

1 **Title Page**

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4 **Mapping transmembrane residues of Proteinase Activated Receptor 2 (PAR₂)**
5 **that influence ligand-modulated calcium signaling**

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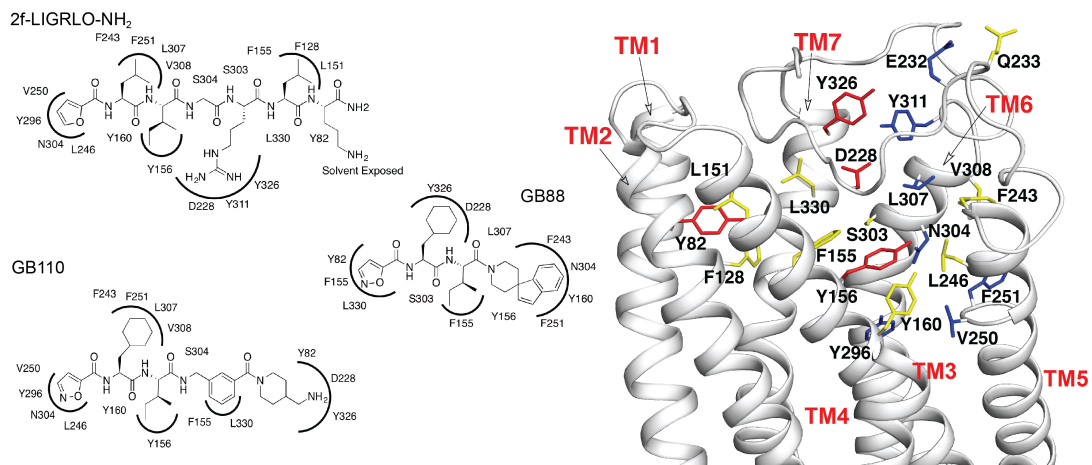
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21 Running Title: Ligand interactions with PAR₂

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24 **Graphical Abstract**
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27

28 **Abstract**

29 Proteinase-activated receptor 2 (PAR₂) is a G protein-coupled receptor involved in
30 metabolism, inflammation, and cancers. It is activated by proteolysis, which exposes a
31 nascent N-terminal sequence that becomes a tethered agonist. Short synthetic peptides
32 corresponding to this sequence also activate PAR₂, while small organic molecules
33 show promising PAR₂ antagonism. Developing PAR₂ ligands into pharmaceuticals is
34 hindered by a lack of knowledge of how synthetic ligands interact with and
35 differentially modulate PAR₂. Guided by PAR₂ homology modeling and ligand
36 docking based on bovine rhodopsin, followed by cross-checking with newer PAR₂
37 models based on ORL-1 and PAR₁, site-directed mutagenesis of PAR₂ was used to
38 investigate the pharmacology of three agonists (two synthetic agonists and trypsin-
39 exposed tethered ligand) and one antagonist for modulation of PAR₂ signaling.
40 Effects of 28 PAR₂ mutations were examined for PAR₂-mediated calcium
41 mobilization and key mutants were selected for measuring ligand binding. Nineteen
42 of twenty-eight PAR₂ mutations reduced the potency of at least one ligand by >10-
43 fold. Key residues mapped predominantly to a cluster in the transmembrane (TM)
44 domain of PAR₂, differentially influence intracellular Ca²⁺ induced by synthetic
45 agonists versus a native agonist, and highlight subtly different TM residues involved
46 in receptor activation. This is the first evidence highlighting the importance of the
47 PAR₂ TM region for receptor activation by synthetic PAR₂ agonists and antagonists.
48 The trypsin-cleaved N-terminus that activates PAR₂ was unaffected by the same
49 residues as synthetic peptides, challenging the widespread practice of substituting
50 peptides for proteases to characterize PAR₂ physiology.

51

52 **Keywords.** PAR₂, protease, agonist, antagonist, mutagenesis, structure

53

54 **Chemical compounds studied in this article**

55 GB88 (PubChem CID: 73755230); GB110 (PubChem CID: 49843508); 2f-LIGRLO-

56 NH₂ (PubChem CID: 10395438)

57

58 **Abbreviations:** CHO-hPAR₂, Chinese Hamster Ovary cells transfected with human
59 PAR₂; EC₅₀, molar concentration that produces 50% of the maximum response of an
60 agonist; ECL2, extracellular loop 2; Fluo-3, {[2-(2-{2-[Bis(carboxymethyl)amino]-5-
61 (2,7-dichloro-6-hydroxy-3-oxo-3*H*-xanthen-9-yl)phenoxy}ethoxy)-4-
62 methylphenyl](carboxymethyl)amino}acetic acid; GB88, 5-isoxazolyl-Cha-Ile-
63 spiroindene-1,4- piperidine; GPCRs, G Protein-Coupled Receptors; G-protein,
64 guanosine monophosphate protein; HBSS, Hank's Balanced Salt Solution; IC₅₀, molar
65 concentration of an antagonist that inhibits 50% of a known concentration of agonist
66 activity; iCa²⁺, intracellular calcium ion; OPLS, Optimized Potentials for Liquid
67 Simulations; PARs, Proteinase-Activated Receptors; pEC₅₀, negative logarithm of
68 EC₅₀; SEM, standard error of the mean; pIC₅₀, negative logarithm of IC₅₀; SEM,
69 standard error of the mean; TM, transmembrane; WT, wild type

70 **Introduction**

71 Proteinase-activated receptors are unique G protein-coupled receptors (GPCRs)
72 in being self-activated following proteolytic action at their extracellular N-terminus
73 by mainly serine proteases (Adams et al., 2011; Dery et al., 1998; Coughlin et al.,
74 2003). This exposes a new N-terminus, the ‘tethered ligand’, which folds back and
75 binds intramolecularly to induce intracellular signaling via poorly understood
76 mechanisms (Barry et al., 2006; Ramachandran et al., 2012). Four PARs have been
77 identified and numbered in order of their discovery (Coughlin et al., 2000).

78 PAR₂ is activated by serine proteases such as trypsin and tryptase but, unlike
79 other PARs, not by thrombin (Adams et al., 2011; Barry et al., 2006; Bohm et al.,
80 1996; Ramachandran et al., 2012). PAR₂ can also be activated by synthetic peptide
81 agonists that mimic the N-terminal sequence of the tethered ligand (e.g. SLIGRL-NH₂
82 (rodent), SLIGKV-NH₂ (human), 2f-LIGRLO-NH₂ (potent derivative), P2pal-18S
83 and 2at-LIGRL-PEG3-hdc (both lipid-tethered derivatives) (Barry et al., 2006;
84 Hollenberg et al., 1997; Maryanoff et al., 2001; Sevigny et al., 2011; Flynn et al.,
85 2013; Boitano et al., 2014) and by small molecule agonists (e.g. AC-55541, AC-
86 264613 (Seitzberg et al., 2008)). Our group has identified two non-peptide ligands
87 that were selective for PAR₂ over PAR₁ and other GPCRs, the agonist GB110 and
88 antagonist GB88 (Barry et al., 2010; Suen et al., 2012, Suen et al., 2014). GB110 had
89 identical agonist potency with 2f-LIGRLO-NH₂ in inducing Ca²⁺ release in multiple
90 cell types. In addition, both GB110 and 2f-LIGRLO-NH₂, as well as proteases like
91 trypsin and tryptase but not thrombin, were inhibited by PAR₂ antagonist GB88. In
92 recent years PAR₂ has been implicated in many *in vitro* and *in vivo* models of
93 inflammatory diseases as well as cancer and metabolic disorders (Adams et al., 2011;
94 Badeanlou et al., 2011; Boitano et al., 2015; Lin et al., 2015; Ramachandran et al.,

95 2012; Shi et al., 2013; Vesey et al., 2013; Yau et al., 2013). The PAR₂-selective
96 antagonist GB88 has shown beneficial effects *in vivo* in rodent models of
97 inflammation including paw odema (Suen et al., 2012; Suen et al., 2014), collagen-
98 induced arthritis (Lohman et al., 2012a), experimental colitis (Lohman et al., 2012b)
99 and diet-induced obesity (Lim et al., 2013).

100 Ligand interactions with PAR₂ have previously been reported to involve the
101 extracellular N-terminus and extracellular loop 2 (ECL2) (Al-Ani et al., 1999;
102 Compton et al., 2000; Compton et al., 2002; Ma et al., 2013). A common
103 polymorphism at position 240 potentiates PAR₂ activation by certain ligands, but not
104 others (Compton et al., 2000; Ma et al., 2013). Also, site-directed mutagenesis
105 indicated that by removing the glycosylation site of rat PAR2 ECL2 by mutating
106 N222A reduced sensitivity to both trypsin and PAR₂ activating peptide (Compton et
107 al., 2002). Mutations at positions 231-233 reportedly reduce agonist potency by ≤
108 100-fold (Al-Ani et al., 1999). Each of these studies focused on the ECLs but did not
109 examine a role for residues within the transmembrane (TM) domain of PAR₂.

110 As crystal structures for class A GPCRs human A2A, turkey β1 and human
111 P2Y₁₂ (Warne et al., 2011; Xu et al., 2011; Zhang et al., 2014) show extensive
112 interactions between a bound agonist and residues in TM regions, we hypothesized
113 the TM region of PAR2 is important in influencing ligand-induced receptor
114 activation. Based on a homology structural model of PAR₂ (Fig. 1) derived by
115 sequence alignment with a crystallographically characterized GPCR, 28 PAR₂
116 mutants were constructed to investigate whether specific amino acids in the receptor
117 affected PAR₂ activation by endogenous (trypsin induced) and synthetic agonists (2f-
118 LIGRLO-NH₂ and GB110). 2f-LIGRLO-NH₂ was selected as the most commonly
119 used peptide agonist for PAR2, while GB110 was selected as a potent non-peptidic

120 agonist and we have previously studied this agonist in detail.REF We also selected
121 antagonist GB88 due to its reported antagonist properties both *in vitro* and *in*
122 *vivo*.REF The effect of each PAR₂ mutation on ligand-induced downstream signaling
123 was assessed to elucidate the impact of these residues on PAR₂ activation. Herein, a
124 cluster or ‘hot spot’ of receptor residues that affect the activation of PAR₂ by the
125 tested ligands has been identified. Whether other structurally diverse PAR₂ agonists
126 or antagonists are affected by similar ‘hot spot’ residues remains to be determined,
127 but this study provides valuable new insights for rational design of future PAR₂
128 agonists and antagonists. These prospective drugs might be used to selectively
129 modulate PAR₂-mediated signaling and influence the pathophysiological function of
130 PAR₂ in disease.

131

132 **Methods**

133 *Sequence alignment of human PAR₂ with bovine rhodopsin crystal structure (pdb:*
134 *1U19) and Homology Modeling*

135 The human PAR₂ sequence obtained from Swiss-Prot (accession number P55085)
136 was aligned with the bovine rhodopsin crystal structure (pdb: 1U19, monomer)
137 sequence using the PAM-250 matrix, which aligns the sequence based on
138 conservation of charged, bulky aliphatic, or aromatic residues. Alignment was refined
139 manually by examining structurally conserved regions and assessing likely TM
140 regions using the approach of Bissantz et al (Bissantz et al., 2003). The seven TM
141 helices were identified based on conserved residues in each putative TM helix. The
142 alignment was used to develop coordinates for TM regions using ModellerTM, with a
143 disulfide bond constraint between C148 (TM3) and C226 (ECL2). Loop regions were
144 developed using ModellerTM and the rhodopsin template. The model was refined to

145 remove steric clashes by a minor modification of the minimisation and molecular
146 dynamics protocol above (the Newton minimisation algorithm was not performed
147 because of the large number of atoms). In this minimisation protocol, TM backbone
148 atoms were kept tethered to maintain TM helicity. The resulting conformation was
149 used for ligand docking.

