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ORIGINAL RESEARCH COMMUNICATION

Peroxiredoxin-4 and Dopamine D5 Receptor Interact to Reduce Oxidative Stress and Inflammation in the Kidney

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Abstract

Aims: Reactive oxygen species are highly reactive molecules generated in different subcellular compartments. Both the dopamine D5 receptor (D_5R) and endoplasmic reticulum (ER)-resident peroxiredoxin-4 (PRDX4) play protective roles against oxidative stress. This study is aimed at investigating the interaction between PRDX4 and D_5R in regulating oxidative stress in the kidney.

Results: Fenoldopam (FEN), a D_1R and D_5R agonist, increased PRDX4 protein expression, mainly in non-lipid rafts, in D₅R-HEK 293 cells. FEN increased the co-immunoprecipitation of D₅R and PRDX4 and their colocalization, particularly in the ER. The efficiency of Förster resonance energy transfer was increased with FEN treatment measured with fluorescence lifetime imaging microscopy. Silencing of *PRDX4* increased hydrogen peroxide production, impaired the inhibitory effect of FEN on hydrogen peroxide production, and increased the production of interleukin-1 β , tumor necrosis factor (TNF), and caspase-12 in renal cells. Furthermore, in *Drd5^{-/-}* mice, which are in a state of oxidative stress, renal cortical PRDX4 was decreased whereas interleukin-1 β , TNF, and caspase-12 were increased, relative to their normotensive wild-type $Drd5^{+/+}$ littermates.

Innovation: Our findings demonstrate a novel relationship between D_5R and PRDX4 and the consequent effects of this relationship in attenuating hydrogen peroxide production in the ER and the production of proinflammatory cytokines. This study provides the potential for the development of biomarkers and new therapeutics for renal inflammatory disorders, including hypertension.

Conclusion: PRDX4 interacts with D_5R to decrease oxidative stress and inflammation in renal cells that may have the potential for translational significance. *Antioxid. Redox Signal*. 38, 1150–1166.

Keywords: dopamine D5 receptor, endoplasmic reticulum, inflammation, peroxiredoxin-4, reactive oxygen species

Introduction

REACTIVE OXYGEN SPECIES (ROS) are a family of oxygen-
containing reactive molecules (Qaddumi and Jose, 2021) that play important roles in diverse physiological and pathophysiological processes, including inflammatory immune responses (Mittal et al, 2014). A prototypical role of ROS is the killing of phagocytosed bacteria through nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide phosphate (NADPH) oxidase activation.

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However, overly increased ROS levels are implicated in the pathogenesis of a wide variety of disorders, such as cancers, cardiovascular diseases, including hypertension, acute and chronic kidney diseases, and neurodegenerative diseases (Harris and DeNicola, 2020; Singh et al, 2019a; Xiao and Harrison, 2020). Cells produce and compartmentalize ROS

Innovation

This study demonstrates for the first time that dopamine D5 receptor (D_5R) , independent of the dopamine D1 receptor, exerts its antioxidant properties in the endoplasmic reticulum by increasing the protein expression of and interaction with peroxiredoxin-4 (PRDX4). *PRDX4* silencing increased the production of hydrogen peroxide, proinflammatory cytokines, and ER stress-associated caspase-12 and also impaired the inhibitory effect of D_5R in these processes. This study has translational potential since relative to *Drd5^{+/+}* mice, the renal cortical PRDX4 protein expression is decreased in *Drd5*-/- mice, which are in a state of oxidative stress. Thus, PRDX4 has the potential for the development of biomarkers and new therapeutics for renal inflammatory diseases, including hypertension.

production in certain subcellular sites, such as the mitochondria and endoplasmic reticulum (ER), for cell-site specific effects and minimize their detrimental effects in a limited area (Castro et al, 2021; Kakihana et al, 2012).

The dopamine D5 receptor (D_5R) , one of the dopamine D1-like receptors, is a G protein-coupled receptor (GPCR) with high affinity to dopamine that signals *via* the $G\alpha_s/G\alpha_{\text{off}}$ and 3',5'-cyclic adenosine monophosphate/protein kinase A (cAMP/PKA) pathway (Beaulieu and Gainetdinov, 2011). The D_5R can also couple to G α q and the phospholipase C pathway (Gildea et al, 2014; Undieh, 2010). Mice with germline deletion of the D₅R gene (*Drd5^{-/-}*) are hypertensive (Hollon et al, 2002; Lee et al, 2021; Lu et al, 2013; Zeng et al, 2009; Zhang and Harris, 2015).

The ROS production in the kidney and brain is greater in *Drd5*-/- mice than their *Drd5*+/⁺ littermates (Qaddumi and Jose, 2021; Yang et al, 2006). D_5R exerts its antioxidant properties through the inhibition of ROS production from NADPH oxidases (Yang et al, 2015; Yang et al, 2006) and mitochondria (Lee et al, 2021). In addition, the oxidative stress in *Drd5^{-/-}* mice can be related to the decrease and dysfunction of a variety of antioxidant enzymes that scavenge ROS (Qaddumi and Jose, 2021).

Thus, D_5R decreases ROS production through the increase in the activity and expression of antioxidant enzymes, such as heme oxygenase-1 (Lu et al, 2013), paraoxonase 2 (Yang et al, 2015), and thioredoxin (Wang et al, 2019) in the kidney. Peroxiredoxins (PRDXs), a ubiquitous family of antioxidant enzymes, regulate ROS using thioredoxin as an electron donor. However, it is not known whether D_5R decreases ROS production through PRDXs.

PRDXs are thiol-specific antioxidant enzymes that detoxify ROS by oxidizing their cysteine groups to cysteine sulfinic acid $(Cys-SO₂H)$ or cysteine sulfonic acid $(Cys SO₃H$) (Bolduc et al, 2021). Six PRDXs have been identified; they are ubiquitously expressed, playing multiple physiological functions (Bolduc et al, 2021). PRDX4, a prototype 2 cys PRDX subgroup and the only PRDX found in the ER, contains a hydrophobic signal sequence at the N-terminus that is responsible for its ER localization and secretion into the extracellular space (Abbasi et al, 2012). The ER has more oxidizing actions than the cytosol (Bolduc et al, 2021; Kakihana et al, 2012).

The ER is critical in the folding of membrane and secretory proteins, during which oxidative protein folding is achieved in association with luminal hydrogen peroxide production (Kakihana et al, 2012). In addition to the oxidative system, the ER also contains the reductase system that dynamically regulates the redox state. The important reductases in ER are glutathione peroxidases 7 and 8 and PRDX4 (Kakihana et al, 2012).

