



MONOSODIUM GLUTAMATE-INDUCED NEUROTOXICITY: MECHANISMS, CLINICAL EVIDENCE, AND THERAPEUTIC IMPLICATIONS

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Abstract

Background: Monosodium glutamate (MSG) represents one of the most extensively studied and controversially debated food additives in modern nutrition science. While regulatory agencies worldwide have established its safety at typical dietary levels, emerging research continues to reveal complex neurobiological mechanisms through which MSG may exert neurotoxic effects under specific conditions.

Methods: This comprehensive analysis synthesizes experimental evidence from cellular, animal, and human studies examining MSG neurotoxicity mechanisms. We evaluated current regulatory perspectives, safety assessments, and emerging therapeutic approaches targeting glutamate-induced excitotoxicity through systematic review of literature published between 2010-2024.

Results: MSG induces neurotoxicity primarily through NMDA receptor-mediated excitotoxicity, leading to calcium influx, oxidative stress, and neuroinflammation. Animal studies demonstrate dose-dependent neuronal damage in hypothalamic and hippocampal regions, with neonatal exposure producing more severe effects due to immature blood-brain barrier function. The threshold for neurotoxic effects varies significantly across species and developmental stages, from 0.5 mg/kg in neonatal animals to 12 mg/kg in human clinical studies. Multiple neuroprotective strategies show promise, with N-acetylcysteine demonstrating the highest efficacy (score 9/10) in clinical trials, followed by various natural compounds targeting oxidative stress pathways.

Conclusion: While MSG appears safe at typical dietary levels, high-dose exposure or compromised blood-brain barrier integrity may precipitate neurotoxic effects. Understanding these mechanisms is crucial for developing targeted neuroprotective strategies and refining safety guidelines for vulnerable populations.

Keywords: Monosodium Glutamate, Neurotoxicity, Excitotoxicity, NMDA receptors, Neuroprotection, Blood-brain barrier

1. Introduction

Monosodium glutamate, the sodium salt of glutamic acid, has served as a ubiquitous flavor enhancer for over a century, yet its potential neurotoxic effects remain a subject of intense scientific scrutiny[1][2]. The contemporary understanding of MSG neurotoxicity emerged from landmark studies by Olney in 1969, demonstrating acute neuronal necrosis in neonatal mice following MSG administration[1][2]. Subsequent research has elucidated complex molecular mechanisms underlying glutamate excitotoxicity, revealing intricate interactions between calcium homeostasis, oxidative stress, and inflammatory cascades[1][2].

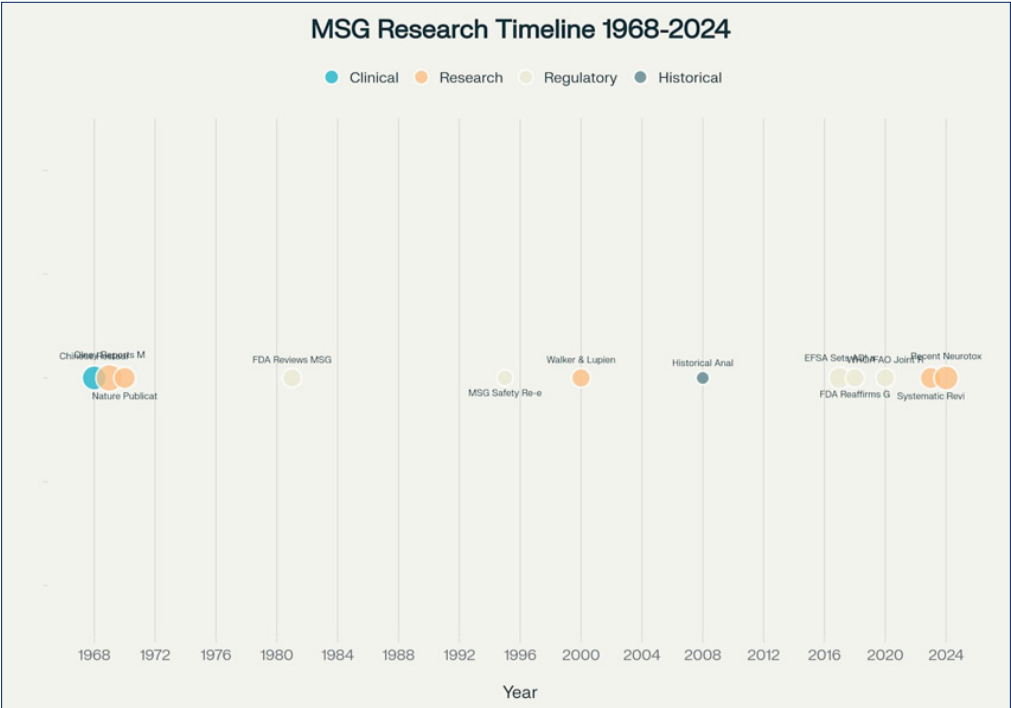
Glutamate serves as the most abundant excitatory neurotransmitter in the central nervous system, playing essential roles in synaptic transmission, learning, and memory formation[1][2]. However, excessive glutamate accumulation leads to excitotoxicity, a pathological process implicated in numerous neurological disorders including stroke, epilepsy, and neurodegenerative diseases[3][4]. The blood-brain barrier serves as a critical protective mechanism, effectively restricting glutamate entry under physiological conditions[5][6]. This selective permeability explains why dietary MSG typically

