



阿尔茨海默病中氧化应激相关信号通路 及抗氧化治疗*

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摘要 阿尔茨海默病 (Alzheimer's disease, AD) 是一种以认知功能减退、生活能力下降及精神行为异常为临床表现的神经系统退行性疾病, 是老年期痴呆的最常见类型。随着对 AD 研究的深入, 人们提出了许多致病机制, 其中氧化应激在 AD 的发病机制中起着重要作用, 引起了广泛关注。氧化应激是机体固有的生理过程, 当其失衡时会导致细胞损伤, 在 AD 患者的大脑中, 氧化应激水平显著升高。氧化应激对 AD 有多种影响, 包括损伤神经细胞, 干扰 β 淀粉样蛋白 (amyloid β -protein, A β) 代谢, 影响微管相关蛋白 (tubulin associated unit, tau) 磷酸化, 导致线粒体功能障碍, 引起神经炎症等。本文重点综述了 AD 中与氧化应激相关的信号通路, 包括核转录因子红系 2 相关因子 2 (nuclear factor-erythroid 2-related factor 2, Nrf2)、钙调磷酸酶调节蛋白 1 (regulator of calcineurin 1, RCAN1)、蛋白磷酸酶 2A (protein phosphatase 2A, PP2A)、环磷酸腺苷应答元件结合蛋白质 (cyclic AMP response element binding protein, CREB)、Notch1、核因子 κ B (nuclear factor- κ B, NF- κ B)、载脂蛋白 E (apolipoprotein E, ApoE) 和铁死亡相关信号通路, 并总结了当前临床应用和研究中的抗氧化治疗相关策略。通过综合运用不同信号通路的治疗特点, 期待未来开发出更加完善的多靶点联合治疗方案以及联合纳米分子递送系统突破血脑屏障, 为 AD 提供更多更有效的治疗策略。

关键词 阿尔茨海默病, 氧化应激, tau, β 淀粉样蛋白, 信号通路, 抗氧化治疗

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《2023 年度国家老龄事业发展公报》的数据显示, 中国 60 岁及以上人口的比重达到 18.7%, 其中 65 岁及以上人口比重达到 13.5%。老龄化加剧是神经退行性疾病高发的关键驱动因素之一, 在全球范围内造成了重大的精神、社会和经济负担^[1]。阿尔茨海默病 (Alzheimer's disease, AD) 是老年期痴呆症最常见的类型, 在 60 岁以上老年人中发病率达 5% 以上, 在 85 岁以上老年人中高达 30%^[2]。越来越多的研究表明, 氧化应激在 AD 中扮演着关键角色。在 AD 患者的大脑中, 检测到患者脑内多种氧化应激生物标志物水平显著升高^[3]。氧化应激产生的自由基, 能够直接或间接氧化、损伤脂质、蛋白质和 DNA, 引起脂质过氧化、蛋白质变性与基因突变^[4]。

AD 的核心病理特征表现为 β 淀粉样蛋白 (amyloid β -protein, A β) 在脑组织中异常沉积, 以及微管相关蛋白 (tubulin associated unit, tau) 过

度磷酸化导致的神经原纤维缠结 (neurofibrillary tangle, NFT)。当 A β 积累到一定程度时, 会对神经元产生有害影响并引发氧化应激, 氧化损伤会对金属离子配位产生影响, 进一步加剧氧化 A β 肽产生活性氧类 (reactive oxygen species, ROS) 和 A β 聚集^[5]。一方面, A β 低聚物破坏 N-甲基-D-天冬氨酸 (NMDA) 受体的活性, 导致细胞外 ROS 的产生和过多的钙流入神经元, 进而导致线粒体功能障碍, 影响神经元的存活和结构发育以及突触可塑性的形成等^[6]。另一方面, A β 低聚物聚集产生 A β 纤维和细胞外细胞表面蛋白, 导致氧化应激并促进细胞凋亡^[7]。A β 的异常聚集可产生大量 ROS, 这些 ROS 进一步激活炎症信号通路, 致使神经元的炎症反应加剧, 加重神经损伤^[8]。氧化应激可以通

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过直接或者间接作用引起 tau 的过度磷酸化^[9-10]。tau 磷酸化增加会破坏 tau 蛋白和微管相互作用的稳定性, 导致微管运输缺陷, 最终导致神经元死亡^[11]。tau 蛋白从微管上解离并聚集成 NFT, 干扰神经细胞的轴突运输和信号传递, 进一步加重神经退行性变, 最新研究发现 A β 可以通过引发神经元超连接来促进 tau 传播^[12]。此外, 线粒体功能改变、电子传递链失调等产生的 ROS, 会使聚集的

A β 和 NFT 增加, 进一步刺激 ROS 生成^[13]。氧化应激与这些病理过程的交互作用, 构成了 AD 发病机制的核心环节^[14]。

近年来氧化应激和抗氧化治疗在 AD 中的作用已成为研究热点。本文主要讨论了氧化应激诱导 AD 的相关机制以及其中所涉及的氧化应激相关信号通路 (图 1), 包括核转录因子红系 2 相关因子 2 (nuclear factor-erythroid 2-related factor 2, Nrf2)、

