

1 Visceral and Somatic Pain Modalities Reveal

2 Nav1.7-Independent Visceral Nociceptive Pathways

3
4 **Short title:** Role of Nav1.7 in Visceral Nociception

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54 **Keywords**

55 Visceral pain; visceral nociception; voltage gated sodium channel; Nav1.7; colorectal;
56 heat pain.

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62 **Key Points Summary**

- 63 • Voltage-gated sodium channels play a fundamental role in determining neuronal
64 excitability
- 65 • Specifically, voltage-gated sodium channel subtype Nav1.7 is required for sensing
66 acute and inflammatory somatic pain in mice and humans but its significance in
67 pain originating from the viscera is unknown.
- 68 • Using comparative behavioural models evoking somatic and visceral pain
69 pathways, we identify the requirement for Nav1.7 in regulating somatic (noxious
70 heat pain threshold) but not in visceral pain signalling.
- 71 • These results enable us to better understand the mechanisms underlying the
72 transduction of noxious stimuli from the viscera, suggest that the investigation of
73 pain pathways should be undertaken in a modality-specific manner and help to
74 direct drug discovery efforts towards novel visceral analgesics.

75 **Abstract**

76 Voltage-gated sodium channel Nav1.7 is required for acute and inflammatory pain in
77 mice and humans but its significance for visceral pain is unknown. Here we examine the
78 role of Nav1.7 in visceral pain processing and the development of referred hyperalgesia
79 using a conditional nociceptor-specific Nav1.7 knockout mouse (Nav1.7^{Nav1.8}) and
80 selective small-molecule Nav1.7 antagonist PF-5198007. Nav1.7^{Nav1.8} mice showed
81 normal nociceptive behaviors to intracolonic application of either capsaicin or mustard
82 oil, stimuli known to evoke sustained nociceptor activity and sensitization following
83 tissue damage, respectively. Normal responses following induction of cystitis by
84 cyclophosphamide were also observed in both Nav1.7^{Nav1.8} and littermate controls. Loss,
85 or blockade, of Nav1.7 did not affect afferent responses to noxious mechanical and
86 chemical stimuli in nerve-gut preparations in mouse, or following antagonism of Nav1.7
87 in resected human appendix stimulated by noxious distending pressures. However,
88 expression analysis of voltage-gated sodium channel α subunits revealed Nav1.7 mRNA
89 transcripts in nearly all retrogradely-labelled colonic neurons suggesting redundancy in
90 function. By contrast, using comparative somatic behavioral models we identify that
91 genetic deletion of Nav1.7 (in Nav1.8-expressing neurons) regulates noxious heat pain
92 threshold and that this can be recapitulated by the selective Nav1.7 antagonist PF-
93 5198007. Our data demonstrates that Nav1.7 (in Nav1.8-expressing neurons)
94 contributes to defined pain pathways in a modality-dependent manner, modulating
95 somatic noxious heat pain but is not required for visceral pain processing, and
96 advocates that pharmacological block of Nav1.7 alone in the viscera may be insufficient
97 in targeting chronic visceral pain.

98

99 **Abbreviations**

BSA	Bovine serum albumin
CIP	Congenital insensitivity to pain
CT	Quantification cycles
DRG	Dorsal root ganglia
FB	Fast Blue
GAPDH	Glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase
IC/BPS	Interstitial cystitis/bladder pain syndrome
LS	Lumbosacral
Nav	Voltage-gated sodium channel
PEPD	Paroxysmal extreme pain disorder
PO	<i>Per os</i>
QST	Quantitative standardized testing
TL	Thoracolumbar
TRPV1	Transient receptor potential cation channel V1
TTX-R	Tetrodotoxin-resistant
TTX-S	Tetrodotoxin-sensitive

100

101 **Introduction**

102 Chronic pain originating from internal organs affects significant proportions of the
103 population with analgesics restricted by dose-limiting side-effects. Persistent pain and
104 visceral hypersensitivity manifests as reduced thresholds for mechanical distension of
105 visceral organs and are strongly associated with inflammation. The targeting of
106 peripheral sensory input, either by peripheral nerve block (Cherry *et al.*, 1985; Brown,
107 1989; Eisenberg *et al.*, 1995) or local anaesthetics (Verne *et al.*, 2003; Verne *et al.*, 2005)
108 has proven effective in treating visceral pain. However, our understanding of key
109 sensory afferent transduction mechanisms responsible for visceral nociception is
110 limited. Here, we investigate voltage-gated sodium channel Nav1.7 in both visceral and
111 somatic pain behaviors and show that peripheral pain pathways of the viscera are
112 functionally distinct from classical nociceptors, providing evidence supporting
113 functional diversity of nociception and confirmation that novel analgesic development
114 must be applied in a mechanism-specific manner.

115 Rare human genetic conditions link Nav1.7 to pain perception, with loss-of-function
116 mutations causing congenital insensitivity to pain (CIP) (Cox *et al.*, 2006; Goldberg *et al.*,
117 2007). Recapitulation of the human painless phenotype using knockout mice genetically
118 engineered to globally lack Nav1.7 results in complete loss of responses to acute,
119 inflammatory and neuropathic pain (Gingras *et al.*, 2014). Using tissue-specific Nav1.7
120 knockout mice (including nociceptor-specific Nav1.7^{Nav1.8} mice (Nassar *et al.*, 2004),
121 pan-sensory neuron Nav1.7^{Advill} mice (Minett *et al.*, 2012) and pan-sensory and
122 sympathetic neuron Nav1.7^{Wnt1} mice (Minett *et al.*, 2012)) modality-specific pain
123 pathways associated with acute heat and mechanical detection, hyperalgesia and
124 allodynia have been linked with differing Nav repertoires.

125 Intriguingly, CIP patients feel no visceral pain with reports of both painless childbirth
126 and rupture of appendix (Melzack & Wall, 1988; Zimmermann *et al.*, 1988; Wheeler,
127 2015), suggesting that Nav1.7 may be required for visceral nociception. Rectal pain is a
128 symptom of paroxysmal extreme pain disorder (PEPD), another condition associated
129 with rare Nav1.7 mutations (Fertleman *et al.*, 2006), with defecation capable of
130 triggering pain attacks implicating a link to anorectal distension. In patients with
131 interstitial cystitis/bladder pain syndrome (IC/BPS), pain perception associates with
132 Nav1.7 mutations (Reeder *et al.*, 2013). Like other chronic pain conditions, a hallmark of
133 IC/BPS is ongoing pain in the absence of obvious pathophysiology (Dimitrakov &
134 Guthrie, 2009). Therefore Nav1.7 could be involved in maintaining spontaneous pain,
135 such as peripheral or central sensitization, in addition to evoked pain attributed to
136 mechanical stimulation. Surprisingly, whilst broad-spectrum sodium channel blockers
137 are effective in treating chronic visceral pain, selective Nav1.7 antagonists (ProTx-II)
138 and monoclonal blocking antibodies targeting Nav1.7 have been unable to fully
139 recapitulate loss of Nav1.7 mutant phenotypes to other chronic pain models
140 (Schmalhofer *et al.*, 2008; Lee *et al.*, 2014). Indeed, selective antagonism of Nav1.7 with
141 ProTx-II also failed to block afferent responses to stretch of the colorectum (Feng *et al.*,
142 2015), suggesting the contribution of Nav1.7 to visceral pain processing is still unclear.
143 In light of recent findings that Nav1.7 is essential for some (acute heat and mechanical
144 pain, inflammatory hyperalgesia and neuropathic allodynia), but not all (acute cold pain,
145 cancer-induced bone pain and oxaliplatin-evoked allodynia) pain modalities, we
146 investigated visceral pain and referred hyperalgesia using a conditional nociceptor-
147 specific Nav1.7 knockout mouse (Nav1.7^{Nav1.8}) and selective Nav1.7 antagonist PF-
148 5198007. Thus, using comparative behavioral models evoking somatic and visceral pain
149 pathways we identify specific mechanisms regulating noxious heat pain threshold and

150 show that Nav1.7 in Nav1.8-expressing neurons is not required for visceral pain
151 signalling.

152 **Materials and Methods**

153 Experiments were performed in adult mice weighing 20 – 35 g. Conditional nociceptor-
154 specific Nav1.7 knockout mice (Nav1.7^{Nav1.8}) and their littermate controls were
155 generated as described previously (Nassar *et al.*, 2004). Observers performing
156 behavioral and *ex vivo* electrophysiological experiments were blind to the genotypes of
157 the animals. Animals were acclimatized for at least one week before behavioral testing
158 in temperature and light-controlled (12hr light/dark cycle) rooms. All experiments
159 were performed in accordance with the UK Animals (Scientific Procedures) Act of 1986 or
160 with the EU Directive 2010/63/EU for animal experimentation, with approval of the
161 University of Granada Research Ethics Committee (Granada, Spain). Human tissues were
162 collected and utilised with approval of the East London and The City HA Local Research
163 Ethics Committee (London, UK; NREC 10/H0703/71) in accordance with the Declaration
164 of Helsinki and following full written informed consent.

