

# MINIREVIEW

## Renal Dopamine Receptors and Hypertension

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Dopamine has been recognized as an important modulator of central as well as peripheral physiologic functions in both humans and animals. Dopamine receptors have been identified in a number of organs and tissues, which include several regions within the central nervous system, sympathetic ganglia and postganglionic nerve terminals, various vascular beds, the heart, the gastrointestinal tract, and the kidney. The peripheral dopamine receptors influence cardiovascular and renal function by decreasing afterload and vascular resistance and promoting sodium excretion. Within the kidney, dopamine receptors are present along the nephron, with highest density on proximal tubule epithelial cells. It has been reported that there is a defective dopamine receptor, especially D<sub>1</sub> receptor function, in the proximal tubule of various animal models of hypertension as well as in humans with essential hypertension. Recent reports have revealed the site of and the molecular mechanisms responsible for the defect in D<sub>1</sub> receptors in hypertension. Moreover, recent studies have also demonstrated that the disruption of various dopamine receptor subtypes and their function produces hypertension in rodents. In this review, we present evidence that dopamine and dopamine receptors play an important role in regulating renal sodium excretion and that defective renal dopamine production and/or dopamine receptor function may contribute to the development of various forms of hypertension. *Exp Biol Med* 228:134–142, 2003

**Key words:** natriuresis; proximal tubule; sodium transport; dopamine receptor; phosphorylation

### Physiologic Role of Dopamine and Dopamine Receptors in the Kidney

**Dopamine and Dopamine Receptor in the Kidney.** Dopamine produces its biologic effects through five genetically distinct dopamine receptor subtypes: D<sub>1</sub>, D<sub>2</sub>, D<sub>3</sub>, D<sub>4</sub>, and D<sub>5</sub> (1). These receptors are categorized into two groups known as D<sub>1</sub>-like (D<sub>1</sub> and D<sub>5</sub>, whose rat homologs

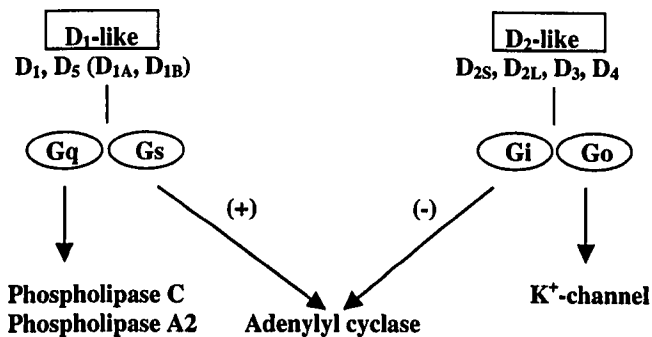
are D<sub>1A</sub> and D<sub>1B</sub>) and D<sub>2</sub>-like (D<sub>2</sub>, D<sub>3</sub>, and D<sub>4</sub>) dopamine receptors based on their ability to stimulate and inhibit adenylyl cyclase, respectively (Fig. 1). Of the cloned dopamine receptors, D<sub>1A</sub>, D<sub>1B</sub>, D<sub>2</sub>, and D<sub>3</sub> have been identified in the kidney (1–5). The D<sub>1</sub>-like receptors are present on the smooth muscle of blood vessels of most major organs, the juxtaglomerular apparatus, and on renal tubules (4–8). The D<sub>2</sub>-like receptor exists on the glomeruli, postganglionic sympathetic nerve terminals, zona glomerulosa cells of the renal cortex, and renal tubules (4–8).

The source of the dopamine that activates tubular dopamine receptors is believed to be nonneuronal. The tubular cells contain abundant dopa decarboxylase, which is necessary for synthesis of dopamine (9). The substrate L-dopa is filtered freely from the glomerulus and is actively transported into tubular cells, where L-dopa is converted to dopamine by the decarboxylation process (10, 11). Once dopamine is synthesized, it is transported out of the cells where it can interact with dopamine receptors (Fig. 2).

