

***In vivo* photocontrol of orexin receptors with a nanomolar light-regulated analogue of orexin-B**

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Abstract

Orexinergic neurons are critically involved in regulating arousal, wakefulness, and appetite. Their dysfunction has been associated with sleeping disorders, and non-peptide drugs are currently being developed to treat insomnia and narcolepsy. Yet, no light-regulated agents are available to reversibly control their activity. To meet this need, a photoswitchable peptide analogue of the endogenous neuroexcitatory peptide orexin-B was designed, synthesized, and tested *in vitro* and *in vivo*. This compound (photorexin) is the first photo-reversible ligand reported for orexin receptors. It allows dynamic control of activity *in vitro* (including full agonism, nanomolar activity, and subtype selectivity to human OX₂ receptors) and *in vivo* in zebrafish larvae by direct application in water. Photorexin induces dose- and light-dependent changes in locomotion and a reduction in the successive induction reflex that is associated with sleep behavior. Molecular dynamics calculations indicate that *trans* and *cis* photorexins adopt similar bent conformations and that the only discriminant between their structures and activities is the positioning of the N-terminus at the extracellular region of the orexin receptor. Thus, our approach could be extended to a broad and important family of neuropeptides that share a “message-address” mechanism when binding to their cognate receptors.

Introduction

Optical methods, and optogenetics in particular, have revolutionized neuroscience by aiding our understanding of brain circuits through light-mediated monitoring and/or manipulation of neuronal activity.^{1,2} Despite broad applications in terms of targeted pathways, optogenetics has several limitations.³ While photocontrol over the exogenous light-sensitive opsins is robust, viral expression in tissues can display poor homogeneity and specificity. Moreover, the kinetics of light-gated channels differ from those of endogenous receptors and their overexpression might lead to unintended neuroplastic phenomena. Finally, irreversible optogenetic manipulations are subject to safety and regulatory requirements that hamper or slow down their therapeutic potential.⁴ In recent years, photopharmacology has emerged as a complementary approach to

control with light the function of endogenous proteins as well as lipids and ribonucleic acids.^{5,6} The method relies on incorporating a photoswitchable moiety into the structure of a bioactive compound and regulating the local concentration of (in)active drug through reversible illumination.^{7,8} In principle, the metabolism, pharmacokinetics, and safety of the compounds can be characterized as for conventional drugs and biologicals, in contrast to genetic manipulation methods.⁸ Despite the versatility and attractiveness of the approach, many endogenous targets are still “orphan” of synthetic photoswitches.⁹ In particular neuropeptides, and consequently their corresponding G protein-coupled receptors (GPCRs), have received limited attention compared to small molecule synthetic analogues of neuronal protein ligands.

Among these, a family of neuroexcitatory peptides known as orexins (or hypocretins)^{10,11} is critically involved in regulating sleep and wakefulness,¹² energy homeostasis, and reward.¹⁰ Orexin signaling is mediated by two closely related GPCRs – orexin receptor types 1 and 2 (OX₁ and OX₂), which are strongly conserved among mammals.^{10,13} While orexin cell bodies are concentrated in the hypothalamic area,^{10,11} orexin receptors are widely expressed in the central nervous system (CNS).^{14,15} Their endogenous ligands are two peptides, named orexin-A (OX-A) and -B (OX-B), which bind to the cognate receptors with different selectivity profiles. OX-A displays high affinity towards both receptors, whereas OX-B is selective for OX₂.¹⁰ In both cases agonist activity is transduced into a robust rise in intracellular calcium concentration.^{16,17} Drug-like antagonists are currently being developed as safe insomnia treatments,^{18,19} whereas dysfunctions of the orexinergic system have been associated with narcolepsy.^{20–22} Nonetheless, the discovery of non-peptide agonists has been challenging despite some progress,^{23–25} thus providing limited structure-activity relationships^{23,26} and few scaffolds to build light-regulated azologs.^{27,28} Besides, these compounds might find limited applications as orexin receptors are widely expressed in the CNS. Consequently, their activity would suffer from poor spatiotemporal selectivity and might cause adverse effects. Here we present a light-regulated analogue of the orexin-B peptide, which can be reversibly toggled between two isomeric states characterized by different potencies at the orexin receptors.

