eISBN: 978-1-68108-339-1 ISBN: 978-1-68108-340-7 elSSN: 2214-5168 ISSN: 2451-8743

Frontiers in Clinical Drug Research (Alzheimer Disorders)

Volume 6



Editor: Atta-ur-Rahman, FRS



(Volume 6)

Edited by

Atta-ur-Rahman, FRS

Kings College, University of Cambridge, Cambridge, UK

Volume # 6 Editor: Atta-ur-Rahman ISSN (Online): 2214-5168 ISSN (Print): 2451-8743 ISBN (Online): 978-1-68108-339-1 ISBN (Print): 978-1-68108-340-7 @2017, Bentham eBooks imprint. Published by Bentham Science Publishers – Sharjah, UAE. All Rights Reserved. Reprints and Revisions: First published in 2017.

BENTHAM SCIENCE PUBLISHERS LTD.

End User License Agreement (for non-institutional, personal use)

This is an agreement between you and Bentham Science Publishers Ltd. Please read this License Agreement carefully before using the ebook/echapter/ejournal (**"Work"**). Your use of the Work constitutes your agreement to the terms and conditions set forth in this License Agreement. If you do not agree to these terms and conditions then you should not use the Work.

Bentham Science Publishers agrees to grant you a non-exclusive, non-transferable limited license to use the Work subject to and in accordance with the following terms and conditions. This License Agreement is for non-library, personal use only. For a library / institutional / multi user license in respect of the Work, please contact: permission@benthamscience.org.

Usage Rules:

- 1. All rights reserved: The Work is the subject of copyright and Bentham Science Publishers either owns the Work (and the copyright in it) or is licensed to distribute the Work. You shall not copy, reproduce, modify, remove, delete, augment, add to, publish, transmit, sell, resell, create derivative works from, or in any way exploit the Work or make the Work available for others to do any of the same, in any form or by any means, in whole or in part, in each case without the prior written permission of Bentham Science Publishers, unless stated otherwise in this License Agreement.
- 2. You may download a copy of the Work on one occasion to one personal computer (including tablet, laptop, desktop, or other such devices). You may make one back-up copy of the Work to avoid losing it. The following DRM (Digital Rights Management) policy may also be applicable to the Work at Bentham Science Publishers' election, acting in its sole discretion:
- 25 'copy' commands can be executed every 7 days in respect of the Work. The text selected for copying cannot extend to more than a single page. Each time a text 'copy' command is executed, irrespective of whether the text selection is made from within one page or from separate pages, it will be considered as a separate / individual 'copy' command.
- 25 pages only from the Work can be printed every 7 days.

3. The unauthorised use or distribution of copyrighted or other proprietary content is illegal and could subject you to liability for substantial money damages. You will be liable for any damage resulting from your misuse of the Work or any violation of this License Agreement, including any infringement by you of copyrights or proprietary rights.

Disclaimer:

Bentham Science Publishers does not guarantee that the information in the Work is error-free, or warrant that it will meet your requirements or that access to the Work will be uninterrupted or error-free. The Work is provided "as is" without warranty of any kind, either express or implied or statutory, including, without limitation, implied warranties of merchantability and fitness for a particular purpose. The entire risk as to the results and performance of the Work is assumed by you. No responsibility is assumed by Bentham Science Publishers, its staff, editors and/or authors for any injury and/or damage to persons or property as a matter of products liability, negligence or otherwise, or from any use or operation of any methods, products instruction, advertisements or ideas contained in the Work.

Limitation of Liability:

In no event will Bentham Science Publishers, its staff, editors and/or authors, be liable for any damages, including, without limitation, special, incidental and/or consequential damages and/or damages for lost data and/or profits arising out of (whether directly or indirectly) the use or inability to use the Work. The entire liability of Bentham Science Publishers shall be limited to the amount actually paid by you for the Work.

General:

- 1. Any dispute or claim arising out of or in connection with this License Agreement or the Work (including non-contractual disputes or claims) will be governed by and construed in accordance with the laws of the U.A.E. as applied in the Emirate of Dubai. Each party agrees that the courts of the Emirate of Dubai shall have exclusive jurisdiction to settle any dispute or claim arising out of or in connection with this License Agreement or the Work (including non-contractual disputes or claims).
- 2. Your rights under this License Agreement will automatically terminate without notice and without the need for a court order if at any point you breach any terms of this License Agreement. In no event will any delay or failure by Bentham Science Publishers in enforcing your compliance with this License Agreement constitute a waiver of any of its rights.
- 3. You acknowledge that you have read this License Agreement, and agree to be bound by its terms and conditions. To the extent that any other terms and conditions presented on any website of Bentham Science Publishers conflict with, or are inconsistent with, the terms and conditions set out in this License Agreement, you acknowledge that the terms and conditions set out in this License Agreement shall prevail.

Bentham Science Publishers Ltd.

Executive Suite Y - 2 PO Box 7917, Saif Zone Sharjah, U.A.E. Email: subscriptions@benthamscience.org



CONTENTS

IST OF CONTRIBUTORS	
HAPTER 1 THE TREATMENT OF BRAIN INFLAMMATION IN ALZHEIMER'S	
DISEASE. CAN TRADITIONAL MEDICINES HELP?	
James David Adams	
INTRODUCTION	
Anti-inflammatory Agents in AD	
Risk Factors for Developing AD	
Prevention of AD	
Ceramide and AD	
The Blood Brain Barrier and AD	
Visfatin and AD	
Traditional Plant Medicines for AD	
The Modern Approach to Curing AD	
CONCLUDING REMARKS	
CONFLICT OF INTEREST	
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT	
REFERENCES	
CHAPTER 2 STEM CELL STRATEGIES FOR THE MODELING AND THERAPY OF	
ALZHEIMER'S DISEASE	,
Haigang Gu	
1. INTRODUCTION	•••••
2. NEUROPATHOLOGY OF AD: KEYS TO DRUG DISCOVERY AND ANIMAL	
MODELS	•••••
The β-amyloid Hypothesis of AD	•••••
The Hyper-phosphorylated Tau Protein Hypothesis of AD	•••••
The cholinergic hypothesis of AD	•••••
2.1. Drug Discovery of AD	•••••
2.1.1. Treatment of Amyloid Pathology	•••••
2.1.2. Treatment of Tau Pathology	
2.1.3. Treatment of Synaptic Dysfunction	•••••
2.1.4. Neurotrophic Factors (NTFs)	•••••
2.1.5. Cell Transplantation	•••••
2.2. Animal Models of AD	
2.2.1. Transgenic Animal Models of AD	
2.2.2. Selective Cholinergic Lesion Animal Models of AD	
3. STEM CELLS AS USEFUL TOOLS FOR CELL TRANSPLANTATION, DRUG	
DISCOVERY AND AD MODELING	
3.1. Neural Stem/Progenitor Cells (NP/SCs)	•••••
3.2. Mesenchymal Stem Cells (MSCs)	
3.3. Embryonic Stem Cells (ESCs)	
3.4. Induced Pluripotent Stem Cells (IPSCs)	•••••
3.5. In Situ Generation of Neurons in the Brain	•••••
3.6. Modeling and Therapy of AD with Genome Editing	•••••
4. PERSPECTIVES	
ABBREVIATIONS	
CONFLICT OF INTEREST	
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT	

REFERENCES	44
CHAPTER 3 RETINAL NEURODEGENERATION IN ALZHEIMER'S DISEASE	56
L. Guo, M. Pahlitzsch, F. Javaid and M.F. Cordeiro	
INTRODUCTION	57
THE RETINA – AN INTEGRAL PART OF THE BRAIN	57
VISUAL CHANGES IN AD	60
Visual Abnormalities	60
Pupil Abnormalities	61
RETINAL CHANGES IN AD	62
Retinal Histopathologic Abnormalities	62
Retinal in vivo Abnormalities	63
Retinal Nerve Abnormalities	63
Retinal Vasculature Abnormalities	66
Retinal Cellular Abnormalities – RGC Apoptosis	66
NON-RETINAL OCULAR CHANGES IN AD	68
AD-RELATED CHANGES IN RETINAL DISEASES	69
AD-related Changes in Glaucoma	69
AD-related Changes in AMD	71
TARGETING OF AMYLOID-B IN TREATMENT OF GLAUCOMA AND AMD	72
CONCLUSION	73
CONFLICT OF INTEREST	72
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	74
REFERENCES	, 1 74
Sumeet Gupta and Vikas Jhawat INTRODUCTION	87
PATHOPHYSIOLOGY OF ALZHEIMER'S DISEASE	88
HYPEKIENSION AND ALZHEIMEK'S DISEASE	92
ROLE OF RENIN ANGIOTENSIN SYSTEM (RAS) IN ALZHEIMER'S DISEASE	92
GENETIC POLYMORPHISM AND AD	94
TREATMENTS FOR ALZHEIMER'S DISEASE	95
HERBAL DRUGS FOR THE TREATMENT OF AD	99
	101
ABBREVIATIONS:	102
CONFLICT OF INTEREST	102
ACKNOWLEDGEMENIS	102
REFERENCES	103
CHAPTER 5 BIOLOGICAL MASS SPECTROMETRY FOR DIAGNOSIS OF ALZHEIMER DISEASE	t'S 110
Hani Nasser Abdelhamid and Hui-Fen Wu	
INTRODUCTION	111
Requirements of Alzheimer's Disease Diagnosis	112
Application of Mass Spectrometry for Alzheimer's Disease	113
Imaging Mass Spectrometry for Alzheimer's Disease	118
Advantages and disadvantages of Mass Spectrometry	118
CONCLUSION	120
CONFLICT OF INTEREST	120
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	120

REFERENCES	120
CHAPTER 6 THE STRUCTURE-ACTIVITY RELATIONSHIP OF MELANIN AS A SOURCE OF ENERGY DEFINES THE ROLE OF GLUCOSE TO BIOMASS SUPPLY ONLY,	
IMPLICATIONS IN THE CONTEXT OF THE FAILING BRAIN	127
Arturo Solís Herrera	
INTRODUCTION	127
Basal Brain Energy Metabolism	138
The Role of Pyridine Nucleotides and the Abnormal Expression of Genes	142
REMARKS AND CONCLUSION	149
CONFLICT OF INTEREST	151
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	152
REFERENCES	152
CHAPTER 7 NEURO-PROTECTIVE PROPERTIES OF THE FUNGUS ISARIA JAPONICA:	1.5.4
EVIDENCE FROM A MOUSE MODEL OF AGED-RELATED DEGENERATION	154
Koichi Suzuki, Masaaki Isushima, Masanobu Goryo, Tetsuro Shinaaa, Toko	
Tasuno, Elji Ivisnimira, Tasuo Terayama, Tuki Mori and Tosnicnika Tosnicka	1
	155
IJE Improves Nerve Function in Aged Mouse Brain	156
1. Neuroprotective Effects of IJE	156
2. Histochemical Observation	159
3. Assessments of Acute and Sub-acute Toxicity	160
NMR Analyses in the I. Japonica Extract	162
1. Chemical Component of I. Japonica	162
2. Biologically Active Substances	105
5. NMR and Mass Study of Water Extract of 1. Japonica	1/0
visualization of the Physiological and Pathological Alterations in the Central Nervous	171
System using MKI and MKS	1/1
1. Fine Imaging Using Ultra-high Field MRI	172
2. Magnetic Resonance Spectroscopy	1/3
3. Brain Temperature Estimation Using MRS	1/8
CONCLUDING REMARKS	180
CUNFLICT OF INTEREST	180
AUKNUWLEDGEMENTS	181
KEFEKENCES	181
SUBJECT INDEX	3: 9

PREFACE

The book series, "Frontiers in Clinical Drug Research – Alzheimer Disorders", is intended to present the important advancements in the field in the form of cutting edge reviews written by experts. Volume 6 of this eBook series is a compilation of seven well written chapters contributed by prominent researchers in the field. It includes the treatment of brain inflammation, stem cell strategies, retinal neurodegeneration, pathophysiology of Alzheimer disease, and a number of other related areas.

