

The Role of Mast Cell Proteases in Allergic Disease and Apoptosis

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Abstract

Mast cells (MCs) are key effector cells in allergic reactions, through the release of a wide variety of granule-stored and *de novo* synthesized inflammatory mediators. The MC secretory granules contain exceedingly high levels of serglycin proteoglycan and the heparin-binding proteases chymase, tryptase and carboxypeptidase A.

In this thesis the contribution of mouse mast cell protease (mMCP)-4, which is thought to be the functional homolog to the human chymase, was studied in the context of allergic airway inflammation. Using two models of allergic airway inflammation, wild-type (WT) and mMCP-4 deficient (mMCP-4^{-/-}) mice were treated with ovalbumin (OVA) or with house dust mite (HDM) extract. We found that the OVA challenged mMCP-4^{-/-} mice displayed increased airway hyperreactivity and lung eosinophilia and in the HDM model they displayed increased serum IgE levels. Moreover, the level of IL-33, a pro-inflammatory cytokine, was enhanced in the lung tissue in mMCP-4^{-/-} mice compared to WT mice after HDM-treatment.

The active proteases stored in MC granules have the ability to cleave a number of components upon degranulation. We could demonstrate that proteolytic degradation of IL-13 by MCs is mediated by a serine protease, dependent on serglycin proteoglycan for its storage.

Permeabilization of lysosomal membranes often leads to apoptosis and the released proteases take part in this process, activating pro-apoptotic compounds. We have found that serglycin^{-/-} MCs are more resistant to apoptosis induced by secretory granule damage. We showed that serglycin^{-/-} MCs exhibited reduced caspase-3 and protease activity in the cytosol compared to WT cells.

Taken together, the studies in this thesis suggest that MC chymase plays a protective role in the development of allergic airway inflammation and this could possibly be explained by chymases ability to degrade the pro-inflammatory cytokine, IL-33. In addition, we also suggest that serglycin proteoglycan and serglycin-dependent MC proteases participate in IL-13 degradation as well as in MC apoptosis induced by secretory granule damage.

Keywords: mast cells, serglycin proteoglycan, protease, chymase. allergic airway inflammation, asthma, apoptosis.

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List of Publications

This thesis is based on the work contained in the following papers, referred to by Roman numerals in the text:

- I Waern I., Jonasson S., Hjoberg J., Bucht A., Åbrink M., Pejler G. and Wernersson S. (2009). Mouse mast cell protease 4 is the major chymase in murine airways and has a protective role in allergic airway inflammation. *Journal of Immunology*. 183(10):6369-76.
- II Waern I., Lundequist A., Pejler G. and Wernersson S. (2012). Mast cell chymase modulates IL-33 levels and controls allergic sensitization in dust-mite induced airway inflammation. *Manuscript*.
- III Waern I., Karlsson I., Thorpe M., Schlenner S. M., Feyerabend T. B., Rodewald H-R., Åbrink M., Hellman L., Pejler G. and Wernersson S. (2012). Mast cells limit extracellular levels of IL-13 via a serglycin proteoglycan-serine protease axis. *Biological Chemistry* ISSN (online) 1437-4315. DOI: 10.1515/bc-2012-0189.
- IV Melo F. R., Waern I., Rönnberg E., Åbrink M., Lee D. M., Schlenner S. M., Feyerabend T. B., Rodewald H-R., Turk B., Wernersson S. and Pejler G. (2011). A role for serglycin proteoglycan in mast cell apoptosis induced by a secretory granule-mediated pathway. *Journal of Biological Chemistry*. 286(7):5423-33.

Abbreviations

AHR	airway hyperresponsiveness
APC	antigen presenting cell
Arg	arginine
ASM	airway smooth muscle
BAL	bronchoalveolar lavage
BMMC	bone marrow derived mast cell
C _L	lung compliance
CPA	carboxypeptidase A
CR	complement receptor
CTMC	connective tissue mast cell
DPPI	dipeptidyl peptidase I
HDM	house dust mite
I.n.	intranasal
I.p.	intraperitoneal
Ig	immunoglobulin
IL	interleukin
kDa	kilodalton
Leu	leucine
LLME	H-Leu-Leu-OMe
Lys	lysine
MC	mast cell
MC _T	tryptase-positive human mast cell
MC _{TC}	tryptase- and chymase-positive human mast cell
Met	methionine
MHC	major histocompatibility complex
MMC	mucosal mast cell
mMCP	mouse mast cell protease
OVA	ovalbumin

PBS	phosphate-buffered saline
PCMC	peritoneal cell derived mast cell
PG	prostaglandin
Phe	phenylalanine
PI	propidium iodide
R _L	lung resistance
SCF	stem cell factor
Ser	serine
SMC	smooth muscle cell
T _H cell	T helper cell
Treg	regulatory T cell
Trp	tryptophan
Tyr	tyrosine
WT	wild type

1 Introduction

1.1 The immune system

The immune system protects us from potentially hazardous pathogens such as bacteria, fungi, viruses and parasites. The immune system is composed of two components i.e. the innate and adaptive (acquired) immunity. The innate immune system is always active and is often referred to as the first line of host defense that rapidly operates to eliminate foreign intruders. It includes anatomic barriers such as the skin, tears, saliva and mucosal surfaces as well as the complement system and various leukocytes. If innate immunity fails to eliminate a pathogen the adaptive immune system is activated. The adaptive immune response is specific towards one particular pathogen, and includes recognition of foreign molecules by antigen-specific receptors on B- and T-lymphocytes. After elimination of the foreign intruder some of the antigen-specific cells persist creating the unique property of immunological memory. Even though innate and adaptive immunity often are regarded as two separate components of the immune system, they are linked through cytokine secretion and cell-to-cell signaling (Croizat *et al.*, 2009).

1.2 The allergic immune response

The allergic immune response is a type I hypersensitivity reaction that involves the production of immunoglobulin (Ig) E antibodies toward an antigen mediated by the adaptive immune system. The reaction is initiated by antigen capture and processed by antigen-presenting cells (APCs) such as dendritic cells or macrophages. These cells mature and migrate to the lymph nodes to present peptides of the allergen on major histocompatibility complex (MHC) class II molecules to antigen-specific naïve CD4⁺ T lymphocytes, which in turn differentiate and become activated T helper type 2 cells (T_H2 cells). In

addition to the antigen presentation, other factors such as the cytokine milieu and antigen type and dose also influence the differentiation of naïve T cells. T_H2 cells produce the cytokines interleukin (IL)-4 and IL-13 and when interacting with antigen-specific B cells via MHC class II and co-stimulatory molecules they induce proliferation and class switching to IgE production. The primary response to an allergen, i.e. the sensitization phase, is summarized in figure 1. The antigens triggering allergic reactions are mostly innocuous environmental substances referred to as allergens.

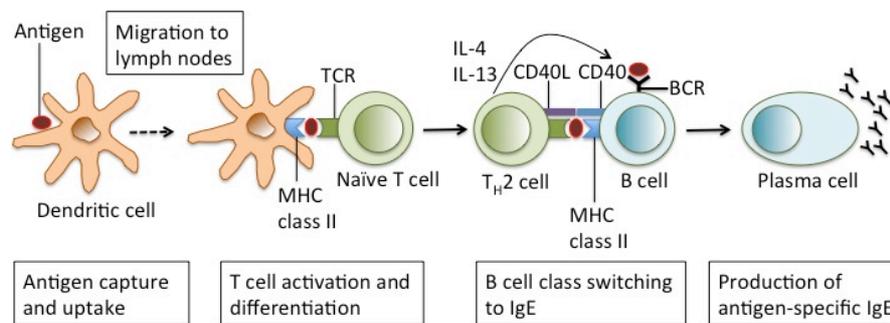


Figure 1. Mechanism for allergic sensitization and allergen-specific IgE production.

IgE production mainly takes place in the draining lymph nodes at the site of allergen entry. However, allergic sensitization may also occur in the mucosa of the airways where the produced IgE antibodies diffuse locally, enter the lymphatic vessels and can later be found in the blood stream. In the blood, IgE can bind to basophils, a type of circulatory granulocyte. The systemically distributed IgE subsequently binds to membrane receptors expressed on a tissue resident effector cells, i.e. the mast cell (MC). IgE binding to its receptors on the MCs is referred to as MC sensitization and does not produce any symptoms of allergy. Instead, once a MC is sensitized to an allergen, subsequent exposure to the same allergen mediates activation of the MCs via the IgE-receptor and an allergic reaction is initiated (figure 2). The immediate allergic reaction occurs within minutes after the second encounter with the allergen and is a result of MC and/or basophil activation and the release of inflammatory mediators.

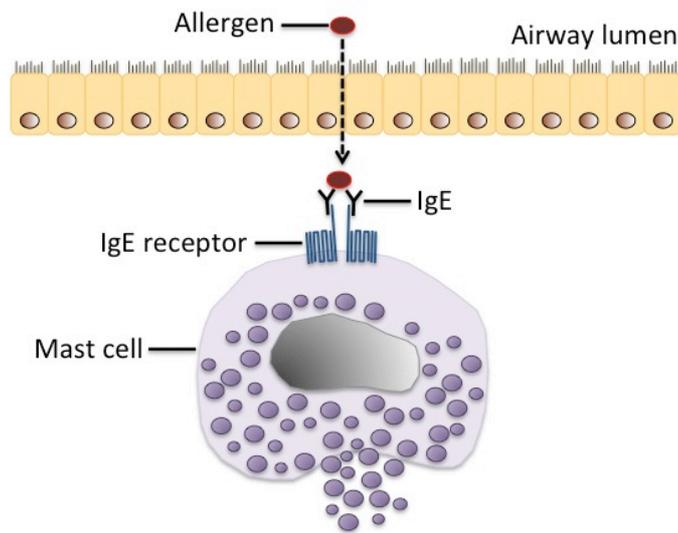


Figure 2. Immediate allergic reaction in response to subsequent exposure to the allergen via the airways.