150

151 *Homology Modeling based on nociceptin/orphanin FQ/ORL-1 receptor (pdb: 4EA3,*
152 *TM sequence identity = 29%) and PAR₁ (pdb: 3VW7, TM sequence identity = 44%)*

153 Modeller 9v10 (Sali and Blundell 1993) was used to build homology models
154 of PAR₂ based on ORL-1 and PAR₁ crystal structures, after aligning the PAR₂
155 sequence with the templates using Jalview (Waterhouse et al., 2009). The models with
156 the lowest discrete optimization protein energy (DOPE) score were further optimized
157 for the ECL2 loop refinement in Prime (version 3.1, Schrödinger, LLC, New York,
158 NY, 2012) using the truncated-Newton energy minimization (OPLS_2005 force field
159 with restrained helical backbone). The final models were refined using the protein
160 preparation wizard in Schrödinger to optimize hydrogen bond networks and for a
161 restrained energy minimization (OPLS_2005 force field and heavy atom movement
162 <0.5 Å).

163

164 *Ligand docking*

165 All ligands were constructed in 2D sdf format using ChemDraw. Conversion
166 from 2D into 3D co-ordinates was performed using LigPrep in Maestro
167 (Schrödinger). OPLS (Optimized Potentials for Liquid Simulations) force field was
168 applied during ligand structural optimization and the protonation status of ligands was
169 set for physiological conditions. Ligand docking was performed using GOLD (ccdc

170 v3.2) with default docking settings. GOLD applies a genetic algorithm during docking
171 simulation and each ligand conformation is encoded analogously as evolution of a
172 population of possible solutions via genetic operators to a final population. A radius
173 of 10Å around residue F300 or F6.48 (Ballesteros Weinstein numbering scheme)
174 (Ballesteros and Weinstein, 1995) was defined as the putative ligand-binding site.
175 Ligands were docked in 10 independent poses (population size 100). Operator
176 weights for mutations, migration and crossover were 95, 10 and 95 respectively. To
177 account for partial flexibility of PAR₂, residues (F243, F155, F300, Y156, M159,
178 L307, L330, D228, F251, L246) were defined and allowed to move according to the
179 Chi rotamer library developed in the docking run (Lovell et al., 2000). Docked poses
180 were ranked using the internal Gold score (Jones et al., 1997) and manual inspection
181 of interactions with receptor. Final analysis and visualisation of protein-ligand
182 interactions were performed using Pymol. To cross-check the results from the
183 Rhodopsin-derived PAR₂ model, the ligands were also subsequently docked into
184 PAR₂ homology models built from ORL-1 and PAR₁ crystal structures. The PAR₂
185 homology structures and ligand docking protocols using these models are detailed
186 elsewhere (Perry et al, 2015).

187

188 *Cell culture and reagents*

189 Cell culture reagents were purchased from Invitrogen (Carlsbad, CA) and Sigma
190 Aldrich (St. Louis, MO). Flp-In Chinese Hamster Ovary (CHO)-K1 cells (Invitrogen)
191 were maintained in Ham's F12 media containing 10% FBS and 2 mM L-glutamine in
192 5% CO₂ at 37 °C. PAR₂ peptide agonist (2f-LIGRLO-NH₂), non-peptide agonist
193 (GB110) and non-peptide antagonist (GB88) were synthesized in-house (Barry et al.,
194 2010). A23187 was purchased from Sigma-Aldrich, Fluo-3 AM and Pluronic F127

195 from Sapphire Bioscience (NSW, Australia), and assay plates from Corning (New
196 York, NY).

197

198 *Vector construction and transfection*

199 cDNA encoding human PAR₂ with a C-terminal FLAG epitope (DYKDDDDK)
200 was subcloned into a pcDNA5/FRT vector (Life technologies/invitrogen) using a
201 BamHI restriction enzyme site. Site directed mutagenesis was performed using a
202 QuickChange kit (Stratagene) according to manufacturer's instructions to generate
203 individual receptor mutants (Table 1). Primer sequences are available upon request.
204 All constructs were sequenced at the Australian Genomic Research Facility (St Lucia,
205 Australia). Stably expressing cells were generated following manufacturer's
206 instructions. PAR₂-pcDNA5/FRT constructs were cotransfected with Flp-recombinase
207 expression vector pOG44 (1:9 pcDNA5/FRT:pOG44) into Flp-In CHO-K1 cells using
208 Lipofectamine 2000. Stable polyclonal populations of transfected cells were selected
209 in media containing 600 µg/mL hygromycin B.

210

211 *Crude membrane preparation and Western blot analysis*

212 Expression of wildtype and each PAR₂ mutant was assessed as described (Adams
213 et al., 2011; Adams et al., 2012). Crude membrane preparations were collected by
214 isotonic cell shock and mechanical disruption followed by ultracentrifugation
215 (100,000 g for 60 min at 4 °C) to pellet the membrane fraction. Fractions were
216 resuspended in lysis buffer (50 mM Tris pH 7.4, 150 mM NaCl, 5 mM EDTA, 1%
217 Triton X-100 (v/v) and 1× protease inhibitor cocktail (Roche)) before quantification
218 using a BCA assay kit from Pierce (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Scoresby, Australia).
219 Equal amounts of membrane fractions were separated by SDS-PAGE and transferred

220 to nitrocellulose membrane. Membranes blocked in Odyssey blocking solution from
221 LiCor (Millennium Science, Surrey Hills, Australia) were incubated with goat anti-
222 PAR₂ N19 (Santa Cruz) and mouse anti-Pan Cadherin (Millipore) antibodies
223 overnight at 4 °C. Membranes were washed and incubated with species appropriate
224 IRdye 700 or 800 secondary antibodies at ambient temperature for 45 min before
225 washing to minimize non-specific signals followed by scanning on an Odyssey
226 infrared imaging system (LiCor).

227

228 *Flow cytometry analysis*

229 Cell surface expression of wildtype and each PAR₂ mutant was assessed as
230 described (Adams et al., 2012). Cells (2.5×10^5) dissociated non-enzymatically from
231 cell culture flasks were washed and stained with goat anti-PAR₂ N19 antibody (2 µg /
232 1×10^6 cells) in buffer (2% BSA in PBS) for 30 min at 4°C. Cells were washed and
233 stained with AlexaFluor 488-conjugated donkey anti-goat secondary antibody before
234 analysis on a Beckman Coulter FC500 flow cytometer. Events were counted (20,000)
235 and mean fluorescence intensity (MFI) was used to assess cell surface PAR₂ after
236 subtracting MFI values from cells incubated only with secondary antibody.
237 Competitive ligand binding and calcium mobilization assays are well established
238 methods reported in Supporting Material.

239

240 *Competitive binding assay*

241 Assays were performed as described (Hoffman et al., 2012). Cells were seeded
242 overnight in a 384-well plate at a density of 24000 cells per well. On the day of
243 experiment, media was aspirated and cells were washed with PBS followed by 2%
244 BSA blocking for 1h at 37°C. After blocking, cells were simultaneously exposed to

245 concentrations of 2f-LIGRLO(dtpa)-NH₂ and 2f-LIGRLO-NH₂ (100 μM) for 15 min.
246 Cells were washed thrice with PBS supplemented with 20 μM EDTA, 0.01% Tween
247 and 0.2% BSA. After washings, cells were incubated with 40 μl of DELFIA
248 enhancement solution (Perkin Elmer) for 90 min. Fluorescence was determined with
249 TRF analysis (Pherastar FS, BMG Labtech): 340 nm excitation followed by 400 μs
250 delay before a 400 μs 615 nm emission.

251

252 *Intracellular calcium mobilization*

253 Cells were grown to 80% confluence. Prior to experiment, cells were seeded
254 overnight in 96-well black wall, clear bottom, plates at $\sim 5 \times 10^4$ cells per well. On the
255 day of the experiment, supernatant was removed and cells were incubated in dye
256 loading buffer (Hank's Balanced Salt Solution (HBSS) with 4 μM Fluo-3, 0.04%
257 pluronic acid, 1% fetal bovine serum (FBS) and 2.5 mM probenecid) for 1 h at 37 °C.
258 Cells were washed twice with HBSS and transferred to a FLIPR Tetra plate reader
259 (Molecular Device, Sunnyvale CA) for agonist injection and fluorescence
260 measurements. PAR₂ agonists were added 10 s after reading commenced at various
261 concentrations and fluorescence was measured in real time using excitation 480 nm
262 and emission 520 nm. HBSS was prepared in-house, all other reagents were from
263 Invitrogen (Carlsbad), plates from Corning. Calcimycin (A23187, Sigma Aldrich)
264 was used to measure maximum fluorescence, with individual results normalized
265 accordingly.

266

267 *Statistical analysis*

268 Data were analyzed in GraphPad Prism (GraphPad Software, San Diego, CA)
269 using ANOVA or Student's t-test with values as mean \pm SEM (n \geq 3). Data are

270 presented as the mean of the entire data set. Significance was determined by
271 $P < 0.05$. When plotted in concentration-response curve, intracellular Ca^{2+} response
272 was normalized against highest concentration of respective agonist in CHO-
273 hPAR₂WT. Concentration-response curves were fitted in GraphPad Prism with a
274 standard Hill slope of 1 (three-parameter fit).

