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REVIEW

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## Role of Mitochondria in the Mechanisms of Glutamate Toxicity

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**Abstract**—Current data on glutamate-induced functional and morphological changes in mitochondria correlating with or being a result of their membrane potential changes are reviewed. The important role of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ ,  $\text{Na}^+$ , and  $\text{H}^+$  in the potentiation of such changes is considered. It is assumed that glutamate-induced loss of mitochondrial potential is mediated by  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  overload resulting in the induction of nonspecific permeability of the inner mitochondrial membrane.

**Key words:** neurons, mitochondria, glutamate, calcium ions

During recent years, many authors have shown that hyperstimulation of glutamate receptors by excitatory amino acids is the main pathogenic factor of neuronal degeneration in brain hypoxia/ischemia. Therefore, studies of the mechanisms of destructive processes in neurons induced by toxic concentrations of glutamate (Glu) and its analogs has become especially important.

In 1957, Lucas and Newhouse showed that subcutaneous injections of glutamate to young mice caused degeneration of retinal neurons [1]. Later, these data were confirmed by Olney et al. who suggested the hypothesis explaining the neurocytotoxic effect of excitatory amino acids [2-4]. These authors proposed that prolonged and intense interaction of Glu or its analogs with Glu receptors caused stable depolarization of plasma membrane leading to altered membrane permeability and impaired ionic balance and energy producing systems that normally restore ionic homeostasis. The continuous ion influx from the external medium results in the exhaustion of energy stores, insufficient ion extrusion, and ionic imbalance, which finally leads to cell death. Later, the hypothesis explaining neurodestructive action of Glu was confirmed and supplemented by other data [5-9]. Excessive  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  influx was regarded by a number of authors as the main reason for neuronal degeneration under the *in vitro* action of excitatory amino acids [10]. However, the reasons for Glu-induced neuronal energy imbalance remained unclear for a long time. This problem was discussed in recent reviews [11-13], but some aspects, in

particular, Glu-induced changes in mitochondrial conformation due to their energy depletion were not studied. We discuss this problem in the present review.

### TOXIC ACTION OF GLUTAMATE CAUSES ACCUMULATION OF CALCIUM IN NEURONAL CYTOPLASM AND MITOCHONDRIA

Present data show that during Glu toxicity, the mechanisms determining ion homeostasis, and those maintaining cell energy status are closely connected. It was shown that activated Glu receptors open Glu operated ion channels providing the influx of  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  and the efflux of  $\text{K}^+$ . Membrane depolarization caused by increased intracellular  $\text{Na}^+$  concentration results in  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  entry via voltage-gated  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  channels [10]. Endoplasmic reticulum and mitochondria can also release  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  to the cytoplasm [14].  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  release from endoplasmic reticulum can be stimulated, for example, by inositol triphosphate [15], a product of phosphoinositol metabolism activated by binding of Glu to type 5 metabotropic receptor ( $\text{mGlu}_5$ ) [16]. It is possible that  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  neuronal overload results in the reversal of the  $\text{Na}^+/\text{Ca}^{2+}$  antiporter in plasma membrane and  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  ions begin to enter the cell via this mechanism [17]. However, other data contradict this hypothesis [18, 19].

Earlier, it was shown that toxic action of excitatory amino acids and hyperactivation of NMDA channels closely correlate with the accumulation of intracellular  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  [20, 21]. It is known that the concentration of cyto-

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plasmic  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  at rest is below  $0.1 \mu\text{M}$ , while after stimulation of Glu receptors its concentration can reach  $8\text{--}16 \mu\text{M}$  [22]. At the same time, it was shown that excessive  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  induced by Glu stimulation could be stored in neuronal mitochondria [23–26]. Under the conditions of phosphate excess, these organelles can store  $200 \text{ nmol } \text{Ca}^{2+}/\text{mg protein}$  [27].  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  accumulation by mitochondria depends on their membrane potential, which points to electrogenic character of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  transport in mitochondria. Thus, mitochondrial membrane potential can be regarded as a factor contributing to intracellular  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  regulation in neurons, which definitely occurs during activation of Glu receptors. Khodorov *et al.* [26] showed that antimycin, an inhibitor of the 3rd complex of the electron transport chain, combined with the inhibitor of ATP synthase, oligomycin, significantly inhibits  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  uptake into mitochondria. The latest data show that  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  uptake into mitochondria depends on the degree of their association with cytoskeleton. It was shown that  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  accumulation by mitochondria decrease by 53% in vinblastine-treated hippocampal neurons after activation of NMDA receptors [28]. Notably, calcium homeostasis of the neurons can be restored much quicker after  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  influx stimulated by  $\text{K}^+$  depolarization of the plasma membrane compared to Glu-induced  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  entry. This indicates that  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  accumulated in the neuronal cytosol due to opening of Glu activated channels and  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  entering the cell via other channels may initiate different processes [29].

