral sensitization being a major cause of arthritis-related pain. Within the knee joint, distal endings of dorsal root ganglion neurons (knee neurons) interact with fibroblast-like synoviocytes (FLS) and the inflammatory mediators they secrete, which are thought to promote peripheral sensitization. Correspondingly, RNA-sequencing has demonstrated detectable levels of pro-inflammatory genes in FLS derived from arthritic patients. This study confirms that stimulation with tumor necrosis factor (TNF-α), results in expression of pro-inflammatory genes in mouse and human FLS (derived from OA and RA patients), as well as increased secretion of cytokines from mouse FLS. This pro-inflammatory phenotype was also supported by an increase in the proportion of TNF-α stimulated FLS (TNF-FLS) responding to acidic stimuli in the pH range 5.0-6.0 as assessed by Ca^{2+} imaging. Electrophysiological recordings from retrograde labelled knee neurons co-cultured with TNF-FLS, or supernatant derived from TNF-FLS, revealed a depolarized resting membrane potential, increased spontaneous action potential firing and enhanced TRPV1 function, all consistent with a role for FLS in mediating the sensitization of pain-sensing nerves in arthritis. Therefore, data from this study demonstrate the ability of FLS activated by TNF-α to promote neuronal sensitization, results that highlight the importance of both non-neuronal and neuronal cells to the development of pain in arthritis.

Keywords: synoviocytes, sensory neurons, pain, inflammation, tumor necrosis factor, complete Freund's adjuvant, knee

Introduction

Joint inflammation and pain are the major clinical symptoms of arthritis. Inflammation is part of the body's immune response to tissue damage and involves multiple cell types, including lymphocytes and, in synovial joints, synoviocytes. These non-neuronal cells are either in direct contact with, or in close proximity to, the distal endings of dorsal root ganglion (DRG) sensory neurons that innervate the joints, and this interaction is thought to cause peripheral sensitization of knee-innervating nerves - a key pathology in the development of inflammatory pain.

During inflammatory diseases such as rheumatoid arthritis (RA), the joint undergoes hyperplasia due to T-lymphocyte infiltration and fibroblast-like synoviocyte (FLS) proliferation. FLS are key effectors in RA as they become active upon stimulation by inflammatory cytokines (released by macrophage-like synoviocytes, and T-lymphocytes) and secrete matrix metalloproteases (MMP) that cause joint destruction [9]. Correspondingly, single-cell transcriptional analysis of human RA-FLS, has identified distinct "destructive" and "inflammatory" FLS subgroups [17]. In addition, FLS can also support and maintain the ongoing inflammation in arthritic joints by themselves secreting pro-inflammatory mediators [9]. To better understand the inflammatory phenotype of FLS, several studies have used cytokine stimulation (e.g. interleukin 1β, IL-1β, or tumor necrosis factor-α, TNF-α) to robustly induce inflammation [14,27,30,38]. "Inflamed" FLS have been utilized in co-culture systems to dissect the complex interaction between FLS and other cell types in the joint environment. Co-culture of human RA-FLS with T-lymphocytes [7,11,36,62] or macrophages/monocytes [6,8,15] has been found to increase the concentration of prostaglandin (PG) E$_2$, IL-6, IL-8, MMP-1 and MMP-3 in the culture medium. Furthermore, upregulation of these pro-inflammatory mediators in culture supernatants was inhibited by anti-TNF-α [11,53] and anti-IL-6 antibodies [53].

However, most co-culture studies have focused on immune interactions during joint inflammation

and therefore, the communication between neurons and synoviocytes is much less understood.

Culturing DRG neurons with FLS derived from chronic antigen-induced arthritic (AIA) rats was

observed to increase the expression of receptors associated with nociception, namely neurokinin

1, bradykinin 2 and transient receptor potential vanilloid 1 (TRPV1) in DRG neurons [4].

However, this study did not functionally assess modulation of DRG neuron excitability, which is

a key mechanism of peripheral sensitization and hence pain. We recently showed that human

osteoarthritic (OA) synovial fluid (a lubricating fluid largely secreted by FLS [5]) can cause

hyperexcitability of murine sensory neurons and increase TRPV1 function [12].

Therefore, to establish a suitable pro-inflammatory phenotype for our cultures, we utilized primary

FLS derived from mice undergoing acute, unilateral complete Freund's adjuvant (CFA)-induced

knee inflammation, which can produce neuronal hyperexcitability and a concomitant decrease in

digging behavior [13]. We also tested primary FLS treated with TNF-α, one of the main cytokines

upregulated in CFA-injected mouse tissues [60] and in inflammatory arthritis [51], and validated

our results in human FLS derived from mouse knee and human OA and RA patients. The pro-

inflammatory phenotype of FLS was established to test the hypothesis that after induction of

inflammation, mouse knee-derived FLS will increase excitability and TRP function of knee-

innervating DRG neurons (knee neurons) in an FLS-DRG neuron co-culture system.

Methods

Animals

All mice used in this study were 6-12 week old C57BL/6J mice (Envigo) randomly allocated to each experiment. Unless otherwise stated, female mice were used since in humans, females are at a higher risk for inflammatory pain [28]. Mice were housed in groups of up to 5 in a temperature controlled (21 °C) room with appropriate bedding materials, a red shelter and enrichment. They were on a 12-hour/light dark cycle with food and water available *ad libitum*. Experiments in this study were regulated under the Animals (Scientific Procedure) Act 1986, Amendment Regulations 2012. All protocols were approved by a UK Home Office project license granted to Dr Ewan St. John Smith (P7EBFC1B1) and reviewed by the University of Cambridge Animal Welfare and Ethical Review Body.

Knee injections

Under anesthesia (100 mg/kg ketamine and 10 mg/kg xylazine, intra-peritoneally) mice were injected intra-articularly through the patellar tendon into each knee with the retrograde tracer, fast blue (FB, 1.5 µl 2% in 0.9% saline, Polysciences) or into the left knee with 7.5 µl CFA (10 mg/ml, Chondrex). Vernier's calipers were used to measure knee width (as before [13]) pre- and 24-hour post-CFA injection.

Isolation and culture of FLS

24-hours after CFA injection into the knee, mice were killed by cervical dislocation and

decapitation. Knee joints were exposed by removing the skin, then the quadriceps muscles were

resected in the middle and pulled distally to expose the patellae. Patellae were then collected by

cutting through the surrounding ligaments, as described before [25], in phosphate-buffered saline

(PBS) and then transferred into one well of a 24-well plate with FLS culture media containing:

Dulbecco's Modified Eagle Medium F-12 Nutrient Mixture (Ham) (Life Technologies), 25% fetal

bovine serum (Sigma), 2 mM glutamine (Sigma) and 100 mg/ml penicillin/streptomycin (Life

Technologies). Cells took approximately 10 days to grow to 70% confluency; medium was

changed every other day. For P1, FLS were trypsinized with 1% trypsin (Sigma), re-suspended in

FLS culture media and transferred into two wells of a 6-well plate. FLS from two animals were

combined at P2. For subsequent passages, FLS were transferred into 60 mm dishes. Contralateral

(Contra) and CFA-injected knees/cells (Ipsi) were kept separate at all stages. The cells were

maintained in a humidified, 37 °C, 5% CO_2 incubator. FLS were also cultured until P5 from mice

that had not undergone any knee CFA injection (control). A random selection of these dishes, from

three separate biological replicates, was incubated for 24 to 48-hours (as per experimental design)

in culture medium with recombinant mouse TNF-α (10 ng/ml from a stock solution of 100 μg/ml

made up in 0.2 % bovine serum albumin and sterile PBS, R&D systems, aa-80325) to stimulate

release of inflammatory mediators (TNF-FLS) [29].