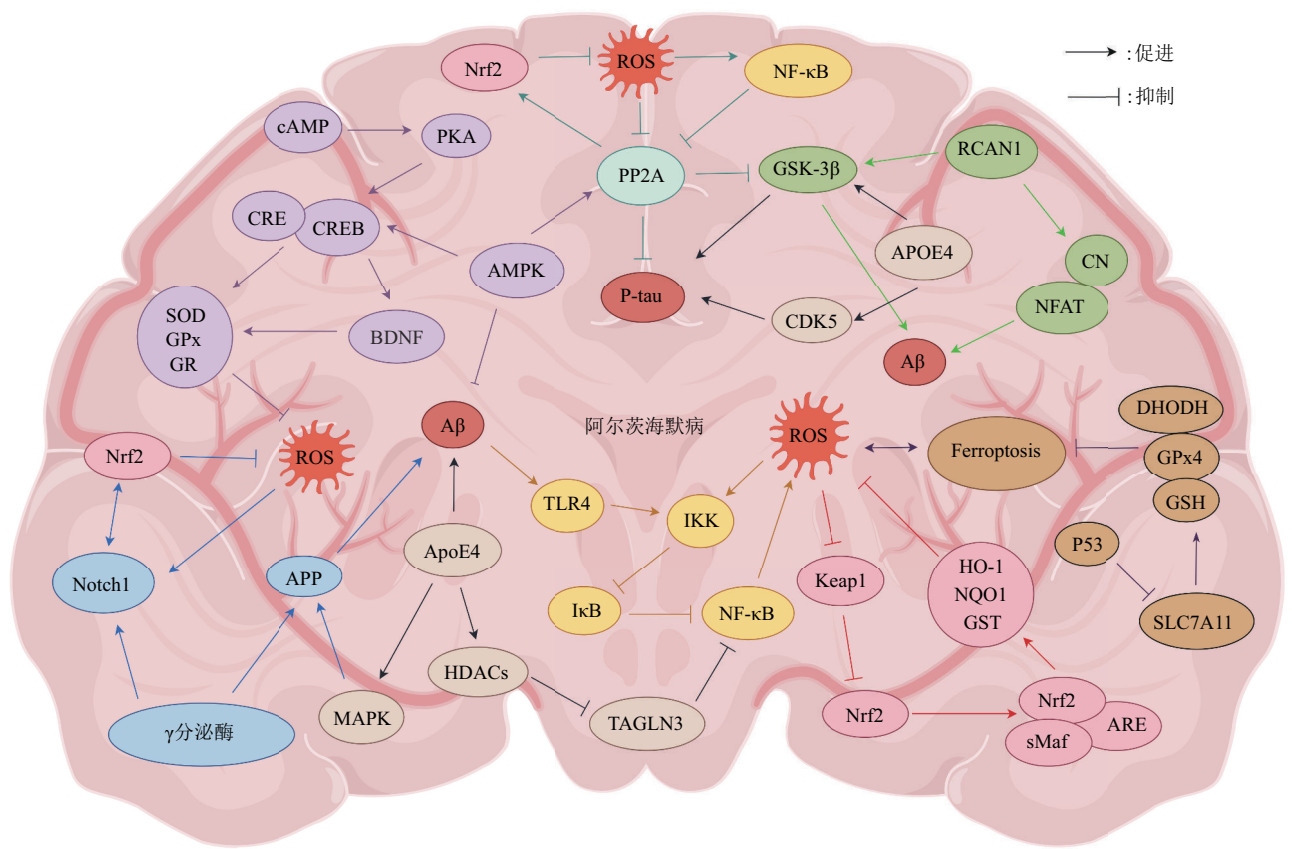


Fig. 1 Oxidative stress-related signaling pathway in Alzheimer's disease
图1 阿尔茨海默病中氧化应激相关信号通路

阿尔茨海默病 (Alzheimer's disease, AD) 中氧化应激相关信号通路存在多层次调控网络, 本图基于现有证据重点呈现核心调控框架, 部分次要调控关系未予体现。不同的颜色用于区分不同的信号通路, 如黄色表示NF-κB相关信号通路, 粉色表示Nrf2相关信号通路。Nrf2: 核转录因子红系2相关因子2 (nuclear factor-erythroid 2-related factor 2); Keap1: Kelch样ECH关联蛋白1 (Kelch like ECH-associated protein-1); sMaf: 小 Maf 蛋白 (small Maf proteins); ARE: 抗氧化响应元件 (antioxidant response element); NQO1: NAD (P) H 醌脱氢酶 1 (NADPH: quinone oxoreductase 1); HO-1: 血红素加氧酶1 (heme oxygenase 1); GST: 谷胱甘肽转移酶 (glutathione S-transferase); ferroptosis: 铁死亡; GPx4: 谷胱甘肽过氧化物酶 4 (glutathione peroxidase 4); DHODH: 二氢乳清酸脱氢酶 (dihydroorotate dehydrogenase); GSH: 还原型谷胱甘肽 (glutathione); SLC7A11: 系统Xc⁻亚基; P53: 肿瘤蛋白53 (tumor protein 53); RCAN1: 钙调磷酸酶调节蛋白1 (regulator of calcineurin 1); GSK-3β: 糖原合成酶激酶3β (glycogen synthase kinase 3β); CN: 钙调磷酸酶 (calcineurin); NFAT: T细胞核因子 (nuclear factor of activated T-cells); PP2A: 蛋白磷酸酶2A (protein phosphatase 2A); P-tau: 微管相关蛋白磷酸化 (microtubule-associated protein phosphorylation); cAMP: 环磷酸腺苷 (cyclic adenosine monophosphate); PKA: 蛋白激酶A (protein kinase A); AMPK: AMP活化的蛋白质激酶 (AMP-activated protein kinase); CRE: 环磷酸腺苷应答元件 (cyclic adenosine monophosphate-response element); CREB: 环磷酸腺苷应答元件结合蛋白质 (cyclic AMP response element binding protein); BDNF: 脑源性神经营养因子 (brain-derived neurotrophic factor); SOD: 超氧化物歧化酶 (superoxide dismutase); GPx: 谷胱甘肽过氧化物酶 (glutathione peroxidase); GR: 谷胱甘肽还原酶 (glutathione reductase); Aβ: β淀粉样蛋白 (amyloid β-protein); APP: 淀粉样前体蛋白 (amyloid precursor protein); MAPK: 促分裂原活化的蛋白质激酶 (mitogen-activated protein kinase); ApoE4: 载脂蛋白E4 (apolipoprotein E4); HDACs: 组蛋白去乙酰化酶 (histone deacetylases); TAGLN3: 转胶蛋白 3 (transgelin 3); CDK5: 细胞周期蛋白依赖性激酶5 (cyclin-dependent kinase 5); NF-κB: 核因子κB (nuclear factor-κB); TLR4: Toll样受体4 (Toll-Like receptor 4); IκB: 核因子κB抑制蛋白 (inhibitor-κ binding protein); IKK: IκB激酶 (IκB kinase)。本图采用Figdraw绘制。

