



GENERAL INTRODUCTION

Ageing and senescence

As humans grow older, the structures and functions of their bodies deteriorate. As a consequence, their risks of disability, disease, and death increase. It is an omen of the various confusions and controversies existing in the research on this process that the process itself has no universally accepted designation.

In line with renowned gerontologists, we distinguish between ageing and senescence.¹⁻⁵ Ageing refers to the mere passage of time. It encompasses all changes that occur in the body during time, whether their effects are detrimental, beneficial, or negligible. The progress of ageing is indicated by one's chronological age, which can be easily deduced from a birth registry. Senescence is part of ageing. It refers to the deterioration of the body's structures and functions and encompasses specifically the detrimental changes that appear with ageing. The progress of senescence is indicated by one's biological age, although it is still elusive how one's biological age can be precisely determined.⁶⁻¹⁰

Apart from senescence, ageing is accompanied by changes that are beneficial to the body's structures and functions. Such changes take place in a programmed order early in life as growth and development, are brought about by the body as regeneration when it repairs its damaged parts, for example during the healing of a fractured bone,¹¹ and can be effectuated by medical interventions, like the replacement of stem cells, which is called rejuvenation.¹² Ageing is also accompanied by changes that are, as far as we know, neither detrimental nor

beneficial to the body. A classic example is the greying of hair. These changes are simply spoken of as age-related changes.¹³

Some researchers are accustomed to denote the senescence of cells in particular as senescence and to denote the senescence of individuals or populations as ageing.¹⁴⁻¹⁸ However, as will be substantiated hereafter, there is no reason to fundamentally separate cellular senescence from senescence of individuals or populations.

Senescence at different levels

Senescence is generally attributed to an accumulation of random damage to the human body.^{14,19-22} During life, the body is exposed to a wide variety of intrinsic stressors from within the body and extrinsic stressors from without the body. Examples of intrinsic stressors include DNA replication errors, spontaneous chemical reactions, and metabolic waste products. Examples of extrinsic stressors include pathogens, radiation, and mechanical forces. A stressor may at any moment damage the body's structure and function. In the case of sufficient damage, death may follow. In other cases, damage repair mechanisms, with which the body's cells and tissues are equipped, are activated. Some of the acquired damage can be repaired fully by these mechanisms, after which the body will have regenerated and recovered. Some damage can be repaired only partly or not at all, will irreversibly remain, and become apparent as dysfunction, disability, or disease. If a stressor affects the damage repair mechanisms, the accumulation of further damage is accelerated.

1 • GENERAL INTRODUCTION

Alternative theories attribute senescence to other processes than the accumulation of random damage. A noteworthy theory, which is discussed in more detail in Chapter 5 of this thesis,²³ proposes that senescence may be the result of persistent developmental processes.^{24,25} Nonetheless, these theories too acknowledge that the damaging effects of such processes are crucial in the causation of senescence.²³⁻²⁶

As schematically shown in Figure 1.1, the accumulation of damage occurs in the body at different levels of complexity. Stressors may damage the structure and function of a molecular component of a cell, an entire cell, an organ or tissue, or the body as a whole. Much research is devoted to the mechanisms of senescence at the molecular-cellular level.^{17,27,28} Important roles have been attributed to DNA damage,²⁹⁻³³ the effects of metabolic waste products such as reactive oxygen species,³⁴⁻³⁷ the various forms of dysfunction that are observed in senescent cells,^{27,38} the accumulation of senescent cells in tissues,^{15,18,27,39} and chronic smouldering inflammation called inflammageing.⁴⁰

The effects of damage acquired at lower levels seep through to higher levels of complexity in the body.^{20,21,24,28,41} Molecular damage underlies cellular senescence.^{17,27,38} Senescent cells secrete numerous signalling factors that induce senescence of other cells^{17,27,38} and systemic symptoms of senescence, such as chronic smouldering inflammation.⁴² Cellular senescence causes dysfunction and disease of tissues, such as impaired wound healing, cancer, and cardiovascular disease.^{16,43-45} Molec-

