

Mitochondrial Dysfunction as a Central Driver of Neurodegenerative Disease Pathogenesis

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Abstract: Mitochondria play a fundamental role in neuronal survival by regulating cellular bioenergetics, calcium homeostasis, and redox balance. In neurodegenerative diseases, mitochondrial dysfunction emerges as a critical early event contributing to progressive neuronal damage. Impairment of the electron transport chain leads to reduced ATP production and excessive generation of reactive oxygen species, promoting mitochondrial DNA damage and disruption of mitochondrial membrane potential. These alterations impair mitochondrial quality control mechanisms, including PINK1/Parkin-mediated mitophagy, and disturb the dynamic balance between mitochondrial fission and fusion processes. Consequently, dysfunctional mitochondria accumulate, exacerbating proteostasis impairment, synaptic dysfunction, and inflammatory responses within the neuronal microenvironment. In addition, metabolic disturbances such as cholesterol accumulation further aggravate mitochondrial stress, amplifying oxidative damage and activating neuroinflammatory pathways mediated by glial cells. The persistent interplay between mitochondrial dysfunction, oxidative stress, and inflammation ultimately contributes to neuronal degeneration and disease progression. Understanding the mechanistic links between mitochondrial homeostasis failure and neurodegenerative processes may provide valuable insights into disease pathogenesis and identify potential therapeutic targets aimed at restoring mitochondrial function and neuronal resilience.

Keywords: Calcium homeostasis, Mitophagy, Mitochondrial dynamics, Neurodegeneration, Oxidative stress.

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1.0 INTRODUCTION

Mitochondrial dysfunction has become a central mechanistic framework for neurodegenerative diseases because neurons require an uninterrupted ATP supply to sustain synaptic transmission and axonal maintenance. Even modest deficits in oxidative phosphorylation can destabilize membrane excitability and reduce network resilience. Early metabolic impairment has been detected before extensive neuroanatomical loss, suggesting a preclinical bioenergetic phase. Such vulnerability is particularly relevant in regions with high synaptic demand, where energetic buffering capacity is limited. Consequently, mitochondrial failure is increasingly viewed as a primary pathogenic axis rather than a late byproduct of degeneration (Angelova and Abramov, 2018; Cobley, *et al.*, 2018; Cenini and Voos, 2019; Swerdlow, 2020; Hou *et al.*, 2023).

Oxidative stress represents a key downstream consequence of mitochondrial inefficiency and a potent amplifier of neuronal injury. Impaired electron transport increases reactive oxygen species generation, while antioxidant systems may become insufficient in vulnerable brain regions. Oxidative damage affects mitochondrial DNA, respiratory complexes, and membrane lipids, thereby worsening bioenergetic performance and disrupting proteostasis. This redox imbalance can promote pathological protein misfolding and accelerate synaptic dysfunction. The persistence of oxidative injury helps explain progressive decline across heterogeneous neurodegenerative phenotypes (Angelova and Abramov, 2018; Grimm, *et al.*, 2019; Wang and Hekimi, 2019; Tönnies and Trushina, 2020; Rai *et al.*, 2021).

Mitochondrial dynamics and quality control are crucial for neuronal health, especially considering the long structure of axons and the need for localized energy.

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A proper balance of fission and fusion maintains network stability, while too much fragmentation hampers transport and affects synaptic energy. Faulty mitophagy causes damage to build up, increasing metabolic stress and reducing neuronal resilience. These changes are seen in various experimental models and patient systems, highlighting their widespread importance. Therefore, disrupted mitochondrial turnover is a key factor in neurodegenerative disease vulnerability (Pickles *et al.*, 2018; Tilokani *et al.*, 2018; Pickrell and Youle, 2019; Liu *et al.*, 2021; Song *et al.*, 2022).

Calcium homeostasis is tightly linked to mitochondrial buffering capacity and critically influences synaptic signaling fidelity. When mitochondrial uptake is impaired, cytosolic calcium elevations persist and enhance excitotoxic susceptibility. Calcium overload can trigger mitochondrial depolarization, activate proteases, and engage apoptotic pathways, thereby accelerating synaptic loss. Importantly, calcium dysregulation often interacts with oxidative stress, producing a reinforcing cycle of ionic and metabolic instability. This coupling between calcium signaling and bioenergetics strengthens the mechanistic role of mitochondria in early neuronal dysfunction (Rizzuto *et al.*, 2018; Bhosale *et al.*, 2019; Area-Gomez and Schon, 2020; Jadia *et al.*, 2021; Del Prete *et al.*, 2023).

Neuroinflammation increasingly appears as both a consequence and a driver of mitochondrial dysfunction in neurodegeneration. Mitochondrial-derived danger signals can activate innate immune pathways, sustaining cytokine signaling and microglial reactivity. Inflammatory activation amplifies oxidative burden and disrupts synaptic homeostasis, which further compromises mitochondrial function. This bidirectional interaction forms a self-perpetuating loop that accelerates neuronal loss in vulnerable regions. The immune-metabolic crosstalk perspective provides an integrative explanation for chronic progression and selective susceptibility (Heneka *et al.*, 2019; Wilkins and Swerdlow, 2020; Thoudam *et al.*, 2021; Dhir, 2023; Peggion *et al.*, 2024).

Genetic susceptibility factors frequently converge on mitochondrial pathways, supporting mitochondria as mechanistic intersections across diverse neurodegenerative disorders. Variants affecting respiratory chain performance, trafficking, and mitophagy regulation can lower cellular tolerance to metabolic stress. Functional genomic studies suggest that these disruptions shape regional vulnerability and contribute to heterogeneity in clinical trajectories. Gene-environment interactions may further modulate mitochondrial resilience, influencing onset and progression. Therefore, mitochondrial genotype-phenotype relationships are increasingly relevant for mechanistic subtyping and future precision strategies

(Pickles *et al.*, 2018; Ryan *et al.*, 2018; Franco-Iborra *et al.*, 2019; Bose and Beal, 2021; Billingsley *et al.*, 2022).

This review aims to examine the role of mitochondrial dysfunction in the pathophysiology of neurodegenerative diseases. It focuses on bioenergetic failure, oxidative stress, altered mitochondrial dynamics, calcium imbalance, and immune-metabolic crosstalk. The article integrates evidence published between 2018 and 2026 while incorporating classical mechanistic concepts. It evaluates experimental and translational findings to clarify whether mitochondrial dysfunction acts as a primary driver or a secondary amplifier of neurodegeneration. Emerging biomarkers and mechanistically grounded intervention points are discussed. A structured synthesis is provided to support mechanistic interpretation and translational relevance.

