

## COMMENTARY

### THE THIRD DOPAMINE RECEPTOR (D<sub>3</sub>) AS A NOVEL TARGET FOR ANTIPSYCHOTICS

PIERRE SOKOLOFF,\* MARIE-PASCALE MARTRES, BRUNO GIROS,  
MARIE-LOUISE BOUTHENET and JEAN-CHARLES SCHWARTZ

Unité de Neurobiologie et Pharmacologie (U. 109) de l'INSERM, Centre Paul Broca, 75014 Paris, France

Until recently it was widely accepted that dopamine (DA<sup>†</sup>) affects its target cells in brain and endocrine tissues via interaction with only two receptor subtypes, termed D<sub>1</sub> and D<sub>2</sub>, differing one from the other by their pharmacological specificity and their opposite effect on adenylate cyclase [1, 2]. It was also generally admitted that the therapeutic efficacy of antipsychotics derived from their high affinity binding to D<sub>2</sub> receptors.

However, we have repeatedly raised the idea that antipsychotic agents interact to a variable extent with more than a single DA receptor subtype, i.e. that the dual categorization of DA receptors was incomplete. Our conviction was based mainly upon the observation that a series of "atypical antipsychotics", although inactive at D<sub>1</sub> receptors, were able to distinguish subclasses of D<sub>2</sub> receptors in binding studies (in brain but not pituitary) and in behavioral studies [3]. However, no highly selective agent could be identified. In addition, the hypothesis that DA autoreceptors might differ pharmacologically from postsynaptic D<sub>2</sub> receptors was advanced [4] but failed to gain general acceptance [5, 6]. Hence, the idea that more than a single molecular entity, the D<sub>2</sub> receptor, was responsible for the various actions of antipsychotics remained controversial, in spite of its substantial clinical relevance.

This situation has started to be modified with the advent of molecular biology in this field, which has confirmed the existence of additional DA receptors. Their existence throws a new light onto the modes of action and side-effects of many drugs used in neurology and psychiatry. This is particularly the case for the D<sub>3</sub> receptor that we recently identified in rat [7] and human brain [8] and which appears as a major target for antipsychotics. This Commentary is focused mainly upon this "third receptor" but data are put in perspective by comparison with data describing other members of the already large DA receptor family.

#### *Molecular biology reveals multiple dopamine receptor genes*

The first cloning of a DA receptor gene, that of the D<sub>2</sub> receptor, was achieved largely by serendipity, i.e. was the result of a search for genes displaying sequence similarity with those of the  $\beta$ -adrenoreceptors [9, 10]. This initial discovery, in turn, paved the way for the cloning of a series of DA receptor genes, based upon the significant sequence homology these receptors display. As expected, the D<sub>1</sub> receptor, which is nearly as abundant as the D<sub>2</sub> receptor in brain, was the first to follow [11–14]. Then came the genes of a series of less abundant and less expected receptors which markedly expand the DA receptor family: the D<sub>3</sub> [7, 8], D<sub>4</sub> [15] and D<sub>5</sub> receptors [16]‡. The amino acid sequence of all these receptors, as deduced from their established nucleotide sequence, reveals that they belong to a larger superfamily, that of receptors with seven transmembrane domains (TMs) and coupled to their intracellular transduction system by a G protein. These features are similar to those of rhodopsin, the "receptor for light", with which they display sequence homology and, presumably, a common phylogenetic origin.

The various genes of the DA receptor family can be classified in two groups according to their organization: (a) intronless genes, i.e. those of the D<sub>1</sub> and D<sub>5</sub> receptors, in which the coding nucleotide sequence is continuous; and (b) genes having their coding sequence contained in discontinuous DNA segments (exons) interspersed among sequences (introns) that do not form a part of the mature mRNA. This last organization, found in the rhodopsin gene as well as the D<sub>2</sub>, D<sub>3</sub> and D<sub>4</sub> receptor genes (Fig. 1), may lead, via a mechanism of alternative splicing (in which a given exon in the pre-mRNA is either present or absent in the final mRNA), to the biosynthesis of several distinct proteins encoded by a unique gene.

The definition of two subfamilies of DA receptors, the D<sub>1</sub>-like and the D<sub>2</sub>-like, based upon the gene organization, is consistent with a similar distinction based upon pharmacology and signalling systems (Tables 1 and 2). Remarkably enough, the D<sub>2</sub> and D<sub>3</sub> receptor genes have 4 out of 6 and 5 introns, respectively, located at similar positions, suggesting relatively recent divergence from a common ancestral gene. The human D<sub>3</sub> receptor was assigned to

\* Corresponding author: Dr. Pierre Sokoloff, Unité de Neurobiologie et Pharmacologie (U. 109) de l'INSERM, Centre Paul Broca, 2 ter rue d'Alésia, 75014 Paris, France. Tel. (33) 1.45.89.89.07; FAX (33) 1.45.80.72.93.

† Abbreviations: DA, dopamine; TMs, transmembrane domains; PCR, polymerase chain reaction; and RT-PCR, reverse transcription-polymerase chain reaction.

‡ See note added in proof.

