

认知干预和运动干预对阿尔茨海默病防治的作用机制

李婉怡^{1,2} 高君妍² 林苏扬² 刘志涛¹ 王钦文² 李广宇^{1*} 李丽萍^{2*}

(¹宁波大学体育学院, 宁波 315211; ²宁波大学医学院, 浙江省病理生理学技术研究重点实验室, 宁波 315211)

摘要 阿尔茨海默病(Alzheimer's disease, AD)是一种临床上常见的神经系统退行性疾病, 严重威胁老年人的健康。AD病理机制仍不清楚, 尚无特效治疗药物。目前, 非药物治疗正逐渐引起人们关注, 研究证实, 认知干预与运动干预是延缓AD病理症状的有效治疗策略。其中, 认知干预能延缓AD患者认知老化速度, 提高患者对外界事物的应激反应, 而运动干预则能通过减少过量A β 沉积和Tau蛋白过度磷酸化、改变表观遗传修饰、促进神经营养因子和神经生长因子释放、激活AMPK信号通路、抑制炎症反应等降低或延缓AD发生。该文通过对认知干预与运动干预所产生的疗效和作用机制进行综述, 为运动与认知干预的非药物治疗实施提供理论依据。

关键词 阿尔茨海默病; 运动干预; 认知干预; 认知功能

The Mechanism of Cognitive and Exercise Interventions on Prevention and Treatment of Alzheimer's Disease

LI Wanyi^{1,2}, GAO Junyan², LIN Suyang², LIU Zhitao¹, WANG Qinwen², LI Guangyu^{1*}, LI Liping^{2*}

(¹Faculty of Physical Education Ningbo University, Ningbo 315211, China;

²Ningbo University School of Medicine, Zhejiang Provincial Key Laboratory of Pathophysiology, Ningbo 315211, China)

Abstract AD (Alzheimer's disease) is a clinically common neurodegenerative disorder that seriously threatens the aged people. However, the pathological mechanism of AD is still remain unclear and there are no effective treatment drugs. At present, a promising nonpharmacological therapy is attracting increasing attention. Accumulating evidence suggests that both exercise and cognitive interventions may be cost-effective strategies to ameliorate the pathological symptoms of AD. Cognitive intervention can delay the cognitive decline of AD patients and improve their stress responses to external events, while exercise intervention can reduce or delay the occurrences of AD by reducing excessive A β deposition and preventing the formation of hyperphosphorylated Tau protein, altering epigenetic modifications, promoting the release of neurotrophic factors and nerve growth factors, activating AMPK signaling pathway, as well as inhibiting inflammatory responses. This article reviews the curative effect and mechanism of cognitive and exercise interventions, hoping to provide a theoretical basis for the nonpharmacological therapy of those interventions to the AD patients.

Keywords Alzheimer's disease; exercise intervention; cognitive intervention; cognitive function

收稿日期: 2020-07-29

接受日期: 2020-09-01

国家自然科学基金/青年科学基金(批准号: 82001155)、浙江省自然科学基金/青年基金(批准号: LQ19H090005)、宁波市自然科学基金(批准号: 2018A610305)、宁波市科技局/重大项目(批准号: 2019B10034)、宁波大学校科研基金项目自然科学类(批准号: XYL20030)、宁波大学大学生科研创新计划(批准号: 2020 SRIP1925)、宁波大学研究生科研创新基金(2020)和宁波大学王宽诚幸福基金资助的课题

*通讯作者。Tel: 0574-87609594, E-mail: liliping@nbu.edu.cn; liguangyu1@nbu.edu.cn

Received: July 29, 2020

Accepted: September 1, 2020

This work was supported by the National Natural Science Foundation of China (Grant No.82001155), Natural Science Foundation of Zhejiang Province (Grant No.LQ19H090005), Natural Science Foundation of Ningbo (Grant No.2018A610305), the Major Fund Project of Ningbo Science and Technology Bureau (Grant No.2019B10034), the Scientific Research Fund Project of Ningbo University (Grant No.XYL20030), the Student Research Innovation Program of Ningbo University (Grant No.2020 SRIP1925), the Scientific Research Foundation of Graduate School of Ningbo University (2020) and K. C. Wong Magna Fund in Ningbo University

*Corresponding authors. Tel: +86-574-87609594, E-mail: liliping@nbu.edu.cn; liguangyu1@nbu.edu.cn

URL: <http://www.cjcb.org/arts.asp?id=5414>

阿尔茨海默病(Alzheimer's disease, AD)是以进行性记忆衰退和认知功能障碍为主要特征的中枢神经系统退行性疾病。临床上表现为记忆障碍、失语、失认、视觉空间能力损伤、抽象思维与计算能力损害、人格和行为改变等。目前,AD病因尚不明确,根据既往研究,其主要与年龄(如中老年人)、遗传(如家族性疾病史)、环境(如重金属污染、吸烟)等多种因素有关。AD严重损害患者身心,影响患者的生活质量,也给家庭带来巨大的压力和沉重的负担。迄今为止,AD仍无法治愈,只能通过药物治疗或非药物干预,减轻和延缓患者病情;此外,认知干预和运动干预也被用于治疗AD,特别是运动干预正逐渐被人们接受。研究证实,在AD人群患病风险因素中,缺乏运动是最大的可归因因素之一^[1],长期有规律的体育运动可以预防和改善AD^[2]。认知干预和运动干预被视为新兴的、低成本的、低风险的干预AD的有效策略。本文将围绕认知干预和运动干预对防治AD的作用机制进行综述。

1 AD患者的认知干预

认知干预是指采用非药物干预的手段直接或间接对认知功能进行治疗的一种方法,是对药物治疗AD的有效补充^[3]。认知干预可被分为三种类型,即认知训练、认知刺激和认知康复。本文归纳了认知干预的训练类型(表1)。根据患者认知程度及治疗目的不同,采用的认知干预疗法也各不相同,由此产生的疗效也有所差异。

认知训练指通过对个体或群体进行有组织的、有指导的练习来维持或提高记忆、注意力等特定认知功能^[4]。例如,计算机化认知训练用于改善轻度认知障碍(mild cognitive impairment, MCI)患者和AD患者的认知能力和精神症状^[5]。该干预手段一方

面提供常识性问题,患者在回答时训练其认知功能;另一方面提供一些积极的、有趣的回复,患者在给出答案后获得正面的反馈,增强了患者的自信,减少了抑郁焦虑情绪。认知刺激指以提高认知和强化社交功能为重点的广泛活动,通常采用拼图、文字游戏、看图回忆等以讨论或者团体活动的形式来进行的非特异性认知干预^[6],例如怀旧疗法(remembrance therapy, RT)通过对往事回顾,帮助患者增加幸福感和改善生活质量,是有效的心理干预手段^[7]。现实定向(reality orientation, RO)通过环境记忆训练,帮助患者分辨方向、路线、亲友姓名等,改善患者的认知功能^[8]。研究发现,经常对一些轻度至中度的AD患者进行认知刺激,可以有效地改善患者的认知功能和生活质量,减少负面情绪^[9],提高解决问题的推理能力^[6]。认知刺激不仅可以降低AD患者的认知障碍和抑郁情绪,还可以改善炎症反应。例如,通过音乐(古典或流行性歌曲)刺激可以减轻患者全身的炎症反应,进而对改善AD发挥积极作用^[10]。认知康复指通过医生和家属之间的相互配合帮助AD患者维持或改善生活自理能力和认知能力,是一种个性化设计和补偿式的干预策略,训练内容如洗漱、穿衣、进餐、服药等日常简单活动,对患者记忆、思维、智力等进行反复强化训练^[11]。轻度AD患者经过为期12周的认知康复(心理学家和职业治疗师每周对患者进行2 h的治疗)后,生活质量提高^[12]。但认知康复的训练并不能提升患者的认知水平,所以其干预对象主要为日常生活能力或社会功能受损的患者。

在认知干预中,认知训练相较于认知刺激和认知康复对AD患者产生较好的疗效。但是,三者联合的认知干预能够有效延缓患者认知老化的速度,强化和刺激认知功能,最大限度地改善患者的记忆力、智力、阅读能力、思维能力、语言表达能力和社会

