

Silencing of TRPV4-expressing sensory neurons attenuates temporomandibular disorders pain

Molecular Pain Volume 19: 1–6 © The Author(s) 2023 Article reuse guidelines: sagepub.com/journals-permissions DOI: 10.1177/17448069231185696 journals.sagepub.com/home/mpx Sage

Fabiana C Dias^{1,*}, Zilong Wang^{1,*}, Garrett Scapellato¹, and Yong Chen^{1,2,3}

Abstract

Identification of potential therapeutic targets is needed for temporomandibular disorders (TMD) pain, the most common form of orofacial pain, because current treatments lack efficacy. Considering TMD pain is critically mediated by the trigeminal ganglion (TG) sensory neurons, functional blockade of nociceptive neurons in the TG may provide an effective approach for mitigating pain associated with TMD. We have previously shown that TRPV4, a polymodally-activated ion channel, is expressed in TG nociceptive neurons. Yet, it remains unexplored whether functional silencing of TRPV4-expressing TG neurons attenuates TMD pain. In this study, we demonstrated that co-application of a positively charged, membrane-impermeable lidocaine derivative QX-314 with the TRPV4 selective agonist GSK101 suppressed the excitability of TG neurons. Moreover, coadministration of QX-314 and GSK101 into the TG significantly attenuated pain in mouse models of temporomandibular joint (TMJ) inflammation and masseter muscle injury. Collectively, these results suggest TRPV4-expressing TG neurons represent a potential target for TMD pain.

Keywords

TRPV4, trigeminal ganglion sensory neurons, temporomandibular joint disorders, pain, QX-314

Date Received: 5 April 2023; Revised 25 April 2023; accepted: 15 June 2023

Introduction

Temporomandibular disorders (TMD) are a group of painful conditions that involve the temporomandibular joint (TMJ), masseter muscles, and surrounding connective tissues.^{1–3} For the majority of patients, one of the cardinal symptoms of TMD is pain in the joint and/or chewing muscles.^{3–5} A wealth of evidence demonstrates that TMD patients have significantly lower bite strength compared with healthy controls, which can be regarded as functional masticatory pain in clinics.^{6–10} Detailed understanding of the mechanisms underlying TMD pain is still absent.

TMD pain transmission critically relies on trigeminal ganglion (TG) sensory neurons,^{11,12} which innervate the TMJ, masseter muscles, and surrounding connective tissues and provide the substrate for pain arising from such tissues. Hence, nociceptive neurons (nociceptors) residing in the TG represent an attractive therapeutic target for TMD pain. One potential

strategy to functionally inhibit these neurons is to deliver QX-314 (N-ethyl-lidocaine), a cell impermeant and permanently charged sodium channel blocker, by entry through large-pore ion channels expressed in nociceptors.^{13,14}

We have previously shown that TRPV4, a polymodallyactivated ion channel, is expressed in TG nociceptive neurons innervating the TMJ and masseter muscle.^{15,16} Here, in this

¹Department of Neurology, Duke University, Durham, NC, USA ²Center for Translational Pain Medicine, Department of Anesthesiology, Duke University, Durham, NC, USA

³Department of Pathology, Duke University, Durham, NC, USA

*These authors contributed equally.

Corresponding Author:

Yong Chen, Department of Neurology, Duke University, 311 Research Drive, Bryan Res BLDG, Durham, NC 27710, USA. Email: yong.chen@duke.edu



Creative Commons Non Commercial CC BY-NC: This article is distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial 4.0 License (https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc/4.0/) which permits non-commercial use, reproduction and distribution of the work without further permission provided the original work is attributed as specified on the SAGE

and Open Access pages (https://us.sagepub.com/en-us/nam/open-access-at-sage).

micro report, we sought to determine whether: (1) QX-314 can suppress the excitability of TG neurons in the presence of the TRPV4 selective agonist GSK1016790A (GSK101);¹⁷ (2) co-administration of QX-314 and GSK101 into the TG ameliorates pain in mouse models of TMD-induced by TMJ inflammation or masseter muscle injury.

Methods

Animals

Male WT mice (C57bl/6j) were used at 2.5–3 months of age for behavioral tests and immunostaining analysis. Animals were housed in climate-controlled rooms on a 12/12 h light/ dark cycle with water and standardized rodent diet available *ad libitum*. Animal protocol was approved by the Duke University-Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee (IACUC) in compliance with NIH guidelines.

