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**Abstract** The concept of acquired resilience and its role in medicine and public health has emerged as a central topic for the new decade. Stress is a response to any environmental adversity (i.e., biological, emotional and cognitive) but dysregulation of adaptive stress responses which lowers resilience and health, can increase vulnerability to pathological conditions such as brain disorders, particularly, neuropsychiatric (i.e.,

schizophrenia, depression, anxiety, autism spectrum disorders), and neurodegenerative diseases (i.e., Alzheimer's diseases and Parkinson's disease). Mild stress can be beneficial by upregulating adaptive responses which enhance biological performance and protect against subsequent toxic challenges. In contrast, toxic stress reflecting an inability to cope, results in a dysregulation of adaptive stress response mechanisms and low resilience which can increase vulnerability to illness. In this context, resilience is the process of adapting and successfully coping with adverse life events, including chronic stress, socio-environmental factors, trauma, some type of catastrophe, physical or sexual abuse, negligence or parental mental illness. Detailed evaluations of biological systems showing acquired resilience reveal an hormetic biphasic dose response relationship, being reported as the result of either a direct low dose stimulation or within the context of a preconditioning experimental protocol. The hormetic dose response defines the expression, amplitude, duration and limitations of the acquired resilience in all biological systems. These acquired resilience-hormetic dose responses are reported in the pharmacology and nutritional literature with considerable information now clarifying underlying mechanisms at the level of receptor and cell signaling pathways. The study of human resilience is still a mostly phenomenological literature which has only begun to characterize biological factors in resilient individuals that are associated with more successful coping responses. Integration, optimization and tailoring of such developments to the treatment of patients offers a profound challenge and opportunities to the progress of biomedical sciences and therapeutic medicine.

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Keywords

Resilience - Healthy brain - Hormesis - Vitagenes - Plant polyphenols

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# Chapter 28

## Hormesis, Resilience and Mental Health: Enhancing Public Health and Therapeutic Options



Vittorio Calabrese, Maria Scuto, and Edward Calabrese

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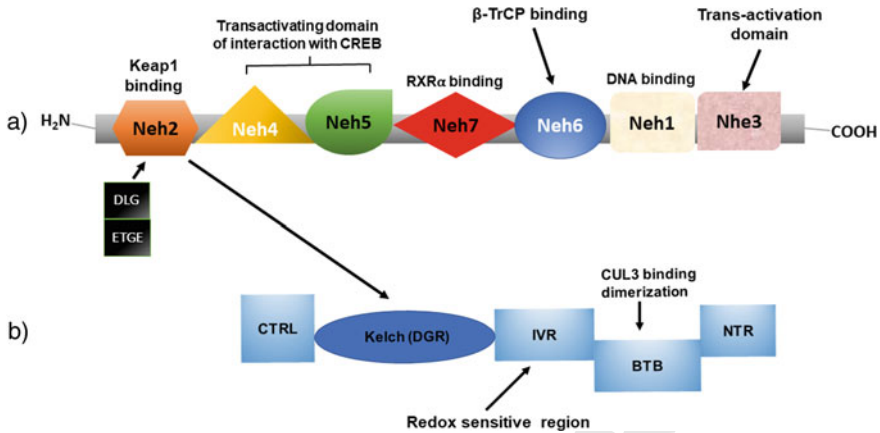
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## 29 28.1 Introduction

30 Resilience, as the ability to adequately adapt and respond to homeostatic perturba-  
31 tions, is a recent emerging concept. Although resilience has been associated with  
32 positive health effects, the neurobiological basis of resilience is still a matter of  
33 investigation and remains an open question.

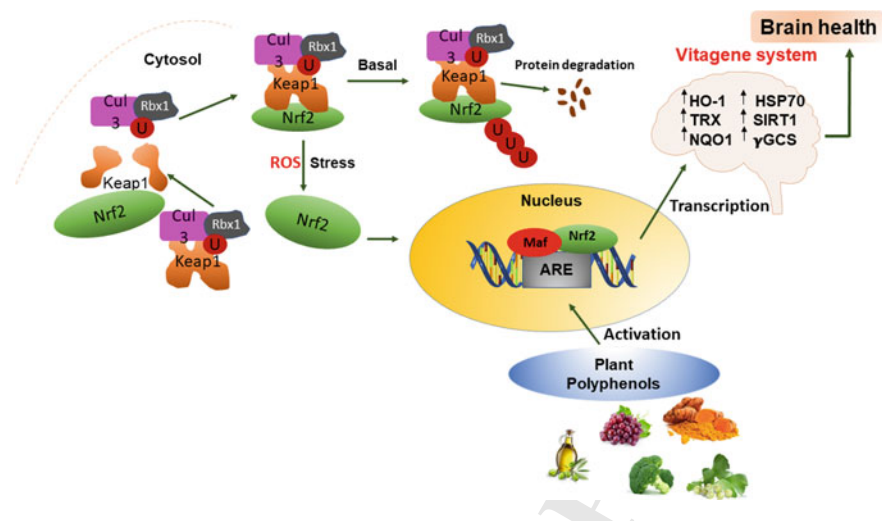
34 It is generally recognized now that multiple factors, such as severity and number  
35 of traumatic events during prenatal neurodevelopment and adolescence, timing  
36 of exposure to adversity, developmental history, cognitive flexibility and environ-  
37 mental changes such as toxicant exposure compromise health and wellbeing over  
38 the lifespan. Consistent with this notion, in the attempt to operationalize at cellular  
39 level the neurobiology of stress resistance, cellular resilience describes the ability  
40 of a cell to cope with detrimental metabolic and signaling conditions where cellular  
41 metabolism does not collapse immediately after the hit or enter into cell death.  
42 Rather, this cellular ability puts in motion a programmed cell life program through  
43 stress responsive signaling which promotes a new homeostasis under stress. The  
44 processes of reverting “back to normal” have not been studied so extensively at the  
45 cellular level. The defense and resilience programs include a number of cellular stress  
46 responses, such as rearrangements in energy metabolism, oxidative stress responses,  
47 including hypoxia signaling via HIF-1, the heat shock response via HSF-1, the antiox-  
48 idant response via Nrf-2, stress kinase signaling via JNK and AP-1, DNA damage  
49 responses via p21 or BCL2, and the unfolded protein response/amino acid starvation  
50 response via ATF-4/ATF-6 activation of anti-apoptotic pathways and DNA repair  
51 mechanisms. The actual contribution of these adaptive responses to reestablishing  
52 homeostasis represents an emerging area of interest in need of clarification. Effi-  
53 cient functioning of resilience processes, by enhancing endogenous cellular redox  
54 homeostatic mechanisms, integrate adaptive stress responses via the heat shock and  
55 Nrf2 related pathways (Fig. 28.1), as well as sirtuins via AKT/mTOR signaling, thus  
56 representing a complex operational network under control of genes, termed vita-  
57 genes (Calabrese et al. 2010) (Fig. 28.2), as well as epigenetic changes that leave  
58 a molecular “memory/scar”—mirroring alterations that are the consequence of the  
59 stress experienced by the cell.