Results and discussion

As revealed by 2D NMR spectroscopy, both orexin isoforms present relatively high helical content.^{29–31} OX-B comprises two α -helices spanning residues Leu7-Gly19 (helix I) and Ala23-Met28 (helix II), respectively. A flexible linker (residues Asn20 and His21) connects them orienting their axis about 60–80° relative to one another (PDB ID:1CQ0) (**Figure 1.A**).²⁹ OX-A shows similar structural features to OX-B, however its N-terminus contains a third helix located between residues Cys6-Gln9 (helix III) and conformationally restrained by two disulfide bridges (PDB ID:1WSO) (**Figure 1.B**).³¹

So far, stapling with a photoswitchable crosslinker has enabled light-regulation over the secondary structure of helical peptides to control of a diversity of cellular processes.^{32–37} However, the presence of two disulfide bonds in OX-A proved incompatible with peptide stapling,³⁸ whereas their reduction caused a nearly 10-fold loss in agonist activity towards both orexin receptors.^{39–42} Orexin analogues mutated or truncated between Ala23 and Met28 are inactive, indicating that intracellular Ca²⁺ mobilization is due to the peptide C-terminus.^{41,43,44}

Recently, Hong *et al.* determined the activated-state structure of OX₂ by cryo-electron microscopy (EM) and confirmed that OX-B C-terminus (helix II) is anchored deep into the receptor binding pocket.⁴⁵ In contrast, the flexible linker that connects the two helices is oriented towards the surface of the receptor and puts the hydrophobic face of helix I in contact with OX₂ extra cellular loop (ECL) 2 and N-terminus.^{44–46} Surprisingly, the authors also found that OX-B C-terminal segment binds to the receptor in an extended conformation rather than adopting a helical structure. Considering both the technical hurdles and the limited impact of photoregulating orexin helicity,⁴⁷ we reasoned that replacing the flexible hinge of OX-B with a photoswitchable amino acid might allow to reversibly disrupt the overall geometry of the ligand.

Consequently, we designed a photoswitchable analogue of orexin-B as follows: i) Asn20 and His21 were replaced by an ω -amino acid containing an azobenzene moiety; ii) the linear sequence of the peptide was reduced to the minimum required for receptor activation (OX-B₆₋₂₈) by removing the N-terminus; and iii) the C-terminal amidation was maintained as beneficial for both peptide activity and stability (**Figure 1.B**). As molecular switch, we chose [3-(3-aminomethyl)phenylazo]phenylacetic acid (AMPP) (**Figure 1.C**). This choice took into account the excellent photochromic properties of azobenzene, the possibility to obtain great alterations in geometry upon photoisomerization, and several successful reports where the switch component had been inserted into β -turns and within α -helices to photoregulate the orientation of the associated secondary structures.^{48–51} In addition, the two methylene bridges adjacent to the azobenzene core could guarantee enough flexibility to the system.⁵²

