



Procyanidins and Alzheimer's Disease

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Abstract

Procyanidins, the oligomeric compounds formed from catechin and epicatechin molecules, are potentially effective targets as nutraceuticals or pharmaceuticals in the prevention and treatment of Alzheimer's disease (AD). Natural procyanidins can attenuate AD pathological features, extracellular amyloid deposits, and neurofibrillary tangles via reducing A β accumulation and tau pathology. The enhancement of cognition as well as modulation of synaptic plasticity by these compounds also participated in the alleviation of AD. Notably, procyanidins and some of their metabolites have been observed to upregulate SIRT1 (silent information regulator 1) which is essential for normal cognitive and synaptic plasticity, and stimulate CREB (cAMP response element binding) which acts as a molecular switch from short- to long-term memory. Based on the interplay of CREB-SIRT1 axis, it is therefore conceivable that the regulation of procyanidins by the means of CREB-SIRT1 could promote the cognitive function and is thus conducive for AD pathogenesis. This review focuses on the role of procyanidins, the main group of flavonoids, on AD and the potential mechanism involved CREB-SIRT1 axis.

Keywords Procyanidins · SIRT1 · CREB · Alzheimer's disease · Synaptic plasticity

Introduction

Alzheimer's disease (AD), the most common form of dementia, is a neurodegenerative disease which clinically characterizes progressive memory impairment, cognitive dysfunction, personality change, and speech problem [1, 2]. Current estimates present that till now, there are approximately 5.7 million people diagnosed with AD in America. Moreover, the costs of care for these individuals in 2018 were about \$277 billion [3].

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Unfortunately, none of the pharmacologic treatments available for AD delay or reverse the course of neurodegenerative dysfunction [4–6], so preventions become more practical to solve the public health concern.

Over the last decade, a variety of potential preventive or therapeutic phytochemicals which can relieve clinical symptoms of AD including impairment of cognitive function have been under investigated [7]. Among them, more and more attentions have been put into the study of procyanidins for health promotion especially neuroprotection during aging [8–11]. Procyanidins, composed of flavan-3-ols monomeric subunits [e.g., (–)-epicatechin or (+)-catechin] [12], are among the most abundant polyphenol present in human diets. In the USA, the dietary intake of procyanidins was estimated to be about 100 mg/day [13], and procyanidins can be found in a variety of foods such as fruits, vegetables, and beverages.

Many studies have reported that procyanidins could ameliorate brain neuropathology of AD through blocking the generation of toxic peptides [14] which include amyloid precursor protein (APP) processing, amyloid- β protein (A β) accumulation [15], and tauopathy [16, 17]. Furthermore, procyanidins can attenuate oxidative stress and prevent lipid peroxidation to exert beneficial effects in brain cells. Additionally, the activation of protein kinases and regulation of gene transcription also contribute to the amelioration effect of procyanidins on AD. Notably, some investigations have

illustrated that procyanidins metabolites such as 3'-O-methyl-epicatechin-5-O- β -glucuronide (3'-O-Me-EC-Gluc) can cross the blood-brain barrier and regulate signal transduction pathways, thereby affecting memory and cognition [18]. Evidence has increasingly shown that procyanidins may play a useful role in the prevention and treatment of AD. However, the underlying molecular mechanism by which procyanidins improve cognitive function reducing the risk of AD has not been adequate attention. The review aims to discuss the molecular mechanisms regarding the preventive and therapeutic role of procyanidins on AD and multiple studies suggest that it would be necessary to better understand how procyanidins influences brain functions.

Procyanidins and AD

AD is a progressive neurodegenerative disorder characterized by memory decline and cognitive impairment. The pathological hallmarks of AD are the aggregation of A β and accumulation of hyperphosphorylated tau proteins known as neurofibrillary tangles. Furthermore, these phenomena are associated with oxidative stress since the brain is particularly vulnerable to reactive oxygen species (ROS) [19]. Procyanidins which possess remarkable free radical eliminating capability have received considerable attention in recent years. Studies have shown that procyanidins can enforce antioxidant capacity and antagonize OS-mediated damage by scavenging ROS, preventing lipid peroxidation and mediating multiple signaling pathways in OS-related diseases such as AD [20]. Procyanidins can disrupt lipid peroxidation chain reactions to protect neurons by activating Akt phosphorylation [21]. Procyanidins, meanwhile, can ameliorate OS through the activation of Nrf2, NF- κ B, and MAPK signaling cascades to prevent and treat various OS-related diseases [9, 22, 23].

