

Acidosis, Acid-Sensing Ion Channels, and Neuronal Cell Death

Yi-Zhi Wang · Tian-Le Xu

Received: 14 July 2011 / Accepted: 1 September 2011 / Published online: 20 September 2011
© Springer Science+Business Media, LLC 2011

Abstract Acidosis is a common feature of many neuronal diseases and often accompanied with adverse consequences such as pain and neuronal injury. Before the discovery of acid-sensing ion channels (ASICs), protons were usually considered as a modulator of other ion channels, such as voltage-gated calcium channels, *N*-methyl-D-aspartate, and γ -amino butyric acid(A) receptor channels. Accordingly, the functional effects of acidosis were considered as consequences of modulations of these channels. Since the first cloning of ASICs in 1997, the conventional view on acidosis-mediated pain and cell injury has been dramatically changed. To date, ASICs, which are directly activated by extracellular protons, are shown to mediate most of the acidosis-associated physiological and pathological functions. For example, ASIC1a channels are reported to mediate acidosis-induced ischemic neuronal death. In this article, we will review the possible mechanisms that underlie ASIC1a channel-mediated neuronal death and discuss ASIC1a channel modulators involved in this process.

Keywords Acidosis · ASIC1a · Neuronal cell death · Spermine · Ischemic stroke

Introduction

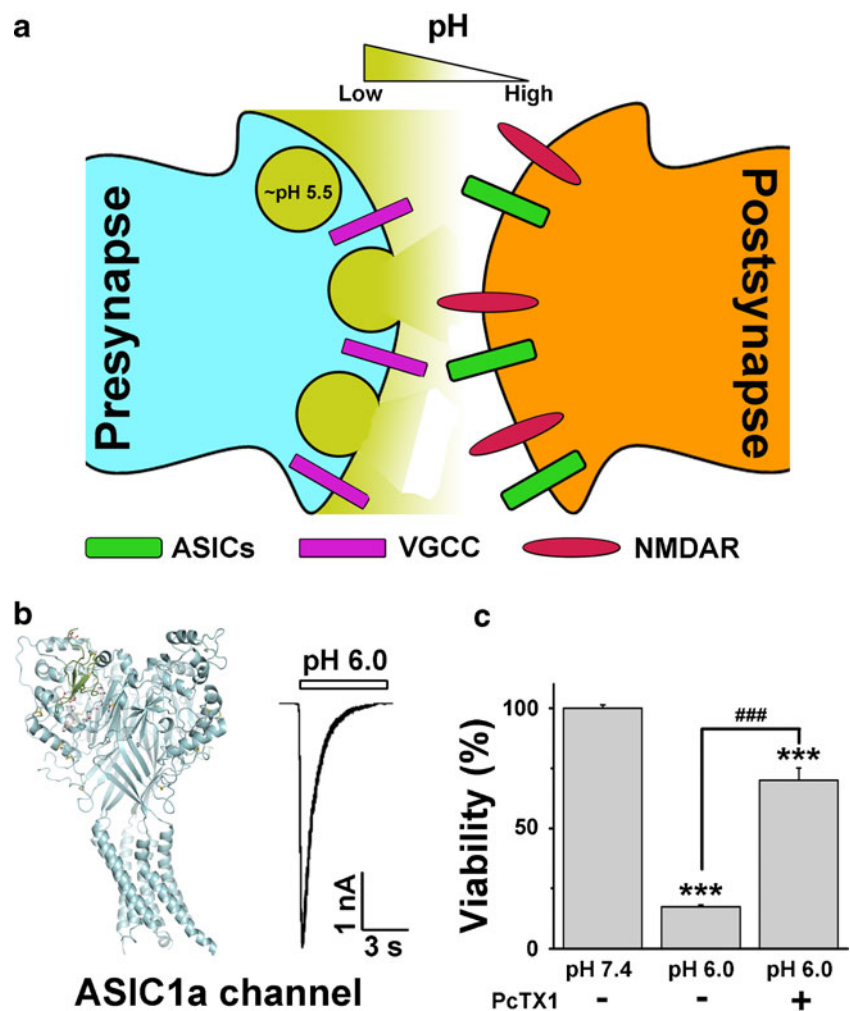
Protons are the smallest of molecules but contribute to many important physiological functions. In the nervous system, protons modulate synaptic transmission, neuronal plasticity, and membrane excitability [1]. It has been shown that the pH level inside synaptic vesicles is ~ 1.5 pH units lower than that in the cytosol [2]. Protons are co-released with neurotransmitters during synaptic transmission leading to the extracellular acidification of the synaptic cleft and modulation of synaptic activity (Fig. 1a) [2, 3]. In the presynaptic terminal, protons reduce neurotransmitter release by feedback inhibition of voltage-gated Ca^{2+} channels (VGCC) [4, 5]. Postsynaptically, protons greatly suppress the activity of *N*-methyl-D-aspartate (NMDA) [6, 7] and γ -amino butyric acid (GABA(A)) receptors [8, 9] (but see [10]). Moreover, in *Caenorhabditis elegans*, protons act as a neuronal transmitter to mediate muscle contraction [11]. On the other hand, protons over-accumulate due to disturbance of acid–base balance in diseases such as traumatic brain injury, ischemic stroke, and epileptic seizure [12–18]. This pathologically excessive acidification is termed acidosis, which often leads to defects in brain function, and even worse, severe neuronal injury.

Fourteen years ago, acid-sensing ion channels (ASICs) were first cloned and shown to be widely distributed in the nervous system [19]. This discovery greatly changed the view on tissue acidification and its consequences. Since then, ASICs have been extensively studied as key targets in many different aspects of acidosis [20]. Although ASICs are not the only player of proton-induced cellular functions, they mediate many important proton-regulated processes, among which acidosis-induced neuronal death, such as that occurring in diseases like ischemic stroke, is mediated by ASIC1a channels [21, 22]. Both blockade of ASIC1a

Y.-Z. Wang · T.-L. Xu (✉)
Neuroscience Division, Department of Biochemistry
and Molecular Cell Biology, Institute of Medical Sciences,
Shanghai Jiao Tong University School of Medicine,
280 South Chongqing Road,
Shanghai 200025, China
e-mail: xu-happiness@shsmu.edu.cn

Y.-Z. Wang
Institute of Neuroscience and State Key Laboratory
of Neuroscience, Shanghai Institutes for Biological Sciences,
Chinese Academy of Sciences,
Shanghai 200031, China