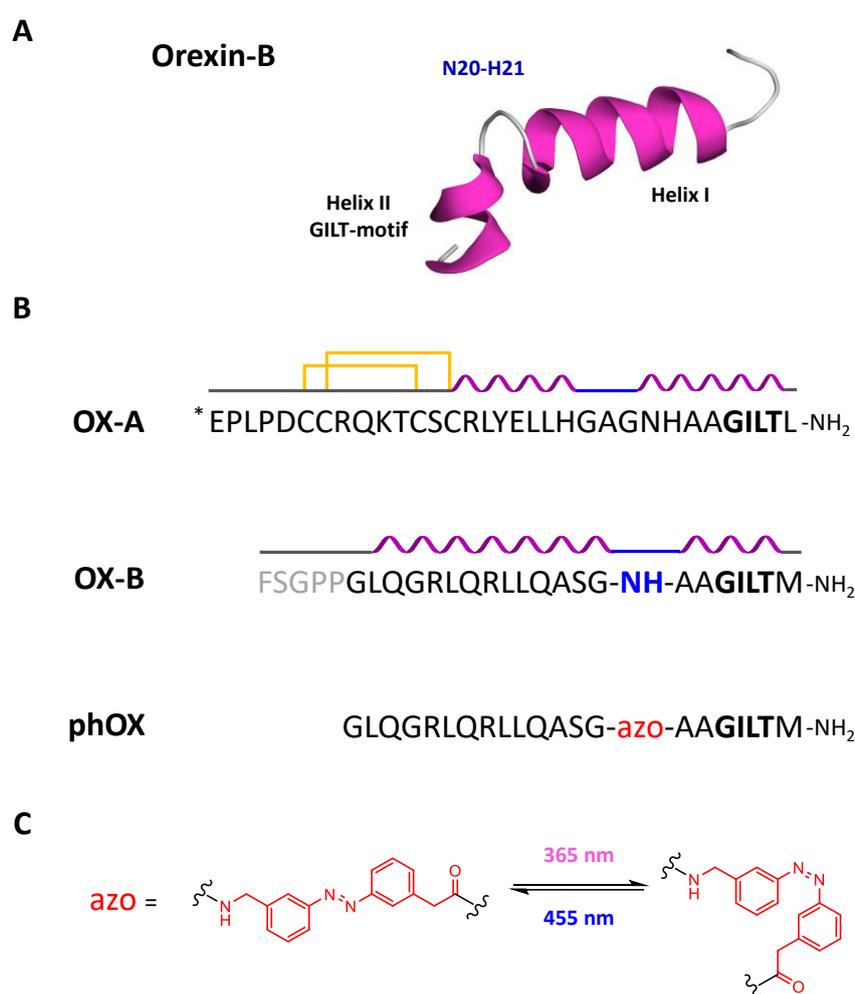


Figure 1 Rational design of photorexins (phOX) **A**) NMR-derived solution structure of the orexin-B peptide (PDB: 1CQ0). A flexible linker (N20 and H21) is located between Helix I (L7-G19) and the biologically active GILT-motif in Helix II (A23-M28). **B**) Comparison of the amino acid sequences and secondary structures of orexin-A (OX-A), orexin-B (OX-B), and photorexins (phOX). In the latter, the unstructured N-terminus (in grey in OX-B) was removed, while the flexible linker (N20 and H21, in blue in OX-B) was replaced with a photoswitchable amino acid (azo, in red in phOX). *E represents pyroglutamic acid, C-termini are amidated. In the scheme, α -helices are pictured in purple, turns are shown in blue, and intramolecular disulfide bridges as yellow lines. **C**) *Trans* and *cis* structures of the photoswitchable ω -amino acid [3-(3-aminomethyl)phenyl-azo]phenylacetic acid (AMPP, in red).

Fmoc-protected AMPP was synthesized as reported in the literature and incorporated into the backbone of photorexins (phOX) combining automated and manual solid-phase peptide synthesis (SPPS) with a standard Fmoc-based strategy.⁵⁰ Insertion of the azo-amino acid was confirmed by UV-Vis spectroscopy (**Figure S2.1**). Furthermore, taking advantage of the thermal bistability reported for this azobenzene,⁵¹ the photochromism of photorexins was fully characterized by UPLC analysis. Thus, the percentages of the two isomers were quantified while testing a variety of illumination conditions. In particular, we studied switching kinetics and photostationary states using 311, 365, and 380 nm UV light for the *trans*→*cis* photoisomerization (**Figure 2.A**); and 455 and 500 nm visible light (blue and green, respectively) for the reverse process (*cis*→*trans*) (**Figure 2.B**).

Trans photorexin could be readily converted to the *cis* isomer by illuminating between 311 and 365 nm, whereas the extent of photoisomerization was lower at longer wavelengths (e.g. 380 nm). From an initial photostationary state of 13% *cis* and 87% *trans* under benchtop conditions, an excellent 20:80 (*trans:cis*) ratio was achieved after 2 minutes of illumination at 365 nm (**Figure 2.A**). In contrast, exposure to blue light during 3 minutes back-isomerized the compound and reverted the ratio to 74:26 (*trans:cis*). Similar values could also be reached illuminating with green light for a longer time (~ 5 min) (**Figure 2.B**).

We then tested the photochromic stability of our peptide. Photorexin could be readily toggled between 87% *cis* and 74% *trans* with alternating cycles of UV and blue light of 3 minutes each. The process was repeated several times without significant degradation or bleaching (**Figure 2.C**). Finally, the thermal relaxation of the *cis* isomer ($t_{1/2}$ ~ 23 hours at 25°C) was determined as displayed in **Figure 2.D**.

It must be noted that although UV wavelengths required to photoswitch our peptide do not penetrate deep into tissue, symmetric azobenzenes like AMPP can also be isomerized with mid-infrared light using three-photon excitation. This method offers deep penetration and three-dimensional focusing on the microscale.⁵³

