

Novel Dopamine D2 Receptor Signaling through Proteins Interacting with the Third Cytoplasmic Loop

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Abstract The diverse activities of dopamine D2-like receptors, including D2, D3, and D4 receptors, are mediated by proteins that interact with the third cytoplasmic loop and regulate receptor signaling, receptor trafficking, and apoptosis. Such interacting proteins include calmodulin, the *N*-methyl-D-aspartate receptor 2B subunit, calcium/calmodulin-dependent protein kinase II, prostate apoptosis response-4, and β -arrestins, which regulate receptor signaling and the pharmacological action through D2 receptor. The gene encoding the D2 receptor gives rise to two isoforms, termed the dopamine D2 receptor long isoform (D2L) and the dopamine D2 receptor short isoform; the latter lacks 29 amino acids of the D2L receptor within the third cytoplasmic loop. In this review, we first focus on novel functions of the hetero-oligomeric D1/D2 and D2/adenosine A_{2A} receptors. We next discuss novel signaling through proteins interacting with the D2 receptor third cytoplasmic loop and define the function of a novel binding protein, heart-type fatty acid binding protein, which interacts with the D2L third cytoplasmic loop.

Keywords Dopamine D2 receptor · Hetero-oligomeric D2 receptor · Heart-type fatty acid binding protein · CaMKII

Abbreviations

ACh	Acetylcholine
CaM	Calmodulin
CaMKII	Calcium/calmodulin-dependent protein kinase II

DAT	Dopamine transporter
DHA	Docosahexaenoic acid
EPA	Eicosapentaenoic acid
Glu	Glutamate
H-FABP	Heart-type fatty acid binding protein
LCPUFA	Long chain polyunsaturated fatty acid
LTP	Long-term potentiation
MSN	Medium-sized spiny neuron
NMDA	<i>N</i> -methyl-D-aspartate
NR2B	NMDA receptor 2B subunit
NSF	<i>N</i> -ethylmaleimide-sensitive factor
Par-4	Prostate apoptosis response-4

Introduction

In the central nervous system, dopamine controls psychomotor functions such as locomotion, cognition, and emotion through diverse dopamine receptors. Dysregulation of dopamine release and receptor activity account for neuropsychotic disorders such as Parkinson's disease and schizophrenia. Dopamine receptors are members of the seven transmembrane and trimeric GTP-binding protein-coupled receptor (GPCR) family and are classified into distinct subfamilies, namely, dopamine D1-like (D1 and D5) and dopamine D2-like (D2, D3, and D4), based on pharmacological properties, sequence homology, and structure [1]. D1-like receptors exhibit short third cytoplasmic loops and very long carboxyl-terminal intracellular tails, while D2-like receptors exhibit long third intracellular loops and short carboxyl-terminal intracellular tails. D1-like receptors activate adenylyl cyclase by coupling to G_s protein. By contrast, D2-like receptors are coupled to pertussis toxin-sensitive G_{i/o} proteins and signal through several pathways,

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such as inhibition of adenylyl cyclase, activation of K^+ channels, inhibition of Ca^{2+} channels, or stimulation of Na^+/H^+ anti-porters [2]. However, D1 and D2 receptor signaling is complicated by the existence of hetero-oligomeric receptors such as D1/D2 and D5/D2 receptors, both of which account for diverse calcium signaling [3, 4]. Activation of D1/D2 hetero-oligomer receptors expressed in HEK-293 T cells is coupled with $G_{q/11}$ protein, thereby activating a phospholipase C-mediated calcium signal. Expression of D5 receptor alone promotes marked elevation of intracellular calcium levels from intracellular and extracellular compartments. Activation of D5/D2 hetero-oligomer receptors, however, suppresses D5 receptor-stimulated intracellular calcium mobilization [4]. D2 receptors also signal through the extensively studied extracellular signal-regulated kinase (ERK) pathway through transactivation of the platelet-derived growth factor (PDGF) receptor, which is also coupled to $G_{i/o}$ protein [5].

