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 TNF-α stimulated FLS (TNF-

FLS). 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 leukocytes and synoviocytes in synovial joints. These non-neuronal cells are either in direct contact with, or in close proximity to, the distal endings of joint-innervating dorsal root ganglion (DRG) sensory neurons, and this interaction is thought to cause peripheral sensitization and development of inflammatory pain.

During inflammatory diseases such as rheumatoid arthritis (RA), the affected joints undergo hyperplasia due to leukocyte 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 secreting pro-inflammatory mediators themselves [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 [14,27,30,40]. "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 [7,11,37,67] 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 [11,55] and anti-IL-6 antibodies [55].

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. FLS have been hypothesized to enhance nociceptive responses [64] and alter the bio-mechanical microenvironment of DRG neurons [31]. FLS derived from chronic antigen-induced arthritic (AIA) rats were 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 when co-cultured [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].

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 [13]. We also tested primary mouse knee-derived FLS treated with TNF-α, one of the main cytokines upregulated in CFA-injected mouse tissues [65] and in inflammatory arthritis [53], and validated our results in FLS derived from 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 arthritic pain [28,51,62]. 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. This macrophage-like cell line [59] was used

to assess the level of macrophage contamination in FLS cultures.

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

controls to calculate ΔΔCt, followed by 2^(- ΔΔCt) to calculate fold change [39].

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

[48]. 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 [57] 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 for 20 s (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 3D (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-

4 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 [68]

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

326 **Results**

328   1.   TNF-FLS, but not FLS derived from CFA-induced inflamed knees of mice, have a pro-

329   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 (*Cd*68, 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, n = 3 biological replicates) 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, p = 0.006, unpaired t-test) and *Il-1r1* (fold changes:

Control, 1.1 ± 0.2 vs. TNF-FLS, 3.4 ± 1.0, 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, p = 0.2, unpaired t-test) or

Cox-1 (fold changes: Control, 1.0 ± 0.2 vs. TNF-FLS, 0.8 ± 0.2, $p = 0.18$, 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). The TNF-α concentration in

TNF-FLS media 48-hours after 10 ng/ml TNF-α stimulation was similar to the control media as

determined by the inflammatory antibody array. 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 [49] 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

391   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 [32,44,45]. 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 [68]

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 four batches of human FLS

derived from four separate patients 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 of *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 [32].

3. TNF-FLS derived from mice increase knee-innervating DRG neuron excitability in co-

413   culture.

Changes in primary sensory neuron excitability underlie peripheral sensitization which drives

arthritis-related pain [58]. 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 3A,

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 during

a 20 s recording period (mostly with an intermittent firing pattern, although neurons that fired >100

APs had a continuous firing pattern) 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).

The mean number of APs fired (within the 20 s recorded without current injection) by neurons in

the neuron/TNF-FLS and neuron/TNF-FLS media categories was 31.6 ± 18.6 and 76.0 ± 62.5

respectively, while the neuron in the neuron/control FLS group fired 18 times. This result suggests

that there is a general increase in excitability of knee neurons when exposed to an FLS-mediated

inflammatory environment (Figure 3C, D).

Upon measuring the AP properties (Figure 3D 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 3Ei). This depolarizing

trend in RMP was also observed when the data were divided into small and medium-large neurons

(Supplementary Figure 2). The other measured properties were unchanged among the four groups

(ANOVA followed by Tukey's post hoc comparison, Table 1, Figure 3Eii-iv).

4. TNF-FLS derived from mice 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 = 7/19) and 3.2 ± 0.9 pA/pF (n =

7/18) 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 = 8/21), and those cultured with

TNF-FLS media had a capsaicin response of 65.8 ± 25.7 pA/pF (n = 7/20) 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 4Ai,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 4Aiii), 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 = 7/19; neuron/healthy FLS, 4.8 ± 2.1

pA/pF, n = 6/18; neuron/TNF-FLS, 1.4 ± 1.2 pA/pF, n = 2/21; neuron/TNF-FLS conditioned

media, 4.0 ± 1.9 pA/pF, n = 4/20; Figure 4Bi) and cinnamaldehyde (mono-culture, 1.9 ± 0.7 pA/pF,

n = 10/19; neuron/healthy FLS, 2.8 ± 1.1 pA/pF, n = 4/18; neuron/TNF-FLS, 0.6 ± 0.3 pA/pF, n =

3/21, neuron/TNF-FLS conditioned media, 2.3 ± 1.5 pA/pF, n = 3/20; Figure 4Ci) responses, all

four groups showed similar mean peak current density values (Figure 4Bii, Cii). However, in

response to both the TRPA1 (cinnamaldehyde) and TRPM8 (menthol) 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 4Biii, Ciii). Taken together our data suggest that

"inflamed" FLS can alter TRP channel agonist response of knee neurons in co-culture.

Overall, our data suggest that pro-inflammatory mediators secreted from FLS are capable of

increasing excitability and TRPV1 function of knee-innervating DRG neurons. It has been

hypothesized that secretion by FLS is mediated by an increase in intracellular $[Ca^{2+}]$ [16,35] and

depolarization. Furthermore, during inflammatory 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

[3,24,66]. TRP channels and acid sensors in FLS can increase intracellular $[Ca^{2+}]$ [26,35] and

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. We found that both control and TNF-FLS responded to a

range of pH solutions (pH 4.0 – 7.0) with an increase in intracellular $[Ca^{2+}]$, with an increased

percentage of TNF-FLS responding to acid than control FLS at pH 5.0-6.0 (Supplementary figure

3). However, 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) evoked a Ca^{2+} response in only a

few cells (data not shown), leading us to conclude that very few mouse FLS have functional

TRPV1, TRPA1 and TRPM8 ion channels. RT-PCR for control and TNF-FLS revealed expression

of multiple proton-sensors and low *Trpv1* expression, further validating the Ca^{2+} imaging results

(Supplementary figure 3). Therefore, our data supports the hypothesis of Ca^{2+} dependent secretion

in FLS leading to increased knee neuron sensitization and nociception.