It should be noted, however, that increasing evidence suggests that some other mechanisms may involve the modulation of brain functions such as the alteration of several specific brain proteins expression or modification, not just antioxidant enzyme system. Especially in the nervous system, procyanidins and their brain-targeted metabolite are more likely to play a protective role by regulating multiple signaling pathways which involve in synaptic plasticity, cell proliferation, inflammation, and energy metabolism, eventually attenuating cognitive decline, preventing neurodegeneration, and maintaining mitochondrial homeostasis. Therefore, as effective antioxidants, the regulatory effect of procyanidins on antioxidant enzyme system may play a major role in the antioxidant properties. Simultaneously, the role of procyanidins, as a modifier, in learning and memory involving in the regulation of several important brain protein in memory-related brain regions also requires attentions.

Accordingly, considerable epidemiological, preclinical, and clinical studies have been conducted to explore the beneficial effects of procyanidins on AD-related pathology. For instance, in a randomized control trial with procyanidins-rich grape juice consumption for 12 weeks, Krikorian et al. found a significant enhancement of cognitive function relative to placebo-controlled elderly [24]. Likewise, Lampert et al. reported improved spatial memory and driving performance following 12 weeks of concord grape juice supplementation in healthy, middle-aged working mothers [25]. It is worth mentioning that a somewhat similar observation by Haskell-Ramsay et al. reported the benefits after purple grape juice on improvement of cognition and mood in healthy young adults [26]. Combined with another current research on the impact of grape consumption in elderly participants with mild cognitive impairment (MCI) on brain metabolism and cognition [27], these findings suggested that cognitive improvement following procyanidins-rich diet supplementation exists in diverse populations. Thus, although procyanidins may not reverse or cure AD, their neuroprotective capabilities could reduce the risk of AD and ameliorate relevant clinical symptom as well as pathological features, consequently preventing and slowing down its progress.

In addition to those human intervention trials with procyanidins-rich foods, animal and cell experiments have also been performed in order to provide further mechanism information about the neuroprotective potential of procyanidins. In this regard, previous studies demonstrated that procyanidins could effectively improve cognitive function in AD mice [18], suppress A β aggregation [15], and inhibit tau protein excessive phosphorylation and accumulation [16, 28]. Moreover, our previous studies have confirmed that procyanidins can exert neuroprotective effects in cognitively impaired aged rats by attenuating oxidative stress [29], inhibiting the lipid peroxidation and accumulation of age-related oxidative DNA damage in brain [29], enhancing the cholinergic neuron function [30] and changing the nitric oxide system [31]. In agreement with these results, several studies also reported that after receiving the procyanidins extracts, there was an increase in activity of antioxidant enzymes in animal brain [32], reduction of amyloid protein content, and attenuation of cognitive deterioration [33, 34]. Furthermore, a supplement study in conjunction with exercise by Satpati Abhijit and coworkers confirmed that grape seed proanthocyanidin extract (GSPE) can improve learning and memory [35]. Supplementation with a mixed blueberry and grape extracts in aged beagle dogs has been suggested to provide protection against memory decline and cognitive impairment [36]. Some works have been published reporting that procyanidins can improve memory and cognition, causing neuroprotection in different animals and humans experimental models. In spite of this, there is a lack of information about the exact mechanism by which procyanidins improve cognitive function reducing the risk of AD.

Role of CREB-SIRT1 Axis in the Onset and Progression of AD

AD is a devastating neurodegenerative disease featured by progressive neuronal damage leading to impairments of memory and cognitive function. The essential pathological events in AD are the extracellular accumulation of amyloid- β ($A\beta$)-containing neuritic plaques and the intraneuronal aggregation of tau-containing neurofibrillary tangles (NFTs) [37]. It is widely assumed that toxic effects of $A\beta$ and tau in synaptic function are important factors for AD, and ultimately leading to cognitive deficits and memory impairments in patients [38]. On the other hand, tau is believed to disturb spatial cognition by involving in grid cell dysfunction and neuronal loss [39]. Relatedly, abundant studies indicated that the burden of NFTs is associated with the severity of cognitive impairments [40]. Additionally, other brain alterations such as inflammation, oxidative stress, and mitochondria disorder may occur in the process of AD [1, 41, 42]. Sirtuin 1 (SIRT1) protein is localized both in the cytoplasm and nucleus of mammalian as a kind of anti-aging protein. At present, SIRT1 exhibits its scientific value in the field of life science. CREB protein is a cAMP response element-binding protein, which is an important transcription regulator in nerve cells. More importantly, recent numerous mechanism studies indicate that the activation of CREB and SIRT1 may play focal role in the progression of AD because of their regulation action on multiple aspects including cortical and hippocampal neuron function and survival, energy metabolism, stress response, and apoptosis. Nevertheless, whether a SIRT1-CREB signaling axis is involved in AD-associated pathology and, by extension, in the memory and cognition impairments is still unknown. In the section below, we will review the relevant evidence and discuss the role of SIRT1 and CREB in the progression of AD.

