
Neurobiological aging and neuroprotection: Mechanisms, challenges and emerging therapeutic strategies

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Abstract

With continuous increase in human life expectancy, the number of old people has been growing throughout the world. Old age is a major risk factor for various neurodegenerative diseases that cause cognitive impairment. Cognitive decline is not only linked to the pathological brain aging, but it can also occur in aged people who are otherwise healthy. This can result from the age-related changes in the brain. Such changes lead to the loss of key brain functions and cause a variety of neurodegenerative and neuropsychiatric disorders including dementia and Alzheimer's disease, which can deteriorate the quality of life. Hence, a clear understanding of the mechanisms underlying age-related brain alterations and diseases will improve not only the quality of elderly life but also reduce the load on their families in terms of care giving and socioeconomic responsibilities. In this context, researchers have been endeavoring to comprehend the neurological changes causing cognitive impairment and explore the possibility to ameliorate it. However, this is challenging and complicated due to multiple biological dimensions spanning from genes to brain networks, behavior and individual variability. Recent advances in neuroscience research suggest a key role of lifestyle changes, herbal preparations and epigenetic modulators in the recovery of age-related cognitive decline. Also, factors like healthy diet, exercise and social interactions help in prevention of cognitive deterioration. This review briefly focuses on the changes that occur in the brain with advancing age, neural basis of cognitive impairment, and protective as well as preventive interventions.

Keywords:- Brain Aging, Cognition, Epigenetics, Neuroprotection

Introduction

Both increase in human life expectancy as well as reduction in birth rate cause a continuous change in the age structure of the population around the world. The growing proportion of elderly people is one of the major social transformations of the 21st century, having implications in practically every area of society. According to UN report on World Population Aging 2017, by 2030, older people aged 60 and above would outnumber children under the age of ten, with two-thirds of the elderly living in developing countries (United Nations, 2017). Such rising elderly population is a major concern for the health professionals, scientists, social workers and policy makers around the globe. Though aging is a natural part of life, old age is associated with several concerns because of which elderly have not only different emotional, physical and social demands, but they also require special care and support.

Almost 40% of the population over the age of 60 complain age-related cognitive decline, resulting partly from the underlying neurodegenerative diseases or a change in the lifestyle (VanGuilder and Freeman, 2011). Even healthy adults are at an increased risk of cognitive impairment and brain diseases as they get older. Of course, individuals can differ; for example, some people may have genetic or developmental flaws that cause them to age more quickly, whereas others may have a catastrophic injury or illness resulting in rapid but stable brain aging. Therefore, it is important to understand the impact of aging on brain and cognition, and explore the preventive and neuroprotective interventions.

Impact of aging on brain and cognition

Advancing age is associated with alterations in the structure and function of the brain. The hippocampus located in the temporal lobe of the brain is of particular importance in aging and cognition because it regulates learning and memory, which are intimately linked to cognitive decline (VanGuilder and Freeman 2011). Normal aging is accompanied with hippocampal atrophy caused by a decrease in spine density, neuron size and number of synapses (Fjell and Walhovd, 2010). Other pathways contributing to the aging process include reduced vascular density, increase in inflammation and oxidative stress, compromised neurotransmitter action (Rozycka and Liguz-Leczna, 2017) and dysregulation of a number of key hippocampal proteins like glutamate receptors AMPA (alpha-amino-3-hydroxy-5-methyl-4-isoxazolepropionic acid), NMDA (N-methyl-D-aspartate) and other pre- and post-synaptic proteins involved in learning and memory processes (VanGuilder and Freeman, 2011).