2.0. METHODS

This review was conducted as a narrative integrative analysis of published literature addressing mitochondrial dysfunction in neurodegenerative diseases. A comprehensive search was performed in PubMed, Scopus, and Web of Science databases. Studies published between January 2018 and February 2026 were considered eligible for primary screening. Classical landmark publications were included to contextualize foundational mechanistic concepts. The search strategy combined the terms “mitochondria,” “neurodegeneration,” “oxidative stress,” “mitophagy,” “mitochondrial dynamics,” and “neuroinflammation.” Boolean operators were applied to refine results. Only articles published in English and available in full text were included.

The inclusion criteria comprised original experimental studies, clinical investigations, systematic reviews, and meta-analyses that focused on mitochondrial bioenergetics, molecular mechanisms, or therapeutic strategies in neurodegenerative disorders. Studies limited to non-neuronal tissues or unrelated systemic metabolic diseases were excluded. Articles lacking methodological transparency or quantitative data were not considered. Priority was given to investigations addressing mechanistic pathways, biomarker identification, and translational relevance. Duplicated records were removed after cross-database comparison. Abstract screening was followed by full-text evaluation. Selection emphasized methodological rigor and scientific impact.

Data extraction focused on alterations in respiratory chain complexes, oxidative stress markers, mitochondrial dynamics, mitophagy regulation, calcium homeostasis, and inflammatory signaling pathways. Genetic associations related to mitochondrial function were also systematically evaluated. Information regarding study design, experimental models, sample characteristics, and outcome measures was collected. Quantitative findings were prioritized when available.

Comparative assessment was performed to identify convergent mechanistic patterns. Both cellular and *in vivo* models were considered. Clinical evidence was integrated to support translational interpretation.

Findings were categorized into mechanistic domains to enable structured synthesis and conceptual integration. Bioenergetic impairment, redox imbalance, calcium dysregulation, inflammatory activation, and therapeutic modulation were analyzed separately and comparatively. Emphasis was placed on reproducibility, consistency across independent studies, and biological plausibility. Heterogeneity among experimental models was considered during interpretation. Convergent evidence across molecular, cellular, and clinical studies

was highlighted. This methodological framework allowed a comprehensive evaluation of mitochondrial contributions to neurodegenerative progression.

4.0. RESULTS

A comparative synthesis of mitochondrial alterations across major neurodegenerative diseases demonstrated consistent bioenergetic vulnerability with disorder-specific patterns. Reductions in ATP production were frequently observed in affected neuronal populations. Respiratory chain deficits, particularly involving complexes I and IV, appeared across multiple models (Figure 1).

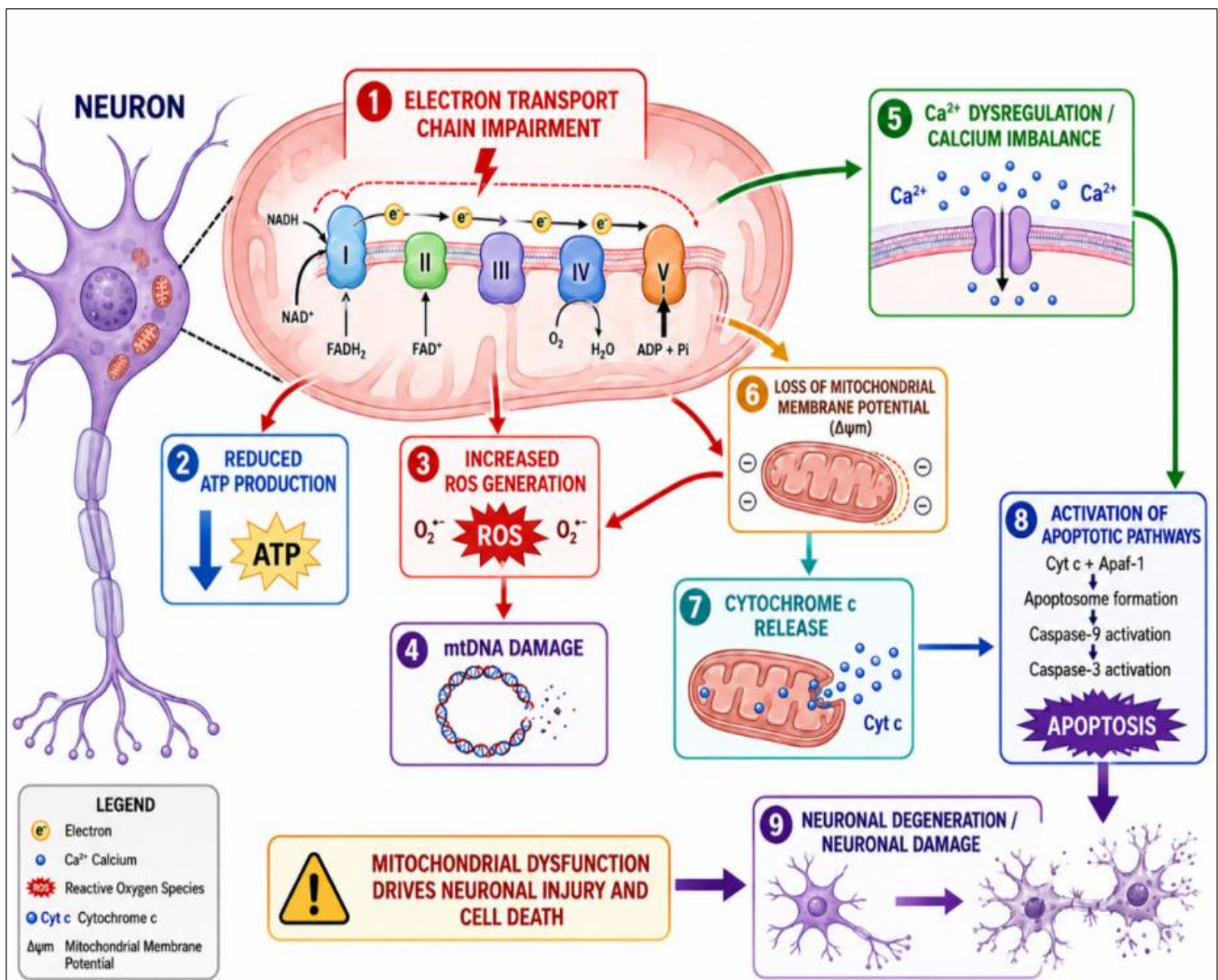


Figure 1: Mitochondrial Dysfunction Mechanisms in Neurons. Electron transport chain impairment reduces ATP production and increases reactive oxygen species (ROS) generation. These alterations promote mitochondrial DNA (mtDNA) damage and Ca^{2+} dysregulation. Mitochondrial dysfunction leads to cytochrome c release, activating apoptotic pathways associated with neuronal degeneration

Regions with high synaptic demand exhibited more pronounced metabolic impairment. Functional changes were associated with reduced neuronal

resilience under stress conditions. Quantitative data supported convergent bioenergetic decline. A cross-disease comparison is presented in Table 1.

