

Review

## The immunometabolic roots of aging

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Aging is one of the greatest risk factors for several chronic diseases and is accompanied by a progressive decline of cellular and organ function. Recent studies have highlighted the changes in metabolism as one of the main drivers of organism dysfunctions during aging and how that strongly deteriorate immune cell performance and function. Indeed, a dysfunctional immune system has been shown to have a pleiotropic impact on the organism, accelerating the overall aging process of an individual.

Intrinsic and extrinsic factors are responsible for such metabolic alterations. Understanding the contribution, regulation, and connection of these different factors is fundamental to comprehend the process of aging and develop approaches to mitigate age-related immune decline. Here, we describe metabolic perturbations occurring at cellular and systemic levels. Particularly, we emphasize the interplay between metabolism and immunosenescence and describe novel interventions to protect immune function and promote health span.

### Addresses

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### Introduction

Several chronic diseases are direct consequences of the natural process of aging. In this context, 12 age-associated hallmarks and their complex interconnections

have been identified and suggested as the main drivers of the aging process [1]. Within those, an important factor contributing to systemic aging is the metabolic dysfunction occurring in immune cells, which has been shown to profoundly impact the aging process at organism level [2,3]. Metabolic defects drive the acquisition of senescence phenotype in immune cells, which in turn promote premature senescence and consequent multi-organs morbidity and accelerated aging.

In this review, we will explore the intrinsic metabolic changes occurring within aged immune cells, including alterations in mitochondrial function, autophagy, and redox homeostasis, which collectively impair immune cell functionality. In addition, we will examine environmental and systemic modifications, hereafter referred as extrinsic factors, such as inflammaging and the senescence-associated secretory phenotype (SASP), which contribute to metabolic dysfunction in immune cells. Finally, we will integrate human data and clinical insights to address how a healthy lifestyle, including exercise and nutrition, can positively impact the aging immune system.

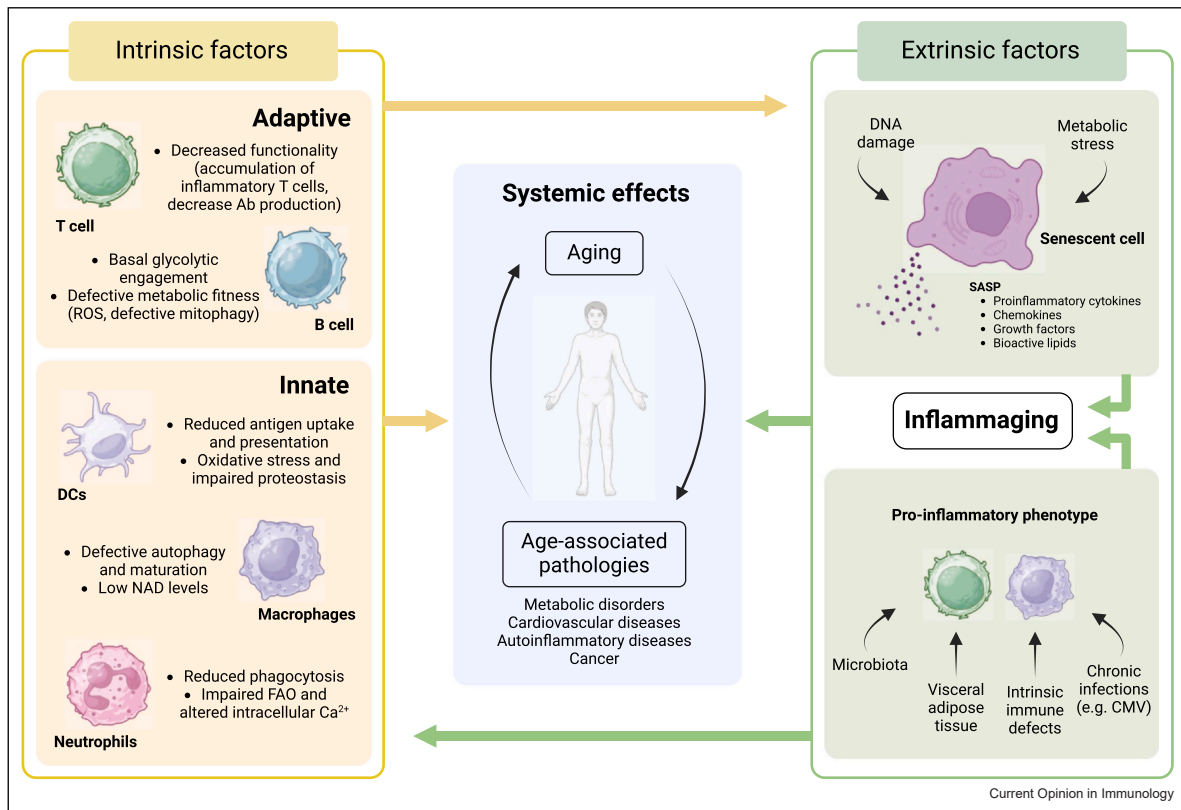
Overall, we intend to provide an overview of the metabolic roots of immune aging, highlighting the interplay between metabolism and immunosenescence and suggesting potential therapeutic strategies for mitigating age-related immune decline.

