1

Protective role of protease-activated receptor-2 in anaphylaxis model mice

Short title: Protease-activated receptor-2 in anaphylaxis

Maho Nakazawa[1], Ryota Tochinai[2], Wataru Fujii[3], Tomohiro Yonezawa[1], Yasuyuki Momoi[1], Shingo

Maeda[1] *

[1] Department of Veterinary Clinical Pathobiology, Graduate School of Agricultural and Life Sciences,
The University of Tokyo, Tokyo, Japan

[2] Department of Veterinary Pathophysiology and Animal Health, Graduate School of Agricultural and
Life Sciences, The University of Tokyo, Tokyo, Japan

[3] Laboratory of Biomedical Science, Graduate School of Agricultural and Life Sciences, The
University of Tokyo, Tokyo, Japan

* Corresponding author

E-mail: amaeda@g.ecc.u-tokyo.ac.jp（S M）

Abstract

Anaphylaxis is a severe life-threatening hypersensitivity reaction induced by mast cell degranulation. Among the various mediators of mast cells, little is known about the role of tryptase. Therefore, we aimed to elucidate the role of protease-activating receptor-2 (PAR-2), a receptor activated by tryptase, in murine anaphylactic models using PAR-2-deficient mice and newly generated tryptase-deficient mice. Anaphylaxis was induced by IgE-dependent and IgE-independent mast cell degranulation in mice. PAR-2 deficiency exacerbated the decrease in body temperature and hypotension during anaphylaxis; however, the number of skin mast cells, degree of mast cell degranulation, and systemic and local vascular hyperpermeability were comparable in PAR-2 knockout and wild-type mice. Nitric oxide, which is produced by endothelial nitric oxide synthase (eNOS), is an indispensable vasodilator in anaphylaxis. In the lungs of anaphylactic mice, PAR-2 deficiency promoted eNOS expression and phosphorylation, suggesting a protective effect of PAR-2 against anaphylaxis by downregulating eNOS activation and expression. Based on the hypothesis that the ligand for PAR-2 in anaphylaxis is mast cell tryptase, tryptase-deficient mice were generated using CRISPR-Cas9. In wild-type mice, the PAR-2 antagonist exacerbated the body temperature drop due to anaphylaxis; however, the effect of the PAR-2 antagonist was abolished in tryptase-deficient mice. These results suggest that tryptase is a possible ligand of PAR-2 in anaphylaxis and that the tryptase/PAR-2 pathway attenuates the anaphylactic response in mice.

Introduction

Anaphylaxis is a severe, life-threatening systemic hypersensitivity reaction characterized by rapid

onset of airway, breathing, or circulatory problems [1]. Food, insect venom, and drugs constitute the

most common elicitors of anaphylaxis worldwide [1]. Although the mechanism is not fully understood,

mast cells and their mediators play a crucial role in the onset of anaphylaxis. Mast cells can be

activated by elicitors in an immunoglobulin E (IgE)-dependent or IgE-independent manner and release

mediators such as histamine, platelet-activating factor (PAF), prostaglandin D2 (PGD2), and proteases

such as tryptase and chymase. These mediators act orchestrally on endothelial and smooth muscle

cells, resulting in severe vascular hyperpermeability and vasodilation [2]. Histamine has been reported

to increase vascular permeability mainly by nitric oxide (NO)-dependent vasodilation and subsequent

increases in blood flow and endothelial barrier dysfunction [3,4]. In addition, PAF can contribute to

both vascular hyperpermeability and vasodilation by activating endothelial nitric oxide synthase

(eNOS) and promoting NO production [5]. However, antihistamines have limited effects in patients

with anaphylaxis [6], and PAF receptor antagonism cannot completely inhibit hypotension in a rat

anaphylaxis model [7], suggesting that the function of known mediators alone does not fully explain

the pathogenesis of anaphylaxis and that other mediators are involved.