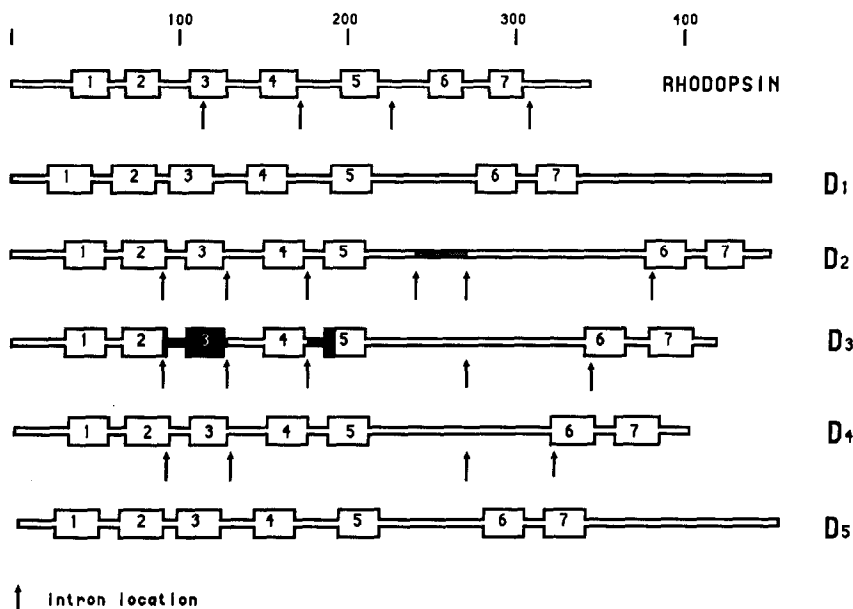


Fig. 1. The family of dopamine receptor genes: Organization and comparison with rhodopsin. The scale indicates the length of the amino acid sequence. Arrows indicate the position of introns; shaded areas correspond to alternative exons.

Table 1. Synopsis of dopamine receptor subtypes

	D <sub>1</sub>	D <sub>2</sub>	D <sub>3</sub>	D <sub>4</sub>	D <sub>5</sub>
Coding sequence	446 a.a.	D <sub>2A</sub> = 443 a.a. D <sub>2B</sub> = 414 a.a.	400 a.a.	387 a.a.	477 a.a.
Chromosome localization	5 q31—q34	11 q22—q23	3 q13.3	11 p	4 p16
Highest brain densities	Neostriatum	Neostriatum	Paleostriatum (isl. Calleja, n. accumbens)	Medulla Fr. cortex	Hippocampus
Pituitary	No	Yes	No	?	No
Dopamine Neurons (A9, A10)	No	Yes	Yes	?	?
Affinity for dopamine	Micromolar	Micromolar	Nanomolar	Submicromolar	Submicromolar
Characteristic antagonist	SCH-23390	Haloperidol	UH 232	Clozapine	SCH-23390
Adenyl cyclase	Stimulates	Inhibits	?	?	Stimulates
Characteristic agonist	SKF-82526	Bromocriptine	Quinpirole	?	SKF-82526

chromosome 3 [8] and localized to its long arm (3 q13.3) by *in situ* hybridization [17], whereas the other DA receptors are localized to different chromosomes.

Several polymorphisms were identified recently on the human D<sub>3</sub> receptor gene, including a B<sub>all</sub> polymorphism in the N-terminal tail which is conveniently studied by polymerase chain reaction (PCR); it is inherited in a codominant way, according to Mendelian laws and can be used in genetic linkage studies [18].

#### Molecular cloning and structure of the rat and human D<sub>3</sub> receptors

The molecular cloning of the D<sub>3</sub> receptor involved

a combination of screenings of cDNA and genomic libraries and reverse transcription-polymerase chain reaction (RT-PCR). A clone isolated from a rat brain cDNA library [19] was used to screen a genomic library, and a positive clone was shown to contain the 5' part of a gene homologous to the D<sub>2</sub> receptor gene. RT-PCR was performed with a specific primer in the sequence of this clone and a degenerated primer designed in TM7 of the D<sub>2</sub> receptor. The PCR product was subcloned, sequenced and used in a screening of a rat genomic library which provided a clone containing the 3' end of the coding region. The full-length cDNA was finally obtained by RT-PCR with specific primers flanking the coding region and RNA from olfactory

Table 2. Pharmacology of dopamine receptor subtypes

	<i>K<sub>i</sub></i> (nM)				
	D <sub>1</sub>	D <sub>2</sub>	D <sub>3</sub>	D <sub>4</sub>	D <sub>5</sub>
<b>Agonists</b>					
Dopamine*	2,300	2,000	30	450	230
Apomorphine	680	70	70	(4)†	360
Bromocriptine	700	5	7	500	500
Pergolide	1,400	20	2		900
Quinpirole	>20,000	1,400	40	50	>20,000
SKF-38393	150	10,000	5,000	10,000	100
<b>Antagonists</b>					
Haloperidol	30	0.6	3	5	40
Pimozide		10	11	40	
(-)-Sulpiride	40,000	10	20	50	80,000
UH 232		40	10		
Clozapine	140	70	500	9	250
SCH-23390	0.3	1,000	1,000	3,500	0.3

Values for human D<sub>2</sub> and D<sub>3</sub> receptors transfected in CHO cells are from this laboratory, whereas those for D<sub>1</sub>, D<sub>4</sub> and D<sub>5</sub> receptors were taken from Refs. 15 and 16.

\* Dopamine values were obtained in the presence of Gpp(NH)p.

† High affinity component.

tubercle as template [7]. A similar approach was used for the cloning of the human D<sub>3</sub> receptor cDNA. Specific sequences flanking the coding region were obtained by screening a human genomic library with corresponding rat probes. The full coding sequence was then obtained in RT-PCR, using primers designed in these sequences and RNA from human mammillary bodies [8].

The open reading frame of the D<sub>3</sub> receptor corresponds to a sequence of 446 amino acid residues in the rat but only 400 residues in humans, the main difference residing at the level of the third putative intracytoplasmic loop (i<sub>3</sub>). There is relatively little sequence homology at the level of this loop between D<sub>2</sub> and D<sub>3</sub> receptors, contrasting with the high amino acid sequence homology at the level of the TMs where the dopaminergic ligands are thought to bind: for instance, homology at this level is as high as 78% between the human D<sub>2</sub> and D<sub>3</sub> receptors (Fig. 2).