1.3 Allergic asthma

The prevalence of allergic diseases has increased during the past decades. Today, more than one fifth of the population in industrial countries suffers from allergies, and allergic asthma is one of the most common diseases mediated by IgE antibodies. Allergic asthma is a chronic disorder characterized by reversible airway obstruction, airway hyperresponsiveness, airway inflammation and alterations in the structural cells and tissue of the airway, i.e., remodeling (Maddox & Schwartz, 2002). Airway hyperresponsiveness (AHR) is a key feature of asthma and is thought to be associated with airway inflammation and remodeling (Cockcroft & Davis, 2006). The allergic inflammation can be divided into three phases: early-phase reactions, late-phase reactions and chronic allergic inflammation. Secretion of inflammatory mediators by activated MCs are involved in the early inflammatory response that occurs within minutes after allergen exposure. This reaction mediates bronchoconstriction, vasodilation, mucous secretion, and an increased vascular permeability. The early reaction is often followed by a late response that develops after 2 hours, with a peak after 6-9 hours after allergen exposure. This phase is characterized by recruitment of other immune cells, in particular eosinophilic granulocytes, to the site of allergen exposure (Galli *et al.*, 2008).

Mediators involved in cell recruitment in the late-phase reaction originate from MCs and activated T_H2 cells. Clinical features of these events include narrowing of the airways and increased mucous secretion. Repeated exposure to the allergen may develop into chronic airway inflammation associated with remodeling events of the airways. Airway smooth muscle (ASM) hyperplasia and hypertrophy are alterations known to contribute to the pathophysiology of asthma. It is likely that thickening of the smooth muscle layer is an important component of airway AHR. In addition, remodeling events such as thickening of the airway wall and other mechanisms may also contribute to AHR and asthma (Cockcroft & Davis, 2006).

1.3.1 Cytokines involved in allergy and asthma

Cytokines are a group of soluble proteins that function as key regulatory signaling molecules in the immune system. Cytokines act by binding to specific cell surface receptors, thereby regulating gene expression in the target cells. Some cytokines are pro-inflammatory (inducing inflammation) whereas others are anti-inflammatory (suppressing inflammation). Dysregulation of cytokine expression may result in immune disorders. Therefore, the balance of effector cytokines associated with T_H1/T_H2 cells, regulatory T cells (Tregs) and other anti-inflammatory cytokines influences the onset of different diseases (Dinarello, 2000). As previously described, allergic disorders are dominated by T_H2 cytokines including IL-4, IL-5, and IL-13 to name but a few. IL-4 is a multifunctional cytokine produced by T_H2 cells, MCs, basophils and eosinophils. IL-4 induce B-cell switching to IgE synthesis, MC development, eosinophil and basophil activation as well as mucous secretion (Vercelli, 2001). It has been suggested that recruitment of eosinophils plays a role in the pathological process in asthmatic airways, and IL-5 is necessary for their differentiation, maturation and activation (O'Byrne *et al.*, 2001). A central player in allergic reactions and asthma is IL-13. Like IL-4, IL-13 is involved in B-cell switching to IgE production. Additionally, it has been demonstrated that IL-13 can induce smooth muscle cell (SMC) contractility and mucous secretion (Wills-Karp, 2004). IL-13 has been shown to be produced by a number of cells including T_H2 cells, MCs, basophils, dendritic cells and natural killer cells (Wills-Karp, 2004). IL-33 is a relatively newly characterized T_H2-associated cytokine, which has been shown to be involved in the recruitment of eosinophils, basophils and T_H2 cells (Suzukawa *et al.*, 2008; Komai-Koma *et al.*, 2007). It can also induce IL-5 and IL-13 production by T_H2 cells (Hsu *et al.*, 2010) and administration in mice leads to AHR and mucous production (Kondo *et al.*, 2008). IL-33 is a pro-inflammatory cytokine produced by a

variety of cells including epithelial cells, endothelial cells, MCs, SMCs, macrophages and dendritic cells (Moussion *et al.*, 2008). MCs can be activated by IL-33, which subsequently causes production of pro-inflammatory cytokines including IL-13 (Ho *et al.*, 2007). Basophils can also be activated by IL-33 to produce cytokines (Suzukawa *et al.*, 2008).

1.4 Mast cells

MCs are highly granulated cells found in large numbers throughout all vascularized tissue in the body, especially in tissues close to the exterior environment such as the skin, airways and gastro-intestinal tract. MCs are derived from multipotent hematopoietic stem cells that circulate as progenitors in the blood and mature when entering the tissue (Kirshenbaum *et al.*, 1991). Mature MCs are considered to be long-lived cells and have the potential to regenerate after a degranulation event (Xiang *et al.*, 2001). Due to their strategic distribution and their ability to sense pathogens and danger, MCs can rapidly respond to harmful intruders. They are therefore known as one of the immune cells participating in innate immunity. However, MCs are mainly known for their role in allergies. In allergic responses, MC activation is mediated by allergen-specific IgE antibodies through FcεRI receptor cross-linking causing a rapid release of the granule-stored mediators. In addition, MCs can also be activated by other mechanisms to secrete granule stored as well as *de novo* synthesized mediators. The mechanisms of MC activation as well as the granule-stored mediators are described in further detail later in this thesis.

1.5 Mast cell activation

A key MC feature is their ability to rapidly respond to various stimuli (figure 3). The different types of stimuli include binding to specific surface-bound receptors on the MC as well as compounds that have the ability to directly activate MCs. The classical and most well studied form of MC activation is through the high affinity receptor for IgE, FcεRI. This and other forms of MC activation will be described below.

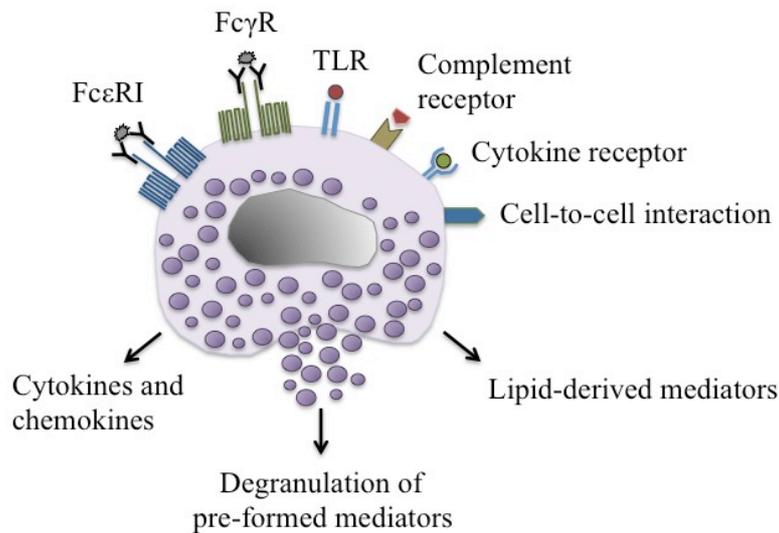


Figure 3. Different mechanisms of mast cell activation.

1.5.1 IgE-dependent activation

MCs express high numbers of the high affinity receptor for IgE (FcεRI) on their surface. Cross-linking of FcεRI-bound IgE by an antigen leads to MC activation. FcεRI is a tetrameric protein that consists of one α -, one β - and two γ -chains. The α -chain is responsible for the high affinity binding of the Fc part of IgE and the β - and γ -chains initiate intracellular signaling (Jouvin *et al.*, 1994; Hakimi *et al.*, 1990). The β - and γ -subunits of the receptor contain conserved cytoplasmic motifs, named immunoreceptor tyrosine based activation motifs (ITAMs). Upon FcεRI cross-linking, Lyn, a protein tyrosine kinase adds phosphate groups to the tyrosine residues in the ITAMs of the intracellular β - and γ -subunits. Phosphorylation of the ITAMs allows binding and activation of the protein tyrosine kinase Syk, which results in phosphorylation of a number of signaling proteins finally leading to degranulation, secretion and *de novo* synthesis of various mediators (Turner & Kinet, 1999).

1.5.2 IgG-mediated activation

Antigen-mediated activation of MCs can also be achieved via receptors for IgG (FcγRs). Human MCs express the high affinity receptor FcγRI and the low affinity receptor FcγRII, whereas murine MCs express the low affinity receptors FcγRII and FcγRIII (Okayama *et al.*, 2000; Katz & Lobell, 1995). It has been demonstrated that MC degranulation can be triggered by stimulation

of Fc γ RI or Fc γ RIII by polyvalent antigen (Daeron *et al.*, 1995). In contrast to the activating receptors, Fc γ RII contains an immunoreceptor tyrosine based inhibitory motif (ITIM). Crosslinking of Fc γ RII results in decreased signaling of the activating IgE- and IgG-receptors, thereby inhibiting MC degranulation and mediator release (Kepley *et al.*, 2000; Daeron & Vivier, 1999).

