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Identification of a spinal circuit for light touch and fine motor control

Steeve Bourane¹, Katja S. Grossmann¹, Olivier Britz¹, Antoine Dalet¹, Marta Garcia Del Barrio¹, Floor J. Stam¹, Lidia Garcia-Campmany¹, Stephanie Koch¹, and Martyn Goulding¹ ¹Molecular Neurobiology Laboratory, The Salk Institute for Biological Studies, 10010 North Torrey Pines Road, La Jolla, CA 92037, USA

Abstract

Sensory circuits in the dorsal spinal cord integrate and transmit multiple cutaneous sensory modalities including the sense of light touch. Here we identify a population of excitatory interneurons (INs) in the dorsal horn that are important for transmitting innocuous light touch sensation. These neurons express the ROR alpha (ROR α) nuclear orphan receptor and are selectively innervated by cutaneous low threshold mechanoreceptors (LTMs). Targeted removal of ROR α INs in the dorsal spinal cord leads a marked reduction in behavioral responsiveness to light touch without affecting responses to noxious and itch stimuli. ROR α IN-deficient mice also display a selective deficit in corrective foot movements. This phenotype, together with our demonstration that the ROR α INs are innervated by corticospinal and vestibulospinal projection neurons, argues that the ROR α INs direct corrective reflex movements by integrating touch information with descending motor commands from the cortex and cerebellum.

Keywords

mechanosensation; light touch; sensory coding; sensorimotor integration; motor control

INTRODUCTION

Animals use the sense of touch to identify and discriminate nearby objects, direct motor movements, and reinforce social interactions via affective touch (Abraira and Ginty, 2013; McGlone and Reilly, 2010; Rossignol et al., 2006). Specialized LTMs in the skin detect a

SUPPLEMENTAL INFORMATION

Supplemental Information includes Expanded Experimental Procedures and six supplemental figures, Figures S1-S6.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

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Correspondence to M.G Telephone: +1 858 453 4100 x1558; Fax: +1 858 450 2172 goulding@salk.edu.

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SB, KSG, SK and MGDB characterized the RORG INs and performed the behavioral analyses. AD performed the electrophysiological recordings. OB, FJS and LGC generated the mice and contributed to the experimental analysis. SB and MG wrote the manuscript. MG supervised the study.

variety of touch modalities (Delmas et al., 2011; Li et al., 2011; Vrontou et al., 2013). Skin deformation and vibration are detected by rapidly adapting LTMs that innervate Meissner and Pacinian corpuscles, respectively, while slowly adapting Merkel cells and Ruffini organs respond to indentation and stretch (Delmas et al., 2011; McGlone and Reilly, 2010). C-LTMs and $A\beta/A\delta$ lanceolate LTMs in hairy skin monitor the dynamic and static displacement of hair. Our knowledge of how specific somatosensory modalities, including touch, are relayed and gated within the dorsal spinal cord is more limited, in part because the functional studies undertaken so far have primarily employed genetic mutations that alter a broad swath of neurons (Cheng et al., 2004; Gross et al., 2002; Muller et al., 2002; Wang et al., 2013; Xu et al., 2013). Moreover, it is still unclear how cutaneous touch pathways intersect with descending motor pathways to control movement and posture.

The peripheral pathways that transmit thermoceptive, nociceptive, innocuous mechanosensory and proprioceptive stimuli are highly segregated (Basbaum et al., 2009; Lallemend and Ernfors, 2012). Unmyelinated C-nociceptors and lightly myelinated A\delta afferents that relay nociceptive, thermoceptive and pruritoceptive stimuli project to laminae I/II of the dorsal horn (Lallemend and Ernfors, 2012; Todd, 2010), while large diameter fast conducting neurons that carry proprioceptive information innervate neurons in the intermediate and ventral spinal cord (Jankowska, 1992; Lallemend and Ernfors, 2012). Innocuous touch modalities are transmitted by myelinated A-LTMs and unmyelinated C-LTMs that converge on laminae IIi-IV (Abraira and Ginty, 2013; Delmas et al., 2011; Lallemend and Ernfors, 2012; Lechner and Lewin, 2013). These and other findings argue that somatosensory information is encoded in the periphery by labeled lines of transmission. However, the extent to which these labeled lines extend into the central nervous system remains to be determined. It is known that cutaneous LTMs project and arborize within the dorsal horn in a modality-specific manner (Brown, 1981; Fyffe, 1992; Light and Perl, 1979a, b; Shortland and Woolf, 1993; Woolf, 1987). Hair follicle afferents terminate in lamina IIi and III (Woodbury et al., 2001). Meissner and Merkel cell afferents innervate lamina III and IV (Brown, 1981; Woolf, 1987), while the arbors of Pacinian corpuscle afferents localize to lamina III/dorsal lamina IV and lamina V (Brown, 1981; Semba et al., 1984). Finally, Ruffini organ afferents form collaterals in lamina III and have processes that extend into laminae IV/V (Brown, 1981). This anatomical organization suggests that defined mechanosensory modalities may be transmitted and processed by discrete IN cell types in the spinal cord.

In this study, we show that a class of dorsal spinal cord INs expressing the RORa nuclear orphan receptor are required for proper light touch perception. Ablating RORa INs in the caudal spinal cord markedly reduces the behavioral responses mice display to light touch, but not to noxious or itch stimuli. Mice lacking RORa INs also show a marked increase in footfalls and slips during beam walking, indicating the RORa INs are necessary for corrective foot movements and fine motor control. This motor deficit, in combination with neuronal tracing experiments showing the RORa INs are innervated by projection neurons in the lateral vestibular nucleus (LVN) and motor cortex, reveals a role for the RORa INs in integrating sensory inputs from cutaneous LTMs with descending motor signals from the cortex and vestibular system. In so doing, it provides evidence that the RORa INs function

as an important interneuronal node for coordinating descending motor commands with cutaneous mechanosensory feedback.