165 *Behavioral experiments*

166 Experiments were performed on both male and female knockout and wild-type
167 littermate control mice. Visceral pain and referred hyperalgesia was assessed using
168 previously described methods, with small modifications (Olivar & Laird, 1999; Laird *et*
169 *al.*, 2001; Gonzalez-Cano *et al.*, 2013). Briefly, mice were acclimatized for 40 minutes to
170 test chambers (consisting of a transparent box on an elevated wire mesh floor) after
171 which 50µl of capsaicin (0.1 or 1%), mustard oil (0.01 or 0.1%) or vehicle was instilled
172 intrarectally *via* a thin cannula inserted into the anus and the animal returned to the
173 chamber. The number of spontaneous pain behaviors (including licking of abdomen,
174 stretching of abdomen and abdominal retractions) were recorded for the subsequent 20
175 minutes. In a separate set of experiments, visceral pain behaviors caused by
176 cyclophosphamide-induced cystitis were examined following a previously described

177 protocol (Olivar & Laird, 1999). Again after a 40 min habituation, animals were
178 removed from the test chamber and cyclophosphamide (100 or 200mg/kg) or vehicle
179 injected intraperitoneally. The animals were returned to the chamber and pain
180 behaviors recorded according to the following scale: 0 = normal, 1 = piloerection, 2 =
181 strong piloerection, 3 = labored breathing, 4 = licking of the abdomen and 5 = stretching
182 and contraction of the abdomen. If more than one of these behaviors was noted during a
183 single observation period, then only the type and not quantity of each different pain
184 behavior was scored (i.e. if two stretching and contractions (5 points) and one
185 abdominal licking (4 points) was observed, then a score of 9 was assigned).

186 After the evaluation of spontaneous pain behaviors (primary behavioral endpoint), the
187 presence of referred hyperalgesia was determined by measuring the withdrawal
188 response to a punctate mechanical stimulation (von Frey hair filaments 0.02 – 2 g (0.19-
189 19.6 mN), Touch-Test Sensory Evaluators, North Coast Medical Inc., USA) of the
190 abdomen using the up-down paradigm 20 minutes after algogen administration
191 (Chaplan *et al.*, 1994). Avoiding the perianal and external genitalia, the mid-range 0.4 g
192 von Frey hair filament was applied (three times for 2-3 sec at 5 sec intervals) to the
193 lower and mid abdomen. If a positive response (consisting of immediate
194 licking/scratching of the application site, sharp retraction of the abdomen or jumping)
195 was observed, then probing was repeated in consecutive tests with a weaker von Frey
196 filament. By contrast if there was no response to probing then a stronger von Frey
197 filament was used. Once the withdrawal threshold (secondary behavioral endpoint) was
198 ascertained, mice were humanely killed by concussion of the brain and cervical
199 dislocation of the neck.

200 *Electrophysiological recordings of visceral afferent activity*

201 Nerves innervating murine and human gastrointestinal tissues were isolated and
202 electrophysiological activity recorded using previously described methods (Peiris *et al.*,
203 2011; Hockley *et al.*, 2014). Mice were humanely killed by concussion of the brain and
204 cervical dislocation of the neck. The distal colon with associated lumbar splanchnic
205 nerves was removed and transferred to a recording chamber superfused (7 ml/min; 32-
206 34 °C) with carbogenated Krebs buffer (in mM: 124 NaCl, 4.8 KCl, 1.3 NaH₂PO₄, 2.5
207 CaCl₂, 1.2 MgSO₄·7H₂O, 11.1 glucose, and 25 NaHCO₃) supplemented with nifedipine (10
208 μM), atropine (10μM) and indomethacin (3 μM). The same supplemented Krebs buffer
209 was used to lumenally perfuse (100 μl/min) the colon after cannulation.

210 To translate murine experimental recordings into human tissue, we recorded extrinsic
211 nerve activity from resected human appendices. We have previously shown that the
212 appendix represents a valid human *ex vivo* model of visceral afferent activity amenable
213 to the testing of mechanical and chemical stimuli (Peiris *et al.*, 2011). Specifically, the
214 extrinsic nerves of the appendix are a branch of those innervating the right colon along
215 the ileocolic artery and represent a readily available tissue in normal non-inflamed (e.g.
216 from colon cancer resections) states. Resected appendices were obtained from 5
217 patients undergoing elective surgery at Barts Health NHS Trust, London after full
218 written consent was attained. Appendices were removed from patients undergoing
219 right hemicolectomies as part of their normal surgical treatment for bowel cancer or
220 slow transit constipation (see Table 1 for details) with the permission of the
221 histopathologist and were returned to the morbid anatomy department after
222 completion of the studies. Once removed, appendix specimens were immediately placed
223 in cold Krebs buffer and handled in a comparable manner to mouse distal colon tissues.
224 Removal of the tip and cannulation enabled intraluminal perfusion, in addition to
225 superfusion with Krebs buffer (7 mL/min; 32-34 °C) supplemented with 10 μM

226 nifedipine and 10 μ M atropine. Under a dissection microscope, mesenteric
227 neurovascular bundles were bluntly dissected and associated nerves identified and
228 cleared of connective tissue. Using borosilicate glass suction electrodes, multi-unit
229 activity from whole lumbar splanchnic nerves (rostral to the inferior mesenteric
230 ganglia) of mouse, or from mesenteric nerves of human bowel tissues, was recorded.
231 Signals were amplified and band pass filtered (gain 5 K; 100-1300 Hz; Neurolog,
232 Digitimer Ltd, UK) and digitized at 20 kHz (micro1401; Cambridge Electronic Design,
233 UK) before display on a PC using Spike 2 software. The signal was digitally filtered for
234 50 Hz noise (Humbug, Quest Scientific, Canada) and a threshold of twice the background
235 noise (typically 100 μ V) was used to determine action potential firing counts.

236 *Electrophysiological protocols*

237 Following a stabilizing period of 30 minutes, noxious intraluminal distending pressures
238 were applied by blocking the luminal perfusion out-flow of the cannulated mouse distal
239 colon or resected human appendix. The noxious pressures reached evoke pain
240 behaviors *in vivo* and are above threshold for all known visceral afferent
241 mechanoreceptors (Ness & Gebhart, 1988; Hughes *et al.*, 2009). In murine experiments,
242 a combined sequential protocol was used to initially assess multiple aspects of visceral
243 afferent mechanosensitivity and chemosensitivity. Specifically, a set of 6 rapid phasic
244 distensions (0-80 mm Hg, 60 s at 9 min intervals) followed by slow ramp distension (0-
245 145 mmHg, ~5-6 min) were implemented prior to bath superfusion of separate 20 ml
246 volumes of 1 μ M bradykinin and 1mM ATP at 40 min intervals. In separate experiments,
247 the effect of pharmacological inhibition of Nav1.7 on visceral afferent sensitivity to
248 mechanical distension or noxious stimulation by capsaicin, mustard oil or bradykinin
249 was tested. A set of 9 rapid phasic distensions (0-80 mm Hg, 60 s at 9 min intervals)
250 followed by a 30 min stabilization period and bath superfusion of 1 μ M bradykinin in a

251 20 ml volume were performed. Prior to the 7th phasic distension, bath superfusion of
252 the selective Nav1.7 antagonist PF-5198007 (100 nM; 500 mL; (Alexandrou *et al.*,
253 2016)) or vehicle (0.1 % DMSO) was initiated and maintained for the duration of the
254 remaining three distensions and bradykinin application. In some experiments, after a
255 wash-out period, repeat phasic distensions were performed during which 250 ml
256 tetrodotoxin (TTX; 100 nM) was superfused. In separate experiments, a ramp
257 distension (0-145mmHg) was performed followed by bath superfusion of capsaicin
258 (500nM) and mustard oil (250 µM) at 1 hour interval. Five minutes prior to application
259 of capsaicin, either 100nM PF-5198007 or vehicle (0.1% DMSO) was applied for the
260 duration of the subsequent stimulations. Human appendix specimens were stimulated
261 in a comparable manner by repeat ramp distension (0-60 mm Hg, ~30 s at 9 min
262 intervals). Baseline responses were established for three distensions prior to the
263 superfusion of PF-5198007 (100 nM or 1 µM) for 50 min during subsequent
264 distensions.