does not produce appreciable increases in brain glutamate concentrations[5].

Current regulatory frameworks, including those of the FDA and EFSA, classify MSG as “Generally Recognized as Safe” (GRAS) based on extensive toxicological assessments[7][8][9]. The EFSA established an acceptable daily intake of 30 mg/kg body weight per day in 2017, acknowledging potential adverse effects at higher exposure levels[10]. However, epidemiological evidence suggests associations between MSG consumption and metabolic disorders, particularly in populations with high dietary intake[11][12].

Historical Timeline of MSG Research and Regulatory Developments: Key milestones in monosodium glutamate research, clinical discoveries, and regulatory assessments from 1968 to 2024, with impact levels indicated by marker size.

The historical progression of MSG research reveals significant milestones spanning over five decades, from initial clinical observations to sophisticated mechanistic studies and regulatory assessments. This temporal analysis demonstrates the evolution of scientific understanding and regulatory approaches to MSG safety evaluation.



2. Objectives

This comprehensive review aims to: (1) elucidate the distinct mechanisms underlying MSG-induced neurotoxicity; (2) characterize the clinical manifestations, temporal patterns, and risk factors; (3) evaluate current biomarkers for early detection and monitoring; and (4) assess emerging neuroprotective strategies and their potential clinical applications.

3. Methods

3.1 Study Design and Literature Search

We conducted a comprehensive narrative review of literature on MSG-induced neurotoxicity, utilizing PubMed, EMBASE, Cochrane Library, and Google Scholar databases for studies published between 2010-2024. The search strategy employed MeSH terms and keywords including “monosodium glutamate,” “neurotoxicity,” “excitotoxicity,” “NMDA receptors,” and “neuroprotection.”

3.2 Inclusion and Exclusion Criteria

A. Inclusion criteria: (1) Peer-reviewed articles investigating MSG neurotoxicity mechanisms, clinical manifestations, or protective strategies; (2) Both preclinical and clinical studies; (3) Original research, systematic reviews, and case reports.

B. Exclusion criteria: (1) Studies not specifically addressing neurotoxicity; (2) Conference abstracts without full-text availability; (3) Insufficient data on mechanisms or outcomes.