RESULTS

RORa identifies a distinct population of excitatory neurons in laminae IIi/III of the spinal cord

The neurons in the spinal cord that express ROR α are primarily restricted to laminae IIi/III (Del Barrio et al., 2013). In mice carrying both the *ROR* α ^{Cre} allele (Chou et al., 2013) and *Tau*^{LSL-nlslacZ} reporter allele (Britz et al., 2014), β -galactosidase (β -gal) expression was localized to two bilateral columns of neurons in the dorsal horn (Figure 1A–C). Most importantly, β -gal was markedly absent from sensory neurons in the dorsal root ganglia (DRG) (Figure 1C). Transverse sections through the spinal cord showed that the ROR α INs are largely restricted to laminae IIi/III, with the intermediate and ventral spinal cord being completely devoid of ROR α expression (Figure 1C and Figure S1A).

To confirm that Cre recombination faithfully recapitulates ROR α expression, P10 *ROR* α ^{Cre}; *R26*^{LSL-tdTomato} spinal cords were stained with antibodies to DsRed (tdTomato), ROR α and NeuN (Figure 1D). 94.2±1.3% of the ROR α ⁺/NeuN⁺ neurons in lamina IIi/III expressed tdTomato. Conversely, 91.8±2.9% of the tdTomato⁺/NeuN⁺ neurons expressed ROR α . Scattered non-neuronal NeuN-negative tdTomato⁺ cells were present outside of lamina IIi/III (Figure 1D, asterisk). These cells are predominantly endothelial cells, but also include some glial cells. Anatomical analysis revealed that most ROR α INs possess a radial, vertical or central cell-like morphologies (Figure 1G), and have dendritic fields that are largely confined to laminae IIi/III and dorsal lamina IV (Figure 1E–F and Figure S1B and C).

In keeping with their morphology, $86.1\pm2.7\%$ of the ROR α -Tomato⁺ INs expressed Lmx1b (Figure 2A and E), which marks glutamatergic INs in the dorsal horn (Gross et al., 2002; Muller et al., 2002). By contrast, very few ROR α -tdTomato⁺ INs ($1.2\pm0.5\%$) expressed the inhibitory marker Pax2 (Figure 2B and E). Further comparison of tdTomato and vesicular glutamate transporter *vGluT2* expression confirmed that the ROR α ⁺ INs are primarily glutamatergic, with 91.6±0.4% coexpressing *vGluT2* (Figure 2C and E, Figure S2A–C). Moreover, a large fraction of them coexpressed cholecystokinin (Figure S2F), which is restricted to excitatory neurons in the dorsal horn (Hu et al., 2012; Xu et al., 2013). By contrast, only $3.1\pm0.9\%$ of the ROR α INs in *Gad1-GFP* mice expressed GFP (Figure 2D and E). Further analysis revealed two major molecular subsets of ROR α INs: a dorsal population that colocalizes with PKC γ (Figure S2D and F) in lamina II inner, and a more ventral population of MafA⁺/c-Maf⁺/ROR α ⁺ cells that are restricted to lamina III (Figure S2E and F)

Innervation of RORa INs by mechanosensory neurons

In view of their location in laminae IIi/III, we set out to determine if the RORa INs receive afferent input from innocuous mechanosensory neurons. CGRP and IB4 staining was used to compare the location of the RORa INs with the termination zones of peptidergic and non-peptidergic nociceptive afferents (Todd, 2010). The cell bodies of RORa INs were located

beneath the CGRP⁺ and IB4⁺ afferents in lamina I/II and II, respectively (Figure S3A). Only rarely did we detect putative contacts from nociceptive afferents onto ROR α INs, indicating the ROR α INs receive very little nociceptive input. By contrast, when a c-Ret-CFP transgene (Uesaka et al., 2008), was used to trace the central processes of mechanosensory afferents, we identified numerous CFP⁺/vGluT1⁺ synaptic contacts onto ROR α INs (Figure S3B). These findings provide evidence that the ROR α INs are innervated by cutaneous LTMs as opposed to cutaneous nociceptors.

Monosynaptic retrograde tracing using a pseudotyped EnvA-SAD G-mCherry rabies virus (Wickersham et al., 2007) was employed to identify the sensory neuron cell types that innervate spinal RORa INs. These experiments were performed using an intersectional reporter (Li et al., 2013; Stam et al., 2012) that in combination with RORa^{Cre} and Cdx2::FlpO restricts rabies virus entry to RORa INs in the caudal spinal cord (Figure 3A-C). Sensory neurons are not directly infected due to their lack of RORa expression. Injection of EnvA-SAD G-mCherry rabies virus into the spinal cords of P5 RORaCre; Cdx2::FlpO; R26^{ds-HTB} mice, resulted in mCherry expression in multiple cutaneous LTM cell types, including cells with the following expression profiles: c-Ret⁺/IB4⁻ A\beta-LTMs (Figure 3D and K; 24.7±23%), TrkC⁺/parvalbumin⁻ Aβ-LTMs (Figure 3E and K, $22.0\pm2.5\%$) and TrkB⁺ A δ -LTMs (Figure 3F and K, $20.3\pm2.3\%$). Very few IB4⁺ nonpeptidergic nociceptors (Figure 3D and K, 0.66±0.33%) and parvalbumin⁺ proprioceptors (Figure 3E and K, $3.1\pm 1.9\%$). were labeled, demonstrating the ROR α INs are primarily innervated by LTM afferents. We also identified a population of presynaptic neurons that express CGRP and NF200 (Figure 3K and S3G), which are likely to be a subtype of mechanoreceptor (Lawson et al., 2002). Our failure to detect mCherry-labeled Tyrosine Hydroxylase⁺ C-LTM neurons (Figure 3G, (Li et al., 2011)) indicates that A β -LTMs and Aδ-LTMs, rather than C-LTMs, are the primary source of mechanosensory input to the RORa INs.

