

Sensory Neuron Expressed TRPC3 Mediates Acute and Chronic Itch

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Abstract

Background: Chronic pruritus is a prominent symptom of allergic contact dermatitis (ACD) and represent a huge unmet health problem. However, its underlying cellular and molecular mechanisms remain largely unexplored. TRPC3 is highly expressed in primary sensory neurons and has been implicated in peripheral sensitization induced by proinflammatory mediators. However, the role of TRPC3 in acute and chronic itch is still not well defined.

Methods: RNAscope in situ hybridization and immunohistochemical staining were performed on mouse trigeminal ganglion (TG) neurons. Fura-2 calcium imaging was used to characterize the function of TRPC3 in dissociated TG neurons. In native mice, the TRPC3 agonist and pruritogens were subcutaneously injected to the cheek and nape of the neck of mice, respectively. Site directed scratching and/or wiping behaviors were video recorded.

Contact hypersensitivity (CHS) model was induced in mouse ears by topical application of SADBE or DNCB. Spontaneous scratching behaviors were recorded by video monitoring. Global and conditional *Trpc3* knockout mice were employed to determine the contribution of TRPC3 to acute and chronic itch. The mRNA expression levels of *Trpc3* and proinflammatory cytokines were assayed by quantitative real-time PCR. H&E. staining was used for the evaluation of the thickness of mouse ears. Flow cytometry was performed to assess immune cell infiltration in mouse ear tissues.

Results: Among mouse TG neurons, RNAscope assay revealed that *Trpc3* mRNA was predominantly expressed in nonpeptidergic small diameter neurons. Moreover, *Trpc3* mRNA signal was present in the majority of itch sensing neurons. TRPC3 agonism induced TG neuronal activation and acute nonhistaminergic itch- and pain-like behaviors in naïve mice. In addition, genetic deletion of *Trpc3* attenuated acute itch evoked by certain common nonhistaminergic pruritogens, including endothelin-1 and SLIGRL-NH₂. In a murine model of CHS, *Trpc3* mRNA expression level and function were upregulated in the TG following CHS. Pharmacological inhibition and global knockout of *Trpc3* significantly alleviated spontaneous scratching behaviors without affecting concurrent cutaneous inflammation in the CHS model. Furthermore, conditional deletion of *Trpc3* in primary sensory neurons but not in keratinocytes produced similar antipruritic effects in this model.

Conclusions: These findings suggest that TRPC3 expressed in primary sensory neurons may contribute to acute and chronic itch via a histamine independent mechanism and that targeting neuronal TRPC3 might benefit the treatment of chronic itch associated with ACD and other inflammatory skin disorders.

Background

Persistent pruritis is a major symptom of allergic contact dermatitis (ACD) with a profound impact on patients' quality of life[1]. Despite its prevalence, chronic itch is underappreciated and difficult to manage. Although antihistamines are the first choice for antipruritic treatments, many of them can produce severe side effects, such as drowsiness and dizziness. In addition, most chronic itch conditions are resistant to

antihistamines, indicating the existence of nonhistaminergic itch mechanisms [2]. Yet, such mechanisms remain incompletely undefined.

TRPC3 is a member of the canonical subfamily of TRP channels (subtypes 1–7) [3]. Within sensory ganglia, TRPC3 is predominantly expressed in a subset of nonpeptidergic (NP) small diameter primary sensory neurons [3, 4]. Single cell RNAseg analysis has identified that the *Trpc3* gene is expressed across all three distinct populations of itch sensory neurons: NP1 [which expess Mas-related G protein-coupled receptor D (MrgprD)]; NP2 (which express MrgprA3); and NP3 [which express the peptides natriuretic peptide B (Nppb) and somatostatin (Sst)] [5, 6], indicating a potential role of TRPC3 in itch processing. However, this notion is challenged by recent findings that genetic deletion and local pharmacological blockade of TRPC3 did not alter MrgprD- or MrgprA3-mediated acute itch, respectively[4, 7]. Double knockout of *Trpc3/6* had no significant effects on CQ- evoked cutaneous sensory fiber firing [8]. Although these studies failed to establish a clear role of TRPC3 in acute itch elicited by CQ or the MrgprD agonist βalanine[4, 7], it is unclear whether activation of TPRC3 alone induces acute itch. In addition, the role of TRPC3 in chronic itch in inflammatory skin disorders remains controversial. Pharmacological inhibition of TRPC3 was shown to alleviate chronic itch in a mouse model of contact dermatitis [9]. A more recent study found that deletion of *Trpc3* increased scratching responses in mice with contact dermatitis induced by squaric acid dibutylester (SADBE) [10]. Unlike the published standard SADBE-induced dermatitis model [11, 12], this study remarkably prolonged SDABE challenge which may cause different immune responses and pathology in the inflamed skin and peripheral neural circuits.

Pruritogens are thought to induce itch by exciting sensory neurons largely via activation of Gq protein-coupled receptors (GPCRs) [13]. TRPC3 channels are commonly activated by Gq protein coupled GPCRs and serve as a versatile downstream effector in multiple signaling pathways, including those activated by endotherlin-1(ET-1), ATP and proteinase [14–16]. Given that many of these mediators and their receptors are key players in nonhistaminergic itch [17–19], it is conceivable that TRPC3 might function as an integrator of these itch signaling pathways. In addition, TRPC3 was shown to be functionally coupled to receptors for multiple inflammatory mediators that trigger peripheral sensitization in sensory neurons [14]. Our previous study identified TRPC3 as a key downstream transduction channel of IgG immune complex (IgG-IC)/FcγRI signaling in sensory neurons, suggesting that TRPC3 might be involved in sensory symptoms associated with inflammatory diseases [20]. Therefore, we hypothesized that TRPC3, particularly in primary sensory neurons, contributes to both acute and chronic itch.

Material And Methods

Animals

Adult mice of both genders that were 2 to 4 months old and 20 to 30 g weight were used for all the experiments. Animals were housed under a 12-hour light/12-hour dark cycle with ad libitum access to food and water. The breeders of global *Trpc3* knockout and *Trpc3*^{fl/fl}mice were provided by Drs. Barbara Miller (Pennsylvania State University) and Lutz Birnbaumer (National Institute of Environmental Health

Sciences), respectively. Conditional deletion of *Trpc3* in primary sensory neurons or in keratinocytes was achieved by crossing *Trpc3*^{fl/fl}mice with a *PirtCre* mouse line [21] or a K14Cre mouse line (Stock No: 018964; Jackson lab). All mice were maintained on a C57BL/6 background. All experimental procedures were approved by the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee of Johns Hopkins School of Medicine and were consistent with the guidelines provided by the National Institute of Health and the International Association for the Study of Pain.

