



Identification of a specific assembly of the G protein Golf as a critical and regulated module of dopamine and adenosine-activated cAMP pathways in the striatum

Denis Hervé^{1,2,3*}

¹ INSERM UMR-S839, Paris, France

² Université Pierre et Marie Curie, Paris, France

³ Institut du Fer à Moulin, Paris, France

Edited by:

Emmanuel Valjent, Université Montpellier 1 & 2, France

Reviewed by:

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Serge N. Schiffmann, Université Libre de Bruxelles, Belgium

*Correspondence:

Denis Hervé, INSERM UMR-S839, Institut du Fer à Moulin, 17, rue du Fer à Moulin, 75005 Paris, France.
e-mail: denis.herve@inserm.fr

In the principal neurons of striatum (medium spiny neurons, MSNs), cAMP pathway is primarily activated through the stimulation of dopamine D1 and adenosine A_{2A} receptors, these receptors being mainly expressed in striatonigral and striatopallidal MSNs, respectively. Since cAMP signaling pathway could be altered in various physiological and pathological circumstances, including drug addiction and Parkinson's disease, it is of crucial importance to identify the molecular components involved in the activation of this pathway. In MSNs, cAMP pathway activation is not dependent on the classical Gs GTP-binding protein but requires a specific G protein subunit heterotrimer containing G α olf/ β 2/ γ 7 in particular association with adenylyl cyclase type 5. This assembly forms an authentic functional signaling unit since loss of one of its members leads to defects of cAMP pathway activation in response to D1 or A_{2A} receptor stimulation, inducing dramatic impairments of behavioral responses dependent on these receptors. Interestingly, D1 receptor (D1R)-dependent cAMP signaling is modulated by the neuronal levels of G α olf, indicating that G α olf represents the rate-limiting step in this signaling cascade and could constitute a critical element for regulation of D1R responses. In both Parkinsonian patients and several animal models of Parkinson's disease, the lesion of dopamine neurons produces a prolonged elevation of G α olf levels. This observation gives an explanation for the cAMP pathway hypersensitivity to D1R stimulation, occurring despite an unaltered D1R density. In conclusion, alterations in the highly specialized assembly of G α olf/ β 2/ γ 7 subunits can happen in pathological conditions, such as Parkinson's disease, and it could have important functional consequences in relation to changes in D1R signaling in the striatum.

Keywords: D1 receptor, A_{2A} receptor, heterotrimeric G protein, cAMP pathway, extracellular signal-regulated kinase, Gnal gene, Parkinson's disease, cocaine

INTRODUCTION

Dopamine, probably the best characterized neurotransmitter involved in slow synaptic neurotransmission, plays a prominent role in a variety of brain functions, including motor control, motivation, short-term memory, and reward (Schultz, 1998). Five genes encoding dopamine receptors have been cloned in mammals (see Sibley and Monsma, 1992 for review). All these receptors belong to the superfamily of G protein-coupled receptors with seven transmembrane domains and the comparison of their amino acid sequence, pharmacological profile, and biochemical properties has revealed two distinct categories, named respectively D1- and D2-type dopamine receptors. The D1-type receptors, comprising D1 and D5 subtypes, are positively coupled to cAMP production whereas the D2-type receptors, comprising D2, D3, and D4 subtypes, are able to inhibit cAMP production (see Missale et al., 1998 review). The D1 receptor (D1R) is the most abundantly expressed dopamine receptors and is present in virtually all the brain areas innervated by dopamine neurons (Boyson et al., 1986). Consistent with its dense dopamine innervation, the striatum contains the highest concentration of D1Rs in the brain. Different approaches

using *in situ* hybridization, immunocytochemistry, and transgenic mice indicate that D1R in the striatum is highly expressed in a subpopulation of GABAergic medium spiny neurons (MSNs) projecting to the substantia nigra and entopeduncular nucleus (direct pathway of basal ganglia) and containing substance P and dynorphin as co-neurotransmitters (Gerfen et al., 1990; Le Moine and Bloch, 1995; Yung et al., 1995; Drago et al., 1998b; Gong et al., 2003; Lee et al., 2006; Bertran-Gonzalez et al., 2008). By contrast, D2 receptors are essentially present in the MSNs projecting to the globus pallidus and containing enkephalins (indirect pathway of basal ganglia). These neurons express abundantly the adenosine A_{2A} receptors that are able to stimulate production of intracellular cAMP (Schiffmann et al., 2007). In a recent study using transgenic mouse lines, it was estimated that about 50% of GABA MSNs express exclusively D1Rs and 35–45% exclusively D2 receptors (Bertran-Gonzalez et al., 2008). The population of MSNs co-expressing both D1R and D2 receptor, is low in the dorsal striatum and core of nucleus accumbens (about 5%) but is slightly higher in the shell of nucleus accumbens (17%; Bertran-Gonzalez et al., 2008; Hasbi et al., 2009; Matamales et al., 2009).