1.5.3 Toll-like receptors

Toll-like receptors (TLRs) are a group of pattern recognition receptors detecting different pathogen-associated ligands. The TLR ligands can be divided into three categories: proteins, DNA/RNA and lipid based cell-wall components. TLRs may facilitate cooperative binding of ligands, thus exhibit a broad recognition spectrum. For example, TLR 1/2 recognizes tricylated lipoproteins whereas TLR 2/6 recognizes peptidoglycan from gram-positive bacteria. TLR 2, 3, 4, 6, 8, and 9 are expressed by MCs (Matsushima *et al.*, 2004; Takeda *et al.*, 2003). These may directly recognize a number of pathogens, leading to different MC responses. Stimulation of TLR 2 with peptidoglycan from gram-positive bacteria mediates cytokine production and degranulation, whereas stimulation with lipopolysaccharide via TLR 4 induces cytokine secretion but no degranulation (Supajatura *et al.*, 2002). Activation of MCs via TLR signaling is usually associated with cytokine, leukotriene and prostaglandin production without mediating degranulation (Marshall *et al.*, 2003; Okumura *et al.*, 2003; Varadaradjalou *et al.*, 2003). This demonstrates the importance of MCs in recruitment of inflammatory cells, for example in recruiting neutrophils to the local site of activation leading to antimicrobial responses and clearance of the invading pathogens.

1.5.4 Complement mediated activation

The complement system is composed of serum proteins and cell surface receptors that interact in a number of complex pathways in order to eliminate pathogens. The complement system operates in both innate and adaptive immunity and can be activated in three different ways; the classical pathway, the alternative pathway and the lectin pathway (Sarma & Ward, 2011). Tissue damage and different types of infections often lead to activation of these pathways. MCs can interact with the complement system by expressing complement receptor (CR) 3, CR4, C3aR and C5aR (Marshall, 2004). It is well established that C3a and C5a are MC-activating agents (Johnson *et al.*, 1975). In mice, connective tissue MCs (CTMCs), but not mucosal MCs (MMC), express CRs and are able to respond to C3a and C5a (Mousli *et al.*, 1994). Complement-deficient mice are more sensitive and display reduced MC activation after caecal ligation and puncture (Prodeus *et al.*, 1997). Human

MCs also display different expression of receptors depending on surrounding environment. C5aR expression has been observed in skin and cardiac MCs, but not in MCs from the lungs, uterus and tonsils (Fureder *et al.*, 1995).

1.5.5 Other mechanisms of activation

In addition to the mechanisms mentioned above, MCs can be activated by other agents such as cytokines, chemokines, neuropeptides, calcium ionophores and drugs.

Several cytokines and chemokines including IL-1, IL-3, IL-8, granulocyte-macrophage colony stimulating factor, macrophage inflammatory protein (MIP)-1 α , monocyte chemoattractant protein (MCP)-1 and stem cell factor (SCF) are able to induce mediator release (Mekori & Metcalfe, 2000; Taylor *et al.*, 1995; Alam *et al.*, 1994; Subramanian & Bray, 1987). The small peptide endothelin (ET)-1, a 21 amino acid peptide produced by endothelial cells, and neuropeptides such as substance P, calcitonin gene related peptide, vasoactive intestinal peptide (VIP) and neurotensin have been shown to activate MCs (Bauer & Razin, 2000; Metcalfe *et al.*, 1997). Other MC activators include the nucleoside adenosine and the opiates morphine and codeine (Mekori & Metcalfe, 2000). Many basic compounds (e.g. compound 48/80, mastoparan and polymers of basic amino acids) activate MCs directly, which leads to degranulation and histamine release (Metcalfe *et al.*, 1997). MC degranulation can also be mediated by elevating intracellular calcium levels. Calcium-mobilizing agents such as calcium ionophore (A23187) and ionomycin both have the ability to mediate MC degranulation (Metcalfe *et al.*, 1997). Furthermore, cell-to-cell contact has also been shown to have an impact on MC activation. Adhesion of activated T lymphocytes to MCs, via interaction of leukocyte function associated antigen (LFA)-1 and intracellular adhesion molecule (ICAM)-1, induces mediator release and cytokine production (Bhattacharyya *et al.*, 1998; Inamura *et al.*, 1998).

1.6 Apoptosis

MCs are long-lived cells that can regenerate after a degranulation event (Xiang *et al.*, 2001; Dvorak *et al.*, 1987; Kobayasi & Asboe-Hansen, 1969). It has been shown that the presence of SCF, the ligand for the receptor c-kit, is essential for MC survival both *in vitro* and *in vivo* (Iemura *et al.*, 1994). Under normal conditions, the number of tissue MCs is constant. Dysregulation of apoptosis in MCs can cause accumulation of MCs, which may lead to diseases

such as mastocytosis. Therefore, induction of MC apoptosis may be an approach to treat MC-associated disorders, including asthma.

1.6.1 Apoptosis activation pathways

In order to maintain a constant number of cells in the body cell proliferation and programmed cell death occur in a controlled way. Apoptosis, the physiological process of programmed cell death, has been preserved during evolution and exists in all multicellular organisms. The process of apoptosis can be divided into two main signaling pathways, the mitochondrial/intrinsic and the death receptor/extrinsic pathways (figure 4) (Ekoff & Nilsson, 2011). The intrinsic pathway is initiated by DNA damage, cytotoxic drugs and cytokine deprivation. When deprived of SCF, MCs have been shown to undergo apoptosis via the intrinsic pathway. Downstream signaling of the intrinsic pathway involves the Bcl-2 family of pro-apoptotic proteins (e.g. Bax, Bcl-Xs, Bik and Bad) and anti-apoptotic proteins (e.g. Bcl-2, Bcl-XL, Mcl-1 and A1). Bcl-2 family members control the release of mediators of apoptosis triggered by permeabilization of the mitochondrial membrane. The extrinsic pathway is triggered by external signals from the environment that mediate signaling by surface-bound death receptors, e.g. the tumor necrosis factor (TNF) receptor family. Upon activation, these receptors interact with downstream molecules that activate a cascade of cysteine proteases called caspases. Both the intrinsic and extrinsic pathways involve intracellular activation of a family of cysteine proteases named caspases (Riedl & Shi, 2004). Activation of caspases directly or indirectly induces the morphological changes in the process of apoptosis including cell shrinking, chromatin condensation, DNA fragmentation and formation of apoptotic bodies (Kerr *et al.*, 1972). The apoptotic bodies are efficiently removed by phagocytic cells in the local tissue.

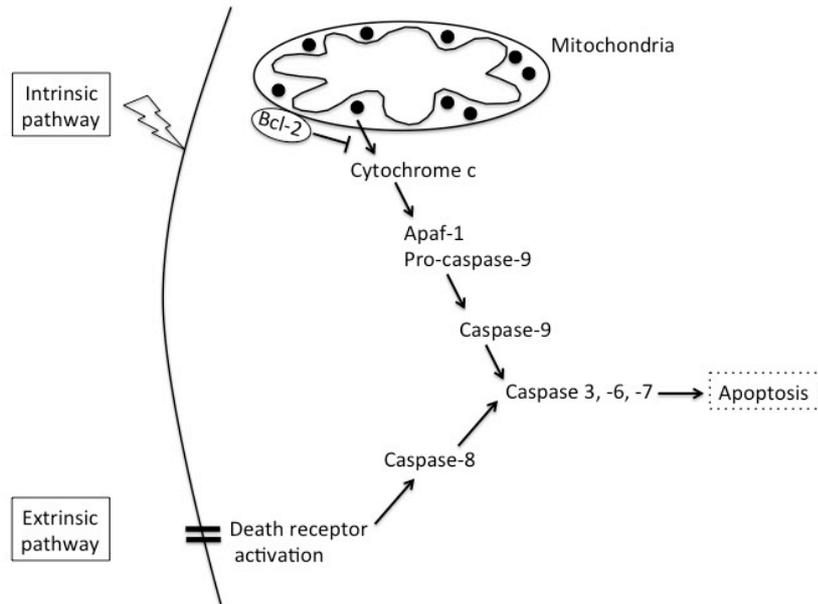


Figure 4. Intrinsic and extrinsic pathways of apoptosis.

1.7 Heterogeneity of mast cells

MCs can have different phenotypes and these are dependent on different factors including the species, environment and even age of the animal. Murine MCs are broadly divided into CTMCs and MMCs, summarized in table 1. This commonly used nomenclature for murine MCs originates from observations in rats, but the same phenotypes were also found in mice (Enerback, 1966). The CTMCs are located in the connective tissue of the skin and peritoneum and contain heparin proteoglycan, high amounts of histamine as well as the proteases: chymase, tryptase and carboxypeptidase A (CPA). MMCs are found at mucosal surfaces such as the lamina propria of the intestine and in the respiratory tract. In contrast to CTMCs, MMCs contain chondroitin sulphate proteoglycan and chymase, but do not express tryptase and CPA. Human MCs are classified according to their neutral protease content (table 1). The MC_T phenotype expresses only tryptase, whereas MC_{TC} contain tryptase, chymase, CPA and cathepsin G (Irani & Schwartz, 1994). A third, more rare, type of MC population, containing only chymase (MC_C) has also been reported (Weidner & Austen, 1993). However, it should be mentioned that combinations of MCs with different phenotypes could be found in murine as well as human tissues.

Table 1. Summary of the MC-specific protease and proteoglycan expression in humans and mice.

Species	Human		Mouse	
	MC _T	MC _{TC}	CTMC	MMC
Chymase	-	Chymase (human)	mMCP-4 mMCP-5	mMCP-1 mMCP-2
Tryptase	α -tryptase β -tryptase (I-III)	α -tryptase β -tryptase (I-III)	mMCP-6 mMCP-7	-
CPA	-	CPA (human)	CPA (mouse)	-
Proteoglycan	Heparin/ chondroitin sulfate	Heparin/ chondroitin sulfate	Heparin	Chondroitin sulfate

Abbreviations: MC, mast cell; mMCP, mouse mast cell protease; CPA, carboxypeptidase A. Protease name indicates expression of respective protease. (-) indicates no expression.

1.8 Pre-stored mediators in mast cell granules

Fully differentiated MCs can contain 500-1000 granules filled with pre-stored mediators such as proteoglycans, proteases, histamine and cytokines that can be released upon activation.