表1 认知干预的类型

Table 1 Types of cognitive interventions

认知干预 Cognitive intervention	训练类型 Training type
Cognitive training	Digital training, local awareness, time awareness, simple math problem, reasoning, logic, word pairing, intellectual games, action video game
Cognitive stimulation	Music, dance, finger gym, painting, manual, carving, mapping, paper cut, puzzle blocks, topic discussion, strengthen communication, solve social problem, tell a story, recite poetry, remember things, identify family, identify objects
Cognitive rehabilitation	Psychotherapy, nurse practitioner exchange for observation, watch health-related videos, listen to health lectures, daily exercise

交往能力等,进而起到延缓病情的作用。因此,认知干预有望成为MCI或AD早期预防的有效手段。

2 AD患者的运动干预

运动干预包括有氧运动、阻力运动、多种模式相结合的运动训练方式。运动干预通过促进血液流向大脑,改善神经发生,提高学习记忆能力^[13]。运动干预不仅可以通过改善器官的血流量、加快血管生成,丰富脑部的微血管网,加强神经细胞间的联系,触发大脑区域的可塑性^[14];还可以调控一系列的的生长因子如脑源性神经营养因子(brain derived neurotrophic factor, BDNF)、胰岛素样生长因子-1(insulin-like growth factors-1, IGF-1)、血管内皮生长因子(vascular endothelial growth factor, VEGF)等的释放,促进海马齿状回的神经细胞增殖。研究发现,运动干预可显著增加海马体积^[15],通过增加海马体积有利于提高心肺功能,改善心脑血管系统的功能,从而

获得更好的空间记忆能力^[16]。此外,运动干预还可以通过释放压力而抑制星形胶质细胞活化,降低炎症发生概率和淀粉样蛋白(β -amyloid, A β)水平,进而改善认知功能^[16]。

不同的运动强度、运动形式改善AD模型小鼠认知的作用有所差异。本文汇总了近三年内运动干预对AD模型小鼠认知功能的影响^[17-26](表2)。高强度跑步训练对于Tg2576小鼠认知功能的改善效果比低强度组好,中强度跑步训练对于2×Tg-AD小鼠A β 形成抑制效果比低强度组更显著,说明中高強度运动训练比低强度运动对认知功能改善程度更大^[17-18]。中高強度的运动主要是通过产生抗氧化酶及刺激神经生长因子(如BDNF、IGF-1和VEGF等)的释放,改善认知功能;低至中等強度的运动主要通过减少细胞内Tau蛋白高度磷酸化水平和细胞外A β 斑块的数量来减少神经炎症,从而缓解AD进展^[19]。有氧训练和阻力训练两者均能增加海马IGF-1水平,但阻力训

表2 运动干预对AD小鼠的作用
Table 2 The effect of exercise intervention on AD mouse

对象 Object	方式 Method	时间频率 Temporal frequency	结论 Conclusion	参考文献 Reference
Tg2576	Low and high intensity running ^①	60 min/day, 5 days/week, 48 weeks	Reduce the number of A β plaques, and improve cognitive function in high intensity group better than low intensity group	[17]
2×Tg-AD	Medium-intensity continuous or high-intensity interval training ^②	30 min/day, 5 days/week, 12 weeks	Improve inquiry behavior, spatial learning and memory skills	[22]
SD-rat	Running ^③	30 min/day, 5 days/week, 12 weeks	Delay memory decline	[23]
2×Tg-AD	Low and medium intensity running ^④	30 min/day, 5 days/week, 12 weeks	Promote lipid metabolism, reduce blood lipid levels and soluble A β levels in medium intensity group better than low intensity group	[18]
3×Tg-AD	Aerobic and resistance training ^⑤	30 min/day (Day 1-5), 60 min/day (2-5 weeks), 75 min/day (5-7 weeks), 90 min/day (7-9 weeks), 5 days/week, 9 weeks	Both types of training can increase hippocampal IGF-1 levels, and resistance training alone reduces A β levels in the hippocampus	[24]
2×Tg-AD	Running ^⑥	30 min/day, 5 days/week, 16 weeks	Significantly increase hippocampal dendritic spines and improve spatial learning and memory capabilities	[25]
NSE/APPswe	Running ^⑦	60 min/day, 5 days/week, 16 weeks	Improve BDNF levels and spatial learning and memory	[26]

Tg2576: APPswe转基因小鼠; 2×Tg-AD: APP/PS1转基因小鼠; 3×Tg-AD: APP/PS1/Tau转基因小鼠; SD-rat: Sprague-Dawley大鼠,注射链脲佐菌素(streptozotocin, STZ)诱导SD大鼠为AD模型。① 低强度: 15 m/min, 高强度: 32 m/min, 且10%坡度; ② 中等强度连续训练: 45%的最大摄氧量、高强度间歇训练: 85%的最大摄氧量; ③ 3 m/min×5 min + 5 m/min×5 min+8 m/min×20 min; ④ 低强度跑步组: 45%~55%的最大摄氧量, 高强度跑步组: 60%~70%的最大摄氧量; ⑤ 有氧训练(跑步机15 m/min), 阻力训练(爬梯); ⑥ 5 m/min×10+10 m/min×20; ⑦ 13.2 m/min。

Tg2576: APPswe transgenic mice; 2×Tg-AD: APP/PS1 transgenic mice; 3×Tg-AD: APP/PS1/Tau transgenic mice; SD-rat: Sprague-Dawley rat, injection of STZ(streptozotocin) to induce SD rats as AD models. ① Low intensity: 15 m/min, high intensity: 32 m/min with 10% slope; ② Medium intensity continuous training: 45% Smax, high intensity interval training: 85% Smax; ③ 3 m/min×5 min+5 m/min×5 min+8 m/min×20 min; ④ Low intensity running group: 45%~55% Smax, high intensity running group: 60%~70% Smax; ⑤ Aerobic training (treadmill 15 m/min), resistance training (climb the ladder); ⑥ 5 m/min×10+10 m/min×20; ⑦ 13.2 m/min.

练还可以减少海马中A β 水平, 说明阻力训练比有氧训练的效果更加显著。

不同运动强度、运动频率和运动方式, 对痴呆患者的疗效也存在较大差异。只有运动干预达到一定的强度和持续较长的时间才能改善认知。本文检

索整理了近三年内运动干预改善痴呆患者病理特征的临床试验数据^[27-36](表3)。从临床干预试验中发现, 相比于中高强度的运动, 低强度运动对痴呆患者认知改善的作用微乎其微, 说明有氧运动需要达到中高强度才会有较明显效果。在同等强度、相同运动

表3 运动干预对不同程度AD/MCI患者的改善效果

Table 3 Effects of exercise intervention on patients with varying degrees of AD/MCI

对象 Object	方式 Method	时间频率 Temporal frequency	评估方法 Assessment method	结论 Conclusion	参考文献 Reference
Moderate AD	Moderate walking	30 min/time, 4 times/week, 24 weeks	ADAS-Cog, DAD, NPI-Q	Delay cognitive decline and improve ADL	[27]
Mild AD	Medium intensity treadmill walking	30 min/time, 2 times/week, 12 weeks	CAMCOG, RAVLT	Improve cognition and balance	[28]
MCI	Low to medium intensity aerobic cycling	30 min/day, 3 days/week, 12 weeks	MMSE	Improve mental state	[29]
MCI	Moderate aerobic or resis- tance training ^①	60 min/time, 2 times/week, 24 weeks	MMSE, MoCA, RAVLT	Improve spatial memory	[30]
Mild and moderate AD	Medium intensity bicycle	15~45 min/time, 3 times/week, 24 weeks	MMSE	Delay the decline of cognitive function, ADL and BPSD	[31]
MCI	Medium intensity aerobic training+muscle strength training ^②	90 min/day, 2 days/week, 48 weeks	MMSE	Improve memory and language skills	[32]
Mild AD	Medium to high intensity aerobic training+lower limb strength training ^③	60 min/time, 3 times/week, 16 weeks	SDMT, ADAS-Cog, MMSE, HAMD-17	Reduce neuropsychiatric symptoms	[33]
Mild to moderate AD	Resistance training+balance training ^④	75 min/time, 3 times/week, 12 weeks	TinettiPOMA, BI	Improve its overall functionality and ADL	[34]
Mild AD	Walking+balance+strength training ^⑤	60 min/time, 3 times/week, 15 weeks	ERFC	Delay cognitive decline and improve walking quality	[35]
Mild AD	Walking+balance+upper and lower extremity strength training ^⑥	At least 30 min/day, 16 weeks	ADAS-Cog, MSE, TUG, BI	Improve cognitive function, physical function and ADL	[36]