### Intrinsic factors

Immune cells rapidly switch their metabolic programs in response to activating stimuli and to support fate commitment. Increasing evidence has demonstrated the pivotal role of cellular metabolism as a central regulator of immune function and how factors such as aging can alter metabolism of immune cells and thus their overall functionality. In fact, aging impairs both the innate and the adaptive immune cells, making older adults more susceptible to infections, autoimmune diseases, cancer, as well as less responsive to vaccines.

Age-associated changes in metabolism have been described especially in innate immune cells (Figure 1). Indeed, macrophages are considered as sentinel of the body, dedicated both to fighting infection and healing wound. Macrophages derived from aged mice are characterized by dysfunctional nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide (NAD) metabolism and cellular quality control processes such as mitophagy and autophagy. Old

Figure 1



Immunometabolic reprogramming during aging and age-associated pathologies. During aging, both adaptive and innate immune cells acquire metabolic deficiencies that lead to impaired functionality. T and B lymphocytes engage a basal glycolytic metabolism and present defective mitochondria, leading to an inflammatory phenotype and decreased Ab production, respectively. On the other hand, DCs, macrophages, and neutrophils accumulate oxidative stress, low NAD levels, or impaired FAO, which leads to poor antigen presentation and phagocytic properties. Moreover, due to several stress stimuli, such as DNA damage or metabolic stress, aged cells can enter a state of senescence, which is linked to a pro-inflammatory phenotype known as SASP. This pro-inflammatory phenotype can also be acquired by a chronic activation of innate cells due to chronic infections, visceral adipose tissue, microbiota changes, or intrinsic immune defects per se. Altogether, this drives a chronic and systemic inflammation that, together with the intrinsic immune defects, accelerate aging processes and promote the appearance of age-associated pathologies.

macrophages have reduced NAD levels due to the downregulation of the expression of genes encoding for enzymes of the *de novo* synthesis pathway [4], which activates NAD synthesis from dietary tryptophan through the kynurenine pathway. Low NAD level triggers mitochondrial dysfunction and increases inflammatory phenotype. These phenomena are exacerbated in old macrophages, where the lack of an efficient mitophagy machinery leads to the accumulation of damaged mitochondria and decline of metabolic capacity. In fact, old macrophages fail to promote mitochondria ubiquitination [5] and downregulate the expression of autophagy proteins, such as autophagy-related 5 (ATG5) and microtubule-associated proteins 1A/1B light chain 3 B [6,7]. These metabolic alterations lead to defective maturation and functionality, and

together with an increased release of pro-inflammatory cytokines, contribute to the systemic chronic sterile inflammation found in older individuals.

Similarly, monocytes contribute to chronic inflammation in older individuals [6,8] by downregulating two key genes, *PLA2G4B* and *ALOX15B*, encoding for enzymes involved in the conversion of phosphatidylcholine to anti-inflammatory lipoxins [9]. These features are accompanied by increased oxidative stress and higher abundance of reactive oxygen species (ROS) [10] triggered by nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide phosphate oxidase hyperactivation [11].

Neutrophils are the most abundant immune cells in human blood and act as first-line defense against micro-

organisms. In healthy aged blood donors, neutrophils also bear metabolic and cellular dysfunctions characterized by decreased fatty acid oxidation capacity and altered calcium homeostasis, which lead to reduced phagocytic and antimicrobial activities [12,13].

