

The Integration of Mitochondrial Calcium Transport and Storage

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The extraordinary capacity of isolated mitochondria to accumulate Ca^{2+} has been established for more than 40 years. The distinct kinetics of the independent uptake and efflux pathways accounts for the dual functionality of the transport process to either modulate matrix free Ca^{2+} concentrations or to act as temporary stores of large amounts of Ca^{2+} in the presence of phosphate. One puzzle has been the nature of the matrix calcium phosphate complex, since matrix free Ca^{2+} seems to be buffered in the region of 1–5 μM in the presence of phosphate while millimolar Ca^{2+} remains soluble in *in vitro* media. The key seems to be the elevated matrix pH and the third-power relationship of the PO_4^{3-} concentration with pH. Taking this into account we may now finally have a model that explains the major features of physiological mitochondrial Ca^{2+} transport.

KEY WORDS: Mitochondria; calcium; phosphate; membrane potential; tricalcium phosphate; pH; hydroxyapatite.

As so ably documented by the studies of Al Lehninger and his collaborators in the 1960s and 1970s, one of the most fascinating properties of isolated mitochondria is their seemingly enormous capacity (frequently in excess of 1 micromole/mg protein—corresponding to a total matrix concentration of 1 M) to accumulate and retain calcium. In their classic studies (reviewed in Lehninger, 1974; Lehninger *et al.*, 1967; Rossi and Lehninger, 1964) some of the major features were established, including the role of phosphate as accompanying ion, effects on respiration, and the detection of associated proton movements, although this last was initially ascribed to the passive response to a primary Ca^{2+} transport process rather than a manifestation of the chemiosmotic hypothesis. With the gradual realization that this latter provided a mechanism for the uptake of Ca^{2+} via a uniport channel came a new problem, namely that estimates of the membrane potential $\Delta\psi$ in the region of 150 mV (Nicholls, 1974) and thus capable of maintaining a 10^5 gradient of free Ca^{2+} across the inner membrane led to the conclusion that a uniport would

lead to an irreversible accumulation of the cation into the matrix. This paradox was resolved by the discovery of independent efflux pathways in heart and liver mitochondria (Crompton *et al.*, 1978; Crompton and Heid, 1978) leading to the concept of a continuous cycling of Ca^{2+} across the membrane utilizing the proton gradient either directly in liver mitochondria, via the $\text{H}^+/\text{Ca}^{2+}$ exchanger, or indirectly in the case of heart or brain mitochondria where a combination of $\text{Na}^+/\text{Ca}^{2+}$ and H^+/Na^+ exchangers were operative (Fig. 1).

This cycling of Ca^{2+} led to a wealth of papers focussing on the ability of the pathways to transmit changes in cytoplasmic free Ca^{2+} , $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_c$, into the matrix to control key metabolic enzymes including pyruvate dehydrogenase, 2-oxoglutarate dehydrogenase, and NAD-linked isocitrate dehydrogenase (reviewed in Monje *et al.*, 2001). However, it was still important to establish why mitochondria accumulated Ca^{2+} rather than simply cycling it. Our own investigations began with the acquisition of a Ca^{2+} selective macroelectrode and an investigation of the extent to which mitochondria could reduce the extramitochondrial free Ca^{2+} concentration, $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_e$ (Nicholls, 1978). Respiring liver mitochondria incubated in the presence of 30 nmol total Ca^{2+} /mg protein could lower $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_e$ to about 0.8 μM while if $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_e$ was lowered below this

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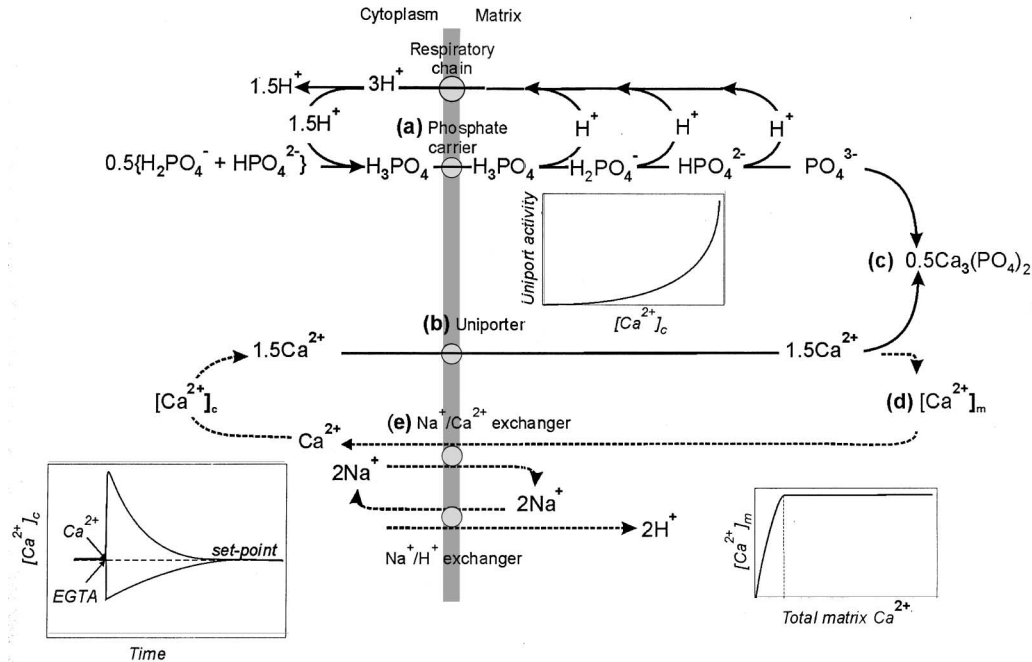


