

Bombesin receptor antagonists

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Introduction

Bombesin (BB) is a 14 amino acid peptide isolated from frog skin (1). It is biologically active in the periphery where it contracts smooth muscles, stimulates pancreatic enzyme (amylase) secretion (2), inhibits food intake (3) and stimulates pituitary hormone (growth hormone) secretion (4). Also, BB is biologically active in the central nervous system where it increases locomotor activity (5), causes hypothermia (6) and increases blood glucose levels (7). In the normal CNS and periphery, BB-like peptides function as neuromodulators where they are released from neurons and bind to receptors in adjacent cells (8). Perhaps the most important action of BB, however, is that it stimulates the growth of normal and malignant cells (9-11). In particular, high levels of BB-like peptides were detected in small cell lung cancer (SCLC), a neuroendocrine tumor which kills approximately 30,000 patients annually in the United States (12). Traditionally, SCLC is treated with chemo- and/or radiation therapy and initially the tumor regresses. Unfortunately, patient relapse occurs, the tumor proliferates and the median survival time of SCLC patients is less than 1 year. Therefore, new therapeutic approaches are needed for the treatment of SCLC. Subsequently, BB receptor antagonists were developed with the goal of inhibiting cancer proliferation.

BB agonists

BB contains 14 amino acid residues and has a blocked N-terminal (pyroglutamate) and C-terminal (amidated). Other frog skin peptides structurally related to BB include litorin, alkytesin and ranatensin which have 9, 14 and 11 amino acids, respectively (13). Table I shows that these peptides have structural homology to BB at the C-terminal. Subsequently, the mammalian peptides gastrin releasing peptide (GRP) and neuromedin B (NMB) were isolated which contain 27 and 10 amino acids, respectively (14, 15). GRP and NMB have structural homology at the C-terminal octapeptide of BB. Substitution of D-amino acids for the natural L-amino acids at the 8(Trp), 10(Val), 12(His), 13(Leu) or 14(Met) of BB greatly reduced biological activity (16). A difference between BB and litorin, ranatensin and NMB is that the latter 3 peptides have a Phe at the penultimate position whereas GRP, BB and alkytesin have a Leu. Subsequently, distinct GRP (384 amino acids) and NMB (390 amino acids) receptors were cloned (17-19). The order of peptide potency for GRP (BB₂) receptors is GRP = BB > NMB, whereas NMB (BB₁) receptors prefer NMB relative to BB or GRP (20, 21). Additional studies indicated that the Leu at position 3 of NMB was the most important for NMB receptor selectivity, followed by the Phe at position 9 of NMB (22). The genes for the BB₁ and BB₂ receptors are localized to chromosomes 6q21 and X, respectively (23). In addition, a third bombesin receptor was cloned (BRS-3) whose natural ligand is unknown (24).

BB-like peptides are expressed in SCLC cells in the form of high molecular weight precursor proteins. GRP and NMB are derived from 148 and 116 amino acid precursor proteins, respectively (25-27); the genes for preproGRP and preproNMB are on chromosomes 18 and 15q11, respectively. They are posttranslationally processed by signal proteases, trypsin-like enzymes, carboxypeptidase B-like enzymes and peptidyl- α -monooxygenase enzymes to yield GRP and NMB which are amidated at the C-terminal. Because amidation of BB is essential for biological activity, the GRP and NMB

Table 1: Structure of BB-like peptide agonists.

| Peptide | Structure |
|------------|--|
| GRP | Ala-Pro-Val-Ser-Val-Gly-Gly-Gly-Thr-Val-Leu-Ala-Lys-Met-Tyr-Pro-Arg-Gly- <u>Asn-His-Trp-Ala-Val-Gly-His-Leu-Met</u> -NH ₂ |
| BB | Pyr-Gln-Arg-Leu-Gly-Asn-Gln-Trp-Ala-Val-Gly-His-Leu-Met-NH ₂ |
| Aly | Pyr-Gly-Arg-Leu-Gly-Thr-Gln-Trp-Ala-Val-Gly-His-Leu-Met-NH ₂ |
| Litorin | Pyr-Gln-Trp-Ala-Val-Gly-His-Phe-Met-NH ₂ |
| Ranatensin | Pyr-Val-Pro-Gln-Trp-Ala-Val-Gly-His-Phe-Met-NH ₂ |
| NMB | Gly-Asn-Leu-Trp-Ala-Thr-Gly-His-Phe-Met-NH ₂ |

Sequence homologies relative to BB are underlined. Standard amino acid abbreviations are used; Pyr, pyroglutamate.