Culture of Raw 264.7 cells

Raw 264.7 cells (EACC) were cultured in medium containing Dulbecco's Modified Eagle Medium

F-12 Nutrient Mixture (Ham) (Life Technologies), 10% fetal bovine serum (Sigma), 2 mM

glutamine (Sigma) and 100 mg/ml penicillin/streptomycin (Life Technologies). Cells were

maintained in a humidified 37 °C, 5% CO_2 incubator.

RNA extraction and reverse transcriptase – quantitative/ polymerase chain reaction (RT-q/PCR)

of mouse FLS

For all conditions, RNA was extracted from two 60 mm dishes (Thermo Fisher) of FLS (various

passages) and from one T-25 flask (Greiner Bio-one) of Raw 264.7 cells at P3 using the RNeasy

Mini Kit (Qiagen). 500 ng of the extracted RNA was used to synthesize cDNA using a High

Capacity cDNA RT kit (Applied Biosystems) following the manufacturer's guidelines, using a

T100 Thermal Cycler (Bio-Rad). The resultant cDNA was diluted to a 1:5 ratio with nuclease free

water and quantitative PCR (qPCR) was performed using a StepOnePlus Real Time PCR system,

following the manufacturer's guidelines on settings (Applied Biosystems) using TaqMan probes

(Thermo Fisher) (Supplementary Table 1 listing genes of interest analyzed in this study). The

fluorescence intensity of samples was captured during the last minute of each cycle. All reactions

were run in triplicate with appropriate negative controls with water containing no cDNA.

For RT-qPCR reactions, data were obtained as Ct values (the cycle number at which fluorescent

signals emitted by the TaqMan probe crossed a threshold value). Only Ct values below 35 were

analyzed to determine ΔCt values by subtracting the Ct of *18S* ribosomal RNA from the Ct of

target gene [39]. ΔCt values of target genes were subtracted from average ΔCt values of their

controls to calculate ΔΔCt, followed by $2^{\wedge}(-\Delta\Delta Ct)$ to calculate fold change [37].

FLS gene expression was also assessed by RT-PCR. DreamTaq Polymerase (Thermo Fisher) was

used to amplify a section within the open reading frames of various genes from 5 ng template

cDNA. The sequences of designed oligonucleotides (Sigma) are listed in Supplementary Table 1.

Negative controls (using water/RNA as the template) were performed for each biological sample

with a randomly selected primer pairing. PCR products were resolved on 2% agarose containing

1X GelRed Nucleic Acid Stain (Biotum) and imaged with a GeneFlash Gel Documentation System

(Syngene). A randomly selected subset of reactions was repeated with 2.5 ng template cDNA to

ensure reproducibility. Densitometry analyses were performed using ImageJ Software (NIH)

where relative expression was determined by dividing the band intensity of each gene by that of

the housekeeping gene, *18S* ribosomal RNA, for each biological replicate.

Cytokine antibody array

Before RNA extraction, 2 ml of culture media from P5 Contra, Ipsi, control and TNF-FLS (48-

hour) were collected and stored at -80 °C until use. Culture medium was pooled from three cultures

for each of the four conditions and assayed (undiluted) for the presence of 40 inflammatory

mediators using Mouse Inflammatory Antibody Array Membranes (ab133999, Abcam) according

to the manufacturer's instructions. Chemiluminescence was imaged using a BioSpectrum 810

imaging system (UVP) with 3 min exposure. Location of the 40 cytokines detected by the array

membranes are shown in Supplementary Table 2.

Densitometry of the spots in the array membranes was performed using ImageJ software (NIH). Briefly, the mean gray value of each spot was measured from all membranes using the same circular region of interest. The spots of interests were then subtracted from background (average of all negative control spots) and normalized to the positive control spots of the reference membrane (control FLS media). A fold change value was obtained by dividing normalized intensities of the membrane of interest and the control membrane, analyte-by-analyte.

Culture of human FLS

FLS was obtained from 1 OA and 3 RA female patients (age range 61 – 81 years, see Supplementary Table 3 for detailed patient information) with approval from local ethics committee (07/H0809/35). These were then seeded separately at 10,000/well in 200 µl of DMEM media (Sigma) supplemented with 10% FCS (Fisher Scientific), 100 units/ml of Penicillin/Streptomycin (Fisher Scientific), 2% glutamine (Thermo Fisher) and fungizone (Thermo Fisher) into a 96-well flat bottom plate (Starlab). The plate was incubated overnight at 37 °C to allow for SF attachment and the following morning media was replaced with either 200µl of fresh DMEM containing 10 ng/ml of TNF-α (PeproTech), or fresh DMEM alone. Supernatants were collected following 24-hours of incubation at 37 °C.

RNA extraction and RT-qPCR of human FLS

RNA was extracted using a RNeasy Micro Kit (Qiagen) according to the manufacturer's protocol,

then reverse transcribed and amplified using a slightly modified version of the Smart-seq2 method

[47]. Briefly, in a RNase/DNA-free fume hood 2 µl of RNA was mixed with 1 µl of dNTP mix

(Thermo Scientific), 1 µl of Oligo-dT primer (Merck) and 5.7 µl of RT mix, then reverse

transcribed on a PTC-225 Gradient Thermal Cycler (MJ Research). 15 µl of PCR mix was added

to the resulting cDNA and amplified according to previously established protocol. Concentrations

were checked on a Qubit 3.0 (Invitrogen), with values ranging from 20.4 – 45.0 ng/µl. Samples

were diluted to 1 ng/µl with double distilled H_2O (ddH_2O) and 1 ng was used for standard SYBR

Green (Roche) RT-qPCR reactions on a LightCycler480 (Roche) to probe for the genes of interest

(see Supplementary Table 1 for primer sequences). All primers were tested for their efficiency and

specificity. The mean of housekeeping genes *B2M* and *Ywhaz* was used to calculate ΔCt values.

All reactions were run in duplicate with water used as a negative control.

DRG neuron isolation and culture

Lumbar DRG (L2-L5, those that primarily innervate the knee) were collected from FB labelled

mice 7-10 days after knee injections in ice cold dissociation media containing L-15 Medium (1X)

+ GlutaMAX-l (Life Technologies), supplemented with 24 mM $NaHCO_3$. DRG were then

enzymatically digested in type 1A collagenase (Sigma) and trypsin solution (Sigma) at 37 °C,

followed by mechanical trituration as described before [13]. Dissociated DRG neurons were plated

onto poly-D-lysine and laminin coated glass bottomed dishes (MatTek, P35GC-1.5-14-C) and

cultured either on their own (mono-culture), on a layer of FLS (co-culture, see below) or in 48-

hour conditioned media from TNF-FLS for 24-hours. The DRG culture medium contained L-15

Medium (1X) + GlutaMAX-l, 10% (v/v) fetal bovine serum, 24 mM NaHCO$_3$, 38 mM glucose,

2% (v/v) penicillin/streptomycin.

DRG neuron/FLS co-culture

For co-culture studies, FLS were plated onto MatTek dishes and cultured for 24-hours with FLS

culture media (with or without TNF-α stimulation). The next day medium was removed from FLS

plates, then DRG neurons were isolated as described above and plated on top of the FLS. Co-

culture plates were then kept in DRG culture medium for up to 24-hours for electrophysiological

recording.