275

276

277 **Results**

278 *Homology Structural Models of PAR₂*

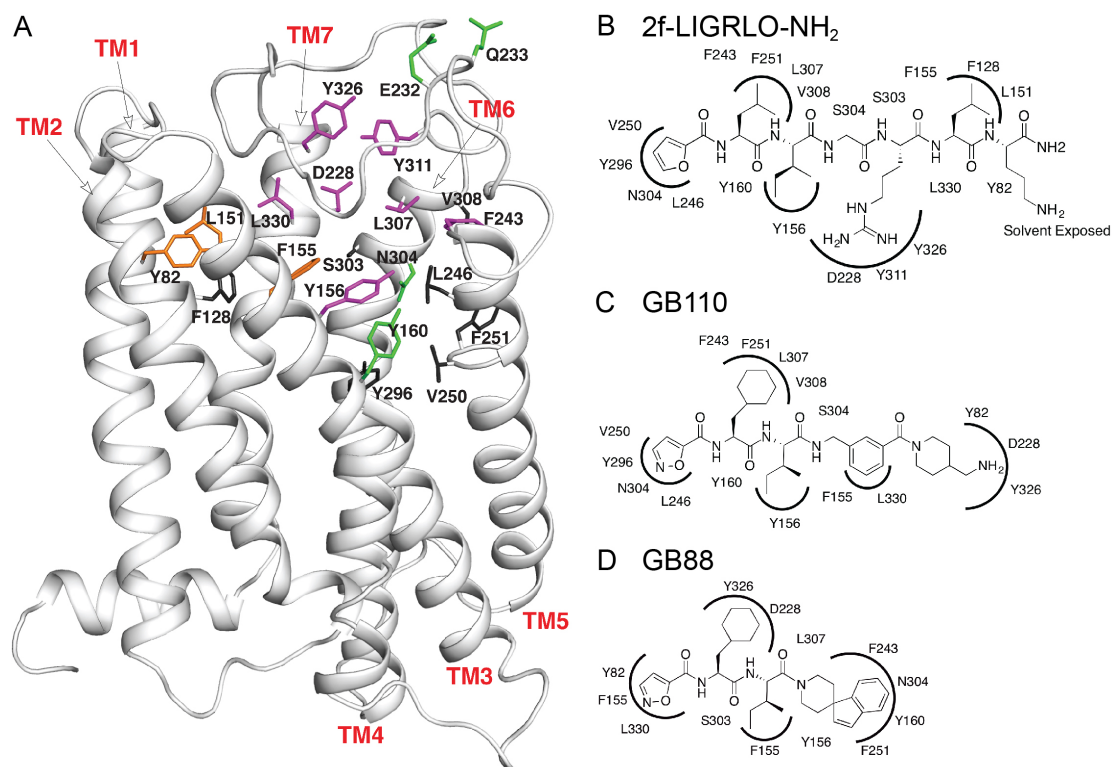
279 A PAR₂ structural homology model was generated by sequence alignment of
280 human PAR₂ to the crystal structure of bovine rhodopsin (pdb: 1U19; Palczewski et
281 al., 2000), at a time when this was the only reported GPCR crystal structure. The
282 PAR₂ homology model was submitted to SwissModel portal
283 (<http://swissmodel.expasy.org/>) for quality and stereochemical properties check. The
284 assessment of model quality-related parameters (such as Qmean6 score, dfire energy
285 and Ramachandran statistics) were compared with the original crystal structure of the
286 bovine rhodopsin (1U19). The PAR₂ homology model gave a RMSD value of 0.37
287 compared to the bovine rhodopsin. Qmean6 score (PAR₂ 0.41, Rhodopsin 0.40) is a
288 linear combination of six structural descriptors and a higher Qmean6 (range between
289 0 and 1) reflects strong reliability of the model. DFire (PAR₂ -465.5; Rhodopsin -
290 557.8) is an all-atom statistical potential term used to assess non-bonded atomic
291 interactions in the protein model. The homology model of PAR₂ produced comparable
292 scores for these two components, relative to the template from which they were
293 constructed. Furthermore, all residues in the rhodopsin based homology model were
294 located in the favored and allowed ϕ - ψ regions from the Ramachandran plot analysis,
295 suggesting that the constructed homology model was both energetically and
296 stereochemically reliable.

297

298 *In silico docking of three ligands in a PAR₂ homology structural model*

299 Interactions between PAR₂ and three synthetic ligands were examined *in silico*
300 (Fig. 1A). Synthetic ligands used *in silico* were the two PAR₂ agonists, 2f-LIGRLO-
301 NH₂ (Kanke et al., 2005; McGuire et al., 2004) and GB110 (Barry et al., 2010), as

302 well as the PAR₂ antagonist GB88 (Suen et al., 2012) (Fig. 1B-D). All three ligands
 303 were also experimentally assessed in an intracellular calcium mobilization assay.
 304



305
 306 **FIGURE 1.** Putative ligand-receptor interactions. (A) 2f-LIGRLO-NH₂, GB110, and
 307 GB88 were each docked into a homology structural model of PAR₂ generated from
 308 the crystal structure of bovine rhodopsin. The docking result was then cross-checked
 309 by docking into PAR₂ models generated from ORL-1 and PAR₁. Residues are colored
 310 according to their importance in the three models (magenta, RHO/ORL-1/PAR₁), two
 311 models (orange, RHO/ORL-1; green, RHO/PAR₁) or the RHO model only (black).
 312 (B-D) Residues predicted to mediate PAR₂ interaction with (B) 2f-LIGRLO-NH₂, (C)
 313 GB110, and (D) GB88.

314

315 Modeling predicted that both agonists would occupy a similar binding region
 316 within the TM domain of PAR₂. 2f-LIGRL-NH₂ rather than 2f-LIGRLO-NH₂ was

317 docked since the ornithine does not contribute significantly to agonist potency and
318 can confound docking orientations due to its charged sidechain finding alternative
319 binding sites on its own (Kanke et al., 2005; McGuire et al., 2004). The similar
320 components of 2f-LIGRLO-NH₂ and GB110 (2-furoyl vs isoxazole, Leu vs Cha, Ile
321 vs Ile) were predicted to dock into pockets formed by TM3 (Y156, Y160), TM5
322 (F243, L246, V250) and TM6 (N304, L307, V308) (Fig. 1B,C). The other ligand
323 components were predicted to orient slightly differently for the two agonists. R4 in
324 2f-LIGRLO-NH₂ was predicted to orient towards residues at the top of TM6 (Y311)
325 and TM7 (Y326) as well as ECL2 (D228) (Fig. 1B). However, the terminal
326 aminomethyl piperidine group of GB110 was predicted to project between TM2
327 (Y82) and TM7 (L330) (Fig. 1C). The antagonist GB88 docked in a similar binding
328 site, but its orientation was reversed with the isoxazole in a small pocket formed by
329 Y82, F155 and L330 (Fig. 1D). Its cyclohexylalanine oriented into space between
330 TM6 (Y307) and TM7 (Y326), while isoleucine oriented towards F155. The bulky
331 spiroindene-piperidine occupied a hydrophobic site surrounded by Y156, Y160, F243,
332 F251 and N304 (Fig. 1D). These predicted sites suggested a cluster of amino acids
333 within the TM region of PAR₂ that might be expected to influence ligand potencies
334 and efficacies.

335 Following completion of this study, crystal structures of human
336 nociceptin/orphan FQ receptor (4EA3) (Thompson et al., 2012) and the antagonist
337 bound PAR₁ receptor (3VW7) (Zhang et al., 2012) provided alternative templates for
338 also constructing homology models of PAR₂. When the above ligands were docked
339 into either of these new models of PAR₂ based on the different template crystal
340 structures, the key residues inferred from the rhodopsin-based model of PAR₂ (Y82,
341 L151, F155, Y156, F243, L307, Y311, Y326, L330) were also found in the ORL-1

342 derived model of PAR₂, while Y156, Y160, E232, F243, L307, Y311, Y326, L330
343 were also found in the PAR₁-based model of PAR₂. In particular, both models
344 predicted 2f-LIGRLO-NH₂ to make several polar interactions with residues Y311,
345 D228^{ECL2}, whereas Y156 from the ORL-1 model was also predicted to form polar
346 contact with the ligand. The rest of the residues were mainly predicted to contribute to
347 hydrophobic and aromatic interactions. The major difference seen was the position of
348 the 2f group, which was docked within a pocket between TM2 and TM7 in the ORL-1
349 based model, while in the PAR₁ based model this group was docked between TM5
350 and TM6 (Perry et al., 2015). Of the residues shown ahead to cause >30-fold
351 reduction in receptor activation, only Y296 and N304 were not predicted from the
352 new homology models of PAR₂. Interestingly, those two residues are the deepest in
353 the TM 7-helix bundle and might be indirectly impacted through knock-on or
354 conformational changes during receptor activation. The new models of PAR₂ thus
355 supported the above predictions based on the bovine rhodopsin derived PAR₂
356 homology structure, while presenting some new clues for further refinement of the
357 PAR₂ model.

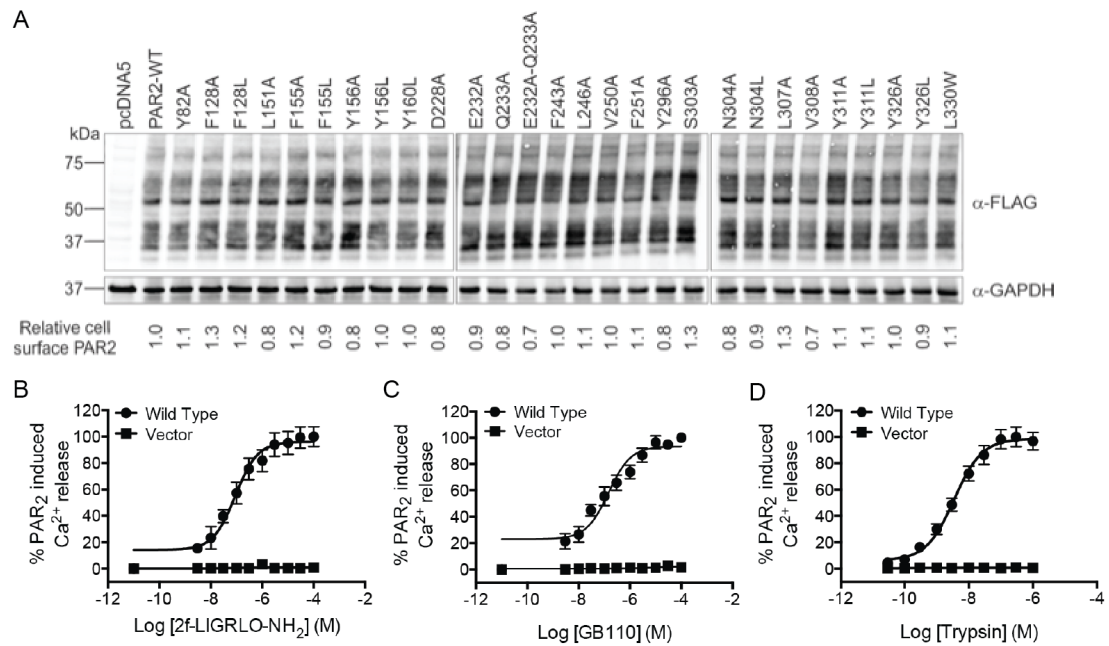
358 Based on these predicted ligand-binding sites, 18 PAR₂ TM residues (Y82, F128,
359 L151, F155, Y156, Y160, F243, L246, V250, F251, Y296, S303, N304, L307, Y308,
360 Y311, Y326, L330) and an ECL2 residue (D228) were chosen for mutagenesis to
361 investigate the experimental effect of these mutations on ligand-induced downstream
362 signaling. Two additional ECL2 residues, E232 and Q233, were also selected for
363 mutation on the basis of previous studies (Al-Ani et al., 1999), giving a total of 21
364 amino acids to be mutated. Fig. 1 displays these residues revealing where they cluster
365 within or near the TM region of PAR₂, thereby forming putative ‘hot spots’ in PAR₂
366 that might dictate agonist and antagonist ligand activity.

367

368 *Mutation of PAR₂ in stably expressing cell lines*

369 Site directed mutagenesis generated expression constructs encoding the relevant
370 amino acid mutated to alanine (Y82, L151, D228, E232, Q233, F243, L246, V250,
371 F251, Y296, S303, L307, Y308), chosen to inform the importance of larger sidechains
372 for space-filling; to leucine (Y160) or tryptophan (L330), to test the importance of
373 aromaticity; or with 6 residues mutated to both small alanine and bulkier hydrophobic
374 leucine (F128, F155, Y156, N304, Y311, Y326). A construct encoding the double
375 mutant E322A/Q233A was also generated to allow comparison with a previous study
376 on rat PAR₂ (Al-Ani et al., 1999) to give a total of 28 PAR₂ mutant expression
377 constructs. To examine the impact of these mutations on ligand-induced signaling,
378 CHO-K1 cells were generated that stably expressed each of the 28 mutants or
379 wildtype PAR₂. The impact of each mutation on structural integrity of PAR₂ and its
380 cell surface expression was assessed using Western blot and flow cytometry. Western
381 blot analysis revealed that each PAR₂ was expressed at consistent levels as a
382 characteristic ladder of bands from ~30-80 kDa (Fig. 2A, upper panel), as described
383 (Adams et al., 2012). Similarly, flow cytometry demonstrated that cell surface
384 expression was comparable for wildtype and each mutant PAR₂ (Fig. 2A, lower
385 panel). These data indicated structural integrity and PAR₂ surface expression on
386 CHO-K1 cells. Importantly, cells transfected with vector failed to produce any
387 significant signal in response to synthetic agonists 2f-LIGRLO-NH₂ and GB110 or
388 tethered ligand formed by trypsin cleavage, in contrast with cells transfected with
389 wildtype PAR₂ (Fig. 2B-D). This indicates that calcium mobilization in transfected
390 cells was PAR₂ mediated.

