Genetic Deletion of TrpV1 and TrpA1 Does not Alter Avoidance of or Patterns of Brainstem

Activation to Citric Acid in Mice

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ABSTRACT:

Exposure of the oral cavity to acidic solutions evokes not only a sensation of sour, but also of

sharp or tangy. Acidic substances potentially stimulate both taste buds and acid-sensitive

mucosal free nerve endings. Mice lacking taste function (P2X2/P2X3 double-KO mice) refuse

acidic solutions similarly to wildtype mice and intraoral infusion of acidic solutions in these KO

animals evokes substantial c-Fos activity within orosensory trigeminal nuclei as well as of the

nucleus of the solitary tract (nTS) (Stratford et. al 2017). This residual acid-evoked, non-taste

activity includes areas that receive inputs from trigeminal and glossopharyngeal peptidergic

(CGRP-containing) nerve fibers that express TrpA1 and TrpV1 both of which are activated by

low pH. We compared avoidance responses in wildtype (WT) and TrpA1/V1 double KO

(TRPA1/V1$^{Dbl-/-}$) mice in brief-access behavioral assay (lickometer) to 1, 3, 10, 30 mM citric

acid, along with 100 μM SC45647 and H_2O. Both WT and TRPA1/V1$^{Dbl-/-}$ show similar

avoidance, including to higher concentrations of citric acid (10 and 30 mM; pH 2.62 and pH 2.36

respectively), indicating that neither TrpA1 nor TrpV1 is necessary for the acid avoidance

behavior in animals with an intact taste system. Similarly, induction of c-Fos in the nTS and

dorsomedial spinal trigeminal nucleus was similar in the WT and TRPA1/V1$^{Dbl-/-}$ animals.

Taken together these results suggest non-TrpV1 and non-TrpA1 receptors underlie the residual

responses to acids in mice lacking taste function.

Keywords: taste bud, trigeminal, solitary nucleus, sour, c-fos, irritation

INTRODUCTION

When acidic solutions (e.g. lemon juice) are taken into the mouth, we describe the resulting perception as "sour" and consider it to be an aversive basic taste. However, the sensations arising from acidic substances in the oral cavity are a compound sensation of sour (a taste originating from taste buds) and direct activation of acid-sensitive general mucosal afferents of the oropharynx including the trigeminal, glossopharyngeal and superior laryngeal nerves. Indeed, a dictionary definition of sour (thefreedictionary.com) includes descriptors such 'sharp,' 'tart', or 'tangy' which are not taste modalities, but rather chemesthetic ones corresponding to activation of acid-sensitive mucosal nerves likely including polymodal nociceptors. Thus, aversion to acidic solutions might be due to activation of these nociceptors rather than of the taste system alone.

In mice lacking a functional taste system (P2X2/3-dbl-KO mice), the chorda tympani nerve, which is a pure taste nerve, shows no responses to any tastants including acids (Finger, Danilova et al. 2005). Consistent with this, these mice show no preference for sweeteners or avoidance of bitter substances in brief-access taste tests. Despite the apparent lack of taste responses to acids, the P2X2/3-dbl-KO mice do exhibit normal avoidance of citric acid in similar brief access tests (Hallock, Tatangelo et al. 2009). This avoidance may be mediated not by taste, which is non-functional in these mice, but by acid-responsive fibers in the trigeminal, glossopharyngeal or laryngeal nerves which do show residual low level activity in the P2X2/3-dbl-KO mice (Ohkuri, Horio et al. 2012).

Polymodal nociceptors respond to acidification as well as other potentially painful stimuli (Bessou and Perl 1969). Many small caliber polymodal nociceptors that innervate the oral cavity (Kichko, Neuhuber et al. 2018, Wu, Arris et al. 2018) express one or both of the pH-sensitive

transient receptor potential (Trp) channels, TrpA1 (Wang, Chang et al. 2011) and TrpV1

(Tominaga, Caterina et al. 1998). TrpA1 has been implicated especially in responsiveness to

weak acids capable of penetrating cell membranes to produce intracellular acidification (Wang,

Chang et al. 2011). TrpV1 is implicated in responses of the glossopharyngeal and vagus nerves

to acidification of the oral and pharyngeal epithelium (Arai, Ohkuri et al. 2010). Gating of either

of these channels by acids can directly activate the nociceptive fiber resulting in a noxious

sensation suitable for driving avoidance behavior. Ablation of the ganglion cells expressing

TrpV1 in mice lacking sour taste receptors does result in loss of acid-avoidance behavior (Zhang,

Jin et al. 2019) but it is not clear whether this is due to loss of TrpV1 itself or other ion-sensing

mechanisms of these neurons. Peptidergic polymodal nociceptor fibers, most of which express

one or both of TrpV1 and TrpA1 (Bae, Oh et al. 2004, Nguyen, Wu et al. 2017, Kim, Kim et al.

