



LUND UNIVERSITY

Development of sensitive cellular assay systems and their application to the identification of "orphan" seven-transmembrane receptors

Kotarsky, Knut

2003

[Link to publication](#)

Citation for published version (APA):

Kotarsky, K. (2003). *Development of sensitive cellular assay systems and their application to the identification of "orphan" seven-transmembrane receptors*. [Doctoral Thesis (compilation)]. Knut Kotarsky; Tordmulevägen 3c; 22735 LUND Sweden,.

Total number of authors:

1

General rights

Unless other specific re-use rights are stated the following general rights apply:

Copyright and moral rights for the publications made accessible in the public portal are retained by the authors and/or other copyright owners and it is a condition of accessing publications that users recognise and abide by the legal requirements associated with these rights.

- Users may download and print one copy of any publication from the public portal for the purpose of private study or research.
- You may not further distribute the material or use it for any profit-making activity or commercial gain
- You may freely distribute the URL identifying the publication in the public portal

Read more about Creative commons licenses: <https://creativecommons.org/licenses/>

Take down policy

If you believe that this document breaches copyright please contact us providing details, and we will remove access to the work immediately and investigate your claim.

LUND UNIVERSITY

PO Box 117
221 00 Lund
+46 46-222 00 00

Damit das Mögliche entsteht, muss immer wieder
das Unmögliche versucht werden.

Hermann Hesse

Knut Kotarsky
Molecular Neurobiology
Department of Physiological Sciences
Lund University
Tornavägen 10
SE-221 84 Lund
Sweden
Phone: +46- 46-2220585
Knut.Kotarsky@mphy.lu.se

Printed by KFS, Lund, Sweden
Knut Kotarsky, 2003, and Elsevier Science (Papers I-IV)

ISBN 91-628-5595-6
ISRN LUMED/MEFN—34-SE

Contents

Abbreviations	4
List of publications	5
Introduction	7
Seven-transmembrane receptors	7
<i>Common structure and families</i>	
<i>Signaling through 7TM receptors</i>	
<i>Regulation of transcription</i>	
Identification of uncharacterized “orphan” seven-transmembrane receptors	12
<i>The receptors</i>	
<i>The assay systems</i>	
<i>The ligand(s)</i>	
CURRENT INVESTIGATIONS	
Design of improved reporter gene assays (papers I and II)	19
The identification of two, “orphan” 7TM receptors (papers III and IV)	25
<i>A second Leukotriene B4 receptor, BLT₂</i>	
<i>The first cell surface receptor activated by free fatty acids, FFA₁R</i>	
Conclusions	30
Sammanfattning på svenska (Swedish summary)	31
Deutsche Zusammenfassung (German summary)	32
Acknowledgments	35
References	36
Appendix 1	51
Appendix 2 (Papers I-IV)	57

Abbreviations

7TM	Seven-transmembrane
ATP	Adenosine 5'-triphosphate
BLT ₁ R	Leukotriene B ₄ receptor 1
BLT ₂ R	Leukotriene B ₄ receptor 2
C5a	Complement factor 5a
cAMP	Adenosine 3',5'-cyclic monophosphate
CCR5	CC chemokine receptor 5
cGMP	Guanosine 3',5'-cyclic monophosphate
CHO	Chinese hamster ovary cells
CMV	Cytomegalovirus
CRE	cAMP response element
CXCR4	CXC chemokine receptor 4
DNA	Deoxyribonucleic acid
EC ₅₀	Half-effective concentration
EGFP	Enhanced green fluorescence protein
EST	Expressed sequence tag
FACS	Fluorescence activated cell sorting
FFA	Free fatty acid
FFA ₁ R	Free fatty acid 1 receptor
FLIPR	Fluorometric imaging plate reader
GFP	Green fluorescent protein
GIRK	G-protein regulated inwardly rectifying potassium channel
GPCR	G-protein coupled receptor
GRK	G-protein coupled receptor kinases
HeLa	Human cervix carcinoma cell line derived from H.L.
HEK	Human embryonic kidney cells
HETE	Hydroxy-eicosatetraenoic acid
9-HODE	±9 Hydroxy octadecadienoic acid
IRES	Internal ribosome entry sites
LTB ₄	5,12-Dihydroxy-6,8,10,14-eicosatetraenoic acid or leukotriene B ₄
mRNA	Messenger ribonucleic acid
NFAT	Nuclear factor of activated T-cells
NF- B	Nuclear factor B
ORF	Open reading frame
PLC	Phospholipase C
PMA	Phorbol 12-myristate 13-acetate
PKA	Proteinkinase A
PKC	Proteinkinase C
PPAR	Peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor
R _{1b}	Rat _{1b} adrenergic receptor
RGS	Regulator of G-protein signaling
STAT	Signal transducer and activator of transcription
TMD	Transmembrane domain
TPA	12-O-tetradecanoyl-phorbol-13-acetate
TRE	TPA-responsive element
TZD	Thiazolidinedione

List of publications

This thesis is based on the following articles which will be referred to in the text by their roman numerals.

- I. **A chimeric reporter gene allowing for clone selection and high-throughput screening of reporter cell lines expressing G-protein-coupled receptors.**
Kotarsky K, Owman C, Olde B. 2001. *Analytical Biochemistry*; 288(2): 209-215.

- II. **Optimized reporter gene assays based on a synthetic multifunctional promoter and a secreted luciferase.** Kotarsky K, Antonsson L, Owman C, Olde B. 2003. *Analytical Biochemistry*; in press

- III. **Cloning and characterization of cDNA encoding a novel human leukotriene B₄ receptor.** Tryselius Y, Nilsson NE, Kotarsky K, Olde B, Owman C. 2000. *Biochemical and Biophysical Research Communications*; 274(2): 377-382.

- IV. **A human cell surface receptor activated by free fatty acids and thiazolidinedione drugs.** Kotarsky K , Nilsson NE , Flodgren E, Owman C, Olde B. 2003. *Biochemical and Biophysical Research Communications*; 301: 406-410
These authors contributed equally to the work.

Introduction

Multicellular organisms, such as human beings, consist of thousands of billions of cells, organized in tissues, organs and organ systems. All of these cells, tissues and organs act in concert. This requires an on-going communication between cells and cell systems throughout the organisms lifetime. Cells communicate by releasing small, inconspicuous chemical molecules, called mediators or neurotransmitters. Even from the outside of the body a steady stream of chemicals bombards the surface of our cells. To understand all the signals arriving at the cell surface, cells have small antennae, called receptors. Cell surface receptors are divided into different classes, based on their primary structure and similarity to other receptors. The largest family by-far is called the seven-transmembrane (7TM), or G-protein coupled receptor, family, with more than a thousand members. All of them wind seven times through the cell membrane. Unfortunately, many receptors are classified as 7TM receptors only by sequence similarity. Lacking knowledge about the endogenous ligand(s) of a receptor makes it impossible to study the receptor and to understand its function.

The identification and characterization of previously unknown, so-called “orphan” 7TM receptors has attracted a lot of interest in the last decade. This focus on orphan 7TM receptors can be explained by two facts. To understand cell communication and, eventually, physiological mechanisms requires both knowledge about mediators and their receptors. And even more importantly, more than fifty percent of all drugs in medical use interact with seven-transmembrane receptors, making this type of receptor a clinically important target for the evaluation of drug candidates and to lead compound development [1].

Seven-transmembrane receptors

Common structure and families

As stated earlier, the cells of multicellular organisms have to communicate with each other. To receive signals, cells have developed a variety of methods. If the signaling molecule can pass through the cell membrane, it may interact with intracellular enzymes or with nuclear receptors. However, if the signaling molecule is hydrophilic and large it can usually not pass the cell membrane and penetrate into the cell. Such signaling molecules often interact with cell surface receptors.

There are three major families of cell surface receptors described: (i) transmitter gated ion channels, (ii) enzyme linked receptors and, (iii) the seven-transmembrane, G-protein-coupled receptor family.

The 7TM, G-protein-coupled receptor family is the largest of these cell surface receptor families. It accounts for approximately 5% of all genes found in *Caenorhabditis elegans* genome, whereas in humans, 3-4% of all genes encode seven-transmembrane receptors [2, 3]. A wide variety of molecules, called ligands, interact with and activate 7TM receptors. The list of these ligands includes signaling molecules used in the body such as hormones, neurotransmitters, chemo-attractants, or signals from outside of the body, such as odorants, pheromones, nutrients, or even light. The ligands display different sizes (from large proteins to small molecules), and belong to different chemical classes (lipids, amino acids, ions, or proteins). Despite these differences, the receptors show a common architecture based on seven transmembrane helices. It is generally assumed that these receptors function in similar ways, even when the ligand binding domains, or pockets, are not totally conserved. So far, the only three-dimensional structure of a 7TM receptor known is that of bovine rhodopsin. This structure was determined by X-ray crystallography of the receptor and shows the receptor molecule in an inactive conformation [4]. Attempts have been made to superimpose other 7TM receptors onto the rhodopsin model *in silico* [5]. However, differences in the primary sequences and in the ligand binding make receptor modeling difficult [6].

The 7TM receptor family is divided into three major sub-families based on sequence similarity. Family 1, also called the rhodopsin type family, includes the vast majority of all 7TM receptors, and is conveniently grouped into three sub-families. Members of this family often display some conserved amino acids, mainly in their transmembrane domains (TMD). Thus, the first TMD often contains a conserved asparagin, TMD II aspartic acid; the boundary between TMD III and the second intracellular loop contains the DRY amino acid motif; extracellular loops 2 and 3 are usually connected by a disulfide bridge; TMD IV has a tryptophane and TMD VI a conserved proline; and TMD VII often contains the so-called NPXXY amino acid motif (for review [7]). The C-terminus often includes residues which are modified by fatty acids. This directs the C-terminus close to the membrane, where an extra, fourth intracellular loop is formed. The members of the three sub-families within family 1 bind their ligands in different ways. Members of sub-family 1a bind their ligands within their TMDs (e.g., retinal, ATP, odorants, opiate). Members of sub-family 1b involve their N-terminus in ligand recognition. The recognized ligands are usually peptides (e.g. chemokines, C3a). Members of sub-family 1c have big N-terminal structures which bind glycoprotein hormones (e.g., luteinizing hormone) [3].

Family 2 includes receptors which bind larger peptides. Here as well, the N-terminus of the receptor is extended and is involved in ligand binding. Examples include the receptors for vasoactive intestinal peptide, secretin, and glucagon. A subtype of family 2 that sometimes is recognized as a group of its

own, includes the so-called EGF-TM7 receptors that all possess large and complicated N-terminal regions. These regions are usually composed of a variety of protein domains, e.g. epidermal-growth-factor domains.

Family 3 includes taste receptors, an ion-receptor (for Ca^{2+}), the metabotropic glutamate receptors, and GABA_B receptors. This family consists of 3 sub-families, which share relative little sequence similarity in their seven TMDs.

There are three additional families of 7TM receptors. They include a family of pheromone receptors, the frizzled/smoothed family, which is involved in embryonic development, and finally a family of cAMP-receptors, found in *Dyctiostelium*. However, evidence that these receptors couple and signal via G-proteins still remains controversial.

Signaling through 7TM receptors

As stated earlier, 7TM receptors function as antennas, receiving signals from the outside of the cell. They then convert the arriving signal to a chemical signal within the cell, and might initiate or modulate a variety of cellular responses, such as cell movement (chemotaxis), enzyme activation and metabolic changes, liberation of other signaling molecules from the cell (exocytosis and secretion), or a change in gene transcription. The complicated process of cell signaling involves a large array of proteins and intracellular (second) messengers. The individual reactions of a cell are dependent upon the specific proteins found in that particular cell. Usually, signaling proteins work in sophisticated cascades and networks. Each step of a given signaling cascade might be realized by different members of specialized protein families. Members of a given family may display slightly different, or even opposite signaling preferences.

The classical pathway for signaling by means of 7TM receptors (or G-protein coupled receptors) is mediated, as the name indicates, by so-called heterotrimeric G-proteins, which consist of an α -subunit functionally connected to a $\beta\gamma$ -complex. Each of the sub-units is part of a protein family, where each family member has slightly different functions. The α -family has 16 members, the β -family 5, and the γ -family 12 members (for review [8, 9]). G-proteins are designated according to the α -subunit present in the complex. Different α -subunits have different signaling preferences and properties; however even the $\beta\gamma$ -complex can perform signaling tasks (Table 1).

The interaction of an extra-cellular signaling molecule with its receptor leads to conformational changes in the receptor. In an active conformation the receptor interacts with G-proteins where the α -subunit exchanges the bound GDP for GTP and causes dissociation of the complex. Both the α -subunit and the $\beta\gamma$ -complex are then able to interact with target proteins and thus regulate cellular functions. The α -subunit remains active as long as it binds the GTP. It has,

however, intrinsic GTP-ase activity and when the GTP is broken down into GDP and P_i the β -subunit turns inactive and binds a γ -complex. The conversion of GTP to GDP in the active β -subunit is enhanced by members of the RGS-protein family.

G-protein subunits	Protein/Signaling pathway regulated	References
G_s, G_{OLF}	stimulates adenylyl-cyclase; RGS-PX1 Calcium channels c-Src tyrosine kinase	[10], [11], [12]
$G_q, G_{11}, G_{14,15,16}$	stimulate Phospholipases C	[13], [14], [15]
$G_{i1,2,3}, G_z, G_o$	inhibit Adenylylcyclase; stimulate c-Src tyrosine kinases	[12], [16], [17], [18]
$G_{12,13}$	Rho-activation; stress fibre formation; β -catenin release	[13], [14], [19, 20],
G_T (Transducin) G_{gust} (Gustducin)	Stimulates cGMP phosphodiesterase	[21], [22]
G	Stimulates PLC 1-3 Stimulates adenylylcyclase II, IV G-protein-coupled-receptor kinases (GRK) G-protein regulated inwardly rectifying potassium channel (GIRK) Phosphatidylinositol-3-kinase	[23], [24], [25], [26, 27], [28], [29]

Table 1. Signaling targets/pathways affected by G-protein sub-units (adapted from [9]).

In addition, signaling through 7TM receptors is influenced by different kinases phosphorylating the receptor. Thus, protein kinase C, protein kinase A, and G-protein-coupled receptor kinases (GRKs) can all lead to rapid changes of signaling behavior after phosphorylating the receptor. Phosphorylation by protein kinase A, for example, can change the coupling efficiency of the α_2 -adrenergic receptor from G_s to G_i [30]. The family of G-protein-coupled receptor kinases has 7 members and quite distinct expression patterns. These kinases can be activated by either protein kinase C, protein kinase A, or β -complexes. The phosphorylated receptors can interact with so-called β -arrestin proteins. These proteins are important in receptor internalization, and function also as scaffold proteins, thereby constituting the framework for macromolecular signaling complexes.

In addition to signaling through G-proteins, there is an increasing number of examples of 7TM receptors signaling through mechanisms, independent of G-proteins. The activation of Jak2 by CCR2B has been suggested to be independent from G-proteins (for review [31, 32]). Instead, the involvement of

receptor homodimers and heterodimers has been proposed in this process. On the other hand, recent work suggests that stimulation of proteinase activated receptors, or angiotensin receptors, in smooth muscle cells trigger the activation of the JAK/STAT pathway via the small GTPase Rac [33], which suggests the involvement of trimeric G-proteins. In the suggested model the activation of Jak2 was not performed by the receptor itself. Instead, it was dependent on the activation of NADPH-oxidase and the generation of reactive oxygen species by Rac. Whether the reported differences are due to different cell types, and/or receptors have to be elucidated. A direct interaction of Jak2 and the angiotensin AT1 receptor had been earlier discussed [34].

Regulation of transcription

Most 7TM receptors regulate the transcription of genes in the nucleus of the cell. The regulation may be positive, leading to an increase in gene transcription and hence mRNA production, or negative, leading to gene down-regulation.

Transcription factor	Response element	Activated by	Reference
CREB-family	CRE	G _s	[35]
AP-1 (Fos and Jun)	TRE	G _q , G _i	[36]
Serum response factor	SRE	G ₁₂ , G ₁₃ G _{q/11}	[37, 38]
NF- B	NF- B	All except of G _s	[39]
STAT	STAT	?	[33]
NFAT	NFAT	G _q	[40]

Table 2 lists some transcription factors and their response motifs, which may be activated by 7TM receptors. ? means: involvement of G-proteins is controversially discussed.

Receptor stimulation triggers the activation of signaling cascades, which often involve second messengers and usually also the phosphorylation of signaling proteins, which function as kinases themselves. Eventually, transcription factors are activated by the kinases after phosphorylation. Many transcription factors dimerize in response to phosphorylation, either as homodimers or heterodimers, and bind to certain DNA binding motifs. A transcription factor, which has bound via its response motif to the promoter of a gene, may either increase (by recruiting other transcription factors) or diminish transcription. Table 2 lists some transcription factors, their response elements and the G-proteins involved in their activation.