1.8.1 Proteases

The MC granules are composed of remarkably high amounts (up to 35%) that make up the total protein content of the cell, i.e., proteases that are active at a neutral pH (Schwartz *et al.*, 1987a; Schwartz *et al.*, 1987b). The granule-stored MCs proteases are divided into chymases, tryptases and CPA (Pejler *et al.*, 2010). The common feature for all proteases is that they cleave peptide bonds. One third of all proteases belong to a large family of proteolytic enzymes with a reactive serine (Ser) side chain. These are called serine proteases. Chymase and tryptase are serine proteases that hydrolyze bonds within the peptide chain of the substrate and are therefore known as endopeptidases. Chymases have chymotrypsin-like substrate specificity, i.e., they hydrolyze bonds after large hydrophobic amino acids such as tyrosine (Tyr), tryptophan (Trp), phenylalanine (Phe) and methionine (Met). Tryptases have trypsin-like cleavage specificity and have a preference for cleaving after the basic amino acids arginine (Arg) or lysine (Lys). CPA on the other hand is a zinc-dependent metalloprotease that cleaves bonds at the ends of peptides and is therefore an exopeptidase. Apart from the MC-specific proteases, MCs also express other proteases including lysosomal cathepsins, granzymes and cathepsin G (Pejler *et al.*, 2007).

1.8.2 Chymase

Chymases are stored in the MC granules as active monomeric enzymes in complex with heparin serglycin proteoglycan (Braga *et al.*, 2007; Henningsson *et al.*, 2006; Abrink *et al.*, 2004; Henningsson *et al.*, 2002). Chymases are activated by the proteolytic removal of an N-terminal acidic dipeptide by dipeptidyl peptidase I (DPPI) (Wolters *et al.*, 2001). Within the acidic granules, chymase is tightly bound to heparin and this is thought to prevent autolysis by the enzymes. Post degranulation, chymase remains in complex with heparin proteoglycan, which increases the enzymatic activity and offers protection from inhibitors outside the cell (Pejler & Sadler, 1999; Pejler & Berg, 1995).

Humans only express one chymase, which belongs to the group of α -chymases based on phylogenetic analyses (Chandrasekharan *et al.*, 1996; Caughey *et al.*, 1991). In mice, MMCs express two β -chymases: mouse mast cell protease (mMCP)-1 and mMCP-2 (Lunderius *et al.*, 2000; Lutzelschwab *et al.*, 1998; Huang *et al.*, 1991), although mMCP-2 lacks proteolytic activity (Pemberton *et al.*, 2003). CTMCs predominantly express the β -chymase mMCP-4 (Newlands *et al.*, 1993) and the α -chymase mMCP-5 (Huang *et al.*, 1991; Reynolds *et al.*, 1990) (table 1). mMCP-5 is the only α -chymase expressed by murine MCs and is the closest homolog to the human chymase based on sequence similarity. However, mMCP-5 has elastase-like cleavage specificity and is therefore not functionally a chymase (Karlson *et al.*, 2003; Kunori *et al.*, 2002). In contrast, mMCP-4 has a similar cleavage specificity and tissue distribution as the human chymase (Andersson *et al.*, 2008). This suggests that the functional homolog to the human chymase is mMCP-4.

In vivo and *in vitro* studies have revealed that chymase is involved in the processing of a wide array of proteins and peptides. Most attention been focused on chymase ability to cleave angiotensin I yielding angiotensin II, a peptide involved in vasoconstriction (Urata *et al.*, 1990; Reilly *et al.*, 1982). Considering that MCs are widely distributed in the connective tissue it is likely that the stored proteases may have a profound impact on the extracellular matrix (ECM). Indeed, fibronectin, an ECM component, has been shown to be a substrate for chymase (Tchougounova & Pejler, 2001; Vartio *et al.*, 1981). Further, it has been demonstrated that chymase induces apoptosis in ECM surrounded vascular smooth muscle cells (SMCs) (Leskinen *et al.*, 2001). In addition, chymase has the ability to inhibit mitogen-induced SMC proliferation (Lazaar *et al.*, 2002). Chymase can also modulate the EMC composition through the release of latent transforming growth factor β -1 (TGF- β 1) from the matrix, which subsequently enhances the production of connective tissue

(Taipale *et al.*, 1995). In contrast, chymase has also been shown to be involved in ECM degradation through the activation of matrix metalloproteases and pro-collagenases. *In vivo* studies in mMCP-4-deficient mice provided support for this notion as these mice have an increased collagen-deposition in the skin (Tchougounova *et al.*, 2005). Chymase has been suggested to be involved in regulating the levels of other biological factors including ET-1 (Kido *et al.*, 1998), IL-1 β (Mizutani *et al.*, 1991) and to cleave membrane-bound SCF mediating its release from the cell surface (de Paulis *et al.*, 1999). Taken together, chymase may have pro-inflammatory properties through the activation of various substances as well as anti-inflammatory by degrading others.

Chymase knockout mice and in vivo roles

To date, three chymase knockout mice have been generated: mMCP-1, mMCP-4 and mMCP-5. mMCP-1 is primarily expressed by intestinal MMCs and mice lacking this chymase have a delayed parasite expulsion in the intestine compared to WT mice (Knight *et al.*, 2000). The mMCP-4 knockout mice have a deletion in exon 1 of the chymase gene, which results in a complete loss of the protein (Tchougounova *et al.*, 2003). These mice have been used in several disease models to evaluate the *in vivo* functions of mMCP-4. For instance, a pathological role for mMCP-4 in experimental arthritis has been suggested since mMCP-4^{-/-} mice had decreased passive and active collagen-induced arthritis compared to WT mice (Magnusson *et al.*, 2009). In addition, mMCP-4 contributes to the development of abdominal aortic aneurism (Sun *et al.*, 2009). mMCP-4^{-/-} mice show increased skin blistering compared to WT mice in a model of bullous pemphigoid, suggesting a role for mMCP-4 in ECM and hemidesmosome degradation (Lin *et al.*, 2011). It is well known that MCs are important cells in the innate defense, and a role for mMCP-4 in reducing toxicity of Gila monster and scorpion venom was recently published (Akahoshi *et al.*, 2011). mMCP-4 is involved in maintaining homeostasis in the intestinal epithelium by regulating barrier properties and migration across the epithelium (Groschwitz *et al.*, 2009). mMCP-5 has been shown to contribute to ischemia reperfusion-induced injury of skeletal muscle (Abonia *et al.*, 2005). However, mMCP-5 knockout mice also lack CPA, which makes it difficult to interpret the data. A strategy for overcoming this issue would be to generate genetically targeted mice with a mutation in the active site of mMCP-5.

Several reports suggest that chymase has pro-inflammatory properties. For example, injection of chymase mediates accumulation of eosinophils and neutrophils *in vivo* (Terakawa *et al.*, 2005; He & Walls, 1998). A

polymorphism in the promoter region of the chymase gene has been associated with allergic asthma, possibly through regulation of IgE levels (Sharma *et al.*, 2005). There is also evidence suggesting a protective role for chymase in severe asthmatics, where the presence of chymase in the small airways correlates with preserved airway function (Balzar *et al.*, 2005).

1.8.3 Tryptase

Tryptases are serine proteases with trypsin-like substrate specificity active in a tetrameric form. Tryptases, like chymases, are stored in complex with serglycin proteoglycan within the MC granules as active enzymes (Hallgren *et al.*, 2001; Schwartz & Bradford, 1986). Human MCs mainly express two types of tryptases: α - and β -type. β -tryptases are the main form of tryptases found in MCs and they are the most catalytically active (Marquardt *et al.*, 2002; Huang *et al.*, 1999). So far, three different forms of β -tryptases have been identified: β I, β II and β III (Pallaoro *et al.*, 1999). The β -tryptases are very similar to each other and β I and β II differ in only one amino acid. The α -tryptases are further classified into α I and α II. In contrast to the β -tryptases, α I-tryptases can be detected in the circulation in absence of MC degranulation, which suggests that they are constitutively secreted (Schwartz *et al.*, 1995). Human tryptases also include δ -tryptase and the membrane anchored γ -tryptase form (Hallgren & Pejler, 2006).

To date, mice have been found to express four tryptases: mMCP-6, mMCP-7, mMCP-11 and mouse transmembrane tryptase (mTMT). mMCP-6, expressed by CTMCs, is the most similar to the human β -tryptases (Hallgren *et al.*, 2000). mMCP-6 and mMCP-7 are not constitutively secreted, but stored in MC granules and become exocytosed locally upon degranulation (Ghildyal *et al.*, 1996). mMCP-11 and mTMT have both been found to be mainly expressed during the early stages of MC development (Wong *et al.*, 2004; Wong *et al.*, 1999).

Like chymase, tryptase has been suggested to degrade a number of ECM components including fibrinogen (Schwartz *et al.*, 1985), fibronectin (Lohi *et al.*, 1992), type VI collagen (Kielty *et al.*, 1993) and to activate pro-MMP-3 (Gruber *et al.*, 1989). In addition, tryptase has been shown to activate protease-activated receptor (PAR)-2, which may lead to inflammatory events (Berger *et al.*, 2001). There are a number of studies suggesting a role for MC tryptase in allergic asthma. Tryptase stimulates the proliferation of SMCs, epithelial cells and fibroblasts, which may lead to features associated with asthma including AHR and remodeling events of the airways (Gruber *et al.*, 1997; Cairns &

Walls, 1996). Additionally, tryptase can degrade VIP, which, in the lungs, acts to relax bronchial smooth muscle (Caughey *et al.*, 1988). Further support for a pathological role of tryptase in asthma came from studies where tryptase inhibitors blocked airway inflammation and AHR in allergic sheep (Clark *et al.*, 1995). Incubation of isolated human bronchi with tryptase also mediates histamine release and promotes a subsequent *in vitro* bronchial reactivity to histamine (Berger *et al.*, 1999).