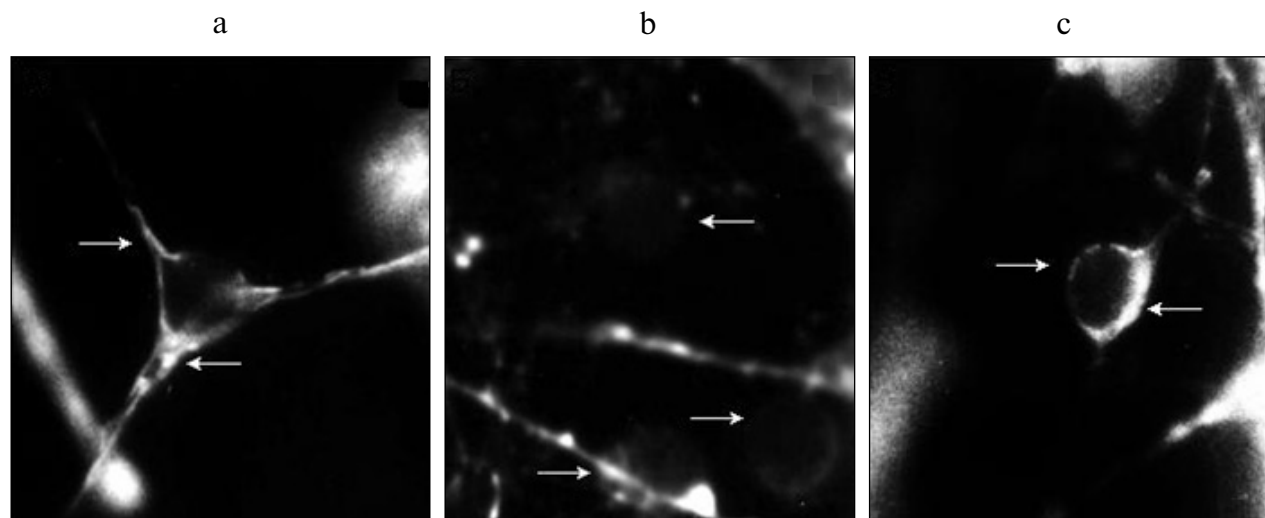
Budd and Nicholls assumed that glutamate toxicity directly depends on the ability of mitochondria to store  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  [30] since  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  binding sites were discovered on the cytoplasmic part of NMDA receptors [31] and NMDA channels were inactivated by  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ . Mitochondria are

located closely to these  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  binding sites and can chelate  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ , decreasing its local concentration and thus preventing inactivation of NMDA channels. This local  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  uptake does not prevent  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  accumulation in other parts of a neuron, which results in  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  overload of the cytoplasm and consequently, mitochondria. Budd and Nicholls assume that under normal physiological conditions,  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  uptake into mitochondria can prevent untimely inactivation of NMDA channels [30].

High concentrations of intracellular  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  inevitably cause neuronal death initiated by hyperstimulation of NMDA receptors even under conditions of electrogenic  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  transport in mitochondria [32]. This points to the leading role of mitochondria in initiation of Glu-induced neuronal death. Probably, destruction of mitochondria caused by  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  overload and dysfunction of the respiratory chain and oxidative phosphorylation is the key factor initiating neuronal death. This assumption is confirmed by the fact that synchronous inhibition of the mitochondrial respiratory chain by rotenone and ATP synthase by oligomycin protects neurons from death caused by hyperstimulation of Glu receptors, prevents the decrease of ATP levels, and normalizes the level of free cytosolic  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  [30].