Identification of uncharacterized “orphan” 7TM receptors

As a considerable number of drugs in clinical use act on 7TM receptors novel, “orphan”, receptors have been considered as potential new drug targets [1]. Hence, the identification of “orphan” 7TM receptors has not been accomplished by pure academic interest, but has been undertaken in a competitive situation between academics and the pharmaceutical industry (for example: [41-45]). Two different strategies have been used for the identification of “orphan” receptors. The pharmaceutical industry and some larger academic laboratories often use an approach known as “reverse pharmacology”. In this strategy huge substance libraries are matched with “orphan” receptor libraries to find positive hits. Smaller laboratories, on the other hand, work mainly on “strange” receptors, often for many years in a laborious procedure in order to identify the ligand for a specific receptor. The second approach usually starts with using a tissue extract as the ligand source, and is often referred to as the “orphan receptor strategy” [46].

While the genetic identification of unknown and new receptors was in the past accomplished using molecular biological techniques (e.g. polymerase chain reaction with degenerated primers), nowadays, after the completion of the human genome sequencing project, sequences with a certain degree of homology to already known 7TM receptors are continuously discovered using *in silico* approaches and are stored in public databases [47-49]. Estimations of the number of remaining 7TM receptors without known endogenous ligand (the orphans) vary to some extent between one hundred and several hundred [50-53]. Considering the huge amount of orphan receptors the question has been raised, as to why so many of them still lack a known ligand. Although the answer probably has to be found for each individual receptor, difficulties in the process of ligand identification may be grouped into three main categories (i) the receptor itself, (ii) the assay systems used for the identification, and (iii) the nature of the ligand.

The receptors

First of the problems connected with the receptor itself is the identification of the correct ORF. Often 7TM receptor N-termini are spliced, and different splice variants for receptors might have been described. Some of the splice variants may show different behavior in pharmacology or expression [54-59].

The availability of the complete human genome makes it attractive, at least for family 1 members which often have an unspliced ORF, to clone the receptor gene from the genome. Full-length mRNA sequences, including complete 5' and 3' sequences are not always deposited in the databases.

Once the “proper” reading frame of a gene is identified and the gene is cloned, the receptor has to be expressed heterologously to obtain the receptor protein. However, recombinantly expressed receptor proteins are not always correctly targeted to the cell surface. In order to analyze the correct cell surface expression, different approaches have been used, none of them completely satisfying. For example, the receptor can be tagged with either a short peptide (usually on the N-terminus) or EGFP (usually on the receptor C-terminus). However, both of these techniques potentially influence receptor targeting, disturb ligand binding, or alter the signaling behavior of the receptor. Hence, the functional expression of the receptor has to be controlled in functional assays. Another approach to check for a correct cell surface expression of a receptor relies on the signaling behavior of the receptor. Intrinsic signaling of the receptor may either be achieved by over-expression, or by a mutation, which makes the receptor constitutively active [60, 61]. The over-expressed receptor may also attract G-proteins from other endogenously expressed receptors, thus decreasing signals obtained from these receptors [62]. None of the techniques described is straightforward, all requires considerable work and, yet still, do not guarantee success.

Other problems connected to the receptor may arise from its possible interaction with other molecules in the cell membrane. The most prominent examples, until now, have been the complexing of two gene products to form a functional GABA_B receptor [63-65] and the association of the calcitonin receptor like receptor with receptor associated proteins (RAMPs). In the latter case, the interaction of RAMP2 or 3 with the receptor leads to an adrenomedullin receptor, while interaction with RAMP1 results in the formation of a calcitonin-gene-related-peptide receptor [66] (for review [67]). Finally, heterodimerization of taste receptors to form functional entities for sweet or umami tastes has been reported [68, 69].

Another problem associated with receptors is their coupling to effectors inside the cell. Traditional, assay technologies screen for changes in intracellular second messengers, which assume that the receptor couples to G-proteins. However, there is increasing evidence for a functional G-protein independent signaling of 7TM receptors. An example of this is illustrated by the recent identification of the C5L2 receptor, which is a receptor for the anaphylatoxins C5a and C5a_{desArg} [70].

The assay systems

In order to identify ligands acting on 7TM receptors, the receptor protein is used as a “fishing tool”, either in binding assays or in functional tests. There is a plethora of different assay systems described in the literature. However, due to the high demands placed on the assay used for the initial characterization, systems actually used for identification purposes are not as numerous. (i) Assays have to display high reliability and quality, a property that is defined by

a high Z-factor. The Z-factor combines the difference between background and signal with the differences in the standard deviation of both values resulting in a number between 0 and 1, where 1 reflects the ideal assay [71]. (ii) The number of orphan receptors and the number of potential ligands collected in substance libraries demand the use of high-throughput approaches. (iii) Assay and instrumentation should be available to a reasonable cost.

Once a ligand to an orphan receptor has been identified, the initial hit has to be verified by secondary assays, usually performed at lower throughputs and with lower assay quality. Ideally, the hit is confirmed by binding studies showing that the labeled ligand indeed interacts with the receptor.

Appendix 1 contains a summary of the identification of about 60 7TM receptors, which were de-orphanized in the last 5 years. Taken together, the data presented show that receptors which display a high sequence similarity usually share a common ligand or are activated by related ligands. These receptors are usually discovered at the same time. Interestingly, in many instances the same receptor has been identified nearly simultaneously by several different groups.

Further, appendix 1 demonstrates that more than half of all identifications have been accomplished using techniques to monitor changes in the intracellular Ca^{2+} concentration. Two different techniques, based on either fluorescent indicators or on the Ca^{2+} sensitive luciferase aequorin, are used for that purpose. The dominating method is fluorescence based and requires the loading of the cell with a calcium-sensitive fluorescent dye. The fluorescent indicator, FURA-2, has been used for that purpose for many years. Other dyes, such as FLUO-3 and FLUO-4, have been introduced more recently. The dye is added to the cells as a membrane permeable ester that passes the cell membrane easily. Intracellular esterases then cut the delivered compound and prevent the release of the ready-to-use indicator. After loading, cells are exposed to the test substances. Changes in the intracellular Ca^{2+} concentration are recorded as a shift in the excitation maxima of the dye. The results are usually expressed as the ratio between the two excitation values, which makes this method both sensitive and trouble-free. The assay can be performed in different devices, where the FLIPR instrument (Molecular Device) being the one mainly used by the pharmaceutical industry due to its high throughput capacity. However, its relatively high cost has prevented it from being more widely used in academic laboratories. Other methods of choice are fluorescence plate readers and microscopic fluorescence imaging systems, which, however, have a much lower throughput.

The aequorin method [72] is also used to monitor shifts in the intracellular Ca^{2+} concentration. This method is based on the expression of apoaequorin protein in cells. The cells are subsequently loaded with coelenterazine, a luciferin substrate. When the intracellular Ca^{2+} concentration is increased, aequorin protein catalyses the oxidation of coelenterazine. During this process light is released, which can then be recorded using luminometers.

The predominant use of these techniques is closely connected to the introduction of chimeric, and/ or promiscuous, G-proteins which are supposed

to redirect signaling of any 7TM receptor into the Ca^{2+} signaling pathway [73-75]. Thus, a mixture of different chimeric and promiscuous G-proteins is often co-expressed with the “orphan” receptor. However, there are several reports questioning the over-all applicability of this “G-protein cocktail” strategy to virtually any GPCR [76].

Besides these two techniques, half a dozen other assay systems have been successfully used. They often have lower throughputs, are hampered by long incubation times, or have other disadvantages.

Reporter gene technology is a widely used screening approach (for review [77]). It requires a DNA-based reporter construct, usually consisting of a promoter and a reporter gene which is stably introduced into the cells. The transcription activity of the reporter gene is eventually regulated by the receptor, which is present on the cell membrane, through the intracellular signal transduction machinery. Certain transcription factors are activated in response to the stimulation of different signaling pathways (Table 2). Thus, G_s activation has been monitored by reporter constructs based on cAMP-response elements in their promoters [35]. Activation of G_q and G_i coupled receptors has been performed using promoters, which contained either TPA response elements (TRE) [36], serum response elements [78], nuclear factor of activated T-cells (NFAT) response elements [79], or nuclear factor κ B (NF- κ B) response elements (Paper II). Attempts have been undertaken to design reporter gene assays which couple to virtually all [80] or at least several G-proteins [35] (Paper II). Reporter gene assays are trouble-free and are, once established, not labor-intensive. However, they also have disadvantages; (i) they need an incubation period of several hours in order to produce the reporter enzyme, which makes it possible that other targets than just the receptor will be affected (however, this problem may be circumvented by appropriate controls) and (ii) preferentially even the receptor should be stably inserted.

Assay systems that detect changes in cAMP-production are widely used. They are most valuable for receptors coupling to G_s or G_i subtypes of G-proteins. Whereas receptors coupling to G_s increase production and subsequently the concentration of cAMP, G_i inhibits the production of cAMP. This makes it necessary to stimulate cAMP production, usually with the PKA stimulator, forskolin.

The production of cAMP can be assayed by a variety of methods. Reporter gene assays have, as discussed above, been successfully used [81, 82]. More often changes in the cAMP-concentration have been monitored by radio-immunoassays [83, 84]. More recently, a technique called AlphaScreen (Amplified Luminescence Proximity Homogenous Assay) has been introduced. It can be performed using very small volumes and at higher throughputs than other cAMP-assays and it has already been successfully used [85].

Electrophysiological assays using *Xenopus* oocytes were applied to some ligand identifications on orphan 7TM receptors [86-89]. While such assays are very

sensitive, their throughput is rather low. In the assay, different ion channels are co-expressed with the receptor in the oocytes, to measure the activation of different G_{i/o}-pathways. For example, a G-protein-gated, inwardly rectifying potassium channel (GIRK) has been used to measure activation of G_{i/o} coupled receptors [63, 86, 90]. In another report, a chloride channel (CFTR) sensitive to elevations of cAMP was used to record the activation of G_s coupled receptors. The activation of G_q mediated responses is monitored by an increased chloride current and does not depend on the co-expression of other proteins [87].

7TM receptor activation can also influence the pigment distribution in *Xenopus* melanophores [91, 92]. This principle was used as a secondary assay in the identification of the CysLT₁R [89].

Yeast (*S. cerevisiae*) based assays have been used successfully as a primary screening tool at least twice [90, 93]. As it is an eucaryotic organism, the signaling in yeast resembles the main signaling pathways of other eucaryotes in its pheromone response. Normally, activation of the pheromone response pathway results in growth arrest and initiates the yeast mating procedure. The assay based on yeast is primarily a reporter gene assay, using either β -galactosidase or an enzyme required in the biosynthesis of an essential amino acid (e.g. His3) as a reporter. In the latter case, the read-out is simply the growth of the yeast cells. It is, however, necessary to adapt the yeast genetically in several ways. Besides the introduction of the orphan receptor, chimeric G-proteins to ensure coupling of the receptor, as well as the reporter construct have to be introduced. The yeast pheromone receptors may have to be deleted. The response is also greatly enhanced by deleting the SST2 gene, a member of the RGS family. Yeast assays can be performed at high throughputs and are cheap, however, not all mammalian receptors can be functionally expressed in this system [52].

A technique described as a microphysiometer (or a cytosensor) assays the acidification of cell culture medium upon extracellular stimulation. Activation of the receptor is followed by an increase in the energy metabolism of the cell, leading to acid production [94]. It is supposed to work as a generic assay, but due to its low throughput and sensitivity it has not been widely used [41, 43, 95].

Many cells release arachidonic acid in response to receptor stimulation. The secretion of radioactive arachidonic acid can be monitored after incubating cells with radioactively labeled precursors. Besides the involvement of radioisotopes, the technique is also performed with rather low throughput and has, hence, not been widely used as a primary assay.

Finally, binding assays, where a radioactive ligand shows a specific binding to the receptor, have been applied in some de-orphanizations. The receptor often displayed a high sequence homology to previously known receptors and, hence, the ligand could be determined by an educated guess. Receptor binding is,

however, not a true functional assay and it may indeed be possible that a ligand might bind a receptor without activating it (e.g. [96]).

The ligand(s)

Different strategies are employed to accomplish the identification of an orphan receptor. Each of the described methods has its particular advantages and drawbacks.

The earlier described “reverse pharmacology” approach has been applied by the pharmaceutical industry. The success of this approach depends much on the substance library, containing known and potential ligands for 7TM receptors. The compound library is tested on a receptor in a functional assay. The sizes of the compound libraries vary greatly, ranging from several dozen to several thousand compounds. Depending on the assay, this strategy may be performed in a high-throughput format. Using this strategy a large number of receptors has already been identified [97-100]. One of this method’s advantages is that it is based on pure substances, which can be applied at relatively high concentrations. The major drawback of the compound library is two-fold: (i) the library is relatively expensive to purchase and (ii) obtained hits depend entirely on the composition of the library. Completely unknown mediators will not be found using this methodology and even peptide ligands may be missed, exemplified by the discovery of the ghrelin peptide (see below).

The opposite approach starts on the receptor and its tissue distribution, and is referred to as the “orphan receptor strategy” [46, 101, 102]. In theory the ligand should be present at locations where the receptor is expressed, and furthermore that extracts of those tissues can be prepared, fractionated, and screened in a functional assay. By means of this strategy, a large number of natural ligands, including strange ligands with unusual features, have been discovered [103-105]. For example, the peptide ghrelin, acting on the GHS receptor was identified using this strategy. This unusual peptide has a covalent bound octanoyl modification, which is required for functional ligand-receptor interaction [106]. Yet another example is the discovery of a bromidated peptide, which is the ligand for the GPR7 receptor [107]. However, in this case the bromidation was not required for an interaction between receptor and ligand.

Because the orphan receptor strategy starts with a tissue extract containing a complex mixture of different molecules it requires a high quality assay, and since other signaling substances present in the extract may activate the cellular assay system used for the receptor identification. This results in a non-specific activation, which is independent of the expression of the orphan receptor studied and quenches the specific signal. Sub-fractionation of tissue extracts, prior to testing, might reduce the background noise caused by other signaling substances.

Yet another problem arises when the tested cell line already express a subtype of the orphan receptor studied. The presence of nucleotide receptors on many cell types has already caused some confusion through the mis-identification of some members [108-112]. Now these receptors are usually studied in 1321N1 cells, which do not endogenously express such receptors. Sphingosylphosphorylcholine (SPC) receptors are, for the same reasons, studied in MCF10A breast carcinoma cells [113]. Taken together, these studies imply that many signaling molecules can not be studied in the cell lines most often used, HEK293, or Chinese Hamster Ovary (CHO) cells.

Other problems may be related to the stability of the ligand, This may complicate the purification of the ligand, particularly if its amount is limited in the starting material. Furthermore, some ligands may consist of several parts which are not covalently bound together and which would be eluted in different fractions during purification. Finally, the identification of a suitable starting material may be difficult, since the natural ligand may be present only during certain physiological conditions.

Receptors, which have been deorphanized in the last five years have for the most part peptides or lipid mediators as ligands. This fact may reflect that the overwhelming majority of 7TM receptors are activated by such substances. However, it may be possible that these ligand classes are the ones most easily isolated and characterized with the techniques presently available.

Taken together, the approaches for the identification of ligands activating 7TM receptors outlined above demonstrate the complexity of ligand-receptor interaction.

However, identification of receptor-ligand interaction is only the starting point in a demanding mission. To unravel the function of the receptor and eventually to understand its physiological impact is the main goal. And last, but not least, this increasing amount of knowledge has to be used in the development of new and better drugs.

CURRENT INVESTIGATIONS

Design of improved reporter gene assays (Papers I and II)

Reporter gene assays have been widely used as a method to study gene regulation. The method is based on a reporter construct that is transiently or stably introduced into a cell, where it is used to report cellular events, such as receptor activation. The construct is composed of a promoter that is functionally connected to a reporter gene (Figure 1). The promoter is regulated by various intracellular events, which in turn might be triggered by the activation of cell-surface receptors. A wide variety of genes have been used as reporter genes depending on the different requirements of the assay performed.