**Physiologic Role of Peripheral Dopamine Receptors.** Since the discovery in 1964 that dopamine produces natriuresis and diuresis (12), a tremendous amount of progress has been made in understanding dopamine-mediated effects on renal and cardiovascular function. Selective D<sub>1</sub>-like receptor agonists cause hypotension, reduce afterload, increase blood flow to certain organs, and promote urinary sodium and water excretion. Selective D<sub>2</sub>-like receptor agonists produce hypotension, bradycardia, a decrease in afterload, and vasodilation in certain vascular beds (13, 14). The vasodilation and subsequent hypotension caused by D<sub>1</sub>-like receptor agonists such as fenoldopam result from activation of D<sub>1</sub> receptors located on various vascular beds (13, 14). On the other hand, compounds such as bromocriptine, a D<sub>2</sub>-like receptor agonist, cause vasodilation by activating prejunctional D<sub>2</sub>-like receptors located on postganglionic sympathetic nerve terminals and causing inhibition of norepinephrine release (13, 14). Therefore, the magnitude of vasodilation and subsequent hypotension seen

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## DOPAMINE RECEPTORS



**Figure 1.** Dopamine receptor subtypes and their second messengers; (+), stimulation; (-), inhibition.

with D<sub>2</sub>-like receptor agonists is dependent on existing sympathetic vasoconstrictor tone.

At higher doses dopamine also activates  $\beta$ -adrenoceptors and  $\alpha$ -adrenoceptors (15). Studies from our laboratory and others have shown that the natriuretic and diuretic response elicited by D<sub>1</sub>-like receptor agonists involves changes in intrarenal hemodynamics (increase in renal blood flow and glomerular filtration rates) as well as a direct tubular action (12, 16). At lower doses it is the direct action on renal tubules that accounts for the natriuresis and diuresis caused by selective D<sub>1</sub>-like receptor agonists (8, 13, 16, 17).

A positive correlation has been reported among sodium intake, renal dopamine production, and urinary sodium excretion both in experimental animals and humans (18, 19). Several studies have shown a role for dopamine in the regulation of sodium excretion during acute volume expansion as well as during acute increase in sodium intake (20–25). The increased sodium excretion seen in animals placed on high sodium intake is accompanied by an increase in urinary dopamine excretion (24) and a decrease in Na,K-ATPase activity in the proximal tubules (26). These effects of dopamine can be blocked by D<sub>1</sub>-like receptor antagonists (21, 22, 25, 26), suggesting a role for D<sub>1</sub>-like receptors in maintaining body sodium homeostasis during increases in sodium intake.

### Dopamine Receptor-Linked Cellular Signaling Pathways

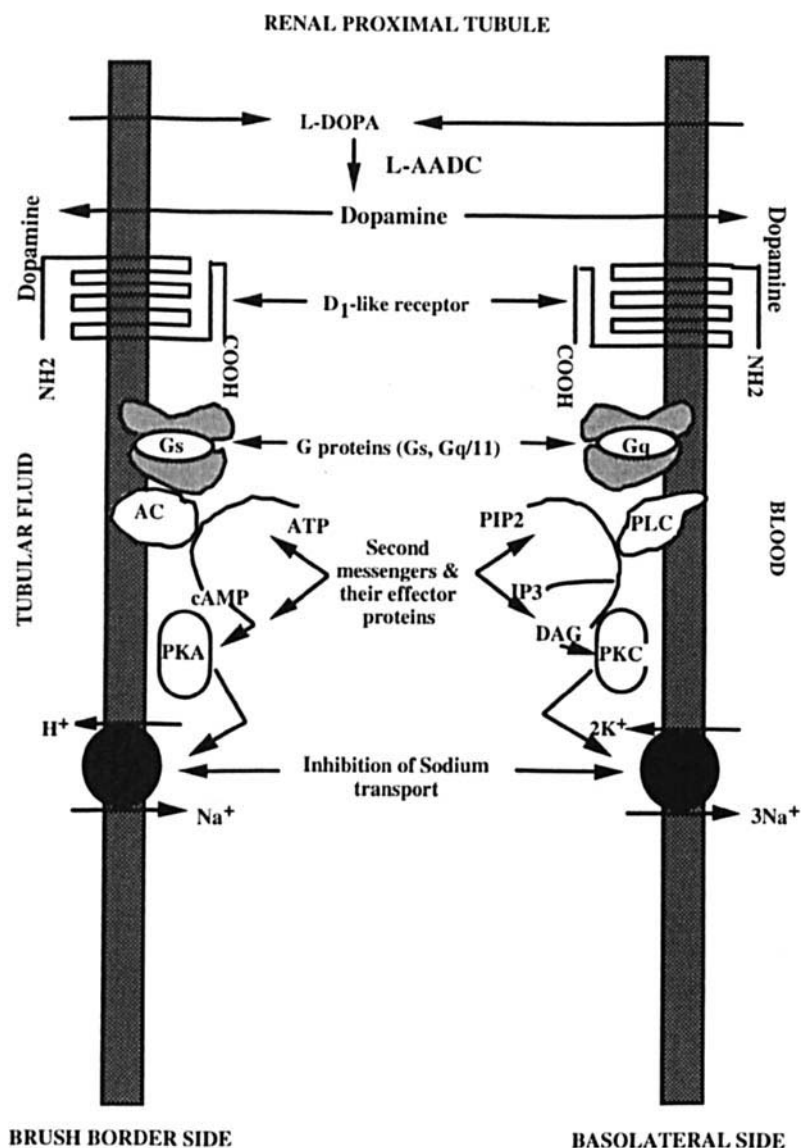
**Dopamine Receptor-Mediated Regulation of Sodium Transporters.** *Role of D<sub>1</sub>-like Receptors.* The Na,H-exchanger and the Na,K-ATPase provide a primary mechanism for the regulation of sodium anspost across the proximal tubules in the kidney (Fig. 2). These two sodium transporters have been identified as final effector proteins for the action of dopamine (27–31). Numerous studies in isolated tubular preparations have shown that dopamine produces inhibition in the activities of Na,H-exchanger and Na,K-ATPase, a mechanism by which dopamine reduces tubular sodium reabsorption and thereby increases sodium excretion. Both the D<sub>1</sub>-like and the D<sub>2</sub>-like receptors are