#### GLUTAMATE-INDUCED CALCIUM ACCUMULATION IN NEURONAL MITOCHONDRIA IMPAIRS THE MORPHOLOGY AND FUNCTIONAL STATE OF THESE ORGANELLES

Numerous studies have shown that Glu-induced calcium overload of a neuron leads to the collapse of mito-



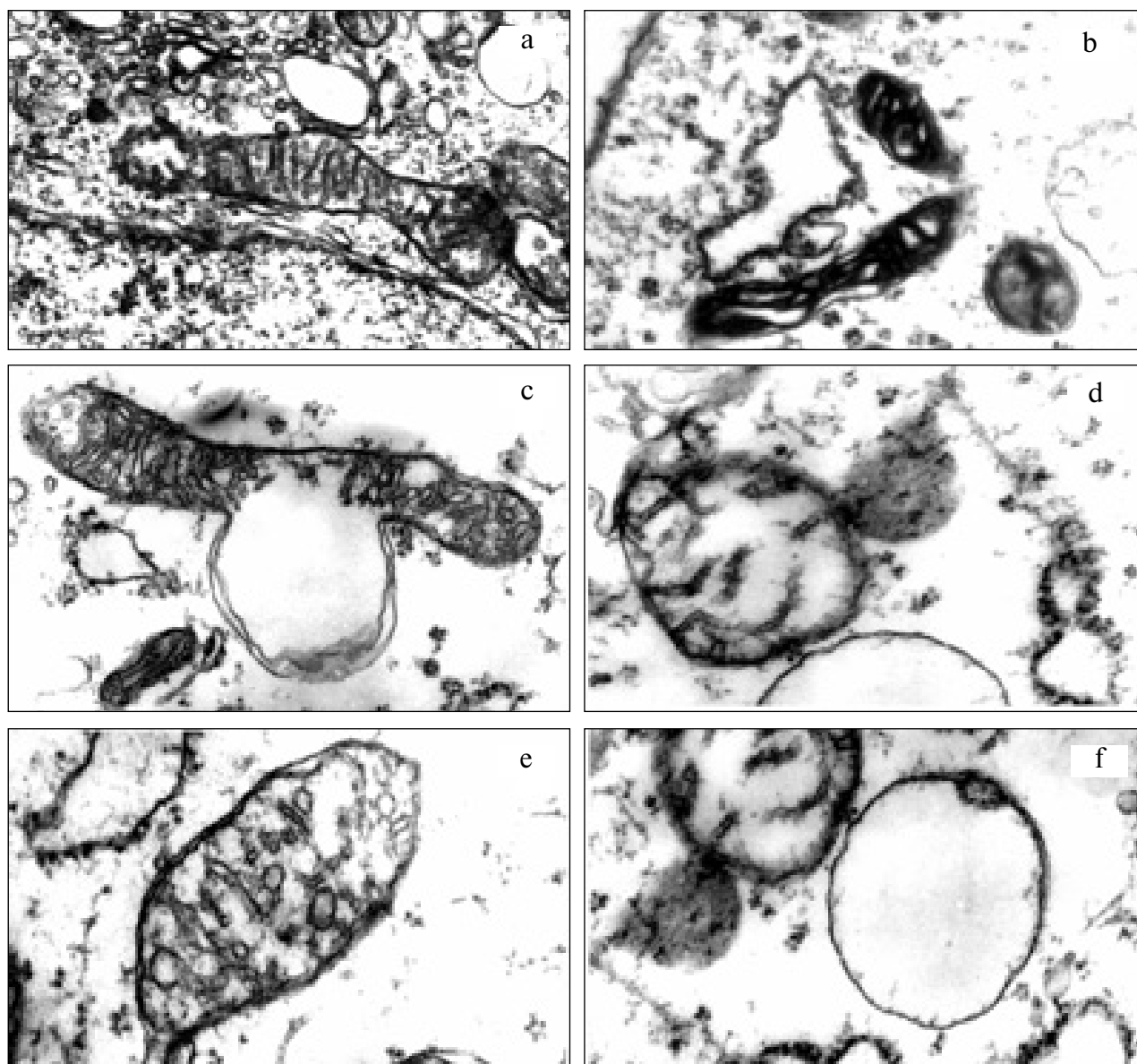
**Fig. 1.** Cultured cerebellar granule cells treated by rhodamine 123 (R123), an indicator of mitochondrial membrane potential: a) control, arrowheads indicate cells with intensely fluorescent mitochondria stained by R123; b) glutamate-treated ( $100 \mu\text{M}$ , 15 min) culture, the arrows point out cells with energy depleted mitochondria; c) culture treated by glutamate ( $100 \mu\text{M}$ , 15 min) in the presence of  $2 \text{ mM } \text{CoCl}_2$ ; intensely fluorescent energized mitochondria are shown by arrowheads (from [34]).