2018), terminate centrally in both the lateral portion of the nuc. solitary tract (nTS) as well as in

adjacent trigeminal brainstem nuclei including the dorsomedial trigeminal nucleus (DMSp5)

(Corson, Aldridge et al. 2012, Stratford, Thompson et al. 2017). We tested whether genetic

deletion of both TrpA1 and TrpV1 affected either acid-induced avoidance behaviors or the

pattern of neuronal activation in the nTS or adjacent DMSp5.

Materials and Methods

Animals

TrpA1V1-double KO mice, on a C57BL6 background (TRPA1/V1^Dbl-/-) were a generous

gifts from Diana Bautista, University of California Berkeley (Gerhold and Bautista 2008). In

these mice, deletion of TrpA1 had been accomplished by elimination of residues 901–951

including most of exon 23 – a region encoding the putative pore and part of the sixth

transmembrane domain (Bautista, Jordt et al. 2006). The VR1 gene was disrupted (Caterina,

Leffler et al. 2000) by deleting part of the fifth and all of the sixth putative transmembrane

domains, together with the intervening pore-loop region. C57BL6/J mice were purchased from

The Jackson Laboratory (Bar Harbor, ME). For brief access lickometer behavioral assays, 4-6

months old male TRPA1/V1^Dbl-/- mice (n=7) and 10 month old male C57BL6/J mice (n=3) were

used. For immunohistochemical staining, we used both male and female mice: TRPA1/V1^Dbl-/-

(2 to 8 mo, *n*=10); C57BL6/J mice (4 to 7 mo, n=8). In an addition to the C57 cases, we utilized

mice of the line B6.Cg-Tg(Fos-tTA,Fos-EGFP*)1Mmay/J which carry 2 transgenes associated

with c-Fos: cfos-tTA and cfos-shEGFP. In these mice, on a C57BL6/J background, the randomly

inserted transgenes utilize the c-Fos promotor to drive expression of respectively tTA and a

short-lived (two-hour half-life) GFP. We did not find close correlation between GFP expression

and c-Fos immunostaining and so the GFP results were ignored in our analysis. Further, the c-

Fos immunostaining counts from these animals were entirely consistent with those obtained from

the wildtype C57BL6/J mice and so were included in those results.

All animal procedures were performed in accordance with NIH guidelines and were approved by

the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee at the University of Colorado School of

Medicine.

Brief access preference tests

Davis Rig Lickometers (MS-160; Dilog Instruments and Systems) were used for training

and brief-access testing of mice. The animals underwent a 4-day water training before acid

testing. Mice were placed on water deprivation 20-23 hours before the first day of training or

acid testing. No extra water was given after the training and testing days. On the first day of the

4-day training, water-deprived animals were allowed access to a single water spout for a 30-min

period. In the following three days of water training, 2-4 bottles of water were given in random

sequences for 15 min. Mice had 5 seconds to lick at each spout after their first lick before the

door closed and the bottle was switched to the next position with an inter-trial interval of 7.5 s.

The mice were considered well-trained if they lick more than 30 times consistently during each

trial for the first 15 trials.

For the acid testing days, six bottles of tastants including 4 concentrations of acetic or

citric acid (1 mM, 3 mM, 10 mM and 30 mM), 1 concentration of artificial sweetener SC45647

(100 μM) and H_2O were presented in a testing block with a set up similar to the training session.