PRDX4 regulates redox balance by reducing hydrogen peroxide into water; PRDX4 is the most highly expressed hydrogen peroxide-scavenging protein in the ER in humans (Bolduc et al, 2021; Elko et al, 2021). *PRDX4* overexpression decreases whereas *PRDX4* silencing increases ROS production and ER stress (Konno et al, 2021). PRDX4 expression is altered in several pathophysiological conditions, including inflammation (Lipinski et al, 2019) and chronic inflammation-related diseases, such as atherosclerosis, cancer, chronic kidney disease, and type 2 diabetes (Abbasi et al, 2012). The importance of PRDX4 in the immune response has been demonstrated in mammals and fishes.

In *Prdx4* transgenic mice, the expression of many inflammatory factors, including interleukin (IL) -1 β , tumor necrosis factor (TNF), TNF receptor, toll-like receptors, and nuclear factor kappa-light-chain-enhancer of activated B cells ($NF-\kappa$ B), is suppressed; these mice are also protected from oxidative stress (Yamada and Guo, 2018). By contrast, *Prdx4* knockout mice have increased susceptibility to oxidative damage (Iuchi et al, 2009). In the fish, PRDX4 is upregulated by bacterial challenge whereas *prdx4* gene knockdown increases the expression of proinflammatory cytokines and chemokines and decreases the expression of an anti-inflammatory interleukin, IL-10 (Valero et al, 2015).

Our studies show that PRDX4, as an ER antioxidant enzyme, interacts with D_5R . This interaction regulates its protein expression and impairs hydrogen peroxide and inflammatory cytokine production in kidney cells.

Results

Activation of D_5R increases PRDX4 protein expression in D_5 R-human embryonic kidney 293 cells

FEN (25 n*M*, 12 h), a D1-like receptor $(D_1R$ and D_5R) agonist (Gildea et al, 2014; Gildea et al, 2008; Lee et al, 2021; Li et al, 2009; Li et al, 2008; Lu et al, 2013; Sanada et al, 1999; Wang et al, 2019; Yang et al, 2015; Yang et al, 2006; Yu et al, 2014), increased PRDX4 protein expression in nonreducing (Fig. 1A) and reducing conditions (Fig. 1B). Monomeric, dimeric, and oligomeric forms of PRDX4 were increased by FEN treatment (Fig. 1A, B) but only monomers were observed in reducing conditions (Fig. 1B) in human embryonic kidney 293 (HEK293) cells heterologously expressing D_5R (D_5R -HEK293). The presence of oligomeric and dimeric forms of PRDX4 in nonreducing conditions and the monomeric form of PRDX4 in reducing conditions is consistent with previous observations in mouse lung epithelial cells (Elko et al, 2021).

HEK293 cells do not endogenously express D_1R or D_5R (Lee et al, 2021; Lu et al, 2013; Yang et al, 2015; Yang et al, 2006). The specificity of the FEN effect on PRDX4 protein expression in D_5R -HEK293 cells was confirmed by SCH 39166 (SCH), a specific D1-like receptor $(D_1R \text{ and } D_5R)$ antagonist (Tice et al, 1994). Thus, the FEN-mediated increase in PRDX4 protein expression was prevented by SCH (1μ) , whereas SCH, by itself, had no effect on PRDX4 protein expression (Fig. 1). Furthermore, the protein expression of PRDX4, both dimer and monomer, in either nonreducing (Fig. 1C) or reducing (Fig. 1D) conditions, was not significantly altered by FEN treatment in D_1R -HEK293 cells, indicating a specific effect of D_5R on PRDX4 expression.

Activation of D_5R alters PRDX4 micromembrane distribution

Plasma membrane microdomains have crucial roles in receptor signaling, protein trafficking, degradation, and protein expression (Crul and Maléth, 2021; Martinez et al, 2020). FEN stimulation alters the distribution of GPCRs (e.g., D₁R) and D5R) (34, 64), and non-GPCRs (*e.g.,* adenylyl cyclases, NADPH oxidases) (Li et al, 2009; Yang et al, 2006) in plasma membrane microdomains. Therefore, we studied the distribution of PRDX4 in membrane microdomains.

In the basal state, PRDX4 was distributed in both lipid rafts (LRs) and non-LRs, but to a greater extent in non-LRs $(75.1\% \pm 11.4\%)$ than LRs $(24.9\% \pm 11.4\%)$. FEN increased the distribution of PRDX4 mainly in non-LRs (LR: 30.9% – 13.9%, non-LR: 174.1% – 16.7%) (Fig. 2). Treatment with the cholesterol-depleting drug methyl- β -cyclodextrin $(M-\beta$ -CD), which disrupts LRs (Li et al, 2009), resulted in the redistribution of PRDX4 to non-lipid raft (non-LR) microdomain (Fig. 2). The LRs and non-LRs are present in ERs, as in plasma membranes (Wang et al, 2020). The contact sites between the ER and plasma membrane serve to compartmentalize cAMP signaling (Crul and Maléth, 2021). However, our current studies did not determine the expression of PRDX4 in LRs and non-LRs exclusively in the ER.

D_5 R interacts with PRDX4

To evaluate the potential interaction between D_5R and PRDX4, co-immunoprecipitation studies were performed. In the basal state, the D_5R co-immunoprecipitated with PRDX4; FEN (25 n*M*, 12 h) treatment increased the coimmunoprecipitation of D_5R and PRDX4 monomers and dimers in D_5R -HEK293 cells (Fig. 3A, B). In addition, treatment with D_1R/D_5R antagonist SCH prevented the ability of FEN to increase the co-immunoprecipitation of D_5R and PRDX4 (Fig. 3A, B). These results indicated that the

FIG. 1. PRDX4 protein expression in D_5R -HEK293 (A, B) and D_1R -HEK293 (C, D) cells. D_5R -HEK293 and D_1R -HEK293 cells were treated with the D_1R/D_5R agonist, FEN (25 nM, 12 h) in the absence or presence of the D_1R/D_5R antagonist, SCH $(1 \mu M, 12 h)$, as indicated. The cell pellets were harvested, and the cell lysates were prepared in nonreducing (A, C) or reducing $(B, D, 5\% 2$ - mercaptoethanol) Laemmli buffer for 10% SDS-PAGE. β -tubulin was used for loading control. PRDX4 protein expression, determined by immunoblotting, is increased by FEN treatment. Monomers, dimers, and high-molecular-weight oligomers of PRDX4 are seen in non-reducing condition (A, C) but only monomers in reducing conditions (B, D). H Oligomer, high-molecular-weight oligomerized form of PRDX4. (A, B) *n* = 6/group, (C, D) *n* = 3/group, **p* < 0.05 *versus* VEH, SCH, and SCH+FEN, one-way ANOVA, Newman–Keuls test. PRDX4, peroxiredoxin 4; FEN, fenoldopam; SCH, SCH39166; SDS-PAGE, sodium dodecyl sulfate-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis; HEK293, human embryonic kidney 293.