391



392

393 **FIGURE 2.** PAR₂ expression and activation. (A) Expression and cell surface levels
 394 of wild type and mutant PAR₂ in CHO-K1 cells. *Upper:* Western blot analysis,
 395 performed on equal amounts of crude membrane preparations using an anti-Flag
 396 antibody, shows that PAR₂ wildtype and mutants were expressed at similar levels.
 397 *Lower:* Flow cytometry analysis on non-permeabilized cells using anti-PAR₂ N19
 398 antibody confirmed that wildtype and PAR₂ mutants were expressed at the cell
 399 surface. Levels ranged within +/- 10% of the wildtype receptor for 15 of the mutants
 400 with another 8 within +/- 20%. Cell surface levels of PAR₂-F128A, E232A-Q233A,
 401 S303A, L307A and V308A were within +/- 30% of wildtype PAR₂. (B-D):
 402 Intracellular Ca²⁺ mobilization by PAR₂ agonists in CHO-PAR₂ wild type vs CHO-
 403 hPAR₂ empty vector. All three agonists (B, 2f-LIGRLO-NH₂; C, GB110; D, Trypsin)
 404 stimulated intracellular calcium release in CHO cells transfected with wild type PAR₂
 405 (circle) but failed to induced any response in CHO cells transfected with empty vector
 406 (square). Data points = means of 3 experiments in triplicates (n=3), bars = S.E.

407

408

409 *Effect of PAR₂ mutations on synthetic agonist potencies*

410 The real impact of PAR₂ mutations on signaling was experimentally assessed by
 411 intracellular calcium release induced by escalating doses of 2f-LIGRLO-NH₂ and
 412 GB110. The pEC₅₀ and fold changes relative to wildtype PAR₂ are shown in Table 1.
 413 Four mutations induced enormous reductions (>100 fold) in ligand potencies, three
 414 located in the TM domain (Y82A, Y156A, Y326A) and the fourth in ECL2 (D228A)
 415 (Table 1). All four mutations had similar effects on potency of both agonists 2f-
 416 LIGRLO-NH₂ and GB110 (Fig. 3A-D). Six other TM mutations (Y156L, F251A,
 417 Y296A, N304A, N304L, Y311A) along with ECL2 mutation E232A also induced
 418 substantial (>10 fold) reductions in signaling by both agonists (Table 1). Overall, 19
 419 of 28 mutant PAR₂ cell lines revealed ≥10 fold attenuation in activity for at least one
 420 agonist (Fig. 3E). When analyzed by scatter plot, there was a high correlation between
 421 mutation-induced fold changes in activity of 2f-LIGRLO-NH₂ versus GB110 (Fig.
 422 3F), indicating that these ligands were affected by a similar set of residues of PAR₂.

Table 1 Effect of PAR₂ mutations on potencies of agonists inducing Ca²⁺ release in PAR₂ expressing CHO-K1 cells

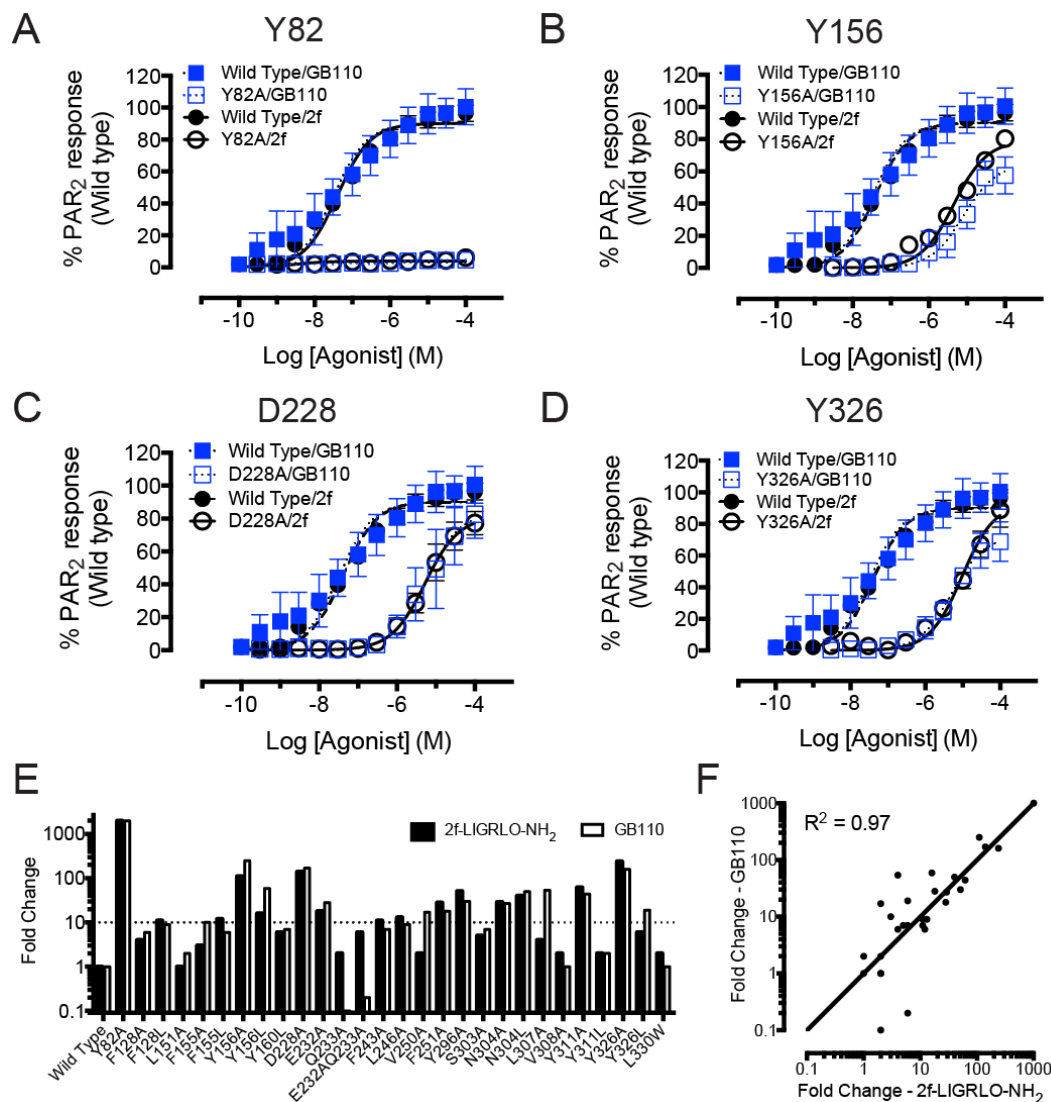
PAR ₂ Mutation	2f-LIGRLO-NH ₂ (n=4)		GB110 (n=4)		Trypsin (n=4)	
	pEC ₅₀	Fold	pEC ₅₀	Fold	pEC ₅₀	Fold
Wild Type	7.4 ± 0.2		7.5 ± 0.1		8.7 ± 0.1	
Vector	inactive		inactive		inactive	
Y82A	< 4	>2000	< 4	>2000	7.6 ± 0.4	13
F128A	6.8 ± 0.2	4	6.7 ± 0.3	6	8.1 ± 0.2	4
F128L	6.4 ± 0.1	11	6.5 ± 0.2	9	8.5 ± 0.2	1
L151A	7.3 ± 0.2	1	7.2 ± 0.5	2	8.3 ± 0.1	3
F155A	7.0 ± 0.3	3	6.5 ± 0.2	10	8.2 ± 0.2	3
F155L	6.3 ± 0.1	12	6.7 ± 0.1	6	8.3 ± 0.3	2
Y156A	5.3 ± 0.2	110	5.1 ± 0.2	250	7.9 ± 0.1	6
Y156L	6.2 ± 0.1	16	5.7 ± 0.2	59	8.0 ± 0.1	5
Y160L	6.6 ± 0.2	6	6.6 ± 0.2	7	7.8 ± 0.1	8
D228A	5.3 ± 0.2	140	5.3 ± 0.2	170	7.8 ± 0.2	7
E232A	6.1 ± 0.4	18	6.1 ± 0.3	28	7.9 ± 0.1	7

Q233A	7.2 ± 0.1	2	8.5 ± 0.2	0.1	8.2 ± 0.1	3
E232AQ233A	6.6 ± 0.1	6	8.2 ± 0.1	0.2	8.5 ± 0.1	2
F243A	6.4 ± 0.2	11	6.7 ± 0.2	7	8.5 ± 0.2	2
L246A	6.3 ± 0.2	13	6.5 ± 0.1	9	8.0 ± 0.2	4
V250A	7.2 ± 0.3	2	6.3 ± 0.4	17	8.3 ± 0.2	2
F251A	5.9 ± 0.1	28	6.2 ± 0.1	18	8.0 ± 0.2	5
Y296A	5.7 ± 0.2	51	6.0 ± 0.2	30	7.5 ± 0.1	17
S303A	6.7 ± 0.3	5	6.6 ± 0.2	7	8.4 ± 0.2	2
N304A	5.9 ± 0.1	29	6.1 ± 0.2	27	7.6 ± 0.2	12
N304L	5.8 ± 0.1	40	5.8 ± 0.1	50	7.1 ± 0.1	37
L307A	6.8 ± 0.2	4	5.8 ± 0.1	54	8.4 ± 0.2	2
V308A	7.2 ± 0.3	2	7.4 ± 0.2	1	8.4 ± 0.2	2
Y311A	5.6 ± 0.1	62	5.8 ± 0.1	44	8.2 ± 0.1	3
Y311L	7.0 ± 0.2	2	7.3 ± 0.3	2	8.0 ± 0.1	5
Y326A	5.0 ± 0.2	240	5.3 ± 0.1	160	7.8 ± 0.2	7
Y326L	6.7 ± 0.2	6	6.2 ± 0.1	19	7.9 ± 0.1	5
L330W	7.2 ± 0.3	2	7.3 ± 0.3	1	8.2 ± 0.2	3

n = number of independent experiments

pEC₅₀ = -log(EC₅₀)

pEC₅₀ ± S.D., Fold Change = EC₅₀ Mutant/EC₅₀ Wild Type



423

424 **FIGURE 3.** Concentration response curves of 2f-LIGRLO-NH₂ and GB110 on
 425 various PAR₂ mutants. Intracellular calcium release induced by PAR₂ activation was
 426 plotted against various concentrations of 2f-LIGRLO-NH₂ (black) and GB110 (blue).