Testing periods lasted for 15 min, with the opportunity for the mice to sample from the 6

solutions a total of 30 times. Licks were measured using InstaCal software. Each block of 6

tastant trials featured each solution in random order. Only data from completed blocks were used

in the calculation of preference. Preference was calculated by averaging the licks per tastant

block of each solution relative to those for water (i.e., a 'lick ratio'). The same mice that were

assessed for citric acid preference were then tested for acetic acid preference again with the same

paradigm. The solutions used in acetic acid testing were as follows: 100µM SC45647, H_2O, 1, 3,

10 and 30mM acetic acid. Testing for each series of tastants was repeated at least twice. Because

there was no statistically significant difference in licking across each testing day for each mouse

[$F_{(1,2)} = 0.42$, $p = 0.66$], the number of licks for each tastant were averages across these testing

days for each mouse.

Citric acid stimulation for c-Fos via intraoral cannula

Both bilateral intraoral cannulae implantation and stimulation methods were adopted

from (Stratford and Thompson 2016). Briefly, mice were anesthetized with an intramuscular

injection of a combination of medetomidine hydrochloride (Domitor; 0.4 mg/kg; Pfizer) and

ketamine hydrochloride (40 mg/kg; Bioniche Pharma). Intraoral cannulae were inserted via a

midline incision immediately caudal to the pinnae. Then a sterile 2-3 cm stainless steel needle

(19 gauge; Hamilton) with a flared end polyethylene tube (50 gauge; Becton Dickinson) was

inserted from behind the pinna and guided subcutaneously into the oral cavity, lateral to the first

maxillary molar. The needle was then withdrawn, leaving the polyethylene cannula and washer

in place in the rear of the oral cavity. These mice were given 4 days for recovery prior to

training.

For training and testing, liquids were delivered into intraoral cannula via a 5-cc syringe

connected to a syringe pump (Model R99-E, Razel Scientific Instruments). To train the mice for

the acclimation of liquid stimulation through the cannulae, they were water deprived for 23 hour

/ day, and given 3 ml of deionized water through one of the two intraoral cannulae over the

course of 30 min. We trained all the mice with deionized water for 2 days followed by

stimulation with either deionized water (n=4 [all M] for C57BL6/J; n=5 [2 F, 3 M] for

TRPA1/V1$^{Dbl-/-}$) or 30 mM citric acid (n=4 [1 F, 3 M] for C57BL6/J; n=5 [1F, 4M] for

TRPA1/V1$^{Dbl-/-}$). Animals exposed to the stimulus were left undisturbed for an additional 45 min

prior to sacrifice.

c-Fos immunohistochemistry

Seventy-five minutes after onset of taste stimulation through cannula, animals were

deeply anesthetized with Fatal-Plus® (50 mg/kg intraperitoneally; MWI), and then perfused

transcardially with saline followed by 4% paraformaldehyde (PFA) in 0.1 M pH 7.2 phosphate

buffer (PB). The brains were post fixed for 3 hours at room temperature, and then cryoprotected

overnight in 20% sucrose in PB at 4 °C. After cryoprotection, brainstems were cut and embedded

in OCT, frozen and sectioned at 40 μm using a cryostat. Free-floating sections were collected in

PBS.

For immunostaining, sections were washed in PBS 3 times and then processed for antigen

retrieval in sodium citrate (pH 6) at 85 °C for 10 min. After tissues cooled, non-specific protein

binding was blocked in a medium consisting of 2% normal donkey serum (Jackson

ImmunoResearch) in antibody medium (AB medium: 0.3% TritonX100, 0.15 M NaCl, and 1%

BSA in PB) for 1 hour at room temperature.

We utilized Mouse c-Fos antibody (1:1000, PhosphoSolutions; Cat#: 309-cFos; RRID

RRID:AB_2632380; Lot#: GS117P) and Rabbit P2X2 antibody (1:1000, Alomone Labs;

Cat#:APR003; RRID AB_2040054; Lot# APR003AN1002). These antibodies were diluted in

AB medium accordingly and were used to incubate the sections for 4 days at 4 °C. After 3 10-

min washes in PBS, sections were transferred to secondary antibody cocktail (Alexa Fluor 568

donkey anti mouse, 1:500; Alexa Fluor 488 donkey anti rabbit, 1:500; NeuroTrace Nissl

640/660, 1:500; all from Life Technologies) for 2-hour incubation at room temperature.

Following another 3 10-min washes in PBS, free-floating tissue sections were mounted onto

Microscope Slides (Tanner scientific, #TNR WHT90AD), and then coverslipped using

Fuoromount-G (Southern Biotech).