Table 1: Mitochondrial dysfunction in Alzheimer’s disease. This table summarizes bioenergetic, oxidative, and calcium-related alterations. Findings indicate early metabolic impairment preceding structural degeneration

Parameter	Molecular Alteration	Brain Region	Methodological Evidence	Functional Impact
ATP production	Reduced oxidative phosphorylation	Hippocampus	Respirometry	Synaptic failure
Complex IV	Decreased activity	Temporal cortex	Enzymatic assays	Energy deficit
mtDNA damage	Increased oxidation	Cortex	qPCR	Genomic instability
ROS levels	Elevated superoxide	Hippocampus	Fluorescent probes	Oxidative injury
Calcium buffering	Reduced uptake	Neurons	Calcium imaging	Excitotoxicity
Mitophagy	Impaired clearance	Cortical neurons	Immunoblot	Organelle accumulation
PGC-1 α	Downregulation	Hippocampus	RT-PCR	Reduced biogenesis
Membrane potential	Depolarization	Neurons	JC-1 assay	Apoptotic signaling
Glucose metabolism	Hypometabolism	Cortex	FDG-PET	Cognitive decline
Inflammatory signals	Increased cytokines	Microglia	ELISA	Neuroinflammation

Oxidative stress markers were elevated in both early and advanced stages of neurodegeneration. Increased lipid peroxidation, protein carbonylation, and mitochondrial DNA oxidation were commonly reported. Antioxidant defense systems showed reduced efficiency in vulnerable brain regions. An imbalance between reactive oxygen species production and detoxification capacity contributed to cumulative cellular injury. Experimental models indicated a strong association between oxidative burden and synaptic dysfunction. These results were reproducible across independent studies. A structured overview of oxidative biomarkers is provided in Table 2.

Neuroinflammatory activation was strongly associated with mitochondrial damage and redox imbalance. Mitochondrial-derived molecular signals promoted microglial activation and the production of inflammatory cytokines. Sustained immune activation intensified synaptic dysfunction and neuronal loss. Cellular models suggested that mitochondrial stress preceded inflammatory amplification. Regional analyses detected higher inflammatory markers in metabolically vulnerable areas. These findings support bidirectional interaction between mitochondrial dysfunction and immune signaling. A structured overview of mitochondrial alterations in Parkinson’s disease is provided in Table 2.

Table 2: Parkinson’s Disease Mitochondrial dysfunction in Parkinson’s disease. Complex I impairment and defective mitophagy are central features. Alterations converge on dopaminergic neuronal vulnerability

Parameter	Molecular Alteration	Brain Region	Methodological Evidence	Functional Impact
Complex I	Reduced activity	Substantia nigra	Spectrophotometry	Dopaminergic loss
ATP synthesis	Decreased production	Nigral neurons	Respirometry	Motor impairment
α -synuclein	Mitochondrial accumulation	Midbrain	Immunohistochemistry	Respiratory deficit
Mitophagy	PINK1/Parkin defects	Dopaminergic neurons	Western blot	Organelle damage
ROS	Elevated	Substantia nigra	Fluorescent probes	Oxidative stress
Calcium influx	Increased	Pacemaker neurons	Electrophysiology	Excitotoxic stress
mtDNA mutations	Accumulation	Nigral cells	Sequencing	Bioenergetic failure
Miro1 transport	Impaired trafficking	Axons	Live imaging	Synaptic dysfunction
Membrane potential	Depolarized	Neurons	JC-1 assay	Apoptosis
Neuroinflammation	Microglial activation	Midbrain	Cytokine assays	Progressive decline

Alterations in mitochondrial dynamics were widely documented in neuronal cultures and animal models. Increased mitochondrial fragmentation and reduced fusion activity disrupted network integrity. Impaired mitophagy resulted in the accumulation of dysfunctional organelles within axonal compartments—structural abnormalities correlated with impaired axonal

transport and synaptic instability. Imaging studies confirmed reductions in mitochondrial connectivity. Defective quality control mechanisms intensified metabolic stress in affected neurons. Key mitochondrial alterations in amyotrophic lateral sclerosis are summarized in Table 3.

Table 3: Amyotrophic Lateral Sclerosis. Mitochondrial dysfunction in amyotrophic lateral sclerosis. Motor neurons display bioenergetic instability and oxidative burden. Transport and calcium defects contribute to progressive motor decline

Parameter	Molecular Alteration	Brain Region	Methodological Evidence	Functional Impact
ATP production	Reduced	Motor cortex	Respirometry	Motor neuron degeneration
Complex I–IV	Variable impairment	Spinal cord	Enzymatic assays	Energy instability
SOD1 mutation	Mitochondrial accumulation	Motor neurons	Genetic analysis	Oxidative injury
ROS	Elevated	Spinal neurons	Fluorescence	Axonal damage
Calcium buffering	Impaired	Motor neurons	Imaging	Excitotoxicity
Axonal transport	Reduced trafficking	Peripheral nerves	Live imaging	Synaptic failure
Membrane potential	Depolarization	Motor neurons	JC-1 assay	Apoptosis
Biogenesis	Reduced PGC-1 α	Motor cortex	RT-PCR	Energetic decline
mtDNA integrity	Fragmentation	Spinal cord	qPCR	Genomic instability
Inflammation	Cytokine increase	Spinal cord	ELISA	Disease progression

Genetic analyses revealed convergence of multiple disease-associated variants on mitochondrial pathways. Mutations affecting respiratory chain components, mitophagy regulators, and mitochondrial transport proteins were identified. These alterations correlated with reduced bioenergetic efficiency and increased oxidative burden. Functional studies demonstrated impaired organelle turnover in mutation carriers. The severity of mitochondrial defects varied according to genetic background. This variability may contribute to heterogeneity in disease progression. Mitochondrial alterations associated with Huntington's disease are summarized in Table 4.

Disturbances in calcium homeostasis were consistently identified as contributors to neuronal vulnerability. Reduced mitochondrial buffering capacity prolonged cytosolic calcium elevation during synaptic stimulation. This dysregulation activated proteases and apoptotic pathways. Persistent calcium imbalance exacerbated oxidative stress and mitochondrial membrane depolarization. Functional assays confirmed impaired calcium handling in disease-associated neurons. Increased susceptibility to excitotoxic injury was observed across models. Calcium-related findings are summarized in Table 4.