chondrial membrane potential (Fig. 1), decreased ATP level, and finally, to neuronal death [30, 33–38].

The collapse of mitochondrial membrane potential after short-term Glu toxic treatment was associated with different ultrastructural changes in mitochondria. Thus, mitochondria with condensed matrix as well as swollen mitochondria with decreased matrix electron density could be found in Glu-treated cerebellar granule cells (Fig. 2). These mitochondria might present different stages of degeneration [34].

Glu also induced swelling of mitochondria in cortical neurons [39, 40] and in HT4 cell line derived from hippocampal neurons [41].

It is probable that mitochondrial degeneration starts with matrix condensation, and thereafter mitochondrial swelling and destruction of their cristae occurs. However, the synchronous presence of condensed and swollen mitochondria may point to heterogeneity of the mitochondrial population. Mitochondrial heterogeneity was previously noted by other authors, who showed different



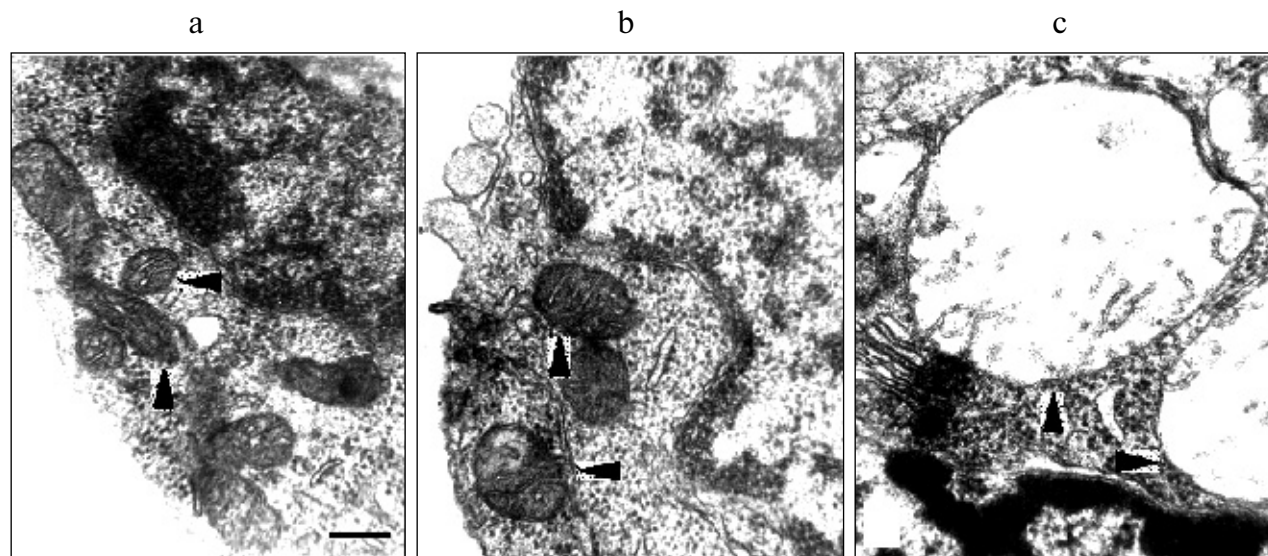
**Fig. 2.** Ultrastructure of mitochondria in glutamate-treated (100  $\mu$ M, 15 min) cultured cerebellar granule cells: a) normal mitochondria in untreated cell; b) condensed mitochondria with decreased section area, enlarged intracristae and intermembrane spaces, decreased matrix volume associated with its high electron density; c) mitochondrion with local swelling and preserved in general ultrastructure; d) swollen mitochondrion with low electron density of the matrix, but preserved cristae and membranes; e) swollen mitochondrion with decreased matrix electron density and swollen cristae; f) swollen mitochondrion with destroyed cristae; two membrane layers are still seen in the upper part of the mitochondrion. Magnification  $\times 40,000$  (data of the authors).

