In vitro selection of a peptide antagonist of growth hormone secretagogue receptor using cDNA display

Shingo Ueno^{a,b}, Sayaka Yoshida^c, Anupom Mondal^a, Kazuya Nishina^a, Makoto Koyama^c, Ichiro Sakata^a, Kenju Miura^c, Yujiro Hayashi^c, Naoto Nemoto^{b,d}, Koichi Nishigaki^b, and Takafumi Sakai^{a,1}

^aDepartment of Regulation Biology, Faculty of Science, Saitama University, Sakura-ku, Saitama 338-8570, Japan; ^bDepartment of Functional Materials Science, Faculty of Engineering, Saitama University, Sakura-ku, Saitama 338-8570, Japan; ^cAsubio Pharma Co., Ltd., Chuo-ku, Kobe 650-0047, Japan; and ^dJanusys Corporation, Saitama Industrial Technology Center, Skip City, Kawaguchi, Saitama 333-0844, Japan

Edited by Richard A. Lerner, The Scripps Research Institute, La Jolla, CA, and approved May 28, 2012 (received for review February 29, 2012)

G protein-coupled receptors (GPCRs) are major drug targets, and their ligands are currently being explored and developed by many pharmaceutical companies and independent researchers. Class A (rhodopsin-like) GPCRs compose a predominant GPCR family; therefore, class A GPCR ligands are in demand. Growth hormone secretagogue receptor (GHS-R) is a class A GPCR that stimulates food intake by binding to its peptide ligand, ghrelin. Therefore, antagonists of GHS-R are expected to exert antiobesity function. In this article, we describe the use of cDNA display to screen for successfully and identify an antagonistic peptide of GHS-R. The antagonistic peptide inhibited the ghrelin-induced increase in intracellular Ca^{2+} in vitro (IC₅₀ = approximately 10 μ M) and repressed the contraction of isolated animal stomach in response to ghrelin. Furthermore, peripheral administration of the peptide inhibited the food intake of mice. This work provides new insight into the development of antiobesity drugs and describes a method for the discovery of unique peptide ligands for class A GPCRs.

aptamer \mid in vitro display \mid peptide drug \mid ligand screening \mid cell-based selection

hrelin, a 28-amino acid peptide hormone with a unique **G**^{*N*}-octanoyl modification at Ser³, is an endogenous ligand of growth hormone secretagogue receptor (GHS-R), which is a member of the class A (rhodopsin-like) G protein-coupled receptor (GPCR) family (1). Ghrelin is mainly secreted in the stomach and, through binding to GHS-R, stimulates not only the release of growth hormone but also weight gain by increasing food intake and decreasing energy consumption (2). It has been reported that peripheral administration of ghrelin increases food intake and weight gain in animals (3-5) and humans (6). Additionally, with the exception of ghrelin, no hormones that stimulate food intake via peripheral administration are known. Therefore, GHS-R antagonists are expected to perform antiobesity functions by suppressing food intake and weight gain. In fact, small-molecule GHS-R antagonists and [D-Lys-3]-GHRP-6, which is one of the few known peptide antagonists of GHS-R, decrease food intake and weight gain via peripheral administration (7-10).

Because a peptide can be chemically synthesized and is unlikely to act as an antigen, peptide drugs are attractive candidates to replace antibodies in drug therapies targeting specific molecules. The exploration of how novel peptides bind to a cell surface receptor from a randomized peptide library has been achieved using phage display (11). Drugs developed from peptides that bind to thrombopoietin (12, 13) and erythropoietin receptors (14) were discovered by phage display and have been used in therapies (15). Alternatively, in vitro display techniques, such as mRNA display (16, 17) and ribosome display (18, 19), provide advantages over phage display in available library size and selection rapidity. In fact, novel peptide (20) or proteins (21–26) binding to a cell surface receptor were also selected by in vitro display techniques, some of which (20, 22, 24) are physiologically active. However, bioactive peptides that bind to class A GPCRs, which constitute

a major GPCR family (27), have not been selected via in vitro display techniques.

To identify a ligand for class A GPCRs, the complete structure of the receptor in question is required. The extracellular domain of a receptor, although useful in ligand selection, is not sufficient to identify a ligand for class A GPCRs because the ligand-binding site of class A GPCRs encompasses the transmembrane region, which is composed of multiple α -helices (28). Living cells, which express the target receptors on their surfaces, are appropriate for binding target because receptors expressed on living cells, unlike receptors in membrane fractions, assume their native structure and display only their extracellular side. In fact, living cells were used to screen DNA or RNA aptamers (29-35), as well as both peptides and antibodies, using phage display libraries (36–41), which bind to membrane proteins expressed on the cell surface. Nevertheless, selection with live cells has not been performed with in vitro display techniques because mRNA display and ribosome display (in which a peptide is displayed on mRNA) are labile and easily degraded by ribonucleases in serum-supplemented cell culture medium.

