In situ evidence that mast cells release mutant NLRP1 in keratoacanthomas from multiple self-healing palmoplantar carcinoma

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ABSTRACT

Multiple self-healing palmoplantar carcinoma (MSPC) is a rare syndrome characterized by germline mutations of the inflammasome sensor protein NLRP1, causing its constitutive activation and ultimately, IL1β-driven inflammation. Because NLRP1 is well expressed in human skin, the effect is aberrant keratinocyte proliferation with the appearance of characteristic, recurrent keratoacanthomas (KAs) on palms and soles. We aimed to clarify the subcellular localization of mutant NLRP1 in the skin of a MSPC patient with plantar KAs and a sudden psoriasis-like eruption. Skin biopsies from the MSPC patient and healthy controls were processed for immunohistochemistry and immunoelectron microscopy. We found for the first time that NLRP1 localized to mast cell (MC) granules in both healthy and lesional skin. Moreover, MCs expressing the A66V pathogenic variant of NLRP1 overpopulated plantar KAs of a MSPC patient, infiltrated the epidermis and degranulated, a behavior not seen in the psoriasis-like lesion (PLL) from the same patient, nor in healthy skin. The released granules had higher NLRP1 content than MSPC-PLL and also contained NLRP3 and IL1β. Overall, this data suggests that MCs can contribute to the pathogenesis of KAs in MSPC, which opens a new area of research in NLRP1-related syndromes.

INTRODUCTION

NLRP1 (NLR family pyrin domain containing 1) is a cytosolic sensor protein with a major role in innate immunity. In response to pathogens or other stress signals, NLRP1 can participate in the formation of an intracellular protein complex termed "inflammasome"[1], which allows activation of caspase-1, followed by IL1β secretion and pyroptotic cell death[2].

In humans, NLRP1 pathogenic variants can lead to a variety of clinical syndromes depending on the affected protein domain, mainly involving skin, cornea and lungs[3–6]. Multiple self-healing palmoplantar carcinoma (MSPC) is an extremely rare such syndrome, characterized by recurrent keratoacanthomas (KAs) that develop on palmoplantar skin and sporadically on other epithelia lacking hair follicles[7]. Responsible are either one of three germline heterozygous mutations (A54T, A66V, M77V) affecting the pyrin domain (PYD) of NLRP1, causing spontaneous self-oligomerization of the protein, aberrant inflammasome activation and subsequent proliferation of affected keratinocytes[7].

Keratinocytes are known as the main NLRP1 reservoir in human skin[7–10], however granulocytes, lymphocytes, macrophages and dendritic cells also express NLRP1[11]. RNA-seq data from the Human Protein Atlas indicates basophils as having the highest potential for NLRP1 expression among immune cells[12,13].

Mast cells (MCs) are tissue-resident immune cells of hematopoietic origin, which differentiate from a basophil-MC common progenitor. Although not yet described to contain NLRP1, MCs contain NLRP3 within secretory granules and are capable of producing IL1β following NLRP3 inflammasome activation[14,15]. Mutations of NLRP3 cause it to become constitutively activated in MCs, initiating overproduction of IL1β. In humans, this contributes to a spectrum of clinical entities named cryopyrin-associated periodic syndromes (CAPS), in which the skin, joints and central nervous system can be affected[14,16].

64 We report for the first time that skin MCs harbor NLRP1 within granules. We further show

65 massive and specific degranulation of MCs in different KAs of a MSPC patient with

66 NLRP1^{A66V} and suggest that release of granules containing this hyperactive NLRP1 variant

67 contributes to the pathogenesis of KAs in this syndrome.

MATERIALS & METHODS

Patients and samples

All subjects gave written informed consent prior to biopsy. Four samples were collected from a single MSPC patient with NLRP1^{A66V}: three different KAs from plantar regions (in 2016, 2023 and 2025) and a sample from a psoriasis-like plaque on the abdomen (in 2023). Biopsies were collected from the elbow region of two clinically healthy volunteers. The study included 6 archived formalin-fixed paraffin-embedded (FFPE) KA specimens, from different patients with no clinical history of MSPC. A human lymph node FFPE specimen was included as NLRP1 positive control. This study was performed in conformity with the Declaration of Helsinki and received approval from the ethics committees at Victor Babeș National Institute of Pathology and Elias University Emergency Hospital, Bucharest, Romania.