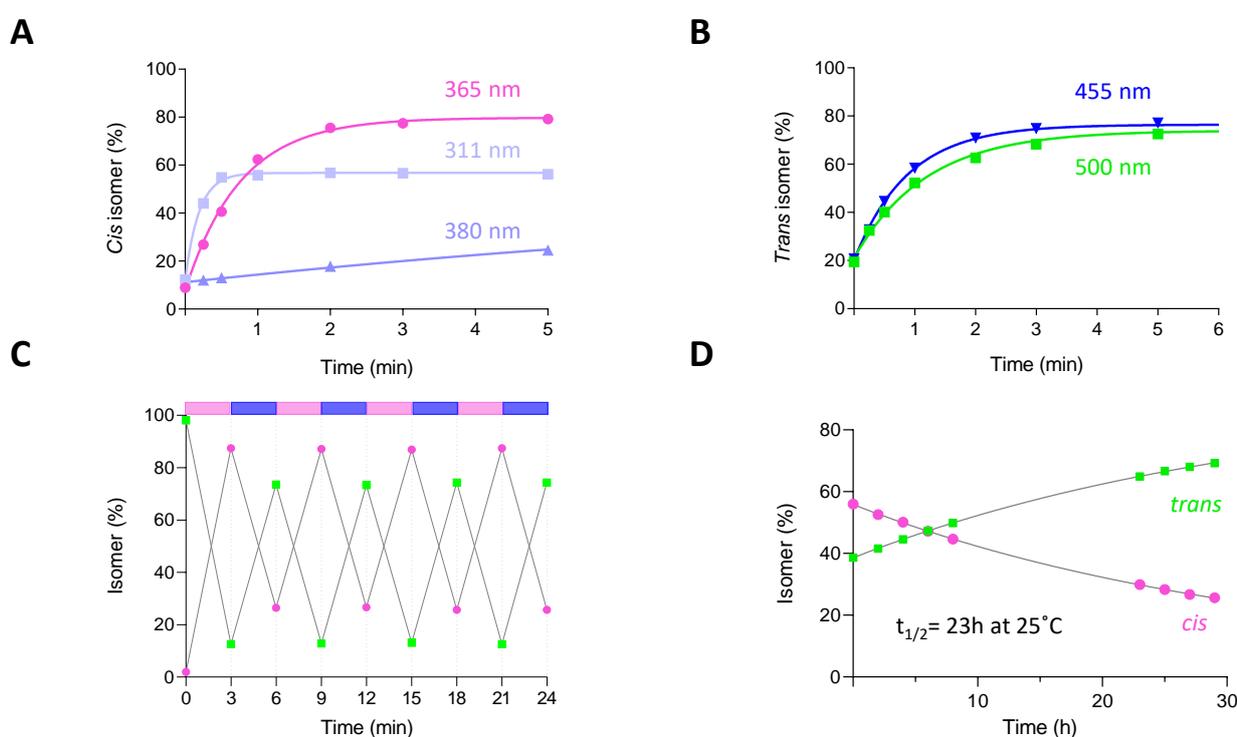


Figure 2 Photorexin photochromic characterization. **A-B**) Isomeric distribution of a phOX sample (50 μ M in PBS at pH 7.4 and 25°C) when photoswitching from *trans* to *cis* (**A**) or from *cis* to *trans* (**B**) after cumulative illumination at different wavelengths. Percentages of the two species were quantitatively determined by UPLC analysis upon resolving the peak of the two isomers at given illumination times. Data were fitted to a monoexponential decay model. **C**) Reversibility and stability of the photochromic behavior of phOX (25 μ M in PBS at pH 7.4 and 25°C) over several cycles (3 minutes each) of photoinduced isomerization at 365 nm (*trans*→*cis*) and 455 nm (*cis*→*trans*). Percentages of the two isomers were determined by UPLC analysis after each cycle. **D**) Thermal relaxation of phOX at 25°C in PBS (pH 7.4) as monitored by UPLC analysis. Data were fitted to a monoexponential decay model for *cis* half-life determination.

Photorexin pharmacodynamics were then examined to understand: i) how replacement of the flexible hinge with the photoswitchable AMPP amino acid affected both potency and maximal efficacy of the peptide; and ii) to which extent these properties could be photoregulated. Given the convenient bistability of the two isomers, pre-illuminated samples were tested using an *in vitro* functional assay that monitors real-time intracellular calcium responses through the FLIPR Tetra system.

Activity was evaluated either in CHO-K1 cells stably transfected with the human OX₁ receptor or in PFSK-1 cells. The latter is a human neuroectodermal cell line, derived from a brain tumor, that innately expresses the hOX₂ receptor. Both orexin-B and our photoswitchable analogue increased calcium release in a concentration-dependent manner, unambiguously indicating agonist activity (**Figure S3.2**). The potency of the native peptide was consistent with reported values.^{10,42} Promisingly, photorexin retained high maximal efficacy and nanomolar activity towards both receptor subtypes. The EC₅₀ of *trans* photorexin at hOX₂ was only 4-fold shifted to the right compared to the dose-response curve of the endogenous peptide. This reduction in potency was slightly higher at hOX₁, where *trans* photorexin displayed a 9-fold decrease in activity (**Table S3.1**).

Despite modest light-induced changes, *trans* photorexin consistently exhibited statistically significant higher potency compared to the *cis* isomer (1.4-fold and 2.0-fold at OX₁ and OX₂, respectively). As the calcium-sensitive dye used in the assay requires 470-495 nm excitation, blue light was likely to back-isomerize pre-illuminated *cis* photorexin to *trans*, thereby reducing any difference in activity between the two samples. To overcome this limitation, we decided to assess intracellular calcium responses in a different system.

Calcium fluorescence imaging also allows to quantify real-time changes in the cytosolic calcium concentration, but with single-cell or subcellular resolution. As it relies on exogenous indicators, we chose a genetically encoded calcium indicator that could be excited with green light (R-GECO1, $\lambda_{\text{ex}} = 562$ nm). In addition to overcoming the beforementioned limitations of blue light excitation, R-GECO1 red-shifted absorption spectrum offered the possibility of photoisomerizing the peptide *in situ*, which proved advantageous compared to testing only pre-irradiated samples.

