Multi-omic profiling of human and mouse dorsal root ganglia enables targeted gene delivery to nociceptors

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Abstract

Chronic pain conditions are often driven by hyperexcitability of nociceptors, the peripheral sensory neurons that detect noxious stimuli. Recent single-cell transcriptomic studies have begun to clarify the molecular identity of distinct peripheral sensory neuron subtypes, but tools that restrict transgene expression to nociceptors while sparing other dorsal root ganglion (DRG) subtypes remain limited. Here, we combined single-nucleus multi-omic profiling of human and mouse DRG with *in vivo* AAV enhancer screening to identify *cis*-regulatory elements that drive biased AAV expression in mouse DRG nociceptors and human iPSC-derived nociceptors. We then validated that an enhancer AAV designed to express $K_{ir}2.1$ preferentially in nociceptors reduces DRG neuronal excitability. Leveraging these multi-omic datasets, we trained a sequence-based model to decode the *cis*-regulatory logic of nociceptors, enabling both the prioritization of native candidate elements and the design of synthetic enhancers with a range of nociceptor targeting properties. Together, these cross-species multi-omic resources define conserved DRG regulatory programs and provide a viral toolkit for pain research with potential translational applications for patients with refractory pain.

Introduction

Chronic pain is often driven by maladaptive hyperexcitability of nociceptors, which are a class of peripheral sensory neurons that detect noxious stimuli. Most analgesics act on multiple cell types across central and peripheral nervous systems, which in the case of opioids, can lead to potentially dangerous side effects.[1–4] Thus, there is an urgent need for more targeted, cell-type-specific strategies to modulate nociceptor activity selectively while sparing other neuron types. Toward that goal, recent single-cell/nucleus RNA sequencing (sc/snRNA-seq) studies of DRG have revealed unique transcriptomic profiles of multiple nociceptor subtypes that are largely conserved between rodents and humans.[5,6] Transgenic mice engineered to target distinct DRG subtypes have yielded important insights into their function,[7–13] but these methods are not easily translated to other model organisms or humans. Indeed, there are currently no tools that provide subtype-selective access to nociceptors across species.

Recent advances in single-cell multi-omic technologies offer a new strategy for characterizing the gene-regulatory logic underlying DRG cell-type-specific gene expression. By jointly profiling chromatin accessibility and gene expression in the same nucleus, it is possible to identify *cis*-regulatory elements (CREs) that promote cell-type-specific gene expression within defined neuronal populations. Engineering AAVs to use cell-type-specific CREs for driving transgene expression in defined cell populations has been successfully implemented in the brain and spinal cord,[14–17] but it has been challenging to apply this approach to peripheral sensory neurons due to our limited understanding of the DRG neuronal epigenome.

Here, we constructed DRG multi-omic cell atlases in both human and mouse and utilized joint chromatin accessibility and transcriptomic data to define evolutionarily conserved *cis*-regulatory programs and CREs that are preferentially active in nociceptors. We built a suite of enhancer

AAVs and quantified their ability to drive viral expression preferentially in nociceptors *in vivo*
using scRNA-seq and spatial transcriptomics. We then trained a sequence-based model to
decode the *cis*-regulatory logic of nociceptors, which can be used to prioritize native CREs for
enhancer AAVs and to design synthetic enhancers. Finally, we show that an enhancer AAV that
preferentially expresses in mouse nociceptors relative to other DRG cell types significantly
reduces DRG neuronal excitability in mice and drives strong expression in human iPSC-derived
nociceptors. Together, these findings establish a cross-species DRG multi-omic resource and
outline a general strategy for developing cross-species viral tools for translational pain research
with potential therapeutic applications.

73 Results

Single-nucleus multi-omic profiling of mouse and human DRG

To characterize the *cis*-regulatory logic of mouse and human DRG cell types, we constructed
multi-omic (snRNA-seq and snATAC-seq) cell atlases of DRG from 71 male and female adult
mice and 66 human donors (32 male, 34 female; Table S1) (Figures 1A). This multi-omic
approach allows for the simultaneous interrogation of transcriptional output and chromatin
accessibility within the same nucleus, enabling the direct linkage of distal CREs to their target
genes without the ambiguity of *in silico* integration.[18] As DRG neurons comprise only ~1% of
total cells in the ganglion,[5,6] we optimized neuronal enrichment protocols for both mouse and
human DRG prior to multi-omic profiling. In mice, we sorted genetically labeled DRG neurons
(*Vglut2*-Cre+/-; *Sun1*-GFP+/-) and observed that >90% of DRG cells sequenced are neurons
(Figure S1A). In humans, we sorted NeuN-stained nuclei and observed that up to 60% of DRG
cells sequenced are neurons (Figure S1B). We then performed snMultiome of neuronally
enriched mouse and human DRG samples, and after quality controls (see Methods, Figure
S1C-D, S2A-D), we obtained 23,928 mouse DRG nuclei, including 12,272 epigenomically
profiled nuclei from prior work,[19,20] and 155,008 human DRG nuclei. We next performed
unsupervised clustering based on gene expression and annotated cell types using the
expression of known marker genes (see Methods).[5,6] We annotated eight broad cell types in
both mouse and human DRG: neurons, fibroblasts, satellite glia (SGC), myelinating Schwann
Cells (mySC), non-myelinating Schwann Cells (nmSC), endothelial cells, immune cells, and
pericytes (Figures 1B-C; Figure S2E-G). Gene expression and chromatin accessibility at loci of
known marker genes were consistent with anchored cell type annotations (Figures 1B-C,
bottom).[5,6] and largely similar between donors and sexes (Figures S3A-D). Differential gene
expression between DRG cell types identified 9,856 differentially expressed genes in mice and
11,777 in humans ($log_2FC > 0.5$, adj. p-val < 0.05, cell type compared to all others) (Table S2
and S3, see Bhuiyan et al., co-submitted for in depth gene expression analyses of human DRG
cell types).

To identify regions of transposase-accessible chromatin in each DRG cell type, we performed
"peak" calling (see Methods) and observed that peaks of accessible chromatin are
predominantly located in intronic and non-coding regions distal to the gene body in both mouse
and human (Figures S3E-F; see Methods). We then performed differential chromatin
accessibility analysis for the 8 broad DRG cell types by comparing peaks of accessible

chromatin in one cell type to all other cell types. We observed 268,405 unique differentially
accessible peaks in mice and 252,806 in humans ($\log_2$FC > 0.5, adj. p-val < 0.05, cell type
compared to all others) (Figure 1D-F; Table S4 and S5). To identify overlap in differentially
accessible peaks between the two species, we used the LiftOver tool to identify human regions
with high sequence similarity (syntenic) to the mouse differentially accessible peaks.[21,22] Among
these syntenic regions, we observed significant overlap (35-44%) between the differentially
accessible peaks in corresponding mouse and human DRG cell types relative to a null
distribution generated by shuffling cell type identities within the pool of top accessible regions
(adj. p-value <10^{-80}, Fisher's Exact test) (Figure 1E). This degree of overlap is consistent with
conservation of cell-type-specific regulatory programs between mouse and human DRG, and
suggests that some differentially accessible peaks may mark shared CREs across species.[23]

We next used SCENIC+ to characterize the gene regulatory networks of transcription factors
(TFs), CREs, and predicted target genes that establish cell identity in mouse and human DRG
cell types. SCENIC+ quantifies the activity of "eRegulons" in each cell by integrating
co-expression of a given transcription factor (TF) and predicted target genes with chromatin
accessibility and TF motif enrichment at corresponding putative CREs.[24] We observed multiple
TFs in which their eRegulons are preferentially active in distinct DRG cell types compared to all
other DRG cell types in both mouse (Figure 1G; Table S6) and human (Figure 1H; Table S7).
For example, *ISL1*, a transcription factor known to regulate DRG neuronal development,[25]
displays significantly higher eRegulon activity in DRG neurons than in non-neuronal cell types in
both mouse and human. This ISL1 eRegulon includes the mature neuronal marker gene, *Elavl2*,
and a syntenic CRE at which there is both an ISL1 consensus binding site and increased
chromatin accessibility in both mouse and human neurons compared to other DRG cell types
(Figures 1G-H). Consistent with observations in central nervous system cell types,[15,26–30] the
conserved, cell-type-specific regulatory activity of certain TFs between mouse and human DRG
cell types suggests that CREs identified in mice have the potential to recruit similar TFs and
confer comparable regulatory activity in humans.

Cross-species cis-regulatory logic of nociceptors

To identify regulatory elements that are selectively active in nociceptors across species, we next
subclustered 21,064 mouse and 6,893 human DRG neurons by their gene expression profiles
(Tables S8-9) and annotated their neuronal subtype by anchoring to previous human and mouse
DRG sc/snRNA-seq studies.[6,31–33] We observed the same ~18-22 DRG neuronal subtypes in
both mouse and human that have been reported previously (Figure 2A), which includes the
important C-peptidergic (C-PEP) and C-non-peptidergic (C-NP) nociceptors that are implicated
in chronic pain conditions.[6,31–33] After filtering the annotated mouse and human neuronal nuclei
for those with high quality chromatin accessibility data (Figure S1C-D; Figure S4A-B; see
Methods), we performed downstream epigenomic analysis on 18,238 mouse and 1,597 human
DRG neurons. As human DRG neurons are more challenging to obtain high quality chromatin
accessibility data than in mouse or even in DRG non-neuronal cells (Figure S4C-D), we
grouped human neuronal subtypes into 6 broader classes (A-Propr, A-LTMR, A-PEP, C-PEP,
C-NP, and C-Thermo) for downstream epigenomic analyses. We observed neuronal
subtype-specific patterns of chromatin accessibility at corresponding marker gene loci for each
of these neuronal classes (Figure 2B-E; Figure S4E-F). Utilizing all DRG neurons that passed

quality controls in mouse or human (Figure S4C-D), we next performed genome-wide differential
chromatin accessibility analysis across distinct DRG neuronal subtypes in each species. We
identified 575,462 peaks in mice and 9,370 peaks in humans that are differentially accessible
(log_2FC > 0.5, adj. p-val < 0.05 [mouse], < 0.1 [human]) in one DRG neuronal subtype
compared to the others (Figures 2C, 2E, Tables S10 and S11). The difference in numbers of
differentially accessible peaks between mouse and human is largely driven by their respective
neuron numbers; downsampling mouse DRG neuron numbers to match human neuron
numbers yielded ~12,000 differentially accessible peaks (log_2FC > 0.5, adj. p-val < 0.05).
Differentially accessible peaks across mouse DRG neuronal subtypes are significantly more
likely to overlap with differentially accessible peaks across human DRG neuronal subtypes
compared to random length-matched ENCODE CREs (Fisher's exact test, $p < 10^{-16}$) ,
supporting some conservation of chromatin accessibility between mouse and human DRG
neurons.[34]

We next used SCENIC+ to prioritize differentially accessible peaks that may function as
neuronal subtype-specific CREs in both humans and mice. In mice, SCENIC+ nominated 484
'eRegulons' and 61,044 putative CREs, and in humans, SCENIC+ nominated 53 eRegulons and
3,384 putative putative CREs (Figures 2F-G, Tables S12 and S13). Clustering DRG neurons by
their eRegulon activities was sufficient to resolve known neuronal identities (Figure S4G),
highlighting the potential of these inferred gene regulatory networks to identify key TFs and
candidate CREs that drive neuronal subtype-specific gene expression in both mouse and
human. For example, SCENIC+ analyses identified increased RUNX3 eRegulon activity in
proprioceptors compared to other neuronal subtypes and a putative CRE upstream of the
proprioceptor-specific gene, *Pvalb*, which is consistent with the known role of RUNX3 in
proprioceptor development (Figures 2F, S4H).[35,36] In C-PEP nociceptors, SCENIC+ implicates
BCL11A with increased eRegulon activity compared to other neuronal subtypes in both mouse
and human and nominates a putative CRE upstream of the nociceptor-enriched gene, *Sstr2*
(Figures 2F-G, S4H)*.*

These findings suggest that our mouse and human DRG multi-omic atlases and downstream
gene regulatory network analyses could help identify CREs that are capable of driving
nociceptor-specific gene expression in both species, a critical requirement for developing
translational viral tools with targeted activity in nociceptors. Toward that goal, we found that
~16% of all differentially accessible peaks between mouse neuronal subtypes are also linked to
a SCENIC+ eRegulon and that ~18% of these have syntenic peaks in human DRG neurons
(Figure 2I; Table S14). This analysis highlights a core set of CREs that are implicated in
cell-type-specific gene regulation and have the potential to function similarly across species.

In vivo screening of candidate nociceptor-specific CREs

To functionally screen for CREs that drive gene expression preferentially in nociceptors *in vivo*,
we constructed AAVs in which prioritized CREs are inserted upstream of a minimal promoter
(mini CMV) and a reporter gene (EGFP). AAVs were then delivered to mice
intracerebroventricularly (ICV)*,* and reporter expression was quantified in each DRG neuronal
subtype using fluorescent *in situ* hybridization (FISH) and/or scRNA-seq (Figure 3A). We initially
selected 9 CREs (Figure 3B; see Methods) based on their differential accessibility patterns in

two important classes of nociceptors in pain transduction, C-PEP (CRE1-7) or C-NP (CRE8-9)
nociceptors. We also included two controls: an AAV with only a minimal promoter driving
reporter expression (No CRE) and an AAV with the ubiquitous CAG promoter driving reporter
expression. The 11 AAVs (9 nociceptor CREs, 2 controls) were packaged in the AAV-PHP.S
capsid[37] and injected ICV into neonatal mice to ensure broad DRG infectivity;[38–40] DRGs were
collected at least 6 weeks post-injection.

We used FISH to quantify co-expression of viral eGFP with either the C-PEP nociceptor marker,
Tac1, or the C-NP nociceptor marker, *Mrgprd*. Two of the nine tested C-PEP nociceptor CREs
(CRE1, CRE6) drove reporter expression with significantly greater specificity in *Tac1*+ neurons
than the CAG control (Figure 3C) (One-way ANOVA, $F(3,27)$ = 6.80, $p < 0.001$; Dunnett's
multiple comparisons test). We additionally confirmed that CRE1, which displayed the greatest
specificity for C-PEP by FISH, drives limited expression in off-target cell types (*Mrgprd*+ C-NP
nociceptors, *Hapln4*+ Aβ-LTMRs and proprioceptors, and *Fam19a4*+ C-LTMRs) (Figure S5A).
We also identified one of the C-NP targeting CREs, CRE8, drives eGFP expression significantly
more specifically in *Mrgprd*+ C-NP neurons than the CAG control (Figure 3C) (One-way
ANOVA, $F(2,6)$ = 7.42, $p = 0.024$; Dunnett's multiple comparisons test).