The structural knowledge derived from physical studies of the opsins [20] and discrete manipulation of the  $\beta$ -adrenergic receptor gene ("site-directed mutagenesis") [21] can be extended to other members of the superfamily, e.g. the DA receptors, particularly the human D<sub>3</sub> receptor. They all comprise a pattern of seven stretches of 20–25 hydrophobic amino acids postulated to form transmembrane  $\alpha$ -helices, connected by alternating extracellular and cytoplasmic loops constituted by hydrophilic residues. The N-terminal part constitutes a glycosylated extracellular domain.

The transmembrane helices constitute the ligand binding domain. particularly three amino acid residues thought to interact with catecholamines: an aspartic residue (Asp<sup>110</sup> in the human D<sub>3</sub> receptor) in TM3, which forms an ion pair with the protonated amine group of DA, and two serine residues (Ser<sup>193</sup> and Ser<sup>196</sup>) in TM5, which presumably form a hydrogen bonding interaction with the two hydroxyl

groups of DA. This last interaction, specific for DA and agonists, could cause a conformational change in the helix, transmitted to the i<sub>3</sub> loop.

Among the various intracytoplasmic domains, the i<sub>3</sub> loop appears as the main area for interaction with G proteins. It is clear that the length of this loop allows us to extend the classification of DA receptors: the intronless D<sub>1</sub> and D<sub>5</sub> receptors are characterized by a short i<sub>3</sub> loop (and a long c-terminal tail) and are coupled to G<sub>s</sub> proteins which activate adenylate cyclase; on the other hand, the D<sub>3</sub> as well as the D<sub>2</sub> and D<sub>4</sub> receptors, which display a long i<sub>3</sub> loop and a short C-terminal tail (Fig. 1), might be coupled to G<sub>i</sub> (or G<sub>o</sub>) proteins inhibiting adenylate cyclase. In fact, these domains are those exhibiting the largest sequence dissimilarity among the various DA receptor subtypes, a feature which may reflect selective interaction of each member with one member of the large family of G proteins, leading to distinct intracellular signals.

#### *Splice variants of D<sub>3</sub> receptor mRNA*

Alternative splicing was shown to occur in the case of the D<sub>2</sub> receptor, potentially leading to two distinct receptors differing by a stretch of 29 amino acids at the level of the third intracytoplasmic loop which were called D<sub>2(444)</sub> (or D<sub>2L</sub> for D<sub>2</sub> long and D<sub>2A</sub>) and D<sub>2(415)</sub> (or D<sub>2S</sub> for D<sub>2</sub> short and D<sub>2B</sub>). These two isoforms of the D<sub>2</sub> receptor display identical pharmacology but are expressed differently among cerebral areas, and may interact differently with various G proteins [19, 22, 23]; in addition, their relative abundance is affected by neuroleptic treatments [24].

In the case of the D<sub>3</sub> receptor, alternative splicing gives rise potentially, in addition to the 446 amino acid receptor, to two truncated proteins of 109 and 428 amino acids [25]. Thus, PCR amplification, using primers flanking the entire coding sequence of the

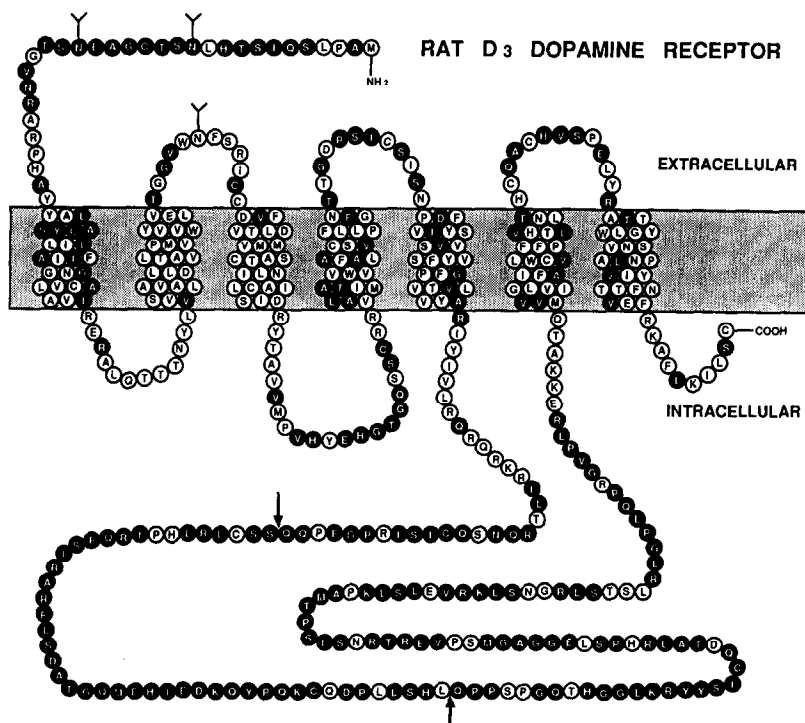


Fig. 2. Proposed membrane topography of the rat D<sub>3</sub> dopamine receptor and its relationship with the D<sub>2</sub> receptor. Darkened circles represent residues which differ between rat D<sub>2</sub> and D<sub>3</sub> receptors. The portion of the third intracytoplasmic loop limited by arrows is absent in the human D<sub>3</sub> receptor; otherwise its structure is highly homologous to that of the rat D<sub>3</sub> receptor.