precursor proteins are likely inactive (28). GRP and NMB may be stored in the dense core neurosecretory granules associated with SCLC and the levels of immunoreactive GRP can be quite high [for example 18 pmol/mg protein in NCI-H209 cells (29)]. Addition of vasoactive intestinal peptide (VIP) elevates the intracellular cAMP in SCLC cell line NCI-H345 or NCI-H209, resulting in an increased secretion rate of GRP (30). When VIP binds to cell surface VIP₁ receptors, a stimulatory guanine nucleotide binding subunit (Gs) is activated increasing adenylyl cyclase activity (31). The stimulation caused by VIP is inhibited by somatostatin (SRIF), which binds to cell surface receptors activating an inhibitory guanine nucleotide binding subunit (Gi) (32). The GRP levels in SCLC conditioned media are approximately 1 nM and similar plasma levels are observed in patients with extensive SCLC (30). The secreted GRP binds to cell surface receptors and is rapidly internalized (33). The GRP receptor complex is rapidly internalized to lysosomes. The diphtheria toxin-GRP fusion protein is internalized by SCLC cells and after metabolism diphtheria toxin fragments inhibit protein synthesis and kill SCLC cells (34). These data indicate that the GRP receptor can be utilized to deliver cytotoxic agents into cancer cells. After receptor activation, GRP is degraded by endopeptidase 24.11 (35). The half-life of GRP in the blood is approximately 5 minutes.

In contrast to the GRP and NMB receptors, very little is known about the BRS-3 receptor. Its structure has been described in humans (24) and guinea pigs (36). Whereas NMB and GRP receptors have a widespread distribution in the CNS and peripheral tissues (37-39), the BRS-3 receptor has a pattern of expression limited to secondary spermatocytes (24), pregnant uterus (36), a few brain regions and the pituitary (36, 40), as well as human lung (24), breast (41) and epidermal cancer cell lines (41). In a recent study (40), BRS-3 receptor-deficient mice were generated by targeted disruption and the mice were obese, developed hypertension and had diabetes mellitus, suggesting the BRS-3 receptor is required for glucose metabolism, energy balance and maintenance of blood pressure. The involvement of BRS-3 receptor in satiety regulation is particularly interesting because numerous studies demonstrate both the GRP and NMB receptors are important regulators of satiety in animals (3, 37, 42-44) and man (45). Furthermore, a recent study

(46) of mice which are GRP receptor-deficient due to targeted disruption confirms that the GRP receptor is a physiological regulator of satiety. These studies suggest each mammalian member of the bombesin receptor family plays an important role in the regulation of satiety. Recently, the pharmacology (47, 48) and cell biology (48, 49) of the BRS-3 receptor was described using a novel, synthetic ligand [D-Phe⁶,β-Ala¹¹,Phe¹³,Nle¹⁴]BB(6-14), which has high affinity for all mammalian bombesin receptors (50). These studies show that the BRS-3 receptor has a unique pharmacology with high affinity for no known naturally occurring bombesin-related peptide and therefore its natural ligand is either not a bombesin peptide or is a bombesin peptide with unique structural features (47).

Because of the widespread actions of bombesin peptides in both physiological and pathologic processes, as well as an incomplete understanding of the involvement of these peptides in a number of processes, there has been considerable attention directed at identification of receptor antagonists (51-54). There have been four general classes of GRP receptor antagonists described: D-amino acid substituted substance P (SP) or SP-4-11 analogs, [D-Phe¹²]BB analogs, reduced peptide bond analogs of BB and GRP, and [des-Met¹⁴]BB or [des-Met²⁷]GRP analogs. There are three general classes of NMB receptor antagonists: D-amino substituted substance P, somatostatin octapeptide analogs and a non-peptide antagonist (55-57). There are no specific receptor antagonists for the BRS-3 receptor, although a number of the NMB and GRP receptor antagonists function as low affinity antagonists at this receptor (49). Particular attention will be given to results of studies in small cell or non-small cell lung cancer cells in this review. This was done because of the known autocrine growth role of BB in these tumors (58) and, therefore, the potential for BB receptor antagonists to have a therapeutic role in this tumor.

Substance P antagonists

The COOH-terminal of BB is essential for biological activity. It came as quite a surprise when substance P (SP) antagonists, which have only a single amino acid

Table II: Structures of BB antagonists.

| Peptide | Structure |
|--|---|
| (D-Phe ¹²)BB | <u>Pyr-Gln-Arg-Leu-Gly-Asn-Gln-Trp-Ala-Val-Gly-D-Phe-Leu-Met-NH₂</u> |
| (ψ ^{13,14} ,Leu ¹⁴)BB | <u>Pyr-Gln-Arg-Leu-Gly-Asn-Gln-Trp-Ala-Val-Gly-His-Leu-ψ-Leu-NH₂</u> |
| BW2258U89 | 3-Phenylpropanoyl-His- <u>Trp-Ala-Val</u> -D-Ala- <u>His</u> -D-Pro-ψ-Phe-NH ₂ |
| RC-3095 | Tpi-Gln-Trp-Ala-Val-Gly-His-Leu-ψ-Tpi-NH ₂ |
| BIM-26226 | D-Phe-Gln-Trp-Ala-Val-Gly-His-Leu-methyl ester |
| ICI-216140 | Isobutyryl-His- <u>Trp-Ala-Val</u> -D-Ala- <u>His-Leu</u> -methyl amide |
| (RPWWL)SP | D-Arg-D-Pro-Lys-Pro-Glu-Glu-D-Trp-Phe-D-Trp-Gly- <u>Leu-Leu-NH₂</u> |

