

## Regulation of neuronal energy metabolism by calcium: Role of MCU and Aralar/malate-aspartate shuttle

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### ABSTRACT

Calcium is a major regulator of cellular metabolism. Calcium controls mitochondrial respiration, and calcium signaling is used to meet cellular energetic demands through energy production in the organelle. Although it has been widely assumed that  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -actions require its uptake by mitochondrial calcium uniporter (MCU), alternative pathways modulated by cytosolic  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  have been recently proposed. Recent findings have indicated a role for cytosolic  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  signals acting on mitochondrial NADH shuttles in the control of cellular metabolism in neurons using glucose as fuel. It has been demonstrated that AGC1/Aralar, the component of the malate/aspartate shuttle (MAS) regulated by cytosolic  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ , participates in the maintenance of basal respiration exerted through  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -fluxes between ER and mitochondria, whereas mitochondrial  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -uptake by MCU does not contribute. Aralar/MAS pathway, activated by small cytosolic  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  signals, provides in fact substrates, redox equivalents and pyruvate, fueling respiration. Upon activation and increases in workload, neurons upregulate OxPhos, cytosolic pyruvate production and glycolysis, together with glucose uptake, in a  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -dependent way, and part of this upregulation is via  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  signaling. Both MCU and Aralar/MAS contribute to OxPhos upregulation, Aralar/MAS playing a major role, especially at small and submaximal workloads.  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  activation of Aralar/MAS, by increasing cytosolic  $\text{NAD}^+/\text{NADH}$  provides  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -dependent increases in glycolysis and cytosolic pyruvate production priming respiration as a feed-forward mechanism in response to workload. Thus, except for glucose uptake, these processes are dependent on Aralar/MAS, whereas MCU is the relevant target for  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  signaling when MAS is bypassed, by using pyruvate or  $\beta$ -hydroxybutyrate as substrates.

### 1. Introduction

The regulation by calcium of mitochondrial energy metabolism has been known for a long time [1–3].  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  is required to sustain cellular respiration in resting conditions [4] and  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  signals mediate its regulation in different situations in which cells need to increase ATP synthesis. During activation, neurons, as other excitable cells, suffer large fluctuations of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  and other ions, that elicit ATP-consuming intracellular processes, and in turn  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  transients stimulate energy production to meet ATP demand with ATP production [5].  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  uptake in mitochondrial matrix through the mitochondrial calcium uniporter

complex (MCUC) activates the dehydrogenases of Krebs' cycle and provides reducing equivalents (NADH) to feed the electron transport chain (ETC) and enhance ATP generation [1–3]. On the other side,  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  may modulate respiration, ATP production, by increasing metabolite supply by the action of the  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -regulated mitochondrial carriers (CaMCs) which are activated by cytosolic  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  (reviewed by [6]). CaMCs family comprises two members, the aspartate/glutamate carriers (AGCs) and the ATP-Mg<sup>2+</sup>/phosphate carriers. Both have a transport domain inserted into the membrane and long N-terminal extensions which contain EF-hand  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -binding motifs facing the intermembrane space ([7,8]; reviewed in [6,9]). Although Mg<sup>2+</sup>-binding cannot be ruled

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out, CaMCs EF-hands display features of Ca<sup>2+</sup>-binding EF-hand loops as the presence of glutamate at the loop's C-terminus [7,8] which allow a preferential coordination of Ca<sup>2+</sup> rather than Mg<sup>2+</sup> [10]. AGCs are the Ca<sup>2+</sup>-regulated components of the malate/aspartate shuttle (MAS) involved in NADH shuttling from the cytosol to mitochondria [11–14].

In this review, we will summarize recent advances on the contribution of the AGC/MAS pathway, modulated by cytosolic Ca<sup>2+</sup> signals, and mitochondrial Ca<sup>2+</sup> uptake by the MCU pathway in the regulation of mitochondrial respiration in neurons regarding: i) the control of basal respiration by ER-to-mitochondria Ca<sup>2+</sup> fluxes, ii) the regulation by Ca<sup>2+</sup> of mitochondrial respiration and neuronal metabolism in response to agonists.