Photorexin was first applied as a control to TsA201 cells transfected only with the calcium indicator. The absence of response to the compound and concomitant UV or blue illumination ruled out light-induced artifacts due to non-specific R-GECO1 stimulation (**Figure S3.3**). Subsequently, 100 nM photorexin was applied to cells co-transfected with R-GECO1 and GFP-labelled hOX₂. The peptide evoked a sharp transient response in the dark, displaying oscillations with a period of 1-3 min depending on each cell. Illumination with UV light terminated these responses in a few seconds, and oscillatory activity was resumed upon exposure to blue light (**Figure 3.A-B**). Similar patterns of calcium signals could be reproduced in at least two cycles of alternating UV and visible light as well as at lower doses (30 nM, **Figure S3.4**), thus demonstrating that photorexin can robustly and reversibly regulate the activity of orexin receptors with light and that it behaves as a *trans*-active agonist with nanomolar potency. The dynamic photocontrol of orexin receptor activity enabled by photorexin is in contrast to the irreversible photo-release of caged OX-B demonstrated *in vitro*.⁵⁴ In hOX₁-expressing cells, the dark-adapted peptide also produced an increase in calcium influx, although smaller in magnitude than in TsA201-hOX₂. UV- and blue-light illumination (365 and 455 nm, respectively) elicited no effect (**Figure 3.C** and **Figure S3.5**).

Calcium traces from different cells were then integrated to quantify the observed responses. Noticeably, *cis* photorexin retained only 6% of the dark-adapted peptide activity towards hOX₂. While illumination with blue light rapidly restored calcium mobilization, recovery was partial (52% of the initial responses) probably owing to receptor desensitization after prolonged agonist exposure (**Figure 3.D**). In the dose-response curves, dark-adapted photorexin displayed significantly lower potency towards hOX₁, whereas both the UV- and blue-light illuminated forms evoked no response on this receptor, thus demonstrating selectivity towards hOX₂ (**Figure S3.5** and **Figure 3.E**). In light of the promising results obtained through calcium fluorescence, we moved on to test photorexin activity *in vivo*.