钙调磷酸酶调节蛋白1 (regulator of calcineurin 1, RCAN1)、蛋白磷酸酶2A (protein phosphatase 2A, PP2A)、环磷酸腺苷应答元件结合蛋白质 (cyclic AMP response element binding protein, CREB)、Notch1、核因子 κ B (nuclear factor- κ B, NF- κ B)、载脂蛋白E (apolipoprotein E, ApoE)和铁死亡等相关信号通路,它们通过调控氧化应激及彼此之间的一些相互作用共同调控AD的疾病进展。另外,文章针对当前的抗氧化治疗策略进行了总结与归纳,期望能够为AD基础研究和临床治疗策略提供更多的创新思路。

1 阿尔茨海默病中氧化应激相关信号通路

1.1 Nrf2信号通路

Nrf2作为细胞内氧化还原稳态的关键调节因子,通过调控一系列参与氧化应激反应的基因表达,帮助细胞构建起针对氧化物质的防御体系^[15]。Nrf2主要受Kelch样ECH关联蛋白1 (Kelch like ECH-associated protein-1, Keap1)调节,Keap1通常与泛素连接酶E3骨架蛋白 (Cullin3, Cul3)结合形成E3泛素连接酶复合体 (Keap1-Cul3-Rbx1),Keap1通过其Kelch结构域与Nrf2的Neh2结构域结合,将Nrf2锚定至Cul3-Rbx1泛素连接酶复合体,形成Keap1-Cul3-Rbx1-Nrf2四元复合体,复合体催化Nrf2多泛素化修饰,使其被蛋白酶体识别并降解,维持Nrf2在细胞质中的低水平稳态。当细胞遭遇氧化应激,ROS将Keap1的半胱氨酸残基修饰,导致Keap1构象改变并阻止其泛素化Nrf2^[16]。Nrf2进入细胞核后与小Maf蛋白 (small Maf proteins, sMaf)形成异二聚体,识别并结合抗氧化响应元件 (antioxidant response element, ARE),启动抗氧化基因的转录程序,使NAD(P)H醌脱氢酶1 (NADPH: quinone oxoreductase 1, NQO1)、血红素加氧酶1 (heme oxygenase 1, HO-1)、谷胱甘肽转移酶 (glutathione S-transferase, GST)等抗氧化酶的相对表达量升高^[17]。这些抗氧化酶不仅能够增强ATP生成,提升线粒体活性,还能有效抵御氧化损伤,从而维持细胞的正常生理功能。

在AD病理条件下,Keap1蛋白表达上调,与Nrf2的结合增强,导致Nrf2核转位显著减少,削弱大脑的内源性抗氧化能力,从而破坏细胞对氧化应激和神经炎症的防御^[18]。在敲低Nrf2的小鼠神经元内氧化损伤标志物明显增加,线粒体功能受损更严重,认知功能障碍也更显著,这表明Nrf2信

号通路对神经元具有重要的保护作用^[19]。值得注意的是,AD的病情和Nrf2的调节是负反馈调节。随着AD病理加重,Nrf2的活性逐渐下降,使小胶质细胞对氧化应激更为敏感,并通过NF- κ B诱导小胶质细胞向促炎表型转变,促炎性小胶质细胞随后产生具有神经毒性的一氧化氮和促炎介质,加剧突触损伤、磷酸化tau蛋白的积累和神经元丧失^[20]。在小胶质细胞中恢复Nrf2可以阻止促炎性小胶质细胞的激活,并显著阻断AD小脑中的tau蛋白集聚^[20]。直接抑制Keap1和Nrf2之间的相互作用是一种有效策略,通过抑制A β 及tau蛋白相关的病理过程,改善突触功能,进而能够改善患者的认知障碍^[21]。

1.2 RCAN1信号通路

RCAN1是一种内源性钙调磷酸酶 (calcineurin, CN)抑制剂,主要参与调节钙信号通路和细胞应激反应,通过直接结合CN的催化亚基,阻断其磷酸酶活性,从而抑制T细胞核因子 (nuclear factor of activated T-cells, NFAT)去磷酸化,调控AD的病理进程^[22]。CN也可直接作用于神经元突触前和突触后的关键靶点,使其去磷酸化,深度参与突触可塑性与记忆形成的多个环节^[23]。RCAN1对CN调节起双重作用,一方面RCAN1可通过抑制CN/NFAT信号通路参与多种病理生理过程,另一方面RCAN1可活化CN信号通路,其可能与RCAN1磷酸化有关^[24]。当糖原合成酶激酶3 β (glycogen synthase kinase 3 β , GSK-3 β)介导RCAN1 (Ser108)磷酸化时,可激活CN,促进长时程抑制的发生;而当蛋白激酶A (protein kinase A, PKA)介导RCAN1 (Ser93)磷酸化时,则会抑制CN,促进长时程增强的诱导^[25]。在AD中RCAN1通常表达异常,通过CN/NFAT通路抑制血管生成以及通过CN依赖性或不依赖性途径抑制神经发生,从而加剧氧化应激和神经元凋亡^[26-27]。