Light microscopy and immunohistochemistry

Hematoxylin-eosin was done by routine protocol. IHC with the primary antibody of interest (**Table S1**) was done using an Autostainer Link 48, following manufacturer specifications (Dako, Agilent Technology, US). An isotype control and omission of primary antibody were used to verify non-specific binding. Digital slides were obtained using an automated slide scanner (Aperio AT2, Leica Biosystems, US).

Immunoelectron microscopy

Biopsies were fixed in a solution comprising 4% paraformaldehyde, 0.5% glutaraldehyde, and 1.4% sucrose (pH 7.4), then embedded in London Resin White (LR White, Agar Scientific, UK). Ultra-thin sections were mounted on formvar and carbon-coated nickel grids, then incubated with the primary antibody of interest (**Table S1**) and a gold-conjugated secondary antibody at 1:50 dilution (Aurion, The Netherlands). Negative controls had primary antibodies

omitted and an isotype control was used to exclude nonspecific binding to MC Fc receptors. A

blocking solution for goat antibodies was used to reduce nonspecific binding (Aurion, The

Netherlands). Imaging was done using a 4×4k Ceta camera, on a Talos 200C transmission

electron microscope (Thermo Fisher Scientific, US).

Immunoelectron tomography

This method allowed simultaneous labeling with up to three different primary antibodies.

Briefly, LR White sections (300 nm) were adhered to nickel grids precoated with 0.01% poly-

L-lysine and without formvar or carbon. For double-labeling, grids were incubated on each

side, consecutively, with two primary antibodies raised in different species (mouse and rabbit,

Table S1). For triple-labeling, grids were incubated on one side with a mixture of two

antibodies raised in different species (mouse and rabbit, **Table S1**), then either a rabbit or

mouse primary antibody was used on the other side. To facilitate identification, secondary

antibodies had different colloidal gold diameters for each target (6, 10 and 15 nm, Aurion, The

Netherlands). Absence of cross-contamination between section faces was verified by

immunolabeling control grids on one side, while the other side was incubated with PBS.

Acquisition of single axis tilt series, tomographical reconstruction and segmentation were done

using IMOD-eTomo[17], as described elsewhere[18].

Data analysis

Quantification of MCs was performed on tissue sections stained for tryptase. For each case,

tryptase-positive cells were manually counted in ten consecutive high-power fields (HPF, 40×

objective), starting from a hotspot. Each experimental group included approximately 27

observations (n ≈ 27 per group). To quantify the NLRP1 content of MC granules, cells were

first identified on randomly selected ultrathin sections from the MSPC and healthy skin

specimens, immunolabeled under identical conditions. Entire MCs were imaged, then colloidal

gold was counted on all granules of each cell. Each experimental group included approximately

1,058 observations (n ≈ 1,058 per group).

Statistical analyses were performed using one-way ANOVA, followed by Tukey's post hoc

test for pairwise comparisons between groups. Statistical significance is presented only for

comparisons with p-values < .05. The post hoc statistical power for the applied tests was 1. All

analyses and graphical representations were generated using R software (version 4.4.1).

RESULTS

MSPC patient develops overlapping psoriasis-like skin condition

A 49-year-old male with a history of multiple central hyperkeratotic lesions on the palms and soles (**Figure 1a**) in the context of a previously diagnosed MSPC with the A66V pathogenic variant of NLRP1[7], presented with symmetrically distributed and well-defined erythematous-squamous plaques, some with erosions and crusting. These initially appeared on the dorsal feet and later spread to the extremities, trunk and head (**Figure 1b**). An infection was ruled out because of unresponsiveness to antibiotics/antifungals. Instead, an overlap of allergic contact dermatitis with psoriasis was suspected due to: (a) histopathological diagnosis of psoriasis on an abdominal plaque (**Figure 1c**), (b) atypical development and clinical presentation of plaques, (c) positive patch-tests to lanolin alcohol and nickel(II) sulfate hexahydrate, (d) good response of lesions to oral corticotherapy and lanolin-free moisturizers, (e) IgE approximately twice the normal value at presentation, which normalized after treatment, and (f) no recurrence after corticotherapy.