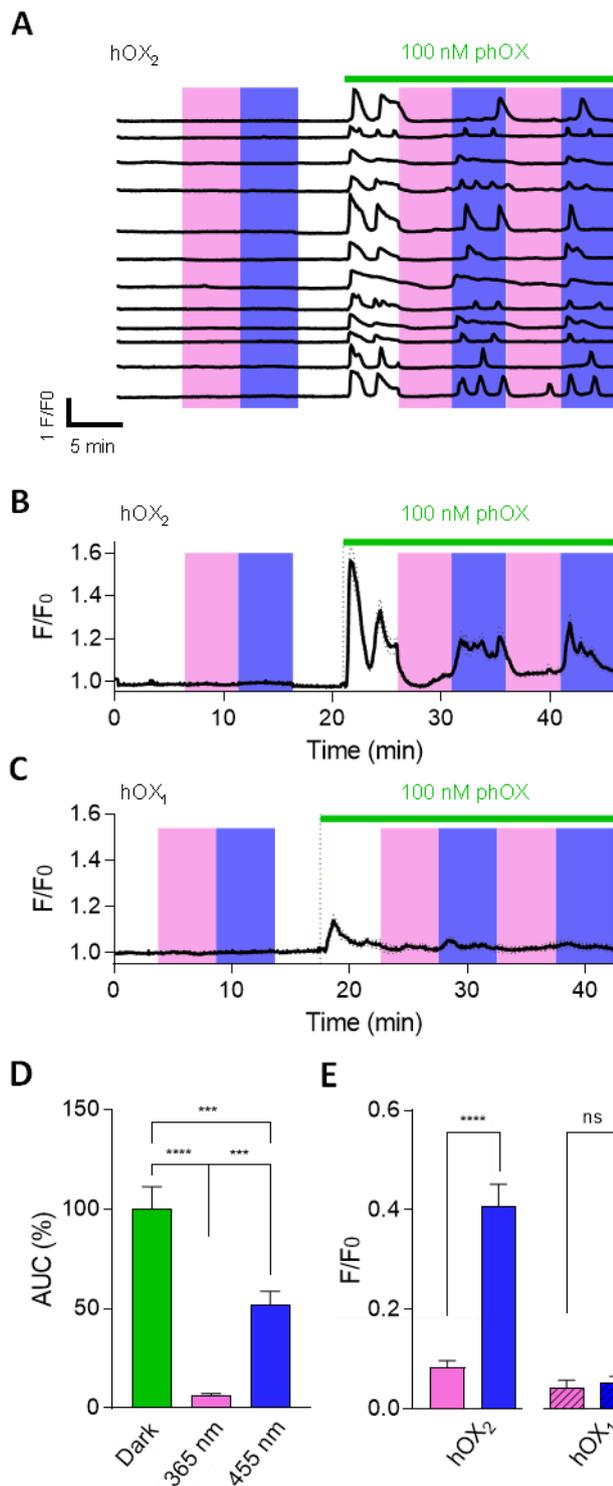


Figure 3 Photorexin pharmacodynamics **A)** Representative single-cell calcium traces ($n=12$) in TsA201 cells transiently expressing GFP-hOX₂ and R-GECO1. Upon application of 100 nM photorexin (green bar) in its dark-adapted state (*trans*, white area) cells gave sharp responses. Calcium oscillations were then abolished upon exposure to cycles of UV light (365 nm, *cis*-enriched state in pink) and recovered with blue illumination (455 nm, *trans*-enriched state in blue). **B)** Real-time intracellular calcium recordings (averaged traces, black line, $n=20$) from TsA201 cells co-expressing hOX₂ and R-GECO1 upon application of 100 nM photorexin (green bar). Traces were recorded in the dark (white area) and under cycles of illumination with UV (365 nm, pink) and blue (455 nm, blue) light. Grey dotted band represents \pm SEM. **C)** Real-time calcium imaging responses (averaged traces, black line, $n=20$ cells) from TsA201 cells co-expressing hOX₁ and R-GECO1. Application of photorexin (100 nM, green bar) evokes mild responses in the dark and under blue light. Gray bars represent \pm SEM. **D)** Efficacy of phOX (100 nM) on TsA201-hOX₂ quantified in the dark (green bar) and after subsequent illumination with 365 nm UV light (pink bar, *cis* enriched) and back-isomerization to *trans* with 455 nm blue light (blue bar). Responses were quantified as Area Under the Curve (AUC) and normalized to those obtained with dark-adapted phOX. Data represent means \pm SEM ($n=20$ cells). Statistical differences were determined by one-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparison test. (***, p -value ≤ 0.001 ; ****, p -value ≤ 0.0001). **E)** Selectivity of phOX (100 nM) over TsA201-hOX₂ (full-coloured bars) and TsA201-hOX₁ (dashed bars) compared after illumination with 365 nm UV light (*cis* enriched, in pink) and after back-isomerization to *trans* with 455 nm blue light (in blue). Data represent amplitude means \pm SEM ($n=20$ cells). Statistical differences were determined by one-way ANOVA with paired-sample Wilcoxon signed rank test (ns, not significant; ****, p -value ≤ 0.0001).

The orexin neural network in zebrafish has been studied in detail and, as in mammals, it is involved in many physiological functions including sleep/wake cycles, homeostasis, feeding, and locomotor activity.^{55–60} Between 16 and 60 neurons compose the zebrafish's network with a similar gene to mammals encoding for two orexins neuropeptides (OX-A/-B).⁵⁹ Only one orexin receptor has been found in zebrafish, closely related to mammalian OX₂ (70%). Its binding pocket is highly conserved throughout species.^{13,59} The simplicity of the network in zebrafish and its close resemblance to higher mammals, along with the advantages of using an established neuropharmacological^{61–64} and photopharmacological^{15,65} animal model, allowed us to investigate the effects of photorexin on locomotor activities of wildtype larvae.

Individual larvae were placed in separate wells of a 96 well plate, each containing increasing concentrations of photorexin. Each individual was tracked and monitored over 68 minutes under different illumination conditions, alternating between 365 nm, 455 nm, and dark periods (respectively indicated by purple, blue, and grey in **Figure 4.A**). The time course of 12 larvae per concentration group integrated every minute are shown in **Figure 4.A**. All applied concentrations are shown in **Figure 4.B** (0-10 μM).

High doses of photorexin (1 and 10 μM) significantly enhanced locomotion (distance swum over 1-min integration intervals) under 365 nm light in comparison to non-treated larva, for all UV illuminated periods. This increase in activity was sharply reverted under visible blue light and all treated larvae swum distances similar to non-treated individuals. Interestingly, the successive induction reflex (i.e., the fast increase and slow decrease in locomotion observed upon switching off visible light)^{66,67} is significantly reduced for all photorexin-treated groups in comparison to controls as observed at $t = 49$ min (**Figure 4.A**). These findings are consistent with sleep behaviors in zebrafish after exposure to orexin agonists, that elicit lower responsiveness upon light-to-dark changes.⁵⁸

It must be noted that rodents have been the model of choice to develop hypnotics and psychostimulants despite their different sleep patterns to humans. As an alternative, zebrafish larvae show peak daytime activity and rest at night, are cost-effective, and amenable to high throughput screening as shown in **Figure 4**.