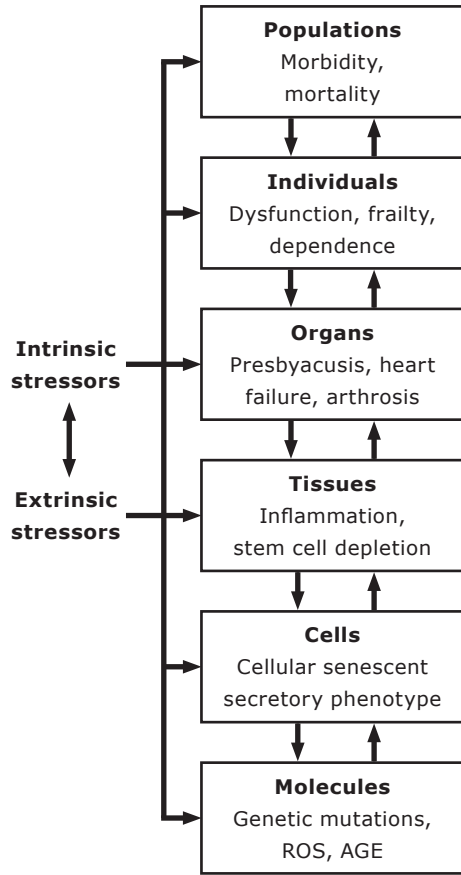


Figure 1.1 • Schematic overview of the accumulation of damage at different levels in the body during senescence.

Intrinsic and extrinsic stressors, in interaction, damage the human body at different levels of complexity. The damage at the lower levels seeps through to the higher levels. The damage at the higher levels probably also drips down to the lower levels. ROS: reactive oxygen species. AGE: advanced glycation end products.

ular and cellular senescence are the basis of disorders characterised by similar clinical features of accelerated senescence.⁴⁶ The accumulation of damage in the body's structures and functions and the development of disabilities and diseases culminate in an increasing risk of death.^{2,19,20,24,41,47-49}

Measuring senescence at the population level

As senescence manifests at different levels, it follows that it can be measured at different levels. For example, it can be measured at the molecular-cellular level through DNA lesions and cell cycle arrests, at the level of tissues and organs through inflammation and vascular calcification, and at the level of the body as a whole through instability and physical disability. In this thesis, we measure senescence in human populations. At the population level, senescence is defined as an increase in the risks of dysfunction, disease, and death with increasing chronological age.^{2,19,47,50,51} A constant risk of death during ageing marks the absence of senescence.^{52,53}

Knowledge of senescence can be obtained by studying molecules, cells, individuals, but also populations. These approaches are fundamentally different, but yield equally valuable and complementary insights. Observing and comparing populations with different characteristics is especially relevant in order to understand how the course of senescence can vary, what determinants account for this variation, and what preventive measures can ameliorate the senescence process.^{54,55}

Aims of this thesis

In Part I of this thesis we investigate how a population's senescence can be measured through the increase in mortality with age. In Part II of this thesis we investigate how senescence can be measured through the increase in morbidity in a non-western population and thus be compared with the senescence process in western populations. A more detailed introduction to each research question is given at the opening of each part of this thesis.