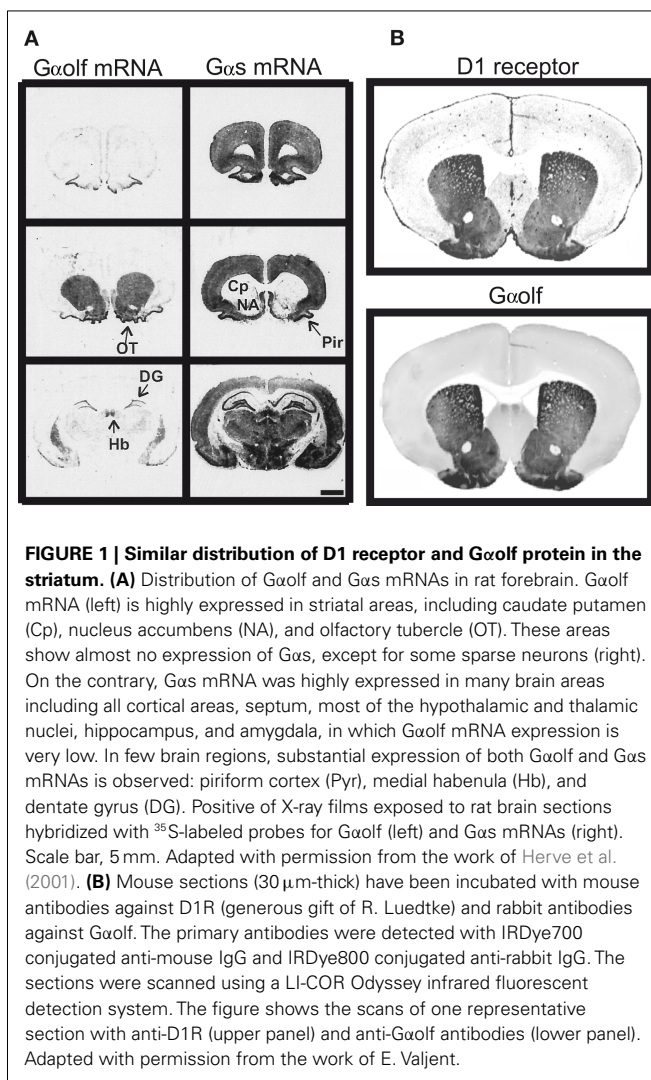
Pharmacological studies and investigations on D1R-deleted mice have shown the importance of D1R in mediating the effects of DA neurotransmission (Drago et al., 1998a; El-Ghundi et al., 2007). The actions of D1R require the participation of heterotrimeric guanine nucleotide binding proteins (G proteins) whose roles in diverse signaling pathways may be determined by their specific $\alpha\beta\gamma$ subunit combinations. These heterotrimeric G proteins are molecular switches in which the agonist-activated receptors catalyze the exchange of GDP for GTP on the α -subunit of heterotrimeric G proteins ($G\alpha$), which in turn engages conformational and/or dissociational events between the $G\alpha$ and dimeric $G\beta\gamma$ subunits (Bourne et al., 1991). In the case of D1R, it is well established that the GTP-bound $G\alpha$ subunit initiates the activation of adenylyl cyclase (AC) leading to the intracellular production of cAMP and stimulation of cAMP-dependent protein kinase (PKA) and others cAMP-dependent proteins (Kebabian and Calne, 1979; Hervé and Girault, 2005). An extensive body of evidence indicates that D1-type receptors also couple via $G\alpha_q$ subunits to phospholipase C (Mahan et al., 1990; Arnt et al., 1992; Wang et al., 1995; Lezcano and Bergson, 2002; Mannoury La Cour et al., 2007) but a debate exists to know if the receptors involved are *bona fide* D1Rs (Mannoury La Cour et al., 2007), heteromers of D1R and D2 receptor (Hasbi et al., 2009), or different receptors with D1-type pharmacological properties (Friedman et al., 1997). Here, we will review the present knowledge about the nature of the G proteins able to couple D1R to AC in the striatum and about the regulatory processes at the level of these G proteins that control the D1R-mediated signaling and its functional consequences.

$G\alpha_{OLF}$ ROLE IN THE COUPLING OF D1R AND A_{2A} RECEPTOR TO ADENYLYL CYCLASE IN THE STRIATUM

Since D1R is positively coupled to AC, a long-standing dogma stated that this action was mediated by the classical heterotrimeric stimulatory G protein containing the $G\alpha_s$ subunit. However, the $G\alpha_s$ expression is low in the striatum compared with that observed in many other brain areas (Figure 1A; Largent et al., 1988). In the striatum, $G\alpha_s$ is replaced by a high expression of $G\alpha_{OLF}$, an isoform of $G\alpha$ (Figure 1; Drinnan et al., 1991; Hervé et al., 1993) which was first discovered in the olfactory epithelium and found crucial for olfaction by mediating the coupling of olfactory receptors to AC (Jones and Reed, 1989; Belluscio et al., 1998).

In rodents $G\alpha_{OLF}$ is highly expressed in all the MSNs in the striatum including those bearing the D1R (Kull et al., 2000; Hervé et al., 2001). It is also expressed in cholinergic aspiny interneurons in the striatum. In human, high expression of $G\alpha_{OLF}$ was also detected in the striatum and its decrease in patients with Huntington's disease is a strong indication of its expression in the MSNs (Corvol et al., 2004). In the striatum of mice with a null targeted mutation of $G\alpha_{OLF}$ -encoding gene, AC activation in response to D1R stimulation is absent, which demonstrates clearly that the D1R acts through the $G\alpha_{OLF}$ protein to stimulate cAMP production (Zhuang et al., 2000; Corvol et al., 2001).