Chapter 1 by Adams discusses the use of plant medicines as an alternative treatment to decrease the progression of Alzheimer's disease (AD). In chapter 2, Haigang Gu describes the recent progress of stem cell strategies for AD modeling and therapy. Cordeiro *et al.* in chapter 3 focus on the retinal neurodegeneration in AD. The pathological similarities between AD and eye diseases are also discussed. In Chapter 4, Gupta & Jhawat highlight the pathophysiology of Alzheimer disease with respect to the current drug therapy.

In chapter 5, Abdelhamid and Wu present the use of biological mass spectrometry for the diagnosis of Alzheimer's disease. This review also highlights the recent developments in disease diagnosis using mass spectrometry. Chapter 6 by Herrera emphasizes the structure-activity relationship of melanin as a source of energy. The last chapter by Suzuki *et al.*, discusses the neuro-protective properties of the fungus *Isaria japonica* (IJ). The results showed that products derived from IJ may prevent or decrease the impact of dementia, especially AD.

The 6th volume of this book series represents the results of a huge amount of work by many eminent researchers. I am grateful to the authors for their excellent contributions. I would also like to express my gratitude to the editorial staff of Bentham Science Publishers, particularly Mr. Mahmood Alam (Director Publication), Mr. Shehzad Naqvi (Senior Manager Publications) and Ms. Fariya Zulfiqar (Assistant Manager Publications) for their hard work and persistent efforts.

Prof. Atta-ur-Rahman, FRS Kings College University of Cambridge Cambridge UK

List of Contributors

Arturo Solís Herrera	Human Photosynthesis [®] Research Center, Sierra del Laurel, 212, Bosques del Prado Norte, CP 20127, Aguascalientes, México
Eiji Nishimura	Graduate School of Science, Osaka City University, Osaka, Japan
F. Javaid	Glaucoma & Retinal Degeneration Research Group, Visual Neurosciences, UCL Institute of Ophthalmology, Bath Street, London, EC1V 9EL, UK
Haigang Gu	Department of Pediatrics, Northwestern University Feinberg School of Medicine, Lurie Children's Hospital Research Center, Chicago, IL 60614, USA
Hani Nasser Abdelhamid	Department of Chemistry, Assuit University, Assuit, 71515, Egypt
Hui-Fen Wu	Department of Chemistry and Center for Nanoscience and Nanotechnology, National Sun Yat-Sen University, Kaohsiung, 70, Lien-Hai Road, Kaohsiung, 80424, Taiwan School of Pharmacy, College of Pharmacy, Kaohsiung Medical University, Kaohsiung, 807, Taiwan Institue of Medical Science and Technology, National Sun Yat-Sen University, Kaohsiung, 70, Lien-Hai Road, Kaohsiung, 80424, Taiwan Doctoral Degree Program in Marine Biotechnology, National Sun Yat-Sen University and Academia Sinica, Kaohsiung, 80424, Taiwan
James David Adams	School of Pharmacy, University of Southern California, 1985 Zonal Avenue, Los Angeles, CA 90089, USA
Koichi Suzuki	Organization for Research Promotion, Iwate University, Morioka, Iwate, Japan
	-
L. Guo	Glaucoma & Retinal Degeneration Research Group, Visual Neurosciences, UCL Institute of Ophthalmology, Bath Street, London, EC1V 9EL, UK
L. Guo M. Pahlitzsch	Glaucoma & Retinal Degeneration Research Group, Visual Neurosciences, UCL Institute of Ophthalmology, Bath Street, London, EC1V 9EL, UK Glaucoma & Retinal Degeneration Research Group, Visual Neurosciences, UCL Institute of Ophthalmology, Bath Street, London, EC1V 9EL, UK
L. Guo M. Pahlitzsch M.F. Cordeiro	Glaucoma & Retinal Degeneration Research Group, Visual Neurosciences, UCL Institute of Ophthalmology, Bath Street, London, EC1V 9EL, UK Glaucoma & Retinal Degeneration Research Group, Visual Neurosciences, UCL Institute of Ophthalmology, Bath Street, London, EC1V 9EL, UK Glaucoma & Retinal Degeneration Research Group, Visual Neurosciences, UCL Institute of Ophthalmology, Bath Street, London, EC1V 9EL, UK Western Eye Hospital, Imperial College Healthcare Trust, London, UK
L. Guo M. Pahlitzsch M.F. Cordeiro Masaaki Tsushima	Glaucoma & Retinal Degeneration Research Group, Visual Neurosciences, UCL Institute of Ophthalmology, Bath Street, London, EC1V 9EL, UK Glaucoma & Retinal Degeneration Research Group, Visual Neurosciences, UCL Institute of Ophthalmology, Bath Street, London, EC1V 9EL, UK Glaucoma & Retinal Degeneration Research Group, Visual Neurosciences, UCL Institute of Ophthalmology, Bath Street, London, EC1V 9EL, UK Western Eye Hospital, Imperial College Healthcare Trust, London, UK Organization for Research Promotion, Iwate University, Morioka, Iwate, Japan
L. Guo M. Pahlitzsch M.F. Cordeiro Masaaki Tsushima Masanobu Goryo	Glaucoma & Retinal Degeneration Research Group, Visual Neurosciences, UCL Institute of Ophthalmology, Bath Street, London, EC1V 9EL, UK Glaucoma & Retinal Degeneration Research Group, Visual Neurosciences, UCL Institute of Ophthalmology, Bath Street, London, EC1V 9EL, UK Glaucoma & Retinal Degeneration Research Group, Visual Neurosciences, UCL Institute of Ophthalmology, Bath Street, London, EC1V 9EL, UK Glaucoma & Retinal Degeneration Research Group, Visual Neurosciences, UCL Institute of Ophthalmology, Bath Street, London, EC1V 9EL, UK Western Eye Hospital, Imperial College Healthcare Trust, London, UK Organization for Research Promotion, Iwate University, Morioka, Iwate, Japan Faculty of Agriculture, Iwate University, Morioka, Iwate, Japan
L. Guo M. Pahlitzsch M.F. Cordeiro Masaaki Tsushima Masanobu Goryo Sumeet Gupta	Glaucoma & Retinal Degeneration Research Group, Visual Neurosciences, UCL Institute of Ophthalmology, Bath Street, London, EC1V 9EL, UK Glaucoma & Retinal Degeneration Research Group, Visual Neurosciences, UCL Institute of Ophthalmology, Bath Street, London, EC1V 9EL, UK Glaucoma & Retinal Degeneration Research Group, Visual Neurosciences, UCL Institute of Ophthalmology, Bath Street, London, EC1V 9EL, UK Western Eye Hospital, Imperial College Healthcare Trust, London, UK Organization for Research Promotion, Iwate University, Morioka, Iwate, Japan Faculty of Agriculture, Iwate University, Morioka, Iwate, Japan Department of Pharmacology, M. M. College of Pharmacy, M. M. University, Mullana, (Ambala), Haryana, India
L. Guo M. Pahlitzsch M.F. Cordeiro Masaaki Tsushima Masanobu Goryo Sumeet Gupta Tetsuro Shinada	Glaucoma & Retinal Degeneration Research Group, Visual Neurosciences, UCL Institute of Ophthalmology, Bath Street, London, EC1V 9EL, UK Glaucoma & Retinal Degeneration Research Group, Visual Neurosciences, UCL Institute of Ophthalmology, Bath Street, London, EC1V 9EL, UK Glaucoma & Retinal Degeneration Research Group, Visual Neurosciences, UCL Institute of Ophthalmology, Bath Street, London, EC1V 9EL, UK Western Eye Hospital, Imperial College Healthcare Trust, London, UK Organization for Research Promotion, Iwate University, Morioka, Iwate, Japan Faculty of Agriculture, Iwate University, Morioka, Iwate, Japan Department of Pharmacology, M. M. College of Pharmacy, M. M. University, Mullana, (Ambala), Haryana, India Graduate School of Science, Osaka City University, Osaka, Japan
L. Guo M. Pahlitzsch M.F. Cordeiro Masaaki Tsushima Masanobu Goryo Sumeet Gupta Tetsuro Shinada Vikas Jhawat	Glaucoma & Retinal Degeneration Research Group, Visual Neurosciences, UCL Institute of Ophthalmology, Bath Street, London, EC1V 9EL, UK Glaucoma & Retinal Degeneration Research Group, Visual Neurosciences, UCL Institute of Ophthalmology, Bath Street, London, EC1V 9EL, UK Glaucoma & Retinal Degeneration Research Group, Visual Neurosciences, UCL Institute of Ophthalmology, Bath Street, London, EC1V 9EL, UK Glaucoma & Retinal Degeneration Research Group, Visual Neurosciences, UCL Institute of Ophthalmology, Bath Street, London, EC1V 9EL, UK Western Eye Hospital, Imperial College Healthcare Trust, London, UK Organization for Research Promotion, Iwate University, Morioka, Iwate, Japan Faculty of Agriculture, Iwate University, Morioka, Iwate, Japan Department of Pharmacology, M. M. College of Pharmacy, M. M. University, Mullana, (Ambala), Haryana, India Department of Pharmacology, M. M. College of Pharmacy, M. M. University, Mullana, (Ambala), Haryana, India
L. Guo M. Pahlitzsch M.F. Cordeiro Masaaki Tsushima Masanobu Goryo Sumeet Gupta Tetsuro Shinada Vikas Jhawat Yasuo Terayama	Glaucoma & Retinal Degeneration Research Group, Visual Neurosciences, UCL Institute of Ophthalmology, Bath Street, London, EC1V 9EL, UK Glaucoma & Retinal Degeneration Research Group, Visual Neurosciences, UCL Institute of Ophthalmology, Bath Street, London, EC1V 9EL, UK Glaucoma & Retinal Degeneration Research Group, Visual Neurosciences, UCL Institute of Ophthalmology, Bath Street, London, EC1V 9EL, UK Western Eye Hospital, Imperial College Healthcare Trust, London, UK Organization for Research Promotion, Iwate University, Morioka, Iwate, Japan Faculty of Agriculture, Iwate University, Morioka, Iwate, Japan Department of Pharmacology, M. M. College of Pharmacy, M. M. University, Mullana, (Ambala), Haryana, India Graduate School of Science, Osaka City University, Osaka, Japan Department of Pharmacology, M. M. College of Pharmacy, M. M. University, Mullana, (Ambala), Haryana, India
L. Guo M. Pahlitzsch M.F. Cordeiro Masaaki Tsushima Masanobu Goryo Sumeet Gupta Tetsuro Shinada Vikas Jhawat Yasuo Terayama Yoko Yasuno	Glaucoma & Retinal Degeneration Research Group, Visual Neurosciences, UCL Institute of Ophthalmology, Bath Street, London, EC1V 9EL, UK Glaucoma & Retinal Degeneration Research Group, Visual Neurosciences, UCL Institute of Ophthalmology, Bath Street, London, EC1V 9EL, UK Glaucoma & Retinal Degeneration Research Group, Visual Neurosciences, UCL Institute of Ophthalmology, Bath Street, London, EC1V 9EL, UK Western Eye Hospital, Imperial College Healthcare Trust, London, UK Organization for Research Promotion, Iwate University, Morioka, Iwate, Japan Faculty of Agriculture, Iwate University, Morioka, Iwate, Japan Department of Pharmacology, M. M. College of Pharmacy, M. M. University, Mullana, (Ambala), Haryana, India Graduate School of Science, Osaka City University, Osaka, Japan Department of Pharmacology, M. M. College of Pharmacy, M. M. University, Mullana, (Ambala), Haryana, India Division of Neurology and Gerontology, Department of Internal Medicine, Iwate Medical University, Morioka, Iwate, Japan Graduate School of Science, Osaka City University, Osaka, Japan
L. Guo M. Pahlitzsch M.F. Cordeiro Masaaki Tsushima Masanobu Goryo Sumeet Gupta Tetsuro Shinada Vikas Jhawat Yasuo Terayama Yoko Yasuno Yoshichika Yoshioka	 Glaucoma & Retinal Degeneration Research Group, Visual Neurosciences, UCL Institute of Ophthalmology, Bath Street, London, EC1V 9EL, UK Glaucoma & Retinal Degeneration Research Group, Visual Neurosciences, UCL Institute of Ophthalmology, Bath Street, London, EC1V 9EL, UK Glaucoma & Retinal Degeneration Research Group, Visual Neurosciences, UCL Institute of Ophthalmology, Bath Street, London, EC1V 9EL, UK Glaucoma & Retinal Degeneration Research Group, Visual Neurosciences, UCL Institute of Ophthalmology, Bath Street, London, EC1V 9EL, UK Western Eye Hospital, Imperial College Healthcare Trust, London, UK Organization for Research Promotion, Iwate University, Morioka, Iwate, Japan Faculty of Agriculture, Iwate University, Morioka, Iwate, Japan Department of Pharmacology, M. M. College of Pharmacy, M. M. University, Mullana, (Ambala), Haryana, India Graduate School of Science, Osaka City University, Osaka, Japan Department of Pharmacology, M. M. College of Pharmacy, M. M. University, Mullana, (Ambala), Haryana, India Division of Neurology and Gerontology, Department of Internal Medicine, Iwate Medical University, Morioka, Iwate, Japan Graduate School of Science, Osaka City University, Osaka, Japan Biofunctional Imaging Laboratory, Immunology Frontier Research Center, Osaka University, Osaka, Japan

The Treatment of Brain Inflammation in Alzheimer's Disease. Can Traditional Medicines Help?

