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# Ca<sup>2+</sup> signaling in dendritic spines

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Recent studies have revealed that Ca<sup>2+</sup> signals evoked by action potentials or by synaptic activity within individual dendritic spines are regulated at multiple levels. Ca<sup>2+</sup> influx through glutamate receptors and voltage-sensitive Ca<sup>2+</sup> channels located on spines depends on the channel subunit composition, the activity of kinases and phosphatases, the local membrane potential and past patterns of activity. Furthermore, sources of spine Ca<sup>2+</sup> interact nonlinearly such that activation of one Ca<sup>2+</sup> channel can enhance or depress the activity of others. These studies have revealed that each spine is a complex and partitioned Ca<sup>2+</sup> signaling domain capable of autonomously regulating the electrical and biochemical consequences of synaptic activity.

## Addresses

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## Introduction

In most principal neurons in the mammalian brain, each dendritic spine is typically associated with a single glutamatergic synapse and houses the postsynaptic density [1]. Ca<sup>2+</sup> accumulation within the spine activates signaling cascades that act locally to regulate the associated synapse, the morphology of the spine and the trafficking of proteins and organelles (reviewed recently in [2–4]). Here, we summarize progress made over the past few years in identifying the factors that govern the kinetics, amplitude and spread of spine Ca<sup>2+</sup> transients.

The amplitude and time course of Ca<sup>2+</sup> signals within the spine depend on many factors, including the activation and inactivation kinetics of Ca<sup>2+</sup> sources, the Ca<sup>2+</sup> permeability of ion channels, the concentration and affinity of endogenous Ca<sup>2+</sup>-binding proteins, the efficiency of Ca<sup>2+</sup> extrusion, and the morphology of the spine. Recent studies have shown that nearly all of these factors are under dynamic regulation and vary from spine to spine.

Much of the recent progress in understanding these factors has come from the use of two-photon laser-scanning microscopy combined with two-photon laser photoactivation of caged glutamate (Box 1, Figure 1); this approach enables direct stimulation of the postsynaptic terminal on a visualized dendritic spine and simultaneous monitoring of intracellular Ca<sup>2+</sup> levels.

## Mechanisms of Ca<sup>2+</sup> influx

### NMDA-type glutamate receptors

Ca<sup>2+</sup> influx through NMDA receptors contributes a large fraction of synaptic Ca<sup>2+</sup> signals in the spines of hippocampal pyramidal neurons [5,6<sup>••</sup>,7,8], cortical pyramidal neurons [9,10<sup>••</sup>,11], spiny stellate neurons [12], olfactory granule cells [13] and striatal medium spiny neurons (MSN) [14].

In rat CA1 pyramidal neurons, the NMDA receptors found in spines and at synapses consist of heteromers of NR1 and typically the NR2A or NR2B subunits. Immunogold electron microscopy demonstrates that NR2A-containing receptors and NR2B-containing receptors are segregated, such that many spines express either NR2A or NR2B but not both [15]. Similarly, studies using glutamate uncaging to stimulate individual spines have shown that the contributions of NR2A-containing receptors and NR2B-containing receptors to NMDA-receptor-dependent currents and spine head Ca<sup>2+</sup> transients vary greatly from spine to spine [16<sup>•</sup>]. This suggests that, in the hippocampus, the subunit composition of NMDA receptors is regulated not only during development but also, for a given cell, on a synapse-by-synapse basis. Because NR2B-containing NMDA receptors deactivate more slowly [17], contribute relatively more Ca<sup>2+</sup> to synaptically-evoked Ca<sup>2+</sup> transients [16<sup>•</sup>] and are coupled to different downstream signaling systems from NR2A-containing receptors [18<sup>•</sup>,19<sup>••</sup>], this heterogeneity might enable NMDA receptor opening to have different functional implications for plasticity induction [20–22] (but see [18<sup>•</sup>,23,24]).