activity of mitochondrial enzymes under normal conditions and various morphological changes in these organelles under pathological conditions [42]. It is possible that mitochondria with condensed matrix retain the ability to restore their normal ultrastructure after the action of Glu. Notably, the degree of swelling and energy loss sharply increased under the conditions of toxic Glu treatment in solution with isoosmotic substitution of  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Cl}^-$  by sucrose [43]. No mitochondria with condensed matrix were found [44] (Fig. 3). Activation of Glu receptors results in the influx of calcium and sodium ions, and the latter can activate  $\text{Na}^+/\text{Ca}^{2+}$  antiporter in mitochondria, thus decreasing their  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  buffering capacity. The recycling of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  in mitochondria leads to the constant discharge of the membrane potential, which can be restored by activation of mitochondrial respiration [23, 45]. Thus, during hyperactivation of Glu receptors  $\text{Na}^+$  overload may inhibit  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  overload of mitochondria and prevent their swelling. However, mitochondrial swelling due to the action of Glu may result not only from  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  overload, but also from other neuron-specific mechanisms leading to the swelling of these organelles. Earlier it was shown that even 2-h incubation of PERV (porcine embryonic renal cells) cell line with  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  ionophore A23187 cause only matrix condensation, but not mitochondrial swelling [46]. On the same cell line, it was shown that inhibition of ATP synthase by oligomycin or dicyclohexylcarbodiimide leads to mitochondrial swelling, while inhibitors of electron transport chain (rotenone and antimycin A) cause matrix condensation

followed by mitochondrial swelling [47]. Similar changes in mitochondrial ultrastructure during Glu toxicity and under the action of respiration inhibitors suggest the impairment of electron transport in neuronal mitochondria during toxic action of Glu.

Recent data indicate that Glu neurotoxic action results not only in the collapse of mitochondrial membrane potential, but in a rapid impairment of mitochondrial movement in cells [48]. These authors observed that treatment by uncouplers or through the blockade of ATP synthesis by oligomycin also stopped mitochondrial movement in the cells, but did not change three-dimensional structure of mitochondria recorded by light microscopy. The addition of uncouplers during Glu treatment prevents neither movement impairment nor changes in mitochondrial morphology, though all these parameters recovered more rapidly after removal of these reagents [48].

The mechanisms of Glu-induced mitochondrial energy depletion attract a special interest of many authors. We assume that this energy depletion results from the induction of nonspecific permeability of the mitochondrial inner membrane due to  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  overload of these organelles [33, 34]. This is confirmed by the facts that mitochondrial depolarization is accompanied by their swelling and that Glu-induced neuronal death can be suppressed by the inhibitor of nonspecific permeability, cyclosporin A [36, 37]. Preincubation of the neurons with N-methylvaline-4-cyclosporin significantly increases the time of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  accumulation by mitochondria [49].



**Fig. 3.** Mitochondrial ultrastructure in rat cerebellar granule cells incubated in various balanced salt solutions for 20 min. Mitochondria are indicated by arrowheads. Scale bar, 0.3  $\mu\text{m}$ . a) Incubation in balanced salt solution with 2.3 mM  $\text{CaCl}_2$ ; b) incubation in low- $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -free solution.  $\text{NaCl}$  was isoosmotically substituted by sucrose. Morphology and volume of mitochondria are the same as in control cells (a); c) incubation in low- $\text{Na}^+$  salt solution containing 2.3 mM  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  as in control (a). Mitochondria are strongly swollen, but separate cristae are still seen (from [44]).

