

Content available at: <https://www.ipinnovative.com/open-access-journals>

IP International Journal of Comprehensive and Advanced Pharmacology

Journal homepage: <https://www.ijcap.in/>**Review Article****Alzheimer's disease: Causes, treatment & basic science review**Shivani Sharma^{1,*}¹Govt Ayurvedic College, Patiala, Punjab, India**ARTICLE INFO***Article history:*

Received 18-08-2021

Accepted 08-09-2021

Available online 28-10-2021

Keywords:

Alzheimer's disease

Dementia

Pathology

Causation

Neurodegeneration

Therapy

and

ABSTRACT

Alzheimer's disease is that the most common cause of dementia in older, individuals and a major public health concern. The goal of this critical evaluation is to provide a short overview of Alzheimer's disease. The study concentrates on the biochemical aspects of AD and MCI. It is the fourth most common cause of mortality in the United States, and it is spreading to other nations. With Alzheimer's disease, the total size of the brain decreases as the tissue loses nerve cells and connections. The loss of brain cells that occurs as a result of insanity cannot be stopped or reversed. The set up's aims include measurements for gift interventions in addition to an aim to improve research on interference and therapy. Although there are no disease-modifying medications available for Alzheimer's disease, certain options may help to reduce symptoms and enhance quality of life, therefore assisting patients to some extent. In addition, the paper discusses current attempts to create innovative treatments and improvements in the use of biomarkers for diagnosing SD.

This is an Open Access (OA) journal, and articles are distributed under the terms of the [Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-ShareAlike 4.0 License](#), which allows others to remix, tweak, and build upon the work non-commercially, as long as appropriate credit is given and the new creations are licensed under the identical terms.

For reprints contact: reprint@ipinnovative.com

1. Introduction

Dementia affects about 45 million individuals globally, according to estimates. Alzheimer's disease (AD) is the most prevalent cause of dementia, accounting for 60-80% of cases.¹ Because the number of people affected by AD rises, so does the cost of care. According to a nurse estimate, 5.8 million Americans aged 65 and older have Alzheimer's disease, a number that might rise to 13.8 million by 2050. In 2020, payments for dementia care and hospice services for Americans 65 and older are expected to total \$305 billion.²

The neuropathology of Alzheimer's disease is characterised by the deposition of animate thing B-amyloid plaques and intracellular neurofibrillary tangles of hyperphosphorylated tau. Although CSF and antilepton emission pictorial representation (PET) indicators will improve diagnostic accuracy, Alzheimer's disease is still a

clinical diagnosis.³ Current therapies, in combination with enzymes, inhibitors and mean time enhance quality of life but do not change or reduce the course of the illness. The current study seeks to address the underlying pathology of active Alzheimer's disease while also determining and staging treatments in people with preclinical or asymptomatic Alzheimer's disease.

2. Dementia

Dementia might be a clinical condition (a collection of unrelated signs and symptoms) characterised by gradual decline in mental function⁴. Dementia affects a variety of psychological abilities, including memory, language, thinking, decision-making, visuospatial function, attention, and orientation. Cognitive deficits are frequently associated with personality, emotional regulation, and social behaviour abnormalities in persons with dementia. Additionally, the behavioral and psychological form of layers with

* Corresponding author.

E-mail address: shivanisharma9092@gmail.com (S. Sharma).

Alzheimer's disease disrupts jobs, social activities, and partnerships, and also an individual's capacity to do daily chores (e.g., driving, shopping, housework, cooking, managing, financial management, and personal care). Table 1 summarises the diagnostic diagnosis for all types of dementia.^{4,5}

Table 1: Diagnostic Alzheimer Symptoms⁵

a.	Cognitive function deterioration in two or more regions:
1.	Recall (ability to be told and bear in mind new information)
2.	linguistics (speaking, reading, writing)
3.	The operation of the government (reasoning, call making, planning)
4.	Practices for its service aptitude (ability to acknowledge faces and objects)
5.	Alterations in character, attitude, or behaviour
b.	Deficit spending in personality phenomena:
1.	Interact with performance (ability to perform activities of daily living)
2.	Indicate a drop from earlier levels of performance
3.	Are not the result of disorientation or a clinical specialised condition (e.g., depression)
4.	Are formed from the patient's abuse experience, backed by an eyewitness (e.g., a friend or relative) and quantitative psychomotor evaluation.

Dementia can be caused by a variety of reversible and irreversible factors.^{4,6} Reversible dementias (also known as pseudo-dementias) are uncommon but likely curable. Sadness, biochemical deficits (e.g., vitamin B12 shortage), biochemical and hormonal disorders (e.g., hypothyroidism), and neighbourhood lesions (e.g., a brain tumour), traditional volume hydrocephalus, or substance abuse can all produce them. Certain types of medications have the potential to affect psychological features in elderly people (e.g., anti-cholinergic, psychotropic, analgesics, sedative-hypnotics). Neurodegenerative and/or vascular processes in the brain are involved in irreversible (primary) dementia. Alzheimer's disease (AD) is by far the most common cause of severe older adults in The United Kingdom, consisting of up to 70% of all neurodegenerative diseases.⁷ Primary Alzheimer includes vascular dementia (10-20% of cases), dementia linked with Parkinson's disease, neurodegenerative, the front degeneration.

3. Process of Pathology

Alzheimer's disease (AD) is a multivariate, complicated neurodegenerative illness caused by complicated connections with one's biological profile, education, age, and environment. Several ideas are being presented to get a better understanding of the disease's development, with the dopaminergic concept becoming one of the oldest. This theory is based on the fact that Alzheimer's patients have lower activity of vitamin B acetyltransferase and acetyl cholinesterase in the cortex than healthy people.⁸

The decreased neurochemical route activity was verified in postmortem brain tissue from individuals with AD, showing that cholinergic neuron degradation and loss of cholinergic transmission play a significant role in the psychological features impaired found in persons with AD⁸. Although histological of Alzheimer's disease indicates intraneuronal neurofibrillary lesions composed of tau proteins, the tau theory also was proposed. The neuronal tubule network's formation and stabilization are largely concerned with letter of the alphabet proteins found in neurons. When the control of phosphorylation is disturbed, hyper phosphorylated tau proteins hydrolyse into strands and produce neurofibrillary tangles, and the situation develops deadly. This leads to a malfunction of the complex body part's structural and regulatory functions, which leads to aberrant morphology, nerve fibre transit, and neuron conjugation functions, culminating in neurodegeneration.