Tryptase is the most abundant protein in human mast cells [8]. Since tryptase is released by

mast cell degranulation, serum tryptase concentration has been reported to correlate with the severity

of anaphylaxis and is a useful biomarker for the diagnosis of anaphylaxis [9–11]. However, little is

known about the role of tryptase in anaphylaxis pathogenesis. In this study, we focused on protease-

activated receptor-2 (PAR-2), a tryptase-activated receptor. PAR-2 is a member of the protease-

activated receptor family and is activated by specific serine proteases such as mast cell tryptase, trypsin,

factor Xa (FXa), and FVIIa, which cleave the N-terminus of the receptor [12]. PAR-2 is widely

expressed in intestinal and airway epithelial cells, endothelial cells, and smooth muscle cells [13].

Activation of PAR-2 in endothelial cells has been reported to modulate VE-cadherin expression and

affect vascular barrier function *in vitro* [14]. In addition, PAR-2 appears to be involved in both

endothelium-dependent relaxation and contraction [15]. In this study, we investigated the effects of

PAR-2 on anaphylactic symptoms in murine models of anaphylaxis.

69   Materials and Methods

70   Ethics statement

71   All animal experiments were approved by the Animal Care and Use Ethical Committees of the

72   Graduate School of Agricultural and Life Sciences, University of Tokyo (approval no. P19-135 and

73   P20-122H02).

Regents

Compound 48/80, Evans blue dye, anti-DNP-specific IgE, and DNP-albmin were purchased from

Sigma Aldrich (St. Louis, MO, USA). Selective PAR-2 antagonist (ENMD-1068) was purchased from

MedChemExpress (Monmouth Junction, NJ, USA).

Mice

Wild-type (WT) C57BL6/J and ICR mice were purchased from Sankyo Labo Service Corporation

(Tokyo, Japan). PAR-2 KO mice were purchased from Jackson Laboratories (Bar Harbor, ME, USA).

The tryptases released by mast cells in mice are mouse mast cell protease-6 (mMCP-6) and mouse

mast cell protease-7 (mMCP-7) [8]. In humans, δ-tryptase, the ortholog of mMCP-7, is mostly inactive

[16]. Wild-type C57BL/6 mice are genetically deficient in *mMCP-7* [17], thus, mMCP-6 deficiency

in C57BL/6 mice also implies systemic tryptase deficiency. *mMCP-6* knockout C57BL/6J mice

(mMCP-6 KO) were generated by CRISPR/Cas9-mediated genome editing in zygotes, according to

previous reports [18,19].

Passive systemic anaphylaxis model

Anti-DNP-specific-IgE (clone: SPE-7, 10 μg/head) was intravenously injected into WT and PAR-2

KO mice, followed 18 h later by intravenous injection with DNP-albumin (300 μg/head). The rectal

temperature was measured every 5 min for 60 min using a thermometer (Physitemp, NJ, USA).

IgE-independent anaphylaxis model

C48/80 (2 mg/kg) in 100 µL saline was administered intravenously to the WT, PAR-2 KO, and

mMCP-6 KO mice. In some experiments, ENMD-1068 (10 mg/kg) or saline was injected

intraperitoneally 30 min before the C48/80 injection. Rectal temperature was measured every 5 min

for 60 min.

Mast cell staining and immunofluorescence staining for

mMCP-6 in skin

The mouse ears were fixed in 10% formamide and embedded in paraffin. Sections (2 µm) were

deparaffinized and autoclaved at 121 °C for 10 min in 10 mM sodium citrate buffer (pH 6.0). The

sections were blocked with 5% skimmed milk in TBS-T at room temperature for 60 min and then

incubated with rabbit anti-mMCP-6 antibody (R&D Systems, MN, USA, 1:500) at 4 °C overnight.

After washing with TBS, sections were incubated with secondary antibody (Alexa Fluor 594 goat anti-

rat IgG, Abcam, 1:500) and FITC-avidin (BioLegend, CA, USA, 1:200) for 1 h at room temperature

and counterstained with DAPI. FITC-avidin was used to label mast cells in the skin. Images were

captured using a BZ-X800 fluorescence microscope (KEYENCE, Osaka, Japan). The digitized images

were transferred to a computer to measure the size of each region using a software (ImageJ, National

Institute of Mental Health, MD, USA), and FITC-positive mast cells were counted. The results are

expressed as positive cells per mm^2.