Role of CREB Signaling in AD

The clinical manifestation of AD is a progressive memory loss progressing to severe cognitive impairment. Generally, compared with NFTs and $A\beta$, synaptic deficits are most closely correlated with the cognitive impairments in AD brains [43]. Importantly, in the field of memory study, scientists found that conversion of short-term memory (STM) to long-term memory (LTM) which is a process known as memory consolidation requires new gene transcription and protein synthesis in order to stimulate structural alteration of the synapses [44–46]. This alteration is indispensable for synaptic plasticity, including long-term potentiation (LTP), which has been considered to be a molecular correlate of memory [47]. In AD animal models, synaptic deficits such as LTP impairment and gradual cognitive decline can be obviously observed [18, 48]. Therefore, to shed light on the molecular mechanism contributing to synaptic deficits as well as the transcriptional

mechanism needed for synaptic plasticity and memory will provide new ideas to treat cognitive and memory decline in the prevention and control of AD.

As a cellular transcription factor, the importance of CREB in the modulation of gene expression in response to synaptic plasticity, memory consolidation, and neurogenesis have been widely reported [49–52]. Activation of CREB, in other words, remains important in the “molecular switch” from STM to LTM. Moreover, the trigger of CREB-dependent transcription of various genes including brain-derived neurotrophic factor (BDNF), c-fos, and Nr4a2 requires CREB phosphorylation at Ser 133 [50, 51]. There are multiple intracellular signals (Ca^{2+} and cAMP) leading to CREB phosphorylation, such as cAMP-dependent pathway (e.g., protein kinase A, PKA) and cAMP pathway and Ca^{2+} /CaM-dependent protein kinase (e.g., CaMKII and CaMKIV) [53, 54]. In fact, it has been discovered that CREB may be involved in synaptic dysfunction caused by $A\beta$ and tau pathologies. A recent study has demonstrated that tau accumulation disrupts synaptic function and memory via calcineurin-mediated inactivation of nuclear CaMKIV/CREB signaling [55]. Simultaneously, the impact of $A\beta$ on synapse loss, synaptic plasticity, and memory also involve in the CREB signaling pathway [56, 57]. Previous study in human neuroblastoma cells showed that the regulation of Beta-site APP-cleaving enzyme 1 (BACE1) expression and $A\beta$ production depend on PKA/CREB pathway [58]. Direct in vivo evidence supported that CREB overexpression can ameliorate age-related cognitive impairments [52]. Therefore, CREB has been identified to be essential in memory formation and consolidation.

Additionally, another mechanism of memory deficits associated with the CREB-regulated transcriptional coactivators (CRTC) has attracted a lot of attentions. CRTCs, also called transducers of regulated CREB activity (TORCs) can mediate CREB transcription in response to cAMP and Ca^{2+} signals [59–61]. In mammals, there are three forms of the CRTC family (CRTC1, CRTC2, and CRTC3). Intriguingly, while CRTC2 and CRTC3 are found in most tissues, CRTC1 is mainly expressed in neurons [62]. Emerging evidence suggests that involvement of CRTC1 is also essential for synaptic plasticity. More specifically, alterations in CRTC1 activity or expression will be accompanied with alterations in memory and cognition [61, 63]. On the other hand, $A\beta$ can disrupt the CREB-dependent gene transcription required for memory through the CRTC1 in brain [59]. Thus, altered CRTC1 activity may participate in synaptic dysfunction and memory impairments during AD. In fact, besides CRTC, other CREB transcriptional cofactors such as CBP and p300 may be more informative since these factors also participate in various physiological events particularly in memory formation and consolidation. Severe deficits in memory caused by the reduction in CBP activity are related with CREB-mediated gene expression in CBP+/- mice [45]. In some circumstances,

CBP/p300 is considered to recruit RNA polymerase II complexes and acetylate nucleosomal histones, subsequently promoting CREB target gene expression [64, 65]. To sum up, these results reveal the key role of CREB signaling in learning and memory. Besides its role in the modulation of memory, CREB target genes expression also plays critical roles in various biological effects, including neuroprotection, neuronal plasticity, proliferation, and neuronal survival [66, 67]. However, it is not surprising that CREB involves in the mechanism underlying AD memory dysfunction and may serve as a potential target for preventing AD.