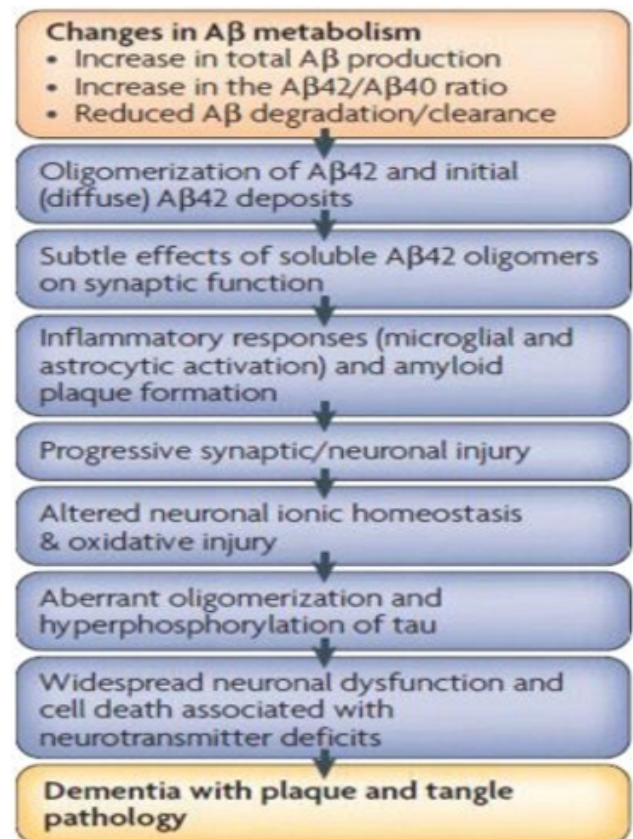


Fig. 1: The amyloid (Aβ) cascade hypothesis⁸

These prior hypotheses were put together owing to the widely recognised amyloid cascade theory for the pathogenic process of Alzheimer's disease. This theory connects clinical signs to an excess or reduced clearance of amyloid beta (Ab) proteins, which results in greater Ab accumulation and, ultimately, brain injury (Figure 1). The length of Ab is dictated either by mechanism of

post-translational dissociation of the transdermal protein 1 polypeptide (APP). The famed stubborn Ab fibrils are generated by sawing APP of either b- or g-secretases.⁹ The 2 significant kinds of Ab monomers that are directly involved in the pathophysiology of AD are Ab40 and Ab42. Ab40/Ab42 then oligomerizes, travels to recombination clefts, and inhibits synapses communication. These polymerize into insoluble amyloid fibrils, which contribute to the formation of amyloid plaques.¹⁰

Ab peptides in β -sheet conformation, as well as fibrillary, proto fibre related degreed polymorphic oligomers, polymerize into structurally different forms among the plaques. Plaques developing peripherally across the brain produce mitochondrial function, protein secretion, reactive astrocytosis, and a general inflammation. The loss of junction and vegetative cells, as well as general brain atrophy, result from these structural alterations⁸. When APP is destroyed by a secretase in a normal woman, insoluble amyloidosis is produced, which has been related to synaptic activity and longevity, as well as protecting against oxidative stress and been discovered to be essential for enabling combination.

Table 2: A listing of gene mutations that have been associated with the development of spontaneous Alzheimer's disease (SAD)¹¹.

Genes Implicated in the Regulation of Alzheimer's Disease	Abbreviations
Amyloidogenic Factor gene	APP
The Oncogenes protein	PS
Genetic for polymorphism E	APOE
The c - peptide genes	n/a
Genetic for Composite Receptors 1	n/a
Glycolipids Clathrin Antibody gene interaction	PICALM
Genetic for Lipoprotein Metabolism	CH25H, ABCAL, and CH24H
Genetic for sterol O-acyltransferase	SOAT1
Prostanoids Genetic for Synthase 2	Ptgs2
Sequence for Angiotensin-Converting Protein	n/a
SLC26A38 gene	n/a

" Evidence shows that unusually high alphabetic character hyperphosphorylation, morbidic A oligomer, and mitochondrial dysfunction work together to cause somatic cell malfunction and cell death, which underpin psychological feature impairment. Although that alzheimer concept implies that toxin A is the main cause of tau illness, other number of experimental in mammalian APP, and also as sAPP, N-APP, and AICD, play a part in tumour growth as well. xFurthermore, ageing, which is closely linked to mitochondrial dysfunction, will be the most significant non-genetic risk factor for Alzheimer's disease".¹²

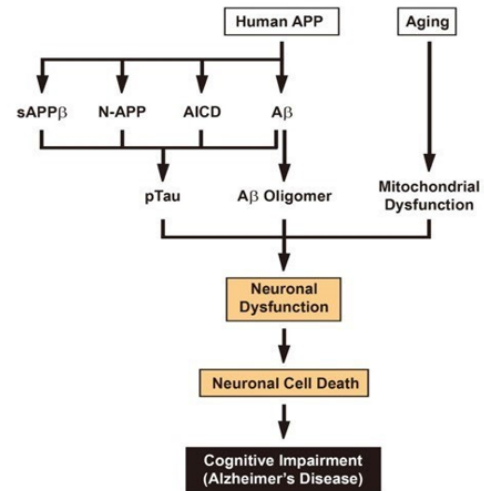


Fig. 2: "Alzheimer's disease is caused by neuronal malfunction and necrobiosis.