RNAscope in situ hybridization and immunohistochemistry

Mice were deeply anaesthetized with 20% urethane and transcardially perfused with phosphate buffered saline (PBS) followed by 4% paraformaldehyde (PFA). Mouse trigeminal ganglia (TG) were harvested and postfixed for 2 hrs in 4% PFA at 4 °C. TG were subsequently washed three times with PBS, followed by cryopreservation in 30% sucrose overnight at 4 °C. Tissues were then embedded in Tissue-Tek OCT compound (Sakura Finatek, Torrance, CA) and cryosectioned at 12 µm. In situ hybridization (RNAscope) was performed using the Multiplex Fluorescent Kit v.2. (Advanced Cell Diagnostics, Newark, CA) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Pre-hybridization, hybridization and washing were performed according to standard protocols as described previously [22]. The probes were designed by the manufacturer and available from Advanced Cell Diagnostics (Newark, CA). The following probes were used in this study: Mm-Trpc3-C1 (#572151), Mm-Trpa1-C2 (#400211-C2), Mm-Nppb-C3 (#42502-C3), and Mm-Sst-C2 (#404631-C2). The RNAscope signal was visualized by using Opal 570 or 690 (Akoya Biosciences, Marlborough, MA). Following the completion of the RNAscope protocol, immunohistochemistry was performed. After blocking with 10% donkey serum in PBST for 1 hr at room temperature, sections were incubated overnight at 4°C with the following primary antibodies: chicken anti-NeuN (1:200; Aves); rabbit anti-CGRP (1:500; Immunostar); sheep anti-TH (1:1000; Millipore); rabbit anti-GS (1:1000; Abcam); and guinea pig anti-P2X3 receptor (1:1000; Millipore). Sections were then washed three times and incubated with the following complementary secondary antibodies: Donkey antirabbit IgG Cy3 or Alexa 647 (1:500; Jackson ImmunoResearch); Donkey anti-sheep IgG Alexa 647 (1:500; Jackson ImmunoResearch); Donkey anti-Guinea pig IgG Alexa 488 (1:500; Jackson ImmunoResearch); and Donkey anti-chicken IgG Alexa 488 (1:500; Jackson ImmunoResearch) at RT for 1 hr. For IB4 staining, sections were incubated with Alexa Fluor 647-conjugated isolectin B4 (IB4; 1:200; Invitrogen) along with other secondary antibodies. To visualize MrgprA3+ TG neurons, TG tissues from MrgprA3eGFP-^{Cre} mice [23, 24] were stained with chicken anti-GFP (1:1000; Aves) followed by Donkey anti-chicken IgG Alexa Fluor 488 (1:500; Jackson ImmunoResearch). Images were captured using a confocal microscope (Nikon A1+, Melville, NY). Three sections per TG at different depth were analyzed in a blinded manner using the NIS-Elements software (Nikon, Melville, NY).

Culture of dissociated mouse TG neurons

Mouse TG neurons were isolated and cultured as previously described [25]. Briefly, mouse TGs were removed quickly and transferred to ice-cold complete saline solution (CSS) for cleaning and mincing. The CSS contained (in mM): NaCl 137, KCl 5.3, MgCl₂ 1, CaCl₂ 3, Sorbitol 25, and HEPES 10, adjusted to pH

7.2 with NaOH. Mouse TGs were then digested with Liberase TM (0.35U/ml; Roche, Mannheim, Germany) for 20 minutes, and for another 15 minutes with Liberase TL (0.25 U/ml; Roche, Mannheim, Germany) and papain (30 U/ml; Worthington, Lakewood, NJ) in CSS containing 0.5 mM EDTA (Invitrogen, Vilnius, Lithuania) at 37°C. After enzymatic digestion, cells were dissociated by gentle trituration in a cultured medium containing 1 mg/ml bovine serum albumin (Sigma, St Louis, MO) and 1 mg/ml trypsin inhibitor (Sigma, St Louis, MO), and placed on poly-D-lysine (100 µg/ml; Sigma, St Louis, MO)/laminin (80 µg/ml; Sigma, St Louis, MO) coated glass coverslips. The culture medium contained equal amounts of DMEM and F12 (Gibco, Grand Island, NY) with 10% heat-inactivated FBS (Hyclone, Marlborough, MA), 1% penicillin and streptomycin (Gibco, Grand Island, NY) and nerve growth factor (50 ng/ml; Sigma, St Louis, MO). Cells were maintained at 37°C in a humidified atmosphere of 95% air and 5% CO2 and used within 16-24 hrs.

Calcium imaging of cultured TG neurons

Mouse TG neurons were loaded with Fura-2-acetoxymethyl ester (Fura-2 AM; Invitrogen, Vilnius, Lithuania) in the dark for 30 minutes at 37°C. After loading, TG neurons were washed in HEPES buffer to remove extracellular dye and placed in a recording chamber continuously perfused with HEPES buffer at a flow rate of 1 ml/min at room temperature. The HEPES buffer contained (in mM): NaCl 145, KCl 3, MgCl₂ 2, CaCl₂ 2, glucose 10 and HEPES 10 (adjusted to pH 7.4 with NaOH). Ratiometric calcium imaging was performed at room temperature (20–22°C) using an invert microscope (Nikon ECLIPSE TE200; Melville, NY). TG neurons were alternatively excited at 340 and 380 nm and images were recorded at 2-s intervals using a cooled CCD camera (DC-152Q-C00-FI; ANDOR, Belfast, Northern Ireland) controlled by a computer with NIS-Elements AR software (Nikon, Melville, NY). The ratio of 340 nm to 380 nm fluorescence intensity $[R_{(340/380)}]$ within a certain region of interest was used as a relative measure of the intracellular concentration of calcium ([Ca²⁺]_i). At the end of the experiment, the viability of the neurons was confirmed by an increase in [Ca²⁺]_i evoked by a 20-s application of 50 mM K⁺. Neurons were considered to be responsive to a chemical if an increase in R340/380 was equal or greater than 15% above baseline [26]. GSK1702934A (GSK, FOCUS biomolecules, PA or TOCRIS, Bristol, UK) was dissolved in 100% ethanol and then diluted to the concentration of 0.1, 1, 10 and 100 µM. The dose of other chemicals was chosen based on previous studies [25, 27]: 1 mM Chloroquine (CQ; Sigma, St Louis, MO), 100 μM allyl isothiocyanate (AITC; Sigma, St Louis, MO), and 1 μM capsaicin (Cap; Sigma, St Louis, MO).

Mouse model of contact hypersensitivity (CHS)

CHS was induced using the contact sensitizer SADBE (Tokyo Chemicals Inc., Japan) or 1-Chloro-2,4-dinitrobeneze (DNCB, Acros Organics, Belgium, NJ) as reported previously [28, 29]. DNCB induced CHS was used only for pharmacological experiments. Briefly, mice were sensitized by topical application of 1% SADBE (25 µl in acetone) or 2% DNCB (50 µl in acetone) onto the abdominal skin once daily for three consecutive days. Five days later, mice were challenged with 1% SADBE or 1% DNCB (25 µl in acetone) topically applied, either to the right ear (for behavioral tests) or cheek (for in vitro studies) once daily for three consecutive days. Separate groups of mice were sensitized and challenged with acetone alone and

served as controls. For pharmacological experiments, TRPC3 antagonist Pyr3 (0.1 mg/kg, 100 µl; TOCRIS, Bristol, UK) or vehicle (0.1% DMSO in saline) was administered intraperitoneally (i.p.) once daily starting on the day of the 1st challenge for six consecutive days.

Behavioral testing

For behavioral measurements, the experimenters were blinded to genotypes and treatments. Animals were habituated to the behavioral testing apparatus for 1 h once daily for three consecutive days before the testing day.

For the cheek model of acute itch, the fur on the cheek was shaved 3 days before testing. On the day of the experiment, 10 μ l of GSK at different doses (5, 10, and 20 μ g) was subcutaneously (s.c.) injected into the left cheek of awake naïve mice. Control animals received the equivalent volume of the vehicle (20% HPCD). Immediately after injections, the mouse was placed in the recording chamber and video recorded for 30 mins. The total number of spontaneous scratching with the hind paw and wiping with the forepaw were quantified in a blinded manner. A bout of scratching was defined as a hind paw scratching directed at the area of injection, and a bout of wiping was defined as a single forepaw stroking the injection site. In some experiments, either histamine receptor 1 (H1R) antagonist, cetirizine (30 mg/kg, 100 μ l, TOCRIS, Bristol, UK) or vehicle (saline; 100 μ l) was administered i.p. 30 min before GSK was injected into the cheek.