Recently, we have developed an in vitro display system, termed cDNA display, which is an improved system of mRNA display; some peptides were successfully screened via this method (42–46). Because a peptide is displayed on a cDNA in cDNA display (instead of being displayed on mRNA, as with mRNA display), peptide-cDNA fusion libraries resist degradation by ribonucleases and can be used under severe selection conditions, such as cell culture medium.

In this study, we used cDNA display to screen a unique GHS-R-binding peptide with antagonistic activity against GHS-R. In doing so, we used live cells expressing GHS-R on their surfaces as binding targets. To the best of our knowledge, this report describes a previously uncharacterized selection of novel bioactive peptide ligands for class A GPCRs via an in vitro display technique.

Results

The Selection Procedure. The selection scheme used in this study is illustrated in Fig. 1. Initially, a randomized DNA library was prepared and converted to mRNA and mRNA/cDNA-peptide fusion library. Nonspecifically bound peptides were removed via exposure to the cells that were not expressing GHS-R. The remaining peptides were exposed to cells expressing GHS-R. Peptides bound to the cells were collected and amplified to prepare the DNA library used in the next round of selection. GHS-R-

Author contributions: S.U., K. Nishigaki, and T.S. designed research; S.U., S.Y., A.M., K. Nishina, K.M., and M.K. performed research; S.U., S.Y., A.M., K. Nishina, M.K., I.S., Y.H., N.N., K.Nishigaki, and T.S. analyzed data; and S.U., I.S., and T.S. wrote the paper.

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

This article is a PNAS Direct Submission

¹To whom correspondence should be addressed. E-mail: tsakai@mail.saitama-u.ac.jp.

This article contains supporting information online at www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/ doi:10.1073/pnas.1203561109/-/DCSupplemental.



Fig. 1. Schematic representation of the selection of GHS-R-binding peptides. The initial DNA library was transcribed into a mRNA library and subsequently converted to a mRNA/cDNA-peptide fusion library. The peptide fusion library was incubated with normal cells, which did not express GHS-R. Bound fusions were discarded and the unbound fusions were incubated with GHS-R-expressing cells. The bound fusions were collected and their DNA moieties were amplified via PCR. The amplified DNA moieties were used for a DNA library in the next round of selection. After performing this selection several times, peptides binding to GHS-R were enriched, and its sequences were analyzed via cloning and sequencing of the bound DNA.

binding peptides were selected by repeatedly performing this selection process. Details of the selection conditions are shown in Table S1 and described in *Materials and Methods*.

Pilot Selection. Prior to the actual selection with a library of randomized peptides, we performed a pilot experiment to confirm the feasibility of our selection procedure. Although octanoyl

modification at Ser^3 in ghrelin is essential for its activity (1), it has been reported that replacing octanoyl Ser³ with Trp preserves its activity with minimal inhibition (47). Therefore, we constructed the mRNA/cDNA-peptide fusions encoding a Trp³-mutant ghrelin (Trp³-ghrelin) and des-octanoyl ghrelin (desacylghrelin) as model binding and unbinding peptides, respectively (Fig. 2). A mixture of mRNA/cDNA-peptide fusions comprising Trp³-ghrelin and desacyl-ghrelin at a ratio of 1:10 was incubated with normal CHO cells or CHO-GHSR62 cells (1), of which only the latter expressed GHS-R. Peptide fusions bound to the cells were collected, and their DNA moieties were amplified via PCR and analyzed via polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis. As a result, it was possible to enrich molecules encoding Trp³-ghrelin from a mixture containing an order of magnitude of excess desacyl-ghrelin molecules in a single round of selection for CHO-GHSR62 cells relative to normal CHO cells (Fig. 3). This result indicates that cDNA-display selection is practical for use with live cultured cells as binding targets.

Actual Selection. The N-terminal region of ghrelin is important for its binding activity (47) and for the determination of ligand characteristics (i.e., agonist or antagonist) (48, 49). In addition, it is thought that the C-terminal region of ghrelin provides stability against degradation in blood (50). Therefore, we used a randomized ghrelin mutant library for the initial selection in which eight N-terminal amino acids were randomized and 20 C-terminal amino acids were conserved without modification (Fig. 2). After five rounds of selection (the details of which are summarized in Table S1), DNA molecules in the library were cloned, and 14 clones were sequenced. As a result, the library converged to three variants for which the sequence G5-1 was most common (11/14 clones), whereas the others were single substitutes of G5-1 (Table 1). Converged sequences had no homology to ghrelin or other known peptide ligands of GHS-R. The eight N-terminal amino acids of G5-1 displayed no homology to the known proteins of humans and common experimental animals, including mice and rats, as assessed by a BLAST search.