RCAN1因其亚型特异性和病理程度具有多向调控作用。在AD模型中,RCAN1可通过调节GSK-3 β 和CN活性,使 β 分泌酶和 γ 分泌酶相关蛋白过表达,促进淀粉样前体蛋白 (amyloid precursor protein, APP)加工进而增强A β 的产生^[28-29]。线粒体氧化应激和A β 累积,可在神经元中诱导RCAN1表达,进而破坏神经元钙稳态,并增强神经元对氧化应激的敏感性,而且RCAN1通过影响线粒体功能进一步促进ROS生成,形成AD病理的恶性循环^[30]。在AD患者脑内,RCAN1-IL

蛋白水平升高2倍, 虽然CN可以直接使tau去磷酸化, 但它占细胞内tau去磷酸化的不到10%, 而RCAN1-1L直接激活GSK-3 β , 可在多个位点磷酸化tau, 诱导NFTs聚集并加速纤维化^[29, 31]。此外, RCAN1可以与I κ B α 结合, 影响I κ B α (Tyr42)的磷酸化, 抑制NF- κ B核转位和DNA结合活性, 使NF- κ B下游抗凋亡基因表达降低、凋亡增加^[32]。在病理状态时, 抑制RCAN1的表达使NF- κ B信号通路得到一定的恢复, 可诱导抗氧化酶的表达, 有助于清除自由基、减轻氧化应激^[33]。

1.3 PP2A信号通路

PP2A作为一种丝氨酸/苏氨酸磷酸酶, 广泛参与调控细胞周期、信号转导、代谢和应激反应等多种细胞过程, 且参与神经发育过程的调控^[34]。在信号转导的级联反应中, PP2A与其他磷酸化酶和激酶相互作用, 构成调节大分子, 进而调控下游信号的转导, 其催化亚基的活性主要受转录后水平的磷酸化和甲基化状态调控^[35]。氧化应激可诱导PP2A去甲基化, 促使全活性的PP2A全酶三聚体解离为活性较低的二聚体形式, PP2A的活化已被视为对抗氧化应激的潜在治疗靶点^[36]。

在AD中, PP2A通过其催化活性、亚基表达及翻译后修饰(如甲基化/磷酸化)调控tau过度磷酸化、A β 生成和神经炎症^[37]。氧化应激可诱导PP1/PP2A失活, 导致PP2A甲基化失调, 这会增强tau蛋白的磷酸化, 进而引发tau蛋白错误定位、微管稳定性下降, 并损害神经元轴突运输功能, 最终使神经元氧化还原状态失衡, 形成恶性循环^[38]。此外, ROS抑制PP2A还会促进GSK-3 β 的激活, 而GSK-3 β 活性升高可能进一步加剧AD中tau的过度磷酸化和NFTs形成^[39]。有研究表明, 使用PP2A激活剂(如三环磺酰胺)可降低AD模型小鼠的tau磷酸化水平, 改善神经炎症和认知功能^[40]。此外, ROS可以通过负向调节NF- κ B介导的促炎信号使PP2A失活, 促进炎症因子释放并诱导氧化应激, 加剧神经元的损伤^[41]。在抗氧化防御方面, PP2A可通过去磷酸化Nrf2, 促进其核转位和抗氧化基因的转录; 若PP2A活性降低, 则会抑制Nrf2通路, 削弱细胞的抗氧化防御能力^[42]。

1.4 CREB信号通路

CREB信号通路主要是细胞外信号(如神经递质、激素等)作用于相应受体后, 通过G蛋白偶联受体等途径激活腺苷酸环化酶, 使细胞内环磷酸腺苷(cyclic adenosine monophosphate, cAMP)水平

升高, 进而激活PKA进入细胞核, 使CREB磷酸化, 磷酸化的CREB与DNA上的环磷酸腺苷应答元件(cyclic adenosine monophosphate response element, CRE)结合, 调控靶基因的转录, 主要参与细胞的生长、发育、学习、记忆等生理过程^[43]。尤其在神经系统中, CREB作为许多信号通路的终止与交汇点, 参与神经干细胞增殖、细胞周期调控、神经元诱导分化等, 对于突触可塑性的长期变化至关重要, 介导了短期记忆向长期记忆的转化^[44]。

一项针对小鼠的研究发现, 通过药物激活CREB信号通路, 可改善AD模型小鼠的认知功能, 减少脑内氧化应激水平^[45]。在AD患者大脑中, CREB信号通路通常受损, 使超氧化物歧化酶(superoxide dismutase, SOD)和谷胱甘肽过氧化物酶(glutathione peroxidase, GPx)等抗氧化基因表达下降, ROS清除能力降低, 加剧氧化应激^[46]。AMP活化的蛋白质激酶(AMP-activated protein kinase, AMPK)可通过调控上游信号分子间接影响CREB活性。在AD中, 脑能量代谢异常(如线粒体功能失调)会直接导致ROS过度生成, AMPK可以改善异常的脑能量代谢, 不仅可以减少A β 沉积, 还可以通过PP2A减少tau过度磷酸化^[47]。A β 也可通过抑制CREB的磷酸化来调控脑源性神经营养因子(brain-derived neurotrophic factor, BDNF)等的转录^[48]。BDNF参与认知功能和神经元可塑性的调节, 也能够上调一些抗氧化酶的表达谷胱甘肽还原酶(glutathione reductase, GR)和SOD^[49]。基于CREB-BDNF信号转导的靶向设计药物或遗传治疗方法可能是一个有效的AD治疗策略。

1.5 Notch1信号通路

Notch是一种细胞表面受体, 在动物发育过程中介导细胞间通讯。在神经元中Notch1信号通路调控着记忆的形成、巩固, 同时也与氧化应激有着密切关系^[50]。Notch1受体主要集中于海马, 对已分化成熟的神经元具有调控作用, 还参与了发育完全的成年人长期记忆的形成和神经退行性变后的记忆丧失^[51]。Notch1受体的活化依赖 γ 分泌酶介导的跨膜区切割, 释放细胞内结构域, 进而调控转录^[52]。通过使用 γ 分泌酶抑制剂或者特异性敲除Notch1基因, 细胞内NADPH氧化酶表达增加, 氧化应激水平随之升高^[53]。Nrf2可通过转录激活Notch配体和受体, 增强Notch通路活性, Notch激