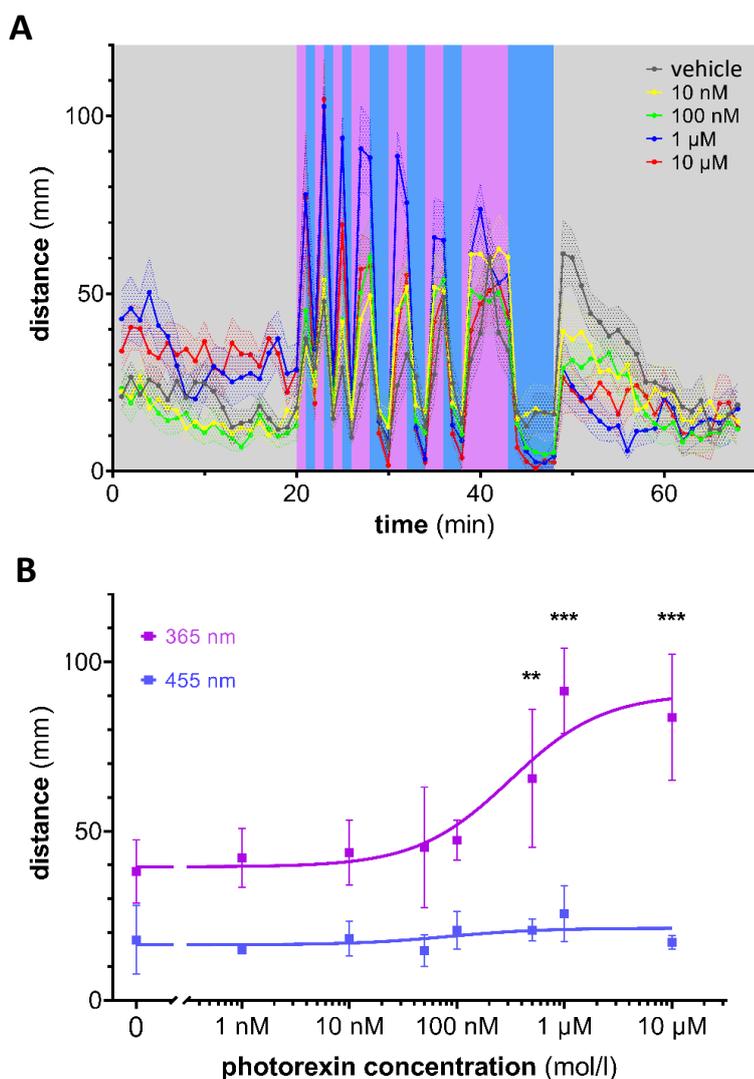


Figure 4 Photorexin *in vivo* activity in wildtype zebrafish A) Fast-swimming distances (faster than $6 \text{ mm}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$) are plotted for larvae treated with different doses of phOX (vehicle – dark gray, 10 nM - yellow, 100 nM – green, 1 μM – blue, and 10 μM – red traces). Distances were integrated over 1-min intervals. UV illumination periods increased swimming activity of larvae exposed to high phOX doses (1 and 10 μM), while blue light reversed activity to levels of non-treated larvae. This different behavior was maintained over several light cycles. After the last illumination interval (5 min at 455 nm), all treated larvae showed a weaker induction response (i.e., the fast increase and slow decrease in locomotion observed upon switching off visible light). Patterned areas represent \pm SEM ($n=12$ larvae per condition). **B)** Dose-response curves (distance swum in mm) in zebrafish larvae of *cis* (365 nm, in purple) and *trans* (455 nm, in blue) phOX upon integrating the 3 consecutive 1-min illumination intervals between minutes 20 and 26 for each wavelength (365 nm and 455 nm, purple and blue traces respectively). Error bars represent \pm SD ($n = 12$ larvae per treatment group). Solid traces are fits to $\log(\text{agonist})$ vs. response model. Statistical differences were determined by two-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparison test (**, p -value ≤ 0.01 ; ***, p -value ≤ 0.001).

Overall, both *in vitro* and *in vivo* results validate the rationale behind our photoswitchable peptide ligand design. While interventions at the flexible hinge are compatible with preserving the functional activity of the peptide, peptide ligands require proper orientation of the axis to ensure receptor agonism and intracellular signaling. This achievement offers the ability to control endogenous orexin receptors remotely and in the different regions of the brain that receive orexinergic projections, and allows reversible and repeatable activation of orexin receptors at high temporal resolution to investigate gating mechanisms. To examine this question, we further studied photorexins associated to the observed differences in receptor activity.

In order to correlate the functional potencies of the *trans* and *cis* isomers with their respective conformations, we performed circular dichroism (CD) studies and molecular dynamics calculations. Photorexins CD spectra in phosphate buffer saline displayed a strong positive band at 195 nm and a negative one at 218 nm (**Figure S4.1A**). This behavior suggests the presence of a nascent α -helix. In the presence of 30% trifluoroethanol (TFE), the spectra revealed enhanced helicity (40%) with a negative band at 207 nm and a shoulder at 220 nm (**Figure S4.1B**).⁴¹ Moreover, while photorexins in 30% TFE were not affected by light-induced photoisomerization of AMPP, the CD spectrum recorded in PBS displayed a loss in secondary structure after exposure to UV light. Despite the variation being mild, we investigated if the detected structural changes were restricted to photorexins helix I or helix II and could partially account for the loss of potency of the *cis* isomer.