Translational investigations highlighted mitochondrial biomarkers as potential indicators of disease progression. Reduced cerebral glucose metabolism was observed in early stages using metabolic imaging. Altered mitochondrial DNA levels were reported in both central and peripheral samples. Regional bioenergetic decline preceded overt structural atrophy. Peripheral biomarkers showed moderate correlation with cognitive impairment severity. These findings support mitochondrial dysfunction as a measurable and modifiable target. An integrative summary is presented in Table 4.

Alterations in mitochondrial membrane potential were frequently reported in cellular and animal models of neurodegeneration. Depolarization of the inner mitochondrial membrane was linked to reduced ATP synthesis efficiency. Fluorescence-based assays demonstrated declines in membrane polarization in vulnerable neuronal populations. This bioenergetic instability contributed to impaired synaptic transmission and reduced neuronal plasticity. In several models, restoration of membrane potential partially improved metabolic performance. These results indicate that membrane integrity is critical for neuronal survival. Quantitative data are summarized in Table 4.

Table 4: Huntington’s Disease. Mitochondrial dysfunction in Huntington’s disease. Complex II deficits and mutant huntingtin interactions impair respiration. Bioenergetic instability contributes to striatal neurodegeneration

Parameter	Molecular Alteration	Brain Region	Methodological Evidence	Functional Impact
Complex II	Reduced activity	Striatum	Spectrophotometry	Excitotoxic damage
ATP synthesis	Decreased	Striatal neurons	Respirometry	Motor dysfunction
mHTT protein	Mitochondrial interaction	Striatum	Immunoblot	Respiratory deficit
ROS	Elevated	Striatum	Fluorescent probes	Oxidative stress
Calcium handling	Dysregulated	Medium spiny neurons	Imaging	Synaptic instability
Biogenesis	Reduced PGC-1 α	Striatum	RT-PCR	Energetic vulnerability
Membrane potential	Depolarization	Neurons	JC-1 assay	Apoptosis
Mitochondrial transport	Impaired	Axons	Live imaging	Network instability
mtDNA damage	Oxidative lesions	Striatum	qPCR	Genomic dysfunction
Neuroinflammation	Microglial activation	Striatum	Cytokine assay	Progressive degeneration

Alterations in mitochondrial biogenesis were frequently reported across neurodegenerative models. Reduced expression of transcriptional regulators involved in mitochondrial replication and metabolic control was observed. Impaired nuclear–mitochondrial signaling limited compensatory organelle renewal under metabolic stress. Quantitative analyses indicated reduced mitochondrial DNA copy number in vulnerable neuronal populations. Experimental enhancement of biogenesis improved cellular resilience in preclinical settings. These findings suggest insufficient adaptive response to energetic demand. Biogenesis-related findings are included in Table 4.

Mitochondrial dysfunction was not restricted to classical neurodegenerative disorders of the central nervous system. Comparative analysis revealed that peripheral neuropathies such as diabetic neuropathy and post-herpetic neuropathy also exhibit bioenergetic instability, oxidative stress, and altered calcium handling. However, the primary triggers differ substantially, ranging from metabolic dysregulation to virus-induced inflammation. In contrast, multiple sclerosis demonstrated central axonal degeneration associated with inflammation-mediated mitochondrial impairment. These findings suggest that mitochondrial vulnerability represents a shared mechanistic denominator across distinct neurological conditions. A comparative overview is presented in Table 5.

Table 5: This comparative view supports mitochondrial dysfunction as a convergent axis despite etiologic heterogeneity. The table contrasts primary triggers, dominant mitochondrial alterations, and clinical consequences in CNS vs PNS conditions. This comparative view supports mitochondrial dysfunction as a convergent axis despite etiologic heterogeneity

Condition	Nervous System Involvement	Primary Trigger	Dominant Mitochondrial Alteration	Clinical Consequence
Alzheimer’s disease	CNS (cortico-hippocampal)	Amyloid/tau-associated stress	Reduced OXPHOS efficiency (Complex IV), ROS $\uparrow$	Cognitive decline and synaptic loss
Parkinson’s disease	CNS (nigrostriatal)	α -synuclein toxicity / dopaminergic stress	Complex I dysfunction, mitophagy defects	Motor impairment and dopaminergic neuron loss
Amyotrophic lateral sclerosis	CNS (motor cortex/spinal cord)	Genetic/proteostatic stress (e.g., SOD1/TDP-43)	ATP deficit, transport failure, membrane potential $\downarrow$	Progressive motor neuron degeneration
Huntington’s disease	CNS (striatal)	Mutant huntingtin-mediated stress	Complex II impairment, Ca ²⁺ dysregulation, ROS $\uparrow$	Striatal degeneration and motor/cognitive decline
Multiple sclerosis	CNS (white matter/axons)	Autoimmune inflammation/demyelination	Axonal energy failure (Complex IV), mtDNA damage	Axonal loss and disability progression

Condition	Nervous System Involvement	Primary Trigger	Dominant Mitochondrial Alteration	Clinical Consequence
Diabetic neuropathy	PNS (distal symmetric)	Chronic hyperglycemia/metabolic stress	ROS overload, mtDNA injury, ATP ↓	Distal sensory loss and neuropathic pain
Post-herpetic neuropathy	PNS (sensory ganglia)	VZV reactivation/inflammation	Mitochondrial stress secondary to inflammation, Ca ²⁺ imbalance	Chronic neuropathic pain
Chemotherapy-induced neuropathy	PNS (sensory axons)	Mito-toxic agents (e.g., platinum/taxanes)	mtDNA damage, impaired axonal ATP supply	Sensory neuropathy and paresthesia
Mitochondrial encephalomyopathy	CNS ± systemic	Primary mtDNA/nDNA mutations	ETC deficiency and bioenergetic collapse	Multisystem neurologic impairment
Vascular cognitive impairment	CNS (watershed regions)	Ischemia/hypoperfusion	ATP depletion, ROS ↑, impaired mitochondrial recovery	Cognitive impairment and executive dysfunction

The results presented above demonstrate consistent mitochondrial alterations across central neurodegenerative disorders and selected peripheral neuropathies, highlighting convergent patterns of bioenergetic failure, oxidative imbalance, calcium dysregulation, and inflammatory signaling. Although disease-specific triggers vary, the recurrence of mitochondrial instability across distinct neurological conditions suggests the presence of shared vulnerability mechanisms. These findings provide a structured foundation for mechanistic interpretation beyond descriptive observations. The comparative data support the hypothesis that mitochondrial dysfunction may operate as a central integrative axis linking metabolic, inflammatory, and degenerative processes. The following discussion contextualizes these alterations within broader pathogenic frameworks and evaluates their implications for disease progression and conceptual integration.