427 (A-D) Mutations (A, Y82A; B, Y156A; C, D228; D, Y326A) have similar effects on
 428 both PAR₂ agonists. Data points = means of 3 experiments in triplicates (n=3), bars =

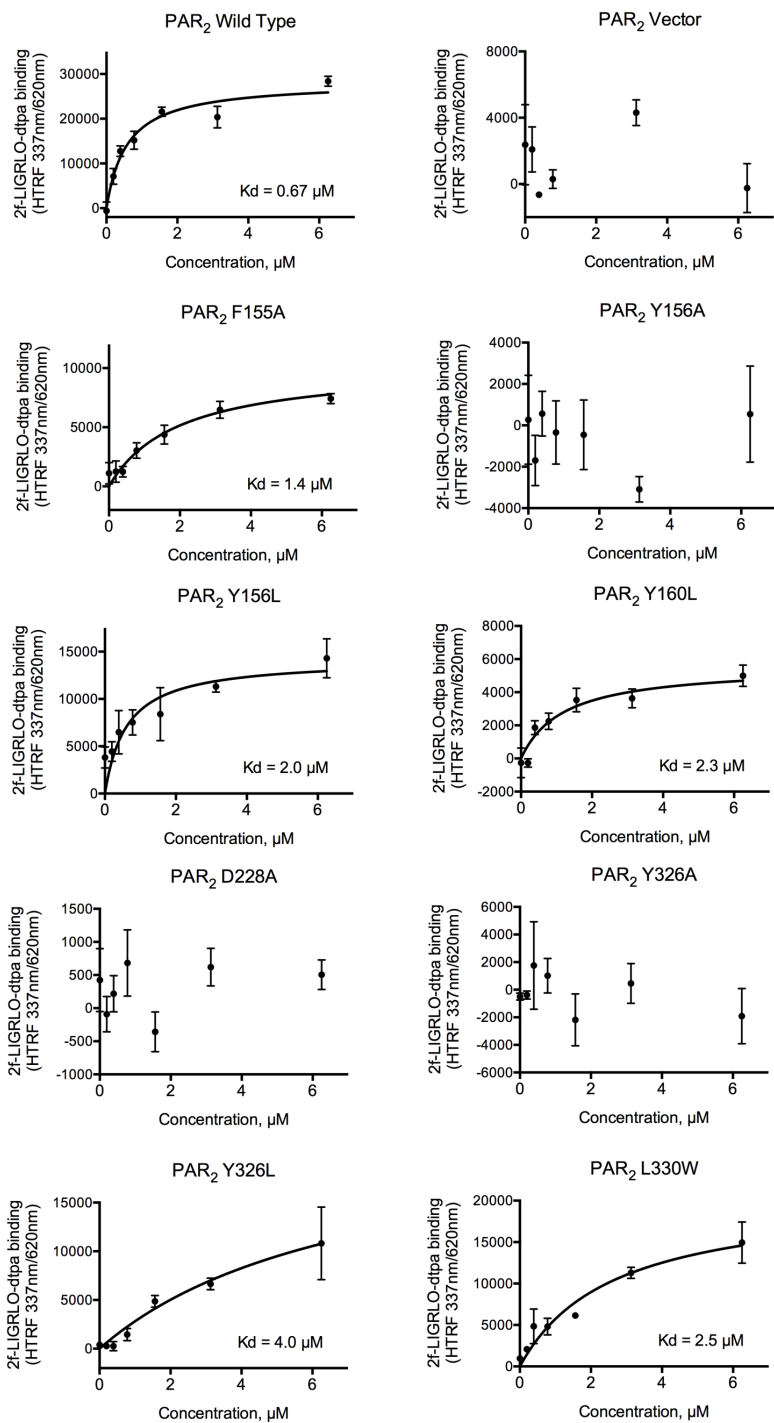
429 S.E. (E,F) Summary of influences of PAR₂ residues on synthetic agonist potencies of
 430 2f-LIGRLO-NH₂ vs GB110. (E) Effect of mutation on agonist potencies. Fold

431 changes calculated by EC₅₀ of PAR₂ mutant over EC₅₀ of PAR₂ wild type (WT). (F)

432 Correlation study of effects of mutation on agonist potencies. R² = 0.97.

433

434 CHO cells expressed with wild type or vectors only or 8 mutated PAR₂ were
435 selected for measuring agonist affinity. Y156A, D228A and Y326A were chosen due
436 to their significant impact on PAR₂-induced calcium release (Table 1). Five
437 neighboring mutants (F155A, Y156L, Y160L, Y326L, L330W) were also selected. A
438 receptor saturation assay was used to calculate K_d for 2f-LIGRLO(dtpa)-NH₂ on each
439 cell line (Fig. 4). Control experiments with PAR₂ WT gave K_d 0.67 μM and the
440 tagged peptide failed to bind to CHO cells not expressing PAR₂. This suggested
441 specific binding to human PAR₂. Similar to the negative control, Y156A, D228A and
442 Y326A all failed to give any measurable saturation, indicating that labeled peptide
443 was not able to selectively bind to the mutated receptor expressed. In contrast, each of
444 the remaining 5 mutants was able to produce a K_d ~3-5 fold weaker than wild type.
445



446

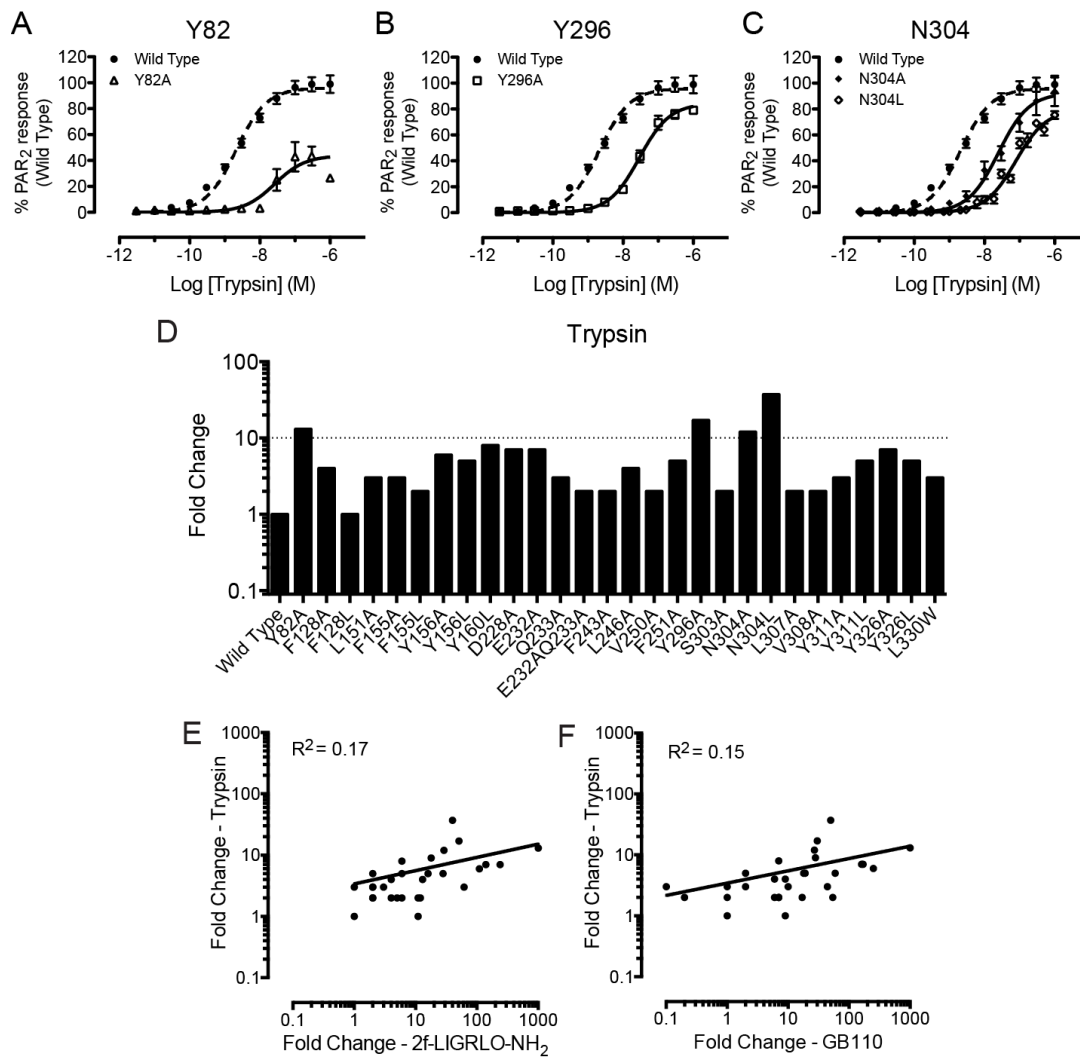
447 **FIGURE 4.** Representative saturation curves for 2f-LIGRLO(dtpa)-NH₂ specific
 448 binding to wild-type and mutant PAR₂ receptors. Specific binding was measured by
 449 incubating CHO cells expressed with various PAR₂ mutants with different
 450 concentrations of 2f-LIGRLO(dtpa)-NH₂ and 2f-LIGRLO-NH₂ (100 μM). K_d was
 451 calculated from 3 or more independent experiments.

452

453 *Effects of PAR₂ mutations on trypsin potency*

454 The agonist potency was measured for trypsin on the same 28 mutated PAR₂
455 transfected CHO cell lines in Table 1. Only four mutations (Y82A, Y296A, N304A,
456 N304L) caused > 10-fold reductions in agonist potencies (Fig. 5A-C) and all were in
457 the TM region of PAR₂, indicating the importance of the TM region in protease-
458 mediated PAR₂ activation. However, in contrast to the two synthetic agonists, most
459 mutations examined induced < 10-fold reductions in trypsin-induced agonist potency
460 (Fig. 5D). This suggested that the tethered ligand was not as susceptible to the same
461 mutations as the two synthetic agonists. In support of this conclusion, there was no
462 significant correlation between effects of mutants on calcium mobilization induced by
463 trypsin vs by each synthetic agonist (Fig. 5E,F).

464



465

466 **FIGURE 5.** Summary of influences of PAR₂ residues on serine protease trypsin. (A-
 467 C) Concentration response curves of trypsin on various PAR₂ mutants. Intracellular
 468 calcium release induced by PAR₂ activation was plotted against various
 469 concentrations of trypsin. Mutations (A, Y82A; B, Y296A; C, N304A, N304L) all
 470 lowered potencies of trypsin by >10 fold. Data points = means of 3 experiments in
 471 triplicates (n=3), bars = S.E. (D) Effects of mutation on trypsin potencies. Fold
 472 changes calculated by EC₅₀ of PAR₂ mutant over EC₅₀ of PAR₂ wild type (WT). (E-F)
 473 Correlation studies of effects of mutations on trypsin against (E) 2f-LIGRLO-NH₂ or
 474 (F) GB110.