Our observation that rabies-derived mCherry labels the distal processes of sensory neurons allowed us to unambiguously identify the mechanosensory neuron cell types that innervate the ROR α INs. mCherry⁺/NF200⁺ A β afferent fibers were present in the dermal papillae of glabrous skin where Meissner corpuscles are located (Figure 3H). This is consistent with mCherry-rabies labeling of calbindin⁺ DRG afferents that innervate Meissner corpuscles (Figure S3E). Calretinin⁺ DRG neurons and their associated Pacinian corpuscle nerve endings did not express mCherry (Figure S3C and D), indicating the ROR α cells are not innervated by Pacinian LTMs. In hairy skin, we observed mCherry-labeled afferents innervating Merkel cells (Figure 3I). A δ D-hair terminals (Figure 3J) and transverse lanceolate endings (Figure S3H) were also retrogradely labeled. The morphologies of the hairy skin LTMs labeled by rabies virus are consistent with the expression profile of mCherry in DRG neurons, as D-hair and lanceolate neurons express a combination of c-Ret, TrkB or TrkC (Lallemend and Ernfors, 2012). mCherry⁺ afferents were occasionally seen together with Ruffini organ endings in the foot muscles (Figure S3F), although the exact extent of ROR α IN innervation by Ruffini LTMs remains to be determined.

RORa. INs are innervated by A-fiber afferents and are selectively activated by light touch

Whole cell recordings from ROR α INs in lamina III revealed a spectrum of excitatory potentials that closely match the profile of presynaptic connections seen in the rabies tracing experiments. Short latency-low threshold potentials (<7 ms) with no failures and low jitter were detected in 11 of 31 cells following dorsal root stimulation (Figure 4A). These potentials most likely represent monosynaptic A β fibers, as Ia muscle spindle afferents do not terminate in lamina III (Brown, 1981; Jankowska, 1992). Low to intermediate threshold potentials that are likely to be either monosynaptic A δ or A polysynaptic inputs were detected in another 12 cells (Figure 4C). 6 cells displayed long latency-high threshold potentials (>25 ms) that are characteristic of polysynaptic C-fiber inputs. Interestingly, 2 of these cells possessed an additional short latency-low threshold input, indicating some ROR α INs receive a combination of myelinated A and unmyelinated C fiber innervation (Figure 4B). The exact nature of this polysynaptic C fiber innervation remains to be determined, although it may be derived from C-LTMs that sense pleasant touch (Liu et al., 2007; Vrontou et al., 2013).

We then asked if light brush stimulation activates the immediate early gene c-Fos in ROR α INs. Light brushing of the plantar (underside) surface of the foot (Figure 4D–F and J), and the hairy skin of the lower limb (Figure 4J), resulted in extensive expression of c-Fos in lamina IIi/III ROR α INs. By contrast, injection of capsaicin into the foot resulted in very little c-Fos induction in ROR α INs (3.1±0.9%; Figure 4G–I and J). Instead, c-Fos induction was largely restricted to laminae I/II and lamina V. Some activation of c-Fos was also observed in lamina I/II neurons in response to brushing (Figure 4D). This may reflect sensitization due to the prolonged brush stimulation needed for c-Fos induction in lamina IIi/III neurons, or it might be due to the activation of nociceptive pathways by innocuous touch at early postnatal stages (Koch et al., 2012).

Ablating RORa INs in the dorsal spinal cord impairs light touch

To determine the functional contribution ROR α INs make to somatosensation, we employed a recently developed intersectional *Tau*^{ds-DTR} allele (Figure 5A; (Britz et al., 2014)) to inducibly ablate the ROR α INs in the adult spinal cord. When used in combination with *ROR* α ^{Cre} and a *Cdx2::FlpO* transgene, which is only expressed in caudal regions of the mouse (Britz et al., 2014), we were able to selectively target diphtheria toxin receptor (DTR) expression to ROR α INs in the caudal spinal cord. ROR α -expressing cells in the anterior CNS and in non-neuronal tissues were not affected by diphtheria toxin (DTX) treatment (Figure 5B and C). Using a *R26*^{LSL-tdTomato} reporter to trace the ROR α cells, we estimate that >95% of the ROR α INs in the lumbar cord were ablated by DTX treatment (Figure 5D– F). Cell killing was largely restricted to excitatory Lmx1b⁺ INs in lamina IIi/III (Figure5E and 5G), where ROR α and Lmx1b are coexpressed, with the number of inhibitory Pax2⁺ neurons in the dorsal horn remaining unchanged (Figure 5H).

To confirm cell ablation is restricted to ROR α INs, we analyzed the expression of several excitatory dorsal horn markers (Brohl et al., 2008; Del Barrio et al., 2013; Gross et al., 2002; Muller et al., 2002). As expected, there was a corresponding reduction in the number of cells expressing PKC β , MafA, c-Maf, and calbindin (Figure S4A–D), while excitatory calretinin⁺

INs that do not express ROR α and GAD1⁺ inhibitory INs were unaffected (Figure S4E and F). We also verified that ROR α IN ablation does not alter the lamina organization of sensory afferent terminals in dorsal spinal cord. CGRP⁺ and IB4⁺ nociceptive terminals projected normally to laminae I/II (Figure S4G and H) and there was no gross change in the central projections of vGluT1⁺ mechanosensory afferents (Figure S4I–J). The termination patterns of peripheral nerve endings (Figure S4K–L) were also unchanged following ROR α IN-ablation demonstrating that the loss of these cells does not cause any major change in central and peripheral sensory innervation.