265 *Retrograde labelling of gut-specific sensory neurons and single-cell qRT-PCR*

266 Distal colon-specific sensory neurons were retrogradely labelled, picked and the
267 expression of mRNA transcripts of interest determined by qRT-PCR. A mid-line 1.5cm
268 laparotomy was performed on male mice after induction of anaesthesia with 1.5%
269 isoflurane. Multiple injections of Fast Blue (FB: 0.2 µl per site, 2% in saline, Polysciences
270 GmbH, Germany) were made using a fine pulled-glass needle and microinfusion pump
271 (0.4 µl/min) into the wall of the distal colon. Prior to suturing of the peritoneal muscle
272 layer and securing the skin with Michel clips, the abdominal cavity was flushed with
273 saline to remove any excess FB. Post-operative care (monitoring body weight and soft
274 diet) and analgesia (buprenorphine 0.05-0.1 mg/kg daily) was provided for the

275 duration of the protocol. Three to five days after surgery, mice were humanely killed by
276 concussion of the brain and cervical dislocation of the neck, and thoracolumbar (TL:
277 T10-L1) and lumbosacral (LS: L5-S2) dorsal root ganglia (DRGs) were harvested and
278 cultured separately for gene expression experiments. Dissected ganglia were incubated
279 at 37°C (in 5% CO₂) in Lebovitz L-15 Glutamax (GIBCO, UK) media containing 1mg/ml
280 collagenase type 1A (Sigma) and 6mg/ml bovine serum albumin (BSA; Sigma, UK) for
281 15 min, followed by L-15 media containing 1mg/ml trypsin (Sigma, UK) and 6mg/ml
282 BSA for 30 min. Ganglia were gently triturated and collected by brief centrifugation at
283 500 *g*. The supernatant (containing dissociated cells) was collected and the cycle of
284 gentle trituration and centrifugation repeated. Cells from TL and LS DRG were plated
285 separately onto poly-D-lysine-coated coverslips (BD Biosciences, UK) and incubated in
286 Lebovitz L-15 Glutamax media containing 2 % penicillin/streptomycin, 24 mM NaHCO₃,
287 38mM glucose and 10 % fetal bovine serum. Fast Blue positive colonic sensory neurons
288 were individually harvested from cultures of retrogradely labelled DRG (either TL: T10-
289 L1 or LS: L5-S2) by pulled glass pipette. By breaking the pipette tip (containing the cell)
290 into a tube containing preamplification mastermix (2.5µl 0.2x primer/probe mix, 5µl
291 CellDirect 2x reaction buffer (Invitrogen), 0.1 µl SUPERase-in (Ambion, TX, USA), 1.2 µl
292 TE buffer (Applichem, Germany) and 0.2 µl Superscript III Reverse
293 Transcriptase/Platinum Taq mix (Invitrogen)) and freezing immediately, mRNA
294 transcripts were preserved. Only those individual Fast Blue positive neurons free from
295 debris and other non-neuronal cells (e.g. satellite glia) were collected. An image of each
296 harvested neuron was also captured using a camera (DCC1545M, ThorLabs Inc, NJ, USA)
297 attached to the inverted microscope enabling an estimation of cell size to be
298 ascertained. In the absence of cells, samples of the bath solution were collected for no-
299 template control experiments. Using the following thermal cycling protocol,

300 preamplification of cDNA was achieved: 50°C for 30 minutes, 95°C for 2 minutes, then
301 21 cycles of (95°C for 15 seconds, 60°C for 4 minutes). After dilution (1:5 TE buffer),
302 Taqman qPCR assays were run for each gene of interest (Taqman Assay ID: Nav1.1,
303 Mm00450580_m1; Nav1.2, Mm01270359_m1; Nav1.3, Mm00658167_m1; Nav1.4,
304 Mm00500103_m1; Nav1.5, Mm01342518_m1; Nav1.6, Mm00488110_m1; Nav1.7,
305 Mm00450762_s1; Nav1.8, Mm00501467_m1; Nav1.9, Mm00449367_m1; GAPDH,
306 Mm99999915_g1; Applied Biosystems) using the following cycling protocol: 50°C for 2
307 minutes, 95°C for 10 minutes, then 40 cycles of (95°C for 15 seconds, 60°C for 1
308 minutes). Glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase (GAPDH) acted as an internal
309 positive control, with all single-cell RT-PCR products expressing GAPDH and bath
310 control samples were negative for all Taqman reactions. Relative expression of Navs
311 was normalized to GAPDH quantification cycles (CT) using $2^{-\Delta CT}$ formula. Quantitative
312 assessment of gene expression was determined by quantification cycle values less than
313 the threshold of 35 being considered as positive.

314 *Ramping hotplate pain behaviors*

315 Behavioral phenotyping experiments were performed using both male and female mice,
316 and pharmacology experiments were carried out in male mice. Acute heat pain was
317 assessed using a ramping hotplate comparable to that used in human standardised
318 quantitative testing (QST) protocols (Rolke *et al.*, 2006). Mice were acclimatized in a
319 chamber for 6 minutes daily for the 3 days preceding dosing. After which, following a 30
320 second acclimatization, the chamber floor was slowly heated from 31°C at a rate of
321 3.4°C/min and the temperature and time taken until observing a pain behavior was
322 recorded (behavioral endpoint; the occurrence of either licking or shaking of the hind
323 paw and/or rapid shifting of weight (stomping) from one foot to the other). After

324 baseline measurements were made, mice were dosed *via* oral administration (P.O.) with
325 either vehicle or PF-5198007 at 1 or 3mg/ml with a dose volume of 10ml/kg and 1hr
326 later, the ramping hotplate repeated. Mice were humanely killed by concussion of the
327 brain and cervical dislocation of the neck immediately after final assessment of thermal
328 pain threshold.

329 *Skin-nerve preparation*

330 Multi-unit extracellular afferent recordings were made from the tibial nerve innervating
331 the glabrous skin of the hind paw as previously described (Milenkovic *et al*, 2008) but
332 with some modifications. Briefly, mice were humanely killed by concussion of the brain
333 and cervical dislocation of the neck, the hind limbs were then shaved, removed and the
334 tibial nerve and associated glabrous skin dissected free. The preparation was mounted
335 glabrous skin downwards in a recording chamber superfused (10ml/min; 36±1°C)
336 with carbogenated (95% O₂, 5% CO₂) Krebs buffer (in mM: NaCl 107, KCl 3.48, NaHCO₃
337 26.2, MgSO₄(.7H₂O) 0.69, NaH₂PO₄ 1.67, Na-gluconate 9.64, sucrose 7.6, glucose 5.5,
338 CaCl 1.53). The epiperineurium was removed from the distal end of the tibial nerve and
339 suction electrode recordings comparable to those of visceral afferent activity were
340 made. Following a 60 minute stabilisation period, a heat stimulus (Krebs perfused onto
341 the skin at a focal point equivalent to the heel portion of the paw) lasting 50 seconds
342 was applied, this increased in temperature from 36°C to 52°C at a rate of 0.4°C/second
343 to mimic the noxious heat ramp used *in vivo*. In total, a series of 10 heat stimulations
344 were performed at 15 minutes intervals. The first 4 heat stimulation formed the
345 baseline reading with bath superfusion of PF-5198007 (30nM) or vehicle (0.1% DMSO)
346 initiated and maintained for the duration of the next 2 stimulations (30 minutes), PF-
347 5198007 (100nM) or vehicle (0.1% DMSO) for the following 2 heat stimulations (30
348 minutes) and heat stimulations 9 and 10 carried out during the superfusion (15

349 minutes) of TTX (100nM or 300nM) and lidocaine (1mM), respectively. In separate
350 experiments, the effect of genotype and selective sodium channel antagonists were
351 assessed in response to a cold stimulus (36 to 6°C at a rate of 0.4°C/second) delivered in
352 the same manner as the heat stimulus, with comparable stimulation and protocols as
353 above.

354 *Data analysis*

355 Pain behaviors and mechanical thresholds were compared across experimental groups
356 with 2-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) followed by the Bonferroni post-hoc test,
357 using either SigmaPlot 12.0 (Systat Software Inc., CA, USA) or Prism 6 (GraphPad Inc.,
358 USA). Referred hyperalgesia, expressed as the mechanical threshold producing 50% of
359 responses, was calculated using: 50% mechanical threshold (g) = $[(10 (X_f + \kappa\delta)) / 10]$,
360 where X_f = value (in logarithmic units) of the final von Frey filament used; κ = tabular
361 value for the pattern of positive/negative responses; and δ = mean difference (in log
362 units) between stimuli (Dixon, 1980). Peak changes or total sum firing of
363 electrophysiological nerve activity in multi-unit experiments were determined by
364 subtracting baseline firing (2 minutes before distension or drug application) from
365 increases in nerve activity following distension or noxious chemical superfusion.
366 Estimation of cell size from single-cell images was achieved by averaging the height and
367 width of each cell (ImageJ 1.49V analysis software, NIH, USA). Total sum firing of
368 electrophysiological nerve activity in response to each hot or cold stimulation was
369 obtained by subtracting any signal evoked by heat/cold stimulation in the presence of
370 lidocaine (1mM). Expression data was visualized using R and the ggplot2 graphics
371 package (Wickham, 2009). Statistical significance was set at $P < 0.05$. Data are displayed
372 as mean \pm SEM.