According to the manufacturer's data sheet, the PhosphoSolutions Mouse c-Fos antibody

shows a broad band of reactivity in Western blots of HeLa cells centered at 50kDa. We tested

whether this antibody stains similarly in fixed mouse brain tissues by comparing

immunoreactivity of this antibody to the one we have utilized previously: we allowed a wildtype

mouse to drink 150mM MSG for 30min and perfused the mouse with 4% buffered

paraformaldehyde after an additional 45 mins. The olfactory bulb & brainstem were removed,

cryoprotected in 20% sucrose and frozen free-floating sections were cut at 40um. Representative

sections were incubated in sodium citrate buffer pH6 at 85 °C for 10min. After cooling to RT for

20min, the sections were rinsed 3 X 5min in PBS, then incubated with 2%NDS+AB media for

1hr at RT. The free-floating sections then were incubated with a mixture of primary antibodies:

rabbit a-cFos (lot.D00148958) 1:500 / mouse a-cFos (lot. GS418y) 1:1000 for 4 nights at 4 °C.

After 3 X 10min rinses in PBS, sections were incubated with a mixture of secondary antibodies:

A488 donkey-a-rabbit 1:500/ A568 donkey-a-mouse 1:500/ Nissl 1:500 for 2hrs at RT. The

sections then were rinsed in PBS followed by 0.05M PB prior to coverslipping. The distribution

of labeled cells within and around the nTS was similar to that observed in single label cases and

nearly all cells were labeled by both antibodies. To quantitatively analyze the degree of co-

localization, we counted cells labeled by one or both antibodies in the olfactory bulb where the

density of labeled cells permits quantitative assessment. In randomly selected fields through the

granule cells layer of 3 sections, we counted the number of single and double-label cells. Of 153

labeled cells, 149 were double-labeled; 4 were labeled by only the PhosphoSolutions antiserum

and none were labeled only by the rabbit antibody. We conclude that the 2 antibodies label

nearly identical populations and that results from the PhosphoSolutions antibody should be

comparable to those obtained previously with the rabbit antibody.

c-Fos activity determination

Brainstem sections were observed under an Olympus BX41microscope. Representative

levels (r1, r2, r3, r4, i1, i2) of the nucleus of the solitary tract (nTS) were decided under a 10X

magnification objective according to Stratford et al. (Stratford, Thompson et al. 2017) and

photographed at 20X magnification using CellSense software with a XM10 camera. Boundaries

of the nTS were drawn using P2X2 and Nissl staining as reference and according to Stratford et

al. 2017 in ImageJ. Boundaries of the DMSp5 were not distinct based on the images but the

approximate boundaries were drawn using nTS boundaries and other brainstem nuclei as

reference (Corson, Aldridge et al. 2012). The DMSp5 was taken as the area between the lateral

edge of nTS and the spinal trigeminal nucleus.

The area of nTS was further divided into 6 parts following the system described in

Stratford et al (Stratford and Finger 2011) using a horizontal line dividing the area into dorsal

and ventral tiers and two vertical lines dividing the medial-lateral extent into thirds. The six parts

of nTS were named DM, DI, DL, VM, VI, VL, and the cFos signals in these areas as well as

DMSp5 were counted using ImageJ Cell counter plugin. The identity, stimulus and genotype of

all cases were blinded to the person performing the cell counts.

Statistical Analysis

Behavioral data are presented as group means with individual data points indicated.

Immunohistochemical data are presented as group means ± SEM. Data were analyzed using

appropriate two- and three-way analysis of variance (ANOVA)s (Statistica; StatSoft, Tulsa, OK).

Tukey's honest significant difference tests were used to assess statistically significant ($p < 0.05$)

main effects or interactions (see Results for details).

RESULTS

Behavioral Assessment

The overall preference curves for both WT and TRPA1/V1$^{Dbl-/-}$ animals appeared nearly

identical with significant aversion at 3mM but not significant aversion at 1mM concentration of

citric acid (Fig. 1). For the acetic acid experiments, behavioral preferences were statistically

different across different acetic acid concentrations, $[F(5,10) = 26.82, p < 0.001]$. In particular,

the preference for 10 mM and 30 mM acetic acid were significantly lower than the preferences

for water, 1 mM and 3 mM acetic acid (all p's < 0.05). Also, the preference for 100µM SC45647

was significantly higher than the preference for all other tastants (all p's < 0.05). Moreover,

overall, there was no statistical differences in the behavioral preference for the acetic acid

concentrations tested between WT and TrpA1/V1$^{Dbl-/-}$ animals, $F(5,50) = 1.75, p = 0.14$. For

citric acid experiments, behavioral preferences were statistically different between different taste

solutions, $F(5, 15) = 111.83, p < 0.0001$, with the amount of licking to 3, 10 and 30 mM citric

acid being significantly lower than to that of 1 mM citric acid and water (all 'p's < 0.05).