Fig. 1. Schematic of the ion movements involved in the net accumulation (solid arrows) and steady-state cycling (dashed arrows) of Ca²⁺. (a) The phosphate carrier transports H₂PO₄⁻ in exchange for OH⁻ but this is formally equivalent to the electroneutral transport of H₃PO₄. Because three proton dissociations are required to form PO₄³⁻ the concentration of this species is inversely proportional to the cube of the proton concentration in the matrix (Chalmers and Nicholls, 2003). (b) The uniporter activity increases as the 2.5 power of cytoplasmic free Ca²⁺ concentration [Ca²⁺]_c (Zoccarato and Nicholls, 1982), see insert. (c) The tricalcium phosphate complex forms when its ion activity product is exceeded. Because the concentration of PO₄³⁻ increases with pH, the solubility of Ca²⁺ decreases and is about 2 μM when matrix pH is about 7.7 and external total phosphate is about 5 mM (Chalmers and Nicholls, 2003). (d) The matrix free Ca²⁺ concentration, [Ca²⁺]_m, varies with total matrix Ca²⁺ until about 10 nmol/mg is accumulated and the tricalcium phosphate complex starts to form. In this initial region matrix Ca²⁺ can regulate tricarboxylic acid enzymes. Once the complex forms, [Ca²⁺]_m is invariant with matrix Ca²⁺ load and the cytoplasmic Ca²⁺ buffering mode is seen (see insert). (e) The Na⁺/Ca²⁺ exchanger is controlled by [Ca²⁺]_m; when the matrix is in cytoplasmic buffering mode (> 10 nmol Ca²⁺/mg accumulated) mitochondria seek to accumulate (or release matrix Ca²⁺ to restore a set-point at which the kinetics of uptake via the uniporter exactly balance efflux via the Na⁺/Ca²⁺ exchanger (Nicholls, 1978).

value by the addition of a chelator there was a slow release of matrix Ca²⁺ until this same value was attained (Nicholls, 1978). It thus seemed that this represented a value at which a dynamic steady-state equilibrium cycling was achieved.

The equilibrium [Ca²⁺]_c, which we termed the “set-point” was invariant when the total Ca²⁺ load was varied from 10 to 50 nmol/mg protein (Nicholls, 1978). However above this value the capacity of the mitochondria to accumulate Ca²⁺ was severely curtailed and the set-point rose. Net accumulation of Ca²⁺ would be predicted to lower Δψ and raise ΔpH as net proton extrusion occurs in compensation for the uptake of Ca²⁺. The only reason why 50 nmol/mg protein of Ca²⁺ could be accumulated without affecting the set-point was because of the presence of endogenous phosphate in the preparation. When this was depleted by preincubating mitochondria with glucose and

hexokinase or by inhibiting the phosphate transporter with *N*-ethylmaleimide much less Ca²⁺ could be taken up before the set-point was raised (Nicholls, 1978; Zoccarato and Nicholls, 1982). In theory, both acetate and phosphate could serve as compensatory permeant anions to prevent the build-up of ΔpH and drop in Δψ; however their effects were distinct. With acetate the set-point rose slowly with Ca²⁺ load (Nicholls, 1978; Zoccarato and Nicholls, 1982) whereas with additional phosphate as permeant anion the set-point remained remarkably constant as total Ca²⁺ was varied from 10 to several hundred nmol/mg (Nicholls and Scott, 1980). As investigated by Rossi and Lehninger (1964) matrix Ca²⁺ in the presence of phosphate appears to form some type of osmotically inactive complex, whereas calcium acetate is soluble. This raised the possibility that the remarkable invariance of the set-point over the range from 10 to 500 nmol/mg Ca²⁺ (Chalmers and

Nicholls, 2003) was due to the kinetic balance between the activity of the uniporter at a given $[Ca^{2+}]_e$ and an activity of the efflux pathway that was essentially independent of total matrix Ca^{2+} load over this range because the free matrix Ca^{2+} , $[Ca^{2+}]_m$, was buffered at a constant value by the supposed Ca^{2+} -phosphate complex.