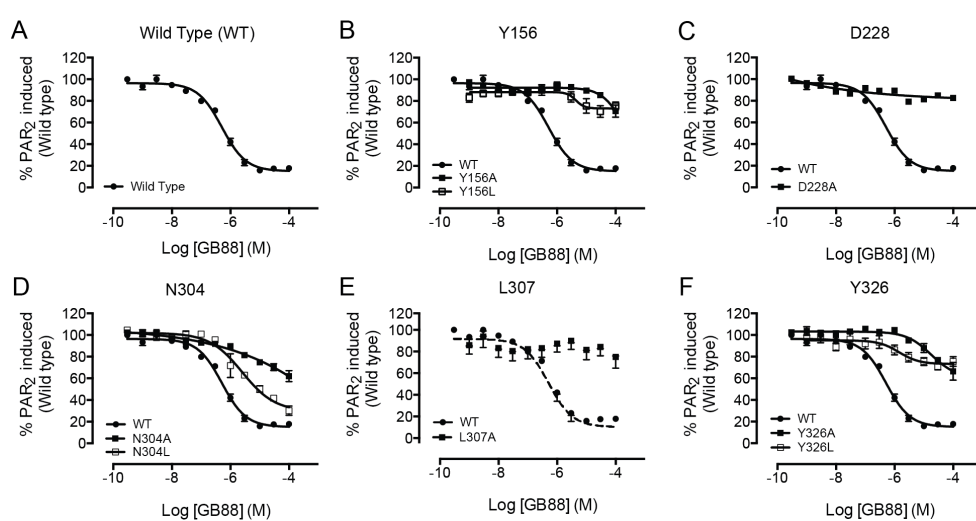
475

476

477 *Effects of PAR₂ mutation on antagonist potency*

478 GB88 is a small molecule reported to effectively antagonize calcium release in
479 human cells by all PAR₂ agonists, including the peptides SLIGRL-NH₂, SLIGKV-
480 NH₂, 2f-LIGRLO-NH₂, the peptidomimetic GB110, and proteases like trypsin,
481 tryptase and cathepsin S (Barry et al., 2010; Suen et al., 2012; Zhao et al., 2014a). In
482 order to determine the impact of mutation of PAR₂ residues on GB88 potency, cells
483 were first incubated with escalating doses of GB88 and stimulated with trypsin at
484 EC₈₀ determined from Table 1. The pIC₅₀ and fold change (mutant versus wildtype
485 PAR₂) values are listed in Table 2. GB88 could not be tested against CHO-
486 hPAR₂Y82A cells, as the agonist response generated by trypsin was too small to
487 produce a significant signal-to-noise ratio. Overall, seven mutants derived from
488 changes at 5 positions (Y156, D228, N304, L307, Y326) on PAR₂ were found to
489 inactivate GB88 (<40% max inhibition) antagonism of trypsin-induced intracellular
490 calcium release (Fig. 6). In addition, L151A and F243A mutations reduced potency of
491 GB88 by greater than 10-fold (Table 2).

492



493

494 **FIGURE 6.** Concentration response curves of GB88 antagonism on various PAR₂

495 mutants. Dose response curves of GB88 inhibition against trypsin (EC₈₀) on various

496 mutants (A, Wild type; B, Y156; C, D228; D, N304; E, L307; F, Y326). Data points =
 497 means of 3 experiments in triplicates (n=3), bars = S.E.
 498

Table 2. PAR₂ mutants reducing GB88 antagonism of trypsin-induced iCa²⁺ release in CHO-hPAR₂ cells

	Max. inhibition (% ± SEM)	GB88 (n ≥ 3)			EC ₈₀ Trypsin (nM)
		pIC ₅₀ ± SEM	IC ₅₀ (uM)	Fold	
Wild Type	80 ± 2	6.3 ± 0.1	0.5	1	20
Y82A*	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	-
F128A	80 ± 4	6.0 ± 0.2	1	2	45
F128L	70 ± 2	5.5 ± 0.2	3	6	30
L151A	65 ± 3	5.7 ± 0.1	22	44	30
F155A	70 ± 5	6.0 ± 0.1	1	2	30
F155L	60 ± 2	5.6 ± 0.3	2	4	230
Y156A	30 ± 5	inactive	-	-	70
Y156L	25 ± 4	inactive	-	-	70
Y160L	70 ± 5	6.3 ± 0.3	0.5	1	60
D228A	20 ± 2	inactive	-	-	130
E322A	70 ± 3	5.8 ± 0.1	1.5	3	80
Q233A	80 ± 2	6.3 ± 0.1	0.5	1	50
E322AQ233A	80 ± 4	6.3 ± 0.1	0.5	1	30
F243A	60 ± 3	5.2 ± 1.2	7	14	60
L246A	80 ± 4	6.5 ± 0.2	0.3	0.6	240
V250A	90 ± 4	7.0 ± 0.1	0.9	1.8	40
F251A	60 ± 6	5.7 ± 0.5	2	4	70
Y296A	90 ± 1	6.5 ± 0.1	0.3	0.6	90
S303A	80 ± 2	6.0 ± 0.1	1	2	25
N304A	40 ± 5	inactive	-	-	230
N304L	70 ± 4	5.6 ± 0.3	3	6	230
L307A	25 ± 6	inactive	-	-	30
V308A	80 ± 3	6.2 ± 0.2	0.7	1.4	20
Y311A	90 ± 2	6.8 ± 0.1	0.2	0.4	110
Y311L	70 ± 5	7.5 ± 0.2	0.03	0.06	40
Y326A	30 ± 8	inactive	-	-	60
Y326L	25 ± 4	inactive	-	-	40
L330W	95 ± 1	6.4 ± 0.1	0.4	0.8	30

n = number of independent experiment, % ± Standard Error of Mean

Fold Change = IC₅₀ mutant / IC₅₀ Wild Type

*GB88 was not tested in Y82A due to small agonist response

inactive – GB88 failed to inhibit >40% of agonist response

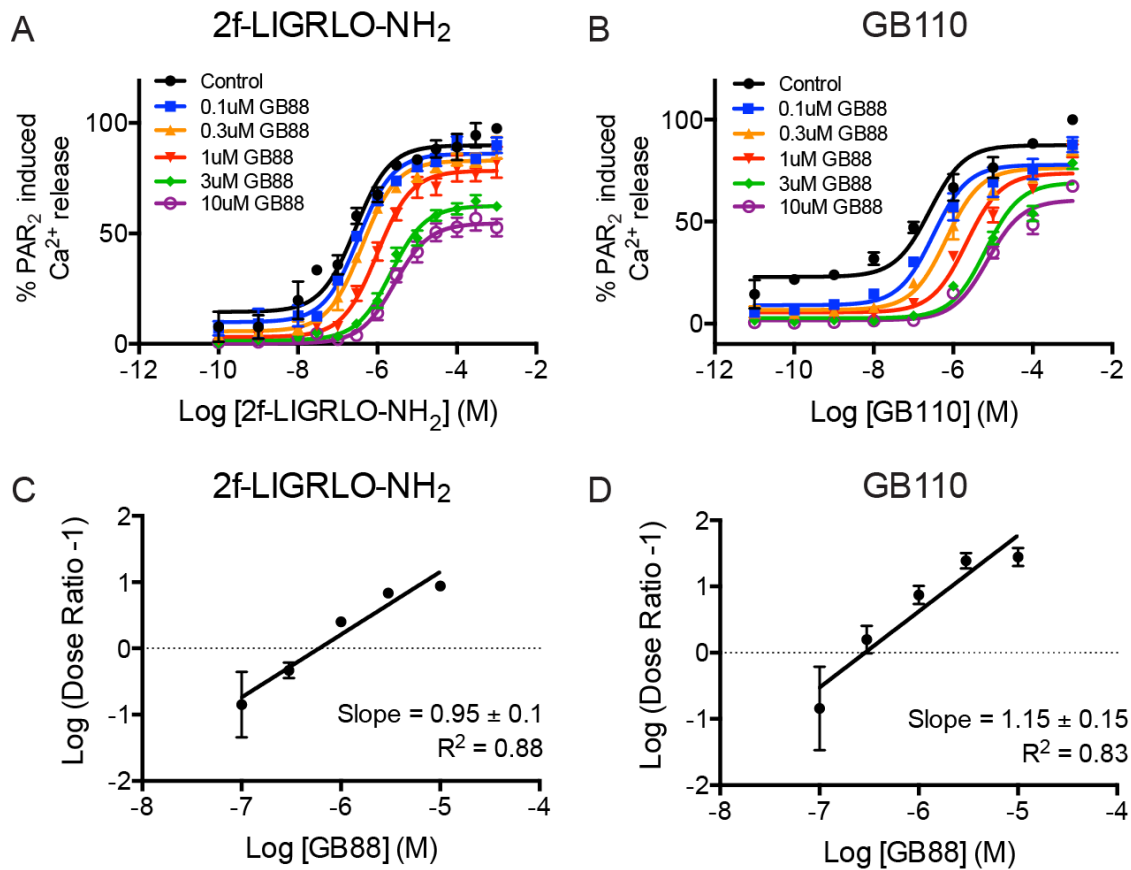
EC₈₀ Trypsin – Trypsin concentration used to induce PAR₂ activation

pIC₅₀ = -logIC₅₀

499 *GB88 antagonism of 2f-LIGRLO-NH₂ and GB110 induced activation of PAR₂*

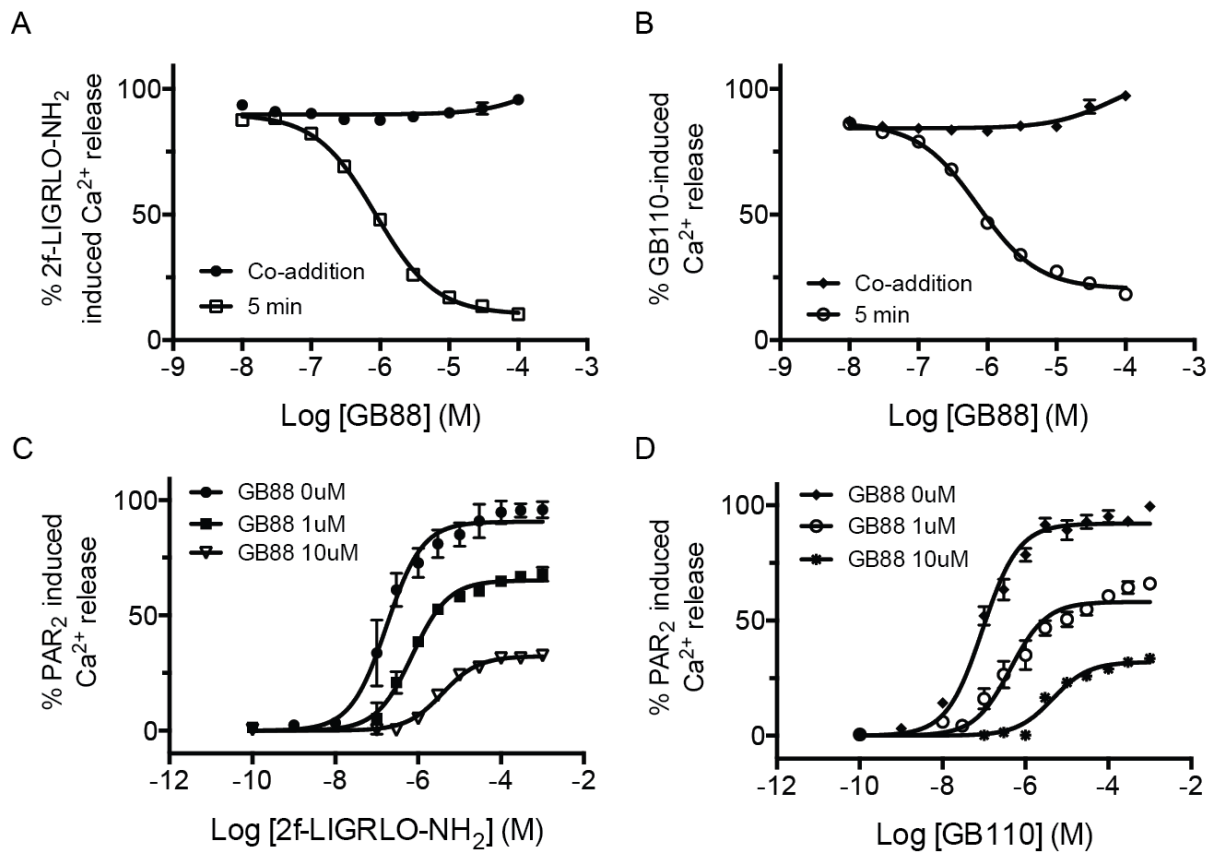
500 Analysis of the effect of increasing concentrations of GB88 on Ca²⁺ release, induced by
501 escalating doses of 2f-LIGRLO-NH₂ and GB110, revealed that on CHO-hPAR₂WT, GB88
502 caused a rightward horizontal shift of agonist concentration-response curves (Fig. 7A,B) and
503 by Schild plots, which had linear slopes of 0.95 ± 0.1 and 1.15 ± 0.14 respectively (Fig.
504 7C,D). Slight reductions of the maxima were also observed. It could be caused by the short
505 assay timeframe, preventing the system to reach true equilibrium and leads to subsequent
506 depression of maxima. Incubation time was reduced in order to investigate potential kinetic
507 artifact (Charlton and Vauquelin 2010; Kenakin et al., 2006), however, GB88 was inactive
508 against both 2f-LIGRLO-NH₂ and GB110 in the iCa²⁺ assay without pre-incubation (Fig.
509 8A,B). Furthermore, reduction of incubation time from 30 min to 5 min failed to recover the
510 maxima (Fig. 8C,D).

