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Review

Mitochondria and mammalian reproduction

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ABSTRACT

Mitochondria are cellular organelles with crucial roles in ATP synthesis, metabolic integration, reactive oxygen species (ROS) synthesis and management, the regulation of apoptosis (namely via the intrinsic pathway), among many others. Additionally, mitochondria in different organs or cell types may have distinct properties that can decisively influence functional analysis. In terms of the importance of mitochondria in mammalian reproduction, and although there are species-specific differences, these aspects involve both energetic considerations for gametogenesis and fertilization, control of apoptosis to ensure the proper production of viable gametes, and ROS signaling, as well as other emerging aspects. Crucially, mitochondria are the starting point for steroid hormone biosynthesis, given that the conversion of cholesterol to pregnenolone (a common precursor for all steroid hormones) takes place via the activity of the cytochrome P450 side-chain cleavage enzyme (P450_{scc}) on the inner mitochondrial membrane. Furthermore, mitochondrial activity in reproduction has to be considered in accordance with the very distinct strategies for gamete production in the male and female. These include distinct gonad morpho-physiologies, different types of steroids that are more prevalent (testosterone, estrogens, progesterone), and, importantly, the very particular timings of gametogenesis. While spermatogenesis is complete and continuous since puberty, producing a seemingly inexhaustible pool of gametes in a fixed environment; oogenesis involves the episodic production of very few gametes in an environment that changes cyclically. These aspects have always to be taken into account when considering the roles of any common element in mammalian reproduction.

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61 **1. Introduction**

62 Mitochondria are usually mentioned primarily in terms of cellu-
63 lar ATP production by oxidative phosphorylation (OXPHOS) via the
64 electron transport chain (ETC) located in the inner mitochondrial
65 membrane. ETC activity generates a transmembrane proton gradi-
66 ent (Fig. 1), of which the mitochondrial membrane potential
67 (MMP) is the main component, driving the ATP synthase (Kakkar
68 and Singh, 2007; Newmeyer and Ferguson-Miller, 2003; Scheffler,
69 2001). A few components of this machinery are encoded by resident
70 mitochondrial DNA (mtDNA) a prokaryotic-like genome that is
71 inherited maternally (Jansen and de Boer, 1998; St John et al., 2010).

72 However, recent mitochondrial research focuses on other top-
73 ics, such as the production of reactive oxygen species (ROS) by
74 the ETC and their role(s) in both physiological cell signaling and
75 pathological processes (related to oxidative stress); the regulation
76 of the intrinsic apoptosis pathway and intracellular calcium levels;
77 the production of steroid hormones; quality control of cellular
78 mitochondria via autophagy/mitophagy pathways, or the central
79 position of mitochondria in integrating several metabolic and sig-
80 naling pathways, epigenetics and the cell cycle (Folmes et al.,
81 2012; Kakkar and Singh, 2007; Nichols and Ferguson, 2002; Nun-
82 nari and Suomalainen, 2012).

83 Moreover, although previously mitochondria were thought to
84 have a fixed and individual morphology, it is now known that
85 changes in shape (both in terms of cristae structure and matrix
86 texture), size (regulated by the fission/fusion machinery) and
87 relationships with other cellular features (the cytoskeleton,
88 the endoplasmic reticulum) can have important functional
89 consequences (Bereiter-Hahn and Voth, 1994; Collins et al., 2002;

90 Rowland and Voeltz, 2012). Indeed, studies of mitochondrial
91 (dys)function related to aging, degenerative and metabolic disor-
92 ders or cancer encompass several of these aspects, from abnormal
93 OXPHOS activity and ROS production, to defective apoptosis and
94 mitophagy/autophagy, to changes in mtDNA and mitochondrial
95 structure (Amaral et al., 2008b; Amaral and Ramalho-Santos,
96 2009; Cereghetti and Scorrano, 2011; Correia et al., 2012; Dorn
97 and Scorrano, 2010; Martinou and Youle, 2011; Nunnari and
98 Suomalainen, 2012; Oettinghaus et al., 2012; Palmeira and Rama-
99 lho-Santos, 2011; Ramalho-Santos and Rodrigues, 2013; Ramalho-
100 Santos et al., 2009; St John et al., 2010). In short, mitochondria are
101 involved in many other duties while (also) making ATP.