However, cyclosporin A cannot be regarded as a specific inhibitor of nonspecific permeability, because it also blocks calcineurin, thus inhibiting the action of NO synthase. Calcineurin is known to induce dephosphorylation of NO synthase, activating this enzyme [50], while NO synthase may mediate toxic action of excitatory amino acids [51]. Nicotera et al. showed that a specific blocker of calcineurin, FK-506, did not prevent Glu-induced energy depletion in neuronal mitochondria [52]. These data confirm that Glu-induced energy depletion of mitochondria is mediated by  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -induced nonspecific permeability of the mitochondrial inner membrane. The formation of the transitional pore in the inner membrane may result in the release of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  into neuronal cytoplasm and thus contribute to the persistent  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  overload of a neuron during toxic action of Glu.

#### MECHANISMS AND FUNCTIONAL ROLE OF ACIDOSIS OF NEURONAL CYTOPLASM DURING HYPERSTIMULATION OF GLUTAMATE RECEPTORS

In addition to changes in ionic balance of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ ,  $\text{Na}^+$ , and  $\text{K}^+$ , Glu induces dramatic decrease in cytoplasm pH [53-55]. Our experiments using a pH-sensitive fluorescent probe, fluorescein diacetate, revealed a steep decrease of intracellular pH in cultured cerebellar granule cells by  $0.3 \pm 0.035$  unit within 10 min incubation with 100  $\mu\text{M}$  Glu. Other authors observed even stronger Glu- or NMDA-induced acidosis of neuronal cytoplasm surpassing 0.5 unit [54, 56]. The source of protons in neuronal cytoplasm during Glu toxic action has not yet been identified. Cytoplasmic acidosis may occur for many reasons such as the decreased activity of plasma  $\text{Na}^+/\text{H}^+$  antiporter resulting from  $\text{Na}^+$  cytoplasm overload, intensification of glycolysis and ATP hydrolysis, and activation of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}/\text{H}^+$  antiporter due to competition between  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  and protons for the binding sites on protein molecules. Wang and coauthors showed that Glu-induced acidosis directly correlated with  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  transport in mitochondria, since cytoplasmic acidosis could be prevented by a specific mitochondrial  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  transport blocker, ruthenium red [56]. Later, it was shown that NMDA-induced acidosis could be prevented by glycolysis inhibitors or the inhibitors of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -ATPase, which points to the involvement of plasmalemma  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -ATPase in development of Glu-induced acidosis of neuronal cytoplasm [57]. It is possible that cytoplasmic acidosis prevents the formation of nonspecific permeability of the mitochondrial inner membrane, because acidification of the incubation medium is known to decelerate the formation of the transitional pore in the inner membrane [58-61].