The Ca<sup>2+</sup> permeability of NMDA receptors also depends on the phosphorylation state of the receptor and its subunit composition. NR2B-containing receptors contribute relatively more Ca<sup>2+</sup> to the spine than NR2A-containing receptors but the Ca<sup>2+</sup> permeability of both is enhanced by protein kinase A (PKA) activity [16<sup>•</sup>,19<sup>••</sup>,25<sup>••</sup>]. Furthermore, Ca<sup>2+</sup> signaling through NMDA receptors is controlled by a negative feedback loop such that repetitive activation of NR2B-containing NMDA receptors activates a serine/threonine phosphatase that decreases Ca<sup>2+</sup> permeability of NMDA receptors

**Box 1** New approaches to the study of spine  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  signaling

Analysis of spine  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  signaling has benefited greatly from the use of microscopes that combine two-photon laser-scanning microscopy (2PLSM) and two-photon laser photoactivation (2PLP) of caged glutamate [6\*\*,14,16\*,19\*\*,30\*,72\*,73]. One laser is used to trigger photolysis of caged glutamate while a second is used to monitor fluorescence from an intracellular  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -sensitive fluorophore (Figure 1). MNI-glutamate is the preferred choice of caged glutamate because its two-photon absorption cross-section is sufficient to enable photolysis in response to submillisecond pulses of light [74]. Using this approach, the postsynaptic terminal on a spine can be stimulated while the evoked signals are monitored. Furthermore, combined 2PLSM and 2PLP enables postsynaptic responses to be studied in conditions that perturb release of neurotransmitter from the presynaptic terminal.

However, several limitations of this approach must be considered. First, although the volume in which glutamate is uncaged by two-photon processes using high numerical aperture objectives is small (<1 fL), it is far larger than that of the synaptic cleft, resulting in the possible stimulation of extrasynaptic receptors. This problem is exacerbated if the duration of the uncaging laser pulse is more than a few hundred microseconds. Second, the spatial resolution of 2PLSM is similar to the length of smaller dendritic spines, such that it is impossible to image fluorescence from stubby spines without contamination from dendritic fluorescence [75]. Similarly, the efficiency of glutamate receptor activation falls off with a length constant of  $\sim 1 \mu\text{m}$ ; thus, receptors not on the targeted spine might be inadvertently activated [16\*,74]. Lastly, adjusting the duration and power of the uncaging laser pulse enables the user to stimulate the postsynaptic terminal using any of a broad range of glutamate concentrations [72\*,73]. Care must be taken to not use unnaturally strong stimuli that might uncover phenomena that have no physiological relevance. For this reason, it is necessary to develop methods to calibrate and standardize the amount of glutamate released onto spines that are located at different depths and in varying optical environments within the slice [6\*\*].

[19\*\*]. These data suggest that the  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  permeability of NMDA receptors might be regulated by a PKA-anchoring protein (AKAP) complex (reviewed in [26]) that is associated with the NR2B subunit, although this has not been explicitly demonstrated.

The strongest and possibly most rapid modulator of NMDA receptor currents and  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  influx is the membrane potential which, along with subunit composition, determines the efficacy of block of the receptor by extracellular  $\text{Mg}^{2+}$  [17,27–29].  $\text{Mg}^{2+}$  block is incomplete at resting potentials and glutamate binding to NMDA receptors triggers  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  influx even in the absence of depolarization. Because the spine volume is small and the driving force for  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  influx is large, NMDA-receptor-mediated  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  transients are substantial even in spines under good voltage clamp at resting potentials [8]. The effects of resting potential on NMDA-receptor-mediated currents have long been appreciated but recent studies indicate that the activation of a single synapse generates sufficient depolarization to partially relieve  $\text{Mg}^{2+}$  block and accentuate NMDA-receptor-mediated currents [30\*]. Because the activity of a single synapse typically produces a submillivolt potential at the soma [31], this finding

highlights the large attenuation of synaptic potentials that must occur along the dendrite. In pyramidal neurons in mouse hippocampus [30\*] and rat amygdala [32\*], spine depolarization is abbreviated by synaptic  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  influx, which activates small-conductance  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -activated  $\text{K}^+$  (SK) channels that repolarize the membrane, promote  $\text{Mg}^{2+}$  block of NMDA receptors, and terminate NMDA receptor signaling. In the case of mouse hippocampal pyramidal neurons, only  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  that enters the spine through R-type voltage-sensitive  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  channels (VSCCs) can activate SK channels; this indicates that, despite its small size, the spine is compartmentalized into functionally independent  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  microdomains [6\*\*].