As neither *Tac1* nor *Mrgprd* marker genes label all C-PEP or C-NP nociceptors, respectively
(Figure 3, S5A), we turned to scRNA-seq to provide an orthogonal and more quantitative
assessment of AAV reporter expression for CREs that displayed promising nociceptor specificity
by FISH. In particular, CRE1, CRE6, CRE8, and control (No CRE, CAG) AAVs were delivered
ICV to neonates as described above, followed by whole cell dissociation of DRGs and
scRNA-seq at least 6 weeks post-injection. In total, 34,899 cells were profiled by scRNA-seq
across all CREs and controls, with 2-4 biological replicates per CRE. Neuronal subtype
annotations were obtained by anchoring scRNA-seq data to the mouse DRG reference atlas[6]
(Figure 3D) and AAV transcripts were quantified in each neuronal subtype. C-PEP target
specificity ratios (AAV+ C-PEP cells / all other AAV+ cells) and C-NP target specificity ratios
(AAV+ C-NP cells / all other AAV+ cells) were calculated for each CRE and compared to control
AAVs. Consistent with the FISH results, we observed that CRE1 and CRE6 drive reporter
expression more specifically in C-PEP nociceptors than No CRE or CAG controls (~3-5 fold,
Fisher's exact test: $p < 0.001$), and CRE8 drives reporter expression more specifically in C-NP
nociceptors than No CRE or CAG controls (~4-6 fold, Fisher's exact test: $p < 0.001$) (Figure 3E).
The additional granularity of scRNA-seq revealed that, of C-PEP nociceptors
(C-PEP.Calca+Sstr2, C-PEP.Calca+Oprk1, C-PEP.Calca+Dcn), both CRE1 and CRE6 drive
expression preferentially in C-PEP.Calca+Sstr2 neurons compared to other C-PEP subtypes
and that, of C-NP nociceptors (C-NP.Mrgprd, C-NP.Mrgpra3+Trpv1, C-NP.Mrgpra3+Mrgprb4),
CRE8 drives reporter expression preferentially in C-NP.Mrgprd neurons compared to other
C-NP subtypes (Figure S5B). These scRNA-seq results were orthogonally assessed by FISH
(Figure S5C), where we observed that 56 ± 2% of CRE1 and 45 ± 13% of CRE6 driven reporter
positive cells were C-PEP.Calca+Sstr2 compared to 28 ± 3% of No CRE and 36 ± 1% of CAG
controls, respectively (Figure S5D) (One-way ANOVA, $F(3,8)$ = 2.005, $p = 0.0404$, Dunnett's
multiple comparisons test for No CRE versus CRE1. Data are presented as mean ± SEM).

Given the low success rate and high cost of screening individual CREs, we turned to a
multiplexed AAV screen to functionally assess CRE activity *in vivo* more efficiently (Figure 4A).[41]

We selected 106 CREs predicted to drive expression in C-PEP nociceptors, C-NP nociceptors,
Sst+ pruriceptors, or *Mrgpra3+* pruriceptors, or combinations of nociceptor classes, and
constructed an AAV library in which each CRE was cloned in *cis* with unique DNA barcodes
(see Methods). We also included a No CRE control that was uniquely barcoded.
Next-generation sequencing of the resulting AAV library confirmed that all CREs were
represented (Figure S6A). After packaging the CRE library in AAV-PHP.S, the AAV library was
injected ICV into three neonatal mice and scRNA-seq of their DRGs was performed >6 weeks
later as described above. After quality control, clustering, and cell type annotation, a total of
10,442 DRG cells were included for downstream analysis. Of these, 2,275 cells expressed AAV
transcripts covering 106 CREs (Figure 4B), of which 41 CREs were detected in at least 6 cells
and included in downstream analyses (Figure S6B). We observed that certain CREs drove
barcode expression preferentially in distinct DRG neuronal cell classes compared to the No
CRE control (Figure 4C), with scRNA-seq providing the resolution to identify expression within
specific subtypes (Figure S6C). For example, CREs accessible in peptidergic neurons (Figure
4C) drove expression in C-PEP (CRE70 and CRE71) or A-PEP (CRE18) nociceptors (Figure
S6C). Similarly, CREs accessible in non-peptidergic cells drove expression in C-NP.Mrgpra3
pruriceptors (CRE45 and CRE47) or C-NP.Sst pruriceptors (CRE114). This specificity extended
to non-nociceptive lineages, where CRE68 and CRE79 drove preferential expression in
A-Propr.Pvalb and C-LTMR.Th cell types, respectively.

We next examined the extent to which subtype-specific chromatin accessibility predicts
CRE-driven reporter expression across DRG neuronal subtypes. We calculated expected on/off
target expression ratios for each CRE based on the pattern of differential chromatin accessibility
at each CRE's locus (see Methods; Table S15); CRE specificity ratios ranged from 0 to >100 for
their respective on-target DRG neuron class. Overall, we observed a positive correlation
(Spearman's r = 0.26, p < 0.05) between the measured differential chromatin accessibility at
each CRE locus and the CRE-driven reporter expression in each DRG cell type (Figure 4D),
consistent with our attempt to prioritize functional CREs for *in vivo* testing. Interestingly, a subset
of CREs in our multiplex screen exhibited high differential accessibility in their target cell types
compared to their off target cell types, but their corresponding AAV barcodes were only detected
in off target cell types (On/off target expression ratios = 0, > 6 cells). While our goal was to
identify CREs that act as cell-type-specific enhancers, our findings suggest that some putative
CREs might instead function as cell-type-specific silencers or require additional native chromatin
context to enhance expression in their on-target cell types. Excluding these discordant CREs
significantly improved the correlation between on target accessibility and on/off target AAV
expression ratio from 0.26 to 0.47 (p < 0.05, Figure 4D).

Taken together, this multiplexed CRE scRNA-seq screen enabled the functional characterization
of dozens of CREs in parallel as well as the discovery of several new enhancer AAVs capable of
targeting distinct DRG neuronal subtypes.

Modeling cis-regulatory logic of DRG neurons

The correlation of cell-type-specific chromatin accessibility with CRE activity in DRG neurons
prompted us to ask if we could quantitatively model the *cis*-regulatory logic of DRG nociceptors.
Previous studies have leveraged machine learning approaches such as convolutional neural

networks (CNNs) to develop models trained on snATAC-seq data that can predict
cell-type-specific chromatin accessibility based on sequence alone.[42–44] We thus constructed a
CNN, Predicting Accessibility In Nociceptors (PAIN-net), trained on DNA sequences from our
mouse DRG snMultiome data, to predict both the neuronal subtype-specific chromatin
accessibility signal intensity and the Log$_2$FC of differential accessibility in each neuronal subtype
compared to all other subtypes (see Methods). We tested model performance on randomly
selected sequences comprising ~15% of the mouse DRG snMultiome data that was excluded
from training, and observed a median Pearson's correlation of 0.72 across cell types between
model-predicted and measured differential accessibility (Figure 5A; Figure S7A; Table S16).
This model's performance is comparable to chromatin accessibility predictive models generated
in other tissues.[43]

A key motivation for developing PAIN-net was to prioritize CREs that drive cell-type-specific AAV
expression in DRG. We thus asked whether PAIN-net-predicted CRE accessibility across DRG
cell types is associated with each CRE's *in vivo* specificity, as measured by their scRNA-seq
on/off target expression ratio. PAIN-net correctly predicted the nociceptor subtypes in which
CRE1, CRE6 and CRE8 were most active *in vivo*: C-PEP.Calca+Sstr2 (CRE1 and CRE6) and
C-NP.Mrgprd (CRE8) (Figure 5B). We also observed good model performance across the *in*
vivo multiplexed CRE screen; PAIN-net predictions were positively correlated with the measured
on/off target expression ratios measured by scRNA-seq (Spearman's r = 0.33; p-value <0.05;
Figure 5C; correlation between predicted and measured accessibility in Figure S7B). These
findings suggest that PAIN-net can be a valuable tool for nominating CREs likely to drive
neuronal subtype-specific expression in the DRG.

We next asked which TF motifs are enriched in the sequences PAIN-net predicts to have the
greatest differential accessibility in each DRG neuronal subtype compared to random
sequences. PAIN-net identified TFs known to contribute to sensory neuron development (e.g.
BCL6 in C-PEP nociceptors, RUNT family members in proprioceptors, RUNX1 in C-LTMR.Th
neurons, and ATF3 in Atf3 neurons),[13,45,46] as well as several new TFs that warrant further
investigation (Figure 5D). These results are also in line with those observed in our SCENIC+
analysis of chromatin accessibility data (Figures 2F-G).

We next employed PAIN-net to assess the independent regulatory potential of key transcription
factors by embedding their consensus binding motifs into random background sequences and
predicting the resulting chromatin accessibility across neuronal subtypes. We found that *in silico*
disruption of these embedded ATF3, RUNX1, and ISL1 consensus motifs significantly altered
predicted accessibility (FDR < 0.01), whereas mutations in the flanking random regions yielded
negligible effects (Figure S7C). Importantly, disruption of TF consensus motifs preferentially
reduced chromatin accessibility in the specific neuronal subtypes in which the corresponding TF
functions (e.g., ATF3 in the *Atf3* neurons) (Figure S7C). This indicates that PAIN-net has
successfully captured cell-type-specific *cis*-regulatory dependencies of known motifs.

Having tested the model on known consensus sites, we next sought to map the precise
nucleotides driving accessibility in the nociceptor CREs we screened *in vivo*. To do this, we
performed *in silico* saturation mutagenesis using PAIN-net to systematically predict the impact of
every possible single-nucleotide substitution on chromatin accessibility across each CRE. *In*

silico mutagenesis revealed that the most impactful substitutions clustered at the center of the
CRE sequences (Figure 5E), coinciding with the summits of differentially accessible peaks.
Notably, the predicted magnitude of these substitutions was greater for a CRE's on-target cell
types than its off-target type (Figure 5E), suggesting that the model captures cell-type-specific
regulatory logic. Applying this unbiased mutagenesis to CRE1 revealed that the specific
nucleotides driving differential accessibility coincide with known transcription factor binding
motifs, including those for BCL6/11, RUNT, Homeobox, and AP-1 (Figure 5F). Collectively, these
findings indicate that PAIN-net captures the *cis*-regulatory logic used by DRG neuronal subtypes
to establish unique gene expression patterns. This framework provides a powerful tool to both
nominate native nociceptor CREs for testing *in vivo* and to design synthetic elements with the
potential to achieve greater cell-type-specificity than is observed with natural CREs.[31,35,36]

Functional and translational applications of nociceptor-specific AAVs

Given the long-term goal of developing cell-type-specific AAVs to inhibit nociceptor activity, we
next generated AAVs in which either the nociceptor-specific CRE1 or the pan-expressing CAG
promoter drives expression of the inward-rectifying potassium channel $K_{ir}2.1$ and mCherry
(Figure 6A). We also constructed a control AAV using the CAG promoter to drive expression of
mCherry alone. AAVs were packaged in the AAV-PHP.S capsid[37] and delivered *in vitro* to
dissociated DRG cells cultured for whole cell patch clamp electrophysiology. CAG-K_{ir}2.1- and
CAG-mCherry-transduced neurons were identified by bright mCherry fluorescence and
CAG-K_{ir}2.1 neurons exhibited significantly reduced excitability compared to mCherry-transduced
neurons as measured by an increase in the amount of injected current required to stimulate
action-potential firing (rheobase) (Figures 6B-C). Expression of mCherry in
CRE1-K_{ir}2.1-transduced neurons was too dim to reliably distinguish all cells from
autofluorescence, but we observed a population of small-to-medium diameter neurons[47,48] with
rheobase currents higher than any measured in mCherry control cultures ($p < 0.0001$, One-way
ANOVA; Figures 6B-C; Figure S8A; see Methods). Both CAG-K_{ir}2.1 and high rheobase
CRE1-K_{ir}2.1 neurons demonstrated hyperpolarized membrane potentials ($p < 0.0001$, One-way
ANOVA; Figure 6D), and larger inward-rectifying currents at hyperpolarized potentials (Figure
6E). The increased potassium conductance at sub-threshold voltages likely underlies this
observed hyperpolarization in the resting membrane potential and is consistent with the known
hyperpolarizing effects of K_{ir}2.1 overexpression.[49] Collectively, these data demonstrate that
CRE1-driven K_{ir}2.1 expression reduces DRG neuronal excitability.

To assess whether our nociceptor CREs are likely to drive AAV gene expression preferentially in
human nociceptors, we cultured human iPSCs (LiPSC-GR1.1) and differentiated them using
protocols that produce either nociceptor-like sensory neurons or cardiomyocytes.[50,51] We
transduced these cells with AAV-PHP.S vectors expressing an eGFP reporter under the control
of CRE1, CRE8, or the ubiquitous CAG promoter. After 3-4 weeks in culture for functional
maturation, we assessed reporter expression by immunofluorescence microscopy. We observed
robust reporter expression driven by the CAG promoter in both iPS nociceptors and
cardiomyocytes, but CRE1 and CRE8 only drive reporter expression in nociceptors (Figure 6F).
These findings support the possibility that nociceptor CREs identified and screened in mice can
function similarly in nociceptors across species.

Discussion

Peripheral sensory neurons comprise diverse subtypes that collectively encode touch, temperature, itch, and pain. Chronic pain is linked to nociceptor hyperexcitability, yet translating mechanistic insight into precise therapeutics has been constrained by the lack of subtype-selective access across species.[52,53] Here we built matched single nucleus multi-omic atlases of mouse and human DRG, defined conserved cell-type-specific regulatory programs, and identified CREs that drive gene expression preferentially in nociceptor subtypes *in vivo* and in human iPSC-derived nociceptor-like neurons. We also developed a sequence-based model (PAIN-net) that captures key components of nociceptor *cis*-regulatory logic, enabling both prioritization of CREs likely to function as enhancers *in vivo* and design of synthetic elements with tunable properties. Together, these resources (available at www.painseq.com) support a generalizable strategy for cell-type-specific neuromodulation in the peripheral nervous system.

Enhancer AAV tool development relies on cell-type–resolved epigenomic maps; in the CNS, such maps have enabled nomination of CREs that function *in vivo* when placed upstream of minimal promoters in AAV cassettes.[14–17] By generating matched mouse and human DRG snMultiome atlases, we extend this capability to the peripheral nervous system, where neuronal subtype diversity is well described transcriptionally but has remained difficult to access genetically without transgenic mouse lines. The overlap we observe between mouse and human DRG regulatory features provides a mechanistic rationale for using mouse *in vivo* screens as a discovery engine for elements likely to function in human nociceptors, while also establishing a reference for interpreting species-specific divergence that may influence translation.

Our multi-omic analyses extend prior transcriptomic descriptions of DRG[5,6,30–32] by defining subtype-resolved *cis*-regulatory landscapes and TF-centered regulatory networks. Gene regulatory network analyses highlight candidate regulators across sensory lineages (e.g. enrichment of RUNX-family activity in proprioceptors) and link these programs to specific putative enhancers. This framework supports CRE nomination using convergent evidence, including subtype-enriched accessibility, cross-species sequence conservation, and membership in TF-centered regulatory modules. As chromatin accessibility alone does not guarantee functional enhancer activity *in vivo,* this multi-criterion prioritization framework helps address an important bottleneck in enhancer engineering.[56,57] That said, CRE prioritization remains imperfect because selectivity and expression level can change substantially when CREs are placed in an AAV cassette context. Accordingly, functional AAV screens of prioritized CREs using quantitative, cell-type–resolved readouts remain essential.