coexpressed in proximal tubules and other parts of the nephron (2–6, 8). It is the activation of D<sub>1</sub>-like receptors that causes inhibition in Na,K-ATPase and Na,H-exchanger activity in proximal tubules and in other parts of the nephron such as medullary thick ascending limb (mTAL) and cortical collecting duct (CCD) (28–30). Similar results were reported in fibroblast LTK cells transfected with D<sub>1A</sub> receptor, where the D<sub>1</sub>-like agonist fenoldopam caused inhibition of the Na,K-ATPase activity (32). These results are consistent with the observation that the activation of D<sub>1</sub>-like receptors promotes sodium excretion (16, 17, 25). Other studies have shown that simultaneous activation of both dopamine receptors, D<sub>1</sub>-like and D<sub>2</sub>-like, is required to promote natriuresis and to inhibit Na,K-ATPase activity in proximal tubules (33).

**Role of D<sub>2</sub>-like Receptors.** Unlike the D<sub>1</sub>-like receptor, the role of D<sub>2</sub>-like receptor in the kidney is not yet well defined. However, there are reports suggesting that the activation of D<sub>2</sub>-like receptors produces antidiuresis and antinatriuresis (34, 35). Consistent with this observation, the activation of D<sub>2</sub>-like receptors has been reported to cause stimulation of the Na,K-ATPase activity in rat renal proximal tubules as well as in LTK-murine cells transfected with the D<sub>2Long</sub> receptor cDNA (36, 37). Recently, we have found that D<sub>2</sub>-like receptors are linked to the stimulation of MAP kinase in rat renal proximal tubules and opossum kidney (OK) cells (37). Furthermore, we observed that the activation of MAP kinase by D<sub>2</sub>-like agonists might be a signaling mechanism responsible for the stimulation of Na,K-ATPase activity as well as mitogenesis, seen in the proximal tubule and OK cells (38). In a recent report, the activation of D<sub>2</sub>-like receptors in OK cells is shown to inhibit the Na,K-ATPase activity and to hyperpolarize the epithelial cells, actions associated with the opening of K<sup>+</sup> channels (39). This observation adds to the complicity of the D<sub>2</sub>-like receptor signaling and function in the kidney.

**Dopamine Receptors and G Proteins.** Dopamine receptors belong to the super-family of G-protein-coupled receptors. The D<sub>1</sub>-like receptors are coupled with G<sub>s</sub> and G<sub>q</sub> protein (40, 41). The D<sub>2</sub>-like receptors are linked to the pertussis toxin-sensitive proteins, likely with G<sub>i</sub> in the proximal tubule (36, 37).