Hematocrit, histamine, and mMCP-6 measurement

Blood samples were obtained 10 min after intravenous administration of C48/80 (2 mg/kg) to measure

the hematocrit, plasma histamine, and mMCP-6 levels. To determine hematocrit levels, blood was

collected in heparinized microhematocrit tubes (DRUMMOND, PA, USA) and centrifuged at 12,000

rpm for 3 min. The ratio of red blood cell volume to total blood volume was determined using a

hematocrit reader. Plasma histamine and mMCP-6 levels were measured using a histamine EIA kit

(Bertin Bioreagent, Montigny-le-Bretonneux, France) and Mcpt6 ELISA kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific,

MA, USA), respectively.

Vascular permeability assay

To evaluate systemic vascular permeability, blood was collected from WT and PAR-2 KO mice 10

min after vehicle or C48/80 (2 mg/kg) injection. In other experiments, C48/80 (2 mg/kg) with 0.5%

Evans blue dye was intravenously administered to WT or PAR-2 KO mice, while the control mice

received Evans blue only. Thirty minutes after injection, the lungs were collected and weighed. The

extravasated Evans blue was extracted in formamide at 56 °C for 24 h. The concentration of Evans

blue was quantified spectrophotometrically at 620 nm using a plate reader (iMark microplate reader,

Bio-Rad, CA, USA). To assess local vascular permeability in the skin, C48/80 (100 ng in 20 µL saline,

right ear) or saline (left ear) was intradermally injected into the mouse ear. Evans blue (0.5% in 100

µL saline) was injected intravenously 5 min after intradermal anaphylactic stimulation. After 30 min,

the ear was dissected and Evans blue leakage was measured as described above.

Blood pressure measurement

The mice were anesthetized with 1.5% isoflurane and placed in the supine position on a plate heated

to 37 °C. The left femoral artery was exposed and a polyethylene catheter filled with heparinized saline

was inserted. The catheter was connected to a transducer amplifier (Nihon Kohden, Tokyo, Japan)

through a pressure transducer (NEC Sanei, Tokyo, Japan), and the arterial pressure was recorded.

Mean blood pressure was continuously sampled at intervals of 1 ms using an analysis system (SBP-

2000, Softron, Tokyo, Japan) with an analog-to-digital converter connected in series to a personal

computer. During the blood pressure recording period, a single dose of C48/80 (2 mg/kg) was

administered through the right femoral vein. Blood pressure was recorded for up to 30 min after

administration.

Expression of eNOS mRNA

The lungs of mice were excised before and 1 h after the injection of C48/80 (2 mg/kg). Total RNA

was extracted from tissues using NucleoSpin RNA (Takara Bio, Shiga, Japan) according to the

manufacturer's instructions. Reverse transcription was performed using a commercially available kit

(ReverTra Ace with gDNA remover; TOYOBO, Osaka, Japan). Real-time PCR of eNOS and β-actin

was performed using a commercially available kit (THUNDERBIRD Next SYBR qPCR Mix;

TOYOBO). The following primer sets were used: eNOS, forward 5'-

CAACGCTACCACGAGGACATT-3' and reverse 5'-CTCCTGCAAAGAAAAGCTCTGG-3'; β-

actin, forward 5'-GGAAATCGTGCGTGACATCA-3' and reverse 5'-

GCCACAGGATTCCATACCCA-3'. The PCR reaction consisted of 40 cycles, each for 30 s at 95 °C,

followed by 5 s at 95 °C, and 10 s at 60 °C. The expression level of eNOS was normalized to that of

β-actin as a reference gene, and the values were calculated relative to the baseline of the WT mice,

which was converted to 1.

Western blot

C48/80 (2 mg/kg) was administered intravenously to WT and PAR-2 KO mice, and the lungs were

collected before administration and at 10 and 120 min after administration. The lungs were

homogenized in RIPA buffer (50 mmol/L Tris-HCl [pH 7.4], 150 mmol/L NaCl, 5 mmol/L EDTA,

1% Triton X-100, 10 mmol/L NaF) containing protease and phosphatase inhibitor cocktails (Wako,

Osaka, Japan). For the detection of eNOS and phosphorylated eNOS, the samples (25 µg per lane)

were separated by electrophoresis and transferred to PVDF membranes.