Our functional AAV screen in mouse DRG identified a subset of nominated CREs that drive reporter expression preferentially in nociceptor classes, including enhancers biased toward peptidergic (CRE1, CRE6) and non-peptidergic populations (CRE8). These tools were successfully validated using both FISH to assay co-localization with canonical markers and scRNA-seq to quantify full subtype-resolved specificity. While three individually tested CREs showed specificity for their intended nociceptor classes, our multiplexed barcoded CRE screen enabled us to functionally rank dozens of elements within the same AAV library. This approach

identified high-performing nociceptor CREs (e.g., CRE114) as well as elements that
preferentially drive expression in non-nociceptive DRG populations (e.g., thermosensory,
proprioceptive, or mechanosensory lineages).

The multiplexed screen also provided mechanistic insight into how endogenous chromatin
accessibility relates to cell-type expression patterns driven by an AAV. The modest but
significant correlation between subtype-enriched chromatin accessibility and *in vivo* barcode
expression supports accessibility as a useful guide for enhancer discovery while underscoring
the contribution of additional regulatory layers. For example, some CREs showed strong
on-target enrichment, whereas other elements with similar accessibility profiles produced
off-target expression. We also observed a subset of highly accessible CREs that drove
expression only in off-target cells, suggesting that these sequences could act as
context-dependent silencers. Together, these observations motivate continued empirical
screening and the development of predictive models that can both prioritize candidate CREs
and guide the design of synthetic elements that improve specificity, strength, and/or
cross-species portability.

To this end, we developed PAIN-net, a sequence-based model that predicts neuronal
subtype–specific chromatin accessibility directly from DNA sequence and provides a
quantitative framework for interpreting enhancer "grammar." PAIN-net generalizes to held-out
loci and tracks measured CRE-driven expression patterns, supporting the view that a
substantial component of nociceptor *cis*-regulatory logic is learnable from sequence features.
Motif enrichment and *in silico* perturbation analyses further suggest that PAIN-net captures
biologically meaningful dependencies on transcription factor binding sites and their
arrangement. More broadly, PAIN-net brings model-guided CRE design into the peripheral
sensory system and establishes a foundation for optimizing CRE specificity and strength or for
combinatorial targeting strategies. In practice, such design capabilities could enable viral tools
tailored to distinct experimental or therapeutic goals, including broader or more selective
targeting of nociceptor subtypes, or exclusion of specific proprioceptive and mechanosensory
neurons to minimize sensory side effects.

Consistent with the potential of nociceptor-biased AAVs as a future pain therapeutic, CRE1
drove sufficient expression of $K_{ir}2.1$ to reduce DRG neuron excitability *in vitro*, with
electrophysiological signatures consistent with increased inward-rectifying potassium
conductance and hyperpolarization. This result demonstrates that even comparatively modest
enhancer-driven expression can yield meaningful functional effects when paired with a potent
effector. It also highlights a design principle relevant to therapeutic translation: specificity and
expression strength can often trade off. For certain effectors, sub-maximal expression may still
provide robust modulation while reducing over-expression toxicity and provide a wider window
to fine-tune expression.[58] The robust and specific expression of CRE1 in human iPSC-derived
nociceptors over cardiomyocytes supports the translational potential that conserved
cis-regulatory logic can be leveraged to target human nociceptors.

Several limitations define priorities for future work. First, human neuronal chromatin accessibility
data were comparatively sparse, necessitating broader grouping of neuronal subtypes than in

mice for portions of the epigenomic analysis. Expanding high-quality human multi-omic
sampling across anatomical levels, ages, injury states, and diverse donors will sharpen
enhancer nomination and help identify regulatory programs that are human-specific or
state-dependent. Second, the diversity and scarcity of sensory neurons in peripheral ganglia
fundamentally limits CRE screening throughput. Development of nociceptor iPSC models that
better recapitulate *in vivo* nociceptor subtypes could enable ultra-high throughput synthetic
enhancer screens that are currently being performed in cell lines in other contexts.[42] Third, our
in vivo AAV screening used neonatal ICV delivery and a viral capsid optimized for broad DRG
transduction in mice. Translation will require validating enhancer performance across multiple
delivery routes, capsids, and evaluation of off-target expression across multiple tissues.

Despite these limitations, the cross-species DRG multi-omic atlases, predictive models, and
nociceptor-selective AAVs presented here provide important first steps toward a modular toolkit
for peripheral neuromodulation across species. This framework should extend to other
peripheral ganglia and autonomic circuits where genetic access remains limited.

Methods

Animals

All mouse experiments in this study were approved by the National Institutes of Health and the Harvard Medical School IACUC. Experiments followed the ethical guidelines outlined in the NIH Guide for the Care and Use of Laboratory Animals. Mice were housed under standard conditions, with no more than five animals per cage, maintained on a 12 h day/night cycle, with food and water. Both male and female mice were used for experiments, aged between 6-24 weeks, and the minimum number of animals was used for each experimental group. Animals were maintained on a C57BL/6J genetic background.

Mouse nuclear isolation

Dorsal root ganglia from all spinal levels were dissected from 50 mice (males and females) aged 6 to 24 weeks. All DRGs were directly frozen on dry ice and stored at -80C until processing for single-nucleus RNA sequencing (snRNA-seq), using a detergent-based nuclei isolation protocol optimized for neuronal tissue. All reagents were prepared on the same day and kept ice-cold unless otherwise specified. RNase-free technique was used throughout.

On the day of preparation, a swinging-bucket centrifuge was pre-cooled to 4°C. Nuclei lysis buffer (NST), resuspension buffer (ST), and 1× nuclei buffer (10x Genomics) were prepared fresh, supplemented with RNase inhibitor (RNasin Plus, Promega N2611), and maintained on ice. Dounce homogenizers and Tissue Tearor probes were thoroughly cleaned between samples using nuclease-free water and 70% ethanol to prevent cross-contamination. NST (lysis) buffer consisted of 1×stock buffer (20 mM NaCl, 20 mM Tris-HCl pH 7.5, 1 mM $CaCl_2$, 6 mM $MgCl_2$), 0.2% IGEPAL CA-630 (Sigma I8896-50ML), and 0.84% BSA in nuclease-free water. ST buffer consisted of 1×stock buffer supplemented with 0.9% BSA. All buffers were vacuum-filtered, stored at 4°C, and supplemented with RNase Inhibitor immediately prior to use.

Pooled frozen DRGs from 5 mice were processed each time. Tissue was transferred from dry ice and briefly warmed at the tube edges to facilitate homogenization. Samples were lysed in NST buffer containing IGEPAL CA-630 and BSA, supplemented with RNase inhibitor. Tissue was mechanically disrupted using a Tissue Tearor on a low-speed setting (2–3) for 5 seconds, ensuring complete coverage of the tissue. Homogenates were kept on ice immediately following disruption. The homogenate was transferred to a glass Dounce homogenizer and gently washed to recover residual tissue. Samples were further homogenized using a tight pestle with 15 slow strokes, avoiding bubble formation. The resulting homogenate was passed through a 40 µm cell strainer into a pre-chilled 15 mL conical tube, followed by an additional wash of the Dounce homogenizer with ST buffer to maximize nuclei recovery. Filtered homogenates were centrifuged at 500×g for 10 minutes at 4°C. Supernatant was carefully removed, leaving approximately 0.5 mL above the pellet. The nuclei pellet was gently resuspended in 1× nuclei buffer (10x Genomics, PN-2000207) as needed.

Nuclei suspensions were transferred for fluorescence-activated nuclei sorting (FANS) performed
by the BWH Center for Cellular Profiling. Collection tubes were pre-coated with 1× nuclei buffer
to reduce nuclei loss. Sorting was performed using a 70 µm nozzle. Nuclei were gated based on
GFP signal (neuronal nuclei are GFP+) at forward and side scatter, exclusion of debris, and
DNA staining using 7-aminoactinomycin D (7-AAD; final concentration 10 ng/µL). Negative
controls were used to establish gating parameters.

Sorted nuclei were collected directly into tubes containing 100ul of nuclei buffer. To concentrate
nuclei in 5ul 1× nuclei buffer for downstream 10x Genomics multiome application, concanavalin
A-conjugated paramagnetic beads (CUTANA) were used as previously described.[59] For
snRNA-seq experiments, nuclei were taken directly into library preparation without additional
purification or centrifugation to minimize loss.

Nuclei concentration was determined using a hemocytometer following dilution with Trypan blue
or DAPI staining. Counts were averaged across four quadrants and used to calculate nuclei
concentration (nuclei/µL). An aliquot of nuclei was optionally inspected by fluorescence
microscopy to confirm nuclear integrity and morphology.
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513   **Mouse snMultiome-seq library preparation and sequencing**
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515   Nuclei suspensions were concentrated and approximately 10,000 nuclei per library were loaded
516   on the 10x Genomics Chromium Controller, following the manufacturer's guidelines for the
517   Chromium Next GEM Single Cell Multiome ATAC + Gene Expression kit. Library preparation,
518   GEM generation, and barcoding were performed according to the manufacturer's protocol.
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Mouse multi-ome data processing

Read alignment and ambient RNA correction

Raw reads collected from mice DRG samples were aligned to the Mouse mm10 (GENCODE
vM23/ensembl98) mouse reference genome using the Cell Ranger-ARC pipeline (v2.0.0;
default settings). The reference genome was downloaded from the 10x Genomics website. To
ensure high-quality data integration, RNA counts were filtered for ambient noise using
CellBender[60] (default settings).
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530   *RNA modality*
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Seurat v5 was used to process the RNA modality by combining all preprocessed in-house and
published ambient RNA corrected count matrices (18 libraries total). Nuclei with more than
1,000 detected genes and less than 25% mitochondrial counts were retained. Filtered data were
normalized using log-normalization, and the top 2,000 variable genes were identified, excluding
mitochondrial genes. Data were then scaled, and principal component analysis (PCA) was

performed using the selected variable genes. Batch correction and integration across libraries
were performed using the Seurat CCA method. The number of principal components (PCs) was
determined as the point where selected PCs cumulatively explained at least 90% of the
variance and additional PCs explained less than 5% of the standard deviation of highly variable
gene expression. We then clustered the data at a resolution of 1 and clusters were embedded in
UMAP space. Clusters were then annotated based on the enrichment (Log$_2$FC > 0.5, adjusted
p-value < 0.05 relative to all other clusters) of the following marker genes: *Snap25*, *Rbfox3*, and
Pvalb, as neurons; *Fabp7* and *Ednrb* as for SGCs; *Mpz* and *Mbp* for mySCs; *Scn7a* for nmSC;
*Ptprc and Ccr2*for Immune cells; *Pecam1* and *Flt1* for Endothelial cells; *Notch3* and *Kcnj8* for
Pericytes; *Pdgfra* and *Tbx18* for Fibroblasts. Clusters showing enrichment of both neuronal and
non-neuronal markers were annotated as doublets and removed.

Neurons were then subsetted and re-clustered. For this step, the QC threshold was increased to
retain nuclei with more than 1,500 detected genes and less than 15% mitochondrial gene
counts. We then predicted neuronal subtype identity from the mouse harmonized DRG atlas[6]
using Seurat's label transfer method, and excluded nuclei with a prediction score less than 0.5.

With the exception of three mouse libraries, all libraries had a mixture of male and female mice
and thus we performed an additional computational step in assigning sex labels to each
nucleus. Sex labels were assigned to individual nuclei based on expression of the
Y-chromosome gene *Uty* and the X-inactivation transcript *Xist*. Cells were classified as "Male" if
Uty expression exceeded the 75th percentile while *Xist* remained below the 75th percentile, and
as "Female" if *Xist* exceeded the 75th percentile while *Uty* remained below the 75th percentile;
cells not meeting these criteria were initially labeled as "Ambiguous". For the three libraries
where only one sex was sequenced, sex labels were manually assigned (mDRG_rest_day3,
Techameena_ctrl_F, and Techameena_ctrl_M).
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ATAC modality

Signac (v1.16.0) was used to process the ATAC modality. Peak files (.bed) and fragment files
generated by Cell Ranger ARC were used to construct peak-by-cell count matrices for each of
the 18 libraries, which were then merged into a single object. ATAC data were subsetted to
retain only RNA-matched cells, and RNA-derived cell identities were transferred to the ATAC
modality based on shared barcodes. Nuclei with fewer than 1,000 total fragments in peaks or
TSS enrichment scores below 3 were excluded. Cell-type specific peaks were called using
MACS2 in BEDPE mode, restricted to standard chromosomes and excluding blacklist regions.
The resulting peak set was used for all downstream analyses. This workflow was applied both to
the full set of annotated cell types (neuronal and non-neuronal populations) and to a
neuron-focused analysis in which neuronal subtypes were considered separately.
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Pseudobulk-based differential accessibility of mouse DRG cell types for CRE prioritization

To identify differentially accessible (DA) regions in mouse DRG cell types, we used a
pseudobulk strategy implemented in Seurat/Signac and DESeq2. Briefly, cells were grouped by
annotated cell type and randomly assigned to one of n = 10 synthetic pseudoreplicates per cell
type (set.seed = 42 for reproducibility). For each cell type-pseudoreplicate combination, raw
accessibility counts from the MACS2-called peak matrix were aggregated using
AggregateExpression to generate a pseudobulk count matrix with one column per
pseudoreplicate.

For DA testing, we performed repeated one-vs-rest comparisons. A model was fit with design ~
celltype_replicateID. Peaks with low overall signal were removed prior to modeling (retaining
features with total counts ≥ 10 across all pseudobulk samples). Size factors were estimated
using DESeq2's poscounts method to accommodate sparsity typical of accessibility data, and
the negative binomial model was fitted using fitType = "local." Peaks were considered
differentially accessible based on adjusted p-value thresholds (FDR < 0.05 for all analyses) and
effect size cutoffs ($\log_2$FC > 0.5), as reported.
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594 *Gene regulatory network analysis*
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To infer cell type-specific gene regulatory networks for the mouse DRG, we used SCENIC+
which required two inputs: (1) the pseudobulk-based DA regions in mouse DRG cell types, (2) a
raw gene expression matrix of annotated mouse nuclei and (3) the binarized topic-region
associations outputted from pycisTopic (method details below).

PycisTopic[24] was used to group peaks into groups of regions with a common accessibility profile
across cells (topics). Briefly, peak accessibility profiles were exported from a Signac object as a
sparse peak-by-cell count matrix (MatrixMarket format) together with matching cell barcodes,
peak coordinates, and per-cell metadata. These inputs were used to construct a cisTopic
object, while filtering regions overlapping the ENCODE blacklist. Cell-level annotations were
then added to the cisTopic object to enable downstream visualization and interpretation.

Topic modelling was performed using latent Dirichlet allocation (LDA) implemented in pycisTopic
with MALLET. Multiple models were trained across a range of topic numbers (10–200 topics),
using default parameters (seed=555) and multi-core parallelization (60 CPUs). Trained models
were subsequently evaluated using standard topic model selection metrics (Arun_2010,
Cao_Juan_2009, Mimno_2011, and model log-likelihood). Based on these diagnostics, a model
with 48 topics was selected for major DRG cell classes, and for DRG neuronal subtypes 120
topics were selected. Topics were binarized to derive discrete topic-associated regulatory region
sets ("candidate enhancers"), using two complementary approaches: Otsu thresholding and a
rank-based strategy selecting the top 3,000 regions per topic. Binarized topic-region
associations were exported as sorted BED files as the input for SCENIC+.