Among dopamine receptor subtypes, D2 receptor is the most extensively studied, since all antipsychotic drugs used clinically act as D2 receptor antagonists in the mesolimbic dopamine system, and the ability of these drugs to block D2 receptor closely correlates with antipsychotic therapeutic action in schizophrenia. The D2 receptor exists as two alternatively spliced isoforms—the long isoform (D2L) and the short isoform (D2S)—which differ in a 29 amino acid insert in the third cytoplasmic loop [6]. Human D2 receptors reportedly have a polymorphism changing serine to cysteine at amino acid 311 of the D2L third cytoplasmic loop [7]. That variant is reportedly associated with schizophrenia [8], although studies have not yet confirmed these reports [9]. Pharmacologically, the human D2 receptor Ser311Cys variant has been shown to be less effective in inhibiting cyclic AMP accumulation than is the wild-type D2 receptor when expressed in Chinese hamster ovary cells [10]. A recent study characterized a single nucleotide polymorphism within the D2 receptor gene in intron 6, rs1076560 (G>T), in postmortem human striatum and prefrontal cortex [11]. Compared to the GG genotype in humans, the GT genotype is associated with relatively lower expression of D2S receptor mRNA in prefrontal cortex and striatum, as well as with significantly reduced performance on a cognitive task [11].

In this review, we first document the pathophysiological relevance of calcium and ERK signaling through the D2 receptor and its hetero-oligomerization with other GPCRs such as D1, D5, and adenosine A_{2A} receptors. We then summarize the modulatory roles of proteins interacting with the third cytoplasmic loop of the D2 receptor in brain. Understanding the functions of hetero-oligomerization and D2-interacting proteins should lead to development of novel therapeutics for neuropsychiatric disorders related to dopamine system dysfunction.

Calcium Signaling of Hetero-Oligomeric Complexes Containing the D2 Receptor

Interestingly, D1 (or D5) and D2 receptors form functional hetero-oligomeric complexes in vitro and in vivo [3]. The D1/D2 hetero-oligomer activates calcium signaling through a novel $G_{q/11}$ protein-linked phospholipase C [3]. Combined stimulation with D1 and D2 full agonists such as SKF38393 and quinpirole, respectively, causes a robust increase in intracellular Ca^{2+} concentration through $G_{q/11}$ signaling. The physiological relevance of D1/D2 receptor hetero-oligomers is documented in neurons found in several brain regions. In cortical neurons cultured from fetal rat cortex, most pyramidal-like neurons express both D1 and D2 receptors and form D1/D2 receptor complexes. Importantly, long-term incubation with high concentrations of dopamine (100 μ M) or SKF83959 (50 μ M), a D1/D2 hetero-oligomer receptor agonist, significantly induces neuronal apoptosis [12]. D1/D2 hetero-oligomer receptor-induced apoptosis is associated with calcium elevation and generation of reactive oxygen species, followed by caspase 3/7 activation and mitochondrial cytochrome C release, suggesting involvement of a dopamine-driven apoptotic pathway in neurodegenerative disorders. On the other hand, stimulation of cortical neurons with SKF38393 and quinpirole alone, which are D1 and D2 receptor agonists, respectively, has no apoptotic effect through D1/D2 hetero-oligomeric receptors [12]. Since prolonged incubation with high concentrations of dopamine is required to trigger apoptosis, D1/D2 hetero-oligomeric receptor-induced apoptosis is likely related to neuronal loss seen in schizophrenia and/or Parkinson's patients. In addition, overactivation of ERK signaling through D1/D3 hetero-oligomer by chronic L-DOPA treatment is known to be causative for L-DOPA-induced dyskinesia, a severe motor side effect, in which D3 receptor mediates an increased efficiency of D1 receptor coupling to adenylyl cyclase in the striatum [13].

D1/D2 hetero-oligomeric receptor signaling in the striatum and nucleus accumbens is a crucial factor in drug abuse. In the nucleus accumbens and caudate putamen, D1/D2 hetero-oligomers are expressed in a subset of medium spiny neurons (MSNs) that express both dynorphin and enkephalin [14]. In these regions, D1/D2 hetero-oligomers are also expressed in the termini of corticostriatal glutamatergic neurons that innervate the cell body of MSNs. Fluorescence resonance energy transfer methods using fluorophore-tagged D1 and D2 receptors show significant functional relevance of D1/D2 hetero-oligomers in presynaptic nerve terminals in the nucleus accumbens and caudate putamen. In addition, increased numbers of striatal D1/D2 hetero-oligomer receptors are observed after amphetamine treatment, an activity likely related to amphetamine-induced behavioral sensitization [14].

