

1 **Living long and well: prospects for a personalized approach to the medicine of**  
2 **ageing**

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48

49 **Abstract**

50

51 Research into ageing and its underlying molecular basis enables us to  
52 develop and implement targeted interventions to ameliorate or cure its  
53 consequences. However, the efficacy of interventions often differs widely  
54 between individuals, suggesting that populations should be stratified or even  
55 individualized. Large-scale cohort studies in humans, similar systematic  
56 studies in model organisms, and detailed investigations into the biology of  
57 ageing can provide individual validated biomarkers and mechanisms, leading  
58 to recommendations for targeted interventions. Human cohort studies are  
59 already ongoing, and can be supplemented by *in silico* simulations.  
60 Systematic studies in animal models are made possible by the use of inbred  
61 strains, or genetic reference populations of mice. Combining both, the  
62 comprehensive picture of the various determinants of ageing and healthspan  
63 can be studied in detail, and an appreciation of the relevance of results from  
64 model organisms to humans emerges. The interactions between genotype  
65 and environment, particularly the psychosocial environment, are poorly  
66 studied in both humans and model organisms, presenting serious challenges  
67 to any approach to a personalized medicine of ageing. To increase success of  
68 preventive interventions, we argue that there is a pressing need for an  
69 individualized evaluation of interventions such as physical exercise, nutrition,  
70 nutraceuticals and calorie restriction mimetics as well as psychosocial and  
71 environmental factors, separately and in combination. The expected extension  
72 of healthspan enables us to refocus healthcare spending on individual  
73 prevention starting in late adulthood, and on the brief period of morbidity at  
74 very old age.

75 **Introduction**

76

77 The need for *ageing research* is growing rapidly. Trends predicted from the  
78 EUROPOP survey suggest that the share of the population aged 65 years and over  
79 will rise from 17% in 2010 to 30% in 2060, with those aged over 80 increasing from  
80 5% to 12% over the same period [<http://futurage.group.shef.ac.uk/road-map.html>].  
81 The economic and social consequences of the ageing population therefore cannot be  
82 overestimated. Slowing down the deleterious processes of ageing itself would enable  
83 significant benefits, going beyond the benefits of eradicating specific diseases, which  
84 amount to lifespan extension by just a few years in case of, e.g., cancer and stroke  
85 [1]. The diseases of age, whether cardiovascular, neoplastic, pulmonary or cognitive,  
86 are increasing in frequency and will be the top four causes of death worldwide by  
87 2020. 75% of all deaths from these diseases occur in people aged 60 and over and  
88 their incidence rises with age. In other words, for a host of non-communicable  
89 diseases, there is a clear link between the underlying processes of ageing and the  
90 age-dependent accumulation of risk, so that eradication of one disease merely  
91 makes way for the occurrence of another disease slightly later [2], [3], [4]. Slowing  
92 down ageing itself, and addressing its root mechanisms, is expected to *increase*  
93 *healthspan and to compress the period of age-related morbidity*, thus tackling goals  
94 considered much more worthwhile than simply extending chronological lifespan [3],  
95 [4]. Moreover, for any interventions, the effect of genotype and environment  
96 (biological and psychosocial), and of the interaction between underlying mechanisms  
97 are most important, and their combinatorial application should be considered (Figure  
98 1).

99

100 Therefore, based on the recent convergence of personalized medicine and ageing  
101 research in human and model organisms, we suggest in this Viewpoint that a  
102 successful research agenda for the next decade should be based on three pillars  
103 (Figure 2): (1) extending, complementing and integrating the knowledgebase  
104 assembled in existing human cohort studies, (2) running closely similar studies in  
105 animal models, and (3) understanding the biology of ageing through detailed  
106 investigation of findings in human and animals, to gain a mechanistic understanding  
107 of biomarkers and interventions.