Figure 1. Clinical features of a patient with multiple self-healing palmoplantar carcinoma (MSPC). (a) Keratoacanthomas at different stages of evolution on the palmar and plantar surfaces. **(b)** Sudden development of poorly-defined erythemato-edematous plaques with erosions and scales on the dorsal feet. This evolved to a widespread eruption of well-defined erythemato-squamous plaques, including on the lower limbs and trunk. Some plaques resembled psoriasis. **(c)** Light microscopy (HE) of abdominal lesion from MSPC patient, showing relatively thin suprapapillary epidermis, psoriasiform epidermal hyperplasia with focal parakeratosis and hypogranulosis. There are neutrophil collections in the mounds of parakeratosis and moderate perivascular lymphocytic infiltrate in the superficial dermis. Images are published with patient consent. Scale bar = 300 µm.

Degranulating MCs accumulate in MSPC-KAs

Given that the psoriasis-like lesions (PLL) appeared in a patient with MSPC, we aimed to understand how the lesional microenvironment and subcellular distribution of NLRP1^{A66V} differed when compared to three plantar KAs from the same patient (biopsied 7 years prior, concomitantly and 2 years after MSPC-PLL diagnosis) and to wild-type NLRP1 in the skin from a healthy control.

First, we confirmed the presence of NLRP1 by mass spectrometry, in all samples, as identified by at least two tryptic peptides having at least 2 transitions (MS2, resulted by collision induced dissociation) (**Figure S1, Table S2**).

Then, we used immunohistochemistry (IHC) to look at the tissue distribution of NLRP1^{A66V} in the three MSPC-KAs. As reported[7], keratinocytes were positive for NLRP1, with a nucleo-cytoplasmic staining pattern and the intensity gradually decreasing towards the upper epidermal layers (**Figure 2a**). Unexpectedly however, NLRP1 staining was more intense in the dermis than the epidermis, with specific cell populations presenting a granular distribution within the cytoplasm (**Figure 2a, top row inset**). Inversely, NLRP1^{A66V} expression was highest in the epidermis of the MSPC-PLL sample, but comparatively reduced in the dermis, mainly clustering around blood vessels (**Figure 2a**). Healthy skin showed the least NLRP1 staining intensity in both epidermis and dermis (**Figure 2a**), although the granular distribution persisted in cells surrounding blood vessels. Staining of immune cell granules by NLRP1 was confirmed on a human lymph node specimen (**Figure S2a**), whereas the isotype control did not bind.

To investigate whether some of the numerous NLRP1-positive cells in the MSPC-KA dermis were MCs, we stained using tryptase and CD117/c-kit (**Figure 2a**). Indeed, KA samples from the MSPC patient had significant MC accumulation (27.2/mm^2), above MSPC-PLL (17.5/mm^2) or healthy skin (7.6/mm^2) (**Figure 2b**). In MSPC-KAs but not MSPC-PLL, MCs frequently infiltrated epidermal layers (**Figure 2a, middle row inset**).

Under higher magnification we observed that MCs in MSPC-KAs, but not MSPC-PLL, were

degranulated. Tryptase-positive granular material was widely distributed within connective

tissue, but also taken up in the epidermis, up to and including the spinous layer (**Figure 2c**).

To verify if this is a characteristic of all KAs or if this was restricted to the three MSPC-KAs

in this study, we used tryptase staining on six KAs from patients not diagnosed with MSPC

(**Figure S2b**). As expected[19], these presented MCs in higher numbers ($13/mm^2$) than healthy

skin, however below counts in MSPC-KAs and even MSPC-PLL (**Figure 2b**). Importantly, we

could not identify MC epidermal infiltration, nor significant MC degranulation, indicating their

distinct contribution in MSPC-KA pathogenesis.

The MSPC patient was negative for the D816V KIT pathogenic variant in whole blood and had

normal serum tryptase (<11.4 µg/L), limiting the possibility of MC neoplastic transformation.