60 These memories might have long-term consequences, both positive (resistance)  
61 and negative (vulnerability), that contribute to chronic and delayed manifestations of  
62 hazard and, ultimately, disease. Compromised adaptive responses to adversity, such  
63 as brain trauma or psychological stresses, i.e., low resilience, can increase vulner-  
64 ability to pathological conditions such as anxiety, depression, post-traumatic stress



**Fig. 28.1** Schematic representation illustrating domains structure of Nrf2-keap1. **a** Nrf2 contains seven highly conserved homologous domains (Neh 1–7). Neh1 is a DNA binding protein associated to sMaf in form of heterodimers which mediates binding to ARE in the promoter region of Nrf2. Neh2 is keap1 binding protein domain, containing the low affinity DLG motif and high affinity ETGE motif responsible of ubiquitination and proteosomal degradation of Nrf2. Neh3 is the transactivation domain recruiting CHD6. Neh4 and Neh5 are transactivation domains that recruit CREB. The Neh6 and Neh7 domains mediate interaction with  $\beta$ -TrCP and, respectively, RXR $\alpha$ , both negative regulators of Nrf2. Keap1 is divided into five regions; CTRL region; BTB region which binds CUL3 ligase responsible of keap1 dimerization; **b** Kelch (DGR) region consisting of six repeated sequences that interact with DLG and ETGE of Nrf2, IVR redox sensitive region containing cysteine residues associated to Nrf2 ubiquitination. NTR region. Nuclear factor-erythroid 2 p45-related factor 2 (Nrf2), Kelch-like ECH-associated protein 1 (keap 1), cAMP response element-binding protein (CREB), retinoid X receptor alpha (RXR $\alpha$ ),  $\beta$ -transducin repeat-containing protein ( $\beta$ -TrCP), small musculoaponeurotic fibrosarcoma proteins (sMaf), antioxidant response element (ARE), chromo-ATPase/helicase DNA-binding protein 6 (CHD6)

65 disorders (PTSD) (Sexton et al. 2015), and neurodegenerative pathologies (Gupta  
 66 et al. 2014), although not everyone exposed to adversity develops these disorders.  
 67 Higher-resilient individuals, on the other hand, show an enhanced ability to bounce  
 68 back from adverse events, revealing greater emotional and cognitive control and are  
 69 more persistent. Linked to the areas of disaster research, the concept of resilience,  
 70 applied initially to critical infrastructures, has been consolidated in the process of  
 71 prevention for subsequent possible hits (Taleb 2007). In the brain, the corresponding  
 72 neurobiological Achilles' heel is represented by mitochondria, where reduced effi-  
 73 ciency of the electron transport chain (ETC), enhancing oxidative stress by ROS and  
 74 reducing energy production occurring in response to many hazards, initiates apoptotic  
 75 cytochrome C release associated to mitochondrial dysfunction and neurodegenera-  
 76 tion. Consistent with this notion, in facing challenges, adaptive responses (hormetic  
 77 triggers) such as caloric restriction or increased metabolic demand would generate  
 78 an improved mitochondrial function efficiency, which substantially contributes to  
 79 the maintenance of homeostasis (Nunn et al. 2016). Hence, the brain is continuously



**Fig. 28.2** Modulation of Nrf2-vitigene pathway by plant polyphenols in the brain. In basal conditions Nrf2 is bound to its inhibitor Keap1 and is restricted to the cytosol, where it undergoes ubiquitination and proteasomal degradation via association with the Cul3-Rbx1 based E3/ubiquitin ligase complex. Under stress conditions, Nrf2 is released from Keap1 and is translocated into the nucleus where it binds to the phase 2 of ARE in heterodimeric combination with Maf transcription factor in the DNA promoter region. Plant polyphenols are small molecules that reverse stress and ROS production by activating Nrf2 nuclear translocation and transcription of neuroprotective vitagenes. The upregulation of vitigene pathway such as HO-1, Hsp70, Trx, sirtuin Sirt1, NQO1, γ-GCS improves brain health and protect against neurodegenerative damage. Nuclear factor-erythroid 2 p45-related factor 2 (Nrf2), Kelch-like ECH-associated protein 1 (Keap1), antioxidant response element (ARE), heme-oxygenase 1 (HO-1), heat shock protein 70 (Hsp70), thioredoxin (Trx), sirtuin 1 (Sirt1), NAD(P)H: quinone oxidoreductase 1 (NQO1), γ-glutamylcysteine synthetase (γ-GCS)

80 adapting to perturbations in bodily homeostasis, and a resilient brain integrates adaptive  
 81 responses that regulate behaviors associated with coping, fear, attention, cognitive  
 82 flexibility, and emotional regulation (Baratta et al. 2013; Russo et al. 2012).  
 83 More generally, high resilient individuals display more effective modulation of brain  
 84 circuits involved in emotion and fear (Southwick et al. 2014).

85 A recent paradigm shift in operationalizing resilience has moved away from the  
 86 focus on the non-emergence of pathology or symptoms after exposure to adversity,  
 87 to include “resilient-conductive” factors such as personality traits, confidence,  
 88 flexibility, optimism, or emotional lability, which can help promote positive subjective  
 89 appraisal, negotiation, adaptation, or management of adverse situations with  
 90 increased coping (Kalisch et al. 2015). Yet, information on the neurobiological correlates  
 91 of these complex psychosocial and spiritual factors is lacking (Pietrzak et al.  
 92 2010). Individual traits such as subjective well-being (both hedonic or eudaimonic)  
 93 could also be protective factors against adversity (Di Fabio et al. 2015). Hedonic  
 94 well-being refers to cognitive evaluation of life satisfaction and positive affect,  
 95 whereas eudaimonic well-being is related to the determination of life-meaning and  
 96 self-actualization. Resilience is related to both types of well-being (Di Fabio et al.

97 2015). Positive affect is thought to facilitate resilience by broadening one's attention  
98 and coping abilities, and by decreasing susceptibility to disease through increased  
99 vagal control (Oveis et al. 2009). The overlap between measures of positive affect  
100 and resilience has also been observed in various conditions such as chronic pain  
101 (Strand et al. 2006) or brain trauma. The identification of neurobiological correlates  
102 associated with resilience endophenotype may therefore be a critical first step in the  
103 identification of individuals with increased vulnerability to develop diseases. Identifying  
104 brain signatures of resilience as biomarkers of vulnerability to stress-related  
105 diseases can have implications for the development of training interventions, such as  
106 preconditioning or post conditioning effects associated to hormesis, which increase  
107 effective coping and management of stress conditions.