Cell staining

FLS immunocytochemistry: FLS were plated overnight in wells of a 24-well plate, fixed with

Zamboni's fixative [55] for 10 min, permeabilized with 0.05 % TritonX-100 and blocked with

antibody diluent (0.2% (v/v) Triton X-100, 5% (v/v) donkey serum and 1% (v/v) bovine serum

albumin in PBS) for 30 min. The cells were then incubated overnight at 4 °C in 1:100 (in antibody

diluent) anti-cadherin-11 antibody (CDH-11, rabbit polyclonal, Thermo Fisher, 71-7600). Cells

were washed three times with PBS-tween and incubated in the conjugated secondary antibody,

anti-rabbit Alexa-568 (1:1000 in PBS, Thermo Fisher, A10042) for 1-hour at room temperature

(21 °C). The secondary antibody was washed off three times with PBS-tween and the cells were

incubated in the nuclear dye DAPI (1:1000 in PBS, Sigma, D9452) for 10 min. Cells were further

washed with PBS-tween once and imaged in PBS using an EVOS FLoid Cell Imaging Station

(Thermo Fisher) at 598 nm (for CDH-11) and 350 nm (for DAPI) wavelength of light. Cells

without primary antibody did not show fluorescence.

DRG neuron/FLS co-culture live cell stain: To visualize DRG neuron/FLS co-culture, live cell

imaging was performed. FLS were plated on MatTek dishes with 1:1000 (diluted in FLS culture

medium) CellTracker Deep Red Dye (Thermo Fisher, C34565) and incubated for 24-hours in a

humidified 37 °C, 5% CO_2 incubator. Dissociated DRG neurons (see above) were incubated in

CellTracker Green Dye (1: 1000 diluted in DRG culture media, Thermo Fisher, C7025) for 15 min

at room temperature (21 °C), centrifuged (16000 g, 3 min, 5415R, Eppendorf) and re-suspended

in fresh medium. The FLS dishes were then washed twice with PBS and the neuronal suspension

was plated on top of the FLS monolayer and incubated overnight in the incubator. The co-culture

dishes were washed with PBS and imaged the following day using an Olympus BX51 microscope

and QImaging camera at 650 nm (for deep red dye) and 488 nm (for green dye) wavelength of

light.

Whole-cell patch-clamp electrophysiology

DRG neurons were bathed in extracellular solution containing (ECS, in mM): NaCl (140), KCl

(4), $MgCl_2$ (1), $CaCl_2$ (2), glucose (4) and HEPES (10) adjusted to pH 7.4 with NaOH. Only FB

labelled neurons identified by their fluorescence upon excitation with a 365 nm LED (Cairn

Research) were recorded. Patch pipettes of 5–10 MΩ were pulled with a P-97 Flaming/Brown

puller (Sutter Instruments) from borosilicate glass capillaries and the intracellular solution used

contained (in mM): KCl (110), NaCl (10), $MgCl_2$ (1), EGTA (1), HEPES (10), Na_2ATP (2),

Na_2GTP (0.5) adjusted to pH 7.3 with KOH.

Action potentials (AP) were recorded in current clamp mode without current injection (to

investigate spontaneous AP firing) or after step-wise injection of 80 ms current pulses from 0 –

1050 pA in 50 pA steps using a HEKA EPC-10 amplifier (Lambrecht) and the corresponding

Patchmaster software. AP properties were analyzed using Fitmaster software (HEKA) or IgorPro

software (Wavemetrics) as described before [13] and shown in Figure 4D (inset). Neurons were

excluded from analysis if they did not fire an AP in response to current injection. For recording

whole-cell voltage-clamp currents in response to TRP agonists capsaicin (1 μM from a 1 mM stock

in ethanol, Sigma-Aldrich), cinnamaldehyde (100 μM from a 1 M stock in ethanol, Alfa Aesar)

and menthol (100 μM from a 1 M stock in ethanol, Alfa Aesar), a 5 s baseline was established

with ECS, followed by a 5 s randomized drug application. Peak drug response was measured in

Fitmaster by subtracting the average of 2 s baseline immediately preceding the drug application

and the maximum peak response reached during the 5 s of drug application. Peak current density

is represented in graphs by dividing this peak response by the capacitance of the neuron. Data from

at least four mice were used in all conditions (with each mouse being used for at least two

conditions) and at least three neurons were recorded from each mouse in each category.

Ca^{2+} imaging

FLS or DRG neurons were incubated with the Ca^{2+} indicator, Fluo-4 AM (10 μM diluted in ECS

from a 10 mM stock solution in DMSO, Invitrogen) for 30 min at room temperature (21 °C).

Culture dishes were then washed and imaged using an inverted Nikon Eclipse T*i* microscope. Fluo-

fluorescence was excited using a 470 nm LED (Cairn Research) and captured with a camera (Zyla cSMOS, Andor) at 1 Hz with 50 ms (for neurons) 250 ms (for FLS) exposure time using Micro-Manager software (v1.4; NIH). Solutions were perfused in this system through a gravity-driven 12 barrel perfusion system [20]. During imaging of neurons, MIP-1γ (10 and 100 ng/ml diluted in ECS from a stock concentration of 0.1 mg/ml in 0.1% bovine serum albumin/sterile PBS, Sigma) was applied for 20 s after establishing a baseline with ECS for 10 s. Neurons were allowed to recover for 5 minutes between drug applications. 50 mM KCl was used as a positive control.

During imaging of FLS, a 10 s baseline was established with ECS and then pH 4-7, and TRP agonists, 1 μM capsaicin, 100 μM cinnamaldehyde and 100 μM menthol were applied for 10 s before a wash out period of 4 min between drug applications. TRP agonist sensitivity and acid sensitivity was assessed on separate dishes. Three biological repeats were conducted on separate days for each condition. 10 μM ionomycin was used as a positive control after all FLS Ca^{2+} imaging experiments.

Analysis was conducted as described before [12]. Briefly, mean grey values were extracted by manually drawing around FLS or neurons in the ImageJ software. These values were then fed into a custom-made R-toolbox (https://github.com/amapruns/Calcium-Imaging-Analysis-with-R.git) to compute the proportion of cells responding to each drug and their corresponding magnitude of response (normalized to their peak ionomycin (FLS) or KCl (neuron) response, (ΔF/Fmax); cells not crossing threshold for positive controls were excluded from the analysis).

Extraction of RNA-Seq data from RA and OA patient synovial tissue samples

Publicly available single cell RNA-Seq data of synovial tissue from 51 OA and RA patients [63]

was used to investigate the presence of pro-inflammatory genes. For each sample, we extracted

the transcripts per million (TPM) values for the same genes investigated for RT-qPCR of human

FLS and organised data by patient ID, cell type and patient group. The 17 samples that failed or

were pending quality control were excluded. The remaining 151 samples were subsequently

plotted by dividing into two groups – OA and RA.

Statistics

Comparisons between two groups with distributed variables were performed using two-sided

Student's t-tests (paired if comparing two conditions of the same sample, unpaired otherwise) with

suitable corrections and amongst three groups using one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA)

followed by Tukey's post-hoc tests. Proportions were compared for categorical data using chi-sq

tests. Data are shown as mean ± SEM.

Results

1. TNF-FLS, but not FLS derived from CFA-induced inflamed knees of mice, have a pro-inflammatory phenotype and secrete cytokines that activate DRG neurons.

Key genes have been described that act as identifiers of cultured FLS upon isolation by enzymatic digestion of mouse joints [29], as well as for establishing their inflammatory phenotype. In this study, we performed RT-qPCR on adherent cells (passages P2-P5) originating from mouse patellae that proliferated in culture (Figure 1A, B). From P2 to P3, the expression of the macrophage marker [5,29] cluster of differentiation 68 (*Cd68*, relative to the macrophage cell line RAW 267.4) was significantly reduced, whereas the expression of FLS markers *Cdh11* and *Cd248* [5,29] remained consistent from P2 to P5 (Supplementary Figure 1A, B showing expression of FLS marker genes); the endothelial marker *Cd31* was not detected (data not shown). These results suggest that from P3, cells cultured from mouse patellae were predominantly FLS and hence subsequent studies were conducted on FLS from P3-P6.