**Dopamine Receptors and Adenylyl Cyclase/Protein Kinase A.** A correlation between dopamine infusion and urinary cAMP excretion has initially implicated a role for adenylyl cyclase as one of the second messengers involved in dopamine-mediated cellular effects (Figs. 2 and 3) (42). Later, dopamine was shown to inhibit the Na,H-exchanger via cAMP-dependent as well as cAMP-independent mechanisms in the brush border membrane vesicle preparations (28, 40, 43, 44). Dopamine-mediated increase in cAMP leads to activation of protein kinase A, which, in turn, causes phosphorylation of the Na,H-exchanger and subsequent inhibition of its activity (28, 45, 46). There are also reports implicating the role of the cAMP/PKA pathway in dopamine-mediated inhibition of the



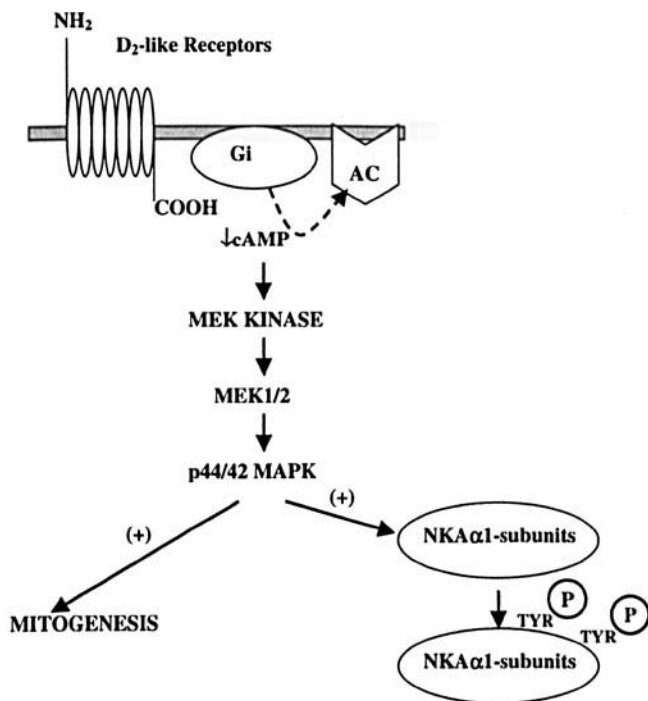
**Figure 2.** Hypothetical scheme of dopamine synthesis and D<sub>1</sub>-like receptor signaling pathway that causes inhibition of sodium transporters in proximal tubules of rat kidney. L-AADC, L-aromatic amino acid decarboxylase; AC, adenylyl cyclase; PLC, phospholipase C; PKA, protein kinase A; PKC, protein kinase C; PIP<sub>2</sub>, phosphatidylinositol bisphosphate; IP<sub>3</sub>, inositol trisphosphate; L-DOPA, L-dihydroxyphenylalanine; DAG, diacylglycerol.

Na,K-ATPase activity in proximal tubules (32, 33) and in other parts of the nephron, such as mTAL and CCD (31). Dopamine-related phosphoprotein-32 (DARPP-32), which is present in large quantities in mTAL (47), has also been reported to play a role in dopamine-mediated inhibition of Na,K-ATPase activity in this segment of the nephron (48).

The stimulation of D<sub>2</sub>-like receptors causes a decrease in cAMP via the G<sub>i</sub> proteins. Studies from our laboratories have shown that a decrease in cAMP is the first biochemical signal that leads to a cascade of events ultimately resulting in the stimulation of Na,K-ATPase (36).

**Dopamine D<sub>1</sub>-like Receptors and Phospholipase C/Protein Kinase C.** Numerous studies have provided evidence for the role of the phospholipase C (PLC) and protein kinase C (PKC) in dopamine-mediated inhibition of the Na,K-ATPase activity in the proximal tubule (Fig. 2) (49–54). Inhibitors of PLC and PKC have been shown to block the inhibitory effects of dopamine and D<sub>1</sub>-like agonists on the phosphorylation and activity of Na,K-