Mouse models of TMD: TMJ inflammation and masseter muscle injury

Whereas TMD has multifactorial etiologies,^{1,18} a significant subgroup of patients suffers joint inflammation and/or masseter muscle injury.^{1,19,20} Following previous studies,^{15,16,21} we induced TMJ inflammation and masseter muscle injury to mimic these conditions in mice. For TMJ inflammation, mice were injected with 10 μ L of complete Freund's adjuvant (CFA, 5 mg/ mL; Chondrex) into the joint. Controls received incomplete Freund's adjuvant (IFA). For masseter muscle injury, ligation of the tendon of the anterior superficial part of masseter muscle (TASM) with two 6.0-chromic gut ligatures was conducted. Control mice received IFA or sham procedure of TASM.

Pain behavioral test

Bite force test was used to measure masticatory pain as we and others previously described.^{15,16,22} When the bite transducer was slowly moved towards the mouse, a bite was invariably elicited. The voltage output during each bite was recorded using Labview 8.0 (National Instruments). The voltage of each bite was determined and converted into force (newton) based on the regression equation derived from calibration. Each animal was tested 3–5 times per time point and the values were averaged. The interval between two trials was >1 min. The experimenter was blinded to the treatment conditions.

TG sensory neurons culture

Following our previous method,^{23,24} TGs from male WT mice (1–2 months old) were dissected and digested with 1 mg/mL collagenase (Worthington Biochemical Co.) and 5 mg/mL dispase (Invitrogen) for 1 h, then triturated. Neurons were cultured in DH10 medium (1:1 DMEM:Ham F12, Invitrogen)

on coverslips coated with poly-D-lysine and laminin (Invitrogen), and incubated with 5% CO_2 at 37°C overnight for electrophysiological experiments.

Voltage-gated sodium current recording

Following our previous study,²⁵ whole-cell patch-clamp was used to record voltage-gated Na⁺ currents at room temperature. Data was acquired by an Axopatch-200B amplifier with a Digidata 1440A by using pClamp10 software (Axon Instruments). The pipette solution contained: 130 mM CsCl, 9 mM NaCl, 1 mM MgCl₂, 10 mM EGTA, and 10 mM HEPES, adjusted to pH 7.3 with CsOH. The external solution contained: 131 mM NaCl, 10 mM tetraethylammonium chloride, 10 mM CsCl, 1 mM CaCl₂, 2 mM MgCl₂, 0.3 mM CdCl₂, 3 mM 4-aminopyridine, 10 mM HEPES, and 10 mM glucose, adjusted to pH 7.4 with NaOH. Data were sampled at 10 kHz and low-pass-filtered at 2 kHz. In voltage-clamp experiments, Na⁺ currents were evoked by a test pulse (40 ms) to 0 mV from the holding potential (-70 mV). The baseline of the Na⁺ currents was recorded and followed with perfusion of vehicle (2% DMSO), GSK101 (1 µM, Sigma), QX-314 (5 mM, Tocris) or GSK101+QX-314 solution. Small-medium sized TG neurons, where TRPV4 is mostly expressed,¹⁶ were selected for recording.

Intraganglionic injection

To assess the contribution of functional inhibition of TRPV4expressing TG neurons to TMD-like pain behaviors, GSK101 and QX-314 were intraganglionic (i.g.) co-administered into the TG. I.g. injection is a simplified and well-established method for targeted delivery of pharmacological agents into mouse TGs and it has been widely used by many groups.^{26–28} Mice were briefly anesthetized with 2% isoflurane and bilaterally injected using a 30G needle on a 5 μ L Hamilton syringe. The tip of the needle was terminated at the medial part of the TG, and 2 μ L of solution containing 1 μ M of GSK101 and 2% (~7.6 mM) of QX-314 was slowly delivered within 10 s.

Neural tracing

To track TMJ or masseter muscle innervation by the TG neurons, mice were injected with $2 \mu L$ of neuraltracerfast blue (FB, 2% aqueous solution; Polysciences) into the TMJ or masseter muscle 15 min before CFA/IFA and TASM/sham.