The D2 hetero-oligomeric receptor with the adenosine A_{2A} receptor has also been extensively studied in the striatum [15]. In striatal neurons, A_{2A} and D2 hetero-oligomers are highly expressed in enkephalin-positive GABAergic MSNs [16]. Patch-clamp experiments demonstrate that D2 receptor stimulation suppresses *N*-methyl-D-aspartate (NMDA)-induced depolarized plateau potential in MSN neurons, and A_{2A} receptor stimulation reverses D2 receptor-mediated suppression. Notably, an inhibitory peptide (SAQEpS peptide) disrupting A_{2A} and D2 dimerization blocks A_{2A} receptor modulation, suggesting that these heterodimers function *in vivo* to modulate responses to glutamate in enkephalin-positive GABAergic MSNs [17]. These findings are of interest because the A_{2A} receptor has become an attractive target for development of therapeutics for Parkinson's disease [18].

As noted, Arg-rich domains of the N-terminal portion of the third cytoplasmic loop of D2 receptor are binding sites for both calmodulin (CaM) and the A_{2A} receptor C-terminus. CaM overexpression does not inhibit A_{2A} –D2 receptor heterodimerization but rather CaM binds to the C-terminus of the A_{2A} receptor in the A_{2A} –D2 dimer [19]. Such Ca^{2+} /CaM binding enhances D2 receptor agonist-induced ERK activation but inhibits A_{2A} receptor-induced ERK activation [15]. However, the pharmacological relevance of ERK activation through A_{2A} –D2 receptor heterodimers remains unclear.

Regulation of Dopamine D2 Receptor Function through its Third Cytoplasmic Loop: Role of CaM, NR2B, and CaMKII

In hetero-oligomeric receptors composed of D2 receptor, the third cytoplasmic loop of D2 receptor and proteins that interact with this region is critical to define intracellular signaling, such as through ERK or calcium/CaM-dependent signaling. We first focus on CaM, *N*-methyl-D-aspartate receptor 2B subunit (NR2B), and calcium/calmodulin-dependent protein kinase II (CaMKII). CaM acts as a cellular Ca^{2+} sensor to activate ion channels and enzymes that regulate the cell cycle, cytoskeletal organization, and development. Bofill-Cardona et al. report a CaM-binding motif located in the N-terminus of the third cytoplasmic loop of D2 receptor at residues I210 to V223 [20]. This motif exhibits consensus hydrophobic residues (Val, Ile) at I210, I215, and V223 [21]. Ca^{2+} /CaM binding to the receptor interferes with D2 receptor signaling by inhibiting receptor-mediated G protein activation. CaM does not perturb G protein recognition but impedes receptor-induced activation [20]. By contrast, CaM does not bind to the third cytoplasmic domain moiety of a glutathione *S*-transferase (GST) fusion with the D3 receptor (R210–P239) [22].

NMDA receptors comprise a family of ionotropic glutamate receptors playing a central role in synaptic plasticity and memory formation [23]. NMDA receptors form by assembly of the principal NR1 subunit with different modulatory NR2 subunits (NR2A–D). The carboxyl tail of NR2B selectively binds to D2 but not D3 receptors through an N-terminal 10 amino acid motif T225–A234 in the third cytoplasmic domain of D2 receptor [24]. Although the NR2B binding motif is adjacent to the CaM binding domain at I210–V223, it does not bind CaM, strongly suggesting that NR2B–D2 interactions do not affect CaM binding to the D2 receptor. However, NR2B–D2 receptor interactions disrupt NR2B–CaMKII interaction, inhibiting NR2B phosphorylation at S1303 by CaMKII [24]. Furthermore, NR2B–D2 interaction inhibits NMDA receptor-mediated currents in striatal medium-sized striatal neurons. Behaviorally, NR2B antagonists mimic the effects of D2 receptor agonists in enhancing cocaine-stimulated motor activity and stereotyped behavior [24].

CaMKII, a multifunctional protein kinase that regulates biosynthesis and exocytosis of neurotransmitters and synaptic plasticity, is highly expressed in the central nervous system, especially in the hippocampal formation [25]. CaMKII autophosphorylation converts it from a Ca^{2+} -dependent to Ca^{2+} -independent species. Elevation of intracellular Ca^{2+} levels in cultured neurons by NMDA receptor stimulation results in increased CaMKII autophosphorylation at Thr286 of the α subunit and Thr287 of the β subunit, with concomitant elevation of Ca^{2+} -independent activity. Increased CaMKII autophosphorylation is essential for long-lasting increases in synaptic efficacy seen following LTP in the hippocampus [26]. CaMKII α directly binds to D3 receptor fragments containing a 30 amino acid region from residues R210 to P239 at the N-terminus of the third cytoplasmic loop *in vitro* [22]. The CaMKII α interacting region binds to the CaMKII α catalytic domain. Furthermore, CaMKII α phosphorylates D3 receptor at Ser229 in the R210–P239 motif. In accumbal neurons *in vivo*, Ca^{2+} stimulates binding of CaMKII to D3 receptor and increases its phosphorylation, suppressing D3 receptor function [22]. In addition, the D1/D2 heteroreceptor agonist SKF 83959 activates CaMKII α *in vivo* in the mouse striatum [27]. Although cocaine-induced increases in MSN spine density are differently regulated in distinct D1 or D2 receptor-expressing neurons in the nucleus accumbens [28], D1/D2 oligomers also regulate spine density in a CaMKII-dependent manner in the striatum [29].