NMDA-receptor-dependent  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  influx in spines is also boosted by backpropagating action potentials (bAPs), which invade proximal dendrites and spines, transiently relieving  $\text{Mg}^{2+}$  block of NMDA receptors and enhancing synaptic  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  signals. This effect has been demonstrated in multiple cell types [6\*\*,7,9,10\*\*,11,12,14] and might trigger the induction of spike-timing-dependent synaptic plasticity (STDP; see also the following section).

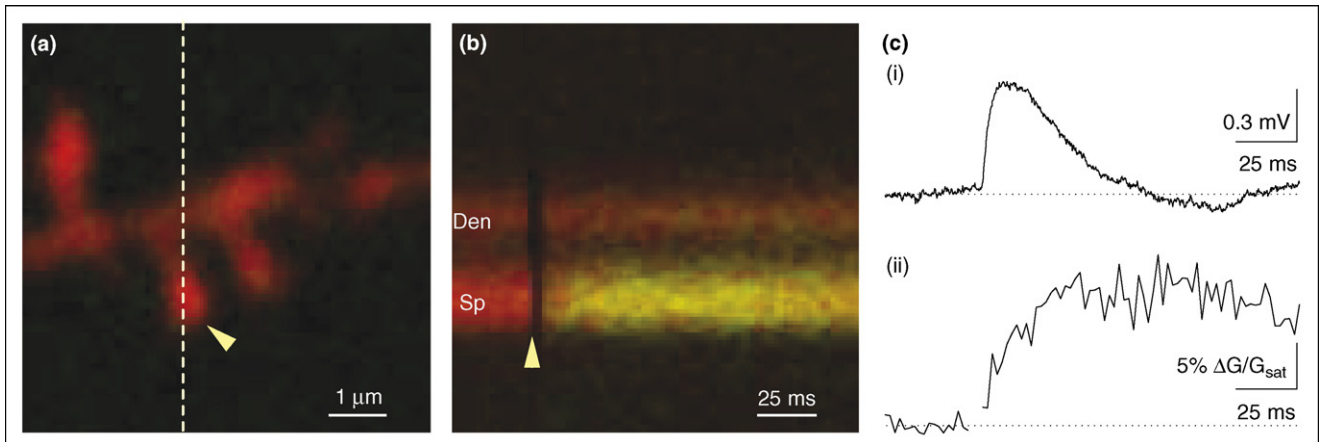
**AMPA-type glutamate receptors**

$\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -permeable AMPA receptors are expressed in many GABAergic neuron classes (reviewed in [33]) and the contribution of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  influx through these channels to synaptic  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  signals in spines of striatal medium spiny neurons has been directly demonstrated [14].  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -permeable AMPA receptors were not thought to be present in synapses of excitatory neurons, most of which express the GluR2 AMPA receptor subunit: when incorporated into an AMPA receptor, this subunit renders the channel impermeable to  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  [34]. Two recent studies used pharmacological and electrophysiological assays to infer the expression of synaptic  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -permeable AMPA receptors in hippocampal pyramidal neurons and to demonstrate a role for these receptors in homeostatic and Hebbian synaptic plasticity [35,36]; however, a direct contribution of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -permeable AMPA receptors to synaptic  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  signals has not been measured in these cells. AMPA receptors might also indirectly influence synaptic  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  signals [5,12] by providing the depolarization that activates VSCCs [6\*\*,37,38] and relieves  $\text{Mg}^{2+}$  block of NMDA receptors.