Fig. 1 Synaptic cleft acidification and ASIC1a channel activation. **a** Protons are co-released with neurotransmitters from acidic vesicles during neurotransmission and modulate both presynaptic and postsynaptic ion channels, such as VGCC, NMDA receptors (*NMDAR*), and ASICs. **b** Stereo view of the three-dimensional structural model of human ASIC1a channels. This figure is made using PyMol. *Right panel:* Acid-induced whole cell current from Chinese hamster ovary cells expressing human ASIC1a. **c** Neuronal cell death following ASIC1a activation and neuro-protection by blocking ASIC1a channel using specific ASIC1a inhibitor, PcTX1 (unpublished data. $n=5$; *** $p<0.001$, unpaired t test, pH 6.0-treated group vs. pH 7.4-treated group. ### $p<0.001$, unpaired t test, pH 6.0-treated group vs. pH 6.0 plus PcTX1-treated group)



channels and deletion of the *ASIC1* gene rescued neurons from ischemic cell death (Figs. 1c and 3a). Although protons are the only known agonists of ASIC1a channels, a variety of endogenous molecules can modulate the activities of these channels and have a profound influence on ASIC1a channel-mediated neuronal death [23]. These findings suggest that ASIC1a is a potential new drug target for clinical therapy of acidosis-associated diseases. In this mini-review, we summarized the up-to-date knowledge of mechanisms and modulators of ASIC1a channel-mediated neuronal death, hoping to call for future researches on acidosis-associated diseases.

Acidosis and ASICs

Acidosis

Acidosis is a pathological condition in which acid–base balance is disturbed in the direction of excess acidity in the body fluid. There are two major types of acidosis, respiratory

acidosis and metabolic acidosis. Respiratory acidosis is due to a build-up of carbon dioxide caused by hypoventilation [24]. Metabolic acidosis mainly results from the increased accumulation of nonvolatile acids (usually lactic acid) or due to the loss of bicarbonate resulting from impaired mitochondrial function and abnormal energy metabolism [16]. Additionally, in the nervous system, extracellular acidosis also can result from excessive release of acidic vesicles due to aberrantly high neuronal activity (Fig. 1a) [15], such as seizures [17, 18].

Acidosis is a common phenomenon in many central nervous system (CNS) diseases. In ischemic brain, pH falls to 6.0 due to the accumulation of lactic acid the by-product of glycolysis and as a consequence of protons produced by ATP hydrolysis [12, 25, 26]. Similarly, the pH in the spinal cord is about 6.6 in mice with experimental autoimmune encephalomyelitis (EAE) [27]. Also, during seizure brain pH is reduced from ~7.35 to 6.8 [17, 18]. Furthermore, metabolic acidosis often occurs in neurodegenerative diseases. For example, cerebral acidosis (~pH 6.6) [28] and lactate accumulation in Alzheimer's disease (AD) may be due to impaired oxidative

energy metabolism and inflammation [29]. It was reported that acidosis increased the expression level of cellular A β in cultured rat hippocampal neurons [30]. Later in a rodent model of Alzheimer's disease, it was shown that acidosis contributed to the aggregation of A β [31, 32]. These studies suggested that acidosis may contribute to the dysregulation of A β and plaque deposition, which may cause neuronal dysfunction in AD [33]. Lactic acidosis was also observed both in Parkinson's disease (PD) patients [34] and 1-methyl-4-phenyl-1,2,3,6-tetrahydropyridine (MPTP)-induced PD mouse models [35] due to impairment of mitochondrial function. Acidosis may also contribute to the degeneration of substantia nigra (SNc) neurons induced by MPTP [36]. In addition, lactic acidosis also occurs in brains of Huntington's disease (HD) patients as well as in animal models of this disease. Acidosis in these conditions may result from aberrant energy metabolism that plays a role in the process of polyQ aggregation and the pathogenesis of HD [37–40].

It is generally conceded that there are adverse consequences of acidosis [16, 21, 22, 27, 31, 36, 40, 41], although there are reports that acidic preconditioning provided protection in ischemic injury [42] and acidosis may contribute to seizure termination [43]. It is reasonable to suggest that restoration of acid–base balance and blockade of the down-stream pathways of acidosis provide two promising approaches to eliminating the adverse consequences of acidosis such as neuronal death. However, considering the complexity of acid–base homeostasis mechanisms in the nervous system, the later approach would appear to be an easier and more operable option. In this respect, ASICs are becoming recognized as prime candidates as new therapeutic targets in acidosis-related diseases.

ASICs

ASICs represent a subgroup of proton-gated degenerin/epithelial Na⁺ channels, with seven isoforms reported to date [19, 44]. Their distribution is widespread in the nervous system, but only 1a, 2a, and 2b subtypes are expressed in neurons of the CNS [20]. Homomeric ASIC1a channels are Na⁺ and Ca²⁺ permeable, whereas other combinations are only permeable to Na⁺ (Fig. 1b) [19, 21, 45]. In CNS neurons, ASIC1a-containing channels (referred to ASIC1a channels) respond to extracellular pH reduction ranging from 6.9 to 5.0 to generate rapid depolarizing currents [19], and activation of these channels enhances the probability of action potential initiation [46].

The pathological acidosis associated with CNS diseases is in a range of pH values (ischemia, ~pH 6.5–6.0; seizure, ~pH 6.8; AD, ~pH 6.6) that are sufficient to activate ASIC1a channels. Indeed, many studies showed that ASICs, especially ASIC1a channels, play an important role in these diseases [21, 22, 27, 36, 40, 43, 47, 48]. With the use of specific inhibitors

and in animals where the channels have been genetically deleted, ASIC1a channels were shown to mediate delayed ischemic neuronal death in the mouse middle cerebral artery occlusion (MCAO) ischemic model, which led to the hypothesis that elevated intracellular Ca²⁺ resulting from entry via ASIC1a channels induces neuronal toxicity [21, 22]. In addition, in the EAE model, *ASIC1* gene deletion mice had both reduced axonal degeneration and reduced clinic deficits compared with wild-type ones, which suggests that ASIC1a channels contribute to the damage in neuro-inflammatory diseases like multiple sclerosis [27]. However, ASIC1a channels exhibited not only these adverse aspects, but also some beneficial ones. For example, activation of ASIC1a channels expressed in inhibitory interneurons, which are activated by the acidosis, protected the brain by terminating seizures [43]. Furthermore, ASIC1a channels were also reported to be involved in neurodegenerative diseases. Inhibition of ASIC1a channels protected SNc neurons from MPTP-induced degeneration in a PD model and decreased the aggregation of htt-polyQ in an HD model [36, 40]. As discussed above, lactic acidosis was also observed in the brains of AD patients and animal of these disease models [28, 29], and it was shown to induce A β dysregulation and aggregation, which may contribute to neuronal degeneration [30, 31, 33]. Thus, it is quite possible that ASIC1a channels contribute to the neuronal damage in neurodegenerative diseases.