James David Adams*

School of Pharmacy, University of Southern California, 1985 Zonal Avenue, Los Angeles, CA 90089, USA

Abstract: The blood brain barrier degenerates in many people as they age. This degeneration can lead to inflammation, amyloid accumulation, neuron loss, tangle accumulation and dementia. Damage to the blood brain barrier may involve oxygen radical production through a visfatin mediated mechanism. Several plant medicines have been traditionally used to decrease the progression of Alzheimer's disease. Antioxidant mechanisms of action have been described for these medicines that may protect the blood brain barrier. These plant medicines provide alternative treatments for Alzheimer's disease.

Keywords: Alzheimer's disease, Anti-inflammatory prevention, Plant medicines.

INTRODUCTION

Alzheimer's disease (AD) involves neurodegeneration induced by amyloid β . This neurodegeneration results in loss of neurons, plaque and tangle formation and ultimately in dementia. Many AD patients are treated with acetylcholinesterase inhibitors to slow the progression of mild AD. Eventually, most AD patients die from pneumonia and not neurodegeneration.

The current consensus is that AD is caused by amyloid β toxicity in the brain [1]. It is clear that extracellular amyloid β is toxic to neurons. Amyloid β aggregates into fibrils, sheets and plaques. Some intermediate amyloid protein aggregates in the plaque formation process are toxic to neurons.

The role of inflammation in the pathophysiology of AD is well established [1]. Inflammation in AD can be secondary to amyloid β accumulation. In other words, amyloid β causes inflammation in the brain. Inflammation can also occur early in

* **Corresponding author James David Adams:** School of Pharmacy, University of Southern California, 1985 Zonal Avenue, Los Angeles, CA 90089, USA; Tel: 323-442-1362; Fax: 323-442-1681; E-mail: jadams@usc.edu

James David Adams

the disease process and initiate amyloid β accumulation and AD pathology [2]. This inflammation involves microglial cells, astrocytes, perivascular macrophages and monocytes that infiltrate into the brain [2]. There are a number of different inflammatory molecules that are produced in the brain in this inflammatory process and as a consequence of amyloid β production including chemokines, complement molecules, cytokines, inflammatory and acute phase proteins, cyclooxygenase-2, and free radicals [2 - 5].

Tau phosphorylation leading to tangle formation may occur as the result of amyloid β oligomer toxicity [1]. Microglial and astrocytic activation are also involved in alteration of tau phosphorylation [1]. Neurofibrillary tangles are frequently found in AD brains.

The question that remains unanswered is why does amyloid β production increase in the brains of people who will develop AD? This question can be avoided by claiming that 100% of people will develop AD if they live long enough. In other words, amyloid β accumulation is a natural process in the brain that cannot be avoided. However, many very old people do not develop AD.

Anti-inflammatory Agents in AD

Several epidemiological studies have examined the use of anti-inflammatory drugs in patients and have found that the use of these drugs may decrease the induction of AD. These studies have been critically reviewed [2, 5, 6]. The use of indomethacin was reported to slow the progression of AD [7]. This finding was later disputed [8]. Patients suffering from arthritis have a decreased risk of developing AD, perhaps because of their use of anti-inflammatory agents [9]. Several other reports have failed to show a protective effect of anti-inflammatory agents in the progression or development of AD. In addition, several attempts to slow the progression of AD with various anti-inflammatory drugs have failed to show an effect. It must be remembered that oral nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory agents (NSAIDs) are very toxic, especially to the elderly. NSAIDs have effects on prostaglandins, lipoxins, resolvins, thromboxanes and other lipid metabolites. NSAIDs cause strokes, heart attacks, kidney damage and ulcers. They cause 42,000 or more deaths in the US every year. NSAIDs should be avoided in trials that hope to delay the progression of AD. Steroids damage the hippocampus and should also be avoided [10]. Perhaps the choice of anti-inflammatory agent has been inappropriate so far. In addition, the doses chosen may have been inappropriate in past studies. The doses chosen were probably too high and induced too much toxicity.

Brain Inflammation

Risk Factors for Developing AD

If all people get AD with age, then the only risk factor for developing AD should be age. However, there are other risk factors that increase the chance of developing AD. The risk factors for developing AD are age, head trauma, high blood pressure, high blood cholesterol, diabetes, cardiovascular disease, atrial fibrillation, apolipoprotein E4, thrombosis, peripheral inflammatory factors, decreased muscle mass and high alcohol consumption [11 - 13]. Women are more likely to develop AD than men [11 - 13]. Brain trauma can cause gliosis, inflammation and deleterious changes to the brain that may be important in AD. Peripheral inflammatory factors cause high blood pressure, high blood cholesterol, type 2 diabetes, cardiovascular disease, atrial fibrillation and thrombosis [14]. These peripheral inflammatory factors include adipokines made in visceral and ectopic fat that are released into the blood. Inflammatory adipokines include visfatin, leptin, resistin, tumor necrosis factor α , IL-6 and others.

As people age, visceral and ectopic fat deposits develop. Toxic lifestyles, including lack of exercise and over eating, cause fat accumulation. Ectopic fat is fat that surrounds arteries, infiltrates muscles and other sites. Visceral fat accumulates in the peritoneal cavity. Therefore risk factors for AD are probably high blood levels of inflammatory adipokines released by visceral and ectopic fat. Obesity has increased greatly since the 1980s as reported by the Centers for Disease Control (www.cdc.gov). The incidence of AD has also increased greatly since 1980, in parallel with the increase in visceral obesity [15]. According to the Centers for Disease Control, among the entire US population, 93,500 people died while affected with AD in 2014. The entire US population, age adjusted death rate from AD increased by 39% from 2000 through 2010.

Several studies found the incidence of AD decreased over the last 25 years or more by about 25% [16 - 19], in spite of the increases in obesity and type 2 diabetes. These studies were done in selected populations and point to better education and better treatment of heart disease as ways to prevent AD. This indicates that patients who are educated enough about risk factors for AD to seek out better health care and other healthy lifestyle practices have a decreased risk. Weight reduction can be part of a healthy lifestyle. All of these studies advise that patients who practice healthy lifestyles have a decreased risk of developing AD. Is the incidence of AD actually decreasing in the US? The answer is clearly that the incidence of AD is increasing in the total US population.

Apolipoprotein E4 transports lipids inside the brain, including cholesterol and triglycerides. When triglycerides accumulate, the alternative fat ceramide is made

CHAPTER 2

Stem Cell Strategies for the Modeling and Therapy of Alzheimer's Disease

Haigang Gu^{*}

Department of Pediatrics, Northwestern University Feinberg School of Medicine, Lurie Children's Hospital Research Center, Chicago, IL 60614, USA

Abstract: Alzheimer's disease (AD) is the most common form of dementia in aged populations.AD is characterized by a progressive decline in memory and cognitive function, accompanied with behavioral changes such as confusion, irritability and aggression, mood swings, language breakdown and eventually long-term memory loss. The most significantly pathological findings in the brains affected by AD are senile plaques (SP), neurofibrillary tangles (NFT) and neuronal loss or degeneration, particularly in the areas connected to the cerebral cortex and hippocampus. The most prominence among these regions is the basal forebrain cholinergic neurons. Many AD studies and clinical trials focus on inhibiting the formation of extracellular senile plaques and intracellular neurofibrillary tangles to prevent or halt disease progression. For example, the Food and Drug Association (FDA) has approved three acetylcholinesterase inhibitors (AChEIs), donepezil, rivastigmine and galantamine as AD therapy. Elevating the neurotransmitter acetylcholine by AChEIs has been shown to benefit cognitive functions in patients. Excitotoxicity caused by glutamatergic synaptic dysfunction contributes to cognitive AD symptoms. Another FDA-approved AD drug, the N-methyl-D-aspartate (NMDA) receptor antagonist memantine, is thought to alleviate the excitotoxicity. To date, however, none of these treatments have been shown to be safe and effective in clinic. Stem cell therapy is a promising therapeutic strategy, which has been shown to replace the neurodegenerative cholinergic neurons and provide exogenous neurotrophic factors in AD brains. Stem cells have been used as therapy of neurodegenerative diseases to deliver RNAi to the brains and regulate the expression of neprilysin, an amyloid- β (A β)-degrading enzyme. More recently, stem cells, especially induced pluripotent stem cells (IPSCs), have been used for AD modeling and drug screening. However, effective drugs or other interventions that stop or delay progression of AD remain elusive. Due to the multifaceted features of AD, further investigations of AD therapies are necessary. This review will discuss the recent progress of stem cell strategies for AD modeling and therapy.

Keywords: Alzheimer's disease, Drug discovery, Small molecules, Stem cells, Therapy.

^{*} **Corresponding author Haigang Gu:** Department of Pediatrics, Northwestern University Feinberg School of Medicine, Lurie Children's Hospital Research Center, Chicago, IL 60614, USA; Tel: +1 (773) 755-7312; E-mails: haigang.gu@gmail.com; Haigangg@hotmail.com

1. INTRODUCTION

The most common type of dementia in aged populations is Alzheimer's disease (AD), which is characterized by a progressive decline in memory and cognitive function. Alzheimer's disease is accompanied with behavioral changes such as confusion, irritability and aggression, mood swings and language breakdown. In the late stage of AD, patients lose the functions of movement, learning and memory [1, 2]. The cause of initiation and progression of AD are not well understood. Previous investigations have shown that the incidence of AD is strongly associated with aging. The most significantly pathological findings in brains affected by AD are senile plaques (SP), neurofibrillary tangles (NFT), neuronal loss or degeneration, particularly in the areas connected to the cerebral cortex and hippocampus. The most prominent among the regions is the basal forebrain (BF) cholinergic neurons [3 - 7]. Cholinergic neurons of BF express both the low affinity neurotrophin receptor (P^{75NTF}) and tropomyosin receptor kinase A (TrkA), and respond to neurotrophic factors (NTFs) by increased activity of choline acetyltransferase (ChAT). Neurotrophic factors are also important in the development of neurons and maintaining normal functions of the nervous system, such as outgrowth of axons and neuritis, pathfinding, synaptic genesis and neural circuit formation. Neurotrophic factors have been extensively used for therapeutic studies in the experimental models of AD [8, 9]. Moreover, NTFs have shown beneficial effects in other neurodegenerative diseases, such Parkinson's disease (PD), Huntington's disease (HD), spinal cord injury (SCI) and stroke. However, NTFs are macromolecular proteins that do not readily cross the blood-brain barrier (BBB). Efficient delivery of NTFs into the central nervous system remains challenging.