4. DISCUSSION

Mitochondrial bioenergetic failure appears to precede overt structural degeneration and may represent an initiating factor in neurodegenerative disorders. Longitudinal evidence indicates that reduced oxidative phosphorylation compromises synaptic plasticity and diminishes neuronal stress adaptability. High-demand circuits display amplified vulnerability, suggesting that energetic thresholds may define selective susceptibility. The convergence of early metabolic decline across disorders supports a unifying framework centered on energy failure. Preclinical studies demonstrate that enhancing mitochondrial function can partially restore neuronal resilience, underscoring the causal relevance of bioenergetic collapse (Figure 2) (Cobley *et al.*, 2018; Cenini and Voos, 2019; Johri and Beal, 2020; Swerdlow, 2020; Hou *et al.*, 2023).

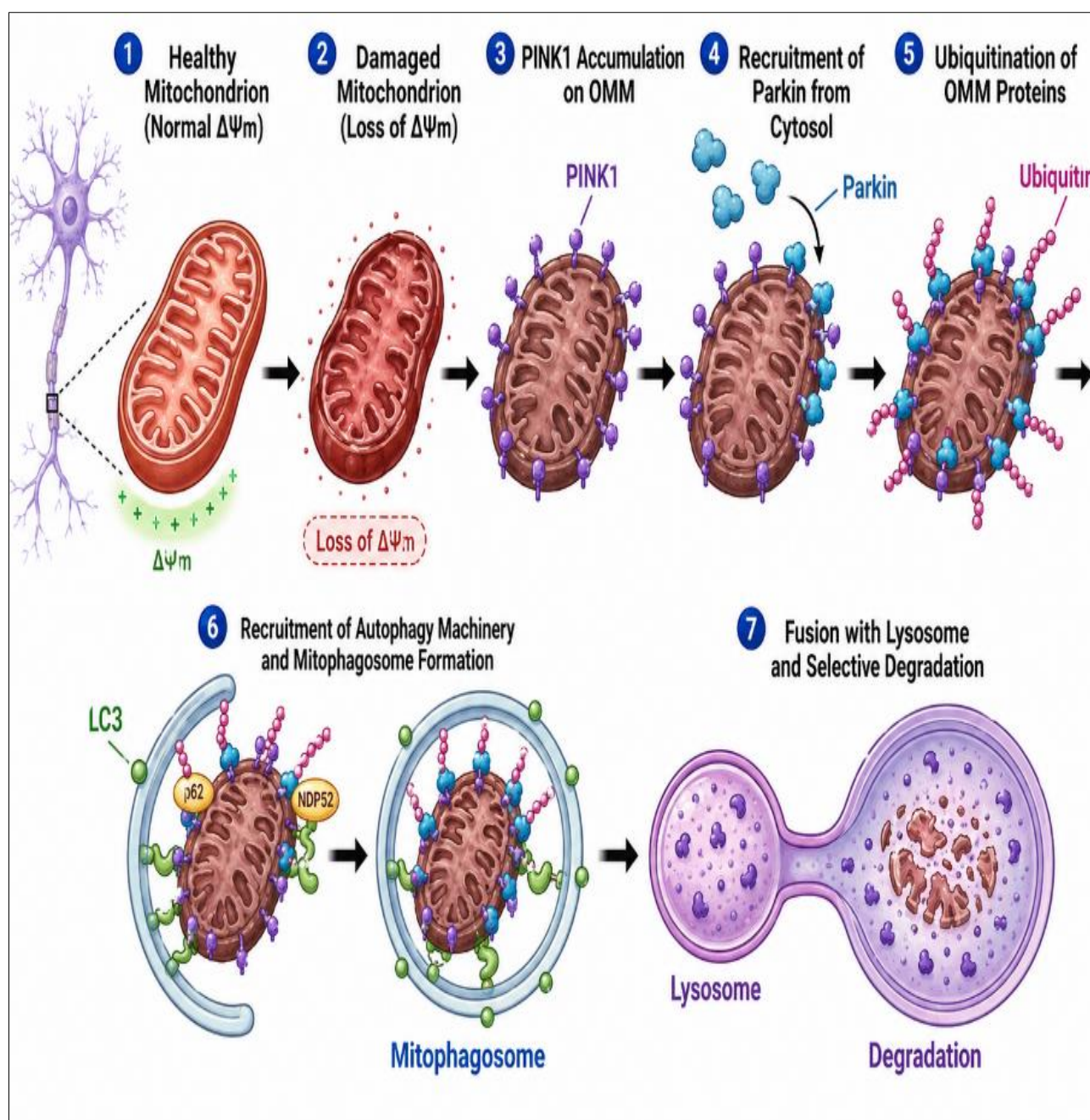


Figure 2: PINK1/parkin-mediated mitophagy. Loss of mitochondrial membrane potential ($\Delta\Psi_m$) promotes PINK1 accumulation on the outer mitochondrial membrane. This event triggers Parkin recruitment and ubiquitination of mitochondrial proteins. Ubiquitinated mitochondria are recognized by LC3, facilitating mitophagosome formation and selective mitochondrial degradation

Oxidative stress acts as a mechanistic amplifier that links mitochondrial inefficiency to cumulative cellular injury. Reactive oxygen species destabilize mitochondrial membranes, damage mitochondrial DNA, and disrupt proteostasis, thereby accelerating synaptic dysfunction. Redox imbalance also modifies signaling pathways involved in neuronal survival and stress

responses. These effects may promote pathological protein misfolding and intensify disease propagation. Consequently, oxidative stress sustains a vicious cycle of metabolic decline (Figure 3) (Angelova and Abramov, 2018; Grimm *et al.*, 2019; Wang and Hekimi, 2019; Tönnies and Trushina, 2020; Rai *et al.*, 2021; Song *et al.*, 2022).