D<sub>3</sub> receptor and mRNAs of various rat brain areas in which it is expressed, gave rise, in addition to the typical cDNA, to two other products with sizeable deletions of 113 bp in TM3 and 54 bp in O2, respectively: hence the designation of the proteins potentially encoded by these two transcripts as D<sub>3</sub>(TM3-del) and D<sub>3</sub>(O2-del), respectively.

Two distinct alternative splicing mechanisms underlie the production of these two mRNAs. In the case of D<sub>3</sub>(TM3-del), the process involves combinatorial exons, the "cassette" exon being the second exon (Fig. 1). Since the latter does not comprise  $n \times 3$  nucleotides, this introduces a frameshift in the sequence and the splice product encodes a 109 amino acid protein. By contrast, in D<sub>3</sub>(O2-del) mRNA, the in-frame 54 bp deletion does not correspond to a full exon: alternative splicing occurs within the fourth exon where an internal acceptor site can be used by the splicing machinery, thereby giving rise to a mRNA encoding a 428 amino acid protein.

Whereas the structure of D<sub>3</sub>(TM3-del) makes it unlikely that the protein may function as a receptor, this is not so clear in the case of D<sub>3</sub>(O2-del), whose structure may still be compatible with the occurrence of seven TMs, as revealed by the hydropathy profile. However, CHO clones stably expressing D<sub>3</sub>(O2-del) mRNA failed to show any dopaminergic binding activity, as assessed with various radioactive ligands.

What could be the function, if any, of these

truncated products of the D<sub>3</sub> receptor gene? Indeed, both encode potential integral membrane proteins, possibly involved in cell signalling. Nevertheless, the idea that these truncated forms lack any direct biological activity in signal transduction cannot be discarded. They could be formed at random during biosynthesis of the functionally active D<sub>3</sub> receptor. Alternatively, this may represent a mechanism controlling the abundance of the active D<sub>3</sub> receptor. Finally, since multiple D<sub>3</sub> receptor gene transcripts are also found in human brain [8], it cannot be excluded that defects in the alternative splicing mechanisms, leading to the formation of inactive receptors, may occur during psychiatric diseases.

#### *Anatomical distribution of D<sub>3</sub> receptor mRNA in rat brain*

The distribution of D<sub>3</sub> receptor gene transcripts in rat brain areas, as established using Northern or PCR analysis or visualized by *in situ* hybridization histochemistry [7, 26], markedly differs from those of the D<sub>1</sub> [27] or D<sub>2</sub> receptor [28] gene transcripts. For instance, only a weak D<sub>3</sub> receptor hybridization signal was detected in restricted parts of the striatum, whereas the whole striatum contains the highest densities of DA axons and D<sub>2</sub> receptor mRNA (Fig. 3). By contrast, the D<sub>3</sub> receptor mRNA is highly expressed in the olfactory tubercle-island of Calleja complex, the bed nucleus of stria terminalis and nucleus accumbens. These areas constitute, with the