However, $G\alpha_{OLF}$ and D1R are not systematically associated in the various neuronal types. D1R is present in neurons that do not express high level of $G\alpha_{OLF}$, such as the neurons of prefrontal cortex. In these neurons, AC activation to D1 agonist is mediated through $G\alpha_s$ as indicated by the lack of alteration of this



response in $G\alpha_{OLF}$ -deficient mutant mice (Corvol et al., 2001). In the other hand, $G\alpha_{OLF}$ is present in high amount in the MSNs without D1R expression that project to the globus pallidus and contain D2 receptors. In these neurons, $G\alpha_{OLF}$ is involved in the positive coupling of adenosine A_{2A} receptors with AC since an A_{2A} receptor agonist dose dependently activates $G\alpha_{OLF}$ in striatal membranes (Kull et al., 2000) and the stimulatory effect of this agonist on AC activity is missing in the mutant mice deficient in $G\alpha_{OLF}$ (Corvol et al., 2001).

$G\alpha_{OLF}$ IS NECESSARY FOR DOPAMINE ACTION IN THE STRIATUM

Mice homozygous for null mutation in $G\alpha_{OLF}$ gene show a complete anosmia because of the crucial role played by $G\alpha_{OLF}$ in the transduction of the olfactory receptor at the level of primary olfactory neurons (Belluscio et al., 1998). This profound anosmia produces an important postnatal lethality (more than 80% of the mutant mice do not feed properly and die within 3 days after birth). The rare surviving homozygous animals exhibit reduction in body weight and they display a marked hyperactive

behavior, evoking a possible alteration of striatal functions (Beluscio et al., 1998). The psychostimulants, such as cocaine or D-amphetamine, produce in the striatum the activation of several D1R-dependent signaling events, including activation of PKA, extracellular signal-regulated kinase (ERK), or c-fos gene induction (Berretta et al., 1992; Valjent et al., 2000; Nairn et al., 2004). All these effects are absent when *G α olf* gene is deleted (Zhuang et al., 2000; Corvol et al., 2007), showing the crucial role played by *G α olf* in most of the known intracellular effects of D1R activation.

The D1 agonist-induced hyperlocomotor response is abolished in *G α olf* knockout mice, indicating that *G α olf* is necessary for behavior action of D1R stimulation (Zhuang et al., 2000). In addition, it is well established that the acute hyperlocomotion induced by cocaine is dependent on D1R stimulation (Drago et al., 1998a; Valjent et al., 2000). It is noteworthy that the acute locomotor response to cocaine is absent in *G α olf* knockout mice (Zhuang et al., 2000). Altogether, these observations demonstrate that acute responses to cocaine and probably other psychostimulants are highly dependent on *G α olf*-linked D1R signaling.

COMPARISON OF *G α OLF* AND *G α S*

G α olf shares 80% amino acid identity with *G α s* and the exon/intron structures of genes encoding *G α olf* and *G α s* (*Gnal* and *Gnas* respectively in mouse) are very similar, the main difference being the absence in *Gnal* of the alternatively spliced exon 3 of *Gnas* (Jones and Reed, 1989; Wadhawan et al., 2008). Both genes are characterized by the use of alternate upstream promoters and first exons giving rise to “extra-large” variants of the proteins (XL-*G α olf* and XL-*G α s*) in addition to the classically described proteins (Corradi et al., 2005). XL-*G α olf*, in which the N-terminal end of *G α olf* is replaced by a longer polypeptide, is able to couple D1R to AC in transfected cells because it retains all the functional domains of *G α olf*. In the human striatal areas, the expression of XL-*G α olf* mRNA is low, about 10-fold less than that of *G α olf* mRNA (Corradi et al., 2005). In striatal extracts of rodents, the protein is below the detection threshold in western blotting (personal observations). In the vicinity of the two alternatively used exons, both *Gnal* and *Gnas* locus contain CpG islands that could undergo differential methylation of DNA (Corradi et al., 2005; Wadhawan et al., 2008). DNA methylation most often results in repression of transcription and constitutes a hallmark of genomic imprinting. In the gene encoding *G α s*, differential methylation of CpG islands was reported in the alleles of maternal or paternal origins, and distinct transcripts are either biallelically expressed, maternally imprinted, or paternally imprinted (Weinstein et al., 2001). For instance, the XL-*G α s* mRNA is a transcript specific of the paternally derived allele (Plagge et al., 2008). It is possible that similar phenomenon exists for XL-*G α olf* mRNA but the specific imprinting that affects the maternal and paternal alleles of *G α olf* gene has not been precisely determined (Corradi et al., 2005).

The *Gnal* and *Gnas* genes are present in all the examined vertebrates, including mammals, amphibians, and fishes (Wadhawan et al., 2008). In contrast, studies in *Drosophila* indicate the existence only one *Gnas* ortholog (Wolfgang et al., 2001), suggesting that *Gnas* and *Gnal* result from a gene duplication after the divergence of vertebrates from invertebrates but before the divergence

of tetrapods from fishes. The time point of this event is estimated at –570 millions of years (Wadhawan et al., 2008).