活可进一步增强 Nrf2 活性,从而增强了抗氧化酶的表达^[54]。因此,Notch1 信号通路的功能缺失则加剧氧化应激的状态,而氧化应激能够上调 Notch1 和 Nrf2 信号通路的表达,以增强抗氧化活性,但是 ROS 过量时也可减弱它们之间的作用^[55]。

γ 分泌酶除了剪切 Notch1 之外,同时也负责 APP 的剪切,Notch1 通路的失调会导致 APP 剪切增多、A β 沉积,最终引起 AD 病理的发生与发展^[56]。在 AD 中,一方面,长期 A β 积累通过破坏线粒体功能和 ROS 生成,导致 Notch1 稳定性下降,使神经干细胞的增殖和分化异常,影响神经元的再生和修复能力,另一方面,Notch1 信号通路失活会形成 Notch1-APP 病理轴,并使小胶质细胞对 A β 斑块的吞噬能力下降,促进 A β 的产生和沉积^[57]。此外,在氧化应激的条件下,Notch1 受剪切减少,可能通过磷脂酰肌醇 3 激酶 (phosphatidylinositol 3-kinase, PI3K) 等信号通路破坏神经元自噬稳态,导致神经元死亡增多诱发 AD^[55]。通过特异性调控 Notch1 剪切和适时使用 γ 分泌酶调节剂等多靶点联合可以作为 AD 的治疗策略。

1.6 NF- κ B 信号通路

NF- κ B 通常与核因子 κ B 抑制蛋白 (inhibitor- κ binding protein, I κ B) 结合,以无活性形式存在于胞质中。当细胞受到炎症因子或氧化应激刺激时,I κ B 激酶 (I κ B kinase, IKK) 磷酸化 I κ B,促使其被蛋白酶体降解,释放的 NF- κ B (如 p50/p65 二聚体) 转入核内启动靶基因转录,调控免疫、炎症及细胞存活等过程^[58-59]。NF- κ B 动态反馈调节细胞内 ROS 水平,形成双向调控动态平衡^[60]。NF- κ B 诱导 NADPH 氧化酶等表达,会增加 ROS 生成,如炎症反应中吞噬细胞的“呼吸爆发”^[61]。而 NF- κ B 通过负反馈调节抗氧化基因,如锰超氧化物歧化酶 (manganese superoxide dismutase, MnSOD) 等,可以清除过量 ROS,限制自身过度激活^[60]。

氧化应激与炎症反应通过协同激活 NF- κ B 通路,共同驱动 AD 的疾病进程。在 AD 患者脑内 A β 42 通过结合小胶质细胞的 Toll 样受体 4 (Toll-like receptor 4, TLR4),激活 IKK 通路,导致 NF- κ B 核转位^[62]。由于 NF- κ B 上调的基因的不同性质,调控的效果也不相同,星形胶质细胞中 NF- κ B 通过上调白介素-1 β 等促炎因子加剧神经炎症,而神经元中 NF- κ B 可能通过诱导抗凋亡蛋白如肿瘤坏死

因子受体相关因子等表达,发挥神经保护作用^[63]。NF- κ B 的激活是短暂的还是持续的,也决定了脑内细胞反应的性质,NF- κ B 的短暂激活能够使细胞快速应对外界刺激,维持神经系统的正常功能和内环境稳定。但在小胶质细胞中持续激活会导致 DNA 甲基化重塑,形成“炎症记忆”,加剧 A β 病理^[64-65]。此外,也有研究表明 NF- κ B 通过抑制线粒体生物发生关键调控因子导致神经元线粒体功能障碍进而加剧氧化应激^[66]。

1.7 ApoE 信号通路

ApoE 作为一种与脂质代谢相关的蛋白质,其遗传位点上的 3 个主要等位基因 ϵ 2、 ϵ 3、 ϵ 4 编码 3 种异构体 (E2/E3/E4),因单个氨基酸差异而具有不同的受体亲和力与抗氧化能力^[67-68]。其中,ApoE- ϵ 2 可通过促进胆固醇代谢和增强抗氧化防御发挥保护作用^[68-69]。而 ApoE- ϵ 4 基因可显著增加患 AD 风险,在 ApoE- ϵ 4 携带者的大脑中,氧化应激水平较高,星形胶质细胞清除脂滴 (lipid droplets, LD) 能力受损并且对脂质过氧化敏感性增加,进而使神经元膜脂质代谢异常^[70-71]。可溶性 A β 从脑间质液中的清除以 ApoE 异构体依赖的方式发生,ApoE4 的效率低于 ApoE2 或 ApoE3^[72]。ApoE 激活神经元中的非经典促分裂原活化的蛋白质激酶 (mitogen-activated protein kinase, MAPK) 信号通路,可增强 APP 合成,其效力顺序为 ApoE4> ApoE3> ApoE2,与 AD 风险顺序一致^[73]。

ApoE4 通过影响免疫系统的功能,增强微胶质细胞的活化,会导致更多的氧化性损伤和炎症反应^[74]。ApoE4 招募组蛋白去乙酰化酶 (histone deacetylases, HDACs) 至转胶蛋白 3 (transgelin 3, TAGLN3) 启动子区域,使组蛋白乙酰化水平降低,抑制 TAGLN3 转录^[75]。TAGLN3 作为肌动蛋白结合蛋白,可通过稳定细胞骨架抑制 NF- κ B p65 亚基的核转位,其表达抑制会促使神经胶质细胞进入促炎状态,诱发脑部炎症^[75]。ApoE4 携带者的血小板和淋巴细胞处于应激状态,影响巨噬细胞的 A β 吞噬能力,增加 A β 在脑内的积累,从而加重氧化应激的程度^[76]。ApoE4 激活 GSK-3 β 和细胞周期蛋白依赖性激酶 5 (cyclin-dependent kinase 5, CDK5) 会促进 tau 磷酸化^[77]。此外,ApoE- ϵ 4 携带者的大脑中线粒体功能可能受损,线粒体损伤的加剧导致细胞能量代谢紊乱,并且线粒体损伤还会增加钙离子内流,进一步促进细胞死亡^[78]。