Role of SIRT1 Signaling in AD

Sirtuin 1 (SIRT1), a ubiquitous and prominent histone deacetylase, has attracted a lot of attention because of its functions in metabolism, genomic stability, stress resistance, and neurogenesis [68–70]. SIRT1 is indispensable for normal cognitive function (learning and memory) and synaptic plasticity [71–73]. In the SIRT1 KO mice, impairment of cognitive function and defect in LTP can be observed clearly [71, 74]. Nevertheless, upregulating SIRT1 expression presents the neuroprotective effects and the cognitive enhancement in the mouse hippocampus [75]. Similarly, Carl et al. [76] found that in the parietal cortex of AD patients, the concentration of SIRT1 was decreased significantly compared with controls, and the levels of SIRT1 including mRNA and its translated protein correlated inversely with the accumulation of tau and the duration of AD symptoms. It is proposed that SIRT1 may evolve as a predictive biomarker of AD in early stages because a decline in serum concentration of SIRT1 in healthy people with time and a further decline in MCI and AD patients have been detected [77]. Moreover, accumulating evidence supports the mechanisms whereby SIRT1 has an impact on AD-related pathologies, developing from the direct effects on A β and tau to the indirect effects. The data obtained with the AD mice and human has demonstrated that SIRT1 loss is closely correlated with A β deposition and tau accumulation [76, 78]. On one hand, SIRT1 can decrease A β levels via activating α -secretase ADAM10 [79, 80] which can facilitate APP cleavage [81–83], and reduce tau-induced memory deficits by deacetylating tau and thereby enhancing tau turnover and decreasing tau levels [84, 85]. On the other hand, the role of SIRT1 as a deacetylase is related to a variety of signaling and metabolic proteins participated in modulating neuroinflammation, neuronal apoptosis, or mitochondria metabolism in AD-related cellular models and aged mice [70, 86–89]. Collectively, SIRT1 could potentially modify the initiation and progression of AD by affecting multiple aspects of cortical and hippocampal neuron functions, thus becoming a potent therapeutic target for the prevention and treatment of AD [90, 91].

Recently, the direct or indirect connection between CREB and SIRT1 during age-related cognitive dysfunction such as AD has started to be focused on and gradually become a hotspot of research. A study on goldfish (*Carassius auratus*) reported that in telencephalon, suppression of SIRT1 can inhibit the activation of ERK1/2 and CREB signaling pathway, and reduce downstream BDNF expression, further repressing synaptic transmission and memory formations [92]. The observation suggests the effect of SIRT1 on CREB phosphorylation. However, Jeong et al. [93] confirmed that SIRT1 could also deacetylate CRTC1 (TORC1) to promote its interaction with CREB, modulating BDNF gene transcription in mice with Huntington's disease. Furthermore, in the model rats of subchronic aluminum (Al) exposure, investigators observed that Al may reduce the concentrations of intracellular Ca⁺ and cAMP, weaken CRTC1/TORC1 nuclear translocation, decline the levels of TORC1, SIRT1, and pCREB, and finally, suppress the transcription of the BDNF gene, ultimately leading to LTM impairment [94]. Therefore, it is likely that SIRT1 is involved in CREB-regulated transcription required for synaptic plasticity and memory in AD. Surprisingly, recent studies have reported that SIRT1 can inhibit the expression of miR-134, consequently regulating CREB expression, which inevitably affects neurodevelopmental process and synaptic plasticity [74, 95]. Nevertheless, Fusco and his coworkers found that the expression of CREB is not effected by SIRT1, while CREB-dependent genes are markedly downregulated in the SIRT1 KO mouse brain [96]. The discrepancy in regulation of CREB expression could be due to different experimental model mice. In brains of mutant mice lacking SIRT1 catalytic activity (SIRT1 Δ), unlike SIRT1 KO mice, an inactive form of SIRT1 may be expressed potentially acting against other molecules capable of regulating CREB expression in a possible dominant-negative manner [96]. The above results indicate that impact of SIRT1 on activity and content of CREB may exist simultaneously in the brains.