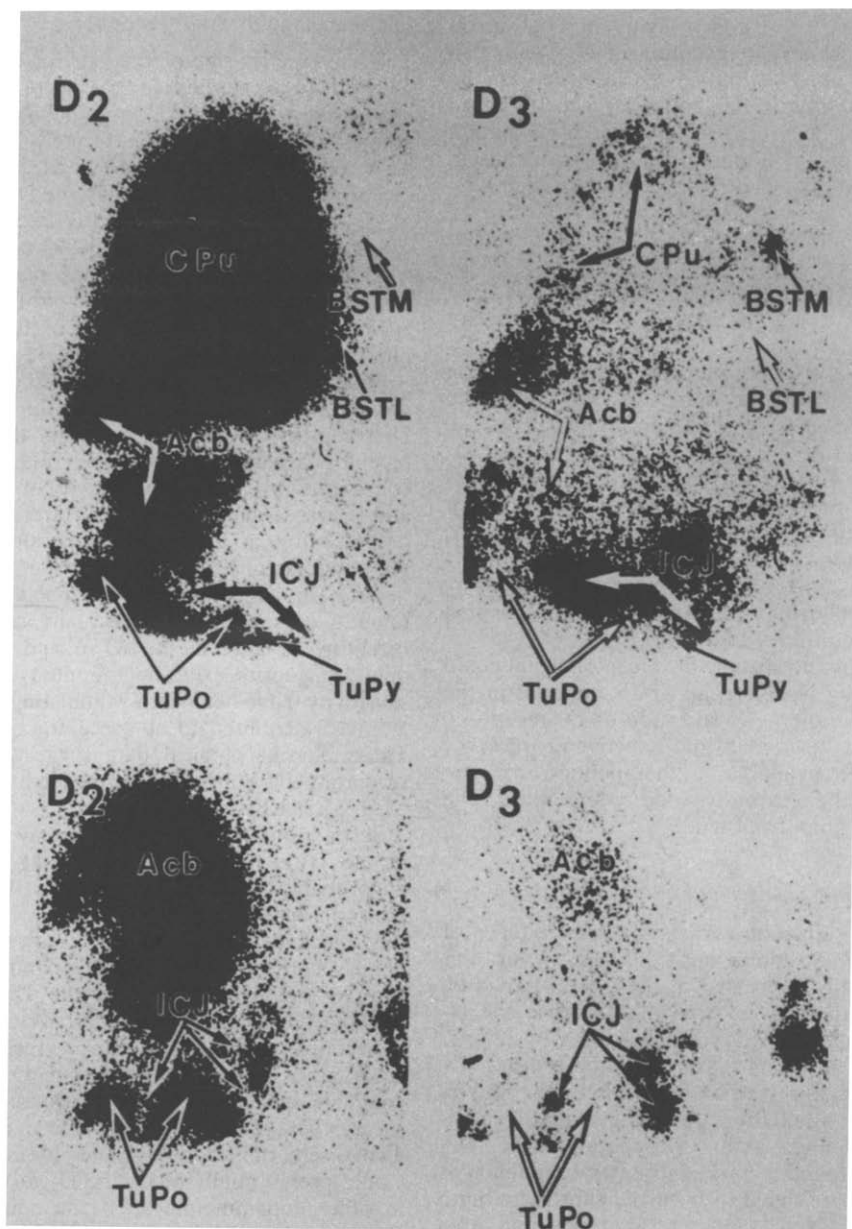


Fig. 3. Comparison of the distributions of D<sub>2</sub> and D<sub>3</sub> receptor mRNAs established by *in situ* hybridization in sagittal (top) and frontal (bottom) sections of rat telencephalon. Note the non-overlapping complementary distributions of the two transcripts in the ventral striatum, particularly at the level of olfactory tubercle-islands of Calleja and basal nucleus of the stria terminalis. Abbreviations: Acb, accumbens nucleus; BSTL and BSTM bed nucleus of the stria terminalis, lateral or medial part; ICJ, islands of Calleja; CPU caudate putamen; and TuPo and TuPy polymorph and pyramidal layers of the olfactory tubercle.

ventral and ventomedial parts of the caudate putamen, the "ventral striatum", a territory receiving afferents from the prefrontal or allocortex and amygdala and its major DA inputs from the A10 cell group in the ventral tegmental area. It projects to the ventral pallidum and the latter to the mediodorsal thalamic nucleus which selectively

innervates the prefrontal cortex [29]. This connectivity has led to the designation of this territory as the "limbic" part of the striatal complex, in which D<sub>3</sub> receptors may, therefore, mediate a large part of DA signals. The remainder of the striatal complex, which is innervated mainly by DA projections from the substantia nigra, receives its cortical inputs from

the somatic neocortex and is highly enriched in D<sub>1</sub> and D<sub>2</sub> receptors. D<sub>3</sub> receptor signals were also detected in other "limbic" areas such as the hippocampus, septum or mammillary nuclei in the hypothalamus. This suggests a major participation of D<sub>3</sub> receptors in dopaminergic transmissions in limbic areas known to be associated with cognitive, emotional and endocrine functions.

D<sub>2</sub> receptor mRNA is also highly expressed in these areas but there is *no strict overlap* with D<sub>3</sub> receptor mRNA distribution. For instance, the highest levels of D<sub>3</sub> receptor mRNA in brain are detected in the islands of Calleja, in which the D<sub>2</sub> receptor signal is weak, whereas a reverse situation is found in the olfactory tubercles (Fig. 3). In the bed nucleus of the stria terminalis, only cells of the medial division strongly and selectively express D<sub>3</sub> receptor mRNAs (Fig. 3). The two receptor subtypes differ by the much higher affinity of dopamine for the D<sub>3</sub> receptor and, possibly, by their intracellular signalling systems (see below). Hence, it seems likely that different kinds of signals may be generated by DA in neighboring but topographically distinct cerebral structures.

Interestingly, no specific D<sub>3</sub> receptor signal could be detected by Northern and PCR analyses in the pituitary, a prototype localization of D<sub>2</sub> receptors. This allows us to predict that selective D<sub>3</sub> receptor ligands, when available in therapeutics, will not affect, like the currently used neuroleptics, the activity of mammothrophs.

#### *The D<sub>3</sub> receptor as a second autoreceptor*

*In situ* hybridization reveals a weak D<sub>3</sub> receptor signal in the substantia nigra [26]. However, this signal is mainly expressed in the lateral part and, here again, there is no true overlap with the D<sub>2</sub> receptor signal, which is strongly expressed all over the whole compacta. The hypothesis that D<sub>3</sub> receptors are expressed by DA neurons themselves was verified after their lesioning using local 6-hydroxydopamine. After degeneration of DA neurons, we found a marked ipsilateral reduction of the D<sub>3</sub> receptor signal in both the substantia nigra ( $-65 \pm 10\%$ ) and the ventral tegmental area ( $-69 \pm 14\%$ ). In the same tissue extracts, the D<sub>2</sub> receptor mRNA levels were similarly affected, i.e. by  $-88$  and  $-65\%$ , respectively [7].

This establishes that both D<sub>2</sub> and D<sub>3</sub> receptors are not only located postsynaptically but are also expressed by DA neurons belonging to the A<sub>9</sub> and A<sub>10</sub> cell groups. This suggests that both play the role of autoreceptors. Such a role for the D<sub>3</sub> receptor is consistent with its pharmacological profile (see below).

Many distinct functions were previously attributed to DA autoreceptors, i.e. inhibitions of impulse flow, DA synthesis and release at either nerve terminals or dendrites, and co-transmitter release. D<sub>2</sub> and D<sub>3</sub> autoreceptors might variously participate in all of these actions and in various brain areas. Finally, the question as to whether a single cell expresses both D<sub>2</sub> and D<sub>3</sub> receptors remains to be answered, namely by *in situ* hybridization studies at the cellular level.

#### *Pharmacology of the D<sub>3</sub> receptor*

The pharmacology of the rat [7], or human D<sub>3</sub> receptor\* was studied in transfected CHO cells expressing a high level of sites labelled with high affinity by [<sup>125</sup>I]iodosulpride, formerly considered to be a D<sub>2</sub> receptor-selective ligand [30]. The D<sub>3</sub> receptor can be considered, like the D<sub>4</sub> receptor, as a "D<sub>2</sub>-like" receptor: it poorly recognizes "D<sub>1</sub>-specific" ligands such as SKF-38393 or SCH-23390, whereas it binds "D<sub>2</sub>-specific" agonists, e.g. quinpirole, or antagonists, e.g. sulpiride (Table 2). However, several salient features of the D<sub>3</sub> receptor pharmacology should be underlined.

