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Normal ageing of the brain: histological and biological aspects

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Abstract

All the hallmarks of ageing are observed in the brain, and its cells, especially neurons, are characterized by their remarkably long lifetime. Like any organ or system, the brain is exposed to ageing processes which affect molecules, cells, blood vessels, gross morphology and, uniquely for this organ, cognition. The preponderant cerebral structures are characterized by the cellular processes of neurons and glial cells and while the quantity of cerebral interstitial fluid is limited, it is now recognized as playing a crucial role in maintaining cerebral homeostasis. Most of our current knowledge of the ageing brain derives from studies of neurodegenerative disorders. It is interesting to note that common features of these disorders, like Tau, phosphoTau and amyloid peptide accumulation, can begin relatively early in life as a result of physiological ageing and are present in subclinical cases while also being used as early-stage markers of neurodegenerative diseases in progression.

In this article, we review tissue and cellular modifications in the ageing brain. Commonly described macroscopic, microscopic and vascular changes that in the ageing brain are contrasted with those seen in neurodegenerative contexts. We also review the molecular changes that occur with age in the brain, such as modifications in gene expression, insulin/insulin-like growth factor 1 signalling dysfunction, post-translational protein modifications, mitochondrial dysfunction, autophagy and calcium conductance changes.

1. Introduction

The histological architecture of the brain is remarkably complex. Grey and white brain matter are both characterised by the processes of tightly-interspersed neurons and glial cells. Despite its small volume, the interstitial fluid is now known to play a crucial role in maintaining the homeostasis of such a complex cellular system. Its composition is highly regulated by the blood-brain barrier. It also plays an important role in protecting the brain against neurotoxic compounds and in clearing metabolic and peptidic waste, such as the amyloid peptide, from the brain to perivascular spaces. Thus, it is sometimes considered to be an equivalent of the lymphatic system in the central nervous system, and has come to be known as the glymphatic system [1].

Brain cells, and especially neurons, are remarkable for their long lifetime. Once mature, most of our neurons last our entire lifetime and show a high potential for plasticity in order to continuously modulate and adapt their complex synaptic network to changing conditions.

Like any organ or system, the brain is exposed to the ageing process which affects molecules, cells, blood vessels, gross morphology. Unlike other organs, however, the ageing process in the brain can significantly affect cognition. Changes in the brain with age have been studied since the 19th century – the exact nature and precise mechanisms of these changes nevertheless remain, for the most part, poorly defined. Furthermore, it remains difficult to define the boundary between "normal" changes due to ageing and the early stages of common, neurodegenerative diseases such as Alzheimer's disease (AD) seen in elderly people.

In this article, we review the macroscopic, structural and molecular changes that occur with ageing, the main neuropathological lesions commonly found in normal ageing brains, and discuss how ageing affects neuroplasticity.

2. Tissue and cell modifications in the ageing brain

2.1. Macroscopic brain changes with age

The volume and the weight of the human brain exhibits significant interindividual variability. There also exists a cohort bias since the mean weight of the human brain has significantly increased over the 20th century (about 1g/y) [2]. Early post-mortem studies, later confirmed by neuroimaging longitudinal studies, have shown that brain weight loss is very subtle between 20 and 60 years of age (about 0.1% per year) [3]. The progressive atrophy may be more rapid thereafter, particularly over the age of 70 [4], [5], with an annual rate of weight loss between 2 and 5%. The reasons for this progressive loss of brain weight with age are not clear. The most commonly reported explanations are the decline in volume of pyramidal neurons (rather than their number or density) and a decrease in their dendritic and axonal arborizations [6]. This decrease is quite diffuse in white matter, but the shrinkage of grey matter is less uniform with the frontoparietal cortex more affected than the temporo-occipital [7]. As a consequence of this reduced brain volume, the ventricular system expands and the subarachnoid space enlarges (Fig. 1A and B).