ATPase (49, 53, 54). Further studies have suggested that the activation of the D<sub>1</sub>-like receptors stimulates PLC by regulating the expression and the activity of PLCβ1 and PLCγ1 isoforms in the kidney cortex (55). Dopamine and D<sub>1</sub>-like agonists also stimulate the PKC activity in proximal tubules (56, 57). Further studies suggest that it is the PKCδ and especially PKCζ isoforms regulated by D<sub>1</sub> receptors that may be involved in dopamine-mediated inhibition of Na,K-ATPase activity (53, 58). The stimulation of these isoforms of PKC might be causing phosphorylation and, as a result, inhibition of the Na,K-ATPase activity (57, 59). The role of phosphatidyl inositide 3-kinase (PI3-kinase) is also demonstrated by PKC-mediated inhibition of the Na,K-ATPase activity in proximal tubular cells (59). Stimulation of PI3-kinase via activation of D<sub>2</sub> and D<sub>3</sub> receptors has also been reported (60, 61). Additionally, stimulation of PI3-kinase has also been associated with the stimulation of Na,K-ATPase activity (62), and the inhibition of Na,K-ATPase activity is the cause of the increase in PI3-kinase (63).



**Figure 3.** Hypothetical scheme of dopamine D<sub>2</sub>-like receptor signaling that causes stimulation of the MEK1/2–p44/42 MAPK pathway leading to the stimulation of the Na,K-ATPase activity and the mitogenic response in proximal tubules of the kidney.

**Dopamine D<sub>1</sub>-like Receptors and Phospholipase A<sub>2</sub>.** The role of PLA<sub>2</sub> has also been suggested in dopamine-mediated inhibition of Na,K-ATPase in the renal proximal tubule (64, 65). It is likely that D<sub>1</sub>-like receptor-mediated activation of PKC stimulates PLA<sub>2</sub>, which in turn releases arachidonic acid from membrane lipids. Arachidonic acid is further metabolized by cytochrome P450 to produce various metabolites, including 20-hydroxyeicosatetraenoic acid (20-HETE), which utilizes PKC to inhibit the Na,K-ATPase activity (66). In mTAL and CCD, the PLA<sub>2</sub> pathway interacts with PKA to inhibit Na,K-ATPase activity (31). In regard to the role of these signaling pathways, a recent study reported sequential activation of PKC/PLA<sub>2</sub> and PKA/PLA<sub>2</sub> pathways in the inhibition of Na,K-ATPase by dopamine (67). Early inhibition of Na,K-ATPase activity by dopamine involves the activation of PKC/PLA<sub>2</sub> pathways, whereas the late inhibition involves activation of PKA/PLA<sub>2</sub> pathways (67).

Although dopamine receptor-mediated regulation of sodium-transporting proteins is present throughout the nephron length, dopamine receptors located at the proximal tubule and CCD (compared to other segments of the nephron) seem to play an important role in the natriuretic response to exogenously administered or endogenously produced dopamine (26, 68). It is likely that the proximal portion of the nephron is of greater importance because it is the site of major fluid and sodium reabsorption, and it is this site at which dopamine receptor-mediated signaling is selectively defective and unable to regulate Na,K-ATPase and

Na,H-exchanger activity in various forms of hypertension in humans and animal models; this is discussed below.

**Dopamine D<sub>2</sub>-like Receptors and Tyrosine Kinase.** Dopamine D<sub>2</sub>-like receptor activation causes stimulation of Na,K-ATPase activity (Fig. 3) (36, 37). Recent studies from our laboratory designed to investigate the cellular signaling mechanism for this response have revealed the involvement of a tyrosine kinase pathway. Inhibitors of tyrosine kinase as well as MAP kinase blocked the stimulatory effect of bromocriptine on Na,K-ATPase activity in renal proximal tubules. Also, bromocriptine increased phosphorylation of p44/42 MAPK in proximal tubules, suggesting that D<sub>2</sub>-like receptor activation causes stimulation of Na,K-ATPase via a tyrosine kinase–p44/42 MAPK pathway in renal proximal tubules (69). Whereas D<sub>2</sub>-like receptors activate the p44/42 MAPK pathway and promote mitogenesis, D<sub>1</sub>-like receptors activate the p38 MAPK pathway, which is involved in apoptosis (70).