Prostate apoptosis response-4 (Par-4) is a leucine zipper-containing protein initially identified as a pro-apoptotic factor [30]. In the nervous system, Par-4 induction is linked to neuronal cell death in neurodegenerative diseases such as Parkinson's disease, Alzheimer's disease, and amyotrophic lateral sclerosis. Par-4 was shown to be a D2 receptor-interacting protein in a yeast two-hybrid screen of a human

fetal embryonic brain library using the third intracellular loop of human D2L receptor (I212–Q373) as bait [31]. Furthermore, *in vitro* binding assays identified the domain of D2 receptor interacting with Par-4 as the first 30 amino acid residues of the third intracellular loop (amino acid residues I212–K241). Since CaM binds to the D2 receptor in the same region (I210–V223), CaM likely competes for binding with Par-4 in a Ca^{2+} -dependent manner, which would result in reduced D2 receptor efficacy and relieve D2 receptor-mediated inhibition of cAMP signaling [31]. In addition, disruption of Par-4 and D2 receptor interaction in transgenic mice expressing a Par-4 mutant promoted an increase in depression-like behaviors in forced swim and tail suspension tests [31]. Par-4 expression levels in significantly depressed or schizophrenic patients are also significantly decreased compared to normal controls [32]. Taken together, Ca^{2+} /CaM competition with Par-4 on the D2 receptor is likely important in regulating the apoptotic effects of Par-4 on cells that express D2 receptor. These interactions between CaM and Par-4 may function in depressive and schizophrenia patients.

H-FABP is a Novel Protein That Interacts with the D2L Receptor Third Cytoplasmic Loop

As noted, proteins interacting with the D2 receptor third cytoplasmic loop have been identified using yeast two-hybrid systems and *in vitro* and *in vivo* binding assays. However, factors cited above interact with regions common to the third cytoplasmic loop of D2L and D2S receptors: the 29 amino acid insert (G242–V270) found only in D2L receptor does not participate in those interactions. Although functional differences between two isoforms remain unclear, a specific interaction of the D2L receptor with $\text{G}\alpha_{12}$ [33] and the differential subcellular localization of D2 receptor isoforms are evident [34]. The D2S receptor is mainly localized at the plasma membrane, whereas the D2L receptor is retained primarily around the endoplasmic reticulum and Golgi apparatus when expressed in COS-7 and HeLa cells [34]. In neuroblastoma NG108-15 cells, we confirmed different subcellular localization of two D2 receptor isoforms [35]. Significant Ca^{2+} -dependent signaling was observed in NG108-15 cells stably expressing D2L receptor following transfection as compared to D2S receptor [36]. Ca^{2+} -dependent signaling in D2L receptor-transfected cells is associated with nuclear CaMKII activation, thereby increasing CaMKII-dependent brain-derived neurotrophic factor (BDNF) expression in NG108-15 cells, suggesting that D2L/ $\text{G}\alpha_{12}$ -coupled signaling likely stimulates nuclear Ca^{2+} signaling in neurons. Overexpression of nuclear CaMKII δ 3 potentiates the BDNF gene transcription containing exon 4 in NG108-15 cells [36]. Since stimulation of the D1/D2 hetero-oligomeric receptor

causes robust Ca^{2+} mobilization, CaMKII likely functions in BDNF expression in the nucleus accumbens.

Using the yeast two-hybrid system, we have identified for the first time heart-type fatty acid binding protein (H-FABP, also named as FABP3) as binding to the 29 amino acid domain found only in the D2L receptor [35]. When D2L or D2S receptor is co-expressed with H-FABP in NG108-15 cells, overexpressed and endogenous H-FABP clearly co-localizes with only the D2L receptor in the Golgi apparatus and endoplasmic reticulum but not in the plasma membrane. In immunoprecipitation assays of transfected NG108-15 cells, we confirmed interaction between H-FABP with D2L receptor-YFP but not with D2S receptor-YFP. Brain-type FABP (B-FABP) did not bind to D2L receptor-YFP [35]. Likewise, in striatal cell extracts, immunocomplexes with the anti-D2L receptor antibody included H-FABP in wild-type mice but did not in an H-FABP knockout (KO) mice [37].