373 *Drugs*

374 Stock concentrations of capsaicin (1%; 10% ethanol, 10% tween, 80% saline), mustard
375 oil (1%; 70% ethanol, 30% saline), cyclophosphamide (saline), bradykinin (10mM;
376 water), lidocaine (1M; water) and ATP (300mM; water) were purchased from Sigma-
377 Aldrich and prepared as described. Tetrodotoxin (15µg/ml stock) was purchased from
378 Nanning Leaf Pharmaceuticals (Canada) and diluted in saline. PF-5198007 was
379 manufactured in-house by Pfizer and solubilized in DMSO at a 10mM stock. For *in vitro*
380 experiments, PF-5198007 was applied at a concentration of 100nM (ensuring almost
381 100% inhibition of mouse Nav1.7 (IC₅₀ 5.2nM) and selectivity over Nav1.1 and Nav1.6
382 (IC₅₀ 149nM and 174nM, respectively)(Alexandrou *et al.*, 2016)). For *in vivo* studies PF-
383 5198007, 1mg/ml or 3mg/ml, was suspended in 0.5% methylcellulose + 0.1% Tween-
384 80 in distilled water. Doses of PF-5198007 were selected to achieve a free plasma
385 concentration of ~100nM (littermate: 1mg/kg, 58 ± 10 nM, *N* = 5; 3mg/kg, 842 ± 91 nM,
386 *N* = 10; Nav1.7^{Nav1.8}: 1mg/kg, 68 ± 12 nM, *N* = 5; 3mg/kg, 634 ± 69 nM, *N* = 9). Vehicle
387 was dosed as a 10ml/kg solution of 0.5% methylcellulose + 0.1% Tween-80 in distilled
388 water. All other compounds were diluted in appropriate experimental buffer to working
389 concentrations on the day of experimentation, unless otherwise stated.

390 **Results**

391 **Visceral pain behaviors to colorectal sensitizing noxious stimuli were unaffected**
392 **by deletion of Nav1.7**

393 We used a conditional Nav1.7 knockout mouse strain, where *floxed* (*SCN9A*) Nav1.7 mice
394 were crossed with mice in which Cre expression is driven by the Nav1.8 promotor
395 (Nav1.7^{Nav1.8}) resulting in tissue-specific ablation of Nav1.7 in sensory neurons
396 expressing nociceptive markers (Nassar *et al.*, 2004; Shields *et al.*, 2012). Capsaicin acts
397 at TRPV1 and will activate the vast majority of visceral afferent terminals (>85%
398 (Christianson *et al.*, 2006; Malin *et al.*, 2009)) leading to neurogenic inflammation and
399 prolonged ongoing afferent activity due to sensitization (Laird *et al.*, 2001; Laird *et al.*,
400 2002). Intracolonic instillation of capsaicin in littermate control mice led to dose-
401 dependent increases in observed pain behaviors consisting of abdominal contractions
402 and licking (Fig. 1A). The deletion of Nav1.7 from Nav1.8-positive neurons, however, did
403 not attenuate pain behaviors at either dose of capsaicin tested ($P = 0.72$, $N = 6-8$, 2-way
404 ANOVA). In separate experiments, the potent algogen mustard oil was instilled
405 intracolonicly leading to the activation and sensitization of afferents and induction of
406 localized tissue damage as previously described (Laird *et al.*, 2002). Substantial pain
407 behaviors were observed in both Nav1.7^{Nav1.8} and littermate controls (Fig. 1B), which
408 were not significantly different in terms of the magnitude of their response ($P = 0.79$, N
409 = 6-8, 2-way ANOVA). The time course of pain behaviours induced by capsaicin and
410 mustard oil did not differ between littermate controls and Nav1.7^{Nav1.8} mice. These
411 findings show that Nav1.7 expressed in Nav1.8-positive neurons is not required for the
412 development of visceral pain or for sustained spontaneous nociceptor activity as a
413 result of sensitization.

414 Referred hyperalgesia is a common characteristic of visceral pain, with the sensitization
415 of somatic structures in the same metameric field to the affected organ driven in part by
416 spinal convergence of somatic and visceral afferents inputs (Cervero, 1983; Mertz *et al.*,
417 1995). Whilst primary inflammatory hyperalgesia has been shown to be dependent on
418 Nav1.7 in Nav1.8-expressing neurons, whether Nav1.7 contributes to the development of
419 secondary hyperalgesia remains unstudied. The development of mechanical sensitivity
420 of the abdomen in response to intracolonic instillation of either capsaicin (0.1%) or
421 mustard oil (0.01%) was independent of ablation of Nav1.7 from Nav1.8-expressing
422 neurons, with 50% withdrawal thresholds significantly reduced 20 minutes after
423 treatment irrespective of genotype (capsaicin; $P < 0.01$, $N = 6-8$, 2-way ANOVA; mustard
424 oil, $P < 0.01$, $N = 6-8$, 2-way ANOVA).

425 **Pain responses to cyclophosphamide-induced cystitis are unaffected by deletion** 426 **of Nav1.7**

427 To model bladder pain/cystitis in Nav1.7^{Nav1.8} mice, cyclophosphamide was
428 administered leading to the progressive development of visceral pain behaviors for the
429 duration of the 4 hour observation window. Cyclophosphamide treatment produces
430 mucosal erosion and haemorrhage of the bladder in addition to edema (Fraisier *et al.*,
431 1991). The development and time course of pain behaviors observed did not differ
432 between littermate controls and Nav1.7^{Nav1.8} mice to either dose of cyclophosphamide
433 tested (Fig. 2A, $P = 0.93$, $N = 6-8$, 2-way ANOVA). Indeed both Nav1.7^{Nav1.8} mice and
434 littermate controls also showed marked referred hyperalgesia when tested 4 hours
435 after cyclophosphamide treatment (Fig. 2B). The referred hyperalgesia did not differ
436 dependent on genotype suggesting that persistent activation of nociceptors by a
437 developing noxious chemical stimuli is not driven by a requirement for Nav1.7 to be
438 present.

439 **Visceral afferent mechanosensitivity is blocked by TTX but is unaffected by**
440 **deletion of Nav1.7 or blockade with a selective small-molecule Nav1.7 antagonist**
441 In order to distinguish between the multiple roles that Nav1.7 makes to nociceptive
442 processing, we investigated the contribution of Nav1.7 to mechanosensitivity and
443 chemosensitivity at the peripheral terminals of sensory neurons innervating the
444 gastrointestinal tract. To do this multi-unit *ex vivo* extracellular electrophysiological
445 recordings of lumbar splanchnic nerve activity were made from the distal colon of mice.
446 Tissues were dissected free and cannulated to enable mechanical and chemical stimuli
447 to be applied by luminal distension or bath superfusion. Phasic distension of the colon
448 to noxious pressures (0-80 mm Hg) was used to model mechanical stimulation of the
449 bowel and evoke increased afferent firing for the duration (60 second) of the distension.
450 Consistent with previous reports, adaptation in the response to repeat stimulation (at 9
451 minute intervals) was observed during subsequent distensions with the response
452 stabilizing by the fourth to sixth distension (see Fig. 3A & C) (Hockley *et al.*, 2014). In
453 Nav1.7^{Nav1.8} mice, there was no significant difference in either the initial peak distension
454 response or in the degree of tachyphylaxis observed during repeat distensions
455 compared to littermate controls (Fig. 3C, $P = 0.62$, $N = 13-14$, 2-way repeated-measures
456 (RM) ANOVA). Previous studies have suggested that not only the magnitude, but also
457 the dynamic quality, of the distension paradigm used may be important for delineating
458 gut motor events, specifically noxious stimuli (Sengupta & Gebhart, 1994; Booth *et al.*,
459 2008). Given the proposed role of Nav1.7 as a threshold channel contributing to the
460 amplification of depolarizing stimuli in sensory neurons (Dib-Hajj *et al.*, 2013), we used
461 a slow ramp distension protocol to supramaximal distension pressures (0-145 mm Hg)
462 in order to investigate the impact of loss of Nav1.7 on responses across a range of
463 innocuous and noxious distending pressures. In littermate controls, afferent firing

464 increased proportionally to intraluminal pressure with a peak firing rate of 37.5 ± 5.7
465 spikes/s at 145 mm Hg. Significantly less firing was observed in Nav1.7^{Nav1.8} mice to
466 equivalent distending pressures (at 145 mm Hg, 25.7 ± 4.2 spikes/s; $P < 0.0001$, $N = 19$,
467 2-way ANOVA). However, firing rates in Nav1.7^{Nav1.8} mice to ramp distension were
468 unchanged within the physiologically-relevant 0-80 mm Hg range compared to controls
469 ($P > 0.05$, Bonferroni's post-hoc analysis). Within the supramaximal range (80 -145 mm
470 Hg), there was a reduction in firing, suggesting Nav1.7 may be involved in transducing
471 non-physiological extremes of pressure in the colon but not innocuous or even noxious
472 mechanical stimuli.