## 2. Regulation by Ca<sup>2+</sup> of basal respiration in neurons: RyRs and the malate/aspartate shuttle participate in the regulation of basal respiration by Ca<sup>2+</sup> in neurons using glucose as fuel

An endoplasmic/sarco reticulum (ER/SR) to mitochondria constitutive low-level Ca<sup>2+</sup> flow has been demonstrated to be important in regulating basal respiration in cell lines [4,15–18] and in different tissue-derived cells [18–21]. Regulation of basal respiration by ER-derived Ca<sup>2+</sup> was assumed to be due to Ca<sup>2+</sup> entry in mitochondria and activation of Krebs' cycle dehydrogenases that supply reducing equivalents to the electron transport chain (ETC) [1,3]. Since the Inositol 1,4,5-trisphosphate receptors (InsP3Rs) are in close apposition to mitochondria these Ca<sup>2+</sup> channels were proposed as main contributors of ER/SR-derived Ca<sup>2+</sup> modulating mitochondrial function [22]. DT40 B lymphocytes, and other cell lines as HEK-293 or 143B, lacking all three InsP3R isoforms showed a reduction in the basal oxygen consumption rate (OCR) that was recovered in the presence of the Ca<sup>2+</sup> ionophore ionomycin, suggesting that Ca<sup>2+</sup> availability was limiting for normal oxidative phosphorylation (OxPhos) [4,15,23]. Accordingly, treatment with Xestospongin B (XeB) a specific InsP3R inhibitor [24] dropped cellular respiration in HEK-293 and lymphoblastic leukemia cells [4,15,25].

In neurons, however, a role for ryanodine receptors (RyRs), and not InsP3R, has recently been recognized as source of ER Ca<sup>2+</sup> efflux [18,21]. On the one side, 3-dmXeB, a XeB analog, did not have any effect on basal OCR in cortical neurons [18], showing that Ca<sup>2+</sup> efflux from the ER through InsP3R does not play any relevant role in the control of basal respiration in neurons. On the other side, a drop in the cellular ATP/ADP ratio, coupled to decreased cytosolic Ca<sup>2+</sup> transients, was observed in dopaminergic neurons after the inhibition of RyRs with DHBP (1,1'-diheptyl-4,4'-bipyridinium dibromide) [21]. Similarly, knockdown (KD) of *RyR2*, the main RyR isoform in the brain [26], using specific shRNAs or the presence of RyRs inhibitors such as ryanodine or dantrolene, caused a significant drop of basal and oligomycin-sensitive respiration in cortical neurons [18]. Furthermore, an increase in the AMPK phosphorylation status, an autophagy marker associated with the failure to maintain ER to mitochondria Ca<sup>2+</sup> flux [4,27], was observed in *RyR2*-KD neurons [18].

A priori these findings were unexpected since InsP3R1 is abundant in brain neurons specially in cerebellum [28]. Nevertheless, RyRs are also close to mitochondria in neurons [29], facilitate a rapid Ca<sup>2+</sup> transfer from ER to the matrix [30] and participate in mitochondria-associated ER membrane (MAM) formation in brain [31]. Furthermore, this role for RyRs is not restricted to neurons, as RyRs along with InsP3Rs have been involved in the control of basal OCR in skeletal muscle [19]. Moreover, both ER Ca<sup>2+</sup> efflux pathways might be functionally equivalent, as it has been suggested by the fact that they were reciprocally regulated [32]. Thus, in muscle fibers *RyR1* silencing led to a significant increase in basal respiration, which was prevented by XeB [32].

It has widely been assumed that the action of ER Ca<sup>2+</sup> leak on OxPhos requires its entry into the organelle via the mitochondrial calcium uniporter (MCU) [2]. However, the extremely mild phenotype in the MCU-KO mouse [33] and the absence of respiratory deficits in MCU-

deficient models has called this notion in question [17,18,21,34–39]. Recent findings obtained employing different approaches, using cells derived from MCU null mice or by AAV-mediated MCU KD, showed that MCU deficiency had no influence on basal respiration in cortical neurons when glucose was used as a fuel [18,37,38]. In this condition, there were no significant differences in ATP-linked [18,37,38] or in maximal respiration [18,37,38]. Similarly, the contribution of mitochondria and mitochondrial OxPhos to the maintenance of the cytosolic ATP/ADP ratio and bioenergetic status remained unchanged in dopaminergic neurons from substantia nigra pars compacta (SNc) lacking the MCU compared with WTs [21].