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 [26,29,50,56], 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 signalling [1]. By using a cell-

outgrowth method to culture mouse FLS, as previously described in humans [34] 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 [34]; 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, which is

supported by a previous study where 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 [4].

Therefore, we created a model of inflammation *in vitro* where we exposed FLS to TNF-α, a

cytokine that is locally upregulated within 3-hours of intra-plantar CFA injection in mice [65]. It

is also present in high concentrations in the synovial fluid [36,53] and tissue of OA and RA patients

[47,61]; along with anti-TNF-α agents being a leading treatment of RA [60]. 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 [32] and replicated in this study. This observation is consistent with FLS

being effectors of inflammatory arthritis, and hence we explored the functional repercussions of

this pro-inflammatory phenotype by investigating the ability of "inflamed" FLS to induce

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

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 (19.5 % in the combined "inflamed" condition) respectively evoked spontaneous AP

compared to 6% in neuron/control FLS and 0% in neuron mono-culture (2.7% in the combined

"healthy" condition). 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)

[63]. The latter reason can also be applied to explain decrease of menthol-evoked responses [52].

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. However, we did not observe a decrease in the threshold of AP firing in

the inflamed group, despite an increased proportion of these neurons firing spontaneously, thus

suggesting perhaps differential susceptibility of certain knee neuron subgroups to TNF-FLS

mediated sensitization. For example, a secreted factor may cause one neuronal subpopulation to

fire spontaneously (i.e. an AP threshold of 0 pA), but overall the average AP threshold would not

change due to other neuronal subgroups with a higher threshold not being susceptible to

modulation by that secreted factor. Taken together, our data suggest soluble mediators released by

FLS are key players in modulating knee neuron excitability, although cell contact with FLS might

also play a role in sensitization. We were unable to compare the relative contributions of cell

contact and soluble mediators to sensitization because, in this set-up TNF-FLS is always

accompanied by TNF-FLS media. 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). This decrease

in concentration of TNF-α is hypothesized to be because of FLS's inability to endogenously

secrete TNF-α and/or due to protein degradation [38]. Our data is consistent with a previous study

in FLS cells that measured TNF-α as <4 ng/ml 48-hours after stimulation with 10 ng/ml [38].

Similarly, in another non-TNF-α secreting cell line (Clara cells, from airways) 24-hours after

initial stimulation with 20 ng/ml TNF-α, the remaining concentration of TNF-α fell below the

detection level of the antibody array used [22].

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 signalling pathways with neurons (reviewed in

[43,54]). 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

[46], GM-CSF [21], LIX [42], SDF-1 [46], MCP-1 [33], 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

[21,23,33].

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 FLS-mediated peripheral sensitization using FLS obtained from chronic models of

arthritis, 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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837 Figure Legends:

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

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

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

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

842 50 µm. C) Bars represent fold change of the genes *Il-6*, *Il-1r1*, *Cox-2* and *Cox-1* from either Contra

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

851 $p < 0.001$ and **** $p < 0.0001$. Error bars = SEM.

853 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 [68]. 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 (filled circles) and OA (open circles) patients

(n = 4). * p <0.05, ** p <0.01, unpaired t-test.

Figure 3: Murine 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 4: Murine 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 4

Table 1: AP properties of knee neurons. *** represents p < 0.001 when compared to knee neuron mono-culture, $ represents p < 0.05 when compared to neuron/control FLS co-culture.

	Knee neuron mono-culture (n = 19)		Knee neuron/control FLS (n = 18)		Knee neuron/TNF-FLS (n = 21)		Knee neuron/TNF-FLS media (n = 20)	
	Mean	SEM	Mean	SEM	Mean	SEM	Mean	SEM.
RMP (mV)	-46.6	2.0	-42.8	2.9	-39.7	2.3	-32.0***/$	2.3
Threshold (pA)	447.4	71.5	319.4	56.3	245.2	49.4	315.0	70.0
Half peak duration (HPD, ms)	2.2	0.4	2.3	0.2	2.4	0.5	2.4	0.6
Afterhyperpolarization amplitude (AHP peak, mV)	13.7	2.6	19.6	2.7	16.1	2.9	21.6	3.3

Characterization of FLS

A — Cd68

B i — Cdh11

ii — Cd248

CDH11
DAPI

P2
P3
P5

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

C i — Contra   Ipsi

ii — Il-6   Il-1r1   Cox-2   Cox-1

P2
P3

MIP-1γ activation of DRG neurons

D

A

Medium - large neurons (>20 μm)

Neuron monoculture
Neuron/control FLS
Neuron/TNF-FLS
Neuron + TNF-FLS media

B **Small neurons (<20 μm)**

RMP (mV)

p = 0.05
*

RMP (mV)

p = 0.05
**

Neuron mono-culture
Neuron/control FLS
Neuron/TNF-FLS
Neuron + TNF-FLS media

Neurons

Diameter (μm)