This hypothesis was tested in a subsequent study (Zoccarato and Nicholls, 1982). Without making any assumptions about the chemical nature of the Ca^{2+} -phosphate complex, a constant ion activity ("solubility") product should mean that $[Ca^{2+}]_m$ would decrease when the matrix free phosphate concentration increased. This latter is surprisingly easy to control. Because the dominant pathway for Pi transport across the inner membrane is the electroneutral phosphate transporter (Palmieri *et al.*, 1996), then if ΔpH does not change the concentrations of the different ionized forms of Pi free in the matrix will be proportional to the external Pi concentration. This was tested directly by monitoring the net rate of Ca^{2+} efflux from liver mitochondria following addition of ruthenium red to inhibit the uniporter. Ca^{2+} efflux rates decreased from 7 nmol/min/mg protein from mitochondria phosphate depleted by glucose/hexokinase to 0.5 nmol/min/mg protein in the presence of 3 mM external Pi (Zoccarato and Nicholls, 1982). Mitochondrial membrane potential did not change when Pi was increased, but the set-point decreased from 0.78 μM to 0.55 μM .

The rather modest change in set-point accompanying a 16-fold decrease in efflux rate indicates a very steep dependency of the uniporter on $[Ca^{2+}]_e$. This was investigated directly by an experiment in which Ca^{2+} was infused into mitochondrial incubations at varying rates and $[Ca^{2+}]_e$ was monitored until it achieved a constant value, implying that the net rate of Ca^{2+} accumulation by the mitochondria equalled the rate of the infusion and hence that the activity of the uniporter was equal to the infusion rate plus the activity of the efflux pathway. By varying the infusion rate the activity of the uniporter was determined to vary as the 2.5th power of $[Ca^{2+}]_e$. The contrast between this high dependency for uptake and the virtual independency of the efflux pathway on matrix Ca^{2+} load (due to the buffering of $[Ca^{2+}]_m$) is sufficient to account for the remarkable constancy of the set-point over this 50-fold range of total matrix Ca^{2+} from 10 to 500 nmol/mg.

It should be emphasized in these studies that care was taken to reproduce the physiological conditions existing in the cytoplasm as accurately as possible, and in particular including adenine nucleotides in the incubation media. As evidenced from the literally thousands of publications on the permeability transition (PT), it is all too easy to incubate mitochondria in sucrose under nonphysiological conditions, omit the natural protective action of exogenous

adenine nucleotides, subject the unfortunate organelles to a massive bolus of Ca^{2+} and watch them swell. This is not to denigrate carefully controlled experiments designed to reproduce oxidative stress in, for example cardiac reperfusion models (Crompton, 1999), but rather to emphasize the importance of realizing that mitochondria operate in a controlled environment.

We have recently revisited the question of the nature of the matrix stored Ca^{2+} (Chalmers and Nicholls, 2003) in order to answer a number of outstanding questions. In particular we were interested in confirming that the Ca^{2+} -phosphate complex in the matrix was able to maintain $[Ca^{2+}]_m$ at a constant value independent of total Ca^{2+} load and attempting to determine the factors that control the maximal Ca^{2+} loading capacity of the matrix. We were concerned to eliminate the bioenergetic loads associated with conventional bolus additions of the cation which result in a sudden demand on the proton gradient, transient depolarization, increased respiration, and changes in ΔpH . Because each of these parameters changes rapidly during a bolus addition it is difficult to distinguish the precise factors that are for example responsible for defining the maximal capacity of the matrix to retain Ca^{2+} . Instead, we adapted the infusion technique discussed above in order to slowly load the matrix with Ca^{2+} with negligible consequences for the mitochondrial bioenergetics.