Figure 2. Immunohistochemistry of keratoacanthomas (KAs) in multiple self-healing palmoplantar carcinoma (MSPC). (a) In MSPC-KAs, NLRP1^{A66V} was more highly expressed in the dermis and was concentrated in cell granules (top row inset, scale bar = 10 μm). In the psoriasis-like lesion (MSPC-PLL), NLRP1^{A66V} was overrepresented in the epidermis. CD117 and tryptase staining demonstrated more mast cells (MCs) in MSPC-KAs, including epidermal infiltration (middle row inset, scale bar = 100 μm). Scale bars = 300 μm. (b) Quantification of MCs in the analysed samples, presented as means ± standard deviation (SD). Statistical significance is shown against healthy skin—*, MSPC-KA group—#, and the non-MSPC KA group—&, where */& p < .05; ***/### p < .001. (c) MCs in MSPC-KAs were degranulated, with granular material dispersed in epidermis and dermis. Scale bars = 50 μm.

193 **NLRP1 localizes to MC granules**

194 For more precise subcellular localization of NLRP1 we employed IEM. Morphologically, most

195 MCs from MSPC-KA were degranulated, ranging from having empty granules and granules

196 fused with the plasma membrane, to complete fragmentation of cells, with release of clumps

197 of granular complexes in the extracellular space (**Figure 3a**). By contrast, MCs from MSPC-

198 PLL and healthy skin had typical appearance (intact granule architecture, presence of plasma

199 membrane folds) and localized in proximity of blood vessels (**Figure 3b,c**).

200 Using two different, commercially available anti-NLRP1 antibodies, we demonstrated that

201 NLRP1 accumulates in granules of MCs from both lesional and healthy skin, regardless of

202 granule morphology and degranulation status of the cell, indicating NLRP1 is a ubiquitous

203 component of skin MCs (**Figure 3a,c and inset**). By contrast, an isotype control did not bind

204 (**Supplementary Figure 3a**). Next, we asked whether there are differences in MC NLRP1

205 content between samples, so we manually counted and averaged colloidal gold per granule,

206 under identical immunolabeling conditions. In this context, this method of quantification was

207 more precise than mass spectrometry of tissue lysates, as it measured protein content in the

208 subcellular compartment of interest, unbiased by overall density of MCs in tissue. We found

209 that NLRP1^{A66V} from MSPC-KA was overrepresented compared to NLRP1^{A66V} in MSPC-PLL

210 or wild-type NLRP1 in healthy skin (**Figure 3d**), further suggesting MCs may serve as a

211 reservoir of hyper-reactive NLRP1^{A66V} during MSPC-KA pathogenesis. Interestingly, MC

212 granules in MSPC-PLL had lower NLRP1 content than healthy skin, although the significance

213 of this is unclear.

214 In accordance with IHC, NLRP1 was also localized in keratinocytes in all samples, however it

215 unexpectedly clustered around intermediate filaments and desmosomes (**Figure S3b**).

Figure 3. NLRP1 is ubiquitous in skin mast cell (MC) granules. (a) MCs in keratoacanthomas (KAs) from a multiple self-healing palmoplantar carcinoma (MSPC) patient were degranulated. Scale bar = 2 μm. *c - collagen, N - nucleus.* MC granules in MSPC-KA presented NLRP1[A66V] accumulation, as exemplified by higher magnifications of boxed areas. Gold labeling is seen as black dots. Scale bars = 250 nm. **(b)** MCs from a psoriasis-like lesion (MSPC-PLL) were morphologically normal (*) and clustered around blood vessels (Bv). Scale bar = 2 μm. **(c)** Normal MC in healthy skin presenting NLRP1 in granules **(inset**, scale bar = 250 nm)**. Scale bar = 2 μm. **(d)** Quantification of colloidal gold demonstrated MCs in MSPC-KA had more NLRP1 (means ± standard deviation). Statistical significance is shown against healthy skin—*, and MSPC-KA—#, where ***/### $p < .001$.

NLRP1 and NLRP3 can colocalize in MC granules

MCs are known to contain all components of the NLRP3 inflammasome and to secrete IL1β in a NLRP3-dependent manner[14,15]. Given our finding that NLRP1[A66V] is present in MC granules from the MSPC patient, we were curious whether it spatially overlaps with NLRP3 and if it could therefore share elements of the inflammasome machinery during activation. First, we labeled MSPC-KA against pro-IL1β/IL1β (hereafter IL1β) and found it well represented in both intracellular MC granules and in MC-derived extracellular granular material **(Figure 4a and inset)**. This demonstrated that MCs in MSPC-KA secrete this pro-inflammatory cytokine in the extracellular space during degranulation.