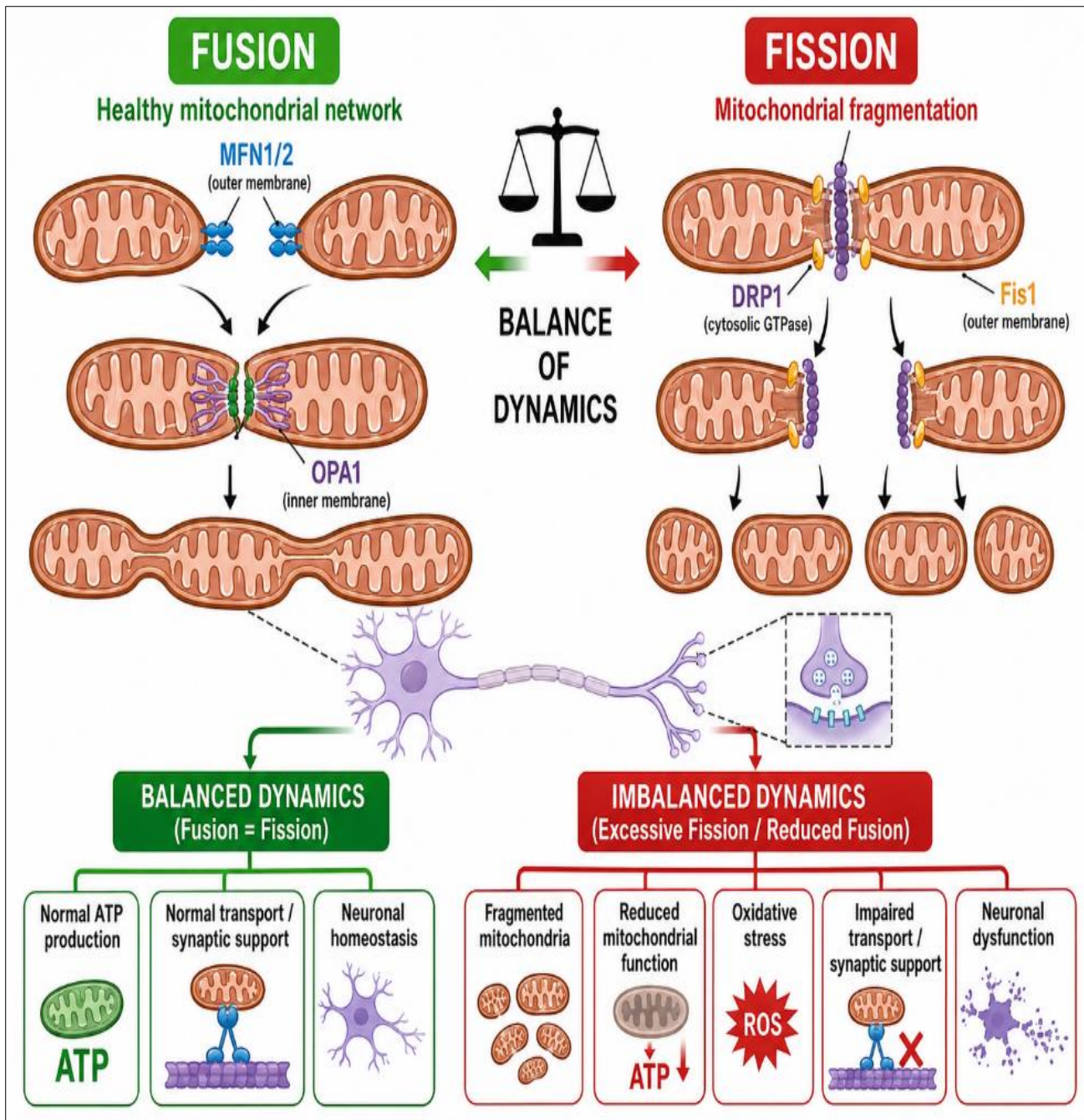


Figure 3: Mitochondrial Fission–Fusion Dynamics. Mitochondrial dynamics are regulated by the balance between fusion and fission processes. Fusion is mediated by MFN1/2 and OPA1, while fission is primarily controlled by DRP1 and Fis1. Imbalance between these mechanisms promotes mitochondrial fragmentation and functional impairment associated with neuronal dysfunction

Disrupted mitochondrial dynamics compromise neuronal architecture and reduce metabolic flexibility. Excessive fission and reduced fusion promote fragmentation and impair axonal trafficking, limiting energy delivery to synaptic compartments. Defective mitophagy enables accumulation of dysfunctional organelles, increasing local oxidative burden and

lowering resilience. Interventions that normalize dynamics or improve quality control enhance viability in experimental systems, supporting mechanistic importance. Thus, mitochondrial quality control represents a key domain for mechanistic interpretation (Figure 4) (Tilokani *et al.*, 2018; Franco-Iborra *et al.*, 2019; Pickrell and Youle, 2019; Liu *et al.*, 2021).