First, dopamine, as well as agonists such as TL99, quinpirole or quinerolane, display high affinities at D<sub>3</sub> receptors. This may account for the role of D<sub>3</sub> receptors as autoreceptors since (i) DA in very low concentrations reduces the activity of DA neurons, and (ii) these agonists seem to act preferentially at autoreceptors as judged in animal models, such as the butyrolactone-induced increase of DA synthesis [5, 31]. This suggests that some functions attributed to autoreceptor stimulation actually involves the D<sub>3</sub> receptor. In agreement, AJ76 and UH232, the only antagonists exhibiting (limited) D<sub>3</sub> receptor-selectivity, have behavioral stimulating properties in animals, attributed to autoreceptor blockade [32]. These pharmacological data suggest that the D<sub>3</sub> receptor plays a major role in the feedback inhibition of DA transmission.

Second, most antipsychotics display high affinities at the D<sub>3</sub> receptor, indicating that this receptor is probably blocked during the treatment of schizophrenia and related disorders. The degree of this blockade would depend, however, on the antipsychotics used since their recognition by the D<sub>3</sub> receptor relative to that of the D<sub>2</sub> receptor is variable. The compounds for which the ratios between  $K_i$  values for D<sub>2</sub> and D<sub>3</sub> receptors ( $K_iD_2/K_iD_3$  ratios) are the highest would exert a more complete blockade of DA transmission in limbic areas, where the D<sub>3</sub> receptor is selectively expressed. Conversely, those for which the ratios are the lowest would preferentially block the D<sub>2</sub> receptor present in other dopaminergic areas, including the extrapyramidal system, mainly implicated in the control of motor function. This could be one of the molecular basis of the distinction of "atypical" neuroleptics. Consistent with this hypothesis is the observation of a high  $K_iD_2/K_iD_3$  ratio measured with atypical neuroleptics such as sulpiride or amisulpride. Nevertheless, the peculiar clinical properties of clozapine are more likely to derive from its higher affinity for D<sub>4</sub> than any other receptor subtype [15].

Interestingly, among antipsychotics having the highest  $K_iD_2/K_iD_3$  ratios are amisulpride, caripramine, pipothiazine and pimozide, which all exhibit definite desinhibitory actions sought in the treatment of the negative symptoms in schizophrenia. Conceivably, the more efficient blockade of D<sub>3</sub> autoreceptors by these compounds could facilitate

\* Sokoloff P, Andrieux M, Besançon R, Pilon C, Martres M-P, Giros B and Schwartz J-C, manuscript submitted for publication.

DA transmission in some brain areas, which might lead to the alleviation of negative symptoms [4]. To address these questions, further studies will be necessary, however, using more selective compounds, the design of which should be facilitated by the use of clonal cell lines expressing a single receptor subtype.

It should be underlined, however, that all these pharmacological data were derived from studies performed with transfected CHO cells in which the D<sub>3</sub> receptor does not appear to be coupled with a G protein [7]. Since coupling affects the recognition of ligands, particularly agonists, the exact pharmacology of the D<sub>3</sub> receptor will be definitely established by studies of the native receptor in cerebral membranes.

#### *Signalling pathway of the D<sub>3</sub> receptor*

Via interaction with a G<sub>i</sub> protein, the D<sub>2</sub> receptor seems linked to numerous signalling pathways including inhibition of adenylate cyclase or phospholipase C and activation of K<sup>+</sup> channels [33]. More recently, the D<sub>2</sub> receptor expressed in transfected CHO cells was also shown to mediate an enhancement of arachidonic acid release, provided that such release has been initiated by increasing intracellular Ca<sup>2+</sup> [34, 35]. The potential importance of this novel eicosanoid pathway lies in the fact that it may account for the synergistic interaction between D<sub>1</sub> and D<sub>2</sub> receptors [34].

In CHO cells transfected with D<sub>3</sub> receptors no or variable inhibition of either adenylate cyclase or phospholipase C was evidenced [7] and the arachidonate response was weak [34]. A series of observations suggest that this reflects the coupling of the D<sub>3</sub> receptor to a G protein which is distinct from the G<sub>i</sub> involved in D<sub>2</sub> receptor signalization and absent from the recipient CHO cell.

Thus, guanylnucleotides, which rightwardly shift and steepen the competition curves generated with agonists at D<sub>2</sub> receptors, have no such effect at rat D<sub>3</sub> receptors expressed by transfected CHO cells [7]. However, in CHO cells transfected with the human D<sub>3</sub> receptor (which markedly differs from its rat counterpart at the level of the i<sub>3</sub> loop), a modest but replicable effect of guanylnucleotides is observed. Furthermore, this modulatory effect is enhanced in CHO cells co-transfected with the α<sub>o</sub> subunit of a G protein, although adenylate cyclase inhibition still cannot be evidenced.\*

From these observations it appears that D<sub>3</sub> receptor signalization may involve pathways different from those activated by stimulation of D<sub>2</sub> receptors, via interaction with a distinct G protein(s). In view of the multiplicity of G proteins, it seems important to establish the signalling pathway(s) of native D<sub>3</sub> receptors in brain.