Thus, brain aging is a complex process marked by a steady reduction in cognitive abilities (Deary et al., 2009) and increasing risk for neurodegenerative disorders such as Alzheimer's disease (AD), Huntington's disease, Parkinson's disease, amyotrophic lateral sclerosis, frontotemporal dementia and spinocerebellar ataxias. The etiology of these disorders varies; some induce memory and cognitive problems, while others impact mobility, speech and breathing (Abeliovich and Gitler, 2016; Canter et al., 2016; Taylor et al., 2016; Wyss-Coray, 2016). Even those who do not suffer from dementia or mild cognitive impairment (MCI) may have small cognitive changes as they age. Some cognitive talents such as language may increase with age, whereas other abilities such as reasoning, memory and processing speed may eventually diminish. Different domains of cognition such as attention, perception, execution, thinking, decision making, speech and language are all affected with age (Ballesteros et al., 2009; Baghel et al., 2019). A combination of symptoms that interfere with a person's ability to conduct daily activities such as thinking and remembering is referred to as dementia. The period between normal cognitive aging and dementia is known as MCI which does not affect routine activities. The most common form of dementia is AD characterized by the loss of intellectual functions, independence and identity.

Neural basis of cognitive decline– involvement of epigenetics and gut microbiota

Synaptic plasticity, which refers to the brain's ability to restructure, create and prune neuronal networks, is necessary for memory formation and maintenance. Its two components, long-term potentiation (LTP) and long-term depression (LTD), support the formation of learning and memory. Using normal aging and scopolamine-induced amnesic mice model, we have demonstrated changes in the expression, regulation and function of a wide range of molecules in the hippocampus (Srivastava and Thakur, 2017; Singh and Thakur, 2018). Other studies in the cerebral cortex and hippocampus have shown that the stress and inflammation-related genes are upregulated, while growth/trophic factors, energy metabolism, protein turnover, neuronal survival and synaptic plasticity genes are downregulated (Mattson and Arumugam, 2018). Reduced expression of synaptic plasticity genes is linked to an increase in oxidative stress, changes in neurotransmitter and hormone levels, and epigenetic modifications as people age (Singh and Thakur, 2014; Kushwaha and Thakur, 2020). Thus, a variety of factors contribute to cognitive impairment (Fig. 1).

Epigenetic modifications can occur at any stage of life, from childhood to adulthood and old age, and can be transmitted through multiple generations (Weyrich, 2018). They are caused by a variety of environmental factors including nutrition, pollution, pesticides, chemical species, medications, physical activity and stress (Fuso and Lucarelli, 2019). They can turn on/off relevant genes directly by interacting with DNA, RNA, or chromatin proteins, or indirectly through the use of different enzymes or epigenome-related pathways (Watson

and Goodman, 2002; Martin and Fry, 2018). Alterations in DNA methylation, histone post-translational modifications, production of microRNA (miRNAs) and long non-coding RNAs (lncRNAs), and nucleosome positioning regulate gene expression patterns. DNA methylation is involved in a variety of diseases (Jin and Robertson; 2013) including AD (Condliffe et al., 2014), Parkinson's disease (Henderson-Smith et al., 2019), and amyotrophic lateral sclerosis (Dolinar et al., 2018; Maltby et al., 2018). In AD, genes involved in amyloid peptide production (CREB5, PSEN1, APP, S100A2, PP2A, BACE) are hypermethylated, while others (MTHFR, MAPT APOE, SORB3) are hypomethylated (Stoccoro and Coppede, 2018). Histone deacetylase inhibitors, which increase histone acetylation, improve learning and memory and have a neuroprotective effect.