Strictly speaking, ASICs inhibitors, which are prone to have side effects due to potential actions on other target molecules, are overused in previous studies to identify the role of ASICs on PD and HD models. For example, amiloride, an extensively used ASICs inhibitor, is also an effective inhibitor of Na⁺/H⁺ exchanger, which is activated by acidosis [49]. Thus, caution should be taken when evaluating the contributions of ASICs in diseases using pharmacological tools. Rodent genetic models such as *ASIC* gene deletion mice and molecular manipulations such as RNA interference of ASIC subunits should be sought to obtain supporting evidence to confirm pharmacological findings. Among all diseases that have been suggested to involve ASIC channels, there is sufficient and credible evidence to support the main and critical pathological function of ASIC1a channels in mediating ischemic neuronal death.

ASIC1a Channels and Neuronal Cell Death

Possible Mechanisms of ASIC1a Channel-Mediated Cell Death

Although it is now well accepted that ASIC1a channels mediate ischemic neuronal death [21, 22], the mechanism (s) for this effect remains unclear. It was found in *in vitro*

studies that reducing extracellular Ca^{2+} concentration inhibited acidosis-induced, ASIC1a-mediated neuronal death, which suggested that Ca^{2+} entry and consequent intracellular Ca^{2+} rises may be involved [21, 45]. According to the amount and source, elevations in intracellular Ca^{2+} levels may activate a variety of signaling pathways, leading to necrosis as well as apoptosis [50–52]. Compared with some glutamate receptors (e.g., NMDA receptors), activation of ASIC1a channels leads to a much weaker intracellular Ca^{2+} elevation (Fig. 2b) [19, 21, 45, 53]. As such, ASIC1a-mediated neuronal toxicity represents a new death mechanism different from excitotoxicity, which is always accompanied with a massive uncontrolled intracellular Ca^{2+} elevation [54]. Additionally, it has been reported that *C. elegans* MEC-4 Na^+ channels, which also belong to the degenerin/epithelial Na^+ channel superfamily, initiated neuronal necrosis in a calpain-dependent way [55]. Ca^{2+} influx through MEC-4 channels activated Ca^{2+} -induced Ca^{2+} release from the endoplasmic reticulum to promote neuronal death [55]. A similar mechanism may be at play for the ASIC1a-mediated ischemic neuronal death.

A recent report has revealed some new insights into ASIC1a channel-mediated neuronal death in vitro [56]. It was found that the ASICs inhibitors, psalmotoxin1 (PcTX1) and amiloride, both of which had been shown to inhibit ASIC1a channel-mediated neuronal death, also reduced reactive oxygen species (ROS) production. It was thus suggested that ASIC1a channel activation led to ROS generation, which in turn contributed to the delayed neuronal death. However, there is no direct evidence to show that antioxidants inhibit ASIC1a channel-mediated neuronal death. On the contrary, an earlier paper had demonstrated that two antioxidants, L-NAME and trolox, failed to rescue acidosis-induced (pH 6.0,

1 h) and ASIC1a channel-mediated death [21], suggesting that ROS might be a by-product of ASIC activation rather than the direct cause for the death. Besides causing damage directly, ROS are important modulators of many proteins. It was reported that ROS reduced the peak amplitude of ASIC1a channel currents through decreasing membrane trafficking due to inter-subunit disulfide bond formation [57, 58], indicating that ROS may provide neuroprotection against acidosis-induced injury [58]. Actually, the amount of ROS is greatly increased in the ischemic brain through many different pathways [59]. Although ROS may decrease surface expression of ASIC1a channels, too much ROS can still lead to severe neuronal death through different pathways [59]. Moreover, it is very interesting that acidosis was reported to potentiate oxidative neuronal death [60]. Thus, the time and amount of ROS generation are very critical for ischemic neuronal death. For example, if the ROS was generated before ischemia, it would decrease the surface of ASIC1a channels and therefore reduce the subsequent neuronal death. On the other hand, if too much ROS was generated during ischemia, it would lead to severe neuronal death, which is potentiated by acidosis.

The integrity and function of mitochondria are critical for most types of cell death, due to generation of ROS and release of pro-death proteins from mitochondrial intermembrane space [61]. It has been shown that mitochondrion plays a critical role in acidosis-induced injury in cardiac myocytes [62]. In this case, hypoxia–acidosis led to cell death by the opening of mitochondrial permeability transition pore (miPTP) because of accumulation of Bcl-2 family member Bcl-2/adenovirus E1B 19 kDa interacting protein 3 (BNIP3), and this could be rescued by the miPTP inhibitor cyclosporine A [62]. The same mechanism was also reported in kidney epithelial cells,

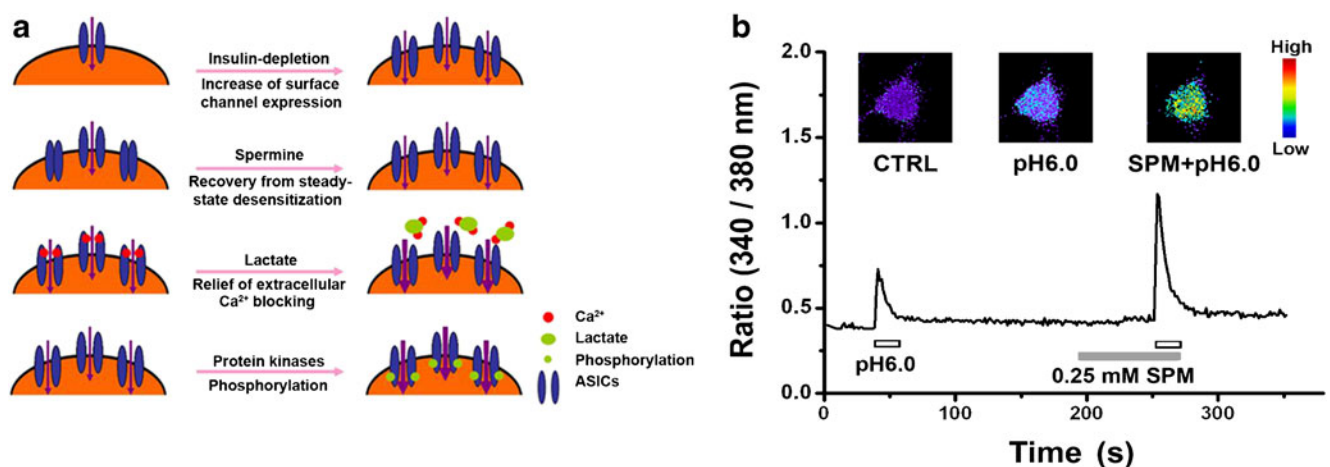


Fig. 2 Sensitization of ASIC1a channel and acid-induced intracellular Ca^{2+} elevation by spermine (SPM). **a** Four known mechanisms underlying ASIC1a sensitization. From *top to bottom*, increase of surface channel expression; recovery from steady-state desensitization; relief of extracellular Ca^{2+} blocking; phosphorylation. See text for detail.