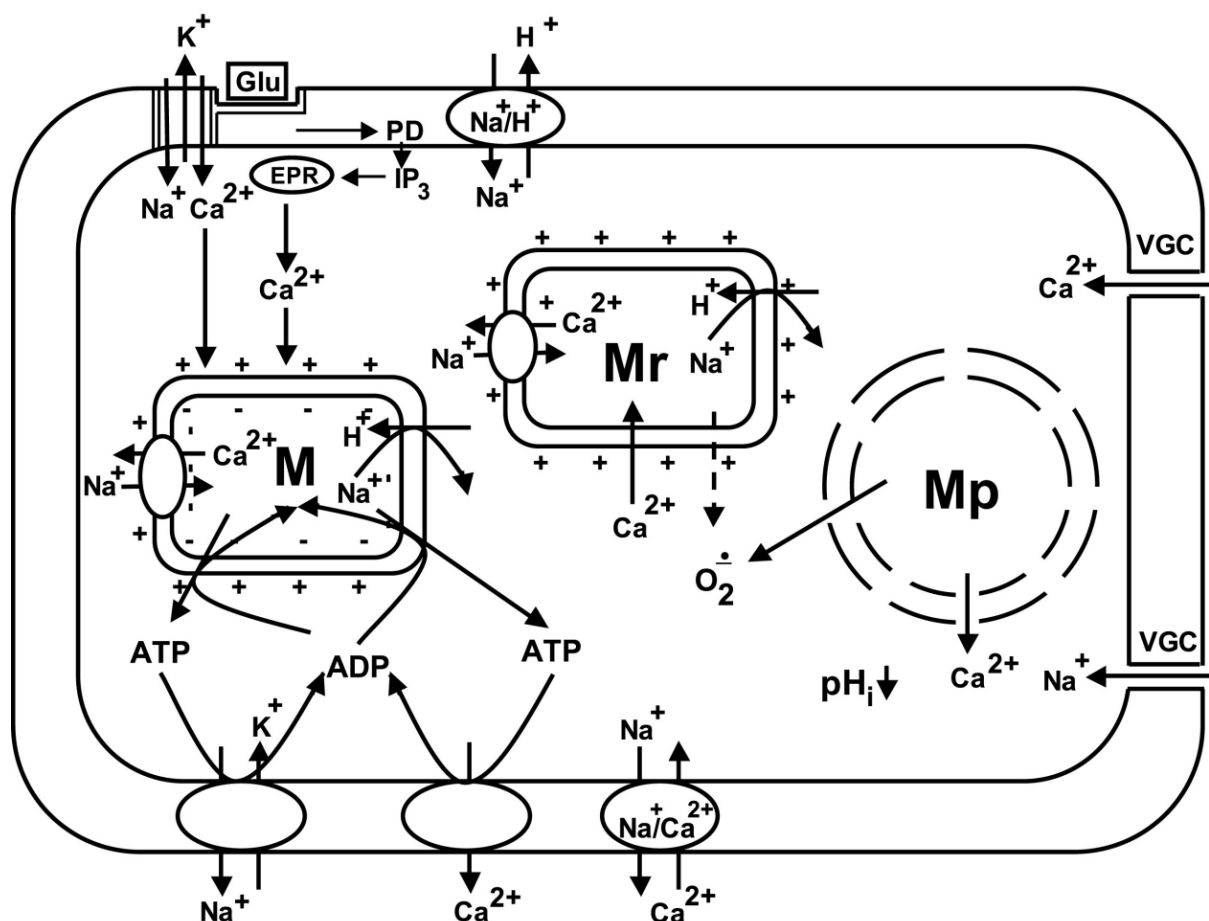
However, the opposite view speculates that decreased cytoplasmic pH promotes the formation of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  permeability pore. It was shown that acidification of the incubation

medium decreased the lag phase of the induction of nonspecific permeability of mitochondrial inner membrane by cumene hydroperoxide [62]. These authors assume that the induction of nonspecific permeability by pH decrease is caused by the decrease in transmembrane potential due to  $\text{H}^+$  leak via ATP synthase, because this permeability is formed only in the absence of oligomycin.

#### ROLE OF MITOCHONDRIA IN THE MECHANISMS OF TOXIC ACTION OF EXCITATORY AMINO ACIDS

Mitochondria may directly mediate toxic action of excitatory amino acids. In addition to the induction of nonspecific permeability of the mitochondrial inner membrane, impairment of ATP production, and release of apoptosis-inducing substances, they can produce glutamate due to activation of mitochondrial glutaminase after long-term stimulation of Glu receptors. It was shown that under normal conditions murine cortical neurons and astrocytes produced about 30 nmol Glu per min, whereas 5-h hypoxia or exposure to 0.5 mM NMDA increased Glu production to 500-800 nmol/min. This increase in the rate of Glu accumulation in cultured neurons induced by hyperactivation of Glu receptors could be inhibited by specific inhibitors of mitochondrial glutaminase, 6-diazo-5-keto-L-norleucine and *p*-chloromercuriphenylsulfonic acid [63].