**Metabotropic glutamate receptors**

Strong or repeated activation of metabotropic glutamate (mGlu) receptors triggers widespread  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  signals in dendrites [39–41] and induces forms of long-term depression (LTD) in several neuron classes [10\*\*,42,43\*\*,44]. However, whether mGlu-receptor-dependent release of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  from internal stores can be triggered by the activity of a single synapse and whether it contributes to synaptically evoked spine  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  transients are unknown (although see [40,45]). Given the importance of mGlu receptor signaling to synaptic plasticity, the contribution

Figure 1



Monitoring of spine head Ca<sup>2+</sup> levels and somatic potentials evoked by two-photon laser photoactivation of MNI-glutamate at individual spines. **(a)** Two-photon laser-scanning microscopy image of a spiny region of an apical dendrite of a CA1 hippocampal pyramidal neuron filled through a whole-cell recording electrode with the Ca<sup>2+</sup>-insensitive fluorophore Alexa-594 (red fluorescence), to highlight the morphology of the cell, and with the Ca<sup>2+</sup>-sensitive fluorophore Fluo-5F (green fluorescence). **(b)** Fluorescence collected in a line scan intersecting the spine (Sp) and dendrite (Den) shown by the dashed line in (a). The arrowhead indicates the timing of a 500 ms pulse of 725 nm laser light used to uncage MNI-glutamate at the position indicated in (a). The increase in green fluorescence indicates an increase in intracellular Ca<sup>2+</sup>. **(c)** The uncaging-evoked EPSP measured at the soma (i) and quantification of the green fluorescence transient in the spine head (ii) for stimulation of the spine shown in (a). The green fluorescence transient is expressed as the increase from baseline (ΔG) relative to the maximal green fluorescence measured at saturating Ca<sup>2+</sup> concentrations in a cuvette (G<sub>sat</sub>). Adapted from [6\*\*].

of these receptors to spine Ca<sup>2+</sup> and unitary synaptic responses will hopefully be addressed in forthcoming years.

### Voltage-sensitive Ca<sup>2+</sup> channels

Activation of the VSCCs in dendritic spines mediates bAP-evoked Ca<sup>2+</sup> signals [46,47] and shapes synaptic potentials and Ca<sup>2+</sup> transients [6\*\*,37]. The classes of VSCCs found in spines vary across cell types, recent studies have described what are probably T-type VSCCs in olfactory granule cells [13], T-type and P/Q-type VSCCs in Purkinje cells [48,49], L-type, R-type and T-type VSCCs in striatal MSNs [14], L-type P/Q-type and low-voltage-activated VSCCs in layer 2/3 cortical neurons [50], L-type and R-type VSCCs in rat hippocampal CA1 pyramidal neurons [47,51,52] and L-type, N-type, R-type and T-type VSCCs in the same neurons in mice [6\*\*].

In spines of hippocampal pyramidal neurons, subclasses of VSCCs are independently regulated and activate different intracellular signaling cascades. During trains of bAPs, L-type VSCCs activate a Ca<sup>2+</sup>/calmodulin protein kinase II (CaMKII)-dependent and PKA-dependent cascade that, in spines of apical dendrites, inhibits opening of R-type VSCCs [51]. Opening of somatic R-type VSCCs in these cells is enhanced by activation of muscarinic acetylcholine receptors and protein kinase C [53] but it is unknown whether this modulation also occurs in spines. Furthermore, L-type Ca<sup>2+</sup> influx mediated by VSCCs in spines of basal dendrites is enhanced by β-adrenoceptors in a PKA-dependent manner [52]. Modulation of R-type

and L-type channels occurs in spines but not in dendritic shafts, highlighting the spatial compartmentalization of VSCC signaling. The factors that permit the differential targeting and regulation of VSCCs in distinct dendritic compartments are unknown.

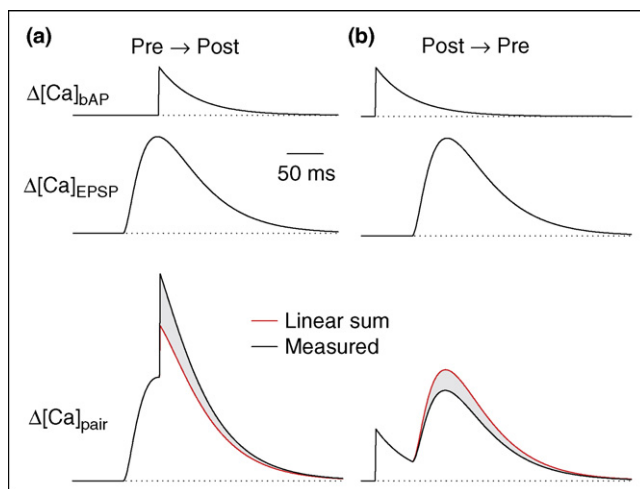
### Linear and nonlinear modes of spine Ca<sup>2+</sup> signaling