b Representative plot of 340/380 ratio changes (corresponding to intracellular Ca^{2+} levels) induced by pH decrease in the absence or presence of 0.25 mM SPM. Example ratio images before (CTRL) and during pH drop in the absence (pH 6.0) and presence of SPM (SPM+pH 6.0) are shown on the top. Reprinted from Duan et al. [66]

and the mitochondrial activity inhibitor, such as rotenone, rescued the death [63]. Unsolved questions are what the role of mitochondria is in ASIC1a channel-mediated neuronal death, whether miPTP also opens in acidosis-treated neurons (induced by elevated intracellular Ca^{2+} or other BNIP3-like molecules?) and, if so, how ASIC1a channels contribute to these events. As discussed above, activation of ASIC1a channels leads to elevation of intracellular ROS, which is indicative of mitochondrial contribution. Except for this, very little is known about the relationship between ASIC1a channels and mitochondria at the current stage. To fully understand the mechanism(s) of ASIC1a channel-mediated neuronal death and provide effective treatments, the contribution of mitochondria should be studied thoroughly.

Endogenous Modulators of ASIC1a-Mediated Cell Death

Compared with NMDA receptors, ASIC1a channels exhibit a much lower Ca^{2+} permeability. In addition, the rapid peak current only lasts for seconds (Fig. 1b) [19] because ASIC1a channels completely desensitize after a few seconds of continued exposure to an acidic extracellular solution [64], suggesting that the total amount of Ca^{2+} that can pass through ASIC1a channels is limited (Fig. 2b). Therefore, it is

logical to think that there exist some modulators to enhance the function of ASIC1a channels in order to allow them to act as death initiators. As expected, many endogenous substances have been found to amplify the functions of ASIC1a channels under pathological conditions [23]. According to their modulatory functions, these substances have been divided into four classes (Fig. 2a). First, a recent paper showed that insulin is a key component to maintain a low level of ASIC1a channels on neuronal surface, and insulin (or serum) depletion promoted trafficking of intracellularly localized ASIC1a channels to plasma membrane, which may contribute to cell death [48, 65]. The precise signaling pathways of insulin (or serum depletion)-induced cell surface expression of ASIC1a proteins remain unknown. It is possible that there are multiple factors involved in this process considering the complex components of serum. Second, we recently showed that spermine, one of the endogenous polyamines, facilitated ASIC1a channels from steady-state desensitization and greatly enhanced ASIC1a channel-mediated ischemic damage (Figs. 2b and 3) [66]. A similar modulatory effect on ASIC1a channels has also been reported for the dynorphin opioid peptides. However, dynorphins have been shown to have neuroprotective effects during cerebral injury and ischemia. The paradoxical effects

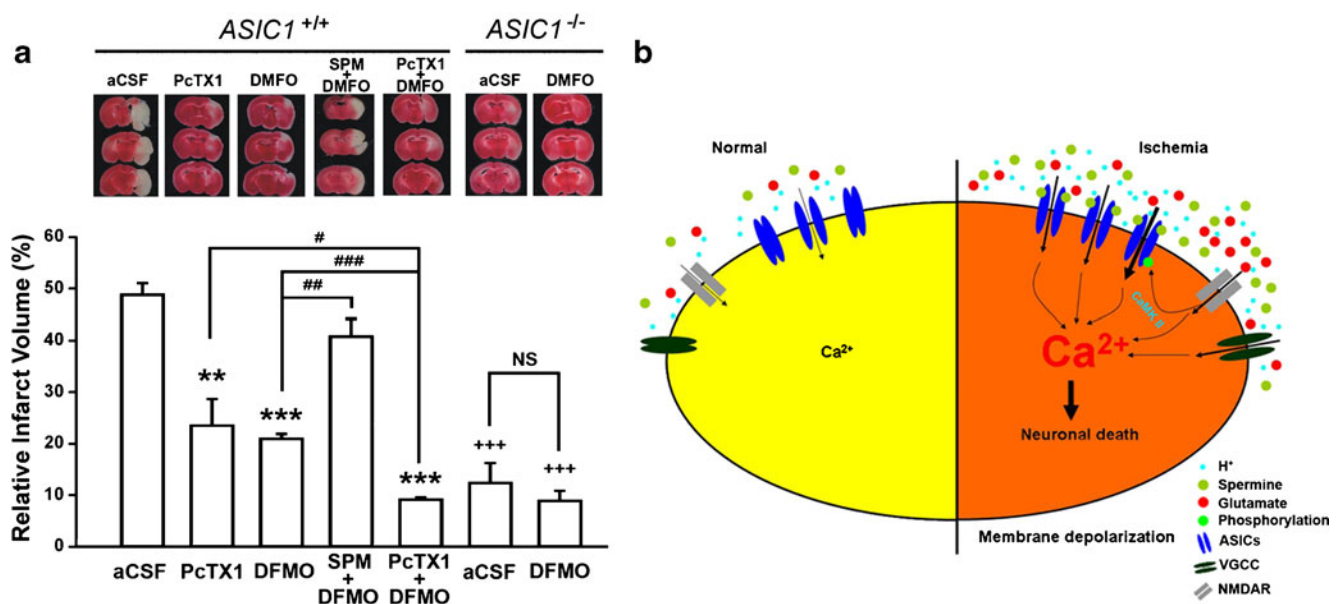


Fig. 3 SPM exacerbated ASIC1a-mediated ischemic neuronal damage. **a** In an ischemia model (60 min MCAO), PcTX1 (1 μM) and DFMO (75 $\mu\text{g}/\mu\text{l}$) injection reduced the infarct volume in brains from WT mice in an additive manner ($n=4-6$; $**p<0.01$, $***p<0.001$, unpaired t test, compared with aCSF group from WT mice. $\#p<0.05$, $###p<0.001$, unpaired t test, compared with PcTX1 plus DFMO group). Co-injection of SPM (2.5 mM) with DFMO reversed the neuroprotective effect of DFMO ($###p<0.01$, unpaired t test, compared with DFMO alone). ASIC1 deletion also reduced the infarct volume but DFMO was ineffective in ASIC1 null mice ($n=6$; $+++p<0.001$, unpaired t test, compared with aCSF group from WT mice). Images on the top show