108 In the brain, a resilient neuronal cell does not necessarily correspond to a  
109 healthy cell, as in the case of a cancerous phenotype being very resilient towards  
110 chemotherapy. In some tumor cells, high resilience mechanisms lead to a resistance  
111 to drugs despite being exposed to the same concentrations as their neighboring cells.  
112 Such changes can be long-term, or even permanent, constituting cellular biological  
113 memories associated with beneficial outcomes, as in the context of cellular hormesis.  
114 Such beneficial outcomes, particularly with respect to ischemia–reperfusion, can be  
115 seen where an initial stressor makes cells more resilient to subsequent stress to organs.  
116 Here, the so called “pre-conditioning”, or alternatively after an adverse situation, a  
117 subsequent stressor “post-conditioning”, are used and developed, both experimen-  
118 tally and clinically (Smirnova et al. 2015). Long-term effects can however also be  
119 detrimental and lead to adverse outcomes, especially when exposure is of limited  
120 duration, as in the case of mixture toxicities.

121 The underlying strategy of hormesis in these cases entails the upregulation of  
122 adaptive mechanisms that results in the development of biological resilience. New  
123 resilient phenotypes will conform to the quantitative and temporal features of the  
124 hormetic dose–time response relationship, often within a preconditioning context.  
125 While the amplitude of induced resilience is modest, being about 30–60% greater than  
126 the control group/background at maximum, and the duration of resilience is limited,  
127 it appears possible to significantly extend the duration of the resilience in some  
128 models depending on preconditioning stimulation methods (Gidday 2015). Similar  
129 insights on increasing the amplitude of the resilient phenotype remain to be explored.  
130 Since Parkinson's Disease (PD) onset and progression is highly age dependent, it is  
131 important to recognize that preconditioning-induced hormetic resilience decreases  
132 profoundly with age in a variety of animal models. However, some success has  
133 been achieved in restoring pathway functions via various exercise schemes, dietary  
134 modifications and pharmacological approaches (Calabrese et al. 2015, 2016, 2018b).

135 Ultimately, the concept of resilience is difficult to operationalize, since it encapsulates  
136 many divergent behavioral phenotypes. Indeed, the study of human resilience  
137 is still a mostly phenomenological literature which has only begun to characterize  
138 biological factors in resilient individuals that are associated with more successful  
139 coping responses. Thus, integration, optimization and tailoring of such develop-  
140 ments to the treatment of patients offers a profound challenge and opportunities to  
141 the progress of biomedical sciences and therapeutic medicine. In the subsequent

142 sections, we aim to provide evidence for possible prevention and early interven-  
143 tion approaches targeting humans and animals, and their correlation with environ-  
144 mental stressors, that can reduce the risk of brain disorders (i.e., neurodegenerative  
145 and neuropsychiatric disorders) and foster resilience mechanisms which maintain  
146 cellular homeostasis in response to stressors or adverse life experiences.

## 147 **28.2 Resilience and Brain Health in Early Life**

148 A growing field of recent research is focusing on the concept of resilience in the  
149 context of early brain health and its role in successful aging in order to elucidate  
150 neuroprotective resilient pathways and activation of stress responses against stress-  
151 related neuropsychiatric and neurodegenerative disorders. In this context, resilience  
152 is an active brain process that involves adaptive synaptic plasticity and cellular coping  
153 mechanisms to face the negative effects of stressful early experiences (i.e., physical  
154 and sexual abuse, socio-emotional neglect and maltreatments) (Russo et al. 2012;  
155 Southwick et al. 2014). In contrast, low resilience and high vulnerability to stressful  
156 or traumatic experiences, in particular during the prenatal neurodevelopment period  
157 and adolescence, alter brain circuits to affect sensory systems, network architec-  
158 ture and neuronal mediators involved in threat detection, emotional regulation and  
159 reward anticipation. These alterations leave a molecular mark on the genome in the  
160 form of epigenetic modifications that result in a “biological embedding” of these  
161 stressful life events throughout the life course, contributing to the development of  
162 mental illness such as psychiatric (i.e., depression, anxiety and post-traumatic stress  
163 disorder (PTSD)) and neurodegenerative disorders (i.e., Alzheimer’s diseases) both  
164 in humans and animal models (Gravitz 2018; Teicher et al. 2016; Lesuis et al. 2018;  
165 Cohen et al. 2013). Moreover, preclinical studies reported that early life interven-  
166 tions modulate aversive memory reconsolidation in the dorsal hippocampus and may  
167 program the resilience or vulnerability to psychopathologies of traumatic memories  
168 later in life in rodents (Couto-Pereira et al. 2019). On the other hand, the identification  
169 of pro-resilience predictive pathways that confer neuroprotection by restoring cellular  
170 homeostasis following genetic, epigenetic and environmental stressors has been asso-  
171 ciated with positive mental outcomes such as reduced depression and mortality risk  
172 (Gooding et al. 2012) thus promoting lifespan and well-being (Jeste et al. 2013).

173 Psychological resilience is the ability to bounce back after a stressful or traumatic  
174 event (Southwick et al. 2012) and accounts for whether or not an individual develops  
175 a mental illness such as psychiatric and post-traumatic stress disorders (Cathomas  
176 et al. 2019). The epigenome may drive adaptive response mechanisms to environ-  
177 mental stressors or traumatic events, on the interface between dynamic environmental  
178 changes and the inherited genome, possibly allowing an “epigenotoxic effect” (Szyf  
179 2007). Epigenetic modifications such as DNA methylation, DNA hydroxymethyla-  
180 tion, histone modification, miRNA expression have been widely described to mediate  
181 the effect of these stressful experiences and to be involved in the vulnerability to  
182 depression (Januar et al. 2015), as well as for other stress-related brain disorders



183 (Nestler et al. 2016). Within this context, epigenetic alterations especially during  
184 early life sensory period provide a “*molecular memory*” to neuroplastic responses of  
185 environmental stressors and are central to the generation of vulnerable or resilient  
186 endophenotypes throughout life (Franklin et al. 2012; Silberman et al. 2016). The  
187 imprint from earlier exposures to adverse events, which can manifest as an epige-  
188 netic scar (rendering cells more sensitive) or resilience (more tolerant), needs to be  
189 considered to understand real-life exposures and measure risk. Sometimes the results  
190 of stressors are “bad memories,” such as mutations, or other functional impairments  
191 that may predispose to disease or lead to adverse lifetime, or even transgenerational,  
192 outcomes. The fine line between resilience and maladaptation may need to be defined  
193 according to the situation. In the context of transgenerational transmission of early  
194 stress and mental disorder (i.e., schizophrenia, bipolar disorder and severe depres-  
195 sion), a longitudinal cohort study reported early preventive strategies for transmission  
196 of risk or resilience from a parent with severe mental illness to their infant: stress-  
197 sensitivity, caregiving representation and quality of parent-infant interaction leading to  
198 the possibility of decreasing rate of mental illness in offspring (Harder et al. 2015).