Immunohistochemistry and quantitative analysis

Mouse TG sections at 12 μ m were blocked with 5% normal donkey serum (Jackson-ImmunoResearch) and incubated overnight with primary antibody: rabbit anti-TRPV4 (1:2500, Novus Biologicals). Immunodetection was accomplished with secondary antibodies (AlexaFluor-594, 1:600;



Figure 1. Co-application of QX-314 and GSK101 suppresses sodium currents in TG neurons and attenuates TMD-like pain. (a) Traces and (b) quantification of sodium currents in responses to vehicle (2% DMSO), GSK101(1 μ M), QX-314 (5 mM) and GSK101 (1 μ M) + QX-314 (5 mM) treatments. **p < .01 and ***p < .01 vs. vehicle, two-way ANOVA followed by Dunnett's post hoc test. N = 4-7 neurons from four mice were recorded for each group; (c) representative images and (d) quantitative analysis show an increase of TRPV4-expressing neurons which innervate the TMJ and masseter muscle (% of TRPV4 + FB/FB) after CFA or TASM, respectively. *p < .05 vs. 3 days IFA or 7 days sham, unpaired *t* test. N = 5 mice/group; (e) and (f) i.g. coinjection of GSK101 (1 μ M) and QX314 (2%) significantly reduced CFA- or TASM-induced attenuation of bite force. *p < .05 and **p < .01 vs. vehicle, two-way ANOVA followed by Bonferroni post hoc test; N = 5-8 mice/group.

Invitrogen). Images were acquired using Keyence Microscope (Keyence Co.). 4–6 sections/TG were analyzed. % of TRPV4-expressing TG neurons innervating the TMJ or masseter muscle (TRPV4 + FB/FB) was analyzed.

Statistical analysis

Data were expressed as mean \pm SEM. Unpaired *t* test and twoway ANOVA followed by Dunnett's or Bonferroni *post-hoc* test were used for groups comparison. p < .05 was considered statistically significant.

Results

Our whole-cell patch-clamp recordings in cultured TG neurons demonstrated that extracellular co-application of QX-314 and GSK101 produced a substantial inhibition of voltage-gated sodium currents. In contrast, QX-314 or

GSK101 alone had a marginal, non-significant effect on the current (Figure 1(a) and (b)). These data indicate that TRPV4 can be employed in a strategy to functionally inhibit sensory neurons by the channel-mediated uptake of QX-314.

We have previously shown that TRPV4 is expressed in TG neurons that innervate the TMJ and masseter muscle.^{15,16} Here, using a retrograde neural tracer-FB combined with TRPV4 immunostaining, we extended this finding and found that the TMJ and masseter muscle innervation by TRPV4expessing neurons increases after TMJ inflammation and masseter muscle injury (Figure 1(c) and (d)), suggesting TRPV4-containing TG neurons might be a potential cellular site contributing to TMD pain. Neural tracing analysis revealed that the percentage of FB-labeled neurons/all TG neurons remained unchanged after TMJ inflammation or masseter muscle injury: 14.9 vs 14.3% (IFA vs CFA) and 14.5 vs 13.8% (sham vs TASM). These data suggest that the increased TMJ and masseter muscle innervation by TRPV4⁺ afferents after CFA or TASM might be attributable to the increased TRPV4 expression in TG neurons as we recently reported.15

Considering our observations demonstrated activation of TRPV4 permeates QX-314 into the channel-expressing TG neurons and lead to electrical silencing of cells, we next leveraged this method to examine the effects of silencing of TRPV4-expressing TG neurons on pain 1day after TMJ inflammation and 7 days after masseter muscle injury, when pain is established and most prominent as shown in our previous studies.^{15,16} Bite force measurement, as a clinically relevant read-out for assessing masticatory pain of TMD,^{15,16} showed that i.g. co-injection of QX-314 and GSK101 produced a significant attenuation of bite force reduction-evoked by TMJ inflammation or masseter muscle injury (Figure 1(e) and (f)).

Discussion

Previous studies have documented that activation of certain types of ion channels can change their membrane permeability that permits large molecules (≤900 Da) to enter cells via their pore dilation.²⁹ For instance, it was reported that TRPV1 allows QX-314 (~260 Da), a membrane impermeable sodium channel blocker, to enter into sensory neurons when the channel is opened, leading to functional silencing of cells and producing analgesic effects under pathophysiological conditions.^{13,30,31} QX-314 can also permeate through TRPA1 and TRPM8 when the channels are activated.^{32–34} Further in vivo behavioral assays showed that co-injection of QX-314 with TRPA1 or TRPM8 agonist blocked coldevoked allodynia and hyperalgesia.^{32–34} Interestingly, TRPV4 can permeate an organic cation Yo-Pro (629 Da) in huTRPV4-transfected Chinese hamster ovary (CHO) cells,³⁵ suggesting a possibility that TRPV4, similar to TRPV1, TRPA1, and TRPM8 ion channels, allows large molecules to enter cells. Here, we demonstrated that treatment of QX-314