For the pycisTopic and SCENIC+ analysis of the mouse multi-ome data across major cell
classes (neuronal and non-neuronal populations), the dataset was first randomly downsampled

to a maximum of 1,000 nuclei per cell type. For the pycisTopic and SCENIC+ analysis of
neuronal DRG subtypes, the full neuronal dataset was used.
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Human DRG acquisition and dissection

All procedures for human tissue procurement and ethical oversight were reviewed and approved
by the Institutional Review Board at Brigham and Women's Hospital [2024P002201/MGB1924].
Protocol IRB#2017P000757 was reviewed by Mass General Brigham IRB and determined to be
not human research. DRGs were collected from consented donors using a rapid autopsy
protocol at Mass General Brigham as described in Bhuiyan et al., 2024.[6] All donors were
deidentified. Age and sex of donors are reported in Table S1.

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Human nuclear isolation

Single nuclei of human DRGs were collected using a previously described gradient protocol at
Harvard Medical School.[61] Briefly, human DRGs were initially pulverized on dry ice and stored at
-80C until processing. Approximately pulverized tissue from 4 donors was used per experiment.
and ~0.5 to 1 cm^3 of powder was placed into homogenization buffer [0.25 M sucrose, 25 mM
KCl, 5 ml of MgCl$_2$, 20 mM tricine-potassium hydroxide (KOH; pH 7.8), 1 mM dithiothreitol
(DTT), actinomycin (5 µg/ml), 0.04% BSA, and ribonuclease (Rnase) inhibitor (0.1 U/µl)] for ~15
seconds on ice. After the brief incubation for 15 seconds on ice, samples were transferred to a
Dounce homogenizer for an additional 10 strokes with a tight pestle in a total volume of 5 mL of
homogenization buffer. IGEPAL was added to a final concentration of 0.32%, and five additional
strokes were performed with the tight pestle. The tissue homogenate was then passed through
a 40-µm filter and diluted 1:1 with a working solution. Neuronal nuclei were enriched as
previously described[20] and concentrated using concanavalin A-conjugated paramagnetic beads
(CUTANA).[59]

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Human snMultiome-seq library preparation and sequencing

Nuclei were labeled with DAPI to inspect their integrity under a fluorescent microscope and
determine their quantity manually using a hemocytometer. Approximately, 10,000 nuclei were
used for each ATAC and gene expression library. Libraries were generated according to the
Chromium Next GEM Single-cell Multiome ATAC + Gene Expression guidelines (10x
Genomics). Both ATAC and RNA libraries were shipped to GENEWIZ (Azenta Life Sciences)
and were sequenced based on the sequencing parameters suggested by 10x Genomics on the
Illumina NovaSeq X Plus platform to an approximate read depth of ~25,000 reads per cell
(multiome) and ~20,000 reads per cell (RNA).

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Human multi-ome data processing

Read alignment and ambient RNA correction

Raw reads from the human samples were aligned to the Human GRCh38 (GENCODE
v32/Ensembl98) using the Cell Ranger-ARC pipeline (v2.0.0; default settings). The reference

genome was downloaded from the 10x Genomics website. To ensure high-quality data
integration, RNA counts were filtered for ambient noise using CellBender[60] (default settings).
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Genotyping and demultiplexing

To maximize cost and efficiency, snRNA-seq was performed on batches of 1-13 donors. We
used Souporcell to demultiplex sequencing reads to the level of individual donors. Briefly,
Souporcell detects genetic variants within sequenced RNA, generates a cell by variant genotype
matrix, and clusters cells based on their allelic assignments.[62] Souporcell version 2.5 was run
using default settings. Clusters were initialized with known genotypes (imputed from DNA
sequencing) provided by the -known_genotypes option. As input, we combined single cell RNA
runs containing the same donors. We verified that samples contained the expected donors by
cross-correlating cluster genotypes for each sample against imputed genotypes for all donors.
We restricted analysis to Souporcell clusters whose genotypes were correlated with imputed
genotypes with a Pearson correlation coefficient of greater than 0.7.

For genotyping, DNA purification was performed with up to 25mg of tissue using the QIAamp
Fast DNA TissueKit and sent to Azenta Life Sciences for 4X WGS. Imputation was performed
using GLIMPSE2 and the HGDP-1kGP reference panel. Only common variants (minor allele
frequency > 5%) were used for Souporcell cluster initialization.

RNA modality

Seurat v5 was used to process the RNA modality by combining all ambient RNA corrected count
matrices (33 libraries total). Nuclei with more than 500 detected genes and less than 20%
mitochondrial counts were retained. Filtered data were normalized using log-normalization, and
the top 2,000 variable genes were identified. Data were then scaled, and PCA was performed
using the selected variable genes. Batch correction and integration across libraries were
performed using the Seurat CCA method. The number of PCs was determined as the point
where selected PCs cumulatively explained at least 90% of the variance and additional PCs
explained less than 5% of the standard deviation of highly variable gene expression. We then
clustered the data at a resolution of 0.7 and clusters were embedded in UMAP space.

Clusters were then annotated based on the enrichment (Log$_2$FC > 0.5, adjusted p-value < 0.05
relative to all other clusters) of the following marker genes: *SNAP25*, *PRPH*, and *NEFH*, as
neurons; and *SPARC*, *MPZ*, and *PTPRC*, as non-neuronal populations. Clusters showing
enrichment of both neuronal and non-neuronal markers were annotated as doublets and
removed. Non-neuronal clusters were then further annotated using *FABP7* and *EDNRB* as
markers for SGCs; *MPZ* and *MBP* for mySCs; *SCN7A* for nmSC; *PTPRC*, *CCR2* and *CD3E* for
Immune cells; *PECAM1* and *FLT1* for Endothelial cells; *NOTCH3* and *KCNJ8* for Pericytes; and
PDGFRA and *TBX18* for Fibroblasts.

Neurons were then subsetted for focused subtype analysis. We then predicted neuronal subtype
identity using Seurat's label transfer method by anchoring the neuronal subset to a human DRG
atlas.[5] For this step, anchor features were defined as genes shared between the dataset and
the atlas, after removing non-coding RNAs and unknown genes. Nuclei with prediction scores
greater than 0.5 were retained for downstream analysis.

To assign nuclei to respective human donors, Souporcell[62] was used in genotype aware mode
for all samples, except H32_NeuN for which genotype sequencing data was not available.
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ATAC modality

For quality control, data were filtered using ArchR[63] (v1.0.3) (number of fragments per cell >
1000, TSS Enrichment > 3). Signac (v1.16.0) was used to process the ATAC modality. Peak
files (.bed) and fragment files generated by Cell Ranger ARC were used to construct
peak-by-cell count matrices for each of the 18 libraries, which were then merged into a single
object. ATAC data were subsetted to retain only RNA-matched cells, and RNA-derived cell
identities were transferred to the ATAC modality based on shared barcodes. Cell-type-specific
peaks were called using MACS2 in BEDPE mode, restricted to standard chromosomes and
excluding blacklist regions. For neurons, the MACS2 peak calling was done with the "broad"
parameter set to TRUE due to higher sparsity of the data. The resulting peak set was used for
all downstream analyses. This workflow was applied both to the full set of annotated cell types
(neuronal and non-neuronal populations) and to a neuron-focused analysis in which neuronal
subtypes were considered separately.
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724   *Pseudobulk-based differential accessibility of human DRG cell types for CRE prioritization*
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Differential chromatin accessibility was assessed on a per–cell type basis using a pseudobulk
strategy implemented in Seurat/Signac and DESeq2. Briefly, cells were grouped by annotated
cell type and randomly assigned to one of n = 10 synthetic pseudoreplicates per cell type
(set.seed = 42 for reproducibility). For each cell type–pseudoreplicate combination, raw
accessibility counts from the MACS2-called peak matrix were aggregated using
AggregateExpression to generate a pseudobulk count matrix with one column per
pseudoreplicate.

For DA testing, we performed repeated one-vs-rest comparisons. A DESeq2 model was fit with
design ~ celltype_replicateID. Peaks with low overall signal were removed prior to modeling
(retaining features with total counts ≥ 10 across all pseudobulk samples). Size factors were
estimated using DESeq2's poscounts method to accommodate sparsity typical of accessibility
data, and the negative binomial model was fitted using fitType = "local". Peaks were considered
differentially accessible based on adjusted p-value thresholds (FDR < 0.05 for analyses for DRG
cell types; FDR < 0.1 for DRG neuronal subtypes) and effect size cutoffs (log2FC > 0.5), as
reported.

Gene regulatory network analysis

To infer cell type-specific gene regulatory network for the human DRG, we used SCENIC+,
which required three inputs: (1) the pseudobulk-based DA regions in human DRG cell types, (2)
the raw gene expression matrix of annotated human nuclei, and (3) the binarized topic-region
associations outputted from pycisTopic. For pycisTopic, we used the same protocol as we did
with mice, with the exception of using the ENCODE black list for humans and no downsampling
was performed for any analyses.

Differential gene expression across sexes

To identify sex-specific transcriptomic differences, we performed pseudobulk differential
expression analysis using the Seurat and DESeq2 packages in R. We aggregated single-cell
RNA counts by sample, sex, and cell type using AggregateExpression to create pseudobulk
profiles, subsequently extracting metadata to reconstruct the experimental design. For each cell
type with sufficient replication (minimum 2 replicates per sex), we performed differential
expression analysis between male and female samples using FindMarkers with the DESeq2
test (test.use = "DESeq2"). To visualize the results, we generated volcano plots using ggplot2
and ggrepel, identifying significant genes (adjusted p-value < 0.05 and $|log_2FC| > 0.5$).

CRE prioritization

To prioritize candidate CREs for functional screening, we first identified genomic regions
exhibiting significant differential chromatin accessibility in target neuronal subtypes (e.g.,
peptidergic or non-peptidergic nociceptors) compared to all other DRG cell types ($Log_2FC > 0.5$,
adj. p-value < 0.05). These candidate peaks were further filtered for evolutionary conservation
by mapping mouse sequences to the human genome using the liftOver tool, ensuring the
selection of elements with conserved regulatory potential. We additionally prioritized CREs
predicted to function as active enhancers by SCENIC+, specifically those linked to
cell-type-specific eRegulons or containing binding motifs for key lineage-defining transcription
factors (e.g., RUNX1, BCL11A). Final candidate enhancer sequences were confirmed using
custom tracks visualized via the UCSC Genome Browser. Genomic coordinates for peaks of
interest (e.g., mm10) were located, and DNA sequences were extracted directly from the
browser. For optimal cloning efficiency, enhancers were selected based on a size constraint of
less than 1 kb in length.

Construction of enhancer-driven AAV expression vectors

Enhancer sequences (see Table S17) were identified and analyzed for unique restriction sites to
facilitate directional cloning. Enhancer templates were generated via genomic DNA extraction
(QIAGEN 69504) or as synthetic gBlocks (IDT). Templates were amplified using Q5
High-Fidelity DNA Polymerase (NEB M0492S) under standard cycling conditions, verified by
agarose gel electrophoresis, and purified (QIAquick, QIAGEN 28104).

Both the AAV backbone and enhancer inserts were digested with appropriate restriction
enzymes (e.g., *MluI*, *SalI-HF*, or *XhoI*). To minimize self-ligation, vectors were dephosphorylated
with Antarctic Phosphatase (NEB M0289S). Digested products were gel-purified and ligated
using T4 DNA Ligase (NEB M0202S) at a 1:5 vector-to-insert molar ratio. Following
transformation into *E. coli* (DH5α) (NEB C2987H), successful clones were screened via colony
PCR or restriction analysis and validated by Sanger or whole-plasmid sequencing (Azenta Life
Sciences). Validated constructs were produced using endotoxin-free Maxiprep (Thermo Fisher
A31231) and submitted for AAV packaging.
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794 **Multiplexed CRE library design**
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A multiplexed library was constructed containing 106 prioritized CREs, a mini CMV enhancer
control, and a No CRE control (see Table S17). For each element, a 275bp sequence flanking
the CRE summit was synthesized as an oPool (IDT) with the following architecture:

5' InFusion overhang - CRE - restriction sites (SpeI, FseI) - barcode - 3' InFusion overhang

Unique barcodes were assigned using the R package DNAbarcodes, following the logic
described in Hrvatin et al. 2019.[41] The oPool was PCR-amplified and cloned into the AAV
backbone as previously described.[64] A functional reporter cassette (containing a minimal CMV
promoter, mGreenLantern-KASH, and WPRE) was subsequently inserted into the library
restriction sites (*SpeI/FseI*) as described[41] with the following architecture:

805   SpeI–minimal CMV promoter--mGreenLantern-KASH--WPRE–FseI

806 The structure of the final AAV library is:

807   AAV ITR-CRE–minimal promoter–mGreenLantern-KASH–WPRE-barcode-polyA-AAV ITR
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810 **Amplification of CRE library and barcoding**
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The CRE library was generated with an approach similar to that described in Hrvatin et al.
2019.[41] In brief, the CRE library was generated by PCR amplification of a synthetic oPool (IDT)
using Q5 High-Fidelity Master Mix (NEB). Amplicons (approx. 350 bp) were purified and verified
via agarose gel electrophoresis. The AAV backbone was linearized through double restriction
digestion and gel-purified to remove template DNA.

The purified oPool inserts were cloned into the linearized vector using In-Fusion Snap Assembly
(Takara Bio 638947). To ensure high transformation efficiency, the assembly products were
concentrated and desalted prior to electroporation into MegaX DH10B T1R cells (Invitrogen
C6400-03). To maintain library representation, we ensured >100X coverage by plating the
library on 245-mm BioAssay dishes (Corning 431111). Transformation efficiency was verified via
serial dilution plates, and individual clones were validated through Sanger or whole-plasmid
sequencing.

Functional cassette insertion and validation

A secondary cloning step was performed to insert the reporter cassette (minimal promoter-Cre-fluorophore-WPRE) into the barcoded library backbone. The cassette was PCR-amplified and inserted via restriction/ligation. To prevent backbone self-ligation, the library was treated with Shrimp Alkaline Phosphatase (rSAP) (NEB M0371S).

The final library was expanded via electroporation as described above. Library diversity and barcode distribution were confirmed by Next-Generation Sequencing (Illumina MiSeq, 2x250bp) of a 150–300 bp amplicon covering the barcode region (see Figure S6A) with an approach previously described.[64] Validated pooled libraries were then processed for AAV packaging.

AAV preparation

The pooled CRE library or individual AAV constructs were packaged into AAV-PHP.S at the Boston Children's Hospital Viral Core or with PackGene Biotech, Inc. The titers ($2–1000 \times 10^{12}$ genome copies/mL) were determined by qPCR and adjusted to order requirements. The purity of the viruses was assessed via SDS-PAGE and the viruses were validated to be endotoxin-free via the Limulus Amebocyte Lysate (LAL) test.

I.C.V. injections

For the intracerebroventricular (ICV) injection procedures in mice, AAV viruses at a dose of 1-4 $\times 10^{10-11}$ gc/ml along with Trypan Blue at a total injection volume of about 3ul were prepared. Neonatal pups at postnatal day 0-4 (P0-4) were cryo-anesthetized for 1-2 minutes and injected with the viruses to cerebral lateral ventricles using a Hamilton Gastight syringe (Hamilton 7653-01) with 32G needle. At least 4 weeks after AAV administration, DRG tissues were collected.