The striatal microcircuit is composed of MSNs that receive excitatory corticostriatal glutamatergic innervation, dopaminergic nigrostriatal fibers, and cholinergic interneuron terminals. Strong H-FABP immunoreactivity is detected in all cholinergic neurons in the mouse striatum (Fig. 1). H-FABP protein is also expressed in glutamatergic terminals in the dorsal striatum, whereas H-FABP is not present in dopaminergic terminals or in postsynaptic densities in dendritic spines of MSNs in the dorsal striatum. In H-FABP-expressing regions, D2 receptor is also present in cell bodies of cholinergic neurons and in glutamatergic terminals in the dorsal striatum [37]. Interestingly, H-FABP KO mice exhibit D2 receptor dysfunction, based on evaluation of dopamine-related behaviors [37]. Specifically, H-FABP KO mice show reduced responsiveness to methamphetamine (METH)-induced sensitization of locomotor activity compared to wild-type mice (Fig. 2). Enhanced haloperidol-induced catalepsy is also

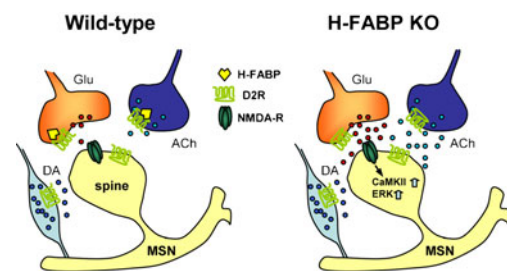


Fig. 1 Working hypothesis of altered neurotransmission in the dorsal striatum following H-FABP deletion. *Left*, the striatal microcircuit is composed of medium spiny neurons (MSNs) that receive input from excitatory corticostriatal glutamatergic projections, dopaminergic nigrostriatal fibers, and cholinergic terminals. D2R is present at the postsynapse (spine) of MSNs and in each terminal. However, H-FABP is present only in glutamatergic and cholinergic terminals. H-FABP binds to the third cytoplasmic loop of D2R. *Right*, following H-FABP deletion, D2R inhibitory effects are disrupted, resulting in increased Glu and ACh release from respective glutamatergic and cholinergic terminals and CaMKII and ERK activation at MSN postsynapses (from [37])

observed in H-FABP KO compared to wild-type mice (Fig. 2). Notably, catalepsy induced by the D1 antagonist SCH23390 is not altered by the lack of H-FABP, suggesting that only D2 receptor function is impaired in the absence of H-FABP. Consistent with aberrant potentiation of haloperidol-induced catalepsy, haloperidol-induced acetylcholine (ACh) release is markedly increased in the dorsal striatum of H-FABP KO mice without changes in haloperidol-induced glutamate (Glu) release (Fig. 3). However, depolarization-induced Glu release is enhanced in the dorsal striatum of H-FABP KO mice. Indeed, CaMKII and ERK activities are aberrantly increased in the dorsal striatum in the absence of drug stimulation, suggesting that basal Glu release from corticostriatal excitatory neurons innervating to striatal neurons is enhanced in H-FABP KO mice. In the striatum, haloperidol stimulates ERK phosphorylation in D2 receptor-expressing MSNs but not in D1-expressing MSNs [38]. Like H-FABP KO mice, D2 receptor KO mice show markedly reduced cocaine-induced behavioral sensitization [39] and increases in basal Glu release in the corticostriatal pathway [40]. Taken together, H-FABP expressed in ACh interneurons and terminals of glutamatergic neurons likely regulates ACh and Glu release in the mouse dorsal striatum through interaction with the D2L receptor