1.8 铁死亡信号通路

铁死亡是一种由铁依赖性脂质过氧化积累所驱动的调节性细胞死亡方式^[79]。细胞内铁的摄取、储存和释放是铁死亡调控的关键环节,过量的铁会催化Fenton反应,加剧ROS产生,从而进一步促进脂质过氧化,启动铁死亡进程^[80-81]。多不饱和脂肪酸(polyunsaturated fatty acids, PUFA)是脂质过氧化的主要底物,在铁离子和ROS的作用下,PUFA被氧化形成脂质过氧化物,其中磷脂过氧化产物会破坏细胞膜的结构和功能,参与脂质过氧化的酶,如脂氧合酶家族成员,在铁死亡过程中也发挥重要作用^[82]。氧化应激引起神经元内ROS累积和抗氧化防御系统崩溃,同时触发铁死亡。铁死亡过程中释放的脂质过氧化产物和ROS可扩散至邻近细胞,进一步加剧氧化应激和神经胶质细胞损伤,形成神经退行性病变的恶性循环^[83]。

谷胱甘肽过氧化物酶4 (glutathione peroxidase 4, GPX4)是铁死亡的关键调控因子,对维持细胞内的氧化还原平衡和防止铁死亡的发生起着至关重要的作用,GPX4可以利用还原型谷胱甘肽(glutathione, GSH)将磷脂氢过氧化物还原,从而抑制脂质过氧化。因而当GPX4活性被抑制或GSH耗竭时,细胞无法有效清除脂质过氧化物,会引发铁死亡^[84]。线粒体中的二氢乳清酸脱氢酶(dihydroorotate dehydrogenase, DHODH)与GPX4

协同,减少ROS产生和脂质过氧化,从而减少铁死亡的发生^[85]。此外,肿瘤抑制蛋白p53可通过转录抑制系统Xc⁻亚基SLC7A11基因的表达,削弱胱氨酸/谷氨酸反向转运蛋白的活性,从而抑制细胞对胱氨酸的摄取,导致细胞内GSH前体(胱氨酸经还原生成半胱氨酸)不足,进而降低GSH含量及其依赖的GPX4活性,最终增强细胞对铁死亡的敏感性^[86]。

2 阿尔茨海默病的抗氧化策略

AD的抗氧化治疗主要目标是减轻由氧化应激引发的神经损伤。目前,关于AD的抗氧化药物大部分仍处于研究阶段,但已有一些潜在的治疗和改善策略。以下是一些研究中的抗氧化策略(表1)。需要说明的是,本文的分类体系并非绝对严谨,多数药物作用方式并非单一靶点,因此本文主要以药物在AD研究中的主要作用方向和抗氧化作用为依据,并基于药物特性进行概览性划分:例如,高剂量褪黑素(≥ 10 mg/d)在部分临床试验中显示出接近药物的治疗效果,但其临床定位仍需更多III期试验验证。目前褪黑素在AD干预中主要作为膳食补充剂使用(常用剂量3~20 mg/d),尚未获得治疗性药物批准,因此本文暂将其归类为“补剂”。受篇幅限制,本文仅聚焦近年研究热度较高的代表性方案,未全面涵盖所有潜在干预措施。

Table 1 Antioxidant strategies for Alzheimer's disease
表1 阿尔茨海默病的抗氧化相关策略

抗氧化策略	药物/补剂	作用方式	作用效果	参考文献
临床用药	美金刚 (Memantine)	非竞争性阻断NMDA受体	阻断NMDA, 抑制谷氨酸兴奋性毒性, 减少钙离子过载导致的氧化应激	[87-88]
	多奈哌齐 (Donepezil)	抑制乙酰胆碱酯酶	提升乙酰胆碱水平, 改善神经元胆碱能传递和能量代谢, 间接减少氧化应激	[89-90]
补剂	α 硫辛酸 (alpha-lipoic acid, ALA)	抗氧化剂 激活CREB信号通路	兼具脂水双溶性的强效抗氧化剂, 清除多种ROS, 并再生其他抗氧化剂(如维生素C/E), 其还原形式二氢硫辛酸还能增强GSH的抗氧化能力, 螯合铁, 改善线粒体功能, 促进自噬, 减少A β 的沉积, 减缓神经炎症	[91-92]
	N-乙酰半胱氨酸 (N-acetylcysteine, NAC)	抗氧化剂	作为GSH前体, 提高细胞内GSH水平, 清除ROS, 抑制脂质过氧化产物的生成, 减轻A β 和氧化应激诱导的神经元损伤	[93]