108

109 Our agenda rests on the biomarker concept. Baker and Spratt [5] defined a  
110 biomarker of ageing as ‘a biological parameter of an organism that either alone or in  
111 some multivariate composite will, in the absence of disease, better predict functional  
112 capability at some late age, than will chronological age’, and the American  
113 Federation for Aging Research has proposed more detailed criteria for biomarkers of  
114 ageing aimed at estimating biological, not chronological age [6], essentially adding  
115 their close relation to processes that underlie ageing, not disease, their ease of  
116 measurement and their cross-species relevance. However, while many biomarkers of  
117 ageing were described in animal or cross-sectional human studies, most of them  
118 failed in the few long-term human studies available [7]. One problem is technical  
119 limitation: human marker measurements are rarely comparable across decades.  
120 Also, selecting blood as the most easily assayable biological fluid ignores other  
121 organs affected by age. Moreover, there are major variations during the day or the  
122 year, as e.g. the amount of daylight will have an impact on many markers. Also,  
123 some markers such as low body mass index or blood pressure may indicate lesser  
124 biological age for younger people only, and the opposite for the very old [9], [10].  
125 Finally, while biomarkers should describe biological age, there is no true "gold  
126 standard", which would need to be based on a comprehensive longitudinal study in  
127 humans running for almost a century. Studies of populations at an advanced age,  
128 such as the Leiden or Newcastle 85-plus studies [11], [12], necessarily focus more  
129 on old-age multimorbidity than on the full spectrum of ageing processes over a

130 human lifecourse. Nevertheless, listings of biomarkers validated for humans in  
131 longitudinal studies were compiled and include interleukin 6 (IL-6) and some  
132 hormones [7], [8], and, more recently, galactosylated N-glycans [13], plasma N-  
133 terminal pro-B-type natriuretic peptide (NT-proBNP) [14] and epigenetic markers [15],  
134 [16].

135  
136 *'Personalized' approaches to medicine* are gaining ground in mainstream medical  
137 research. The most well-known of these involve cancer therapeutic agents with a  
138 companion diagnostic gene test, such as Herceptin™ and Gleevec™ [17]. More  
139 comprehensive, 'omics'-based attempts at personalizing diagnostics and therapy are  
140 being tested [18]. Moreover, molecular markers and interventions have to be  
141 integrated with biographical ones [19]. Assembling sufficiently large human datasets,  
142 in order to enable differentiation and classification of patients within the cohorts, is  
143 the key to personalized medicine. Longitudinal cohort studies, such as the  
144 Framingham [20], and Study of Health in Pommerania (SHIP) [21] studies, or the  
145 upcoming German *National Cohort* [22], therefore attempt to identify disease  
146 mechanisms, risk factors, prevention strategies and early markers in the general  
147 population; systematic integration of such data is also being attempted  
148 [<http://www.chancesfp7.eu/>].

149  
150 While the *mechanisms of ageing* are complex [4], [23], [24], evidence is  
151 accumulating that ageing is a *potentially modifiable risk factor* [25] for its associated  
152 morbidities. Moreover, longitudinal cohort studies for humans (see above) and  
153 primates [26], [27], human genome-wide association studies [28], as well as  
154 longitudinal studies, genetic manipulation and intervention testing programs for  
155 rodents [29], [30], [31] have revealed many insights in recent years. Some of them  
156 converge on exercise and diet, and associated pathways. In particular, a recurring  
157 theme is that of pathways related to energy and nutrient sensing and production [32]  
158 and dietary restriction has emerged as the most robust means of extending lifespan  
159 and healthspan alike [26]. Dietary restriction may be the best path towards this goal,  
160 even though its long-term effects in humans are ultimately unknown. Pragmatically,  
161 its downside is that it requires behavioral modification and great willpower, triggering  
162 the search for calorie-restriction mimetics, small molecules that produce comparable  
163 effects, with some promising early results [33]. Importantly, the effects of dietary  
164 restriction are not uniform: in the case of mice and primates, dietary restriction results  
165 vary by genotype (or strain or subspecies), diet and/or environment, and dietary  
166 restriction was sometimes found detrimental [34], just as the effects of its mimetics  
167 vary [35]. The effects of dietary components vary as well, e.g. whole-grain bread  
168 tends to have positive effects mostly in Northern European populations and less in  
169 Mediterranean people [36]. Similarly, the effects of fish oil in mouse and human  
170 depends on *APOE* genotype [37]. Thus, we may expect to find a high degree of  
171 heterogeneity in the informativity of biomarkers, or the efficacy of interventions, for  
172 humans and in outbred animals alike. Moreover, studies of the underlying molecular  
173 mechanisms in terms of pathways may also wish to take into account individual  
174 variability.