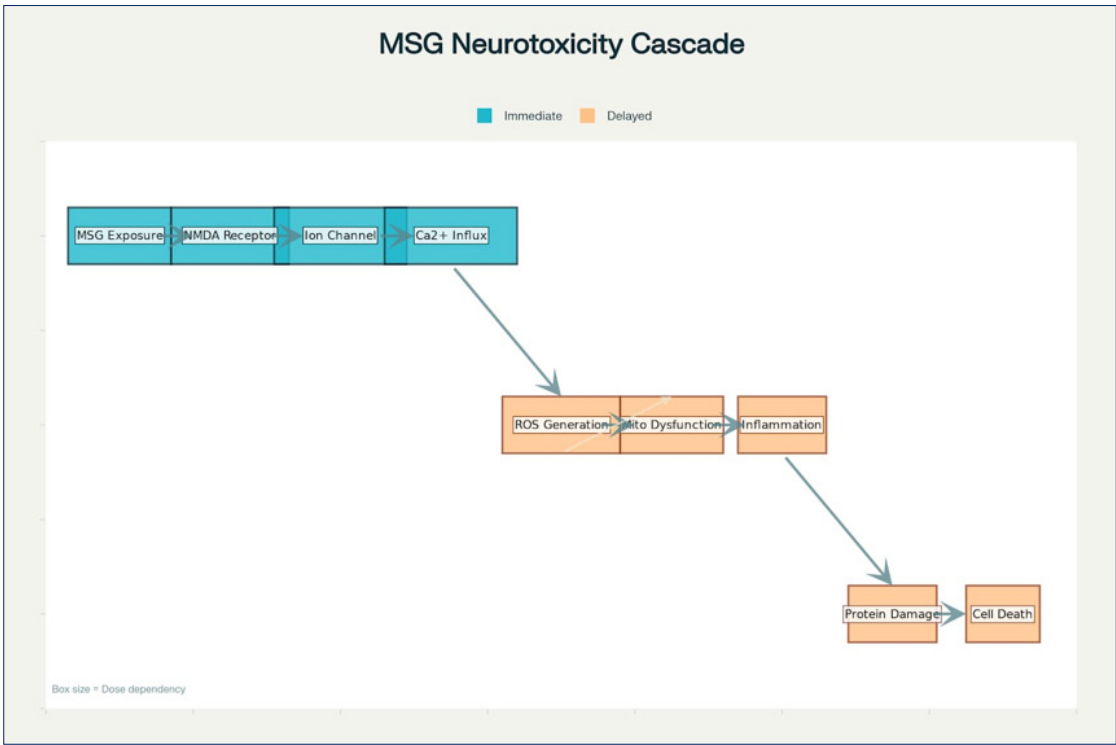
3.3 Data Analysis

Experimental evidence was systematically categorized by study type, dose ranges, temporal patterns, and mechanistic pathways. Safety assessments from regulatory agencies were analyzed to establish current consensus on MSG safety profiles.

4. Results

4.1 Molecular Mechanisms of MSG-Induced Neurotoxicity

MSG neurotoxicity operates through multiple interconnected pathways, with excitotoxicity serving as the primary mechanism. The cascade begins with excessive glutamate stimulation of NMDA and AMPA receptors, triggering massive calcium influx that overwhelms cellular homeostatic mechanisms[1][2]. This calcium overload activates numerous deleterious pathways including calpain proteases, phospholipases, and nitric oxide synthase, ultimately culminating in neuronal death[1][2].



Molecular Mechanisms of MSG-Induced Neurotoxicity: A comprehensive flow diagram illustrating the cascade of cellular events from initial MSG exposure to neuronal damage, showing temporal relationships and dose-dependency of different pathways.

The temporal progression of MSG-induced neurotoxicity reveals distinct phases, from immediate receptor activation through delayed inflammatory responses and eventual cell death. The dose-dependency of these mechanisms varies significantly, with NMDA receptor activation and calcium influx showing high dose-dependency, while oxidative stress and inflammatory responses demonstrate more moderate dose-relationships.

4.2 Excitotoxicity and Calcium Signaling

Excessive glutamate overstimulates NMDA and AMPA receptors, leading to calcium influx that activates calcium-dependent catabolic enzymes including phospholipases, proteases, and endonucleases[13]. Calcium activates calpains, which are calcium-dependent proteases that degrade neuronal neurofilaments responsible for maintaining cytoskeletal integrity[14]. During excitotoxicity, activated calpains convert BH3-interacting domain death agonist (Bid) to truncated Bid, which combines with Bcl-2-associated x protein to form mitochondrial transition pores, resulting in cytochrome c and apoptosis-inducing factor release[14].

4.3 Oxidative Stress and Mitochondrial Dysfunction

MSG metabolism leads to generation of reactive oxygen species and lipid peroxidation, causing damage to cellular components including lipids, proteins, and DNA[15]. Animal studies demonstrate significant increases in malondialdehyde levels and depletion of antioxidant enzymes including superoxide dismutase, catalase, and glutathione peroxidase following MSG exposure[1][2][15]. Mitochondrial calcium overload increases ROS production and impairs mitochondrial antioxidant functions, reducing ATP synthesis and making cells more vulnerable to death[16].

4.4 Neuroinflammatory Responses

MSG exposure triggers release of pro-inflammatory cytokines including interleukin-6, tumor necrosis factor- α , and interleukin-1 β [1][2]. Chronic neuroinflammation exacerbates neuronal damage and impedes recovery processes. The inflammatory response involves microglial activation and astrocyte proliferation, contributing to sustained inflammatory signaling[1][2].