1.8.4 Carboxypeptidase A

CPA is an exopeptidase expressed by MCs and similarly to the other proteases, is stored as an active enzyme in the granules. CPA has a high content of positively charged amino acids that enable binding to negatively charged serglycin proteoglycan within the granules. It has been suggested that both CPA and chymase remain in complex with serglycin proteoglycan after degranulation. To date, only one CPA gene has been identified and its expression varies among the MC subtypes. In humans, CPA is only expressed in the MC_{TC} subtype and in mice CPA is restricted to CTMCs (Reynolds *et al.*, 1989). CPA has a preference for cleaving C-terminal aromatic or aliphatic residues (Vendrell *et al.*, 2000; Goldstein *et al.*, 1989). Interestingly, substrate processing by chymase generates products with a C-terminal cleavage preference for CPA.

CPA has been shown to be involved in the degradation of ET-1, a 21 amino acid peptide involved in septic shock and the development of high blood pressure (Metz *et al.*, 2006; Metsarinne *et al.*, 2002). In addition, CPA has an important role in protecting against the snake venom toxin, sarafotoxin, by preventing its toxicity through C-terminal degradation (Metz *et al.*, 2006).

1.8.5 Cathepsin G

Cathepsin G is a serine protease mainly expressed in neutrophils but has also been found in MCs. Humans and rodents express one cathepsin G protein, originating from the cathepsin G gene (*CTSG*) (Schechter *et al.*, 1990). The cleavage properties for cathepsin G are broader compared to the other serine proteases as it possesses both chymotryptic as well as tryptic activities, i.e., cleavage after aromatic and basic amino acids (Polanowska *et al.*, 1998).

1.8.6 Proteoglycans

Proteoglycans are ubiquitously expressed and highly abundant proteins with a variety of functions. For example, proteoglycans are involved in embryological development and functions in most organ systems of the body, including the

immune system (Handel *et al.*, 2005; Iozzo, 2005). Proteoglycans are composed of a core protein with covalently linked long, unbranched glycosaminoglycan (GAG) chains. Proteoglycans can be broadly divided into three subgroups i.e. the cell-surface spanning (syndecans and glypicans), the ECM associated (decorin, agrin and perlecan) and the intracellular proteoglycan, serglycin. Serglycin is synthesized by a number of hematopoietic cells including MCs, macrophages, lymphocytes, platelets and natural killer cells (Pejler *et al.*, 2009).

Serglycin proteoglycan consists of a 17.6 kDa core protein with an extended amino acid repeat of serine/glycine (Ser/Gly), where the Ser residues function as GAG attachment sites (Ronnberg *et al.*, 2012). The main GAGs found in connection with serglycin PGs are heparin/heparan sulfate, chondroitin 4-sulfate, chondroitin 6-sulfate and chondroitin sulfate B and E (Table 2) (Kolset & Tveit, 2008). The different combinations of GAG chains enable a multifaceted biological activity of serglycin proteoglycan.

Table 2. *Serglycin GAG chain expression in granulated cells (adapted from Kolset 2008).*

GAG chain	Cell type
Heparin/Heparan sulfate	MCs, macrophages
Chondroitin 4-sulfate	Platelets, monocytes, lymphocytes, natural killer cells
Chondroitin 6-sulfate	Guinea pig platelets
Chondroitin sulfate E	MCs, macrophages
Chondroitin sulfate B	Rat basophils

Heparin, the most well known GAG and one of the most negatively charged molecules in the body, is bound to serglycin in CTMCs (Kolset & Gallagher, 1990). Because of its highly negatively charged nature heparin can interact with a number of proteins, including the pre-stored proteases in the MC granules. In contrast to CTMCs, MMCs serglycin carries the less negatively charged chondroitin sulfate type GAGs (Enerback *et al.*, 1985). Human MCs can have both heparin as well as chondroitin sulfate GAG chains bound to the serglycin core protein.

Studies in knockout mice have demonstrated that serglycin proteoglycan serve as storage matrices for several of the proteases in the MC secretory granules (Abrink *et al.*, 2004). CTMCs deficient in serglycin proteoglycan have defective staining with cationic dyes and altered storage of a number of granule

compounds including mMCP-4, mMCP-5, mMCP-6, CPA as well as the biogenic amines histamine and serotonin (Ringvall *et al.*, 2008; Braga *et al.*, 2007; Abrink *et al.*, 2004). MCs lacking glucosaminyl N-deacetylase/N-sulfotransferase 2 (NDST2), an enzyme involved in the initial step of heparin sulphation, have altered secretory granule protease storage due to the lack of highly negatively charged heparin (Forsberg *et al.*, 1999; Humphries *et al.*, 1999). Thus, serglycin proteoglycan and negatively charged heparin play a major role in the storage of a number of positively charged MC granule proteins.

Upon MC degranulation, serglycin is exocytosed in complex with compounds dependent on serglycin for storage, as well as with mediators that are independent on serglycin for their storage (figure 5) (Schwartz *et al.*, 1981). Histamine is dependent on serglycin for storage, but detaches from serglycin upon exocytosis because of the increase in pH outside the acidic granules. However, some proteases remain in complex with serglycin proteoglycan after their release, which may promote protease activity by enabling the close proximity of the enzymes with their heparin-binding substrates (Kolset *et al.*, 2004; Pejler & Sadler, 1999). For example, chymase and CPA remain bound to serglycin proteoglycan after degranulation and together may exert their biological functions at the site of MC activation. In addition to the biological functions mediated by serglycin-dependent proteases, serglycin is a ligand for CD44, a transmembrane glycoprotein involved in a number of cellular processes including regulation of growth, differentiation, motility and survival (Toyama-Sorimachi *et al.*, 1995). Other biological roles of serglycin may include protection of the serglycin-interacting proteins against proteolytic degradation, binding of inflammatory compounds as regulators of immune responses and delivering compounds to target cells. The last notion was suggested in cytotoxic T lymphocytes, where granzyme B is released in complex with serglycin proteoglycan and delivered to the target cells to enable subsequent apoptosis (Froelich *et al.*, 1996).

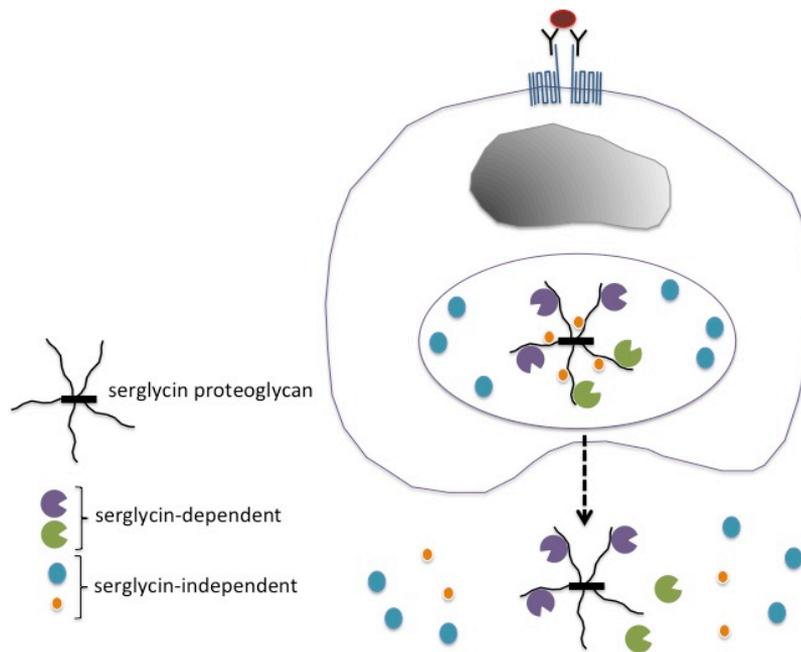


Figure 5. Mast cell granule storage and release of serglycin-dependent and serglycin-independent mediators.

In vivo studies using serglycin-deficient mice reported that *Klebsiella pneumoniae* infection was less effectively cleared in the absence of serglycin proteoglycan (Niemann *et al.*, 2007). This could possibly be explained by the role of serglycin in neutrophil-elastase storage. It has also been shown that serglycin^{-/-} mice show age-related enlargement of lymphoid organs including the spleen, Payer's patches and bronchus-associated lymphoid tissue (Wernersson *et al.*, 2009). This suggests a role for serglycin in maintaining homeostasis of the leukocyte populations, possibly through differentiation and/or apoptosis.

1.8.7 Biogenic amines

The biogenic amine histamine was discovered in the early 1900's and has been associated with many pathological and physiological conditions. For example, histamine mediates inflammation, increases vascular permeability, acts on SMCs, stimulates gastric acid secretion in the gastrointestinal tract and is a neurotransmitter in the CNS (Bachert, 2002). Histamine exerts its effects through the histamine receptors H1, H2, H3 and H4, which belong to the family of G-protein coupled receptors (Haaksma *et al.*, 1990; Hill, 1990).

Drugs targeting histamine receptors have successfully been in use since the 1940s. A number of cells including SMCs and endothelial cells express H1 receptors. The main function of H2 receptors is to stimulate the release of gastric acid. The H3 receptors are primarily expressed in the nervous system. Many hematopoietic cells, including MCs, express the H4 receptor. MCs also express receptors H1 and H2 receptors, and activation of these has an impact on MC mediator release (Lippert *et al.*, 2004).

1.9 *De novo* synthesized mediators

1.9.1 Eicosanoids

In addition to the pre-stored mediators, MCs also *de novo* synthesize a number of inflammatory mediators from the eicosanoid family. MC activation has been shown to generate production of prostaglandin D₂ (PGD₂) leukotriene B₄ (LTB₄) and LTC₄ (Boyce, 2007).