Sequence homologies relative to BB are underlined. Standard amino acid abbreviations are used; ψ, reduced peptide bond (CH₂-NH) instead of (O=C-NH), the amide bond.

homology with BB, were discovered to antagonize BB receptors (Table II) (59). [D-Arg¹,D-pro²,D-Trp^{7,9},Leu¹¹]SP (RPWWL)SP inhibited (¹²⁵I-Tyr⁴)BB binding to pancreatic acinar cells with an IC₅₀ value of 1 μM (59). Also, (RPWWL)SP had no effect on basal amylase secretion but antagonized the ability of 1 nM BB or SP to stimulate amylase release from acinar cells (59). Numerous other D-amino acid substituted SP analogs were also shown to function as BB receptor antagonists; however, none were more than 10-fold more potent than [D-Arg¹,D-Pro²,D-Trp^{7,9},Leu¹¹]SP (60). (RPWWL)SP inhibited ¹²⁵I-GRP or (¹²⁵I-Tyr⁰)NMB binding to SCLC cell line NCI-H345 with

IC₅₀ values of 1 μM (61, 62). Also, 10 μM (RPWWL)SP antagonized the ability of 10 nM BB to stimulate phosphatidyl inositol (PI) turnover. Activated GRP receptors stimulate phospholipase C to generate PI (Fig. 1). The resulting inositol-1,4,5-triphosphate (IP₃) causes the endoplasmic reticulum to release Ca²⁺ into the cytosol (63). (RPWWL)SP had no effect on basal cytosolic Ca²⁺ but antagonized the increase in cytosolic Ca²⁺ caused by 10 nM BB or 10 nM NMB. Subsequent studies demonstrated SP antagonists also interact with NMB receptors (21) and can inhibit NMB activation of the NMB receptor (21, 57). More recent studies demonstrate SP

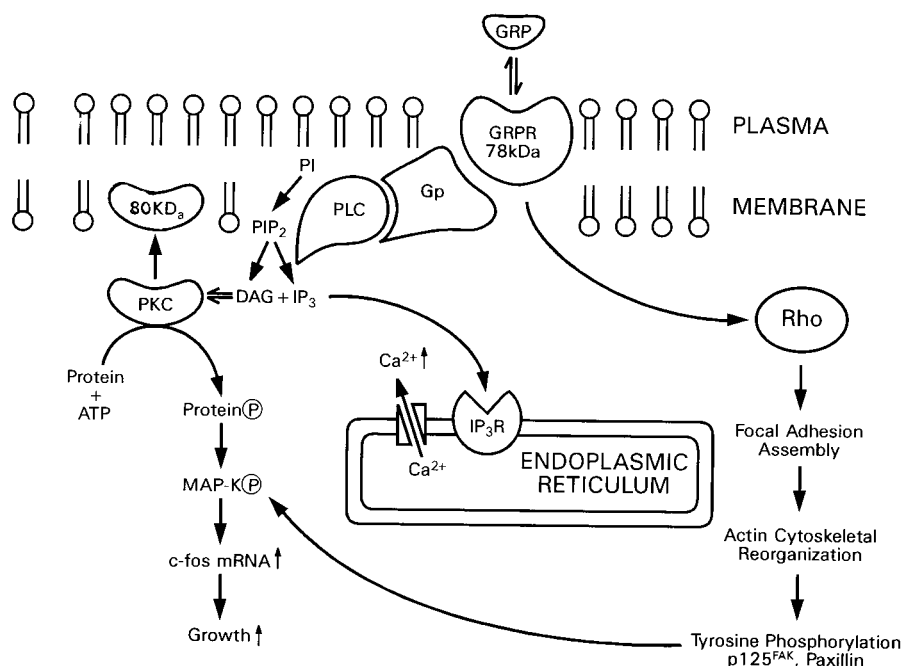


Fig. 1. Signal transduction mechanisms for the GRP receptor. GRP binds with high affinity to the 78 kDa GRP receptor activating a G-protein (Gp) and Rho. Rho causes focal adhesion assembly, reorganization of the cytoskeleton and tyrosine phosphorylation of FAK kinase and paxillin. Phospholipase C activation causes metabolism of PIP₂ to IP₃ and diacylglycerol (DAG). IP₃ diffuses to the endoplasmic reticulum causing the release of Ca²⁺ into the cytosol. The DAG activates protein kinase C causing its translocation to the membrane. Activated PKC phosphorylates protein substrates, ultimately causing the phosphorylation of MAP kinase. Activated MAP-kinase ultimately leads to increased nuclear oncogene proliferation and growth.

receptor antagonists also inhibit BRS-3 receptor activation (49). These data indicate that SP antagonists block all three classes of mammalian BB receptors. Also, SP antagonists block the ability of BB or vasopressin to stimulate proliferation (64), inhibit the action of cholecystokinin in pancreatic acinar cells (60), inhibit the growth stimulatory effects of fetal bovine serum or bradykinin in human lung cancer cells (65), and inhibit binding to the receptor for interleukin-8 or the chemokine, CXCR1 (66). These data indicate that SP antagonists have a broad antagonist spectrum inhibiting the action of SP, GRP, NMB, CCK and AVP. Recently, one such broad spectrum antagonist [D-Arg¹,D-Phe⁵,D-Trp^{7,9},Leu¹¹]SP has been reported (66) to function as a biased agonist rather than a pure receptor antagonist.