511



512

513 **FIGURE 7.** Antagonism of GB88 in CHO-hPAR₂ wild type. (A-B) GB88 is a competitive
 514 PAR₂ antagonist against (A) 2f-LIGRLO-NH₂ and (B) GB110. (C-D) Schild plot for
 515 antagonist GB88 against (C) 2f-LIGRLO-NH₂ and (D) GB110. Calculated pA₂ values for
 516 GB88 against 2f-LIGRLO-NH₂ and GB110 was 6.2 ± 0.2 and 6.5 ± 0.2 respectively. Data
 517 points = means of 3 experiments in triplicates (n=3), bars = S.E.

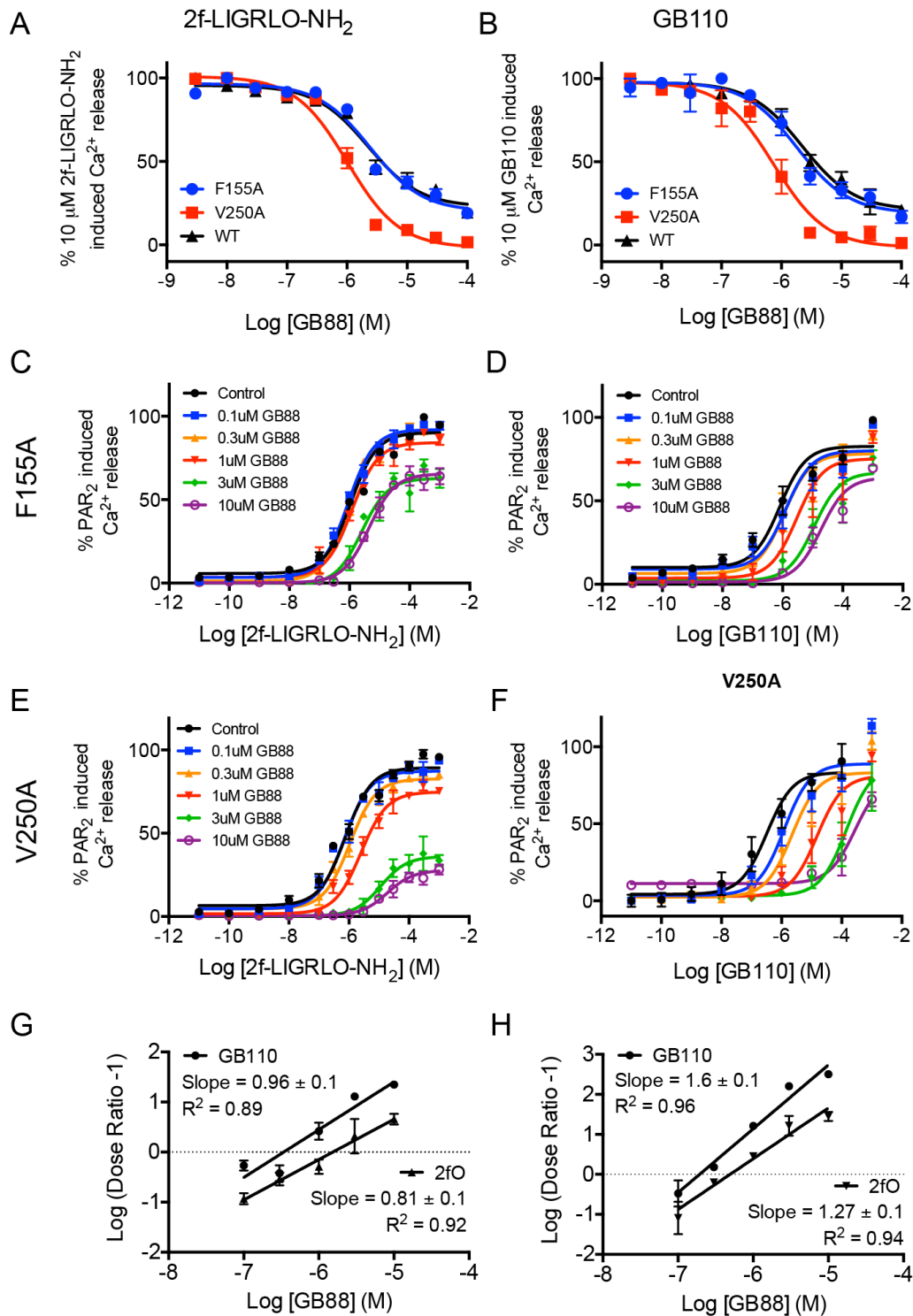


518
 519 **FIGURE 8.** Kinetic study of GB88 antagonism of PAR₂ in CHO-hPAR₂ wild type. (A-B)
 520 Increasing concentrations of GB88 were added either 5 min prior to agonist addition or
 521 simultaneously with agonist and measured for intracellular calcium release. GB88 was only
 522 able to inhibit (A) 2f-LIGRLO-NH₂ (10 μM) or (B) GB110 (10 μM) after 5 min pre-
 523 incubation. (C-D) Reduction in pre-incubation time failed to reduce maxima reduction. Pre-
 524 incubation time of GB88 was shortened from our normal exposure of 30 min to just 5 min
 525 prior to agonist addition. No significant changes in maxima reduction as a result of shorter
 526 antagonist incubation time. Data points are means of at least 3 experiments in triplicate (n≥3),
 527 bars = S.E.

528

529 As mentioned earlier, most of the mutations caused a similar potency reduction for each
 530 of the two synthetic agonists, with the exception of F155A, V250A and L307A. These three
 531 mutants reduced GB110 potency to a much greater extent (10-, 17- and 54-fold respectively)
 532 than did 2f-LIGRLO-NH₂ (3-, 2- and 4-fold respectively). These differences in potency

533 reductions suggested subtly different interactions between the two synthetic ligands and
534 PAR₂, so we similarly inspected corresponding effects on the antagonist GB88. As L307A
535 was ruled out due to its inactivation of the antagonist (Table 2, max inhibition 25%), further
536 experiments were performed on the remaining two mutants (F155A, V250A). When IC₅₀
537 values of GB88 were calculated by increasing its concentration against a fixed agonist
538 concentration, no significant difference was observed against each of the 2 agonists in each of
539 the 3 cell lines (WT, F155A, V250A) (Fig. 9A, B). However, as shown in Fig. 10 this was
540 not true when a Schild plot analysis was performed. F155A showed similar results as wild
541 type-PAR₂ for antagonism by GB88 against the two synthetic agonists, i.e. increasing
542 concentrations of GB88 resulted in horizontal shifts in concentration-response curves of both
543 2f-LIGRLO-NH₂ (Fig. 9C) and GB110 (Fig. 9D). In contrast to WT and F155A, V250A
544 showed distinct differences in affecting each synthetic agonist. When GB88 was used to
545 inhibit 2f-LIGRLO-NH₂, reduction of maxima was significantly greater at >1 μM (Fig. 9E),
546 whereas a similar maxima reduction was not observed when GB110 was used as agonist (Fig.
547 9F). This indicated that the V250A mutation turned GB88 into an insurmountable antagonist
548 against 2f-LIGRLO-NH₂, but not against GB110.
549



550

551 **FIGURE 9.** Antagonism of GB88 in mutants. (A,B) PAR₂ antagonist GB88 inhibits iCa²⁺
 552 release induced in CHO transfected with wild type PAR₂ or mutants (F155A, V250A) by (A)
 553 2f-LIGRLO-NH₂, or (B) GB110. (A) GB88 IC₅₀s against 2f-LIGRLO-NH₂ are WT, 2 μM ±
 554 0.4 μM; F155A, 2.4 μM ± 0.6 μM; V250A, 1 μM ± 0.3 μM. (B) GB88 IC₅₀s against 2f-
 555 LIGRLO-NH₂ are WT, 2.2 μM ± 0.6 μM; F155A, 1.8 μM ± 0.6 μM; V250A, 0.8 μM ± 0.3

556 μM . (C,D) GB88 is a competitive PAR_2 antagonist against (C) 2f-LIGRLO-NH₂ and (D)
557 GB110 in F155A. (E,F) GB88 is an insurmountable antagonist against (E) 2f-LIGRLO-NH₂
558 but a surmountable antagonist against (F) GB110 in V250A. (G,H) Schild plot for antagonist
559 GB88 against 2f-LIGRLO-NH₂ and GB110 in F155A and V250A. (G) Calculated pA_2 values
560 for GB88 against 2f-LIGRLO-NH₂ and GB110 in F155A was 5.8 ± 0.15 and 6.5 ± 0.2 ,
561 respectively. (H) Calculated pA_2 values for GB88 against 2f-LIGRLO-NH₂ and GB110 in
562 V250A was 6.3 ± 0.15 and 6.7 ± 0.1 respectively Data points = means of 3 experiments in
563 triplicates (n=3), bars = S.E.

564

565 Schild slope analysis further validated the differences between F155A and V250A.
566 F155A produced a linear gradient of 0.81 ± 0.1 for 2f-LIGRLO-NH₂ and 0.96 ± 0.1 for
567 GB110, indicating GB88 is a competitive antagonist against both synthetic agonists in F155A
568 PAR_2 (Fig. 9G). In comparison, V250A produced steeper Schild slopes of 1.3 ± 0.1 (2f-
569 LIGRLO-NH₂) and 1.6 ± 0.1 (GB110) (Fig. 9H). A Schild slope >1 can indicate insufficient
570 equilibration time, and GB88 may not have attained equilibrium at lower concentrations, thus
571 changing the gradient of the Schild plot. A steep slope can also imply binding cooperativity
572 of an antagonist, where the V250A mutation enables binding of more than one molecule of
573 GB88. In either case, V250A mutation significantly changed how the receptor interacts with
574 the agonist/antagonist. F155A also reduced the pA_2 of GB88 against 2f-LIGRLO-NH₂ from
575 6.2 (wild type) to 5.8, but the pA_2 value of GB88 against GB110 remained unchanged at 6.5,
576 while V250A had no significant changes in pA_2 of GB88 against both agonists.