① 有氧训练(户外步行)、阻力训练(Keiser-based exercises、蹲坐、俯卧撑、弓步行走)、平衡训练(伸展运动); ② 有氧训练(楼梯踩踏、耐力行走、平衡板行走); ③ 有氧训练(自行车、交叉训练机、跑步机); ④ 阻力训练(阻力带练习)、平衡训练(双手弹球、抛接球); ⑤ 力量训练(ergocycle运动)、三者结合训练(舞蹈和踏步); ⑥ 平衡训练(伸展练习)。

① Aerobic training (outdoor walking), resistance training (Keiser-based exercises, squat, push-up, bow walk), balance training (stretching exercises); ② Aerobic training (stair stepping, endurance walking, balance board walking); ③ Aerobic training (bicycle, cross trainer, treadmill); ④ Resistance training (resistance band exercise), balance training (two-handed pinball, throw and catch the ball); ⑤ Strength training (ergocycle exercise), combination of three training (dance, stepping); ⑥ Balance training (stretching exercises).

ADAS-Cog: 阿尔茨海默病评定量表-认知; DAD: 痴呆症残疾评估; NPI-Q: 情绪、行为评定量表; CAMCOG: 剑桥认知检查; RAVLT: 雷伊听觉言语学习测验; MMSE: 简单精神状态检查; MoCA: 蒙特利尔认知评估量表; SDMT: 数字模拟测试; HAMD-17: 汉密顿抑郁量表-17; Tinetti POMA: Tinetti 平衡与步态量表; BI: Barthel指数; ERFC: 认知功能快速评估; TUG: 起立行走试验; ADL: 日常生活能力; BPSD: 精神行为症状; IGF-1: 胰岛素样生长因子-1。

ADAS-Cog: Alzheimer's disease assessment scale-cognitive section; DAD: disability assessment for dementia; NPI-Q: neuropsychiatric inventory questionnaire; CAMCOG: Cambridge cognitive examination; RAVLT: Rey auditory verbal learning test; MMSE: mini-mental state examination; MoCA: Montreal cognitive assessment; SDMT: symbol digit modalities test; HAMD-17: Hamilton depression scale-17; Tinetti POMA: Tinetti performance oriented mobility assessment; BI: Barthel index; ERFC: rapid evaluation of cognitive function; TUG: timed up and go test; ADL: activity of daily living scale; BPSD: behavioral and psychological symptoms of dementia; IGF-1: insulin-like growth factors-1.

方式及同一痴呆程度下,只有长时间(24周以上)的运动干预才可以明显地改善空间记忆能力,而短时间(12周以下)的运动仅在一定程度上提高患者的精神状态,说明运动干预需要持续较长的时间才能改善患者认知。运动干预对认知效果的影响存在一个阈值,若运动强度低于阈值,认知功能就无法得到有效的改善^[20]。对于不同程度的痴呆患者,同等强度的运动也会有不同的效果,如中强度的运动可以改善MCI患者空间记忆能力,但只能延缓AD患者认知水平的下降。同一类型患者运动时间不同治疗程度也有差异,AD患者每周2 h的步行比1 h的步行改善生活能力和神经精神症状的作用更显著,也更能提高简易智能精神状态(mini-mental state examination, MMSE)评分^[20]。此外,运动方式不影响疗效,阻力训练或两种训练方式(有氧运动和阻力训练)相结合均可提高认知能力,但是阻力训练可以获得长期的有益效果。持续6个月的高强度阻力训练不仅提高MCI患者的认知能力,而且对神经保护作用维持至少12个月^[21]。

动物实验和人体试验结果表明,不同的运动形式、运动强度、运动频率对认知功能的改善作用不同,因此需要根据患者认知程度、体能素质、兴趣爱好、环境条件等制定个性化的运动策略。近年来,运动干预对认知效果仍然存在争议,有些认为运动干预对认知的改善没有或仅产生有限的影响。造成这一认知差异的重要原因是评价方法的多样化,没有使用统一的评估量表。普遍共识是,运动可以增强AD患者的认知、学习和记忆能力以及突触可塑性和神经保护作用。

3 AD患者的综合干预(运动干预+认知干预)

目前,研究运动干预与认知干预相结合的综合效应正在兴起。认知能力下降是多种因素引起的,单一的运动或认知干预对患者认知功能的影响相对较小,而运动与认知相结合干预比单一干预更有效,两者可以产生交互作用。由于完成这类综合干预对受训者的认知和体能要求较高,AD患者很难完成综合干预的目标,因此,综合运动干预受训的对象大多是MCI患者。

对于MCI患者而言,相比于单一干预,采用运动与认知相结合的训练方式可以在更短的时间里改善

其认知功能和生活自理能力。运动式游戏作为一种运动与认知相结合的训练手段,是将运动与互动虚拟现实相结合的一种综合干预类型。如交互式体能认知训练,将静态骑行与虚拟现实旅游相结合,给患者提供骑行训练和接受认知刺激,有助于提高身体执行控制能力,增强额叶认知功能和神经可塑性,显著改善总体认知(工作记忆、情景记忆和执行功能)^[37]。又如Wii网球,受训者必须跑向球并击打它,同时计算出能获得最大优势的击打方向,这种电子游戏式的体育锻炼不仅改善认知,也具有强烈的激励作用,可以促进受训者保持锻炼兴趣,甚至达到“运动成瘾”的目的^[37]。这说明,游戏式运动在神经心理效应和执行功能方面较单一训练取得了更加积极效果,其趣味性和挑战性游戏往往会激励患者保持长期锻炼。

综上所述,运动干预和认知干预相结合可获得较好的效果,但是对患者认识水平和体能素质要求也相应较高。由于综合干预的多样性,患者可从兴趣、体能、认知水平等方面选择感兴趣的训练内容,养成“运动成瘾”的长期干预习惯。然而也有研究指出,综合干预的优势不明显,原因可能是结合不同的训练方案会有不同的干预效果,其评估结论也存在差异,综合干预的治疗和预防效果还有待进一步研究^[38]。

4 认知干预缓解AD病理的作用机制

认知干预是主要针对患者进行的认知刺激、认知训练(如记忆力训练、逻辑思维训练、益智活动训练)和认知重建等干预策略。大部分研究以量表评估干预效果,也有部分研究开始选用更加客观的评定方法,如默认模式网络(default mode network, DMN)示踪、功能性磁共振成像(functional magnetic resonance imaging, fMRI)等。近年来,默认模式网络作为跟踪AD进展变化的生物标记物受到人们的关注。在AD患者脑部, A β 和Tau蛋白的沉积会导致扣带回皮质、楔前叶、前额叶皮质和内侧颞等脑区体积萎缩及神经网络障碍,通过默认模式网络示踪发现,记忆训练可以激活左侧顶叶、前额叶皮层及双侧颞上回神经活性^[39]。利用音乐进行认知刺激,可以修复AD患者脑区受损的神经网络,增强记忆处理能力。当患者听音乐时,默认模式网络内额叶区域的连通性和激活性增强,海马神经活性更活跃;而听到能产生共鸣的音乐时,会促使患者联想起与自己