Intracellular Calcium Mobilization Assay. Activities of the selected peptides were investigated via an intracellular calcium mobilization assay. Stimulated GHS-R activates the G protein subunit G α 11, leads to the formation of inositol triphosphate, and induces Ca²⁺ release. Fig. 4 depicts the results of the intracellular calcium





Fig. 3. Result of the pilot selection. Single-round selection was performed with CHO-GHSR62 cells and normal CHO cells as binding targets for the library, which was a mixture of two DNA constructs encoding Trp³-ghrelin and desacyl-ghrelin at a ratio of 1:10. After binding procedure, DNA moieties of the bound molecules were amplified by PCR and subjected to analysis. Trp³-ghrelin gene was significantly enriched during selection for CHO-GHSR62 cells relative to normal CHO cells.

mobilization assay, in which costimulation with 5 nM ghrelin and various concentrations of the selected peptides were tested on CHO-GHSR62 cells. As illustrated by Fig. 4, G5-1 suppressed the intracellular calcium increase caused by ghrelin binding to GHS-R in a dose-dependent manner. The suppression was equivalent to that of [D-Lys-3]-GHRP-6, a known peptidic antagonist, with an IC₅₀ of approximately 10 μ M. However, G5-2, which contained a single amino acid substitute of G5-1, and G5-1-N8, which contains only eight N-terminal G5-1 amino acids, exhibited no suppression.

Binding Assay. The binding affinity of G5-1 to GHS-R was examined by a competitive binding assay. Cell membranes of CHO-GHSR62 cells were incubated with [¹²⁵I]-ghrelin (51) and increasing concentrations of the test ligands (ghrelin, [D-Lys-3]-GHRP-6, and G5-1). As shown in Fig. S1, these ligands suppressed the binding of [¹²⁵I]-ghrelin to GHS-R. The IC₅₀ and K_i values of G5-1 were 2.50 ± 0.56 and 2.40 ± 0.60 µM, respectively. The affinity of G5-1 for GHS-R was comparable to that of [D-Lys-3]-GHRP-6. This comparable effect was equivalent to the result of physiological inhibition observed in the intracellular calcium mobilization assay.

Organ Bath Assay. Suncus stomachs were used for in vitro contraction experiments. Motilin is a peptide hormone that stimulates gastric contraction similarly to ghrelin, and it is not expressed in rodents such as mice and rats (52). Suncus murinus is a small mammal that expresses both motilin and ghrelin; thus, it can be used to study motilin-ghrelin family peptides (53). Suncus stomachs pretreated with low concentrations of motilin (100 pM) underwent contraction in response to ghrelin in a dose-dependent manner (Fig. S2). Co-pretreatment with 100 pM motilin and either 1 µM [D-Lys-3]-GHRP-6 or G5-1 nearly eliminated the contraction of Suncus stomachs induced with ghrelin (Fig. 5). It is noteworthy that motilin began to evoke gastric contraction of S. murinus at 1 nM but was unable to do so at 100 pM in vitro (54). Stomach contractions occurred in response to 100 pM ghrelin after pretreatment with motilin alone, but only small contractions occurred when stomachs were pretreated with [D-Lys-3]-GHRP-6 or G5-1 in conjunction with motilin, even at high doses of ghrelin. This result indicates that, during pretreatment, [D-Lys-

Table 1. Selected and analyzed peptides

| | Sequence | No. of clones |
|---------|-------------------------------|---------------|
| Library | XXXXXXXX HQRVQQRKESKKPPAKLQPR | _ |
| G5-1 | FQFLPFMF HQRVQQRKESKKPPAKLQPR | 11 |
| G5-2 | FQFLPFMS HQRVQQRKESKKPPAKLQPR | 2 |
| G5-3 | FQFLPVMF HQRVQQRKESKKPPAKLQPR | 1 |
| G5-1-N8 | FQFLPFMF-NH ₂ | _ |

Three peptides (G5-1, G5-2, and G5-3) were selected and three peptides (G5-1, G5-2, and G5-1-N8) were chemically synthesized and analyzed.

Ueno et a



Fig. 4. Antagonistic activity of selected peptides. CHO-GHSR62 cells were stimulated with 5 nM ghrelin and the appropriate concentration of each selected peptide, and the resulting Ca²⁺ release was measured. The ghrelin effect was suppressed by G5-1 and [D-Lys-3]-GHRP-6, a control peptide, in a dose-dependent manner. G5-2 and G5-1-N8 showed no inhibition. Human atrial natriuretic peptide (hANP) was used as a negative control. The IC₅₀ of G5-1 was approximately 10 μ M. All values are presented as means \pm SEM (n = 4).

3]-GHRP-6 and G5-1 bound to GHS-R expressed on the stomach and blocked binding of ghrelin.

Feeding Tests. It is known that the level of ghrelin in serum increases during fasting and decreases upon refeeding in rodents (3). Next, G5-1 was administered peripherally to determine how it affects ghrelin-induced food intake in fasting mice.