For the neck model of acute itch, the fur on the rostral back was shaved 3 days before behavioral testing. Mice were administered with an intradermal (i.d.) injections of 50 μ l of the following pruritogens into the nape: histamine (200 μ g), PAR2 agonist SLIGRL-NH2 (100 μ g), ET-1 (25 ng), and α -Me-5-HT (20 μ g). All agents were dissolved in saline. Scratching responses were video recorded for 30 min and subsequently quantified by observers blinded to genotype and treatment.

For the CHS model, site-directed spontaneous scratching was videoed for 30 min on day 3 after the 3rd challenge and the total of number of scratches was counted by observers blinded to treatment and genotype. Mouse ear thickness was measured three times with a digital caliper before and after each challenge.

Quantitative reverse transcription polymerase chain reaction (qRT-PCR)

The TG and ear tissues from either control or CHS mice were collected at day 3 after the 3^{rd} challenge. Total RNA was extracted using the RNeasy lipid tissue mini kit (QIAGEN, Hilden, Germany) according to the manufacturer's suggestions and then reverse-transcribed to complimentary DNA using the iScript cDNA synthesis kit (Bio-Rad, Hercules, CA). Quantitative real-time PCR was performed on a real-time PCR system (QuantStudio 3; Applied Biosystems Corp., Beverly Hills, CA) using the PowerUp SYBR Green Master Mix (Applied Biosystems, Beverly Hills, CA). The primers used are summarized in Supplemental Table 1. Each sample was performed in duplicate. The expression levels of the target genes were quantified relative to the level of β -actin (Actb) gene expression using the $2^{-\Delta \Delta CT}$ method.

Skin histology

Mouse ears were collected on day 3 after the 3rd challenge, post-fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde for 24 hours, and dehydrated in ethanol and then embedded in paraffin. Sections were cut at a thickness of 5 µm and stained with hematoxylin & eosin (H&E). Three sections at different depth from each mouse were chosen for analysis. Ear epidermal thickness was evaluated by observers blinded to treatments and genotypes using ImageJ software (NIH).

Cell preparation and flow cytometry

On day 3 after the 3rd challenge with either acetone or SADBE, the ear tissue was excised using a 4 mm biopsy punch (Miltex, Inc., York, PA), cut into small pieces and placed in RPM1640 media containing 1.25 mg/ml Dispase II (Sigma, St Louis, MO), 2 mg/ml Collagenase II (Gibco, Grand Island, NY) and 2 mg/ml Collagenase IV (Gibco, Grand Island, NY). The ear tissue was incubated at 37°C for ~75 min. The digested ear tissues were passed through a 70 µm cell strainer, pelleted and washed in phosphate buffered saline. Cells were then stained with Aqua Live/Dead viability dye (Biolegend, San Diego, CA) to exclude non-viable cells. Cells were treated with CD16/CD32 Fc block (1:100; eBioscience, Santa Clara, CA) for 10 min prior to staining with CD45-FITC (1:100, Biolegend, San Diego, CA). Data were acquired with a CytoFLEX LX (Beckman Coulter, Indianapolis, IN) flow cytometer, and analyzed using FlowJo v10 software (TreeStar).

Statistical analysis

Data are presented as means ± SEM. Sample sizes were chosen based on our pilot experiments and conventional fields to accurately detect statistical significance and considering ethical animal use, experiment design, resource availability, and technical feasibility. Comparisons of proportions were made using Chi-square test. A two-tailed Student's t test was used to test the significance of differences between two groups. Comparisons for multiple groups or multiple time points were carried out using a one-way or two-way ANOVA for random measures, or repeated measures followed by Bonferroni's post hoc test comparisons. P value less than 0.05 was considered significant. The types of statistical tests used for each comparison are noted in each figure legend.

Results

TRPC3 is expressed in a subset of mouse TG neurons

To define the expression profile of TRPC3 in primary sensory neurons, we performed RNAscope in situ hybridization on mouse TGs using commercial *Trpc3* RNA probes. *Trpc3* mRNA signal was expressed in 37.2 ± 2.5% of TG neurons, the majority of which were small-sized neurons (Fig. 1A, B). The specificity of *Trpc3* mRNA detection was validated by a loss of RNAscope signal in wildtype TG sections stained with a negative probe (Fig. 1C). To further map the expression pattern of TRPC3 in TG neurons, we performed double staining for *Trpc3* mRNAand markers of different cell populations (Fig. 1D-E). *Trpc3* mRNA signal

was highly co-expressed with IB4 (a maker for non-peptidergic neurons) but had a little overlap with CGRP (a marker for peptidergic neurons). However, we did not observe obvious colocalization of *Trpc3* mRNA signal with tyrosine hydroxylase (TH; a marker for C-type low-threshold mechanoreceptors) or glutamine synthetase (GS; a satellite glial cell marker).

Since TRPA1 and P2X3 receptor (P2X3R) are considered as itch related receptors [19, 26, 30], we asked whether TRPC3 is colocalized with these receptors. Approximately 50% of Trpa1⁺ or P2X3R⁺ neurons coexpressed *Trpc3* mRNA signal (Fig. 2A, B). Given that MrgprA3, Nppb and SST are exclusively expressed in small-diameter neurons and sensory neurons that express these markers are critical to transmit itch signals [23, 31, 32], we next sought to assess whether TRPC3 is expressed in these itch-specific neurons. As expected, the majority of *Sst*⁺, or all *Nppb*⁺ and *MrgprA3*^{GFP+} neurons coexpressed *Trpc3* mRNA signal (Fig. 2C-E). These results provide an anatomical basis for a potential role of TRPC3 in itch sensation.

TRPC3 agonism directly activates mouse TG neurons

We next performed ratiometric Ca^{2+} imaging to determine whether TRPC3 is functional in mouse TG neurons. TRPC3 agonist GSK1702934A (GSK) but not vehicle caused a significant increase in $R_{340/380}$ in a subset of TG neurons from $Trpc3^{+/+}$ mice in a dose dependent manner (Fig. 3A-F). Such effect was significantly diminished in global $Trpc3^{-/-}$ mice (Fig. 3F). Since the majority of pruritogen receptors are usually coupled to TRPV1 or TRPA1 [26, 33], we further determined whether GSK -responsive neurons overlapped with these two cell populations . We found that 55.9% and 86.1% of GSK-responsive neurons also responds to the TRPV1 agonist capsaicin and the TRPA1 agonist AITC, respectively (Fig. 3G). In addition, about half of GSK-responsive neurons were sensitive to CQ, an agonist for MrgprA3. These data suggest that functional TRPC3 is expressed in a heterogenous subset of primary sensory neurons that may play distinct roles in itch processing.

TRPC3 activation elicits acute non-histaminergic itch

Given that TRPC3 was expressed in a subpopulation of nociceptors and pruriceptors [4, 34], we next asked whether activation of peripheral TRPC3 by GSK is sufficient to trigger itch and/or pain behaviors in the naïve state. To test this possibility, we used a mouse cheek model of itch that allows us to distinguish pain versus itch, as indicated by distinct pain-like wiping by forelimbs and itch-like scratching by the hind limbs (Fig. 4) [35]. In naïve mice, subcutaneous (s.c.) injection of GSK into the cheek of wildtypemicesignificantly increased the number of site-directed scratching bouts in a dose-dependent manner, compared to vehicle (Fig. 4A-C). Notably, mice injected with GSK (20 μ g; 10 μ l) scratched immediately and intensively for 15 min (Fig. 4C). In addition, s.c. injection of GSK also evoked a significant greater number of bouts of wiping than vehicle (Fig. 4B). However, there were no significant differences in the number of wiping bouts evoked by GSK among doses. The peak time of GSK induced wiping responses occurred within the first 5 min after the injection (Fig. 4D). To further examine whether GSK induced scratching behavior is histamine-dependent, H1R antagonist cetirizine (Ctz) or vehicle was

administered i.p. 30 min before i.d. injection of GSK to the mouse cheek. However, no significant differences were observed in GSK-induced scratching behaviors between treatments, suggesting that GSK-evoked itch is non-histaminergic (Fig. 4E).