473 Given that Nav1.7 is ablated only in Nav1.8-positive neurons, it is possible that visceral
474 afferents that are both sensitive to noxious mechanical stimuli and are negative for
475 Nav1.8 may be contributory to the responses observed. In order to test this hypothesis,
476 in a further set of experiments, repeat phasic distensions were continued and the effect
477 of the selective small-molecule Nav1.7 antagonist PF-5198007 (100nM) was assessed
478 on responses in both Nav1.7^{Nav1.8} and littermate control mice. Responses in littermate
479 control mice to repeat phasic distensions were unchanged following pre-incubation
480 with, and in the presence of, 100nM PF-5198007 compared to vehicle (Fig. 3E, $P = 0.86$,
481 $N = 7$, 2-way RM ANOVA). Further, the afferent response following application of 100nM
482 PF-5198007 in Nav1.7^{Nav1.8} mice also did not significantly differ from that observed in
483 wild-type animals ($P = 0.87$, $N = 6-7$, 2-way RM ANOVA). However, irrespective of
484 genotype, application of 100nM TTX to preparations did fully block afferent firing to
485 noxious phasic distension (Fig. 3E). Together this shows that mechanosensitivity in
486 visceral afferents is dependent on TTX-sensitive voltage-gated sodium channels but not
487 Nav1.7.

488 **Loss, or antagonism, of Nav1.7 does not alter visceral afferent responses to acute**
489 **inflammatory and algogenic mediators**

490 To investigate the involvement of Nav1.7 in modulating visceral afferent sensitivity to
491 inflammatory and algogenic mediators used in our *in vivo* studies, capsaicin and
492 mustard oil were applied to distal colon preparations and visceral afferent responses
493 recorded from both littermate and Nav1.7^{Nav1.8} mice, and in the presence or absence of
494 100nM PF-5198007. In separate experiments, bradykinin and ATP, as inflammatory
495 mediators typically present during injury or infection, and that may be evoked by
496 mustard oil/cyclophosphamide treatment contributing to ongoing nociceptor
497 sensitization were also tested.

498 Responses to application of 500nM capsaicin did not differ between Nav1.7^{Nav1.8} mice
499 and littermate mice in vehicle control experiments (0.1% DMSO; Nav1.7^{Nav1.8} vs.
500 littermate; $P = 0.50$, $N = 6$ both groups, unpaired t-test, Fig. 4A). In addition, superfusion
501 of 100nM PF-5198007 during, and 5 minutes prior to, capsaicin (500nM) application
502 did not significantly change the evoked afferent discharge in either genotype
503 (Nav1.7^{Nav1.8}: 100nM PF-5198007 vs. 0.1% DMSO, $P = 0.82$, $N = 6$, unpaired t-test;
504 littermate: 100nM PF-5198007 vs. 0.1% DMSO, $P = 0.59$, $N = 6$, unpaired t-test, Fig. 4A).
505 Afferent firing evoked by mustard oil was also unchanged in both Nav1.7^{Nav1.8} mice and
506 littermate controls (0.1% DMSO: Nav1.7^{Nav1.8} vs. littermate, $P = 0.46$, $N = 6$, unpaired t-
507 test, Fig. 4B), irrespective of the presence of Nav1.7 antagonist (Nav1.7^{Nav1.8}: 100nM PF-
508 5198007 vs. 0.1% DMSO, $P = 0.44$, $N = 6$, unpaired t-test; littermate: 100nM PF-5198007
509 vs. 0.1% DMSO, $P = 0.93$, $N = 6$, unpaired t-test, Fig. 4B).

510 Bath superfusion of 1mM ATP in littermate mice resulted in significant afferent
511 discharge with a peak change in firing of 1.39 ± 0.50 spikes/s. In Nav1.7^{Nav1.8} mice, the
512 response was comparable to littermate controls (2.33 ± 0.80 spikes/s, $P = 0.32$, $N = 7-8$,

513 unpaired t-test). Responses to application of 1 μ M bradykinin were greater than that
514 observed for ATP, however did not differ dependent on genotype (littermate, 9.11 \pm
515 3.32 vs. Nav1.7^{Nav1.8}, 8.56 \pm 3.04 spikes/s, $P = 0.90$, $N = 7-8$, unpaired t-test). Further, in
516 distal colon preparations from littermate controls pre-incubated with 100nM PF-
517 5198007, peak firing response to 1 μ M bradykinin was unchanged (vehicle (0.1%
518 DMSO) 5.16 \pm 2.00 versus 100nM PF-5198007 4.31 \pm 0.63 spikes/s, $P = 0.70$, $N = 7$,
519 unpaired t-test); this was also true of tissues from Nav1.7^{Nav1.8} mice pre-incubated with
520 the Nav1.7 antagonist (100nM PF-5198007; $P = 0.17$, $N = 6-7$, unpaired t-test).
521 Collectively, these data suggest that Nav1.7 within the peripheral terminal of colonic
522 sensory neurons is not required in order to transduce both noxious mechanical and
523 chemical algogenic stimuli, in agreement with behavioral experiments.

524 **Localization of Nav expression in colonic sensory neurons**

525 We next investigated the expression of voltage-gated sodium channel α subunits
526 present in colonic sensory neurons. Specifically, using single-cell qRT-PCR we examined
527 the expression of mRNA transcripts for Nav1.1, Nav1.2, Nav1.3, Nav1.4, Nav1.5, Nav1.6,
528 Nav1.7, Nav1.8 and Nav1.9 in gut-projecting sensory neurons. Both lumbar splanchnic
529 and pelvic innervation have been shown to contribute to the transmission of noxious
530 stimuli from the distal colon (Brierley *et al.*, 2004). As such, the expression of these
531 channels was determined in colonic sensory neurons in dorsal root ganglia (DRG) T10
532 to L1 levels (thoracolumbar: TL) that are known to possess the greatest number of
533 sensory neurons projecting *via* the lumbar splanchnic nerve, and separately in DRG L5
534 to S2 levels (lumbosacral: LS); the afferents from which have been shown to project
535 predominantly *via* the pelvic nerve. Of the 30 cells collected per mouse ($N = 3$), the
536 average size of colonic sensory neurons harvested was 32.0 \pm 0.2 μ m for TL ($N = 3$) and
537 30.7 \pm 1.0 μ m for LS ($N = 3$). In the Nav1.7^{Nav1.8} mice used in the studies described here,

538 Nav1.7 was selectively ablated from all Nav1.8-positive sensory neurons. To confirm the
539 proportion of colonic sensory neurons affected by this gene ablation, the expression of
540 Nav1.7 and Nav1.8 was first examined. Nav1.7 was present in 100% of thoracolumbar
541 and $95.6 \pm 2.22\%$ of lumbosacral colonic sensory neurons. High expression of Nav1.8
542 was also observed in both thoracolumbar ($95.6 \pm 2.22\%$) and lumbosacral (91.1 ± 4.44
543 $\%$) colonic sensory neuron populations. Importantly, significant co-expression of both
544 these sodium channels in individual colonic sensory neurons was found, with 95.4% of
545 Nav1.7-positive neurons also expressing Nav1.8, suggesting that the vast majority of
546 colonic sensory neurons in Nav1.7^{Nav1.8} mice would be affected by the genetic deletion.
547 The expression of the remaining tetrodotoxin-sensitive (TTX-S: Nav1.1, Nav1.2, Nav1.3,
548 Nav1.4 and Nav1.6) and TTX-resistant voltage-gated sodium channels (TTX-R: Nav1.5
549 and Nav1.9) was also determined (Catterall *et al.*, 2005). Of the TTX-S sodium channels,
550 Nav1.6 was present in the greatest frequency (86.7%; Fig. 5A) of thoracolumbar colonic
551 sensory neurons after Nav1.7. Significant proportions of thoracolumbar colonic sensory
552 neurons also expressed either Nav1.1 ($44.4 \pm 5.88\%$), Nav1.2 ($68.9 \pm 8.89\%$) or Nav1.3
553 ($53.3 \pm 10.2\%$), although co-expression was not always observed (see Fig. 5C). As
554 expected, both the skeletal myocyte voltage-gated sodium channel Nav1.4 and the
555 cardiac myocyte Nav1.5 channel were expressed by low proportions of thoracolumbar
556 colonic sensory neurons ($6.67 \pm 6.67\%$ and $17.8 \pm 5.88\%$, respectively). In agreement
557 with previous studies, mRNA transcripts for TTX-R Nav1.9 were observed in 84.4 ± 44.4
558 $\%$ of thoracolumbar neurons (Hockley *et al.*, 2016). By comparison, the expression of
559 Nav1.1, Nav1.2, Nav1.3, Nav1.4, Nav1.7 and Nav1.8 did not significantly differ between
560 populations of lumbosacral compared to thoracolumbar colonic sensory neurons (Fig.
561 5A, all $P > 0.05$, TL vs. LS, unpaired t-test). Interestingly, significant differences were
562 observed between the frequency of expression of Nav1.5 (TL vs. LS, $P < 0.05$, unpaired t-