SP antagonists inhibit the growth of SCLC *in vitro* and *in vivo* causing SCLC cells to undergo apoptosis (67). Recently, [D-Arg¹,D-Phe⁵,D-Trp^{7,9},Leu¹¹]SP (antagonist D) and [D-Arg⁶,D-Trp^{7,9},MePhe⁸]SP(6-11) (antagonist E) were synthesized and found to be approximately 1 order of magnitude more potent than (RPWWL)SP. Antagonist D, which causes apoptosis of SCLC cells, slows SCLC and other cancer xenografts in nude mice; however, high doses are required *in vivo* (20 mg/kg s.c.) (68). Antagonist D is metabolized by blood enzymes resulting in deamidation and removal of the C-terminal amino acid. Also, the C-terminal methionine can be oxidized. The half-life of antagonist D is 1 hour in the mouse blood. Because of favorable pharmacokinetic data, antagonist D is scheduled for phase I clinical trials in Europe.

[D-Phe¹²]BB analogs

Due to the broad spectrum of the SP antagonists, more specific BB receptor antagonists were needed. The first of these identified was (D-Phe¹²)BB, in which an essential His was replaced with D-Phe (69). (D-Phe¹²)BB inhibited (¹²⁵I-Tyr⁴)BB binding to guinea pig pancreatic cells with an IC₅₀ value of 1 μM (Table III) (69). Also, 10 μM (D-Phe¹²)BB antagonized the ability of 1 nM BB to stimulate amylase secretion from pancreatic acinar cells.

Table III: Binding to SCLC cells.

| Peptide | ¹²⁵ I-GRP binding IC ₅₀ (nM) | (¹²⁵ I-Tyr ⁹)NMB binding IC ₅₀ (nM) |
|--|---|---|
| BB | 3 | 50 |
| GRP | 2 | 100 |
| NMB | 100 | 2 |
| (RPWWL)SP | 1000 | 1000 |
| (D-Phe ¹²)BB | 500 | >3000 |
| (ψ ^{13,14} ,Leu ¹⁴)BB | 30 | >3000 |
| BIM-26226 | 5 | >3000 |
| BW2258U89 | 10 | >3000 |

The IC₅₀ to inhibit ¹²⁵I-GRP or (¹²⁵I-Tyr⁹)NMB using NCI-H345 cells is indicated. Structures of each of the antagonists are shown in Table II.

Because (D-Phe¹²)BB bound to GRP receptors with low affinity it was not very potent *in vivo*. Other substitutions in position 12 of BB, including D-*p*-chlorophenylalanine, or in other positions such as [D-Phe^{6,12}]BB only improved affinity 3-fold (70). Therefore, the utility of this class of antagonists was limited by their low affinity. Subsequently, other classes of peptides were developed which functioned as high affinity GRP receptor antagonists.

Reduced peptide bond GRP receptor antagonists

The first member of this class was (ψ^{13,14},Leu¹⁴)BB (71). In this peptide the amide bond (O=C-NH) is reduced (CH₂-NH) between the 13 and 14 positions of BB. (ψ^{13,14},Leu¹⁴)BB inhibited (¹²⁵I-Tyr⁴)BB binding to pancreatic acinar cells with an IC₅₀ value of 500 nM (71). Also, it antagonized the ability of 1 nM BB to stimulate amylase release from pancreatic acini (71). Thus, the C-terminal of BB can be modified to generate GRP receptor antagonists.

(ψ^{13,14},Leu¹⁴)BB inhibited (¹²⁵I-Tyr⁴)BB binding to NCI-H345 lung cancer cells with an IC₅₀ value of 30 nM (72). Also, 1 μM (ψ^{13,14},Leu¹⁴)BB antagonized the ability of 10 nM BB to stimulate PI turnover in small cell lung cancer cells (72). In these cells, GRP receptor activation natively causes increased cellular levels of IP₃ which stimulates calcium release from intracellular organelles such as the endoplasmic reticulum. It also stimulates the generation of diacylglycerol which activates protein kinase C (52) (Fig. 1). One μM (ψ^{13,14},Leu¹⁴)BB inhibits the translocation of PKC from the cytosol to the plasma membrane caused by BB. In turn, PKC phosphorylates protein substrates on serine and threonine amino acid residues such as raf. Activated raf may phosphorylate protein substrates such as MAP kinase kinase which in turn phosphorylates MAP kinase (74). Activated MAP kinase may enter the nucleus and alter phosphorylation of proteins such as elk-1 altering the expression of early oncogenes such as *c-fos* and *c-jun*. In small cell lung cancer cells BB stimulates *c-fos* and *c-jun* gene expression and the increases caused by 10 nM BB are blocked by 1 μM (ψ^{13,14},Leu¹⁴)BB (75).