#### *Conclusions*

The recent and rapid enlargement of the DA receptor family illustrates again how the diversity of receptor families was severely underestimated by most pharmacologists in the pre-molecular-biology days. The existence of the three pharmacologically

distinct "D<sub>2</sub>-like" subtypes, i.e. D<sub>2</sub>, D<sub>3</sub> and D<sub>4</sub>, instead of a single D<sub>2</sub> receptor, which was formerly recognized as the target for antipsychotic agents, raises important issues: among the three, which is (are) responsible for the beneficial therapeutic effects as well as for each unwanted side-effect? At this early stage of our knowledge much caution is needed but two clues point to the D<sub>3</sub> as a key receptor in schizophrenia: its selective expression in a phylogenetically old part of the brain known as the limbic system and its relatively preferential binding of several atypical antipsychotics. The last criterion, on the other hand, points to the D<sub>4</sub> as a key target for clozapine, a compound with a spectrum characterized by its activity in a subpopulation of patients resisting to other antipsychotics.

The enlargement of the DA receptor family has revealed that most drugs now currently used in the field seriously lack selectivity. Whether this ensures therapeutic activity or is responsible for side-effects remains to be established, using more selective agents.

After decades of traditional pharmacology during which drugs were used to define receptors and thereafter their genes, we are entering a new era, that of "reverse pharmacology", in which receptor genes are first identified and drugs ultimately derive from this identification. It is expected that this novel process will lead soon to the selective agents which are needed to answer the questions raised and, possibly, to cure some of the more serious human diseases. Furthermore, the probable roles of D<sub>3</sub> and D<sub>4</sub> receptors as targets for antipsychotics raise the possibility that their corresponding genes may be affected in various psychiatric diseases, an hypothesis which is being actively explored in several laboratories.

*Note added in proof.* The rat homolog of the human D<sub>5</sub> receptor was recently cloned and termed "D<sub>1B</sub>" [36].

#### REFERENCES

- Spano PF, Govoni S and Trabucchi M, Studies on the pharmacological properties of dopamine receptors in various areas of the central nervous system. *Adv Biochem Psychopharmacol* 19: 155-165, 1978.
- Kebabian JW and Calne DB, Multiple receptors for dopamine. *Nature* 277: 93-96, 1979.
- Schwartz JC, Delandre M, Martres M-P, Sokoloff P, Protais P, Vasse M, Costentin J, Laibe P, Wermuth CG, Gulat C and Lafitte A, Biochemical and behavioral identification of discriminant benzamide derivatives: New tools to differentiate subclasses of dopamine receptors. In: *Catecholamines: Neuropsychopharmacology and Central Nervous System. Theoretical aspects* (Eds. Usdin E, Carlsson A, Dahlstrom A and Engel J), pp. 59-72. Alan R. Liss, New York, 1984.
- Carlsson A, The current status of the dopamine hypothesis of schizophrenia. *Neuropsychopharmacology* 1: 179-186, 1988.
- Starke K, Göthert M and Kilbinger H, Modulation of neurotransmitter release by presynaptic autoreceptors. *Physiol Rev* 69: 864-989, 1989.
- Drukarch B and Stoof JC, D<sub>2</sub> dopamine autoreceptor selective drugs: Do they really exist? *Life Sci* 47: 361-376, 1990.
- Sokoloff P, Giros B, Martres M-P, Bouthenet M-L and

\* Andrieux M, Martres M-P, Pilon C and Sokoloff P, unpublished observations.