G α olf displays some functional differences with *G α s*. Particularly, its affinity for GDP is lower and its deactivation after GTP-binding is more rapid (Liu et al., 2001). Because of these properties, *G α olf* has a higher constitutive activity than *G α s* *in vitro* (Liu et al., 2001), which may explain the decrease of basal AC activity in the *G α olf* knockout mice (Corvol et al., 2001). This relatively high constitutive activity of *G α olf* could result in a tonic AC activity *in vivo* leading to a constant activation of cAMP pathway in both striatonigral and striatopallidal MSNs.

Some evidence shows also that the percentage of AC activation is higher when receptor is coupled to *G α olf* than when it is coupled to *G α s* (Liu et al., 2001). Basically the signal-to-noise ratio for *G α olf*-coupled receptor appears considerably greater. In addition, because of its ability to deactivate more rapidly, *G α olf* could give rise to more transient activation of AC than *G α s*. It is conceivable that physiological functions of dopamine in the striatum require phasic AC activation and the fast deactivation of *G α olf* could contribute to rapidly restore responsiveness of MSNs between two dopamine stimuli. Adenosine signaling is generally regarded as a slow modulator regulating *A_{2A}* receptor-containing neurons in the striatum. However, evidence indicates that the formation of extracellular adenosine partly results from ATP released from nerve endings, which is dephosphorylated in adenosine by ecto-nucleotidases (Fredholm et al., 2005; Schiffmann et al., 2007). ATP is stored in synaptic vesicles together with most of neurotransmitters, including glutamate, and is co-released with the neurotransmitter upon nerve stimulation. Because *G α olf* provides high signal-to-noise ratio and rapidly deactivates, the *G α olf*-dependent signaling of *A_{2A}* receptor could mediate more time-limited actions than it is generally believed and could quickly adapt MSN functions to transient variations in synaptic input.

SPECIFIC ASSEMBLY OF *G α OLF*/β2/γ7 MEDIATES COUPLING OF D1R TO ADENYLYL CYCLASE

The regional expression of the γ7 subunit of G protein (*Gγ7*) in the brain was found to mirror that of D1R and *G α olf*, with a particularly high expression in MSNs (Watson et al., 1994), suggesting that *Gγ7* subunit selectively associates with *G α olf* to couple D1R to AC. In agreement with this hypothesis, the deletion of *Gγ7* gene in mutant mice causes an important reduction in the levels of *G α olf* and logically leads to drastic reduction of D1R or *A_{2A}* responses on the cAMP production (Schwindinger et al., 2003, 2010). In the *Gγ7* mutant mice, reduction of β2 subunit of G protein (*Gβ2*) was also observed and quantitative measurements have indicated that the decrease in *Gγ7*, *G α olf*, and *Gβ2* was very similar in term of molarity, strongly suggesting a specific assembly of *G α olf*/β2/γ7 heterotrimer enabling D1R coupling to AC in the striatal MSNs (Figure 2; Schwindinger et al., 2010).

Interestingly, in the mice with targeted deletion of *G α olf* gene, the levels of *Gγ7* remain normal contrasting with the selective and coordinated reduction of *G α olf* and *Gβ2* observed in the mutant mice lacking *Gγ7* (Schwindinger et al., 2010). Because the corresponding mRNAs are not altered, the simplest explanation is to postulate that *Gγ7* is required at a post-transcriptional level for the stabilization and/or trafficking of the *G α olf* and *Gβ2* proteins