PGD₂, LTB₄ and LTC₄ are all derived from arachidonic acid released from phospholipid cell membranes by phospholipase A (Funk, 2001). The subsequent step in generating PGD₂ is conversion of arachidonic acid to an intermediate, PGH₂, by cyclooxygenase enzymes (COXs). PGH₂ is then converted to PGD₂ by specific synthases. A number of leukocytes act chemotactically to PGD₂ and mouse models of allergic airway inflammation suggest a pathological role for PGD₂ (Honda *et al.*, 2003; Fujitani *et al.*, 2002). In support of this idea, it has been shown that PGD₂ mediates bronchoconstriction via a Gq-coupled thromboxan receptor (Johnston *et al.*, 1992). In human asthmatics, increased levels of PGD₂ have been observed in BAL-fluids (Wenzel *et al.*, 1989). LTB₄ and LTC₄ are synthesized through a pathway in which the first step, arachidonic acid to LTA₄ conversion, is catalyzed by the enzyme 5-lipoxygenase (5-LO) (Malaviya & Jakschik, 1993). LTA₄ can be then be converted to either LTB₄ (by LTA₄-hydrolase) or LTC₄ (by LTC₄ synthase) (Lam *et al.*, 1994; Evans *et al.*, 1985). Both LTB₄ and LTC₄ are released and actively transported from the cell. Extracellularly, LTC₄ is converted to LTD₄ and subsequently LTE₄. Collectively, LTC₄, LTD₄ and LTE₄ are referred to as cysteinyl leukotrienes, where LTE₄ is the least reactive but most stable of the three (Boyce, 2007). Like PGD₂, leukotrienes mediate their biological effects via G-protein coupled receptors. Leukotrienes exert pro-inflammatory properties acting as a chemoattractants on a number of inflammatory cells, including MC progenitors (Weller *et al.*, 2005). Similarly to PGD₂, allergen-challenged asthmatics have increased levels of cysteinyl leukotrienes in their BAL-fluid and cysteinyl leukotrienes mediate contraction

of the bronchi as well as pulmonary vascular smooth muscle (Wenzel *et al.*, 1990; Hanna *et al.*, 1981; Dahlen *et al.*, 1980).

1.9.2 Cytokines and chemokines

MCs are known to produce a number of pro-inflammatory as well as anti-inflammatory cytokines. Different routes of MC activation releases cytokines including IL-1 β , IL-3, IL-4, IL-5, IL-6, IL-9, IL-10, IL-13, IL-33, basic fibroblast growth factor (bFGF)-2, granulocyte-macrophage colony-stimulating factor (GM-CSF) and TGF- β 1 (Ishizuka *et al.*, 1999; Kanbe *et al.*, 1999a; Kanbe *et al.*, 1999b; Qu *et al.*, 1998; Okayama *et al.*, 1995; Razin *et al.*, 1984). The majority of the secreted cytokines are newly synthesized, however, MCs are also capable of pre-storing cytokines in their granules, which was initially shown with tumor necrosis factor α (TNF α) (Walsh *et al.*, 1991; Young *et al.*, 1987). There is also evidence that MCs can store IL-4 (Gibbs *et al.*, 1997), SCF (Zhang *et al.*, 1998), TGF β (Lindstedt *et al.*, 2001) and nerve growth factor (Leon *et al.*, 1994) in their secretory granules. Chemokines belong to a cytokine family of chemotactic proteins that are involved in trafficking and recirculation of various immune cells. They can also stimulate many immune cells including T cells, eosinophils and monocytes to produce cytokines. MCs secrete the chemokine IL-8 that acts to recruit neutrophils (Kasahara *et al.*, 1998). In addition, MCs also express MCP-1 and RANTES that are monocyte/macrophages chemoattractants (Ono *et al.*, 2003).

2 Present investigations

2.1 Aims of the present studies

The general aim has been to evaluate the role of serglycin proteoglycan and MC proteases in allergic disease and apoptosis. Specific attention was paid to the MC chymase, mMCP-4, and its role in allergic airway inflammation. More specifically, this thesis aims to:

- Investigate the role of mMCP-4 in ovalbumin (OVA)-induced allergic airway inflammation (**paper I**).
- Investigate the role of mMCP-4 and evaluate mechanisms by which mMCP-4 regulates airway inflammation induced by house dust mite (HDM)-extract (**paper II**).
- Determine how MC proteases regulate levels of the asthma-related cytokine IL-13 *in vitro* (**paper III**).
- Study the impact of serglycin proteoglycan-associated proteases on apoptosis induced by granule permeabilization (**paper IV**).

2.2 Results and Discussion

In this section, the main results from papers I – IV are summarized.

2.2.1 Paper I: Mouse mast cell protease 4 is the major chymase in murine airways and has a protective role in allergic airway inflammation.

MCs are known to be key effector cells in IgE-associated immune responses e.g. allergy and asthma. Activation of MCs by cross-linking of IgE bound to FcεRI receptors leads to the release of large amounts of newly synthesized and granule-stored pro-inflammatory mediators. These include histamine, serglycin proteoglycan and proteases such as chymases, tryptases and CPA.

The contribution of chymase in the context of allergic asthma is not completely understood. Therefore, defining the role of chymase is important for a deeper understanding of the molecular mechanisms of how MCs contribute to the disease. In paper I, the main aim was to define the role of MC chymase (mMCP-4) in a murine model of allergic airway inflammation.

The selection of a model for studying MCs in allergic airway inflammation is not trivial. Strong immunization protocols, including adjuvants, may diminish the role of MCs. Conversely, weak immunization protocols, using only the allergen for sensitization and provocation, have been shown to reveal a significant role for MCs in the development of allergic airway inflammation (Taube *et al.*, 2004; Kobayashi *et al.*, 2000; Williams & Galli, 2000). Therefore, we decided to use an acute model of allergic airway inflammation with immunizations/provocations with the antigen alone. This model involved seven intra peritoneal (i.p.) immunizations (sensitization) with OVA on day 1, 3, 6, 8, 10, 13 and 15 followed by three intra nasal (i.n.) challenges with OVA on day 31, 34 and 36.

Airway inflammation is a feature of asthma, and this is characterized by infiltration of eosinophils and other inflammatory cells to the airways. In both WT and mMCP-4^{-/-} mice, OVA sensitization and challenge induced a markedly larger number of inflammatory cells in the BAL fluid. Differential count of BAL cells showed an increase mainly in the number of eosinophils, but also the number of lymphocytes and neutrophils. However, there were no significant differences when comparing BAL cells of WT and mMCP-4^{-/-} mice. OVA-induced lung tissue inflammation was seen in both WT and mMCP-4^{-/-} mice. Interestingly, lung tissue inflammation was more pronounced in the

absence of mMCP-4. These data suggests a role for mMCP-4 in regulating tissue inflammation.

Lung function analyses revealed that OVA sensitized/challenged mMCP-4^{-/-} mice exhibited significantly higher average lung resistance (R_L) than corresponding WT mice in response to i.v. methacholine. Neither OVA sensitized/challenged WT mice, nor OVA sensitized control groups showed any AHR. The absence of AHR in OVA sensitized/challenged WT mice could possibly be explained by the use of the known low-responder C57BL/6J strain and weak immunization protocol. These results show that the presence of mMCP-4 protects from development of AHR in this model of allergic airway inflammation.

Genetic inactivation of mMCP-4 leads to a complete loss of chymotryptic activity in the peritoneum and ear tissue (Tchougounova *et al.*, 2003). However, there are several chymases expressed in mice. To further investigate the effect of mMCP-4 on chymotryptic activity in lung tissue we stained sections with the chloroacetate esterase assay. As shown by intense red staining of the MCs, chymotrypsin-like activity was detected in the lungs from WT mice compared to weak staining found in mMCP-4^{-/-} mice. This finding shows that mMCP-4 is the major enzyme with chymotrypsin-like activity in murine lungs.

Airway inflammation in asthmatics may be accompanied by hyperplasia or hypertrophy of the smooth muscle layer in the lungs (Cockcroft & Davis, 2006). Chymase has previously been shown to regulate apoptosis in ASM by a secondary effect of fibronectin degradation (Leskinen *et al.*, 2003). In support of this notion, we detected fibronectin fragments in the lungs from WT, but not in mMCP-4^{-/-} mice. Additionally, chymase has been shown to degrade the pericellular matrix of ASM and inhibit mitogen-induced ASM proliferation (Lazaar *et al.*, 2002). In our model, OVA sensitization/challenge induced an increased ASM thickening in mMCP-4^{-/-} mice but not in the corresponding WT mice, suggesting that mMCP-4 is involved in the regulation of ASM hyperplasia/hypertrophy. We therefore investigated whether mMCP-4 could cleave SMC mitogens. *In vitro* studies showed that mMCP-4 could cleave both platelet derived growth factor (PDGF)-BB and FGF. A possible explanation for the protective role of mMCP-4 in allergic asthma could be via the degradation of SMC mitogens or ECM components. However, the broad substrate specificity for mMCP-4 suggests that other protective mechanisms may also be involved.

To summarize, this study shows that the presence of mMCP-4 has an effect on airway reactivity to methacholine, tissue inflammation and ASM thickening in this model of allergic airway inflammation.

Summary (Paper I)

- Presence of mMCP-4 protected from the development of AHR and tissue inflammation in this OVA-induced model of allergic airway inflammation.
- As shown by chloroacetate esterase staining, mMCP-4 was the major chymotryptic enzyme in the murine airway MCs.
- ASM layer thickening was observed in OVA-sensitized and -challenged mMCP-4^{-/-} mice.

2.2.2 Paper II: Mast cell chymase modulates IL-33 levels and controls allergic sensitization in dust-mite induced airway inflammation.