For some MCU-deficient models such as the global MCU-KO mouse [33] it was suggested that the lack of phenotype was due to the existence of alternative mitochondrial Ca<sup>2+</sup> transporters [34,40], or due to compensatory mechanisms that masked its true role [20,41–44]. However, it is unlikely that compensatory mechanisms are involved in the absence of effect on respiration in neurons from MCU-KO mouse since similar results were observed after acute MCU KD in neurons using shRNAs [18,21,38]. Furthermore, no substantial variations in respiration were obtained in brain mitochondria from MCU-KO [39]. The lack of compensatory mechanisms agrees with the unaltered expression of genes associated with mitochondrial functions detected in neurons from hippocampus [45] or SNc dopaminergic area [21] of MCU-deficient mice. Accordingly, MCU-KO dopaminergic neurons did not show alterations in mitochondrial morphology or density, and these mice show a normal behavior in open field test, gait, or fine motor skills [21].

Interestingly, the lack of effect of MCU deficiency on cell respiration is not restricted to neurons; respiratory alterations were not observed in intact myofibers isolated from skeletal muscle-specific MCU KO mice when using glucose [46] or other cell types like mouse embryonic fibroblasts (MEFs), T-cells or brown adipocytes lacking MCU [33,44,47]. Similarly, basal respiration did not show dependence on MCU activity when Ca<sup>2+</sup> fluxes from ER to mitochondria were attenuated by short-term removal of extracellular Ca<sup>2+</sup> in an endothelial-derived cell line [17]. Furthermore, in the absence of EMRE, an essential regulator of MCU activity, ATP levels and oxygen consumption remained virtually unaffected in EMRE KO MEFs [48,49]. In fibroblasts from patients with EMRE variants causing aberrant mitochondrial Ca<sup>2+</sup> uptake, basal and ATP-linked respiration also remained unaltered [50]. Likewise, in cells with silenced *MCU1*, a MCU gatekeeper required to facilitate its activation at high cytosolic [Ca<sup>2+</sup>] [51], basal OCR and other respiratory parameters were fully preserved [52].

Therefore, if Ca<sup>2+</sup> uptake through MCU is dispensable, as part of the ER to mitochondria Ca<sup>2+</sup> flow, to maintain basal respiration in neurons using glucose, and probably in other cell types, how is Ca<sup>2+</sup> regulation of respiration achieved? Reducing equivalents from cytosolic NADH can fuel OxPhos after transference to mitochondria through Ca<sup>2+</sup> sensitive NADH shuttling systems, the malate/aspartate and glycerol-3-phosphate shuttles. These shuttles have now been proposed as major determinants of activity-dependent mitochondrial ATP production in neurons [18,21,39,53–55].

Although their dependence on Ca<sup>2+</sup> is well known, the participation of mitochondrial NADH shuttles in the transduction of cytosolic Ca<sup>2+</sup> signals to mitochondria, as alternative to Ca<sup>2+</sup> uptake by MCU, is not yet fully recognized (reviewed in [6]). However, in the last years, results obtained from different neuronal models devoid of malate/aspartate shuttle (MAS) components [17,18,39,54–56] or using specific inhibitors of MAS or the glycerol-3-phosphate shuttle (G3PS) [21,53] have revealed their involvement in the regulation of OxPhos either in basal conditions (non-stimulated) or under different stimuli (see below). In neurons, it was shown that in resting conditions, using glucose as fuel at physiological concentrations (2.5–5 mM), mitochondrial respiration was dependent on MAS [54–56]. In these conditions, cortical neurons deficient for the aspartate/glutamate isoform AGC1/Aralar, the Ca<sup>2+</sup>-sensitive component of MAS, showed about a 40 % drop in basal respiration [54,56,57]. Similarly, knockdown of *AGC2/citrin*, the major

AGC isoform in non-excitabile tissues [8], in endothelial cells caused a reduction in basal levels of NADH and ATP in mitochondria, as well as in maximal NADH production, similar to that produced by lowering  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  levels in the mitochondrial intermembrane space [17]. As  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -binding domains of AGCs face the intermembrane space which connects to the cytosol, cytosolic  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  signals modulate MAS activity which may act as a source of NADH for the mitochondrial matrix even when cytosolic  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  signals are below the activation range of MCU [11,14].