Strategies to decrease the degradation of acetylcholine in the central nervous system usually involve increasing cholinergic function and improving cognitive functions in AD patients. Some small molecules have been developed to inhibit the cleavage of acetylcholine. To date, cholinesterase inhibitors, such as donepezil, galantamine and rivastigmine, are available for the treatment of AD [10, 11], but their effects must be further investigated. Many patients do not show functional benefit after cholinesterase inhibitor therapy. Furthermore, medication application does not stop the progression of AD. Although grafting embryonic cholinergic neurons has been shown to increase cholinergic function in animal models of AD, this strategy is not clinically feasible due to the limited availability of fetal tissue and ethical concerns. Due to the self-renewal ability of stem cells, sufficient numbers of neurons can be generated for both research and transplantation therapy within a short period of time. Moreover, stem cells have the potential to differentiate into different types of somatic cells. For example, neural stem cells (NSCs) have been successfully cultured, which solves the

Haigang Gu

problem of using human fetal donors. Neural stem cells can generate neurons, astrocytes and oligodendroglia in response to environmental signals, including NTFs, retinoic acid (RA) and growth factors. Stem cell-derived neurons can migrate and integrate with host neurons in the brain and spinal cord. Furthermore, stem cell-derived glial cells can secret NTFs to promote the survival of degenerative neurons [12 - 15]. Induced pluripotent stem cells (IPSCs) allow the development of personalized medicine. For example, a specific patient's IPSCs could be induced to differentiate into cholinergic neurons. And then, the best drug candidates for this patient can be identified using screening a drug library against their IPSC-derived cholinergic neurons [3, 4].

Although many basic scientific and clinical studies have shown that drug treatment could improve cognitive function and memory of AD patients, delaying and/or stopping neuron loss and degeneration is still a considerable challenge [2, 16]. Due to the multifaceted features of AD, more works remain to be done to explore the novel specific therapeutics (Fig. 1). Combining different therapies must be considered in the future. This review discusses the recent progress in the field of AD, focusing on stem cell therapeutic strategies.



Fig. (1). Factors affect Alzheimer's disease (AD). Loss of the balance between degeneration and regeneration causes AD.

CHAPTER 3

Retinal Neurodegeneration in Alzheimer's Disease

L. Guo¹, M. Pahlitzsch^{#, 1}, F. Javaid^{#, 1} and M.F. Cordeiro^{*, 1, 2}

¹ Glaucoma & Retinal Degeneration Research Group, Visual Neurosciences, UCL Institute of Ophthalmology, Bath Street, London, ECIV 9EL, UK

² Western Eye Hospital, Imperial College Healthcare Trust, London, UK

Abstract: Alzheimer's disease (AD) is the most common cause of dementia globally. The prevalence has increased dramatically with an aging population. Although considerable progress has been made over the last few decades in understanding the pathophysiology of AD, early and accurate diagnosis of the disorder is still a formidable challenge, and there is currently no effective treatments available to slow down disease progression. The fundamental issue on this disadvantage is largely due to a lack of reliable biomarkers for neurodegeneration in the brain. However, mounting evidence has shown that except the brain, the eye, particularly the retina, is also affected in AD. Because of its transparent nature and ease of accessibility, the eve can serve as a 'window' into the brain. Advanced imaging technologies enable observation of changes in the retina in real time, e.g. measurement of thickness of the retinal nerve fibre layer (RNFL) by coherence tomography (OCT), detection of changes in the optic nerve head (ONH) by confocal scanning laser ophthalmoscopy (cSLO), and monitoring of retinal neuronal apoptosis by DARC (Detection of Apoptosing Retinal Cells). In addition to the ocular structural changes in AD patients, similar pathological mechanisms identified in the brain have also been established in the retina, including increased amyloid-ß (AB) deposition and tau pathology. Furthermore, AD-related changes in the retina have also been observed in eye diseases, including glaucoma and age-related macular degeneration (AMD), and targeting of AB has been demonstrated to be neuroprotective for those eye diseases. This review focuses on the recent advances in ocular changes, particularly retinal neurodegeneration in AD, discusses pathological similarities between AD and eye diseases, and highlights the potential of retinal imaging in identification of promising biomarkers for early AD.

Keywords: Aß, Alzheimer's disease, AMD, DARC, Glaucoma, Retinal imaging, Retinal neurodegeneration, Tau.

^{*} **Corresponding author M. Francesca Cordeiro:** Glaucoma & Retinal Degeneration Research Group, Visual Neurosciences, UCL Institute of Ophthalmology, Bath Street, London, EC1V 9EL, UK; Tel/Fax: (+44) 0207 608 6938; E-mail: m.cordeiro@ucl.ac.uk

[#] These authors contributed equally to the work.

Atta-ur-Rahman (Ed.) All rights reserved-© 2017 Bentham Science Publishers

INTRODUCTION

Alzheimer's disease (AD) is a neurodegenerative disorder characterized by progressive cognitive decline and memory impairment [1]. AD is the most common cause of dementia, and there is currently no known treatment to delay its progression. It has been estimated there is 44 million people affected by dementia globally in 2010 with the cost of over US\$600 billion, and the prevalence of AD worldwide is anticipated to triple by 2050 [2]. The hallmark lesions in AD are amyloid- β (A β) plaques and neurofibrillary tangles (NFTs), composed of tau protein, both causing neuronal degeneration and synaptic failure in the brain [3, 4]. Although the first case of AD was reported a century ago [5], early and accurate diagnosis of the disease still remains a formidable challenge.

Currently, the diagnosis of AD is based on clinical neurological and psychiatric examinations in addition to distinguishing pathological features from the medical and family history [6]. Over the last decade however, neuroimaging of biomarkers has been investigated in multicentre clinical trials worldwide [7, 8], aimed to find the validated tools for the early diagnosis of AD, the tracking of disease progression, and the evaluation of novel therapeutic strategies. The outcomes have been encouraging, and a recent comprehensive review from the Alzheimer's Disease Neuroimaging Initiative (ADNI) [8] has reported that cerebrospinal fluid (CSF) biomarkers, β-amyloid 42 and tau, as well as amyloid positron emission tomography (PET) may reflect the earliest signs in AD and that longitudinal magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) is proved most highly predictive of disease progression and has great potential for improving novel drug development, but none of them is a mature biomarker yet [9 - 11].

The main difficulty in the early detection of AD is possibly the incapacity of direct observation of microscopic and cellular changes in life time in the brain [12]. This however, is easily performed non-invasively through the medium of the eye [13 - 16]. Evolving imaging techniques now enable direct detection of changes in the retina and the optic nerve disc, as well as changes in single retinal neurons and their axons. Mounting evidence suggests that there are visual and ocular manifestations of AD, thus supporting the concept that the eye is indeed a window to the brain [17 - 21]. Tracking of retinal changes in real time may further facilitate improved understanding of the neuropathological mechanisms in AD, which implicates development of diagnostic methodologies in addition to providing parameters in assessment of novel therapeutic strategies.

THE RETINA – AN INTEGRAL PART OF THE BRAIN

The retina is part of the brain in the central nervous system (CNS) Embryologically, both the retina and the brain are derived from the neural tube, a

Guo et al.

precursor of the CNS during development. Anatomically, the retina connects to the brain through a collection of fibres – the optic nerve. The retina converts light into nerve signals to allow us to see the world. The neural retina consists of three layers of nerve-cell bodies which are connected by two layers of plexiform (Fig. 1). The nerve-cells in the most outer layer are the light receptors called photoreceptors (the rods and cones) and that in the most inner layer are the retinal ganglion cells (RGCs). The middle layer of the retina contains three types of nerve cells which are bipolar cells, horizontal cells, and amacrine cells. On the layer of RGCs, their axons run across the surface of the retina, collect in a bundle at the optic disc, and leave the eye to form the optic nerve.



Fig. (1). Retinal structure and light transmission. The retina consists of three layers of nerve-cell bodies and two layers of plexiform, which are responsible for the transmission of light signals from the retina to the brain. The nerve-cells in the most outer layer (outer nuclear layer, ONL) are the light receptors called photoreceptors (PR) and that in the most inner layer (GCL) are the retinal ganglion cells (GC). The middle layer of the retina (inner nuclear layer, INL) contains three types of nerve cells - bipolar cells (BC), horizontal cells (HC), and amacrine cells (AC). On the layer of RGCs, their axons pass across the surface of the retina, collect in a bundle at the optic disc, and leave the eye to form the optic nerve. The light enters the eye from the inner surface of the retina *via* GCL, and passes through all the layers before being detected by PR (light entrance arrow). PR transduces the visual signals to GC *via* the three intermediate neurons and their synapses in the two platforms (IPL and OPL) (signal transmission arrow). RPE: retinal pigmental epithelium.

Light enters the eye and gets onto the inner surface of the retina after passing through the transparent media, *i.e.* the corner, lens and vitreous. Light then further

Pathophysiology of Alzheimer Disease: Current Drug Therapy

Sumeet Gupta^{*} and Vikas Jhawat

Department of Pharmacology, M. M. College of Pharmacy, M. M. University, Mullana, (Ambala), Haryana, India

Abstract: Alzheimer's disease (AD) is a neurodegenerative age related disease in which patients of age 65 or more suffer from memory impairment problems. This disease is related to the nervous system degradation and various pathophysiological conditions have been identified such as formation of β -amyloid and plaques, nerve degeneration, neurotransmitter depletion, accumulation of toxins, oxidative stress and inflammation. Local RAS system in the brain is different from vascular RAS and play an important role in pathophysiology of AD. RAS system modulates inflammatory processes, neurotransmitter activity and amyloid and plaque formation. Angiotensin II, a vasoconstriction peptide of RAS system also induces neuronal cell loss by the process of cell senescence. Genetic polymorphism is also an important factor for pathophysiology and treatment of AD. No treatment is available which can eradicate AD completely; only prophylactic treatments are available which gives only prophylactic relief. Treatments are given which improve the pathophysiological condition of the disease and restore the brain cells activity. Treatment approach includes prevention of β amyloid and plaque formation, restoration of neurotransmitter system, prevention of oxidative stress and inflammation. Other than allopathic medicines, traditional system of medicines also have number of herbs and plants which have the property of learning and memory improvement via different mechanism of actions.

Keywords: Alzheimer's disease, Angiotensin II, β amyloid, Dementia, Herbal treatment, Neurons, Renin Angiotensin System, Treatments.

INTRODUCTION

Older people often forget things like someone's name or misplace belongings. This kind of behavior is normal but forgetting how to get home, getting confused in places a person knows well, difficulty in collecting words and language understanding, asking questions again and again can be signs of a more serious

Atta-ur-Rahman (Ed.) All rights reserved-© 2017 Bentham Science Publishers

^{*} Corresponding author Sumeet Gupta: Department of Pharmacology, M. M. College of Pharmacy, M. M. University, Mullana, (Ambala), Haryana, India; Tel: +91 9872620252, +918059930156, E-mail: sumeetgupta25@gmail.com

Gupta and Jhawat

condition known as dementia. The situation even can lead to irreversible loss of memory. Dementia can be of many types, Alzheimer being one of them is very critical. These above symptoms may be the initiation of Alzheimer's disease (AD). Alzheimer is type of chronic dementia starting with neuron degeneration and cause difficulty in thinking, psychological, behavioral, language and memory related problems. It's a progressive disease and symptoms appear slowly which worsen over time leading to complete memory loss [1]. It is mainly affecting peoples of above 65 years of age but it is not a normal part of aging. According to Alzheimer's association a recent report says about 5.4 million Americans are suffering from this disease out of which 5.2 million patients are of 65 age or older while 200,000 are under age 65 and its incidence increase with age. In America Alzheimer's prevalence in 1 in 9 persons this time and is expected to occurs a new case in every 33 seconds during the mid of this century [2]. World Alzheimer report 2015 shows that 46.8 million people are living with dementia worldwide and this doubled in every 20 years. The major impact of Alzheimer is in low to middle income countries and prevalence of this disease will increase to 68% by 2050 as compared to 58% in 2015 [3]. AD increase will be more in population of low income developing countries like China, India, and in south Asian and western Pacific. India is the most populous country with middle income and 2001 census showed that more than 76 million people of age 60 year and more live in India. The prevalence of AD in India varies from 1.02 to 3.36 per cent in 60-65 vears age group and approximately 1.5 million of Indian population is affected by dementia and this is expected to increase by 300 percent in next four decades [4]. AD is a genetic disorder and genetic mutation of some genes such as amyloid precursor protein, presenilin-1 and presenilin-2 is the cause of the AD in majority of cases. But in most of the cases disease is not clearly transferred as genetic trait from one generation to other and without Mendelian pattern of inheritance.