RORa IN-ablated mice were then subjected to a battery of sensory tests. Strikingly, mice lacking spinal RORa INs displayed a specific sensory impairment in dynamic and static light touch. In particular, the response to light brushing on the plantar surface of the foot was markedly diminished as compared to control littermates (Figure 5I; 30±7.9% versus $76\pm6.5\%$ of trials). Furthermore, the latency to detecting a piece of sticky tape on the plantar surface of the foot was also increased 2.5 fold (Figure 5J; control 78.9±17.7 secs versus ROR α IN-ablated 192.9±20.4 secs), thereby demonstrating a substantial reduction in responsiveness to static touch. We also observed a marked reduction in tactile sensation on the hairy skin of mice lacking RORa INs (Figure 5K) indicating the RORa INs contribute to light touch perception in hairy skin. By contrast, RORa IN deficient mice displayed no change in their responses to mechanical pain (Figure 5L-N) or sensitivity to heat and cold (Figure 5O and P). Responses to chemically-induced itch were also unchanged (Figure 5Q and R). Finally, there was no difference in acute pain sensation following the injection of capsaicin and formalin (Figure 5S and T). In summary, depleting RORa INs from the dorsal spinal cord results in the selective loss of light touch without altering responsiveness to mechanical, thermal and chemical pain, and to chemical itch.

RORa IN-ablated mice display deficits in corrective motor movements

Our ability to genetically manipulate the RORα IN population led us examine the contribution that the RORα INs make to motor control in mice (Figure 6). Gross behavioral analyses failed to uncover any pronounced change in locomotor activity in RORα IN-ablated mice (Figure S5), with most measures of locomotor function being largely normal. There was no difference between control and RORα IN-ablated mice in total distance traveled, vertical activity or total number of jumps performed during open-field testing (Figure S5A–C). Muscle strength, as assessed by the hanging wire test, was also normal in the RORα IN-ablated mice (Figure S5D). There was also no marked change in gross motor coordination as assessed by the accelerating rotarod and limb coordination during treadmill and ladder beam walking (Figure S5E–I).

By contrast, when the raised beam test was used to assess fine motor control during locomotion, a significant increase hindlimb missteps and footfalls was seen in ROR α IN-ablated mice traversing a 5 mm beam as compared to control mice (Figure 6A–C (3.73±0.73 episodes per crossing for ROR α IN-ablated mice versus 1.29±0.3 episodes per crossing for control mice)). Most notably, this increase in missteps/footfalls was restricted to the hindlimbs, which is consistent with the depletion of ROR α INs at hindlimb levels but not at forelimb levels. In sum, our results demonstrate that ROR α IN-mediated feedback to the

motor system is essential for corrective movements, while being largely dispensable for gross motor movements.

RORa INs form synaptic contacts with motor neurons and premotor neurons

To further probe the nature of the ROR α IN motor phenotype, we asked if the ROR α INs provide excitatory inputs to motor neurons and molecularly-identified premotor IN cell types that control locomotion in mice (Arber, 2012; Goulding, 2009; Grillner and Jessell, 2009; Kiehn, 2011). To visualize the terminal processes of RORa INs, *ROR*a^{Cre} mice were crossed with conditional Thy1LSL-YFP reporter mice (Buffelli et al., 2003). We observed multiple YFP⁺/vGluT2⁺ contacts on motor neurons in the lumbar lateral motor column (Figure 6D). These vGluT2⁺ contacts are likely to be functional synapses as we find mCherry-positive premotor RORa INs in the lumbar spinal cords of RORa^{Cre}; Tau^{LSL-lacZ} mice following injection of pseudotyped SAD G-mCherry rabies virus and AAV-G into the gastrocnemius (ankle extensor) and tibialis anterior (ankle flexor) muscles (Figure 6E-G). We also looked for YFP⁺/vGluT2⁺ contacts on lamina X V0c cholinergic neurons (Stepien et al., 2010; Zagoraiou et al., 2009), which are the source of muscarinic cholinergic inputs to motor neurons (Miles et al., 2007). RORa IN-derived contacts were observed on the soma of these cells (Figure 6H), suggesting the RORa INs are a source of excitatory drive to the V0c IN population. DsRed⁺/vGluT2⁺ bouton-like contacts were also found on CFP⁺ V2a INs in $ROR\alpha^{Cre}$; $R26^{LSL-tdTomato}$; $Chx10^{CFP}$ mice indicating putative synaptic connections between RORa INs and Chx10⁺ V2a INs (Figure 6I). These analyses are likely to substantially underestimate the number of putative RORa IN-derived synaptic contacts on premotor and motor neurons, given that excitatory contacts are most abundant on dendrites, Taken together, these tracing studies provide evidence that excitatory RORa INs relay touch information from cutaneous LTMs to the spinal motor system.

In view of the contribution that the corticospinal tract (CST) and lateral vestibulospinal tract (LVST) pathways make to fine motor control and balance (Armstrong, 1988; Ito, 2012), we asked whether CST neurons and LVST neurons synapse directly onto the RORa INs in the lumbar spinal cord. Targeted infection of lumbar level RORa INs with EnvA-SAD GmCherry rabies virus resulted in monosynaptic rabies virus labeling of LVST neurons in the lateral vestibular nucleus (Figure 7A). These cells, which are innervated by calbindin⁺ Purkinje cells (Figure 7A, inset, arrows), constitute a major vestibular efferent pathway from the cerebellum to the spinal cord (Ito, 2012). We also found multiple mCherry-labeled neurons (Figure 7B) in lamina V of the contralateral mouse primary motor cortex that had the typical pyramidal morphology of corticospinal projection neurons (Figure 7B and C). When whole cell recordings were performed on ROR α INs in the lumbar cord (L4), 8 of 10 RORa INs displayed monosynaptic excitatory potentials in response to stimulating A fiber sensory afferents and the ventral dorsal funiculus that contains the axons of corticospinal projection neurons (Figure 7D–F). This protocol has been shown to selectively activate descending corticospinal axons (Hantman and Jessell, 2010), however, some synaptic potentials might arise from the antidromic stimulation of ascending dorsal column axons. Additional evidence for the presence of convergent corticospinal and sensory inputs onto the RORa INs comes from anatomical studies showing lumbar RORa INs are decorated with PKCy⁺/vGluT1⁺ and Emx1-GFP⁺/vGluT1⁺ contacts from corticospinal projection neurons

(Figure 7G and H). These same cells are also contacted by vGluT1⁺ processes, which are likely to be derived from mechanosensory afferents (Figure 7G and H, arrowheads).