Under certain conditions, the factors that govern Ca<sup>2+</sup> levels in the spine head are linear, such that knowing the impulse response for the spine — that is, the time course of Ca<sup>2+</sup> clearance from the spine in response to a small and instantaneous increase in Ca<sup>2+</sup> — is sufficient to predict the time course of Ca<sup>2+</sup> signals in the spine for any Ca<sup>2+</sup> current [8,19\*\*]. The impulse response is typically estimated from the decay of spine Ca<sup>2+</sup> transients generated by bAPs or step depolarizations. In this linear regime, total Ca<sup>2+</sup> influx is given by the sum of the fluxes from each Ca<sup>2+</sup> source. Similarly, the time course of a Ca<sup>2+</sup> transient in the spine is given by the convolution of the impulse response and the time course of Ca<sup>2+</sup> influx into the spine. This approach accurately predicts the time course of NMDA-receptor-mediated Ca<sup>2+</sup> transients in the spine head in voltage-clamped CA1 hippocampal pyramidal neurons [8,19\*\*].

However, linearity of spine head Ca<sup>2+</sup> signaling breaks down in these cells in at least three cases. First, the high levels of Ca<sup>2+</sup> reached in spines during bAP trains inhibit Ca<sup>2+</sup> extrusion, making the time course of Ca<sup>2+</sup> clearance following bAP trains much slower than

following a single bAP [54<sup>••</sup>]. Second, R-type VSCCs open during the excitatory postsynaptic potential (EPSP) and activate SK channels, which repolarize the spine and reduce  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  influx through NMDA receptors [6<sup>••</sup>]. Therefore,  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  currents through the R-type VSCCs and NMDA receptors are not independent and sum sublinearly. Third, pairing of bAPs and EPSP nonlinearly affects spine  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  transients, generating supralinear  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  signals when the EPSP precedes the bAP and sublinear signals when the timing is reversed (Figure 2) [9,12]. When a bAP closely follows an EPSP,  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  influx in active spines is enhanced owing to relief of  $\text{Mg}^{2+}$  block of NMDA receptors by the bAP. Because bAPs are brief and  $\text{Mg}^{2+}$  reblock of NMDA receptors is rapid [55,56], this provides a short-lived and precisely timed enhancement of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  influx through NMDA receptors that is thought to trigger the LTP induced by similar pairing protocols. Less well understood is the small depression of spine  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  influx that has been reported when a bAP arrives before an EPSP. The mechanism of this decrease in  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  influx, and how it relates to the endocannabinoid-dependent and mGlu-receptor-dependent LTD [10<sup>••</sup>,43<sup>••</sup>,57] that is induced by this pairing protocol, are unknown. It is possible that prolonged pairing, as required for induction of STDP, leads to changes in  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  signaling that are not revealed in the conditions used to study spine  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ . Alternatively, the induction of STDP might require integration of signals downstream of these nonlinearities in  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  signaling.

**Figure 2**



Spike-timing dependent nonlinearities in spine  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  signals. Schematic of spine  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  transients evoked by a bAP ( $\Delta[\text{Ca}]_{\text{bAP}}$ , top), an EPSP ( $\Delta[\text{Ca}]_{\text{EPSP}}$ , middle) and a paired EPSP and bAP ( $\Delta[\text{Ca}]_{\text{pair}}$ , bottom). **(a)** When an EPSP is followed shortly (50 ms delay) by a bAP, a supralinear  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  transient is observed (black trace in the bottom panel) that is larger than that the sum of  $\Delta[\text{Ca}]_{\text{bAP}}$  and  $\Delta[\text{Ca}]_{\text{EPSP}}$  measured in isolation (red trace). **(b)** When the order of the EPSP and bAP is reversed, a sublinear  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  transient is observed (black trace in the bottom panel) that is smaller than that the sum of  $\Delta[\text{Ca}]_{\text{bAP}}$  and  $\Delta[\text{Ca}]_{\text{EPSP}}$  measured in isolation (red trace).