相关的情感记忆, 促进海马体和听觉皮层被独立激活, 并将神经功能连接提高到更高的水平, 进而增强自传式记忆的回忆性^[40]。在AD高风险人群或MCI患者中, 脑部活动改变早于A β 病理沉积和认知功能下降^[41]。对患者进行相同项目的认知干预后, 利用功能性磁共振成像监测患者脑部活动, 发现干预后患者的脑部活动比干预前活跃, 这说明, 认知干预可以通过改变脑部活动改善认知^[42]。在认知干预中, 目前大部分都集中在对患者记忆力训练的神经影像学研究。

综上所述, 认知干预可以恢复AD患者大脑内海马神经活性、维持海马体积以及增加中颞区的灰质, 从而有效地改善神经衰退, 恢复神经保护机制。目前, 认知干预作为一种经济实用的非药物治疗AD的手段, 在临床实践上一直在被推行, 但其潜在的作用机制研究依旧比较少。因此, 未来需进一步探索认知干预改善AD患者病理的作用机制。

5 运动干预缓解AD病理的作用机制

5.1 调节A β 和Tau蛋白

A β 和Tau蛋白的异常沉积是AD典型的病理特征。A β 前体蛋白(β -amyloid precursor protein, APP)在生理情况下经 α -分泌酶剪切产生无毒性的剪切体, 称为APP非淀粉样蛋白降解途径; 通过 β -、 γ -分泌酶病理性剪切产生有神经毒性的A β , 被称为APP淀粉样蛋白降解途径。Tau蛋白是一种含量最高的微管相关蛋白, 主要的细胞功能是促进微管蛋白形成并维持其稳定性。Tau蛋白的激酶和磷酸酶失调会引起Tau蛋白的过度磷酸化, 过度磷酸化的Tau蛋白会组成双螺旋丝(paired helical filament, PHF), 导致神经原纤维缠结(neurofibrillary tangle, NFT), 并损害神经元, 最终影响学习记忆能力^[43]。

运动干预影响 α -、 β -、 γ -分泌酶的活性, 降低大脑中A β 的含量。APP23转基因小鼠经跑轮运动后, 脑内APP mRNA含量比普通小鼠减少了46%, 并且抑制 γ -分泌酶的活性, 海马中A β_{42} /A β_{40} 含量比值明显下降, 表明运动直接促进APP非淀粉样蛋白降解途径, 抑制A β 产生^[44]。D-半乳糖AD大鼠经8周跑台运动后, 海马中 α -分泌酶表达水平升高, β -分泌酶表达水平降低, 有效抑制A β 形成, 提高其认知功能^[45]。此外, 4或12周跑台运动可以激活NAD-依赖性去乙酰化酶SIRT1(Sirtuin 1), 降低转基因小鼠 β -淀粉样前体

蛋白裂解酶或 β -分泌酶(β -site APP cleaving enzyme-1, BACE-1)分泌, 抑制A β 生成^[46-47]。运动还可以通过改变胆固醇的水平而影响 α -、 β 和 γ 分泌酶的活性。当胆固醇水平升高时, β -和 γ -分泌酶的活性也会升高, 从而促进A β 沉积和Tau蛋白的磷酸化^[48]。此外, 运动通过增强胆固醇转运功能, 改善小鼠脂质代谢和血脂水平, 从而降低A β 沉积和Tau蛋白的磷酸化^[18]。持续时间越长, 运动减少A β 沉积的效果越显著。12、16或20周的跑台运动后, AD小鼠海马和大脑皮层内A β_{40} 和A β_{42} 含量减少, 且20周持续运动的小鼠脑内A β 含量显著降低于12或16周的小鼠^[26]。

Tau蛋白的磷酸化主要通过PI3K/Akt/GSK-3 β 信号途径调控。运动通过增加PI3K和Akt磷酸化来降低GSK-3 β 的活性, 抑制Tau蛋白过度磷酸化^[49-50]。长期耐力运动可以通过PI3K/Akt/GSK-3 β 信号通路下调GSK-3 β 的表达水平, 从而降低老年2 \times Tg-AD小鼠的Tau蛋白过度磷酸化水平^[51]。Tau蛋白的磷酸化还可以通过Wnt信号通路调控。Wnt信号通路是海马神经发生的一个积极调节器, 刺激海马神经再生^[52]。运动激活大脑中Wnt信号通路, 抑制GSK-3 β 活性, 进而降低Tau蛋白磷酸化^[53]。细胞自噬是真核细胞内广泛存在的一种高度保守的溶酶体依赖性的降解程序。通过自噬清除异常聚集的蛋白, 从而维持细胞正常功能。目前很多研究证明, 自噬参与可溶性或不可溶性的Tau蛋白降解^[54]。运动抑制mTOR表达, 可以激活细胞自噬, 从而防止Tau蛋白异常聚集^[49]。运动通过减少Tau蛋白聚集, 促进突触蛋白表达, 从而增强认知能力。

综上所述, 过量A β 的沉积和Tau蛋白过度磷酸化是诱发AD的主要原因。运动干预通过提高 α -分泌酶和间接降低胆固醇含量而抑制 β -、 γ -分泌酶的活性, 影响A β 的形成。运动还通过PI3K/Akt/GSK-3 β 信号通路、Wnt信号通路和自噬途径降低Tau蛋白磷酸化和Tau蛋白异常聚集。

5.2 改变表观遗传修饰

AD的病理性症状是遗传、老化与环境因素相互作用的结果, 所以从表观遗传的角度研究AD的发病机制十分重要。近年来, 表观遗传研究在神经科学中属于新兴领域。表观遗传机制是指在DNA序列不发生改变的情况下, 基因的表达与功能发生改变, 并产生可遗传的表型, 其中组蛋白乙酰化和DNA甲基化修饰是近年来研究的重点。而越来越多的研究

表明,运动通过改变表观遗传修饰而影响认知功能。

运动干预可通过改变DNA甲基化水平来提高突触可塑性,进而改善AD认知障碍。经过1周的自愿运动后,小鼠海马内*BDNF*外显子IV启动子区CpG位点的甲基化程度降低,提高*BDNF* mRNA表达水平和*BDNF*蛋白质水平,促进海马神经再生,提高认知能力,提示运动改变DNA甲基化水平,提高小鼠海马突触可塑性^[55]。3月龄Wistar成年大鼠在进行了单次跑台运动后,海马DNA甲基转移酶1(DNA methyltransferase 1, DNMT1)和DNA甲基转移酶3B(DNA methyltransferase 3B, DNMT3B)水平显著降低,表明运动干预通过减少DNA甲基化,从而影响基因表达^[56]。运动也可以通过提高组蛋白H3乙酰化水平来提高认知功能。运动可降低小鼠海马和小脑中组蛋白去乙酰化酶(histone deacetylase, HDAC)不含HDAC2的表达水平^[57],表明运动干预通过降低去乙酰化酶水平,进而提高乙酰化修饰水平,从而增加突触可塑性和信号传导相关基因的转录^[58]。小鼠通过运动提高海马和小脑中H3乙酰化,导致*BDNF*转录水平上升,进而提高认知能力。自愿运动比被动运动更显著提高成年大鼠海马中H3乙酰化水平^[55]。由于长时程增强(long-term potentiation, LTP)是突触可塑性重要的表现形式之一,运动通过增强LTP,增加了成年大鼠内侧额叶皮质中*BDNF*和*Reln*基因组蛋白H3乙酰化,提高*BDNF*和*Reln*基因转录表达,提高突触可塑性和认知能力^[55]。

综上,运动干预可以通过DNA甲基化、H3乙酰化等多种表观遗传途径改变AD相关的蛋白转录和翻译,进而影响AD发生发展。运动干预改变表观遗传修饰在一定程度上对AD产生积极的影响,可以改善大脑的认知学习能力。

5.3 诱导神经营养因子和神经生长因子的释放

*BDNF*是调控突触可塑性的神经营养因子,在改善AD病理中扮演着重要角色。运动增强大脑微血管循环,诱导*BDNF*表达,降低大脑氧化损伤,进而提高神经功能^[16]。研究发现,老年AD小鼠的海马组织中*BDNF*蛋白表达下降,但低强度跑台运动后*BDNF*蛋白表达上调,说明运动提高*BDNF*蛋白表达^[50]。3×Tg-AD小鼠进行了12周跑台运动后,海马和皮层内*BDNF*水平升高,并促进PSD95(postsynaptic density protein 95)蛋白和突触小泡蛋白(synaptophysin, SYP)表达^[59]。长期运动可改善大脑中*BDNF*的表达,同时