We thus performed replica exchange with solute tempering (REST) molecular dynamics simulations in explicit water to analyze the secondary structures of *trans* and *cis* photorexins and to relate them to their closest non-photoswitchable analogue (truncated OX-B, residues 6-28, with no amino acid replacement at the flexible hinge). Atom coordinates were extracted from the solution structure reported by Lee *et al.* (PDB ID: 1CQ0)²⁹ and we manually modified them to truncate the N-terminus and, in the case of our analogues, insert those of NMR-solved *trans* and *cis* AMPP (PDB ID: 2H4B).⁶⁸ As an indicator of helicity, the average number of backbone H-bonds formed during the simulations was plotted for helix I (Gly6-Gly19) and helix II (Ala23-Met28) and compared between the three analogues (**Figure S4.2**). Additionally, dihedral angles of residues at helix I and helix II were analyzed for the 300 K trajectory as a complementary indication of secondary structure (**Figure S4.3A-B**). Surprisingly, no significant variations in helicity content and/or in the conformational preferences of the residues were observed among the three analogues. Thus, the difference in activity observed between *trans* and *cis* photorexins cannot be directly attributed to partial losses in secondary structure.

As photoisomerization was expected to affect the spatial arrangement of the two helices, we moved on to study the evolution of the intramolecular helix I - helix II angle. During REST simulations, all the peptides displayed a high degree of “hinge” flexibility which resulted in significant angle fluctuations. However, while OX-B₍₆₋₂₈₎ helices were on average inclined at 45° (**Figure S4.4A**), the angles in *cis* and *trans* phOX were both closer to 90° (**Figure S4.4B-C**), thus suggesting that: i) the azobenzene moiety prevents closing of the inter-helix angle compared to the flexible hinge of the native peptide; and ii) its photoisomerization does not further influence the angle between the two peptide fragments.

Finally, we analyzed the main clusters of conformations explored by each molecule during the 200 ns REST simulations. The most populated conformations for each derivative were locally aligned by the backbone of helix II - GILT- residues, as these constitute the hotspots for receptor binding and activation.⁶⁹ As observed from the alignment, *trans* photorexins (in green) preferentially places helix I in a similar orientation as for OX-B₍₆₋₂₈₎ (in grey) (**Figure S4.5**). In contrast, helix I of the *cis* isomer (in pink) is orientated in the opposite direction.

As previously demonstrated by mutagenesis studies and recently supported by cryo-EM, the α -helical N-termini of OX-B and OX₂ as well as the ECL-2 of the latter actively engage in the formation of the receptor-peptide complex through a “message-address system” based on polytopic interactions.^{45,70} According to this model, the N-terminus of the peptide directs binding to the receptor, whereas the “message” C-terminus conveys the functional information.⁷¹⁻⁷⁴ In addition, multiple weak interactions mediate affinity towards the receptors, overall contributing to the nM potency of the peptide.⁷⁰

Among these hotspots for receptor binding and activation, two key residues (Leu16 and Leu20) have been identified to form a hydrophobic patch located on helix I.^{75,76} Our functional and structural data converge on

attributing the lower activity displayed by *cis* photorexin to the reverse orientation adopted by its N-terminus relative to the receptor binding pocket. In particular, the UV-illuminated analogue might be unable to establish productive hydrophobic interactions, such as those predicted between the beforementioned leucine residues and Phe346 and His350 located on the extracellular region of OX₂ (Figure S4.6).^{75,77}

Conclusions

In conclusion, we have rationally designed and developed a reliable and efficient molecular tool to photocontrol orexinergic neurotransmission. Photorexin shows that introducing a photoswitchable amino acid into the backbone of signaling peptides allows for regulating their activity *in vitro* and *in vivo* by controlling the spatial arrangement of their C- and N- terminal fragments.⁵¹ Potentially, this approach could be extended to a broad family of neuropeptides that share a “message-address” mechanism when binding to their cognate receptors.^{71–74} Our light-regulated analogue retains elevated maximal efficacy, nanomolar activity, and selectivity towards hOX₂, thus showing that interventions at the flexible hinge are compatible with preserving the functional activity of the peptide. The long thermal stability and low intrinsic activity of the *cis* isomer enable administration and subsequent activation of the compound with blue light, thus offering unprecedented spatiotemporal precision to manipulate orexinergic circuits. Photorexin is the first photo-reversible ligand reported for orexin receptors. It allows dynamic control of activity *in vitro* and in zebrafish larvae by direct application in water. Photorexin induces dose- and light-dependent changes in locomotion and a reduction in the successive induction reflex that is associated to sleep behavior.

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