续表1				
抗氧化策略	药物/补剂	作用方式	作用效果	参考文献
	褪黑素 (melatonin)	抗氧化剂 激活Notch1通路	作为内源性抗氧化激素, 可调节多种神经递质系统紊乱, 改善线粒体和突触功能	[94-95]
	线粒体靶向辅酶Q (mitoquinone, MitoQ)	抗氧化剂, 激活Nrf2通路	抗氧化, 抗炎, 激活线粒体内的抗氧化酶活性, 改善线粒体功能	[96]
	依拉米肽 (Elamipretide, SS-31)	抗氧化剂, 与心磷脂结合	稳定线粒体内膜, 增强ATP的生产, 防止氧化损伤	[96-97]
	维生素E, 维生素C (vitamin E, vitamin C)	抗氧化剂	抗氧化, 抑制蛋白质和脂质氧化, 减少A β 毒性	[98-99]
	银杏叶提取物 (Ginkgo biloba extract, GBE)	抗氧化剂	抗氧化, 抗炎, 抗凋亡, 抵御线粒体功能障碍, 调节A β 生成和聚集, 调节tau蛋白磷酸化	[100]
	姜黄素 (curcumin)	抗氧化剂, 抑制NF- κ B通路, 激活Nrf2通路	抗炎抗氧化, 减少A β 沉积, 神经保护作用	[101]
	白藜芦醇 (resveratrol)	抗氧化剂, 激活PP2A通路	抗炎抗氧化, 改善线粒体能量代谢状态, 促进tau去磷酸化, 抑制A β 聚集	[102]
	绿茶多酚 (green tea polyphenols, GTP)	抗氧化剂, 激活Nrf2通路, 抑制NF- κ B通路	抗炎抗氧化, 抑制tau蛋白磷酸化、A β 聚集和凋亡蛋白的释放, 螯合金属离子	[103]
热量限制	—	激活Nrf2信号通路	降低ROS水平, 减缓衰老过程, 有益于整体健康并改善神经元健康, 防止神经退化, 改善记忆能力	[104-105]
运动锻炼	—	激活Nrf2信号通路	改善生活质量, 预防氧化损伤, 改善学习和记忆	[104, 106]

NMDA: N-甲基-D-天冬氨酸 (N-methyl-D-aspartate); CREB: 环磷酸腺苷反应元件结合蛋白 (cyclic AMP response element-binding); ROS: 活性氧类 (reactive oxygen species); GSH: 还原型谷胱甘肽 (glutathione); A β : β 淀粉样蛋白 (amyloid β -protein); Nrf2: 核转录因子红系2相关因子2 (nuclear factor-erythroid 2-related factor 2); tau: 微管相关蛋白 (tubulin associated unit); NF- κ B: 核因子 κ B (nuclear factor- κ B); PP2A: 蛋白磷酸酶2A (protein phosphatase 2A)。

除了上述抗氧化策略外, 其他靶向调控抗氧化相关信号通路的研究也取得了显著进展。例如, 靶向 *RCAN1* 基因RNA结合位点的小分子激动剂, 或通过RNA适配体增强RCAN1与促凋亡mRNA的结合, 可能成为神经保护的新策略^[33]。目前 γ 分泌酶抑制剂的研发已从早期非选择性抑制转向选择性底物靶向抑制策略, 实现差异化调控APP与Notch切割^[107]。针对铁死亡机制, 铁螯合剂在的AD模型和临床应用中表现出良好的治疗效果^[108]。纳米酶在AD治疗研究中展现出清除A β 、抗氧化及药物递送的多重潜力, 可模拟天然抗氧化酶的功能, 并且可穿过血脑屏障高效清除ROS, 保护神经细胞免受氧化损伤, 并缓解认知障碍^[109]。多药物联合使用和纳米分子药物的开发可能是未来的一个重点研究方向, 已有许多相关研究取得成功。如最新开发的用于AD联合治疗的ROS响应型无载体

基因递送纳米系统, 在AD脑内高ROS环境中释放抑制 β 分泌酶的小干扰RNA、MnSOD及白藜芦醇, 通过鼻-脑通路穿透血脑屏障, 实现抑制A β 生成、氧化应激及炎症的多靶点干预^[110]。此外, 天然抗氧化剂仍是当前的研究热点, 其安全性相对较高且容易获取, 目前已有许多天然抗氧化药物通过发挥有益的生物学作用有效控制AD症状, 除本文例举的绿茶多酚等外, 虾青素、大豆异黄酮和烟碱等在AD模型中都有改善AD的效果, 但都需要更多的临床试验来验证, 将天然抗氧化剂与已有的药物配合使用, 可在AD的治疗中发挥更好的效果^[111]。在实际应用中, 都需要考虑个体差异、药物作用特性、安全性等问题, 以及配合递送系统来优化其疗效。综合运用药物治疗, 并结合多种非药物辅助治疗, 能够更好地改善AD患者的症状和生活质量, 延缓疾病的进展。

3 总结与展望

氧化应激在AD的发生发展中扮演着关键角色,主要表现为ROS的过度积累导致神经元损伤。氧化应激通过破坏脂质、蛋白质和DNA,直接损害神经元结构和功能;同时,它调控神经元蛋白异常聚积,促进A β 沉积和tau蛋白异常磷酸化,加剧AD的病理特征。此外,氧化应激还削弱线粒体功能,降低能量代谢效率,并激活神经炎症反应,进一步加重神经元损伤。抗氧化防御系统的功能失调使细胞无法有效清除ROS,形成恶性循环,推动AD的进展。多种与氧化应激相关的信号通路通过调控上下游靶点,直接或间接的影响AD中氧化应激的程度。其中铁死亡会加剧AD中的氧化应激;而CERB、Nrf2、PP2A、Notch1等具有抑制氧化应激的作用,RCAN1、NF- κ B和ApoE对AD具有多重调节作用。这些信号通路之间相互作用,形成了复杂的调控网络。通过对这些通路上游和下游转录因子的深入研究,可以揭示其调控机制,并从中筛选出潜在的治疗靶点。基于这些靶点,可以合理推测并设计针对性或者复合型的药物,通过干预氧化应激来治疗或预防AD。

针对氧化应激的治疗方面,当前的药物和非药物干预均显示出一定的治疗潜力,其中抗氧化剂疗法仍是研究的热点。未来应该进一步揭示氧化应激在AD中的作用机制,优化抗氧化剂的最佳使用剂量,通过综合运用不同信号通路的治疗特点,有望开发出更加完善的多靶点联合治疗方案,为AD的治疗提供新的方向。由于氧化应激是AD早期的关键病理特征,且呈进行性发展,在病程早期开展抗氧化治疗可能会取得更好的疗效。此外,纳米分子突破血脑屏障的机制仍需深入研究,如何进一步提高其递送效率、降低潜在的毒性和免疫原性,以及联合不同药物之间可能存在的协同作用,也是未来需要持续关注的问题。同时,考虑到不同患者在疾病进展、遗传背景和生理状态等方面存在个体差异,制定个性化的治疗方案,有助于实现AD的精准医疗,提高患者的生活质量。