led to robust attenuation of sodium currents of TG neurons when co-applying with GSK101. In contrast, extracellular application of QX-314 or GSK101 alone to neurons did not significantly affect the sodium current. Based on our best knowledge, this is the first time to show that functional blockade of TRPV4-expressing cells can be achieved by coapplication of QX-314 and the TRPV4 selective agonist. Previous studies reported that TRPV4 is expressed in TG nociceptive neurons,¹⁶ In this study, we were able to observe that these neurons contribute to TMD pain: delivery of QX-314 and GSK101 simultaneously into the TG produced a long-lasting (>3-5 h) attenuation of TMD-like pain-induced by TMJ inflammation or masseter muscle injury. One limitation of our study is that it remains elusive whether coinjection of QX-314 and GSK101 into the ganglion can also reduce the excitability of satellite glial cells, where TRPV4 is also expressed.³⁶ However, our data on TRPV4-expressing TG neurons' excitability and innervation of TMJ and masseter muscle clearly inform us that TRPV4-containing TG neurons contribute to TMD pain. Together, our findings suggest that silencing of TRPV4 neurons in TG may provide a potential approach for mitigating TMD pain. Considering TRPV4 is also involved in dental pain, neuropathic pain, pancreatitis pain, visceral pain, and migraine,^{37,38} future studies are warranted to investigate whether functional silencing of TRPV4 sensory neurons can also attenuate these types of pain.

Author contributions

YC designed the study. FCD, ZLW, GS and YC performed the experiments and analyzed the data. YC wrote the manuscript with input from all the authors. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

Declaration of conflicting interests

The author(s) declared no potential conflicts of interest with respect to the research, authorship, and/or publication of this article.

Funding

The author(s) disclosed receipt of the following financial support for the research, authorship, and/or publication of this article: This research was supported by the National Institutes of Health (NIH)-National Institute of Dental and Craniofacial Research (NIDCR) grant (DE027454) to YC.

ORCID iD

Yong Chen D https://orcid.org/0000-0001-8824-7187

References

 Schiffman E, Ohrbach R, Truelove E, Look J, Anderson G, Goulet JP, List T, Svensson P, Gonzalez Y, Lobbezoo F, Michelotti A, Brooks SL, Ceusters W, Drangsholt M, Ettlin D, Gaul C, Goldberg LJ, Haythornthwaite JA, Hollender L, Jensen R, John MT, De Laat A, de Leeuw R, Maixner W, van der Meulen M, Murray GM, Nixdorf DR, Palla S, Petersson A, Pionchon P, Smith B, Visscher CM, Zakrzewska J, Dworkin SF, International RDC/TMD Consortium Network, International association for Dental Research, Orofacial Pain Special Interest Group, International Association for the Study of Pain. Diagnostic criteria for temporomandibular disorders (DC/TMD) for clinical and research applications: recommendations of the International RDC/ TMD Consortium Network* and Orofacial Pain Special Interest Group. *J Oral Facial Pain Headache* 2014; 28: 6–27.

- Peck CC, Goulet JP, Lobbezoo F, Schiffman EL, Alstergren P, Anderson GC, de Leeuw R, Jensen R, Michelotti A, Ohrbach R, Petersson A, List T. Expanding the taxonomy of the diagnostic criteria for temporomandibular disorders. *J Oral Rehabil* 2014; 41: 2–23.
- Scrivani SJ, Keith DA, Kaban LB. Temporomandibular disorders. N Engl J Med 2008; 359: 2693–2705.
- Klasser GD, Lau J, Tiwari L, Balasubramaniam R. Masticatory muscle pain: diagnostic considerations, pathophysiologic theories and future directions. *Front Oral Maxillofac Med* 2020; 2: 14.
- Castroflorio T, Bargellini A, Deregibus A. Masticatory muscle pain and disorders. In: Farah CS, Balasubramaniam R, McCullough MJ (eds). *Contemporary oral medicine: a comprehensive approach to clinical practice*. Cham, Germany: Springer International Publishing, 2019, pp. 1843–1880.
- Speksnijder CM, Mutsaers NEA, Walji S. Functioning of the masticatory system in patients with an alloplastic total temporomandibular joint prostheses compared with healthy individuals: a pilot study. *Life (Basel)* 2022; 12: 2073.
- Dinsdale A, Costin B, Dharamdasani S, Page R, Purs N, Treleaven J. What conservative interventions improve bite function in those with temporomandibular disorders? a systematic review using self-reported and physical measures. *J Oral Rehabil* 2022; 49: 456–475.
- Moleirinho-Alves PMM, Cebola P, Dos Santos PDG, Correia JP, Godinho C, Oliveira R, Pezarat-Correia PLC. Effects of therapeutic and aerobic exercise programs on pain, neuromuscular activation, and bite force in patients with temporomandibular disorders. *J Pers Med* 2021; 11: 1170.
- Todic J, Martinovic B, Pavlovic J, Tabakovic S, Staletovic M. Assessment of the impact of temporomandibular disorders on maximum bite force. *Biomed Pap Med Fac Univ Palacky Olomouc Czech Repub* 2019; 163: 274–278.
- Khan AA, Maixner W, Lim PF. Temporomandibular joint disorders and orofacial pain. In: Chin ML, Fillingim RB, Ness TJ (eds). *Pain in women*. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press, 2013, pp. 311–324.
- Lam DK, Sessle BJ, Cairns BE, Hu JW. Neural mechanisms of temporomandibular joint and masticatory muscle pain: a possible role for peripheral glutamate receptor mechanisms. *Pain Res Manag* 2005; 10: 145–152.
- 12. Shankland WE, 2nd. The trigeminal nerve. Part IV: the mandibular division. *Cranio* 2001; 19: 153–161.