RNAscope *in situ* hybridization

The mouse DRG dissections were performed as previously reported[65,66] with minor modifications. In brief, mice were anesthetized with isoflurane for about 5 minutes and decapitated. The skin and muscles were removed from the dorsal aspect of the mice to expose the spinal cord (SC), then the vertebral columns of the SC were exposed and placed on a tray of ice. DRG were exposed after ½ vertebral columns were removed and the surrounding tissues were cut away. Finally, the collected DRGs were transferred to 4% PFA for a 24h incubation at 4°C, followed by a 24h incubation in 30% sucrose dissolved in PBS at 4°C. For sample preparation, DRG were stored at -80°C in Tissue-Tek O.C.T. compound (Electron Microscopy Sciences 62550-01) until they were cryosectioned. DRG were sectioned at 14 µm thickness, and mRNAs were detected by RNAscope (Advanced Cell Diagnostics, RNAscope® Fluorescent Multiplex Reagent Kit v1) using the manufacturer's protocol. The following probes were used: *eGFP* (Cat# 400281), *Tac1* (Cat# 410351-C2), *Mrgprd* (417921-C2), *Rbfox3* (Cat# 313311-C3).

EGFP, *Sstr2, Calca, Tubb3 Images*

The mouse DRG dissections were performed as previously reported[67] with minor modifications.
In brief, mice were anesthetized with isoflurane for about 5min before cervical dislocation and
decapitation. Fur was doused with 70% EtOH to restrict contamination. Pelt, skin, muscles, and
viscera surrounding the spinal column were removed, and the spinal column was isolated,
bisected, and placed in a dish with HBSS (Gibco 14175-095) on a tray of ice. Lumbar DRG
were dissected and placed into cryomolds that were subsequently filled with Tissue-Tek O.C.T.
compound (Electron Microscopy Sciences 62550-01) and allowed to solidify on dry ice for 5
minutes. DRG were stored at -80°C prior to cryosectioning. Lumbar DRGs were cryosectioned
at 16 μm thickness and adhered to SuperFrost slides (Fisherbrand 12-550-15) and frozen at
-80°C for storage or immediately processed. mRNAs were detected by RNAscope (Bio-Techne
Advanced Cell Diagnostics, RNAscope® Fluorescent Multiplex Reagent Kit v2) using the
manufacturer's protocol. The following probes were used: *eGFP* (Cat# 400281-C1), *Sstr2* (Cat#
437681-C2), *Calca* (Cat# 557031-C3), and *Tubb3* (Cat# 423391-C4).

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Imaging and Quantification

Following FISH, sections were imaged with a Zeiss LSM 710 confocal microscope using the 20x
objective for cell quantification and the 40x oil objective for showing cell markers at higher
resolution. Cell quantifications were performed manually by ImageJ (Fiji, 2.3.0) using regions of
interest (ROIs) to define the quantified area. Cell counts were confirmed by labeling with nuclei
marker DAPI and pan-neuronal marker *Rbfox3*. AAV+ neurons were counted as cells with more
than five *GFP*+ punctate signals per ROI. *Tac1*+ or *Mrgprd*+ cells were counted as cells with
more than five *Tac1*+ or *Mrgprd*+ punctate signals, respectively, per ROI. The number of
neurons that were either *Tac1+GFP+* or *Mrgprd+GFP+* were summed and then divided by the
total number of *GFP*+ cells to obtain either %*Tac1+GFP+* / *GFP*+ cells or %*Mrgprd+GFP+* /
GFP+ cells for each image per replicate. The values for either %*Tac1+GFP+* / *GFP*+ cells or
%*Mrgprd+GFP+* / *GFP*+ cells were averaged across 2-5 images from a given animal and
reported as a replicate. Replicates were obtained from 3-6 different individual mice.

EGFP, *Sstr2*, *Calca*, *Tubb3* Images

Following FISH, sections were imaged with Andor DragonFly 600 Spinning Disk confocal
microscope using the water immersion 25x objective. Cell quantifications were performed
manually by ImageJ (Fiji, 2.17.0) using regions of interest (ROIs) to define the quantified area.
Cell counts were confirmed by labeling with nuclei marker DAPI and pan-neuronal marker
Tubb3. AAV+ neurons were counted as cells with more than five *EGFP*+ punctate signals per
ROI. *Calca*+ or *Sstr2*+ cells were counted as cells with more than five *Calca*+ or *Sstr2*+ punctate
signals, respectively, per ROI. The number of neurons that were either *EGFP+Calca+Sstr2+* or
Calca+Sstr2+ were summed and then divided by the total number of *EGFP*+ or *Calca*+ cells
respectively, to obtain %*EGFP+Calca+Sstr2+* / *EGFP*+ cells or %*Calca+Sstr2+* / *Calca*+ cells
for each image per replicate. The values for either %*EGFP+Calca+Sstr2+* / *EGFP*+ cells or
%*Calca+Sstr2+* / *Calca*+ cells were averaged across 3-6 images from a given animal and
reported as a replicate. Replicates were obtained from 3 different individual mice.

DRG cell dissociation from enhancer AAV injected animals

Adult C57BL/6 mice were euthanized according to institutional guidelines. Spinal columns were dissected, bisected, and DRGs were carefully extracted from all axial levels in ice-cold Hank's Balanced Salt Solution (HBSS; ThermoFisher Scientific, 14175103). Peripheral and central nerve roots were removed to isolate sensory ganglia, which were collected in Dulbecco's Modified Eagle Medium (DMEM; ATCC, 30-2002) supplemented with 1% penicillin-streptomycin (P/S; Thermo Fisher, 15140122) on ice.

Ganglia were enzymatically dissociated using a Collagenase/Type I Trypsin/DNase I mixture (Sigma C9891, T8003; ThermoFisher Scientific 18047019) in DMEM at 37°C. Incubation times were adjusted based on age: 30 min for 4–6-week-old animals and 45 min for animals ≥8 weeks. Digestion was quenched with Neurobasal (NB) medium supplemented with 5% heat-inactivated fetal bovine serum (HI-FBS; Gibco, 16140063), 1% P/S, and 1X B27 supplement (Gibco, 17504044). Ganglia were triturated sequentially with fire-polished glass pipettes of decreasing bore size until a single-cell suspension was achieved, followed by filtration through a 70 µm nylon mesh (Pluristrainer, 43-10070-60). Cells were layered onto a 15% bovine serum albumin (BSA; Sigma, A9205) gradient and centrifuged at 130 × g for 10 min to remove debris. The pelleted cells were gently resuspended in NB medium, ensuring a final BSA concentration ≤2% to maintain compatibility with downstream single-cell applications (10x Genomics). Cell viability was assessed by trypan blue exclusion and hemocytometer counting. Preparations with >80% viable cells and minimal debris were used for downstream applications, including single-cell RNA sequencing.

scRNA-seq of enhancer AAV libraries

Cell suspensions were sequenced using 10x Genomics assays, resuspended, and loaded into the 10x Chromium device for snRNA-seq (10x Genomics v3.1).

Targeted cDNA enrichment

Custom enrichment of targeted transcripts was performed using cDNA generated from the 10x Genomics Chromium Next GEM Single Cell 3' RNA v3.1 workflow. For each enrichment reaction, 2 ng of cDNA template (obtained post-cDNA amplification) was amplified using Q5 High-Fidelity 2X Master Mix (New England Biolabs M0492S). The reaction was performed in a 25µL volume with a final concentration of 500 nM for each of the following primers:

- Forward (Partial Read 1): 5'-CTACACGACGCTCTTCCGATCT-3'
- Reverse: 5'-TGTGCACTGTGTTTGCTGACGC-3'

The PCR amplification was conducted with an initial denaturation at 98°C for 30 seconds, followed by 15 cycles of denaturation at 98°C for 10 seconds, annealing at 69°C for 20 seconds, and extension at 72°C for 30 seconds. A final extension was performed at 72°C for 2 minutes.

Post-amplification, the enriched product was purified using the QIAquick PCR Purification Kit
(Qiagen) and eluted in a volume of 22µL EB. Product integrity and size distribution were
assessed via Agilent TapeStation. The purified, enriched product was integrated back into the
standard 10x Genomics workflow starting at Step 3.1 (Gene Expression Library Construction).
To account for the specific nature of the enriched fragments, the enzymatic fragmentation time
was reduced from 5 minutes to 2 minutes. All subsequent steps, including adapter ligation and
index PCR, were completed according to the Chromium Next GEM Single Cell 3' Reagent Kits
v3.1 (Dual Index) User Guide.

All other libraries were prepared for scRNA-seq according to the manufacturer's protocol.
Libraries were sequenced on an Illumina NextSeq 2000 or shipped to GENEWIZ (Azenta Life
Sciences) for sequencing on the Illumina NovaSeq X Plus platform to an approximate read
depth of ~20,000 reads per cell. Our scRNA-seq analysis pipeline followed a protocol similar to
our previous studies;[6,61] the key steps for the single virus and AAV CRE libraries are detailed
below.
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Single-cell RNA-seq processing of CRE libraries
All single-cell libraries (single-virus CREs and AAV CRE libraries) were aligned to the mm10
genome (modified to include the viral vector backbone sequence) using 10x Genomics
CellRanger v9. Ambient RNA was removed using CellBender v0.3.0 (single-virus libraries:
v0.3.0), using default parameters for both CellRanger and CellBender. For the AAV CRE library,
viral barcode detection was performed from CellRanger BAM outputs. Viral barcoded reads
were extracted using custom Python scripts, and annotated by matching read sequences to the
known CRE barcode list (allowing a single base-pair mismatch).
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For both the single-virus and AAV CRE libraries, ambient RNA-corrected filtered gene count
matrices were processed in Seurat v4. Low quality cells were excluded (detected genes > 500;
mitochondrial reads < 20%). Data were then split by sequencing library and integrated across
runs using Seurat's standard workflow as described in Bhuiyan et al., 2024. Clustering was
performed at resolution = 1.0, and clusters were annotated using established marker genes for
neuronal (*Snap25*, *Rbfox3*) and non-neuronal populations (e.g., *Sparc*, *Ptprc*, *Ptgfra*).
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978   For single-virus libraries, a second round of integration was performed. The neuronal population
979   was subsetted and reintegrated using the same pipeline with a stricter QC threshold (detected
980   genes > 1,000). Final neuronal identities were assigned by anchoring to the Bhuiyan et al.,
981   2024[6] mouse DRG reference atlas using Seurat v4 label transfer; predicted labels were used as
982   final annotations.
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For the AAV CRE library, transcriptomic processing, filtering, integration, clustering, and
marker-based annotation were performed as above, followed by Seurat v4 label transfer to the
Bhuiyan et al., 2024[6] DRG mouse neuron-only reference atlas. Predicted labels were used as
final annotations, except for clusters enriched for *Sparc* and *Mpz*, which were classified as
non-neuronal.

To quantify CRE activity across functional neuronal classes, a cell class specificity ratio was
computed for each CRE as: number of CRE barcode–positive cells in a given DRG cell class
divided by number of barcode–positive cells across all other cell classes. DRG cell classes were
defined by aggregating transcriptomic clusters into: C-PEP (Calca+Sstr2, Calca+Dcn,
Calca+Oprk1, Calca+Adra2a), C-NP.Mrgpra3 (Mprgra3+Trpv1, Mrgpra3+Mrgprb4),
C-NP.Mrgprd, C-NP.SST, A-LTMR (Ntrk3^{high}+Ntrk2, Ntrk3^{high}+S100a16, Ntrk3^{low}+Ntrk2), A-PEP
(Calca+Smr2, Calca+Bmpr1b), A-Propr, C-LTMR.Th, C-Thermo (Trpm8 and Rxfp1), and
non-neurons.

To define the "on-target" cell type for each CRE, candidate on-target sets (e.g., C-NP.Sst,
C-Thermo.Trpm8) were assigned based on accessible peak evidence from UCSC Genome
Browser tracks (downsampled to 270 cells per cell type). A DA score was then calculated by
comparing chromatin accessibility in the proposed on-target versus off-target cell types. DA was
computed using a logistic regression test (test.use = "LR") with peak counts as a latent variable
(latent.vars = "nCount_MACS"). On-target assignments were designated "highly likely" (Table
S16) when the DA value (log2FC on-target vs off-target) was positive.

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PAIN-net development

To decode the regulatory logic determining cell-type specificity, we developed PAIN-net, a deep
convolutional neural network (CNN) framework that predicts chromatin accessibility and
differential expression directly from DNA sequence. We chose this architecture because CNNs
can learn non-linear relationships, both between input sequences and between input sequences
and the predicted variable(s), and CNNs do not require explicit featurization. Consequently,
previous studies have shown that CNNs sufficiently infer CRE function from sequences.[43,69]

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Model architecture
PAIN-net utilizes a 1D Residual Network (ResNet) architecture to process 800-bp input
sequences. The ResNet architecture was chosen for its ability to learn complex, high-order motif
combinations while mitigating gradient degradation in deep models.[70,71] The network is
composed of an initial convolutional layer followed by five stacked residual blocks. To integrate
sequence information across broader genomic contexts, we employed dilated convolutions
within these blocks with exponentially increasing dilation rates. This design expands the
receptive field to capture long-range interactions while preserving single-nucleotide resolution,
as demonstrated in previous genomic models like Basenji.[71] The feature maps are aggregated
via global average pooling and fed into a shared dense layer. This layer bifurcates into two
task-specific heads: one predicting differential expression (log2-fold change) and the other
predicting chromatin accessibility (ATAC-seq signal from bigwig files) across cell types.

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Data preprocessing and encoding
To identify subtype-specific regulatory elements, we performed differential accessibility analysis
on single-cell ATAC-seq data using the FindAllMarkers function in Signac.[72] We compared each
neuronal subtype against all other subtypes to identify differentially accessible sequences. The

analysis was conducted using default parameters with specific adjustments to account for
technical covariates and capture a broad range of fold-changes: the logistic regression test
(test.use = "LR") was employed with peak counts as a latent variable (latent.vars =
"nCount_MACS") and the log2-fold change threshold set to zero (log2fc.threshold = 0). The
resulting log2-fold change (log_2FC) values served as the primary regression targets for the
differential expression head of the model. Additionally, to capture absolute chromatin
accessibility levels, each sequence was annotated with raw fragment number per base.

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Genomic sequences were centered on the identified peaks and fixed to a length of 800 base
pairs (bp). DNA sequences were one-hot encoded into an 800 x 4 binary matrix. To improve
model invariance to strand orientation and increase the effective training set size, data
augmentation was performed by including the reverse complement of all training sequences.
Target labels (log_2FC and ATAC signal) were standardized to zero mean and unit variance per
cell type to ensure gradient stability during training.

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Model training and optimization
The model was trained using a multi-objective loss function. We minimized a hybrid loss
combining Mean Squared Error (MSE) and Pearson correlation (r) for the expression head (L =
MSE - r). This ensured that the model prioritized both the magnitude of fold-changes and the
relative expression ranking across cell types. A standard MSE loss was applied to the chromatin
accessibility head as an auxiliary task to regularize the shared representation.