In neurons using glucose the production of NADH in the mitochondria is preferentially fueled by pyruvate, produced by glycolysis; pyruvate can also be produced from lactate re-oxidation by lactate dehydrogenase (LDH), the two processes linked to the action of redox shuttles. Glycolysis can only progress if there is sufficient supply of  $\text{NAD}^+$ . The oxidation of glucose requires  $\text{NAD}^+$  (2 molecules for each glucose) that becomes NADH in the glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate dehydrogenase (GAPDH) reaction. Therefore, to sustain glycolysis,  $\text{NAD}^+$  needs to be continuously regenerated either by LDH with conversion of pyruvate to lactate, or by NADH shuttle systems of which MAS is the prevalent in neurons [58]. AGC1/Aralar, as component of MAS (Aralar/MAS), will increase reducing equivalents supply from the cytosol and cause an enhancement of OxPhos rates acting similar to a “gas pedal” pushing pyruvate away from lactate and into OxPhos, a process regulated by cytosolic  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  [14,18,39,54,55,57,59–62]. Indeed, oxygen consumption was reduced when pyruvate uptake by mitochondria was inhibited in hippocampal neurons [35]. Consistent with this role for MAS, the drop in basal respiration found in AGC1/Aralar-deficient neurons was totally rescued by the addition of exogenous pyruvate [18,54,55,57]. Furthermore, *AGC2/citrin* silencing reduced mitochondrial pyruvate supply, determined in vivo using a mitochondrial pyruvate sensor, mito-PyronicSF [63], whereas *MCU* silencing did not cause any effect [17]. Consequently, as MAS activity depends on cytosolic  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ , pyruvate uptake in mitochondria was reduced when extracellular  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  is removed for a short period [17].

Therefore, in neurons, RyRs and  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -regulated MAS components contribute to the maintenance of local  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -fluxes between ER and mitochondria involved in the control of basal respiration whereas InsP3Rs and mitochondrial  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ , i.e. that taken up through MCU complex, do not. Aralar/MAS, stimulated by cytosolic  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ , will provide substrates, redox equivalents, and pyruvate, to feed respiration. However, while Aralar/MAS is required to maintain basal respiration in neurons using glucose, it may not be required with pyruvate or other fuels where the role of MCU remains unexplored. This may be also the case in cell lines and non-neuronal cells using high glucose concentrations, pyruvate and/or other nutrients in which redox shuttles and/or MCU may control basal respiration.

### 3. $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -induced workload and $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ signaling: participation of Aralar/MAS and MCU pathways in the control of mitochondrial respiration under activation

Regarding the regulation of respiration in neurons, a very different scenario to consider is that involving large changes in workload, as a result of marked changes in the ionic composition of the cytosol which follow the opening of different types of ionic channels. To restore the resting state, neurons consume huge amounts of ATP used in pumping these ions out of the cell or into organelles. As one of these ions is  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ , neurons can respond to the workload generated by ATP-consumption to restore  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  and other ionic gradients, by increasing ATP production in mitochondria through the action of ATP synthase and/or, by increasing the rate of glycolysis [18,35,64]. A second mechanism to upregulate respiration independent of ATP demand, is via  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  signaling. Indeed, elevations in cytosolic  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  have been proposed to play a feed-forward role through their stimulatory influence on OxPhos [2,65] to accommodate the rapid acceleration in energy demand at the onset of intense activity.  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  may potentiate the rate of OxPhos through the stimulation of Aralar/MAS and G3PS pathways [18,53] or, upon its uptake by MCU,

through stimulation of the  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -sensitive dehydrogenases of the TCA cycle and ATP synthase. Telling apart the roles of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  in activation of OxPhos (ATP demand and/or  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  signaling) has proved being quite a complex task and these roles have only been recently disentangled.