[D-Lys-3]-GHRP-6 (1.5 mg/kg; 1.6 μ mol/kg) and G5-1 (2.0 mg/kg; 0.57 μ mol/kg) were intravenously administrated to mice that had fasted for 16 h. [D-Lys-3]-GHRP-6 significantly suppressed food intake by 1 and 2 h postadministration. Similarly,



Fig. 5. Effect of [D-Lys3]-GHRP-6 and G5-1 on ghrelin-induced gastric contractions in *S. murinus*. The *Suncus* stomach was pretreated with 100 pM motilin and either 1 μ M [D-Lys3]-GHRP-6 (*A*) or G5-1 (*B*). Subsequently, stomachs were treated with each concentration of ghrelin and the resulting contractile response was measured. The contractile response is expressed as a percentage of the contraction induced by 10 μ M of ACh. Ghrelin-induced *Suncus* gastric contraction was nearly abolished by pretreatment with G5-1 or [D-Lys-3]-GHRP-6. All values are presented as means \pm SEM (n = 4). **P < 0.01.

www.manaraa.com

G5-1 significantly suppressed food intake at 1 h postadministration relative to the vehicle control group (Fig. 6*A* and *B*). Fig. 6*C* shows integrated data of cumulative food intake at 1 h postadministration of G5-1 (0.5–2.0 mg/kg; 0.14–0.57 μ mol/kg), [D-Lys-3]-GHRP-6 (1.5 mg/kg; 1.6 μ mol/kg), and *Suncus* motilin (4.0 mg/kg; 1.5 μ mol/kg). G5-1 suppressed food intake in a dose-dependent manner, whereas motilin, a negative control, had no effect. These results indicate that peripheral administration of G5-1, as well as [D-Lys-3]-GHRP-6, can inhibit food intake in mice.

Discussion

We used cDNA display to screen a peptide library and identified G5-1, a novel peptide that exhibits antagonistic activity against the class A GPCR, GHS-R. The amino acid sequence of G5-1 differs from that of ghrelin and other known GHS-R peptide ligands. Nearly all known GHS-R ligands, including ghrelin, have one or two basic residues and many hydrophobic residues that interact with E124 and the hydrophobic pocket of GHS-R, respectively (55, 56). Similarly, G5-1 is composed of a N-terminal



Fig. 6. Suppression of food intake by intravenous administration of G5-1. (*A*) Effect of intravenously administered [D-Lys-3]-GHRP-6 (1.5 mg/kg; 1.6 μ mol/kg) on cumulative food intake in fasting mice. (*B*) Effect of intravenously administered G5-1 (2.0 mg/kg; 0.57 μ mol/kg) on cumulative food intake in fasting mice. (*C*) Effect of intravenously administered G5-1 (0.5 mg/kg; 0.14–0.57 μ mol/kg), [D-Lys-3]-GHRP-6 (1.5 mg/kg; 1.6 μ mol/kg), and *Suncus* motilin (4.0 mg/kg; 1.5 μ mol/kg) on cumulative food intake in 1 h postadministration in fasting mice. Motilin was used as a negative control. Statistical comparisons were made against the control group using Student's *t* test (*A*, *B*) and one-way ANOVA (Dennett's posttest) (*C*). All values are presented as means \pm SEM. **P* < 0.05, ***P* < 0.01, ****P* < 0.001.

amino group and many hydrophobic residues in its N-terminal region. Therefore, G5-1 appears to bind to GHS-R via the same mechanism as other ligands. Ghrelin binds to GHS-R at its N-terminus, and its C-terminus is thought to regulate its stability in blood. In fact, five N-terminal amino acids of ghrelin are essential to its activity, and truncation of the C-terminus did not decrease its activity in vitro (47). Nevertheless, G5-1-N8, a mutant that contains only eight N-terminal G5-1 amino acids, exhibited no activity in a calcium mobilization assay in vitro. This finding suggests that the C-terminal sequence of ghrelin may play a role in G5-1 binding to GHS-R. Additionally, G5-2, a mutant containing a single amino acid substitute of G5-1, exhibited no activity. This result suggests that there are strict requirements for amino acid interactions between G5-1 and GHS-R.

A number of small-molecule antagonists of GHS-R have been discovered with IC₅₀ values in the nM range (7-9). However, peptide GHS-R antagonists are restricted to only two peptides with weak IC50 values of approximately 10 µM, [D-Lys-3]-GHRP-6 and G5-1, the latter of which was characterized in this study. Although G5-1 is a weak antagonist, it is the first peptide GHS-R antagonist composed of only L-amino acids. Therefore, G5-1 could be the basis for a short-acting antiobesity drug with minimal side effects, and it could also be prepared as a fusion with other proteins (such as the Fc portion of IgG and albumin) to extend the half-life of the peptide (57, 58), as observed with the thrombopoietin-binding peptide selected by phage display (13, 59, 60). Additionally, as G5-1 is a relatively short peptide, it could be easily stabilized against peptidase by chemical modifications-such as PEGylation, glycosylation, acetylation, amidation, and D-amino acid substitution (61, 62)-for its use as a therapeutic drug. Alternatively, drug-delivery systems (DDS) could be efficiently used to prevent the undesired degradation of peptide-based drugs. In DDS of peptide-based drugs, liposomes, microparticles, and nanoparticles are used for controlled or sustained release of the drug (63), and mucoadhesive polymers are used for transmucosal drug delivery (i.e., nasal, ocular) (64).