3.1. Alzheimer's disease epidemiology

Alzheimer's disease (AD) is a major health problem in the United States and several other countries around the globe, putting a huge physical, emotional, and economical burden on society. It is believed that 5 million Americans suffer from AD, with a new identity being created per 68 seconds.¹³ Alzheimer's disease is the seventh leading cause of death amongst these elderly in the United States, with about \$200 billion spend annually direct supervision for individuals with dementia. It is projected that 35 million people are suffering from Alzheimer's disease or even other kinds of dementia, with 65 million expected to develop dementia by 2030 (115 million by 2050).¹⁴

Alzheimer's disease is a complex disease with really no one cause and a host of other changeable and quasi risk factors related to its start and development. Age is a significant health risk for Alzheimer's disease progression. Alzheimer's disease risk goes up significantly with temperature, roughly doubling each 5 years even by age of 65.^{15,16} The large number of Alzheimer's patients were only 65 years old and also have "delayed" or "sparse" Alzheimer's (95 percent of all cases). Rare genetic alterations have been associated to the development of Alzheimer's disease well before age of 65, which is frequently referred to as "sudden symptoms" or "family and social" Alzheimer's disease (85 percent of all cases).¹⁷ People with Alzheimer's disease family types have a chromosome dominance alteration in either one of the genetic engineering on genome one or the peptide antecedent super protein (APP) gene on chromosome 21. Furthermore, people with Down syndrome are more likely to develop early-onset Alzheimer's disease. The biochemistry of sporadic Alzheimer's disease is far more

complicated and poorly understood. The apolipoprotein E (APOE) gene's alphabet letter 4 allomorphs is thought to be have fallen mostly on body.¹⁸

Females are more likely than males to get Alzheimer's disease, this represents their higher quality of life.¹⁹ Lower academic success has been linked to an increased risk of Alzheimer's disease dementia¹⁵, lending credence to the hypothesis that learning strengthens a patient's personality feature buffer and resilience to AD pathology.²⁰ A substantial body of information indicates that risk influences in the start and progression of Alzheimer's disease; people who have a history for diabetes, pressure, obese, or tobacco have a considerably higher risk of acquiring the illness²¹. Another first relative with Alzheimer's disease, as well as a record of a brain injury resulting in loss of consciousness, are both possible causes for the illness's progression.

3.2. Clinical presentation

The most typical clinical presentation of Alzheimer's disease is that of an elderly person who is experiencing an insidious decrease in psychological features, most notably memory loss. Non-memory elements of psychological function, such as word-finding, vision/spatial problems, and poor thinking or judgement, are all visible at various phases. Patients now fulfil the criteria for mild cognitive impairment.²² Most people with Alzheimer's disease have medication symptoms at some point during their illness, with sadness and apathy being the most common early on. Delusions, hallucinations, and aggressiveness are more frequently noticed as the illness advances, and unit of time sleep-wake cycles are more accentuated than in individuals with conventional ageing.²³ As the condition advances, psychological issues become more noticeable and widespread, eventually affecting daily activities. The loss of the ability to execute instrumental and fundamental ADLs as a result of decrease in two or more domains, such as memory, language, and visuospatial function, personality, and behaviour, contributes to the diagnosis of AD dementedness.²² Death is prevalent among people who survive to the late stages of Alzheimer's disease, as a result of the illness's repercussions, such as increased sensitivity to falls, pressure sores, and infections, with a mean of 8 years from diagnosis to death.²⁴ World psychological characteristic screens, such as the MMSE and MOCA, and more specialised memory impairment tests, such as the 5fove-eord test, are believed to be useful for clinical detection of AD. A lot of formal identification is frequently done by experts, such as neurophysiologists.²⁵

FAD has the usual gestation described above, but at a much younger age. PSEN1 mutations have been linked to a variety of diseases, including seizures, spastic paresis, and muscular spasm.²² Atypical forms of Alzheimer's disease include posterior animal tissue atrophy, logogenic primary progressive aphasia, and frontal

variant Alzheimer's disease.²⁴ Posterior cortical atrophy is characterised by a gradual loss of higher visual capabilities, including a reduced capacity to understand, locate, and reach for things using visual guidance. During this variation of the healthiness, a limited skill in numeracy, reading, and implementation may also be a gift.²⁶

The language disruption emphasis of logging genic primary progressive encephalopathy is characterised by delayed word recall, word finding problems, and poor sentence repetition, although motor speech, grammar, and single-word understanding are spared.²⁷ Stereotypical behaviours, increasing apathy/behavioural disinhibition, and pathology are all symptoms of the frontal form of Alzheimer's disease.²⁸ These alternative displays are important to address, but they are quite likely to lead to a lot of global and typical picture of mental state and dementedness created by AD throughout time.

4. Causes

At first, increasing forgetfulness or subtle confusion may be the only symptoms of Alzheimer's disease that you notice, but as the disease progresses, it robs you of more of your memory, particularly recent memories. The rate at which symptoms worsen varies from person to person and is also dependent on the person's age.

If one got Alzheimer's, they will be the primary to note that they're having uncommon issue memory things and organising their thoughts. Otherwise they might not acknowledge that something is wrong, even once changes are noticeable to their family members, friends or co-workers and colleagues.