Since GSK was shown to activate both TRPC3 and TRPC6[36, 37], we further assessed whether TRPC3 is necessary for pruriceptive and pronociceptive effects of GSK using global *Trpc3*^{-/-} mice. GSK-induced scratching and wiping responses observed in *Trpc3*^{+/+} mice was markedly diminished in global *Trpc3*^{-/-} mice, indicating the involvement of TRPC3 in this process (Fig. 4F, G). Overall, these data indicated that activation of TRPC3 by GSK is sufficient to evoke both acute itch and pain behaviors.

TRPC3 mediates acute itch evoked by non-histaminergic pruritogens

To further explore a potential role of TRPC3 in itch sensation, we next set out to evaluate scratching behaviors in wildtype and global *Trpc3*^{-/-} mice after i.d injection of histaminergic or non-histaminergic pruritogens into the nape of the neck. Compared with wildtype animals, global *Trpc3*^{-/-} mice exhibited a significant reduction in scratching behaviors evoked by histaminergic-independent pruritogens, including endothelin-1(ET-1), the PAR2 agonist SLIGRL-NH₂ (Fig. 5A, B). However, we did not observe obvious differences in scratching responses elicited by histamine and the serotonin receptor 2B agonist α-Me-5-HT between genotypes (Fig. 5C, D). We next asked whether neuronally expressed TRPC3 is responsible for acute itch evoked by these two nonhistaminergic pruritogens using *PirtCre::Trpc3*^{fl/fl} mice. Specific deletion of *Trpc3* in primary sensory neurons attenuated scratching behaviors evoked by both pruritogens (Fig. 5E, F), suggesting that TRPC3 may serve as a pruritogenic effector for those itch signaling pathways.

Genetic deletion and pharmacological inhibition of TRPC3attenuates allergic itch in the CHS model

Given that TRPC3 has been implicated in allergic diseases[38, 39], we next asked whether TRPC3 plays a role in allergic itch associated with CHS, a mouse model of ACD, induced by SADBE (Fig. 6A). On day 3 after the 3rd challenge, wildtype mice subjected to SADBE challenge displayed more site-directed spontaneous scratching behaviors on the ear than acetone-treated control animals (Fig. 6B). However, global *Trpc3*^{r/-} mice scratched much less than wildtype littermates during CHS (Fig. 6B). To further dissect the contributions of neuronal and non-neuronal TRPC3 to chronic itch, we genetically deleted *Trpc3* expression in one or more selected cell populations before the induction of dermatitis, including: *K14Cre::Trpc3*^{fl/fl} (to target keratinocytes) and *PirtCre::Trpc3*^{fl/fl} (to target peripheral sensory neurons). In the context of CHS, *PirtCre::Trpc3*^{fl/fl} mice showed significantly reduced spontaneous scratching responses compared to *PirtCre* negative controls. (Fig. 6C). However, no significant differences in spontaneous scratching responses were observed between wildtype and *K14Cre::Trpc3*^{fl/fl} mice (Fig. 6D). These results support the notion that TRPC3 expressed in sensory neurons but not keratinocytes mediates inflammatory itch associated with CHS. To circumvent potential confounds of genetic deletion of *Trpc3*, we explored whether acute pharmacological blockade of TRPC3 attenuated allergic itch

following CHS. In mice with CHS, systemic administration of Pyr3 but not vehicle significantly attenuated spontaneous scratch responses (Fig. 6E).

TRPC3 is not involved in skin inflammation in the CHS model

Given that TRPC3 is widely expressed in immune cells and acts as a key player in the regulation of immunity [40-42], we assessed whether diminished scratching responses in *Trpc3*^{-/-} mice are secondary to reduced skin inflammation. Interestingly, we did not observe obvious differences between genotypes in ear swelling over time (Fig. 7A) or in epidermal thickening as analyzed by H&E staining on day 3 after the 3rd challenge (Fig. 7B, C). In addition, qPCR revealed an upregulation of mRNAs encoding a number of proinflammatory markers (e.g. *Il-6*, *Il-1b*, *cxcl1*, and *cxcl10*) in mouse ear tissues on day 3 after the 3rd SADBE challenge compare to vehicle controls (Fig. 7D). However, these changes were not significantly different between genotypes (Fig. 7D). We next performed flow cytometry to compare immune cell infiltration in the ear skin between wildtype and global *Trpc3*^{-/-} mice. Compared to vehicle, SADBE treatment caused an enrichment of immune cells in the ear as measured by CD45⁺ cell percentage on day 3 after the 3rd challenge. However, we did not observe obvious differences in CD45⁺ cell percentage between genotypes (Fig. 7E, F).

CHS upregulates TRPC3 signaling in TG neurons

We performed qPCR on TG tissues from wildtype mice to assay for alterations in *Trpc3* mRNA expression level following CHS. On day 3 after the 3rd challenge, the mean expression level of *Trpc3* mRNA in the TG was significantly greater in mice with CHS than in vehicle-treated mice (Fig. 8A). To determine whether the function of neuronal TRPC3 is upregulated in the setting of CHS, we compared Ca²⁺ responses evoked by GSK in TG neurons from control versus CHS mice on day 3 after the 3rd challenge. The percentage of GSK responsive neurons was significantly greater in CHS mice compared to that in control animals (Fig. 8B-D), Among GSK responsive TG neurons, we observed larger proportions of CQ- and Capresponding neurons in CHS mice compared to those in control animals (Fig. 8E).

Discussion

The conventional view is that histamine contributes to itch in numerous inflammatory skin disorders, including ACD. However, anti-histamine treatments are not always effective in relieving allergic itch, suggesting the involvement of alternative mechanisms [29, 43]. In this study, we provide novel evidence that activation of TRPC3 in sensory neurons is sufficient to trigger acute histamine-independent itch in naïve states. TRPC3 is also involved in acute itch evoked by certain types of nonhistaminergic pruritogens. In addition, sensory neuron expressed TRPC3 contributes to spontaneous itch independent of skin inflammation in the context of CHS.