Because the N-terminal of BB is not essential for high affinity binding, (ψ^{13,14},Leu¹⁴)BB fragments were developed which lacked the N-terminal (76-78). BW2258U89 [3-PhPr[D-Ala²⁴,Pro²⁶,ψ²⁶⁻²⁷,Phe²⁷]GRP²⁰⁻²⁷] and (Tpi⁶,ψ^{13,14},Tpi¹⁴)BB⁶⁻¹⁴ bound to the GRP receptor with higher affinity than (Psi^{13,14},Leu¹⁴)BB (Table III). BW2258U89 blocked the increase in cytosolic Ca²⁺ and proliferation caused by 10 nM BB in small cell lung cancer cells (79). BW2258U89 decreased SCLC cytosolic Ca²⁺ and colony formation caused by 10 nM BB in small cell lung cancer cells (79). In contrast, 1 μM BW2258U89 had no effect on cytosolic Ca²⁺ and proliferation caused by NMB (79). These data indicate that BW2258U89 is a GRP but not an NMB receptor antagonist.

Studies of various BB and GRP pseudopeptides, as well as [des-Met¹⁴]BB receptor antagonists discussed in

the next section, demonstrate important species variation in agonist/antagonist activity (20, 51, 80). In general, the requirements for receptor activation are less stringent in the rat GRP receptor than in guinea pig or mouse. Therefore, a number of pseudopeptide analogs or [des-Met¹⁴]BB analogs that function as full antagonists in the guinea pig or mouse had full or partial agonist activity in rat (20). These differences in observed responses in different species have led to the development of BB pseudopeptide analogs or [des-Met¹⁴]BB analogs that function as pure antagonists in each species (20, 51, 78).

($\psi^{13,14}$,Leu¹⁴)BB and BW2258U89 (0.4 mg/kg) slowed SCLC xenograft formation by 50% and 75%, respectively, *in vivo* (81). When BW2258U89 was put into microspheres and slowly released over a 3-week period, it strongly inhibited SCLC xenograft growth by 90% (82). These data indicate that BB-like peptides are autocrine growth factors for SCLC. No toxicity was observed by BW2258U89 administration and the half-life of BW2258U89 in the serum was approximately 2 hours (83). SP antagonist D was less potent than BW2258U89 in that 20 mg/kg was required to inhibit SCLC xenograft proliferation. Similar to [D-Arg⁶,D-Trp^{7,9},Me-Phe⁸]SP-(6-11), BW2258U89 is slowly deamidated by mouse blood enzymes to an inactive product. These data indicate that BW2258U89 has an appreciable half-life *in vivo*.

GRP receptor pseudopeptide antagonists may be used to inhibit the growth of cancers other than SCLC. RC-3095 slowed the growth of HT-29 human colon cancers, PC-82 human prostate cancers, NKN45 human gastric cancers, MXT breast cancers and human pancreatic cancers (84-86). These data indicate that the growth of many cancers may be slowed by GRP receptor pseudopeptide antagonists.

GRP receptor pseudopeptide antagonists may also function as chemopreventive agents. RC-3095 inhibited pancreatic carcinogenesis induced by nitrosamine in hamsters (87). Similarly, BW2258U89, a [des-Met¹⁴]BB receptor antagonist, prevented lung carcinogenesis induced by urethane in A/J mice (83). These data suggest that BB-like peptides may promote lung carcinogenesis and that BB receptor antagonists are chemopreventive agents.

(Des-Met¹⁴)BB GRP receptor antagonists

Several (des-Met)BB analogs have been developed which function as potent GRP receptor antagonists, including BIM-26226 (Table II), Ac-GRP²⁰⁻²⁶ ethyl ester and (isobutyryl-His²⁰,D-Ala²⁴)GRP²⁰⁻²⁶ methylamide (88-90). BIM-26226 inhibited ¹²⁵I-GRP binding to the SCLC cell NCI-H345 cells with high affinity (IC₅₀ = 5 nM). BIM-26226 inhibited the increase in cytosolic Ca²⁺ and proliferation caused by 10 nM BB. High doses of BIM-26226 (4 mg/kg day) were required to slow xenograft growth in nude mice. These data indicate that BIM-26226 is much better at inhibiting SCLC proliferation *in vitro* than *in vivo*, which may be because BIM-26226 is rapidly

metabolized in and/or cleared from the blood. However, [des-Met¹⁴]BB analogs are still being used *in vivo* (91) including in humans to address the importance of GRP in various physiologic responses (92, 93). For example, using the antagonist BIM-26226 by continuous infusion in humans, GRP has now been shown to be involved in physiological regulation of gastric emptying and acid secretion (92, 93).