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To mitigate the sparsity of rare neuronal subtypes, we implemented a dynamic weighting
strategy. Loss contributions were balanced by the inverse frequency of available data per cell
type. Furthermore, we applied targeted boosting weights (2x) to biologically critical but
underrepresented clusters (i.e peptidergic subtypes) while dampening dominant signals to
prevent overfitting to majority classes (0.5x; i.e Atf3). Training was performed using the Adam
optimizer with a learning rate of 10^{-3}. We utilized early stopping based on the mean Pearson
correlation of the validation set to prevent overfitting.

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In silico mutagenesis
We performed *in silico* saturation mutagenesis (ISM) on CRE1-115 to quantify position- and
nucleotide-specific contributions to predicted enhancer activity across all modeled cell types.
For each CRE, we extracted an 800-bp sequence window centered on the peak summit by
taking 400 bp of flanking sequence upstream and 400 bp downstream of the peak center, and
one-hot encoded each sequence into an 800×4 matrix (A/C/G/T). The PAIN-net model was used
to generate predictions, and target-specific output scalers (loaded from a pickled dictionary)
were applied to inverse-transform model outputs back to the original scale (reported as log_2FC).
For each sequence, a baseline prediction was computed for the wild-type input, followed by
generation of all single-nucleotide variants at every position (3 substitutions per valid base; 800
positions; 18 cell types). For each cell type, an ISM matrix of shape 4×800 was constructed
where each entry represents the change in predicted activity (Δlog2FC) for substituting a given
base at a given position relative to the wild-type prediction. Per-CRE outputs were saved into a
hierarchical directory structure (CRE → target), including (i) fixed-scale heatmaps of the ISM

matrix (−1 to 1), (ii) per-mutation scatterplots of Δlog2FC versus position colored by mutant
base (−1 to 1), and (iii) attribution-style sequence logos derived by assigning the wild-type base
at each position the negative mean effect of its alternative substitutions (−1 to 1). In addition, for
each target we computed an "importance profile" defined as the maximum absolute Δlog2FC
across the four bases at each position, and aggregated these profiles across all CREs to
produce global summary heatmaps (0 to 1) showing position-wise importance per sequence for
each target.
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Electrophysiological data acquisition and analysis

Primary sensory neuron culture
35-mm culture dishes were sequentially coated with Poly-D-Lysine (1–2 h, 37°C) and laminin
(2.5 µg/mL), then air-dried prior to plating. Dorsal root ganglia (DRGs; ~35 per mouse) were
harvested from wild-type mice (≥postnatal day 10) into ice-cold DMEM/F12. Tissue was
enzymatically digested in HBSS containing Collagenase A (2 mg/mL) and Dispase (2 mg/mL)
for 60 min at 37°C, followed by mechanical trituration to a single-cell suspension. To eliminate
myelin and debris, the suspension was centrifuged (200 rcf, 12 min) through a 30% BSA density
gradient. The resulting neuronal pellet was resuspended in complete Neurobasal medium (B27,
Glutamax, Pen/Strep) and seeded at ~100,000 cells/dish. For experiments requiring $K_{ir}2.1$
expression, neurons were transduced *in vitro* immediately following dissociation. Control
neurons were not transduced. AAV vectors (CAG-K_{ir}2.1-mCherry, or CRE1-K_{ir}2.1-mCherry)
were applied at a titer of 1 x 10^{13} vg/mL. Specifically, 1–2 microliters of viral stock (1–2 x 10^{10} vg)
was added to 5 x 10^5 cells in a 200 µL volume. Cultures were incubated overnight, and
electrophysiological recordings were performed 24–48 hours post-dissociation to ensure robust
ion channel expression.

Recording configurations and quality control

Whole-cell patch-clamp recordings were performed 24–48 h post-dissociation using an EPC 10
amplifier (HEKA) at room temperature. Small-diameter nociceptive neurons (<25µm,
capacitance<15pF) were targeted. Recording electrodes (5–6 MΩ) were filled with a
K-gluconate-based internal solution (see below). Following giga-ohm seal formation, series
resistance (10–15 MΩ) was compensated by ≥80%. Data were sampled at 20 kHz and low-pass
filtered at 5 kHz.

Electrophysiological solutions
The standard extracellular bath solution contained (in mM): 155 NaCl, 3.5 KCl, 1.5 $CaCl_2$, 1
$MgCl_2$, 10 HEPES, and 10 glucose (pH 7.4 adjusted with NaOH). The intracellular pipette
solution consisted of (in mM): 140 K-gluconate, 13.5 NaCl, 1.8 $MgCl_2$, 0.09 EGTA, 9 HEPES, 14
creatine phosphate (Tris salt), 4 MgATP, and 0.3 Tris-GTP (pH 7.2 adjusted with KOH).[73]
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1115 *Stimulation protocols and data analysis*
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1117 The resting membrane potential (RMP) was measured in current-clamp mode immediately after
1118 achieving the whole-cell configuration without current injection. Cell capacitance was

determined by the amplifier's automated compensation circuit. In voltage-clamp mode, total ionic currents were elicited from a holding potential of −60 mV using 500-ms voltage steps ranging from −120 to -40 mV in 10 mV increments, with a 1s interpulse interval. Neuronal excitability was assessed in current-clamp mode using 2-s depolarizing steps (10–50 pA increments). Rheobase was defined as the minimum current required to elicit an action potential.

While CAG-Kir2.1-mCherry neurons were identified by robust fluorescence, CRE1-driven expression was often indistinguishable from autofluorescence. To objectively identify successfully transduced cells in the CRE1 group, we utilized a functional inclusion criterion based on neuronal excitability. Based on an initial characterization of control neurons, which exhibited a consistent rheobase (Mean: 55.5 pA), we established a threshold for "High Rheobase" cells. Cells in the experimental groups (CRE1-K_{ir}2.1-mCherry) were categorized as CRE1-K_{ir}2.1-mCherry cells in Figure 6 if they exhibited a rheobase >200 pA (Figure S8A). This stringent threshold (representing a >3.5-fold increase over the control mean) served as a physiological proxy for successful K_{ir}2.1 expression, as the increased membrane leak conductance provided by K_{ir}2.1 is known to shunt depolarizing currents and increase the threshold for action potential firing.[74]

Current densities (pA/pF) were calculated by normalizing peak or steady-state currents to cell capacitance. Data were analyzed using custom MATLAB scripts and OriginPro, with statistical comparisons (unpaired t-tests) performed in GraphPad Prism 9. Results are presented as mean ± SEM.

Human iPS-derived nociceptors and cardiomyocytes cell culture assay

The human iPS cell-derived nociceptors and cardiomyocytes cell culture were performed as described here: iPS cell-derived nociceptors were plated at 5,000/well density and co-cultured with 2,000 glial cells in 384-well plate, iPS cell-derived cardiomyocytes were plated at 10,000/well without co-culture. Human iPS cells were infected by directly adding concentrated AAV viral particles with multiple titers: $1x10^9$, $1x10^{10}$, $1x10^{11}$, $1x10^{12}$ to a well plate, two well plate replicates per group. Cells were re-fed every two days with maintenance medium (Nociceptors: DMEM/F-12 Glutamax (ThermoFisher Scientific 10565018), N-2 Supplement (ThermoFisher Scientific A1370701), B-27 Supplement (ThermoFisher Scientific A3353501), BDNF (Bio-Techne R&D Systems 248-BDB-050/CF), GDNF (Bio-Techne R&D Systems 212-GD-050/CF), ß-NGF (Bio-Techne R&D Systems 256-GF-100/CF), NT-3 (Bio-Techne R&D Systems 267-N3-025/CF); Cardiomyocytes: RPMI 1640 medium (ThermoFisher Scientific 11835055), 1x B27 supplement with insulin (ThermoFisher Scientific 17504-044)). After culturing for two weeks, cells were fixed with 4% PFA for 0.5h and rinsed with PBS three times. Following that, the images were acquired with a Zeiss LSM 710 confocal microscope using the 10x objective and 40x objective for zoom-in images.

DATA AND CODE AVAILABILITY

1161   All custom code used to integrate data is available on Git

1162   (https://github.com/Renthal-Lab/painseq-multiome). Raw sequencing data and final objects will

1163   be deposited into GEO.

Figure Legends

Figure 1: snMultiome of mouse and human DRG

A: Workflow displays schematic of experimental design.

B: (*Top, Left*) UMAP projections displaying 23,928 mouse DRG nuclei colored by cell type or (*Top, Right*) log-normalized *Snap25* expression. (*Bottom, Left*) Dot plot displaying log-normalized gene expression (red) or log-normalized ATAC gene activity scores (blue) for DRG cell type marker genes. ATAC gene activity scores are defined as the sum of ATAC fragments falling within the gene body and the 2 kb region upstream of the transcription start site (TSS). Dot size represents the percentage of nuclei expressing the marker gene (RNA) or the percentage of nuclei with accessible chromatin at the marker gene locus (ATAC). (*Bottom, Right*) Genomic tracks displaying normalized chromatin accessibility at the *Snap25* locus for each mouse DRG cell type.

C: (*Top, Left*) UMAP projections displaying 155,008 human nuclei colored by log-normalized *SNAP25* expression or (*Top, Right*) cell type. (*Bottom, Left)* Genomic tracks displaying normalized chromatin accessibility at the *SNAP25* locus for each human DRG cell type. (*Bottom, Right*) Dot plot displaying log-normalized gene expression (red) or log-normalized ATAC gene activity scores (blue) for canonical marker genes. ATAC gene activity scores are defined as the sum of ATAC fragments falling within the gene body and the 2 kb region upstream of the TSS. Dot size represents the percentage of nuclei expressing the marker gene (RNA) or the percentage of nuclei with accessible chromatin at the marker gene locus (ATAC).

D: Heatmap displays the average (Z-scaled Transverse Frequency-Inverse Document Frequency [TF-IDF] normalized mean) number of fragments for all nuclei across the top 2,000 differentially accessible peaks (columns) for each mouse DRG cell type ($\log_2 FC > 0.5$, adj. p-val < 0.05 relative to all other cell types). Rows represent DRG cell types.

E: Bar chart displays the mean proportion of mouse differentially accessible (DA) peaks ($\log_2 FC > 0.5$, adj. p-val < 0.05 relative to all other mouse cell types) that are syntenic with human DRG differentially accessible peaks ($\log_2 FC > 0.5$, adj. p-val < 0.05, relative to all other human cell types) in the corresponding DRG cell type. Values are estimated by bootstrapping (100 iterations), sampling 50 peaks per iteration from the top 500 mouse DA peaks for each cell type. Error bars indicate standard error across iterations. Gray bars indicate control test done using differentially accessible peaks with randomly shuffled cell type labels (*** = adj.p-value < 0.0001, Z-test comparing distribution of overlap of differentially accessible peaks with peaks randomly shuffled across cell types).

F: Heatmap displays the average (Z-scaled TF-IDF-normalized mean) number of fragments for all nuclei across the top 2,000 differentially accessible peaks (columns) for each human DRG cell type ($\log_2 FC > 0.5$, adj. p-val < 0.05 relative to all other cell types). Rows represent DRG cell types.

G: (*Top, Left*) Dotplot displays the eRegulon activity scores (dot color) of transcription factors in mouse DRG cell types. Dot size represents the percentage of nuclei with non-zero eRegulon

scores. (*Top, Right*) Diagram displays schematic of what is factored in the calculation of an eRegulon activity score - transcription factor (TF) expression, peak region accessibility and target gene expression. (*Bottom, Left*) Genomic tracks display normalized chromatin accessibility at the *Elavl2* locus for each mouse DRG cell type. Highlighted region indicates a candidate *cis*-regulatory element (CRE) with a predicted ISL1 binding motif. Loops show Pearson correlation (p-val. < 0.05) of CRE accessibility and RNA expression of *Elavl2.* (*Bottom, Right*) UMAP projection displays ISL1 eRegulon activity scores (color scale) in mouse DRG cell types (downsampled to 2,414 nuclei for visualization purposes).

H: (*Top*) Dotplot displays the eRegulon activity scores (dot color) of transcription factors expressed in human DRG cell types. Dot size represents the percentage of nuclei with non-zero eRegulon scores. (*Bottom, Left*) UMAP projection displays ISL1 eRegulon activity scores (color scale) across 95,515 human nuclei and includes all cell types found in Fig. 1C. (*Bottom, Right*) Genomic tracks display normalized chromatin accessibility at the *ELAVL2* locus for each human DRG cell type. The highlighted region indicates a candidate CRE with a predicted ISL1 binding motif. Loops show Pearson correlation (p-val. < 0.05) of CRE accessibility and RNA expression of *ELAVL2.*

Figure 2: snMultiome of mouse and human DRG neuronal subtypes

A: UMAP projection displays snMultiome data from 21,064 mouse (*Left*) and 6,893 human (*Right*) DRG neurons. Nuclei are projected into the mouse[6] or human[5] reference atlas space. (*Middle*) Nuclei are colored by neuronal subtype, according to the key between the UMAPs. Transcriptomically corresponding neuronal subtypes between mouse and human are connected by lines.

B: Dot plot displaying log-normalized gene expression (red) or log-normalized ATAC gene activity scores (blue) for marker genes of mouse DRG neuronal subtypes. ATAC gene activity scores are defined as the sum of ATAC fragments falling within the gene body and the 2 kb region upstream of the TSS. Dot size represents the percentage of nuclei expressing the marker gene (RNA) or the percentage of nuclei with accessible chromatin at the marker gene locus (ATAC).

C: Heatmap displays the average (Z-scaled TF-IDF-normalized mean) number of fragments for all nuclei across the top 2,000 differentially accessible peaks (rows) for each mouse neuronal subtype ($log_2FC > 0.5$, adj. p-val < 0.05 relative to all other neuronal subtypes). Columns represent DRG neuronal subtypes.

D: Dot plot displaying log-normalized gene expression (red) or log-normalized ATAC gene activity scores (blue) for canonical marker genes for human neuronal subtypes. ATAC gene activity scores are defined as the sum of ATAC fragments falling within the gene body and the 2 kb region upstream of the TSS. Dot size represents the percentage of nuclei expressing the marker gene (RNA) or the percentage of nuclei with accessible chromatin at the marker gene locus (ATAC).

E: Heatmap displays the average (Z-scaled TF-IDF-normalized mean) number of fragments for all nuclei across the top 150 differentially accessible peaks (rows) for each human neuronal subtype (log_2FC > 0.5, adj. p-val < 0.1 relative to all other neuronal subtypes). Columns represent DRG neuronal subtypes.

F-G: Heatmap displays SCENIC+ eRegulon activity scores (z-scaled) of TFs (columns) in mouse (F) or human (G), averaged across DRG neuron subtypes (rows).

H: UMAP projections display log-normalized *Bcl11a* gene expression (first UMAP from the left) and BCL11A eRegulon activity scores (second UMAP) in mouse DRG neuronal nuclei. UMAP projections displaying log-normalized *BCL11A* expression (third UMAP) and BCL11A SCENIC+ eRegulon activity scores (fourth UMAP) for human DRG neuronal nuclei are also shown.

I: Sankey plot displays differentially accessible peaks in mouse for each neuronal subtype (log_2FC > 0.5, adj. p-value < 0.05 relative to all other neuronal subtypes) that are also predicted to comprise SCENIC+ eRegulons or which have syntenic peaks in the human DRG neurons. Bars and ribbons are colored by mouse neuronal subtypes. Green vertical bars indicate overlap, red vertical bars indicate no overlap.