FIG. 2. Increase in PRDX4 protein expression in non-LR fractions with FEN treatment. D_5R -HEK293 cells were treated with the D_1R/D_5R agonist, FEN (25 nM, 12 h) or $M-\beta$ -CD to disrupt LR microdomains. The membraneenriched pellets were then subjected to sucrose gradient ultracentrifugation, and 12 fractions were obtained. The most buoyant fractions (fractions 1–6) represent LRs, whereas the rest (fractions $7-12$) represent non-LRs. $n=4/$ group, $*p < 0.05$ *versus* VEH, $*p < 0.05$ *versus* LRs, one-way ANOVA, Newman–Keuls test. LRs, lipid rafts; non-LRs, non-lipid rafts; M- β -CD, methyl- β -cyclodextrin.

FEN-mediated increase in the co-immunoprecipitation between D_5R and PRDX4 was through the activation of D_5R .

Consistent with the co-immunoprecipitation data, D_5R and PRDX4 colocalized in D_5R -HEK 293 cells (Fig. 3C). In the basal state, D_5R was distributed in the plasma membrane and intracellular compartments. By contrast, PRDX4 was scattered throughout the cytoplasm in intracellular membranes and punctuate vesicles of varying sizes with minimal colocalization with D_5R . However, FEN $(25 nM, 12 h)$ markedly increased the colocalization between D_5R and PRDX4, particularly within the cytoplasm, presumably including ER (Fig. 3C). The effect of FEN was blocked by SCH, which by itself had no effect (Fig. 3C).

Since PRDX4 is an ER resident antioxidant and FEN increased D_5R co-localization with PRDX4, we studied the distribution of D_5R in ER with and without FEN stimulation. In the basal state, some D_5Rs resided in the ER but their colocalization was increased by the treatment with FEN (Fig. 4). Their colocalization in the ER was verified by calnexin, a commonly used ER marker (Schrag et al, 2001). The FEN treatment for 12h increased the colocalization of D_5R and calnexin (Fig. 4). The effect of FEN was blocked by SCH, which by itself had no effect, in D_5R -HEK293 cells (Fig. 4).

To determine the physiological importance of the interaction between PRDX4 and D_5R and its relevance to renal physiology and role in hypertension, we performed coimmunoprecipitation and colocalization studies using human renal proximal tubule cells (hRPTCs), which endogenously express both proteins. Similar to what was found in D_5R -HEK293 cells, in hRPTCs, FEN stimulation increased the co-immunoprecipitation (Supplementary Fig. S1) and colocalization (Supplementary Fig. S2) of D_5R and PRDX4, and the residence of D_5R in the ER (Supplementary Fig. S3).

To investigate further the interaction between D_5R and PRDX4, fluorescence lifetime imaging-Förster resonance energy transfer (FLIM-FRET) microscopy was employed because this method is less influenced by fluorophore variations and photobleaching, and less prone to signal crosscontamination (Sun et al, 2013). In D_5R -HEK293 cells, FEN stimulation significantly shortened the quench time of D_5R with a significant increase in FRET efficiency from \sim 18.67% (vehicle or VEH) to \sim 26.95% (FEN) in the cytoplasmic regions of interest (Fig. 5).

Consistent with the colocalization and co-immunoprecipitation studies (Fig. 3), the increase in FRET efficiency was attenuated by SCH $(1 \mu M, 30 \text{ min}$ pretreatment); SCH, by itself, had no effect (SCH: \sim 18.16%, SCH+FEN: \sim 17.61%) (Fig. 5).

ROS production is increased by PRDX4 knockdown

As determined by the amount of hydrogen peroxide secreted into the culture medium, FEN (25 n*M*,12 h) decreased ROS production in both D_5R -HEK293 cells (VEH: 100.0% – 9.7%, FEN:65.8% – 11.2%, *n* = 4, Fig. 6A) and hRPTCs (VEH: 100.0% – 15.1%, FEN: 55.2% – 7.2%, *n* = 4, Fig. 6B) transfected with the scrambled siRNA. The inhibition of hydrogen peroxide production by FEN was not complete, consistent with our previous report that a certain amount of hydrogen peroxide is necessary to maintain cellular redox homeostasis (Cuevas et al, 2020). The inhibitory effect of FEN on hydrogen peroxide production was prevented by the pretreatment with SCH, which by itself had no effect (Fig. 6); the constitutive activity of D_5R (Hollon et al, 2002; Lee et al, 2021; Yang et al, 2006) was not observed in this experimental condition.

In the D_5R -HEK293 cells, the amount of hydrogen peroxide secreted into the culture medium was increased by *PRDX4* siRNA, from $100\% \pm 9.7\%$ to $155.8\% \pm 22.0\%$ (Fig. 6A). The inhibitory effect of FEN on hydrogen peroxide production was markedly impaired and became insignificant in *PRDX4* siRNA-treated D₅R-HEK293 cells (Fig. 6A). Similarly, in hRPTCs, hydrogen peroxide secreted into the culture medium was increased by *PRDX4* siRNA and the inhibitory effect of FEN also became insignificant (Fig. 6B). These results indicate that the silencing of *PRDX4* by its specific siRNA markedly increases hydrogen peroxide production and impairs the inhibitory effect of FEN on hydrogen peroxide production.

Proinflammatory cytokines are increased by PRDX4 knockdown

PRDX4 plays an important role in inhibiting the inflammatory responses (Lipinski et al, 2019) and oxidative stress, which can cause inflammation and vice versa (Qaddumi and Jose, 2021; Sun et al, 2021; Xiao and Harrison, 2020; Zhang and Harris, 2015). Therefore, it was essential to evaluate the effect of PRDX4 on the production of proinflammatory cytokines.