examples of 2, 3, 5-triphenyltetrazolium hydrochloride-stained brain sections and infarct areas for the corresponding treatment groups. Reprinted from Duan et al. [66]. **b** Schematic representation showing ASIC1a sensitization by spermine and CaMKII under ischemic conditions. In ischemic brain, ASIC1a channel-mediated current and $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$ elevation are enhanced by elevated extracellular spermine and NR2B-dependent CaMKII phosphorylation of ASIC1a. Depolarization caused by both ASIC1a channels and NMDA receptors contribute to the opening of VGCC. Thus, $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$ elevation due to ASIC1a channels, NMDA receptors, and VGCC leads to ischemic neuronal death

are likely due to their ability to activate neuroprotective G-protein-coupled receptors, overwhelming their ability to enhance neuronal death through modulation of ASIC1a channels [67]. Third, as discussed above, in many diseases, metabolic acidosis is always the result of accumulated lactic acid, which is considered as a waste product of glycolysis due to hypoxia and a critical factor for acidosis-induced tissue damage [16, 24]. Lactate has been shown to be one of the most important modulators of ASICs [68]. For ASIC1a channels, lactate enhances ASIC1a currents by relieving extracellular Ca^{2+} block [68]. Although this modulation is usually considered as a form of heterosensitization in pain [68], it is also possible that lactate enhances ASIC1a channel function and causes more prominent intracellular Ca^{2+} elevations, which in turn leads to neuronal cell death [20, 68]. Fourth, ASIC1a channels can also be regulated by other channels, such as NMDA receptors. We have previously shown that activation of NR2B-containing NMDA receptors during ischemia enhances ASIC1a channel currents through phosphorylation at Ser478 and Ser479 of ASIC1a by Ca^{2+} /calmodulin-dependent protein kinase II (CaMKII), leading to exacerbated neuronal death [22].

All modulations discussed above are reported to enhance ASIC1a channel currents. However, as ion channels, the localization (e.g., synaptic or somatic) and expression patterns (e.g., clustering or not) are also very important for their functions [69]. It was reported that synaptic scaffolding protein interacting with C kinase 1 (PICK1) binds to ASIC1a [70]. This, together with other evidence [71–73], indicates a postsynaptic localization of ASIC1a channels. Given that activation of ASIC1a channels facilitates the opening of NMDA receptors by relieving Mg^{2+} blockade [71], the above findings suggest that ASIC1a channels may also regulate other important postsynaptic receptors such as NMDA receptors and thereby contribute to nerve injury mediated through these channels [74]. Additionally, clustering is an important property of synaptic ion channels. By increasing local density of ion channels, clustered ones are more effective for signaling transmission than dispersed ones [69, 75, 76]. It was reported that protein kinase A-dependent phosphorylation of Ser479 in ASIC1a C terminus attenuated the channel clustering by interfering their binding with synaptic scaffolding protein PICK1 [70], which suggests a regulation mechanism of synaptic distribution of ASIC1a channels and ASIC1a channel-mediated neuronal death.

Generally, there is still a lack of sufficient study on the physiological/pathological significance of most reported ASIC1a modulations by endogenous substances. The exploration of how these modulations contribute to ASIC1a channel-mediated neuronal death will shed new light on clinic therapies of ASIC1a channel-associated diseases, such as ischemic stroke.

ASIC1 and Spermine: A New Mechanism of Ischemic Neuronal Death

Spermine is one of endogenous polyamines, the levels of which are elevated in the ischemic brain [77, 78]. We recently found that extracellular spermine at physiologically relevant concentrations can enhance ASIC1a channel function via prolongation of channel activity and acceleration of channel recovery from steady-state desensitization [66], allowing efficient channel reactivation in response to repetitive pH fluctuations [79]. Ca^{2+} imaging and cell toxicity assays indicate important biological consequences of such modulation of ASIC desensitization. Thus, spermine causes more severe neuronal depolarization and cytoplasmic Ca^{2+} overload (Fig. 2b), which might lead to mitochondria-related injury and neuronal damage [80]. All of these were greatly diminished after pharmacological blockade of ASIC1a channels or deletion of the *ASIC1* gene. Similarly, in in vivo focal ischemia models, spermine-induced ischemic brain injury was dramatically reduced by ASIC1a channel blockade or *ASIC1* gene deletion. Most importantly, blockade of endogenous spermine biosynthesis by ornithine decarboxylase inhibitor α -difluoromethylornithine (DFMO) significantly attenuated ASIC1a channel-mediated ischemic neuronal damage both in vitro and in vivo (Fig. 3a). Taken together, our findings clearly indicate that spermine contributes critically to ASIC1a channel-mediated ischemic injury of neurons (Fig. 3b).

The mechanistic details of spermine modulation of ASIC1a channels and its consequences on channel activity during acidosis associated with ischemic brain injury are intriguing. At the molecular level, spermine causes a rightward shift of the steady-state desensitization curve of ASIC1a channels towards increasing acidity and decreasing pH. This allows for channel to recover more easily from desensitization under more moderate alkalization, a natural process that occurs in many brain regions as a result of synaptic activities, which are mainly attributed to activation of ionotropic glutamate and GABA receptors [81–83]. The transient extracellular alkalization is due to two mechanisms: first, a GABA(A) receptor-mediated process, most likely associated with efflux of bicarbonate ions across GABA(A) anion channels; and second, a bicarbonate-independent process associated with excitatory synaptic transmission [84, 85]. The synaptic activities can bring about as much as 0.2 pH unit of alkalization, which lasts for several seconds and is often followed by a period of acidification of ~ 0.1 to 0.2 pH unit for a few minutes. Because ASIC1a channels undergo complete steady-state desensitization at $\text{pH} < 7.0$, the moderate alkalization caused by synaptic activities during acidosis ($\sim \text{pH} 6.8$) may not bring sufficient channel recovery in the absence of spermine. However, in the presence of spermine, the steady-

state desensitization at pH 6.8 to 7.0 is less complete than in its absence, allowing significant channel recovery even with a small (~ 0.2 unit) pH increase, such as those that occur due to synaptic activities. Therefore, the presence of spermine facilitates ASIC1a channel reactivation in response to subsequent acidification. This suggests that spermine plays a critical role in the recovery of the ASIC1a channels and contributes significantly to repeated channel activation during pH fluctuations under acidosis conditions. The actual range of pH changes during ischemia may be larger than discussed above and should differ in space and time because of all other changes associated with ischemic penumbra, including recurrent spreading depressions and elevation in the levels of extracellular K^+ and glutamate [79], all of which affect extracellular pH.