TRPC3 is predominantly expressed in nonpeptidergic small diameter sensory neurons, including MrgprA3⁺ and MrgprD⁺ itch-mediating neurons[4]. Although previous studies failed to establish that

TRPC3 was involved in MrgprA3 and MrgprD mediated acute itch[4, 44], little is known about whether activation of TRPC3 itself induces acute itch and whether neuronal TRPC3 contributes to chronic itch in the context of dermatitis. In this study, we provide several complementary lines of evidence that support a potential role of peripheral neuron TRPC3 in itch processing. First, RNAscope revealed that *Trpc3* mRNA is coexpressed with certain itch related receptors, such as TRPA1 and P2X3R. Also, Trpc3 mRNA signal is present in the majority of NP3 itch sensory neurons (Nppb+ and Sst+ neurons), consistent with previous single cell RNAseg data[6]. These findings provide an anatomical basis for a potential role of TRPC3 in itch sensation. Second, the TRPC3 agonist GSK directly induced sensory neuron activation. In agreement with above anatomical observations, GSK responsive neurons also overlapped with the neurons that responded to the agonists for MrgprA3 and TRPA1. Strikingly, a subset of GSK responsive neurons exhibited Ca²⁺ responses to capsaicin, which contradicts the previous findings that TRPC3 was rarely coexpressed with TRPV1 in sensory neurons [3, 4]. This discrepancy might be due to the different sensitivity of two approaches (in situ hybridization versus calcium imaging). It is also possible that this is due to culture conditions. Third, in naïve mice, exogenous administration of GSK evoked scratching responses in the cheek of the mouse. Such effects were diminished in mice lacking *Trpc3*, suggesting the involvement of TRPC3. In addition, GSK-evoked scratching responses were likely independent of histamine since an H1 receptor antagonist failed to inhibit this effect. Given the time window of rapid modulation of neuronal activity by ligand (minutes to hours), these transient changes in itch behaviors evoked by GSK are likely mediated by neuronal activation. Given that TRPC3 and TRPC6 have similar structures, there are no commercial specific TRPC3 agonists available. Thus, we cannot completely rule out the additional involvement of TRPC6 in neuronal and/or behavioral effects of GSK. Further experiments are needed to test this possibility using available Trpc6^{-/-} mice. Fourth, TRPC3 is involved in certain forms of histamine-independent itch elicited by common pruritogens, including ET-1 and SLIGRL-NH₂. Given that TRPC3 channels are commonly activated by Gq protein-coupled GPCRs[14-16], it is possible that TRPC3 acts as a downstream target of signaling pathways activated by ET-1 and SLIGRL-NH₂. Indeed, TRPC3 was reported to be functionally coupled to receptors for these two molecules[14, 15]. In addition to PAR2, SLIGRL-NH2 may act on MrgprC11 [45]. A recent study has identified that MrgprC11 neurons are critical mediators of acute and chronic itch [46]. It will be of interest to test whether TRPC3 is involved in MrgprC11-mediated itch.

A previous study reported that intrathecally delivered pharmacological inhibition of TRPC3 alleviated chronic itch in mice with contact dermatitis induced by diphenylcyclopropenone, possibly through effects on spinal microglia [9]. We have complemented these findings by showing that global deletion and conditional deletion of *Trpc3* in primary sensory neurons each significantly alleviated spontaneous itch in the CHS model. Other than sensory neurons, many other cell types express TRPC3, including keratinocytes[40, 41, 47]. Yet, genetic deletion of *Trpc3* in keratinocytes failed to attenuate chronic itch in the setting of CHS, suggesting that TRPC3 expressed in keratinocytes is not required for allergic itch.

Unlike another recent study[10], we observed that deletion of *Trpc3* attenuated rather than enhanced scratching responses in mice with SADBE-induced contact dermatitis. This discrepancy might be

explained by different procedures for SADBE challenge. Our present study strictly followed a published procedure in which sensitized mice were challenged by topical application of SADBE for three consecutive days [11, 12]. By contrast, the other study involved longer (i.e., 5 days) SADBE challenge, which might have evoked different inflammatory processes and pathology in the inflamed skin and peripheral neural circuits[10]. In addition, observation time points and affected skin areas differed between our studies. In the other study, the investigators also found that the somata and central terminals of MrgprD neurons were lost in Trpc3 -/- mice after SADBE challenge[10]. They also reported that both peptidergic and MrgprD epidermal nerve fibers were lost in the SADBE model regardless of genotype, though there was no difference between wildtype and Trpc3^{-/-} mice in dermal MrgprD nerve fiber density[10]. Given that MrgprD neurons are reportedly critical for itch transmission [48], the loss of MrgprD neurons might have been expected to reduce pruriceptive input and thus diminish, rather than increase itch responses. Indeed, our previous in vivo and in vitro studies have demonstrated that MrgprD neurons become hyperexcitable following SADBE challenge [35]. However, loss of epidermal innervation or ablation of MrgprD neurons increases mast cell degranulation and cutaneous inflammation [49]. The other study proposed that it might explain for the enhanced scratching responses observed in *Trpc3*^{-/-} mice during dermatitis [10], although this interpretation appears inconsistent with the apparently similar loss of epidermal MrgprD fibers between genotypes [10]. Our present study found that knockout of Trpc3 did not alter skin inflammation. Given that different haptens induced differential immune response profiles [50], further investigation using different haptens is warranted to address the sources of apparent discrepancies between studies.

Given that TRPC3 is expressed in a heterogenous subpopulation of nociceptors and pruriceptors [4, 34], TRPC3 likely signals both itch and pain sensations. However, a lack of specificity for sensory modality does not weaken the potential importance of TRPC3 in itch sensation. Indeed, many receptors or ion channels (i.e. histamine receptors, endothelin receptors, TRPV1 and TRPA1) that are involved in itch transduction also play pivotal roles in pain processing [51]. In addition, even the same cell population (i.e., MrgprA3⁺ neurons) can encode pain or itch in response to different stimuli [7]. Considering that itch and pain are a dual burden in patients with ACD, targeting TRPC3 might benefit the treatment of both inflammatory itch and pain compared to purely antipruritics.

Our study also provides transcriptional and functional evidence that supports the enhancement of Trpc3 signaling within TG after the development of CHS. First, qPCR revealed an upregulation of *Trpc3* mRNA expression in the mouse TG following CHS. Second, calcium imaging experiments clearly demonstrated a considerable degree of functional TRPC3 upregulation in TG neurons following CHS. A larger proportion of dissociated TG neurons became responsive to GSK after CHS. The mechanisms by which CHS induces the upregulation of TRPC3 signaling in the cell bodies of sensory neurons require further study. They might include the activation of a signaling cascade of inflammatory cytokines (i.e., $il1\beta$) in the context of skin inflammation, which upregulates TRPC3 expression [52]. Also, certain inflammatory cytokines are able to sensitize neuronal TRPC3 and enhance its functional activity [14, 20]. Neuroinflammation within the TG may also upregulate TRPC3 expression and function in non-cutaneous TG neurons. In addition,

substance P was identified as an endogenous modulator of TRPC3 activation [53, 54]. Moreover, substance P levels were elevated in the inflamed skin during ACD [55]. Therefore, it is plausible that the increased TRPC3 activation in TG neurons from CHS mice in vivo might, in part, result from enhanced tonic release of substance P from sensory neurons in a paracrine manner.

In this study, we did not define the mechanisms by which TRPC3 channels mediate chronic itch in the setting of CHS. Dermal inflammation, epidermal hyperplasia, and immune cells infiltration appear to be a key contributor to the induction and maintenance of chronic itch in allergic skin disorders [56, 57]. Yet, we found that global deletion of *Trpc3* had no obvious effects on skin inflammatory processes in the CHS model. Thus, these anti-pruritic effects seem to be dissociable from skin inflammation. We suggest that TRPC3 signaling, specifically in primary sensory neurons, contributes to chronic itch through a mechanism that parallels skin inflammation. Given that nociceptive neurons are capable of regulating innate and adaptive immune responses[49, 58], we cannot completely exclude the contributions of neuronal TRPC3 to inflammatory process beyond the sensitivity of our histological and biochemical assays. Although our results support a neuronal mechanism of TRPC3 for allergic itch, we also cannot rule out the involvement of non-neuronal cells, such as immune cells [40, 41, 47]. This possibility can be further validated by use of conditional *Trpc3* knockout mice.

Conclusion

In summary, we have demonstrated that TRPC3 in primary sensory neurons mediates non-histaminergic itch and may contribute to the pathogenesis of chronic itch accompanying CHS via a mechanism that parallels skin inflammatory process. We suggest that TRPC3 may serve as a new potential therapeutic target for the treatment of chronic itch associated with contact dermatitis in which antihistamines are poorly tolerated or ineffective.