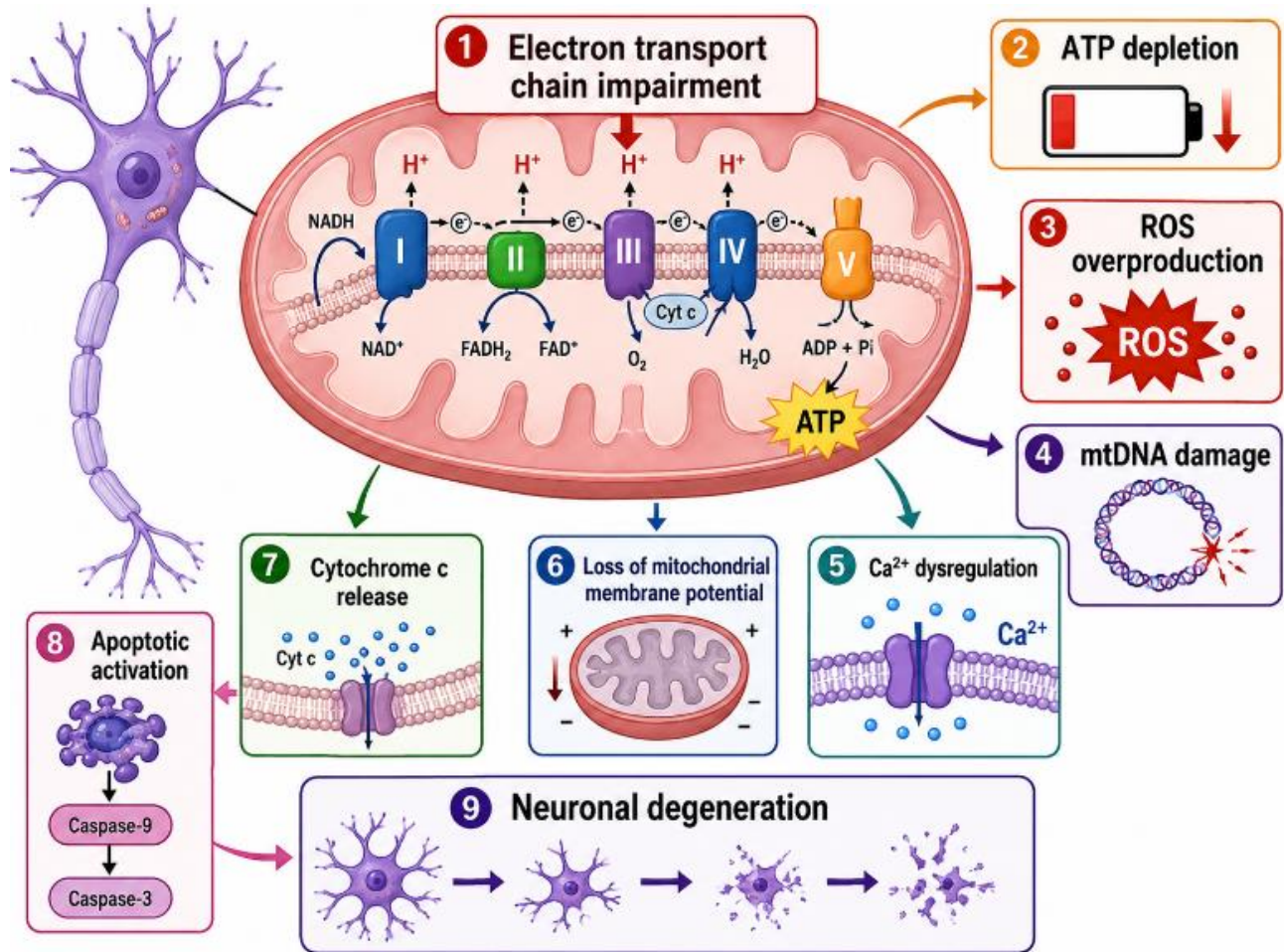


Figure 4: Mitochondrial dysfunction mechanisms in neurons. Electron transport chain impairment reduces ATP production and increases ROS generation. These alterations promote mitochondrial DNA damage, calcium dysregulation, loss of mitochondrial membrane potential, cytochrome c release, apoptotic activation, and progressive neuronal degeneration

Calcium dysregulation further intensifies mitochondrial vulnerability by linking ionic instability to metabolic failure. Reduced buffering capacity prolongs cytosolic calcium elevations, activating proteases and promoting apoptotic signaling. Calcium overload can trigger membrane depolarization and amplify reactive oxygen species generation, reinforcing oxidative injury. Evidence suggests that calcium disturbances emerge early and synergize with energetic decline to accelerate synaptic collapse. Therefore, calcium imbalance should be considered a mechanistic partner of bioenergetic failure (Rizzuto *et al.*, 2018; Bhosale *et al.*, 2019; Area-Gomez and Schon, 2020; Jadya *et al.*, 2021; Del Prete *et al.*, 2023).

Neuroinflammation emerges as a self-reinforcing consequence of mitochondrial distress that can accelerate chronic progression. Mitochondrial-derived danger signals activate innate immune pathways and sustain microglial reactivity. Inflammatory signaling increases oxidative burden and disrupts synaptic homeostasis, further compromising mitochondrial integrity. This bidirectional loop provides a mechanistic explanation for progressive decline and regional vulnerability. Overall, immune-metabolic coupling positions mitochondria as central integrators of degeneration and inflammation (Figure 5) (Heneka *et al.*, 2019; Wilkins and Swerdlow, 2020; Thoudam *et al.*, 2021; Dhir, 2023; Peggion *et al.*, 2024).

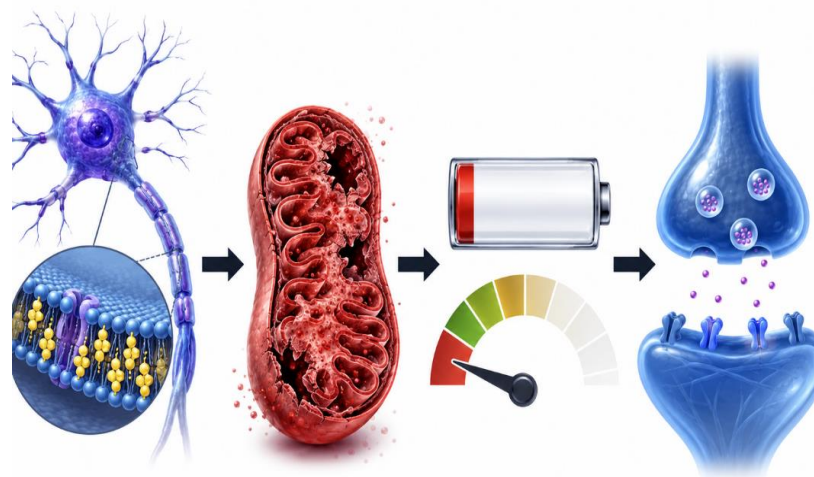


Figure 5: Cholesterol accumulation and mitochondrial impairment in synaptic dysfunction.
Cholesterol accumulation in neurons disrupts membrane organization and contributes to mitochondrial damage. These alterations reduce ATP production, impair mitochondrial membrane potential, and compromise synaptic function, increasing neuronal vulnerability during neurodegenerative progression

The inclusion of multiple sclerosis and selected peripheral neuropathies expands the conceptual framework of mitochondrial involvement beyond classical proteinopathies. In multiple sclerosis, inflammatory-mediated mitochondrial injury contributes to irreversible axonal degeneration and disease progression. In diabetic neuropathy, hyperglycemia-induced oxidative stress directly impairs mitochondrial

respiration. Although initiating mechanisms differ, bioenergetic collapse and oxidative imbalance converge as shared determinants of neuronal vulnerability. These observations support mitochondrial dysfunction as a final common pathway (Figure 6) (Witte *et al.*, 2014; Mahad *et al.*, 2015; Reich *et al.*, 2018; Feldman *et al.*, 2019; Callaghan *et al.*, 2020).