The membranes were blocked with 5% BSA at room temperature for 30 min and incubated with anti-

eNOS (clone: D9A5L, Cell Signaling Technology, MA, USA, 1:1,000) and anti-Ser177 p-eNOS

(clone: C9C3, Cell Signaling Technology, 1:1,000) antibodies. Samples were also probed with an anti-

β-actin antibody (GeneTex, CA, USA, 1:1,000) to normalize protein loading. The membrane was then

incubated with secondary antibody (donkey anti-rabbit IgG IRDye 680, LICOR Biosciences, NE, USA,

1:10,000) at room temperature for 1 h. The bands were quantified using the Odyssey Imaging System

(LICOR Biosciences).

176   Statistical analysis

Data are expressed as mean±SEM, and all experiments were repeated at least three times. Statistical

analyses were performed using R software (version 4.2.1). Two-way repeated ANOVA was used to

compare the degree of temperature reduction between the two groups. For blood pressure comparisons,

a two-way repeated ANOVA was performed at two time points: before C48/80 administration and at

the time of blood pressure measurement. Skin mast cell counts, serum histamine and mMCP-6

concentrations, and lung eNOS and phosphorylated eNOS expression were analyzed using Student's *t*

test. Vascular permeability and lung eNOS gene expression in anaphylaxis model mice were analyzed

using Tukey's test. Statistical significance was defined as $P < 0.05$.

Results

PAR-2 deficiency exacerbates IgE-dependent and IgE-independent anaphylaxis in mice without affecting vascular permeability

To verify the effect of PAR-2 on the decrease in body temperature during IgE-dependent anaphylaxis,

passive systemic anaphylaxis was induced in the WT and PAR-2 KO mice. IgE-mediated anaphylaxis

was more severe in PAR-2 KO mice than in WT mice, as determined by the decrease in body

temperature (Fig 1A). Consistent with this finding, intravenous injection of C48/80 induced a more

severe decrease in body temperature in PAR-2 KO mice than in WT mice (Fig. 1B). These data

indicate that PAR-2 deficiency exacerbates the decrease in body temperature during IgE-dependent

and IgE-independent anaphylaxis.

Next, we examined the number of mast cells in WT and PAR-2 KO mice. There was no

significant difference in the number of mast cells in the skin between WT and PAR-2 KO mice (S1

Fig). To further investigate whether the level of mast cell degranulation differed between WT and

PAR-2 KO mice, plasma histamine and mast cell tryptase (mMCP-6) levels were measured after

injection of C48/80. There was no significant difference in plasma histamine and mMCP-6 levels

between WT and PAR-2 KO mice (S1 Fig).

During anaphylaxis, mast cell mediators such as histamine and PAF induce vascular

hyperpermeability, leading to hypotension and hypothermia. We investigated the extent of systemic

and local vascular hyperpermeability induced by C48/80 in WT and PAR-2 KO mice. First, the

hematocrit was measured in WT and PAR-2 KO mice treated with vehicle or C48/80. In both WT and

PAR-2 KO mice, C48/80 injection significantly increased the hematocrit level compared to vehicle

injection. However, there was no significant difference in hematocrit between WT and PAR-2 KO

mice after vehicle or C48/80 injection (S2 Fig). In addition, PAR-2 deficiency did not affect Evans

blue dye leakage in the lungs after systemic C48/80 injection (S2 Fig). Next, we examined the effect

of PAR-2 on local vascular permeability after the local injection of C48/80 into the auricles of mice.

The results showed that Evans blue leakage was significantly increased in C48/80-treated auricles

compared to that in solvent-treated auricles, in both WT and PAR-2 KO mice. However, there was no

significant difference in the amount of pigment leakage in the auricles of WT and PAR-2 KO mice

(S2 Fig). These results suggest that PAR-2 has little effect on systemic and local vascular

hyperpermeability induced by C48/80.

Fig 1. PAR-2 deficiency exacerbates the body temperature during IgE-dependent and IgE-independent anaphylaxis. (A) Decrease in body temperature during IgE-dependent anaphylaxis in WT and PAR-2 KO mice (n = 5 each). (B) Decrease in body temperature during IgE-independent anaphylaxis in WT and PAR-2 KO mice (n = 4 each). *P <0.05. ***P < 0.001. Data are presented as mean ± SEM.