Abbreviations

ACD: Allergic contact dermatitis

CHS: Contact hypersensitivity

CQ: Chloroquine

CSS: Complete saline solution

DNCB: 1-Chloro-2,4-dinitrobeneze

ET-1: Endotherlin-1

GPCR: G protein-coupled receptors

H&E: Hematoxylin & eosin

IgG-IC: IgG immune complex

MrgprD: Mas-related G protein-coupled receptor D

NP: Nonpeptidergic

Nppb: Natriuretic peptide B

PBS: Phosphate buffered saline

PFA: Paraformaldehyde

Sst: Somatostatin

TG: Trigeminal ganglion

Declarations

Ethics approval and consent to participate

All experimental procedures were approved by the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee of Johns Hopkins School of Medicine and were consistent with the guidelines provided by the National Institute of Health and the International Association for the Study of Pain.

Consent for publication

Not Applicable

Availability of data and materials

There is no data, software, databases, and application/tool available apart from the reported in the present study. All data are provided in the manuscript.

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Author contributions

Y. Liu performed RNAscope, behavioral experiments, flow cytometry and qPCR and wrote the draft; YT. Liu conducted calcium imaging, behavioral experiments, ear H&E staining, qPCR, analyzed data, and wrote the draft. N. Limjunyawong carried out flow cytometry and analyzed data; C. Narang, H. Jamaldeen, S. Yu, S. Patiram analyzed behavioral data; H. Nie edited the manuscript. M. Caterina and X. Dong

facilitated experimental design and revised the manuscript. L. Qu conceived and supervised the project, designed the experiments, carried out behavioral experiments, and wrote the manuscript.

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Conflict of Interest Statement

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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Figures

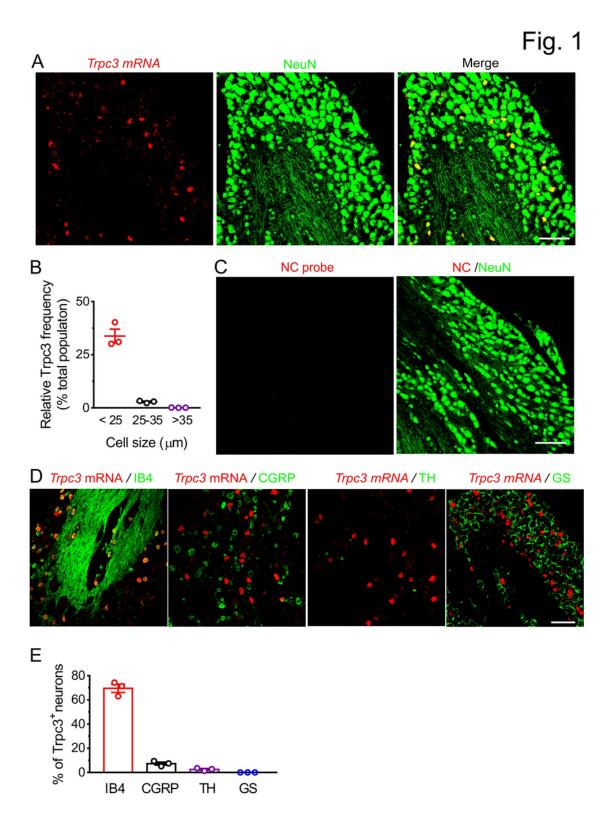


Figure 1

TRPC3 is expressed in mouse TG neurons. (A) RNAScope in situ hybridization (ISH) of Trpc3 mRNA expression in a subset of TG neurons of wildtype mice. Trpc3 mRNA signal (red) was colocalized with NeuN, a pan neuronal marker (green). n = 3 mice; scale bar, $100 \mu m$. (B) Size frequency distribution of Trpc3 positive neurons. (C) RNAscope images showing the absence of Trpc3 mRNA signal in wildtype TG sections stained with a negative probe (n = 3 mice). (D) Fluorescent images for the co-expression of

Trpc3 mRNA signal with IB4, CGRP, TH, and GS. Scale bar, 100 μ m. (E) Coexpression characterization of Trpc3 positive neurons (n = 3 mice).

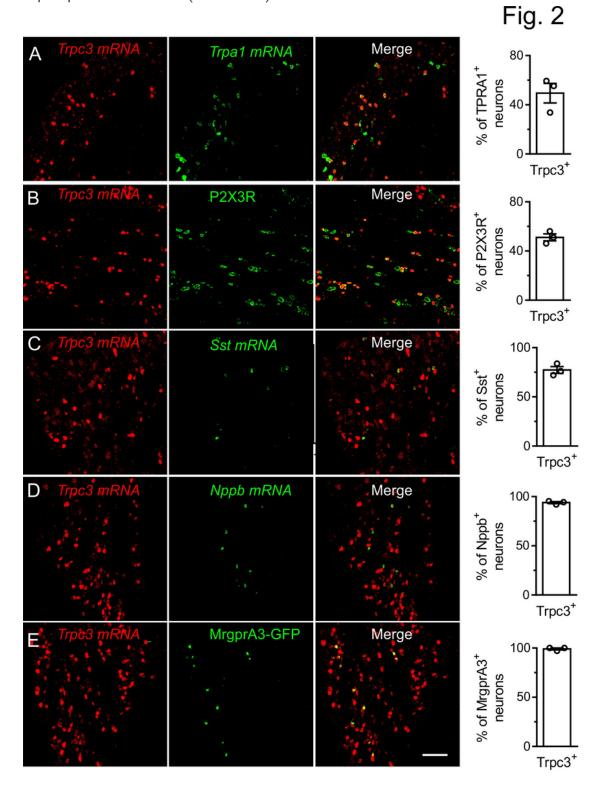


Figure 2

TRPC3 is colocalized with itch related receptors and present in itch sensory neurons. (A-E) Representative image of the coexpression of Trpc3 mRNA with Trpa1 mRNA (A), P2X3 (B), Sst mRNA (C), Nppb mRNA

(D), and GFP signals (MrgprA3GFP-Cre mouse; E) in mouse TG neurons (n = 3 mice), along with quantitative analysis of percentage overlap. Scale bar, $100 \mu m$.

Fig. 3

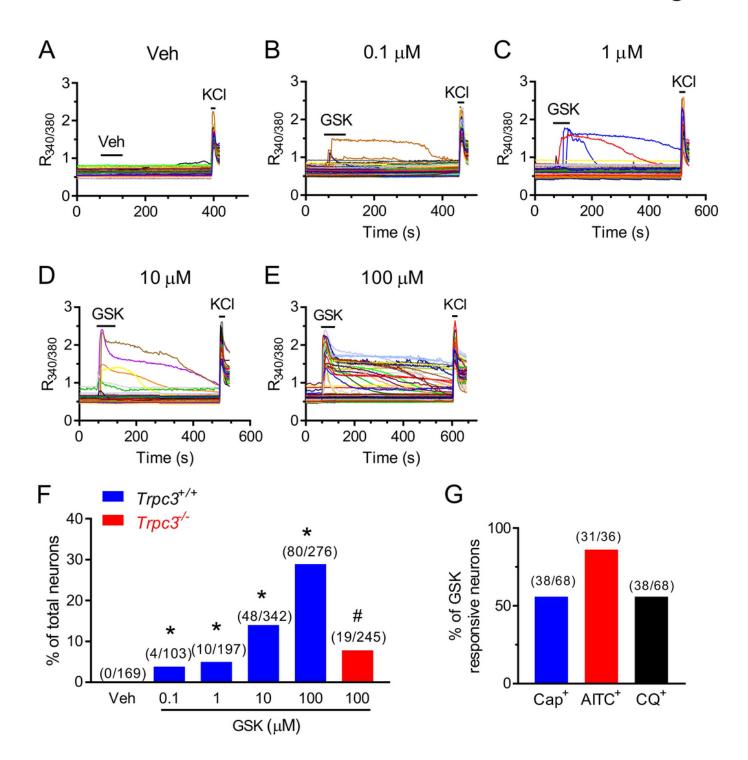


Figure 3

TRPC3 agonism evokes Ca2+ responses in mouse TG neurons. (A-E) Representative traces of Ca2+ responses evoked by vehicle (veh; 0.1% ethanol; A), 0.1 (B), 1 (C), 10 (D), 100 μ M (E) of GSK1702934A (GSK, 1 min) and KCl (50 mM, 20 s) in TG neurons from wiltype mice. Black bars above the traces