Next, we probed MSPC-KA for NLRP3 and confirmed that some MC granules also contained this sensor protein **(Figure 4b and inset)** and released it during degranulation. NLRP3 was frequently localized at the periphery of cytoplasmic granules and at the plasma membrane in degranulating MCs **(Figure 4b)**, in agreement with a recently published study showing a role for NLRP3 in granule exocytosis[20]. Electron tomography on double-labeled sections revealed that NLRP1[A66V] and NLRP3 can colocalize to some, but not all MC granules **(Figure S3c-e, Movie S1)**. This raises the possibility of compartimentalisation of inflammasome pathways within MCs, but further clarification was impossible due to variations in labeling efficiencies between the different primary and secondary antibodies used. Finally, triple-labeling revealed that both sensor proteins can colocalize with IL1β, in both intra- and extracellular MC granules **(Figure 4c-e, Movie S2)**.

Taken together, these findings confirm that multiple inflammasome sensor proteins can simultaneously inhabit MC granules and consequently may act in tandem during activation of MCs in MSPC-KAs.

Figure 4. NLRP1^{A66V}, NLRP3 and IL1β colocalize to mast cell (MC) granules in a MSPC-keratoacanthoma. (a) High magnification of box in inset, confirming pro-IL1β/IL1β in granular material released by a MC (*****). **(b)** High magnification of box in inset, showing MCs (*****) contain NLRP3, which frequently localized to the periphery of granules (arrows). **(c)** Projection from tomographic tilt series, showing colocalization of gold labels (NLRP1^{A66V}, NLRP3, IL1β) in MC granules. **(d, top)** Reconstructed tomogram with superimposed contours of five MC granules (yellow), presenting colocalization of NLRP1^{A66V} (magenta), NLRP3 (turquoise) and IL1β (green). **(d, bottom)** Side-view showing distribution of labels to each side of the imaged resin section. **(e)** Detail of segmented MC granules. Scale bar for inset (a) = 2.5 µm, all others = 300 nm.

DISCUSSION

Here, we demonstrated that skin MCs can act as a reservoir for NLRP1, a critical but less known inflammasome sensor protein. Although novel, this finding is not completely surprising, as MCs express pattern recognition receptors and harbor all components of the NLRP3 inflammasome pathway[15], some of which are also required for NLRP1 inflammasome assembly.

We next showed that MCs are directly involved in the pathogenesis of KAs in a MSPC patient with NLRP1^{A66V}. In three different plantar lesions, temporally separated from initial diagnosis by 1, 8 and 10 years, MCs infiltrated the epidermis and NLRP1^{A66V} was released in the dermis and epidermis through widespread MC degranulation.

KAs in MSPC develop as a consequence of pathological inflammasome activation in select keratinocytes, due to mutation-induced ablation of NLRP1 auto-inhibition[7]. The fact that this process is absent in hair-bearing skin despite ubiquitous skin distribution of mutant NLRP1 indicates highly specific triggers within the palmoplantar skin microenvironment. In our samples, MC behaviour was also different between skin types. Whereas the plantar KAs presented very high numbers of degranulated MCs which infiltrated the epidermis, these features were conspicuously absent in a PLL lesion from the abdominal skin of the same MSPC patient and also absent in KAs from 6 non-MSPC patients.

One possibility is that the pathological activation of MCs in MSPC-KAs is a response to NLRP1-driven inflammasome activation in local keratinocytes and subsequent release of pro-inflammatory factors. However, this is difficult to reconcile with two key findings: (1) that the highest intensity of NLRP1 staining was in the MSPC-PLL epidermis, where keratinocytes also express the hyperactive NLRP1^{A66V}, yet do not form KAs, and (2) that compared to healthy

skin, MSPC-PLL presented high numbers of MCs prone to activation by local keratinocyte

inflammatory cues, but these MCs had normal morphology.

Instead, given our finding that skin MCs harbor NLRP1, we suggest MCs as co-perpetrators of

MSPC-KA pathogenesis. The particular MC behaviour in the plantar skin of this MSPC patient

may be the result of intrinsic NLRP1-inflammasome activation in response to yet unknown

triggers, possibly microbial stimuli or local IgE secretion[21]. Activation of select MC clusters

and release of granular material would induce keratinocyte inflammatory responses, in turn

driving more extensive MC recruitment within the lesion (**Figure 5**).