199 Interestingly, a recent study suggested that early maternal care can epigenetically  
200 reprogram the behavior of offspring for their entire lifetime through modulation of  
201 neuroplasticity, neurogenesis, cell survival, resilience and specific stress response  
202 genes later in life (Vogel Ciernia et al. 2018). On the other hand, many studies  
203 reported that early maternal deprivation leads to epigenetic changes (i.e., histone  
204 acetylation and DNA methylation) in specific imprinted genes causing attention-  
205 deficit/hyperactivity disorder (ADHD), such as anxiolytic-behavior, hyperactivity as  
206 well as learning and memory deficits in adolescent rats and in maltreated children  
207 (Naumova et al. 2019).

208 Compelling evidence supports the crucial contribution provided by epigenetic  
209 memory in the form of changes to the DNA methylation pattern that could protect  
210 (offer resilience) or contribute to pathogenesis and cellular vulnerability to long-  
211 term subsequent stressors (Tyagi et al. 2015). Moreover, a recent study suggested  
212 that short- and long-term neonatal exposure to early life adversity induces epigenetic  
213 changes in dopaminergic molecular pathways and thus can alleviate or aggravate  
214 depressive-like symptoms in animal models of chronic stress later in life (Köhler  
215 et al. 2019).

216 All this highlights the importance of resilience and epigenetic processes to coun-  
217 teract vulnerable traits in humans and animal models of mental disorders. Hence, the  
218 epigenome may contribute to rendering the system more resistant to the development  
219 of neurodegenerative and psychiatric diseases occurring at a later stage of life.

## 220 **28.2.1 Neurobiology of Brain Resilience**

221 Recently, a large amount of evidence sheds light on the neurobiological factors  
222 underlying stress resilience, with particular emphasis on the hypothalamic–pituitary–  
223 adrenal (HPA) axis, brain-derived neurotrophic factor (BDNF), serotonergic (5-  
224 HT), glutamatergic and  $\gamma$ -aminobutyric acid (GABA) systems (Faye et al. 2018).  
225 Modulating these receptors may promote resilience or vulnerability during stressful  
226 events.

### 227 **28.2.1.1 Hypothalamic-Pituitary Axis**

228 A neurobiological factor required for adaptive stress regulation is the hypothalamic-  
229 pituitary axis (HPA axis). The HPA axis is the central neuroendocrine pathway  
230 involved in response to stress and adaptation in humans and in animal models  
231 (Bomholt et al. 2004). The system is subject to diurnal circadian fluctuations and is  
232 also sensitive to both acute and chronic stress. Therefore, the HPA axis is important  
233 for understanding resilience or vulnerability to stress. Thus, individuals perceive  
234 stressful events differently, and when the stress response becomes overactive, the  
235 recovery mechanisms fail to work, leading to increased susceptibility to stress.  
236 Some individuals are less vulnerable to stress than others and are deemed resilient.  
237 When faced with adversity, people with low resilience are at risk of mental illnesses.  
238 Conversely, people who are able to integrate well socially, mentally or physically  
239 despite exposure to stress or adversity demonstrate resilience. It is important to  
240 note that childhood stress and trauma alter the HPA axis and its long-term dysreg-  
241 ulation is associated with increased risk of adverse health outcomes. In addition,  
242 recent findings indicate that a dysregulation of the HPA axis induced by chronic  
243 stress in aged subjects correlates with negative health outcomes, such as a higher  
244 risk for mood disorders (i.e., anxiety and depression) and cognitive disorders (i.e.,  
245 Alzheimer’s disease), where individuals are predisposed to the effects of unstable  
246 emotional regulation (Kuhlman et al. 2018; Janak et al. 2015; Bao et al. 2018; Gupta  
247 et al. 2014).

248 In response to challenge or threat, the HPA axis produces a cascade of hormones  
249 leading to the release of corticotropin-releasing hormone (CRH) and adrenocorti-  
250 cotropic hormone (ACTH), which are neuropeptides from the hypothalamus and the  
251 pituitary, respectively. Lastly, this pathway culminates in the secretion of glucocor-  
252 ticoids and release of cortisol (or corticosterone in rodents) from the adrenal cortex.  
253 Diurnal cortisol is a physiological biomarker of HPA axis activity that contributes  
254 to stress resilience. Accordingly, altered diurnal or stress-induced secretion of the  
255 hormone cortisol (i.e., higher diurnal cortisol levels), combined with lower resilience  
256 resources (i.e., emotion dysregulation and poor social support), could predispose  
257 older adults to negative health outcomes (Gaffey et al. 2016). Thus, circulating  
258 cortisol levels change due to both environmental and endogenous influences. Several  
259 lines of evidence revealed that, in older adults, blunted diurnal cortisol secretion has

260 been associated with frailty (Johar et al. 2014), whereas lower diurnal cortisol is  
261 correlated with longevity (Noordam et al. 2010).

### 262 28.2.1.2 BDNF Pathway

263 It is well documented that stress is a common risk factor for a great range of  
264 brain disorders by targeting brain-derived neurotrophic factor (BDNF). BDNF is  
265 a potent neurotrophic factor implicated in synaptic plasticity, neurogenesis, memory  
266 processes and neuronal stress resistance (Marosi et al. 2014). Downregulation of  
267 BDNF expression has been associated with neuronal atrophy and death occurring  
268 in neurological disorders (Murer et al. 2001), and chronic stress typically decreases  
269 BDNF hippocampal expression (Smith et al. 1996). Reduced levels of BDNF have  
270 been reported not only under normal aging conditions but also in neuropathological  
271 conditions such as Alzheimer's disease (AD). Yet, experimental findings provide  
272 evidence on how the BDNF-TrkB pathway involved in neuroplasticity modulates  
273 stress vulnerability and resilience. Reduced BDNF-TrkB signaling contributes to  
274 vulnerability of  $\beta$  amyloid-related effects on cognition in the pathogenesis of AD  
275 (Devi et al. 2015).