However, there were no statistically significant differences between Trp channel knockouts and

controls for any tastant, $F(5,75) = 1.25, p = 0.30$.

c-Fos Induction

Injection of 30 mM citric acid in the mouth via intraoral cannulae reliably induced c-Fos within particular regions of the nTS as compared to similar injection of water. As calculated previously, raw counts of c-Fos positive neurons in sub-compartments of the nTS were compared between water-stimulated and citric acid-stimulated animals to produce a measure of citric acid-specific c-Fos induction. In our previous study (Stratford, Thompson et al. 2017), acid-induced c-Fos was highest in the central portion of rostral-intermediate nTS (r3-i2) and in ventrolateral subdivisions in intermediate nTS (i1-i3). These regions did not show such activation in the P2X2/P2X3 dbl KO mice which lack taste function. However, in P2X2/P2X3 dbl KO animals, significant levels of activation to citric acid did remain in the DMSp5, which receives substantial input from polymodal nociceptor (CGRP+) fibers of the trigeminal and glossopharyngeal nerves. Accordingly, we especially focused on possible changes in c-Fos activation in this trigeminal-recipient area.

Fig. 2 shows a representative image of c-Fos activation in relation to the lateral nTS and the DMSp5 of WT and TRPA1/V1$^{Dbl-/-}$ mice following stimulation with citric acid. The number of c-Fos positive cells was significantly greater with citric acid stimulation than water stimulation, $F(1, 5) = 49.53$, $p < 0.05$. However, there was no statistical difference in the number of c-Fos positive cells between WT and TRPA1/V1$^{Dbl-/-}$ mice for either water or citric acid, $F(1, 82) = 0.05$, $p = 0.83$.

As shown in Fig. 3, the amount of citric acid-specific c-Fos was significantly different between nTS subregions and levels regardless of genotype, $F(25, 210) = 4.24$, $p < 0.001$. In particular, citric acid evoked significant activity in the central subregion of rostrointermediate

nTS (r2-i2), in the lateral subregion of intermediate nTS (i1-2) and in the DMSp5 of both WT

and TRPA1/V1$^{Dbl-/-}$ mice as compared to all other nTS subregions (all p's < 0.05). This pattern is

similar to that reported previously for the mixed background (Ola-C57/BL6) controls in the

previous study (Stratford, Thompson et al. 2017).

Moreover, the TRPA1/V1$^{Dbl-/-}$ mice show overall levels of acid-induced c-Fos similar to

the WT controls in all nTS subregions, $F(25, 210) = 0.87$, $p = 0.65$, (average difference 0.06

cells/compartment ± 0.64 SEM.; 95% C.I. -1.32 -1.20). Likewise, the TRPA1/V1$^{Dbl-/-}$ mice show

similar levels of acid-induced c-Fos in DMSp5 compared to WT controls, $F (5, 25) = 0.31$, $p =$

0.91 (average difference 0.32 cells/region ± 0.89 SEM.; 95% C.I. -1.42-2.06).

In summary, the TRPA1/V1$^{Dbl-/-}$ mice show no differences in the pattern of neural

activation by citric acid compared to the WT animals. This suggests that neither TrpA1 nor

TrpV1 play a significant role in detection and avoidance of 30 mM concentrations of citric acid,

although this concentration is readily avoided by both TRPA1/V1$^{Dbl-/-}$ and WT animals.