Molecular basis of GRP receptor agonist and antagonist interactions

Extensive structure-activity studies have been performed on the GRP-related peptides (13, 16, 22, 94-100). For agonist activity the carboxyl terminal amide is essential for high affinity interaction (28). The N-terminal of either BB or GRP is not essential for high affinity interaction and GRP can be shortened to GRP¹⁴⁻²⁷ or BB to [D-Phe⁶]BB(6-14) with almost no loss of agonist potency (20, 52). Substitutions of D- or L-amino acids at Trp⁸, Val¹⁰ or His¹² of BB result in a loss of high affinity for the GRP receptor (8, 16). The minimal fragment with biologic activity is the C-terminal heptapeptide of BB (22, 94).

The active conformation of BB or GRP for interacting with GRP receptors may be a β -sheet (71, 80). There is a β -turn at position 10-13 of BB and hydrogen bonds may exist between the COOH-terminal Leu¹⁴ amide NH₂ and the Trp⁸ carboxyl oxygen between the Leu¹³ carboxyl oxygen and the Val¹⁰ N-H, and between the Leu¹³ N-H and the Val¹⁰ carboxyl oxygen (Fig. 2, top). Support for this model by structure-activity studies and computer modeling has been reported in one study (101); however, an alternative model has been proposed involving five internal hydrogen bonds, with three consecutive inverse γ -turns, and a bend followed by two more inverse γ -turns (100).

The reduction in the carboxyl group between the Leu¹³ Met¹⁴ results in an antagonist (analog B, Fig. 2, bottom) by impairing the position 14 carboxamide group in the receptor-bound peptide (71). A similar result occurs when the position 14 carboxamide is removed such as in the [des-Met¹⁴]BB (analog C, Fig. 2, bottom). Alkyl substituents on the position 13 NH₂ group dramatically improve binding affinity and antagonist as a result of electron-release (analog D, Fig. 2 bottom) (80). The much reduced antagonist potency of the position 13 free carboxy analog occurs because electrons are distributed over two CO groups (analog E, Fig. 2, bottom).

Recent GRP receptor structure-activity studies have begun to provide significant insights into the important determinants of high affinity agonist and antagonist interaction (51, 102, 103). In a recent study (104), the amino acid alignment of the frog bombesin receptor subtype 4, the NMB receptor (human, rat) and the GRP receptor (rat, human), all of which have high affinity for GRP and BB, was compared to that of the BRS-3 receptor (guinea pig, human) which has low affinity for these two naturally occurring agonists. Nine amino acids were identified