Studies performed on intact cortical neurons using glucose have demonstrated a role for  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  signaling in the regulation of mitochondrial respiration in response to increased workloads caused by increases in cytosolic  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  (carbachol) or  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  (veratridine, high- $\text{K}^+$  depolarization, NMDA) concentrations [18,54,55,57]. Veratridine stimulated respiration in the presence of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  but much less in a  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -free medium which lowered the workload (estimated from rises in cytosolic  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  levels) but paradoxically, resulted in a larger drop in cytosolic ATP. This paradox suggested that removal of a  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  signaling component of the responses caused the blunted increase in respiration in  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -free media. Indeed, blocking  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  signals (by incubation with the cytosolic  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -chelator BAPTA-AM which blocks  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  signals while preserving the workload) was sufficient to reduce stimulated respiration in normal  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  media. High  $\text{K}^+$ - or NMDA-stimulation caused a larger drop in ATP and a larger increase in respiration in the presence than in the absence of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  in the external medium, revealing a strong influence of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -induced workload in the response. However,  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  signaling also contributed to the response as incubations with BAPTA-AM in normal  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  medium also blunted the increase in respiration [18,54].

Regarding the target of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  signaling, in every condition tested,  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -activation of Aralar/MAS was required to fully stimulate coupled respiration ([54]; revised in [57]). Aralar/MAS activation was required to promote pyruvate supply, since the addition of pyruvate abolished the differences in stimulation of OCR observed between AGC1/Aralar-deficient and WT neurons [18,54,55]. Therefore, Aralar/MAS is required to prime pyruvate entry in mitochondria as a step needed to activate respiration by  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  in response to different workloads.

On the other hand, Perez-Liébana and coworkers have shown that in MCU-deficient neurons treated with carbachol (Cch), stimulation of respiration remained unaffected even though Cch-induced cytosolic  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  oscillations failed to reach mitochondria in the absence of MCU [18]. MCU activity was also found dispensable to upregulate respiration in response to larger cytosolic  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -signals as those produced after the activation of NMDA receptors [18]. As expected for stimuli that lead to higher energetic demand, NMDA produced a greater stimulation in respiration which was largely AGC1/Aralar-dependent, and was unaffected when matrix  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  uptake was hampered by MCU silencing [18]. These findings suggest that  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -modulated Aralar/MAS activity, but not MCU (at least at these stimulatory conditions), plays a critical role upregulating respiration in response to stimuli triggered by low and submaximal workloads. Therefore, in agreement with the Yellen and Gellerich's groups [35,39], MCU-induced  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  entry in mitochondria and activation of mitochondrial dehydrogenases [3] is largely dispensable in the stimulation of respiration of neurons using glucose. However, under strong workloads such as those caused by veratridine in the presence of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ , a role for MCU is suggested as the stimulation of respiration was diminished but not blocked in the absence of Aralar/MAS [54].

Of note, as mentioned earlier for the regulation of basal respiration in neurons, the requirement for Aralar/MAS rather than MCU for OXPHOS stimulation is limited to the use of glucose as substrate, as replacing glucose by a mixture of lactate and pyruvate, or pyruvate alone, unveiled a strong influence of MCU in upregulation of ATP production by mitochondria [53,66].

Having stated these facts, the actual situation may not be so simple. Zampese et al. [21] using pacemaking SNc dopaminergic neurons in *ex vivo* brain slices, and a more physiological experimental approach have found conditions under which the roles of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -induced workload and  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  signaling were clearly dissected. In this study the contribution of these mechanisms to the energetic status of SNc dopaminergic neurons was determined by measuring changes in their repetitive spiking