175  
176 ***Personalized medicine and ageing research are now starting to come together,***  
177 ***aided by the explorative and confirmatory power of high-throughput datasets.***  
178

179 The most visible sign of this convergence is the recent startup of Human Longevity  
180 Inc [<http://www.humanlongevity.com/>] by Craig Venter, aiming at finding genomic,  
181 metabolomic, microbiomic and other determinants of health in 100,000s of  
182 volunteers. Along similar lines, the Institute for Systems Biology in Seattle is now  
183 pursuing the 100k project [<http://research.systemsbiology.net/100k/>]. As time goes  
184 by, longitudinal cohort studies are by necessity developing into studies of ageing,

185 and a few are explicitly gathering data with the aim of fostering a better  
186 understanding of ageing processes [38], [39]. Longitudinal studies in model  
187 organisms enable the systematic dissection of the molecular architecture of ageing.  
188 For example, around 30 strains of mice have recently been studied by the Nathan  
189 Shock Center at the Jackson laboratory [29], and phenotypic and/or genetic data are  
190 now being analyzed together with lifespan data [40], [9], [41]. Efforts such as the  
191 Collaborative Cross [42] enable Genome Wide Association Study (GWAS)-like  
192 studies in mice, and the subsequent detailed study of mechanistic insights, and more  
193 generally the modeling of approaches to personalized medicine in animals. Here, we  
194 can investigate the individual differences in the biology of ageing seen on the cell,  
195 tissue and organ level, in great detail. On each of these levels, the speed of ageing  
196 can vary substantially, and this is reflected, e.g., epigenetically [15], [16]. More  
197 generally, as described in the introduction, biomarkers of ageing are usually found by  
198 investigating subpopulations (such as people aged 85 years and older), and these  
199 biomarkers also allow the stratification of large populations according to the biology  
200 of ageing.

201  
202 Whilst association studies may provide information on personal risks for specific  
203 morbidities, their severity and timing, many of these risks are turning out to be  
204 modified by the psychosocial environment and individual history, which in  
205 themselves need to be included not only as part of the risk analysis but also as a  
206 guide to potential therapies [43]. Many associations with ageing and age-related  
207 disease such as Alzheimer's are complex, often with low effect sizes of individual  
208 variants, and it is highly likely that at least some of the missing heritability is due to  
209 environmental interactions [44]. For example, in a mouse model, disease risk in  
210 predisposed strains was shown to be attenuated by environmental factors when  
211 Alzheimer-prone mice were placed in a rich and naturalistic environment, showing  
212 reduced behavioral effects despite increased plaque density [45]. Moreover, the  
213 induction of a neuroinflammatory response was related to chronic unpredictable  
214 stress [46]. Conversely, dopamine D4 receptor (*DRD4*) knockout mice do not show  
215 the increased longevity seen when background strain mice are brought up in a rich  
216 environment, showing them to be refractory to the positive effects of a rich  
217 environment. This study found consistency with a parallel human cohort, presenting  
218 an excellent paradigm for future work [47]. Individual environmental impact may be  
219 reflected epigenetically [15]. Such epigenetic individuality is influenced in part by  
220 biographical parameters, reflecting psychosocial environment, social participation  
221 and education, and the way this allostatic load was handled by the individual as part  
222 of her or his stress response. In turn, targeted interventions may be used to  
223 ameliorate the environment [19].