PAR-2 deficiency exacerbates hypotension in mice with anaphylaxis

Hypotension is the hallmark of anaphylaxis. We investigated whether PAR-2 deficiency could affect hypotension induced by C48/80 injection. In WT mice under anesthesia, the mean arterial blood pressure decreased rapidly within 10 min after C48/80 injection and then recovered. PAR-2 KO mice also showed a rapid decrease in blood pressure, but the recovery was slower than that in WT mice and began to recover 30 min after C48/80 injection. Blood pressure in PAR-2 KO mice was significantly lower than that in WT mice 15 and 20 min after C48/80 injection (Fig 2).

Fig 2. PAR-2 deficiency exacerbates blood pressure in IgE-independent anaphylaxis. Arterial blood pressure after injection of C48/80 in WT and PAR-2 KO mice (n = 8-9). *P < 0.05. Data are

237   presented as the mean ± SEM.

PAR-2 deficiency increases eNOS expression and phosphorylation during anaphylaxis *in vivo*

The decrease in body temperature and hypotension in anaphylaxis are caused by a synergistic effect

of increased vascular permeability and decreased vascular resistance due to vasodilation. Previous

studies have suggested that PAR-2 deficiency does not affect vascular permeability during anaphylaxis.

Therefore, we hypothesized that PAR-2 deficiency may be involved in vasodilation during

anaphylaxis. eNOS and its product, NO, have been reported to be important for the decrease in body

temperature and hypotension in the anaphylaxis model.

First, gene expression levels in WT and PAR-2 KO mice were evaluated. In WT mice, there was no

significant difference in eNOS gene expression in the lungs before and after C48/80 administration.

However, in PAR-2 KO mice, eNOS gene expression in the lungs after C48/80 injection was

significantly higher than that before C48/80 injection (Fig 3A). Next, eNOS expression and

phosphorylation in the lung were quantified by western blotting. At baseline, there was no significant

difference in the protein expression and phosphorylation levels of eNOS between WT and PAR-2 KO

mice (Fig 3B). In contrast, 120 min after C48/80 injection, the expression level of eNOS was

significantly higher in PAR-2 KO mice than in WT mice (Fig 3C). Furthermore, 10 min after C48/80

injection, PAR-2 KO mice showed a significantly higher level of eNOS phosphorylation in the lungs

than WT mice (Fig 3C). These results suggest that PAR-2 deficiency causes activation of eNOS

through phosphorylation and a subsequent increase in eNOS protein expression during anaphylaxis.

Fig 3. PAR-2 deficiency promotes eNOS expression and phosphorylation in IgE-independent

anaphylaxis. (A) Relative gene expression of eNOS in the lungs of WT and PAR-2 KO mice before

(0 min) and 60 min after (60 min) C48/80 injection (n = 4 each). (B) Expression and phosphorylation

levels of eNOS in lungs of WT and PAR-2 KO mice at baseline (n = 4–5). (C) Expression and

phosphorylation levels of eNOS in lungs of WT and PAR-2 KO mice after injection of C48/80 (n =

4–5). NS, not significant. *$P < 0.05$. Data are presented as mean ± SEM.

Mast cell protease-6 is a possible ligand for PAR-2 in

anaphylaxis

We hypothesized that mast cell tryptase, mMCP-6, is the ligand that activates PAR-2 during

anaphylaxis. Therefore, we generated mMCP-6 KO mice using the CRISPR/Cas9 system. Two

gRNAs were used to delete exon2 of mMCP-6, which contains the start codon and is essential for

mMCP-6 expression (Fig 4A). The designed gRNAs and Cas9 mRNA were then microinjected into

C57BL/6J-derived zygotes. The zygotes were then transferred into the oviductal ampulla of 0.5 dpc

pseudopregnant ICR females. After obtaining pups by natural birth, the genotypes were confirmed by

genome PCR-directed sequencing (Fig 4A). A pup with exon2 deleted and a small indel was

backcrossed several times with wild-type C57BL/6J mice, and the offspring were subjected to the

following experiments. The phenotype of mMCP-6 KO mice was confirmed by immunofluorescence

of the skin. In WT mice, mMCP-6 protein was detected in mast cells (avidin-FITC-positive cells, Fig

4B). In mMCP-6 KO mice, although there was a comparable level of mast cells in the skin as in WT

mice, no mMCP-6 expression was observed (Fig 4B).