### 276 28.2.1.3 Serotonin Pathway

277 Serotonin or 5-hydroxytryptamine (5-HT) is an important monoamine neurotransmitter  
278 implicated in stress resilience and vulnerability. 5-HT is synthesized in the  
279 body from the essential amino acid tryptophan (TRP) by the enzyme tryptophan  
280 hydroxylase (TRH). This neurotransmitter contributes to brain development and to  
281 the maintenance of normal brain function (Nordquist et al. 2010). Thus, low TRP  
282 leads to low 5-HT levels in the brain or exposure to psychosocial stress, which  
283 promotes the etiology of mood disorders in humans and animals (Gutknecht et al.  
284 2015; Caspi et al. 2003). On the other hand, elevated levels of 5-HT are associated  
285 to neurotoxicity (Dell'Osso et al. 2016). Moreover, the 5-HT transporter gene is  
286 another actor of neurotransmission homeostasis and plays a role in modulating an  
287 individual's vulnerability or resilience to stress (Lesch et al. 1996). Stress induce  
288 alterations in the serotonin system are associated with structural and functional  
289 epigenetic changes in the brain. In this regard, epigenetic modifications such as  
290 hypermethylation in *HTR2A*, *HTR3A* and *5HHT* serotonergic genes are associated  
291 with childhood trauma and psychiatric disorders in adulthood (Schechter et al. 2017;  
292 Kang et al. 2013). Serotonin 5-HT<sub>1A</sub> receptors have been proposed as key mediators  
293 of serotonergic signaling in the hippocampus (Savitz et al. 2009). Chronic stress  
294 reduced the levels of 5-HT<sub>1A</sub> receptors in different brain areas and increased the risk  
295 of depression in vulnerable patients and animals (Watanabe et al. 1993). On the other  
296 hand, high levels of hippocampal 5-HT<sub>1A</sub> receptors represent a molecular marker that  
297 exerts resilience actions on limbic functioning and serotonergic homeostasis in the  
298 face of stress (Zurawek et al. 2019).

#### 28.2.1.4 Glutamate Pathway

Glutamate is the main excitatory neurotransmitter in the central nervous system (CNS), and under physiological conditions, plays an important role in synaptic plasticity, learning, memory and emotional responses (Lin et al. 2019). Accumulating evidence suggests that less resilience is associated with dysregulation in glutamatergic neurotransmission (i.e., phencyclidine (PCP), ketamine, and N-methyl-d-aspartate (NMDA) and  $\alpha$ -amino-3-hydroxy-5-methyl-4-isoxazole propionic acid (AMPA) receptors), which induces microglial activation, neuronal damage or death by excitotoxicity and in the end leads to the pathogenesis of numerous neuropsychiatric disorders such as schizophrenia, depression, autism, and neurodegenerative diseases (Reus et al. 2018). Notably, glutamate neurotransmission, including neurotransmitter synthesis, signaling, and glutamate receptor functions and expression seem to be involved in both stress vulnerability and resilience. Chronic stress decreased resilience and consequently the levels of glutamatergic neurotransmission of AMPA receptors, in animal models of depression (Li et al. 2018).

#### 28.2.1.5 GABAergic Pathway

The  $\gamma$ -Aminobutyric acid (GABA), the major inhibitory neurotransmitter in the brain, progressively decreases during stress in animals (Zhang et al. 2016) and humans (Schür et al. 2016). Dysfunction of GABAergic neurotransmission is implicated in the development of stress-induced psychiatric disorders in both clinical and preclinical research (Jacobson et al. 2007; Albrecht et al. 2017). Notably, GABAergic neurons in the nucleus accumbens of the limbic system are correlated with the resilience and vulnerability to chronic stress for major depression (Zhu et al. 2017). Interestingly, the GABA<sub>B(1)</sub> subunit is expressed as different isoforms, and in the brain the predominant isoforms are GABA<sub>B(1a)</sub> and GABA<sub>B(1b)</sub>. These isoforms, GABA<sub>B(1a)</sub> and GABA<sub>B(1b)</sub>, exhibit differential cognitive and conditioned fear responses and regulate stress resilience or vulnerability to psychiatric illness in animal models (O'Leary et al. 2014). Several lines of evidence suggest that upregulation of the GABA<sub>A</sub> receptor  $\alpha 1$  subunit in the ventral hippocampus increases resilience in animal models of juvenile stress and can lead to the development of stress-related psychopathologies (Ardi et al. 2019). The impact of basolateral amygdala activation on synaptic plasticity in the hippocampus, under conditions of heightened stress, induces alterations in the GABAergic system in limbic and prefrontal cortical areas. Thus, reducing GABAergic inhibition of specifically the axon initial segment of principal neurons within the basolateral amygdala represents a protective factor against traumatic stress on hippocampus-dependent cognitive and plasticity functions in rats (Saha et al. 2018).

## 28.2.2 Mitochondrial Resilience

It is well established that genetic predispositions, epigenetic changes as well as various environmental influences (comprising adverse life events such as childhood maltreatment, migration, or chronic stress) contribute to mental illness vulnerability. Mitochondrial stress occurring in response to many oxidative injuries, impairment of energy metabolism and calcium homeostasis that initiates apoptotic cytochrome C release is associated with mitochondrial dysfunction and neurodegeneration (Mosconi et al. 2011). On the other hand, mitochondria dynamically interact with each other and respond to different stressors to generate signals of resilient adaptation. Within the cell, mitochondria are in close proximity to the cell nucleus and, in response to environmental signals, undergo dynamic, morphological and functional changes leading to the production of biochemical signals to which the cell and its plastic epigenome evolved molecular sensitivity (Picard et al. 2013; Shaughnessy et al. 2014; Houtkooper et al. 2013). Recently, studies have in fact demonstrated the existence of a functional crosstalk between mitochondria and nuclear epigenome as a new aspect of bidirectional mito-nuclear communication: mitochondria are essential mediators of epigenetic processes and, conversely, changes in the epigenome regulate mitochondrial function. Consequently, their functions are fundamental aspects of cellular health (Matilainen et al. 2017). Accordingly, recent studies of gene-stress-interaction demonstrated that downregulation of *cacna1c* gene expression promotes mitochondrial resilience against oxidative stress in neuropsychiatric disorders (Michels et al. 2018). Mitochondria synthesize and metabolize stress hormones (i.e., glucocorticoids and catecholamines). It is interesting to note in the context of stress resilience that stress hormones display a biphasic role in regulating mitochondrial function, i.e., a hormetic mechanism. An integrative view of chronic stress targeting mitochondrial bioenergetics thus opens new opportunities to study mechanisms of resilience adaptation across the lifespan.