Concurrently, to establish the pro-inflammatory phenotype of FLS, we used RT-qPCR to determine the expression of the inflammatory genes *Il-6*, *Il-1r1* and *Cox-2*, as well as the constitutively expressed gene *Cox-1*. When control FLS (P5) were stimulated with 10 ng/ml TNF-α for 48-hours, there was an upregulation of *Il-6* (fold changes: Control, 1.5 ± 0.8 vs. TNF-FLS, 135.1 ± 31.1, n = 3, p = 0.006, unpaired t-test) and *Il-1r1* (fold changes: Control, 1.1 ± 0.2 vs. TNF-FLS, 3.4 ± 1.0, n = 3, p = 0.04, unpaired t-test) expression levels, but not that of *Cox-2* (fold changes: Control, 1.0 ± 0.2 vs. TNF-FLS, 0.8 ± 0.2, n = 3, p = 0.2, unpaired t-test) or *Cox-1* (fold changes: Control, 1.0 ± 0.2 vs. TNF-FLS, 0.8 ± 0.2, n = 3, p = 0.18, unpaired t-test) (Figure 1C).

However, when FLS derived from the inflamed knee (Ipsi, knee width, pre-CFA, 3.1 ± 0.09 mm

vs. post-CFA, 4.1 ± 0.08 mm, n = 6, p = 0.0001, paired t-test, Supplementary Figure 1C showing

knee width of mice pre and post-CFA injection) of CFA injected mice were compared to those of

the matched contralateral knee (Contra), we did not find any changes in expression levels of the

genes between Contra and Ipsi FLS across P2-P5 (Figure 1C, Supplementary Figure 1C).

We next tested the media (n = 3, each) isolated from control, Contra, Ipsi and TNF-FLS against a

mouse inflammation antibody array (Figure 1D) to determine the levels of different secreted pro-

inflammatory mediators. This demonstrated that when compared to control FLS media, TNF-FLS

media showed presence of regulated on activation, normal T-cell expressed and secreted

(RANTES) and granulocyte-macrophage colony stimulating factor (GM-CSF). Additionally,

TNF-FLS contained higher levels of IL-6 ($p < 0.0001$), keratinocyte chemoattractant (KC, mouse

homolog of IL-8, $p < 0.0001$), lipopolysaccharide induced chemokine (LIX, $p < 0.0001$), stromal

cell derived factor 1 (SDF-1, $p < 0.0001$), fractalkine ($p < 0.0001$), monocyte chemoattractant

protein 1 (MCP-1, $p < 0.0001$) and macrophage inhibitory protein 1γ (MIP-1γ, p = 0.002) and

lower levels of macrophage colony stimulating factor (MCSF, p = 0.003) compared to control FLS

media (multiple t-tests with Holm-Sidak corrections, Figure 1Dii). TNF-α was not detected in

TNF-FLS media as previously shown in TNF-α stimulated airway epithelial cells [22]. Mirroring

the absence of pro-inflammatory gene upregulation in Ipsi vs. Contra FLS, the spot intensity values

of inflammatory cytokines between Ipsi and Contra FLS were similar (multiple t-tests with Holm-

Sidak corrections, graph not shown), suggesting similar levels of secreted cytokines. Finally, when

spot intensities were normalized to control FLS, TNF-FLS media showed increased levels of

secreted IL-6 ($p < 0.0001$, ANOVA followed by Tukey's multiple comparison test) and KC (p =

0.001, ANOVA followed by Tukey's multiple comparison test) compared to Ipsi and Contra FLS

(Figure 1Diii).

MIP-1γ was elevated in both Ipsi and Contra FLS when compared to control and TNF-FLS (Figure

1Diii), perhaps indicating its role in acute, systemic inflammatory pathways. MIP-1γ has been

described as having a role in hyperalgesia induced by diabetic neuropathy [48] and OA-related

pain [19]. We find that MIP-1γ directly activates mouse DRG neurons by producing a dose-

dependent Ca^{2+} influx (Supplementary Figure 1D showing intracellular Ca^{2+} mobilization in DRG

neurons upon MIP-1γ application), which thus might be a potential mechanism for the *in vivo*

effects described above. However, because MIP-1γ does not have a human homolog (NCBI gene

database entry #20308), and thus has limited clinical potential, we did not explore this further.

Taken together, our data suggest that TNF-α stimulation of FLS upregulates expression of

canonical inflammatory markers, whereas the knee inflammation observed 24-hours after intra-

articular CFA injection does not correlate with a sustained pro-inflammatory phenotype of FLS

isolated from patellae of CFA mice. We also identify other soluble mediators secreted by TNF-

FLS that might be involved in FLS-DRG neuron communication. Therefore, given the pro-

inflammatory phenotype of TNF-FLS (and the lack of such phenotype in the FLS expanded from

CFA-injected knees), we focused solely on the TNF-FLS for the rest of the study.

2. TNF-α stimulated human FLS from OA and RA patients show increased expression

of multiple pro-inflammatory genes that were upregulated in mouse TNF-FLS.

In order to understand whether the identified pro-inflammatory mediators from mouse FLS are

important in human arthritis, we examined gene expression in human FLS. In arthritis, activated

FLS contribute to pathogenesis by damaging synovial membranes and secreting inflammatory

cytokines which in turn recruit immune cells [31,42,43]. In line with these reports, data re-plotted

from a recently published single-cell RNA-seq dataset of FLS from 51 OA and RA patients [63]

confirms detectable levels of pro-inflammatory genes *IL-6, KC, MCP-1, IL-8, IL1-R1, SDF-1* and

Fractalkine (Figure 2A), which matches our mouse data in Figure 1.

Furthermore, to establish whether a similar pro-inflammatory phenotype can be observed in TNF-

α treated human FLS as in mouse FLS, we used RT-qPCR. When human FLS (n = 4) were

stimulated with 10 ng/ml TNF-α for 24-hours, there was increased expression of *IL-6* (p = 0.02),

KC (p = 0.001), *LIX* (p = 0.009), *MCP-1* (p = 0.0004) and *IL-8* (p = 0.005) compared to

unstimulated controls (unpaired t-test) (Figure 2B). However, expression *SDF-1* (p = 0.8), *IL-1R1*

(p = 0.3) and *Fractalkine* (p = 0.3) was not significantly different in the TNF group compared to

control (unpaired t-test), although for the latter two genes, FLS from some patients showed

considerable increase after TNF-α stimulation (Figure 2B).

The data presented here demonstrate the translational potential of our data derived from mouse

FLS (Figure 1), as well as supporting a previous study that showed increased cytokine production

from TNF-α stimulated human FLS from both normal and RA donors compared to unstimulated

ones [31].

3. TNF-FLS have reduced sensitivity to mild acidosis, but enhanced sensitivity to more

411   acidic pH.