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY OF ALZHEIMER'S DISEASE

AD is a type of dementia which starts with degradation of neuronal function and even can ultimately result in death. It is age dependent and its prevalence increase with age. Patients of age 65 or more are more prone to neuron related problems leading to AD. Many neurotransmitter systems and pathophysiological processes are identified to play a role in the pathophysiology of AD. Alzheimer occurs when nerve cells died or blocked by some plaques. Brain is made up of interconnected network of millions of neurons which collectively performs the functions of information storage and communication of stored information when needed such as memory, learning, thinking and senses such as hearing, vision, smelling and taste [5]. In AD, blockage in neurons interferes with these functions which may lead to damage to brain at macro and micro level. These factors either directly brain related or indirectly associated factors may interfere with functioning of

Pathophysiology of AD

Frontiers in Clinical Drug Research - Alzheimer Disorders, Vol. 6 89

brain in several ways (Fig. 1). At macro level loss of brain tissue results in change in structure of brain. Hippocampus part of brain cortex is supposed to be involved in memory related processes and loss of cortex neurons causes loss of memory. Memory loss is the sign of initiation of AD. The brain atrophies after loss of neurons are occupied by cerebrospinal fluid. At later stages brain atrophies spread to areas of brain responsible for controlling speech, reasoning, sensory processing and though. Micro level processes may directly harm nerve cells which are responsible for reduction in activity of brain cells. The neuron degenerative processes are listed below [6, 7]:

- Neuronal cells death
- Development of Beta amyloid plaques between nerve cells
- Development of Tangles by protein precipitation inside the neurons



Fig. (1). Pathophysiological process of Alzheimer's disease.

Biological Mass Spectrometry for Diagnosis of Alzheimer's Disease

Hani Nasser Abdelhamid^{2,*} and Hui-Fen Wu^{1,3,4,5,*}

¹ Department of Chemistry and Center for Nanoscience and Nanotechnology, National Sun Yat-Sen University, Kaohsiung, 70, Lien-Hai Road, Kaohsiung, 80424, Taiwan

² Department of Chemistry, Assuit University, Assuit, 71515, Egypt

³ School of Pharmacy, College of Pharmacy, Kaohsiung Medical University, Kaohsiung, 807, Taiwan

⁴ Institue of Medical Science and Technology, National Sun Yat-Sen University, 80424, Taiwan

⁵ Doctoral Degree Program in Marine Biotechnology, National Sun Yat-Sen University and Academia Sinica, Kaohsiung, 80424, Taiwan

Abstract: Mass spectrometry (MS) has advanced the diagnosis of Alzheimer's disease. In the present chapter, applications of mass spectrometry for the diagnosis of Alzheimer's disease were summarized. Mass spectrometry showed new exciting results, offered high sensitivity (in the femtomolar range), showed high selectivity, has better accuracy, offered high throughput, were extremely rapid (the entire process required few minutes) and can be used for quantitative, qualitative and imaging. Recent mass spectrometry techniques based on nanotechnologies replaced some of the classical MS techniques. These new technologies improved the diagnosis of Alzheimer's disease. Mass spectrometry covered wide range of Alzheimer's disease biomarkers such as amyloid β , total tau protein (t-tau), α -synuclein, posttranslational modification (phosphorylated tau protein, protein S-nitrosation (SNO), racemization, methylation, chlorination and others) and metals ions. From the analytical point of view, mass spectrometry offered detection of large number of biomarkers in a single test. Mass spectrometry has significantly advanced Alzheimer's diagnosis of living patient and postmortal. Monitoring Alzheimer's biomarkers using MS is very promising for the diagnosis in early stages of the disease. However, the proper interpretation of MS profiling is critical and requires careful investigations. Furthermore, the identification of the biomarkers using MS profile is affected by many key variables that have to be considered during the analysis.

Atta-ur-Rahman (Ed.) All rights reserved-© 2017 Bentham Science Publishers

^{*} **Corresponding author Hani Nasser Abdelhamid:** Department of Chemistry, Assuit University, Assuit, 71515, Egypt; Tel: 00201279744643; Fax: 0022342708; E-mail: chemist.hani@yahoo.com, hany.abdelhameed@science.au.edu.eg;

Hui-Fen Wu: Department of Chemistry and Center for Nanoscience and Nanotechnology, National Sun Yat-Sen University, Kaohsiung, 70, Lien-Hai Road, Kaohsiung, 80424, Taiwan; Tel: 886752520003955; Fax: 88675253908; E-mail: hwu@faculty.nsysu.edu.tw

Biological Mass Spectrometry Frontiers in Clinical Drug Research - Alzheimer Disorders, Vol. 6 111

Keywords: Alzheimer's disease, Amyloid β , Biomarkers mass spectrometry imaging, Mass spectrometry, Tau protein.

INTRODUCTION

Mass spectrometry (MS) is an attractive and invaluable analytical technique that can be applied for wide analytes [1, 2]. Mass spectrometry (MS) measured the mass to charge ratio (m/z) of ions to identify and quantify the target molecules. It has been applied for many fields such as proteomics [3, 4], metabolomics [5], biology [6], nanotoxicology [7 - 10], and others [11 - 14]. It has advanced the field of molecular medicine and provided revolution in the diseases diagnosis. It has many subclass based on ionization methods. Thus, these techniques provided a practical analyzer for biomarkers, diagnosis and screening of many diseases. Mass spectrometry potentially outperformed the other traditional methods [15 - 17].

Mass spectrometry (MS) was used in diagnosis and screening for Alzheimer's disease [17 - 20], heart disease [21], inherited metabolic diseases [22], newborn-screening programs [23], inborn errors of metabolism [24], heart diseases and clinical proteomics [25], diabetes mellitus [26], and others [27 - 29]. Mass spectrometry is potentially promising in clinical chemistry for identification of disease's biomarkers [30]. Disease biomarkers can be identified by mass spectrometry analysis. The analysis can be in combination with separations techniques and identification is simple by using fingerprinting (Peptide Mass Fingerprinting, PMF) or peptide sequence tag (PST). Database of protein, peptide and other biomolecules biomarker can be used for further identification and confirmation.

Alzheimer's disease is dementia type disease that belongs to neuropathological and neurodegenerative disorder affecting >5% of the population over the age of 65. Alzheimer's disease affects the patient's memory, language, thinking, mood, and behavior (difficulty speaking, confusing about events, and walking). Alzheimer's disease is mainly pathological alterations in the brain of patients due to unknown reasons. It may be due to β -amyloid deposition and hyperphosphorylation of τ protein [31], oxidative stress [32], mitochondrial dysfunction [33], metal dyshomeostasis [34], and lipid dysregulation [35]. The main challenge of this disease is that their symptoms usually develop slowly. The symptoms become worse over the time and are enough to affect the daily tasks. Thus, early diagnosis of the disease is highly demanded. Among the different analytical techniques, mass spectrometry is promising for Alzheimer's disease diagnosis.

Abdelhamid and Wu

This chapter discussed the applications of mass spectrometry for the diagnosis of Alzheimer's disease. The requirements of the diagnosis in the early stages were discussed. The recent achievement of the disease diagnosis using mass spectrometry was reviewed. The examples cited here highlighted the contribution of mass spectrometry for Alzheimer's disease. Mass spectrometry offered several advantages such as fast diagnosis, high sensitivity, high selectivity, accurate and are easy to combine with other separation techniques.

Requirements of Alzheimer's Disease Diagnosis

There are several requirements for diagnosis and screening of Alzheimer's disease. The analysis should be (i) fast to analysis many organs, tissues and body samples in a short time; (ii) offer high accuracy to avoid errors and misconclusion; (iii) have high sensitivity to detect the disease in the early stages; (iv) offer high selectivity toward the target biomarker to give clear indication without any confusion; (v) sample preparation should show minimum loss of the biomarker or cause no artefacts; (vi) provide high resolution in order to analysis complex and real sample such as body fluids, organs or tissues; (vii) sample pretreatment such as preconcentration or separation method should be simple; (viii) the device should be simple to handle, easy to clean and can be recondition fast for next measurement and (ix) interfering species cause no effect on the separation procedure.

Among different analytical techniques, mass spectrometry fulfilled almost all the previous criteria as discussing in this chapter. Thus, it has been applied for many diseases such as Alzheimer's disease. Mass spectrometry consists of five parts as shown in Fig. (1); sample inlet, sample analyzer, mass analyzer that separate ions based on m/z, detector and vacuum system [36 - 41]. The investigated species are ionized in the mass analyzer before the separation based on mass to charge in the analyzer. The ionized species are detected in the detector and a plot of the intensity *versus* the mass to charge ration is obtained. To avoid the lost of the ions charge, vacuum is used.



Fig. (1). Mass spectrometry consists of five parts; sample inlet, ion source, mass analyzer, detector and high vacuum.

CHAPTER 6

The Structure-Activity Relationship of Melanin as a Source of Energy Defines the Role of Glucose to Biomass Supply Only, Implications in the Context of the Failing Brain

Arturo Solís Herrera*

Human Photosynthesis[®] Research Center, Sierra del Laurel, 212, Bosques del Prado Norte, CP 20127, Aguascalientes, México

Abstract: Decreasing brain metabolism is a substantive cause of cognitive abnormalities in Alzheimer's Disease (AD), although this hypo-metabolism is poorly understood, *i.e.* is not known if it is primary or secondary. Neuron ion homeostasis and thereby synapsis are a crucial and highly energy demanding processes, and one of the hallmarks of AD is the loss of synapsis in defined regions of the brain. Until today, alterations in mitochondrial energy supply have been considered the main concern due to in aging rat neuron model, mitochondria are both chronically depolarized and produce more reactive oxygen species with age. Thereby, impoverished mitochondrial function has been actively studied trying to reverse and recover ATP generation. Today, after more than 100 years that Alois Alzheimer described Augusta D., patients still die in the same way, in spite multiple treatments, multiple theories, multiple studies and unfruitful clinical trials.

We believe that the unraveling of the unsuspected intrinsic property of melanin to transform visible and invisible light into chemical energy through the dissociation of the water molecule, as chlorophyll in plants, will mark a before and after, this is: a new frontier, in the understanding and treatment of the nightmare of the XXI century: Alzheimer's Disease.

Keywords: Alzheimer, Energy, Hydrogen, Light, Melanin, Neurodegeneration, Synapsis.

INTRODUCTION

Alzheimer's Disease is characterized by a progressive deterioration of cognitive function with memory loss. The most affected regions of brain in AD include the

Atta-ur-Rahman (Ed.) All rights reserved-© 2017 Bentham Science Publishers

^{*} **Corresponding author Arturo Solís Herrera:** Human Photosynthesis[®] Research Center Sierra del Laurel, 212, Bosques del Prado Norte, CP 20127, Aguascalientes, México; Tel/Fax: +524492517232; E-mail: comagua2000@yahoo.com.

basal forebrain, amygdaloidal body, hippocampus, entorhinal cortex neocortex, and brain stem nuclei [1] (Fig. 1). Most cases are sporadic with no known genetic linkage.



Fig. (1). Arrows show approximate location of the brain tissue that seems especially affected in AD, functional and anatomically.

Despite the many existing histopathological descriptions to date, the cause of Alzheimer's Disease remains in the incognito [2]. The presence of extracellular β -amyloid peptide-containing neuritic plaques, intracellular neurofibrillary tangles (NFT) and the loss of synapses in more or less defined regions of the brain are the hallmarks associated with AD in post-mortem pathology.

Amyloid (starch-like) deposits contain extremely insoluble protein fibrils with similar morphologic features with many, if not all, neurodegenerative disorders [3]. These 80-150 Å length fibrils comprise many different proteins with no obvious sequence similarity. Abnormal protein aggregation characterize

Structure-Activity Relationship Frontiers in Clinical Drug Research - Alzheimer Disorders, Vol. 6 129

Alzheimer's Disease (AD), Parkinson's Disease (PD), Creutzfeld-Jakob Disease (SP, Spongiform Encephalopathy, prion protein deposits), Motor Neuron Diseases, the large group of polyglutamine disorders (tri-nucleotide repeat diseases), including Huntington's Disease, as well as diseases of peripheral tissue like Familial Amyloid Polyneuropathy (FAB) [4], Amyotrophic Lateral Sclerosis, and Tautopathies (Progressive Supranuclear Palsy, Pick's disease, corticobasal degeneration, Familial Frontotemporal Dementia, Parkinson-linked to chromosome 17).