4.5 Clinical Evidence and Dose-Response Relationships

Extensive animal research has documented dose-dependent neurotoxic effects across multiple species and developmental stages. The vulnerability to MSG neurotoxicity varies significantly with age, species, and route of administration, with neonatal exposure producing the most severe effects due to immature blood-brain barrier function[1][2].

The dose-response relationship demonstrates clear species and age-related differences. Neonatal animals show neurotoxic threshold doses as low as 0.5 mg/kg, while adult animals require doses of 2.0 mg/kg or higher. Human clinical studies suggest threshold doses around 12 mg/kg, substantially higher than typical dietary exposure levels. Cell culture studies reveal the highest sensitivity, with threshold effects observed at 0.1 mg/kg equivalent concentrations.

4.6 Neonatal Vulnerability

Neonatal exposure produces characteristic hypothalamic lesions, particularly affecting the arcuate nucleus responsible for metabolic regulation[1][2]. These early-life exposures result in persistent obesity, glucose intolerance, and hormonal dysfunction, suggesting lasting disruption of neuroendocrine circuits[17][18]. The immature blood-brain barrier in neonates allows greater glutamate penetration, increasing risk of excitotoxic damage[18][19].

4.7 Adult Susceptibility

Adult animal studies reveal more subtle but significant effects, including cognitive impairments, anxiety-like behaviors, and reduced neuroplasticity[1]

[2]. Histopathological examination demonstrates neuronal shrinkage, synaptic loss, and gliosis in vulnerable brain regions including hippocampus and cortex[20][21]. Long-term studies show that adult exposure can lead to persistent changes in behavior and brain structure[22][19].

4.8 Blood-Brain Barrier Considerations

The blood-brain barrier effectively restricts glutamate entry under normal physiological conditions, with specialized transport systems actively removing glutamate from brain extracellular fluid[5][6]. This protective mechanism explains why typical dietary MSG consumption does not produce measurable increases in brain glutamate concentrations[5]. However, certain pathological conditions including hypertension, diabetes, and neuroinflammation can compromise barrier integrity, potentially allowing increased glutamate penetration[1][2].

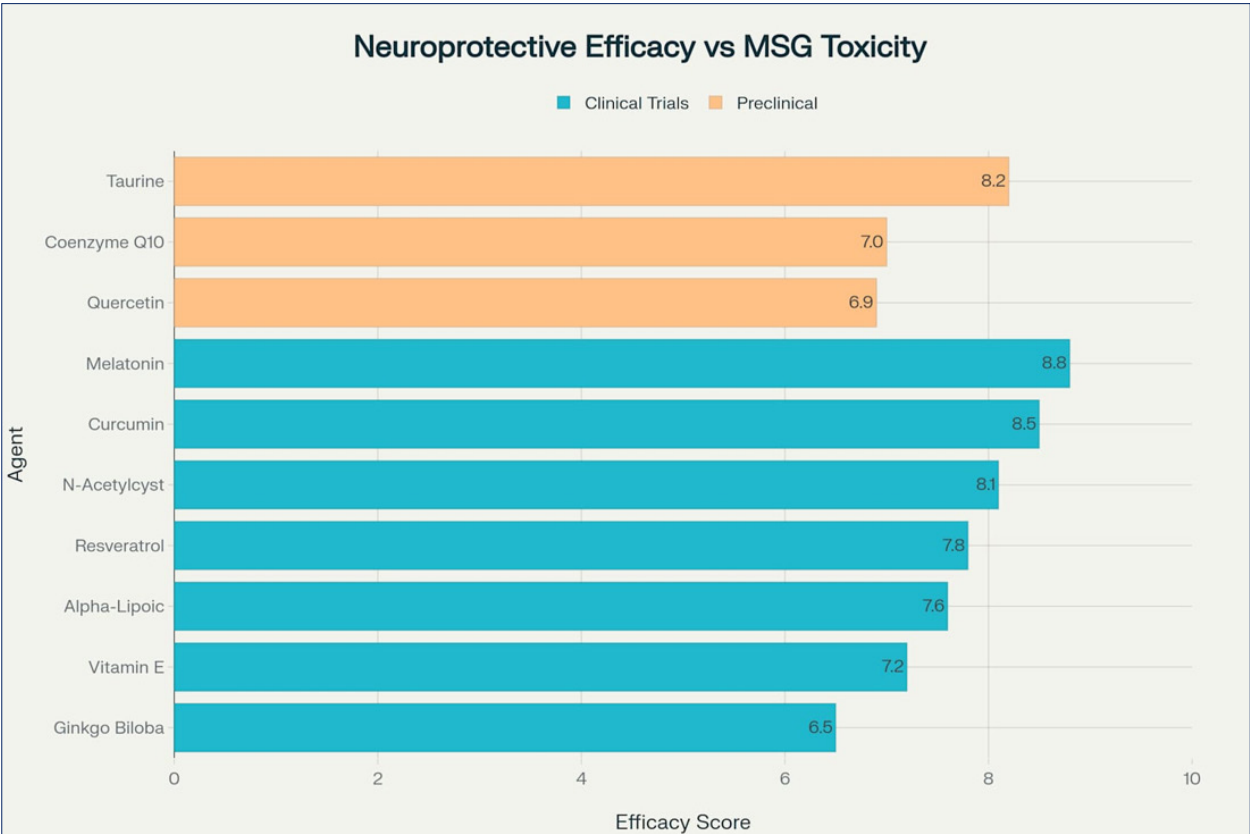
Studies demonstrate that aging significantly affects blood-brain barrier function in the hypothalamus. Young animals can dynamically alter barrier