The use of in vitro display techniques to screen for novel peptide GPCR ligands has been limited to several reports because of the difficulty of preparing GPCRs as binding targets. Because ligand-binding sites of class B GPCRs are in the extracellular domain, purified extracellular domains immobilized on beads can be used as a binding target. Ja et al. (20) screened the peptide ligand of Mth, a class B GPCR, via mRNA display with the extracellular domain of Mth. However, because ligand-binding sites of Class A GPCRs include transmembrane regions composed of multiple transmembrane α -helices, the use of complete receptors is required to recreate molecular structures accurately. Although detergent-solubilized receptors from the membrane fraction are used to select ligands, they generally display both intra-and extracellular surfaces without distinction. In fact, Milovnik et al. (26) selected the proteins that bound to the neurotensin receptor 1, a class A GPCR, via ribosome display with detergent-solubilized receptors; the selected proteins bound to both extra- and intracellular sides of the receptor. Although the use of whole cells to express the target receptor as a binding target facilitates the preparation of receptors in their native conformation and active states, this method has not previously been used in in vitro display techniques. In this paper, we have successfully used live cells in conjunction with cDNA display to screen and identify novel peptide ligands for class A GPCRs.

Materials and Methods

Preparation of mRNA/cDNA-Peptide Fusions. The procedures for preparation of DNA constructs and mRNA/cDNA-peptide fusions are illustrated in Figs. S3 and S4. Puromycin-linker and mRNA/cDNA-peptide fusions were prepared as previously described (43, 65). Detailed procedures are provided in *SI Materials and Methods*.

Dowr

Pilot Selection. The mixture of the mRNA/cDNA-peptide fusions containing the fusion of Trp³-ghrelin and an excess of the desacyl-ghrelin fusion was incubated with 5.0×10^4 CHO-GHSR62 cells for 1 h in 50 μ L of selection buffer (10 mM Hepes-NaOH, pH 7.4: 135 mM NaCl, 5 mM KCl, 2.5 mM CaCl₂, 0.8 mM MgCl₂, 10 mM Glucose, 0.2% BSA, and 0.6 mM NaHCO₃). The cells were washed three times with ice-cold selection buffer on ice and incubated with 50 μ L of 0.1 M glycine-HCl (pH 3.5) for 10 min at room temperature. The supernatant was collected and followed by phenol/chloroform/isoamyl alcohol extraction and ethanol precipitation. The precipitate was dissolved in water and amplified via PCR. The amplified product was analyzed via 8 M urea-denatured PAGE. Detailed procedures are provided in *SI Materials and Methods*.

Actual Selection. The mRNA/cDNA-peptide fusion library was dissolved in selection buffer and incubated with CHO cells on ice. The supernatant was collected and incubated on ice with CHO-GHSR62 cells (the fusion library of the first round of selection was directly incubated with CHO-GHSR62 cells without preincubation with CHO cells). The cells were washed with ice-cold selection buffer and incubated with 0.1 M glycine-HCl (pH 3.5) for 10 min at room temperature. The supernatant was collected, and 1 M Tris-HCl (pH 8.9) was added to the supernatant to neutralize the pH. The collected sample was concentrated with butanol, precipitated with ethanol, and purified using a OIA-quick PCR purification column (Ojagen). The cDNA portion of the purified sample was amplified using PCR to create the DNA library for the next round of selection. These rounds of selection were performed with a change of reaction volumes and several conditions to enhance gradually the selection pressure. The selection conditions of each round are presented in Table S1. The PCR products of the molecules selected in the fifth round of selection were cloned into pGEM-T Easy vectors (Promega) and analyzed by means of general sequencing. Detailed procedures are provided in SI Materials and Methods.