Under conditions of increased leakage of electrons from the electron transport chain to molecular oxygen and impaired  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  homeostasis in neurons, mitochondria can serve as an additional source of free radicals. Incubation of the mitochondrial fraction of the cortex and cerebellum in medium with high  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  and  $\text{Na}^+$  content resulted in increased free radical production [64]. These data were confirmed later on the model of cultured rat and murine cortical cells. It was shown that NMDA treatment as well as treatment by the blocker of oxidative phosphorylation, carbonyl cyanide *p*-(trifluoromethoxy)phenylhydrazide (FCCP), stimulated the production of reactive oxygen species (ROS). ROS production depended on extracellular  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  concentration and could be decreased by inhibitors of the electron transport chain [65-67], while FCCP enhanced the NMDA-induced ROS production [66]. At the same time, it was stated that the induction of nonspecific mitochondrial permeability was associated with enhanced ROS production [68, 69]. These data confirm that  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -dependent formation of nonspecific mitochondrial pore induced by hyperstimulation of NMDA receptors can promote the development of oxidative stress in neurons. Vergun et al. point to the other mechanism of participation of free radicals in Glu toxicity [70]. These authors showed that combined treatment of the neurons by various antioxidants during toxic Glu action may inhibit the influx of ions via NMDA channels.



**Fig. 4.** Mechanisms of Glu-induced changes in  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  and  $\text{Na}^{+}$  concentrations impairing the structure and function of neuronal mitochondria. PD, phosphoinositide diphosphate;  $\text{IP}_3$ , inositol triphosphate; VGC, voltage-gated channels; EPR, endoplasmic reticulum; M, normal mitochondrion; Mr, mitochondrion with  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  recycling; Mp, mitochondrion with an open pore.

The most recent data showed that ND2 NADH dehydrogenase subunit known as complex I component of the mitochondrial respiratory chain and encoded by a mitochondrial gene, fixed regulatory Scr protein in NMDA receptor complex. This protein interaction is critical for the regulation of NMDA receptor activity [71]. Thus, mitochondria directly participate in the intra-neuronal transduction of NMDA receptor signal.

In conclusion, it should be noted that mitochondria play a significant or even critical role in the mediation of Glu-induced neuronal death. Figure 4 presents a scheme summarizing the mechanisms leading to the impairment of energy and ionic homeostasis under the toxic action of Glu.

During hyperactivation of Glu receptors,  $\text{K}^{+}$  ions leave the neurons, while  $\text{Na}^{+}$  and  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  enter the cells via NMDA and kainate channels and after depolarization of the plasma membrane via voltage-gated  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  channels. The interaction of Glu with metabotropic receptors activates phosphoinositide metabolism and production of inositol triphosphate, which causes the release of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$

from endoplasmic reticulum.  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  overload leads to a pronounced acidification of the cytoplasm. As shown in Fig. 4,  $\text{Na}^{+}$  ions enter the cell via receptor-operated and voltage-gated channels,  $\text{Na}^{+}/\text{H}^{+}$  and  $\text{Na}^{+}/\text{Ca}^{2+}$  antiporters, and are extruded by the  $\text{Na}^{+}/\text{K}^{+}$  pump. Since the efficacy of  $\text{Na}^{+}$ -dependent  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  extrusion is determined by transmembrane  $\text{Na}^{+}$  gradient, any process increasing intracellular  $\text{Na}^{+}$  concentration, including  $\text{Na}^{+}/\text{H}^{+}$  exchange, inhibits  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  extrusion via  $\text{Na}^{+}/\text{Ca}^{2+}$  antiporters. Activation of Glu receptors causes constant influx of  $\text{Na}^{+}$  and  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  via NMDA and voltage-gated channels. This ionic overload leads to intense ATP expense due to the activity of ATP-dependent extrusion of intracellular ions and  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  recycling in the mitochondria.  $\text{Na}^{+}$  overload leads to the impairment of Glu and glucose uptake. Excessive cytosolic  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  is largely accumulated by mitochondria, which stimulates the production of free radicals by these organelles. Radical production combined with  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  overload promotes mitochondrial swelling, damage of their inner membrane associated with the formation of large pores, collapse of mitochon-

drial membrane potential, inhibition of aerobic ATP production, release of cytochrome *c* and  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ , and the cessation of mitochondrial movement. The induction of non-specific permeability may lead to further mitochondrial swelling and increased ROS production. Under the conditions of toxic Glu action,  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  release from the mitochondria via the nonspecific permeability pore may contribute to stable  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  overload of a neuron. Deprived of the main ATP source, these neurons cannot recover ionic homeostasis, which leads to activation of lipolytic and proteolytic enzymes and finally, to cell death.

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