Liver mitochondria in the presence of ADP and oligomycin were able to accumulate 800 nmol Ca^{2+} /mg over a period of 10 min before $[Ca^{2+}]_e$ rose precipitously indicating the onset of a PT. No change in mitochondrial membrane potential occurred during the infusion until the onset of the transition. Some increase in NAD(P)H fluorescence was noted, together with an increase in light-scattering. It should be emphasized in this context that what is usually referred to as "swelling" is actually measured as a decrease in light scattering caused by a decrease in the difference in refractive index between the matrix and the medium as the latter enters and dilutes the former. The increased light scattering during matrix Ca^{2+} loading is most likely due to the light-scattering properties or increased matrix refractive index due to the formation of the matrix Ca^{2+} -phosphate complex. Importantly, during the Ca^{2+} loading no increase in the level of reactive oxygen species could be detected, if anything H_2O_2 production decreased during Ca^{2+} loading (Chalmers and Nicholls, 2003).

The PT inhibitor cyclosporin A enhances the Ca^{2+} loading capacity of liver mitochondria in the presence of ADP by 2.5-fold, while oxidation of endogenous NADH by the addition of acetoacetate decreases the loading capacity by a similar extent (Chalmers and Nicholls, 2003). Interestingly acetoacetate is still effective in lowering

loading capacity in the presence of cyclosporin A and ADP.

The nature of the Ca^{2+} -phosphate complex and its ability to buffer $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_m$ that was predicted by the earlier studies on the set-point were investigated by loading rat brain mitochondria with the low affinity fura2-FF. As the total matrix load was varied either by the addition of Ca^{2+} or EGTA it became apparent that there was a discontinuity at about 10 nmol total Ca^{2+} /mg protein. Above this value $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_m$ was virtually invariant with total load, whereas below 10 nmol/mg $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_m$ varied as a linear function of total Ca^{2+} . This resolves a longstanding debate between advocates of matrix Ca^{2+} as a means of transmitting hormonal and metabolic changes in cytoplasmic Ca^{2+} into the matrix (Hansford, 1994; McCormack and Denton, 1990) and those including ourselves who had emphasized the Ca^{2+} buffering function of the mitochondrion (Nicholls and Åkerman, 1982). It is apparent that the mitochondrion is beautifully adapted to either role. When $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_c$ is maintained below the set-point there is too little matrix Ca^{2+} to form the Ca^{2+} -phosphate complex and $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_m$ varies with $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_c$, allowing for a messenger role for the cation and the control of the citric acid cycle. When however $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_c$ rises, even briefly, above the set-point then sufficient matrix loading occurs for the formation of the Ca^{2+} -phosphate complex.

Studies with fluorescent Ca^{2+} indicators using either isolated mitochondria (Al Nassar and Crompton, 1986; Davis *et al.*, 1987; Lukacs and Kapus, 1987; McCormack *et al.*, 1989; Moreno and Hansford, 1988) or intact cells (numerous studies employing rhod-2 and related indicators) have reported surprisingly low values for $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_m$ in the range 1–5 μM under a variety of conditions. Indeed in the regulatory range (0–10 nmol total Ca^{2+} /mg) the effects on citric acid cycle enzymes are consistent with $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_m$ values of 0.5–2 μM (Hansford and Castro, 1982). In our study $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_m$ for brain mitochondria remained in the range 2–3 μM when total Ca^{2+} was increased from 10 to 500 nmol/mg (Chalmers and Nicholls, 2003). Thus the earlier prediction that $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_m$ should be essentially independent of total matrix Ca^{2+} (Zoccarato and Nicholls, 1982) was confirmed. Furthermore, the expected inverse relationship between external Pi concentration and $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_m$ was also found. Interestingly cyclosporin A, although it more than doubled the maximal loading capacity of the matrix did not affect the stability of the Ca^{2+} -phosphate complex.

A major puzzle has been how to reconcile the apparent properties of the matrix Ca^{2+} -phosphate complex with that of known complexes in solution. Physiological cell incubation media contain millimolar Ca^{2+} in solution in the presence of millimolar Pi, and yet in the matrix some form

of osmotically inactive complex forms when $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_m$ rises above 1–5 μM . Furthermore, in vitro calcium phosphate complexes once formed are notoriously difficult to redissolve, whereas the addition of a protonophore to Ca^{2+} -loaded mitochondria leads to an extremely rapid efflux of Ca^{2+} via reversal of the uniporter and phosphate separately via the phosphate transporter (Zoccarato and Nicholls, 1982). Finally, if the gradient of free Ca^{2+} across the inner membrane is really so low (say 0.5 μM outside and 2 μM inside), as is the gradient of free Pi (defined by the low ΔpH) why is the addition of protonophore so effective in triggering massive and rapid Ca^{2+} release?