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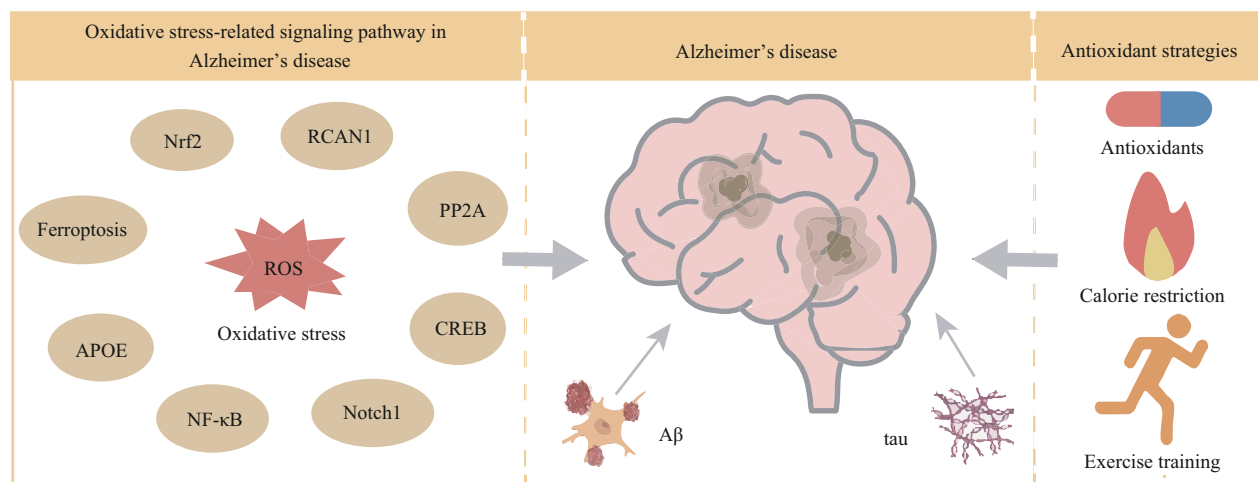
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Oxidative Stress-related Signaling Pathways and Antioxidant Therapy in Alzheimer's Disease*

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Graphical abstract



Abstract Alzheimer's disease (AD) is a neurodegenerative disorder characterized by progressive cognitive decline, functional impairment, and neuropsychiatric symptoms. It represents the most prevalent form of dementia among the elderly population. Accumulating evidence indicates that oxidative stress plays a pivotal role in the pathogenesis of AD. Notably, elevated levels of oxidative stress have been observed in the brains of AD patients, where excessive reactive oxygen species (ROS) can cause extensive damage to lipids, proteins, and DNA, ultimately compromising neuronal structure and function. Amyloid β -protein ($A\beta$) has been shown to induce mitochondrial dysfunction and calcium overload, thereby promoting the generation of ROS. This, in turn, exacerbates $A\beta$ aggregation and enhances tau phosphorylation, leading to the formation of two pathological features of AD: extracellular $A\beta$ plaque deposition and intracellular neurofibrillary tangles (NFTs). These events ultimately culminate in neuronal death, forming a vicious cycle. The interplay between oxidative stress and these pathological processes constitutes a core link in the pathogenesis of AD. The signaling pathways mediating oxidative stress in AD include Nrf2, RCAN1, PP2A, CREB, Notch1, NF- κ B, ApoE, and ferroptosis. Nrf2 signaling pathway serves as a key regulator of cellular redox homeostasis, exerts important antioxidant capacity

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and protective effects in AD. RCAN1 signaling pathway, as a calcineurin inhibitor, and modulates AD progression through multiple mechanisms. PP2A signaling pathway is involved in regulating tau phosphorylation and neuroinflammation processes. CREB signaling pathway contributes to neuroplasticity and memory formation; activation of CREB improves cognitive function and reduce oxidative stress. Notch1 signaling pathway regulates neuronal development and memory, participates in modulation of A β production, and interacts with Nrf2 to co-regulate antioxidant activity. NF- κ B signaling pathway governs immune and inflammatory responses; sustained activation of this pathway forms “inflammatory memory”, thereby exacerbating AD pathology. ApoE signaling pathway is associated with lipid metabolism; among its isoforms, ApoE- ϵ 4 significantly increases the risk of AD, leading to elevated oxidative stress, abnormal lipid metabolism, and neuroinflammation. The ferroptosis signaling pathway is driven by iron-dependent lipid peroxidation, and the subsequent release of lipid peroxidation products and ROS exacerbate oxidative stress and neuronal damage. These interconnected pathways form a complex regulatory network that regulates the progression of AD through oxidative stress and related pathological cascades. In terms of therapeutic strategies targeting oxidative stress, among the drugs currently used in clinical practice for AD treatment, memantine and donepezil demonstrate significant therapeutic efficacy and can improve the level of oxidative stress in AD patients. Some compounds with antioxidant effects (such as α -lipoic acid and melatonin) have shown certain potential in AD treatment research and can be used as dietary supplements to ameliorate AD symptoms. In addition, non-drug interventions such as calorie restriction and exercise have been proven to exerted neuroprotective effects and have a positive effect on the treatment of AD. By comprehensively utilizing the therapeutic characteristics of different signaling pathways, it is expected that more comprehensive multi-target combination therapy regimens and combined nanomolecular delivery systems will be developed in the future to bypass the blood-brain barrier, providing more effective therapeutic strategies for AD.

Key words Alzheimer’s disease, oxidative stress, tau, A β , signaling pathways, antioxidant therapy

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