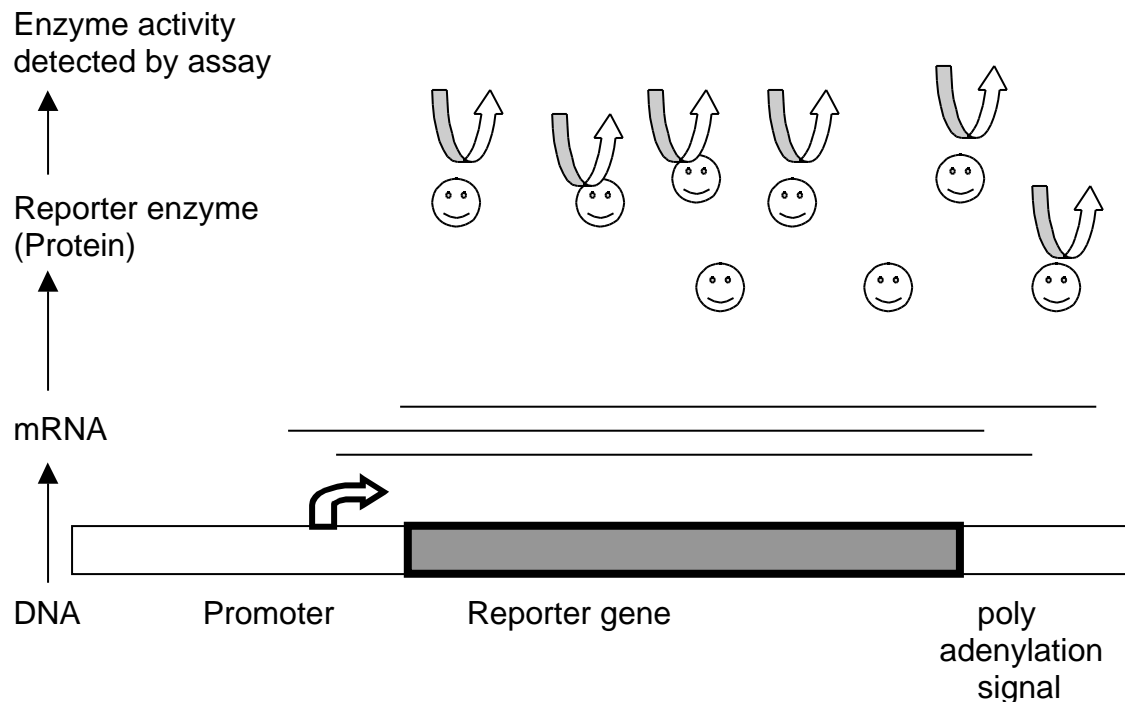


Figure 1 illustrates the principals of a reporter gene assay. The reporter construct is delivered to the monitored cell. The promoter is the docking place for transcription factors, which start the production of a messenger (mRNA). The messenger is subsequently transcribed into proteins, in this case the reporter enzymes, which are detected based on their enzymatic activity.

Reporter gene assays have attracted attention in the development of methods to assay functional responses of 7TM receptor activation (for a recent review [77]). Early reporter constructs contained whole promoters of genes, which are regulated upon various stimuli [114-116]. An increasing amount of knowledge, e.g. regarding transcription factor binding sites and signaling pathways, has lead to the use of reporter constructs with synthetic promoters containing one or

several copies of a certain “response motif” [35, 36, 40]. Different response motifs are recognized by different transcription factors that in turn are activated by various intracellular signaling cascades and are hence used to monitor the activation of receptors that are coupled to different G-proteins. For example, receptors which couple to G_s activation has usually been monitored with reporter constructs containing cAMP-responsive elements (CRE) [35].

Our interest in 7TM receptors displaying a high degree of sequence similarity to receptors for inflammatory mediators in the rhodopsin family led us to use response motifs that were sensitive to Ca²⁺ elevation and MAPK activation (Paper I and II). The first attempts were made with constructs containing TPA-responsive elements (TRE). TPA is a phorbol ester used to stimulate protein kinase C. Constructs containing 1, 5 and 9 response motifs in front of either a minimal FOS or minimal CMV promoter were transiently transfected into different cell lines. HeLa cells turned out to be the cell line that showed the highest increase in luciferase activity when stimulated with phorbol ester. Reporter constructs containing 9 response motifs resulted in the highest increase in luciferase activity. Constructs equipped with the minimal FOS promoter displayed a smaller overall signal than those based on the minimal CMV promoter, and the relative increases upon stimulation were substantially higher. For these reasons stable reporter cell lines were established with constructs containing 9 TRE.

An useful reporter enzyme should display no background in eucaryotic cells, and it should also exhibit a single cell resolution in order to facilitate clone selection. Luciferases, which are often used as reporters, do not have any internal background in mammalian systems and are, hence, very useful in plate reader systems. However, since luciferase activity is analyzed in lysed cells detection at a single cell level is not possible at all.

In order to analyze reporter gene activity at a single cell level, β -galactosidase and β -lactamase have been used [117, 118]. Both require loading cells with substrate molecules, which are then converted to fluorescent products by the enzymatic activity of the reporter enzyme. Beside of the inconvenient loading procedure, cells have an intrinsic fluorescent background, which makes these techniques less sensitive when used in a plate reader.

Green-fluorescent protein (GFP), on the other hand, has an intrinsic fluorescent property due to its three-dimensional structure, which builds up a fluorophore consisting of three amino acids in tight proximity to each other. A variety of GFP variants with different absorbtion and emission spectra have been described [119-123]. GFP is easily detected at a single cell level using fluorescent microscopy or flow cytometry and it has been used in plate reader assays. However, due to the intrinsic fluorescence of the cells the signal window obtained is rather small [124].

In contrast, a fusion gene results in a new fusion protein that combines the advantageous properties of firefly luciferase and GFP. Thus, for the

construction of stable reporter cell lines a fusion gene was made and used as reporter gene. The GFP gene was placed upstream of the firefly luciferase gene. When expressed in mammalian cells both components retained their enzymatic properties. The newly designed reporter gene was placed downstream of the synthetic promoter, containing the 9 x TRE and the minimal CMV promoter. The resulting reporter plasmid was designated pcFUS2 (Figure 3).

The reporter construct was stably transfected into HeLa cells by electroporation. Due to the properties of the chimeric reporter enzyme, reporter gene activity could be measured both in luciferase assays, using a plate reader, and as a fluorescent signal using a fluorescence microscope or flow cytometry. The transfected cell clones showed considerable differences in their ability to respond to stimulation. This combined with the single cell resolution of the assay, allowed for a simple and convenient procedure to select especially well-responding reporter cell lines (Figure 2).

The selected reporter cell line was designated as HF1 (**HeLa+pcFUS2**, cell clone #1) and was shown to increase luciferase activity up to 100 times when stimulated with PMA.

In further experiments, the ability of several receptors to increase reporter enzyme activity was investigated after stimulation by the respective agonist. For this purpose, the first leukotriene B4 receptor (BLT₁), the fifth CC chemokine receptor (CCR5) and the rat α_{1b} receptor were transfected into the HF1 reporter cell lines. These gave rise to the HF1pBLT1, HF1pCCR5 and HF1pR α_{1b} reporter cell lines.

The reporter cell lines were subsequently used in ligand stimulation experiments to obtain EC₅₀ values from the concentration-response curves. All tested reporter cell lines responded well to full agonist stimulation (CCR5/RANTES 15 times, rat α_{1b} /epinephrine 50 times, and BLT₁/LTB₄ 200 times). In contrast, other described reporter gene assays either pooled the resulting clones or, more often, tested a small number of clones in a rather laborious process [36, 115, 125]. The resulting reporter cell lines increased reporter protein activity at maximum stimulation by a factor of 3 to 20 times, when stimulated with a strong activator of PKC [36, 115].

In an approach to further expand the applicability of the assay described, the reporter construct was optimized (Paper II). Multiple copies of a newly designed response motif, which contained the consensus motifs of NF- κ B and STAT binding sites, were introduced into the reporter construct. The reporter vector was further equipped with the minimal FOS promoter and the EGFP-luciferase fusion reporter gene (Figure 3). Stable cell lines were established by the clone election procedure described above. The cloning gave rise to the HFF11 cell line (**HeLa+pcFUS3 (FOS-promoter)**, cell clone #11). This cell line and the previously described HF1 cell line were used in studies aimed at comparing both cell lines. Experiments were performed using three different 7TM receptors as examples. The receptors were either expressed recombinantly

(complement C5a) or endogenously in both cell lines. It was found that the HFF11-based cell lines increased luciferase expression more strongly in response to stimulation than the HF1-based cell lines.

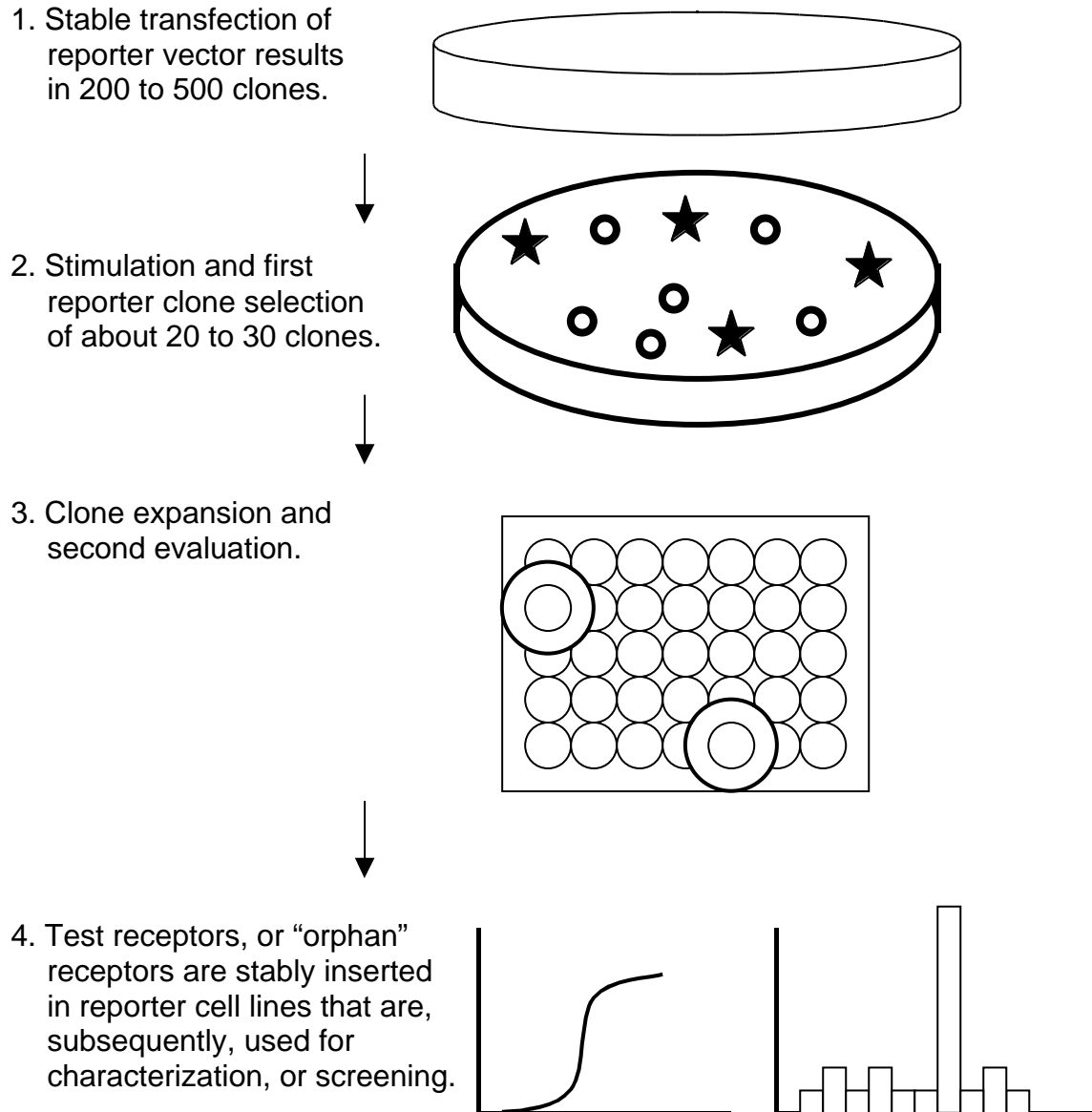


Figure 2 illustrates the cloning and selection procedure of reporter cell lines for the described reporter gene assays.

A further reporter construct was assembled to simplify the assay procedure. Due to their intracellular expression, firefly luciferase and many other reporter enzymes used in 96-well plate assays are analyzed in lysed cells. Other reporter enzymes, such as secreted alkaline phosphatase, can be analyzed in the supernatant of the cells [126, 127]. This simplifies the assay procedure in two ways: (i) it is not necessary to lyse the cells for analysis, which eliminates several steps in cell handling, and (ii) normalization can be performed for each

individual culturing well before and after ligand stimulation. This should improve assay quality.

Therefore, a reporter construct was designed containing two reporter enzymes, a secreted, genetically modified *Renilla* luciferase, and a second intracellular reporter, composed of EGFP and firefly luciferase (Figure 3). The expression of both enzymes was connected using an internal ribosomal entry site (IRES) [128, 129].

Renilla luciferase enzyme activity was easily detected in the cell supernatant. However, the expression of EGFP could not be detected using fluorescence microscopy or flow cytometry, even in stimulated reporter cells. The cell lysate displayed small, though detectable, amounts of firefly luciferase activity using a plate luminometer. This indicates that the IRES directed the translation machinery to the second, intracellular reporter enzyme in a rather inefficient way. The amount of intracellular reporter protein per cell was too small to allow for an efficient clone selection based on EGFP fluorescence.

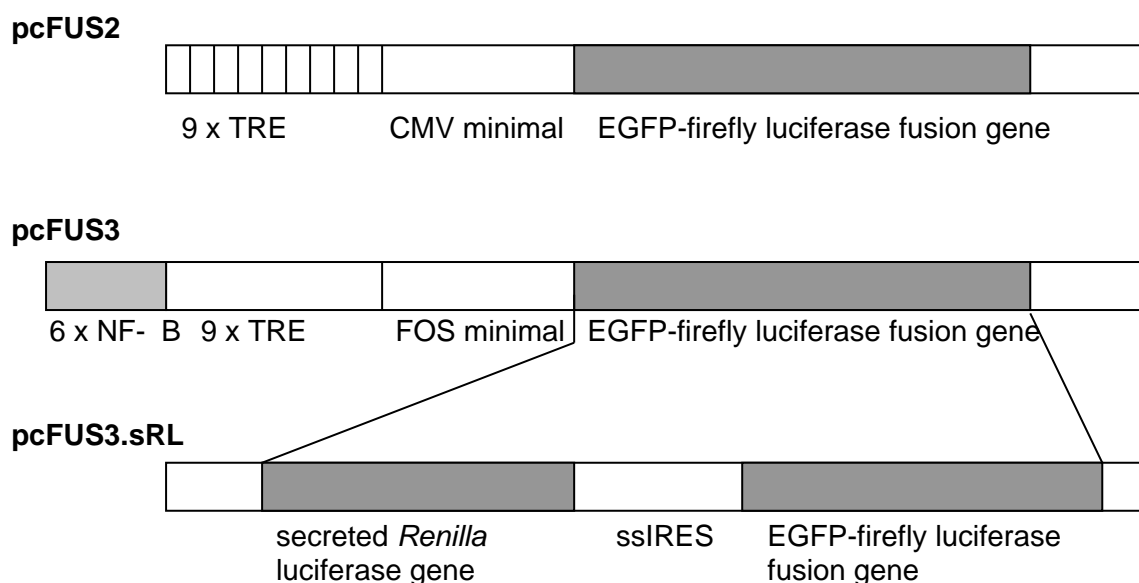


Figure 3 shows the design of the reporter constructs used to establish the stable cell lines HF1 (pcFUS2), HFF11 (pcFUS3) and HR36 (pcFUS3.sRL).

Among the 36 clones tested in an old-fashioned clone selection procedure, a clone named HR36 was chosen for comparison of two different assay procedures. In the first approach, cells grown in 96-well plates were exposed to different ATP-concentrations in order to stimulate endogenously expressed ATP-receptors. In a second approach, cells grown in batch culture were suspended using an EDTA solution and added to the ligands present in a 96-well plate. *Renilla* luciferase activity was analyzed in the supernatant. The

second approach simplifies assay performance as it involves fewer steps in cell handling.

Although the use of the secreted reporter enzyme increased the Z-factor [71] slightly to a value of around 0.9 for both approaches, the EC_{50} values obtained were somewhat different for the two assay procedures tested. The reason for this is not fully understood. However, adding the reporter cells, grown in batch culture, to the ligands increased the assay sensitivity.

The identification of two orphan 7TM receptors (Papers III and IV)

A second leukotriene B₄ receptor, BLT₂

Leukotriene B₄ is an arachidonic acid metabolite that acts as a potent chemotactic mediator and is involved in inflammatory processes and diseases [130, 131]. This pharmacologically defined high affinity receptor was cloned [132], subsequently identified [111] and termed BLTR. However, reports suggested a second, low affinity receptor for LTB₄ in human granulocytes and murine spleen [133, 134]. It has been suggested that the presently described BLT₂ might be identical to this low affinity receptor [135]. However, it is still controversial whether the pharmacologically described low affinity leukotriene B₄ receptor is a molecularly defined entity of its own or is rather a form of the already described BLTR (now termed BLT₁) [136, 137].

The second receptor for LTB₄, BLTR2 (now designated BLT₂ receptor [207]) was first identified *in silico* using a homology screening tool (Paper III). An expressed sequence tag (EST) was identified that showed a particularly high sequence homology to BLT₁. However, the clone from which the EST derived did not contain an ORF coding for a complete 7TM receptor. The C-terminus was lacking, as was revealed after sequence analysis of the complete insert. The fragmented receptor was not functional as it could not elicit Ca²⁺ mobilization when transfected into HeLa cells.