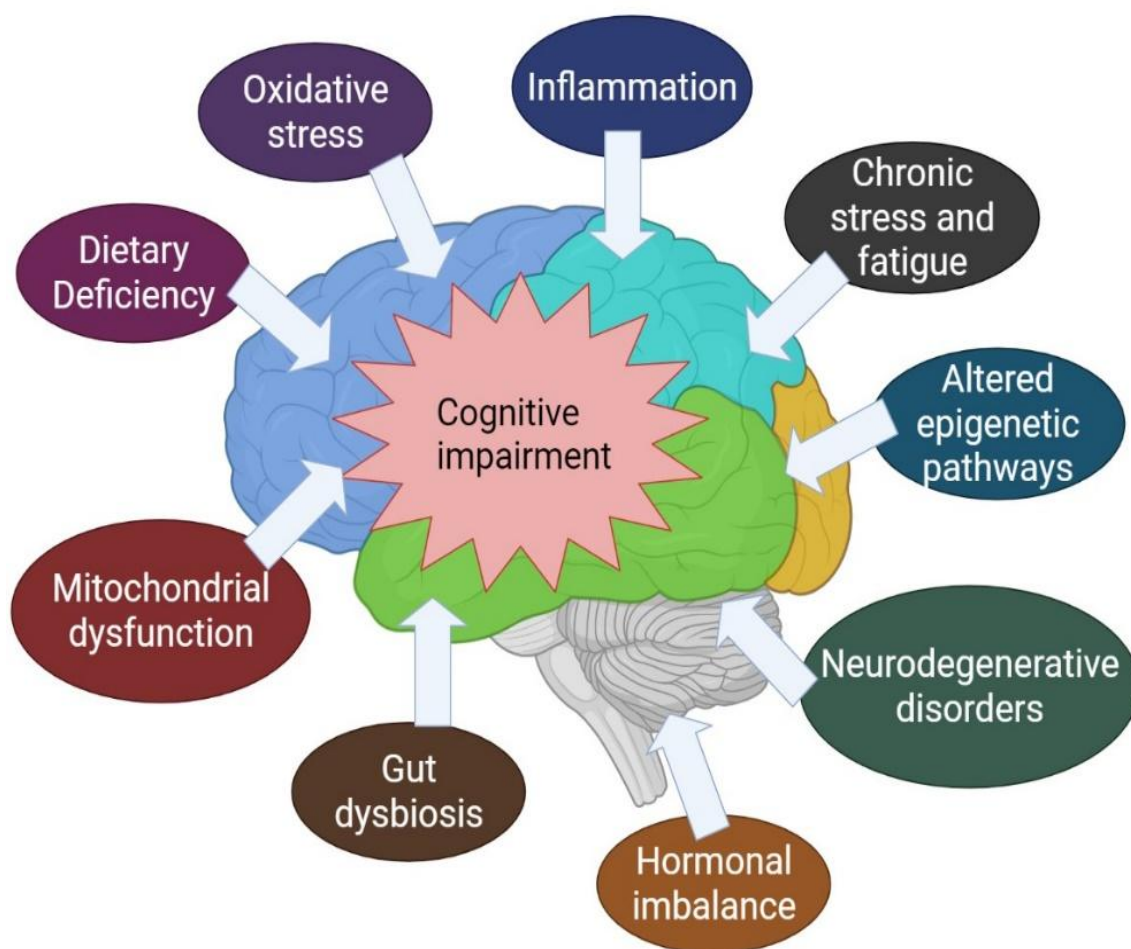


Figure 1: Factors leading to cognitive impairment

In addition to epigenetics, the recent research has revealed the impact of gut microbiota on the brain's physiological, behavioural and cognitive functioning. About 10¹⁴ microbial cells including bacteria, archaea, viruses, fungi, and protozoa populate the gastrointestinal system and maintain a symbiotic connection with the intestinal microbiota in the host (Wilkins et al., 2019). Diet- and obesity-related cognitive impairment has been linked to the gut microbiome's impacts on enteric and vagal signaling, immunological function and neuroactive metabolite synthesis.

Recovery of cognitive impairment: Neuroprotective interventions

Herbal preparations and epigenetic modulators exhibit neuroprotective properties and help in the recovery of cognitive impairment.

Herbal preparations are gaining popularity for use in cognitive disorders due to their perceived efficacy, safety and cost (Mehla et al., 2020; Kumar et al., 2021). Various neuroactive Indian herbs such as *Withania somnifera*, *Centella asiatica*, *Celastrus paniculatus* and *Bacopa monnieri* have shown cognitive improvement in animal models. Herbal crude extracts and their bioactive phytochemicals, such as alkaloids, saponins and flavonoids, play an important role in neuromodulation. These phytoconstituents have neuroprotective, immunomodulatory, anti-inflammatory and antioxidant properties, as well as the ability to increase the growth of good bacteria, which influence the gut-brain axis. Their direct influence on epigenetic modifications, gene expression profile, protein turnover and metabolism, eventually regulate redox signaling pathways, neurogenesis, neuritogenesis, synthesis and degradation of neurotransmitters, and synaptic transmission (Howes et al., 2020). Some of the popular herbs are mentioned in Table 1.