behavior, and ATP/ADP ratio as readouts of ATP production. Inhibitors of Cav1  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  channels (isradipine) reduced cytosolic  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  signals and caused a decrease in the ATP/ADP ratio indicating that  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  was required to maintain the bioenergetics status through  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  signaling. Disruption of MCU had no effects on the bioenergetics status of these neurons, even though the mitochondrial  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  transient evoked during repetitive spiking were fully abolished. Similarly, aminooxyacetate acid (AOAA), which inhibits MAS, did not significantly change the spike rate. However, MAS inhibition in MCU-KO neurons induced a larger drop in cytosolic ATP/ADP ratio than in wild-type neuron, unmasking a role of Aralar/MAS in supporting OxPhos under these conditions. These results suggest that  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  uptake by MCU and  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -stimulated Aralar/MAS activity could both work to provide ATP production by mitochondria necessary to support repetitive spiking [21]. Indeed, when glucose was replaced by  $\beta$ -hydroxybutyrate ( $\beta$ -OHB), which bypasses glycolysis and Aralar/MAS in Aralar-KO neurons [67] but fuels TCA cycle, the impact of MCU deletion in response to electrical stimulations become apparent. Under basal conditions, MCU KO neurons relying upon  $\beta$ -OHB show a spiking rate similar that of wild types, but upon a depolarization step were unable to sustain the elevated spiking rate observed in control neurons.

These intriguing results suggest that the MCU/dehydrogenases and Aralar/MAS pathways, the main targets of mitochondrial  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  signaling in neurons may operate at the same time but with non-additive effects; with the MCU-pathway inhibiting MAS. The lack of additive effects of these two pathways, with MCU activity inhibiting MAS, was reported earlier [11,14,68]. It is based on the competition for their common substrate,  $\alpha$ -ketoglutarate ( $\alpha$ -KG), shared by MAS and the MCU-pathways (see Fig. 1) whose mitochondrial levels drop after  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  activation of mitochondrial  $\alpha$ -KGDH (also known as OGDH), causing a drop in the activity of the oxoglutarate/malate carrier (OGC) [11]. Inhibition of MAS by matrix  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  was fully reversible once  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  was removed from the matrix [11], was specific for brain mitochondria, and not observed in liver mitochondria [11]. Interestingly, Zampese et al. [21] found that MCU-KO neurons showed increased levels of  $\alpha$ -KG, that explain the activation of MAS under these conditions.

The MCU and redox shuttles mechanisms of mitochondrial  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  signaling might not simply be redundant mechanisms, but rather may be recruited in a substrate-dependent way (glucose/lactate or  $\beta$ -OHB) and enable that different intensities of stimulation elicit qualitatively distinct metabolic responses. In the case of those driven by  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  signals, mitochondrial ATP production during larger workloads might be induced by a combined action of cytosolic and matrix  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ , while smaller workloads might be transduced through an increased activity of NADH shuttles alone stimulated by cytosolic  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ .

Because of their differences in relation to cytosolic  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  concentration requirements, 100–300 nM for AGCs/MAS [14,59] and in the micromolar range for MCU [70], it is expected that, rather than simultaneously, Aralar/MAS and MCU pathways may be differentially, or sequentially, activated during  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  transients. Recent findings obtained exposing cultured hippocampal neurons to electrical stimuli point in that direction [53]. Dhoundiyal et al. have evaluated cytosolic and mitochondrial  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  transients and distinct bioenergetic parameters, mainly cytosolic ATP/ADP and NADH/NAD<sup>+</sup> ratios, in response to electrical field stimulation in the presence of specific inhibitors for MCU and NADH shuttles components. In these assays, it was observed that Aralar/MAS and MCU were differentially engaged in activity-dependent ATP production in mitochondria. Thus, MAS was operative at all intensities of electrical activity tested (2.5 and 10 Hz), whereas MCU contributed only at higher intensity (10 Hz), in those that produce larger cytosolic  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  transients capable of reaching the matrix and to stimulate  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -sensitive dehydrogenases of the TCA cycle [53]. Likewise, by using specific inhibitors, Dhoundiyal et al., demonstrated that the glycerophosphate shuttle, a  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -activated NADH shuttle with low levels in neurons [6,56], could be functional in hippocampal neurons to maintain ATP supply in situations which MAS and MCU were unavailable [53].