In support of this, we showed that MC granular material was widely spread throughout the

basal and spinous layers of MSPC-KAs. These granules had higher NLRP1 content than

equivalents in MSPC-PLL and healthy skin and harbored NLRP3 and the pro-inflammatory

cytokine IL1β. The latter can be converted to its active form within intact granules via the

NLRP1 and NLRP3 inflammasome pathways, but also in the extracellular environment by

various endogenous proteases[20,22]. Regardless of the mechanism of activation, the diffusion of

extracellular IL1β from widespread MC degranulation could stimulate keratinocyte

proliferation[22]. Additionally, tryptase released during MC degranulation can cleave protease

activated receptor 2 (PAR-2) on the surface of keratinocytes[23], a process which stimulates non-

specific particle uptake through endocytosis[24]. In MSPC-KAs, this would allow enrichment of

keratinocytes with components of the NLRP1/NLRP3 inflammasome pathways. Even in the

absence of uptake of inflammasome components, other MC granule contents, like histamine,

serotonin and keratinocyte growth factor, are known to stimulate keratinocyte proliferation *in*

situ in mice and in human cell cultures[25,26]. The characteristic palmoplantar epidermal

hyperplasia in MSPC-KAs may therefore be conditioned by aberrant, NLRP1-dependent

activity of tissue-resident MCs.

This study has two important limitations. First, in absence of functional studies, we cannot

definitively ascertain whether MC degranulation is a prerequisite for MSPC-KA formation, or

if it is a local response mechanism which merely modulates lesion development. As murine

NLRP1 lacks the PYD domain[7], an *in vitro* experiment would be required, involving co-culture

of human keratinocytes with MCs expressing mutant NLRP1. Second, because we could only

include a single MSPC patient, carrying the NLRP1^{A66V} pathogenic variant, we are unable to

extrapolate our findings to other MSPC variants, or generally to syndromes caused by NLRP1

mutations. This is further hindered by the rarity of these diseases, with only 5 MSPC families

known worldwide[27].

In summary, we showed for the first time that NLRP1 is a component of skin MC granules and

can colocalize with NLRP3 and IL1β, indicating that MCs have more avenues for

inflammasome activation than previously known. We also showed that when MCs from plantar

skin express NLRP1^{A66V}, they proliferate, infiltrate the epidermis and degranulate, contributing

to the pathogenesis of KAs in this variant of MSPC. This opens a new area of research in

NLRP1-related syndromes and, if confirmed in other patients, would translate clinically to

accessible therapies targeting MC activity.

Figure 5. Potential mechanism of keratoacanthoma (KA) development in multiple self-healing palmoplantar carcinoma. Mast cells (MCs) expressing NLRP1[A66V] proliferate and become activated in the dermis, stimulated by an unknown mechanism, possibly IL1β secretion by keratinocytes **(1)**. Constitutive activation of the NLRP1 inflammasome **(1 - inset)** leads to catastrophic degranulation of MCs. Granular material containing inflammasome components is taken up by keratinocytes up to the spinous layer **(2).** This leads to further inflammatory responses in keratinocytes and initiates a feedback loop driving activation of more MCs, which also infiltrate the lesion. Persistent inflammation induces keratinocyte hyperplasia and KA development **(3)**.

Ethics statement. The study was performed in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki

and was approved by Victor Babeș National Institute of Pathology (117/12.12.2023) and Elias

University Emergency Hospital, Bucharest, Romania (122052024-2/22.05.2024). All

participants provided written informed consent to participate in this study.

Data availability statement. Immunohistochemistry and transmission electron microscopy

data other than presented in the article can be shared on reasonable request to the corresponding

author.

Conflict of interest. The authors declare that they have no conflicts of interest.

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SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL

Figure S1. Mean peak area of NLRP1 peptides identified by mass spectrometry. Results

are presented as mean ± standard deviation (SD) for each peptide in healthy skin, psoriasis-like

lesion (PLL) and keratoacanthoma associated with multiple self-healing palmoplantar

carcinoma (MSPC-KA).