Aging impacts also professional antigen-presenting cells, such as dendritic cells (DCs), thus profoundly perturbing adaptive immune response. In fact, aging impairs metabolic pathways, such as PI3K-Akt, which governs key functions of DCs, including antigen uptake, antigen presentation, and release of antiviral cytokines [14]. Together with an increased oxidative stress due to the defective activity of nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide phosphate oxidase and ROS scavenger enzymes, old DCs carry major mitochondrial dysfunction due to an abnormal mitochondrial depolarization and impaired proteostasis [11,15,16]. Altogether, aging perturbs DCs metabolism at several levels, which in turn reduces their capacity to efficiently present antigens and secrete antiviral cytokines, hindering a proper activation of adaptive immunity [17].

How aging influences the metabolism of less represented innate cells, such as basophils and eosinophils, is poorly investigated. Few studies have evidenced an expansion of these cells in old mice but with reduced degranulation and cytokines production capacity [18,19].

Metabolism is an important regulator of survival, differentiation, and function of adaptive immune cells (Figure 1). Therefore, age-related metabolic changes are often responsible for defective proliferative response, activation, and survival of T cells. During aging, mitochondrial mass has been shown to increase in both CD4 and CD8 T cells derived from human subjects [20–22]. However, the higher mitochondrial mass does not result in improved mitochondrial activity. Instead, the accumulation of dysfunctional mitochondria leads to an overall increase in mitochondrial content with much lower metabolic capacity and higher production of ROS [22]. Importantly, this accumulation of damaged mitochondria derives from inefficient cellular quality control processes, such as autophagy and mitophagy [23–25], which are deeply impaired during aging. Indeed, few recent studies have suggested that reduced level of spermidine and FOXO1 activity in old animals impair mitophagy and autophagy processes and lysosome activity [26,27], describing a novel molecular mechanism orchestrating metabolic dysfunction in old T cells. Moreover, the elevated ROS and mitochondrial dysfunction reprogram T cells' fate toward an effector/pro-inflammatory phenotype [28]. Interestingly, old T cells display an increased basal glycolytic rate due to higher activation of the mammalian target of rapamycin (mTOR) and mitogen activated protein kinase signaling [29,30]. However, old murine T cells fail to engage a proper and efficient glycolysis upon stimulation [31], reducing their capacity to fully mount an appropriate

adaptive immune response. Interestingly, the deletion of the transcription factor TFAM, master regulator of mitochondrial function and biogenesis, in young T cells accelerates T cell aging by recapitulating the metabolic defects observed in old T cells and contributing to inflammaging and organism-wide premature aging [2].

On the contrary of T cells, to date, few studies have described the impact of aging on B cell metabolism and function. Similar to old T cells, old B cells have higher basal rate of glycolysis and higher expression of glucose transporters, such as GLUT-1 [32,33]. Moreover, old B cells have also higher mitochondrial mass; however, the limited detoxification machineries lead to increased ROS generation and reduces mitochondrial energy production [34].

In conclusion, aging drastically affects the metabolic efficiency of both innate and adaptive immune cells, impairing their fate commitment and function. A deeper analysis of the metabolic processes governing the age-driven immune dysfunction will help in the future to develop intervention to rejuvenate immune cell function and, consequently, mitigate the ravages of aging in the older population.

### Extrinsic factors

Besides the cell-intrinsic defects described above, a low-grade, chronic, and sterile systemic inflammation emerges in aged individuals [35,36]. This phenomenon, known as 'inflammaging', is the consequence of two main phenomena: the accumulation of senescent cells and the chronic activation of the innate immune system (Figure 1).

Cellular senescence is a state of irreversible cell cycle arrest triggered by stress stimuli to prevent cellular damage. Among these stress stimuli, DNA damage and metabolic burden are the main drivers of this process, particularly during aging, where, together with a reduced clearance capacity of the immune system, they lead to an aberrant accumulation of senescent cells. In addition to the cell cycle arrest induced by p53-p21 and p16-pRb pathways, senescent cells become moderately resistant to cell death and acquire a peculiar SASP characterized by the increased production of pro-inflammatory cytokines (e.g. interleukin [IL]-1 $\beta$ , IL-6, or IL-8), chemokines (e.g. CCL2, CCL5), growth factors (e.g. tumor growth factor beta, TGF $\beta$ ) or bioactive lipids (prostaglandins and leukotrienes), which sustain 'inflammaging' [37].