ASICs or NMDA Receptors: The Choice in Clinic Therapy

Acidotoxicity and excitotoxicity are two major cell death mechanisms in ischemic brain. Therefore, the potential therapeutic targets are among ASIC1a channels and glutamate receptors such as NMDA receptors. However, antagonists of NMDA receptors have been shown to be unsuccessful in human clinic trials of stroke [54, 86, 87]. One important reason is that they are effective only during a very narrow time window of about 1 h post stroke [54, 86]. More importantly, NMDA receptors undertake many important neuronal functions; their blockade would lead to many undesirable side effects. It has been reported that NMDA receptor blockers induce a psychotic state resembling schizophrenia [54, 88]. These concerns have limited the application of NMDA agonists and/or antagonists in human patients. On the contrary, it needs several hours that the acidosis and the activation of ASIC1a channels proceed from the ischemic core into the ischemic penumbral regions. Thus, the protection window of ASIC1a channel blockade is 5 h post stroke [89, 90], much longer than that of NMDA receptors. In addition, *ASIC1^{-/-}* animals exhibit no obvious defect in physiological functions [20, 71], suggestive of less side effects in clinical therapy. Therefore, ASIC1a channels appear to be more superior drug targets than NMDA receptors.

On the other hand, this is not to say that all cell deaths are adverse events. In some situations, such as virus infection, “endogenous adjuvant” released from dead cells recruits inflammatory reactions to eliminate the virus-infected cells [91]. As we know, inflammation is always accompanied with acidosis (\sim pH 7–5.5) [92, 93]. In this context, it was recently reported that ASIC1a channels are expressed in dendritic cells and they contribute to dendritic cell function [94]. In addition, many endogenous inflammatory mediators, such as arachidonic acid, have been reported as enhancers of ASICs [95]. Therefore, it is possible that ASIC1a channels also contribute to the cell death during inflammation, which may

be beneficial to the organism. Thus, much broader and deeper insights into the physiological and pathological functions of ASIC1a channels and their involvement in mediating cell death are required before establishing the therapeutic interventions based on these channels.

Conclusion

Acidosis, which is one of the common features of neuronal diseases, has been extensively studied in many aspects. ASIC1a channels, as important targets of acidosis, mediate the damages caused by acidosis. With the accumulation of new knowledge about ASIC1a channel-mediated neuronal death, including the mechanisms of channel regulation and the discovery of endogenous channel modulators, ASIC1a channels have demonstrated the potential advantages as new therapeutic targets for a wide range of acidosis-associated neuronal diseases.

Acknowledgments This work was supported by grants from the National Natural Science Foundation of China (No. 30830035), the National Basic Research Program of China (2011CBA00408), and the Shanghai Municipal Government (09XD1404900). We thank Dr. Michael Xi Zhu for helpful comments on this manuscript.

References

1. Mao J et al (2002) Molecular determinants for activation of G-protein-coupled inward rectifier K^+ (GIRK) channels by extracellular acidosis. *J Biol Chem* 277:46166–46171
2. Liu Y, Edwards RH (1997) The role of vesicular transport proteins in synaptic transmission and neural degeneration. *Annu Rev Neurosci* 20:125–156
3. Miesenböck G, De Angelis DA, Rothman JE (1998) Visualizing secretion and synaptic transmission with pH-sensitive green fluorescent proteins. *Nature* 394:192–195
4. DeVries SH (2001) Exocytosed protons feedback to suppress the Ca^{2+} current in mammalian cone photoreceptors. *Neuron* 32:1107–1117
5. Vessey JP et al (2005) Proton-mediated feedback inhibition of presynaptic calcium channels at the cone photoreceptor synapse. *J Neurosci* 25:4108–4117
6. Traynelis SF, Cull-Candy SG (1990) Proton inhibition of N-methyl-D-aspartate receptors in cerebellar neurons. *Nature* 345:347–350
7. Tang CM, Dichter M, Morad M (1990) Modulation of the N-methyl-D-aspartate channel by extracellular H^+ . *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 87:6445–6449
8. Mozrzymas JW, Zamowska ED, Pytel M, Mercik K (2003) Modulation of GABA(A) receptors by hydrogen ions reveals synaptic GABA transient and a crucial role of the desensitization process. *J Neurosci* 23:7981–7992
9. Mercik K, Pytel M, Cherubini E, Mozrzymas JW (2006) Effect of extracellular pH on recombinant $\alpha 1\beta 2\gamma 2$ and $\alpha 1\beta 2$ GABAA receptors. *Neuropharmacology* 51:305–314
10. Dietrich CJ, Morad M (2010) Synaptic acidification enhances GABAA signaling. *J Neurosci* 30:16044–16052
11. Beg AA, Ernstrom GG, Nix P, Davis MW, Jorgensen EM (2008) Protons act as a transmitter for muscle contraction in *C. elegans*. *Cell* 132:149–160