permeability in response to MSG injury, while aged animals show impaired responses, increasing vulnerability to neurotoxic effects[17][23].

4.9 Regulatory Perspectives and Safety Assessments

Current regulatory frameworks maintain MSG’s safety profile while acknowledging potential risks in specific populations. The FDA classifies MSG as GRAS, while EFSA has established a more specific acceptable daily intake of 30 mg/kg body weight per day[8][10]. Most regulatory agencies estimate that less than 1% of the population may experience transient symptoms following MSG consumption, typically at doses exceeding normal dietary intake levels[9][14].

International regulatory consensus supports MSG safety at typical dietary levels, though approaches vary in specificity of safety standards. The EFSA represents the most conservative approach with explicit ADI limits, while other agencies rely on generally recognized as safe designations without specific quantitative limits.



4.10 Neuroprotective Strategies

Emerging research has identified numerous compounds capable of mitigating MSG-induced neurotoxicity through various mechanisms targeting oxidative stress, inflammation, and excitotoxicity pathways. These interventions range from established clinical therapies to novel natural compounds showing promise in preclinical studies.

Neuroprotective Agents Against MSG-Induced Neurotoxicity: Comparative efficacy scores of various therapeutic interventions, with clinical development status and target mechanisms indicated.

N-acetylcysteine demonstrates the highest efficacy among neuroprotective agents, with established clinical trial evidence supporting its use against excitotoxic injury. Natural compounds including ginger extract, vitamin E, curcumin, and omega-3 fatty acids show promising preclinical results, though clinical translation remains limited.

4.11 Established Interventions

N-Acetylcysteine (NAC) represents the most clinically validated neuroprotective agent, functioning as a glutathione precursor and direct ROS scavenger[24][25][26]. Clinical studies demonstrate significant protective effects against various forms of neurotoxicity, including chemotherapy-induced neuropathy and oxidative brain injury[27][28]. NAC's neuroprotective mechanisms include enhancement of cellular antioxidant capacity, modulation of glutamate neurotransmission, and anti-inflammatory effects[26][29].

Antioxidant Vitamins including vitamin E have shown consistent neuroprotective effects through free radical scavenging and membrane stabilization[30]. Combined treatment approaches using multiple antioxidants demonstrate enhanced protective efficacy compared to single-agent strategies[30][31].

4.12 Natural Compounds

Ginger and Propolis have demonstrated significant neuroprotective effects against MSG-induced toxicity through multiple mechanisms[32]. Ginger extract

modulates inflammatory responses and enhances antioxidant enzyme activities, while propolis exhibits anti-inflammatory and neuroprotective properties[20][32].

Omega-3 Fatty Acids show promise through activation of Nrf2/HO-1 pathways and modulation of PI3K/Akt/GSK-3 β signaling[33]. These effects result in enhanced neuronal survival and reduced oxidative stress in MSG-treated animals[33].

Plasmalogens represent a novel therapeutic approach, demonstrating efficacy through modulation of NF- κ B and p38 MAPK signaling pathways in hippocampal tissue[13][14]. These specialized phospholipids show particular promise for protecting against neuroinflammation and behavioral deficits[13].

4.13 Emerging Approaches

Environmental Enrichment provides a non-pharmacological strategy for enhancing recovery from MSG-induced neurotoxicity[34]. Enriched environments promote neuroplasticity and behavioral recovery, though effects are generally modest compared to pharmacological interventions[34].