Intracellular Calcium Mobilization Assay. Ghrelin was synthesized as previously reported (66), and the G5-1, G5-2, and G5-1-N8 peptides were custom synthesized (SCRUM Inc.). [p-Lys-3]-GHRP-6 was purchased from Bachem, and human atrial natriuretic peptide (hANP) was synthesized using standard Fmoc chemistry. Ghrelin (final concentration, 5 nM) and selected concentrations of the selected or control peptides were loaded onto CHO-GHSR62 cells, which were pretreated with FLIPR Ca 3 (Molecular Devices), and the intracellular calcium concentration change was determined by measuring the change

- Kojima M, et al. (1999) Ghrelin is a growth-hormone-releasing acylated peptide from stomach. Nature 402:656–660.
- Kojima M, Kangawa K (2005) Ghrelin: Structure and function. *Physiol Rev* 85:495–522.
 Tschop M, Smiley DL, Heiman ML (2000) Ghrelin induces adiposity in rodents. *Nature*
- 407:908–913. 4. Asakawa A, et al. (2001) Ghrelin is an appetite-stimulatory signal from stomach with
- Asakawa A, et al. (2001) Ginemin's an appendestimated by signal non-stonactivity structural resemblance to motilin. *Gastroenterology* 120:337–345.
 Nakazato M, et al. (2001) A role for ghrelin in the central regulation of feeding. *Nature*
- 409:194–198.
- 6. Wren AM, et al. (2001) Ghrelin enhances appetite and increases food intake in humans. J Clin Endocrinol Metab 86:5992–5995.
- Moulin A, et al. (2008) New trisubstituted 1,2,4-triazole derivatives as potent ghrelin receptor antagonists. 3. Synthesis and pharmacological in vitro and in vivo evaluations. J Med Chem 51:689–693.
- Xin Z, et al. (2006) Discovery and pharmacological evaluation of growth hormone secretagogue receptor antagonists. J Med Chem 49:4459–4469.
- Rudolph J, et al. (2007) Quinazolinone derivatives as orally available ghrelin receptor antagonists for the treatment of diabetes and obesity. J Med Chem 50:5202–5216.
- Asakawa A, et al. (2003) Antagonism of ghrelin receptor reduces food intake and body weight gain in mice. Gut 52:947–952.
- 11. Molek P, Strukelj B, Bratkovic T (2011) Peptide phage display as a tool for drug discovery: Targeting membrane receptors. *Molecules* 16:857–887.
- 12. Cwirla SE, et al. (1997) Peptide agonist of the thrombopoietin receptor as potent as the natural cytokine. *Science* 276:1696–1699.
- 13. Cines DB, Yasothan U, Kirkpatrick P (2008) Romiplostim. Nat Rev Drug Discov 7:887–888.
- 14. Wrighton NC, et al. (1996) Small peptides as potent mimetics of the protein hormone erythropoietin. *Science* 273:458–463.
- 15. McGregor DP (2008) Discovering and improving novel peptide therapeutics. Curr Opin Pharmacol 8:616–619.
- Nemoto N, Miyamoto-Sato E, Husimi Y, Yanagawa H (1997) In vitro virus: Bonding of mRNA bearing puromycin at the 3'-terminal end to the C-terminal end of its encoded protein on the ribosome in vitro. *FEBS Lett* 414:405–408.
- 17. Roberts RW, Szostak JW (1997) RNA-peptide fusions for the in vitro selection of peptides and proteins. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 94:12297–12302.
- Mattheakis L, Bhatt R, Dower W (1994) An in vitro polysome display system for identifying ligands from very large peptide libraries. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 91:9022–9026.

in fluorescence intensity. Detailed procedures are provided in *SI Materials* and *Methods*.

Binding Assay. Ligand binding to cell membranes from CHO-GHSR62 cells was investigated using [¹²⁵]-ghrelin as a tracer ligand. The IC₅₀, K_d , and K_i values of the ligands were determined by fitting the competition curves. Detailed procedures are provided in *SI Materials and Methods*.

Organ Bath Assay. Organ bath assay was performed as previously described (53, 54) using isolated stomachs of fasting female adult *Suncus*. Contractile activities of the stomachs were monitored using an isometric force transducer (UM-203; Iwashiya Kishimoto Medical Industrials). The stomachs were stabilized in an organ bath and control contraction was measured using acetylcholine (ACh; 10 μ M) treatment. Ghrelin (10 pM–100 nM) was added cumulatively to the organ bath from 30 s after adding 100 pM of motilin. Either [bLys-3]-GHRP-6 (1 μ M) or G5-1 (1 μ M) was treated in conjunction with motilin before cumulative administration of ghrelin. Contractions evoked by ghrelin were expressed as a percentage of the control contraction induced by ACh. Detailed procedures are provided in *SI Materials Methods*. All procedures used in this experiment were approved and performed in accordance with the institutional guidelines for animal care at Saitama University.