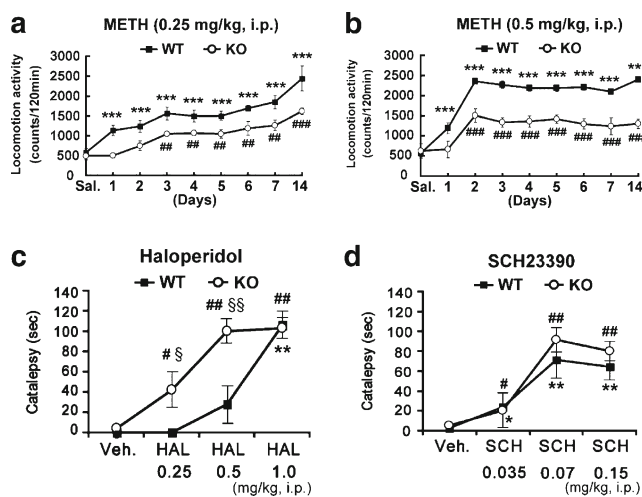


Fig. 2 Reduced behavioral responses to methamphetamine and haloperidol in H-FABP KO mice. **a**, **b** Behavioral sensitization to methamphetamine (METH) (**a** 0.25 mg/kg or **b** 0.5 mg/kg) in H-FABP KO mice was significantly reduced compared with wild-type mice. Each data point represents the mean \pm SEM. *** p <0.001, versus saline-treated (day 0) wild-type mice; ## p <0.01 and ### p <0.001, versus saline-treated (day 0) H-FABP KO mice. **c** H-FABP KO mice exhibit strong haloperidol-induced catalepsy compared with wild-type mice. Each data point represents the mean \pm SEM. ** p <0.01, versus vehicle-treated (Veh.) wild-type mice; # p <0.05, ## p <0.01, versus vehicle-treated (Veh.) H-FABP KO mice. § p <0.05, §§ p <0.01 in H-FABP KO versus wild-type mice at the same dosage. **d** SCH23390-induced catalepsy did not differ significantly between wild-type and H-FABP KO mice. Each data point represents the mean \pm SEM. * p <0.05 and ** p <0.01 versus vehicle-treated (Veh.) wild-type mice; # p <0.05 and ## p <0.01 versus vehicle-treated (Veh.) H-FABP KO mice. WT wild-type mice, KO H-FABP KO mice (from [37])

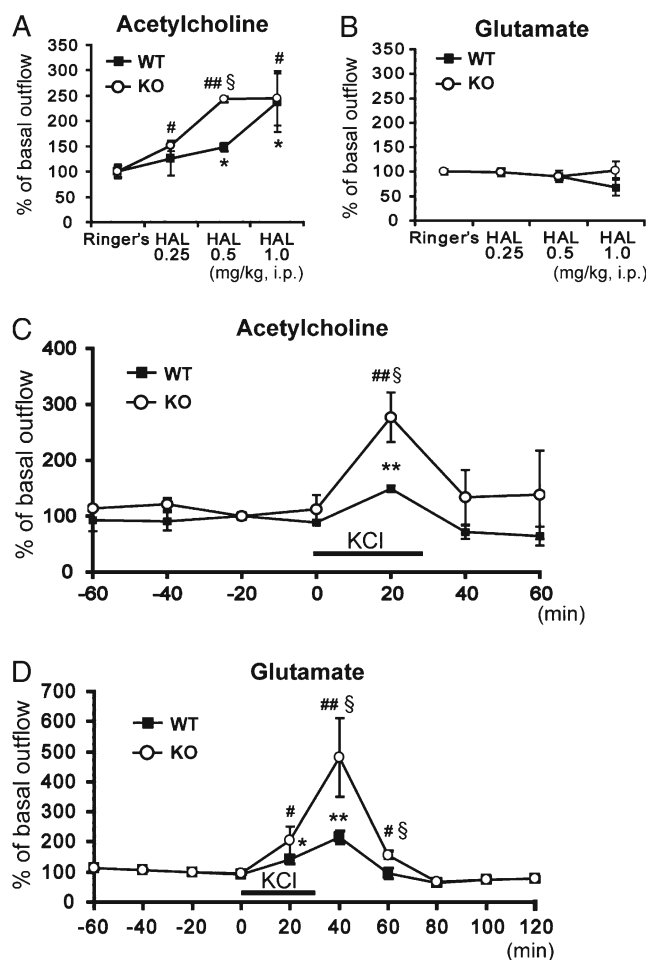


Fig. 3 Enhanced ACh and Glu release in the dorsal striatum in freely moving H-FABP KO compared to wild-type mice. **a** Extracellular ACh changes following intraperitoneal haloperidol (HAL) administration. H-FABP KO mice showed markedly increased haloperidol-induced ACh release compared with wild-type mice at a dosage of 0.5 mg/kg. § p <0.05, in H-FABP KO mice versus wild-type mice at the same dose. * p <0.05, versus basal levels in wild-type mice; # p <0.05 and ## p <0.01, versus basal levels in H-FABP KO mice. **b** Extracellular Glu changes following intraperitoneal haloperidol administration. **c** KCl depolarization-induced ACh release in the dorsal striatum. Each data point represents the mean \pm SEM. § p <0.05, H-FABP KO mice versus wild-type mice at the same dosage. ** p <0.01, versus basal levels in wild-type mice; ### p <0.01, versus basal levels in H-FABP KO mice. **d** KCl depolarization-induced Glu release in the dorsal striatum. Each data point represents the mean \pm SEM. § p <0.05, in H-FABP KO versus wild-type mice at the same dosage. * p <0.05 and ** p <0.01, versus basal levels in wild-type mice; # p <0.05 and ## p <0.01, versus basal levels in H-FABP KO mice. WT wild-type mice, KO H-FABP KO mice (from [37])