DISCUSSION

This study identifies a specific class of neurons in the dorsal spinal cord that have an essential role in sensing light touch. The ROR α INs transmit innocuous mechanical stimuli from both the hairy and glabrous skin, and depleting the spinal cord of ROR α INs leads to a selective mechanosensory deficit that closely matches the repertoire of inputs these cells receive from cutaneous LTMs. We propose that the ROR α INs serve as an integrative node that merges sensory input from cutaneous LTMs with descending signals from the cortex and cerebellum to generate the postural adjustments and corrective foot movements that are used to counteract foot slippage.

Coding of mechanical stimuli by RORa INs

Our results showing discriminative light touch behaviors are impaired in ROR α IN-ablated mice (Figure 5I and J), whereas nocifensive behaviors are not (Figure 5), provides evidence that somatosensory inputs to the spinal cord are processed and transmitted in a modality-specific manner. This finding, together with studies showing excitatory neurons located dorsal to the ROR α INs in lamina II transmit mechanical pain (Duan et al., 2014), is consistent with the existence of 'labeled' interneuronal lines of transmission with the CNS, and it supports a model in which innocuous versus noxious touch modalities are routed through different interneuronal pathways in the spinal cord. We propose that light touch is gated by ROR α INs in lamina IIi/III, whereas mechanical pain is processed by somatostatin⁺ neurons in lamina II, which is in accordance with the general organization of nociceptive and mechanosensory projections in the dorsal spinal cord (Abraira and Ginty, 2013; Lechner and Lewin, 2013; Todd, 2010).

The RORα INs are innervated by multiple LTM subtypes (Figure 3 and Figure S3), arguing that they process multiple streams of mechanosensory input from the skin. In the trigeminal vibrissa system, tactile inputs converge on projection neurons that receive tactile information from slowly-adapting Merkel cell afferents and from rapidly-adapting lanceolate afferents (Sakurai et al., 2013). The RORα INs differ from these projection neurons in that they are exclusively local circuit neurons (Figure 1 and Figure S1). The majority of RORα INs appear to be innervated by a single sensory afferent fiber type, with 29 of 31 recorded cells displaying a single depolarizing potential following dorsal root stimulation (Figure 4). Although this finding is consistent with innervation by a single mechanosensory cell type, we cannot exclude the possibility that individual RORα INs receive more than one type of mechanosensory input. For example, dual depolarizing potentials consistent with monosynaptic A and polysynaptic C inputs were detected in two RORα cells (Figure 4B), raising the possibility that some RORα cells merge sensory information from A-LTMs and C-LTMs.

Our observation that the RORa INs are molecularly and anatomically heterogeneous (Figure S1 and S2), suggests that subpopulations of RORa INs may process different types of mechanosensory information. Different LTM cell types are known to innervate discrete

laminar territories in the dorsal horn (Li et al., 2011; Schouenborg, 2008), raising the possibility that different forms of touch, e.g. caress or pressure, activate different combinations of ROR α IN subtypes. For instance, PKC γ^+ /ROR α^+ INs in lamina IIi are likely to be innervated by A δ afferents (Li et al., 2011; Light and Perl, 1979a, b; Todd, 2010), while ROR α^+ /MafA $^+$ /c-Maf $^+$ neurons in lamina III would be activated by A β -LTM inputs. Sensory coding by the ROR α INs may therefore play an important role in discriminating different forms of touch.

One question that arises from this study is whether innocuous touch is mediated solely by the ROR α INs or whether other excitatory IN cell types in the dorsal horn also contribute to the sense of light touch? The deficits in sensing light touch the ROR α IN-ablated mice are very pronounced in the glabrous skin, arguing that light touch information from the glabrous skin is primarily gated via ROR α INs. However, it is likely that other excitatory INs contribute to innocuous touch transmission from hairy skin, as ROR α INs are not directly innervated by TH⁺ C-LTMs (Figure 3). ROR α INs also lack inputs from Pacinian corpuscles (Figure S3), with the MafA⁺/c-Maf⁺ neurons in lamina IV that lack ROR α expression being the most likely candidates for processing information from Pacinian LTMs.

RORa INs: a nexus for integrating cutaneous touch and descending motor control signals

Human studies have shown that the cutaneous sensory, visual and vestibular systems all contribute to fine motor control and balance (Perry et al., 2000; Stal et al., 2003). It has also been shown in cats, that the corticospinal pathway displays functional convergence on cutaneous reflex pathways (Bretzner and Drew, 2005; Lundberg and Voorhoeve, 1962). What was not clear was how information from these different pathways is merged to provide a coherent set of commands to the spinal motor system. Our discovery that ROR α INs are innervated by descending motor pathways from the cortex and cerebellum suggest that much of this integration may occur at the level of the dorsal horn with the ROR α INs playing a prominent role in integrating cutaneous sensory information with descending motor commands. We propose that the ROR α INs, via their direct excitatory inputs to premotor neurons and motor neurons, function as the core integrative element of a sensorimotor circuit for corrective motor behaviors and fine motor control (Figure 7I).

Mechanosensory feedback from the sole of the foot makes a major contribution to postural stability (Perry et al., 2000; Stal et al., 2003), with these pathways often being compromised in elderly and Parkinson's patients that are prone to falling (Patel et al., 2009; Pratorius et al., 2003; Zia et al., 2003). With respect to the motor phenotype in mice lacking RORa INs, the loss of sensory feedback from Meissner corpuscles in the sole of the foot that are used to sense slippage would contribute to the increase in foot slips, and possible issues with balance, during beam walking. Deficits in detecting skin deformation and edges due to impaired signaling from Merkel cells and Ruffini endings may also be a factor. The RORa INs are innervated by LVST neurons, which points to an important role for the RORa INs in gating the output of LVN to the spinal cord. LVST neurons functionally facilitate limb extension (Grillner et al., 1971; Hultborn et al., 1976), in part via their excitatory actions on Ia reciprocal inhibitory neurons. Our observation that a subpopulation of V2b INs possess

the features of Ia reciprocal inhibitory neurons (Zhang et al., 2014), coupled with rabiestracing experiments showing the RORa INs synapse onto V2b INs (FS and MG; unpublished data), raises the possibility that the vestibular control of limb extension may be partly mediated by the excitatory actions of RORa INs on V2b-derived Ia reciprocal inhibitory neurons that inhibit flexor motor neurons.