Interestingly, since CREB also serves as a substrate of SIRT1, the activation of CREB is likely to modify the beneficial effect of SIRT1 on AD. For instance, the detrimental effect of SIRT1 knockdown on cell proliferation and survival are associated with altered CREB phosphorylation in a SH-SY5Y cell culture model [97]. Nevertheless, in neural stem cells (NSCs) and the mouse hippocampus, a glucose-sensing circuitry is involved in a CREB-SIRT1 signaling axis that modulates Hes-1 (hairly and enhancer of split 1) expression and neurogenesis. Most importantly, phosphorylated and acetylated CREB could displace SIRT1 at the Hes-1 CRE region, and stimulate transcription, thus enhancing Hes-1 expression and cell proliferation [98]. Additionally, several studies performed in non-neuron cells or tissue such as liver [99, 100], adipose tissue [101], and anterior pituitary cells [102] also reveal that SIRT1 can suppress the phosphorylation of CREB through deacetylation, causing inactivation of CREB

and thus altering the pathways downstream of related target gene. Hence, it is suggested that SIRT1 may regulate CREB activity via deacetylation in different tissues or organs.

Conversely, it has been demonstrated that CREB, as a transcription factor, participates in SIRT1 transcription. A recent study reports that NAM exerts protective actions against plamilate-induced endoplasmic reticulum stress in hepatocytes by enhancing SIRT1 [103, 104]. Further mechanism research discovered that when the cAMP/PKA/CREB pathway was blocked, NAM-induced SIRT1 upregulation disappeared in HepG2 cell and primary mouse hepatocytes [103]. These results in vitro and in vivo demonstrated that activation of the cAMP/PKA/CREB signaling cascade plays a critical role in NAM-induced SIRT1 upregulation. Chalkiadaki et al. [105] found in the liver the transcriptional complex CREB-CRTC2 can stimulate the transcription of SIRT1 gene contributing to the procedure of energy homeostasis. Consistently, Fusco and colleagues reported the important evidence about transcriptional regulation of SIRT1 by CREB in BCKO (Brain CREB KO) mice brains and neuronal cells, suggesting the transcription of SIRT1 is mediated by CREB directly which subsequently affect neuronal plasticity and memory [96]. SIRT1, therefore, as a direct transcriptional target of CREB may partly explain the related pathogenesis of AD including energy metabolism and cognition dysfunction.

To date, increasing evidence indicates that the dysregulation of miRNA may contribute to synaptic defects, then further affecting memory and cognition in AD [106]. Of these, miR-132, as a potential therapeutic target for AD, is closely associated with the regulation of CREB and SIRT1 [107–109]. A recent study on triple transgenic AD (3xTg-AD) mice indicated that the deficiency of miR-132 can affect its target genes, such as SIRT1, leading to abnormal A β deposition and downstream signaling events misregulation [108]. On the contrary, the expression of miR-132 can be prompted by the activation of CREB, which regulates the downstream signaling pathway of CREB involving synaptic function in AD [110]. Together, there may be a tight relationship between CREB and SIRT1 in the light of miR-132-regulated molecular network.

Taken together, CREB and SIRT1 play an essential role in the regulation of wide range neurophysiological processes such as synaptic plasticity, energy metabolism, and memory formation in the nervous system. Indeed, as previously mentioned, a class of functional interplay demonstrated that SIRT1 modulates transcriptional ability of CREB; in turn, CREB modulates the transcription of SIRT1. At least to some extent, CREB and SIRT1 are reciprocally dependent, and work together in various signaling pathways. Although molecular details on the interaction between CREB and SIRT1 require further investigation, there is compelling evidence for an implication of the unique molecular network, CREB-SIRT1 axis in the onset, and progression of AD.

SIRT1-CREB Axis-Mediated Protective Effect of Procyanidins against AD

Previous studies warrant consideration of procyanidins as a promising strategy for the treatment of AD. Several works have been published showing that procyanidins can attenuate related pathophysiological states such as oxidative stress, inflammation, neuron apoptosis, and even the aggregation of A β peptide and tau proteins, but less is known about the molecular mechanism by which procyanidins affects these biological processes. Moreover, it is important to note that several procyanidins metabolites can reach and accumulate in the brain and should be concerned equally during exploring effective and safe preventive methods for AD. For example, 3'-O-Me-EC-Gluc (3'-O-methyl-epicatechin-5-O-glucuronide), a bioactive procyanidins metabolite, can be identified in the AD mice brain and regulate signal transduction pathways [18]. Such results of various dietary intervention experiments in human, rodents, and mammal models are pertinent with respect to neuroprotective effects due to the strong relationship between procyanidins and cognitive function (Table 1). The modification of SIRT1 and CREB are suggested to play a pivotal role in AD and procyanidins can exert widely biological effects in SIRT1/CREB-dependent manner, thus these results provide impetus to discuss the underlying mechanisms of action responsible for the beneficial effects against AD-related pathology.