12. Nedergaard M, Kraig RP, Tanabe J, Pulsinelli WA (1991) Dynamics of interstitial and intracellular pH in evolving brain infarct. *Am J Physiol* 260:R581–R588
13. Crowell JW, Kaufmann BN (1961) Changes in tissue pH after circulatory arrest. *Am J Physiol* 200:743–745
14. Sutherland SP, Cook SP, McCleskey EW (2000) Chemical mediators of pain due to tissue damage and ischemia. *Prog Brain Res* 129:21–38
15. Chesler M (2003) Regulation and modulation of pH in the brain. *Physiol Rev* 83:1183–1221
16. Kraut JA, Madias NE (2010) Metabolic acidosis: pathophysiology, diagnosis and management. *Nat Rev Nephrol* 6:274–285
17. Somjen GG (1984) Acidification of interstitial fluid in hippocampal formation caused by seizures and by spreading depression. *Brain Res* 311:186–188
18. Wang RI, Sonnenschein RR (1955) PH of cerebral cortex during induced convulsions. *J Neurophysiol* 18:130–137
19. Waldmann R, Champigny G, Bassilana F, Heurteaux C, Lazdunski M (1997) A proton-gated cation channel involved in acid-sensing. *Nature* 386:173–177
20. Wemmie JA, Price MP, Welsh MJ (2006) Acid-sensing ion channels: advances, questions and therapeutic opportunities. *Trends Neurosci* 29:578–586
21. Xiong ZG et al (2004) Neuroprotection in ischemia: blocking calcium-permeable acid-sensing ion channels. *Cell* 118:687–698
22. Gao J et al (2005) Coupling between NMDA receptor and acid-sensing ion channel contributes to ischemic neuronal death. *Neuron* 48:635–646
23. Xu TL, Xiong ZG (2007) Dynamic regulation of acid-sensing ion channels by extracellular and intracellular modulators. *Curr Med Chem* 14:1753–1763
24. Flamant M, Azar H, Bonay M (2008) Metabolic and respiratory acidosis. *Rev Prat* 58:1363–1371
25. Rehncrona S (1985) Brain acidosis. *Ann Emerg Med* 14:770–776
26. Siesjo BK, Katsura K, Kristian T (1996) Acidosis-related damage. *Adv Neurol* 71:209–233, discussion 234–206
27. Friese MA et al (2007) Acid-sensing ion channel-1 contributes to axonal degeneration in autoimmune inflammation of the central nervous system. *Nat Med* 13:1483–1489
28. Yates CM, Butterworth J, Tennant MC, Gordon A (1990) Enzyme activities in relation to pH and lactate in postmortem brain in Alzheimer-type and other dementias. *J Neurochem* 55:1624–1630
29. Messier C, Gagnon M (1996) Glucose regulation and cognitive functions: relation to Alzheimer's disease and diabetes. *Behav Brain Res* 75:1–11
30. Brewer GJ (1997) Effects of acidosis on the distribution of processing of the beta-amyloid precursor protein in cultured hippocampal neurons. *Mol Chem Neuropathol* 31:171–186
31. Atwood CS et al (1998) Dramatic aggregation of Alzheimer abeta by Cu(II) is induced by conditions representing physiological acidosis. *J Biol Chem* 273:12817–12826
32. Pirchl M, Marksteiner J, Humpel C (2006) Effects of acidosis on brain capillary endothelial cells and cholinergic neurons: relevance to vascular dementia and Alzheimer's disease. *Neurol Res* 28:657–664
33. Marksteiner J, Humpel C (2008) Beta-amyloid expression, release and extracellular deposition in aged rat brain slices. *Mol Psychiatry* 13:939–952
34. Bowen BC et al (1995) Proton MR spectroscopy of the brain in 14 patients with Parkinson disease. *AJNR Am J Neuroradiol* 16:61–68
35. Koga K et al (2006) H MRS identifies lactate rise in the striatum of MPTP-treated C57BL/6 mice. *Eur J Neurosci* 23:1077–1081
36. Arias RL et al (2008) Amiloride is neuroprotective in an MPTP model of Parkinson's disease. *Neurobiol Dis* 31:334–341
37. Jenkins BG, Koroshetz WJ, Beal MF, Rosen BR (1993) Evidence for impairment of energy metabolism in vivo in Huntington's disease using localized ¹H NMR spectroscopy. *Neurology* 43:2689–2695
38. Tsang TM et al (2006) Metabolic characterization of the R6/2 transgenic mouse model of Huntington's disease by high-resolution MAS ¹H NMR spectroscopy. *J Proteome Res* 5:483–492
39. Tkac I, Dubinsky JM, Keene CD, Gruetter R, Low WC (2007) Neurochemical changes in Huntington R6/2 mouse striatum detected by in vivo ¹H NMR spectroscopy. *J Neurochem* 100:1397–1406
40. Wong HK et al (2008) Blocking acid-sensing ion channel 1 alleviates Huntington's disease pathology via an ubiquitin-proteasome system-dependent mechanism. *Hum Mol Genet* 17:3223–3235
41. Nedergaard M, Goldman SA, Desai S, Pulsinelli WA (1991) Acid-induced death in neurons and glia. *J Neurosci* 11:2489–2497
42. Kumar S, Reusch HP, Ladilov Y (2008) Acidic pre-conditioning suppresses apoptosis and increases expression of Bcl-xL in coronary endothelial cells under simulated ischaemia. *J Cell Mol Med* 12:1584–1592
43. Ziemann AE et al (2008) Seizure termination by acidosis depends on ASIC1a. *Nat Neurosci* 11:816–822
44. Lingueglia E (2007) Acid-sensing ion channels in sensory perception. *J Biol Chem* 282:17325–17329
45. Yermolaieva O, Leonard AS, Schnizler MK, Abboud FM, Welsh MJ (2004) Extracellular acidosis increases neuronal cell calcium by activating acid-sensing ion channel 1a. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 101:6752–6757
46. Vukicevic M, Kellenberger S (2004) Modulatory effects of acid-sensing ion channels on action potential generation in hippocampal neurons. *Am J Physiol Cell Physiol* 287:C682–C690
47. Sun X et al (2011) ASICs mediate the modulatory effect by paeoniflorin on alpha-synuclein autophagic degradation. *Brain Res* 1396:77–87
48. Pignataro G et al (2011) ASIC1a contributes to neuroprotection elicited by ischemic preconditioning and postconditioning. *Int J Physiol Pathophysiol Pharmacol* 3:1–8
49. Harris C, Fliegel L (1999) Amiloride and the Na(+)/H(+) exchanger protein: mechanism and significance of inhibition of the Na(+)/H(+) exchanger (review). *Int J Mol Med* 3:315–321
50. Dong Z, Saikumar P, Weinberg JM, Venkatachalam MA (2006) Calcium in cell injury and death. *Annu Rev Pathol* 1:405–434
51. Orrenius S, Zhivotovsky B, Nicotera P (2003) Regulation of cell death: the calcium-apoptosis link. *Nat Rev Mol Cell Biol* 4:552–565
52. Szydlowska K, Tymianski M (2010) Calcium, ischemia and excitotoxicity. *Cell Calcium* 47:122–129
53. Samways DS, Harkins AB, Egan TM (2009) Native and recombinant ASIC1a receptors conduct negligible Ca²⁺ entry. *Cell Calcium* 45:319–325
54. MacDonald JF, Xiong ZG, Jackson MF (2006) Paradox of Ca²⁺ signaling, cell death and stroke. *Trends Neurosci* 29:75–81
55. Bianchi L et al (2004) The neurotoxic MEC-4(d) DEG/ENaC sodium channel conducts calcium: implications for necrosis initiation. *Nat Neurosci* 7:1337–1344
56. Liu L et al (2009) Tissue kallikrein protects cortical neurons against in vitro ischemia-acidosis/reperfusion-induced injury through the ERK1/2 pathway. *Exp Neurol* 219:453–465
57. Chu XP, Close N, Saugstad JA, Xiong ZG (2006) ASIC1a-specific modulation of acid-sensing ion channels in mouse cortical neurons by redox reagents. *J Neurosci* 26:5329–5339
58. Zha XM et al (2009) Oxidant regulated inter-subunit disulfide bond formation between ASIC1a subunits. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 106:3573–3578
59. Moskowitz MA, Lo EH, Iadecola C (2010) The science of stroke: mechanisms in search of treatments. *Neuron* 67:181–198
60. Ying W, Han SK, Miller JW, Swanson RA (1999) Acidosis potentiates oxidative neuronal death by multiple mechanisms. *J Neurochem* 73:1549–1556