Table: List of herbs exhibiting effects on cognition, their bioactive components and pharmacological property

Herb	Bioactive components	Pharmacological property	References
<i>Bacopa monnieri</i> (Brahmi)	Triterpenoid saponins (bacosides)	anxiolytic, analgesic, anti-inflammatory, antioxidant	(Aguiar and Borowski, 2013; Konar et al., 2015)
<i>Centella asiatica</i> (Jalbrahmi / Gotu kola)	Asiaticosides, asiatic acid, madecassoside, and madasiatic	Anti-inflammatory, antioxidative stress, neuroprotective, antidepressant, nootropic	(Kumar and Gupta, 2002)
<i>Withania somnifera</i> (Ashwagandha)	Isopellertierine, anferine, withanolides, withaferins, sitoindoside VII and VIII, andwithanoloides	Anti-inflammatory, antioxidant, neuroprotective, anxiolytic, antidepressant	(Kumar et al., 2015; Konar et al., 2011, 2019)
<i>Curcuma longa</i> (Turmeric)	Curcuminoids; mainly Curcumin (diferuloyl methane), demethoxycurcumin, andbisdemethoxycurcumin	neuroprotective, anti-inflammatory, antioxidant	(Sharifi-Rad et al., 2020)
<i>Clitoria ternatea</i> (Aparajita)	Taraxerol, teraxerone, ternatins, delphinidin-3	Nootropic, antidepressant, antianxiety, antistress, antioxidant, anti-inflammatory	(Mukherjee et al., 2008)

<i>Celastrus paniculatus</i> (Jyotismati)	Sesquiterpenoid polyalcohols and esters, alkaloids (paniculatine and celastrine), phenolic triterpenoids (celastrol and paniculatadiol)	Neuroprotective, anti-inflammatory, antioxidant	(Ramaiah et al., 2018)
<i>Convolvulus pluricaulis</i> (Shankhpushpi)	Alkaloids (shankhpushpine and convolamine), volatile oils, favanoid-kampferol, phytosterol, amino acids, fattyacids, scopoletin, and beta-sitosterol	Nootropic, antistress, antidepressant, anxiolytic	(Agarwa et al., 2014)
<i>Ginkgo biloba</i> (Ginkgo)	Flavonoids, terpene trilactones, proanthocyanidines, ginkgolic acids, biflavone, polyflavones, and ginkgotoxins	Neuroprotective, cognitive improvement, and antioxidant	(Singh et al., 2017)
<i>Tinospora cordifolia</i> (Guduchi)	Alkaloids, diterpenoid, glycosides, steroids, lactones sesquiterpenoid, phenolics	Neuroprotection, antioxidant, anti-stress, learning and memory enhancement	(Sharma et al., 2019)
<i>Coffea arabica</i> (Arabian coffee)	Phenolic derivatives, alkaloids (caffeine), diterpenoid alcohols (cafestol and kahweol), carbohydrates, lipids,	Anti-oxidant and anti-inflammatory properties	(Islam et al., 2018)
<i>Glycyrrhiza glabra</i> (Yashtimadhu)	Glycyrrhizine, flavonones, isoflavones, glycyrrhetic acid	Anti-oxidative, learning improvement	(Paudel et al., 2020)
<i>Panax ginseng</i> (Chinese ginseng)	Triterpenoid saponins (ginsenosides)	Neuroprotection, neuromodulation, antioxidant and anti-inflammation	(Shin et al., 2019)