Abnormal protein-protein interactions that result in the formation of intracellular and extracellular aggregates of proteinaceous fibrils are a common neuropathological feature of several neurodegenerative diseases. It has been suggested that abnormal protein-protein interactions and/or the lesions that result from the aggregation of these proteins could play a mechanistic role in the dysfunction and death of neurons in several common (and rare) neurodegenerative diseases.

Lewy bodies (LB) are intracytoplasmic neuronal inclusions observed very frequently in PD, however, they also occur commonly in the brains of patient with clinical and pathological features of AD.

Numerous cortical LBs are found in Dementia with Lewis bodies (DLB), which is similar to AD clinically, but pathologically distinct NFTs and senile plaques (SPs) are rare or completely absent in DLB brains. The precise molecular composition of LBs is unclear, also their role in the degeneration of neurons in PD, and DLB.

Synuclein was identified in rat brain in 1991, subsequently, a fragment of the 140 amino acid long human α -synuclein protein was reported to be present in some amyloid plaques of AD brains. The normal functions of α -synuclein in neurons are poorly understood. The biochemical changes that predispose this normally soluble and randomly structured α -synuclein protein to aggregate or interact aberrantly with itself or other proteins, are unknown.

The widespread presence of α -synuclein in perikaryal LBs, and in dystrophic neuronal processes of brains of patients with PD and DLB, and immunohistochemical studies with antibodies to α -synuclein reveal a much more extensive network of dystrophic processes, suggesting a generalized failure more than a punctual alteration.

The state of the art in relation to pathological findings and the clinical picture in AD, PD and other neuro-degenerations are has become so intricate, that even is has failed to discern if the correlation and co-location of fibrillar proteins and the affected tissue suggests that fibrillization contributes to cell death or if it is an

CHAPTER 7

Neuro-protective Properties of the Fungus *Isaria japonica*: Evidence from a Mouse Model of Agedrelated Degeneration

Koichi Suzuki^{1,*}, Masaaki Tsushima¹, Masanobu Goryo², Tetsuro Shinada³, Yoko Yasuno³, Eiji Nishimura³, Yasuo Terayama⁴, Yuki Mori⁵ and Yoshichika Yoshioka⁵

¹ Organization for Research Promotion, Iwate University, Morioka, Iwate, Japan

² Faculty of Agriculture, Iwate University, Morioka, Iwate, Japan

³ Graduate School of Science, Osaka City University, Osaka, Japan

⁴ Division of Neurology and Gerontology, Department of Internal Medicine, Iwate Medical University, Morioka, Japan

⁵ Biofunctional Imaging Laboratory, Immunology Frontier Research Center, Osaka University, Osaka, Japan

Abstract: Isaria japonica (IJ), is an entomopathogenic fungus that is grown on pupae of the silkworm *Bombyx mori* for its medicinal properties. Its extracts have potential neuro-protective effects. An extract reversed astrogliosis in the CA3 area of the hippocampus of aged mice. The CA3 area is responsible for spatial pattern association and completion, detection of novel situations, and short-term memory. This finding led us to the development of treatments to improve age-related impairment of patients with Alzheimer's disease (AD). Acute and subchronic toxicity and chemical profiling of the extract were conducted for the assessments of medical use. We are now evaluating preclinical trials with AD patients. For the diagnosis of AD, magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) enabled the detection of the previously invisible pathological alterations in a mouse sclerosis model with autoimmune encephalomyelitis. Magnetic resonance spectroscopy (MRS) showed that demyelination regions in some multiple screlosis (MS) patients had increased lactic acid content, suggesting the presence of ischemic events. These results show that products derived from IJ may prevent or reduce the impact of dementia, especially AD, and MRI and MRS could lead widely to the diagnosis of neurological diseases.

Atta-ur-Rahman (Ed.) All rights reserved-© 2017 Bentham Science Publishers

^{*} **Corresponding author Koichi Suzuki:** Biococoon Institute, Inc., Research and Development Center by Collaboration of Morioka City and Iwate University, Morioka 020-8551, Japan; Tel: +81 19 613 5564; Fax: +81 19 613 5570; E-mail: koichi@iwate-u.ac.jp

Isaria japonica

Keywords: Aged brain, Alzheimer's disease, Astrogliosis, Dementia, Entomopathogenic fungus, *Isaria japonica*, Magnetic resonance imaging and magnetic resonance spectroscopy analyses, Multiple sclerosis, Nuclear magnetic resonance spectroscopy analysis.

INTRODUCTION

Under natural conditions, the entomopathogenic fungus *Isaria sinclairii* (= *I. cicadae*) grows on larvae of the cicada, *Meimura opalifera* Walker (*Hemiptera*: Cicadidae). Following the discovery that the culture broth of this fungus had potent immunosuppressive activity [1], a novel synthetic compound (FTY720), with lower toxicity and *in vitro* and *in vivo* immunosuppressive activity, was developed from a fungal metabolite as a lead compound, myriocin (= ISP-1) [2]. This compound, named fingolimod, has opened up a new approach to the treatment of MS [3].

Keeping in mind since the brain disease-treated agents are originated from entomopathogenic fungi, we have learnt that *Ophiocordyceps, Cordyceps* and *Isaria* spp. are traditionally used as to treat cancer, diabetes, cardiovascular diseases, and neural disorders, albeit without good scientific evidence [4 - 8]. The price of natural products and large-scale harvesting of wild fungi pose problems [9, 10]. Biopharmaceuticals derived from those fungi are anticipated, but the effect of 3'-deoxyadenosine, a cordycepin with potential anti-cancer first described in 1950, has not been tested in clinical trials [11].

Many studies have only shown about pharmaceutical effects of medicinal mushroom and fungi on the experimental animals, but medicinal uses for human have made very little progress so far [12]. There were anti-fatigue ability and higher endurance with the supplement of *Ophiocordyceps* (= *Cordyceps*) sinensis [13] and for patients with advanced liver disease and inoperable tumors and treated with 4 natural agents that included *O. sinensis*, the tumor was found to decrease in size, the tumor marker levels decreased substantially, and the patients survived comfortably [14]. Yet, more experiments are needed to demonstrate sufficient data on the efficacy and safety of entomopathogenic fungi to find new sources for drug discovery [12].

Thus, other sources that do not contribute to the loss of natural entomopathogenic fungi or depend on market forces are being investigated. We have grown *I. japonica* (IJ = *Paecilomyces tenuipes*) sourced from a mountain field in Fukusima Prefecture, Japan, on dried silkworm (*Bombyx mori*) pupae left over from silk extraction (Fig. 1) [15], obviating the need for wild harvesting.

Suzuki et al.



Fig. (1). Synnemata and conidia of IJ cultured on dried pupae of Bombx mori.

To evaluate the effects of entomopathogenic fungi, mice aged by treatment with D-Galactose in an aging model for the brain and dosed orally with a hot-water extract of *O. sinensis* showed a significantly reduced decline of spatial learning and memory ability [16]. The hot-water extract of *O. sinensis* also prevented structural changes in the hippocampus of aged mice and shortened the mount latency of castrated rats. These findings indicate that the hot-water of *O. sinensis* has an anti-aging function. Therefore, we tested IJ extract (IJE) for similar effects.

We found that IJE improves nerve function in aging mice and may lead to the development of treatments for Alzheimer's disease (AD) [15]. This comprehensive review discussed neural improvement in the aged brain; nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) analyses of IJE; towards a goal of complementary and alternative medicines /or medicines originated from the entomopathogenic fungus, and the potential use of MRI and MRS for the diagnosis of neurological diseases.

IJE Improves Nerve Function in Aged Mouse Brain

IJE reduced astrogliosis and improved memory deficits are the characteristics of serious disorders of the central nervous system such as AD and MS [17, 18].

1. Neuroprotective Effects of IJE

In many studies, p-Galactose induced [19 - 21] or SAMP8 [22] mice have drawn attention in research on dementia owing to their characteristic learning and memory deficits in old age. p-Galactose treatment induces learning and memory impairment but causes no neuromuscular dysfunction, and it is effective for testing the neuroprotective effects of chemicals. Thus, chronic systemic exposure of mice to p-Galactose is a useful model for analyzing the mechanisms of neurodegeneration and neuroprotective drugs and agents [21]. In accordance with

SUBJECT INDEX

A

Abnormal protein-protein interactions 129 ACE 93, 94, 95, 96 activity 93, 94 enzyme 93, 94, 96 gene 94, 95 gene polymorphism 94, 95 ACE inhibitors 93, 96, 97 penetrating 93, 96 Acetylcholine 21, 33 Acetylcholinesterase 7, 8, 10, 11 inhibitors 1, 11, 20, 23 AchE activity 100, 101 Action 91, 93 neurodegenerative 91 neuro-protective 93 Active compound mechanism 7, 8 Adeno-associated virus (AAV) 27 Adenosine 164, 165 Administration of ciliary neurotrophic factor 26 Allelic variability 61 Alzheimer disease 57, 64, 87, 98, 110, 111, 112 biomarkers 110 diagnosis 111, 112 neuroimaging initiative (ADNI) 57 Amacrine cells (AC) 58, 59, 158 American chemical society (ACS) 113, 117, 119 Amino peptidase A (APA) 94 Amyloid 7, 9, 23, 24, 25, 28, 36, 62, 63, 67, 68, 70, 73, 88, 89, 90, 97, 110, 111, 113, 116.129 β 23, 24, 36, 110, 111, 113, 116 plaques 24, 63, 68, 89, 113, 129 precursor protein (APP) 7, 9, 23, 25, 28, 36, 62, 63, 67, 70, 73, 88, 90, 97 Analysis, brain tissue 113 Analytical techniques 111, 112, 118, 120 Angelica 7 plants 7 species 7 Angiotensin 92, 93, 94, 95, 96, 97, 101

converting enzyme (ACE) 92, 93, 94, 95, 101 receptor blockers (ARB) 93, 96, 97 Anti-amyloid therapy 97 Anti-Aß antibodies 72 Antihypertensive therapy 93 Anti-inflammatory 1, 98, 99 effects 98, 99 prevention 1 Antioxidant 1, 9, 10, 11, 100, 101, 142 activity 9, 10, 100, 101 effect 142 mechanisms 1, 10, 11 Apolipoprotein E4 3, 4, 28 Apoptotic retinal cells 66 APP locus 40 Aqueous humor 133, 135 Asparagine 119 Astrocytes 2, 4, 5, 6, 10, 22, 31, 35, 36, 37, 38, 62, 63, 159, 160 Astrogliosis 155, 159, 180 Asymmetric dimethyl-arginine 119 AT1R receptors 93, 101 Atherosclerosis 4, 6 Atractylenolide 7, 8 Atrial fibrillation 3

B

Basal brain energy metabolism 138 Basal forebrain (BF) 20, 21, 24, 26, 28, 29, 34, 100.128 cholinergic neurons (BFCNs) 20, 24, 26, 29, 34 Beauvericin 165, 166 amount of 165 Biomarkers mass spectrometry imaging 111 Bipolar cells (BC) 58, 59, 167 Block Aβ aggregation 73 Blood brain barrier 1, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 21, 27, 29, 93, 96, 172 damaged 5 catalyze 6 degenerates 1 Blood pressure 3, 92, 97

Atta-ur-Rahman (Ed.) All rights reserved-© 2017 Bentham Science Publishers

Atta-ur-Rahman

high 3, 92 Blood vessels 130, 134, 135, 174, 175 Bone morphogenetic protein (BMP) 26 Brain 3, 7, 26, 34, 37, 89, 90, 91, 93, 97, 98, 101, 113, 116, 117, 131, 137, 140, 142, 149, 159, 160, 177, 178 acetylcholine 7, 90 atrophies 89 cortex 89, 149 dementia 137 -derived neurotrophic factor (BDNF) 26, 34, 37 dysfunctions 160 energy metabolism 142 grooves 131 homeostasis of transition metals 117 homogenates 116 injury 159 neuron cells 91 neurons 91, 97, 98 parenchyma 140 physiology 101 proteome 113 RAS system 93 spectrum 177, 178 trauma 3 Brain metabolites 175, 176 human 176 Brain temperature 178 difference 178 estimation using MRS 178 measurements 178 Brain tissues 31, 90, 91, 92, 128, 147 adjacent 31 invade 90 postmortem 147