Figure S2. Immunohistochemical analyses. (a) Human lymph node stained against NLRP1,

showing highest proportion of positive cells in the mantle zone of lymphoid follicles. Scale bar

= 500 µm. Higher magnification **(inset**, scale bar = 20 µm**)** demonstrates localization of NLRP1

to granules of immune cells in lymph node. **(b)** Representative tryptase staining on KA from a

non-MSPC patient, showing absence of mast cell epidermal infiltration or degranulation. Scale

bar = 200 µm.

(a) **(b)** **(c)** **(d)**

Figure S3. **Immunoelectron microscopy and tomography.** **(a)** A rabbit isotype control did not significantly bind to mast cell (MC) granules. **(b)** NLRP1 localized to intermediate filaments (If) of keratinocytes. Representative accumulation of colloidal gold can be seen as black dots (circled area). *N - nucleus.* **(c)** Projection from tomographic tilt series, showing colocalization of 10 and 15 nm gold particles (NLRP1^{A66V} and NLRP3, respectively) in granules from a MC in MSPC-keratoacanthoma. **(d)** Reconstructed tomogram with superimposed drawn contours of two MC granules (yellow and blue), presenting colocalization of NLRP1^{A66V} (magenta) and NLRP3 (green). Detail of segmented MC granules demonstrating colocalization of NLRP1^{A66V} (magenta) and NLRP3 (green) are presented in the boxed area. Scale bars = 500 nm for (a-b) and 300 nm for (c-d).

Table S1. Primary antibodies used for immunolabeling

Table S2. List of transitions for identified NLRP1 peptides.

Supplementary methods - mass spectrometry

Biopsies were collected in cold PBS, then 50 mg from each sample was disrupted in a Mini-

Beadbeater (Biospec, US). Samples were then centrifuged for 20 minutes at 18,000 g and the

protein concentration from the supernatant was quantified by Bradford assay. A total of 50 µg

of protein containing supernatant was diluted with urea buffer to the final volume of 40 µL,

followed by the addition of 25 µL of 100 mM DTT and incubation at room temperature for 60

minutes. The sample was then alkylated with 26.25 µL of 300 mM iodoacetamide and kept in

the dark at room temperature for an additional 90 minutes followed by a quenching reaction

with 50 µL of DTT 100mM at room temperature for 60 minutes. The reaction mix was finally

diluted to 500 µL with 50 mM ammonium bicarbonate, followed by addition of trypsin (1 µg

/µL; Trypsin Gold, V528A, Promega, US) at a 1:50 enzyme-to-substrate ratio, with incubation

at 37°C for 16 hours. The reaction was stopped by adding 3 µL of formic acid. Peptides were

cleaned up using solid phase extraction (MonoSpin C18, GL Sciences, Japan), dried at speed-

vac and rehydrated to 2 µg/µL using 5% ACN + 0.1% HCOOH. Peptide concentration was

measured using NanoDrop 1000 (Thermo Fisher Scientific, US). From each sample, 5 µg

peptides were loaded into nanoACQUITY UPLC system (Waters, US) and separated using an

Eksigent 5C18-CL-120 (300 µM ID, 150 mm length) column coupled with a TripleTOF 5600+

mass spectrometer (both AB Sciex, USA). Peptide samples (5 µg) were injected using Solvent

A (0.1% formic acid) and separated on a 5-90% gradient Solvent B (0.1% formic acid in

acetonitrile) over 90 minutes, at a flow rate of 5 µL/min, with the column maintained at 55°C.

Each sample underwent three replicate runs. Mass spectrometric analysis was carried out using

electrospray ionization in positive mode, with a spray voltage of 5500 V and a source

temperature of 200°C. Data acquisition was performed on a TripleTOF 5600+ system in DIA

SWATH-MS mode, with 64 variable isolation windows. The MS1 survey scans covered an

m/z range of 400–1250, while MS2 spectra were collected in high-sensitivity mode from 100

to 2000 m/z. The accumulation period was set to 0.049 s, and ions were scanned within 55 ms

windows in high-sensitivity mode, giving a total cycle time of 3.5 s. Peptide and protein

identification were performed using PeakView 2.2, Skyline 22.2.0.255 and DIA-NN 1.9.

Movie S1. NLRP1 and NLRP3 colocalize to MC granules in MSPC-KA.

Movie S2. NLRP1, NLRP3 and IL1β colocalize to MC granules in MSPC-KA.