### Impact of spine morphology on $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ signaling

The morphology of dendritic spines is dynamically regulated and can be rapidly altered in response to changes in activity (reviewed in [4,58]). In theory, many aspects of the spine morphology can affect the amplitude and time course of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  signals within the spine head. For example, the surface-to-volume ratio of a spine decreases with spine size. Therefore, if the density of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  sources and  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  pumps in the spine head membrane is independent of spine size, one would expect smaller and more prolonged  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  transients in spines that have large heads. Similarly, because diffusional equilibration occurs more slowly across long and thin spine necks [59,60,61<sup>••</sup>,62], if diffusion of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  across the spine neck is significant in clearing  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  from the spine head, one would expect  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  transients in spines that have long and thin necks to be larger and more prolonged than in those that have short and thick necks. These theoretical constraints on  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  signaling are predicted from basic physical principals and have been reviewed many times [1,63,64].

The challenge is to determine which, if any, of these morphological features influence spine  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  signaling under physiological conditions — that is, at 37 °C and without perturbations of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  buffering. Both of these conditions are hard to meet. First, at physiological temperatures, brain slices deteriorate quickly and the osmolarity of the rapidly-evaporating bathing solution is difficult to control. As a result, many studies are done at ‘near-physiological’ temperatures (32–35 °C) or at room temperature (typically 20–24 °C). Data gathered at room temperature is of limited utility in predicting the  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  handling properties of spines at 37 °C because of the large and variable effects that temperature has on ion channels,  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  buffers,  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  pumps and many enzymatic processes (e.g. [65–68]). Second, measurement of intracellular  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  requires introduction of a  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -sensitive fluorophore which, by necessity, acts as a  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  buffer and consequently perturbs the amplitude, kinetics and spatial spread of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  transients (reviewed in [63]). Although a theoretical framework has been developed that describes the effects of exogenous  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  buffers on  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  signaling [69–71], it is difficult to apply to  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  signals in small, heterogeneous and morphologically complex structures such as spines and dendrites.

Owing to these complications, few studies have measured spine  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  under the conditions necessary to test the effects of spine morphology on  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  handling. Studies performed at near-physiological temperatures that consider the effects of the  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  indicator find that  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  is cleared much more rapidly from the spine head by active extrusion than by diffusion across the neck [8]. Therefore, variability in size of the neck is expected to have little impact on spine head  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  signals. Furthermore, the lack of significant  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  diffusion across the neck is supported by studies that have examined the linearity of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$

handling in the spine. These report that the impulse response estimated from bAP-evoked Ca<sup>2+</sup> influx can predict the time course of NMDA-receptor-mediated Ca<sup>2+</sup> transients [8,19<sup>\*\*</sup>]. The impulse response measured following a spatially uniform (bAP-mediated) Ca<sup>2+</sup> increase can describe synaptically evoked Ca<sup>2+</sup> transients in the presence of large gradients across the neck. Therefore, the clearance of Ca<sup>2+</sup> by movement across the neck must be insignificant in determining the time course of Ca<sup>2+</sup> signals in the spine. An exception might be short stubby spines [72<sup>\*</sup>] which, by definition, have nearly no neck; however, these spines are also difficult to analyze given the resolution limits of two-photon laser-scanning microscopy (Box 1).

## Conclusions

Spines are small membranous protrusions that typically contain a single postsynaptic density. The activation of glutamate receptors and VSCCs located on the spine generates Ca<sup>2+</sup> transients that, under physiological conditions, are restricted to the stimulated spine. Furthermore, evoked Ca<sup>2+</sup> transients are modulated on a spine-by-spine basis by regulation of ion channel subunit composition, the activity of kinases and phosphatases, the local membrane potential and the rate of Ca<sup>2+</sup> extrusion. Lastly, spine Ca<sup>2+</sup> signaling is nonlinear because Ca<sup>2+</sup>-dependent processes regulate Ca<sup>2+</sup> sources and Ca<sup>2+</sup> extrusion. This multi-level and spatially delimited regulation of Ca<sup>2+</sup> signals enables each spine to operate as a complex and autonomous cellular compartment that controls many aspects of postsynaptic signals.

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