2.2. Microscopic brain changes with age

The issue of neuronal loss has long been a matter of controversy. Initial studies, from the 1950s, overestimated the loss of neurons with age because their density was only evaluated in two-dimensions – the cerebral cortex and hippocampus were thought to be particularly affected. However, different conclusions were arrived at with the use of modern, stereologically-based quantification in three dimensions [8]–[11]. Neuronal loss with ageing is now considered as either undetectable or not exceeding 10% over our life span [12], [13]. In some parts of the brain such as the locus coeruleus (LC), however, up to 25% of LC neurons are lost in the elderly (between the fourth and ninth decade) [14]. Grey matter volume also significantly reduces over time, with the most severe losses in the insula, superior parietal gyri, central sulci, and cingulate sulci while amygdala, hippocampi, and entorhinal cortex are relatively well preserved [15], [16]. However, grey matter shrinkage does not necessarily result from neurodegeneration: it is rather suggested that it is mainly caused by extensive dendritic regression [17]. A decline in white matter volume and integrity has also been reported [18]–[20], notably in the prefrontal cortex [21]. Therefore, normal cellular brain ageing is characterized more by subtle changes than a large-scale loss of cells. In the hippocampus, dendritic extents may increase in the dentate gyrus [22] while remaining stable in the 1 and 3 areas of the cornu ammonis (CA) and in the subiculum [23]-[25]. Similarly, no change in spines' density with age has been reported in the human hippocampus [26], [27]. On the other hand, frontal cortex and cingulate pyramidal neurons show a decrease in dendritic branching in rats [28], [29] which has also been found in the human medial prefrontal cortex [30]. In areas 10 and 18 of the human cortex, a 46% reduction in spine number and density has been reported in persons over 50 years [31]. In macaques, spine density in the neocortex decreased significantly with ageing [32], [33] and was associated with a loss of synapses [34]. Overall dendritic spine changes with age have been well described elsewhere [34], [35]. These results reflect well the differences in grey matter shrinkage found between the various brain regions, as mentioned above. Myelinated nerve fibres from the white matter are also affected by normal ageing. While a part of them are lost, another part loses its myelin sheath which is incompletely remyelinated by oligodendrocytes, the number of which increases with ageing, negatively affecting the conduction velocity along nerve fibres [36], [37]. Thus, there is a constitutive myelination activity, potentially explaining the increase in the expression of genes involved in myelination function during ageing [9], [38], [39]. Paradoxically, the sheath thickness of some nerve fibres is continuously increasing because of this sustained activity [36], [40]. As these changes seem to occur quite early in life, some authors suggest that myelin is the most susceptible part of the brain to ageing [41]. On the other hand, glial cells' activity and number both increase with age [42]-[45] and most upregulated genes in the brain are of glial origin [46]. In the main, microglia activation is recognized as sustaining a pro-inflammatory environment [47], [48] which could increase neurons' susceptibility to neurodegeneration [49] and loss of synapses [50], [51]. Finally, neurogenesis is also impaired with ageing. While most neurons in the adult brain are produced during embryogenesis or very early in life, adult neurogenesis has been identified in the hippocampus, the sub-ventricular zone and in the olfactory bulb of the mammalian brain [52], [53]. Although data are still lacking, neurogenesis seems to decline with advancing age, with an already significant decline by middle age, particularly in the hippocampus [52]–[55]. However, the significance of this decline is not fully understood yet [52].

2.3. AD-related changes

Neurofibrillary tangles (NFT) and senile plaques (SP), the two main neuropathological lesions associated with the definitive diagnosis of AD, are frequently observed in the brains of elderly individuals with normal cognitive functions. This very common occurrence has led to the currently unresolved question as to what extent the presence of non-pathological, AD-related lesions should be considered as normal ageing (i.e. preclinical AD).

NFT are characterized by the intracellular accumulation of abnormally-hyperphosphorylated Tau proteins into filamentous inclusions known as paired helicoidal filaments [56]. Many studies have confirmed the consistency of their localization: the entorhinal cortex and the CA1 field of the hippocampus are the first brain regions where NFT occur, while only sparse lesions are present in the adjacent temporal neocortex or frontal neocortex (Figure 1C). NFT predominate in layer II, and to a lesser extent III and V, of the entorhinal cortex. This typical distribution of NFT is now widely recognized as the initial stages I and II (of VI) in the hierarchical and progressive spreading of neurofibrillary pathology described 30 years ago by Braak and Braak [57]. More recent neuropathological studies, focusing on subcortical and brainstem nuclei, have even showed that the first NFT may appear in teenagers in the locus coeruleus. Some authors, mostly from the US, consider the early and mid-stages of this neurofibrillary pathology to be a specific pathological process, independent of AD pathology, and potentially associated with cognitive decline. They coined the term "PART" (Primary Age-Related Tauopathy) to describe this neuropathological phenotype [58], but the concept has not attained a widespread, international consensus and remains controversial [59].