Therefore, the missing part was cloned from a human leukocyte cDNA library and ligated into the earlier cloned receptor fragment. The resulting mRNA contained two possible start codons, resulting in a protein of 389 or 358 amino acids, respectively. The full-length cDNA was inserted into pcDNA3 and the resulting plasmid was used to transform HeLa cells. The transfected cells did, indeed, mediate Ca²⁺ mobilization after stimulation with LTB₄, whereas a control vector (pcDNA3 containing the EGFP-gene) failed to do so. Increases in intracellular calcium were recorded using the aequorin method.

High expression of the receptor was detected in the liver, skeletal muscle, heart, spleen, kidney, and weaker levels occurred in the lung, placenta and pancreas. Either a 422 bp fragment or a 673 bp fragment was used as a probe. Both were derived from the 5' untranslated region and the proximal parts of the gene.

The same receptor was cloned and published simultaneously by three other groups, who presented similar data [84, 135, 138]. Receptor activation was linked to an increase in intracellular Ca²⁺ concentrations in both CHO and HEK cells, and it inhibited adenylate cyclase and mediated chemotaxis in CHO cells. The EC₅₀ concentrations were all above those reported for BLT₁. Hence, the receptor functions as a low-affinity receptor for LTB₄ [84, 135]. Binding studies in these reports further supported this hypothesis.

Later on it was reported that BLT₂ is also activated by a variety of ligands similar to LTB₄, whereas BLT₁ is more restricted and is only efficiently activated by LTB₄ [136, 138]. Ligands that activate BLT₂, include 12-oxoeicosatetraenoic acid, 12-(S)-hydroxyeicosatetraenoic acid, 12-(S)-hydroperoxyeicosatetraenoic acid, 15-(S)-hydroxyeicosatetraenoic acid and 15-(S)-hydroperoxyeicosatetraenoic acid [136].

The first cell surface receptor activated by free fatty acids, FFA₁R

Fatty acids are carboxylic acids and found in all vertebrate cells. They contribute as building material to the cell membrane and serve as an energy storage medium when esterified (triacylglycerols). Also, they have for a long time been known to act as signaling molecules on the family of nuclear receptors known as peroxisome proliferator-activated receptors (PPARs) [139, 140].

Free fatty acids have an important role in the energy metabolism of many organs. The hormones glucagon and epinephrine stimulate, for example, cell surface receptors on fat cells, which in turn activate hormone-sensitive lipase. In the adipocytes the lipase releases fatty acids from triacylglycerols into the blood stream. The released fatty acids are bound to serum albumin and transported to skeletal muscles, the heart and to the renal cortex where they are degraded by β -oxidation.

Besides their physiological roles, free fatty acids are also involved in pathophysiological mechanisms [141, 142]. High plasma concentrations of FFAs have, for example, been connected to an increase in cancer mortality [143], insulin resistance in obese people [142] [144], and pathological changes in the endothelium [145].

The physiological actions of free fatty acids have usually been explained by either metabolic effects [146] or signaling through the nuclear receptors [139, 140, 147]. However, several reports question this [148] and evidence has accumulated indicating that cell surface receptor(s) may also be involved [149-152].

Using a reverse pharmacology approach, we tested ten reporter cell lines, each of which expressed a different orphan 7TM receptor, in a screen aimed to identify possible fatty acid receptors (Paper IV). In this approach, HFF11 reporter cell lines were used (Paper II). The cell line expressing the orphan receptor, GPR40 [47], showed a significant increase in luciferase activity when stimulated with 50 μ M linoleic acid (Z-factor 0.8 [71]). This cell line showed no increase in luciferase activity when stimulated with arachidonic acid, the precursor for leukotriene and lipoxin signaling molecules. The signal obtained with linoleic acid showed pertussis toxin sensitivity, indicating a coupling to the G_i class of G-proteins.

Because GPR40 was earlier reported only as an ORF found on human chromosome 19q13.1 displaying sequence similarities to other 7TM receptors, the tissue expression was investigated using a multiple tissue northern blot. Expression of FFA₁ was detected in skeletal muscle, the liver and the heart. An apparently strong expression was also detected in pancreatic β -cells (Paper IV).

The initial results obtained from screening experiments were verified using the aequorin system. Thus, HeLa and CHO cells expressing the receptor transiently showed a light flash when stimulated with the agonist in a concentration-dependent manner. This further strengthened the idea that GPR40 was indeed a receptor for free fatty acids.

Numerous fatty acids and fatty acid derivatives were then tested using the GPR40 expressing HFF11 reporter cell line. Fatty acids with varying chain length and different degree of saturation or hydroxylation caused an increase in luciferase activity (Table 3). Short-chain fatty acids (C1-C4) had no effect on cell lines expressing GPR40 (up to 1 mM tested). Because of the activation of this receptor by a broad range of fatty acids along with its tissue distribution and its suggested physiological role, we proposed the name free fatty acid receptor, or FFA₁R. It is the first 7TM receptor that seems to serve a function as a “nutrient sensing receptor”.

Trivial name	Systematic name	Abbreviation	EC ₅₀ in μ M Paper IV	EC ₅₀ in μ M [153]	EC ₅₀ in μ M [154]
Capric acid	Decanoic acid	10:0	12.6	14.1	43
Lauric acid	Dodecanoic acid	12:0	22.5	12.0	5.7
Myristic acid	Tetradecanoic acid	14:0	30.3	14.5	7.7
Palmitic acid	Hexadecanoic acid	16:0	143.2	5	6.8
Oleic acid	<i>cis</i> -9-Octadecenoic acid	18:1(⁹)	123.1	40.7	2.0
Elaidic acid	<i>trans</i> -9-Octadecenoic acid	18:1(⁹)	149	6.9	4.7
Linoleic acid	<i>cis</i> -9, <i>cis</i> -12-Octadecadienoic acid	18:2(^{9,12})	38.4	9.5	1.8
Linolenic acid	<i>cis</i> -9, <i>cis</i> -12, <i>cis</i> -15-Octadecatrienoic acid	18:3(^{9,12,15})	27.1	12.5	2.0
γ -Linolenic acid	<i>cis</i> -6, <i>cis</i> -9, <i>cis</i> -12-Octadecatrienoic acid	18:3(^{6,9,12})	28.5	8.9	4.6
Stearidonic acid	<i>cis</i> -6, <i>cis</i> -9, <i>cis</i> -12, <i>cis</i> -15-Octadecatetraenoic acid	18:4(^{6,9,12,15})	8.9	n.d.	n.d.
Arachidonic acid	<i>cis</i> -5, <i>cis</i> -8, <i>cis</i> -11, <i>cis</i> -14-Eicosatetraenoic acid	20:4(^{5,8,11,14})	Not an agonist	12.0	2.4

Table 3. Medium to long chain free fatty acids are ligands to FFAR. Comparison of the EC₅₀-values as reported by (IV), [153] and [154]. n.d. not determined.

The identification of GPR40 as a receptor for medium to long chain free fatty acids was independently described by two other groups [153, 154] and corroborated our main findings. Thus, GPR40 is activated by medium to long chain free fatty acids. There are, however, differences in the reports. The initial screens by Itoh *et al.* and Briscoe *et al.* were performed using the FLIPR system, which records changes in the intracellular Ca^{2+} concentration. The EC_{50} values reported differ noticeably (Table 3). The most remarkable differences included arachidonic acid, which failed to elicit a response mediated by FFA_1R using the transcriptional assay (Paper IV). However, it displayed an EC_{50} value at the μM -range in the other reports [153, 154]. While an experimental explanation of these differences is missing, one could speculate that differences in the assay system may have contributed.

Results of the tissue expression of FFA_1R were almost identical. Although the strongest expression was reported from β -pancreatic cells [153, 154], expression was also detected in the spleen, the liver, the heart and the brain [153].

FFA_1R plays an important physiological role as it regulates insulin secretion from pancreatic β -cells upon stimulation by free fatty acids [154]. In addition, certain fatty acid derivatives emphasize important physiological and pathophysiological functions of this receptor (Paper IV). 9-HODE and a conjugated linoleic acid (CLA) activated the receptor strongly. 9-HODE is a major component of oxo-low density lipoprotein [155] and is involved in the etiology of arteriosclerosis. CLA has attracted a lot of attention in cancer research and research of other life style diseases [156-159].

An even more important finding is the activation of FFA_1R by MEDICA16 and thiazolidinedione-type compounds (TZDs), such as rosiglitazone [160] and MCC-555 [161]. Some of these TZDs were recently introduced as a treatment of type II diabetes. It is generally believed that PPAR γ is an important target for these drugs (for review [139, 162]). However, PPAR γ -independent effects have been reported [163-165], and the involvement of cell surface receptors has been suggested [166]. Earlier observations even showed a poor correlation between the potency of PPAR γ activation and the anti-diabetic effects of these compounds [161].

MEDICA16 is an experimental drug with antidiabetogenic and hypolipidemic actions in the rat model. Its main site of actions is thought to be the liver, although drug actions have also been observed in the heart and in pancreatic β -cells [224, 225].

Re-ceptor	FFA ₁ R	PPAR _α	PPAR _δ	PPAR _γ
ligands	Medium to long chain length; saturated and unsaturated fatty acids C ₁₀₋₂₀ ; 9-HODE MEDICA 16 thiazolidinediones	Eicosanoids from lipoxygenase pathway: LTB ₄ ; 8-HETE; fatty acids C ₁₂₋₂₀ fibrates	fatty acids C ₁₂₋₂₀ Prostaglandins triglycerides	Eicosanoids from lipoxygenase and cyclooxygenase pathway: 15-HETE, 15-deoxy-12,14-prostaglandine J ₂ ; 9-HODE, 13-HODE, fatty acids C ₁₂₋₂₀ , Thiazolidinedione, MEDICA16

Table 4. Ligand spectrum of cell surface and intracellular fatty acid receptors. Collected from Paper IV, [153, 167-174].

Taken together, the activation of FFA₁R by two different types of antidiabetic compounds suggests that FFA₁R might serve as a drug target in the body. Its ligand spectrum is very similar to that found for PPAR (Table 4), which hitherto has been considered to be the main target for the TZD drugs. Instead, it might be possible that both, the nuclear receptor and the cell surface receptor participate in the transmission of the drug actions. These findings might allow the development of specific agonists and antagonists acting specifically on their targets, thereby contributing to unravel the complicated physiology of the metabolic fatty acids.

Conclusions

The identification of natural and surrogate ligands which act on 7TM receptors involve mainly cell based assay systems. Hitherto, reporter gene assays have not been used extensively in this process.

The construction of improved reporter gene assays was accomplished by optimizing the promoter region of the construct, the reporter enzyme used, and the assay procedure. Further, a fluorescence based clone selection step was introduced that enables the selection of the most sensitive reporter cell clones. The established test cell lines responded in a very sensitive way upon stimulation of various cell surface receptors. The amplification of reporter enzyme activity was substantially larger than in any earlier described system and the high assay quality makes it suitable as a primary screening tool. The resulting system concept suitable for mass-screenings of 7TM receptors, has been named “High-TRACE” (**high-through-put reporter assay with clone election**). The described reporter gene assays turned already out to be useful for the identification of ligands acting on orphan 7TM receptors.

These approaches to identifying ligands for orphan 7TM receptors led to the discovery of the second leukotriene B₄ receptor, BLT₂ and the first cell surface, free fatty acid receptor FFA₁.

While the exact physiological role of BLT₂ is still a matter for debate, the identification of FFA₁ provides us with an explanation of the many physiological effects attributed to free fatty acids, which had hitherto remained unexplained. The activation of FFA₁ by TZD-type anti-diabetic drugs implies an important connection to type II diabetes and will subsequently contribute to the deepening of our understanding of the underlying mechanisms of this disease.

Sammanfattning på svenska (Swedish Summary)

I alla flercelliga organismer behövs utbyte av information mellan cellerna, som bygger upp kroppen. För detta ändamål är cellerna försedda med små antenner, som kan ta emot signaler och kallas därför receptorer. Receptorer kan vara uppbyggda på olika sätt. De flesta receptorer slingrar sig sju gånger genom membranet och har ett gemensamt sätt att fortledda signaler till insidan av cellen via så kallade G-proteiner. De kallas därför 7TM (transmembran) eller G-protein kopplade receptorer. Dessa receptorer är mycket betydelsefulla då de styr många fysiologiska funktioner i kroppen, men även eftersom de utgör måltavlor för många läkemedel. De är faktiskt de mål på cellytan, som flest läkemedel använder sig av.

I detta arbete beskrivs nya förfinade metoder att mäta signalfortledningen genom sådana receptorer (delarbeten I och II). Det kan användas för att identifiera substanser (läkemedel eller naturliga ämnen) som kan binda till, och aktivera receptorer.

Utöver detta beskrivs identifieringen av två nya receptorer (delarbeten III och IV), som ingår i superfamiljen. Den första receptorn blev inledningsvis identifierad från databasen för det humana genomet, som ett potentiell receptor med stor likhet med den redan kända leukotrien-receptorn, BLT₁. Vidare utnyttjades receptorn för att hitta den substans, som binder och aktiverar receptorn i kroppen. Substansen visade sig vara leukotriene B₄, en signalsubstans som frisätts när till exempel infektioner pågår och som rekryterar immunceller. Fysiologiska funktionen för den andra leukotriene B₄ receptorn, BLT₂ är ännu inte helt klarlagd.

Den andra receptorn är den första receptorn som aktiveras av fettsyror. Receptorn finns i många organ i kroppen som är förknippade med energiomsättningen och metabolism, såsom levern, muskelvävnad och hjärta. Men receptorn uttrycks också i de insulin-producerande celler, som finns i bukspottkörteln. Receptorn är inblandad i den insulin-frisättning, som äger rum efter en fettrik måltid.

Vad som gör receptorn extra betydelsefull är, att även nya läkemedel mot diabetes typ II interagerar med receptorn. Det är möjligt att delar av läkemedelsinverkan överförs genom den nya receptor. Upptäckten kan på så vis påverka utvecklingen av nya och bättre antidiabetes-läkemedel och kanske förkorta utvecklingstiden.

Deutsche Zusammenfassung (German Summary)

Während der Entwicklung neuer Wirksubstanzen in der Arzneimittelforschung verwendet man oft Massen-Screenings-Technologien, in denen tausende von potentiellen Wirksubstanzen an molekularen Zielstrukturen getestet werden. In unserem Körper liegen diese molekularen Zielstrukturen oft in der Oberfläche von Zellen. Dort nehmen sie ähnlich wie kleine Antennen Botschaften aus dem Körper entgegen. Man nennt solche Antennen auch Rezeptoren. In unserem Körper gibt es tausende, unterschiedliche Rezeptoren. Ein jeder erkennt einige wenige jedoch spezifische Signale und vermittelt Informationen in das Zellinnere. Zellen reagieren dann auf diese Signale, sie können dann selbst Signalsubstanzen freisetzen, sich bewegen, teilen oder wachsen.

Die grösste Klasse von Rezeptoren stellen die sieben-transmembranen (7TM), oder G-protein gekoppelten Rezeptoren dar, mit mehr als tausend Mitgliedern. Diese Rezeptoren winden sich siebenmal durch die Zellmembran und wechselwirken in der Zelle mit sogenannten G-proteinen. Weit mehr als die Hälfte aller heutzutage als Medikamente verwendeten Wirkstoffe beeinflusst solche Rezeptoren. Es ist also nicht verwunderlich, dass dieser Klasse von Rezeptoren und Analysemethoden für deren Aktivierung grosse Aufmerksamkeit geschenkt worden ist.

Die hier vorgelegte Dissertation besteht aus vier Teilarbeiten, von denen die ersten beiden Arbeiten neue und verbesserte Methoden zur funktionellen Analyse dieser Rezeptoren beschreiben. Teilarbeit 3 beschreibt die Identifizierung und Charakterisierung eines neuen Leukotriene B₄-Rezeptors BLT₂ und Teilarbeit 4 identifiziert GPR40 als den ersten Rezeptor für freie Fettsäuren und zeigt, dass dieser auch von einer Klasse antidiabetischer Arzneimittel (Thiazolidinedione) aktiviert wird.

Die ersten beiden Teilarbeiten beschreiben zellbasierte Werkzeuge, mit deren Hilfe man die Aktivierung von 7TM Rezeptoren analysieren kann. Die hier diskutierten Techniken erreichen eine grössere Empfindlichkeit und Zuverlässigkeit, als bisher beschriebene Methoden. Es handelt sich dabei um ein Reporter-gen-assay, in dem die Aktivierung von Zelloberflächenrezeptoren zur Steigerung der Transkription an einem Reporter-gen führt. Um diese Methode verwenden zu können braucht man einen Reportervektor. Dieser enthält als wichtigste Bestandteile einem Promotor und das Reporter-gen. In der vorliegenden Arbeit wurde der Reportervektor, das Reporterenzym und die Durchführung der Tests optimiert. Es wurde ausserdem eine neue, verbesserte Methode zur Auswahl von Reporterzellklonen entwickelt und angewandt.