(Fig. 1). ACh release from interneurons is mainly involved in haloperidol-induced catalepsy, whereas Glu release from corticostriatal termini is not involved in haloperidol-induced catalepsy behavior in the dorsal striatum. Loss of H-FABP in ACh interneurons and glutamatergic terminals impairs D2 receptor regulation of ACh and Glu release in these regions. Overexpression of H-FABP in D2 receptor-expressing NG108-15 cells enhances ERK activity stimulated by

quinpirole, suggesting that enhanced striatal ERK activity in H-FABP KO mice does not directly account for enhanced catalepsy.

Notably, we have no clear evidences how the extracellular dopamine gain access to D2L receptor protein expressed in Golgi apparatus and/or endoplasmic reticulum, where D2L receptor should be coupled with G-proteins. There are several possibilities to activate intracellular signaling such as ERKs. Dopamine D4 receptor transactivated intracellular platelet-derived growth factor receptor (β PDGFR β), thereby stimulating ERKs [41]. The intracellular less maturely glycosylated PDGFR β is sufficient to facilitate D4 receptor-mediated ERK activation [41]. Similarly, cell surface deficient mutants of the V2 vasopressin receptor are intracellularly activated during its biosynthesis by a new class of non-peptide plasma membrane-permeable agonists [42, 43]. We also notice that immunoelectron microscopic studies of Golgi preparations show that both Gai-2 and Gai-3 are localized at multivesicular structure identified as Golgi complexes [44]. Taken together, internalized dopamine D2 receptor upon prolonged stimulation or cell permeable agonist including hydrophobic agonists such as quinpirole likely activates intracellular pooled D2L receptor associated with Golgi apparatus. Further extensive studies are required to define the physiological relevance of G-protein-coupled signaling complexes in the Golgi apparatus.

NSF, DAT, and Spinophilin Interact with the C-Terminal Region of the Third Cytoplasmic Loop of Dopamine D2 Receptors

N-ethylmaleimide-sensitive factor (NSF) is a homohexameric ATPase [45] that is an essential component of protein machinery responsible for various membrane fusion events, including intercisternal Golgi protein transport and exocytosis of synaptic vesicles. Direct interaction between the carboxyl tail of the AMPA receptor GluR2 subunit and NSF has been documented [46]. Studies employing co-immunoprecipitation, affinity purification, and in vitro binding assays also show that NSF directly binds to the third cytoplasmic loop of D2 receptor at F341-Q373 [47]. D2 receptor activation increases this interaction, resulting in decreased D2 receptor–GluR2 interaction. This result suggests that NSF regulates interaction between the two receptors, depending on the activation state of the D2 receptor [47].

The dopamine transporter (DAT) is a membrane-bound protein that facilitates reuptake of extracellular DA and is a target for drugs of abuse, including cocaine and amphetamine. DAT is a major presynaptic protein involved in regulating dopaminergic tone. Lee et al. provide evidence for direct interaction between the third cytoplasmic loop of D2R (I340-Q373) and DAT [48]. Utilizing transfected cells and GST fusion proteins, they employed the D2SR isoform

in experiments, as DAT interacts with a region common to both D2SR and D2LR. DAT recruitment to the plasma membrane, which is essential for its function, is promoted by D2–DAT interaction. Since mice injected with peptides disrupting the DAT/D2R association exhibit decreased synaptosomal dopamine uptake and increased locomotor activity, interaction between these proteins may contribute to dopaminergic tone and activity within the brain. The third cytoplasmic loop of D2 receptor binds to spinophilin, a protein phosphatase-1 (PP-1)-binding protein that interacts in the postsynaptic density with AMPA receptors through its PDZ domain [49]. Spinophilin regulates spine density and morphology through F-actin binding [50]. Indeed, dopaminergic termini innervate the corticostriatal excitatory pathways and modulate spine morphology through the D2 receptor/spinophilin/protein phosphatase-1 complex [51].