In paper I, we showed a protective role of the MC chymase, mMCP-4, in an acute model of allergic airway inflammation. However, the mechanism for this finding was not completely clear. Together with the search for the protective properties of mMCP-4 demonstrated in paper I, the objective of this study was also to investigate the role of mMCP-4 in a more chronic and physiologically relevant model of airway inflammation. HDMs are one of the most prominent airborne allergens causing asthma in humans. In murine models, repeated i.n. exposure of HDM generates features of airway inflammation similar to its human counterpart (Fattouh *et al.*, 2005). It has been shown that after continuous exposure to OVA, mice develop tolerance to the allergen rather than show features of chronic airway inflammation. On the other hand, repeated exposure of HDM induces a robust eosinophilic pulmonary inflammation, production of IgE-antibodies as well as airway reactivity to methacholine. Based on this information, we decided to use a HDM-induced model of pulmonary inflammation.

I.n. exposure of HDM-extract twice weekly for three weeks induced BAL and lung tissue eosinophilia, and this was significantly higher in mMCP-4^{-/-} mice. The inflammatory response was accompanied by a significantly higher R_L to inhaled methacholine in these mice. Increased AHR may correlate with ASM hypertrophy and an increase in ASM thickness was found in HDM-treated mMCP-4^{-/-} mice. In agreement with our previous data (paper I), the presence of mMCP-4 limited airway inflammation, AHR and ASM thickening. In this

model mMCP-4 also contributed to the sensitization process, shown by the significantly higher IgE-levels in HDM-treated mMCP-4^{-/-} compared to the corresponding WT mice. *In vitro* re-stimulation of splenocytes with HDM-extract demonstrated an increase in the IL-13 and IL-17A cytokine production, and this increase was more pronounced in mMCP-4^{-/-} mice.

HDM allergens can induce MC activation and degranulation in the absence of allergen-specific antibodies (Machado *et al.*, 1996). In agreement with previous reports, we showed that peritoneal MCs degranulate and release both histamine and β -hexosaminidase in response to HDM-extract. We also found that chymase activity was detected in cultures of HDM-stimulated WT peritoneal cell-derived mast cells (PCMCs), yet almost absent in mMCP-4^{-/-} PCMCs. This shows that mMCP-4 accounts for almost all chymase activity in peritoneal MCs. In murine lungs, the presence of mMCP-4 is essential for detection of chymotrypsin-like activity using the chloroacetate esterase assay (paper I). Together, these findings suggest that mMCP-4 is secreted in murine lungs post HDM-challenge.

Production of T_H2 cytokines is a characteristic of allergic airway responses. As described above, i.n. exposure of HDM-extract induced recruitment of inflammatory cells to the airways of the treated groups, which may be accompanied by increased levels of inflammatory mediators in the lung tissue. Therefore, we measured the levels of different T_H2 cytokines in lung homogenates. We did not detect any significant increases in the levels of T_H2 cytokines IL-5, IL-13 and thymic stromal lymphopietin (TSLP). In contrast, HDM-treated mMCP-4^{-/-} mice exhibited increased levels of IL-33 in the lungs, compared with corresponding WT mice as well as mMCP-4^{-/-} controls. Chymase has relatively broad cleavage specificity and previous studies have shown that chymase can cleave a number of inflammatory mediators, ECM components, lipoproteins and angiotensin I. Our *in vitro* studies revealed that WT PCMCs degrade IL-33 more effectively than mMCP-4^{-/-} PCMCs. Additionally, inhibitory studies showed that IL-33 degradation by PCMCs is blocked by Pefabloc SC, a serine protease inhibitor. These data demonstrate that mMCP-4, together with other serine proteases, contribute to IL-33 degradation *in vitro*.

In conclusion, we propose that the local secretion of mMCP-4 by MCs in response to HDM allergens dampens allergic airway inflammation, possibly through the effects on IL-33. Our results indicate that different MC mediators may have inflammatory or regulatory functions at sites of allergic

inflammation. This may be of clinical interest, in particular for approaches to target specific MC mediators in allergic asthma.

Summary (Paper II)

- Lack of mMCP-4 resulted in a higher R_L to inhaled methacholine in a HDM-model of asthma.
- Recruitment of inflammatory cells to BAL and lung tissue was enhanced in HDM-treated mMCP-4^{-/-} mice.
- Lung tissue levels of IL-33 were enhanced in mMCP-4^{-/-} mice but not in WT mice exposed to HDM-extract.
- *In vitro*, WT PCMCs degraded IL-33 more efficiently than mMCP-4^{-/-} PCMCs and this degradation was blocked by a serine protease inhibitor.

2.2.3 Paper III: Mast cells limit extracellular levels of IL-13 via a serglycin proteoglycan-serine protease axis.

Some cells release pre-stored mediators in response to various stimuli thereby exerting their biological functions. MCs store large amounts of active proteases in their secretory granules. Studies in knockout mice have demonstrated that serglycin proteoglycan is implicated in the storage of several of the MC proteases, e.g. mMCP-4, mMCP-5, mMCP-6 and CPA. Chymase, tryptase and CPA belong to the abundant proteases stored in the MC granules, and may therefore have a large impact on many physiological and pathological processes upon degranulation.

The objective of this study was to investigate whether MCs deficient in serglycin-proteoglycan or in various serglycin-dependent proteases could regulate local levels of IL-13. Peritoneal cells from WT and different knockout strains were cultured *in vitro* in order to generate homogenous populations of MCs (Malbec *et al.*, 2007). Exogenous IL-13 was added to the cultures.

After activation with calcium ionophore, WT MCs reduced the levels of IL-13 in the cell supernatant whereas serglycin^{-/-} MCs totally lacked this ability. Inhibitory studies demonstrated that proteolytic degradation of IL-13 was completely blocked by a serine protease inhibitor. Further inhibitory studies showed that degradation of IL-13 was dependent on the interaction of the serine proteases with heparin, since the heparin antagonist protamine blocked the proteolytic activities of the activated MCs. Additional studies with PCMCs deficient in various proteases revealed that CPA^{-/-} PCMCs were unable to

degrade IL-13. However, cells expressing an inactive form of CPA exhibited IL-13 degradation similar to WT cells. In addition, studies using a metalloprotease inhibitor had no effect on the proteolytic degradation of IL-13. The exact mechanism behind these findings remains intriguing.

The results in this study show that proteolytic degradation of IL-13 by PCMCs is mediated by a serine protease, dependent on serglycin proteoglycan for its storage. Although MCs are mainly considered as effector cells during allergic responses, the present study provides an indication that serglycin-dependent serine proteases in MCs may also have immunomodulatory functions *in vivo*, down-regulating inflammatory responses through degradation of inflammatory cytokines.

Summary (paper III)

- WT PCMCs effectively reduced levels of exogenously added IL-13 *in vitro* after degranulation.
- Degradation of IL-13 by MCs was dependent on the presence of serglycin proteoglycan and CPA.
- Blocking of serine protease activity inhibited proteolytic degradation of IL-13.

2.2.4 Paper IV: A role for serglycin proteoglycan in mast cell apoptosis induced by a secretory granule-mediated pathway.

In this study we investigated the role of serglycin proteoglycan in cell death induced by H-Leu-Leu-OMe (LLME), a lysosomotropic agent shown to mediate apoptosis in a number of hematopoietic cells. Lysosomal membrane permeabilization often leads to apoptosis through the release of lysosomal proteases. This is followed by proteolytic activation of pro-apoptotic compounds as well as degradation of anti-apoptotic molecules. MC granules are similar to lysosomes in terms of membrane composition but also in their storage of large amounts of proteases. Therefore we hypothesized that LLME-treatment of MCs may have an impact on cell death mediated via a lysosome/granule components-pathway.

In order to evaluate how serglycin proteoglycan affects cell death in MCs we cultured bone marrow-derived mast cells (BMMCs) *in vitro*. The fractions of apoptotic and necrotic/late-stage apoptotic cells were determined using staining for annexin V and propidium iodide (PI) respectively. After a 4h incubation

with LLME, at different concentrations, we showed that serglycin-deficient BMMCs were more resistant to apoptosis compared to WT BMMCs. This suggests that serglycin proteoglycan is involved in apoptosis, mediated via a secretory-granule pathway.

Acridine orange, a weak basic dye, is taken up by living cells and accumulates in acidic compartments such as lysosomes and secretory granules. High concentrations of acridine orange give rise to an orange fluorescence, whereas low concentrations yield a green fluorescent signal. To evaluate granule damage by LLME, WT and serglycin^{-/-} BMMCs were stained with acridine orange and their fluorescence was analyzed. WT BMMCs exhibited a reduction in acridine orange staining intensity and cellular decomposition after LLME treatment, whereas serglycin^{-/-} BMMCs showed a markedly reduced susceptibility to LLME treatment. Using a substrate for cysteine cathepsins, we detected protease activity in cytosolic extracts from WT BMMCs after LLME-treatment, but the cleaving activity was minimal in LLME-treated serglycin^{-/-} BMMCs. Inhibitory studies revealed that cysteine cathepsins and serine proteases were released into the cytosol. These data demonstrate that apoptosis induced by LLME mediates the release of proteases into the cytosol and that presence of serglycin is essential for the proteolytic activity. Activation of caspase-3 plays a central role in apoptosis mediated by a number of pathways. Therefore, caspase-3 activity was analyzed in WT and serglycin^{-/-} BMMCs in response to LLME. The WT BMMCs showed a substantial increase in caspase-3 activity, whereas activity in serglycin^{-/-} BMMCs was at base-line levels except for a slight increase in activity at the highest concentrations of LLME.