In D_5R -HEK293 cells, the siRNA-induced silencing of *PRDX4* increased the production of IL-1 β from 100.0 – 14.3% to 172.6 – 15.7% (*n* = 3/group) and TNF from 100 – 5.0% to 205.9 – 13.7% (*n* = 4/group) (Fig. 7); *PRDX4*

FIG. 3. Co-immunoprecipitation of PRDX4 and D_5R and their colocalization in D_5R -HEK293 cells. The D_5R -HEK293 cells were treated with VEH or the D_1R/D_5R agonist, FEN (25 nM, 12 h), in the absence or presence of the D_1R/D_5R D_5R antagonist, SCH (1 μ *M*, 12 h), as indicated. The cell lysates were immunoprecipitated (IP) with anti-PRDX4 antibodies (A) or with anti-D₅R antibodies (B) coupled to Dynabeads for 4 h at 4° C. The protein complexes bound to the beads were eluted and prepared with non-reducing Laemmli buffer and separated by 10% SDS-PAGE, transferred onto nitrocellulose membranes, and immunoblotted (IB) with anti-D₅R antibodies (A) or anti-PRDX4 antibodies (B). Normal IgY or IgG was used for negative control and immunoblotting of D_5R -HEK293 cell lysates for positive control. The blots are representatives of two independent experiments for (A, B). (C) The cells were treated with VEH, FEN (25 n*M*, 12 h), in the absence or presence of SCH (1 μ M, 12 h), as indicated. The cells were then immunostained with anti-D₅R (*green*) and anti-PRDX4 (*red*) antibodies. Co-localization (*yellow*) between D5R and PRDX4 was increased by FEN treatment that was blocked by SCH treatment, which by itself had no effect. $n=3$ /group. A panel of separate colocalization images in "Coloc" were generated as described in the Methods section. Scale bar, $10 \mu m$.

FIG. 4. The D_5R resides in the endoplasmic reticulum in D_5R -HEK293 cells. Cells were treated with VEH or D_1R/D_5R agonist, FEN $(25 \text{ nM}, 12 \text{ h})$, in the absence or presence of the D_1R/D_5R
antagonist, SCH (1 μ M, antagonist, 12 h), as indicated. The cells were then immunostained with anti-D5R (*green*) and anti-calnexin (Clnx, *red*) antibodies. Clnx is an ER marker. Co-localization (*yellow*) of D_5R and Clnx was increased by FEN treatment that was blocked by SCH treatment, which by itself had no effect. $n=3/$ group. A panel of separate colocalization images in "Coloc" were generated as described in the Methods section. Scale bar, $10 \mu m$. ER, endoplasmic reticulum.

silencing impaired the FEN-mediated reduction of the production of these proinflammatory cytokines (Fig. 7).

Similar results were observed in hRPTCs, as siRNAinduced silencing of *PRDX4* increased IL-1 β and TNF production and impaired the inhibitory effect of FEN on the production of these proinflammatory cytokines (Supplementary Fig. S4).

Immunoblotting further confirmed that the siRNA-induced *PDRX4* knockdown increased TNF protein expression in D5R-HEK293 cells; the increase in TNF protein expression was attenuated by tempol (Supplementary Fig. S5), a redox cycling nitroxide that metabolizes ROS (Wilcox, 2010), indicating that the deficiency of PRDX4 increased ROS production that mediated the increase in proinflammatory cytokines.

ER-resident caspase-12 is increased by PRDX4 silencing

Caspases are cysteine proteases that play important roles in the regulation of inflammation (Bolívar et al, 2019). Since caspase-12 is the only caspase that resides in the ER (García) de la Cadena and Massieu, 2016), we evaluated the effect of PRDX4 on the production of caspase-12.

In VEH-treated D_5R -HEK293 cells and hRPTCs, siRNA silencing of *PRDX4* increased the production of caspase-12 from $100.0 \pm 25.3\%$ to $268.2 \pm 28.1\%$ ($n = 4$ /group) (Fig. 8A) and $100 \pm 12.9\%$ to $318.3 \pm 22.5\%$ ($n = 4$ /group) (Supplementary Fig. S6A), respectively. By contrast, FEN decreased the production of caspase-12 in scrambled siRNA- but not in the *PRDX4* siRNA-transfected cells (Fig. 8A and Supplementary Fig. S6A).

To determine further the effect of PRDX4 on procaspase-12 and cleaved caspase-12, the active form of caspase-12, we immunoblotted cell lysates from D_5R -HEK293 (Fig. 8B) and hRPTCs (Supplementary Fig. S6B) treated with increasing concentrations of FEN. Low concentrations of FEN (2.5 and 25 n*M*) decreased both procaspase-12 and cleaved caspase-12 proteins (Figs. 8B and Supplementary S6B).

PRDX4 protein expression is reduced in the kidney of Drd5^{-/-}mice

Drd5-/- mice are hypertensive and in a state of oxidative stress (Hollon et al, 2002; Yang et al, 2006). In non-reducing condition, both dimeric $(41.2\% \pm 4.5\% \text{ vs. } 100.0\% \pm 5.9\%$, $n = 4$) and monomeric $(35.5\% \pm 3.9\% \text{ vs. } 100.0\% \pm 5.5\%$, $n = 4$ /group) (Fig. 9A) forms of PRDX4 in renal cortices of *Drd5*-/- mice were decreased, relative to their *Drd5*+/⁺ , wildtype littermates. In reducing condition, only the monomeric form of PRDX4 was found, which was also decreased in renal cortices of *Drd5^{-/-}* mice, relative to their *Drd5^{+/+}*, wildtype littermates $(57.3\% \pm 3.7\% \text{ vs. } 100.0\% \pm 5.8\%, \text{ n} = 4/$ group) (Fig. 9B). The reduced PRDX4 protein expression in *Drd5*-/- mice indicates a potential interaction *in vivo* between D_5R and PRDX4 in the regulation of ROS in the mouse kidney.

FIG. 5. FRET between D_5R and PRDX4 in D_5R -HEK293 cells. Alexa Fluor 488 conjugated with anti- D_5R (as FRET donor), and Alexa Fluor 555 conjugated with PRDX4 (as FRET acceptor) were used to determine the spatial proximity between the D5R and PRDX4 by FLIM-based FRET analysis. ROI were drawn in the cytoplasm, presumably the ER area, from 10 to 15 cells of three to five random fields under the microscope. The representative FRET efficiency heatmap images, ROI, and FRET efficiency histogram are shown for each treatment. Scale bar (along the ROI) and the histogram (*x*-axis) show the values of FRET efficiency (%) from the ROI of representative images. Experiments were independently performed two to three times with similar results. ROI, regions of interest; FRET, fluorescence (Förster) resonance energy transfer.