During arthritis, FLS are located in an environment with abundant algogens that have been shown

to signal through the modulation of TRP channels [9] and there is also mixed evidence in animals

and humans for development of tissue acidosis [3,24,61]. Therefore, we tested the sensitivity of

mouse knee-derived FLS to a range of acidic pH stimuli, as well as the prototypic TRP channel

agonists, capsaicin (TRPV1), cinnamaldehyde (TRPA1) and menthol (TRPM8) using Ca^{2+}

imaging. Confirming results from other studies on acid sensing in FLS [26], we found that both

control and TNF-FLS respond to a range of pH solutions (pH 4.0 – 7.0) with an increase in

intracellular $[Ca^{2+}]$ (Figure 3A, B). An increased percentage of control FLS (24.1 %) respond to

pH 7.0 compared to TNF-FLS (11.0 %, p = 0.0004, chi-sq test), but in the more acidic range an

increased percentage of TNF-FLS responded to acid than did control FLS, i.e. pH 6.0 (control, 7.2

% vs. TNF-FLS, 26.3 %, p < 0.0001, chi-sq test) and pH 5.0 (control, 14.4 % vs. TNF-FLS, 30.5

%, p < 0.0001 , chi-sq test). At the very acidic pH of 4.0, ~ 40% (p = 0.4, chi-sq test) of FLS

responded in both groups possibly due to ceiling effect. Although the proportion of responding

neurons varied, the magnitude of peak normalized response was similar across the pH range in

control (pH 7.0: 0.4 ± 0.04 F/Fmax (n = 50), pH 6.0: 0.4 ± 0.08 F/Fmax (n = 27), pH 5.0: 0.3 ±

0.03 F/Fmax (n = 46), pH 4.0: 0.3 ± 0.02 F/Fmax (n = 129)) and TNF-FLS (pH 7.0: 0.3 ± 0.06

F/Fmax (n = 21), pH 6.0: 0.4 ± 0.03 F/Fmax (n = 50), pH 5.0: 0.3 ± 0.02 F/Fmax (n = 58), pH 4.0:

0.3 ± 0.02 F/Fmax (n = 72), Figure 3Bii).

To identify the proton sensors expressed by FLS that likely mediate the responses measured, we

conducted RT-PCR of control and TNF-FLS to determine expression of known proton-sensing G

protein-coupled receptors (GPCRs), ASICs and TRPV1. Our data show that FLS express the

proton sensing GPCRs – *Gpr4*, *Gpr65*, *Gpr68* and *Gpr132*, as well as *Asic1*, Asic*3* and *Trpv1*

(Figure 3Ci). When relative expression was assessed compared to the housekeeping gene *18S*,

Gpr132 was found to be increased (p = 0.005, Figure 3Cii) in TNF-FLS implicating it as a potential

contributor to the enhanced proportion of acid responders seen in TNF-FLS (Figure 3Bi). The pro-

inflammatory phenotype of TNF-FLS was confirmed by the increased *Il-6* band intensity (p <

0.0001), as observed previously using qPCR (multiple t-tests with Holm-Sidak corrections, Figure

3Cii).

We also tested FLS sensitivity to capsaicin (control, 3/201, TNF-FLS, 13/252), cinnamaldehyde

(control, 1/201, TNF-FLS, 11/252) and menthol (control, 0/201, TNF-FLS, 1/194) to find that only

a few cells responded to each compound (data not shown). This led us to conclude that there are

very few mouse primary FLS with functional TRPV1 (corroborated by the observation of low

Trpv1 gene expression, Figure 3C), TRPA1 or TRPM8 ion channels and hence we did not explore

this further.

4. TNF-FLS increase knee-innervating DRG neuron excitability in co-culture.

Changes in primary sensory neuron excitability underlie peripheral sensitization which drives

arthritis-related pain [56]. Non-neuronal cells like FLS, which are in close proximity with distal

terminals of knee neurons, can play instrumental roles in modulating sensory neuron excitability

by direct cell contact and/or secretion of pro-inflammatory cytokines. To determine neuron/FLS

communication in health and inflammation we compared the DRG neuronal excitability of four

groups: 1) knee neuron mono-culture, 2) knee neurons co-cultured with control FLS (Figure 4A,

B), 3) knee neurons with FLS that have been exposed to TNF media for 24-hour followed by DRG

culture media for 24-hours and 4) knee neurons with conditioned media from FLS that have been exposed to TNF media for 48-hours to understand the role of soluble mediators in peripheral sensitization. In current-clamp mode, we observed many neurons spontaneously firing AP in groups 3 and 4. In order to statistically compare the proportions, we converted our four group data into binary categories: neuron mono-culture and neuron/control FLS co-culture were assigned to the class "healthy", and neuron/TNF-FLS and neuron/TNF-FLS media were assigned to the class "inflamed". 19.5% of inflamed neurons (neuron/TNF-FLS, 5/21; neuron/TNF-FLS media, 3/19) fired spontaneous AP compared to 2.7% (neuron mono-culture, 0/19; neuron/control FLS, 1/18) of healthy neurons ($p = 0.02$, chi-sq test) suggesting that there is a general increase in excitability of knee neurons when exposed to an FLS-mediated inflammatory environment (Figure 4C, D).

Upon measuring the AP properties (Figure 4D inset) we found that the resting membrane potential (RMP) was more depolarized in the neuron/TNF-FLS media group compared to both neuronal mono-culture ($p = 0.0004$) and neuron/control FLS co-culture ($p = 0.012$), which highlights that secreted pro-inflammatory factors from TNF-FLS likely act upon knee neurons to increase their excitability (ANOVA followed by Tukey's post hoc comparison, Figure 4Ei). The other measured properties were unchanged among the four groups (ANOVA followed by Tukey's post hoc comparison, Table 1, Figure 4Eii-iv).

5. TNF-FLS increase TRPV1 function and decrease TRPA1/TRPM8 function of DRG neurons in co-culture.

DRG neurons in co-culture with inflamed FLS derived from AIA rats reportedly have increased expression of TRPV1 [4]. Here we sought to investigate whether FLS can modulate knee neuron

responses to TRP channel agonists using whole-cell patch-clamp recordings. Knee neurons in

mono-culture and when co-cultured with control FLS displayed very similar responses, i.e. a mean

capsaicin peak current density response of 3.5 ± 1.0 pA/pF (n = 7) and 3.2 ± 0.9 pA/pF (n = 7)

respectively. By contrast, knee neurons in neuron/TNF-FLS co-culture showed a trend for larger

magnitude of capsaicin responses (27.7 ± 9.3 pA/pF, n = 8), and those cultured with TNF-FLS

media had a capsaicin response of 65.8 ± 25.7 pA/pF (n = 7) which was significantly larger in

magnitude than neuronal mono-culture (p = 0.02) and neuron/control FLS co-culture (p = 0.02)

(ANOVA followed by Tukey's post-hoc comparison, Figure 5Ai,ii). However, no difference was

observed between the percentage of capsaicin responders in healthy (40.5%) vs. inflamed groups

(37.5%, p = 0.8, chi-sq test, Figure 5Aiii), suggesting that although TRPV1 channel function is

sensitized in TRPV1-expressing neurons, TNF-FLS exposure does not induce TRPV1 expression

in neurons lacking any basal expression.

With regards to menthol (mono-culture, 2.4 ± 1.2 pA/pF, n = 7; neuron/healthy FLS, 4.8 ± 2.1

pA/pF, n = 6; neuron/TNF-FLS, 1.4 ± 1.2 pA/pF, n = 2; neuron/TNF-FLS conditioned media, 4.0

± 1.9 pA/pF, n = 4; Figure 5Bi) and cinnamaldehyde (mono-culture, 1.9 ± 0.7 pA/pF, n = 10;

neuron/healthy FLS, 2.8 ± 1.1 pA/pF, n = 4; neuron/TNF-FLS, 0.6 ± 0.3 pA/pF, n = 3,

neuron/TNF-FLS conditioned media, 2.3 ± 1.5 pA/pF, n = 3; Figure 5Ci) responses, all four groups

showed similar mean peak current density values (Figure 5Bii, Cii). However, in response to both

the TRPA1 and TRPM8 agonists, the percentage of responding neurons was significantly less in

the inflamed group compared to healthy (menthol: healthy vs. inflamed, 37.8% vs. 15%, p = 0.02,

chi-sq test; cinnamaldehyde: healthy vs. inflamed, 43.2% vs. 15%, p = 0.006, chi-sq test, Figure

5Biii, Ciii). Taken together our data suggest that "inflamed" FLS can alter TRP channel agonist

response of knee neurons in co-culture.