RORa IN-dependent sensory feedback is largely dispensable for gross locomotor movements. This finding concurs with studies in the cat showing gross locomotor behaviors such as walking are largely independent of cutaneous feedback (Rossignol et al., 2006). Nonetheless, light touch can exert strong phase-dependent effects on locomotion, as exemplified by the stumbling corrective response and paw shake reflex (Forssberg, 1979; Quevedo et al., 2005; Rossignol et al., 2006) with the RORa INs being potential candidates for mediating these corrective reflexes. The limited role that light touch plays in shaping coarse stepping movements suggests the sensorimotor system is functionally organized so that light touch is primarily used for corrective motor movements. In this way, vestibulospinal, rubrospinal and corticospinal pathways that intersect with cutaneous sensory pathways in the dorsal spinal cord have the capacity to elicit dynamic changes in posture and limb/foot/digit position without disrupting the overall locomotor pattern. Under certain conditions, however, these pathways can alter the locomotor pattern.

Sensorimotor circuits in the spinal cord and cerebellum are organized into action-based sensorimotor modules that constitute a functional scaffold for corrective and/or reflexive motor behaviors (Schouenborg, 2008). We propose that the ROR α IN touch circuit represents an action-based sensorimotor circuit for corrective motor behaviors. Specifically, the ROR α INs couple a tactile map of the body surface to motor pathways via their connections to elements of the spinal motor circuitry (Figure 6) and to postsynaptic dorsal column (PSDC) projection neurons (Figure S6) that relay tactile sensory information to the cerebellum (Ito, 2012). In this context, the ROR α IN-PSDC-cerebellar pathway would operate as an error detection system to correct motor movements in response to tactile sensory feedback (Apps and Garwicz, 2005). In summary, the ROR α IN-PSDC-cerebellum pathway and the reciprocal LVST-ROR α IN pathway constitute a spinocerebellar feedback loop that utilizes cutaneous sensorimotor feedback to shape the fine corrective movements animals use for dynamic motor control.

EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES

Mouse Lines

Multiple mouse lines were used for this study. Mice were maintained on a mixed background and littermates were used as controls for all experiments. $ROR\alpha^{Cre}$ mice were kindly provided by Dr. Dennis O'Leary (Chou et al., 2013). Littermates lacking the Cdx2::FlpO allele were used as controls for all behavioral experiments. Expression analyses were performed using the $R26^{LSL-tdTomato}$ (Madisen et al., 2010), $Tau^{LSL-nlslacZ}$ (Britz et al., 2014) and $R26^{ds-HTB}$ mice (Stam et al., 2012). $R26^{ds-HTB}$ mice $R26^{LSL-tVA}$ mice (Seidler et al., 2008) were used for transsynaptic tracing and morphological analysis with EnvA-pseudotyped rabies virus. The Tau^{ds-DTR} and Cdx2::FlpO mouse lines (Britz et al., 2014) were used for the behavioral analyses.

Immunohistochemistry

Immunohistochemical analyses were performed on cryostat sections of fixed tissues using previously described methods (Bourane et al., 2007; Gross et al., 2002).

In situ hybridization

In situ hybridization was performed as previously described (Bourane et al., 2007).

c-Fos Induction

P6 $ROR\alpha^{Cre}$; $R26^{ds-HTB}$ mice, restrained in a specially designed enclosure, were acclimated for 10 min prior to stimulation. For light brush stimulation, a soft paint brush was used to gently stroke the plantar surface (glabrous) or dorsal surface (hairy) of the hindpaw for 45 min at approximately 0.5 Hz. To activate pain pathways, 6 µl of capsaicin (1 mg in 10 ml saline, 7% Tween-80) was injected subcutaneously into the plantar surface of the hindpaw. A 60 min chase time was included between stimulation and sacrificing the animals. Spinal cords were immediately dissected and fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde/PBS. Frozen sections from the lumbar spinal cord were immunostained with antibodies specific for c-Fos and βgalactosidase.

Rabies Virus Tracing

Injections of pseudotyped rabies virus into the lumbar spinal cord of P14 $ROR\alpha^{Cre}$; $R26^{LSL-TVA}$ mice were used to examine ROR α IN morphology For transsynaptic tracing studies, injections were made into the lumbar cord of $ROR\alpha^{Cre}$; Cdx2::FlpO; $R26^{ds-HTB}$ animals at P5 or P10. For muscle injections, single muscles were injected with G protein-deleted-mCherry rabies virus according to (Stepien et al., 2010).

Behavioral Testing and Analysis

All the behavioral tests were performed blind to the genotype of the animals. Animal experiments were conducted according to NIH guidelines using protocols approved by the Salk Institute for Biological Studies IACUC. Detailed protocols for all behavioral tests are described in Expanded Experimental Procedures.

Electrophysiology

Whole cell recordings and dorsal root stimulation were performed using sagittal hemicords prepared from postnatal P5-P21 $ROR\alpha^{Cre}$; $Thy I^{LSL-YFP}$ mice as described by (Torsney and MacDermott, 2006), with minor modifications. The CST was stimulated with a concentric bipolar electrode (FHC) positioned 3–4 mm rostral to the recorded neuron. Stimulation was performed at 2Hz (100µA, 0.1ms) to exclude retrograde axonal transmission. See Extended Experimental Procedures.