С

Calcium 97, 145 channel blockers (CCBs) 97 dynamics 145 Carbon chains 142, 143 Cardiac stem cells (CSCs) 30 Catharanthus roseus 100 Cell(s) 22, 27, 29, 30, 31, 34, 35, 38, 39, 58, 59, 70, 91, 130, 131, 133, 135, 136, 137, 139, 140, 141, 142, 143, 145, 172, 173 amacrine 58, 59 bipolar 58, 59 -derived neurons 22, 35 membrane 139, 140 replacement therapy 27, 29, 30, 31, 34, 35 eukaryotic 58, 59, 70, 91, 130, 131, 133, 137 horizontal 58, 59, 70 neuron 91 transfer 173 transplantation 27, 29, 30 Central nervous system (CNS) 21, 57, 58, 130, 131, 135, 136, 138, 145, 150, 151, 171, 172, 176, 180 Cerebral 20, 21, 29, 68, 114, 178 artery 178 cortex 20, 21, 29, 68, 114 Cerebrospinal fluid 57, 68, 69, 89, 114, 130, 131, 135 Chemical component 162 Chemical energy 130, 131, 133, 134, 135, 136, 138, 139, 141, 142, 143, 144, 145, 146, 147, 149, 150, 151 basic 143 diffuses 151 levels of 136, 141, 142, 144, 145, 146, 147, 150, 151 low levels of 144, 145, 147 Cholesterol 3, 91, 92, 98 high blood 3 Cholinergic activity 101 Cholinergic neurons 20, 21, 22, 24, 26, 27, 28, 29, 30, 31, 33, 34 embryonic 21 generated 34 loss of 24, 29 neurodegenerative 20 Choroidal plexuses 135, 136 Choroid 133, 135, 147, 148 layer 133, 135 plexuses 135, 147, 148 Ciliary 26 neurotrophic factor 26 neurotrophicfactor 26

Subject Index

Clustered regularly interspaced short palindromic repeats (CRISPR) 39 Codonopsis 8 Cognitive 20, 21, 22, 24, 28, 29, 91, 100, 127, 141, 149, 178 deficits 24, 28, 29 function 20, 21, 22, 91, 100, 127, 141, 149, 178 Cognitive impairment 24, 25, 26, 61, 90, 149 severity of 24 Colocalization 71, 72 Components, neuroinflammatory 63 Confocal scanning laser ophthalmoscopy 56, 65,66 Contrast sensitivity, spatial 60 Cordyceps 155 Cortical neurons 36 C reactive protein (CRP) 95 Creatinine 119 Cultured cortical neurons 36 Cultured neurons 10 Curcuma longa 100 Cyclic terpenoids 168, 170 Cycloastragenol 7, 8

D

Damages 65, 132, 134 neurodegenerative 65 tissue 132, 134 DARC imaging 67 Decreasing brain metabolism 127 Deficit, neurological 100 Degenerative neurons 22, 27 Delay disease progression 11 Detection of Apoptotic Retinal Cells 66 Diagnosis of neurological diseases 154, 156 Disease 3, 4, 41, 56, 63, 64, 65, 74, 87, 88, 91, 92, 95, 99, 101, 111, 112, 127, 129, 138, 155, 173, 177 cardiovascular 3, 92, 155 dementia type 111 eye 56, 63, 74 heart 3, 4, 111 neuronal 177 progressive 88 Disorders 30, 31, 34, 35, 38, 72, 180

neurodenerative 72 neurological 30, 31, 34, 35, 38, 180 Distribution, human brain temperature 178 DLB brains 129 DNA, neuronal 5 Donor plasmid 40 Down syndrome-IPSCs (DSIPSCs) 36 Drug discovery 20, 23, 24, 27, 28, 29, 30, 39, 155, 162 Drug(s) 2, 20, 30, 31, 32, 33, 34, 36, 92, 93, 96, 97, 156 antihypertensive 92, 96 anti-inflammatory 2 neuroprotective 156 penetrating 93, 97 screen 36 screening 20, 30, 31, 32, 33, 34 DS-IPSC-derived cortical neurons 36 Duchenne muscular dystrophy (DMD) 39, 40 Dynamical brain temperature change 179 Dysfunction, neuromuscular 156, 157 Dystrophic neuronal processes 129

E

EAE induction 173, 174, 175 Ectopic fat 3, 4, 5 Electrons, molecular hydrogen and high energy 135, 147, 150 Embryoid bodies (EBs) 40 Embryonic 27, 29, 30, 33, 34, 35, 38 basal forebrain 29 stem cells (ESCs) 27, 30, 33, 34, 35, 38 tissue 27, 29 Endogenous APP 40 Endothelial cells 5, 6, 9 Energy, main source of 131, 145 Enhanced depth imaging (EDI) 64 Entomopathogenic fungi 154, 155, 156, 160, 180 Epidermal growth factor (EGF) 26 Episomal vectors 36 Ergosterol peroxide 168 Euphorbia royleana Boiss 100 Evolution of creation 144 Excitotoxicity 20

Atta-ur-Rahman

F

Factors 3, 4, 22, 26, 34, 35, 61, 68, 87, 88, 90, 92, 93, 97, 141, 147 derived neurotrophic 141 discussed 90 line-derived neurotrophic 26 peripheral inflammatory 3 Familial 23, 28, 129 Alzheimer's disease (FAD) 23, 28 Amyloid polyneuropathy 129 Families of neurotrophic factors 26 Fatty acids 140, 162, 163 Fermentation broth 164, 166 Ferulic acid 7 Fibroblasts 30, 32, 35, 38, 39 human 35, 38 Fibrous components of astrocytes 159, 160 Fimbria-fornix transaction 29 Flame atomic absorption spectrometry (FAAS) 118 Flavonoids 9 Food and drug association (FDA) 20 Formation 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 20, 23, 35, 40, 87, 91, 92, 97, 100, 101, 118, 140, 142, 143, 146 amyloid 91, 92, 97 amyloid fibril 7, 8 plaque 9, 10, 87, 91 Functional neurons 31, 35, 37, 38 differentiated 37 generated 38 Functions 71, 72, 88, 156 nerve 156 neuronal 88 visual 71, 72 Fungi, entomopathogenic hypocrealean 162

G

GABA 30, 32, 34 interneurons 34 neurons 30, 32, 34 Galantamine 11, 20, 21, 96, 99 Gallic acid 9 Ganglion cells (GC) 58, 60, 65, 119 GDNF superfamily 26 Generated cortical neurons 36 Generation and distribution of energy 130, 136, 137, 140, 141, 142, 144, 147 Genetic changes 36, 37, 41 Genome editing 31, 39, 40 Glaucoma 56, 64, 65, 66, 67, 68, 69, 70, 71, 72,74 -associated neurodegeneration 70 patients 68, 70 treatment 70, 72 Glaucomatous damage 69 Glutamate 91, 97, 114, 141, 175 levels 141 synthetase 114 Glycyrrhiza glabra 7, 9, 100 Growth factors 22, 26, 32, 33 nerve 26 non-neuronal 26 GSH 176, 177, 178 content 176, 177 signal 177, 178 Guanosine 164

Η

Hanasanagin 169, 170 Hematopoietic stem cells (HSCs) 30 Hematoxylin-eosin stain 160, 161 Hepatic encephalopathy 176 Hepatocyte growth factor (HGF) 26 Herbal treatment 87 Herpes simplex virus (HSV) 27 Hesperidin 7, 8 High 110, 112, 116, 118, 119, 120, 130, 135, 143, 147, 150 energy electrons 130, 135, 143, 147, 150 performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) 116, 119 selectivity 112, 119 sensitivity 110, 112, 118, 120 Hippocampa 8, 69, 159, 1601 neurons 8, 69, 159 structures 160 Histidine 119 Histochemical observation 159 Homeostasis 127, 141, 177 Homocysteine-cysteine disulfide 119

Subject Index

Homozygous 28, 94, 95 Host neurons 22, 34 Human brain 41, 179 development 41 temperature change 179 Human NSCs 32 Hyper-phosphorylated tau protein 23 Hypertension 9, 92, 93, 94

Ι

ICV injection of amyloidβ 9, 10 IgG-saporin 28, 29 Immunoreactivity 62, 63 Impairment of brain energy metabolism 142 Implantation of healthy neuron 99 Induced pluripotent stem cells (IPSCs) 20, 22, 27, 30, 35, 36, 37, 38, 40 transplantation 35 Inflammation 1, 2, 3, 23, 87, 91, 92, 95, 96, 98, 99, 100, 101, 102, 172 neuronal 96 Inflammatory 3, 6, 9 adipokines 3, 6 cells 6, 9 Information 59, 60 object 59 visual 59, 60 Ingredient, active 8, 9 Inhibitors 25, 32, 33, 97 secretase 25 Inhibitory effects 169 In situ-generated neurons 38 Intracellular processes 145, 146 Intraneuronal accumulation 118 Ion mobility separation (IMS) 118 IPSC-derived 22, 36 cholinergic neurons 22 neurons 36 neurons and astrocytes 36 IPSCs, generated 36 Isariotins 167

Κ

Kinase, creatine 114 Knee flexion 179

L

Lactate 140, 176 Late onset Alzheimer's disease (LOAD) 94, 95 Lateral geniculate nucleus (LGN) 59, 60, 70 Layers 58, 59, 60 dorsal 59, 60 inner 58 of nerve-cell bodies 58 of plexiform 58 primary 59 ventral 59 Leukemia inhibitory factor (LIF) 26 Light energy 133, 135, 149 melanin transform 133 Light 58, 59 entrance arrow 58, 59 receptors 58 Liver stem cells (LSCs) 30 Living substances 162, 163, 165, 170 Local RAS system 87, 92, 93, 97 Locus ceruleus 132, 134, 136 Long-term potentiation (LTP) 8, 25 Loss, neuronal cell 87, 93

Μ

Magnetic resonance angiography (MRA) 174 Magnetic resonance 57, 131, 154, 155, 156, 171, 172, 175, 177, 178, 179, 180 imaging (MRI) 57, 131, 154, 155, 156, 171, 172, 180 resonance spectroscopy (MRS) 154, 155, 156, 171, 175, 177, 178, 179, 180 Markers, characteristic neuropathological 62 Mass analyzer 112 Mass spectrometry 110, 111, 112, 113, 114, 116, 118, 119, 120 applications of 110, 112, 113 direct infusion electrospray 118 electrospray ionization 114, 118 Medial ganglionic eminence (MGE) 34 Medicines 9, 162, 180 complementary 162 traditional 9, 162, 180

Atta-ur-Rahman

Melanin 127, 130, 131, 136, 138, 140, 141, 142, 143, 144, 145, 146, 147, 149, 151 Melanosomes 140, 143 Memantine 8, 97, 98, 149 Memory 8, 9, 10, 11, 34, 57, 89, 90, 91, 93, 96, 97, 99, 100, 127, 156, 157 ability 156, 157 deficits 8, 10, 34, 156 functions 90, 91, 96, 97, 100 impairment 57, 93, 99, 100, 156 loss 9, 11, 89, 99, 100, 127 Mesenchymal stem cells (MSCs) 27, 30, 32, 33, 39 Metabolism 70, 111, 133, 139, 140, 142, 178, 180 neuronal 70 normal brain carbohydrates 142 reduced brain glucose 142 MGE cells 34 Microglial cells 2, 5, 91, 98 Microtubule associated protein (MAP) 24, 116 Midbrain 38, 148 dorsal 38 Mild cognitive impairment (MCI) 11, 61, 64, 65 Modeling and therapy 20, 39, 40 Models 9, 10, 27, 28, 29, 30, 33, 62, 67, 68, 127, 149, 156, 157, 180 aging rat neuron 127 Moderate wine consumption 4 Molecular hydrogen 135, 136, 137, 141, 142, 143, 145, 146, 147, 150 Monoclonal antibodies 11, 29, 119 Monocyte chemoattractant protein-1 6 Morris water maze test 157, 158, 159 Motor Neuron Diseases 129 Multiple sclerosis 64, 155 Mutations 25, 28, 36, 37, 39, 40, 41, 63, 88, 90 genetic 39, 88, 90 Mycelia 165 Myokines 4 anti-inflammatory 4