Discussion

FLS can respond to pro-inflammatory environments and then themselves become effectors for

driving disease pathology, and hence are called "passive responders and imprinted aggressors" [9].

In support of their activated phenotype, here we demonstrate that FLS obtained from human OA

and RA patients and from cell-outgrowth of mouse patella can respond to TNF-α stimulation to

increase secretion and expression of several pro-inflammatory mediators. We used these findings

to establish a co-culture system, which showed that murine FLS and knee neurons can interact,

specifically, factors secreted by TNF-FLS increase knee neuron excitability and the magnitude of

the response to capsaicin, whereas the proportions of cinnamaldehyde and menthol responding

neurons are diminished. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first report to demonstrate FLS-

mediated changes in neuronal excitability in co-culture and hence directly demonstrate how FLS

can regulate articular neurons and in turn arthritis-related pain.

FLS from mouse are generally cultured by enzymatically digesting and combining excised joints

of fore- and hind-limbs [26,29,49,54], which assumes similarity of FLS derived from all joints.

However, a genome-wide study on DNA-methylation has shown that important differences exist

between knee and hip FLS, including of genes involved in IL-6 signaling [1]. By using a cell-

outgrowth method to culture mouse FLS, as previously described in humans [33] and rats [4], we

have avoided the biological ambiguity introduced by joint-to-joint variability. Using these FLS,

we investigated the expression of inflammatory genes *Il-6*, *Il-1r1* and *Cox-2*, all of which have

been linked to the inflammatory phenotype of FLS. In brief: stimulating human-derived FLS with

IL-1β increases *Cox-2* and *Il-6* expression [33]; increased *Il-6* expression is seen in FLS derived

from K/BxN mice and following 24-hour stimulation of healthy mouse FLS with TNF-α [29].

Lastly, supernatants from cultured FLS derived from rats 3-days into AIA model show increased

IL-6 and PGE$_2$ [4]. Here we observed that neither the expression level of *Il-6*, *Il-1r1, Cox-2*, nor

the level of secreted cytokines was upregulated in FLS derived from CFA-injected knee (our local

ethics review body did not permit investigation of > 24-hours following CFA injection). This is

possibly because the model used here is too brief to influence FLS gene expression. Indeed,

evidence to support this is that FLS derived from rats with longer (3-28 days) AIA-induced knee

inflammation did have higher PGE$_2$ and IL-6 concentrations in culture supernatants compared to

control FLS [4]. Alternatively, the affected area of the synovium might be too small for sufficient

proliferation of "inflamed" FLS and thus they are lost over time in culture.

TNF-α is a cytokine that is locally upregulated within 3-hours of intra-plantar CFA injection in

mice [60]. It is also present in high concentrations in the synovial fluid [35,51] and tissue of OA

and RA patients [45,58]; along with anti-TNF-α agents being a leading treatment of RA [57].

Indeed, we show that TNF-α stimulated FLS display increased expression of *Il-6* and *Il-1r1*

mRNA, with a concomitant increase in secretion of many pro-inflammatory cytokines, including

IL-6 - a finding reported previously in human FLS [31] and replicated in this study. Although this

observation is consistent with FLS being effectors of inflammatory arthritis, the functional

repercussions of this pro-inflammatory phenotype are not well-explored and here we investigate

two such possibilities: change in FLS functionality after induction of inflammation and "inflamed"

FLS-induced functional changes in nerves supplying the knee joint to drive pain.

Since arthritic FLS reside in a pro-inflammatory environment which is often [3] (but not always

[61]) acidic, it is perhaps unsurprising that they express proton sensors [16,34]. Comparing the

control and TNF-FLS response to acidic stimuli, we found a decreased percentage of TNF-FLS

responding to pH 7.0, but in the pH 6.0-5.0 range the percentage of TNF-FLS responding to acidic

stimulation increased. Multiple proton-sensors with sensitivity to varied pH range might underlie

the apparent incongruity of TNF-FLS acid sensitivity in mild and strongly acidic environment

[46]. For example, increased expression of proton sensors programmed to detect highly acidic

environments can come at the cost of sensors active at mildly acidic range. This concept has been

alluded to previously with mouse primary FLS showing increased *Asic3*, but decreased *Asic1*,

expression after IL-1β stimulation [26]. The present study shows that ASIC1 and 3 may underlie

acid sensitivity in FLS, as has been shown previously [26,54] and here we also show that multiple

proton sensing GPCRs are expressed in FLS. Furthermore, TRPV1 is activated at pH below 6,

which can contribute to the enhanced acid response of TNF-FLS in that range.

In order to understand the effector role of FLS in driving nociception through peripheral

sensitization, we set up a co-culture system combining FLS and knee neurons. Studying co-culture

of rat FLS and DRG neurons, von Banchet *et al* showed using immunohistochemistry that

bradykinin 2 receptor labelling (but not that of neurokinin 1 or TRPV1) was increased when DRG

neurons were cultured with healthy rat FLS [4], i.e. co-culture of DRG neurons with FLS can alter

expression of genes associated with nociception. Therefore, we first verified that knee neurons in

co-culture with control FLS do not show dysregulation of excitability or TRP agonist response.

Then we asked whether TNF-FLS modulate knee neuron function and found using whole-cell

patch clamp that 23% and 16% of knee neurons in neuron/TNF-FLS co-culture and neuron/TNF-

FLS media ("inflamed" conditions) respectively evoked spontaneous AP compared to 6% in

neuron/control FLS and 0% in neuron mono-culture ("healthy" conditions). This suggests that

TNF-FLS increase excitability of knee neurons and thus contribute to arthritic pain.

von Banchet *et al* [4] also showed that compared to mono-culture, FLS derived from acute and

chronic AIA rats induced an increase in TRPV1 protein expression in DRG neurons, which can

also lead to sensitization and hence arthritic pain. However, we did not observe an increase in the

proportion of neurons responding to capsaicin between healthy and inflamed conditions, which

might reflect a species difference and/or difference in knee-specific neuronal population (unlike

in this study, von Banchet *et al* did not discriminate between knee-innervating neurons and non-

knee innervating neurons); however, we did observe that capsaicin responsive neurons produced

larger magnitude responses when incubated with TNF-FLS medium (see below). We also observed

that cinnamaldehyde- and menthol-evoked responses were decreased in the inflamed condition,

suggesting functional downregulation of TRPA1 and TRPM8, which might compensate for

TRPV1 sensitization with regard to overall neuron excitability. Functional downregulation of

TRPA1 might be explained through desensitization via increased TRPV1 function (see below) [2]

or via an increase in intracellular $[Ca^{2+}]$ (due to increased excitability in the inflamed condition)

[59]. The latter reason can also be applied to explain decrease of menthol-evoked responses [50].

We also observed a tendency of a more depolarized RMP and an enhanced magnitude of capsaicin-

evoked peak current density of knee neurons in "inflamed" conditions, albeit both only reached

statistical significance in the TNF-FLS media incubated group when compared to mono-culture

and neuron/control FLS. These results suggest that soluble mediators released by FLS are key

players in modulating knee neuron excitability. We posit that because our experimental design

involved a media change 24-hours after TNF incubation of FLS (so as not to directly stimulate

neurons with residual TNF-α [18]) in the neuron/TNF-FLS co-culture condition, the accumulated

soluble mediator concentrations were lower compared to when knee neurons were incubated in

48-hours TNF-FLS conditioned media (no remaining TNF-α was measured in the media at this

point). Indeed we have recently established the role of soluble mediators present in OA synovial

fluid in increasing neuronal excitability and TRPV1 function [12]. These soluble mediators mainly

consist of cytokines/chemokines which form complex signaling pathways with neurons (reviewed

in [41,52]). In this study, we have identified several of them to be upregulated in TNF-FLS media

which have been reported to be able to directly signal to neurons: IL-6 [23], KC [10], RANTES

[44], GM-CSF [21], LIX [40], SDF-1 [44], MCP-1 [32], and MIP-1γ (present study). In the case

of IL-6, MCP-1 and GM-CSF there have also been reports of an increase in TRPV1 function

[21,23,32].