SP result from the extracellular aggregation of A β peptides [60]. Several A β peptides, of between 38 and 42 amino acids, derive from a larger transmembrane protein APP (amyloid precursor protein) after a complex cleavage process involving three main secretases (α , β , and γ). The microscopic aspect of amyloid deposits in brain tissue is heterogeneous. Classically, neuropathologists distinguish between diffuse amyloid deposits, characterized by their ill limited extent and their lack of affinity for "amyloid" specific stains such as Congo-Red, and dense amyloid deposits that are usually well defined and comprise a dense amyloid core surrounded by a corona of dystrophic neurites. Amyloid deposits associated with ageing are mostly diffuse (Fig. 1D). Their topographical extent usually includes the orbitofrontal, occipital and precunei cortex, the hippocampus, and the basal ganglia. In other words, such amyloid deposits correspond to Thal phases 1 to 3 (of 5) [61].

Figure 2 summarises the estimated prevalence of amyloid deposits, hippocampal neurofibrillary pathology (Braak stages I and II), and extensive neocortical neurofibrillary pathology (Braak V and VI) according to the age of the subjects [62]. These data come from large autopsy cohorts, especially from Braak and Braak (more than 2660 brains grouped into age classes) [63]. Despite the fact that such post-mortem, epidemiological studies lack clinical information and are potentially biased owing to the possibility of unrecorded, underlying pathologies which can affect brain ageing, it is interesting to notice that the median age for the presence of hippocampal NFT is around 45 years of age. Almost all subjects aged over 80 years present hippocampal neurofibrillary pathology. The median age for cortical amyloid pathology is about 75, but the prevalence curve of amyloid deposits does not seem to reach 100%, even in centenarians. The prevalence of high Braak stages for neurofibrillary pathology is close to that of AD in elderly patients. Such data are important to keep in mind when interpreting biological and imaging biomarkers of AD in cohorts of elderly people.

2.4. Other neurodegenerative lesions in the ageing brain

Various other pathologies have been described in the ageing brain, among them argyrophilic grains (Fig. 1E), characterized by the synaptic accumulation of Tau protein isoforms with four microtubule-bonding domains, mostly in the pyramidal layer of the hippocampus. Grains are known to be age-related [64], [65] and were consistently observed in the brains of a group of 29 centenarians [66]. TDP-43 pathology has also been observed in almost 20% of aged controls [67]; once again, the hippocampus was the most vulnerable structure for TDP-43 accumulation.

2.5. Cerebrovascular changes

The microvascular system of the brain consists of pre-capillaries and capillaries, devoid of smooth muscle cells, forming a three-dimensional network within the brain parenchyma. This network is perfused by penetrating arterioles which represent the termini of brain vasculature. The absence of functional shunts between the penetrating arteries explains the vulnerability of the brain to ischaemia in case of thrombosis or global hypoperfusion. Normal ageing affects both the macro- and microvascular systems of the brain, resulting in altered cerebral blood flow in elderly people [68]. The arterioles supplying the deep white matter have the longest course through the brain and they often become tortuous with age: Hassler found that they were sparse in subjects under the age of 60, but common after the age of 70 [69]. Akima et al.

found them to appear in the 5th decade and to occur in all specimens above 80 years old [70]. Capillary loss in normal ageing was evaluated as between 15 and 50%, according to the cortical or subcortical region [71], [72]. The high frequency of leukoaraisosis in elderly people may be explained by these changes in brain vasculature.