Consistent with this concept, mitochondria regulating energy homeostasis and brain resilience adaptation processes represents a major marker of brain health (Picard et al. 2018a). Importantly, chronic stress induces mitochondrial damage and dysfunction in various brain regions, with impairment of neurotransmission underlying development and progression of neurodegenerative and neuropsychiatric pathogenesis. Moreover, prolonged exposure to glucocorticoids causes respiratory chain dysfunction, increased ROS generation, mitochondrial structural abnormalities, apoptosis and cell death in skeletal muscle cells and hippocampal neurons (Picard et al. 2018a). In light of this, glucocorticoids should be regarded as *mitokines*, i.e., mitochondria-derived hormones, mediating mitochondria-to-mitochondria communication among distant sites throughout the organism (Picard et al. 2018b). Notably, moderate mitochondrial stress can enhance mitochondrial antioxidant capacity through upregulation of antioxidant enzymes and, hence, increase resilience to metabolic stress (Lee et al. 2010), with impact on lifespan in mice (Schriner et al. 2005).

### 28.2.3 *Regional Specificity of Brain Resilience and Vulnerability to Stress: A Neuroimaging Approach*

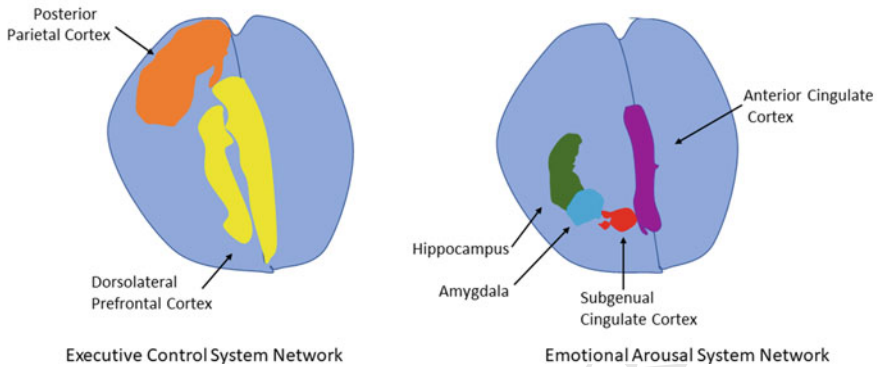
In recent years, neuroimaging techniques have become an increasingly important tool to study neural correlates of adaptive and non-adaptive behavior. Neuroimaging studies, such as functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI) and electroencephalography (EEG), provided substantial evidence of both brain structure and function in supporting vulnerability or resilience to stress in different neurological disorders.

Resilience is associated with morphological changes of brain regions involved in cognitive and affective processes related to the cortico-limbic system and plays an essential role in preserving mental function and physiological trajectories of brain network. In this context, higher levels of resilience are related to distinct morphological alterations in brain regions involved in executive control and emotional arousal networks, suggesting individuals with low resilience may have compromised cortico-limbic inhibition, making them more vulnerable to stress or trauma (Gupta et al. 2017).

Interestingly, the connectivity of these brain regions modulates resilience and vulnerability processes during stress or brain trauma (i.e., early life trauma, childhood maltreatment) (McEwen et al. 2016a). Accordingly, these brain regions are implicated in the storage of cognitive control, memory consolidation, neurogenesis as well as emotion regulation (McEwen et al. 2016b). The structural changes in the brain induced by chronic stress play a critical role in the pathophysiology of both neurodegenerative and neuropsychiatric disorders in animal and humans (Ebertowska et al. 2020; Kawaike et al. 2019). In addition, alterations observed in the cytoarchitecture of the hippocampus and amygdala have been related to stress resilience and vulnerability in animal models of PTSD (Cohen et al. 2014).

In humans, several studies demonstrated that chronic stress or traumatic experiences in childhood maltreatment (i.e., parental neglect, early deprivation, physical, sexual and emotional abuse) are associated with morphological alterations in specific brain regions. Specifically, there is increased atrophy of neurons in the hippocampus, prefrontal and parietal cortex, involved in memory, selective attention, and executive function (Bremner et al. 2005; Gupta et al. 2017). Similarly, these negative events cause hypertrophy of neurons in the amygdala involved in emotional processing and arousal, fear conditioning, anxiety and aggression as well as diminished striatal response to anticipated reward. This leads to increased vulnerability and development of neuropsychiatric and neurodegenerative illness (Guo et al. 2018). Moreover, animal studies have shown smaller amygdala volumes associated with lower levels of resilience, in keeping with neuroimaging findings demonstrating that amygdala volume is reduced in individuals who have been exposed to early adverse life events or maltreatment. For example, smaller amygdalae have been observed in individuals undergoing conditions of childhood poverty (Luby et al. 2013), as well as in adolescents having experiences of childhood maltreatment (Edmiston et al.

## Executive Function and Emotional Arousal Control Network Systems involved in the regulation of Resilience



**Fig. 28.3** Regions involved in the executive control and emotional arousal functions. Executive Control Network System: Dorsal-lateral Prefrontal Cortex, Posterior Parietal Cortex. Emotional Arousal System Network: Anterior Cingulate Cortex, Subgenual Anterior Cingulate Cortex, Amygdala and Hippocampus

2011). Smaller amygdala volumes have been also observed in individuals exposed to childhood adversities such as physical abuse, neglect, or being raised in poor households (Hanson et al. 2015) and in PTSD populations compared to healthy controls (Depue et al. 2014). These studies indicate that impaired executive control and emotional arousal networks in critical cortico-limbic structures, such as the dorsal-lateral prefrontal cortex, posterior parietal cortex, and respectively anterior cingulate cortex, anterior mid-cingulate cortex, subgenual anterior cingulate cortex, amygdala and hippocampus, show inhibition in response to trauma, suggesting that they may play a critical role in the mediation of low resilience or vulnerability to disease (Fig. 28.3).

Moreover, a recent study demonstrated that glucocorticoid receptor stimulation by early maternal stress and long-term gene expression changes induced aberrant DNA methylation in prefrontal cortex of rats (Urb et al. 2019). A few neuroimaging studies have investigated the response to adversity as a “proxy” of resilience, reporting quite important resilience-related differences in brain structure (DeYoung et al. 2010). Retrieval of emotionally-valenced words in females with histories of early abuse has been linked to decreased blood flow in the inferior parietal cortex (Bremner et al. 2003). In an emotional Stroop task, there was decreased parietal cortex activity in females with histories of PTSD and abuse (Bremner et al. 2004). The parietal cortex is a key region of the executive control network, and is associated with inhibitory control, attention, working memory, planning, and response (Uddin et al. 2011). Therefore, the findings are consistent with the hypothesis that high resilient individuals may be better able to engage the executive control network, including its role in inhibitory functions in relation to real or perceived challenge to their homeostasis.