Proinflammatory cytokine protein expression is increased in the kidney of Drd $5^{-/-}$ mice

We further determined the renal protein expression of IL-1 β , TNF, and caspase-12 in *Drd5^{-/-}* mice. As shown in Figure 10, protein expression of IL-1 β (175.3% ± 19.8% vs. $100.0\% \pm 10.8\%$, n = 4) (Fig. 10A) and TNF (148.5% $\pm 9.8\%$ vs. $100.0\% \pm 10.0\%$, n = 4/group) (Fig. 10B) was increased in renal cortices of $Drd5^{-/-}$ mice, relative to their $Drd5^{+/+}$ wild-type littermates.

The protein expression of both pro-caspase-12 (277.6% \pm 42.8% vs.100.0% \pm 31.8%, n = 4) and cleaved caspase-12 $(263.1\% \pm 32.8\% \text{ vs. } 100.0 \pm 31.0\%, \text{ n=4})$ was also increased in the renal cortices of $Drd5^{-/-}$ mice, relative to their *Drd5*+/⁺ wild-type littermates (Fig. 10C).

Discussion

Oxidative stress, the imbalance between the production and scavenging of ROS, and inflammation are implicated in

FIG. 6. Hydrogen peroxide production in *PRDX4*-silenced D_5R -HEK293 cells and hRPTCs. D_5R -HEK293 cells (A) and hRPTCs (B) were transfected with *PRDX4* scrambled or -specific siRNA for 36 h and then treated with VEH or D_1R/D_5R agonist, FEN (25 n*M*, 12 h), in the absence or presence of the D_1R/D_5R antagonist, SCH $(1 \mu M, 12 \text{ h})$, as indicated. The culture media were collected, and hydrogen peroxide concentration was measured by Amplex Red. The fluorescence intensity was measured in a microplate reader. $n = 4$ /group, ns, not significant; ***p* < 0.01; two-way ANOVA, Newman–Keuls test. hRPTC, human renal proximal tubule cell.

many pathological conditions, such as chronic inflammatory diseases, including hypertension, and acute kidney and chronic kidney diseases, among others (Bonventre and Zuk, 2004; Harris and DeNicola, 2020; Konno et al, 2021; Nano et al, 2022; Qaddumi and Jose, 2021; Xiao and Harrison, 2020; Zeng et al, 2009). The results of this study could open a new target of PRDX4 to prevent the initiation and progression of hypertension and acute and chronic kidney diseases and their complications.

Dopamine, through D_1 -like (D₁R and D₅R) and D₂-like $(D_2R, D_3R$ and D_4R) receptors, decreases ROS production in the kidneys of humans and animals (Lee et al, 2021; Lu et al, 2013; Qaddumi and Jose, 2021; Stoelting et al, 2009; Tayebati et al, 2011; Yang et al, 2006; Yang et al, 2015; Yu et al, 2014), but may be different in other cells (Acquier et al, 2013), especially in neurons (Qaddumi and Jose, 2021). The D_5R negatively regulates ROS production, in part, through the inhibition of NADPH oxidase and mitochondria-derived ROS (Lee et al, 2021; Yang et al, 2006) and in part, through the increase of enzymatic and non-enzymatic antioxidant scavengers, including heme oxygenase-1 (Lu et al, 2013), paraoxonase 2 (Yang et al, 2015), and thioredoxin (Wang et al, 2019). The current study demonstrates that FEN, a D_5R agonist (in the absence of D_1R), decreased ROS (hydrogen peroxide) production and inflammation through the ERresident PRDX4 in the kidney.

The ER is an essential organelle for the proper folding and posttranslational modification of newly synthesized proteins (McLaughlin and Vandenbroeck, 2011). The GPCRs are synthesized, assembled, folded, and mature in the ER (Magalhaes et al, 2012). Therefore, ER-resident proteins could participate in the regulation of GPCR expression, signaling, and trafficking. Calnexin, a well-known ER chaperone protein, interacts with D_1R and D_2R and regulates their glycosylation and cell surface expression (Free et al, 2007).

Cornichon Family AMPA Receptor Auxiliary Protein 4 (CNIH4), an ER protein, promotes β_2 -adrenergic receptor retention, leading to its proteasomal degradation (Sauvageau et al, 2014). The dopamine receptor-interacting protein 78, another ER resident protein, regulates the residence of D_1R in the ER, as well as its ligand binding and glycosylation (Bermak et al, 2001). In our current study, the activation of D_5R increased the protein expression of PRDX4, an ER resident PRDX.

Whether or not D_5R increases PRDX4 protein expression through an increase in transcription/translation or a decrease

FIG. 7. Productions of IL-1 β (A) and TNF (B) are increased in PRDX4-silenced D_5R -HEK293 cells. D_5R -HEK293 cells were transfected with *PRDX4*-scrambled or -specific siRNA for 36 h and then treated with VEH or the D1R/D5R agonist, FEN (25 n*M*, 12 h), in the absence or presence of the D_1R/D_5R antagonist, SCH (1 μ *M*, 12 h), as indicated. The concentrations of IL-1 β (A) and TNF (B) in the culture media were measured by ELISA. $n=3$ or 4/ group, $* p < 0.05$ *versus* VEH, $* p < 0.05$ *versus* scrambled siRNA, two-way ANOVA, Newman–Keuls test. IL-1 β , interleukin-1 β ; TNF, tumor necrosis factor.

in its degradation and/or apoptosis remains to be determined. Nonetheless, the increase in the expression of PRDX4 in non-LRs on D_5R activation could play a vital role in its inhibition of production of ROS (*e.g.,* hydrogen peroxide), proinflammatory cytokines, and caspase-12 production.

Oxidative protein folding is one of the major effects of ROS in the ER (Ramming et al, 2015). In our current study, the stimulation of D_5R increased its localization in the ER and interaction with PRDX4. However, short-term (FEN 25 nM, 15 min) treatment did not increase the redistribution of D_5R into the ER as determined by co-localization of D_5R with either PRDX4 or calnexin (not shown). The increase of D_5R colocalization with PRDX4 in ER in the condition of this study (FEN 25 nM, 12 h) was most likely caused by the increase in the PRDX4 production or maturation or the decrease in degradation, including ER-associated degradation. However, the possibility of redistribution could not be excluded, which needs further investigation.