References

1. Medawar P.B. *An Unsolved Problem of Biology*. H. K. Lewis, London, UK, 1952: 46.
2. Medawar P.B. The definition and measurement of senescence. *Ciba Foundation Colloquia on Ageing* 1955;1: 4-15.
3. Finch C.E. *Longevity, Senescence, and the Genome*. University of Chicago Press, Chicago, IL, USA, 1990: 5-9.
4. Martin G.M. Genetic modulation of the senescent phenotype of Homo sapiens. *Exp. Gerontol.* 1996;31: 49-59.
5. Masoro E.J. Are age-associated diseases an integral part of aging? In: Masoro E.J. and Austad S.N., eds. *Handbook of the Biology of Aging*. Academic Press, Burlington, MA, USA, 2006: 44.
6. Jackson S.H., Weale M.R., Weale R.A. Biological age: what is it and can it be measured? *Arch. Gerontol. Geriatr.* 2003;36: 103-115.
7. Warner H.R. Current status of efforts to measure and modulate the biological rate of aging. *J. Gerontol. A Biol. Sci. Med. Sci.* 2004;59: 692-696.
8. Crimmins E., Vasunilashorn S., et al. Biomarkers related to aging in human populations. *Adv. Clin. Chem.* 2008;46: 161-216.
9. Levine M.E. Modeling the rate of senescence: can estimated biological age predict mortality more accurately than chronological age? *J. Gerontol. A Biol. Sci. Med. Sci.* 2013;68: 667-674.
10. Mitnitski A., Rockwood K. Biological age revisited. *J. Gerontol. A Biol. Sci. Med. Sci.* 2014;69: 295-296.
11. Galliot B. Mechanisms of regeneration. *Curr. Top. Dev. Biol.* 2014;108: 2-346.
12. Rando T.A., Chang H.Y. Aging, rejuvenation, and epigenetic reprogramming: resetting the aging clock. *Cell* 2012;148: 46-57.
13. Arking R. *The Biology of Aging: Observations and Principles*. Oxford University Press, New York, NY, USA, 2006: 54-92.
14. Kirkwood T.B.L. Understanding the odd science of aging. *Cell* 2005;120: 437-447.
15. Jeyapalan J.C., Sedivy J.M. Cellular senescence and organismal aging. *Mech. Ageing Dev.* 2008;129: 467-474.
16. Campisi J. Aging, cellular senescence, and cancer. *Ann. Rev. Physiol.* 2013;75: 685-705.
17. López-Otín C., Blasco M.A., et al. The hallmarks of aging. *Cell* 2013;153: 1194-1217.
18. Van Deursen J.M. The role of senescent cells in ageing. *Nature* 2014;509: 439-446.
19. Medawar P.B. *An Unsolved Problem of Biology*. H. K. Lewis, London, UK, 1952.
20. Izaks G.J., Westendorp R.G.J. Ill or just old? Towards a conceptual framework of the relation between ageing and disease. *BMC Geriatr.* 2003;3: 7.
21. Holliday R. The close relationship between biological aging and age-associated pathologies in humans. *J. Gerontol. A Biol. Sci. Med. Sci.* 2004;59: 543-546.
22. Yin D., Chen K. The essential mechanisms of aging: irreparable damage accumulation of biochemical side-reactions. *Exp. Gerontol.* 2005;40: 455-465.
23. Koopman J.J.E., Wensink M.J., et al. Intrinsic and extrinsic mortality reunited. *Exp. Gerontol.* 2015;67: 48-53. (Chapter 5 of this thesis.)
24. Blagosklonny M.V. Aging and immortality: quasi-programmed senescence and its pharmacologic inhibition. *Cell Cycle* 2006;5: 2087-2102.
25. Blagosklonny M.V. Aging: ROS or TOR. *Cell Cycle* 2008;7: 3344-3354.
26. Munch S.B., Mangel M. Evaluation of mortality trajectories in evolutionary biodemography. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* 2006;103: 16604-16607.
27. Burton D.G.A., Krizhanovsky V. Physiological and pathological consequences of cellular senescence. *Cell. Mol. Life Sci.* 2014;71: 4373-4386.
28. Richardson A.G., Schadt E.E. The role of macromolecular damage in aging and age-related disease. *J. Gerontol. A Biol. Sci. Med. Sci.* 2014;69 SUPPL. 1: 28-32.
29. Hoeijmakers J.H.J. DNA damage, aging, and cancer. *N. Engl. J. Med.* 2009;361: 1475-1485.
30. Jackson S.P., Bartek J. The DNA-damage response in human biology and disease. *Nature* 2009;461: 1071-1078.