The causes of Alzheimer's disease can be explained using three hypotheses:

4.1. Cholinergic hypothesis

The cholinergic hypothesis of Alzheimer's disease is based on the observation of deficits in choline acetyltransferase and neurotransmitter (ACh), as well as the indisputable fact that Asch is critical for memory and learning. It was assumed that a decrease in cholinergic neurons, as well as cholinergic neuro transmission semiconductor diode, was linked to a loss in psychological and non-cognitive functions. Cholinergic function loss is linked to a reduction in psychological features, although no causal association has been shown.^{29,30} Furthermore, the use of enzyme inhibitors has no significant effect on the treatment of more than 12 Alzheimer's disease patients, showing the involvement of several essential mechanisms in the disease development.³⁰

4.2. Amyloid hypothesis

Amyloid accumulation abnormally in tissues, with altered amyloid proteins creating an insoluble - pleated sheet. In

amyloid protein deposits, there is a reduction in tissue and cellular clearance. The membrane protein amyloid-precursor protein (APP) undergoes proteolysis to create A, and it is the amyloid kind of A that forms the amyloid plaques (neuritic plaques) seen in Alzheimer's disease patients' brains.³¹ The foundation of Alzheimer's disease, according to the amyloid hypothesis, is the existence of A production in the brain.²⁹ Factor mutations encoding the amyloid-precursor macromolecule (APP) were discovered to cause familial Alzheimer's disease, with significant alterations in enzyme and APP.³¹ Chemical activity within the amyloidogenic pathway, mediated by enzyme (BACE1) and secretase, in the extracellular and transmembrane regions, respectively, generates A form APP. APPs and C99 are produced via cleavage by α -secretase. Any C99 that secretase cleaves to form either A1-40 or the more hydrophobic, aggregation-prone A1-42.³² In the cerebral vasculature, A40 is more prevalent.³³ In the non-amyloid sequence route, APP can also be cleaved by secretase, resulting in the production of C83. Any proof came from a study conducted in the 1990s, in which transgenic mice expressing three distinct isoforms of mutant APP were discovered to have Alzheimer's disease neuropathologists.³⁴ Despite broad agreement that A fibrils are the most likely cause of pathology in Alzheimer's disease, it was clearly stated that oligomerization of A1-42 plays a crucial role. A1-42 oligomerization generates soluble A oligomer, also known as A-derived diffusible ligands (ADDLs). Experiments have shown that these ADDLs are likely more damaging than A fibril since they target conjugation spines and impair synaptic plasticity, which is a crucial psychological characteristic. Poison receptors on cell surfaces, a tyrosine kinase receptor overexpressed in Alzheimer's disease.^{35,36} are responsible for their toxicity.

4.3. Tau hypothesis

The tau hypothesis is based on the discovery of neurofibrillary tangles (NFTs) in Alzheimer's patients. There is a rise in free tau among loss of functional microtubules as a result of increased phosphorylation of tau (previously absolute to microtubules).³⁷ Tau that has been phosphorylated is a subunit of paired helical filaments (PHFs), which are NFTs. Microtubule dysfunction affects protein transport in the neurofibril and leads to neuronal death.³⁸

5. Treatment

Currently, Alzheimer's disease therapy has little effect on the disease's development or underlying pathology. However, attempts are being done to increase the life expectancy of individuals with Alzheimer's disease by medicine and other therapy. The cholinergic hypothesis,

which links a reduction in cholinergic neurotransmission to a deterioration in psychological feature function⁸ provides the basis for most current medical specialties. Currently, there are two types of medical specialised medical treatment available for Alzheimer's disease: donepezil, rivastigmine, and galantamine are enzyme inhibitors, whereas mean time is a non-competitive N-Methyl-D-aspartate receptor antagonist.³ The enzyme inhibitors have been authorised for use in patients with mild, moderate, or severe Alzheimer's disease dementia, as well as Parkinson's disease dementia. Mean time has been authorised for use in individuals with moderate to severe Alzheimer's disease who are experiencing difficulty with alertness and concentration.

Various therapy goals focus on modifiable risk factors in one's general health and "cognitive reserve," as well as cardiovascular/lifestyle variables, such as a good diet and plenty of physical activity, as well as psychological feature involvement. The capacity to ward against pathologic insult is referred to as psychological feature reserve, which refers to the ability to engage with other conjugation routes or cognitive techniques to cope with the pathology of AD. By improving one's physical and mental well-being, clinical signs of Alzheimer's disease may be delayed.²⁵ Nutrition has been the subject of much research in Alzheimer's disease today, with the goal of preventing, stopping, or slowing down the course of the disease. Many routes are being investigated, including antioxidants, polyunsaturated fatty acids, B vitamins, folate, medium chain triglycerides, and combination medical meals. For example, the various actions inherent in any given antioxidant, such as reducing membrane lipid modification, limiting nucleic acid injury, and influencing strep enzyme pathways, may alter the pathways of cellular injury, resulting in the positive benefits of including them in a person with AD's diet.³⁹

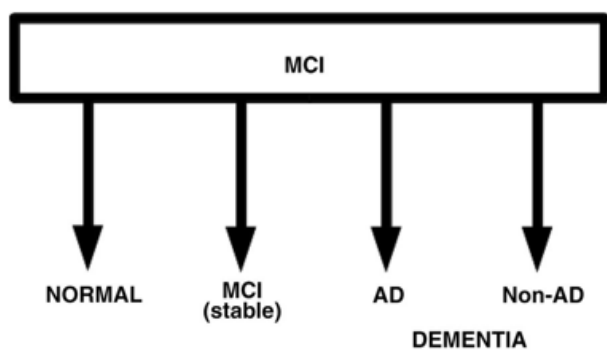
The antioxidant selegiline (15 mg twice daily) and A-tocopherol (1000 IU twice daily) have both been shown to prevent AD-like changes in the brains of AD genetic models of mice, and various clinical trials have shown an increase in median survival in patients with AD who were treated with selegiline (15 mg twice daily) and A-tocopherol (1000 IU twice daily).³⁹ Many large-scale clinical trials have also looked at polyunsaturated fatty acids, with one of the most famous being the legendary being research, which discovered that 900 mg of omega-3 daily is sufficient (DHA). When compared to a placebo, there was a 7-year improvement in knowledge over the course of 24 weeks. This and other studies have pointed to DHA's possible direct effects on neurodegeneration in Alzheimer's disease, as well as its far-reaching decrease in vascular disease.³⁹ The effect of polyunsaturated fatty acids on B vitamin function was investigated further in the DHA air regular management experiment. To begin, insufficient vitamin B causes the accumulation of homocysteine, a non-essential amino acid that, once increased, is recognised as a modifiable risk

factor for Alzheimer's disease and other dementias. This is supported by the findings of a study that found that vitamin B supplementation reduced the rate of brain shrinkage in senior persons with mild cognitive impairment both globally and regionally.⁴⁰ As a result, it's not surprising that the cluster that was not treated with vitamin B (folic acid and vitamins B6 and B12) showed that vitamin B and a polyunsaturated fatty acid level in the higher range of traditional interacted to slow cognitive decline, implying that elevated omega-3 acids alone significantly increased the cognitive impact of vitamin B.⁴⁰