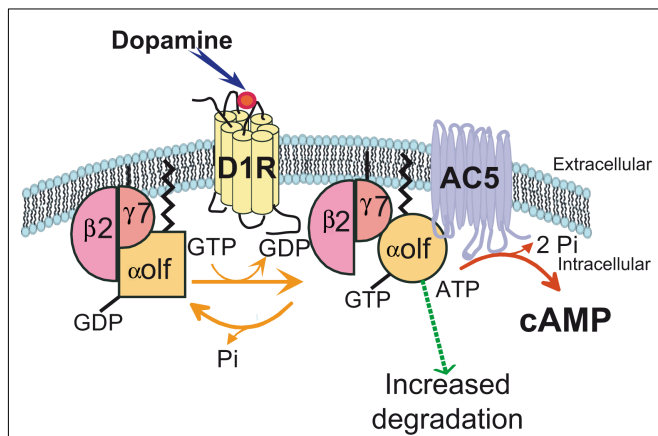


FIGURE 2 | A specific assembly of $G\alpha_{olf}$, $G\beta_2$, and $G\gamma_7$ subunits of G protein mediates the coupling of D1 receptor to adenylyl cyclase 5. The expression of $G\gamma_7$ subunit in striatal neurons recruits and stabilizes $G\alpha_{olf}$ and $G\beta_2$ subunits. They form a specific heterotrimeric protein that provides the signaling complex necessary for the coupling of D1R receptor to the adenylyl cyclase 5 (AC5), an isoform particularly enriched in the striatum. The D1R stimulation by dopamine activates the $G\alpha_{olf}/\beta_2/\gamma_7$ heterotrimer by triggering substitution of GDP by GTP in the $G\alpha_{olf}$ subunit and changes in the subunit conformation. The current data indicate that the $G\alpha$ activation does not necessarily cause its dissociation from $G\beta\gamma$ complex as it was thought previously (Bunemann et al., 2003). It has been proposed a “clamshell” model according to which activated receptor provokes movements in $G\alpha\beta\gamma$ complex that unmask previously buried interfaces and enable interaction of $G\alpha$ and $G\beta\gamma$ with specific effectors (Robishaw and Berlot, 2004). In this model, the $G\beta\gamma$ subunits are not shared among several α subunits but can remain associated with a specific pool of α subunit (Robishaw and Berlot, 2004). Such stable association may contribute to the specificity of $G\alpha_{olf}$ interaction with $G\beta_2\gamma_7$ complex. In addition, the activation of the heterotrimeric complex could increase its vulnerability to degradation processes. This effect could explain why the receptor usage reduces the $G\alpha_{olf}$ levels in striatal neurons.

to the plasma membrane. These results indicate that in the MSNs, the formation of the $G\alpha_{olf}/\beta_2/\gamma_7$ heterotrimer is a hierarchical process that begins by the production of $G\gamma_7$ subunits and the later recruitment of $G\alpha_{olf}$ and $G\beta_2$ subunits. These observations are surprising since MSNs express others types of γ subunits of G proteins, sometimes in higher abundance than $G\gamma_7$. The $G\gamma_7$ subunit appears to recruit selectively $G\alpha_{olf}$ and $G\beta_2$ subunits to form a highly specialized heterotrimeric G protein in the MSNs, refuting the notion that G protein subunits are largely interchangeable (Schwindinger et al., 2010).

Medium spiny neurons are specially enriched in type 5 AC (AC5; Glatt and Snyder, 1993) that provides around 80% of basal AC activity in the striatum (Lee et al., 2002; Iwamoto et al., 2003). These observations suggest that this AC isoform is associated with the $G\alpha_{olf}/\beta_2/\gamma_7$ heterotrimeric G protein in the MSNs. In agreement with this idea, the lack of AC5 in the striatum of mice homozygous for a null mutation of AC5 gene produces drastic decrease of $G\alpha_{olf}$ content in the striatum and AC activation in response to D1 agonist (Lee et al., 2002; Iwamoto et al., 2004). The mice deficient in AC5 display important deficit in appetitive pavlovian conditioning (Kheirbek et al., 2008) but surprisingly increased locomotor response to D1 agonist (Lee et al., 2002).

This paradoxical response is related to D1R stimulation since it is blocked by D1R antagonist, but its understanding remains unclear (Lee et al., 2002). It was hypothesized that the D1R-dependent behavior seen in AC5 knockout mice is related to non-AC effectors but the identification of these D1R-activated signaling pathways remains to be determined. The ERK pathway appears to be excluded since the AC5 knockout mice show a profound decoupling of D1R from downstream activation of ERK, similar to that observed on cAMP pathway (Kheirbek et al., 2008). It remains the possible implication of D1R coupled to phospholipase C in the striatum (Wang et al., 1995), or D1Rs independent from AC5 expressed in extrastriatal motor regions in the brain. Alternatively, the absence of AC5 in the striatum could produce profound alterations of other signaling pathways leading to an exacerbation of D1R-related responses despite the low D1R-related responses on cAMP production. Particularly, the behavioral responses linked to D2 receptors are completely eliminated in the mutant mice (Lee et al., 2002), possibly leading to an enhancement of responses produced by D1 agonist.

In conclusion, the signaling machinery enabling D1R to activate cAMP pathway is made up of a highly specialized assembly of $G\alpha_{olf}/\beta_2/\gamma_7$ heterotrimer and AC5. The consequences in term of functions, response dynamics, subcellular localization, or regulation remain largely unknown. Interestingly, the absence of $G\gamma_7$ or AC5 produces reduction of $G\alpha_{olf}$ levels in the striatum, most probably by shortening its half-life. In activated state (GTP liganded), $G\alpha_{olf}$ interacts with AC5 while in inactivated state, $G\alpha_{olf}$ is associated with $G\beta_2\gamma_7$ complex. $G\alpha_{olf}$ stability appears thus to depend on the cellular availability of its two main interacting molecules, suggesting the tight and coordinated regulation of $G\alpha_{olf}$ quantity in the neuron.

$G\alpha_{OLF}$ LEVELS CONTROL THE EFFICACY OF THE ADENYLYL CYCLASE ACTIVATION BY D1R

The reductions of the levels of $G\alpha_{olf}$ or D1R have contrasting consequences on various D1R signaling responses in the mouse striatum. These diminutions of $G\alpha_{olf}$ or D1R can be obtained in mice heterozygous for targeted deletions of $G\alpha_{olf}$ or D1R genes (Drago et al., 1994; Corvol et al., 2001), in which the striatal contents of corresponding proteins are decreased by about 50%. The reduction in $G\alpha_{olf}$ levels induces a marked reduction of both basal and D1R-activated cAMP production in striatal membranes (Herve et al., 2001; Corvol et al., 2007). The AC activities in the presence of dopamine or in basal condition are reduced by approximately 50% and the D1R-related response (as estimated by the difference between the basal and stimulated activities) by about 35%. In contrast, the haplodeficiency in D1R leads to no significant change in D1 agonist response or in the basal and dopamine-stimulated activities (Corvol et al., 2007).