224  
225 Apart from 'omics' data processing and analysis, *computational studies* enable the  
226 well-founded comparison of human and animal data, as well as simulation studies,  
227 particularly on the molecular level. At its simplest, the parallelogram approach,  
228 originally developed in toxicology [48], suggests use of data of diseased animal  
229 tissue to extrapolate to the often inaccessible human diseased tissue, aided by e.g.  
230 blood data available for diseased and healthy individuals. Moreover, controlled  
231 vocabularies and ontologies, describing the formal relationships between concepts  
232 and entities, are developed to enable the systematic comparison of human and  
233 animal data [49]. For example, on the (cell) anatomical and physiological level, we  
234 can then integrate data and analyze the relationship between phenotypes of humans  
235 and model species, yielding estimates for the extrapolation of data and insights from  
236 model organisms to humans. Formal data semantics is also useful to systematically  
237 mine electronic health record data, to describe phenotypes and diseases [50].  
238 Furthermore, recent promising developments in systems biology and systems  
239 medicine include simulation studies of ageing-related pathways and the multi-level

240 modeling of the large number of interacting processes [51]. Such studies help to  
241 disentangle the network of interdependent biological processes that underlie ageing,  
242 and distinguish correlation and causality, following the example of cancer research,  
243 where computational studies help to distinguish ‘passenger’ and ‘driver’ mutations  
244 [52]. However, many cancers are characterized by gross modifications of cell and  
245 organ physiology, e.g. due to chromosomal aberrations. In contrast, ageing  
246 processes are subtler, triggering weaker patterns and signals in terms of phenotype  
247 and molecular mechanisms, on a longer time scale. Therefore, the sound integration  
248 of data using techniques from data semantics and ontologies is important in ageing  
249 research [53], [54], [55], [56], to maximize our chances of detecting meaningful  
250 patterns and signals.

251  
252

253 ***The implementation of any recommendations for healthspan extension must***  
254 ***be easy and safe.***

255

256 Many people show high adherence to moderate modifications of exercise and dietary  
257 patterns, motivated by their personal instinct or subjective feelings of benefit. Correct  
258 use and long-term adherence to changes in dietary composition, nutraceuticals and  
259 food supplements is more difficult, though<sup>1</sup>. Healthy and health-conscious individuals  
260 consuming high amounts of fruit and vegetables (> 400 g/day) display a more robust  
261 organismal antioxidant defense system [57] and a better cognitive performance [58],  
262 independent of age and gender, compared to subjects consuming < 100 g/day,  
263 although a good plasma micronutrient status can be achieved through targeted  
264 counselling [59]. However, as the correct use of nutraceuticals and food supplements  
265 is complicated [60], most of the supplementation trials with single compounds and/or  
266 single lifestyle preventive strategies against age-related diseases have largely been  
267 unsuccessful so far [61]. Furthermore, an immediate subjective feeling of benefit with  
268 nutraceuticals is not usually attained, while the possible physiological impact may be  
269 significant (on the positive as well as on the negative side). This also applies to long-  
270 term small-molecule interventions such as calorie-restriction mimetics. Additionally,  
271 quality and safety of nutraceuticals and food supplements are not as strictly  
272 controlled as are drugs. Here, subjective feeling has to be supplemented or  
273 substituted by sound scientific evidence of benefit, subject to a personalized  
274 approach. The *polypill* concept [62] is often criticized, exactly because it does not  
275 consider the specifics on the individual. It consists of intensively tested drugs at low  
276 dosage, the benefits of which have been shown in large-scale studies. Specifically, it  
277 aims to reduce the risk of heart attack and stroke, employing one statin and three  
278 blood pressure reducing agents at around half the standard dose, and in a  
279 personalized instantiation, it can be considered a model for active interventions to  
280 stay healthy for longer.