Novel therapies for Alzheimer's disease are now being tested in clinical trials and are based on a variety of techniques. Three studies are now underway to efficiently remove Ab aggregates using gantenerumab, crenezumab, and aducanuman as treatment methods.⁴¹ Different future targets for treatment embrace targeting mitochondrial dysfunction, targeting excitotoxicity and misfolding super molecule aggregations via novel acetylcholinesterase inhibitors or NMDA- receptor antagonists, targeting autophagy and targeting neuroinflammation to call many.⁴¹ Links between the gut microbiota and Alzheimer's disease have also been discovered, and further research into dysbiosis and disease progression is being conducted in order to find new therapeutic options⁴².

6. Biomarkers of AD and MCI

A number of radiological and molecular methods are used to evaluate AD and MCI. In the brief period, indicators for Alzheimer's disease are required to enhance patient screening in clinical trials; however, diagnostics will be required in the longer term to detect susceptible persons for proper treatment and to also evaluate disease development and responsiveness to medication. This chapter identifies several of the most often used diagnostic techniques, as well as the understand the rationale with them during Alzheimer's disease and Parkinson's disease.



Clinical outcomes in people with vulnerable psychological characteristics impaired (Figure 3). (MCI). Many people with MCI receive treatment, that can be

characterized by Alzheimer's disease (AD) or other factors (e.g., cerebrovascular). However, a substantial percentage of MCI patients retain intellectual stabilization, with a few potentially returning to normal cognitive state.

6.1. Magnetic Resonance Imaging (MRI)

It employs a powerful magnetic field and frequency waves to non-invasively describe the anatomy of the brain by measuring the energy released by protons at various tissue components, such as grey matter, white matter, and body fluid (CSF). Regional patterns of brain shrinkage in individuals with MCI and AD have been studied using volumetric magnetic resonance imaging.^{43–45} The first and most noticeable MRI characteristic of AD, affecting the hippocampus and entorhinal cortex in particular, is medial lobe atrophy, which predicts progression from MCI to AD dementia.⁴⁶ On volumetric MRI, AD patients also have a significant expansion of the lateral ventricles, with portions of these ventricles close to the medial temporal lobe.⁴⁷ Diffusion tensor imaging (DTI) is a magnetic resonance imaging-based method that delineates the structure of nerve tissue within the brain and allows researchers to objectively examine the integrity of white matter fibre tracts by measuring the diffusion of water molecules.⁴⁸ AD and MCI impair key white matter routes in the brain, especially those connected to the limbic brain (e.g., fornix and cingulum).^{49,50} Finally, functional MRI is a neuroimaging method that measures blood-oxygen-level-dependent (hemodynamic) activity to indirectly assess brain function. The assessment of intrinsic brain activity, which occurs regardless of external stimulation, is one potential use of magnetic resonance imaging (known as 'resting-state' MRI).⁵¹ AD and MCI have been linked to reduced communication (functional connectivity) at intervals of the default mode network in resting-state MRI studies (DMN). A brain network involved in memory and internal information processing.⁵⁰

6.2. Antielectron Emission Imaging (AEI)

It is a nuclear imaging method that evaluates regional brain metabolism using 18F-fluorodeoxyglucose (FDG-PET) as a hot tracer. The hypometabolism of the posterior cingulate cortex and precuneus is the first indication of AD that may be seen on an associate degrees FDG-PET scan.⁵² At the MCI stage of the illness, this hypometabolism is also apparent.⁵³ FDG-PET has also been shown to be important in distinguishing between different types of dementia, notably Alzheimer's disease and frontotemporal dementia.^{53,54} In-vivo PET-based amyloid imaging, which employs a specific heated material that binds amyloid plaques within the brain, is a new advancement. City compound B (PiB) is a carbon-11-based amyloid-labelling ligand that is widely used in the analytic setting. Patients

with Alzheimer's disease had increased PiB binding in the temporal, parietal, and frontal brain areas, indicating extensive amyloid accumulation in plant tissue.⁵⁵ In 2012, the FDA authorised the fluorine-18-based florbetapir, a novel amyloid-labelling ligand, for clinical usage.⁵⁶ Although PET-based amyloid imaging is a novel and intriguing diagnostic technique for non-invasively detecting one of the characteristic molecular lesions of Alzheimer's disease, there are a number of practical concerns about its application in the clinical environment. In addition to its high cost, the clinical usefulness of a positive amyloid scan is a priority. A negative amyloid scan appears to rule out the possibility that a patient's psychological feature impairment is due to AD (high negative prognosticative value), whereas a positive amyloid scan is far less informative because it is positive in a number of cognitively traditional older adults, people, and folks) with other non-AD medicine conditions (low positive predictive value).⁵⁷ PET-based amyloid imaging is currently not covered by Medicaid or health insurance for normal clinical usage in Alzheimer's patients, but it is allowed for limited use (e.g., to rule out AD or to select patients for clinical trials).⁵⁸