The emerging links between neurogenesis and mental health support the idea that improving resilience represents a neurogenic strategy to treat patients suffering

447 from major depression, schizophrenia, and neurodegeneration (Apple et al. 2017).  
448 Neurogenesis plays a critical role in the synaptic plasticity of brain functions, such as  
449 olfactory discrimination, memory formation, and fear extinction (Shors et al. 2001;  
450 Alonso et al. 2006; Pan et al. 2012). In this context, it has been reported that stressful  
451 or traumatic events induce glucocorticoid release and decrease adult hippocampal  
452 neurogenesis (Snyder et al. 2011). Animal studies of early maternal and social deprivation  
453 reveal stress enhanced neurogenesis in the dentate gyrus of the hippocampus  
454 and in the amygdala. In fact, mice exposed to early life stress exhibited a reduction in  
455 amygdala/hippocampus-dependent fear memory because they have reinforced stress  
456 resilience to cope with future stressors and maintain a normal homeostatic state (Daun  
457 et al. 2020). Accordingly, dysfunction of adult neurogenesis enhances vulnerability  
458 of the hippocampus, and development of age-related neurodegenerative diseases, as  
459 well as neuropsychiatric diseases. On the contrary, enhancing neurogenesis confers  
460 resilience to stress by regulating the processing of both cognitive and emotional functions.  
461 Animal studies reported that increasing hippocampal neurogenesis promotes  
462 resilience to chronic social defeat stress by moderate exercise (Nguemini et al. 2018)  
463 and inhibiting ventral dentate gyrus (Anacker et al. 2018). Brain imaging data of the  
464 hippocampus in patients and stress-induced animal models with either depression or  
465 anxiety disorders indicated a remarkable reduction in region volume and dendritic  
466 spine numbers. By contrast, larger hippocampal volumes could be a biological marker  
467 of resilience, whereas, loss of hippocampal neural plasticity (e.g., loss glial cell and  
468 smaller neuronal cell nuclei) after chronic stress is a determinant factor to the patho-  
469 physiology of depression in vulnerable human and animal models (Park et al. 2019;  
470 Carboni et al. 2018).

471 Additionally, a recent report suggested that hippocampal proteomic changes are  
472 associated with protein alterations involved in mitochondrial and metabolic pathways  
473 and lead to increased vulnerability or resilience to stress-induced depression and  
474 anxiety in stressed rats (Tang et al. 2019). Recently, several studies have correlated  
475 increased amygdala reactivity as a protective factor that promotes resilience to depression  
476 following early life stress (Yamamoto et al. 2017). In contrast, others studies  
477 have revealed that high emotional resilience is associated with lower levels of connectivity  
478 in the ventral amygdala network independent of depression status. Instead,  
479 lower depression symptoms were associated with higher connectivity between the  
480 amygdala and dorsal frontal networks in older adults (Leaver et al. 2018). In addition,  
481 repeated stress induces a pro-inflammatory state by increasing the amygdala's  
482 neuronal and microglial activation, which triggers anxiety-like behaviors in rodents  
483 (Munshi et al. 2020).

484 Taken together, these data showed brain network connectivity in the main brain  
485 regions such as hippocampus, amygdala as well as prefrontal and parietal cortex  
486 in response to stress or trauma and how neural factors are involved in increasing  
487 resilience or vulnerability after stressful events across the lifespan. A history of  
488 stress exposure can have a lasting impact on future stress reactivity in different brain  
489 regions. Finally, the elucidation of brain region alterations will undoubtedly lead to  
490 more effective and better tolerated treatment approaches to enhance resilience and its  
491 use as a potential biomarker of healthier adulthood adaptations to childhood trauma.



### 28.3 Plant Polyphenols Improve Resilience and Brain Health via “Vitagenes”

Emerging research has focused on brain resilience, for neuroprotection, elicited by plant polyphenols through the activation of the Nrf2-vitagine signaling pathway (Figs. 28.1 and 28.2). The latter encodes redox sensitive genes, such as heme oxygenase-1 (HO-1), heat shock proteins (Hsps), thioredoxin and sirtuin system, termed vitagenes which are involved in preserving brain health and cellular homeostasis in response to stress or trauma in major neuropsychiatric and neurodegenerative disorders (Calabrese et al. 2010; Trovato et al. 2014, 2016a). Increasing evidence suggests that plant polyphenols (i.e., resveratrol, hydroxytyrosol, oleuropein, sulforaphane, curcumin, as well as ginkgo biloba) may exert healthy benefits acting in a hormetic-like manner through the modulation of vitagenes, making the hormesis concept fully applicable to the field of nutrition (Scuto et al. 2019a, b; Amara et al. 2020a; Trovato et al. 2016b, 2018; Calabrese et al. 2014, 2018a).

Interestingly, recent *in vitro* and *in vivo* studies suggest that Hydroxytyrosol (HT) and Oleuropein (OLE) inhibit the inflammatory response and induce brain resilience to aging process through different pathways regulated by several members of the sirtuin family (e.g., Sirt1, Sirt2, Sirt3 and Sirt6) (Leri et al. 2020; Zhi et al. 2018; Gallardo-Fernández et al. 2019; Corpas et al. 2019a). The thioredoxin system (Trx/TrxR) is an important thiol/disulphide redox controller ensuring the cellular redox homeostasis and resilience to mental illness (Calabrese et al. 2012; Amara et al. 2020b; Dang et al. 2019). In this context, some studies showed that HT induces neuroprotection and cellular antioxidant defenses via activation of the Keap1-Nrf2-TRXR1 pathway (Peng et al. 2015).

Sulforaphane is an herbal isothiocyanate enriched in cruciferous vegetables obtained in high concentrations from broccoli seeds and sprouts. Recently, it has been reported that sulforaphane induces health benefit by upregulation of Nrf2 pathway against oxidative stress and inflammation in prenatal prevention of autism spectrum disorder as well as for the early treatment of young children with this disorder (Nadeem et al. 2019). Preclinical studies suggested that intake of 0.1% sulforaphane during juvenile and adolescence protect against inflammation and stress depression-like behaviors via Nrf2 signaling and confers stress resilience in adulthood (Yao et al. 2016). Moreover, a recent paper has suggested that lower levels of BDNF-Nrf2 pathway are strongly associated with oxidative stress and vulnerability to depression in rats. On the other hand, activating Nrf2 translocation restored redox homeostasis and induced resilience to stress (Bouvier et al. 2017).