Figure 3: Screening candidate CREs for nociceptor specificity

A: Schematic of the experimental strategy used to screen AAV expression patterns in DRG driven by candidate CREs.

B: Genomic tracks display chromatin accessibility at the loci of candidate CREs in distinct mouse DRG neuronal subtypes.

C: (*Top, Left*) Viral cargo schematic (mP: minimal promoter, teal box: reporter construct, blue box: P2A) and representative 20X images of mouse DRG labeled by RNAscope *in situ* hybridization for *Tac1* (magenta) and *EGFP* (green) mRNA (first 4 rows), or for *Mrgprd* (blue) and *EGFP* (green) mRNA (bottom row). White arrowheads indicate either *Tac1* and *EGFP* or *Mrgprd* and *EGFP* signal colocalization. (*Bottom, Left*) Quantification of *Tac1* and *EGFP* mRNA colocalization for each candidate CRE. (One-way ANOVA, $F_{(3,27)}$ = 6.80, p < 0.001; Dunnett's multiple comparisons test; **p = 0.001, CRE1 vs. CAG, * p < 0.05, CRE2 vs. CAG). (*Bottom, Right*) Quantification of *Mrgprd* and *EGFP* mRNA colocalization for CRE8 (One-way ANOVA, $F_{(2,6)}$ = 7.42, p = 0.024; Dunnett's multiple comparisons test; *p < 0.05 CRE8 vs. CAG). Data are presented as mean ± SEM. Each point represents a biological replicate. n = 2-5 animals per CRE). Scale bar, 25 μm.

D: UMAP projection displays 34,899 mouse DRG neurons, 1,032 of which expressed AAV transcripts (>1 AAV transcript/cell; colored by CREs). Cells without detected AAV transcripts are gray. Projections and cell type annotations use the mouse reference UMAP space.[6]

E: Quantification of C-PEP (*Left*) or C-NP (*Right*) target ratios (AAV transcripts in C-PEP or C-NP subtype / AAV transcripts in all other subtypes) for candidate CRE1, CRE6, and CRE8 as measured by scRNA-seq. Cell class specificity target ratios are normalized to the CAG control ratio. Error bars indicate the standard deviation of randomly sampled cells in each group (n = 5

1283   iterations). Significance was determined by Fisher's exact test (ns: not significant, *: p < 0.05, **:
1284   p < 0.01, ***: p < 0.001). C-PEP subtypes: C-PEP.Calca+Sstr2, C-PEP.Calca+Dcn,
1285   C-PEP.Calca+Oprk1; C-NP subtypes: C-NP.Mrgprd, C-NP.Mrgpra3+Trpv1,
1286   C-NP.Mrgpra3+Mrgprb4.

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Figure 4: Multiplexed *in vivo* AAV screen to functionally assess CRE activity in DRG

A: Schematic of the experimental strategy used for multiplexed CRE screen. mGL:
mGreenLantern; bc: Barcode.

B: UMAP projection displays scRNA-seq of 10,442 DRG cells from mice infected with a
multiplexed AAV CRE library. Cells are colored if AAV barcodes were detected (>1 barcode/cell;
2,275 cells). Projections are in the mouse reference UMAP space.[6]

C: (*Bottom*) Genomic tracks display chromatin accessibility profiles in mouse DRG at loci for
candidate CREs included in specificity analysis across 5 DRG cell classes. (*Middle*) Dotplot
displays cell class specificity ratios across 5 DRG cell classes. The cell class specificity ratio
(y-axis) is defined as the number of CRE barcode-positive cells in a specific cell class divided by
the number of barcode-positive cells in all other cells. Dot color represents cell class specificity
ratio (Z-scaled), and dot size corresponds to the number of a given CRE's barcodes that were
detected per cell type. Ratios are normalized to the negative control (NC: No CRE). (*Top*) The
bar plot displays the on/off target expression ratio for each CRE, where on-target cell types are
defined by the chromatin accessibility at each CRE locus. The on/off target expression ratio is
calculated as the number of CRE barcodes detected in on-target cell types cell types divided by
the number of CRE barcodes cells in off-target (inaccessible) cell types, normalized to the
negative control (No CRE). Only CREs with viral barcodes detected in > 6 cells were analyzed.

D: Scatter plot displays $\log_2$FC differential accessibility of on-target cell types compared to off
target cells (x-axis) versus the on/off target expression ratio for CRE barcode expression
(y-axis). On-target cell type definition and ratio are the same as C. Dashed line indicates the
correlation between the on/ff target expression ratio and on-target accessibility of all 41 CREs
(Spearman's *r* = 0.26); solid line indicates the same correlation after removing CREs with viral
barcodes detected only in off-target cell types (Spearman's *r* = 0.47).

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Figure 5: Machine learning prioritization of candidate CREs

A: (*Left*) Workflow schematic displays PAIN-net model training and validation. PAIN-net was
trained on sequences of differentially accessible peaks (in each neuronal subtype compared to
all others) to predict cell type-specific accessibility ($\log_2$FC in each neuronal subtype compared
to all others) and peak signal. Training was performed on 85% of the data, while testing was
performed on the held-out 15%. (*Right*) Heatmap displays the Pearson correlation between
predicted and measured differential accessibility for each neuronal subtype ($\log_2$FC compared to
all other neuronal subtypes). Results are shown for the held-out 15% data (median r = 0.72) and
shuffled sequences (median r = -0.07). Color bars indicate broader neuronal classes and the

order of subtypes within those classes is from the top to bottom: Red: Atf3, Blue: C-PEP
(C-PEP.Calca.Adra2a, C-PEP.Calca.Dcn, C-PEP.Calca.Oprk1, C-PEP.Calca.Sstr2), Green:
A-PEP (A-PEP.Calca.Smr2, A-PEP.Calca.Bmpr1b), Purple: C-NP (C-NP.Mrgpra3.Mrgprb4,
C-NP.Mrgpra3.Trpv1, C-NP.Mrgprd, C-NP.Sst), Orange: A-LTMR (A-LTMR.Ntrk3^{high}.Ntrk2,
A-LTMR.Ntrk3^{high}.S100a16, A-LTMR.Ntrk3^{low}.Ntrk2), Yellow: A-Propr.Pvalb, Brown: C-LTMR.Th,
Pink: C-Thermo (C-Thermo.Rxfp1, C-Thermo.Trpm8).

B: PAIN-net recapitulates cell type specificity of CRE1, 6, and 8. Predicted log$_2$FC was
calculated for CRE1, CRE6, CRE8 and CAG control using PAIN-net for C-PEP.Calca+Sstr2
(*Left*) and C-NP.Mrgprd (*Right*) populations. All scores are normalized to the predicted log2FC of
CAG. Predicted log2FC is defined as the PAIN-net predicted accessibility for a given neuronal
subtype compared to all other neuronal subtypes. Orange bar (on-target): Predicted log2FC of
C-PEP.Calca+Sstr2 (*left;* target subtype for CRE1 and CRE6) or C-NP.Mrgprd (*right;* target
subtype for CRE8). Blue bar (off-target): Sum of predicted log2FC for all cell types aside from
C-PEP.Calca+Sstr2 (*left*) or C-NP.Mrgprd (*right*).

C: PAIN-net predictions correlate with CRE driven AAV barcode expression. Scatter plot shows
PAIN-net predicted on-target differential accessibility versus the on/off target expression ratio of
CRE barcode expression driven in the multiplexed AAV scRNA-seq screen (Spearman's r =
0.33, p < 0.05). On-target cell types are defined as having accessible chromatin at the CRE
locus (Table S15; see Methods). On-target differential accessibility is defined as the accessibility
of on-target cell types compared to off target cell types.

D: Sequence logos display motifs significantly enriched (q-value < 0.05) in the top PAIN-net
predicted sequences for each neuronal subtype, relative to GC-matched backgrounds. Top
sequences are defined as the 1,000 regions with the highest predicted differential accessibility
(Log$_2$FC) compared to all other cell types. Each motif is labeled with the best-matching
transcription factor predicted to bind. Sequence logo size is based on nucleotide frequency.

E: Plot displays the cumulative impact of *in silico* mutations across an 800bp sequence window
on PAIN-net predicted accessibility, averaged over 43 CREs. Predicted ΔLog$_2$FC (y-axis) is
calculated as the sum of the absolute Δlog$_2$FC values across on target cell types (red line) or
off-target cell types (blue line). The gray line serves as a negative control derived from random
DNA sequences.

F: *In silico* saturation mutagenesis of CRE1 identifies key bases driving differential accessibility
in C-PEP.Calca+Sstr2. Vertical grey bands mark putative transcription factor binding sites that
coincide with high-impact regions. (*Top*) Attribution sequence logos illustrate the contribution of
each nucleotide to C-PEP.*Calca+Sstr2* differential accessibility. Nucleotide height represents the
predicted negative average impact of mutation on accessibility. (*Bottom*) Saturation
mutagenesis scatter plot depicting the predicted impact (Δlog$_2$FC compared to original
sequence) of every possible single-nucleotide substitution. Points are colored by the substituted
base.

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Figure 6: Functional and translational applications of nociceptor-specific AAVs

A: (*Top*) Workflow for DRG dissociation, viral transduction, and whole-cell patch-clamp
recording. (*Top, Middle*) Representative image of CAG infected cultured DRG neurons (red).
(*Bottom*) Construct maps for the experimental vectors expressing $K_{ir}2.1$ under the ubiquitous
CAG promoter or CRE1 and mP (minimal promoter).

B: Representative voltage responses to current injection steps (step protocol shown above)
from Control (*Left*), CAG-$K_{ir}2.1$-mCherry (*Middle*), and CRE1-$K_{ir}2.1$-mCherry (*Right*) cells.
Control neurons exhibit repetitive firing. In contrast, CAG and CRE1 neurons exhibit a failure to
fire at low current steps, with red traces indicating the increased rheobase.

C: Summary data showing the minimum current required to elicit an action potential (rheobase).
Neurons expressing $K_{ir}2.1$ via CAG and CRE1 showed significantly higher rheobase compared
to controls (Control, n = 20; CAG, n = 9; CRE1, n = 17). Data are presented as mean ± SEM.
One-way ANOVA with multiple comparisons (* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, **** $p < 0.0001$) ($F_{(2, 43)}$ =
76.72, $p < 0.0001$). Post hoc analysis using Dunnett's multiple comparisons test revealed that
rheobase was significantly increased in both the CAG group ($p < 0.0001$) and the CRE1 group
($p < 0.0001$) compared to control. Sample sizes (n) represent individual neurons recorded
across at least 2 independent preparations.

D: Quantification of resting membrane potential (RMP) showing a significant hyperpolarization
of neurons expressing $K_{ir}2.1$ both via CAG and CRE1 compared to control cells (Control, n = 20;
CAG, n = 8; CRE1, n = 17). Data are presented as mean ± SEM. One-way ANOVA with multiple
comparisons (* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, **** $p < 0.0001$) ($F_{(2, 42)}$ = 40.08, $p < 0.0001$). Post hoc
analysis using Dunnett's multiple comparisons test showed that RMP was significantly
hyperpolarized in the CAG group compared to control ($p < 0.0001$), as well as in the CRE1
group ($p = 0.0014$). Sample sizes (n) represent individual neurons recorded across at least 2
independent preparations.

E: Current-voltage (I-V) relationships for cells in Control, CAG-$K_{ir}2.1$-mCherry, and
CRE1-$K_{ir}2.1$-mCherry groups. Steady-state current density (pA/pF) plotted against membrane
potential (mV). Neurons expressing $K_{ir}2.1$ via CAG and CRE1 exhibit characteristic
inward-rectifying currents at hyperpolarized potentials compared to Control cells, consistent with
expression of $K_{ir}2.1$ (Control, n = 6; CAG, n = 6; CRE1, n = 11).

F: Representative immunofluorescence images of iPSC-derived cardiomyocytes and
nociceptors. Cells were transduced with AAV vectors expressing EGFP driven by the CAG
promoter, CRE1, or CRE8. Images are representative of n = 3-5 independent experiments. Blue
= DAPI; Green = EGFP. Scale bars = 100 μm.
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Figure S1: Analysis pipeline and RNA-level quality control metrics for mouse and human
DRG cell types

A: Barplot displays the fraction of neurons and non-neurons obtained from the multi-omic
sequencing of *Sun1-GFP+/-;vGlut2-Cre+/-* sorted mouse DRG nuclei. Error bars represent
standard error across libraries.

B: (*Left*) Barplot displays fraction of neurons and non-neurons obtained from multi-omic
sequencing of human DRG nuclei. Error bars represent the standard error across samples.
(*Right*) Barplot displays the fraction of neuronal enrichment in each sample that was sorted
either for a high 7AAD signal or both high 7AAD and NeuN signals. Lines connect
measurements from the same human DRG samples (dots) using each sorting strategy.

C: Flowchart displays the bioinformatic pipeline detailing how snMultiome data was processed
for mouse DRG. See Methods for details.

Abbreviations: ATAC (assay for transposase-accessible chromatin); QC (quality control);
nFeature (number of detected genes per cell); percent.mt (percentage of mitochondrial reads);
FrIP (fraction of reads in peaks); nFrags (number of ATAC fragments per cell); TSS
(transcription start site); UMAP (uniform manifold approximation and projection); eRegulon
(enhancer-driven regulatory module)

D: Flowchart displays the bioinformatic pipeline detailing how snMultiome data was processed
for human DRG. See Methods for details.
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Figure S2: snMultiome level (RNA+ATAC) quality control metrics for mouse and human
DRG cell types

A: Plots display RNA-level snMultiome metrics for mouse DRG nuclei that passed quality
controls and were included in downstream analyses. (*Top*) Stacked bar plots display the number
of neuronal (blue) and non-neuronal (gray) nuclei that passed quality controls by sample.
(*Middle*) Box plots display the number of unique genes detected per nucleus in each sample.
(*Bottom*) Box plot displays the percentage of mitochondrial reads detected per nucleus in each
sample. The median value is indicated by the horizontal black line inside the box. Boundaries of
the boxes mark quartiles, and whiskers represent 1.5 times the interquartile range (Q1–Q3).
Krauter and Techameena refer to previous publications, Krauter et al., 2025[20] and Techameena
et al., 2024,[19] respectively.

B: Plots display RNA-level snMultiome metrics for human DRG nuclei that passed quality
controls and were included in downstream analyses. (*Top*) Stacked bar plots display the number
of neuronal (blue) and non-neuronal (gray) nuclei that passed quality controls by sample.
(*Middle*) Box plots display the number of unique genes detected per nucleus in each sample.
(*Bottom*) Box plot displays the percentage of mitochondrial reads detected per nucleus in each
sample. The median value is indicated by a black line inside the box. Boundaries of the boxes
mark quartiles, and whiskers represent 1.5 times the interquartile range (Q1–Q3).

C: Plots display ATAC-level snMultiome metrics for mouse DRG nuclei that passed quality
controls and were included in downstream analyses. (*Top*) Bar plot displays the number of
nuclei that passed quality controls, colored by sample. (*Middle*) Box plots display TSS
enrichment scores per nuclei for each sample. (*Bottom*) Box plots display unique fragments
detected per nuclei in each sample. The median value is indicated by a black line inside the
box. Boundaries of the boxes mark quartiles, and whiskers represent 1.5 times the interquartile
range (Q1–Q3). (*Bottom, Left*) Histogram displays the fragment size distribution of ATAC-seq

fragments for each sample, with the y-axis representing the percentage of fragments per
sample. Lines are colored by sample. (*Bottom, Right*) Tn5 insertion profile displays normalized
insertion signal around transcription start sites for each sample (x-axis shows distance from TSS
center in bp; y-axis shows normalized insertion profile).