563 test) and Nav1.6 (TL vs. LS, $P < 0.01$, unpaired t-test) in lumbosacral compared to
564 thoracolumbar colonic sensory neurons. Indeed, transcripts for both Nav1.5 and Nav1.6
565 were observed in approximately half of lumbosacral colonic sensory neurons ($48.9 \pm$
566 8.01% and $51.1 \pm 5.88\%$, respectively). The expression of Nav1.9 (which has been
567 shown previously to contribute to afferent sensitivity of the lumbar splanchnic
568 nerve(Hockley *et al.*, 2014)) in lumbosacral colonic sensory neurons were consistent
569 with the frequency of expression observed in the thoracolumbar populations ($P = 0.42$,
570 $N = 3$, unpaired t-test). Taken together, these data not only support the expression of
571 Nav1.7 by a majority of colonic sensory neurons innervating the distal colon, but also
572 highlight an as yet unexplored complexity in the molecular patterning of voltage-gated
573 sodium channels present in these neurons.

574 **Deletion of Nav1.7 impairs somatic noxious thermal thresholds, which can be**
575 **recapitulated by Nav1.7 antagonism**

576 Given that no differences in acute visceral pain or referred hyperalgesia could be
577 observed in mice lacking Nav1.7 in Nav1.8-positive neurons or to block of Nav1.7 by the
578 selective inhibitor PF-5198007, we next sought to investigate the role of Nav1.7 in
579 somatic acute pain behaviors. In order to investigate the contribution of Nav1.7 in
580 Nav1.8-positive sensory neurons to the modulation of thermal thresholds, we utilized a
581 ramping hotplate behavioral paradigm. In littermate controls, this latency was 261 ± 5
582 seconds ($N = 38$) corresponding to a temperature rise of $\sim 13.6^\circ\text{C}$ (baseline floor
583 temperature 31°C ramping to $44.6 \pm 0.2^\circ\text{C}$; Fig. 6A). This increase in temperature
584 required to evoke a behavioral response was equivalent to a previous study using a
585 modified ramping Hargreaves' test (Minett *et al.*, 2014a). Nav1.7^{Nav1.8} mice showed an
586 attenuated response to ramping hotplate with an augmented latency (274 ± 5 s) and
587 significantly increased thermal threshold ($46.1 \pm 0.3^\circ\text{C}$, $N = 36$, $P < 0.0001$, unpaired t-

588 test; Fig. 6A) in agreement with previous observations (Minett *et al.*, 2014a). The
589 attenuation of complex behaviors associated with the ramping hotplate test suggests
590 involvement of Nav1.7 in pain signalling to noxious thermal stimulation of the skin
591 under certain conditions.

592 Using the ramping hotplate, we went on to confirm the ability for the selective Nav1.7
593 inhibitor PF-5198007 to modulate thermal pain behaviors (see Fig. 6B). In littermate
594 mice, application of PF-5198007 (1mg/kg P.O.) significantly increased the thermal
595 threshold for observing pain behaviors with a concomitant increase in the latency to
596 response when compared to vehicle controls ($P < 0.01$, $N = 10$, 2-way ANOVA with
597 Bonferroni's post-hoc vs. vehicle; Fig. 6B). In both vehicle and PF-5198007 treatment
598 groups, the thermal threshold of Nav1.7^{Nav1.8} mice remained significantly greater than
599 littermate controls but did not differ between groups. Application of a higher dose of
600 PF-5198007 (3mg/kg P.O.) also led to an increase in thermal threshold during hotplate
601 ramp, which was comparable to thresholds observed in Nav1.7^{Nav1.8} mice and
602 significantly different from vehicle groups ($P < 0.05$, $N = 10$, 2-way ANOVA with
603 Bonferroni's post-hoc vs. vehicle). These data suggest that whilst pain behaviors can be
604 evoked in the absence, or antagonism, of Nav1.7, the expression of Nav1.7 in sensory
605 neurons modulates heat pain thresholds to noxious thermal stimuli.

606 **Nav1.7 also contributes to cutaneous afferent firing to both noxious hot, but not** 607 **cold, thermal stimuli**

608 To investigate whether Nav1.7 was necessary for sensory transduction at the peripheral
609 terminal of somatic afferents, *ex vivo* multi-unit electrophysiological recordings of the
610 tibial nerve from skin-nerve preparations of Nav1.7^{Nav1.8} mice and littermate controls
611 were made (Fig. 6C & D). In support of hotplate experiments, a ramping thermal stimuli
612 (focal water jet from 36°C to 52°C (at ~0.4°C/sec)) was applied to the corium side of the

613 skin and the evoked nerve activity recorded. Total firing during the heat-evoked stimuli
614 was significantly attenuated in Nav1.7^{Nav1.8} mice compared to littermate controls (Fig.
615 6E, $P < 0.0001$, $N = 26-29$, 2-way ANOVA with Bonferroni's post-hoc). Bath superfusion
616 of 100nM TTX led to significant inhibition of firing regardless of genotype compared to
617 vehicle controls (Fig. 6E, $P < 0.05$, $N = 9-11$ and $P < 0.0001$, $N = 10-11$, Nav1.7^{Nav1.8} and
618 littermate controls, respectively, 2-way ANOVA with Bonferroni's post-hoc), suggesting
619 that the transduction of noxious thermal stimuli at the peripheral terminal of sensory
620 afferents is enhanced by the presence of Nav1.7 in Nav1.8-positive neurons, but is
621 dependent on other TTX-S Navs that might be present. Application of 100nM PF-
622 5198007 in littermate controls was able to recapitulate the attenuated response
623 observed in Nav1.7^{Nav1.8} mice (Fig. 6F, $P < 0.05$, $N = 9-10$, 2-way ANOVA with
624 Bonferroni's post-hoc vs. vehicle (0.1% DMSO)). In addition, PF-5198007 in Nav1.7^{Nav1.8}
625 mice further reduced afferent responses to heat ramp suggesting that afferent firing at
626 the peripheral terminal is dependent predominantly on expression of Nav1.7 in Nav1.8-
627 positive sensory neurons. However, this does not discount contributions of Nav1.7 to
628 other sensory populations spinally or supra-spinally involved in the nociceptive
629 processing of thermal stimuli.

630 In addition, we investigated cutaneous afferent firing to evoked cold stimuli by localized
631 perfusion of a cooling perfusate over the receptive field from 36°C to ~6°C (at
632 ~0.4°C/sec). In previous studies, Nav1.7 has been shown to be involved in acetone-
633 induced cooling, but not noxious cold sensation (Minett *et al.*, 2012). Responses evoked
634 by cold stimulation of the skin did not differ between Nav1.7^{Nav1.8} mice and littermate
635 controls (Fig. 6G, $P > 0.05$, $N = 18$, 2-way ANOVA with Bonferroni's post-hoc), however
636 application of 100nM TTX completely abolished cold-evoked responses compared to
637 vehicle ($P < 0.01$, $N = 6$ and $P < 0.0001$, $N = 5-6$, littermate and Nav1.7^{Nav1.8} mice,

638 respectively, 2-way ANOVA with Bonferroni's post-hoc). Finally incubation with the
639 selective Nav1.7 antagonist PF-5198007 (100nM) did not significantly attenuate cold
640 evoked afferent firing (Fig. 6H), supporting the posit that Nav1.7 does not contribute to
641 the transduction or amplification of cold-evoked depolarizations at the peripheral
642 terminal.

643 **Mesenteric nerve responses to phasic distension in human appendix are**
644 **unaffected by inhibition of Nav1.7**

645 Finally, in order to understand whether our findings in murine visceral afferents
646 translate to human we used *ex vivo* extracellular recordings of surgically resected
647 appendices to investigate Nav1.7 function in response to mechanical stimuli. The human
648 appendix has been used previously as a pre-clinical model of visceral nociception (Peiris
649 *et al.*, 2011). The appendix was cannulated and stimulated by repeat noxious ramp
650 distension (0-60 mm Hg) and mesenteric nerve firing recorded. Ramp distension
651 evoked a concomitant increase in human visceral afferent firing with a peak change in
652 firing of 10.1 ± 1.5 spikes/s ($N = 5$), with reproducible responses observed to
653 subsequent distensions. Application of PF-5198007 did not significantly impair visceral
654 afferent firing to ramp distension at either low or high distending pressures (Fig. 7B, $P =$
655 0.26 , $N = 5$, 2-way RM ANOVA). This confirms our mouse data highlighting that Nav1.7
656 appears not to significantly impact visceral afferent sensitivity to acute
657 mechanosensation. As such, Nav1.7 imparts functionality on sensory neurons in a
658 modality-specific manner and therefore the analgesic assessment of Nav1.7 antagonists
659 should be determined in a mechanism-dependent fashion.