The siRNA-mediated silencing of *PRDX4* increased hydrogen peroxide production and impaired the inhibitory effect of D_5R on hydrogen peroxide production in D_5R -HEK293 and hRPTCs. This is consistent with previous reports that *Prdx4* knockout mice have increased lipid and protein oxidation in spermatocytes (Iuchi et al, 2009) and overexpression of PRDX4, as in *Prdx4* transgenic mice, attenuated oxidative stress, inflammation, and cytokine

release in different organs (Yamada and Guo, 2018). Of interest is that germline deletion of *Prdx2* aggravates the oxidative stress and increased blood pressure of spontaneously hypertensive rats (Mahal et al, 2019).

The ER is susceptible to oxidative stress because it has low levels of antioxidants; oxidative stress induces ER stress, and vice versa (Cao and Kaufman, 2014). Prolonged oxidative and ER stresses contribute to the inflammatory cascade, resulting in the activation of immune cells and the production of proinflammatory cytokines in the kidney (Xiong et al, 2021). Macrophages are the main inflammatory cells infiltrating the kidney with chronic inflammatory disease (Lee et al, 2020). Renal tubule cells can also initiate the inflammatory response.

In hRPTCs, the gene and protein expressions of IL-1 β , caspase-1, and toll-like receptor 4 are increased by uric acid (Xiao et al, 2015), an ROS inducer (Oğuz et al, 2017). In the human kidney-2 cell, a proximal tubule cell line derived from a normal human kidney, IL-1 β levels are increased by monosodium urate (Hong et al, 2015). In HEK293 cells, proinflammatory cytokines trigger the NF- κ B pathway, which is attenuated by ROS inhibition (Shi et al, 2020). In our current study, proinflammatory IL-1 β and TNF levels were decreased by D_5R activation but increased by the silencing of *PRDX4* in D_5R -HEK293 and hRPTCs. This may be through the NF- κ B/NLRP3 inflammasome pathway because IL-1 β is the major cytokine released by the activation of NLRP3 inflammasomes (Lee et al, 2020).

Persistent inflammation alongside severe or prolonged oxidative and ER stress induces the apoptosis pathway (Gorman et al, 2012). Caspase-12, located in the cytoplasmic side of the ER, is an ER stress-associated inflammatory caspase that regulates the canonical ER stress-mediated apoptotic pathways, which include PERK pathway-induced CHOP activation and IRE1 α pathway-induced JNK and caspase-12 activation (Rong et al, 2015).

Our data showed that D_5R activation decreased caspase-12 production, which was impaired by *PRDX4* silencing. The fact that D_5R stimulation decreased both pro- and cleavedcaspase-12 suggests that the D_5R activates upstream of caspase-12 posttranslational cleavage, possibly via the NF- κ B like pathway, which warrants further investigation. The apparent role of PRDX4 in the D_5R -mediated decrease in hydrogen peroxide production and inflammation is important, indicating that D_5R may play important roles in a wide range of chronic inflammatory and oxidative stress disorders.

The decrease in the production of caspase-12 was dependent on D_5R -mediated stimulation of PRDX4. This indicates that the D_5R could play a critical role in ER-dependent apoptosis. Apoptosis contributes to the development and pathogenesis of diverse disorders (Singh et al, 2019b); apoptosis is increased in the kidney, ventricular cardiomyocytes, and vascular smooth muscle cells from spontaneously hypertensive rats and mice (Hamet et al, 1995). Apoptosis and $NF-\kappa B$ activation are simultaneously induced in the renal tubulointerstitium in angiotensin II-infusion-mediated hypertension (Quiroz et al, 2003).

The D_5R antagonizes the effect of angiotensin II, by decreasing the expression of the angiotensin II type 1 receptor (Gildea et al, 2008; Li et al, 2008). Therefore, it will be necessary to determine the mechanisms by which D_5R inhibits apoptosis in the ER in RPTCs.

FIG. 8. Caspase-12 expression is inhibited by FEN treatment in D_5R -HEK293 cells. (A) D_5R -HEK293 cells were transfected with *PRDX4*-scrambled or -specific siRNA for 36 h and then treated with VEH or D1R/D5R agonist, FEN $(25 \text{ nM}, 12 \text{ h})$, in the absence or presence of D₁R/D₅R antagonist, SCH $(1 \mu M, 12 \text{ h})$. The concentrations of caspase-12 in the culture medium were measured by ELISA. *n* = 4/group, **p* < 0.05 *versus* VEH, # *p* < 0.05 *versus* scrambled siRNA, two-way ANOVA, Newman–Keuls test. (B) The D₅R-HEK293 cells were treated with increasing concentrations of FEN (12 h), as indicated. The cell lysates were subjected to 10% SDS-PAGE and immunoblotted with anti-caspase12 antibody. β -tubulin was used as loading control. $n = 4/\text{group}$, **p* < 0.05 *versus* VEH-treated (0) group, one-way ANOVA, Newman–Keuls test.

In summary, stimulation of the D_5R , independent of the D_1R , increased PRDX4 protein expression, mainly in the non-LR microdomain in D_5R -HEK293 cells. Stimulation of D₅R increased its residence in the ER and its interaction with PRDX4 in D_5R -HEK293 and hRPTCs. The production of hydrogen peroxide and proinflammatory cytokines was increased by *PRDX4* silencing, which impaired the inhibitory effect of D_1R/D_5R stimulation on hydrogen peroxide and proinflammatory cytokine production. The increase in TNF with *PRDX4* silencing was attenuated by the antioxidant, tempol, indicating the importance of ROS (hydrogen peroxide) in this process.

D₅R stimulation also attenuated caspase-12 production, implying its potential role in ER stress-associated apoptosis; this effect is probably *via* PRDX4 because siRNA silencing of *PRDX4* increased caspase-12 expression and prevented the inhibitory effect of D_5R stimulation. Furthermore, in $Drd5^{-1}$ mice, which are in a state of oxidative stress, the renal cortical PRDX4 protein expression was decreased, relative to their normotensive wild-type littermates.

These results suggest that D_5R negatively regulates hydrogen peroxide production and inflammation through PRDX4 in the kidney. Thus, the D_5R maintains a normal redox balance by promoting antioxidant activity, mediated, in part, by PRDX4, heme oxygenase-1, paraoxonase 2, and thioredoxin, and by inhibiting pro-oxidant activities, mediated by NADPH oxidase and mitochondria.

Materials and Methods

Electronic laboratory notebook was not used. All animal experiments were performed under protocols approved by the Children's National Medical Center, University of Maryland School of Medicine, and George Washington University Animal Care and Use Committees. The usage of human renal proximal tubule cells was approved by the Institutional Review Board of University of Virginia (protocol code HSR# 13310, 8/24/23).