D: Plots display ATAC-level snMultiome metrics for human DRG nuclei that passed quality
controls and were included in downstream analyses. (*Top*) Bar plot displays the number of
nuclei that passed quality controls, colored by sample. (*Middle*) Box plots display the distribution
of TSS enrichment scores per cell for each sample. (*Bottom*) Box plots display the distribution of
unique fragments detected per cell for each sample. The median value is indicated by a black
line inside the box. Boundaries of the boxes mark quartiles, and whiskers represent 1.5 times
the interquartile range (Q1–Q3). (*Bottom, Left*) Histogram displays the fragment size distribution
of ATAC-seq fragments for each sample, with the y-axis representing the percentage of
fragments per sample. Lines are colored by sample. (*Bottom, Right*) Tn5 insertion profile
displays the normalized insertion signal around transcription start sites for each sample (x-axis
shows distance from TSS center in bp; y-axis shows normalized insertion profile).

E: Heatmap displays z-scaled, log-normalized expression of marker genes (columns) for each
cell type (rows) in mouse DRG. Marker genes are defined as differentially expressed in each
cell type compared to all other (Log$_2$FC > 0.5, adj. p-val < 0.05).

F: Heatmap displays z-scaled, log-normalized expression of marker genes (columns) for each
cell type (rows) in human DRG. Marker genes are defined as differentially expressed in each
cell type compared to all others (Log$_2$FC > 0.5, adj. p-val < 0.05).

G: Stacked barplot displays the distribution of DRG cell types annotated in each donor.
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Figure S3: Donor-level integration and sex-specific differences in human DRG cell types

A: (*Left*) UMAP projection clustered by gene expression (same as in Figure 1C) displays
145,562 human DRG nuclei that passed RNA quality controls. Nuclei are colored by donor ID.
DRG cell types are outlined (dashed outlines). (*Right*) UMAP projection clustered by chromatin
accessibility displays 67,025 human DRG nuclei that passed ATAC quality controls. Nuclei are
colored by donor ID. DRG cell types are outlined (dashed outlines) and annotated.

B: (*Left*) UMAP projection clustered by gene expression (same as in Figure 1C) displays
145,562 human DRG nuclei that passed RNA quality controls. Nuclei are colored by sex. DRG
cell types are as in A. (*Right*) UMAP projection clustered by chromatin accessibility displays
67,025 human DRG nuclei that passed ATAC quality controls. Nuclei are colored by sex. DRG
cell types are as in A.

C: Volcano plots display the log$_2$FC (x-axis) and adj. p-values (y-axis) of genes differentially
expressed in mouse males compared to females for each DRG cell type (log$_2$FC > 0.5, adj.
p-value < 0.05; threshold indicated by dotted black lines).

D: Volcano plots display the log_2FC (x-axis) and adj. p-values (y-axis) of genes differentially
expressed in human males compared to females for each DRG cell type ($log_2FC > 0.5$, adj.
p-value < 0.05; threshold indicated by dotted black lines).

E: Pie chart displays the fraction of MACS2-called peaks in mice DRG that are located in
distinct genomic regions, as annotated by ChIPSeeker.[75] Peaks within the promoter window
were defined as those falling −1 kb to +100 bp relative to the annotated TSS. Peaks were
annotated as Distal if they lay within ±200 kb of a TSS and are not promoters, or as Intergenic if
they were ≥200 kb from the nearest TSS.

F: Pie chart displays the fraction of MACS2-called peaks that are located in distinct genomic
regions, as annotated by ChIPSeeker. Genomic regions defined as in E.

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1496   **Figure S4: QC plots for snMultiome analysis of mouse and human DRG neuronal**
1497   **subtypes**

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1499   **A**: Pie chart displays the fraction of MACS2-called peaks from mouse DRG neurons located in
1500   distinct genomic regions, as annotated by ChIPseeker. Promoter peaks are defined as those
1501   falling within −1 kb to +100 bp of the annotated TSS. Distal peaks are defined as regions within
1502   ±200 kb of a TSS but are not promoters, while Intergenic peaks are those ≥200 kb from the
1503   nearest TSS.

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1505   **B**: Pie chart displays the fraction of MACS2-called peaks from human DRG neurons located in
1506   distinct genomic regions, as annotated by ChIPseeker. Genomic regions are defined as in A.

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C: Boxplot displays TSS enrichment scores per nucleus in mouse DRG neurons and
non-neurons that passed all QC filters. TSS enrichment scores are defined as the fold change in
read density at transcription start sites relative to the average background signal in the 100 bp
distal flanking regions.

D: Boxplot displays TSS enrichment scores per nucleus in human DRG neurons and
non-neurons that passed all QC filters. TSS enrichment scores are defined as the fold change in
read density at transcription start sites relative to the average background signal in the 100 bp
distal flanking regions.

E: Genomic tracks display chromatin accessibility at loci of canonical marker genes for each
mouse DRG neuronal subtype. Accessibility at each locus (y-axis) is scaled to the max value
across all cell types (rows). Gene bodies for each marker gene are displayed along the x-axis.

F: Genomic tracks of chromatin accessibility at loci of marker genes for each human DRG
neuronal subtype. Accessibility at each locus (y-axis) is scaled to the max value across all cell
types (rows). Gene bodies for each marker gene are displayed along the x-axis.

G: UMAP projection displays 18,238 mouse (*Top*) and 1,597 human (*Bottom*) nuclei clustered
by their eRegulon scores (see Methods). Nuclei are colored by cell type annotations (as in
Figure 2).

H: Genomic tracks display chromatin accessibility of a candidate SCENIC+ CRE upstream of *Sstr2* in mice (left) and *PVALB* in humans (right). Boxed region indicates that the CREs are predicted binding sites for *BCL6* (mice) and *RUNX3* (humans). Loops show Pearson correlation (p-val. < 0.05) of enhancer accessibility and RNA expression of *BCL6* or *RUNX3.*

Figure S5: Screening candidate CREs for C-PEP.Calca+Sstr2 specificity

A: Representative images of mouse DRG neurons labeled by RNAscope *in situ* hybridization respectively for *Tac1* (magenta), *Mrgprd* (blue), *Hapln4* (white), *Fam19a4* (red), and viral *EGFP* (green) mRNA for CRE1, with insets illustrating colocalization of *EGFP* and *Tac1* for CRE1. Scale bar, 25 µm.

B: Stacked bar plots of the fraction of each DRG neuronal subtype that express the respective CRE barcodes (>1 AAV transcript/cell). Colors correspond to C-NP or C-PEP subtypes; all other cell types are gray.

C: Representative images of mouse DRG neurons infected with AAVs using NoCRE, CAG, CRE1, or CRE6 to drive *EGFP* expression. DRG neurons are labeled by RNAscope *in situ* hybridization for *Calca* (blue), *Sstr2* (magenta) and *EGFP* (green) mRNA. Scale bar, 25 µm. Quantification in D.

D: Quantification of *Calca, Sstr2,* and *EGFP* mRNA colocalization per *EGFP*+ cell for No CRE, CAG, CRE1, and CRE6 (n = 3-4 lumbar DRGs per mouse from 3 animals). One-way ANOVA, $F_{(3,8)}$ = 2.005, p = 0.0404, Dunnett's multiple comparisons test for No CRE versus CRE1. Data are presented as mean ± SEM.

E: Quantification of C-PEP.Calca+Sstr2 cells as a percentage of *Calca*+ cells that are also *Sstr2*+. Data are presented as mean ± SEM.

Figure S6: Characterization of CRE Library Complexity, Barcode Recovery, and Chromatin Accessibility

A: Distribution of CRE barcodes detected in the library AAV multiplexed CRE library as measured by next-generation DNA sequencing. Reads were binned by their associated CRE barcode (left y-axis) and their frequency distribution is plotted (dark gray). Cumulative distribution of detected CRE barcodes indicates coverage of all 106 prioritized CREs, the mini CMV enhancer, and no CRE negative controls (light gray, right y-axis) in the library.

B: Histogram of number of DRG cells expressing viral barcodes from the multiplexed CRE library as measured by scRNA-seq (106 CREs + 2 controls). Only CREs detected in at least 6 cells were used (red line). No CRE control was over-represented in the library to ensure robust comparison for each CRE.

C: Dotplot displays cell class specificity ratios across 10 distinct DRG cell classes. The cell class specificity ratio (x-axis) is defined as the number of CRE barcode-positive cells in a specific cell class divided by the number of barcode-positive cells in all other cells. Dot color represents cell

class specificity ratio (Z-scaled), and dot size corresponds to the number of viral barcodes detected per cell type. Ratios are normalized to the negative control (NC: No CRE).

Figure S7: Constructing PAIN-net to aid in the prioritization of DRG CREs

A: Scatter plots compare experimentally measured (x-axis) versus predicted (y-axis) $\log_2FC$ of each neuronal subtype compared to all others. Data points are all held-out validation sequences (15%). Each subplot reports the Pearson correlation (*r*) and sequence count (*n*). The dashed diagonal line (y=x) indicates perfect prediction accuracy.

B: PAIN-net predicted on-target accessibility of candidate CRE sequences correlates with their measured on-target accessibility. On-target cell types are defined by the accessibility at each CRE locus in the multiplexed CRE library. CREs were designed to target multiple neuronal subtypes, so predicted and measured on-target accessibilities were summed across their on-target subtypes (Table S16).

C: PAIN-net predicts bases that drive cell type-specific differential accessibility in motifs of cell-type-specific transcription factors. Split violin plots display the distributions of predicted mutation impacts (delta $\log_2FC$ in each cell type compared to all other cell types) for the core consensus motif (purple) and the 10 bp flanking sequence (gray), aggregated across 1,000 randomized genomic backgrounds. Plots represent the aggregate results for *Atf3, Runx1, Jun,* and *Isl1* across DRG cell types (sorted by effect size). The X-axis displays the mean change in accessibility across the three possible mutations.

Figure S8: Functional applications of nociceptor-specific AAVs

A: Summary data showing the minimum current required to elicit an action potential (rheobase). Data is the same as in Figure 6C but also includes data from all CRE1-K_{ir}2.1 neurons without functional stratification (>200 pA rheobase, red dashed line) to confirm K_{ir}2.1 expression. Statistical significance was determined using a one-way ANOVA with multiple comparisons (* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, **** $p < 0.0001$). Sample sizes (Control, n = 20; CAG, n = 9; CRE1 total, n = 45) represent individual neurons recorded across at least 2 independent preparations.

Supplemental Tables

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1. Donor information - SuppTable1_Sample_Donor_Sex.csv
2. Mouse DRG DE List - SuppTable2_DE_Mm_DRG.csv
3. Human DRG DE List - SuppTable3_DE_Hg_DRG.csv
4. Mouse DRG DA List - SuppTable4_DA_Mm_DRG.csv
5. Human DRG DA List - SuppTable5_DA_Hg_DRG.csv
6. Mouse DRG SCENIC+ Table - SuppTable6_Scenicplus_Mm_DRG.csv
7. Human DRG SCENIC+ Table - SuppTable7_Scenicplus_Hg_DRG.csv
8. Mouse DRG Neurons DE List - SuppTable8_DE_Mm_DRG_Neurons.csv
9. Human DRG Neurons DE List - SuppTable9_DE_Hg_DRG_Neurons.csv
10. Mouse DRG Neurons DA List - SuppTable10_DA_Mm_DRG_Neurons.csv
11. Human DRG Neurons DA List - SuppTable11_DA_Hg_DRG_Neurons.csv
12. Mouse DRG Neurons SCENIC+ Table -
SuppTable12_SCENIC_eregulons_Mouse_DRG_Neurons.csv
13. Human DRG Neurons SCENIC+ Table -
SuppTable13_SCENIC_eregulons_Human_DRG_Neurons.csv
14. Enhancer prioritization Table - SuppTable14_Mouse_DA_Peaks_Conservation.csv
15. Opool on-target definitions - SuppTable15_oPool_ontargetness.csv
16. PAIN-net prediction values - SuppTable16_validation_predictions.csv
17. List of all CREs and details - SuppTable17_CRE_key_mm10_sequences.csv

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Data and Code Availability: All custom code used to integrate data is available on Git (https://github.com/Renthal-Lab/painseq-multiome). Raw sequencing data and final objects will be deposited into GEO after manuscript acceptance.

Author contributions: L.S.H., P.B., S.A.B., and W.R. designed, conceptualized, wrote, and reviewed the study. **J.W., L.J., M.X., L.Y., and L.S.H.** constructed AAVs. **P.B., S.A.B., and D.Z.** performed bioinformatics analyses. **E.S.** performed mouse and human DRG multi-omic profiling. **J.L., M.X., L.Y., E.G., C.A., L.S.H., K.P., E.K.W., and J.W.** performed and analyzed *in situ* hybridization. **L.S.H. and J.W.** performed single-cell sequencing. **J.L. and S.J.** performed iPSC experiments. **L.S.H., J.L., J.W., H.J.Y., and Q.L.** performed *in vivo* injections and procedures. **J.N.** and **B.W.** performed electrophysiology and associated analysis. **P.B., J.W., J.X.J.L., S.H. and W.R.** performed enhancer prioritization and library design. **D.G.** performed donor DNA sequencing and demultiplexing. **L.S.H., P.B., S.A.B., and W.R.** wrote the manuscript with input from all authors. **W.R.** supervised the research. All authors reviewed and approved the manuscript.

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Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3

Figure 4

A Sequences of differentially accessible peaks

C-PEP

C-NP
⋮

All subtypes

CNN Training

Predictive performance on 15% held-out data

Predicted DA

Measured DA
Original Sequences

Measured DA
Shuffled sequences

Spearman's r

Neuronal Classes
- Atf3
- C-PEP
- A-PEP
- C-NP
- A-LTMR
- A-Propr
- C-LTMR
- C-Thermo

B
C-PEP.Calca+Sstr2

C-NP.Mrgprd

Predicted Log₂FC (normalized to CAG)

No CRE | CAG | CRE1 | CRE6 | CRE8

■ Off target ■ On target

C
Measured on/off target expression ratio

Predicted on-target accessibility

Spearman's r = 0.33

D
Atf3	C-PEP	C-NP.SST
Atf3	Bcl6	Cdx2
A-Propr.Pvalb	A-LTMR	C-NP.Mrgprd
Runx (RUNT)	RARα	Klf4
C-LTMR.Th	C-Thermo	A-PEP
Runx1	Hoxa9	Isl1

E
Predicted ΔLog₂FC

Nucleotide position

Mean across CREs — Off-target — On-target — Random

F
BCL6/11   RUNT LRF RUNT   Homeobox   AP-1

CRE1 Position importance

Importance score

CRE1 Saturation mutagenesis

Predicted ΔLog₂FC

Mutated to
- A
- C
- T
- G

Position (bp)

Figure 5

Figure 6

Figure S1

Figure S2

Figure S3

Figure S4

Figure S5

Figure S6

Figure S7

Figure S8