Der hier beschriebene Promotor enthält sogenannte TPA-empfindlichen Motife (TRE), kleine (ca. 8 Basenpaare) Stücke DNA, die von speziellen Transkriptionsfaktoren erkannt und gebunden werden können, wenn diese aktiviert wurden. Konstrukte mit einer unterschiedlichen Anzahl von TRE Motifen wurden getestet (1 x TRE, 5 x TRE und 9 x TRE). Konstrukte mit 9 solchen TRE Motifen zeigten die vorteilhaftesten Eigenschaften, wenn sie in Zellkulturen transfektiert wurden.

Als Reporter gen wurde ein Fusionsgen, bestehend aus dem grünen fluoreszierendem Protein (EGFP) und der Glühwürmchen-Luziferase, verwendet. Dieses ermöglichte die Analyse von sowohl einzelnen Zellen, wie auch von Zellsaten mit hoher Empfindlichkeit.

HeLa Zellen wurden mittels Elektroporierung stabil mit dem ersten Reporterkonstrukt (pcFUS2) ausgestattet. Zellklone wurden selektiert und dann mit einem Phorbol ester stimuliert, um Zellklone zu finden die auf die Stimulierung mit einem besonders grossem Anstieg in der Enzymaktivität reagieren. Die beste so gefundene Zelllinie wurde HF1 genannt.

HF1 Zellen wurden mit verschiedenen Rezeptoren stabil transfektiert, um das System zu testen. Nach Stimulierung der Testrezeptoren konnte in jedem Fall ein bedeutender Anstieg der Luziferaseaktivität beobachtet werden, das Niveau variierte: Der Leukotriene B₄ Rezeptor BLT₁ steigerte die Enzymaktivität 200 mal, der alpha_{1b} Rezeptor der Ratte steigerte sie rund 50 mal und der fünfte CC chemokine Rezeptor CCR5 rund 15 mal.

In einer Weiterentwicklung dieses Systems wurden Motife für andere Transkriptions-faktoren in den Promotor integriert, und zwar sechs NF- B Motife und sechs STAT Motife.

Auch der neue Reportervektor (pcFUS3) verwendete das oben beschriebene Fusionsreportergen. Der Vektor wurde wiederum in HeLa Zellen stabil transfektiert und die beste Reporterzelllinie wurde selektiert (HFF11). Diese und die oben beschriebenen HF1 Zellen wurden nun mit unterschiedlichen Rezeptoren getestet, die entweder schon in den Zellen vorhanden waren (ATP-Rezeptoren und CXCR4) oder stabil eingesetzt wurden (C5a Rezeptoren). In allen getesteten Fällen waren HFF11-Reporterzelllinien den vergleichbaren HF1 Zelllinien überlegen.

Teilarbeit drei beschreibt die Konierung und Identifizierung eines bis dahin unbekannte 7TM Rezeptors, der grosse Sequenzähnlichkeit mit dem bereits bekannten Leukotriene B₄ Rezeptor (heute BLT₁ Rezeptor genannt) aufweist. Auch dieser Rezeptor wird durch Leukotriene B₄ aktiviert. Zellen die diesen Rezeptor exprimierten, zeigten eine erhöhte intrazelluläre Kalzium-freisetzung, wie mit der Kalzium-abhängigen Luziferase Aequorin nachgewiesen werden konnte. Der neue Rezeptor wird heute als BLT₂ Rezeptor bezeichnet.

Teilarbeit vier beschreibt die Identifizierung des ersten Oberflächenrezeptors für freie Fettsäuren. Zehn verschiedene Testrezeptoren, ohne bekannte Liganden, wurden in HFF11 Zellen eingesetzt. Die so gewonnenen Zelllinien wurden zur Suche nach ihren körper-eigenen Signalmolekülen (Liganden) benutzt. Wurden diese Zelllinien mit 50 µM Linolsäure behandelt, so zeigten nur Zellen, die den Rezeptor namens GPR40 enthielten, einen Anstieg der Luziferaseaktivität. Es konnte weiterhin gezeigt werden, dass dieser Rezeptor durch eine grosse Vielfalt von Fettsäuren aktiviert wird, die eine Kettenlänge von 10 bis 18 Kohlenstoffatomen besitzen können. Sowohl gesättigte als auch ungesättigte Fettsäuren und sogar hydroxylierte Fettsäuren aktivierten diesen Rezeptor. Der vorgeschlagene Name lautet deshalb FFA₁ Rezeptor (Free Fatty Acid 1 Receptor = erster Rezeptor fuer freie Fettsäuren). Wurde FFA₁R mit der Kalzium-empfindlichen Luziferase

Aequorin in Zellen exprimiert, so konnte ein Anstieg der Kalziumkonzentration nach einer Behandlung mit Linolsäure nachgewiesen werden.

FFA₁R gibt es in mehreren Organen, die eng mit der Energieumsetzung und dem Stoffwechsel verbunden sind, zum Beispiel dem Herzen, der Leber und Skelettmuskelzellen. Auch Beta-Pankreaszellen enthalten diesen Rezeptor. Dieser Rezeptor ist für die Erhöhung der Insulinfreisetzung nach einer fettreichen Mahlzeit verantwortlich [154]. Wir schlagen deshalb vor, diesen Rezeptor als den ersten, beschriebenen Nährstoff-Sensor („nutrient sensing receptor“) zu bezeichnen.

Durch das Ligandspektrum und das Expressionsmuster stimuliert, wurden verschiedene Diabetesarzneimittel und experimentelle Substanzen getestet. Im Reporter-Gen Assay stimulierten die Fettsäurederivate MEDICA16 und die Thiazolidinedione Rosiglitazone und MCC-555 den Rezeptor stark. Alle diese Substanzen verbessern den Krankheitsverlauf von Diabetes II im Tierversuch. Eine dieser Substanzen (Rosiglitazone) ist darüber hinaus auch zur Behandlung von Diabetes II und dessen Folgeerkrankungen beim Menschen zugelassen. FFA₁R ist damit ein Ziel für Antidiabetika, neben dem nukleären Rezeptor für freie Fettsäuren PPAR. Der Rezeptor ist damit eng mit der Behandlung von Typ II Diabetes verbunden. Der Fund dieses molekularen Zieles für antidiabetische Wirkstoffe dürfte die Entwicklung neuer, besser Antidiabetesmedikamente vereinfachen und beschleunigen.

Acknowledgements

This work was generously supported by grants from different foundations and organizations: Daimler-Benz-Foundation, Germany, the Segerfalk Foundation, Crafoord Foundation, Ingabritt and Arne Lundberg Foundation, Kock Foundation, Swedish Society for Medical Research, Royal Physiographic Society in Lund, Swedish Research Council, the Medical Faculty at Lund University and GS Development, Malmö.

I wish to express my sincere gratitude to:

Christer Owman and Björn Olde, my supervisors, for the possibility to work in the lab, guidance throughout the work, and the opportunity to develop and realize ideas in a creative environment.

Niclas E. Nilsson and Erik Flodgren, especially for an exciting collaboration on the FFAR-project, and companionship inside and outside the lab.

All other past and present members of our group: Liselotte Antonsson, Åke Boketoft, Jesper Bristulf, Ulf Karlsson, Ulrika Mårtensson, Annika Pettersson, Jenny Eklund, Ylva Tryselius, Alan Sabirsh, Anna-Karin Alm, Sverker Nystedt, Björn Båtshake.

Especially, Joanna Nilsson, Meta (Margareta Push), Ulla-Britt Andersson and Katharina Danielsson for the best technical support I could ever imagine. Thank you for all the small things, which just worked, and which we never noticed.

Rannar Sillard and Åke Nordberg at KI in Stockholm. I'm sure we will find the ligand for Jaho2 soon.

Ulf Sjöbring for recruiting Heike to Lund and for generous support and reliable sympathy in difficult situations.

Maria Nilsson and Ulrika Ringdahl for their helping hands to provide us with our own blood for some really important experiments.

All members of the genetherapy-group and the members of the newly established Leeb-Lundberg group.

All the personnel at the daycare, Vildandens Förskola. We never had to worry about Niklas and Klara.

My friends in Germany and Sweden....

My parents and parents-in-law for their helping hands and support.

My family Heike, Niklas and Klara.

References

1. Wilson, S., *et al.*, *Orphan G-protein-coupled receptors: the next generation of drug targets?* Br J Pharmacol, 1998. **125**(7): p. 1387-92.
2. Bargmann, C.I., *Neurobiology of the Caenorhabditis elegans genome*. Science, 1998. **282**(5396): p. 2028-33.
3. Bockaert, J. and J.P. Pin, *Molecular tinkering of G protein-coupled receptors: an evolutionary success*. Embo J, 1999. **18**(7): p. 1723-9.
4. Palczewski, K., *et al.*, *Crystal structure of rhodopsin: A G protein-coupled receptor*. Science, 2000. **289**(5480): p. 739-45.
5. Paterlini, M.G., *Structure Modeling of the Chemokine Receptor CCR5: Implications for Ligand Binding and Selectivity*. Biophys J, 2002. **83**(6): p. 3012-31.
6. Archer, E., *et al.*, *Rhodopsin crystal: new template yielding realistic models of G-protein-coupled receptors?* Trends Pharmacol Sci, 2003. **24**(1): p. 36-40.
7. Schoneberg, T., A. Schulz, and T. Gudermann, *The structural basis of G-protein-coupled receptor function and dysfunction in human diseases*. Rev Physiol Biochem Pharmacol, 2002. **144**: p. 143-227.
8. Lefkowitz, R.J., *The superfamily of heptahelical receptors*. Nat Cell Biol, 2000. **2**(7): p. E133-6.
9. Pierce, K.L., R.T. Premont, and R.J. Lefkowitz, *Seven-transmembrane receptors*. Nat Rev Mol Cell Biol, 2002. **3**(9): p. 639-50.
10. Rodbell, M., *et al.*, *The glucagon-sensitive adenylyl cyclase system in plasma membranes of rat liver. V. An obligatory role of guanylnucleotides in glucagon action*. J Biol Chem, 1971. **246**(6): p. 1877-82.
11. Zheng, B., *et al.*, *RGS-PX1, a GAP for GalphaS and sorting nexin in vesicular trafficking*. Science, 2001. **294**(5548): p. 1939-42.
12. Ma, Y.C., *et al.*, *Src tyrosine kinase is a novel direct effector of G proteins*. Cell, 2000. **102**(5): p. 635-46.
13. Chikumi, H., *et al.*, *Potent activation of RhoA by Galpha q and Gq-coupled receptors*. J Biol Chem, 2002. **277**(30): p. 27130-4.
14. Booden, M.A., D.P. Siderovski, and C.J. Der, *Leukemia-associated Rho guanine nucleotide exchange factor promotes G alpha q-coupled activation of RhoA*. Mol Cell Biol, 2002. **22**(12): p. 4053-61.
15. Smrcka, A.V., *et al.*, *Regulation of polyphosphoinositide-specific phospholipase C activity by purified Gq*. Science, 1991. **251**(4995): p. 804-7.

-
16. Bokoch, G.M., *et al.*, *Purification and properties of the inhibitory guanine nucleotide-binding regulatory component of adenylate cyclase*. J Biol Chem, 1984. **259**(6): p. 3560-7.
 17. Katada, T., *et al.*, *The inhibitory guanine nucleotide-binding regulatory component of adenylate cyclase: Subunit dissociation and the inhibition of adenylate cyclase in S49 lymphoma cyc- and wild type membranes*. J Biol Chem, 1984. **259**(6): p. 3586-95.
 18. Meng, J., *et al.*, *Functional interaction between Galpha(z) and Rap1GAP suggests a novel form of cellular cross-talk*. J Biol Chem, 1999. **274**(51): p. 36663-9.
 19. Meigs, T.E., *et al.*, *Interaction of Galpha 12 and Galpha 13 with the cytoplasmic domain of cadherin provides a mechanism for beta -catenin release*. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A, 2001. **98**(2): p. 519-24.
 20. Meigs, T.E., *et al.*, *Galpha12 and Galpha13 negatively regulate the adhesive functions of cadherin*. J Biol Chem, 2002. **277**(27): p. 24594-600.
 21. McLaughlin, S.K., P.J. McKinnon, and R.F. Margolskee, *Gustducin is a taste-cell-specific G protein closely related to the transducins*. Nature, 1992. **357**(6379): p. 563-9.
 22. Kwok-Keung Fung, B. and L. Stryer, *Photolyzed rhodopsin catalyzes the exchange of GTP for bound GDP in retinal rod outer segments*. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A, 1980. **77**(5): p. 2500-4.
 23. Boyer, J.L., G.L. Waldo, and T.K. Harden, *Beta gamma-subunit activation of G-protein-regulated phospholipase C*. J Biol Chem, 1992. **267**(35): p. 25451-6.
 24. Camps, M., *et al.*, *Isozyme-selective stimulation of phospholipase C-beta 2 by G protein beta gamma-subunits*. Nature, 1992. **360**(6405): p. 684-6. 51A:68-78, 2003.
 25. Pitcher, J.A., *et al.*, *Role of beta gamma subunits of G proteins in targeting the beta-adrenergic receptor kinase to membrane-bound receptors*. Science, 1992. **257**(5074): p. 1264-7.
 26. Tang, W.J. and A.G. Gilman, *Type-specific regulation of adenylyl cyclase by G protein beta gamma subunits*. Science, 1991. **254**(5037): p. 1500-3.
 27. Tang, W.J. and A.G. Gilman, *Adenylyl cyclases*. Cell, 1992. **70**(6): p. 869-72.
 28. Stephens, L., *et al.*, *A novel phosphoinositide 3 kinase activity in myeloid-derived cells is activated by G protein beta gamma subunits*. Cell, 1994. **77**(1): p. 83-93.
 29. Logothetis, D.E., *et al.*, *The beta gamma subunits of GTP-binding proteins activate the muscarinic K⁺ channel in heart*. Nature, 1987. **325**(6102): p. 321-6.
 30. Lefkowitz, R.J., K.L. Pierce, and L.M. Luttrell, *Dancing with different partners: protein kinase a phosphorylation of seven membrane-spanning receptors regulates their G protein-coupling specificity*. Mol Pharmacol, 2002. **62**(5): p. 971-4.
 31. Mellado, M., *et al.*, *Receptor dimerization: a key step in chemokine signaling*. Cell Mol Biol (Noisy-le-grand), 2001. **47**(4): p. 575-82.
-

32. Mellado, M., *et al.*, *Chemokine signaling and functional responses: the role of receptor dimerization and TK pathway activation*. *Annu Rev Immunol*, 2001. **19**: p. 397-421.
33. Pelletier, S., *et al.*, *Rho family GTPases are required for activation of Jak/STAT signaling by G protein-coupled receptors*. *Mol Cell Biol*, 2003. **23**(4): p. 1316-33.
34. Ali, M.S., *et al.*, *Dependence on the motif YIPP for the physical association of Jak2 kinase with the intracellular carboxyl tail of the angiotensin II AT1 receptor*. *J Biol Chem*, 1997. **272**(37): p. 23382-8.
35. Chen, W., *et al.*, *A colorimetric assay for measuring activation of Gs- and Gq-coupled signaling pathways*. *Anal Biochem*, 1995. **226**(2): p. 349-54.
36. Sista, P., *et al.*, *A cell-based reporter assay for the identification of protein kinase C activators and inhibitors*. *Mol Cell Biochem*, 1994. **141**(2): p. 129-34.
37. Lin, K., D. Wang, and W. Sadee, *Serum response factor activation by muscarinic receptors via RhoA. Novel pathway specific to M1 subtype involving calmodulin, calcineurin, and Pyk2*. *J Biol Chem*, 2002. **277**(43): p. 40789-98.
38. Suzuki, N., *et al.*, *Galpha 12 activates Rho GTPase through tyrosine-phosphorylated leukemia-associated RhoGEF*. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A*, 2003. **100**(2): p. 733-8.
39. Ye, R.D., *Regulation of nuclear factor kappaB activation by G-protein-coupled receptors*. *J Leukoc Biol*, 2001. **70**(6): p. 839-48.
40. Boss, V., D.J. Talpade, and T.J. Murphy, *Induction of NFAT-mediated transcription by Gq-coupled receptors in lymphoid and non-lymphoid cells*. *J Biol Chem*, 1996. **271**(18): p. 10429-32.
41. Hosoya, M., *et al.*, *Identification and functional characterization of a novel subtype of neuromedin U receptor*. *J Biol Chem*, 2000. **275**(38): p. 29528-32.
42. Howard, A.D., *et al.*, *Identification of receptors for neuromedin U and its role in feeding*. *Nature*, 2000. **406**(6791): p. 70-4.
43. Fujii, R., *et al.*, *Identification of neuromedin U as the cognate ligand of the orphan G protein-coupled receptor FM-3*. *J Biol Chem*, 2000. **275**(28): p. 21068-74.
44. Kojima, M., *et al.*, *Purification and identification of neuromedin U as an endogenous ligand for an orphan receptor GPR66 (FM3)*. *Biochem Biophys Res Commun*, 2000. **276**(2): p. 435-8.
45. Szekeres, P.G., *et al.*, *Neuromedin U is a potent agonist at the orphan G protein-coupled receptor FM3*. *J Biol Chem*, 2000. **275**(27): p. 20247-50.
46. Civelli, O., *et al.*, *Orphan receptors and their natural ligands*. *J Recept Signal Transduct Res*, 1997. **17**(1-3): p. 545-50.
47. Sawzdargo, M., *et al.*, *A cluster of four novel human G protein-coupled receptor genes occurring in close proximity to CD22 gene on chromosome 19q13.1*. *Biochem Biophys Res Commun*, 1997. **239**(2): p. 543-7.