The levels of $G\alpha_{olf}$ are not only determinant for *in vitro* AC responses, but also for *in vivo* responses. The increased cAMP levels resulting from D1R stimulation activate PKA in striatal neurons, leading to the phosphorylation of numerous PKA substrates including the GluR1 subunit of AMPA glutamate receptors (Valjent et al., 2005). Acute injection of psychostimulants like cocaine or D-amphetamine activates this pathway by increasing extracellular levels of dopamine in the brain. This response is highly

dependent on $G\alpha_{olf}$ in the striatum since it is strongly decreased when the $G\alpha_{olf}$ levels are reduced in the brain (mutant mice with heterozygous null mutation of $G\alpha_{olf}$ gene; Corvol et al., 2007). Reduction in D1R in mice heterozygous for null mutation of D1R gene did not alter significantly this response.

These results show that the levels of $G\alpha_{olf}$ protein, but not D1R, constitute a limiting factor determining the amplitude of cAMP pathway response upon D1R activation in the striatal neurons. This observation is consistent with the existence of “spare” D1Rs not coupled to AC in the striatum (Hess et al., 1987; Trovero et al., 1992). However, this is in apparent contradiction with the existence of a large excess of $G\alpha_{olf}/\beta_2/\gamma_7$ heterotrimers in comparison with D1Rs in term of number of molecules present in striatal membranes. Thorough measurements using quantitative immunoblots indicate that the concentration of G protein in striatal membrane is around 70–80 pmol/mg of membrane protein (Schwindinger et al., 2010). In contrast, the content in D1R (and A_{2A} receptors) would be almost two orders of magnitude lower (about 1 and 0.3 pmol/mg of membrane protein for D1R and A_{2A} receptor, respectively; Hess et al., 1987; Schwindinger et al., 2010). The mechanisms of activation of G proteins by receptors are still a matter of debate. Depending on receptor/G protein systems, two opposing models have been proposed (Lohse et al., 2008): (1) in the “collision coupling” model, the receptor/G protein interactions occur as a result of free lateral diffusion within the plasma membrane, wherein G proteins only interact with activated receptors; (2) the alternative model suggests that G proteins can interact with receptors before agonist binding, in a “precoupling” state. The second model is attractive because it could explain the specificity of coupling of D1R with precise G proteins. However, in this model, decreasing levels of receptor and G protein should lead to similar reductions of cAMP production. “Collision coupling” model explains probably better the mechanisms occurring in the striatal membranes even though the kinetics data are not enough precise to really settle this issue. In this model, the high excess of G proteins in the MSNs *in vivo* can result in amplification of signal, activated receptors being able to switch on multiple G proteins. This notion has been well established in the retina for the rhodopsin–transducin system (similar to the receptor-G protein couple) in which studies have given rates of 1300 transducin molecules activated per rhodopsin molecule per second (Heck and Hofmann, 2001). Probably the amplification factor is lower in the striatal cells, but it is well conceivable that despite the high excess in $G\alpha_{olf}/\beta_2/\gamma_7$ heterotrimers compared to D1R (or A_{2A} receptor), partial activation of D1R can saturate the G proteins present in the plasma membrane and thus the levels of the G proteins can represent a limiting factor controlling the D1R coupling with AC.

PARTIAL REDUCTION OF $G\alpha_{OLF}$ LEVELS DOES NOT ALTER ERK PATHWAY

Surprisingly, the haploinsufficiency of $G\alpha_{olf}$ gene does not affect D1R-dependent ERK pathway in the striatal neurons, contrary to what is observed for the cAMP pathway. Psychostimulants (cocaine or D-amphetamine) produce ERK activation specifically in D1R expressing striatal neurons (Valjent et al., 2000; Bertran-Gonzalez et al., 2008). This effect is dependent on D1R activation since it is prevented by pharmacological or genetic inactivation of

D1R (Valjent et al., 2000, 2005). Importantly this pathway appears critical for the long-lasting effects of cocaine or D-amphetamine, including conditioned place preference and locomotor sensitization (Valjent et al., 2000, 2006). In the heterozygous $G\alpha_{olf}$ mutant mice, psychostimulant-induced ERK activation is normal, similar to that observed in the wild type animals (Corvol et al., 2007).

Unexpectedly, this ERK response is impaired when the D1R levels are reduced by half in the mice heterozygous for null mutation of D1R gene (Pascoli et al., 2010). In the same mice cAMP/PKA response appears completely normal. In fact, the mechanisms of ERK activation following psychostimulants are complex since stimulation of D1R cannot activate ERK alone but potentiates the ERK activation initiated by calcium influx through glutamate-activated NMDA receptor (Pascoli et al., 2010). The mechanisms of this potentiation are probably multiple and combine PKA-dependent and independent processes. The cAMP/PKA-dependent potentiation of ERK pathway is mediated by the protein DARPP-32 via its ability to inhibit protein phosphatase 1 and striatal-enriched tyrosine phosphatase (STEP; Valjent et al., 2005). More recently, it has been uncovered an alternative pathway, by which D1R can stimulate glutamate-induced ERK activation by promoting D1R-dependent activation of Src family kinases and tyrosine phosphorylation of the NR2B subunit of NMDA receptor (Pascoli et al., 2010). This pathway is independent from the cAMP/PKA cascade and appears to be downregulated in mice heterozygous for null mutation of D1R gene (Pascoli et al., 2010). In these animals, the impairment of cocaine-induced ERK activation goes together with reduced activation of Src family kinase and phosphorylation of NR2B subunit.