To evaluate the effect of mMCP-6 on anaphylaxis, WT and mMCP-6 KO mice were

intravenously injected with C48/80. Contrary to our expectation, there was no significant difference

in body temperature decrease between WT and mMCP-6 KO mice (Fig 4C). To test whether mMCP-6

is involved in the suppression of anaphylaxis through PAR-2 activation, we compared the effects of a

PAR-2 antagonist (ENMD-1068) on C48/80-induced anaphylaxis in WT and mMCP-6 KO mice.

Administration of the PAR-2 antagonist exacerbated the decrease in body temperature during

anaphylaxis in WT mice (Fig 4D), whereas administration of the PAR-2 antagonist did not affect the

decrease in body temperature (Fig 4E).

Fig 4. mMCP-6 deficiency abolishes the effect of the PAR-2 antagonist on anaphaylaxis. (A) Map

of mMCP-6 gene and targeting region exon 2. (B) Immunofluorescence of mMCP-6 and mast cell

291 staining in ear skin of WT and mMCP-6 KO mice (magnification, ×400). Bar, 50 μm. (C) IgE-

292 independent anaphylaxis in WT and mMCP-6 KO mice (n = 5 each). (D) The effect of pre-treatment

293 with PAR-2 antagonist in WT mice with IgE-independent anaphylaxis (n = 4 each). (E) The effect of

294 pre-treatment with PAR-2 antagonist in mMCP-6 KO mice with IgE-independent anaphylaxis (n = 4

295 each). NS, not significant. $*P < 0.05$. Data are presented as the mean ± SEM.

Discussion

299 The present study on anaphylaxis mouse models provides evidence supporting that PAR-2 has a

300 protective effect on acute decreases in body temperature and hypotension. PAR-2 deficiency did not

301 affect the number of mast cells in the skin or the concentrations of serum histamine and mMCP-6,

302 suggesting that PAR-2 may be involved in the acute response after mast cell degranulation rather than

303 in mast cell degranulation itself. In addition, the results showed that PAR-2 signaling negatively

304 controlled the phosphorylation and production of eNOS during anaphylaxis, possibly resulting in the

305 maintenance of body temperature and blood pressure during anaphylaxis. It is highly possible that the

306 ligand of PAR-2 during anaphylaxis is mast cell tryptase, mMCP-6; however, further research is

307 needed to confirm this finding. These results provide novel evidence of the role of PAR-2 in protecting

308 the body from life-threatening anaphylaxis.

C48/80 is known to activate mast cells independent of IgE via the Mas-related G protein-

coupled receptor b2 (Mrgprb2; mouse ortholog of human MrgprX2) [20]. The two types of mast cell

degranulation, IgE-dependent and IgE-independent, differ in their kinetics and duration of mediator

release [21,22]. In the present study, PAR-2 deficiency exacerbated the decrease in body temperature

in both IgE-dependent and IgE-independent anaphylaxis, suggesting that PAR-2 is involved in

downstream of both IgE-dependent and independent degranulation.

In anaphylaxis, vascular hyperpermeability is an important factor in the exacerbation of

symptoms, and several reports using anaphylaxis mouse models have shown a relationship between

vascular hyperpermeability and decreased body temperature [23,24]. Although PAR-2 deficiency

exacerbated the symptoms of anaphylaxis, the systemic and local vascular permeability in PAR-2 KO

mice was comparable to that in WT mice. These results are consistent with those of asthma and atopic

dermatitis models using PAR-2 antagonist and PAR-2 KO mice [25,26]. Since PAR-2 is thought to

have less effect on vascular permeability in anaphylaxis, we focused on vasodilation, which is also

crucial for the decrease in body temperature and hypotension. NO production following eNOS

phosphorylation is one of the most important factors for vasodilation [5,24,27]. Phosphorylation of

eNOS at Ser1177 has been reported to be important for eNOS activation during anaphylaxis in mice

[5,28]. This study showed that PAR-2 deficiency increased the phosphorylation and expression of

eNOS *in vivo* after the injection of C48/80. PAR-2 has been reported to be expressed in endothelial

cells [13]. Therefore, endothelial PAR-2 may suppress eNOS phosphorylation during anaphylaxis.