- Binshtok AM, Bean BP, Woolf CJ. Inhibition of nociceptors by TRPV1-mediated entry of impermeant sodium channel blockers. *Nature* 2007; 449: 607–610.
- Roberson DP, Binshtok AM, Blasl F, Bean BP, Woolf CJ. Targeting of sodium channel blockers into nociceptors to produce long-duration analgesia: a systematic study and review. *Br J Pharmacol* 2011; 164: 48–58.
- Suttle A, Wang P, Dias FC, Zhang Q, Luo Y, Simmons L, Bortsov A, Tchivileva IE, Nackley AG, Chen Y. Sensory neuron-TRPV4 modulates temporomandibular disorder pain via CGRP in mice. *J Pain* 2023; 24(5): 782–795.
- Chen Y, Williams SH, McNulty AL, Hong JH, Lee SH, Rothfusz NE, Parekh PK, Moore C, Gereau RW, Taylor AB, Wang F, Guilak F, Liedtke W. Temporomandibular joint pain: a critical role for Trpv4 in the trigeminal ganglion. *Pain* 2013; 154: 1295–1304.
- 17. Thorneloe KS, Sulpizio AC, Lin Z, Figueroa DJ, Clouse AK, McCafferty GP, Chendrimada TP, Lashinger ES, Gordon E, Evans L, Misajet BA, Demarini DJ, Nation JH, Casillas LN, Marquis RW, Votta BJ, Sheardown SA, Xu X, Brooks DP, Laping NJ, Westfall TD. N-((1S)-1-{[4-((2S)-2-{[(2,4dichlorophenyl)sulfonyl]amino}-3-hydroxypropanoyl)-1piperazinyl]carbonyl}-3-methylbutyl)-1-benzothiophene-2-carboxamide (GSK1016790A), a novel and potent transient receptor potential vanilloid 4 channel agonist induces urinary bladder contraction and hyperactivity: part I. J Pharmacol Exp Ther 2008; 326: 432–442.
- Greenspan JD, Slade GD, Bair E, Dubner R, Fillingim RB, Ohrbach R, Knott C, Diatchenko L, Liu Q, Maixner W. Pain sensitivity and autonomic factors associated with development of TMD: the OPPERA prospective cohort study. *J Pain* 2013; 14: T63–T74. e61-66.
- Atsu SS, Ayhan-Ardic F. Temporomandibular disorders seen in rheumatology practices: a review. *Rheumatol Int* 2006; 26: 781–787.
- Stohler CS. Muscle-related temporomandibular disorders. J Orofac Pain 1999; 13: 273–284.
- Ma Y, Liu S, Shu H, Crawford J, Xing Y, Tao F. Resveratrol alleviates temporomandibular joint inflammatory pain by recovering disturbed gut microbiota. *Brain Behav Immun* 2020; 87: 455–464.
- Wang S, Lim J, Joseph J, Wang S, Wei F, Ro JY, Chung MK. Spontaneous and bite-evoked muscle pain are mediated by a common nociceptive pathway with differential contribution by TRPV1. *J Pain* 2017; 18: 1333–1345.
- 23. Chen Y, Wang ZL, Yeo M, Zhang QJ, López-Romero AE, Ding HP, Zhang X, Zeng Q, Morales-Lázaro SL, Moore C, Jin YA, Yang HH, Morstein J, Bortsov A, Krawczyk M, Lammert F, Abdelmalek M, Diehl AM, Milkiewicz P, Kremer AE, Zhang JY, Nackley A, Reeves TE, Ko MC, Ji RR, Rosenbaum T, Liedtke W. Epithelia-sensory neuron cross talk underlies cholestatic itch induced by lysophosphatidylcholine. *Gastroenterology* 2021; 161: 301–317.e16.
- 24. Chen Y, Kanju P, Fang Q, Lee SH, Parekh PK, Lee W, Moore C, Brenner D, Gereau RW, Wang F, Liedtke W. TRPV4 is