Regulation of CREB by Procyanidins

Nowadays, the role of procyanidins and their metabolites in the AD has become the region of interest when identifying the protective mechanisms. Procyanidins, which are flavonoids with an oligomeric structure, their metabolites can cross the blood-brain barrier and be uptaken and detected in brain. In one significant study for example, 3'-O-Me-EC-Gluc, one of the procyanidins metabolites detected in brain, modulates CREB activation through mediation of the ERK 42/44 pathway, which means it has some beneficial impact on the synaptic function and LTP [18]. (-)-Epicatechin, a component of procyanidins, and one of its metabolites (3'-O-methyl(-)-epicatechin) have been indicated to regulate ERK phosphorylation and increase CREB-mediated gene expression, and thus exert potential effects on brain functions [111]. Our previous study has also demonstrated that procyanidins reverses the declines of ERK 42/44 and CaMKIV phosphorylation levels and consequently leads to enhancement of CREB-dependent transcription in aged impaired animals [112]. Based on these findings, it is evident that procyanidins might act as neuroprotective agent against cognitive and memory impairment via phosphorylation of CREB, then resulting in enhanced transcription of various genes which are strongly implicated in learning and memory.

Table 1 Main studies examining the association between procyanidins and AD-related pathology

| Products | Subject description | Intervention | Results | References |
|--|--|---|--|------------|
| Apple procyanidins | PC-12 cells | 24 h | To suppress A β aggregation, dissociate aggregated A β 42, and prevent A β 42-induced cytotoxicity | [15] |
| Lotus seedpod procyanidins | Male ICR mice exposed to ELF-EMF | 15 days | To scavenge oxygen-free radicals, improve learning and memory deficits, and reverse ELF-EMF-induced reduction of CREB phosphorylation | [9] |
| Grape seed polyphenolic extract | Hemizygous male transgenic JNPL3 mice | 6 months | To attenuate the neuromuscular deficiency and reduce tau neuropathology by inhibiting tau hyperphosphorylation and conformational modification | [16] |
| Procyanidins extracted from the lotus seedpod | 4 and 18 months Sprague–Dawley rats | 8 weeks | To ameliorate memory impairment, reverse the age-related antioxidant deficit, reduce lipid peroxidation, and restore acetylcholine (ACh) contents and acetylcholinesterase (AChE) activities | [29, 30] |
| Procyanidins extracted from the lotus seedpod | 4 and 18 months Sprague–Dawley rats | 7 weeks | To improve cognitive function, decrease inducible nitric oxide synthase (iNOS) activities, and improve neuronal nitric oxide synthase (nNOS) phosphorylation status | [31] |
| Grape-derived polyphenolics | 6 and 10 months Tg2576 AD model mice | 5 months | To attenuate cognitive deterioration and inhibit amyloid- β protein aggregation | [33] |
| Lotus seedpod proanthocyanidins | Aging mice induced by D-galactose | 6 weeks | To attenuate cognitive damage, reduce the A β 1–42 level, and improve nitrosative-oxidative stress | [34] |
| Grape seed proanthocyanidin | 4 and 18 months Wistar rats | 14 weeks | To promote spatial learning and working memory, to balance the redox state of the brain, modulate the activation of CREB, and increase BDNF expression | [35] |
| Polyphenol-rich extract from grape and blueberry | Aged beagle dogs | 75 days | To improve cognitive function, ameliorate memory impairments, and elevate the active of antioxidant enzymes | [36] |
| Grape seed-derived polyphenols | PHF material isolated from autopsy AD brains | | To alter the sedimentation properties and facilitate ultrastructural disintegration of filaments | [17] |
| Concord grape juice | 12 subjects with MCI (8 males; mean age 78.2 y) | 12 weeks | Significantly effect for word recall item acquisition (CVLT), non-significant trends towards improved delayed recall and spatial memory | [24] |
| Concord grape juice | 25 health mothers; 40–50 y | 12 weeks | Significant improvements in immediate spatial memory and driving performance | [25] |
| Purple grape juice | 20 health young adults (7 males; mean age 21.05 y) | Baseline and following a 20-min absorption period | Significantly improved reaction time and increased calm ratings, no significant effects on memory measures | [26] |
| Freeze-dried grape powder | 10 subjects with MCI (5 males; mean age 72.2 y) | 6 months | No significant differences in scores on the neuropsychological battery, stable brain metabolism | [27] |

ELF-EMF, extremely low frequency electromagnetic field; MCI, mild cognitive impairment; y, year old; CVLT, the California Verbal Learning Test