Myricetin 9

Ν

Natural products 155, 162, 165, 166, 167, 169, 180 Neprilysin 20, 33, 68 Nerve 26, 27, 34, 59, 90,91 conduction 90, 96, 101 fibres, optic 59 growth factor (NGF) 26, 27, 34 synapse 90, 91 Nervous 21, 31, 38, 71, 101, 102, 116, 156, 172, 180 system 21, 31, 38, 71, 101, 102, 116, 156, 172, 180 system disorders 31 Network, neuronal 65 Neural 10, 21, 22, 27, 30, 31, 32, 33, 35, 38 development 30, 31 progenitor cells (NPCs) 27, 30, 32 stem cells (NSCs) 10, 21, 22, 27, 30, 31, 32, 33, 35, 38 stem/progenitor cells 31, 32, 38 Neurodegeneration 1, 23, 56, 63, 69, 116, 127, 144, 146, 156 Neurodegenerative 63, 64, 66, 72, 87, 113, 140 age 87 conditions 66, 72 mechanisms 113 process 140 processes 63, 64, 140 Neurodegenerative diseases 20, 21, 24, 27, 29, 30, 31, 38, 39, 94, 101, 129, 144 chronic 144 therapy of 20, 29, 30, 38 Neurodegenerative disorders 35, 57, 95, 111, 128 irreversible 95 Neurofibrillary tangles 2, 20, 21, 23, 24, 57, 71, 113, 116, 128, 138 intracellular 20, 128, 138 Neurogenesis 10, 31 hippocampal 10

Subject Index

Neuroimaging 57, 64 Neuroinflammation 11, 93 induced 11 Neurokine superfamily 26 Neurological 32, 154, 156, 172, 178, 180 diseases 32, 154, 156, 172, 178, 180 impairment 172 Neuromelanin 151 Neuro-melanin substantia nigra 131 Neuromodulators 93, 101 Neuromyelitis optica 64 Neuronal apoptosis 56 Neuronal- astrocytic interactions 142 Neuronal 9, 25, 26, 28, 34, 63, 66, 73, 89, 90, 114, 129, 144, 176 atrophy 26 cells death 89 cytoplasm 114 death 9, 25, 26, 63, 66, 73 glucose transporter 144 inclusions 129 membrane 90 morphology changes 28 precursor cells 34 survival 176 Neuronal cells 9, 91, 93, 98 dead 91, 98 Neuronal damage 9, 142 diffuse 142 Neuronal degeneration 29, 57, 70, 130, 145, 177 cholinergic 29 Neuronal differentiation 31, 32, 34 cholinergic 31, 32, 34 decreased ChAT-positive 34 promoted cholinergic 34 Neuronal loss 20, 21, 24, 28, 62, 70, 137, 172 progressive 24 selective 137 Neurons 1, 21, 25, 26, 27, 29, 30, 31, 35, 36, 37, 38, 40, 41, 58, 59, 60, 88, 89, 90, 93, 101. 129. 141 cells-derived 35 cortex 89 dead 27, 38 developing 26 differentiated 37 dopaminergic 30

human 35, 37, 41 incubation 25 intermediate 58 isolated 35 koniocellular 59, 60 magnocellular 59 mature 26 parvocellular 59, 60 post-mitotic 40 young 141 Neuropathological 57, 63, 73, 111, 129 changes 73 feature, common 129 mechanisms 57 process 63 Neuropathology 23, 70 Neuropathy 41, 66 optic 66 Neuroprotection 32, 72, 154, 156, 180 effects 156 effects, potential 154 effects of IJE 156 therapies 72 Neurosciences 172 Neurosphere assay 31 Neurotoxic 70, 91, 149 effect 91 fragments 70 insults 70 Neurotoxicity 68, 71, 72, 73 chronic optineurin 71 mediated 72 Neurotoxin cleaners 27 Neurotransmitter(s) 20, 27, 87, 88, 90, 91, 93, 94, 96, 97, 101, 175, 176, 180 acetylcholine 20 Ach 96, 97, 101 activity 87 blockage 94 depletion 87 release 90, 101 inhibitory 176 mediated inhibition Ach 93 release 93 systems 87, 88 Neurotrophic factor(s) (NTFs) 20, 21, 22, 24, 26, 27, 31, 32, 169 biosynthesis 169

Atta-ur-Rahman

exogenous 20 Neurotrophic 26, 31 support 26 tyrosine kinase type 31 Neurotrophin 26, 27 factors 27 family 26 superfamily 26 Neutrophils 5 NFTs, insoluble 25 Nicotine 4 NMDA receptors 91, 97, 147 overactivation of 147 Nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) 155, 156, 170, 171 spectroscopy analysis 155 Nuclei 59, 128 brain stem 128 lateral geniculate 59

0

Occipital-pole brain samples 114 Oligodendrocytes 31, 37, 38 Olmesartan 96, 97 Ophiocordyceps 155 Optic 56, 58, 59, 60, 62, 63, 65, 66, 69 disc 58 nerve 58, 59, 62, 63, 65, 69 nerve head (ONH) 56, 65, 66 radiations 59, 60 Osteogenic differentiation 33 Oxidative stress 9, 23, 66, 67, 68, 87, 91, 92, 93, 99, 101, 111, 114, 118, 146

P

Paecilomycine 168 Paeoniflorin 10 Parkinson's disease (PD) 21, 27, 31, 33, 35, 37, 116, 129 Penostatins 169 Peptide sequence tag (PST) 111 Pericytes 6 Perindopril 97 Peripapillary areas 65 Personalized therapy 30, 35, 41 Phenylalanyl-phenylalanine 119 Phosphorylation sites 116 Photoreceptors 58, 59, 71 Pigmented epithelium 71 Plant medicines 1, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11 Plaque 23, 28, 172, 176, 180 deposition 23, 28 regions 172, 176, 180 Plasma ACE level 94 Plasmalogen content 114, 115 Plasticity, neuronal 63 Plexiform 58 Pluripotent stem cells (PSCs) 20, 22, 27, 30, 34, 35, 37, 38 Polymorphism 94, 95 Polysaccharides 10, 170 Positron emission tomography (PET) 41, 57 Primary open-angle glaucoma (POAG) 69 Products 114, 154, 162, 163, 164, 167, 180 fermentation 164, 167 protein oxidation 114 silkworm 163, 164 Proliferative neural progenitors 38 Proteins 4, 6, 9, 23, 25, 26, 27, 39, 62, 73, 88, 90, 91, 95, 97, 111, 113, 114, 116, 118, 128, 129, 133, 135 amyloid precursor 9, 23, 62, 73, 88, 97 associated 39 regulatory element binding 4, 6

R

Radicals, free 2, 91, 98, 100 Radio frequency (RF) 173 RAS 87, 92, 93, 94, 101 components 93, 94, 101 system 87, 92, 93, 94, 101 Reactive oxygen species (ROS) 10, 91, 93, 127, 141, 144, 176 Receptors 4, 10, 21, 26, 37, 61, 90, 91 muscarinic 61, 90 neurotrophin 21 nicotinic 90 Reduced neuroretinal rim volume 62 Reduction, largest neuronal 62 Regions 20, 21, 31, 93, 113, 114, 127, 128, 172, 178

Subject Index

defined 127, 128 disseminated high intensity 172 neurogenic 31 Renin 92, 93, 94 angiotensin system (RAS) 87, 92, 93, 94 Reprogramming 31, 38, 39 Restoration of neuron function 101 Retinal 56, 57, 58, 59, 60, 62, 63, 65, 66, 67, 69, 70, 71, 72, 73 abnormalities 62 changes 57, 62, 63 diseases 69 ganglion cells (RGCs) 58, 59, 60, 62, 63, 65, 66, 67, 70 imaging 56, 73 nerve fibre layer (RNFL) 56, 62, 63, 65 neuro-degeneration 71 neurons, single 57 Retinoic acid (RA) 22, 33, 34 RGC apoptosis 62, 66, 67, 69, 70, 72 RGC layer 58, 67, 69 Ribosome-inactivating protein (RIP) 29 Rivastigmine 20, 21, 96 RNFL thickness 62, 64, 68, 73

S

Salidroside 8, 10 Saponins 7, 8, 9, 10, 11 akebia 9 Schisandrin 8, 10, 11 Schisantherin 10, 11 Senile plaques (SP) 20, 21, 23, 70, 129 Septohippocampal pathway 29 Signal transmission arrow 58, 59 Silkworm powder 163, 164 Sinensis extract 159 SNO proteins 116 Somatic cells 21, 35, 36, 38, 39, 40 Species, reactive oxygen 10, 91, 93, 127, 141, 176 Spheres 130, 147, 148, 151 growing 130, 147, 148, 151 increased melanin energy 151 Spirotenuipesine 168, 169, 170 Stages brain atrophies 89

Stem cell(s) 20, 21, 22, 27, 29, 30, 31, 32, 34, 38, 39, 40 multipotent 30 pluripotent 30, 34, 38 transplantations 30 research 31 Strategies, therapeutic 20, 22, 27, 57, 138 Structures of cyclic terpenoids 168, 170 Subgranular zone 30, 31 substantia nigra 90, 132, 134, 136, 148 Subventricular zone 30, 31 Synapses 25, 58, 127, 140, 141 Synaptic 23, 25, 28, 35, 141 dysfunction 25, 28 functions 23, 35 plasticity 141

Т

Tangles, neurobrillary 113 Target 157, 159 quadrant 157, 159 Tau 2, 7, 10, 23, 24, 25, 28, 56, 57, 69, 70, 73, 111, 116, 120, 138 neuropathy 70 pathology 23, 24, 25, 28, 56, 73 phosphorylation 2, 7, 10, 138 protein 57, 69, 70, 111, 116, 120 Telomerase activator 7, 8 Tenuipes 162, 163, 164, 165, 167, 168, 169, 170 strains 165, 167 Thickness, macular 65 Thrombosis 3 Tissues 4, 5, 27, 30, 38, 112, 118, 129, 133, 134, 135, 136, 137, 142, 147, 151 damaged neuron 147 muscle 4, 5 pigmented 133 Toxicity 2, 8, 32, 154, 160, 161, 162 subchronic 154, 160, 161 Traditional Plant Medicines 6, 7 Transcription activator-like effector nucleases (TALENs) 39 Transcriptional factors 31, 35, 37 combinations of 35 Transfection of neurotrophin-3 32

Transplantation 27, 29, 31, 32, 33, 34, 35 of cholinergic neurons 27 Transplanted cells 25, 27 Triglycerides 3 Tropicamide 61

U

Vitamin 96, 98, 175, 176 W

abnormality 60

pathway 59, 60

signals 58, 59

cortex 59, 60, 70

cortex primary 59, 60, 70

Umbelliferone 6-carboxylic acid 7

V

Vascular 32, 66 changes 66 endothelial growth factor (VEGF) 32 Visceral fat 3, 4 Visfatin 1, 3, 6 Visual 58, 59, 60, 70 Water molecule 127, 130, 131, 133, 134, 135, 136, 138, 143, 145, 146, 149, 150, 151 dissociation 131, 134, 146

Z

Zinc finger nucleases (ZFNs) 39

Atta-ur-Rahman





PROF. DR. ATTA-UR-RAHMAN, FRS

Atta-ur-Rahman, Ph.D. in organic chemistry from Cambridge University (1968), has 1020 international publications in several fields of organic chemistry including 727 research publications, 37 international patents, 68 chapters in books and 188 books published largely by major U.S. and European presses. He is the Editor-in-Chief of eight European Chemistry journals. He is Editor of the world's leading encyclopedic series of volumes on natural products "Studies in Natural Product Chemistry" 50 volumes of which have been published under his Editorship by Elsevier during the last two decades.

Prof. Rahman won the UNESCO Science Prize (1999) and was elected as Fellow of the prestigious Royal Society (London) in July 2006. He has been conferred honorary doctorate degrees by many universities including (Sc.D.) by the Cambridge University (UK) (1987). He was elected Honorary Life Fellow of Kings College, Cambridge University, UK, conferred the TWAS (Italy) Prize and the Austrian government has honoured him with its high civil award ("Grosse Goldene Ehrenzeischen am Bande") (2007). He is Foreign Fellow of Chinese and Korean Academy of Sciences, Foreign Fellow of the Chinese Chemical Society and former President of Pakistan Academy of Sciences.