Collectively, in situations of imposed or endogenous bursts of neuronal activity,  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  exerts a clear role in upregulating OXPHOS either by increasing ATP demand and/or by  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  signaling to mitochondria. In neurons using glucose, the targets of the  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  signal in mitochondria are the  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -regulated redox shuttles (mainly Aralar/MAS but also G3PS) and MCU. The main role of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -activation of Aralar/MAS is to provide pyruvate to mitochondria to prime OxPhos, a role bypassed by pyruvate supply while MCU activity stimulates mitochondrial dehydrogenases following the increase in matrix  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ . Recruiting one or the other depends on the size of the  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  signal (shuttles involved in small and MCU in large size  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  signals) and overlaps among the two cause matrix  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  inhibition of Aralar-MAS. This situation may be different when neurons use ketone bodies, pyruvate or other fuels which do not require Aralar/MAS, which will rely exclusively on MCU as target of mitochondrial  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  signals.

#### 4. $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -modulated Aralar/MAS activity provides a feed-forward mechanism to activate glycolysis

In response to an increase in workload,  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  also activates glucose uptake and glycolysis together with respiration [18,71].  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  regulation of these processes could be also taken as a feed-forward mechanism upon initiation of the workload. Whether this occurs through a single mechanism or there are several  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -dependent steps that control the fate of glucose in neurons until its combustion in mitochondria is not yet well understood.

A  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  dependent but Aralar/MAS independent [18] increase in glucose uptake upon synaptic activity or NMDA-stimulation has been found in both cerebellar and cortical neurons [18,64,72,73]. A translocation of glucose transporters, GLUT3/Slc2a3 [73] or GLUT4 [64], to the plasma membrane triggered by neuronal activity, via AMPK activation [64,72] has been proposed. As CaMKK $\beta$  is involved in AMPK activation in response to depolarization in neurons [74], it is possible that these mechanisms provide  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  sensitivity to the activity-dependent increase in glucose uptake described [18,64,72,73].