-
48. Fredriksson, R., *et al.*, *Novel human G protein-coupled receptors with long N-terminals containing GPS domains and Ser/Thr-rich regions*. FEBS Lett, 2002. **531**(3): p. 407-14.
 49. Fredriksson, R., *et al.*, *There exist at least 30 human G-protein-coupled receptors with long Ser/Thr-rich N-termini*. Biochem Biophys Res Commun, 2003. **301**(3): p. 725-34.
 50. Howard, A.D., *et al.*, *Orphan G-protein-coupled receptors and natural ligand discovery*. Trends Pharmacol Sci, 2001. **22**(3): p. 132-40.
 51. Im, D.S., *Orphan g protein-coupled receptors and beyond*. Jpn J Pharmacol, 2002. **90**(2): p. 101-6.
 52. Szekeres, P.G., *Functional Assays for Identifying Ligands at Orphan G Protein-Coupled Receptors*. Receptors and Channels, 2002(8): p. 297-308.
 53. Civelli, O., *et al.*, *Novel neurotransmitters as natural ligands of orphan G-protein-coupled receptors*. Trends Neurosci, 2001. **24**(4): p. 230-7.
 54. Alexandre, D., *et al.*, *Novel splice variants of type I pituitary adenylate cyclase-activating polypeptide receptor in frog exhibit altered adenylate cyclase stimulation and differential relative abundance*. Endocrinology, 2002. **143**(7): p. 2680-92.
 55. Pindon, A., *et al.*, *Differences in signal transduction of two 5-HT₄ receptor splice variants: compound specificity and dual coupling with G α phas- and G α phai/o-proteins*. Mol Pharmacol, 2002. **61**(1): p. 85-96.
 56. Fitzgerald, L.R., *et al.*, *Identification of an EDG7 variant, HOFNH30, a G-protein-coupled receptor for lysophosphatidic acid*. Biochem Biophys Res Commun, 2000. **273**(3): p. 805-10.
 57. Nilsson, N.E., Y. Tryselius, and C. Owman, *Genomic organization of the leukotriene B(4) receptor locus of human chromosome 14*. Biochem Biophys Res Commun, 2000. **274**(2): p. 383-8.
 58. Rodriguez, M., *et al.*, *Cloning and molecular characterization of the novel human melanin-concentrating hormone receptor MCH2*. Mol Pharmacol, 2001. **60**(4): p. 632-9.
 59. Wise, A., *et al.*, *Molecular identification of high and low affinity receptors for nicotinic acid*. J Biol Chem, 2003. **9**: p. 9.
 60. Milligan, G., *et al.*, *Inverse agonism at adrenergic and opioid receptors: studies with wild type and constitutively active mutant receptors*. Receptors Channels, 1997. **5**(3-4): p. 209-13.
 61. Hsu, S.Y., *et al.*, *The three subfamilies of leucine-rich repeat-containing G protein-coupled receptors (LGR): identification of LGR6 and LGR7 and the signaling mechanism for LGR7*. Mol Endocrinol, 2000. **14**(8): p. 1257-71.
 62. Vasquez, C. and D.L. Lewis, *The CB1 cannabinoid receptor can sequester G-proteins, making them unavailable to couple to other receptors*. J Neurosci, 1999. **19**(21): p. 9271-80.
-

63. Jones, K.A., *et al.*, *GABA(B) receptors function as a heteromeric assembly of the subunits GABA(B)R1 and GABA(B)R2*. *Nature*, 1998. **396**(6712): p. 674-9.
64. Kaupmann, K., *et al.*, *Expression cloning of GABA(B) receptors uncovers similarity to metabotropic glutamate receptors*. *Nature*, 1997. **386**(6622): p. 239-46.
65. White, J.H., *et al.*, *Heterodimerization is required for the formation of a functional GABA(B) receptor*. *Nature*, 1998. **396**(6712): p. 679-82.
66. McLatchie, L.M., *et al.*, *RAMPs regulate the transport and ligand specificity of the calcitonin-receptor-like receptor*. *Nature*, 1998. **393**(6683): p. 333-9.
67. Born, W., J.A. Fischer, and R. Muff, *Receptors for calcitonin gene-related peptide, adrenomedullin, and amylin: the contributions of novel receptor-activity-modifying proteins*. *Receptors Channels*, 2002. **8**(3-4): p. 201-9.
68. Nelson, G., *et al.*, *Mammalian sweet taste receptors*. *Cell*, 2001. **106**(3): p. 381-90.
69. Nelson, G., *et al.*, *An amino-acid taste receptor*. *Nature*, 2002. **416**(6877): p. 199-202.
70. Cain, S.A. and P.N. Monk, *The orphan receptor C5L2 has high affinity binding sites for complement fragments C5a and C5a des-Arg(74)*. *J Biol Chem*, 2002. **277**(9): p. 7165-9.
71. Zhang, J.H., T.D. Chung, and K.R. Oldenburg, *A Simple Statistical Parameter for Use in Evaluation and Validation of High Throughput Screening Assays*. *J Biomol Screen*, 1999. **4**(2): p. 67-73.
72. Button, D. and M. Brownstein, *Aequorin-expressing mammalian cell lines used to report Ca²⁺ mobilization*. *Cell Calcium*, 1993. **14**(9): p. 663-71.
73. Milligan, G., F. Marshall, and S. Rees, *G16 as a universal G protein adapter: implications for agonist screening strategies*. *Trends Pharmacol Sci*, 1996. **17**(7): p. 235-7.
74. Milligan, G. and S. Rees, *Corrigendum*. *Trends Pharmacol Sci*, 1999. **20**(6): p. 252.
75. Milligan, G. and S. Rees, *Chimaeric G alpha proteins: their potential use in drug discovery*. *Trends Pharmacol Sci*, 1999. **20**(3): p. 118-24.
76. Kostenis, E., *Is Galpha16 the optimal tool for fishing ligands of orphan G-protein-coupled receptors?* *Trends Pharmacol Sci*, 2001. **22**(11): p. 560-4.
77. Hill, S.J., J.G. Baker, and S. Rees, *Reporter-gene systems for the study of G-protein-coupled receptors*. *Curr Opin Pharmacol*, 2001. **1**(5): p. 526-32.
78. Zhu, K., *et al.*, *Sphingosylphosphorylcholine and lysophosphatidylcholine are ligands for the G protein-coupled receptor GPR4*. *J Biol Chem*, 2001. **276**(44): p. 41325-35.
79. Zlokarnik, G., *et al.*, *Quantitation of transcription and clonal selection of single living cells with beta-lactamase as reporter*. *Science*, 1998. **279**(5347): p. 84-8.
80. Fitzgerald, L.R., *et al.*, *Measurement of responses from Gi-, Gs-, or Gq-coupled receptors by a multiple response element/cAMP response element-directed reporter assay*. *Anal Biochem*, 1999. **275**(1): p. 54-61.

-
81. Oda, T., *et al.*, *Molecular cloning and characterization of a novel type of histamine receptor preferentially expressed in leukocytes*. J Biol Chem, 2000. **275**(47): p. 36781-6.
 82. Zhu, Y., *et al.*, *Cloning, expression, and pharmacological characterization of a novel human histamine receptor*. Mol Pharmacol, 2001. **59**(3): p. 434-41.
 83. Hsu, S.Y., *et al.*, *Activation of orphan receptors by the hormone relaxin*. Science, 2002. **295**(5555): p. 671-4.
 84. Kamohara, M., *et al.*, *Molecular cloning and characterization of another leukotriene B4 receptor*. J Biol Chem, 2000. **275**(35): p. 27000-4.
 85. Uhlenbrock, K., H. Gassenhuber, and E. Kostenis, *Sphingosine 1-phosphate is a ligand of the human gpr3, gpr6 and gpr12 family of constitutively active G protein-coupled receptors*. Cell Signal, 2002. **14**(11): p. 941-53.
 86. Bachner, D., *et al.*, *Identification of melanin concentrating hormone (MCH) as the natural ligand for the orphan somatostatin-like receptor 1 (SLC-1)*. FEBS Lett, 1999. **457**(3): p. 522-4.
 87. Bonini, J.A., *et al.*, *Identification and characterization of two G protein-coupled receptors for neuropeptide FF*. J Biol Chem, 2000. **275**(50): p. 39324-31.
 88. Heise, C.E., *et al.*, *Characterization of the human cysteinyl leukotriene 2 receptor*. J Biol Chem, 2000. **275**(39): p. 30531-6.
 89. Lynch, K.R., *et al.*, *Characterization of the human cysteinyl leukotriene CysLTI receptor*. Nature, 1999. **399**(6738): p. 789-93.
 90. Brown, A.J., *et al.*, *The orphan G protein-coupled receptors GPR41 and GPR43 are activated by propionate and other short-chain carboxylic acids*. J Biol Chem, 2002. **19**: p. 19.
 91. Karlsson, A.M., *et al.*, *Melatonin-induced organelle movement in melanophores is coupled to tyrosine phosphorylation of a high molecular weight protein*. Cell Signal, 2000. **12**(7): p. 469-74.
 92. Karlsson, A.M., *et al.*, *Biosensing of opioids using frog melanophores*. Biosens Bioelectron, 2002. **17**(4): p. 331-5.
 93. Chambers, J.K., *et al.*, *A G protein-coupled receptor for UDP-glucose*. J Biol Chem, 2000. **275**(15): p. 10767-71.
 94. McConnell, H.M., *et al.*, *The cytosensor microphysiometer: biological applications of silicon technology*. Science, 1992. **257**(5078): p. 1906-12.
 95. Tatemoto, K., *et al.*, *Isolation and characterization of a novel endogenous peptide ligand for the human APJ receptor*. Biochem Biophys Res Commun, 1998. **251**(2): p. 471-6.
 96. Gosling, J., *et al.*, *Cutting edge: identification of a novel chemokine receptor that binds dendritic cell- and T cell-active chemokines including ELC, SLC, and TECK*. J Immunol, 2000. **164**(6): p. 2851-6.
-

97. Lembo, P.M., *et al.*, *Proenkephalin A gene products activate a new family of sensory neuron-- specific GPCRs*. *Nat Neurosci*, 2002. **5**(3): p. 201-9.
98. Han, S.K., *et al.*, *Orphan G protein-coupled receptors MrgA1 and MrgC11 are distinctively activated by RF-amide-related peptides through the Galpha q/11 pathway*. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A*, 2002. **99**(23): p. 14740-5.
99. Muir, A.I., *et al.*, *AXOR12, a novel human G protein-coupled receptor, activated by the peptide KiSS-1*. *J Biol Chem*, 2001. **276**(31): p. 28969-75.
100. Chambers, J., *et al.*, *Melanin-concentrating hormone is the cognate ligand for the orphan G- protein-coupled receptor SLC-1*. *Nature*, 1999. **400**(6741): p. 261-5.
101. Civelli, O., H.P. Nothacker, and R. Reinscheid, *Reverse physiology: discovery of the novel neuropeptide, orphanin FQ/nociceptin*. *Crit Rev Neurobiol*, 1998. **12**(3): p. 163-76.
102. Civelli, O., R.K. Reinscheid, and H.P. Nothacker, *Orphan receptors, novel neuropeptides and reverse pharmaceutical research*. *Brain Res*, 1999. **848**(1-2): p. 63-5.
103. Ohtaki, T., *et al.*, *Metastasis suppressor gene KiSS-1 encodes peptide ligand of a G-protein- coupled receptor*. *Nature*, 2001. **411**(6837): p. 613-7.
104. Saito, Y., *et al.*, *Molecular characterization of the melanin-concentrating-hormone receptor*. *Nature*, 1999. **400**(6741): p. 265-9.
105. Lee, M.J., *et al.*, *Lysophosphatidic acid stimulates the G-protein-coupled receptor EDG-1 as a low affinity agonist*. *J Biol Chem*, 1998. **273**(34): p. 22105-12.
106. Kojima, M., *et al.*, *Ghrelin is a growth-hormone-releasing acylated peptide from stomach*. *Nature*, 1999. **402**(6762): p. 656-60.
107. Fujii, R., *et al.*, *Identification of a neuropeptide modified with bromine as an endogenous ligand for GPR7*. *J Biol Chem*, 2002. **277**(37): p. 34010-6.
108. Akbar, G.K., *et al.*, *Molecular cloning of a novel P2 purinoceptor from human erythroleukemia cells*. *J Biol Chem*, 1996. **271**(31): p. 18363-7.
109. Li, Q., *et al.*, *The 6H1 orphan receptor, claimed to be the p2y5 receptor, does not mediate nucleotide-promoted second messenger responses*. *Biochem Biophys Res Commun*, 1997. **236**(2): p. 455-60.
110. Webb, T.E., M.G. Kaplan, and E.A. Barnard, *Identification of 6H1 as a P2Y purinoceptor: P2Y5*. *Biochem Biophys Res Commun*, 1996. **219**(1): p. 105-10.
111. Yokomizo, T., *et al.*, *A G-protein-coupled receptor for leukotriene B4 that mediates chemotaxis*. *Nature*, 1997. **387**(6633): p. 620-4.
112. Abbracchio, M.P., *et al.*, *Characterization of the UDP-glucose receptor (re-named here the P2Y(14) receptor) adds diversity to the P2Y receptor family*. *Trends Pharmacol Sci*, 2003. **24**(2): p. 52-5.

-
113. Xu, Y., *et al.*, *Sphingosylphosphorylcholine is a ligand for ovarian cancer G-protein-coupled receptor 1*. *Nat Cell Biol*, 2000. **2**(5): p. 261-7.
114. Voraberger, G., R. Schafer, and C. Stratowa, *Cloning of the human gene for intercellular adhesion molecule 1 and analysis of its 5'-regulatory region. Induction by cytokines and phorbol ester*. *J Immunol*, 1991. **147**(8): p. 2777-86.
115. Weyer, U., *et al.*, *Establishment of a cellular assay system for G protein-linked receptors: coupling of human NK2 and 5-HT2 receptors to phospholipase C activates a luciferase reporter gene*. *Receptors Channels*, 1993. **1**(3): p. 193-200.
116. Stratowa, C., *et al.*, *Functional characterization of the human neurokinin receptors NK1, NK2, and NK3 based on a cellular assay system*. *J Recept Signal Transduct Res*, 1995. **15**(1-4): p. 617-30.
117. Fiering, S.N., *et al.*, *Improved FACS-Gal: flow cytometric analysis and sorting of viable eukaryotic cells expressing reporter gene constructs*. *Cytometry*, 1991. **12**(4): p. 291-301.
118. Knapp, T., *et al.*, *Detection of beta-lactamase reporter gene expression by flow cytometry*. *Cytometry*, 2003. **51A**(2): p. 68-78.
119. Barak, L.S., *et al.*, *A beta-arrestin/green fluorescent protein biosensor for detecting G protein-coupled receptor activation*. *J Biol Chem*, 1997. **272**(44): p. 27497-500.
120. Kain, S.R., *Green fluorescent protein (GFP): applications in cell-based assays for drug discovery*. *Drug Discov Today*, 1999. **4**(7): p. 304-312.
121. Miyawaki, A., *et al.*, *Fluorescent indicators for Ca²⁺ based on green fluorescent proteins and calmodulin*. *Nature*, 1997. **388**(6645): p. 882-7.
122. Nagai, T., *et al.*, *Circularly permuted green fluorescent proteins engineered to sense Ca²⁺*. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A*, 2001. **98**(6): p. 3197-202.
123. Lenkei, Z., *et al.*, *A highly sensitive quantitative cytosensor technique for the identification of receptor ligands in tissue extracts*. *J Histochem Cytochem*, 2000. **48**(11): p. 1553-64.
124. Ghose, S., H. Porzig, and K. Baltensperger, *Induction of erythroid differentiation by altered Galpha16 activity as detected by a reporter gene assay in MB-02 cells*. *J Biol Chem*, 1999. **274**(18): p. 12848-54.
125. Goetz, A.S., *et al.*, *Development of a facile method for high throughput screening with reporter gene assays*. *J Biomol Screen*, 2000. **5**(5): p. 377-84.
126. Moon, K.Y., *et al.*, *A cell-based assay system for monitoring NF-kappaB activity in human HaCat transfectant cells*. *Anal Biochem*, 2001. **292**(1): p. 17-21.
127. Yang, T.T., *et al.*, *Quantification of gene expression with a secreted alkaline phosphatase reporter system*. *Biotechniques*, 1997. **23**(6): p. 1110-4.
128. Owens, G.C., *et al.*, *Identification of two short internal ribosome entry sites selected from libraries of random oligonucleotides*. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A*, 2001. **98**(4): p. 1471-6.
-