Regulation of SIRT1 by Procyanidins

Importantly, as well as effects on the activation of CREB, procyanidins can also regulate SIRT1 participating in diverse physiological processes. Meanwhile, mounting evidence supports that the activation of SIRT1 by procyanidins is a promising therapeutic approach to alleviate oxidative and inflammatory stress, apoptosis [113, 114], hypertension [115], obesity [116], and nonalcoholic fatty liver disease [117]. In work by Ibars and coworkers, procyanidins could reduce hyperphagia and improve leptin resistance partially via preventing inflammation and increasing SIRT1 expression [118]. Also, procyanidins remarkably inhibited apoptosis and ameliorated mitochondrial dysfunction via restoring the activation of the AMPK-SIRT1-PGC1 α axis in rat mesangial cells or

podocytes cells [113, 114]. It has been also demonstrated that flavanols, which are a subunits of procyanidins, present anti-hypertensive properties by decreasing blood pressure in a SIRT1-dependent manner [119]. A relevant review has identified that dietary strawberry improves metabolism and mitochondrial function at least in part by upregulating SIRT1-mediating signaling pathway [120]. However, to the best of our knowledge, whether the neuroprotective effects of procyanidins on AD pathology are related with the regulation of SIRT1 may not been well illustrated. Of note, flavonoids such as apigenin, catechin, and epicatechin were considered to inhibit NAD⁺ consuming enzymes such as cyclic ADP-ribose (cADP) synthases (CD38), and poly (ADP-ribose) polymerases (PARPs) [121, 122], reduce the NAD⁺ consumption and upregulate the activity or expression of NAD⁺-dependent