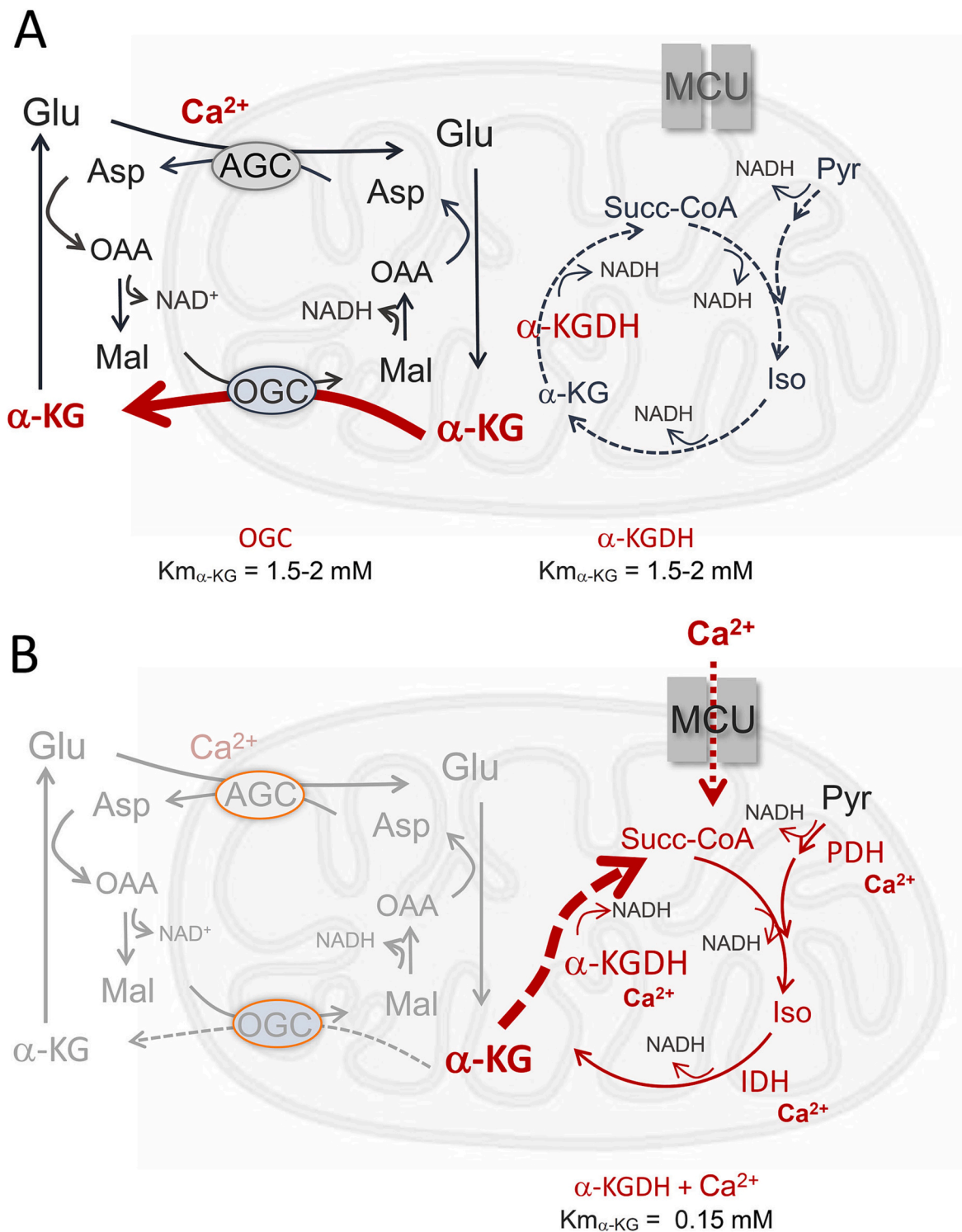
Regarding the steps beyond glucose uptake two scenarios may be considered.  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  regulation of glycolysis and mitochondrial dehydrogenases may occur independently to boost the activity of TCA activity and pyruvate use when  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  enters in the matrix by MCU, or glycolysis and OXPHOS may be  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -modulated by the same mechanism, Aralar/MAS, as indicated recently [18]. Indeed, NMDA induced a rapid  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -dependent increase in cytosolic pyruvate levels which was blunted in AGC1/Aralar-KO neurons, and a similar increase in glucose utilization via glycolysis also abolished in the absence of AGC1/Aralar [18]. The origin of cytosolic pyruvate was glycolysis rather than uptake from the external medium. As Aralar/MAS was also required for NMDA-stimulation of respiration, the results showed that, through redox shuttling, Aralar/MAS diverts pyruvate away from lactate and into OxPhos in a  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  regulated way. By providing NAD<sup>+</sup> for glycolysis, also in a  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  dependent way, it stimulates glycolysis. Therefore, Aralar/MAS may provide a potential feed-forward mechanism linking early  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  signals arising from synaptic activity to both glycolysis and OXPHOS, as has been suggested [71].

#### CRedit authorship contribution statement

**Araceli del Arco:** Conceptualization, Writing – review & editing. **Luis González-Moreno:** Writing – original draft. **Irene Pérez-Liébanas:** Writing – original draft. **Inés Juaristi:** Writing – original draft. **Paloma González-Sánchez:** Writing – original draft. **Laura Contreras:** Resources. **Beatriz Pardo:** Resources. **Jorgina Satrústegui:** Conceptualization, Writing – review & editing.

#### Declaration of competing interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial



**Fig. 1.** Competition for mitochondrial  $\alpha$ -ketoglutarate between MAS and TCA pathways. Schematics of the main components and reactions of the malate/aspartate shuttle and  $Ca^{2+}$ -dependent steps of the TCA cycle. The preferential direction of mitochondrial  $\alpha$ -KG flow in the presence or absence of  $Ca^{2+}$  are shown; along MAS under basal conditions (A) and along  $\alpha$ -KGDH (B) when  $Ca^{2+}$  levels increase after its  $Ca^{2+}$  uptake by MCU, resulting in the activation of  $\alpha$ -KGDH with a decrease in the apparent  $K_m$  for  $\alpha$ -KG. The apparent  $K_m$  for  $\alpha$ -KG of OGC and  $\alpha$ -KGDH under basal condition (A) and  $Ca^{2+}$ -activated conditions (B) taken from [69] are indicated. OGC, oxoglutarate-malate carrier;  $\alpha$ -KGDH, alpha-ketoglutarate dehydrogenase.

interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

## Data availability

No data was used for the research described in the article.

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