## Dopamine and Dopamine Receptors in Hypertension

**Dopamine Deficiency in Human Hypertension.** Deficiency in renal dopamine synthesis and/or secretion has been reported in various forms of human hypertension. Urinary dopamine excretion is lower in salt-sensitive hypertensive patients than in normal subjects or non-salt-sensitive patients on high sodium intake (71). Suppressed dopaminergic activity has also been shown in the prehypertensive stage of primary hypertension (72, 73). Reduced dopaminergic activity has also been observed in young normotensive subjects with an apparent family history of hypertension before any evidence of hypertension emerged (73, 74). The exact mechanism for the renal dopaminergic deficiency in the human primary hypertension is not known. However, a defect in L-dopa-decarboxylase, the enzyme that catalyzes the conversion of L-dopa to dopamine, has been reported in a subject with a family history of hypertension (73–76). Other studies have shown a decrease in both the renal tubular uptake of L-dopa and the conversion of L-dopa to dopamine in a subgroup of salt-sensitive hypertensive patients (77). Because the suppression of renal dopaminergic activity has been observed in young normotensives with a family history of hypertension before any manifestation of the disease, it has been suggested that renal dopaminergic deficiency may contribute to the development of hypertension (78).

**Defective Dopamine Receptors in Human Hypertension.** Recently, a defective D<sub>1</sub>-like dopamine receptor (more specifically D<sub>1A</sub> subtype) has been reported in primary cells cultured from hypertensive human proximal tubules (79). The D<sub>1</sub>-like receptor agonist stimulated adenylyl cyclase activity in normotensive cells but was unable to stimulate the enzyme activity in hypertensive proximal tubule cells. Further studies suggest that the defect was receptor specific because adenylyl cyclase stimulation by parathyroid hormone was found to be similar in the cells

from both normotensive and hypertensive subjects (79). Furthermore, the D<sub>1</sub>-like receptor or adenylyl cyclase defect in human cells was suggested to be similar to the defects found in proximal tubules from animal models of genetic hypertension. The detailed molecular mechanism of the defect is discussed below. Interestingly, despite a defective D<sub>1A</sub> receptor in the proximal tubule, an exogenous dopamine infusion in essential hypertensive patients caused a natriuretic response (80). This suggested that the dopamine receptors located on the distal part of the nephron are up-regulated (81) and therefore offset the defective dopamine receptor function at the level of the proximal tubule. A recent study suggested that D<sub>1</sub> receptor gene polymorphism is associated with essential hypertension (82). In a group of essential hypertensive and normotensive patients, polymerase chain reaction was used to amplify the A-48G polymeric site in the D<sub>1</sub> receptor gene, and restriction analysis of the polymerase chain reaction product was used to score A and G alleles. This analysis showed that essential hypertensive patients possessing the G allele had a higher diastolic pressure than those lacking the G allele, suggesting that such a polyphosphism in the D<sub>1</sub> receptor gene may account for the higher diastolic blood pressure of essential hypertensive patients (82).

In another study reported by Felder *et al.* (83), they measured G protein-coupled receptor kinase 4 gene variants (GRK4 $\gamma$ A142V) in the renal proximal tubular cells obtained from essential hypertensive patients. They found that single-nucleotide polymorphism of GRK4 $\gamma$ , resulting in increased GRK activity, caused serine phosphorylation and subsequent uncoupling of the D<sub>1</sub> receptor from its G protein-effector enzyme complex in renal proximal tubule (83). Moreover, expressing GRK4 $\gamma$ A142V produced hypertension and impaired diuretic and natriuretic effects of D<sub>1</sub>-like agonist stimulation. These results led the authors to suggest a novel mechanism for the D<sub>1</sub>-receptor-coupling defect in the kidney that may explain the inability of the kidney to properly excrete sodium in genetic hypertension (83).

**Defective Dopamine Receptor in Hypertensive Animal Models.** There are several lines of evidence suggesting a defective dopaminergic system in the kidneys of Dahl salt-sensitive and spontaneously hypertensive rats (SHR). Similar to human hypertension, Dahl salt-sensitive rats produce less kidney dopamine and have a poor natriuretic and diuretic response in the event of sodium load (84–86). In addition to the dopamine production deficiency, defective D<sub>1</sub>-like receptor function has been reported in proximal tubules of Dahl salt-sensitive rats. The defect in D<sub>1</sub>-like receptors results in a loss of the ability of dopamine to regulate adenylyl cyclase activity (87, 88) and Na,K-ATPase activity in proximal tubules of salt-sensitive rats (89, 90). The SHR, as a model, has been extensively used to elucidate the mechanisms of the defective D<sub>1</sub>-like receptor function in proximal tubules. Dopamine production in SHR is normal or even increased (91, 92), but dopamine and