61. Orrenius S, Gogvadze V, Zhivotovsky B (2007) Mitochondrial oxidative stress: implications for cell death. *Annu Rev Pharmacol Toxicol* 47:143–183
62. Graham RM et al (2004) A unique pathway of cardiac myocyte death caused by hypoxia-acidosis. *J Exp Biol* 207:3189–3200
63. Schwerdt G, Freudinger R, Schuster C, Silbernagl S, Gekle M (2003) Inhibition of mitochondria prevents cell death in kidney epithelial cells by intra- and extracellular acidification. *Kidney Int* 63:1725–1735
64. Krishtal O (2003) The ASICs: signaling molecules? Modulators? *Trends Neurosci* 26:477–483
65. Chai S, Li M, Branigan D, Xiong ZG, Simon RP (2010) Activation of acid-sensing ion channel 1a (ASIC1a) by surface trafficking. *J Biol Chem* 285:13002–13011
66. Duan B et al (2011) Extracellular spermine exacerbates ischemic neuronal injury through sensitization of ASIC1a channels to extracellular acidosis. *J Neurosci* 31:2101–2112
67. Sherwood TW, Askwith CC (2009) Dynorphin opioid peptides enhance acid-sensing ion channel 1a activity and acidosis-induced neuronal death. *J Neurosci* 29:14371–14380
68. Immke DC, McCleskey EW (2001) Lactate enhances the acid-sensing Na⁺ channel on ischemia-sensing neurons. *Nat Neurosci* 4:869–870
69. Sheng M, Pak DT (2000) Ligand-gated ion channel interactions with cytoskeletal and signaling proteins. *Annu Rev Physiol* 62:755–778
70. Leonard AS et al (2003) cAMP-dependent protein kinase phosphorylation of the acid-sensing ion channel-1 regulates its binding to the protein interacting with C-kinase-1. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 100:2029–2034
71. Wemmie JA et al (2002) The acid-activated ion channel ASIC contributes to synaptic plasticity, learning, and memory. *Neuron* 34:463–477
72. Zha XM, Wemmie JA, Green SH, Welsh MJ (2006) Acid-sensing ion channel 1a is a postsynaptic proton receptor that affects the density of dendritic spines. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 103:16556–16561
73. Wemmie JA et al (2003) Acid-sensing ion channel 1 is localized in brain regions with high synaptic density and contributes to fear conditioning. *J Neurosci* 23:5496–5502
74. Xu TL, Duan B (2009) Calcium-permeable acid-sensing ion channel in nociceptive plasticity: a new target for pain control. *Prog Neurobiol* 87:171–180
75. Kneussel M, Betz H (2000) Clustering of inhibitory neurotransmitter receptors at developing postsynaptic sites: the membrane activation model. *Trends Neurosci* 23:429–435
76. Hirai H (2001) Modification of AMPA receptor clustering regulates cerebellar synaptic plasticity. *Neurosci Res* 39:261–267
77. Kindy MS, Hu Y, Dempsey RJ (1994) Blockade of ornithine decarboxylase enzyme protects against ischemic brain damage. *J Cereb Blood Flow Metab* 14:1040–1045
78. Li J, Doyle KM, Tatlisumak T (2007) Polyamines in the brain: distribution, biological interactions, and their potential therapeutic role in brain ischaemia. *Curr Med Chem* 14:1807–1813
79. Obrenovitch TP (1995) The ischaemic penumbra: twenty years on. *Cerebrovasc Brain Metab Rev* 7:297–323
80. Toninello A, Salvi M, Mondovi B (2004) Interaction of biologically active amines with mitochondria and their role in the mitochondrial-mediated pathway of apoptosis. *Curr Med Chem* 11:2349–2374
81. Kraig RP, Ferreira-Filho CR, Nicholson C (1983) Alkaline and acid transients in cerebellar microenvironment. *J Neurophysiol* 49:831–850
82. Jarolimek W, Misgeld U, Lux HD (1989) Activity dependent alkaline and acid transients in guinea pig hippocampal slices. *Brain Res* 505:225–232
83. Tong CK, Chesler M (1999) Endogenous pH shifts facilitate spreading depression by effect on NMDA receptors. *J Neurophysiol* 81:1988–1991
84. Chesler M, Rice ME (1991) Extracellular alkaline-acid pH shifts evoked by iontophoresis of glutamate and aspartate in turtle cerebellum. *Neuroscience* 41:257–267
85. Chesler M, Chen JC (1992) Alkaline extracellular pH shifts generated by two transmitter-dependent mechanisms. *Can J Physiol Pharmacol* 70(Suppl):S286–S292
86. Hoyte L, Barber PA, Buchan AM, Hill MD (2004) The rise and fall of NMDA antagonists for ischemic stroke. *Curr Mol Med* 4:131–136
87. Ginsberg MD (2008) Neuroprotection for ischemic stroke: past, present and future. *Neuropharmacology* 55:363–389
88. Javitt DC, Zukin SR (1991) Recent advances in the phencyclidine model of schizophrenia. *Am J Psychiatry* 148:1301–1308
89. Pignataro G, Simon RP, Xiong ZG (2007) Prolonged activation of ASIC1a and the time window for neuroprotection in cerebral ischaemia. *Brain* 130:151–158
90. Simon RP (2006) Acidotoxicity trumps excitotoxicity in ischemic brain. *Arch Neurol* 63:1368–1371
91. Kono H, Rock KL (2008) How dying cells alert the immune system to danger. *Nat Rev Immunol* 8:279–289
92. Dubos RJ (1955) The micro-environment of inflammation or Metchnikoff revisited. *Lancet* 269:1–5
93. Simmen HP, Blaser J (1993) Analysis of pH and pO₂ in abscesses, peritoneal fluid, and drainage fluid in the presence or absence of bacterial infection during and after abdominal surgery. *Am J Surg* 166:24–27
94. Tong J et al (2011) Acid-sensing ion channels contribute to the effect of acidosis on the function of dendritic cells. *J Immunol* 186:3686–3692
95. Allen NJ, Attwell D (2002) Modulation of ASIC channels in rat cerebellar Purkinje neurons by ischaemia-related signals. *J Physiol* 543:521–529