31. Freitas A. A., De Magalhães J. P. A review and appraisal of the DNA damage theory of ageing. *Mutat. Res.* 2011; 728: 12-22.
32. Fumagalli M., Rossiello F., et al. Telomeric DNA damage is irreparable and causes persistent DNA-damage-response activation. *Nat. Cell Biol.* 2012; 14: 355-365.
33. Rossiello F., Herbig U., et al. Irreparable telomeric DNA damage and persistent DDR signalling as a shared causative mechanism of cellular senescence and ageing. *Curr. Opin. Genet. Dev.* 2014; 26: 89-95.
34. Harman D. Free radical theory of aging: an update: increasing the functional life span. *Ann. N. Y. Acad. Sci.* 2006; 1067: 10-21.
35. Gruber J., Schaffer S., Halliwell B. The mitochondrial free radical theory of ageing: where do we stand? *Front. Biosci.* 2008; 13: 6554-6579.
36. Bratic A., Larsson N. G. The role of mitochondria in aging. *J. Clin. Invest.* 2013; 123: 951-957.
37. Lagouge M., Larsson N. G. The role of mitochondrial DNA mutations and free radicals in disease and ageing. *J. Int. Med.* 2013; 273: 529-543.
38. Salama R., Sadaie M., Hoare M., Narita M. Cellular senescence and its effector programs. *Genes Dev.* 2014; 28: 99-114.
39. Herbig U., Ferreira M., et al. Cellular senescence in aging primates. *Science* 2006; 311: 1257.
40. Franceschi C., Campisi J. Chronic inflammation (inflammaging) and its potential contribution to age-associated diseases. *J. Gerontol. A Biol. Sci. Med. Sci.* 2014; 69 SUPPL. 1: 4-9.
41. Salinari G., De Santis G. On the beginning of mortality acceleration. *Demography* 2015; 52: 39-60.
42. Tchkonina T., Zhu Y., et al. Cellular senescence and the senescent secretory phenotype: therapeutic opportunities. *J. Clin. Invest.* 2013; 123: 966-972.
43. Kovacic J. C., Moreno P., et al. Cellular senescence, vascular disease, and aging: part 1 of a 2-part review. *Circulation* 2011; 123: 1650-1660.
44. Rodier F., Campisi J. Four faces of cellular senescence. *J. Cell Biol.* 2011; 192: 547-556.
45. Pawlikowski J. S., Adams P. D., Nelson D. M. Senescence at a glance. *J. Cell Sci.* 2013; 126: 4061-4067.
46. Navarro C. L., Cau P., Lévy N. Molecular bases of progeroid syndromes. *Hum. Mol. Genet.* 2006; 15 SPEC. NO. 2: 151-161.
47. Strehler B. L., Mildvan A. S. General theory of mortality and aging. *Science* 1960; 132: 14-21.
48. Gavrilov L. A., Gavrilova N. S. The reliability theory of aging and longevity. *J. Theor. Biol.* 2001; 213: 527-545.
49. Mitnitski A. B., Mogilner A. J., MacKnight C., Rockwood K. The mortality rate as a function of accumulated deficits in a frailty index. *Mech. Ageing Dev.* 2002; 123: 1457-1460.
50. Finch C. E. *Longevity, Senescence, and the Genome*. University of Chicago Press, Chicago, IL, USA, 1990: 12-32.
51. Arking R. *The Biology of Aging: Observations and Principles*. Oxford University Press, New York, NY, USA, 2006: 26-53.
52. Finch C. E. Update on slow aging and negligible senescence: a mini-review. *Gerontology* 2009; 55: 307-313.
53. Martínez D. E. Mortality patterns suggest lack of senescence in hydra. *Exp. Gerontol.* 1998; 33: 217-225.
54. Doyle Y. G., Furey A., Flowers J. Sick individuals and sick populations: 20 years later. *J. Epidemiol. Comm. Health* 2006; 60: 396-398.
55. Rose G. Sick individuals and sick populations. *Int. J. Epidemiol.* 2001; 30: 427-432.