102 In this review we will focus specifically on the role of mitochon-
103 dria in gametogenesis, fertilization and early embryo development.
104 It should be noted that mitochondrial function is most often studied
105 in terms of dysfunction induced by pathological conditions or toxic
106 substances (pharmacological agents, environmental contaminants,
107 distinct pathologies, etc.), and how these dysfunctions may ulti-
108 mately affect the reproductive system (Aly and Khafagy, 2011;
109 Amaral et al., 2008a, 2009; Banu et al., 2011; Miyamoto et al.,
110 2010; Mota et al., 2011; Svechnikov et al., 2009; Wang et al.,
111 2009, 2010). Using different aspects of mitochondrial function as
112 damage indicators in several disease models and, conversely, as
113 diagnostic tools in Assisted Reproductive Technologies (ART), has
114 increased in recent years, in terms of functional sperm analysis
115 (Aitken et al., 2012; Dorn and Scorrano, 2010; Gallon et al., 2006;
116 Marchetti et al., 2002; Marchetti et al., 2012; Nakada et al., 2006;
117 Ruiz-Pesini et al., 1998; Sanchez-Partida et al., 2008; Sousa et al.,
118 2011), and oocyte quality assessment (Van Blerkom, 2011; Wang
119 and Sun, 2007).

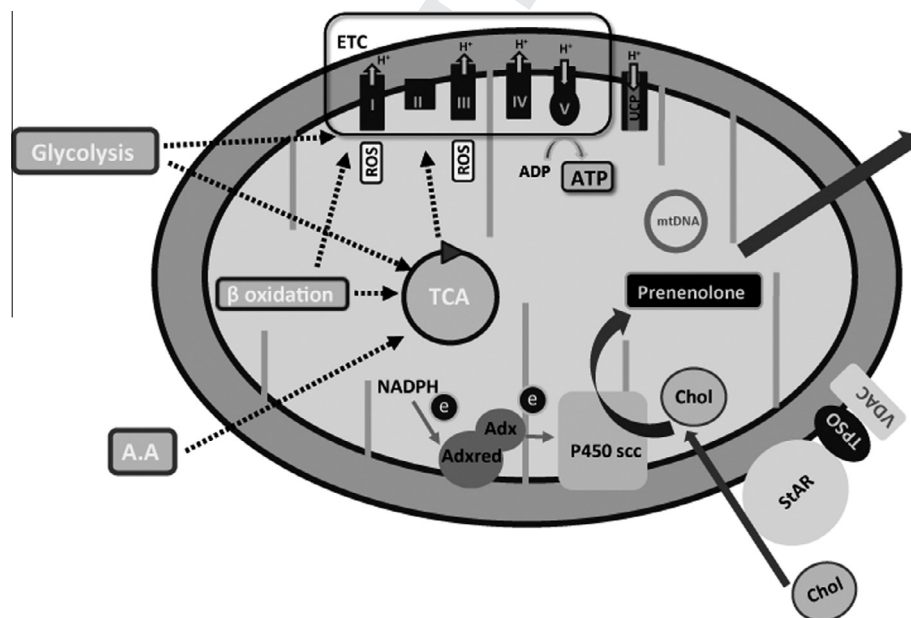


Fig. 1. Possible roles of mitochondria in reproduction. Mitochondria are double membrane organelles with their own genome (mtDNA). Mitochondrial substrates derived from glycolysis, beta-oxidation of fatty acids and the Krebs cycle (Tricarboxylic acid cycle- TCA) provide energy for ATP production through oxidative phosphorylation (OXPHOS) by the activity of the electron transfer chain (ETC) on the inner mitochondrial membrane, composed of four inner membrane (IMM)-associated enzyme complexes (I–IV), plus cytochrome c (Cytc) and the mobile electron carrier ubiquinone (Q). This electron transfer generates a proton gradient across the inner membrane that drives ATP synthase (often known as complex V). However, at several sites of the electron transport chain (mainly complexes I and III) electrons can react with oxygen forming ROS. The energy dissipation mechanism promoted by UCPs (uncoupling proteins) can reduce ROS formation. Both beta-oxidation of fatty acids and amino acid catabolism provide TCA intermediates. The initial step of steroidogenesis also takes place in mitochondria. The first step involves cholesterol (Chol) transport into the mitochondria facilitated by StAR protein via its interaction with Translocator protein (TSPO) and voltage dependent anion channel (VDAC) that constitute the transduceosome, located on the outer mitochondrial membrane (OMM). Once in the mitochondria, cholesterol will be converted to pregnenolone through the action of side chain cleavage cytochrome P450 (P450scc) that depends on the Adrenoxin reductase (AdxRed)–adrenoxin (Adx) system to receive electrons from NADPH. Pregnenolone then diffuses to the smooth endoplasmic reticulum (SER) where it is further metabolized. See text for discussion.

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