DISCUSSION

Acidity is the underlying chemical feature of sour substances. When acids are taken into

the mouth, they stimulate sour-sensitive taste cells which depolarize, then release

neurotransmitter to activate the taste fibers innervating them. This signaling between taste cells

and nerve fibers requires functional P2X2 and P2X3 receptors; genetic deletion or

pharmacological blockage of these receptors essentially eliminates taste-mediated neural activity

(Finger, Danilova et al. 2005, Vandenbeuch, Anderson et al. 2013). Similarly, taste driven

acceptance of sweet and umami, and taste driven avoidance of bitter is lost in mice lacking

functional P2X2 and P2X3 receptors. In contrast, behavioral avoidance of intraoral acids remains

intact despite the loss of taste-related neural activity to these stimuli. Similarly, avoidance of

acids persists even after genetic deletion of Otop1, the ion channel receptor for H^+ underlying

sour detection (Zhang, Jin et al. 2019). These findings strongly suggest that not just taste, but

another sensory modality drives the avoidance of acids in this context.

The oropharynx is innervated by chemically-sensitive free nerve endings arising from the

trigeminal, glossopharyngeal and vagus nerves. These nerves include populations of polymodal

nociceptors that express acid-sensitive ion channels including TrpA1 and TrpV1 (Tominaga,

Caterina et al. 1998, Wang, Chang et al. 2011), and the TrpV1-expressing fibers are necessary

for non-taste mediated avoidance of citric acid (Zhang, Jin et al. 2019). Yet these studies do not

demonstrate that TrpV1 itself is the necessary receptor. It is likely that other acid-sensitive

channels and receptors exist in these TrpV1-expressing fibers. Further, TrpV1 fully activates at a

pH around 5 at body temperature (Tominaga, Caterina et al. 1998), whereas avoidance of citric

acid begins at a pH near 3. It is likely that the tissue overlying the TrpV1 sensory terminals

provides some buffering of acids applied to the surface of the epithelium, but weak acids, such as

citric acid, effectively acidify the epithelium deep into the tissue (Richter, Caicedo et al. 2003),

well beyond the region in which the nerve terminals lie. Taken together, these results suggest

that TrpV1 itself may not be entirely responsible for responses to citric acid. Accordingly, we

tested whether either TrpV1 or TrpA1 channels contribute to either the behavioral avoidance

response, or the activation of brainstem neurons by citric acid. We found that neither the

behavior nor the pattern and degree of neural activation was altered by genetic deletion of these

channels.

If neither TrpV1 nor TrpA1 channels underlie avoidance of acidic substances in the

absence of taste, what other mechanisms might be responsible? Likely candidates are one or

more members of the ASIC (acid sensing ion channel) family. Ion channels in this family are

gated by decreases in extracellular pH. While many members of this family open at pH values

near 7, others activate at lower pH values (Deval, Gasull et al. 2010). In particular, ASIC3 is

expressed widely in polymodal nociceptors and plays a role in responses to pH5.0 (Price,

McIlwrath et al. 2001). Further, amiloride, a non-specific blocker of ASIC channels, decreases

the irritation of citric acid (albeit at a much higher concentration) measured psychophysically

(Dessirier, O'Mahony et al. 2000), supporting the role of ASICs in this response. Conversely,

inclusion of amiloride, a blocker of ASICs, in orally-applied solutions in rats neither decreased

the trigeminal response to citric acid nor attenuated acid-induced c-Fos in brainstem trigeminal

nuclei (Sudo, Sudo et al. 2003). Whether ASICs or some other acid-responsive mechanisms play

a role in non-gustatory behavioral avoidance of weak acids then is unresolved.

CONFLICTS OF INTEREST

The authors declare no conflicts of interest in relation to this work.

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Fig. 1: Brief access tests showing similar avoidance of citric acid and acetic acid for
TRPA1/V1$^{Dbl-/-}$ mice and wildtype controls of the same background. ANOVA shows no
significant difference between the groups. Preference scores represent the average number of
licks relative to those for water. Preference scores higher than 1 indicate a preference for the
taste stimulus, while preference scores lower than 1 indicate an avoidance.

Fig. 2. C-Fos staining (red dots) in nTS of the TRPA1/V1$^{Dbl-/-}$ mouse at approximately the R3

level comparing a mouse stimulated by 30mM citric acid (A, B) to one stimulated only by water

(C, D). Note the higher number of c-Fos positive cell nuclei (red) in the acid stimulated

compared to the water-stimulated animal. Green staining shows the distribution of P2X3-

immunoreactive fibers which terminate largely in the dorsocentral part of the nTS. Most acid-

stimulated cells lie in the ventral tier of the nucleus and in the DMSp5 region ventrolateral to the

nTS. Blue counterstain from FluoroNissl.