3. Molecular ageing of the brain

3.1. Modifications in gene expression

One of the main hallmarks of ageing is the modification of genes' expression [73] and an increasing number of genes becomes upregulated or downregulated as we grow older. These changes in expression are mostly explained by epigenetic alterations which include several kinds of DNA and histone modifications that alter transcription [74]. The importance of these modifications led to the publication of a recent multi-omic atlas of the brain's frontal cortex during ageing providing data on DNA mutations, changes in RNA and miRNA expression, and in DNA methylation and Histone 3 Lysine 9 acetylation [75]. With ageing, DNA becomes globally hypomethylated but the hypermethylation of 353 CpG sites is one of the best markers of ageing and has even been proposed as an "epigenetic clock" [76]-[78]. While there is no significant change in the expression of most genes in the brain, more than 150 do undergo a significant modification of their expression with age with a high degree of conservation between cohorts [9], [79]. Contrary to most other tissues where genes' expression is mainly upregulated with ageing, changes in gene expression in the human brain are predominantly shifts towards downregulation [9]. Genes which are downregulated in the brain are associated with the functions of mitochondria, neural plasticity/synapses, inhibitory interneurons and the ubiquitin-proteasome system (UPS). On the contrary, genes associated with stress response, immune/inflammatory response, metal ion homeostasis, myelin-related functions and glia tend to be upregulated [9], [38]. These trends are well conserved between rhesus macaques and humans but discrepancies exist in rodents where most changes are characterized by an upregulation of genes' expression, notably of those participating in neuronal functions [9], [80]. Accordingly, a recent study identified that genes involved in immunity, and more precisely in the complement system, in synaptic transmission and in myelination were very good biomarkers of brain ageing. Genes involved in synaptic transmission were negatively correlated with the genes related to immunity while genes involved in myelination showed a positive correlation with immunity-related genes (Table 1) [39]. It is possible that the increased immune reactions with ageing are in fact drivers of the downregulation of the expression of genes involved in synaptic transmission [81]-[83]. This involvement of immunity in brain ageing is perfectly in line with the concept of inflammaging, defined as a chronic, sterile and low-grade inflammation which actively contributes to ageing and is considered a very good predictor of successful ageing [84]-[86].

Because of modulations in gene expression with ageing, a number of mRNAs and proteins essential to brain function are affected. The mRNA levels of brain-derived neutrophic factor (BDNF) and its receptor tyrosine kinase B (trkB), key modulators of brain plasticity, seem to be affected by ageing in specific areas of the brain. While *BDNF* levels remained stable over time in the hippocampus, the expression of its receptor was significantly decreased with age [87]. More changes were found in the prefrontal cortex, notably in the Brodmann area 9, as both *BDNF* and *trkB* showed a decreased expression with ageing [46], [87], [88]. Interestingly,

 β -amyloid peptides, which accumulate even during normal ageing [89], [90], were shown to impair BDNF signalling [91]. As a consequence of decreased BDNF or impaired signalling, the expression of many essential genes is compromised, mainly in gamma aminobutyric acid (GABA) neurons [92], which results notably in alterations in both inhibitory and excitatory synapses [93]. Other neuropeptides such as somatostatin, neuropeptide Y or cortistatin, which can be produced in subtypes of GABA interneurons and target dendrites of pyramidal dendrites, are also significantly reduced with ageing [79], [93]. Post-synaptic GABA receptors were also decreased in older subjects, further impairing the functioning of GABA neurons [93]. Such variations in expression or functionality are also found in other receptors such as nicotinic and muscarinic acetylcholine receptors [94], [95], metabotropic glutamate receptors [96], [97], N-methyl-D-aspartate (NMDA) receptors [98]–[100], serotonin receptors [101] or dopamine receptors [102].

3.2. Insulin/insulin-like growth factor 1 signalling

Insulin/insulin-like growth factor 1 (IGF-1) signalling (IIS) has also been implicated in brain ageing. This pathway is involved in protein synthesis, proliferation and cell survival, notably acting through the rapamycin (mTOR) pathway, and is highly conserved through evolution [103]–[105]. Its inhibition, through various means, importantly leads to increased lifespan in multiple species [106]–[110]. Interestingly, and paradoxically, the IIS pathway has been shown to be neuroprotective and IGF-1 acts as a neurotrophic agent [111], [112] but its repression can reduce the consequences of AD in murine models [111], [113]. It has been suggested that IGF-1 plays an essential role in cell proliferation during recovery after acute events such as strokes, while its inhibition of stress-resistance or autophagy becomes detrimental in situations like ageing where cellular debris and damage may accumulate [114]. Interestingly, growth hormone (GH), produced by the pituitary, is a major regulator of IGF-1 secretion and limitation of pituitary development significantly increased lifespan in murine models [115]–[117]. This suggests an interplay between these components.