Feeding Tests. Male mice of the *ddy* strain (7 weeks old) were purchased and individually housed under controlled conditions $(21 \pm 2 °C, lights on from time 0800 to 2000) for a week. Mice (8 weeks old, 26–33 g) were fasted for 16 h (time 1800–1000) before being provided free access to water. G5-1 and [D-Lys-3]-GHRP-6 were administrated into the subclavian vein under an$ esthesia with 3% isoflurane. Immediately after administration, the incision site was*closed with super glue*. Mice were then reintroduced into the cage, in which food (which had been weighed) and water were served. Food intake was measured at 5, 10, 15, 30, 60, 120, and 240 min after administration. All procedures used in this experiment were performed in accordance with the institutional guidelines for animal care at Saitama University.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS. We thank Dr. Kenji Kangawa for the generous gift of CHO-GHSR62 cells; Drs. Akikazu Mochiduki, Chihiro Tsutsui, and Sachika Tsuji-Ueno for technical help; and Risa Tanaka and Takao Abe for technical assistance. This work was supported by a grant for the *City Area Program* (Saitama Metropolitan Area) from the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology (*MEXT*).

- Hanes J, Plückthun A (1997) In vitro selection and evolution of functional proteins by using ribosome display. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 94:4937–4942.
- Ja WW, et al. (2007) Extension of drosophila melanogaster life span with a GPCR peptide inhibitor. Nat Chem Biol 3:415–419.
- Shibui T, Kobayashi T, Kanatani K (2009) A completely in vitro system for obtaining scFv using mRNA display, PCR, direct sequencing, and wheat embryo cell-free translation. *Biotechnol Lett* 31:1103–1110.
- Getmanova EV, et al. (2006) Antagonists to human and mouse vascular endothelial growth factor receptor 2 generated by directed protein evolution in vitro. *Chem Biol* 13:549–556.
- Villemagne D, Jackson R, Douthwaite JA (2006) Highly efficient ribosome display selection by use of purified components for in vitro translation. J Immunol Methods 313:140–148.
- Eggel A, Baumann MJ, Amstutz P, Stadler BM, Vogel M (2009) DARPins as bispecific receptor antagonists analyzed for immunoglobulin E receptor blockage. J Mol Biol 393:598–607.
- 25. Huber T, Steiner D, Röthlisberger D, Plückthun A (2007) In vitro selection and characterization of DARPins and Fab fragments for the co-crystallization of membrane proteins: The Na⁺-citrate symporter CitS as an example. J Struct Biol 159:206–221.
- Milovnik P, Ferrari D, Sarkar CA, Plückthun A (2009) Selection and characterization of DARPins specific for the neurotensin receptor 1. Protein Eng Des Sel 22:357–366.
- 27. Chalmers DT, Behan DP (2002) The use of constitutively active GPCRs in drug discovery
- and functional genomics. Nat Rev Drug Discov 1:599–608.
 28. Joel B, Jean PP (1999) Molecular tinkering of G protein-coupled receptors: An evolutionary success. EMBO J 18:1723–1729.
- Blank M, Weinschenk T, Priemer M, Schluesener H (2001) Systematic evolution of a DNA aotamer binding to rat brain tumor microvessels. J Biol Chem 276:16464–16468.
- Wang C, et al. (2003) Single-stranded DNA aptamers that bind differentiated but not parental cells: Subtractive systematic evolution of ligands by exponential enrichment. *J Biotechnol* 102:15–22.
- Cerchia L, et al. (2005) Neutralizing aptamers from whole-cell SELEX inhibit the RET receptor tyrosine kinase. *PLoS Biol* 3:e123.
- Ohuchi SP, Ohtsu T, Nakamura Y (2006) Selection of RNA aptamers against recombinant transforming growth factor-β type III receptor displayed on cell surface. *Biochimie* 88:897–904.
- Shangguan D, et al. (2006) Aptamers evolved from live cells as effective molecular probes for cancer study. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 103:11838–11843.

Ueno et al.