660

661 **Discussion**

662 Nociceptive processing in somatic and visceral pain has common underlying pathways,
663 including convergence in neuroanatomy, overlap in psychological representation and
664 commonality in cellular transductions. However, important differences exist in the
665 manifestation, perception and psychology of these pain modalities. Traditionally,
666 visceral afferents are characterized based on mechanical sensitivity and activation by
667 chemical mediators (including bradykinin and ATP (Su & Gebhart, 1998; Brierley *et al.*,
668 2004; Grundy, 2004)), with functional assessment required to define nociceptive
669 properties. Compared to somatic counterparts, visceral sensory neurons almost
670 exclusively possess characteristics attributed to nociceptors (unmyelinated C-fibres
671 (Sengupta & Gebhart, 1994), peptidergic (Robinson *et al.*, 2004) and high expression of
672 Nav1.8/TTX-R sodium currents (Beyak *et al.*, 2004)), yet collectively transduce
673 innocuous unconscious and conscious sensations in addition to pain. As such, visceral
674 sensory neurons do not fit well with classical views of nociceptors and established
675 schema for nociceptive transduction pathways.

676 Here, we add to this by showing that visceral pain signalling *in vivo* to acute and
677 sensitizing noxious stimuli is independent of Nav1.7. We confirm by way of *ex vivo*
678 electrophysiological recordings of mouse visceral afferent fibres that deletion of, or
679 selective small-molecule antagonism of Nav1.7, does not attenuate responses to
680 persistent noxious mechanical (including repeat phasic and sustained ramp distension)
681 and chemical stimuli (including capsaicin, mustard oil, bradykinin and ATP). This lack of
682 efficacy in Nav1.7 antagonism in blocking visceral afferent activation extends to
683 recordings from resected human appendix tissues when applying noxious distending
684 pressures. Surprisingly, mouse visceral sensory neurons almost always express Nav1.7
685 suggesting that, whilst present, Nav1.7 appears not to contribute to the modulation of

686 afferent excitability to depolarizing stimuli, or the propagation of action potentials.
687 Furthermore, the lack of phenotype observed in Nav1.7^{Nav1.8} mice suggests Nav1.7 is not
688 necessary for transducing noxious visceral input centrally by Nav1.8-expressing
689 neurons. By contrast somatically, deletion of Nav1.7 does modulate acute heat pain
690 thresholds, which can be replicated using selective Nav1.7 antagonism. Strikingly, loss of
691 Nav1.7 from Nav1.8-expressing neurons, or small-molecule antagonism, are able to
692 attenuate afferent firing evoked by ramping heat stimuli applied to skin-nerve
693 preparations. This implicates Nav1.7 in modulating thermal transduction sensitivity in
694 somatic afferents. This was not true of cold stimuli, where Nav1.7 does not have a role in
695 afferent responses. Our data demonstrates that whilst Nav1.7 does modulate defined
696 somatic pain pathways, it is not required for those visceral pain modalities investigated
697 here and advocates that selective pharmacological block of Nav1.7 in the viscera may
698 prove ineffective in targeting chronic visceral pain caused by spontaneous nociceptor
699 activity, sensitizing inflammatory mediators or evoked mechanical distension: principal
700 clinical drivers of visceral pain.

701 Voltage-gated sodium channels are vital for the transmission of painful stimuli in
702 primary afferents. Importantly, the relative significance of individual sodium channels is
703 dependent on the pain modality considered, with Nav1.7 essential in transducing
704 somatic acute thermal and mechanical pain, in conjunction to inflammatory
705 hyperalgesia and neuropathic allodynia (Minett *et al.*, 2014b). Similarly, Nav1.8 is
706 critical for extreme cold pain (Abrahamsen *et al.*, 2008), with chemotherapy-induced
707 allodynia dependent on Nav1.6 (Sittl *et al.*, 2012; Deuis *et al.*, 2013). Normal visceral
708 nociceptor activity, by contrast, is dependent on both Nav1.8 (Laird *et al.*, 2002) and
709 Nav1.9 (Hockley *et al.*, 2014). Surprisingly, the role of Nav1.7 in visceral pain processing
710 is poorly understood in spite of human genetic data linking Nav1.7 to pain signalling.

711 Substantive evidence for the involvement of Nav1.7 in visceral pain processing comes
712 from human genetic studies. Patients with congenital insensitivity to pain linked to
713 mutations in Nav1.7 do not feel pain, including pain originating from internal structures
714 (broken bones (Cox *et al.*, 2006; Goldberg *et al.*, 2007)) and hollow organs (e.g. during
715 appendicitis or child-birth (Melzack & Wall, 1988; Zimmermann *et al.*, 1988)).
716 Mutations in *SCN9A* gene encoding Nav1.7 are also causal in paroxysmal extreme pain
717 disorder (PEPD) where severe burning pain may occur in rectal, ocular and mandibular
718 regions. Intriguingly, defecation and micturition can both trigger such rectal pain
719 attacks (Fertleman *et al.*, 2006; Meglic *et al.*, 2014), implicating hypersensitivity of
720 visceral mechanoreceptors in initiating pain attacks. Whilst Nav1.7 is linked with
721 multiple aspects of the pain pathway, this is the first report detailing the contribution of
722 Nav1.7 to visceral pain processing. Using single-cell qRT-PCR of gut-specific sensory
723 neurons we show that mRNA transcripts for Nav1.7 are expressed by the vast majority
724 of colonic sensory neurons, consistent with Nav1.7 immunoreactivity in extrinsic
725 afferent terminals of the distal colorectum (Feng *et al.*, 2015). Co-expression of Nav1.7
726 in Nav1.8-positive neurons was substantial in gut-projecting populations, suggesting
727 that nearly all visceral sensory neurons would be affected by Nav1.8-specific knockout
728 of Nav1.7 (Nassar *et al.*, 2004). However, it is possible that some Nav1.7-positive Nav1.8-
729 negative colonic neurones remain, which may be sufficient to maintain pain behaviours.
730 Visceral afferent firing to mechanical and chemical activation were unaffected following
731 loss of, or antagonism of, Nav1.7, but could be blocked by TTX as shown previously
732 (Campaniello *et al.*, 2016). As such, TTX-S Navs other than Nav1.7 are involved in
733 transducing noxious visceral stimuli. Established roles for TTX-R Nav1.8 and Nav1.9
734 correlate well with their extensive expression shown here; however little is known
735 about the expression of TTX-S Navs within a viscerally-projecting population. Nav1.6 is

736 essential in pelvic afferent endings for spike initiation and repetitive firing (Feng *et al.*,
737 2015), a concept that would fit with the extensive presence of Nav1.6 mRNA transcripts
738 observed here. Further, using toxin antagonists of Nav1.7 (ProTx-II) and Nav1.6 (μ -
739 conotoxin GIIIa and μ -conotoxin PIIIa), a requirement on Nav1.6, but not Nav1.7, was
740 observed for the encoding of stretch-sensitive pelvic afferents (Feng *et al.*, 2015). Taken
741 together, these observations present compelling evidence that Nav1.7 is redundant in
742 visceral afferent nociception to spontaneous or evoked noxious stimuli.

743 Clearly whilst not necessary for normal sensation in the gut, the high relative expression
744 of Nav1.7 suggests that aberrant Nav1.7 function, such as that present in some
745 monogenic pain disorders, could significantly impact visceral sensation. Intriguingly,
746 the propensity for mutations in Nav1.7 to evoke regional pain phenotypes in PEPD
747 patients (i.e. rectal and not 'true visceral' pain) could be driven by differences we
748 observe here in the expression of some sodium channels (Nav1.5(Renganathan *et al.*,
749 2002) and Nav1.6(Cummins *et al.*, 2005)) located in thoracolumbar, versus lumbosacral,
750 visceral sensory neurons. Precedent for background neuronal phenotype contributing
751 to the manifestation of functional effects already exists with the same mutation in
752 Nav1.7 causing hypo- and hyper-excitability when expressed in either sympathetic or
753 sensory neurons (Rush *et al.*, 2006). The extensive expression of Nav1.7 suggests that
754 mutations subverting its endogenous function may significantly alter phenotype even if
755 not required for that pain modality normally. As such it is possible that non-canonical
756 roles of Nav1.7 may help explain the contradiction of how CIP patients associated with
757 loss of Nav1.7 do not feel visceral pain. For example, recent evidence of Nav1.7 deletion
758 upregulating endogenous opioid expression suggests a complex transcriptional
759 modulatory, as well as electrogenic, contribution by Nav1.7, however this did not alter
760 the expression of other Nav subtypes present in DRG (Minett *et al.*, 2015). Importantly,