Several studies have reported the antioxidants, anti-inflammatory and cognitive resilience properties of resveratrol (3,5,4'-trihydroxy-trans-stilbene), a polyphenol found in red wine presently under clinical trial against neuropsychiatric and neurodegenerative disorders. Recent compelling evidence indicated that resveratrol improves brain resilience and proteostasis through the activation of Sirt1 pathway against amyloid and tau pathologies caused by accumulation of aberrant proteins in AD

534 mouse models as well as in lymphocytes of AD patients (Corpas et al. 2019b; Cosin-  
535 Tòmas et al. 2019). Curcumin is a polyphenol compound extracted from the rhizome  
536 of *Curcuma longa Linn* (family Zingiberaceae) commonly used as a spice to color  
537 and flavor food. Increasing evidence demonstrated that curcumin promotes resilience  
538 and may prevent the emergence of a range of anxiety-like symptoms in individuals  
539 during exposure to chronic social stress (Aubry et al. 2019) as well as depression-  
540 like behaviors in rats (Huang et al. 2011). Recently, Ginkgo biloba extracts showed  
541 effectively as an alternative medicine for treatment and prevention of neurodegener-  
542 ative and neuropsychiatric illness and acts in a hormetic-dose response manner  
543 (Calabrese et al. 2020). Moreover, several studies reported the beneficial effects of  
544 Ginkgo biloba extracts in modulating fear memory retrieval through serotonergic,  
545 GABAergic, and glutamatergic receptors in the dorsal hippocampal formation, by  
546 enhancing cognitive function and resilience in psychiatric disorders (Gaiardo et al.  
547 2019). Taken together these data indicate that brain resilience is an active protective  
548 process that involves a set of neural and cellular mechanisms leading to avoid some  
549 of the negative consequences of excessive stress therefore improves mental health.

550 Finally, in the field of neuroprotection, moderate and chronic consumption of low  
551 doses of plant polyphenols could be considered as a promising “natural preventive  
552 medicine” which confers resilience through the activation of stress responsive *vita-*  
553 *genes*. By activating neuroprotective cascades such interventions could be effective  
554 to prevent neuroinflammation, promote brain resilience and improve brain health in  
555 aging-related cognitive decline as well as in neuropsychiatric disorders in humans.

## 556 28.4 Conclusions

557 Aging is one of the most challenging public health issues and it is considered as  
558 a “cellular danger response” to environmental stressors or injury leading to the  
559 development of neurodegenerative disorders. Emerging research has focused on  
560 how biological resilience may be elicited by consumption of phytonutrients, particu-  
561 larly vitamins and plant phenols. These interfere with multiple signaling pathways  
562 involved in protein homeostasis, DNA repair, metabolism regulation, and antioxi-  
563 dant defenses in response to environmental stressors. Accordingly, the prevalence of  
564 harmful stressful events, or so-called “black swans,” may contribute to establishing  
565 a particularly resilient or vulnerable endophenotype.

566 Resilience comprises different physiological parameters, epigenetic modulators  
567 and neurobiological markers. In this review, we have provided a brief overview of  
568 some biological mechanisms underlying stress resilience and have explored how  
569 resilience changes throughout age. The neurobiological network represented by the  
570 HPA axis, BDNF, Serotonin, Glutamate and GABAergic pathways operate as the  
571 first line of response to stress or challenges by promoting resilience and preserving  
572 mental health against the onset of brain disorders such as depression and anxiety,  
573 but they also slow neurodegeneration across the lifespan in both human and animal  
574 models. Epigenetic mechanisms are a key to understanding the effects of early stress

575 in childhood, such as poverty, maltreatment, maternal social and nutritional depriva-  
576 tion, familial genetic as well as sexual abuse. In light of this, identifying personalized  
577 biomarker signatures of resilience can help us characterize biologically vulnerable  
578 individuals (e.g., maltreated children). Relevant to this, psychobiological challenge  
579 tasks designed to evoke a resilient behavioral response, neuromodulation strategies  
580 visualized by neuroimaging of circuits that mediate resilience, together with antiox-  
581 idant interventions enhancing resilience, are all fundamental preventive strategies  
582 aimed to operationalize resilience as a multifactorial determinant of brain health for  
583 translation into a clinical setting. Finally, neural signaling pathways activated by  
584 healthy lifestyles, such as moderate physical exercise, caloric restriction, intermit-  
585 tent fasting, heat shock response and antioxidant polyphenols, can also stimulate  
586 mitochondrial biogenesis in neurons in the brain, thereby facilitating neuroplasticity  
587 and hormetic-resilience pathways that modulate aging and longevity in humans.

588 Further studies are necessary, however, to evaluate the real importance of the  
589 neurobiological mechanisms impacting on target genes, as well as on epigenetic and  
590 mitochondrial pathways in specific brain regions. These studies will help to elucidate  
591 resilience factors, which promote brain health in response to stress, and to unravel the  
592 potential therapeutic interventions able to effectively increase resilience and improve  
593 stress management in vulnerable populations.

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# Author Queries

Chapter 28

Query Refs.	Details Required	Author's response
AQ1	Kindly note that reference citations Michels et al. (2017), Aubry et al. (2018) have been changed to Michels et al. (2018), Aubry et al. (2019), so that these citation matches the list.	
AQ2	References 'Calabrese et al. (2018b), Corpas et al. (2019b), Gupta and Morley (2014), Trovato et al. (2016b)' are given in list but not cited in text. Please cite in text or delete them from list.	

# MARKED PROOF

## Please correct and return this set

Please use the proof correction marks shown below for all alterations and corrections. If you wish to return your proof by fax you should ensure that all amendments are written clearly in dark ink and are made well within the page margins.

<i>Instruction to printer</i>	<i>Textual mark</i>	<i>Marginal mark</i>
Leave unchanged	... under matter to remain	Ⓟ
Insert in text the matter indicated in the margin	∧	New matter followed by ∧ or ∧ <sup>Ⓢ</sup>
Delete	/ through single character, rule or underline or ┌───┐ through all characters to be deleted	Ⓞ or Ⓞ <sup>Ⓢ</sup>
Substitute character or substitute part of one or more word(s)	/ through letter or ┌───┐ through characters	new character / or new characters /
Change to italics	— under matter to be changed	↙
Change to capitals	≡ under matter to be changed	≡
Change to small capitals	≡ under matter to be changed	≡
Change to bold type	~ under matter to be changed	~
Change to bold italic	≈ under matter to be changed	≈
Change to lower case	Encircle matter to be changed	≡
Change italic to upright type	(As above)	⊕
Change bold to non-bold type	(As above)	⊖
Insert 'superior' character	/ through character or ∧ where required	Υ or Υ under character e.g. Υ or Υ
Insert 'inferior' character	(As above)	∧ over character e.g. ∧
Insert full stop	(As above)	⊙
Insert comma	(As above)	,
Insert single quotation marks	(As above)	ʹ or ʸ and/or ʹ or ʸ
Insert double quotation marks	(As above)	“ or ” and/or ” or ”
Insert hyphen	(As above)	⊞
Start new paragraph	┌	┌
No new paragraph	┐	┐
Transpose	└┐	└┐
Close up	linking ○ characters	Ⓞ
Insert or substitute space between characters or words	/ through character or ∧ where required	Υ
Reduce space between characters or words		↑