indicate the timing of chemical application. (F) Summary graph showing that GSK evoked dose-dependent Ca2+ responses in TG neurons from Trpc3+/+ mice. This effect was diminished in TG neurons from global Trpc3-/- mice. *p < 0.05 vs vehicle; #p < 0.05 vs wildtype 100 μ M, Chi-square test. The numbers of responsive cells vs total tested are given in parentheses. (G) Summary graph showing the overlap of GSK-, chloroquine (CQ; 1 mM)-, allyl isothiocyanate (AITC, 100 μ M)-, and capsaicin (Cap; 1 μ M)-responsive TG neurons from wildtype mice. The numbers of responsive cells vs total tested are given in parentheses.

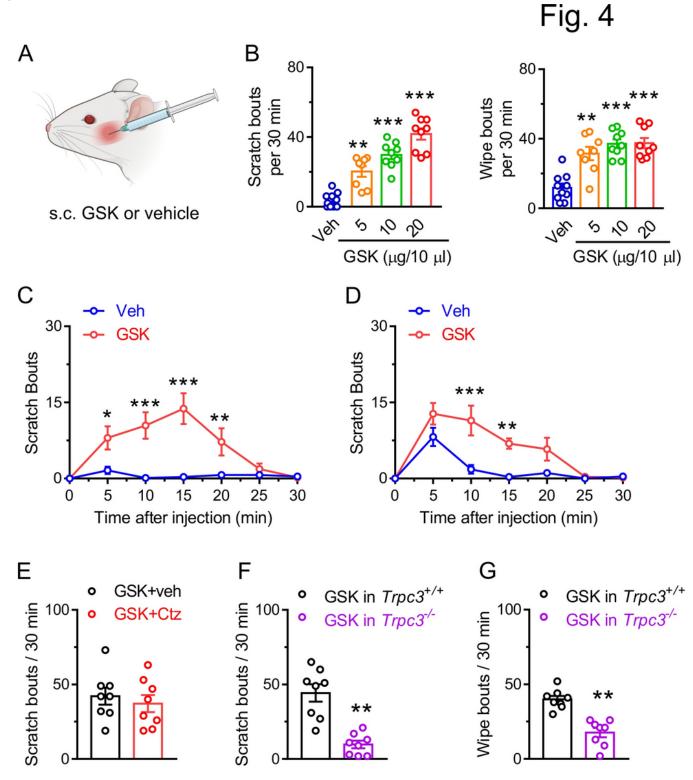


Figure 4

Activation of TRPC3 elicits acute histamine-independent itch in naïve mice. (A) Schematic of cheek injection, behavioral assessments. (B, C) The total scratching (B) and wiping bouts (C) were elicited in response to subcutaneous (s.c.) injection of vehicle (20% HPCD, 10 μ l), and GSK at the different doses (10 μ l in 20% HPCD) into the cheek of wildtype mice. n = 8 -10 mice per group; **p < 0.01, ***p < 0.001 vs vehicle; one-way ANOVA with Tukey's test. (D-E) Time course of scratching (D) and wiping (E) responses before and after s.c injection of GSK at different doses (10 μ l) or vehicle (20% HPCD, 10 μ l). n = 8 -10 mice per group; *p < 0.05, **p < 0.01, ***p < 0.001 vs vehicle; two-way ANOVA for repeated measures followed by Bonferroni's post hoc test. (E) Summary graph showing the effects of H1R blocker cetirizine (i.p.; 30 mg/kg, 100 μ l) or vehicle (saline, 100 μ l) on scratching responses induced by s.c. injection of GSK (20 μ g, 10 μ l in 20% HPCD) into the cheek of naïve mice. n = 8 mice per group. P > 0.05, unpaired Student's t test. (F-G) Summary graph showing the effects of global deletion of Trpc3 on scratching (F) and wiping (G) behaviors evoked by s.c. injection of GSK (20 μ g,10 μ l in 20% HPCD) into mouse cheek. n = 8 mice per group; **p < 0.001 vs Trpc3+/+; unpaired Student's t test.

Fig. 5

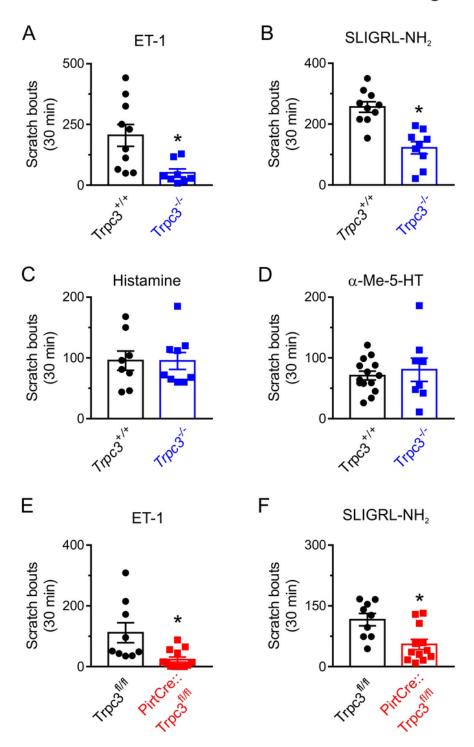


Figure 5

Genetic deletion of Trpc3 attenuates acute itch induced by histamine-independent pruritogens. (A-D) The total number of scratches in 30 min induced by i.d. nape injection of 50 μ l of pruritogens, including ET-1 (25 ng; A), SLIGRL-NH2 (100 μ g; B), histamine (100 μ g; C) and α -Me-5-HT (20 μ g; D) in wildtype and global Trpc3-/- mice. n = 8 -12 mice per group; *p < 0.05, vs Trpc3+/+ mice; Unpaired Student's t test. (E, F) Summary of Scratching responses evoked by ET-1(E; 25 ng; 50 μ l) and SLIGRL-NH2 (F; 100 ug; 50 μ l) in

wildtype and PirtCre::Trpc3fl/fl mice. n = 9-12 mice per group; *p < 0.05 vs Trpc3fl/fl mice; Unpaired Student's t test.