In this context, mitochondria play a central role in the regulation of senescence and age-associated diseases. Mitochondrial dysfunction can be driven during aging by mitochondrial DNA mutations, loss of sirtuin activity, disruptions of the electron transport chain, mitophagy defects, or production of ROS, overall leading to the so-called mitochondrial dysfunction-associated senescence (MiDAS) phenotype [38]. Mechanistically, cells presenting

mitochondrial dysfunction release damage-associated molecular patterns that trigger the NLRP3 inflammasome and the production of pro-inflammatory cytokines.

Another factor bridging mitochondrial dysfunction and senescence is NAD<sup>+</sup> metabolism. Indeed, MiDAS is characterized by a lowered NAD/NADH ratio that restricts glycolytic activity and ATP production, promoting 5' adenosine monophosphate-activated protein kinase (AMPK) activation and cell cycle arrest [38]. NAD decline has been observed across multiple tissues during aging, such as liver, white adipose tissue, or skeletal muscle [39]. However, whether NAD depletion is a driver or a consequence of senescence is still unclear. Some investigations have reported that NAD decline with age is caused by the upregulation of the NAD-cyclase degrading enzyme CD38 [39]. CD38 is upregulated via nuclear factor kappa-light-chain-enhancer of activated B cells (NF- $\kappa$ B) in response to SASP-associated factors and is part of the biosynthetic pathway of the immunomodulatory molecule adenosine, suggesting NAD decline as a downstream effect of CD38 activity [40]. Similarly, Poly (ADP-ribose) polymerase activation in response to DNA damage has been shown to rapidly deplete NAD cellular levels [41,42]. Moreover, low NAD levels further disrupt mitochondrial fitness, generating a positive feedback loop that accelerates cellular senescence. Restoration of NAD levels through nutritional supplementation with NAD precursors or CD38 depletion has been shown to maintain mitochondrial fitness and prevent age-related pathologies in murine models, highlighting the key role of NAD homeostasis in the regulation of senescence and aging [39].

Senescent cells also undergo a metabolic reprogramming that copes with lack of proliferation while actively synthesizing SASP factors. Specifically, senescent cells significantly alter their lipid metabolism. They increase the expression of enzymes involved in  $\beta$ -oxidation or fatty acid synthesis (e.g. fatty acid synthase), which are required for energy production [43,44]. Moreover, senescent cells activate phospholipase A2 and produce high levels of free polyunsaturated fatty acids (PUFAs), such as arachidonic acid or docosahexaenoic acid, which are incorporated into triglycerides and stored as lipid droplets. Alternatively, free PUFAs are converted in oxylipin via cyclooxygenase-2, which can be secreted and imported by neighboring cells or in an autocrine manner, leading to the activation of RAS-p53 and promoting cell cycle arrest [45,46]. In addition, cell cycle is further hindered in senescent cells by a decreased levels of deoxynucleotides triphosphates required for DNA biosynthesis and deterioration of autophagy and lysosomal function [47,48].

Together with the accumulation of senescent cells, the age-driven chronic activation of the innate immune cells strongly contributes to 'inflammaging'. The triggering causes of innate immune system activation are varied,

including the accumulation of visceral adipose tissue, microbiota dysbiosis, chronic infections, and intrinsic immune defects, are the most studied. In this context, the hematopoietic stem cell myeloid bias and the restricted naïve T cell pool imposed by aging together with the presence of chronic viral infections, such as cytomegalovirus or HIV, lead to a pro-inflammatory phenotype in both myeloid and lymphoid compartments, contributing to 'inflammaging'.

Altogether, 'inflammaging' is often the main responsible for the development of chronic age-associated diseases, including metabolic syndrome, osteoarthritis, type 2 diabetes mellitus, cardiovascular diseases, autoimmune diseases, or cancer. However, the specific cellular and molecular mechanisms triggered by 'inflammaging' are context dependent. For example, pro-inflammatory cytokines can promote bone resorption leading to osteoporosis, while Janus kinase (JAK) activation via toll-like receptor 4 can induce the phosphorylation of the insulin receptor, contributing to insulin resistance [49]. Overall, 'inflammaging' is an important risk factor for multimorbidity, accelerating an unhealthy aging process, driving frail syndrome, and increasing disease susceptibility in older subjects (Figure 1).