Antibodies and reagents

We used anti-D₅R antibodies, which have been validated in *Drd5*-/- mice and studies involving hRPTCs and rat kidneys (Hollon et al, 2002; Lee et al, 2021; Wang et al, 2010; Yang et al, 2006). The anti-PRDX4 antibody was purchased from Abcam (Waltham, MA). The validation of PRDX4 antibody was performed by both the supplier (knockout cell lines generated *via* CRISPR-Cas9) and in our laboratory in *PRDX4* specific siRNA-transfected D₅R-HEK293 cells (Supplementary Fig. S7A, C) and hRPTCs (Supplementary Fig. S7B, C).

Normal chicken IgY, anti- β -tubulin, and anti- α -actin antibodies were purchased from Sigma (St. Louis, MO); anticalnexin antibody was purchased from ECM Biosciences (Versailles, KY); anti-TNF antibody was purchased from Cell Signaling Technology (Danvers, MA), and anti-caspase-12 and normal rabbit Ig G were purchased from Santa Cruz

FIG. 9. PRDX4 protein expression in kidney cortices from $Drd5^{-/-}$ and their wild-type littermates. Kidney cortices from *Drd5*-*/*- mice and their wild-type (*Drd5*+*/*⁺) littermates were prepared in non-reducing (A) or reducing (B, 5% 2- mercaptoethanol) Laemmli buffer and subjected to 10% SDS-PAGE. β -tubulin was used for loading control. PRDX4 protein expression, determined by western blotting, was decreased in kidney cortices of $Drd5^{-/-}$ mice, relative to $Drd5^{+/+}$ wild-type littermates. *n* = 4/group, **p* < 0.05, Student's *t* test.

FIG. 10. Protein expression of interleukin-1 β (A), tumor necrosis factor (B), and caspase-12 (C) in renal cortices from $Drd5^{-/-}$ and their wild-type littermates.
Kidney cortices from Kidney cortices from
 $P_{\nu}d\xi^{-/-}$ mice and their wild-*Drd5*-*/*- mice and their wildtype $(Drd5^{+/+})$ littermates were prepared in Laemmli buffer and subjected to 10%
SDS-PAGE. β -tubulin or β -tubulin or GAPDH was used for loading control. $n = 4/\text{group}$, **p* < 0.05, Student's *t* test.

Biotechnology (Santa Cruz, CA). Culture media and fetal bovine serum (FBS) were purchased from Invitrogen (Gaithersburg, MD). Fenoldopam (FEN), SCH 39166 (SCH), and tempol were purchased from Tocris (Minneapolis, MN); methyl- β -cyclodextrin (M- β -CD) and other reagents were purchased from Sigma.

Cell culture, siRNA, and transfection

HEK293 cells expressing D_5R (D_5R -HEK293), and hRPTCs were cultured, as previously described (Li et al, 2008; Yu et al, 2014). The empty vector-transfected HEK293 and D_5R -HEK293 cells were maintained in culture with $10 \mu g/mL$ blasticidin. The stable protein expression of D_5R in D_5R -HEK293 cells was confirmed before the actual experiments were performed (Lee et al, 2021; Lu et al, 2013; Yu et al, 2014).

hRPTCs were verified of their RPT origin, by staining with antibody against γ -glutamyl transpeptidase and expression of NHE3 (Gildea et al, 2014; Gildea et al, 2008; Li et al, 2008; Sanada et al, 1999; Yu et al, 2014). The cells were cultured in a 1:1 mixture of Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium and Ham's F-12 medium, supplemented with 5% FBS, selenium (5 ng/mL), insulin (5 μ g/mL), transferrin $(5 \mu g/mL)$, hydrocortisone (36 ng/mL) , triiodothyronine (4 pg/mL), and epidermal growth factor (10 ng/mL).

PRDX4-scrambled and -specific siRNA (Qiagen) were transfected into hRPTCs and D_5R -HEK293 cells grown in 12- or 24-well plates using Lipofectamine 2000 transfection reagents (Invitrogen), according to the manufacturer's instructions and our published procedure (Lee et al, 2021; Yang et al, 2015). The efficiency of siRNA in silencing *PRDX4* was determined by both immunoblotting (Supplementary Fig. S7A, B) and quantitative real-time PCR (Supplementary Fig. S7C).

Western blotting

The samples $(D_5R\text{-HEK293}$ cells, hRPTCs, and kidney cortices) were lysed in 1x RIPA lysis buffer (Millipore, Billerica, MA), containing protease and phosphatase inhibitor cocktail (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Rockford, IL), and they were adjusted to the same protein concentration. The proteins were separated by sodium dodecyl sulfatepolyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (SDS-PAGE), transferred onto nitrocellulose membranes, and then probed with primary antibodies and appropriately conjugated secondary antibodies. The images were visualized by a LiCor Odyssey Imaging system.

Subcellular fractionation

To obtain LRs and non-LRs, HEK293 cells were subjected to sucrose gradient centrifugation, using a detergent-free protocol, as previously described (Li et al, 2009; Yang et al, 2015; Yu et al, 2014). Briefly, the cell pellets were lysed in 1.5 mL of 500 m*M* sodium carbonate (pH 11) and homogenized in clear ultracentrifuge tubes. Equal amounts of homogenates were diluted 1:2 with 80% sucrose and overlaid with 5–35% sucrose, as a discontinuous sucrose gradient and subjected to centrifugation at $160,000$ g for 16 h at 4° C.

After centrifugation, twelve 1-mL fractions were collected, and a light-scattering band was confined to the 5–35% sucrose interface; fractions 1–6 were considered as LRs, whereas fractions 7–12 were considered as non-LRs (Li et al, 2009; Yang et al, 2015; Yu et al, 2014). The fractionated proteins were mixed with reducing Laemmli buffer, containing 5% 2-mercaptoethanol, boiled, and subjected to SDS-PAGE. The transfer of the protein (from the gel onto the cellulose membrane) was performed using a constant current and duration to obtain the same transfer efficiency from the gel.

Co-immunoprecipitation

Co-immunoprecipitation was performed using a Dynabeads kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific), following the manufacturer's instruction, and as previously described (Li et al, 2010). Briefly, D_5R -HEK293 and hRPTCs were treated with VEH, D_1R/D_5R agonist, FEN (25 nM, 12 h) in the absence or presence of $1 \mu M$, $12 h$, $D_1 R/D_5 R$ antagonist, SCH (Tice et al, 1994). The cells were harvested, and the cell pellets were lysed in a lysis buffer (20 mM Tris HCl, pH 8.0/1 mM ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid/1 m*M* NaN3/2 m*M* dithiothreitol/0.25 *M* sucrose), with 0.2 m*M* phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride, and protease and phosphatase inhibitor cocktail.