281

282 ***Sound scientific evidence for healthspan effects of interventions in humans is***  
283 ***becoming available.***

284

285 Conclusive evidence of therapeutic or prophylactic effects of interventions on human  
286 healthspan is going to be difficult to establish, because longitudinal intervention  
287 studies (starting in mid-life) would take around half a century to complete. Moreover,  
288 interventions designed for presumably healthy people need specific justification, and

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<sup>1</sup> For example, a six-year study on prevention of dementia failed to show positive effects, possibly due to increasing non-adherence (Jerant A, Chapman B, Duberstein P, Robbins J, Franks P: Personality and medication non-adherence among older adults enrolled in a six-year trial. Br J Health Psychol 2011;16:151-169. (Figure 2 therein)).

289 no discernible negative side effects. However, a significant delay of ageing-  
290 associated disease and morbidity is a distinct positive effect that should not be  
291 abandoned without due consideration. Fortunately, there are a couple of convincing  
292 arguments that indicate the high likelihood of success of finding valid means towards  
293 healthspan extension [25], with people in their late adulthood as the target group.  
294 First, very 'mild' forms of healthspan-extending interventions have been practiced for  
295 a long time already; their systematic and personalized improvement is already  
296 (winning) half the battle. These include exercise, diet and nutraceuticals, as well as  
297 indication-based interventions such as drug-based blood pressure reduction,  
298 cholesterol modulation and osteoporosis prevention. Also, for many individuals, a  
299 significant further extension of healthspan can be expected from improvements in  
300 their psychosocial environment, social participation and education. While consistent  
301 good parental care in the early years is a good foundation, psychosocial lifestyle  
302 interventions can still be effective in adulthood [19]. Second, as a proof of concept,  
303 dietary restriction has already been demonstrated to extend healthspan in numerous  
304 animal species including mammals, for example benefitting rhesus monkeys (see  
305 above), and has been shown to improve biomarkers of ageing in humans in late  
306 adulthood as well [63]. Moreover, as described above, pharmacological mimetics of  
307 dietary restriction have shown promising results at least in mouse studies [33].  
308 Combination of interventions is important, though, as most of the supplementation  
309 trials with single compounds and/or single lifestyle preventive strategies were largely  
310 not successful so far [61]. Third, centenarians frequently feature very late onset of  
311 age-related diseases and disabilities [64], demonstrating that the goal of healthspan  
312 extension can indeed be accomplished at very old age.

### 313 314 **Conclusions and prospects**

315  
316 We propose a realistic research agenda with distinctive positive advances within one  
317 decade:

- 318  
319 • We need to augment ongoing and future clinical studies, measuring as many  
320 ageing-related parameters as possible, and to couple them with closely  
321 similar animal studies, which feature far shorter execution times and more  
322 possibilities for experimental intervention and detailed study. Here, one main  
323 aim is to discover and validate new markers of ageing which may assist in  
324 stratification of populations with regard to the efficacy of therapeutic and  
325 prophylactic intervention. Critical is the recording of environmental  
326 parameters, stress, activity and personal history for human studies and  
327 detailed analysis of the effects of the environment for model organism  
328 studies.
- 329  
330 • We need to systematically validate the evidence gained from model animal  
331 studies in humans and vice versa. Here, we need an in-depth understanding  
332 of the molecular processes that are supposed to be the targets of  
333 intervention. Mechanistic studies in mice are essential, and studies in  
334 humanized mice, (human) cell lines and other model organisms should be  
335 undertaken as well, always selecting the most informative approach.
- 336  
337 • Finally, given the range of interventions likely to become validated and  
338 available, we should aim for a combinatorial approach through the  
339 establishment of a modular system, from which the most appropriate  
340 combination of interventions (Fig. 1) can be selected by the individual.
- 341

342 Such an agenda can be expected to yield validated personalized prescriptions for  
343 many people within a decade, enabling them to extend their healthspan and to  
344 shorten the period of their life that is spent in ill health.