129. Edelman, G.M., *et al.*, *Synthetic promoter elements obtained by nucleotide sequence variation and selection for activity*. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A, 2000. **97**(7): p. 3038-43.
130. Serhan, C.N., J.Z. Haeggstrom, and C.C. Leslie, *Lipid mediator networks in cell signaling: update and impact of cytokines*. Faseb J, 1996. **10**(10): p. 1147-58.
131. Samuelsson, B., *et al.*, *Leukotrienes and lipoxins: structures, biosynthesis, and biological effects*. Science, 1987. **237**(4819): p. 1171-6.
132. Owman, C., *et al.*, *Cloning of a novel chemoattractant receptor activated by leukotriene B4 and used by human immunodeficiency virus type 1 to infect CD4-positive immune cells. A therapeutic connection to asthma?* Am J Respir Crit Care Med, 2000. **161**(2 Pt 2): p. S56-61.
133. Showell, H.J., *et al.*, *The in vitro and in vivo pharmacologic activity of the potent and selective leukotriene B4 receptor antagonist CP-105696*. J Pharmacol Exp Ther, 1995. **273**(1): p. 176-84.
134. Showell, H.J., *et al.*, *The preclinical pharmacological profile of the potent and selective leukotriene B4 antagonist CP-195543*. J Pharmacol Exp Ther, 1998. **285**(3): p. 946-54.
135. Yokomizo, T., *et al.*, *A second leukotriene B(4) receptor, BLT2. A new therapeutic target in inflammation and immunological disorders*. J Exp Med, 2000. **192**(3): p. 421-32.
136. Yokomizo, T., *et al.*, *Hydroxyeicosanoids bind to and activate the low affinity leukotriene B4 receptor, BLT2*. J Biol Chem, 2001. **276**(15): p. 12454-9.
137. Toda, A., T. Yokomizo, and T. Shimizu, *Leukotriene B4 receptors*. Prostaglandins Other Lipid Mediat, 2002. **68-69**: p. 575-85.
138. Wang, S., *et al.*, *A novel hepatointestinal leukotriene B4 receptor. Cloning and functional characterization*. J Biol Chem, 2000. **275**(52): p. 40686-94.
139. Hauner, H., *The mode of action of thiazolidinediones*. Diabetes Metab Res Rev, 2002. **18**(Suppl 2): p. S10-5.
140. Berger, J. and D.E. Moller, *The mechanisms of action of PPARs*. Annu Rev Med, 2002. **53**: p. 409-35.
141. Unger, R.H. and Y.T. Zhou, *Lipotoxicity of beta-cells in obesity and in other causes of fatty acid spillover*. Diabetes, 2001. **50**(Suppl 1): p. S118-21.
142. Boden, G. and G.I. Shulman, *Free fatty acids in obesity and type 2 diabetes: defining their role in the development of insulin resistance and beta-cell dysfunction*. Eur J Clin Invest, 2002. **32**(Suppl 3): p. 14-23.
143. Charles, M.A., *et al.*, *High plasma nonesterified fatty acids are predictive of cancer mortality but not of coronary heart disease mortality: results from the Paris Prospective Study*. Am J Epidemiol, 2001. **153**(3): p. 292-8.
144. Boden, G., *Free fatty acids-the link between obesity and insulin resistance*. Endocr Pract, 2001. **7**(1): p. 44-51.

-
145. Steinberg, H.O. and A.D. Baron, *Vascular function, insulin resistance and fatty acids*. Diabetologia, 2002. **45**(5): p. 623-34.
 146. Prentki, M., *et al.*, *Malonyl-CoA and long chain acyl-CoA esters as metabolic coupling factors in nutrient-induced insulin secretion*. J Biol Chem, 1992. **267**(9): p. 5802-10.
 147. Nunez, E.A., *Fatty acids involved in signal cross-talk between cell membrane and nucleus*. Prostaglandins Leukot Essent Fatty Acids, 1997. **57**(4-5): p. 429-34.
 148. Duplus, E. and C. Forest, *Is there a single mechanism for fatty acid regulation of gene transcription?* Biochem Pharmacol, 2002. **64**(5-6): p. 893-901.
 149. Sauer, L.A., R.T. Dauchy, and D.E. Blask, *Mechanism for the antitumor and anticachectic effects of n-3 fatty acids*. Cancer Res, 2000. **60**(18): p. 5289-95.
 150. Sauer, L.A., R.T. Dauchy, and D.E. Blask, *Melatonin inhibits fatty acid transport in inguinal fat pads of hepatoma 7288CTC-bearing and normal Buffalo rats via receptor-mediated signal transduction*. Life Sci, 2001. **68**(25): p. 2835-44.
 151. Sauer, L.A., R.T. Dauchy, and D.E. Blask, *Polyunsaturated fatty acids, melatonin, and cancer prevention*. Biochem Pharmacol, 2001. **61**(12): p. 1455-62.
 152. Louet, J.F., *et al.*, *Long-chain fatty acids regulate liver carnitine palmitoyltransferase I gene (L-CPT I) expression through a peroxisome-proliferator-activated receptor alpha (PPARalpha)-independent pathway*. Biochem J, 2001. **354**(Pt 1): p. 189-97.
 153. Briscoe, C.P., *et al.*, *The orphan G protein-coupled receptor GPR40 is activated by medium and long-chain fatty acids*. J Biol Chem, 2002. **19**: p. 19.
 154. Itoh, Y., *et al.*, *Free fatty acids regulate insulin secretion from pancreatic beta cells through GPR40*. Nature, 2003. **23**(4): p. 23.
 155. Jira, W., *et al.*, *Strong increase in hydroxy fatty acids derived from linoleic acid in human low density lipoproteins of atherosclerotic patients*. Chem Phys Lipids, 1998. **91**(1): p. 1-11.
 156. Peters, J.M., *et al.*, *Influence of conjugated linoleic acid on body composition and target gene expression in peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor alpha-null mice*. Biochim Biophys Acta, 2001. **1533**(3): p. 233-42.
 157. Pariza, M.W., Y. Park, and M.E. Cook, *The biologically active isomers of conjugated linoleic acid*. Prog Lipid Res, 2001. **40**(4): p. 283-98.
 158. Pariza, M.W., *Conjugated linoleic acid may be useful in treating diabetes by controlling body fat and weight gain*. Diabetes Technol Ther, 2002. **4**(3): p. 335-8.
 159. Kelly, G.S., *Conjugated linoleic acid: a review*. Altern Med Rev, 2001. **6**(4): p. 367-82.
 160. Cantello, B.C., *et al.*, *[[omega-(Heterocyclamino)alkoxy]benzyl]-2,4-thiazolidinediones as potent antihyperglycemic agents*. J Med Chem, 1994. **37**(23): p. 3977-85.
-

161. Reginato, M.J., *et al.*, *A potent antidiabetic thiazolidinedione with unique peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor gamma-activating properties*. J Biol Chem, 1998. **273**(49): p. 32679-84.
162. Goldstein, B.J., *Differentiating members of the thiazolidinedione class: a focus on efficacy*. Diabetes Metab Res Rev, 2002. **18**(Suppl 2): p. S16-22.
163. Reginato, M.J. and M.A. Lazar, *Mechanisms by which Thiazolidinediones Enhance Insulin Action*. Trends Endocrinol Metab, 1999. **10**(1): p. 9-13.
164. Palakurthi, S.S., *et al.*, *Anticancer effects of thiazolidinediones are independent of peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor gamma and mediated by inhibition of translation initiation*. Cancer Res, 2001. **61**(16): p. 6213-8.
165. Iwata, M., *et al.*, *Pioglitazone ameliorates tumor necrosis factor-alpha-induced insulin resistance by a mechanism independent of adipogenic activity of peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor-gamma*. Diabetes, 2001. **50**(5): p. 1083-92.
166. Brunmair, B., *et al.*, *Direct thiazolidinedione action on isolated rat skeletal muscle fuel handling is independent of peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor-gamma-mediated changes in gene expression*. Diabetes, 2001. **50**(10): p. 2309-15.
167. Chawla, A., *et al.*, *Nuclear receptors and lipid physiology: opening the X-files*. Science, 2001. **294**(5548): p. 1866-70.
168. Lehmann, J.M., *et al.*, *An antidiabetic thiazolidinedione is a high affinity ligand for peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor gamma (PPAR gamma)*. J Biol Chem, 1995. **270**(22): p. 12953-6.
169. Xu, H.E., *et al.*, *Molecular recognition of fatty acids by peroxisome proliferator-activated receptors*. Mol Cell, 1999. **3**(3): p. 397-403.
170. Nosjean, O. and J.A. Boutin, *Natural ligands of PPARgamma: are prostaglandin J(2) derivatives really playing the part?* Cell Signal, 2002. **14**(7): p. 573-83.
171. Kliewer, S.A., *et al.*, *A prostaglandin J2 metabolite binds peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor gamma and promotes adipocyte differentiation*. Cell, 1995. **83**(5): p. 813-9.
172. Chinetti, G., J.C. Fruchart, and B. Staels, *Peroxisome proliferator-activated receptors (PPARs): nuclear receptors at the crossroads between lipid metabolism and inflammation*. Inflamm Res, 2000. **49**(10): p. 497-505
173. Houseknecht, K.L., B.M. Cole, and P.J. Steele, *Peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor gamma (PPARgamma) and its ligands: a review*. Domest Anim Endocrinol, 2002. **22**(1): p. 1-23.
174. Willson, T.M., *et al.*, *The PPARs: from orphan receptors to drug discovery*. J Med Chem, 2000. **43**(4): p. 527-50.
175. Shimomura, Y., *et al.*, *Identification of neuropeptide W as the endogenous ligand for orphan G-protein-coupled receptors GPR7 and GPR8*. J Biol Chem, 2002. **277**(39): p. 35826-32.

-
176. Brezillon, S., *et al.*, *Identification of Natural Ligands for the Orphan G Protein-coupled Receptors GPR7 and GPR8*. J Biol Chem, 2003. **278**(2): p. 776-783.
177. Kumagai, J., *et al.*, *INSL3/Leydig insulin-like peptide activates the LGR8 receptor important in testis descent*. J Biol Chem, 2002. **277**(35): p. 31283-6.
178. Cheng, M.Y., *et al.*, *Prokineticin 2 transmits the behavioural circadian rhythm of the suprachiasmatic nucleus*. Nature, 2002. **417**(6887): p. 405-10.
179. Masuda, Y., *et al.*, *Isolation and identification of EG-VEGF/prokineticins as cognate ligands for two orphan G-protein-coupled receptors*. Biochem Biophys Res Commun, 2002. **293**(1): p. 396-402.
180. Kotani, M., *et al.*, *The metastasis suppressor gene KiSS-1 encodes kisspeptins, the natural ligands of the orphan G protein-coupled receptor GPR54*. J Biol Chem, 2001. **276**(37): p. 34631-6.
181. Wang, S., *et al.*, *Identification and pharmacological characterization of a novel human melanin-concentrating hormone receptor, mch-r2*. J Biol Chem, 2001. **276**(37): p. 34664-70.
182. Sailer, A.W., *et al.*, *Identification and characterization of a second melanin-concentrating hormone receptor, MCH-2R*. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A, 2001. **98**(13): p. 7564-9.
183. An, S., *et al.*, *Identification and characterization of a melanin-concentrating hormone receptor*. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A, 2001. **98**(13): p. 7576-81.
184. Lembo, P.M., *et al.*, *The receptor for the orexigenic peptide melanin-concentrating hormone is a G-protein-coupled receptor*. Nat Cell Biol, 1999. **1**(5): p. 267-71.
185. Elshourbagy, N.A., *et al.*, *Receptor for the pain modulatory neuropeptides FF and AF is an orphan G protein-coupled receptor*. J Biol Chem, 2000. **275**(34): p. 25965-71.
186. Kotani, M., *et al.*, *Functional characterization of a human receptor for neuropeptide FF and related peptides*. Br J Pharmacol, 2001. **133**(1): p. 138-44.
187. Hinuma, S., *et al.*, *New neuropeptides containing carboxy-terminal RFamide and their receptor in mammals*. Nat Cell Biol, 2000. **2**(10): p. 703-8.
188. Homey, B., *et al.*, *Cutting edge: the orphan chemokine receptor G protein-coupled receptor- 2 (GPR-2, CCR10) binds the skin-associated chemokine CCL27 (CTACK/ALP/ILC)*. J Immunol, 2000. **164**(7): p. 3465-70.
189. Jarmin, D.I., *et al.*, *Cutting edge: identification of the orphan receptor G-protein-coupled receptor 2 as CCR10, a specific receptor for the chemokine ESkinE*. J Immunol, 2000. **164**(7): p. 3460-4.
190. Wang, W., *et al.*, *Identification of a novel chemokine (CCL28), which binds CCR10 (GPR2)*. J Biol Chem, 2000. **275**(29): p. 22313-23.
191. Matloubian, M., *et al.*, *A transmembrane CXC chemokine is a ligand for HIV-coreceptor Bonzo*. Nat Immunol, 2000. **1**(4): p. 298-304.
-

192. Wilbanks, A., *et al.*, *Expression cloning of the STRL33/BONZO/TYMSTRligand reveals elements of CC, CXC, and CX3C chemokines.* J Immunol, 2001. **166**(8): p. 5145-54.
193. Yoshida, T., *et al.*, *Identification of single C motif-1/lymphotactin receptor XCR1.* J Biol Chem, 1998. **273**(26): p. 16551-4.
194. Imai, T., *et al.*, *Identification and molecular characterization of fractalkine receptor CX3CR1, which mediates both leukocyte migration and adhesion.* Cell, 1997. **91**(4): p. 521-30.
195. Hedrik, J.A., *et al.*, *Identification of a human gastrointestinal tract and immune system receptor for the peptide neuromedin U.* Molecular Pharmacology, 2000. **58**(10): p. 870-875.
196. Ames, R.S., *et al.*, *Human urotensin-II is a potent vasoconstrictor and agonist for the orphan receptor GPR14.* Nature, 1999. **401**(6750): p. 282-6.
197. Liu, Q., *et al.*, *Identification of urotensin II as the endogenous ligand for the orphan G-protein-coupled receptor GPR14.* Biochem Biophys Res Commun, 1999. **266**(1): p. 174-8.
198. Nothacker, H.P., *et al.*, *Identification of the natural ligand of an orphan G-protein-coupled receptor involved in the regulation of vasoconstriction.* Nat Cell Biol, 1999. **1**(6): p. 383-5.
199. Sakurai, T., *et al.*, *Orexins and orexin receptors: a family of hypothalamic neuropeptides and G protein-coupled receptors that regulate feeding behavior.* Cell, 1998. **92**(4): p. 573-85.
200. Feighner, S.D., *et al.*, *Receptor for motilin identified in the human gastrointestinal system.* Science, 1999. **284**(5423): p. 2184-8.
201. Hinuma, S., *et al.*, *A prolactin-releasing peptide in the brain.* Nature, 1998. **393**(6682): p. 272-6.
202. Niedernberg, A., *et al.*, *Sphingosine 1-phosphate and dioleoylphosphatidic acid are low affinity agonists for the orphan receptor GPR63.* Cell Signal, 2003. **15**(4): p. 435-46.
203. Hosoi, T., *et al.*, *Identification of a novel human eicosanoid receptor coupled to G(i/o).* J Biol Chem, 2002. **277**(35): p. 31459-65.
204. Ignatov, A., *et al.*, *Role of the G-Protein-Coupled Receptor GPR12 as High-Affinity Receptor for Sphingosylphosphorylcholine and Its Expression and Function in Brain Development.* J Neurosci, 2003. **23**(3): p. 907-14.
205. Kabarowski, J.H., *et al.*, *Lysophosphatidylcholine as a ligand for the immunoregulatory receptor G2A.* Science, 2001. **293**(5530): p. 702-5.
206. Im, D.S., *et al.*, *Identification of a molecular target of psychosine and its role in globoid cell formation.* J Cell Biol, 2001. **153**(2): p. 429-34.
207. Brink, C., *et al.*, *International Union of Pharmacology XXXVII.Nomenclature for Leukotriene and Lipoxin Receptors.* Pharmacological Reviews, 2003. **55**: p. 195-227.

