Forum Editorial

Genetics, Redox Signaling, Oxidative Stress, and Apoptosis in Mammalian Aging

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HE FIELD OF AGING RESEARCH has now entered a rapid phase of discovery. The most dramatic findings have been associated with the extension of lifespan in simple organisms, such as C. elegans, S. cerevisiae, and Drosophila. The question that now permeates the field is "Can these findings be extended to mammals?" Only two interventionscaloric restriction and dwarfism-have achieved life extension to an extent that compares with findings obtained in the simpler organisms. However, there is tantalizing evidence that a deeper understanding of mammalian aging is at hand. Several interventions, such as overexpression of antioxidant enzymes (15), p66Shc deletion (9), and manipulations of insulin/IGF1 axis (1) have produced extension of lifespan in the absence of the overt changes in body composition observed in caloric restriction or dwarf animals. Interestingly, most of these interventions appear to be associated with an increase in stress resistance. In this forum issue of ARS, the relevance of genetics, redox balance, oxidative stress, and apoptosis to mammalian aging is examined through a spectrum of view-

Migliaccio et al. (10) discuss the important role of p66Shc protein in the regulation of cellular responses to oxidative stress, apoptosis, and aging. The p66Shc-/- mouse model provided support for the involvement of reactive oxidant species in aging, and also facilitated the discovery of a link between the p53 and p66Shc signaling pathways, which has provided support for a complex but exciting new area of research in apoptosis and aging. Suh and Vijg (18) discuss the critical balance between genomic instability, apoptosis, and cancer in relation to aging. As DNA damage accumulates as a function of age, so thus the induction of apoptotic pathways. Apoptosis eliminates potential precancerous cells, but the tradeoff may be the loss of critical cells. Aging, it seems, occurs at least partially due to the accumulation of such damage and resulting cell loss, as evidenced by progeroid symptoms in several animal models of genetic instability, including Ku80 and Xpa deficiency (4, 6, 18). Surprisingly, some models of genetic instability and oxidative stress, such as Xpa and SOD2 deficiency do not result in accelerated aging but do increase age-related tumorigenesis. Thus, the type of DNA damage may be critical in determining its overall contribution to the aging phenotype, and age-related cancer mortality. Although both factors contribute to age-related mortality, they can be uncoupled as demonstrated by these animal models. The recent discovery that mice that overexpress a mitochondriatargeted catalase display increased lifespan is intriguing, and Mele et al. (8) provide compelling evidence that cells derived from such animals are in fact resistant to oxidants. Surprisingly, whole animal resistance to paraguat is not observed in the transgenic animals, a finding that raises questions regarding the actual mechanism of longevity. As usual, conclusions are not straightforward in studies of mammalian aging, probably due to the complexity of the aging process.

One of the most disturbing findings for enthusiasts of the free radical theory of aging was the finding that mice that carry mutations in SOD2 display elevated oxidative stress but no decrease in lifespan (19). Also surprising were the recent findings that mice with a proofreading-deficient version of the mitochondrial DNA polymerase-y (POLG), which accumulate mtDNA mutations in tissues and display features of accelerated aging, do not display increased markers of oxidative stress, but show induction of apoptotic markers (7). Given these remarkable findings, one is forced to ask if the oxidative stress theory of aging remains viable. Sanz et al. (14) review the critical evidence in models of normally aging animals, which suggest that the theory has support, but that the focus of investigation may need reevaluation. Comparative studies consistently show that long-lived mammals and birds have low rates of mitochondrial reactive oxygen species production and low levels of oxidative damage to their mitochondrial DNA. Furthermore, caloric restriction, which extends longevity, also decreases mitochondrial reactive oxygen

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species production at complex I and lowers mtDNA oxidative damage. Of novelty is the finding that positive changes can also be achieved with protein restriction without significant caloric restricting animals. Moreover, the authors show supporting data based on reduced levels of membrane unsaturation in long-lived birds, and reduced reactive oxygen species production in mitochondria from these species. Although correlative, such studies suggest that significantly reducing overall reactive oxygen species production may partly be achieved through alterations in mitochondrial composition. Closely linked to the oxidative stress theory of aging is the inflammation theory of aging. Chung et al. (3) discuss the growing evidence that inflammatory pathways play a key role in aging. Many believe that humans are ill-protected against selfinduced inflammation through obesity, and that during evolution few mechanisms were put in place to protect us from the chronic inflammation associated with this metabolic state. Clearly, what we define as aging is a very complex collection of alterations at the molecular level, leading to impaired stress and disease resistance, and resulting in the ultimate demise of the organism.

For those who are interested in lifestyle interventions, four original contributions in this issue strongly suggest that agerelated increases in oxidative stress and apoptosis as well as decrease in redox status can be attenuated. Song et al. (17) demonstrates for the first time that treadmill exercise markedly reduces apoptosis signaling in aged muscle, whereas Molnar et al. (11) provides evidence that hydrogen peroxide production is reduced with exercise, a finding that may be linked to alterations in membrane composition. Seo et al. (16) show that both exercise and caloric restriction also attenuate age-related increases in oxidative stress and the induction of pro-inflammatory factors. An extremely interesting finding reported by these authors is that a very mild caloric restriction regimen of 8% was sufficient to reduce oxidant production and oxidative stress. DeRuisseau et al. (5) discusses the potential benefits of caloric restriction and exercise can provide for the diaphragm. Taken together, these findings provide further support to a large and growing body of evidence in favor of caloric restriction and exercise as the most practical interventions to retard aging and increase the quality of life in aged humans.

This forum issue of ARS also contains manuscripts that highlight novel players in the complex phenotype of aging. Park (13) proposes that caveolins may play an important role, given their complex regulatory role. Napoli et al. (12) discuss the role of frataxin and iron–sulfur clusters as modulators of oxidative stress and aging. Apparently heme defects in the electron transport chain of mutants are responsible for increased oxidative stress observed.

Finally, if our growing knowledge of the biology of aging is to be translated into increases in the length and quality of life, relevant biomarkers must be identified and monitored in humans. Cesari *et al.* (2) discusses the role of oxidative damage markers as new predictors of mortality and morbidity. Some of the findings, such as increased oxidized LDL in individuals more likely to become disabled, suggest that despite the controversy surrounding the free radical theory of aging, oxidative damage, and inflammation may be good prognostic markers for disability and future mortality.

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ABBREVIATIONS

IGF1, insulin-like growth factor 1; Ku80, mice defective in nonhomologous endjoining; mtDNA, mitochondrial DNA; p53, tumor suppressor; p66^{Sch-/-}, p66^{Shc} gene deficient; POLG, DNA polymerase-γ; SOD2, mitochondrial superoxide dismutase 2; XP, xeroderma pigmentosum.

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MAMMALIAN AGING 505

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