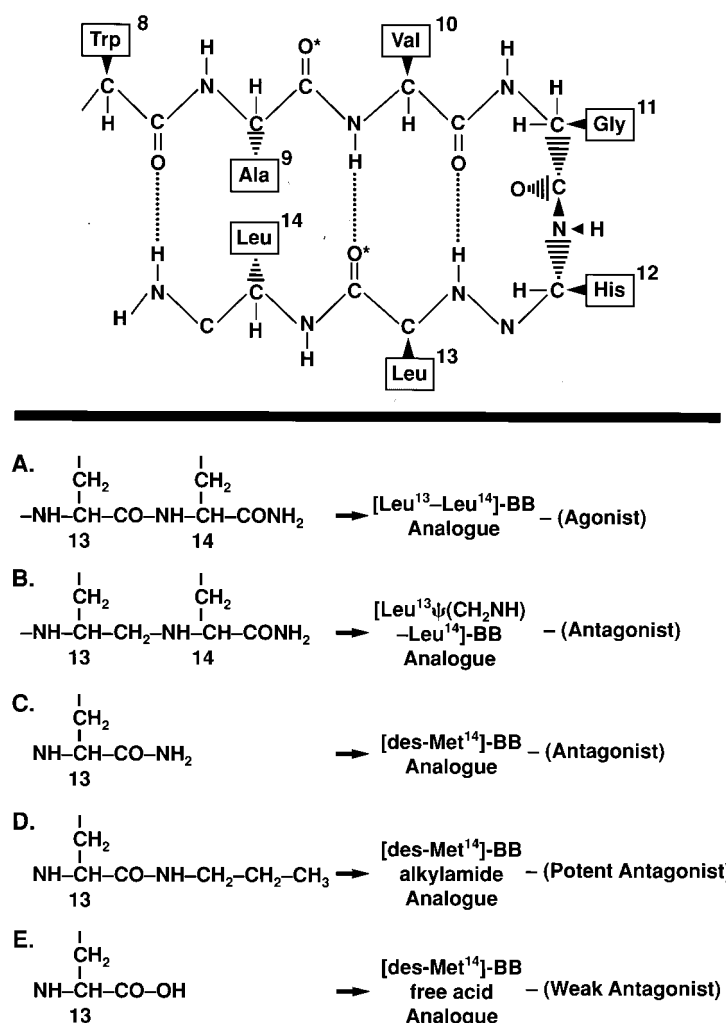


Fig. 2. Structure of the C-terminal of bombesin (top) and structural modifications altering agonist activity (bottom). *Top panel:* Possible conformation for the COOH-terminal octapeptide region of [Leu¹⁴]bombesin with a type II' β-bend involving the Val-Gly-His-Leu tetrapeptide. Carbonyl groups (*) which produce antagonists when replaced by CH₂ and putative intramolecular hydrogen bonding interactions along the chain (dotted lines) are shown. *Bottom panel:* COOH-terminal structural modifications to bombesin that are responsible for either receptor agonist or antagonist activity. (A) Bombesin with Leu¹³ and Met¹⁴ (potent agonist); (B) [Leu¹³ψ(CH₂NH)-Leu¹⁴]BB with the position 13 CO replaced by CH₂ (antagonist); (C) des-Met¹⁴-amidated analogs (antagonist); (D) des-Met¹⁴ alkylamide analogs (more potent antagonists); (E) des-Met¹⁴ free acid analog (very weak antagonist).

which differed between these two classes of receptors. The importance of each of these amino acids was investigated by sitedirected mutagenesis (104). Substitutions in position Glu¹²¹, Pro¹⁹⁹, Ala³⁰⁸ and Arg²⁸⁸ (Fig. 3) resulted in a marked decrease in BB receptor affinity (104). By molecular modeling (104) it was predicted that side-chains of these amino acids form a pocket between transmembranes III, VI and VII.

In contrast, the preference of the antagonist [D-Phe⁶]BB(6-13)methyl ester for the GRP receptor over the NMB receptor is due to the 4th extracellular loop (104). Thr²⁹⁷, Phe³⁰¹ and Ser³⁰⁵ were the key amino acids in determining the selectivity of this antagonist for the GRP receptor (Fig. 3) (102, 103). The 4th extracellular loop

was not important in determining the selectivity of the agonist GRP, demonstrating that different domains of the GRP receptor are responsible for antagonist and agonist selectivity.

Neuromedin B receptor antagonists

In addition to antagonizing GRP receptors, SP antagonists function as receptor antagonists of NMB receptors (21, 57). In fact, these antagonists have 3- to 10-fold selectivity for NMB over GRP receptors (21, 57). However, because their affinity remains relatively low ($K_d > 1 \mu\text{M}$) for NMB receptors and they have low selectivity (as discussed previously under GRP receptors), D-amino

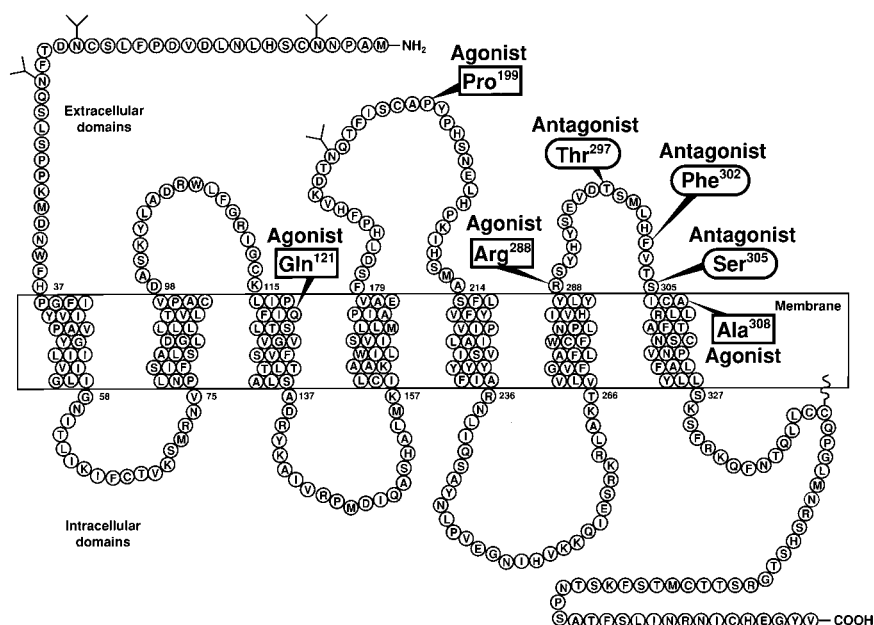


Fig. 3. Structure of the murine GRP receptor and important amino acids determining high affinity agonist activity or selectivity of the GRP receptor antagonist [D-Phe⁶]Bn⁶⁻¹³ methyl ester. The predicted 7-transmembrane spanning conformation of the GRP receptor is shown with the four extracellular domains and four putative intracellular domains. The four *N*-glycosylation sites are indicated by a Y and the putative palmitoylation site in the COOH terminus is shown. Four recently described important amino acids required for high affinity (104) agonist binding (Gln¹²¹, Pro¹⁹⁹, Arg²⁸⁸, Ala³⁰⁸) are shown by the dark squares and labeled "agonist". The location of the three amino acids recently demonstrated (104) to be important for high affinity interaction of the antagonist, [D-Phe⁶]Bn⁶⁻¹³ methyl ester [Thr²⁹⁷, Phe³⁰², Ser³⁰⁵] are shown by the dark circles labeled "antagonist" (102, 103).