6.3. Fluid Biomarkers

Super single - molecule indicators derived from CSF and bloodstream are also being investigated for the detection of Alzheimer's disease. Numerous investigations have used immunoassay to assess the concentration of different proteins in the CSF, and they showed that individuals with AD exhibited lower levels of the 42 amino acid isoform of the Ab (Ab-42) amide and increased degrees of phosphorylation tau (P-tau) peptide.^{59,60} A subsequent previous study found that the mathematical connection between baseline Ab-42 and P-tau may reliably assess the progression from MCI to AD⁶¹. In 2007, blood biomarkers were presented as a viable alternative to CSF indicators for the early detection of Alzheimer's disease.⁶² In recent decades, several studies have looked at the therapeutic efficacy of cell-signaling, immunological, physiological, and disease-related plasma super compounds, but the findings have been varied.^{63–65} Generally, more study is needed to normalize the assessment of CSF and plasma molecules, as well as to assess the clinical utility of secreted proteins for the diagnosis of Alzheimer's disease.

7. Conclusion

Alois Alzheimer characterised the first incidence of Alzheimer's disease over such a century ago, and great progress was made in comprehending the biology and clinical aspects of the disease has since. Substantial progress has been achieved in identifying pre-dementia stages of Alzheimer's disease, such as MCI, and extending testing and pharmaceutical choices for addressing Alzheimer's

disease. Our ability to develop a "cure" for Alzheimer's disease largely depends not only on a thorough knowledge of the cellular and molecular mechanisms that occur, as well as on selecting the strongest indicators for early imaging and treatment treatment in at-risk individuals. Acknowledging any need for clinically effective cinematography and other indicators for Alzheimer's disease early detection, the National Institutes of Health (NIA) established the Alzheimer's Disease Neuroimaging Initiative (ADNI) in 2004. In 2004, the National Institutes of Health (NIA) launched the Alzheimer's Disease Neuroimaging Initiative (ADNI). The ADNI, that has aims analogous to the Framingham Heart Study, might be a community collaboration and hence the highest mission of its kind, with the purpose of delivering randomized controlled neuroimaging listings clinical data, cognitive development, and biological specimens (e.g., blood and CSF) from MCI, AD, and healthy older people. The ADNI and other huge studies are expected to progress or modify the status quo in the case of considerably more viable therapies for Alzheimer's disease then are now available.

8. Conflict of Interest

The authors report no conflicts of interest. The authors alone are responsible for the content and writing of this article.

9. Source of Funding

None.

References

1. Crous-Bou M, Minguillón C, Gramunt N, Molinuevo JL. Alzheimer's disease prevention: from risk factors to early intervention. *Alzheimer's Res Ther.* 2017;9(1):71.
2. Alzheimer's disease facts and figures. *Alzheimer's Dement.* 2020;16(3):391–460.
3. Weller J, Budson A. Current understanding of Alzheimer's disease diagnosis and treatment. *F1000 Res.* 2018;7:1161. doi:10.12688/f1000research.14506.1.
4. Gilman S. Oxford American handbook of neurology. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press; 2010.
5. Mckhann GM, Knopman DS, Chertkow H, Hyman BT, Jack CR, Kawas CH, et al. The diagnosis of dementia due to Alzheimer's disease: recommendations from the National Institute on Aging-Alzheimer's Association workgroups on diagnostic guidelines for Alzheimer's disease. *Alzheimers Dement.* 2011;7(3):263–9.
6. Shadlen M, Larson E. Evaluation of cognitive impairment and dementia. Waltham, MA: UpToDate; 2010.
7. Plassman BL, Langa KM, Fisher GG, Heeringa SG, Weir DR, Ofstedal MB, et al. Prevalence of dementia in the United States: the aging, demographics, and memory study. *Neuroepidemiology.* 2007;29:125–32.
8. Barage SH, Sonawane KD. Amyloid cascade hypothesis: Pathogenesis and therapeutic strategies in Alzheimer's disease. *Neuropeptides.* 2015;52:1–8.
9. Shao W, Peng D, Wang X. Genetics of Alzheimer's disease: From pathogenesis to clinical usage. *J Clin Neurosci.* 2017;45:1–8.
10. Tiwari S, Atluri V, Kaushik A, Yndart A, Nair M. Alzheimer's disease: pathogenesis, diagnostics, and therapeutics. *Int J Nanomed.* 2019;14:5541.