- Schwartz J-C, Molecular cloning and characterization of a novel dopamine receptor ( $D_3$ ) as a target for neuroleptics. *Nature* **347**: 146–151, 1990.
8. Giros B, Martres M-P, Sokoloff P and Schwartz J-C, cDNA cloning of the human dopaminergic  $D_3$  receptor and chromosome identification. *CR Acad Sci (III)* **311**: 501–508, 1990.
  9. Bunzow JR, Van Tol HHM, Grandy DK, Albert P, Salon J, Christie McD, Machida CA, Neve KA and Civelli O, Cloning and expression of a rat  $D_2$  dopamine receptor cDNA. *Nature* **336**: 783–787, 1988.
  10. Grandy DK, Litt M, Allen L, Bunzow JR, Marchionni M, Makam H, Reed L, Magenis RE and Civelli O, The human dopamine  $D_2$  receptor gene is located on chromosome 11 at q22–q23 and identifies a *TaqI* RFLP. *Am J Hum Genet* **45**: 778–785, 1989.
  11. Zhou QZ, Grandy DK, Thambi L, Kushner JA, Van Tol HHM, Cone R, Pribnow D, Salon J, Bunzow JR and Civelli O, Cloning and expression of human and rat  $D_1$  dopamine receptors. *Nature* **347**: 76–80, 1990.
  12. Dearth A, Gingrich JA, Falardeau P, Freneau RT, Bates MD and Caron MG, Molecular cloning and expression of the gene for a human  $D_1$  dopamine receptor. *Nature* **347**: 72–76, 1990.
  13. Sunahara RK, Niznik HB, Weiner DM, Stormann TM, Brann MR, Kennedy JL, Gelernter JE, Rozmahel R, Yang Y, Israel Y, Seeman P and O'Dowd BF, Human dopamine  $D_1$  receptor encoded by an intronless gene on chromosome 5. *Nature* **347**: 80–83, 1990.
  14. Monsma FJ, Mahan LC, McVittie LD, Gerfen CR and Sibley DR, Molecular cloning and expression of a  $D_1$  dopamine receptor linked to adenylyl cyclase activation. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* **87**: 6723–6727, 1990.
  15. Van Tol HHM, Bunzow JR, Guan HC, Sunahara RK, Seeman P, Niznik HB and Civelli O, Cloning of the gene for a human dopamine  $D_4$  receptor with high affinity for the antipsychotic clozapine. *Nature* **350**: 610–614, 1991.
  16. Sunahara RK, Guan HC, O'Dowd BF, Seeman P, Laurier LG, Ng G, George SR, Torchia J, Van Tol HHM and Niznik HB, Cloning of the gene for a human dopamine  $D_5$  receptor with higher affinity for dopamine than  $D_1$ . *Nature* **350**: 614–619, 1991.
  17. Leconiat M, Sokoloff P, Hillion J, Martres M-P, Giros B, Pilon P, Schwartz J-C and Berger R, Chromosomal localization of the human  $D_3$  dopamine receptor gene. *Hum Genet* **87**: 618–620, 1991.
  18. Lannfelt L, Sokoloff P, Martres M-P, Pilon C, Giros B and Schwartz J-C, The dopamine  $D_3$  receptor gene and schizophrenia. *Psychiat Genet* **2**: 16, 1991.
  19. Giros B, Sokoloff P, Martres M-P, Riou JF, Emorine LJ and Schwartz J-C, Alternative splicing directs the expression of two  $D_2$  dopamine receptor isoforms. *Nature* **342**: 923–926, 1989.
  20. Findlay J and Eliopoulos E, Three-dimensional modelling of G protein-linked receptors. *Trends Pharmacol Sci* **11**: 492–499, 1990.
  21. Strader DC, Sigal SI and Dixon AFR, Mapping of functional domains of the  $\beta$ -adrenergic receptor. *Am J Respir Cell Mol Biol* **1**: 81–86, 1989.
  22. Dal Toso R, Somner B, Ewert M, Herb A, Pritchell DB, Bach A, Shivers BD and Seeburg PH, The dopamine  $D_2$  receptor: Two molecular forms generated by alternative splicing. *EMBO J* **8**: 4025–4034, 1989.
  23. Monsma FJ, McVittie LD, Gerfen CR, Manhan LC and Sibley DR, Multiple  $D_2$  dopamine receptors produced by alternative RNA splicing. *Nature* **342**: 926–929, 1989.
  24. Martres M-P, Sokoloff P, Giros B and Schwartz J-C, Effects of dopaminergic transmission interruption on the  $D_2$  receptor isoforms in various cerebral tissues. *J Neurochem*, in press.
  25. Giros B, Martres M-P, Pilon C, Sokoloff P and Schwartz J-C, Shorter variants of the  $D_3$  dopamine receptor produced through various patterns of alternative splicing. *Biochem Biophys Res Commun* **176**: 1584–1592, 1991.
  26. Bouthenet M-L, Souil E, Martres M-P, Sokoloff P, Giros B and Schwartz J-C, Localization of dopamine  $D_3$  receptor RNA in the rat brain using *in situ* hybridization histochemistry: Comparison with dopamine  $D_2$  receptor mRNA. *Brain Res* **564**: 203–219, 1991.
  27. Freneau RT Jr, Duncan GE, Fornaretto M-G, Dearth A, Gingrich JA, Breese GR and Caron MG, Localization of  $D_1$  dopamine receptor mRNA in brain supports a role in cognitive, affective, and neuroendocrine aspects of dopaminergic neurotransmission. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* **88**: 3772–3776, 1991.
  28. Meador-Woodruff JH, Mansour A, Bunzow JR, Van Tol HHM, Watson SJ and Civelli O, Distribution of  $D_2$  dopamine receptor mRNA in rat brain. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* **86**: 7625–7628, 1989.
  29. Björklund A and Lindvall O, Dopamine-containing systems in the CNS. In: *Handbook of Chemical Neuroanatomy* (Eds. Björklund A and Hökfelt T), Vol. 2, pp. 55–122. Elsevier, Amsterdam, 1984.
  30. Martres M-P, Bouthenet M-L, Sales N, Sokoloff P and Schwartz J-C, Widespread distribution of brain dopamine receptors evidenced with [ $^{125}$ I]iodosulpride, a highly selective ligand. *Science* **228**: 752–755, 1985.
  31. Wolf ME and Roth RH, Dopamine autoreceptors. In: *Dopamine Receptors* (Eds. Creese I and Fraser CM), Vol. 8, pp. 45–96. Alan R. Liss, New York, 1987.
  32. Svensson K, Johansson AM, Magnusson T and Carlsson A, (+)-AJ 76 and (+)-UH 232: Central stimulants acting as preferential dopamine autoreceptor antagonists. *Naunyn Schmiedeberg Arch Pharmacol* **334**: 234–245, 1986.
  33. Vallar L and Meldolesi J, Mechanisms of signal transduction at the dopamine  $D_2$  receptor. *Trends Pharmacol Sci* **10**: 74–77, 1989.
  34. Piomelli D, Pilon C, Giros B, Sokoloff P, Martres M-P and Schwartz J-C, Dopamine activation of the arachidonic acid cascade via a modulatory mechanism as a basis for  $D_1/D_2$  receptor synergism. *Nature* **353**: 164–167, 1991.
  35. Kanterman RY, Mahan LC, Briley EM, Monsma FJ Jr, Sibley DR, Axelrod J and Felder CC, Transfected  $D_2$  dopamine receptors mediate the potentiation of arachidonic acid release in Chinese hamster ovary cells. *Mol Pharmacol* **39**: 364–369, 1991.
  36. Tiberi M, Jarvie KR, Siloia C, Falardeau P, Gingrich JA, Godinot N, Bertrand L, Yang-Feng TL, Freneau RT and Caron MG, Cloning, molecular characterization and chromosomal assignment of a gene encoding a second  $D_1$  receptor subtype: Differential expression pattern in rat brain compared with the  $D_{1A}$  receptor. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* **88**: 7491–7495, 1991.