In summary, we have established a co-culture system to provide evidence for a direct

inflammation-pain axis through FLS and DRG neurons. In the future, it can be adapted to

investigate peripheral sensitization using FLS activated by other pro-inflammatory cytokines or

arthritic synovial fluid.

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The datasets supporting the conclusions of this article will be available in University of Cambridge

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 Figure Legends:

 Figure 1: Induction of inflammation in FLS derived from mouse knee.

 A) Representative picture showing exposed inside of the patella (black triangle) and the

 surrounding ligament and fat pad (white triangle) after midline resection and distal pull of the

 quadriceps muscles. Scale bar = 2 mm. B) Representative picture of FLS in culture. Scale bar =

 50 μm. C) Bars represent fold change of the genes *Il-6*, *Il-1r1*, *Cox-2* and *Cox-1* from either Contra

 (vs. Ipsi) or control (vs. TNF). Black hatched bars = control FLS, red bars = TNF-FLS, grey bar =

 Contra, white bar = Ipsi. All FLS at P5. D) Images of mouse inflammatory array membranes

 probed against FLS conditioned medium (i) which were quantified by densitometry and

 represented as bar graphs showing fold change of various cytokines between control and TNF-

 FLS (ii, multiple t-test with Holm-Sidak correction) and among Contra, Ipsi and TNF from control

 FLS media (iii, ANOVA with Tukey's post-hoc test) and spot intensity differences. Dotted

 rectangles highlight IL-6 spots (Di) and corresponding quantifications (Dii, iii). Only cytokines

 that were present in all of the compared groups are shown in graphs. * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, ***

 $p < 0.001$ and **** $p < 0.0001$. Error bars = SEM.

 Figure 2. Pro-inflammatory gene expression in FLS derived from arthritic human patients.

 A) Transcripts per million values of selected inflammatory markers extracted from RNA-Seq data

 of human FLS from RA and OA donors [63]. Results reveal detectable levels of the pro-

 inflammatory genes *IL-6*, *IL-8*, *IL-1R1*, *KC*, *MCP-1*, *SDF-1* and *Fractalkine* in FLS from both OA

 (black) and RA (blue) patients. *LIX* was considered undetectable as the mean transcript per million

 value was below the threshold of 1. B) Bar graphs showing fold change in expression levels

(determined by qPCR) of *IL-6, KC, LIX, MCP-1, IL-8, IL-1R1, SDF-1* and *Fractalkine* in control

vs. TNF-α stimulated FLS derived from human RA and OA patients (n = 4). * p <0.05, ** p <0.01,

unpaired t-test.

Figure 3: Acid sensitivity in FLS.

A) Representative Ca^{2+} imaging trace from an FLS responding to pH 5 and ionomycin. Bi) Bars

representing proportions and magnitudes (ii) of control (black hatched) and TNF-FLS (red)

responding to pH 7, 6, 5 and 4. Comparison between control vs. TNF-FLS made using chi-sq test.

Data from three biological replicates in each category. Ci) Gel image of control and TNF-FLS

expression of proton sensors along with the densitometry analysis of the relative band intensity

compared to the 18S band (ii, multiple t-test with Holm-Sidak correction). ** p < 0.01, *** p <

0.001 and **** p < 0.0001. Error bars = SEM.

Figure 4: TNF-FLS mediated increase in excitability of knee neurons.

A) Representative live-cell imaging picture showing FLS (magenta) and neuron (cyan) in co-

culture. Scale bar = 50 μm. B) Representative FB labelled knee neuron (white arrow) being

recorded using a patch pipette (triangular shadow), surrounded by FLS (yellow arrow). Scale bar

= 50 μm. C) Pie-chart showing proportion of knee neurons that fired AP without current

stimulation in healthy (neuron mono-culture + neuron/control FLS, n = 37, black) and inflamed

(neuron/TNF-FLS + neuron/TNF-FLS media, n = 41, red) condition. D) Representative knee

neuron incubated with TNF-FLS media firing spontaneous AP along with schematic diagram of

AP properties measured (inset). E) Bar graphs showing measured RMP (i), threshold (ii), AHP

peak (iii) and HPD (iv) from knee neurons in mono-culture (n = 19, white bar/black open circle),

in co-culture with control FLS (n = 18, grey bar/black dotted circle), in co-culture with TNF-FLS

(n = 20, light red bar/red dotted circle) and incubated in TNF-FLS media (n = 21, white bar/red

open circle). * p < 0.05 and *** p < 0.001, ANOVA followed by Tukey's post hoc test. Data from

4-5 female mice in each group. Error bars = SEM.

Figure 5: TNF-FLS mediated modulation of TRP agonist response in knee neurons.

Representative traces showing capsaicin (TRPV1 agonist, Ai), cinnamaldehyde (TRPA1 agonist,

Bi) and menthol- (TRPM8 agonist, Ci) evoked responses in knee neurons. Black traces obtained

from knee neuron in mono-culture, red trace obtained from knee neuron incubated in TNF-FLS

media. White boxes represent perfusion of extracellular solution. Bar graphs showing peak current

densities of capsaicin- (Aii), cinnamaldehyde- (Bii) or menthol-evoked (Cii) currents from knee

neurons in mono-culture (white bar/black open circle), in co-culture with control FLS (grey

bar/black dotted circle), in co-culture with TNF-FLS (light red bar/red dotted circle) and incubated

in TNF-FLS media (white bar/red open circle) Comparison between groups made using ANOVA

with Tukey's post hoc test. Bar graphs showing percent of knee neurons that responded to

capsaicin (Aiii), cinnamaldehyde (Biii) and menthol (Ciii) in healthy (neuron mono-culture +

neuron/control FLS) and inflamed (neuron/TNF-FLS + neuron/TNF-FLS media) condition.

Comparison made using chi-sq test. * p < 0.05. Data from 4-5 female mice in each group. Error

bars = SEM.

Figure 2

Supplementary Table 1: Genes of interest analyzed in this study.