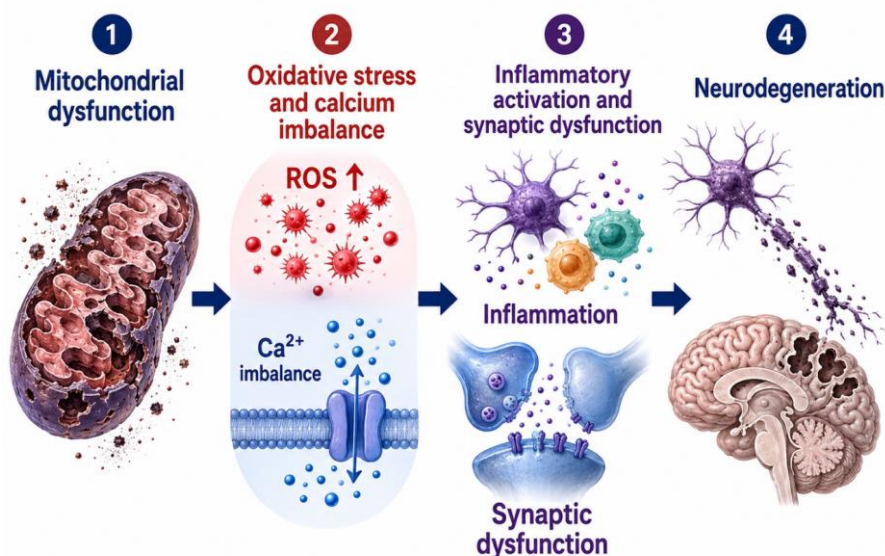


Figure 6: Sequential pathway linking mitochondrial dysfunction to neurodegeneration.
Mitochondrial dysfunction promotes oxidative stress and calcium imbalance, which amplify inflammatory activation and synaptic dysfunction. These interconnected alterations contribute to progressive neuronal injury and neurodegeneration

Genetic susceptibility supports mitochondria as mechanistic intersections across heterogeneous neurodegenerative disorders. Variants affecting respiratory performance, trafficking, and mitophagy regulation increase sensitivity to metabolic stress. Functional genomic evidence indicates convergence on bioenergetic and quality control pathways. Gene–environment interactions likely modulate selective neuronal vulnerability. Mitochondrial genotype–phenotype relationships provide a framework for mechanistic stratification (Pickles *et al.*, 2018; Ryan *et al.*, 2018; Franco-Iborra *et al.*, 2019; Bose and Beal, 2021; Billingsley *et al.*, 2022).

Translational neuroimaging and metabolic profiling provide *in vivo* support for mitochondria-centered mechanisms. Reduced cerebral glucose metabolism correlates with synaptic impairment and cognitive decline. Molecular profiling of metabolic signatures may reflect early instability and contribute to staging. Integration of imaging with metabolomics enhances interpretability and may improve clinical stratification. These translational signals strengthen the relevance of mitochondrial dysfunction to disease trajectories (Mosconi *et al.*, 2018; Cunnane *et al.*, 2020; Swerdlow and Wilkins, 2020; González-Domínguez, *et al.*, 2021; Wilkins *et al.*, 2022).

Mechanistically grounded interventions targeting mitochondrial pathways remain exploratory and require careful interpretation. Experimental strategies that improve bioenergetic stability or quality control can partially protect neuronal function. This variability likely reflects disease heterogeneity and multi-domain dysfunction. Effective modulation may require early-stage targeting aligned with dominant pathogenic mechanisms. Thus, mitochondria represent a promising but complex therapeutic domain (Braidys *et al.*, 2019; Fang *et al.*, 2019; Onyango, 2020; Hou *et al.*, 2021; Trushina and McMurray, 2021).

Despite substantial progress, critical gaps remain regarding temporal ordering and causality. The sequence linking mitochondrial dysfunction to protein aggregation and sustained neuroinflammation requires clarification through longitudinal studies. Standardized biomarker frameworks are needed for early-stage detection. Multi-omics integration combined with imaging may clarify causal pathways and therapeutic windows. Systems-level approaches can unify domain-specific findings into actionable models (Figure 7) (Johri, 2019; Swerdlow, 2020; Wilkins and Swerdlow, 2020; Wilkins *et al.*, 2022).

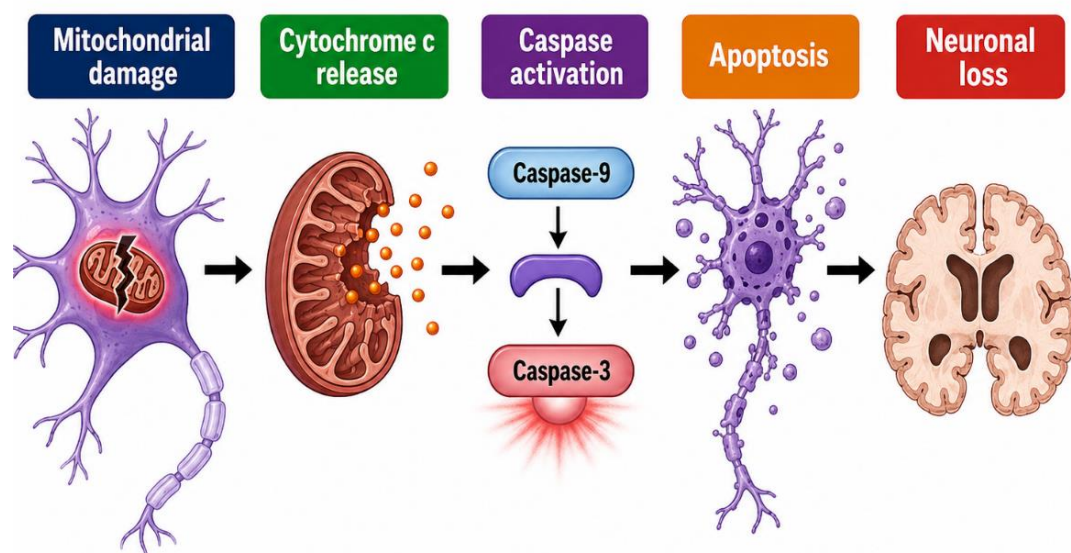


Figure 7: Mitochondrial apoptotic pathway associated with neuronal loss. Mitochondrial damage promotes cytochrome c release and activation of the caspase pathway, including caspase-9 and caspase-3. This apoptotic signaling contributes to neuronal injury, progressive neuronal loss, and structural degeneration in neurodegenerative disorders

5.0. CONCLUSION

Mitochondrial dysfunction emerges as a central and potentially initiating mechanism in neurodegenerative diseases. Converging evidence indicates that bioenergetic failure, oxidative imbalance, impaired mitochondrial dynamics, calcium dysregulation, and neuroinflammatory activation collectively contribute to progressive neuronal vulnerability. Although disease-specific variations exist, a shared mitochondrial axis appears to underlie selective neuronal degeneration across distinct disorders. The integration of experimental and translational findings reinforces the relevance of mitochondrial pathways in early pathogenic stages. Advances in metabolic profiling and imaging further support the clinical significance of mitochondrial alterations. Targeting mitochondrial integrity may therefore represent a promising strategy for modifying disease trajectory. Continued mechanistic investigation and longitudinal validation are essential to define causal relationships and therapeutic windows in neurodegeneration.

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