3.3. Post-translational protein modifications

In addition to the changes described above, major protein modifications occur in the brain during normal ageing and participate in the accumulation of cellular debris. The ubiquitination of proteins is a process required for degradation of damaged, misfolded proteins by the UPS; however undegraded, ubiquitinated proteins are found to accumulate in the brain with ageing [118]–[120], suggesting an impairment of the UPS and resulting in the accumulation of these detrimental proteins [121]-[123]. In addition, non-enzymatic modifications such as oxidation, notably produced when proteins react with reactive oxygen species (ROS), are also increased during normal brain ageing [124], [125]. Iron accumulation with ageing is also an important contributor to oxidation [31], [126]. This leads to a change in proteins' function and modified proteins can accumulate with other intracellular molecular debris to form lipofuscin, which accumulates in brains over time [127], [128]. The number of corpora amylacea (spherical polyglucosan bodies which may contain cell debris) also increases with age [31], [129]. Products of glycation, another non-enzymatic reaction between nucleophiles and carbonyl compounds and favoured by oxidation, also accumulate in ageing brains [130]. These modifications all produce significant changes in proteins' structure, leading to their degradation or, on the contrary, to their aggregation. Cross-links can occur, forming uncontrolled complex structures with important consequences on protein function and leading, for example, to increased vascular stiffness [131]–[134]. In addition, advanced glycation end-products (AGEs) can interact with the receptor for AGEs (RAGE), whose expression in the brain is increased with age, producing a vicious circle of signalling and activation that contributes to chronic, low-grade inflammation [135], [136]. Amyloidosis, an aggregation of insoluble and misfolded fibrils more widely studied in the context of AD which can be promoted by glycation [137], is also increased in brains of elderly people without cognitive impairment [138], [139]. Overall, such loss of proteostasis can notably promote the unfolded protein response, lead to apoptosis or induce senescence, all of which are particularly detrimental in a tissue in which cell renewal is limited [140]–[142].

3.4. Mitochondrial dysfunction

Together with muscles, the brain has a higher metabolic activity than all other organs, hence the brain may be more susceptible to mitochondrial dysfunction, a key hallmark of ageing [73], [143]. With time, mitochondria accumulate mutations which are associated with homoplasmy and, as mentioned earlier, a diminished expression of mitochondrial proteins. As a consequence of such modifications, electron leakage occurs throughout the respiratory chain producing ROS and, in turn, increasing cell and mitochondrial damage [144]-[148]. Disruption of the electron transport chain also results in mitochondria with depolarized membranes [149]. Of note, since brain metabolism requires high oxygen consumption, the probability of producing ROS may be further increased. It is also important to note that while large amounts of ROS are detrimental, lower levels can stimulate a pro-survival response [73], [150], [151]. Decline in mitochondrial function provokes a decline in nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide (NAD⁺) levels, notably affecting the activity the NAD⁺-dependent sirtuins [152], [153]. This dysfunction may also lead to increased inflammation, as well as altered apoptosis and disrupted crosstalk among organelles [145], [154], [155]. The importance of mitochondrial dysfunction in ageing is underlined by an innovative study showing that mitochondrial removal from senescent cells diminished pro-ageing features of senescence [156]. More specific to the brain, projection neurons rely upon energy production by mitochondria to support ion fluxes and axonal transport, making them particularly vulnerable to mitochondrial dysfunction [157], [158]. With decreased energy production by mitochondria, a reduction in metabolic activities has been reported in the subiculum and dentate gyrus [159], a finding which was confirmed in another study in rats where the activities of both mitochondrial complexes and nitric oxide synthase were significantly reduced in the hippocampus and, to a lesser extent, in the cortex [160].