MC proteases mMCP-4, mMCP-5, mMCP-6 and CPA are dependent on serglycin proteoglycan for storage in the secretory granules. To evaluate if the separate proteases could be involved in apoptosis mediated by secretory granule permeabilization we used knockout mice deficient in either of these proteases to generate BMMCs. These studies revealed that BMMCs deficient in mMCP-4, mMCP-6 or CPA were slightly less susceptible to apoptosis. Therefore, these proteases may account for some of the serglycin-dependent resistance to LLME-induced apoptosis.

This study uncovers the importance of serglycin proteoglycan in a lysosome/secretory granule pathway of apoptosis.

Summary (paper IV)

- Compared to WT BMMCs, serglycin^{-/-} BMMCs were more resistant to apoptosis mediated by LLME and exhibited reduced protease activity in the cytosol as well as caspase-3 activity.
- As shown by inhibitory studies, apoptosis induced by secretory granule damage was dependent on cysteine cathepsins.
- LLME-mediated apoptosis was slightly reduced in BMMCs deficient for the serglycin-dependent proteases mMCP-4, mMCP-6 or CPA, indicating that MC proteases could contribute to the process.

3 Concluding remarks and future perspectives

MCs are key effector cells in allergic reactions but also important players in the innate defense against various pathogens. The striking feature of MCs are their secretory granules densely packed with various pre-formed mediators including proteases and proteoglycans. Large amounts of fully active proteases are released upon degranulation and these may therefore have a profound influence in different settings. The contribution of specific MC proteases remains to be clarified further. Therefore, the use of different knockout strains can contribute to a deeper understanding of the *in vivo* roles of specific proteases.

The first two studies of this thesis have focused on the biological role of MC chymase in allergic asthma. Animal models for human asthma can provide a useful understanding of the molecular mechanisms behind the disease. In the different murine models selected we used OVA or HDM-extract as allergens. Our models mimic several of the features in human allergic asthma, such as AHR, recruitment of eosinophils to the lungs and production of IgE antibodies. We have presented evidence that mMCP-4, the functional homolog to the human chymase, has a protective role in the disease, preventing eosinophilia and AHR, and this could possibly be explained by the defective ability to degrade the pro-inflammatory cytokine IL-33. Taken together, our findings suggest that MCs can possess both detrimental as well as protective properties in the development of allergic airway inflammation. We will continue to investigate the mechanism behind the increased IgE levels in mMCP-4^{-/-} mice after HDM-treatment. It will be of particular interest to study whether chymase affects dendritic cell activation. Since our data provides information that the chymase has a protective role in the development of airway inflammation, it would also be of great interest to study the effects of chymase inhibitors in

these models. Today, guidelines for treatment of asthma mainly involve inhaled glucocorticoids and β_2 -adrenoreceptor agonists. Selective protease inhibitors have been discussed as therapeutic applications. Chymase inhibitors are effective in reducing abdominal aortic aneurism and myocardial infarction (Tsunemi *et al.*, 2004; Hoshino *et al.*, 2003; Jin *et al.*, 2003). However, it is important to keep in mind that the MC proteases may have different roles depending on the physiological context and the aim is not to profoundly interfere with their beneficial functions. From the *in vitro* studies presented in this thesis MCs degrade IL-13, and this is dependent on serglycin proteoglycan. These data indicate a role for serglycin-dependent proteases in controlling extracellular levels of pro-inflammatory cytokines. We will look further into whether this is a specific/selective degradation using other cytokines and chemokines with pro- and anti-inflammatory properties. In summary, unraveling the underlying mechanisms for the protective role of mMCP-4 in allergic airway inflammation will hopefully provide new insights into the roles of MCs and chymase in asthma.

The intracellular proteoglycan serglycin is expressed by many hematopoietic immune cells. In MCs, serglycin proteoglycan is essential for the proper storage of a number of granule-stored mediators including chymase, tryptase and CPA. The *in vitro* studies presented in this thesis suggest a role for serglycin proteoglycan in MC apoptosis mediated by secretory granule damage. Since serglycin proteoglycan is expressed by a number of other hematopoietic cell types it is of interest to study whether serglycin affects apoptosis in for example macrophages, neutrophils or cytotoxic T cells.

The studies included in this thesis will hopefully provide a deeper understanding in some of the roles MCs and MC mediators play in allergic disease and apoptosis.

4 Populärvetenskaplig sammanfattning

Mastcellen är ofta en av de första immuncellerna som kommer i kontakt med de bakterier, virus och allergener vår kropp utsätts för dagligen. De finns rikligt representerade i vår hud och slemhinnor, såsom lungor och mag-tarmkanalen. Mastcellen innehåller en stor mängd sekretoriska vesiklar s.k. granula som vid aktivering kan frisättas och innehållet, bl.a. histamin, proteaser och proteoglykaner utsöndras i den närliggande miljön. Effekterna vid mastcellsaktivering kan vara goda då dess skyddande egenskaper kan eliminera angripande parasiter eller neutralisera toxiner från ormbett, men även skadliga i samband med symptomen som uppstår vid allergiska reaktioner.

Proteaser är en typ av proteiner vars funktion är att klyva olika typer av målmolekyler. Stora mängder, upp emot en tredjedel, av innehållet i granula utgörs av proteaserna kymas, tryptas och karboxypeptidas A. För att proteaserna ska kunna lagras i granula behövs en speciell proteoglykan, serglycin som består av en proteinkärna med flera negativt laddade kolhydratkedjor inbundna. Vid avsaknad av serglycin proteoglykan kan mastcellen i princip inte lagra några proteaser i sina granula.

För att undersöka vilken roll mastcellens kymas har vid allergisk astma har vi använt oss av experimentella musmodeller och genetiskt modifierade möss som med hjälp av knockoutteknologi saknar ett av mössens kymas, mMCP-4. Genom att exponera mössen för allergener från ägg (artikel I) eller kvalster (artikel II) efterliknas de symptom som man ser hos människor med allergisk astma.

Genom att använda allergener från ägg i en experimentell modell för akut luftvägsinflammation (artikel I) kunde vi visa att närvaro av kymas hade en skyddande roll då luftvägsreaktiviteten och inflammationsgraden i lungorna

var högre i mössen som saknade kymas. Vidare undersökning av den underliggande mekanismen visade att kymas kan ha en hämmande effekt på den glatta muskulaturen kring bronkerna.

Sökandet efter mekanismen bakom fyndet med kymas skyddande egenskaper studerades vidare i en mer kronisk experimentell modell för allergisk astma där mössen exponerades för kvalsterextrakt intranasalt (artikel II). Kvalster är luftburna allergener som är välkända för att ge upphov till astma hos människor och är därmed ett mer relevant allergen ur ett fysiologiskt perspektiv. Även i denna modell hade närvaro av kymas en skyddande funktion på luftvägreaktiviteten, inflammationen i lungan samt den glatta muskulaturen kring bronkerna. För att förstå mekanismen bakom dessa fynd analyserade vi proteiner i lungvävnaden. Vi fann att nivåerna av ett immunologiskt signalprotein, interleukin 33, var kraftigt förhöjda i mössen som saknade kymas. Genom vidare studier kunde vi visa att kymas är ett av proteaserna inuti mastceller som bidrar till att klyva sönder interleukin 33. Andra experimentella studier har visat att närvaron av interleukin 33 bidrar till ökad luftvägsreaktivitet och inflammation i luftvägarna hos möss. Nedbrytningen av interleukin 33 av kymas skulle kunna vara en förklaring till de skyddande egenskaper vi fann i våra experimentella modeller av allergisk astma. Det vi visat med våra studier är att trots att det är känt att mastcellen bidrar till patogenesen vid allergisk astma kan den även frisätta specifika ämnen med skyddande egenskaper.

Mastcellens lagrade proteaser har förmågan att klyva olika typer av inflammatoriska proteiner, t.ex. interleukiner. Vi ville i artikel III undersöka förmågan hos mastceller, som saknar proteoglykanen serglycin, att klyva ett interleukin som är viktigt vid utvecklandet av allergier och astma. Dessa studier gjordes på odlade mastceller som ursprungligen togs från genetiskt modifierade möss. Mastcellerna aktiverades i närvaro av interleukin 13 och nivåerna efter aktivering jämfördes med nivåerna från vild-typs (intakta) mastceller. Frånvaron av proteaser i granula gör att mastcellerna inte kan bryta ner interleukin 13. Genom att tillsätta enzymhämmare, som kan blockera olika typer av proteaser, kunde vi visa att klyvningen av interleukin 13 är beroende av s.k. serinproteaser.

I avhandlingens sista studie (artikel IV) undersökte vi hur odlade mastceller som saknar proteoglykanen serglycin påverkas vid inducerad celledöd s.k. apoptos. Ett ämne som tränger in i cellerna och väl inuti permeabiliserar vesiklar, såsom sekretoriska granula och lysosomer, användes för att inducera

apoptos. I denna studie kunde vi visa att serglycin proteoglykan är involverad i programmerad celdöd som inducerats genom intracellulär frisättning av reaktiva ämnen från granula och lysosomer.

Sammanfattning:

- Mastcellen är känd för att bidra till astma, men vi har visat att ett av proteaserna i dess granula, kymas, har skyddande egenskaper vid uppkomsten av allergisk luftvägsinflammation.
- Speciella proteaser som frisätts vid aktivering av mastcellen kan klyva sönder inflammatoriska signalproteiner.
- Mastceller som saknar proteoglykanen serglycin är mindre benägna att genomgå apoptos om den induceras via permeabilisering av intracellulära vesiklar.

Våra upptäckter kan förhoppningsvis bidra till bättre förståelse för mastcellens roll vid allergisk astma. Att förstå mekanismer som reglerar sjukdomsförloppen kan vara viktigt för att utveckla nya behandlingsmetoder.

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