It is not possible to investigate the nature of the matrix Ca^{2+} -phosphate complex directly, due to its instant dissociation when the mitochondria are disrupted and to the ability of Ca^{2+} -phosphate complexes to change during fixation or drying for physicochemical analysis. Thus hydroxyapatite can be detected in fixed and desiccated samples, but it is generally accepted that this is an artifact. In an artificial cytoplasm in the presence of ATP, amorphous $\text{Ca}_3(\text{PO}_4)_2$ is initially formed when millimolar Ca^{2+} is titrated in, particularly at alkaline pH (Wuthier *et al.*, 1985).

Some limits on the stoichiometry of the matrix complex can be reached by accurate determination of the ratio of Ca^{2+} accumulated to net protons extruded during the uptake. These classic studies by Lehninger and colleagues produced values close to 1.0 $\text{H}^+/\text{Ca}^{2+}$ (Lehninger *et al.*, 1967). While it was not initially realized that this was a “chemiosotic” proton extruded by the respiratory chain the analysis remains valid. This ratio is consistent with the formation of $\text{Ca}_3(\text{PO}_4)_2$ (Fig. 1) whereas hydroxyapatite with a formula $\text{Ca}_5(\text{PO}_4)_3\text{OH}$ would give a ratio of 1.1. While these ratios are perhaps too close to allow unambiguous discrimination, other forms such as CaHPO_4 (ratio 0.5) and $\text{Ca}(\text{H}_2\text{PO}_4)_2$ (ratio-1) can be eliminated.

The clue both to the low Ca^{2+} solubility in the matrix and the rapid efflux initiated by protonophore appears to lie in the pH gradient across the inner membrane. The highly active phosphate carrier equilibrates the transported species H_2PO_4^- with OH^- and thus accumulates the anion as a function of the ΔpH . Two further dissociations of H_2PO_4^- to HPO_4^{2-} and PO_4^{3-} are required before $\text{Ca}_3(\text{PO}_4)_2$ is formed and both of these dissociations are dependent on the matrix pH, with the final result that the concentration of the PO_4^{3-} species is dependent on the third power of the ΔpH at constant external phosphate.

The solubility of a salt is governed by the ion activity product (solubility product). Values reported in the literature for the calcium phosphate complexes are somewhat variable, but values of 3×10^{-30} for amorphous $\text{Ca}_3(\text{PO}_4)_2$ and 1×10^{-59} for hydroxyapatite are representative. From

the pKs for the dissociation of the phosphate anionic forms it can be calculated that the transmembrane gradient of the PO_4^{3-} anion varies as the third power of the pH gradient, so that an increase in matrix pH from 7 to 8 would increase the matrix PO_4^{3-} concentration by 1000-fold. Since the ion activity product is a constant, this means that taking an example of mitochondria incubated in the presence of 5 mM total external Pi the saturating Ca^{2+} concentration in equilibrium with tricalcium phosphate in the matrix would decrease from about 100 μM at pH 7 to 1 μM at pH 8, while the corresponding saturating Ca^{2+} concentrations in equilibrium with hydroxyapatite would be about 15-fold lower (Chalmers and Nicholls, 2003).

The best fit with the experimental data for $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_m$ would be consistent with tricalcium phosphate in the matrix of respiring mitochondria at a pH of about 7.7, when saturating $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_m$ would be calculated to be in the region of 2 μM . Thus, the low values reported for $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_m$ are entirely consistent with the physical chemistry of calcium phosphate complexes at alkaline pH. This also provides an explanation for the rapid efflux of Ca^{2+} and Pi on their respective carriers when protonophores are added, since this is associated with a dramatic matrix acidification. This would decrease the concentration of PO_4^{3-} , destabilizing the complex, and increasing $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_m$ to about 100 μM , the high Ca^{2+} gradient thus driving the rapid efflux of the cation.

The Ca^{2+} -transport properties of isolated mitochondria are sufficient to account for the major features observed for in situ mitochondrial Ca^{2+} transport. In particular mitochondria only appear to sequester significant amounts of Ca^{2+} when $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_m$ rises above 0.5 μM , corresponding rather nicely with the set-point observed for isolated mitochondria (Werth and Thayer, 1994). Isolated mitochondria release Ca^{2+} when the external Ca^{2+} concentration falls below the set-point (Nicholls, 1978) and this behavior can be observed in cultured neurons recovering after a transient cytoplasmic Ca^{2+} load, where the recovery to basal $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_c$ is delayed by a shoulder consistent with an unloading of the temporarily accumulated cation to the cytoplasm (Werth and Thayer, 1994).

In conclusion, the mitochondrial Ca^{2+} transport and sequestration properties are perfectly adapted to accumu-

late, store, and release large amounts of the cation. The pioneering work of Al Lehninger and his colleagues laid the essential groundwork from which these studies have evolved.

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