3.5. Autophagy

Autophagy is a process which permits cells to produce nutrients for themselves when extracellular nutrient concentrations are low, or under conditions of stress, and involves degrading cell components (mainly damaged cell debris) in autolysosomes formed by the fusion of an autophagosome with a lysosome. The mTOR pathway is an inhibitor of autophagy and, as mentioned earlier, is stimulated by IGF-1. Thus, sustained IGF-1 and mTOR signalling may prevent the autophagic recycling of damaged proteins and facilitate their aggregation and subsequent detrimental consequences. A similar process, mitophagy, exists for the degradation of damaged mitochondria. Impairment of both of these processes as

a result of ageing accelerates the deleterious effects of cytotoxic cellular and organellederived components. Hence, suppression of autophagy has been identified as a cause of neurodegeneration [161]–[163] while its enhancement ameliorates cognitive functions [164]– [166]. In murine hippocampus, autophagic activity is decreased with ageing but this observation was not explained by an overactivated mTOR signalling, therefore other parameters must be responsible for this decline [167]. The decrease in *BECN1* expression in older human brains, a key regulator of autophagy, [168] suggests that autophagy may also decline with age in humans, but as extensively reviewed elsewhere, there is currently insufficient data on autophagy evolution during normal human brain ageing to definitively conclude on this matter [169].

3.6. Calcium conductance

Correct Ca^{2+} conductance and homeostasis are essential for signal propagation in the brain and their alteration might result in a deterioration of inter-neuronal communication. These changes in Ca^{2+} signalling in the ageing brain have been extensively reviewed elsewhere [170]–[172]. Mainly, Ca^{2+} conductance is increased in aged neurons as shown in the hippocampus where there is an increase in L-type, voltage-dependent Ca^{2+} channels' density and activity in pyramidal cells [173], [174]. The release of Ca^{2+} from intracellular organelles is also altered by ageing as the endoplasmic reticulum calcium releasing channels, the inositol trisphosphate receptor (IP₃R) and ryanodine receptor (RyR) all show an increased activity over time, partly mediated by ROS oxidation [175], [176]. On the other hand, Ca^{2+} buffering is impaired as the activities of both the sarco/endoplasmic reticulum Ca^{2+} -ATPase (SERCA) and the plasma membrane Ca^{2+} ATPase (PMCA) pumps are decreased, potentially because of a reduction in available ATP and oxidation as consequences of mitochondrial dysfunction [176]–[178]. Diminished mitochondrial Ca^{2+} buffering capability has also been reported [179]. In addition, calcium-binding proteins such as calbindin 1 are overwhelmingly downregulated with age in the prefrontal cortex [46], [180], further impairing Ca^{2+} signalling.

4. Conclusion

All the hallmarks of ageing are observable in the ageing brain and its structures [143]. Most of the current knowledge of the ageing brain derives from studies of neurodegenerative disorders. It is interesting to recognize that changes like Tau, phosphoTau and amyloid peptide accumulation can begin in early life as a result of physiological ageing and are present in subclinical cases while also being used as early-stage markers of neurodegenerative diseases in progression. It will be important to increase research of normal ageing to better understand pathological ageing of the brain. Identification of new biomarkers, and progress in the field of functional neuroimaging, will help to better distinguish normal from pathological brain ageing and contribute to diagnosing the latter as early as possible.

5. Disclosure of interest

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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Figure 1: Illustration of common histological changes during normal brain ageing

Legend:

A: Gross morphology of a formalin-fixed post mortem brain hemisphere from a 85-yo man without any cognitive decline. Note the very subtle and diffuse cortical atrophy and the preservation of most associative cortical areas. B: Coronal view from the same brain specimen. Note the absence of significant atrophy of the hippocampus. C: Sparse neurofibrillary tangles (arrows) in the hippocampus of the same patient (Tau protein immunohistochemistry). D: Diffuse cortical amyloid deposits in the same case (arrow). Note the absence of senile plaque (β -amyloid immunohistochemistry). D: Isolated argyrophilic grains (arrows) in the hippocampus of a 86-yo cognitively normal woman (Tau protein immunohistochemistry).

Figure 2: estimated prevalence of amyloid deposits and neurofibrillary pathology according to the age of the subjects



Gene category	Expression
Mitochondrial function	
Neural plasticity/Synapses	\mathbf{X}
Inhibitory interneurons	
Ubiquitin-proteasome system	
Stress response	1
Immune/inflammatory response	1
Metal ion homeostasis	1
Myelin-related functions	1
Glia	1

Table 1. Gene expression changes over time in the ageing human brain