Novel D2 Receptor-Dependent Akt Signaling through β -Arrestin 2 Interaction

β -Arrestin 1 and β -arrestin 2 function in desensitization of G-protein-coupled receptors (GPCRs) after phosphorylation by GPCR kinases (GRKs). Since β -arrestin 1 or β -arrestin 2 KO mice show reduced responsiveness to dopamine receptor agonists, β -arrestins likely play a critical role in psychomotor behaviors through regulation of receptor internalization in a GRK-dependent manner. β -Arrestin 1 KO mice show reduced responsiveness to cocaine [52], whereas β -arrestin 2 KO mice exhibit blunted locomotor activity in response to amphetamine and morphine [53]. β -Arrestin 2 interacts with the DRY motif in the second cytoplasmic loop of dopamine receptors [54]. Upon phosphorylation of the C-terminal tail of GPCRs, β -arrestin binds GPCR and recruits dynamin and clathrin to activate the endocytotic pathway. The internalized GPCR/ β -arrestin complex also triggers ERK activation. Moreover, prolonged D2 receptor stimulation leads to dephosphorylation of Akt (Thr308), decreasing its activity. Amphetamine-induced D2 receptor activation promotes complex formation between Akt and PP2A through β -arrestin 2 as a scaffold protein, triggering dephosphorylation of Akt (Thr308), which is required for Akt activity. Reduced Akt activity leads to activation of glycogen synthase kinase-3 β , which is significantly involved in neurological and psychiatric disorders, such as Alzheimer's disease and schizophrenia [55].

Fabps Are Targets for Long Chain Polyunsaturated Fatty Acids

Schizophrenic patients exhibit significantly lower levels of long chain polyunsaturated fatty acids (LCPUFAs),

including arachidonic acid (AA), eicosapentaenoic acid (EPA), and docosahexaenoic acid (DHA) in red blood cells [56]. Several clinical studies indicate that oral administration of EPA can improve emotional and cognitive function in these patients [57]. Likewise, AA [58] and DHA [59] supplementation can improve cognitive dysfunction seen in disorders such as Alzheimer's disease and schizophrenia. Since LCPUFAs are insoluble in an aqueous environment, FABPs are essential to function as cellular shuttles to transport LCPUFAs to appropriate intracellular compartments. Small 14–15-kDa cytoplasmic FABPs belong to a family consisting of at least 13 different widely distributed proteins. Among various FABPs, brain- (B-), epidermal- (E-), and heart- (H-) type FABPs are all expressed in the brain [60]. Indeed, lack of H-FABP reduces AA content in phosphatidyl inositol in brain phospholipid fractions [61]. B-FABP knockdown by small interfering RNA in cortical neuroepithelial cells impairs cell proliferation and promotes neuronal differentiation [62]. B-FABP KO mice show abnormalities in emotional behavior, decreased neurogenesis in the dentate gyrus, and impaired prepulse inhibition [63]. Given phenotypes exhibited by H-FABP KO mice in our study, the crucial role of H-FABP in D2L receptor signaling may explain the clinical relevance of LCPUFAs in ameliorating emotional and cognitive behaviors seen in schizophrenia and Alzheimer's diseases. Since H-FABP is highly expressed in a subset of neurons in the medial prefrontal cortex and hippocampus (unpublished observations), our goal should be to define phospholipid composition/metabolism and dopamine D2 receptor signaling in H-FABP-positive neurons to further understand the physiological relevance of H-FABP in D2 receptor function.

Conclusion

Notably, the activities of dopamine D2 receptor are mediated not only by heterotrimeric G proteins but also by proteins interacting specifically with the third cytoplasmic loop. Interaction with NR2B, calmodulin, CaMKII, Par-4, DAT, NSF, and spinophilin likely mediates synaptic plasticity related to memory and emotional behaviors. These interacting proteins also modulate function of hetero-oligomeric receptors with other GPCRs. Ca^{2+} -dependent signaling through D1/D2 and D2/A_{2A} hetero-oligomeric receptors is particularly important for drug abuse and psychomotor behaviors. Prolonged stimulation of the Ca^{2+} -mobilizing receptors is likely implicated in neurodegenerative disorders including Parkinson's disease and schizophrenia. We also emphasize the physiological role of H-FABP interacting with the D2L receptor third cytoplasmic loop. Analysis of D2L receptor dysregulation in H-FABP KO mice should further promote our understanding of D2L receptor in

regulation of extrapyramidal symptoms through the nigrostriatal dopamine system.

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