抑制小胶质细胞活化,提高AD小鼠的认知功能^[60]。

*VEGF*是维持血管动态平衡所必不可少的一种因子,起到增强记忆力和提高LTP的重要作用^[61]。*IGF-1*是调节突触可塑性、突触密度、神经再生和分化的重要生长因子^[62]。*VEGF*和*IGF-1*均可穿过血脑屏障,促进海马神经发生和血管生成^[63]。运动干预还可以刺激*VEGF*和*IGF-1*等神经生长因子释放,促进神经与血管再生,增加毛细血管厚度和海马的体积^[15]。反过来,运动导致血流量增加、血管壁张力变大等也促使*VEGF*释放。当运动强度增大时,机体内易形成缺氧环境,促使*VEGF* mRNA转录为*VEGF*^[64]。

运动也会增强皮质活动,增加多巴胺、乙酰胆碱、5-羟色胺和去甲肾上腺素等神经物质的分泌^[34]。这些神经递质的释放,能够改善心肺功能、增强大脑皮层神经活动的兴奋性,提升中枢神经之间的协调性,从而延缓大脑衰老,并减慢AD患者的认知功能下降的速度。

综上,通常*BDNF*、*IGF-1*和*VEGF*与海马功能密切相关。增加*BDNF*、*IGF-1*、*VEGF*水平可使大脑抵抗结构性和功能性神经病变,而且这些生长因子联合作用,对于改善脑功能起到叠加效应^[65]。运动可以诱发*BDNF*、*IGF-1*和*VEGF*等神经生长因子的释放,起着神经保护的作用。

5.4 激活AMPK信号分子

腺苷酸活化蛋白激酶(AMP-activated protein kinase, AMPK),即AMP依赖的蛋白激酶,是保持葡萄糖平衡所必需的一种关键信号分子。AMPK调节机体能量代谢和物质代谢,在维持能量供需平衡方面具有重要的作用。AMPK表达于各种代谢相关的器官中,能被压力、运动或激素等各种刺激激活。研究发现,AD的神经退行性病变与脑能量代谢紊乱有关^[66]。由于AMPK信号分子的激活可以减少神经元A β 沉积,因此AMPK被视为改善AD的一种新的靶分子。

正常情况下,主动运动和被动运动在激活AMPK信号分子方面存在差异。SAMP8快速老化小鼠在进行8周自主跑轮运动后,海马内AMPK水平增强,海马氧化应激功能受到抑制^[67]。AMPK通过烟酰胺磷酸核糖转移酶(nicotinamide phosphoribosyl transferase, NAMPT)增强NAD⁺的水平,调节沉默SIRT1活性,并且诱导氧化物酶体增殖物激活受体 γ 辅激活因子-1 α (peroxisome proliferator activated receptor gamma

coactivator-1 α , PGC-1 α)的表达^[68]。PGC-1 α 的活化能够促进线粒体的生物功能,减少活性氧(reactive oxygen species, ROS)的产生^[67],SD大鼠在进行自主跑轮运动和被动跑台运动后,脑内AMPK和缺氧诱导因子-1 α (hypoxia-inducible factor-1 α , HIF-1 α)的磷酸化增强。HIF-1 α 水平升高表明处在缺氧状态,在缺氧情况下,细胞内AMP/ATP比率增加,AMPK被激活。若被动运动的时间和强度都比较大,HIF-1 α 水平更高,AMPK的活性也随着运动时间和强度的增强而增强。而且,HIF-1 α 水平增强会诱导大脑糖酵解增加,磷酸果糖激酶-1(phosphofructokinase-1, PFK-1)是糖酵解中的关键调节酶,而被动运动组中PFK-1的增加更明显,产生更多的能量,磷酸化的AMPK(pAMPK)和AMPK活性更高。因此,被动运动要比主动运动更显著激活AMPK^[69]。

短、中、长期运动在激活AMPK信号分子方面也存在差异。短期运动可以使脑内的AMPK激活,从而改善脑功能。雄性SD大鼠进行1周自主跑轮运动后,海马内AMPK激活,提高BDNF转录水平,进而提高突触可塑性和空间学习记忆能力^[70]。脂连蛋白(adiponectin, ADN)具有神经保护活性,可增强海马齿状回神经再生。敲除ADN基因,运动诱导的神经发生也出现了抑制^[71]。C57BL/6小鼠进行2周跑轮运动后,海马内AMPK激活,进而增加海马ADN^[71]。研究发现,运动通过上调AMPK-SIRT1信号直接激活自噬-溶酶体系统。与短期运动相比,长期运动对自噬-溶酶体生物发生的激活表现出更大的影响^[72]。自噬-溶酶体生物发生与A β 、Tau蛋白清除相关^[49,54]。因此,长期运动通过上调AMPK-SIRT1信号激活自噬-溶酶体系统,更有效地清除异常蛋白沉积,有效改善中枢神经系统衰退。

中、高强度运动也对激活AMPK信号分子存在影响。研究表明,中等以上强度的运动能激活AMPK的活性。中等强度跑台运动后,衰老大鼠的海马中AMPK的激活和PGC-1 α 蛋白水平显著增强,提高海马内抗氧化酶活性,抑制神经元氧化应激水平^[73]。

综上,长期中等强度的被动运动对AMPK信号分子的激活效果最显著。运动通过激活AMPK信号通路,调节线粒体能量代谢,减少神经元A β 沉积,进而改善AD脑功能。

5.5 改善神经免疫功能

运动可以减少机体炎症的反应,提升机体的免

疫功能。有氧运动促进抗炎因子(如IL-4、IL-10、TGF- β 等)的分泌,降低促炎因子(如IL-6、IL-18、TNF- α 、MCP-1等)的水平,减缓脑部炎症反应,从而改善病情。

促炎因子的增多是由胶质细胞活化所导致的,而活化的小胶质细胞和星形胶质细胞反过来促进AD炎症反应。AD大鼠进行6周跑台运动后,脑皮质中促炎细胞因子Toll样受体4(Toll-like receptor 4, TLR4)、IL-1 α 、核因子- κ B(nuclear factor- κ B, NF- κ B)及TNF- α 的表达量明显降低^[74]。2 \times Tg-AD小鼠经过1个月爬梯阻力训练后,海马区促炎细胞因子IL-1 α 和IL-6的表达量降低^[75]。3 \times Tg-AD小鼠经过1个月的爬梯阻力训练后,海马区的小胶质细胞和星形胶质细胞的数量明显减少,促炎因子TNF- α 下降,抗炎因子IL-10增加^[76],表明运动可以通过调节促炎因子和抗炎因子的水平来改善大脑的免疫功能。

脂肪组织是外周炎症性细胞因子的重要来源,运动可以通过减少脂肪组织来减少血清IL-6等炎症因子。运动可以增加PGC-1 α 表达,促进纤维连结蛋白III型域包含蛋白5(fibronectin type III domain containing protein 5, FNDC5)表达, FNDC5抑制脂肪组织分泌促炎因子TNF- α 和MCP-1^[77]。剧烈运动可产生糖皮质激素,糖皮质激素能够促进T细胞产生抗炎细胞因子从而起到抗炎的作用^[78]。另外,运动还能增强迷走神经张力,改变胆碱能信号,调节炎症反射,从而减轻全身炎症^[79]。

因此,经常进行体育运动,可以减少大脑的炎症反应,改善机体免疫功能,改善神经元细胞的损害,从而增强AD认知和学习记忆功能。

6 展望

近些年来,认知干预在临床试验上的治疗效益得到一定认可。虽然AD患者认知功能受损,但对外界感知、认识等仍具有一定的应激反应,通过认知干预对患者进行反复强化训练,可在一定程度上使患者提高对外界事物的认知和日常生活质量。尽管如此,该种干预方式仍存在潜在的局限性,首先,认知干预方式具有多样性和评价指标不一致性。目前,认知干预方法多种多样,但缺乏统一的、公认的、客观的量化表。应用较为广泛的量化表MoCA也因截断值的划定而备受争议。其次,采用量化表评定也受限于患者的文化程度和主观判断,影响患者的参与度和结果