### Clinical studies for therapeutic targeting immune and metabolic pathways in age-related diseases

Cellular senescence is one of the fundamental biological processes driving aging and, as described above, responsible for multiple age-related diseases. Hence, over the past years, an increased number of studies have been focused on developing novel therapeutic interventions to counteract the aging process, thus increasing health span and preventing the social and economic impact of a progressively older population. Geroprotector strategies were conceived with the aim of targeting immunosenescence and other hallmarks of aging, rather than individual age-related diseases, often concurrent in multimorbidity and risk of mortality in the older population [50]. Senolytics have been developed to specifically target and induce apoptosis of senescent cells undergoing SASP, both locally and systemically [51].

Importantly, as a result of promising preclinical studies conducted in 2016, quercetin, a natural senolytic agent, was tested in combination with dasatinib, a Src/tyrosine kinase inhibitor, (D+Q) in the first-in-human trial in 2018 for the treatment of a fatal senescence-associated disease, idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis. Indeed, quercetin together with fisetin were the first discovered senolytics with demonstrated capacity to induce apoptosis of senescent cells through inhibition of BCL2/BAX and PI3K/AKT pathways [52].

This first-in-human, proof-of-concept trial paved the way to further development and testing of D+Q, as well as alternative strategies with other senolytics, such as fisetin (F)



and luteolin (L), in numerous clinical trials for various age-related diseases, including Alzheimer's disease, chronic kidney disease, physical frailty, and, more recently, coronavirus disease 2019 COVID-19 (from severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2, SARS-CoV-2) in older subjects [53].

As an alternative, complementary strategies inhibiting SASP with specific inhibitors called senomorphics have been developed and shown to potently reduce inflammation. Several senomorphic approaches have been developed by targeting different intracellular signal transduction pathways such as JAK-STAT [54], NF- $\kappa$ B transcription factor, mediating cell response to inflammation [55], mTOR, via treatment with rapamycin (sirolimus) and its analog 'rapalog' (everolimus) [56], and AMPk, via treatment with the antidiabetic drug metformin [57]. The first-in-human clinical trial testing Torc 1 inhibition (mTOR pathway) proved its efficacy in enhancing immune functions and improving vaccine protection against influenza viral infection in older subjects [58]. Moreover, AMPk inhibition ameliorated T<sub>H</sub>17 T cell subset performance by enhancing autophagy and improving mitochondrial bioenergetics of peripheral blood mononuclear cells derived from the older subjects treated with metformin [28]. NAD<sup>+</sup> precursors as nicotinamide riboside (NR) and nicotinamide mononucleotide (NMN) are capable to counteract the age-associated NAD decline guided by CD38 NAD-degrading enzyme [39]. Many studies on both precursors have been conducted on preclinical models showing geroprotective effects. Although NR and NMN supplements are easily accessible on the market, further clinical studies are needed to prove their efficacy, coupled with their already tested capacity to increase NAD levels in humans [59], as effective geroprotectors.

Prospectively, larger, randomized, controlled, and rigorous trials are required to develop and improve the clinical safety and efficacy of senolytics and, more in general, geroprotectors. Novel senolytics and geroprotectors might additionally be tested for the prevention of organ dysfunction (heart, muscle, brain, bone, for example) and age-related diseases in older individuals. The proven effectiveness from novel clinical studies of these agents on aged immune system and dysfunctional metabolism, and their combination with disease-specific interventions would possibly lead to a more successful translation into the clinic, improving health span and delay the onsets of age-related diseases.

### Human data from healthy lifestyles (diet and exercise) and centenarians as paradigm of successful healthy aging

Regular training exercise has been demonstrated to have a geroprotective effect, with improvement of quality of

life and increase in lifespan of older population. Among the beneficial effects of regular exercise, the most relevant are the enhancement of muscle mass and strength, improvement of cardiovascular and musculoskeletal functions, as well as a preventive protective effect in the younger population by delaying and reducing the risk of physical frailty with aging [60]. Although the molecular mechanisms underlying the protective effect of exercise against age-related diseases are still not fully covered, an increased number of ongoing studies are trying to better understand the geroprotective role of this healthy habit. The beneficial stress of regular exercise promotes tissue regeneration in various organs (as myogenesis, osteogenesis, neurogenesis, and synaptic plasticity) by calcium-mediated mechanotransduction signaling, and intracellularly mitochondria biogenesis via AMPK /SIRT1 PGC1 $\alpha$ -mediated pathway and ROS detoxification [61].