577

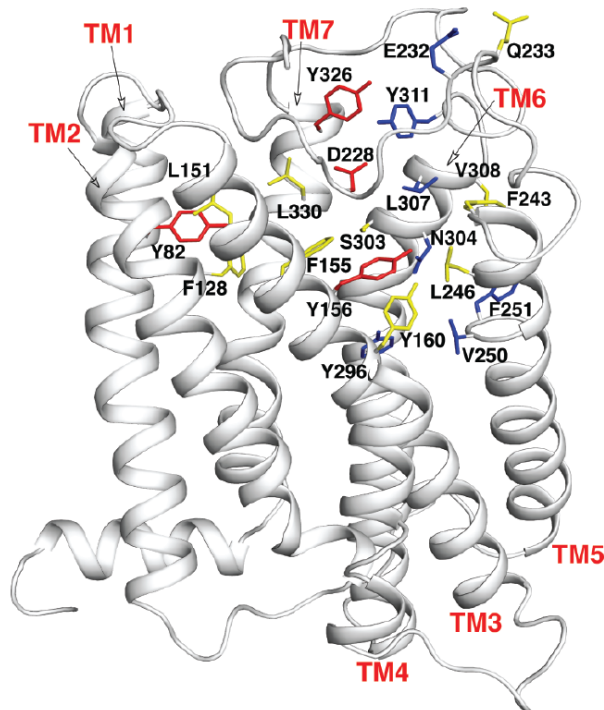
578

579 **Discussion and Conclusions**

580 This is the first detailed analysis of the importance of amino acids in the transmembrane
581 region of PAR₂ for dictating intracellular Ca²⁺ release induced by PAR₂ ligands. This study
582 monitored effects of PAR₂ mutations on calcium release, a signaling pathway commonly used
583 for PAR₂ research and previously shown to dictate inflammatory responses of PAR₂ agonists
584 2f-LIGRLO-NH₂, GB110, trypsin and the pathway selective anti-inflammatory antagonist
585 GB88, both *in vitro* and *in vivo* in rodents (Suen et al, 2012; Suen et al 2014; Lohman et al,
586 2012a). This approach was used rather than a competitive binding assay for comparative
587 ligand affinities for PAR₂ because, unlike other GPCRs, there is no orthosteric ligand for
588 PAR₂ that can be used exogenously to compete with, since only proteases are known to
589 endogenously activate PAR₂. Thus, in order to correlate receptor binding with receptor
590 activity, we instead performed a receptor saturation assay using 2f-LIGRLO(dtpa)-NH₂ on
591 PAR₂. Ten cell lines (WT, Vector, 8 mutants) were found to change the observed K_d values
592 of this exogenous in a similar manner in the receptor saturation assay as in the calcium assay,
593 strongly supporting the validity of using the calcium functional assay for measuring receptor
594 mutant effects on ligand binding.

595 This study has identified for the first time that the transmembrane region of PAR₂ is
596 crucial for receptor activation by the synthetic ligands described herein, as defined by ligand
597 binding and by induction of intracellular calcium signaling (Fig. 10). In particular, four
598 transmembrane mutations (Y82A, Y296A, N304A and N304L) reduced potencies of all three
599 agonists examined here and highlighted the importance of those residues in PAR₂ activation.
600 Furthermore, we examined 28 mutations of PAR₂ and found a cluster of residues defining a
601 'hot spot' within the TM region of the receptor that is critical for PAR₂-mediated signal
602 transduction by these ligands, potentially due to changes in ligand-receptor interactions. Eight
603 TM mutants (Y82, F155, Y156, F251, Y296, N304, Y311 and Y326) affected both of the two

604 synthetic agonists similarly. Three of these residues (Y82, Y156 and Y326), along with
605 ECL2 residue D228, were the most important for PAR₂ activation (> 100 fold) induced by
606 GB110 and 2f-LIGRLO-NH₂. It is interesting to note that these two synthetic agonists did not
607 give entirely identical responses, with two mutations (V250 and L307) showing significant
608 differences between the effects of these agonists.



609
610 **FIGURE 10.** Summary of PAR₂ mutations that impact synthetic ligand-induced signaling.
611 All residues selected for mutagenesis in this study are highlighted in the PAR₂ model.
612 Residues found to affect agonist activity (Table 1) are colored in red (>100 fold), blue (>15
613 fold) and yellow (<15 fold).

614
615 This is the first time that PAR₂ has been mutated at multiple positions within and around
616 its transmembrane region. There have only been a few previous reports (Compton et al.,
617 2000; Compton et al., 2002; Ma et al., 2013) of PAR₂ mutations at all and they focused only
618 on one or a few mutations in ECL2 but not in the TM region. The findings here of the
619 importance of TM region to ligand-induced activation as measured by Ca²⁺ release are novel

620 and demonstrate a significant role of the TM region in PAR₂ activation and downstream
621 signal transduction. This study has also established that PAR₂ signaling is similar to other
622 class A GPCRs, where the TM region has been shown to be crucial for interaction with
623 agonists and antagonists (Tyndall et al., 2005; Blakeney et al., 2007; Ruiz-Gómez et al.,
624 2010) with strong support from crystal structures and computer models (Deupi and Standfuss,
625 2011; Nakamura et al., 2013).

626 The original ligand binding predictions were derived from a PAR₂ homology model
627 built from rhodopsin some years ago when this was the only class A GPCR with a reported
628 crystal structure. Following the completion of this study, new crystal structures have become
629 available for class A GPCRs, including ORL-1 (PDB: 4EA3) (Thompson et al., 2012) and
630 PAR₁ (PDB: 3VW7) (Zhang et al., 2012). The ligands described herein were re-docked into
631 new homology models built (Perry et al., 2015) from these crystal structures. The PAR₁-
632 derived PAR₂ model was problematic (despite high sequence similarity) because the bound
633 ligand vorapaxar was large and believed to distort the structure of PAR₁. Vorapaxar does not
634 bind to PAR₂, so the high sequence identity of PAR₁ and PAR₂ created a problem with an
635 unusual ligand-binding site being created for PAR₂. Nonetheless, the predictions of the
636 binding modes in both of these two additional models encouragingly overlapped with 40% of
637 the residues predicted from the rhodopsin-based model, including almost all of the key
638 residues.

639 There have been concerns that rhodopsin as a modelling basis may unfairly bias
640 toward an internal TM binding site, as the rhodopsin receptor itself has a covalently bound
641 internal ligand. Although it is possible that the docking results from our model have been
642 influenced by this, recent class A GPCRs have also been shown to share a common TM
643 binding location as to that in rhodopsin (Congreve et al., 2011), suggesting an internal
644 binding pocket is not unique to rhodopsin, but common among class A GPCRs. This was

645 evidenced further by a recent crystal structure of CCR5 bound to its allosteric inhibitor
646 maraviroc (Tan et al., 2013). Furthermore, the rhodopsin template has been successfully used
647 for homology modelling of other GPCRs, such as leukotriene receptor (Dong et al., 2013),
648 alpha1A receptor (Evers and Klabunde 2005), beta2 adrenoceptor (Costanzi 2008), MT1 and
649 MT2 receptors (Farce et al., 2008). It is important to note that there are limitations with
650 homology structures derived from low sequence homology, which has encouraged the
651 development of GPCR models from different crystal structures. It has been reported that
652 there is no correlation between sequence identity and model quality (Ratai et al, 2014), and
653 our use of three PAR2 homology models derived from three different GPCR crystal
654 structures does highlight a conserved subset of PAR2 residues that warranted mutation.

655 Our data has shown that PAR₂ activation by two synthetic agonists (2f-LIGRLO-NH₂,
656 GB110) was mainly affected by PAR₂ mutations clustered within the TM region, whereas
657 receptor activation by trypsin was largely unaffected by these mutations. Most mutations on
658 GPCRs alter ligand activity either (i) directly by altering the specific binding site of the
659 ligand or (ii) indirectly by changing receptor conformation with a knock-on or induced fit
660 influence on ligand-receptor interaction. While results of this study alone cannot precisely
661 unravel the mechanisms of PAR₂ activation, it is clear that the synthetic agonists examined
662 were significantly more susceptible than trypsin to these changes in the TM region of PAR₂.
663 In our opinion, the finding that over 20 amino acids clustered in the TM region of PAR₂
664 strongly influence the actions of three synthetic ligands, but not the trypsin-induced native
665 ligand, is suggestive of different ligand-binding sites on PAR₂. While this ‘hot spot’ within
666 PAR₂ is possibly an allosteric, rather than orthosteric, ligand-binding site, further studies and
667 indeed PAR₂ crystal structures are required to confirm this hypothesis.

668 This study has involved a diverse set of PAR₂ mutations to probe the differential
669 effects of a narrow group of synthetic ligands on PAR₂-induced calcium release and identifies

670 a receptor ‘hot spot’ within the TM region of the receptor that is critical for PAR₂-mediated
671 calcium release by these ligands. Further sets of mutants in the ECL regions and the TM-
672 solvent interface could similarly be used to identify residues important for different tethered
673 ligands, known to be exposed by the actions of different endogenous proteases (e.g. trypsin,
674 tryptase, factor VIIa, cathepsin S, elastase, etc). There have been a few other small molecule
675 agonists (e.g. AC-55541, AC-264613 (Seitzberg et al., 2008)) and antagonists (e.g. ENMD-
676 1068 (Kelso et al., 2006), K14585 (Kanke et al., 2009; McIntosh et al., 2010), C391 (Boitano
677 et al., 2015)) reported to modulate PAR₂ in recent years, as well as many proteases and
678 peptides (Hollenberg et al., 2014; Zhao et al., 2014b), including some peptides with lipid
679 appendages (e.g. P2pal-18S (Sevigny et al., 2011), 2at-LIGRL-PEG₃-hdc (Flynn et al.,
680 2013)). It is not known where any of these compounds bind on PAR₂ and so studies like that
681 reported here could reveal similar or new receptor ‘hot spots’ required for ligand-induced
682 PAR₂ signaling.

683 An additional level of complexity lies in a downstream signaling pathway being
684 monitored for such studies. Recent identification of biased ligands for PAR₂ (Ramachandran
685 et al., 2014; Suen et al., 2014; Zhao et al., 2014b) suggests that different signaling pathways
686 may be subtly influenced by only small changes to ligands, which in turn alter interactions
687 with the receptor. Other studies have shown that mutations in the tethered ligand region of
688 PAR₂ can differentially activate different signaling pathways (e.g. Ca²⁺, MAPK)
689 (Ramachandran et al., 2009; Elmariah et al., 2014), different proteases can induce different
690 signaling profiles (Elmariah et al., 2014; Zhao et al., 2014a; Zhao et al., 2014b), different
691 small molecule ligands can bias signaling to different outcomes (Goh et al., 2009; Hollenberg
692 et al., 2014), and different cell types and reporter assays can produce different PAR₂
693 signaling. Linking these effects to specific residues in the receptor and specific components
694 of the ligand, as we have begun to do in this study, can dramatically help improve our

695 understanding of the molecular basis of PAR₂-directed intracellular signaling and may permit
696 development of drugs that control different PAR₂-mediated signaling pathways in different
697 physiological and disease settings. This is important because PAR₂ (like other GPCRs) has
698 beneficial and protective physiological effects that may need to be preserved, while
699 selectively modulating just one or a subset of PAR₂-mediated signaling pathways associated
700 with a particular diseased state may be more desirable. Studies such as this contribute to our
701 understanding of ligand-induced PAR₂ signaling, while future studies are needed to
702 determine the direct mechanisms employed for activation versus inhibition of different
703 signaling pathways mediated by the same receptor and different (or even the same) ligands.

704

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714

715 **Conflicts of Interest**

716 JS, JL, MKY and DF are named inventors on several patent applications involving PAR₂
717 agonists and antagonists owned by the University of Queensland. No other competing
718 interests.

719

720 **Author contributions**

721 JS, MNA, WX, JH and DF wrote the manuscript; WX, PKM created the computer models;
722 MNA, YF and YH developed the PAR₂ mutants; JS, MNA, JL and AC performed all of the
723 cell experiments.

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