D<sub>1</sub>-like receptor agonist-mediated natriuretic and diuretic responses are diminished compared to normotensive control Wistar Kyoto (WKY) rats (93, 94). In 1989, Kinoshita *et al.* (95) reported that despite equal numbers of D<sub>1</sub>-like receptors and intact G protein-adenylyl cyclase complexes, dopamine and D<sub>1</sub>-like agonists stimulated adenylyl cyclase activity in proximal tubules of SHR to a lesser extent than in normotensive WKY rats. This suggested that the defect resided in the coupling of the receptor with adenylyl cyclase and that the G proteins and adenylyl cyclase were not themselves defective. The defect was specific to D<sub>1</sub>-like receptor because parathyroid hormone stimulated adenylyl cyclase equally in SHR and WKY rats (95). Also, it has been reported that D<sub>1</sub> receptors in the proximal tubule membrane from SHR were resistant to activation by the agonist, and this was most likely a result of the inability of the receptor to associate with G<sub>s $\alpha$</sub>  (41, 96).

In another study, the coupling of D<sub>1</sub> receptor to G<sub>s $\alpha$</sub>  and to Na,H-exchanger (NHE3) was examined in brush border membranes obtained from SHR and WKY rats (97). It was found that the inhibitory effect of D<sub>1</sub> receptor agonist on NHE activity in SHR was less than that seen in WKY rats and that GTP $\gamma$ S enhanced the inhibitory effect of a D<sub>1</sub> receptor agonist on NHE activity in WKY but not in SHR, suggesting an uncoupling of D<sub>1</sub> receptor from G<sub>s $\alpha$</sub> /NHE3 in SHR (97). It is also reported that the defect in D<sub>1</sub>-like receptor/adenylyl cyclase was organ (only in the kidney) and nephron segment (only in the proximal tubule) specific (98, 99). The major consequence of the decrease in the ability of dopamine to stimulate adenylyl cyclase in SHR is the subsequent failure to inhibit Na,H-exchanger in the hypertensive animals (100, 101). The decreased inhibitory effect of D<sub>1</sub>-receptor stimulation on Na,H-exchanger in SHR precedes the development of hypertension (101). These results led the authors to speculate that D<sub>1</sub>-like receptor genes or genes that regulate their function probably participate in raising the blood pressure in genetic hypertension (101). The stimulation of PLC and PKC by dopamine and D<sub>1</sub>-like agonist was also reduced in SHR, suggesting a defect in the coupling of D<sub>1</sub>-like receptor with G<sub>q/11</sub> proteins (102, 103). As a result of the defective coupling of D<sub>1</sub>-like receptor with G proteins and subsequent decreased stimulation of the associated second-messenger systems (adenylyl cyclase-PKA, PLC-PKC), dopamine and D<sub>1</sub>-like agonist failed to inhibit Na,H-exchanger and Na,K-ATPase activities in proximal tubules (49, 100, 101). The failure of dopamine and D<sub>1</sub>-like agonist to inhibit sodium transporters provides a mechanism responsible for the diminished natriuresis and diuresis in SHR in response to dopamine as well as the inability of SHR to excrete sodium in response to volume expansion (93, 94). The impaired D<sub>1</sub>-like receptor inhibition of Na,H-exchanger activity in the SHR preceded the establishment of hypertension (104).

Further studies in SHR revealed that they had lost high-affinity binding to the agonist (105, 106), and as a result, D<sub>1</sub>-like receptors were unable to interact with G proteins in

response to the agonist (41, 96). Limited sequencing of the D1A mRNA (equivalent to the third cytoplasmic loop of cloned D<sub>1A</sub> receptor, which is believed to be the G protein-interacting domain) revealed no mutation in the protein in SHR (99). However, there are a number of studies that provide a sequence of events suggesting a molecular basis for the defect in the D<sub>1A</sub> receptor (a D<sub>1</sub>-like receptor). The titration of the sulfhydryl groups present on D<sub>1A</sub> receptors revealed that sulfhydryl groups may be buried inside the receptor protein (107), which may be the result of posttranslational modifications or conformational changes in the receptor protein. In a recent study, Felder *et al.* (83) reported a greater agonist-independent phosphorylation of D<sub>1A</sub> receptor caused by the higher constitutive activity of GRK4. Furthermore, the greater phosphorylation of D<sub>1A</sub> receptor may also be contributed to by the decreased ability of the D<sub>1A</sub> receptor agonist (fenoldopam) to increase the dephosphorylating enzyme, protein phosphatase 2A, activity in the proximal tubule membrane of SHR (108).