In conclusion, D1R levels control the efficiency of the D1R-regulated ERK pathway whereas $G\alpha_{olf}$ levels controls that of the D1R-regulated cAMP/PKA pathway.

REDUCTION OF $G\alpha_{OLF}$ LEVELS HAS CONTRASTED BEHAVIORAL CONSEQUENCES

As previously mentioned, the acute responses to cocaine and D-amphetamine are highly dependent on D1R-linked signaling. The $G\alpha_{olf}$ heterozygous mice display a clear reduction in acute locomotor response to cocaine or D-amphetamine, in agreement with the decreased cAMP signaling responses *in vivo* (Herve et al., 2001; Corvol et al., 2007). By contrast a partial decrease in D1R amounts did not significantly affect the acute locomotor response to cocaine or D-amphetamine in D1R heterozygous mice (Corvol et al., 2007). This is consistent with the unaltered biochemical responses of the PKA pathway in these mice.

In contrast, the partial deficiency of $G\alpha_{olf}$ does not prevent the development of locomotor sensitization to cocaine or D-amphetamine in $G\alpha_{olf}$ heterozygous mice (Corvol et al., 2007). Moreover, because the acute locomotor response is very low in these mice, the sensitized response appears proportionally higher than in wild type animals. Similarly, conditioned place preference to D-amphetamine is not altered in $G\alpha_{olf}$ heterozygous mice. The contrast between altered responses to acute administrations of psychostimulants and normal responses to repeated treatments in these mice suggests that different signaling pathways may be limiting for the two types of effects. Several factors could account for the quasi-normal sensitizing and conditioning

properties of psychostimulants, including the possibility that these effects are partially independent from D1R activation (Salomon et al., 2006). One interesting possibility involves the ERK pathway which is normally activated by psychostimulants in G α olf heterozygous mice. ERK appears essential for long-lasting effects of drugs since its pharmacological inhibition blocks both locomotor sensitization and conditioned place preference with only minor effects on acute responses (Valjent et al., 2000, 2006). The normal psychostimulant-induced ERK activation could enable these responses in the G α olf heterozygous mutant mice. Some evidence argues in favor of this hypothesis. In particular, it has been found some alterations of the sensitization to cocaine in mice heterozygous for D1R gene, in which ERK activation, but not cAMP/PKA activation, is altered in response to cocaine (Valjent et al., 2010).

These studies indicate that variability in the levels of expression of specific genes involved in various aspects of D1R signaling can produce very different behavioral reactions in response to drugs. Depending on the element affected, genetic or environmental factors altering components of D1R signaling can have contrasted consequences leading to specific pathological or phenotypical traits.

REGULATION OF G α OLF LEVELS

Because G α olf levels constitute an important parameter controlling D1R-dependent cAMP/PKA pathway, they could represent an ideal target for regulation in physiological and pathological conditions. Such regulations have been well demonstrated following degeneration of dopamine neurons in the experimental context or human pathology of Parkinson's disease.

The dopamine denervation of the striatum produces an important hypersensitivity of the D1R signaling that could enable the therapeutic effects of L-DOPA in Parkinsonian patients but also promote aversive secondary effects, essentially the abnormal involuntary movements or dyskinesia that develop after 5–10 years of L-DOPA treatments (Bezard et al., 2001). This hypersensitivity affects both the cAMP/PKA and ERK pathways, since both are highly activated by D1R agonists in the denervated striatum (Geffen et al., 2002; Pavon et al., 2006; Santini et al., 2007; Westin et al., 2007). The denervation-induced hypersensitivity happens despite a lack of changes in the density of D1R in the striatum (Savasta et al., 1988; Hervé et al., 1989; Missale et al., 1989) or minimal alterations in the intracellular distribution of D1R (Berthet et al., 2009). The most plausible mechanism is an increase in the coupling of D1R with G protein, which has been demonstrated in both rodents and non-human primates after dopamine denervation of the striatum (Cai et al., 2002; Aubert et al., 2005). This higher coupling is essentially linked to an increase of G α olf levels in the denervated striatum. In the rat, 6-hydroxydopamine-induced lesions of dopamine neurons in adult or newborn animals lead to an increase by about 50% of G α olf levels in the following weeks (Hervé et al., 1993; Marcotte et al., 1994; Penit-Soria et al., 1997). Similar increase in G α olf levels has been observed in 6-hydroxydopamine-lesioned mice (Alcacer et al., unpublished data). Upregulation of G α olf was also observed in human putamen in Parkinsonian patients and, interestingly, this effect was associated with a parallel increase in G γ 7 levels (Corvol et al., 2004). In this study, there was a correlation between the increase

in G α olf levels and the duration of disease. In addition, the patients in whom the increase was the highest displayed intense L-DOPA-induced dyskinesia but there was no established causal relationship between the two effects.