-
208. Owman, C., *et al.*, *Leukotriene B4 is the functional ligand binding to and activating the cloned chemoattractant receptor, CMKRL1*. *Biochem Biophys Res Commun*, 1997. **240**(1): p. 162-6.
209. Takasaki, J., *et al.*, *The molecular characterization and tissue distribution of the human cysteinyl leukotriene CysLT(2) receptor*. *Biochem Biophys Res Commun*, 2000. **274**(2): p. 316-22.
210. Sarau, H.M., *et al.*, *Identification, molecular cloning, expression, and characterization of a cysteinyl leukotriene receptor*. *Mol Pharmacol*, 1999. **56**(3): p. 657-63.
211. Yamazaki, Y., *et al.*, *Edg-6 as a putative sphingosine 1-phosphate receptor coupling to Ca(2+) signaling pathway*. *Biochem Biophys Res Commun*, 2000. **268**(2): p. 583-9.
212. Okamoto, H., *et al.*, *EDG3 is a functional receptor specific for sphingosine 1-phosphate and sphingosylphosphorylcholine with signaling characteristics distinct from EDG1 and AGR16*. *Biochem Biophys Res Commun*, 1999. **260**(1): p. 203-8.
213. Erickson, J.R., *et al.*, *Edg-2/Vzg-1 couples to the yeast pheromone response pathway selectively in response to lysophosphatidic acid*. *J Biol Chem*, 1998. **273**(3): p. 1506-10.
214. Zondag, G.C., *et al.*, *Sphingosine 1-phosphate signalling through the G-protein-coupled receptor Edg-1*. *Biochem J*, 1998. **330**(Pt 2): p. 605-9.
215. Zhang, F.L., *et al.*, *P2Y(13): identification and characterization of a novel Galphai-coupled ADP receptor from human and mouse*. *J Pharmacol Exp Ther*, 2002. **301**(2): p. 705-13.
216. Communi, D., *et al.*, *Identification of a novel human ADP receptor coupled to G(i)*. *J Biol Chem*, 2001. **276**(44): p. 41479-85.
217. Hollopeter, G., *et al.*, *Identification of the platelet ADP receptor targeted by antithrombotic drugs*. *Nature*, 2001. **409**(6817): p. 202-7.
218. Zhang, F.L., *et al.*, *ADP is the cognate ligand for the orphan G protein-coupled receptor SP1999*. *J Biol Chem*, 2001. **276**(11): p. 8608-15.
219. Bender, E., *et al.*, *Characterization of an orphan G protein-coupled receptor localized in the dorsal root ganglia reveals adenine as a signaling molecule*. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A*, 2002. **99**(13): p. 8573-8.
220. Borowsky, B., *et al.*, *Trace amines: identification of a family of mammalian G protein-coupled receptors*. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A*, 2001. **98**(16): p. 8966-71.
221. Tunaru, S., *et al.*, *PUMA-G and HM74 are receptors for nicotinic acid and mediate its anti-lipolytic effect*. *Nat Med*, 2003. **3**(3): p. 3.
222. Kawamata, Y., *et al.*, *A G protein-coupled receptor responsive to bile acids*. *J Biol Chem*, 2003. **10**: p. 10.
-

223. Hirai, H., et al., *Prostaglandin D2 Selectively Induces Chemotaxis in T Helper Type 2 Cells, Eosinophils, and Basophils via Seven-Transmembrane Receptor CRTH2*. J Exp Med, 2001. **193**(2): p. 255-261
224. Russell, J.C., et al., *Inhibition of atherosclerosis and myocardial lesions in the JCR:LA-cp rat by beta, beta'-tetramethylhexadecanedioic acid (MEDICA 16)*. Diabetes 1998. **47**: 770-778
225. Russell, J.C., et al., *Development of insulin resistance in the JCR:LA-cp rat: role of triacylglycerols and effects of MEDICA 16*. Arterioscl Thromb Vasc Biol, 1995. **15**:918-923
226. Nilsson, E.N., et al., *Identification of a free fatty acid receptor, FFA2R, expressed on leukocytes and activated by short-chain fatty acids*. Biochem Biophys Res Commun, 2003. **303**: in press; preliminary p. 1047-1052.
227. Soga, T., et al., *Molecular identification of nicotinic acid receptor*. Biochem Biophys Res Commun, 2003. **303**: 364-369.

227.

APPENDIX 1 lists some of human, orphan 7TM receptors identified in the last 5 years, their ligands, and the primary screening technique used. *indicates the identification of the rat receptor only.

Ligand type	Receptor name	Synonyms	Accession number	Ligand(s)	Identified using	Reference
peptide	(C5L2)	C5L2, GPR77	NM 018485	C5a, C5a _{desArg}	-hexosaminidase release	[70]
	(NPW R)	GPR7	NM 005285	NP B	Expression cloning	[107]
		GPR7 and GPR8	U22491, U22492	NP W23=L8 NP W30=L8C	Purification of extracts; cAMP-detection by immunoassay	[175]
		GPR7 and GPR8	U22491, U22492	L8=NP W23, L8C=NP W30, L7, L7C	Ca ²⁺ mobilization (Aequorin)	[176]
	(SNS1-6 R)	hMrgX3, hMrgX1, hMrgX4	AF474987 - AF474992	BAM22	Reverse pharmacology; Ca ²⁺ -mobilization (FLIPR)	[97]
		MrgA1, MrgC11	NM 153095 NW 000319	RF-amid-related peptides	Reverse Pharmacology; Ca ²⁺ mobilization (FURA-2)	[98]
	(LGR7)+ (LGR8)	GPR106	AF403384 NM 021634	Relaxin	cAMP-detection by immunoassay	[83]
	(LGR8)	GPR106		Leydig Insulin like peptide (ISNL3)	cAMP-detection by immunoassay	[177]
	PK-R2		AF506288	Prokineticin 2		[178]
	PK-R1+ PK-R2	ZAQ+ I5E	AY089976	EG-VEGF/ prokineticins 1 and 2	Purification of extracts; Ca ²⁺ -mobilization (FLIPR)	[179]
	(GPR54)	OT7T175, AXOR12, GPR54	AY029541	KiSS-1 peptides	Purification of extracts; Ca ²⁺ -mobilization (FLIPR)	[103]
	(GPR54)	OT7T175, AXOR12, GPR54	AY029541	KiSS-1 peptide	Reverse pharmacology; Ca ²⁺ -mobilization (FLIPR)	[99]
	(GPR54)	OT7T175, AXOR12, GPR54	AY029541	Kisspeptins	Purification of extract; Ca ²⁺ mobilization (FURA-2)	[180]
	MCH-R2		AF399937	Melanin-concentrating-hormone (MCH)	Radioligand-binding assay	[181]
	MCH-R2		AY029596	MCH	Ca ²⁺ -mobilization (FLIPR)	[58]
	MCH-R2		AY029596	MCH	Ca ²⁺ -mobilization (FLIPR)	[182]
	MCH-R2		AY029596	MCH	Ca ²⁺ mobilization (Aequorin)	[183]
	MCH-R1	SLC-1, GPR24	AB063174	MCH	Purification of extract; Ca ²⁺ mobilization (FLIPR)	[104]
	MCH-R1	SLC-1, GPR24	AB063174	MCH	Reverse Pharmacology; Ca ²⁺ mobilization (FLIPR)	[100]

	MCH-R1	SLC-1, GPR24	AB063174	MCH	Reverse Pharmacology; Ca ²⁺ mobilization (FLIPR)	[184]
	MCH-R1	SLC-1, GPR24	AB063174	MCH	Purification of extract; Xenopus electro- physiological assay	[86]
	NPFF R	HLWAR77	AF257210	Neuropeptide sFF and AF	Reverse Pharmacology; Ca ²⁺ mobilization (FLIPR)	[185]
	NPFF1R and NPFF2R			NPFF	Reverse Pharmacology; Xenopus electro- physiological assay	[87]
	NPFF R	HLWAR77	AF257210	NPFF and related peptides	Reverse Pharmacology; Ca ²⁺ mobilization (Aequorin)	[186]
		OT7T022	AB040104	RFamide peptides (FRFP)	Cytosensor	[187]
	CCR10	GPR2	NM 016602	CCL27 (CTACK)	Ca ²⁺ mobilization (FURA-2)	[188]
	CCR10	GPR2	NM 016602	CCL27 (ESkine)	Ca ²⁺ mobilization (FURA-2)	[189]
	CCR10	GPR2	NM 016602	CCL28	Ca ²⁺ mobilization (INDO-1)	[190]
	CXCR6	Bonzo, STRL33, TYMSTR	NM 006564	CXCL16	Expression cloning of receptor; binding assay	[191]
	CXCR6	Bonzo, STRL33, TYMSTR	NM 006564	CXCL16	Expression cloning of ligand; Chemotaxis assay	[192]
	XCR1	GPR5	NM 005283	XCL1 (lymphotactin)	Chemotaxis assay	[193]
	CX ₃ CR1	V28		CX3CL1 (fractalkine)	Binding assay	[194]
	NMU1R+ NMU2R	GPR66, FM- 3+ FM-4	NM 020167 AF272362	Neuromedin U	Reverse Pharmacology; Ca ²⁺ mobilization (FLIPR)	[42]
	NMU1R	GPR66, FM- 3 and TGR-1	AB041228	Neuromedin U	Microphysiometer	[41, 43]
	NMU1R	GPR66, FM- 3	AB041228	Neuromedin U	Reverse Pharmacology; Ca ²⁺ mobilization (FLIPR)	[195]
	NMU1R	FM-3, GPR66	AB041228	Neuromedin U	Reverse Pharmacology; Ca ²⁺ mobilization (FLIPR)	[45]
	NMU1R	FM-3, GPR66	AB041228	Neuromedin U	Purification of extract; Ca ²⁺ mobilization (FLIPR)	[44]
		GPR14, (rat SENR)	NM 019498	Urotensin II	Reverse Pharmacology; Ca ²⁺ mobilization (FLIPR)	[196]
	(UII-R1a)	GPR14, (rat SENR)	NM 019498	Urotensin II	Ca ²⁺ mobilization (Aequorin)	[197]
		GPR14, (rat SENR)	NM 019498	Urtensin II	Purification of extract; Ca ²⁺ mobilization (FLIPR)	[198]
	OX1R and OX2R	HFGAN72	NM 001525 NM 001526	Orexin-a and -b	Purification of extract; Ca ²⁺ mobilization (FURA-2)	[199]

		GHS-R	Q95254	Ghrelin	Purification of extract; Ca ²⁺ mobilization (FLIPR)	[106]
	MTL-R1	GPR38	NM 001507	Motilin	Reverse Pharmacology; Ca ²⁺ mobilization aequorin	[200]
	APJ R	APJ	NM 005161	Apelin	Purification of extract; Microphysiometer	[95]
		hGR3,	AB015745	Prolactin releasing peptide (PrRP)	Purification of extract; arachidonic acid release	[201]
Lipids and lipid com- pounds						
	(GPR63)	GPR63	Q9EQQ3	Sphingosine 1- phosphate (S1P); dihydro sphingosine 1-phosphate (DHS1P)	Reverse pharmacology; Ca ²⁺ mobilization (FLIPR)	[202]
	(FFA ₁ R)	GPR40	NM 005303	Medium to long chain fatty acids	Reverse pharmacology; reporter gene assay	Paper IV
		GPR40	NM 005303	Medium to long chain fatty acids	Reverse pharmacology; Ca ²⁺ mobilization (FLIPR)	[153]
	(FFA ₂ R) (FFA ₃ R)	GPR43 GPR41	AR126790 NM 005304	Short chain fatty acids	Yeast assay	[90]
	(FFA ₁ R)	GPR40	NM 005303	Medium to long chain fatty acids	Reverse pharmacology; Ca ²⁺ mobilization (FLIPR)	[154]
	(FFA ₂ R)	GPR43	NM 005303	Short chain fatty acids	Reverse pharmacology; reporter gene assay	[226]
		TG1019	AC013396 .3	5(S)-oxo- 6E,8Z,11Z,14Z- eicosatetraenoic acid (5-oxo-ETE); arachidonic acid;	GTP S-binding on receptors expressed in insect cells	[203]
	DP ₂ R	CRTH2, GPR44	NP 034092	Prostaglandin D ₂	Ca ²⁺ mobilization	[223]
	(S1P ₆ ,S1P 7, S1P ₈)	GPR3,GPR6 ,GPR12	NM 005281 NM 005284 NM 005288	Sphingosine 1- phosphate (S1P); dihydro sphingosine 1-phosphate (DHS1P)	Reverse pharmacology; Ca ²⁺ mobilization (FLIPR)	[85]
	(S1P ₈)	GPR12	NM 005288	Sphingosylphospho rylcholine (SPC)	Ca ²⁺ mobilization (aequorin)	[204]
	(SPC ₂ R)	GPR4	NM 005282	Sphingosylphosphor ylcholine (SPC); Lysophosphatidylch oline (LPC)	Ca ²⁺ mobilization (FURA-2, spectrofluorometer)	[78]
	(LPC R)	G2A	NM 013345	Lysophosphatidylch oline (LPC), Sphingosylphosphor ylcholine (SPC)	Ca ²⁺ mobilization (FURA-2, spectrofluorometer)	[205]
	(PSY R)	TDAG8	NM 003608	Psychosine (D- galactosyl- -	Reverse pharmacology; Ca ²⁺ mobilization	[206]

				1,1'sphingosine) and related substances	(INDO-1, fluorometer)	
	(SPC ₁ R)	OGR-1		Sphingosyl-phosphorylcholine (SPC);	Ca ²⁺ mobilization (FURA-2, spectrofluorometer)	[113]
	BLT ₂ R	BLTR2, JULF2,	AB029892	LTB ₄	³ H-LTB ₄ binding	[135]
	BLT ₂ R	BLTR2, JULF2,	AF277230	LTB ₄	Ca ²⁺ mobilization (Aequorin)	Paper III
	BLT ₂ R	BLTR2, JULF2,	AB044402	LTB ₄	cAMP-immunoassay	[84]
	BLT ₂ R	BLTR2, JULF2,	AF038571	LTB ₄	Radioligand-binding assay	[138]
	BLT ₁ R	BLTR, CMKRL1, P2y7	D89078	LTB ₄	Expression cloning of the receptor; radioligand binding	[111]
	BLT ₁ R	BLTR, CMKRL1, P2y7		LTB ₄	Ca ²⁺ mobilization (FURA-2)	[208]
	CysLT ₂	HG57, PSEC0146	AF254664	LTC ₄ =LTD ₄	Xenopus oocyte Cl ⁻ fluxes	[88]
	CysLT ₂	HG57, PSEC0146	AB038269	LTC ₄ =LTD ₄	Ca ²⁺ mobilization (FLIPR)	[209]
	CysLT ₁	HG55,	AF119711	LTD ₄	Xenopus oocyte Cl ⁻ fluxes	[89]
	CysLT ₁	HG55	AF119711	LTD ₄	Reverse pharmacology; Ca ²⁺ mobilization (FLIPR)	[210]
	LPA ₃	Edg-7, HOFNH30	NP_036284	Lysophosphatidic acid, Phosphatidic acid	Ca ²⁺ mobilization (FLIPR)	[56]
	S1P ₄	Edg-6,	CAA04118	Sphingosine 1-phosphate (S1P), Sphingosyl-phosphorylcholine (SPC)	³ H-S1P binding and displacement	[211]
	S1P ₃	Edg-3,	NP_005217	Sphingosine 1-phosphate (S1P), Sphingosyl-phosphorylcholine (SPC)	³ H-S1P binding and displacement	[212]
	LPA ₁	Edg-2, Vzg-1	NP_476500	Lysophosphatidic acid	Yeast reporter gene assay	[213]
	S1P ₁	Edg-1		Sphingosine 1-phosphate (S1P),	³ H-cAMP assay	[214]
	S1P ₁	Edg-1	NP_001391	Sphingosine 1-phosphate (S1P),	Purification of extract; Morphological changes in cell growth	[105]
Nucleotide type	P2Y ₁₃	SP174, GPR86, GPR94		Adenosine-diphosphate (ADP)	Ca ²⁺ mobilization (FLIPR)	[215]
	P2Y ₁₃	SP174, GPR86, GPR94	AF406692	Adenosine-diphosphate (ADP)	IP ₃ -turnover	[216]
	P2Y ₁₂	SP1999		Adenosine-diphosphate (ADP)	Expression cloning of the receptor; Xenopus oocytes electrophysiological assay	[217]

	P2Y ₁₂	SP1999	AF321815	Adenosine-diphosphate (ADP)	Purification of extract; Ca ²⁺ mobilization (FLIPR)	[218]
	P2Y ₁₄	KIAA0001 UDP-glc R	D13626	Uridine 5'-diphosphoglucose (UDP-glc)	Reverse pharmacology; yeast growth	[93, 112]
	(rAA ₁ R)		AJ311952	adenine	Purification of extracts; Ca ²⁺ mobilization (FLIPR)	[219]
Amine	TA ₁ R			Tyramine, phenethylamine (-PEA) (Trace amines)	Xenopus oocytes; electrophysiological assay	[220]
	H4 R	GPRv53, AXOR53	AB044934	Histamine	Reporter gene assay	[81]
	H4 R	AXOR35,G PRv53	AF325356	Histamine	Reporter gene assay	[82]
Others		HM74 and HM74A	AY148884	Nicotinic acid	GTP S-binding	[59]
		HM74		Nicotinic acid	Expression cloning; Ca ²⁺ mobilization (Aequorin)	[221]
		HM74b	AB103062	Nicotinic acid	Fluorescent cAMP-assay	[227]
		TGR5	AB089307	Bile acids	Reverse Pharmacology; Reporter gene assay	[222]

PAPERS I-IV

“Äsch! Några enkla idéer bara.”

Skalman

i Bamsehäfte, 2001. 7: p.34