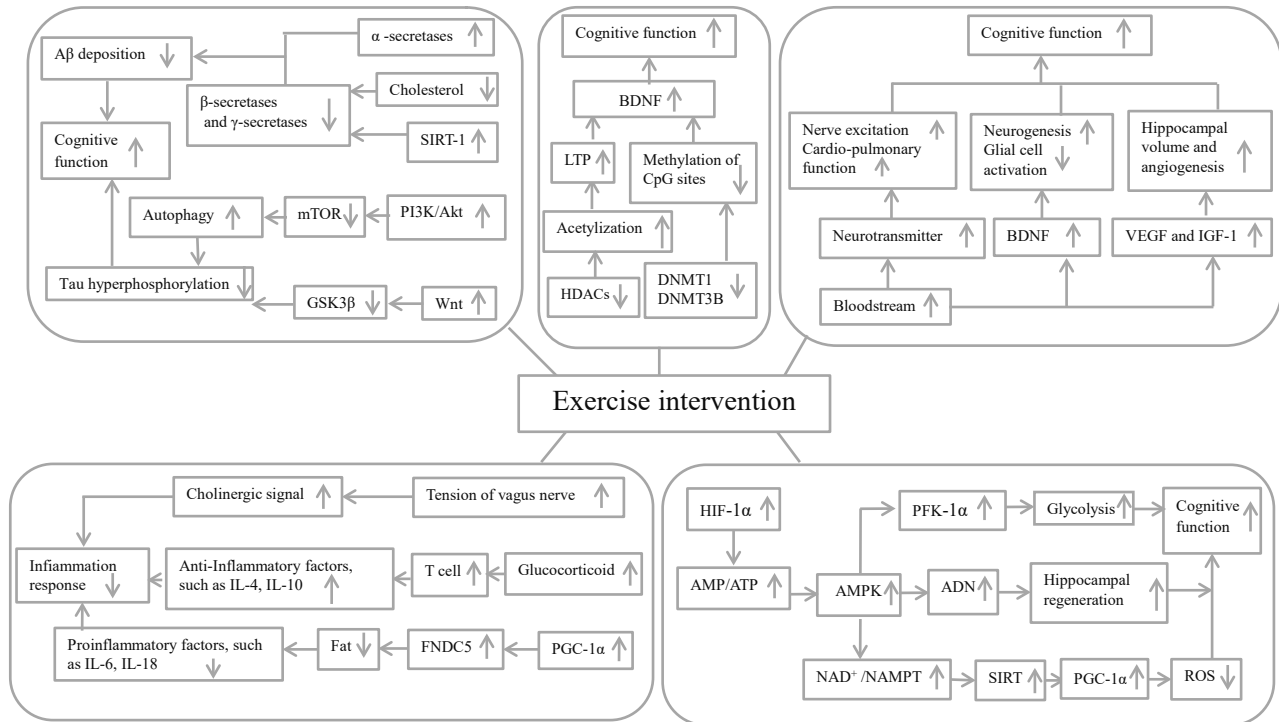


图1 运动干预通过多种信号途径改善AD患者的认知功能

Fig.1 Exercise intervention affects the cognitive function of AD patients through various signalling pathways

的客观性。再次, 认知干预的治疗效果虽得到广泛的证实, 但对某些具体认知能力的效果却有待进一步考证。而且, 认知干预的效果仅限于延缓认知老化的速度, 其改善AD的机制还有待进一步阐明。

现如今, 在老龄化加剧的大背景下, 作为生活中必不可少的一种锻炼方式, 体育运动正逐渐引起人们重视。通过回顾随机对照试验运动对AD患者认知功能的影响, 我们可以了解到, 运动干预是一种有前途的、低成本且效益高的治疗方法, 它能提高认知功能, 在预防MCI患者和有痴呆风险的老年人进展为AD方面发挥重要作用。目前研究证明, 运动干预通过减少A β 的沉积和Tau蛋白过度磷酸化, 改变表观遗传修饰, 促进神经营养因子和神经生长因子释放, 激活AMPK信号通路, 抑制炎症反应等(图1), 进而增强脑的抗氧化能力、代谢功能、突触可塑性及神经免疫功能, 从而提高认知功能, 降低或缓解AD发生。然而, 由于运动干预类型、时间、强度、频率等条件以及小样本试验的异质性, 我们目前仍无法对运动干预的效果作出非常明确的结论, 改善AD病理状况的最佳运动干预方案也仍处于探索阶段。

在临床实践中, 我们强烈建议, 将运动干预与认知干预相结合来预防或延缓AD。但未来的试验

还需更客观、标准化的评估方法, 获得更有效的结论, 以突破目前临床治疗上的瓶颈, 为认知与运动结合的综合治疗手段提供理论依据。未来, 在制定训练干预策略时, 首先考虑趣味性、可操作性、可持续性的干预手段, 及融入参与者生活中或团体带动的训练类型, 提高患者兴趣和参与度; 其次考虑多模式干预手段, 以达到最佳治疗的目的; 最后应制定合理、规范、科学的运动方案, 避免无关因素对患者造成二次损伤。

参考文献 (References)

- [1] NORTON S, MATTHEWS F E, BARNES D E, et al. Potential for primary prevention of Alzheimer's disease: an analysis of population-based data [J]. *Lancet Neurol*, 2014, 13(8): 788-94.
- [2] CASS S P. Alzheimer's disease and exercise: a literature review [J]. *Curr Sports Med Rep*, 2017, 16(1): 19-22.
- [3] SZETO J Y Y, LEWIS S J G. Current treatment options for Alzheimer's disease and Parkinson's disease dementia [J]. *Curr Neuropharmacol*, 2016, 14(4): 326-88.
- [4] BAHAR-FUCHS A, WEBB S, BARTSCH L, et al. Tailored and adaptive computerized cognitive training in older adults at risk for dementia: a randomized controlled trial [J]. *J Alzheimers Dis*, 2017, 60(3): 889-911.
- [5] LIANG J H, XU Y, LIN L, et al. Comparison of multiple interventions for older adults with Alzheimer disease or mild cognitive impairment [J]. *Medicine*, 2018, 97(20): e10744.