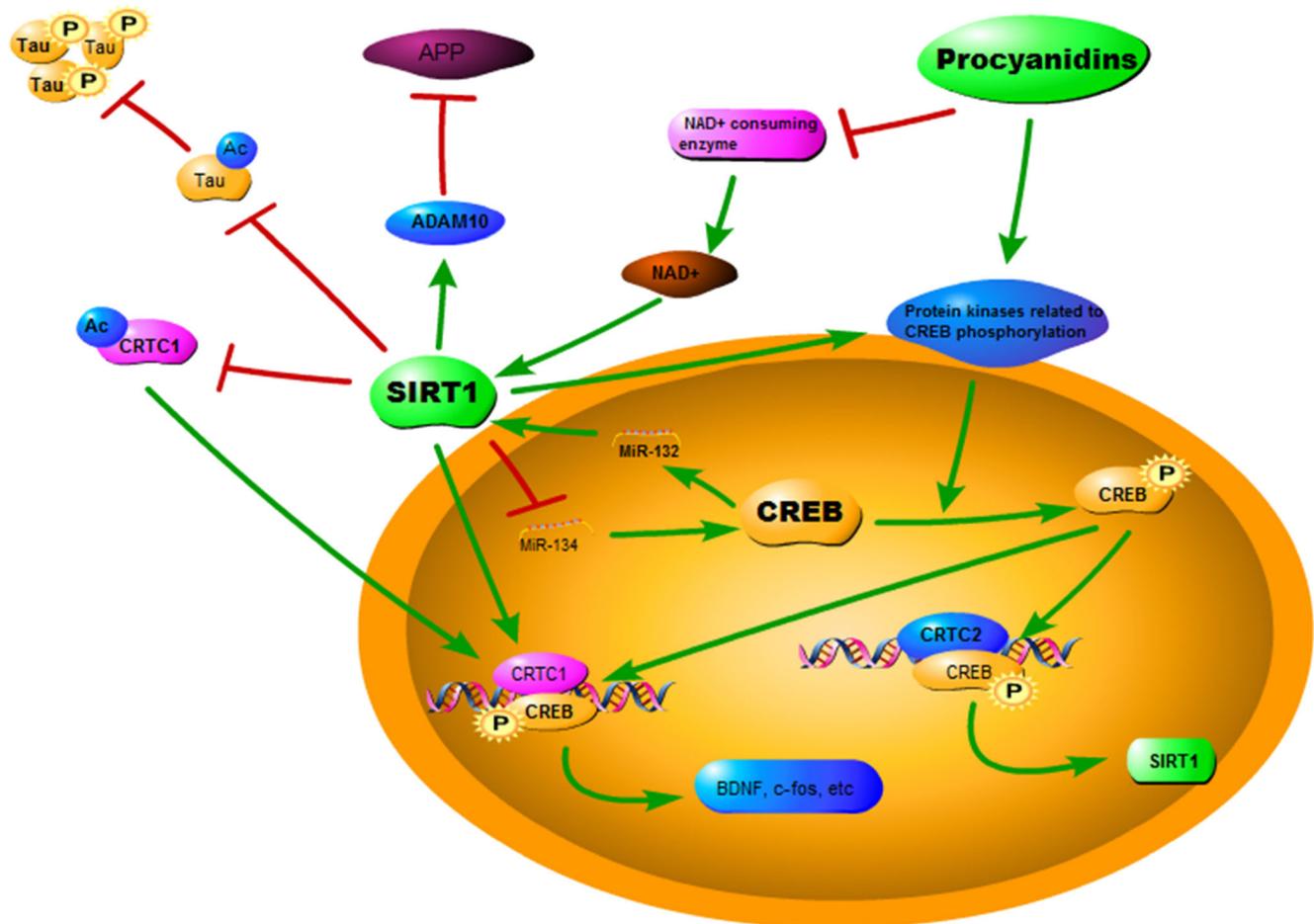


Fig. 1 The possible mechanism of procyanidins improving cognition by interfering with CREB-SIRT1 axis. Treated to procyanidins might inhibit NAD⁺ consuming enzyme to reduce the NAD⁺ consumption and enhance SIRT1 activity. The enhancement of SIRT1 can activate α -secretase ADAM10 to facilitate APP cleavage, leading to A β levels decline. Meantime, SIRT1 might inhibit tau acetylation to reduce tauopathies. Moreover, SIRT1 can deacetylate and activate CRTC1 by promoting its nuclear translocation and interaction with CREB, regulating BDNF gene transcription. In addition, SIRT1 can prevent miR-134-induced downregulation, thereby regulating the expression of CREB and BDNF. On the contrary, the expression of miR-132 can be prompted by the activation of CREB, then affecting its target genes, such as SIRT1.

sirtuins including particularly SIRT1 and SIRT3 which are related to aging and neurodegeneration by deacetylation [123], ultimately ameliorating the hallmarks of AD [124, 125]. These results suggest that procyanidins may be able to impact several enzymes and stimulate SIRT1-mediated signaling pathway, then enhancing neural plasticity, improving cognitive function and attenuating neurotoxicity caused by A β and tau during AD.

Taken together, evidence from animal and human studies indicated that procyanidins regulate SIRT1 to exhibit multiple biological effects in various aspects. Nonetheless, it is not clarified whether procyanidins can evolve complex systemic roles in AD prevention and treatment, and whether the exact mechanism about this effect may rely on SIRT1 mediation.

Procyanidins can increase CREB phosphorylation via elevating the phosphorylation states of PKA, CaMKIV, or MAPK, and then pCREB and CRTC2 might finally affect the transcription of SIRT1 gene. CREB phosphorylation also participates in the initiation of BDNF gene expression. CREB, cAMP response element-binding protein; SIRT1, NAD⁺-dependent histone deacetylase; ADAM10, a disintegrin and metalloproteinase 10; PARP-1, poly (ADP-ribose) polymerase; CD38, and cyclic ADP-ribose (cADP) synthases; CRTC2/TORCs, cAMP response element-binding protein (CREB)-regulated transcription coactivator; PKA, cAMP-dependent protein kinase A; CaMKIV, Ca²⁺/calmodulin (CaM)-dependent protein kinases

Based on the interplay of CREB-SIRT1 axis, it is therefore conceivable that the regulation of procyanidins by the means of CREB-SIRT1 could promote the cognitive function and is thus conducive for AD pathogenesis (Fig. 1).

Conclusion

The role of SIRT1 in longevity, metabolic homeostasis, gluconeogenesis, mitochondrial biogenesis, inflammation, and amyloidosis provides an opportunity to explore the molecular mechanism in the pathogenesis of AD. As well, CREB has been verified to be a molecular switch from STM to LTM. Procyanidins are nutritional bioactive compounds that have

neuroprotective property that exert moderate SIRT1 and/or CREB enhancement and lead to the recovery of downstream genes expression, which are related with memory and cognition. Based on the interplay of CREB-SIRT1 axis, it is therefore conceivable that the regulation of procyanidins by the means of CREB-SIRT1 could promote the cognitive function and is thus conducive for AD pathogenesis. Additionally, better understanding relevant aspects such as the maintenance of bioavailability after dietary supplementation, the impact on the blood-brain barrier, especially the interaction of SIRT1 and CREB, will propel procyanidins to be efficacious candidates as nutraceuticals or medicines in the prevention and treatment of AD. Therefore, it is expected that the number of further investigations on the protective effect of procyanidins on AD will be increased, and the potential mechanisms involved CREB-SIRT1 axis also need to be confirmed and complemented.

Compliance with Ethical Standards

Conflict of Interest The authors declare that there is no conflict of interest.

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