In rat, the upregulation in the G α olf protein levels is not linked to a parallel increase in G α olf mRNA expression, showing that the regulation is post-transcriptional (Hervé et al., 1993). An attractive possibility is that changes in G α olf protein levels depend directly from its rate of activation. This hypothesis is supported by several studies on G α s which is a protein very close to G α olf. In cell culture, various long-lasting stimulations of G α s by receptors, cholera toxin, or mutation induce a downregulation of G α s at a post-translational level, which is independent of cAMP production and involves possibly an increased degradation rate of the protein (McKenzie and Milligan, 1990; Levis and Bourne, 1992; Milligan, 1993; Adie and Milligan, 1994). The chronic lack of D1R and G α olf stimulation in dopamine-denervated striatum could lower the G α olf degradation rate and lead to accumulation of the protein. In agreement with this hypothesis, total absence of D1R in mutant mice with targeted invalidation of D1R gene induces important increase of G α olf protein levels without any modification of G α olf mRNA expression (Hervé et al., 2001). Conversely, reduced levels of G α olf were observed in mutant mice devoid of dopamine transporter (Hervé et al., 2001), in which extracellular concentration of dopamine is strongly increased, leading thus to a chronic stimulation of D1R (Giros et al., 1996). Interestingly, the lack of A $_2$ A receptors in mutant mice produces also an upregulation of G α olf protein without any changes in the levels of G α olf transcripts (Hervé et al., 2001). Thus these results strongly suggest a homeostatic regulation of G α olf *in vivo*, in which the intensity of G α olf stimulation tends to reduce its levels. These variations are reminiscent, at the level of a G protein, of the classical “denervation hypersensitivity” and “agonist-induced desensitization,” well characterized at the level of receptors (Freedman and Lefkowitz, 1996; Bloch et al., 1999).

The mechanisms of elimination from membrane and degradation of G α olf or G α s are not known in detail. Upon stimulation of receptor, G α s was shown to internalize in a vesicle pool, corresponding probably to recycling endosomes with minimal overlap with vesicles containing receptors (Hynes et al., 2004). Recently, G α s was reported to be ubiquitinated and possibly degraded through proteasome (Nagai et al., 2010). Interestingly, Ric-8B, a protein highly expressed in the striatum (Von Dannecker et al., 2005), inhibits the G α s ubiquitination, and increases the G α s protein without affecting the G α s mRNA level (Nagai et al., 2010). Ric-8B plays the same essential role on G α olf and enhances the accumulation of G α olf at the cytoplasmic membrane (Von Dannecker et al., 2006). However further studies are needed to determine the precise mechanisms important for upregulation of G α olf following degeneration of dopamine neurons.

CONCLUSION

An assembly composed of G α olf, G β 2, and G γ 7 of G protein mediates the activation of AC5 by the D1R in the MSNs expressing this receptor while the same heterotrimer provides the coupling of adenosine A $_2$ A receptor to AC in the MSN population containing D2 receptors. The total absence of this assembly impairs all

the biochemical and behavioral responses involving D1R. These studies provide the proof, probably unique in the literature, that the receptor recognizes a specific assembly of $\alpha\beta\gamma$ subunits of G protein *in vivo*. The G α olf stability depends on the presence of the G γ 7 subunit and AC5 effector protein. The cellular concentration of G α olf appears thus to be regulated by the availability of its interacting proteins. By contrast, D1R receptor exerts a negative regulation on G α olf: more the receptor is stimulated more the cellular G α olf levels decrease. As important consequences of this regulation, it was observed an increase of striatal levels of G α olf following degeneration of dopamine neurons in both lesioned animals and Parkinsonian patients. G α olf upregulation is certainly a major factor explaining the hypersensitivity of D1R-linked cAMP signaling detected after dopamine lesion since the G α olf levels control *in vivo* the efficiency of D1Rs on AC activation. Alterations of levels of G α olf or its interacting proteins because of genetic or pathological factors could play an important role in the physiology of Parkinson's disease as well as in the individual responses to therapeutic drugs. In addition, because of the involvement of dopamine signaling in several mental diseases, such as schizophrenia or drug addiction, dysregulation of G α olf could contribute to physiopathology of these diseases. The gene encoding G α olf (GNAL) has been investigated as a candidate gene for several

mental diseases. To date, no coding variants of G α olf have been tested but a strong association with schizophrenia was reported for an intronic marker (Schwab et al., 1998). In contrast, other genetic studies on bipolar affective disorder and unipolar depression have yielded negative results (Tsiouris et al., 1996; Berrettini et al., 1998; Zill et al., 2002). More recently, two studies, one in human using intronic GNAL polymorphisms (Laurin et al., 2008) and the other using rat models (DasBanerjee et al., 2008), suggest a possible contribution of G α olf in the susceptibility to attention deficit/hyperactivity disorder (ADHD) in children. These studies suggest that alterations or quantitative modifications of the components of specific signaling machinery associated with D1R in the striatum have the potential to affect the various behavioral responses linked to dopamine functions in human.

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