- [6] CLARE L, WOODS R T, MONIZ-COOK E D, et al. Cognitive rehabilitation and cognitive training for early-stage Alzheimer's disease and vascular dementia (review) [J]. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev*, 2003(4): CD003260.
- [7] VAN BOGAERT P, VAN GRINSVEN R, TOLSON D, et al. Effects of SolCos model-based individual reminiscence on older adults with mild to moderate dementia due to Alzheimer disease: a pilot study [J]. *J Am Med Dir Assoc*, 2013, 14(7): 528.
- [8] CHIU H Y, CHEN P Y, CHEN Y T, et al. Reality orientation therapy benefits cognition in older people with dementia: a meta-analysis [J]. *Int J Nurs Stud*, 2018, 86: 20-8.
- [9] HUANG H C, CHEN Y T, CHEN P Y, et al. Reminiscence therapy improves cognitive functions and reduces depressive symptoms in elderly people with dementia: a meta-analysis of randomized controlled trials [J]. *J Am Med Dir Assoc*, 2015, 16(12): 1087-94.
- [10] GUETIN S, CHARRAS K, BERARD A, et al. An overview of the use of music therapy in the context of Alzheimer's disease: a report of a French expert group [J]. *Dementia*, 2013, 12(5): 619-34.
- [11] CHAN J Y C, CHAN T K, KWOK T C Y, et al. Cognitive training interventions and depression in mild cognitive impairment and dementia: a systematic review and meta-analysis of randomized controlled trials [J]. *Age Ageing*, 2020, 49(5): 738-47.
- [12] BRUEGGEN K, KASPER E, OCHMANN S, et al. Cognitive rehabilitation in Alzheimer's disease: a controlled intervention trial [J]. *J Alzheimers Dis*, 2017, 57(4): 1315-24.
- [13] THOMAS B P, TARUMI T, SHENG M, et al. Brain perfusion change in patients with mild cognitive impairment after 12 months of aerobic exercise training [J]. *J Alzheimers Dis*, 2020, 75(2): 617-31.
- [14] LISTA I, SORRENTINO G. Biological mechanisms of physical activity in preventing cognitive decline [J]. *Cell Mol Neurobiol*, 2010, 30(4): 493-503.
- [15] ERICKSON K I, VOSS M W, PRAKASH R S, et al. Exercise training increases size of hippocampus and improves memory [J]. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA*, 2011, 108(7): 3017-22.
- [16] KENNEDY G, HARDMAN R J, MACPHERSON H, et al. How does exercise reduce the rate of age-associated cognitive decline? a review of potential mechanisms [J]. *J Alzheimers Dis*, 2016, 55(1): 1-18.
- [17] THOMAS R, ZIMMERMAN S D, YUEDE K M, et al. Exercise training results in lower amyloid plaque load and greater cognitive function in an intensity dependent manner in the Tg2576 mouse model of Alzheimer's disease [J]. *Brain Sci*, 2020, 10(2): 88.
- [18] ZENG B, ZHAO G, LIU H L. The differential effect of treadmill exercise intensity on hippocampal soluble abeta and lipid metabolism in APP/PS1 mice [J]. *Neuron*, 2020, 430: 73-81.
- [19] RASHID M H, ZAHID M F, ZAIN S, et al. The neuroprotective effects of exercise on cognitive decline: a preventive approach to Alzheimer disease [J]. *Cureus*, 2020, 12(2): e6958.
- [20] WINCHESTER J, DICK M B, GILLEN D, et al. Walking stabilizes cognitive functioning in Alzheimer's disease (AD) across one year [J]. *Arch Gerontol Geriatr*, 2013, 56(1): 96-103.
- [21] BROADHOUSE K M, SINGH M F, SUO C, et al. Hippocampal plasticity underpins long-term cognitive gains from resistance exercise in MCI [J]. *Neuroimage Clin*, 2020, 25: 102182.
- [22] LI B, LIANG F, DING X, et al. Interval and continuous exercise overcome memory deficits related to beta-Amyloid accumulation through modulating mitochondrial dynamics [J]. *Behav Brain Res*, 2019, 376: 112171.
- [23] KIM D Y, JUNG S Y, KIM K, et al. Treadmill exercise ameliorates Alzheimer disease-associated memory loss through the Wnt signaling pathway in the streptozotocin-induced diabetic rats [J]. *J Exerc Rehabil*, 2016, 12(4): 276-83.
- [24] PENA G S, PAEZ H G, JOHNSON T K, et al. Hippocampal growth factor and myokine cathepsin b expression following aerobic and resistance training in 3xTg-AD mice [J]. *Int J Chronic Dis*, 2020, 2020: 5919501.
- [25] ZHANG L, TANG W, CHAO F L, et al. Four-month treadmill exercise prevents the decline in spatial learning and memory abilities and the loss of spinophilin-immunoreactive puncta in the hippocampus of APP/PS1 transgenic mice [J]. *Neurobiol Dis*, 2020, 136: 104723.
- [26] CHO J Y, UM H S, KANG E B, et al. The combination of exercise training and alpha-lipoic acid treatment has therapeutic effects on the pathogenic phenotypes of Alzheimer's disease in NSE/APPsw-transgenic mice [J]. *Int J Mol Med*, 2010, 25(3): 337-46.
- [27] YU F, THOMAS W, NELSON N W, et al. Impact of 6-month aerobic exercise on Alzheimer's symptoms [J]. *J Appl Gerontol*, 2015, 34(4): 484-500.
- [28] ARCOVERDE C, DESLANDES A, MORAES H, et al. Treadmill training as an augmentation treatment for Alzheimer's disease: a pilot randomized controlled study [J]. *Arq Neuropsiquiatr*, 2014, 72(3): 190-6.
- [29] VARELA S, AYAN C, CANCELA J M, et al. Effects of two different intensities of aerobic exercise on elderly people with mild cognitive impairment: a randomized pilot study [J]. *Clin Rehabil*, 2012, 26(5): 442-50.
- [30] NAGAMATSU L S, CHAN A, DAVIS J C, et al. Physical activity improves verbal and spatial memory in older adults with probable mild cognitive impairment: a 6-month randomized controlled trial [J]. *J Aging Res*, 2013, 2013: 861893.
- [31] VENTURELLI M, SCARSINI R, SCHENA F. Six-month walking program changes cognitive and ADL performance in patients with Alzheimer [J]. *Am J Alzheimers Dis Other Demen*, 2011, 26(5): 381-8.
- [32] SUZUKI T, SHIMADA H, MAKIZAKO H, et al. Effects of multicomponent exercise on cognitive function in older adults with amnesic mild cognitive impairment: a randomized controlled trial [J]. *BMC Neurol*, 2012, 12: 128.
- [33] HOFFMANN K, SOBOL N A, FREDERIKSEN K S, et al. Moderate-to-high intensity physical exercise in patients with Alzheimer's disease: a randomized controlled trial [J]. *J Alzheimers Dis*, 2016, 50(2): 443-53.
- [34] SANTANA-SOSA E, BARRIOPEDRO M I, LOPEZ-MOJARES L M, et al. Exercise training is beneficial for Alzheimer's patients [J]. *Int J Sports Med*, 2008, 29(10): 845-50.
- [35] KEMOUN G, THIBAUD M, ROUMAGNE N, et al. Effects of a physical training programme on cognitive function and walking efficiency in elderly persons with dementia [J]. *Dement Geriatr Cogn Disord*, 2010, 29(2): 109-14.
- [36] VREUGDENHIL A, CANNELL J, DAVIES A, et al. A commu-