11. Chen YG. Research progress in the pathogenesis of Alzheimer's disease. *Chinese Med J*. 2018;131(13):1618.
12. Jeong S. Molecular and Cellular Basis of Neurodegeneration in Alzheimer's Disease. *Molecules and Cells*. 2017;40(9):613–20. doi:10.14348/molcells.2017.0096.
13. Thies W, Bleiler L. Alzheimer's disease facts and figures. *Alzheimers Dement*. 2013;9:208–45.
14. Prince M, Bryce R, Albanese E, Wimo A, Ribeiro W, Ferri CP, et al. The global prevalence of dementia: a systematic review and metaanalysis. *Alzheimers Dement*. 2013;9:63–75. doi:10.1016/j.jalz.2012.11.007.
15. Ott A, Breteler MM, Harskamp FV, Claus J, van der Cammen TJ, Grobbee DE, et al. Prevalence of Alzheimer's disease and vascular dementia: association with education. The Rotterdam study. *BMJ*. 1995;310:970–3.
16. Querfurth HW, Laferla FM. Alzheimer's disease. *N Engl J Med*. 2010;362:32944. doi:10.1056/NEJMra0909142.
17. Holtzman DM, Morris JC, Goate AM. Alzheimer's disease: the challenge of the second century. *Sci Transl Med*. 2011;3:77. doi:10.1126/scitranslmed.3002369.
18. Reiman EM, Chen K, Alexander GE, Caselli RJ, Bandy D, Osborne D, et al. Correlations between apolipoprotein E epsilon4 gene dose and brain-imaging measurements of regional hypometabolism. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A*. 2005;102:8299302. doi:10.1073/pnas.0500579102.
19. Hebert LE, Scherr PA, Mccann JJ, Beckett LA, Evans DA. Is the risk of developing Alzheimer's disease greater for women than for men? *Am J Epidemiol*. 2001;153:1326. doi:10.1093/aje/153.2.132.
20. Stern Y. Cognitive reserve in ageing and Alzheimer's disease. *Lancet Neurol*. 2012;11(12):70191–6.
21. Barnes DE, Yaffe K. The projected effect of risk factor reduction on Alzheimer's disease prevalence. *Lancet Neurol*. 2011;10:819–28. doi:10.1016/S1474-4422(11)70072-2.
22. Lane CA, Hardy J, Schott JM. Alzheimer's disease. *Europ J Neurol*. 2018;25(1):59–70.
23. Lyketsos CG, Carrillo MC, Ryan JM, Khachaturian AS, Trzepacz P, Amatniek J, et al. Neuropsychiatric Symptoms in Alzheimer's Disease. *Alzheimers Dement*. 2011;7:532–9.
24. Eratne D, Loi SM, Farrand S, Kelso W, Velakoulis D, Looi JC, et al. Alzheimer's disease: clinical update on epidemiology, pathophysiology and diagnosis. *Australas Psychiatry*. 2018;26(4):347–57.
25. Aisen PS, Cummings J, Jack CR, Morris JC, Sperling R, Frölich L, et al. On the path to 2025: understanding the Alzheimer's disease continuum. *Alzheimer's Res Ther*. 2017;9(1):60.
26. Crutch SJ, Schott JM, Rabinovici GD, Murray M, Snowden JS, Flier WMVD, et al. Consensus classification of posterior cortical atrophy. *Alzheimer's Dement*. 2017;13(8):870–84.
27. Oh MJ, Kim S, Park YH, Suh J, Yi S. Early Onset Alzheimer's Disease Presenting as Logopenic Primary Progressive Aphasia. *Dement Neurocogn Disord*. 2018;17:66–70.
28. Villain N, Dubois B. Alzheimer's disease including focal presentations. In: *Seminars in neurology*. Thieme Med Pub. 2019;p. 213–26.
29. Thies W, Bleiler L. Alzheimer's disease facts and figures. *Alzheimer Dement*. 2013;9:208–45.
30. Francis PT, Palmer AM, Snape M. The cholinergic hypothesis of Alzheimer's disease: a review of progress. *J Neurol Neurosurg Psychiatry*. 1999;66:137–47.
31. Corbett A, Williams G, Ballart C. Drug repositioning: an opportunity to develop novel treatments for Alzheimer's disease. *Pharmaceuticals*. 2013;6:1304–21.
32. Rogawski MA, Wenk GL. The neuropharmacological basis for the use of Memantine in the treatment of Alzheimer's disease. *CNS Drug Rev*. 2003;9:275–308.
33. Alzheimer's Association; 2010.
34. Hsiao K, Chapman P, Nilsen S, Eckman C. Correlative memory deficits, A β elevation, and Amyloid plaques in transgenic mice. *Science*. 1996;274:99–102.
35. Lacor PN, Buniel MC, Furlow PW. Abeta oligomer-induced aberrations in synapse composition, shape, and density provide a molecular basis for loss of connectivity in Alzheimer's disease. *J Neurosci*. 2007;27:796–807.
36. Lambert MP, Barlow AK, Chromy BA. nonfibrillar ligands derived from Abeta1–42 are potent central nervous system neurotoxins. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA*. 1998;95:6448–53.
37. Mudher A, Lovestone S. Alzheimer's disease-do tauists and baptists finally shake hands? *Trends Neurosci*. 2002;25:22–6.
38. Trojanowski JQ, Lee V. The Alzheimer's brain: finding out what's broken tells us how to fix it. *Rous-Whipple Award Lecture*. 2005;167:1183–8.
39. Swaminathan A, Jicha GA. Nutrition and prevention of Alzheimer's dementia. *Front Aging Neurosci*. 2014;6:282.
40. Oulhaj A, Jerneřen F, Refsum H, Smith AD, Jager CAD. Omega-3 fatty acid status enhances the prevention of cognitive decline by B vitamins in mild cognitive impairment. *J Alzheimer's Dis*. 2016;50(2):547–57.
41. Bulck MV, Sierra-Magro A, Alarcon-Gil J, Perezcastillo A, Morales-Garcia JA. Novel approaches for the treatment of Alzheimer's and Parkinson's disease. *Int J Mol Sci*. 2019;20(3):719. doi:10.3390/ijms20030719.
42. Jiang C, Li G, Huang P, Liu Z, Zhao B. The gut microbiota and Alzheimer's disease. *J Alzheimer's Dis*. 2017;58(1):1–5.
43. Jack CR, Petersen RC, Xu YC, Waring SC, O'brien PC, Tangalos EG, et al. Medial temporal atrophy on MRI in normal aging and very mild Alzheimer's disease. *Neurology*. 1997;49:786–94.
44. Rabinovici GD, Seeley WW, Kim EJ, Gorno-Tempini ML, Rascovsky K, Pagliaro TA. Distinct MRI atrophy patterns in autopsy-proven Alzheimer's disease and frontotemporal lobar degeneration. *Am J Alzheimer's Dis Other Dement*. 2007;22:474–88. doi:10.1177/1533317507308779.
45. Whitwell JL, Petersen RC, Negash S, Weigand SD, Kantarci K, Ivnik RJ, et al. Patterns of atrophy differ among specific subtypes of mild cognitive impairment. *Arch Neurol*. 2007;64:1130–8. doi:10.1001/archneur.64.8.1130.
46. Devanand DP, Pradhaban G, Liu X, Khandji A, Santi SD, Segal S, et al. Hippocampal and entorhinal atrophy in mild cognitive impairment: prediction of Alzheimer disease. *Neurology*. 2007;68:828–36. doi:10.1212/01.wnl.0000256697.
47. Nestor SM, Rupsingh R, Borrie M, Smith M, Accomazzi V, Wells JL, et al. Ventricular enlargement as a possible measure of Alzheimer's disease progression validated using the Alzheimer's disease neuroimaging initiative database. *Brain*. 2008;131:2443–54. doi:10.1093/brain/awn146.
48. Mori S, Zhang J. Principles of diffusion tensor imaging and its applications to basic neuroscience research. *Neuron*. 2006;51:527–39. doi:10.1016/j.neuron.2006.08.012.
49. Bozoki AC, Korolev IO, Davis NC, Hoisington LA, Berger KL. Disruption of limbic white matter pathways in mild cognitive impairment and Alzheimer's disease: a DTI/FDG-PET study. *Hum Brain Mapp*. 2012;33:1792–802. doi:10.1002/hbm.21320 22.
50. Zhu DC, Majumdar S, Korolev IO, Berger KL, Bozoki AC. Alzheimer's disease and amnesic mild cognitive impairment weaken connections within the default-mode network: a multi-modal imaging study. *J Alzheimer's Dis*. 2013;34:969–84. doi:10.3233/JAD-121879.
51. Cole DM, Smith SM, Beckmann CF. Advances and pitfalls in the analysis and interpretation of resting-state FMRI data. *Front Syst Neurosci*. 2010;4:8. doi:10.3389/fnsys.2010.00008.
52. Minoshima S, Giordani B, Berent S, Frey KA, Foster NL, Kuhl DE, et al. Metabolic reduction in the posterior cingulate cortex in very early Alzheimer's disease. *Ann Neurol*. 1997;42:85–94. doi:10.1002/ana.410420114.
53. Mosconi L, Tsui WH, Herholz K, Pupi A, Drzezga A, Lucignani G, et al. Multicenter standardized 18F-FDG PET diagnosis of mild cognitive impairment, Alzheimer's disease, and other dementias. *J Nucl Med*. 2008;49:390–8. doi:10.2967/jnumed.107.045385.
54. Foster NL, Heidebrink JL, Clark CM, Jagust WJ, Arnold SE, Barbas NR, et al. FDG-PET improves accuracy in distinguishing frontotemporal dementia and Alzheimer's disease.