345  
346 **Box 1: Economic implications.**  
347 Slowing ageing and extending healthspan has profound economic implications.  
348 Importantly, maintaining health and fitness for a longer time period enables later  
349 retirement, and more senior-level contribution to society  
350 [<http://www.healthyageing.eu/>]. Furthermore, with the growing lack of young  
351 employees there is a great need of people working until the age of 70 or older, in  
352 order to avoid staff shortage, especially in service industries such as medicine. Most  
353 importantly, however, healthspan increases are one of the few contributors to  
354 lowering health care costs in a predictable way, by postponing most of the demand  
355 until very old age [65]. Current repair-oriented approaches in cancer, cardiovascular,  
356 neuro-degeneration and other areas can then slowly but steadily refocus to serving a  
357 population of increasingly advanced age, who stay healthy well beyond their 90s. In  
358 summary, the social, economic, and health benefits that would result from advancing  
359 healthspan are “longevity dividends” [66].

360

### 361 **Conflict of Interest**

362

363 Herewith the authors declare that we have no conflicts of interest.

364

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366

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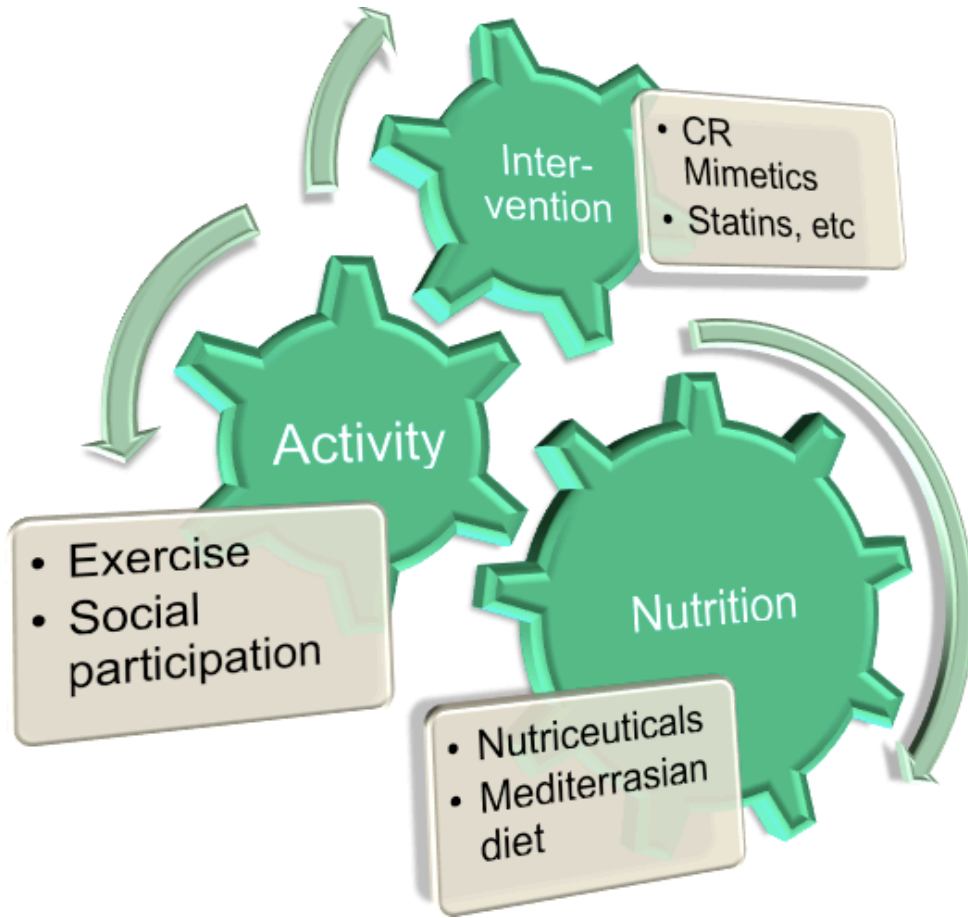
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594 Fig. 1: Healthspan extension includes activity, diet and other interventions, each of  
595 which expected to be most effective if personalized, alone and in combination. For  
596 the "MediterrAsian" diet, see [67].  
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598



599 Fig. 2: Robust research on healthspan extension requires a solid base of systematic  
600 studies in humans and animals, and an understanding of the biology of ageing, that  
601 is, of the mechanisms underlying molecular ageing processes.