- 34. Carine P, et al. (2006) Comparison of different strategies to select aptamers against a transmembrane protein target. *Oligonucleotides* 16:323–335.
- Tang Z, et al. (2007) Selection of aptamers for molecular recognition and characterization of cancer cells. Anal Chem 79:4900–4907.
- Odermatt A, et al. (2001) Identification of receptor ligands by screening phage-display peptide libraries ex vivo on microdissected kidney tubules. J Am Soc Nephrol 12:308–316.
- Giordano RJ, Cardó-Vila M, Lahdenranta J, Pasqualini R, Arap W (2001) Biopanning and rapid analysis of selective interactive ligands. Nat Med 7:1249–1253.
- Bach M, et al. (2003) Isolation from phage display libraries of lysine-deficient human epidermal growth factor variants for directional conjugation as targeting ligands. Protein Eng 16:1107–1113.
- Valadon P, et al. (2006) Screening phage display libraries for organ-specific vascular immunotargeting in vivo. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 103:407–412.
- Wang FY, et al. (2006) Selection of CC chemokine receptor 5-binding peptide from a phage display peptide library. *Biosci Biotechnol Biochem* 70:2035–2041.
- Ahmadvand D, Rasaee MJ, Rahbarizadeh F, Kontermann RE, Sheikholislami F (2009) Cell selection and characterization of a novel human endothelial cell specific nanobody. *Mol Immunol* 46:1814–1823.
- Kitamura K, et al. (2008) Development of systemic in vitro evolution and its application to generation of peptide-aptamer-based inhibitors of cathepsin E. J Mol Biol 387:1186–1198.
- 43. Yamaguchi J, et al. (2009) cDNA display: A novel screening method for functional disulfide-rich peptides by solid-phase synthesis and stabilization of mRNA-protein fusions. Nucl Acids Res 37:e108.
- 44. Naimuddin M, et al. (2011) Directed evolution of a three-finger neurotoxin by using cDNA display yields antagonists as well as agonists of interleukin-6 receptor signaling. *Mol Brain* 4:2.
- Biyani M, et al. (2011) In vitro selection of cathepsin E-activity-enhancing peptide aptamers at neutral pH. Int J Pept 2011:1–10.
- Tsuji-Ueno S, et al. (2011) Novel high-affinity Aβ-binding peptides identified by an advanced in vitro evolution, progressive library method. Protein Pept Lett 18:642–650.
- Matsumoto M, et al. (2001) Structure–activity relationship of ghrelin: Pharmacological study of ghrelin peptides. *Biochem Biophys Res Commun* 287:142–146.
- Ohinata K, Kobayashi K, Yoshikawa M (2006) [Trp3, Arg5]-ghrelin(1-5) stimulates growth hormone secretion and food intake via growth hormone secretagogue (GHS) receptor. *Peptides* 27:1632–1637.
- Cheng K, Chan WW, Barreto A, Jr, Convey EM, Smith RG (1989) The synergistic effects of His-D-Trp-Ala-Trp-D-Phe-Lys-NH2 on growth hormone (GH)-releasing factor-stimu-

lated GH release and intracellular adenosine 3',5'-monophosphate accumulation in rat primary pituitary cell culture. *Endocrinology* 124:2791–2798.

- Tolle V, et al. (2001) In vivo and in vitro effects of ghrelin/motilin-related peptide on growth hormone secretion in the rat. *Neuroendocrinology* 73:54–61.
- Katugampola SD, Pallikaros Z, Davenport AP (2001) [125I-His9]-ghrelin, a novel radioligand for localizing GHS orphan receptors in human and rat tissue; up-regulation of receptors with atherosclerosis. Br J Pharmacol 134:143–149.
- He J, Irwin DM, Chen R, Zhang YP (2010) Stepwise loss of motilin and its specific receptor genes in rodents. J Mol Endocrinol 44:37–44.
- Tsutsui C, et al. (2009) House musk shrew (Suncus murinus, order: Insectivora) as a new model animal for motilin study. Peptides 30:318–329.
- Mondal A, et al. (2011) Myenteric neural network activated by motilin in the stomach of Suncus murinus (house musk shrew). Neurogastroenterol Motil 23:1123–1131.
- 55. Feighner SD, et al. (1998) Structural requirements for the activation of the human growth hormone secretagogue receptor by peptide and nonpeptide secretagogues. *Mol Endocrinol* 12:137–145.
- Holst B, et al. (2004) Common structural basis for constitutive activity of the ghrelin receptor family. J Biol Chem 279:53806–53817.
- 57. Kontermann RE (2011) Strategies for extended serum half-life of protein therapeutics. *Curr Opin Biotechnol* 22:868–876.
- Szlachcic A, Zakrzewska M, Otlewski J (2011) Longer action means better drug: Tuning up protein therapeutics. *Biotechnol Adv* 29:436–441.
- Dumont JA, Low SC, Peters RT, Bitonti AJ (2006) Monomeric Fc fusions: Impact on pharmacokinetic and biological activity of protein therapeutics. *BioDrugs* 20:151–160.
- Jazayeri JA, Carroll GJ (2008) Fc-based cytokines: Prospects for engineering superior therapeutics. *BioDrugs* 22:11–26.
- Sato AK, Viswanathan M, Kent RB, Wood CR (2006) Therapeutic peptides: Technological advances driving peptides into development. *Curr Opin Biotechnol* 17:638–642.
- 62. McGregor DP (2008) Discovering and improving novel peptide therapeutics. *Curr Opin Pharmacol* 8:616–619.
- Tan M, Choong PFM, Dass CR (2010) Recent developments in liposomes, microparticles and nanoparticles for protein and peptide drug delivery. *Peptides* 31:184–193.
- Kharenko EA, Larionova NI, Demina NB (2009) Mucoadhesive drug delivery systems (review). Pharm Chem J 43:200–208.
- Ueno S, Nemoto N (2012) cDNA display: Rapid stabilization of mRNA display. Methods Mol Biol 805:113–135.
- Makino T, et al. (2005) Semisynthesis of human ghrelin: Condensation of a Boc-protected recombinant peptide with a synthetic O-acylated fragment. *Biopolymers* 79:238–247.