Gene	TaqMan Assay ID/sequence	Role
Taqman Probes		
18S	Mm03928990_g1	Housekeeping
Cd68	Mm03047343_m1	Macrophage marker
Cdh11	Mm00515466_m1	Intimal synovial fibroblast marker
Cd-248	Mm00547485_s1	Synovial fibroblast marker
Cd-31	Mm01242576_m1	Endothelial marker
Il-6	Mm00446190_m1	Inflammation
Il-1r1	Mm00434237_m1	Inflammation
Cox-1	Mm04225243_g1	Constitutively active gene
Cox-2	Mm03294838_g1	Inflammation
RT-q/PCR primers		
18S	Fwd: CCGGTACAGTGAAACTGCGA Rev: ATCTAGAGTCACCAAGCCGC Product size: 230 bp	Housekeeping
Human B2M	Fwd: GAGGCTATCCAGCGTACTCCA Rev: CGGCAGGCATACTCATCTTTT Product size: 248 bp	Housekeeping
Human Ywhaz	Fwd: TGTAGGAGCCCGTAGGTCATC Rev: GTGAAGCATTGGGGATCAAGA Product size: 179 bp	Housekeeping
Gpr4	Fwd: ATTCAGCACCGCTCTTCCAT Rev: CAGGGCCAGACGTTTGATCT Product size: 236 bp	Proton-sensing GPCR
Gpr65	Fwd: CAACATCGGATCTTTATGCG Rev: ATGTAGGTGAAGAAAACGCT Product size: 195 bp	Proton-sensing GPCR

Gpr68	Fwd: TTCTCCCTCCTCCTCACCAG Rev: GGCTGAGTGGAGCTTGGTTA Product size: 234 bp	Proton-sensing GPCR
Gpr132	Fwd: CCACTACCTGCGTTTCACCT Rev: CCAGGAAGATGGTGACGACC Product size: 161 bp	Proton-sensing GPCR
Asic1	Fwd: ACACATTCAACTCGGGCCAA Rev: TGCTCCTGGCAAGACACAAA Product size: 250 bp	Acid-sensing ion channel
Asic2	Fwd: TGCTGCCTTACTTGGTGACA Rev: CGGAGTGGTTTGGCATTGTG Product size: 194 bp	Acid-sensing ion channel
Asic3	Fwd: AGAAGGAGCTCTCAAAGGCG Rev: AGGTAACAGGTACGGTGGGA Product size: 158 bp	Acid-sensing ion channel
Asic4	Fwd: AGCGGCTAACTTATCTGCCC Rev: CAAGGGAGTCCAGTGTGTGG Product size: 234 bp	Acid-sensing ion channel
Trpv1	Fwd: GACACCATTGCTCTGCTCCT Rev: GCCTGGACATCTGCTCCATT Product size: 176 bp	Heat and proton transducing ion channel
Il-6	Fwd: AGCCAGAGTCCTTCAGAGAGA Rev: TGGTCTTGGTCCTTAGCCAC Product size: 226 bp	Inflammation
Human IL-6	Fwd: ACTCACCTCTTCAGAACGAATTG Rev: CCATCTTTGGAAGGTTCAGGTTG Product size: 149 bp	Inflammation
Human IL-8	Fwd: CAGAGACAGCAGAGCACACA	Inflammation

	Rev: GGCAAAACTGCACCTTCACA Product size: 158 bp	
Human IL-1R1	Fwd: GGGATCCCATCACCCTCCA Rev: GCATTTATCAGCCTCCAGAGAAGA Product size: 186 bp	Inflammation
Human KC	Fwd: ACCGAAGTCATAGCCACACTC Rev: CTCCTTCAGGAACAGCCACC Product size: 155 bp	Inflammation
Human LIX	Fwd: ACGCAAGGAGTTCATCCCAA Rev: GTTTTCCTTGTTTCCACCGTCC Product size: 180 bp	Inflammation
Human SDF-1	Fwd: CGAAAGCCATGTTGCCAGAG Rev: CCGGGCTACAATCTGAAGGG Product size: 82 bp	Inflammation
Human Fractalkine	Fwd: ATCTGACTGTCCTGCTGGCT Rev: CTCCAAGATGATTGCGCGTTT Product size: 149 bp	Inflammation
Human MCP-1	Fwd: GAAAGTCTCTGCCGCCCTT Rev: GGGGCATTGATTGCATCTGG Product size: 90 bp	Inflammation

Fwd = Forward primer sequence, Rev = reverse primer sequence.

Supplementary Table 2: Location of cytokines detected by the mouse inflammatory antibody array membrane.

	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L
1	Pos	Pos	Neg	Neg	Blank	BLC	CD30 L	Eotaxin	Eotaxin-2	Fas Ligand	Fractalkine	GCSF
2	Pos	Pos	Neg	Neg	Blank	BLC	CD30 L	Eotaxin	Eotaxin-2	Fas Ligand	Fractalkine	GCSF
3	GM-CSF	IFNγ	IL-1α	IL-1β	IL-2	IL-7	IL-4	IL-6	IL-9	IL-10	IL-12 p40/p70	IL-12 p70
4	GM-CSF	IFNγ	IL-1α	IL-1β	IL-2	IL-7	IL-4	IL-6	IL-9	IL-10	IL-12 p40/p70	IL-12 p70
5	IL-13	IL-17	I-TAC	KC	Leptin	LIX	Lymphot actin	MCP-1	MCSF	MIG	MIP-1α	MIP-1γ
6	IL-13	IL-17	I-TAC	KC	Leptin	LIX	Lymphot actin	MCP-1	MCSF	MIG	MIP-1α	MIP-1γ
7	RANTES	SDF-1	TCA-3	TECK	TIMP-1	TIMP-2	TNF-α	sTNF RI	sTNF R II	Blank	Blank	Pos
8	RANTES	SDF-1	TCA-3	TECK	TIMP-1	TIMP-2	TNF-α	sTNF RI	sTNF R II	Blank	Blank	Pos

BLC = B lymphocyte chemoattractant, GCSF = granulocyte colony stimulating factor, GM-CSF = granulocyte-macrophage colony stimulating factor, IFN = interferon, IL= interleukin, I-TAC = interferon inducible T-cell alpha chemoattractant, KC = Keratinocyte chemoattractant (chemokine ligand 1), LIX = lipopolysaccharide induced chemokine, MCP = monocyte chemoattractant protein, MCSF = macrophage colony stimulating factor, MIG = monokine induced by gamma interferon, MIP = macrophage inflammatory protein, RANTES = Regulated on activation, normal T-cell expressed and secreted, SDF= stromal cell derived factor, TCA = T-cell activation gene, TECK = thymus expressed chemokine, TIMP = Tissue inhibitor of metalloproteinase, TNF(R) = tumor necrosis factor (receptor), Pos = Positive spot, Neg = negative spot.

Table 3: Patient information from whom FLS were derived. RA = Rheumatoid Arthritis, OA = Osteoarthritis, F = Female.

Gender	F	F	F	F
Pathology	RA	RA	RA	OA
Age	74	61	81	68
Disease duration	>7yrs	25yrs	>10yrs	Unknown
Disease Modifying Drugs	Certolizumab Prednisolone	Methotrexate Hydroxychloroquine	Methotrexate Hydroxychloroquine	Unknown

Characterization of FLS

Expression of inflammation-related genes in FLS derived from CFA-injected knee joint

Supplementary Figure 1: Characterization of mouse primary FLS and neuronal activation of FLS secreted MIP-1γ. A) Bars showing reduction in mRNA expression of the macrophage marker *Cd-68* from P2 to P3 expressed as fold change from macrophage cell line Raw 264.7 cells. ** p <0.01, ratio paired t-test. Bi) Expression of FLS marker *Cdh11* across P2-P5 in ipsi and contra FLS normalized to housekeeping gene *18S* (left) and a representative image of CDH-11 (red) and DAPI (blue) stained FLS in culture. ii) Expression of FLS marker *Cd68* across P2-P5 in ipsi and contra

FLS normalized to housekeeping gene *18S*. Ci) Mouse knee width in Contra (grey circles) and Ipsi (open circles) limbs before and after injection of CFA (n = 6, paired t-test. ii) Bars represent fold change of the genes *Il-6*, *Il-1r1*, *Cox-2* and *Cox-1* from Contra vs. Ipsi. Black bars = P2, grey bars = P3. D) Intracellular Ca^{2+} influx in lumbar DRG neurons in response to 20 s application of 100 ng/ml MIP-1γ, followed by percentage of neurons responding to 10 and 100 ng/ml of MIP-1γ and their respective peak response. > 500 neurons imaged from three male mice. *** $p < 0.001$, chi-sq test. Error bars represent SEM.