acid-substituted SP analogs have not been widely used to inhibit NMB receptors. A surprising finding was that somatostatin (SRIF) agonists such as (Nal¹⁶, Thr⁸)cyclo somatostatin analogs function as selective low affinity NMB receptor antagonists (56). D-Nal-Cys-Tyr-D-Trp-Lys-Val-Cys-Nal-NH₂ inhibited binding of (¹²⁵I-Tyr⁰)NMB with an IC₅₀ value of 100 nM and had >100-fold selectivity for the NMB over the GRP receptor (56). Also, D-Nal-Cys-Tyr-D-Trp-Lys-Val-Cys-Nal-NH₂ antagonized the ability of 10 nM NMB to elevate cytosolic Ca²⁺ (56). This D-amino acid substituted somatostatin octapeptide analog also functioned as a somatostatin receptor agonist and interacted with mu-opioid receptors (56). To reduce the affinity for μ-opioid receptors an ornithine analog, D-Nal-Cys-Tyr-D-Trp-Orn-Val-Cys-Nal-NH₂, was synthesized (105). This analog has recently been used to demonstrate that activation of NMB receptors regulate satiety in rats (105). Recently, nonpeptide antagonists such as PD165929 were developed (55). Upon substitution of Ala for amino acids in NMB, it was found that the Trp⁴, Val⁶ and Phe⁹ were essential for activity. Subsequently, a small molecule template was developed which contains appended Trp, Val and Phe. The 2-pyridyl analog, PD165929, inhibited binding to NMB receptors with an IC₅₀ value of 15 nM but had little effect on GRP receptor binding (IC₅₀ >10,000 nM) (55). Also, PD165929 antagonized the ability of NMB to cause acidification in human NMB receptor transfected CHO cells and the ability of NMB to increase Cl⁻ currents in human NMB receptor containing xenopus oocytes (55).

Clinical studies

At present, clinical trials using BB antagonists have not begun. Phase I and phase II clinical trials have been conducted on 2A11, a murine monoclonal antibody which neutralizes BB (58). The antibody, similar to the receptor, recognizes the COOH-terminal of BB and has full cross-reactivity with GRP but does not recognize NMB. The antibody 2A11 inhibits (¹²⁵I-Tyr⁴)BB interactions with the GRP receptor, and inhibited SCLC clonal growth and xenograft proliferation in nude mice. In a phase II trial, 12 human subjects with SCLC received a 4-week course of antibody 2A11. This resulted in a complete remission in 1 patient, stable disease in 4 patients and progressive disease in 6 others; 1 additional patient could not be evaluated (106). In the patient with remission, three 4-week courses of antibody 2A11 did not result in development of human anti-mouse antibodies. Despite initial remission, this patient suffered relapse and died from SCLC.

Summary

Three mammalian receptors have been cloned for the BB family of peptides. The best studied is the GRP receptor which binds BB and GRP with high affinity. The NMB receptor binds NMB with high affinity, whereas the BRS-3 receptor does not bind NMB, BB or GRP with high affinity.

Numerous peptide antagonists have been developed for the GRP receptor. (Des-Met¹⁴)BB analogs, such as BIM-26226, bind with high affinity and antagonize GRP receptors present on SCLC cells *in vitro*. Also, ($\psi^{13,14}$,Leu¹⁴)BB analogs have been developed which antagonize GRP receptors *in vitro* and *in vivo*. Currently, the pharmacokinetics and biodistribution of these antagonists are being studied. A general problem with peptide antagonists is their metabolism. The ($\psi^{13,14}$,Leu¹⁴)BB analog BW2258U89 (half-life of 2 h) is deamidated by blood enzymes to an inactive product. One potential way to avoid degradation problems is to develop nonpeptide antagonists.

While this has not been done for GRP receptors, a nonpeptide NMB receptor antagonist is available for *in vitro* studies. PD165929 inhibits binding to NMB receptors with high affinity but has little effect on GRP receptors. Further preclinical studies on the toxicity of PD165929 are required prior to clinical trials.

Recently, a new BB analog, [D-Phe⁶, β -Ala¹¹, Phe¹³,Nle¹⁴]BB(6-14) has been synthesized which binds with high affinity to BRS-3 receptors (67), as well as the GRP receptor, NMB receptor and the frog bombesin receptor subtype 4, BB₄ (50). Using [D-Phe⁶, β -Ala¹¹,Phe¹³,Nle¹⁴]BB(6-14), the signal transduction cascade for the BRS-3 receptor has now been elucidated (49). It has been shown to be coupled to phospholipase C with activation causing increases in inositol phosphates, mobilization of calcium from cellular stores and stimulation of tyrosine phosphorylation of p125 focal adhesion kinase by a phospholipase C-dependent mechanism (49). Specific antagonists have yet to be developed for the BRS-3 receptor.

A fourth subtype of bombesin receptor, the BB₄ receptor, has been described in frog brain (107). It is unknown at present whether a mammalian equivalent of this receptor exists. Furthermore, little is known about its pharmacology or cell biology.

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