#### Hypertension in Dopamine Receptor Knockout

**Animals.** Compelling evidence showing a relationship between defective D<sub>1A</sub> receptors or signaling system and hypertension comes from two sets of experiments: one on cross-breeds of normotensive and hypertensive rats and the second on mice lacking functional D<sub>1A</sub> receptors (109). In the F<sub>2</sub> generation from female WKY rats and male SHR crosses, the defective D<sub>1</sub>-like receptor function (inability of dopamine to inhibit Na,H-exchanger) in the proximal tubules cosegregated with the increased systolic blood pressure (>160 mmHg) and decreased ability to excrete sodium in response to a D<sub>1</sub>-like agonist infused into the renal arteries of the rats. The activation of D<sub>1</sub>-like receptors inhibited the Na,H-exchanger in rats of the same F<sub>2</sub> generation with systolic blood pressure <140 mmHg (109).

In another set of experiments, mutant mice were generated that were lacking functional D<sub>1A</sub> receptors. Compared to the control mice, both homozygous and heterozygous mice had greater systolic, diastolic, and mean arterial pressure. Renal tubules from homozygous mice had no binding sites for [<sup>125</sup>I]SCH23982, a D<sub>1</sub>-like ligand, and showed no stimulation of cAMP by dopamine (109). This provides a reasonable correlation between defective D<sub>1A</sub> receptor/signal transduction and the development of hypertension in mice. In addition to the observation made with D<sub>1A</sub> receptors, the disruption of D<sub>3</sub> receptors has also recently been shown to cause renin-dependent hypertension (110). However, the mechanism of hypertension caused by disruption of D<sub>3</sub> receptors is different from that caused by D<sub>1A</sub> receptors. The renal renin activity was much greater in mice lacking D<sub>3</sub> receptors (both homozygous and heterozygous) than in a wild-type control group. A single bolus dose of losartan, an angiotensin II AT<sub>1</sub> receptor antagonist, causes a decrease in systolic blood pressure in the homozygous mice to a greater extent and for a longer time than in the wild-type mice. During acute volume expansion, blood pressure was unchanged, GFRs were similar, and urine flow

increased to a similar extent in the wild-type and the mutant mice (both homozygous and heterozygous). However, the increase in sodium excretion was attenuated in homozygous mice compared to the control (110). There is evidence that shows that a physiologic and biochemical interaction exists between dopamine and angiotensin II receptors in the kidney (111–113). Intrarenally produced angiotensin has been shown to counteract fenoldopam-induced sodium excretion (111).

Also, it has been shown that both D<sub>1</sub>-like and D<sub>2</sub>-like receptor agonists cause a decrease in AT<sub>1</sub> receptor binding sites in proximal tubular preparations (112–114). Although the AT<sub>1</sub> receptor binding sites have not been measured in the D<sub>3</sub> mutant mice, it is possible that the absence of D<sub>3</sub> receptors might have caused an increase in AT<sub>1</sub> receptors in the proximal tubules along with the higher renin production. Recently, effects of D<sub>2</sub> receptor disruption has also been reported (115). The disruption of D<sub>2</sub> receptors caused higher systolic and diastolic blood pressure in mutant mice. Further study revealed that hypertension in D<sub>2</sub> receptor mutant mice resulted from an increase in  $\alpha$ -adrenergic and endothelin B (ETB) receptor activities, which produces vasoconstriction (115).

#### Concluding Remarks

There is clear evidence that dopamine is an important modulator of cardiovascular and renal function. A deficiency in dopamine production and/or a dysfunction in dopamine receptor contributes to various forms of hypertension in both humans and animal models. Recently, a study (83) revealed the molecular nature and the cause of the defect in D<sub>1</sub> receptor protein in proximal tubular cells of animals and hypertensive patients. This study further demonstrated that the defect in D<sub>1</sub> receptors might be corrected, in the proximal tubule cells obtained from hypertensive patients, by removing the cause of defect, namely, *in vitro* treatment of the cells with antisense GRK4 oligonucleotides (83). However, it is yet to be determined whether correction of the dopamine receptor, especially D<sub>1</sub> receptor, function would lead to a reduction in blood pressure in humans and experimental models of hypertension.

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