Five μ g of anti-PRDX4 or anti-D₅R antibody were conjugated with Dynabeads in 0.5 mL of slurry. The cell lysates were then incubated with the conjugated anti- D_5R or anti-PRDX4 antibodies at 4°C for 4 h, followed by proper washing. Controls were normal rabbit IgG and chicken IgY. Proteins bound to the beads were eluted in 60 μ L of loading buffer at 65 $^{\circ}$ C for 15 min, separated by 10% SDS-PAGE, and transferred onto a nitrocellulose membrane for incubation with the detecting antibody, followed by the appropriate secondary antibody, before visualization with a LiCor Odyssey Imaging system.

Confocal fluorescence microscopy and colocalization analysis

D5R-HEK293 or hRPTCs were fixed with 4% paraformaldehyde in phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) for 20 min at room temperature. After washing with PBS, the fixed cells on coverslips were incubated with primary anti-PRDX4, anti- D_5R , or anti-calnexin antibodies overnight at $4^{\circ}C$. The coverslips were then incubated with the proper Alexa Fluor-488 and -555 secondary antibodies for 2 h at 4° C. The coverslips were mounted in an antifade mounting medium (Vectashield, Burlingame, CA) and sealed onto glass slides. The samples were imaged with a Zeiss laser scanning microscope (LSM) 710 confocal microscope system equipped with a Plan-Apochromat $63 \times /1.40$ NA oil-immersion objective.

Colocalization of two labels was analyzed using the ''Colocalization'' module of IMARIS 9.8 version (Bitplane AG, Saint Paul, MN). The confocal images for the two labels, generated by the ZEISS LSM710 confocal microscope, were opened with IMARIS and converted into an Imaris file. Interactive thresholding was initially used to estimate the thresholds for each label. Then, threshold values were manually tuned to eliminate the background pixels. Once the individual label thresholds were set, they were used to define colocalization, and the colocalization channel was generated following the procedure of the program.

FLIM-FRET analysis

The FLIM-FRET analysis was performed, as previously described (Li et al, 2010) with modification. The fluorophore

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pairs used for FLIM-FRET analysis were Alexa Fluor 488 (as FRET donor) conjugated with anti- D_5R antibody and Alexa Fluor 555 conjugated with anti-PRDX4 antibody (as FRET acceptor). Time-domain FLIM-based FRET was performed with a Leica TCS SP8 microscope system upgraded to FALCON, equipped with a tunable ultrafast (80 megahertz) pulsed (120 fs) laser (Coherent), HyD SMD detectors (timecorrelated single photon counting and time-gated system), and an HC PL APO CS2 $100 \times / 1.44$ OIL objective (Leica Microsystems).

The samples were excited with an 800 nm laser, 3.5 w, tube current, 100 frame repetitions, with 500–550 nm detection window and processed using the built-in FLIM/FCS module. A lower intensity threshold was set to 50 photons for all image analyses. The lifetime values and FRET efficiency images were generated with the built-in Leica Application Suite FLIM/FCS (Leica Wetzlar).

Hydrogen peroxide production

Hydrogen peroxide production from cell lysates was measured by Amplex Red (Invitrogen, Eugene, OR), in the presence of exogenous superoxide dismutase (40 U/mL) and horseradish peroxidase (10 U/mL), as described (Lee et al, 2021), with modification. Briefly, D_5R -HEK293 and hRPTCs were grown in 24-well plates. The cells were transfected with *PRDX4*-scrambled or -specific siRNA for 36 h when the cells were about 75% confluent.

Then, the cells were centrifuged, and $50 \mu L$ supernatants from each well were incubated with 50 μ L freshly prepared Amplex Red $(100 \mu M)$ and horseradish peroxidase (0.2U) mL) for 15 min at room temperature. Resorufin, the fluorescent product, was measured in triplicate in a fluorescence 96 well plate reader at an excitation wavelength of 530 nm and an emission wavelength of 590 nm.

Enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay

The concentrations of IL-1 β (Cayman Chemical, Ann Arbor, MI), TNF (Cayman Chemical), and caspase-12 (Antibodies-Online, Inc., Limerick, PA) were measured using enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay kits, according to the manufacturers' instructions. Briefly, D_5R -HEK293 and hRPTCs were seeded in 12-well plates; the cells were transfected with *PRDX4* -scrambled or -specific siRNA when the cells were about 75% confluent. After 36 h, FEN (25 n*M*) or VEH was added in the presence or absence of SCH $(1 \mu M,$ 30 min earlier than FEN) for 12 h. The supernatants from the samples were collected by centrifugation, and their absorbances were read in 96-well plates at 410 nm, for IL-1 β and TNFa, and 450 nm, for caspase-12.

Generation of Drd $5^{-/-}$ mice

The generation of *Drd5^{-/-}* mice has been reported (Hollon et al, 2002; Lee et al, 2021; Li et al, 2008; Yang et al, 2006); *Drd5*-/- mice are hypertensive and in a state of oxidative stress (Lee et al, 2021; Lu et al, 2013; Yang et al, 2006). F6 generation $Drd5^{-/-}$ mice on C57Bl/6 (>98% congenic) background and sex-matched, wild-type littermates were used in this study. The kidneys were collected, and their cortices were processed for immunoblotting (Hollon et al, 2002; Lee et al, 2021; Li et al, 2008; Yang et al, 2006).

Statistical analysis

Sample sizes were determined by power calculation with the type I and type II significance levels at 0.05 and power to 0.8. Results are expressed as mean \pm standard deviation. Significant differences among groups $(n>2)$ were determined by one-way factorial ANOVA, Newman–Keuls test, and between two groups by Student's *t* test. *p* < 0.05 was considered statistically significant (SigmaStat 3.0, SPSS, Inc., Chicago, IL).

Author Disclosure Statement

All the authors declare no competing interests.

Authors' Contribution

H.L. and P.A.J. conceived and designed the experiments. B.A., S.Y., P.Y., L.D.A., and H.L. performed the experiments. B.A., P.Y., P.V.C., I.A., C.Z., R.A.F., L.D.A., P.A.J., and H.L. interpreted the experimental results. H.L. drafted the manuscript; all authors edited and revised the manuscript. P.A.J. approved the final manuscript.

Data Availability

The data are available upon reasonable request.

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Supplementary Material

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