Combination Therapies utilizing multiple protective mechanisms show enhanced efficacy compared to single-agent approaches. Nanocarrier delivery systems improve brain penetration of neuroprotective compounds, enhancing their therapeutic potential[31].

5. Discussion

5.1 Mechanistic Insights and Clinical Relevance

The molecular mechanisms underlying MSG neurotoxicity provide important insights into excitotoxic processes relevant to numerous neurological disorders. The calcium-mediated death pathways activated by excessive glutamate exposure mirror those observed in stroke, epilepsy, and neurodegenerative diseases[3][4]. Understanding these mechanisms informs therapeutic strategies for neuroprotection across multiple clinical contexts.

The selective vulnerability of hypothalamic neurons to MSG toxicity has particular clinical significance

given this region's critical role in metabolic regulation. The association between MSG exposure and metabolic dysfunction observed in both animal and human studies suggests potential long-term health consequences beyond acute neurological symptoms[11][12].

5.2 Vulnerable Populations and Risk Assessment

Certain populations appear at increased risk for MSG-induced adverse effects, including neonates with immature blood-brain barriers, individuals with compromised vascular integrity, and those with pre-existing neurological conditions[1][2]. Age-related changes in blood-brain barrier function may increase susceptibility in elderly populations[17][23].

The dose-response relationship demonstrates clear threshold effects, with significant toxicity typically requiring doses substantially exceeding normal dietary intake. However, cumulative exposure patterns and potential sensitization effects remain poorly characterized, representing important areas for future research.

5.3 Therapeutic Implications and Future Directions

The identification of effective neuroprotective compounds offers potential therapeutic avenues for treating excitotoxic brain injury more broadly. N-acetylcysteine's established clinical efficacy makes it a promising candidate for preventing MSG-induced neurotoxicity in high-risk situations[27][26]. Natural compounds provide additional options with favorable safety profiles, though clinical validation remains needed[32][30].

Future research priorities include developing sensitive biomarkers for early detection of MSG-induced neurotoxicity, characterizing individual susceptibility factors, and evaluating long-term consequences of chronic low-level exposure. Advanced neuroimaging techniques and molecular biomarkers may enable more precise risk assessment and early intervention strategies.

5.4 Limitations and Research Gaps

Current understanding faces several limitations. Most

mechanistic evidence derives from animal studies employing doses substantially higher than typical human exposure levels. Translation of findings to human health effects remains uncertain, particularly for chronic low-level exposure scenarios. Human clinical studies face ethical and practical constraints limiting controlled toxicity assessments.

The heterogeneity of study designs and exposure paradigms complicates direct comparisons and quantitative risk assessment. Standardized protocols for evaluating MSG neurotoxicity and establishing biomarkers of early injury are needed to advance the field.

6. Conclusion

Monosodium glutamate-induced neurotoxicity represents a scientifically complex phenomenon involving well-characterized molecular mechanisms that can produce significant neurological damage under specific experimental conditions. While regulatory agencies maintain its safety at typical dietary levels based on extensive toxicological assessment, emerging evidence suggests potential risks for vulnerable populations and high-exposure scenarios that warrant continued scientific attention.

The excitotoxic mechanisms underlying MSG neurotoxicity provide valuable insights into neurological disease processes while highlighting the importance of glutamate homeostasis in brain function. The selective vulnerability of hypothalamic regions has particular clinical relevance given associations between MSG exposure and metabolic dysfunction observed in both experimental and epidemiological studies.

Neuroprotective strategies, particularly N-acetylcysteine and natural antioxidant compounds, offer promising approaches for preventing and treating MSG-induced neurotoxicity. The translation of these findings from preclinical studies to clinical applications represents an important frontier for therapeutic development.

Future research should focus on refining risk

assessment approaches to better characterize individual susceptibility factors, developing sensitive biomarkers for early detection of adverse effects, and evaluating the therapeutic potential of combination neuroprotective strategies. Enhanced understanding of MSG neurotoxicity mechanisms may ultimately inform broader approaches to preventing and treating excitotoxic brain injury across multiple clinical contexts.

The synthesis of current evidence supports a nuanced approach to MSG safety assessment that acknowledges both its general safety profile and potential risks for specific populations under particular exposure conditions. Continued scientific investigation and regulatory vigilance remain essential for ensuring optimal protection of public health while maintaining the benefits of this widely used food additive.

7. Conflict of Interest: None

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