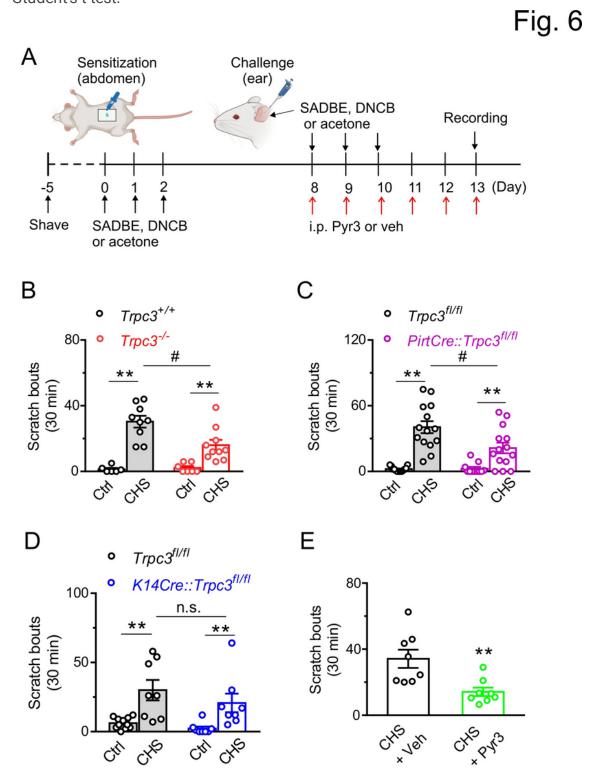


Figure 6

TRPC3 mediates allergic itch in the CHS model. (A) Experimental diagram showing the induction of CHS on mouse ear, drug delivery and behavioral procedures. (B-E) Measurements of spontaneous scratching bouts on the ear of wildtype, global Trpc3-/- mice, sensory neuron specific Trpc3 knockout mice

(PirtCre::Trpc3fl/fl) and keratinocyte specific Trpc3 knockout mice (K14Cre::Trpc3fl/fl) subjected to vehicle control (Ctrl group) and SADBE challenge (CHS group). The number of spontaneous scratching events was counted over a 30 min period. n = 8-11 mice per group; **p < 0.01 vs Ctrl; # p < 0.05 vs Trpc3+/+, two-way ANOVA with Bonferroni's post hoc test. (E) Spontaneous scratching bouts in mice treated with Pyr3 (i.p.; 0.1 mg/kg, 100 μ l) compared to those treated with vehicle (veh; 0.1% DMSO, 100 μ l) on day 3 after CHS induction. n = 8 mice per group; **p < 0.01 vs Ctrl; unpaired Student's t test.

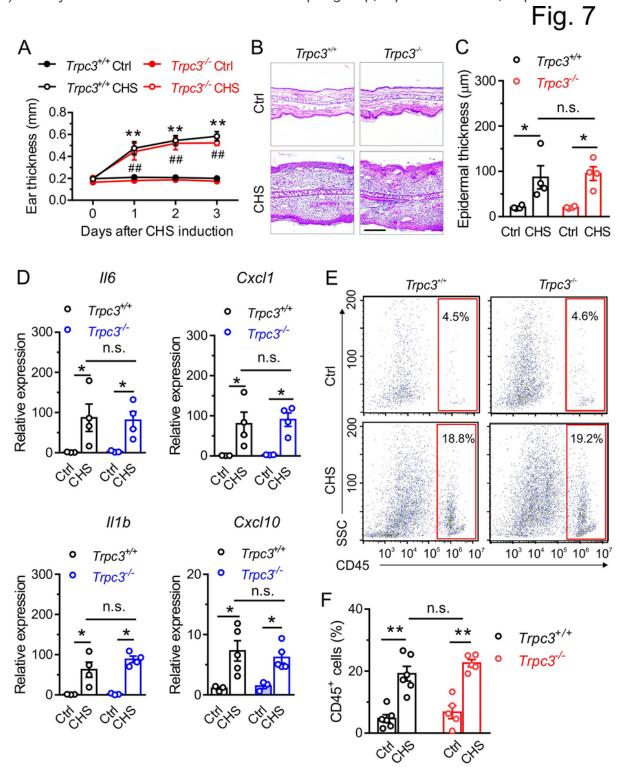


Figure 7

TRPC3 does not contribute to cutaneous inflammation in the CHS model. (A) Time course of ear thickness in wildtype and global Trpc3-/- mice treated with vehicle (Ctrl) and SADBE (CHS). n = 6 - 8 mice per group; **p < 0.01, ##p < 0.01, vs Ctrl, two-way ANOVA for repeated measures followed by Bonferroni's post hoc test. (B) Representative images of H&E-stained ear sections taken from wildtype and global Trpc3-/- mice treated with vehicle (Ctrl) or SADBE (CHS) on day 3 after the 3rd challenge. Scale bar, 200 μ m. (C) Quantification of epidermal thickness. n = 4 mice per group; *p < 0.05, two-way ANOVA with Bonferroni's post hoc test. (C) qRT-PCR analysis of the mRNA expression levels of il6, cxcl1, il1b and cxcl10 in the ear of wildtype and global Trpc3-/- mice on day 3 after challenge. n = 3 - 4 mice per group. *p < 0.05, two-way ANOVA with Bonferroni's post hoc test. (E) Representative flow cytometry plots of vehicle (Ctrl)- and SADBE (CHS)-treated ear skin of Trpc3+/+ and Trpc3-/- mice. Numbers indicate the percentage of positive cells within boxes. (F) Quantification of the proportion of CD45+ leukocytes per biopsy from vehicle (Ctrl)- and SADBE (CHS)-treated ear skin of wildtype and Trpc3-/- mice. n = 5 - 6 mice per group. **p < 0.01, two-way ANOVA with Bonferroni's post hoc test.

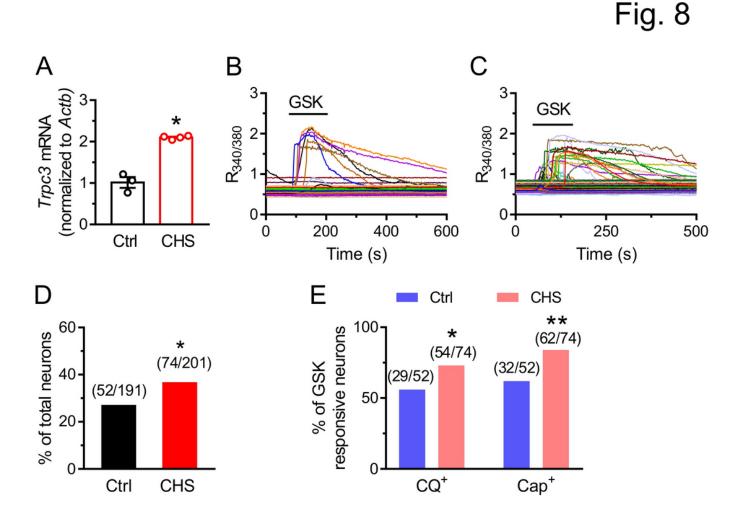


Figure 8

CHS upregulates the expression and function of TRPC3 in mouse TG neurons. (A) qRT-PCR analysis of Trpc3 mRNA expression normalized to that of Actb in in the TG of control (Ctrl; n = 3 mice) and CHS mice (n = 4 mice) one day after the 3rd SADBE challenge. *p < 0.01 vs Ctrl; unpaired Student's t test. (B-C)

Representative traces of Ca2+ responses evoked by GSK (100 μ M, 1 min) in TG neurons from control (Ctrl; B) and CHS (C) mice. Black bars above the traces indicate the timing of chemical application. (D) The percentage of TG neurons that responded to GSK was significantly larger in CHS mice than that in control mice. *p< 0.05 vs Ctrl, Chi-square test. The numbers of responsive cells vs total tested are given in parentheses. (E) The percentage of GSK responsive neurons that also responded to CQ or Cap was significantly increased in CHS mice compared to that in control animals. *p< 0.05, **p < 0.01 vs control, Chi-square test. The numbers of responsive cells vs total tested are given in parentheses.

Supplementary Files

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• SupplementalTable1new92721.docx