761 the use of a selective small-molecule antagonist of Nav1.7 enables us to discount
762 developmental differences in gene deletion studies in the phenotypes observed here.
763 Comparison with somatic pain behaviors enables confirmation of a modality-specific
764 action for Nav1.7 expression and confirms the ability of the antagonist PF-5198007 in
765 replicating gene deletion studies. Nav1.7 is required for modulating heat pain
766 thresholds after burn injury (Shields *et al.*, 2012) and for acute noxious heat sensing in a
767 population of Nav1.8-negative neurons (Minett *et al.*, 2012). Surprisingly, we found
768 using an adapted ramping hotplate test that loss of Nav1.7 from Nav1.8-positive neurons
769 could also alter acute heat pain thresholds and this could be recapitulated using PF-
770 5198007. In all cases, mice remained sensitive to noxious heat, suggesting that Nav1.7 is
771 not required in Nav1.8-expressing neurons but can modulate the thermal threshold
772 sensitivity. Notably, we observed a desensitization of the heat pain threshold from
773 ~44°C by 2-3°C following antagonism of Nav1.7, as such fixed temperature hotplate
774 tests typically used to measure withdrawal latencies at 50°C or 55°C would be above
775 threshold in either case masking potential phenotypic differences. A similar non-
776 redundant role for Nav1.7 in Nav1.8-expressing neurons was observed to an adapted
777 Hargreaves' test (Minett *et al.*, 2014a). This further highlights the involvement of
778 multiple sub-populations of neurons on stimulus-intensity specific responses
779 underpinning noxious thermal detection.

780 In summary, using a combination of gene deletion knockout mice and pharmacological
781 tool molecule we demonstrate that Nav1.7, although expressed extensively by gut-
782 projecting sensory neurons, contributes minimally to visceral pain pathways associated
783 with algogenic sensitizing chemicals and evoked activation of visceral afferents by
784 noxious stimuli. The patterning of sodium channel expression shown here reveals a
785 previously unstudied molecular complexity to visceral sensory neurons. Combined with

786 a detailed study of somatic thermal sensitivity, we show that assessment of candidate
787 analgesic targets to pain mechanisms must be considered in a modality-specific manner.
788 As such, Nav1.7 antagonism of peripheral visceral afferents may not represent a viable
789 therapeutic rationale for the treatment of chronic visceral pain associated with evoked
790 distension or inflammation of the viscera.

791 **Figure Legends**

792 **Table 1**

793 Patients details from which resected appendix specimens were used. Appendix
794 specimens from 5 patients were collected and used in electrophysiological nerve
795 recordings.

796 **Figure 1**

797 Spontaneous visceral-pain related behaviors in Nav1.7^{Nav1.8} and littermate mice
798 following intracolonic administration of capsaicin (A and C) or mustard oil (B and D).
799 Number of acute pain related behaviors (licking of abdomen, stretching, abdominal
800 retractions) induced by capsaicin (A) or mustard oil (B) during a 20 min period.
801 Referred mechanical hyperalgesia (evaluated by stimulation of the abdomen with von
802 Frey filaments) was measured 20 min after the administration of capsaicin (C) or
803 mustard oil (D). Mean \pm SEM of values obtained in 6-10 animals. * $P < 0.05$ and ** $P <$
804 0.01 vs. vehicle.

805 **Figure 2**

806 Visceral pain related behaviors evoked by cyclophosphamide-induced cystitis in
807 Nav1.7^{Nav1.8} and littermate mice. (A) Behavioral pain responses were recorded at 30
808 minute intervals during the 240 min observation period after cyclophosphamide
809 injection. (B) Referred mechanical hyperalgesia was evaluated by stimulation of the
810 abdomen with von Frey filament 4h after cyclophosphamide administration. Mean
811 \pm SEM of values obtained in 6-10 animals. * $P < 0.05$ and ** $P < 0.01$, vs. vehicle.

812

813 **Figure 3**

814 Visceral afferent responses to noxious distension of the distal colon in Nav1.7^{Nav1.8} mice
815 and following small-molecule Nav1.7 antagonism. Example rate histogram of colonic

816 splanchnic nerve activity and intraluminal pressure trace to repeat phasic distension (0-
817 80 mm Hg; 60 s; 9 min intervals) in Nav1.7^{Nav1.8} (B) and littermate (A) mice. (C) Peak
818 change in firing rate during phasic distensions in both genotypes ($P = 0.46$, 2-way
819 repeated-measures ANOVA). (D) Average firing rates to ramp distension (0-145 mm
820 Hg) at 5 mm Hg increments in littermate and Nav1.7^{Nav1.8} mice. (E) Effect of 100nM PF-
821 5198007, vehicle (0.1% DMSO) or 100nM TTX on total firing evoked during repeat 0-80
822 mm Hg phasic distensions in littermate and Nav1.7^{Nav1.8} mice.

823 Figure 4

824 Effect of capsaicin and mustard oil on visceral afferent responses. Change in peak firing
825 rate to application of 500nM capsaicin (A) and 250 μ M mustard oil (B) in littermate and
826 Nav1.7^{Nav1.8} mice, both in the absence and presence of 100nM PF-5198007.

827 Figure 5

828 Expression of voltage-gated sodium channel mRNA transcripts in mouse colonic
829 sensory neurons by single-cell qRT-PCR. (A) Proportions of thoracolumbar and
830 lumbosacral colonic sensory neurons expressing transcripts for Nav1.1, Nav1.2, Nav1.3,
831 Nav1.4, Nav1.5, Nav1.6, Nav1.7, Nav1.8 and Nav1.9. (B) Relative expression of Nav
832 transcripts in thoracolumbar and lumbosacral colonic sensory neurones (C) Co-
833 expression analysis of voltage-gated sodium channels in both thoracolumbar and
834 lumbosacral colonic sensory neuronal populations. Each segment in the wheel-diagrams
835 is representative of a single cell with a coloured segment signifying positive expression.

836 Figure 6

837 Somatic pain behaviors and tibial nerve activity to noxious thermal stimulation in
838 Nav1.7^{Nav1.8} and littermate mice. (A) Thermal pain thresholds in Nav1.7^{Nav1.8} mice are
839 significantly increased following ramping hotplate behavioral testing. (B) Average
840 thermal pain thresholds following the application of selective Nav1.7 antagonist PF-

841 5198007 (1 or 3mg/kg) or vehicle in Nav1.7^{Nav1.8} and littermate mice. Example raw
842 traces, rate histogram and temperature recordings of tibial nerve activity in littermate
843 (C) and Nav1.7^{Nav1.8} mice (D). (E) Sum firing of tibial nerve activity during focal heat
844 stimulation in skin-nerve preparations of Nav1.7^{Nav1.8} and littermate mice in the
845 presence of TTX (100nM) or vehicle (0.1% distilled H₂O). ##### $P < 0.0001$, Nav1.7^{Nav1.8}
846 baseline vs. littermate baseline. (F) Effect of PF-5198007 on evoked tibial nerve firing
847 by heat stimulation in Nav1.7^{Nav1.8} and littermate mice. (G) Sum firing of tibial nerve
848 activity during focal cold stimulation in skin-nerve preparations of Nav1.7^{Nav1.8} and
849 littermate mice in the presence of TTX (100nM) or vehicle (0.1% distilled H₂O). (H)
850 Effect of PF-5198007 on evoked tibial nerve firing by cold stimulation in Nav1.7^{Nav1.8}
851 and littermate mice. * $P < 0.05$, ** $P < 0.01$, **** $P < 0.0001$.

852 Figure 7

853 Effect of selective small-molecule antagonism of Nav1.7 in resected human appendices
854 following repeat noxious distension. (A) Example rate histogram of appendix
855 mesenteric nerve activity and intraluminal pressure trace following repeat ramp
856 distension (0-60 mm Hg; 10 min interval). Application of PF-5198007 was initiated at
857 the start of the black bar and maintained for 50 min during which distensions were
858 continued. (B) Average firing rates to repeat ramp distension (0-60 mm Hg; $N = 5$) of
859 human appendix prior to, and after, addition of PF-5198007; neither low-threshold or
860 high-threshold afferent firing is affected by antagonism of Nav1.7. Both change in peak
861 firing rate (C) and total afferent firing (D; Area Under Curve) were unchanged by bath
862 superfusion with PF-5198007 ($N = 5$).

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1084 Table 1

#	Disease	Operation	Tissue	Age	Sex
1	Cancer	Right hemicolectomy	Appendix	83	F
2	Cancer	Right hemicolectomy	Appendix	42	F
3	Cancer	Right hemicolectomy	Appendix	72	F
4	Slow Transit Constipation	Subtotal Colectomy	Appendix	69	M
5	Cancer	Right hemicolectomy	Appendix	70	M
			<i>Mean age / M:F ratio</i>	<i>67</i>	<i>1:1.5</i>