- Brain*. 2007;130:2616–35. doi:10.1093/brain/awm177.
55. Jack CR, Lowe VJ, Senjem ML, Weigand SD, Kemp BJ, Shiung MM, et al. 11C PiB and structural MRI provide complementary information in imaging of Alzheimer's disease and amnesic mild cognitive impairment. *Brain*. 2008;131:665–80. doi:10.1093/brain/awm336.
 56. Yang L, Rieves D, Ganley C. Brain amyloid imaging FDA approval of florbetapir F18 injection. *N Engl J Med*. 2012;367:885–7. doi:10.1056/NEJMp1208061.
 57. Pearson SD, Ollendorf DA, Colby JA. Amyloid-b positron emission tomography in the diagnostic evaluation of Alzheimer disease: summary of primary findings and conclusions. *JAMA Intern Med*. 2014;174:133–4. doi:10.1001/jamain-ternmed.2013.11711.
 58. U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Centres for Medicare and Medicaid Services (2013). Decision memo for beta amyloid positron emission tomography in dementia and neurodegenerative disease (CAG-00431N). Available from: <http://www.cms.gov/medicare-coverage-database/details/nca-decision-memo.aspx?NCAId=265> [cited 21 April 2014].
 59. Vemuri P, Wiste HJ, Weigand SD, Shaw LM, Trojanowski JQ, Weiner MW, et al. MRI and CSF biomarkers in normal, MCI, and AD subjects: diagnostic discrimination and cognitive correlations. *Neurology*. 2009;73:287–93. doi:10.1212/WNL.0b013e3181af79e5.
 60. Weiner MW, Veitch DP, Aisen PS, Beckett LA, Cairns NJ, Green RC, et al. The Alzheimer's Disease Neuroimaging Initiative: a review of papers published since its inception. *Alzheimer's. Dement*. 2012;8:1–68. doi:10.1016/j.jalz.2011.09.172.
 61. Buchhave P, Minthon L, Zetterberg H, Wallin AK, Blennow K, Hansson O, et al. Cerebrospinal fluid levels of b-amyloid 1-42, but not of tau, are fully changed already 5 to 10 years before the onset of Alzheimer dementia. *Arch Gen Psychiatry*. 2012;69:98–106. doi:10.1001/archgenpsychiatry.2011.155.
 62. Ray S, Britschgi M, Herbert C, Takeda-Uchimura Y, Boxer A, Blennow K, et al. Classification and prediction of clinical Alzheimer's diagnosis based on plasma signalling proteins. *Nat Med*. 2007;13:1359–62. doi:10.1038/nm1653.
 63. Johnstone D, Milward EA, Berretta R, Moscato P. Multivariate protein signatures of pre-clinical Alzheimer's disease in the Alzheimer's disease neuroimaging initiative (ADNI) plasma proteome dataset. *PLoS One*. 2007;7:34341. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0034341.
 64. Rkqvist MB, Ohlsson M, Minthon L, Hansson O. Evaluation of a previously suggested plasma biomarker panel to identify Alzheimer's disease. *PLoS One*. 2012;7:29868. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0029868.
 65. Doecke JD, Laws SM, Faux NG, Wilson W, Burnham SC, Lam CP, et al. Blood-based protein biomarkers for diagnosis of Alzheimer disease. *Arch Neurol*. 2012;69:1318–25. doi:10.1001/archneurol.2012.128.

Author biography

Shivani Sharma, Student

Cite this article: Sharma S. Alzheimer's disease: Causes, treatment & basic science review. *IP Int J Comprehensive Adv Pharmacol* 2021;6(3):108-116.