- nity-based exercise programme to improve functional ability in people with Alzheimer's disease: a randomized controlled trial [J]. *Scand J Caring Sci*, 2012, 26(1): 12-9.
- [37] MAILLOT P, PERROT A, HARTLEY A. Effects of interactive physical-activity video-game training on physical and cognitive function in older adults [J]. *Psychol Aging*, 2012, 27(3): 589-600.
- [38] CLEMENCE J, HANNA C. Aging brain: the effect of combined cognitive and physical training on cognition as compared to cognitive and physical training alone-a systematic review [J]. *Clin Interv Aging*, 2018, 13: 1267-301.
- [39] BELLEVILLE S, CLEMENT F, MELLAH S, et al. Training-related brain plasticity in subjects at risk of developing Alzheimer's disease [J]. *Brain*, 2011, 134(Pt 6): 1623-34.
- [40] WILKINS R W, HODGES D A, LAURIENTI P J, et al. Network science and the effects of music preference on functional brain connectivity: from Beethoven to Eminem [J]. *Sci Rep*, 2014, 4: 6130.
- [41] SHELINE Y I, MORRIS J C, SNYDER A Z, et al. APOE4 allele disrupts resting state fMRI connectivity in the absence of amyloid plaques or decreased CSF Abeta42 [J]. *J Neurosci*, 2010, 30(50): 17035-40.
- [42] CHANDRA A, DERVENOULAS G, POLITIS M. Magnetic resonance imaging in Alzheimer's disease and mild cognitive impairment [J]. *J Neurol*, 2018, 266(6): 1293-302.
- [43] LIN L F, LUO H M. Screening of treatment targets for Alzheimer's disease from the molecular mechanisms of impairment by beta-amyloid aggregation and tau hyperphosphorylation [J]. *Neurosci Bull*, 2011, 27(1): 53-60.
- [44] MIROCHNIC S, WOLF S, STAUFENBIEL M, et al. Age effects on the regulation of adult hippocampal neurogenesis by physical activity and environmental enrichment in the APP23 mouse model of Alzheimer disease [J]. *Hippocampus*, 2009, 19(10): 1008-18.
- [45] YU F, XU B, SONG C, et al. Treadmill exercise slows cognitive deficits in aging rats by antioxidation and inhibition of amyloid production [J]. *Neuroreport*, 2013, 24(6): 342-7.
- [46] LEUNER K, SCHUTT T, KURZ C, et al. Mitochondrion-derived reactive oxygen species lead to enhanced amyloid beta formation [J]. *Antioxid Redox Signaling*, 2012, 16(12): 1421-33.
- [47] KANG E B, KWON I S, KOO J H, et al. Treadmill exercise represses neuronal cell death and inflammation during Abeta-induced ER stress by regulating unfolded protein response in aged presenilin 2 mutant mice [J]. *Apoptosis*, 2013, 18(11): 1332-47.
- [48] FASSBENDER K, STROICK M, BERTSCH T, et al. Effects of statins on human cerebral cholesterol metabolism and secretion of Alzheimer amyloid peptide [J]. *Neurology*, 2002, 59(8): 1257-8.
- [49] KANG E B, CHO J Y. Effect of treadmill exercise on PI3K/AKT/mTOR, autophagy, and Tau hyperphosphorylation in the cerebral cortex of NSE/htau23 transgenic mice [J]. *J Exercise Nutrition Biochem*, 2015, 19(3): 199-209.
- [50] UM H S, KANG E B, KOO J H, et al. Treadmill exercise represses neuronal cell death in an aged transgenic mouse model of Alzheimer's disease [J]. *Neurosci Res*, 2011, 69(2): 161-73.
- [51] LEEM Y H, LIM H J, SHIM S B, et al. Repression of tau hyperphosphorylation by chronic endurance exercise in aged transgenic mouse model of tauopathies [J]. *J Neurosci Res*, 2009, 87(11): 2561-70.
- [52] VARELA-NALLAR L, INESTROSA N C. Wnt signaling in the regulation of adult hippocampal neurogenesis [J]. *Front Cell Neurosci*, 2013, 7: 100.
- [53] TAPIA-ROJAS C, ARANGUIZ F, VARELA-NALLAR L, et al. Voluntary running attenuates memory loss, decreases neuropathological changes and induces neurogenesis in a mouse model of Alzheimer's disease [J]. *Brain Pathol*, 2016, 26(1): 62-74.
- [54] CHESSER A S, PRITCHARD S M, JOHNSON G V. Tau clearance mechanisms and their possible role in the pathogenesis of Alzheimer disease [J]. *Front Neurol*, 2013, 4: 122.
- [55] GOMEZ-PINILLA F, ZHUANG Y, FENG J, et al. Exercise impacts brain-derived neurotrophic factor plasticity by engaging mechanisms of epigenetic regulation [J]. *Eur J Neurosci*, 2011, 33(3): 383-90.
- [56] ELSNER V R, LOVATEL G A, MOYSES F, et al. Exercise induces age-dependent changes on epigenetic parameters in rat hippocampus: a preliminary study [J]. *Exp Gerontol*, 2013, 48(2): 136-9.
- [57] ABEL J L, RISSMAN E F. Running-induced epigenetic and gene expression changes in the adolescent brain [J]. *Int J Dev Neurosci*, 2013, 31(6): 382-90.
- [58] SULTAN F A, DAY J J. Epigenetic mechanisms in memory and synaptic function [J]. *Epigenomics*, 2011, 3(2): 157-81.
- [59] CHO J, SHIN M K, KIM D, et al. Treadmill running reverses cognitive declines due to Alzheimer disease [J]. *Med Sci Sports Exercise*, 2015, 47(9): 1814-24.
- [60] XIONG J, LI S, SUN Y, et al. Long-term treadmill exercise improves spatial memory of male appsw/ps1de9 mice by regulation of bdnf expression and microglia activation [J]. *Biol Sport*, 2015, 32(4): 295-300.
- [61] LICHT T, GOSHEN I, AVITAL A, et al. Reversible modulations of neuronal plasticity by VEGF [J]. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA*, 2011, 108(12): 5081-6.
- [62] FERNANDEZ A M, TORRES-ALEMAN I. The many faces of insulin-like peptide signalling in the brain [J]. *Nat Rev Neurosci*, 2012, 13(4): 225-39.
- [63] BALLARD H J. Exercise makes your brain bigger: skeletal muscle VEGF and hippocampal neurogenesis [J]. *J Physiol*, 2017, 595(17): 5721-2.
- [64] PRIOR B M, LLOYD P G, YANG H T, et al. Exercise-induced vascular remodeling [J]. *Exerc Sport Sci Rev*, 2003, 31(1): 26-33.
- [65] VOSS M W, ERICKSON K I, PRAKASH R S, et al. Neurobiological markers of exercise-related brain plasticity in older adults [J]. *Brain Behav Immun*, 2013, 28: 90-9.
- [66] CHEN Z, ZHONG C. Decoding Alzheimer's disease from perturbed cerebral glucose metabolism: implications for diagnostic and therapeutic strategies [J]. *Prog Neurobiol*, 2013, 108: 21-43.
- [67] BAYOD S, GUZMAN-BRAMBILA C, SANCHEZ-ROIGE S, et al. Voluntary exercise promotes beneficial anti-aging mechanisms in SAMP8 female brain [J]. *J Mol Neurosci*, 2015, 55(2): 525-32.
- [68] CANTO C, GERHART-HINES Z, FEIGE J N, et al. AMPK regulates energy expenditure by modulating NAD⁺ metabolism and SIRT1 activity [J]. *Nature*, 2009, 458(7241): 1056-60.
- [69] KINNI H, GUO M, DING J Y, et al. Cerebral metabolism after forced or voluntary physical exercise [J]. *Brain Res Brain Res Rev*, 2011, 1388: 48-55.
- [70] GOMEZ-PINILLA F, VAYNMAN S, YING Z. Brain-derived neurotrophic factor functions as a metabotrophin to mediate the

- effects of exercise on cognition [J]. *Eur J Neurosci*, 2008, 28(11): 2278-87.
- [71] SUK Y Y, ANG L, RUBY L H, et al. Physical exercise-induced hippocampal neurogenesis and antidepressant effects are mediated by the adipocyte hormone adiponectin [J]. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA*, 2014, 111(44): 15810-5.
- [72] HUANG J, WANG X, ZHU Y, et al. Exercise activates lysosomal function in the brain through AMPK-SIRT1-TFEB pathway [J]. *CNS Neurosci Therap*, 2019, 25(6): 796-807.
- [73] MAROSI K, BORI Z, HART N, et al. Long-term exercise treatment reduces oxidative stress in the hippocampus of aging rats [J]. *Neuroscience*, 2012, 226: 21-8.
- [74] CHOI D H, KWON I S, KOO J H, et al. The effect of treadmill exercise on inflammatory responses in rat model of streptozotocin-induced experimental dementia of Alzheimer's type [J]. *J Exercise Nutrition Biochem*, 2014, 18(2): 225-33.
- [75] HASHIGUCHI D, CAMPOS H C, WUO-SILVA R, et al. Resistance exercise decreases amyloid load and modulates inflammatory responses in the APP/PS1 mouse model for Alzheimer's disease [J]. *J Alzheimer Dis*, 2020, 73(4): 1525-39.
- [76] LIU Y, CHU J M T, YAN T, et al. Short-term resistance exercise inhibits neuroinflammation and attenuates neuropathological changes in 3xTg Alzheimer's disease mice [J]. *J Neuroinflammation*, 2020, 17(1): 4.
- [77] MAZUR-BIALY A I, BILSKI J, POCHEC E, et al. New insight into the direct anti-inflammatory activity of a myokine irisin against proinflammatory activation of adipocytes. Implication for exercise in obesity [J]. *J Physiol Pharmacol*, 2017, 68(2): 243-51.
- [78] SHAW D M, MERIEN F, BRAAKHUIS A, et al. T-cells and their cytokine production: the anti-inflammatory and immunosuppressive effects of strenuous exercise [J]. *Cytokine*, 2018, 104: 136-42.
- [79] MIKKELSEN K, STOJANOVSKA L, POLENAKOVIC M, et al. Exercise and mental health [J]. *Maturitas*, 2017, 106: 48-56.