Quantitative Analysis and Statistics

Cell counts were determined by analyzing 3–6 spinal cords (5–10 sections each) per genotype. All data are presented as the mean \pm standard error of the mean (SEM) with n indicating the number of mice analyzed. Statistical analyses were performed by two-tailed, unpaired Student's *t* test. p values below 0.05 were considered to be statistically significant.

Supplementary Material

Refer to Web version on PubMed Central for supplementary material.

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Figure 1. Characterization of RORa^{Cre}-derived INs in the spinal cord

(A–C) Images from P10 $ROR\alpha^{Cre}$; $Tau^{LSL-nlslacZ}$ mice showing β-galactosidase expression in the central nervous system (A) and spinal cord (B and C). C shows transverse section through the spinal cord. (**D**) Section through P10 $ROR\alpha^{Cre}$; $R26^{LSL-tdTomato}$ lumbar spinal cord stained with antibodies to ROR α (green) and NeuN (blue). tdTomato⁺ fluorescence (red) was visualized without staining. Merged image shows tdTomato is largely restricted to ROR α^+ /NeuN⁺ neurons in lamina IIi/III. The tdTomato⁺ cells located outside of lamina II/III do not express NeuN. Arrows indicate double-labeled neurons. Arrowhead in D indicates a tdTomato⁺ blood vessel. Asterisk marks a tdTomato⁺ glial cell. (**E**–**F**) mCherrylabeled neurons (red) in the lumbar cord of P21 $ROR\alpha^{Cre}$; $R26^{LSL-TVA}$ mice. Their location in relation to excitatory PKC γ^+ neurons (green) and vGluT1 sensory afferents (blue) is shown. (**G**) Summary of the morphological profile of 51 ROR α INs. Scale bars: 1000 µm (A), 500 µm (B), 200 µm (C), 100 µm (D), 25 µm (E and F). See also Figure S1.



Figure 2. RORa identifies a population of excitatory interneurons in the dorsal horn of the spinal cord

(Å–B) Transverse sections through P10 $ROR\alpha^{Cre}$; $R26^{LSL-tdTomato}$ lumbar dorsal spinal cord showingROR α os coexpressed with Lmx1b, but not with Pax2. (C–D) Sections from P10 $ROR\alpha^{Cre}$; $R26^{LSL-tdTomato}$; GAD1-GFP spinal cord showing tdTomato is coexpressed with vGluT2 mRNA (C, green), but not GFP (D, green). (E) Quantification of dorsal spinal cord marker expression in ROR α INs. Cell counts obtained from 3 spinal cords were pooled and expressed as mean ± SEM. Cell counts for ROR α INs expressing Lmx1b (940/1093), vGluT2 (904/987), Pax2 (15/1197) and GAD1 (22/845). Scale bars: 100 µm (A–B), 10 µm (C–D). See also Figure S2



Figure 3. Transsynaptic rabies virus tracing of sensory inputs to RORa INs

(A–B) Schematic showing the $R26^{ds-HTB}$ allele and strategy used for tracing monosynaptic inputs to the ROR α INs using an EnvA-pseudotyped G-mCherry-rabies virus. (C) Section through P10 $ROR\alpha^{Cre}$; Cdx2::FlpO; $R26^{ds-HTB}$ spinal cord showing mCherry-rabies virus labbled cells and ROR α INs (green). mCherry⁺/GFP⁻ cells represent transynapticallylabeled presynaptic neurons. (D–G) Sections from P10 $ROR\alpha^{Cre}$; Cdx2::FlpO; $R26^{ds-HTB}$ lumbar DRG showing presynaptically labeled sensory neurons and sensory neuron subtype markers as indicated (H) Section of hindlimb footpad stained with antibodies to mCherry

(red) and NF (blue) showing Meissner corpuscles innervation. (I) Section of hindlimb hairy skin stained with antibodies to mCherry (red), NF (blue) and TrpV3 (green), which recognizes Merkel cells. (J) Section of hairy skin showing a D-hair afferent following staining with antibodies to mCherry (red), TrkB (green) and DAPI (blue) (**K**) Quantification of sensory neuronal markers in relation to total number of mCherry⁺ neurons, n = 3 mice. (L) Summary of sensory afferent types that are presynaptic to the ROR α INs. Abbreviations: NF, neurofilament; CB, calbindin; CR, calretinin; TH, Tyrosine Hydroxylase. Dashed lines define the boundary of the DRG (D–G) and hair follicles (J). Arrows indicate double-labeled neurons or sensory afferents. Scale bar: 50 µm (D–G), 25 µm (H–J). See also Figure S3.

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Figure 4. RORa INs are functionally innervated by low threshold mechanosensory afferents (**A**) Example of a RORa IN in L4 displaying an A fiber monosynaptic current triggered by low intensity stimulus. Monosynaptic connectivity was confirmed by a 2Hz frequency stimulation. (**B**) Example of a RORa IN with dual A and C inputs. (**C**) Classification of potentials in RORa INs induced by dorsal root stimulation. n = 31 cells. (**D**–**I**) Sections through the lumbar spinal cord of P6 $RORa^{Cre}$; $R26^{ds-HTB}$ mice stained with antibodies to c-Fos and β-gal after light brushing (D–F) or injecting capsaicin into the footpad (G–I). Arrowheads in F and I indicate c-Fos⁺ RORa INs. Scale bars: 50 µm. Panels E and H show the contralateral side. (**J**) Fraction of RORa INs (β-gal⁺) coexpressing c-Fos. Only lamina IIi/III cells located within the domain displaying elevated c-Fos expression were counted. Cell counts of RORa INs exhibiting c-Fos immunoreactivity: brush stimulation of glabrous skin, 1593/2830 RORa cells; brush stimulation of hairy skin, 834/2103 RORa cells;

capsaicin injection, 20/711 ROR α cells. n = 4 animals for each experiment. Data: mean \pm SEM. Scale bar: 100 μm (D,E,G,H).