Although some reports have shown that PAR-2 activation results in the phosphorylation of eNOS at

Ser1177 in human endothelial cells and rat aorta with metabolic syndrome [29–31], another study

reported that PAR-2 suppressed eNOS phosphorylation at Ser1177 in the aorta of diabetic mice [32].

Taken together with the results of our study, the effect of PAR-2 on the phosphorylation and activation

of eNOS differs depending on the condition of the body. The downstream pathway by which PAR-2

inhibits eNOS phosphorylation remains unclear. It has been reported that phosphatase and tensin

homolog deleted on chromosome 10 (PTEN), a PIP_3 phosphatase, negatively controls eNOS

phosphorylation via Akt, and a rapid decrease in PTEN activity is known to cause an increase in eNOS

activation in a murine anaphylaxis model [33]. A previous report showed that PAR-2 activation

induces PTEN release and regulates PTEN activity in some cell lines [34]. Further studies are required

to clarify the mechanisms by which PAR-2 inhibits eNOS activation during anaphylaxis.

Based on our hypothesis that mast cell tryptase was the ligand for PAR-2 during anaphylaxis,

tryptase-deficient (mMCP-6 KO) mice were generated. Contrary to our expectations, mMCP-6

deficiency had no effect on body temperature drop in C48/80-induced anaphylaxis. However, the

effect of the PAR-2 antagonist, which exacerbated the decrease in body temperature in the anaphylaxis

model, was abolished in mMCP-6 KO mice, suggesting that mMCP-6 may be involved in the

inhibitory effect of PAR-2 on anaphylactic symptoms. In addition, these results indicate that the role

of mMCP-6 in anaphylaxis is not restricted to that of PAR-2. In humans, tryptase has been reported

to have the potential to exacerbate the anaphylaxis by promoting the bradykinin production [35–37].

In conclusion, we showed for the first time that PAR-2 has inhibitory effects on the decrease

in body temperature and blood pressure during anaphylaxis, possibly via the upregulation of eNOS

phosphorylation and expression. Therefore, PAR-2 agonism may be a potential therapeutic target for

anaphylaxis.

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Supporting information

473

S1 Fig. Mast cell number and degree of mast cell degranulation in WT and PAR-2 KO mice. (A)

474

Mast cells stained with FITC-avidin in the ears of mice (left) and the number of mast cells (right, n =

475

3). Magnification, ×200. Bar, 100 μm. (B) Serum histamine concentrations after C48/80 injection (n

476

= 4). (C) Serum mMCP-6 concentrations after C48/80 injection (n = 4). NS, not significant. Data are

477

presented as the mean ± SEM.

478

479

S2 Fig. The effect of PAR-2 on vascular hyperpermeability induced by mast cell degranulation.

480

(A) Hematocrit after injection of C48/80 or vehicle in WT or PAR-2 KO mice (n = 4). (B) Evans blue

481

dye leakage in the lungs after systemic injection of C48/80 or vehicle in WT or PAR-2 KO mice (n =

482

5). (C) Evans blue dye leakage in the ears after local injection of C48/80 or vehicle in WT or PAR-2

483

KO mice (n = 5). NS, not significant. ***$P < 0.001$. Data are presented as the mean ± SEM.

484

A

B **Baseline**

C **C48/80**

A

Deleted (10 bp) + inserted (21 bp)

Deleted region (232 bp)

Fw

Start codon

ex 2

Rv

gRNA1

gRNA2

CCTTTGTAACCTGGTGCACCAAG

CCCTCGTAAGTTGTCTTGAGCCC

WT allele

· · · GCAGAGTAACCAAGCTTGTGACCTT // CGGCCCCTCGTAAGTTGTCTTGAGC // GAATCCAGGGTTAGCTCCA · · ·

Mutated allele (exon2 deleted and small indel)

· · · GCAGAGTAACCAAGCTAAGTTGTCTTGAGC // GAATCGAGTTCCTTAACCCTGGGATTCTCCA · · ·

B

MCP6 | Avidin-FITC | Merged

WT

MCP6 KO

C

D WT

E mMCP-6 KO