Proper nutrition has been associated with reduction of the risk of all types of chronic disease and increased health span and lifespan. Although is difficult to conduct rigorous human studies that compare different diets avoiding bias and confounding variables (e.g. geographic location, traditions, and culture), it is widely accepted that diets excluding or minimizing processed foods, preferentially plant-based, avoiding overeating and fat, and low alcohol consumption reduce chronic disease risk and favor health span and longevity (as Mediterranean diet, Okinawa diet) [62,63]. In recent years, the field of nutrition has expanded with exciting results on health preventive and curative benefits of intermitted fasting [64], fasting-mimicking diets [65] and time-restricted eating (TRE) [66], limiting the eating window in a 24-hour period.

Since the early 2000s, centenarians have been studied as a model to address the biological basis of successful healthy aging and a paradigm of longevity [67]. Despite a globally increasing aging population, the ratio of centenarians (CR) in economically developed countries is strongly influenced by social factors, with approximately 1:5000, 1:10 000, with the highest demographic peak registered in Japan [68]. Centenarians offer a remarkable paradigm of successful, healthy aging, exhibiting resistance to many age-related diseases, such as cancer and autoimmune disorders, and maintaining robust immune responses well into advanced age. Surprisingly, the incidence of autoimmune diseases among centenarians is low despite the age-related decline in immune function typically observed in the general population [69]. Similarly, cancer in centenarians is a relatively uncommon disease, with a decreased incidence and mortality, and displaying a less aggressive and more indolent behavior. This paradox may be explained by unique immunometabolic profiles that allow centenarians to maintain immune homeostasis. For instance, centenarians have been shown to mount effective immune responses to

viral infections, such as severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2, with favorable outcomes.

Interesting studies aimed to understand the successful aging of centenarians; among these, one showed that CD34<sup>+</sup> hematopoietic progenitors are still circulating in the peripheral blood of centenarians and display a stem cell function comparable to the CD34<sup>+</sup> cells derived from young donors when cultured *ex vivo* [70]. Being the decline of hematopoietic function one of the drivers of immunosenescence, the maintenance of functional CD34<sup>+</sup> progenitor cells in centenarians could in part explain their protections against aging.

Overall, the studies on centenarians have helped identifying key biological features of healthy aging and longevity and their association to specific immune profiles [71]. A whole genome sequencing study on centenarians of extreme longevity (105–110 years/old) demonstrated that centenarians display a unique transcriptional profile associated with efficient DNA repair mechanisms and reduced clonal hematopoiesis, both supporting cellular homeostasis and protecting against cardiovascular diseases [72]. In the future, the increasing insights derived from human studies on older individuals will pave the way for developing immune-targeting preventive strategies to limit age-associated pathologies toward a successful healthy aging.

## Conclusion

In conclusion, the intricate relationship between metabolic dysfunction and immunosenescence underscores the complexity of the aging process and its effects on health. This review highlights the pivotal role of intrinsic metabolic alterations in aged immune cells, including mitochondrial dysfunction, impaired autophagy, and disrupted redox balance, which collectively compromise immune function and fitness. Additionally, extrinsic factors such as ‘inflammaging’ and the SASP further exacerbate metabolic dysfunction in immune cells. By integrating human data and clinical insights, we have underscored the importance of a healthy lifestyle, particularly exercise and nutrition, in positively mitigating immune aging. This capacity to preserve or restore immune functions that promote disease resistance and control inflammation in infectious diseases as well as other inflammatory-related diseases is known as immune resilience [73]. The optimal immunocompetence–inflammation balance associated with immune resilience leads to a favorable immune and overall health outcome, contrasting sharply with the concept of immunosenescence, which describes the gradual deterioration of the immune system with age, leading to increased susceptibility to disease.

Ultimately, understanding the metabolic underpinnings of immunosenescence paves the way for developing therapeutic strategies aimed at preserving immune

health and counteracting age-related diseases toward improved health and life spans.

## Author Contributions

PG, HCH, and GL performed the primary literature search and wrote part of the manuscript. PDA and NV wrote part of the manuscript. PDA and NV defined the topic and guided during the writing. All the authors agreed on the current version of the paper.

## Data Availability

No data were used for the research described in the article.

## Declaration of Competing Interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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