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Figure 5. Spinal ablation of RORa INs impairs touch but not nociceptive behaviors

(A) Schematic illustrating the *Tau*^{ds-DTR} allele. (**B**–C) Brain and spinal cords from P84 *ROR* α^{Cre} ; *Tau*^{ds-DTR} (control) and *ROR* α^{Cre} ; *Cdx2::FlpO*; *Tau*^{ds-DTR} (ROR α IN-ablated) mice showing β -galactosidase reporter expression. (**D**–E) Transverse sections through the lumbar dorsal horn of adult control (D) and ROR α IN-ablated (E) mice 14 days after injecting DTX showing tdTomato (red) and Lmx1b (green) expression. Arrows indicate double-labeled neurons. (**F**) ROR α^+ IN numbers are reduced by 95% following DTXablation (3.16±0.46 cells versus 70.30±6.01 cells), *** p<0.001. (**G**) Lmx1b-expressing

cells are reduced by 30% in ROR α IN-ablated cords (112.1±6.9 cells versus 161.0±9.5 cells), * p <0.05. (H) Pax2⁺ cell numbers are unchanged in ROR α IN-ablated cords (113.1±4.7 cells versus 113.9±2.9 cells), p >0.05. (I) ROR α IN-ablated mice show a significant decrease in paw withdrawal to dynamic light brush (30±7.9% versus 76±6.5% of trials, *** p <0.001). (J–K) ROR α IN-ablated mice show a significant increase in latency) to static light touch as measured using the sticky tape test (J, 192.9±20.4 secs versus 78.9 ± 17.7 secs, *** p <0.001) and detecting a 1.5mm alligator clip on the hairy skin (K, 47.3 ± 11.5 to 20.9 ± 4.2, * p < 0.05). (L–N) Mechanical pain measured by von Frey filament, Randall Selitto and pinprick does not differ between control and ROR α IN-ablated mice is normal, as are responses to 48/80 and chloroquine. (S–T) Chemical pain induced by injecting capsaicin or formalin into the footpad is also unchanged in ROR α IN-ablated mice. Data: mean ± SEM. ns, p values above 0.05 are not significant. n = number of mice tested. Scale Bar: 100 µm. See also Figure S4.



Figure 6. Corrective movements are impaired in RORa IN-ablated mice

(A–B) Images showing control (A) and ROR α IN-ablated (B) mice crossing a 5mm wide beam. Arrow indicates position of the foot. Note the position of the foot in B showing a foot slip (C) Number of slips and footfalls for 5 mm and 12 mm wide beams. White circles indicate control mice (17 and 11 mice tested for 5 and 12 mm beams, respectively). Black circles indicate ROR α IN-ablated mice (19 and 12 mice tested for 5 and 12 mm beams, respectively). (D and H) P21 *ROR* α ^{Cre}; *Thy1*^{LSL-YFP} spinal cord sections stained with antibodies to GFP (green), vGluT2 (blue) showing synaptic boutons (arrows) on ChAT⁺

motor neurons (D), and ChAT⁺ V0c neurons (H). (**E**–**G**) Retrograde monosynaptic mCherry-rabies virus labeling of ROR α INs following injection into the tibialis anterior (F) and gastrocnemius muscles (G). The tracing protocol is shown in E. (**I**) P21 *ROR* α ^{Cre}; *R26*^{LSL-tdTomato}; *Chx10*^{CFP} spinal cord section stained with antibodies to DsRed (red); GFP (green) and vGluT2 (blue), showing synaptic boutons (arrows) on a Chx10⁺ V2a IN (green). Data: mean ± SEM, ** p <0.01, ns, p> 0.05 Scale bars: 5 µm (D), 10 µm (F–G), 2 µm (H,I). See also Figure S5.



Figure 7. Convergence of sensory and descending inputs onto RORa INs

(\mathbf{A} - \mathbf{C}) Transverse sections from a P15 $ROR\alpha^{Cre}$; Cdx2::FlpO; $R26^{ds-HTB}$ brain 5 days after infecting ROR α INs in the lumbar cord with an EnvA G-deleted rabies–mCherry virus. Transsynaptically labeled neurons (red) in the lateral vestibular nucleus (LVN) are innervated by calbindin⁺ Purkinje cells afferents (green, A). Pyramidal neurons in the frontal motor cortex area are transsynaptically labeled (B and C). (\mathbf{D}) Hemicord preparation showing the stimulation-whole patch recording set-up for ROR α INs. The region of the dorsal funiculus that contains corticospinal axons was stimulated with a concentric bipolar

electrode 5 segments (3-4 mm) rostral to the recorded cell (i). A single dorsal root (L4-L6) was stimulated with a glass suction electrode (ii). RORa cells (green) in L4 were patched and EPSCs were recorded (iii). R, rostral; C, caudal; D, dorsal; V, ventral. (E) Representative recording of an A fiber-type dorsal root evoked potential in a RORa IN. Magnification of onset is shown. (F) Putative corticospinal tract evoked EPSCs in the RORa IN that is shown in E. Latency and jitter properties are consistent with monosynaptic connectivity (see magnification of onset). (G) Section from a P21 RORa^{Cre}; R26^{LSL-tdTomato} spinal cord showing PKC γ^+/v GluT1⁺ corticospinal processes contacting a ROR α IN (red). Arrow indicates a PKC γ^+/v GluT1⁺ corticospinal-derived synaptic bouton. Arrowhead indicates a vGluT1⁺ sensory contact. (H) Section from a P21 RORa^{Cre}; R26^{LSL-tdTomato}; Emx1GFP spinal cord stained with antibodies to DsRed (red), GFP (green) and vGluT1 (blue), which confirms GFP⁺/vGluT1⁺ corticospinal contacts (arrows) onto RORa INs (red). Arrowhead indicates a vGluT1⁺ sensory contact. (I) Schematic showing the RORa IN connectivity and an outline of the RORa IN spinal circuit for light touch. NB. Arrows to and from the cerebellum do not indicate direct connections. Scale bar: 2 µm (G,H). See also Figure S6.