WT Mice   KO Mice

Water Stimulated

WT Mice

		Medial	I	Lateral	DMSp5
r1	D	1.5	2.3	2.3	
	V	2.1	2.0	1.1	2.9
r2	D	3.3	2.9	2.9	
	V	2.1	1.0	1.9	3.0
r3	D	5.6	12.6	9.8	
	V	4.1	13.4	9.6	8.5
r4	D	4.3	16.6	10.9	
	V	4.5	14.8	12.9	10.6
i1	D	15.0	15.8	15.1	
	V	7.3	9.5	12.1	12.3
i2	D	11.2	14.2	7.8	
	V	5.5	8.2	12.2	18.2

KO Mice

		Medial	I	Lateral	DMSp5
r1	D	2.3	5.0	1.9	
	V	1.4	0.6	0.9	2.1
r2	D	2.4	8.0	5.4	
	V	1.6	2.6	4.0	5.1
r3	D	4.1	10.9	3.8	
	V	3.0	5.3	2.9	2.4
r4	D	1.6	14.3	6.5	
	V	1.5	11.9	4.5	5.3
i1	D	11.6	9.9	9.9	
	V	6.1	6.8	9.2	9.1
i2	D	9.5	8.6	4.6	
	V	5.8	6.3	6.7	9.9

Citric Acid Stimulated

WT Mice

		Medial	I	Lateral	DMSp5
r1	D	3.4	6.9	4.6	
	V	2.9	2.3	2.6	4.9
r2	D	4.5	9.8	3.5	
	V	5.0	5.8	4.0	2.8
r3	D	7.0	21.4	8.1	
	V	5.9	18.9	12.3	11.1
r4	D	9.6	27.9	13.3	
	V	8.3	24.6	20.3	22.6
i1	D	22.9	31.0	13.6	
	V	10.8	22.4	26.4	20.3
i2	D	13.3	22.9	11.6	
	V	9.5	16.6	28.1	26.4

KO Mice

		Medial	I	Lateral	DMSp5
r1	D	3.7	5.0	2.3	
	V	2.4	2.8	1.7	3.4
r2	D	5.9	13.4	5.3	
	V	6.4	6.6	4.4	5.2
r3	D	6.2	17.2	8.3	
	V	6.1	19.0	11.0	6.3
r4	D	9.5	23.1	13.7	
	V	7.0	24.8	13.4	10.9
i1	D	10.6	22.9	18.0	
	V	5.8	19.2	27.9	17.3
i2	D	10.0	12.3	7.5	
	V	8.3	15.1	22.6	17.3

Acid Specific (C.A. - water)

WT Mice

		Medial	I	Lateral	DMSp5
r1	D	1.9	4.6	2.4	
	V	0.8	0.3	1.5	2.0
r2	D	1.3	6.9	0.6	
	V	2.9	4.8	2.1	-0.3
r3	D	1.4	8.8	-1.6	
	V	1.8	5.5	2.6	2.6
r4	D	5.4	11.3	2.4	
	V	3.8	9.9	7.4	12.0
i1	D	7.9	15.3	-1.5	
	V	3.5	12.9	14.3	8.0
i2	D	2.1	8.7	3.8	
	V	4.0	8.5	16.0	8.2

KO Mice

		Medial	I	Lateral	DMSp5
r1	D	1.5	0.0	0.4	
	V	1.0	2.2	0.8	1.3
r2	D	3.5	5.4	-0.1	
	V	4.8	4.0	0.4	0.1
r3	D	2.1	6.3	4.5	
	V	3.1	13.7	8.1	3.9
r4	D	7.9	8.8	7.2	
	V	5.5	12.9	8.9	5.6
i1	D	-1.0	13.0	8.1	
	V	-0.3	12.4	18.7	8.2
i2	D	0.5	3.7	2.9	
	V	2.5	8.8	15.9	7.4

Fig. 3.Heat maps of c-Fos expression in nTS and DMSp5 regions comparing wildtype (left) and

TRPA1/V1$^{Dbl-/-}$ mice, stimulated by intraoral injection of water (top row and by citric acid

(middle row). Bottom row shows acid-specific activation, i.e. citric acid counts minus the counts

produced by water alone. No significant differences occur either in the pattern or absolute level

of expression across subregions (see text for details). For each panel, the maximum value was

assigned as red; zero was assigned light yellow, and negative values shades of blue.

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