necessary for trigeminal irritant pain and functions as a cellular formalin receptor. *Pain* 2014; 155: 2662–2672.

- Chandra S, Wang Z, Tao X, Chen O, Luo X, Ji RR, Bortsov AV. Computer-aided discovery of a new Nav1.7 inhibitor for treatment of pain and itch. *Anesthesiology* 2020; 133: 611–627.
- Neubert JK, Mannes AJ, Keller J, Wexel M, Iadarola MJ, Caudle RM. Peripheral targeting of the trigeminal ganglion via the infraorbital foramen as a therapeutic strategy. *Brain Res Brain Res Protoc* 2005; 15: 119–126.
- Zhang Q, Cao DL, Zhang ZJ, Jiang BC, Gao YJ. Chemokine CXCL13 mediates orofacial neuropathic pain via CXCR5/ERK pathway in the trigeminal ganglion of mice. *J Neuroinflammation* 2016; 13: 183.
- Afroz S, Arakaki R, Iwasa T, Oshima M, Hosoki M, Inoue M, Baba O, Okayama Y, Matsuka Y. CGRP induces differential regulation of cytokines from satellite glial cells in trigeminal ganglia and orofacial nociception. *Int J Mol Sci* 2019; 20: 711.
- Ferreira LG, Faria RX. TRPing on the pore phenomenon: what do we know about transient receptor potential ion channel-related pore dilation up to now? *J Bioenerg Biomembr* 2016; 48: 1–12.
- Puopolo M, Binshtok AM, Yao GL, Oh SB, Woolf CJ, Bean BP. Permeation and block of TRPV1 channels by the cationic lidocaine derivative QX-314. *J Neurophysiol* 2013; 109: 1704–1712.
- Kim HY, Kim K, Li HY, Chung G, Park CK, Kim JS, Jung SJ, Lee MK, Ahn DK, Hwang SJ, Kang Y, Binshtok AM, Bean BP, Woolf CJ, Oh SB. Selectively targeting pain in the trigeminal system. *Pain* 2010; 150: 29–40.

- 32. Yamaki S, Chau A, Gonzales L, McKemy DD. Nociceptive afferent phenotyping reveals that transient receptor potential ankyrin 1 promotes cold pain through neurogenic inflammation upstream of the neurotrophic factor receptor GFR α 3 and the menthol receptor transient receptor potential melastatin 8. *Pain* 2021; 162: 609–618.
- Ongun S, Sarkisian A, McKemy DD. Selective cold pain inhibition by targeted block of TRPM8-expressing neurons with quaternary lidocaine derivative QX-314. *Commun Biol* 2018; 1: 53.
- McCoy DD, Palkar R, Yang Y, Ongun S, McKemy DD. Cellular permeation of large molecules mediated by TRPM8 channels. *Neurosci Lett* 2017; 639: 59–67.
- Banke TG, Chaplan SR, Wickenden AD. Dynamic changes in the TRPA1 selectivity filter lead to progressive but reversible pore dilation. *Am J Physiol Cell Physiol* 2010; 298: C1457–C1468.
- Rajasekhar P, Poole DP, Liedtke W, Bunnett NW, Veldhuis NA. P2Y1 receptor activation of the TRPV4 Ion channel enhances purinergic signaling in satellite glial cells. *J Biol Chem* 2015; 290: 29051–29062.
- Moore C, Gupta R, Jordt SE, Chen Y, Liedtke WB. Regulation of pain and itch by TRP channels. *Neurosci Bull* 2018; 34: 120–142.
- Luo Y, Suttle A, Zhang Q, Wang P, Chen Y. Transient receptor potential (TRP) ion channels in orofacial pain. *Mol Neurobiol* 2021; 58: 2836–2850.