Together with the phytochemicals, epigenetic modulators have a crucial role in the treatment of neurodegenerative diseases. HMT, HDM, HAT, HDAC, miRNAs, siRNAs and lncRNAs are small molecule modulators that affect a variety of epigenetic pathways. One of the advantages of epigenetic therapy is its specificity. L-Dopa, commonly used to treat Parkinson's disease, has been reported to enhance SNCA methylation in both *in vitro* and *in vivo* investigations. On the other hand, long-term use of L-dopa results in H4 deacetylation and dyskinesia. HDAC inhibitors have potential to improve cognition and can be used to treat Parkinson's disease. SIRT2 inhibitors reduce alpha-synuclein toxicity in a cellular model of parkinsonism, whereas siRNA inhibitors are useful in *in vivo* models of parkinsonism (Rathore et al., 2021)

Prevention of cognitive decline

Along with the methods employed for recovery of cognitive decline during aging, certain neurotransmitter modulatory drugs have been effective in treatment and they are often referred to as targeted therapeutics. In this regard, numerous compounds have been tested for their ability to improve cognition (Froestl et al., 2012, 2013a, b). They act mostly on discrete proteins or signaling cascades, which directly or indirectly influence cognition. A variety of pharmaceutical and behavioral methods have also been explored to improve cognitive functions as people age. Healthy diet, increased physical activity, social involvement, and participation in intellectual activities have been reported to have positive effect (Harada et al., 2013; Barman et al., 2021; Singh et al., 2021) (Fig. 2).

Healthy diet - Several heart-healthy diets have been linked to lower incidence of cognitive decline and dementia (Scarmeas et al., 2006). They include antioxidant-rich foods and abundance of fruits and vegetables. Excess sodium, saturated fat, refined carbohydrates, red and processed meats, solid fat calories, and added sugar calories should be avoided. Nutraceuticals and supplements such as vitamins, proteins, and minerals are naturally present in foods. They have grown in popularity for targeting memory despite the lack of sufficient scientific data supporting their efficacy.

Exercise - There is robust evidence that participation in physical activity is associated with a decreased risk of cognitive decline and dementia. Epidemiological studies have demonstrated that high levels of exercise in mid- and late life are associated with increased cognitive performance, reduced rate of cognitive decline, and decreased risk of dementia (Casaletto et al., 2020). Exercise has beneficial effects against aging as an external environmental modulator by enhancing neuro-vascularization, neurogenesis, and neurotrophic factor synthesis (Morland et al., 2017; Horowitz et al., 2020).

Social interaction - Reduced social participation, less frequent social contact, and feelings of loneliness have been linked to cognitive impairment and dementia (Wang et al., 2002; Crooks et al., 2008; Evans et al., 2019). Maintenance of a large social network may aid in cognitive health as people age. Fewer years of education in early life are linked to lower cognitive reserve and a higher risk of dementia later in life (Livingston et al., 2020).



Figure 2: Prevention and recovery of cognitive impairment

Summary and Conclusion

Presently, there is no cure for age-related cognitive decline, partly due to poor knowledge of normal aging process and urgency in understanding the pathology of neurodegenerative diseases. Future research into the biological effects of aging will aid in determining which aberrant processes contribute to the cognitive decline in both normal and pathological aging. Although cholinergic system disruption is connected to the majority of memory problems, other factors also play a role in synaptic plasticity loss and cognitive decline. Physical activity, mental and social stimulation, and a balanced diet are essential to lower the risk of dementia and cognitive impairment. Several studies have shown that consuming a diet rich in antioxidants and anti-inflammatory components, such as those found in fruits and nuts, can help to reduce age-related cognitive decline and the onset of neurodegenerative diseases. Several herbal preparations that have been used in various parts of the world for centuries are combined in multi-herbal formulations that are regarded to have a synergistic effect and are more efficient than the individual herb. They should be made available to the elderly, allowing them to improve their quality of life with fewer side effects and less capital expenditure. Many traditional views about the use of herbal preparations to improve memory have been backed up by *in vitro* and *in vivo* experiments, as well as clinical studies.

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