



Targeting Alzheimer's Disease: Current Pharmacological Strategies and Emerging Therapies

Emad M. Mohammed Khalefa^{1*}, Salsabil A. Altumi², Najwa S. Eldawi³

^{1,2,3} Department of Pharmaceutical Technology, Faculty of Medical Sciences and Technology, University of Triple, Libya.

*Corresponding author: emad7eamd9@gmail.com

Received: April 01, 2024 Accepted: April 30, 2024, Published: May 15, 2024

Cite this article as: E. M. Khalefa., S. A. Altumi., N. S. Eldawi. (2024). Targeting Alzheimer's Disease: Current Pharmacological Strategies and Emerging Therapies. Libyan Journal of Medical and Applied Sciences (LJMAS). 2024;2(2):45-50.

Abstract:

Alzheimer's Disease (AD) is a neurodegenerative disorder and the main reason for dementia, notably affecting the growing older populace. It is characterized by innovative cognitive and practical decline, regularly accompanied by behavioral and psychological signs. Pathological hallmarks encompass the buildup of amyloid-beta plaques and tau tangles, leading to neuronal loss and brain atrophy. Current pharmacological remedies recognize symptom control rather than changing the ailment course. Cholinesterase inhibitors, donepezil, rivastigmine, galantamine, and NMDA receptor antagonists like memantine form the cornerstone of therapy, imparting modest improvements in cognition and daily functioning. Despite those improvements, the need for sickness-enhancing remedies remains pressing. Recent studies have focused on novel healing techniques targeting amyloid-beta and tau protein pathways, in addition to addressing neuroinflammation and oxidative pressure. This overview highlights the present pharmacological alternatives, their mechanisms of motion, efficacy, and barriers, whilst also exploring rising treatment options that hold promise for transforming AD management in destiny.

Keywords: Disease, Alzheimer, rivastigmine, and galantamine.

مرض الزهايمر: الاستراتيجيات الدوائية الحالية والعلاجات الناشئة

عماد محمد خليفة^{1*}، سلسبيل التومي²، نجوى سالم الضاوي³
^{1,2,3} اقسام تقنية الصيدلة، كلية العلوم الطبية والتكنولوجيا، جامعة طرابلس، ليبيا.

الملخص

مرض الزهايمر هو اضطراب عصبي تنكسي والسبب الرئيسي للخرف، ويؤثر بشكل خاص على كبار السن. يتميز هذا المرض بتدهور إدراكي وعلمي متكرر، مصحوبًا بانتظام بعلامات سلوكية ونفسية. تشمل العلامات المرضية تراكم لويحات بيتا أميلويد وتشابكات تاو، مما يؤدي إلى فقدان الخلايا العصبية وضمور الدماغ. تعترف العلاجات الدوائية الحالية بالسيطرة على الأعراض بدلاً من تغيير مسار المرض. تشكل مثبطات الكولينستريز، والدونيبيل، والريفاستيجمين، والجالانتامين، ومضادات مستقبلات NMDA مثل ميمانتين حجر الزاوية في العلاج، مما يمنح تحسينات متواضعة في الإدراك والأداء اليومي. على الرغم من هذه التحسينات، تظل الحاجة إلى علاجات معززة للمرض ملحة. ركزت الدراسات الحديثة على تقنيات الشفاء الجديدة التي تستهدف مسارات بيتا أميلويد وبروتين تاو، بالإضافة إلى معالجة الالتهاب العصبي والضغط التأكسدي. تسلط هذه النظرة العامة الضوء على البدائل الدوائية الحالية، وآليات عملها، وفعاليتها، والحوجز التي تحول دون نجاحها، في حين تستكشف أيضًا خيارات العلاج المتزايدة التي تعد بتحويل إدارة مرض الزهايمر في المستقبل.

الكلمات المفتاحية: مرض، الزهايمر، الريفاستيجمين، الجالانتامين.

Introduction

Alzheimer's Disease (AD) is a chronic and progressive neurodegenerative disorder that represents one of the most significant health challenges in aging populations. It is the most common cause of dementia, accounting for 60-70% of cases globally. The disease is characterized by a gradual decline in cognitive functions, including memory, language, problem-solving, and other thinking skills, which severely impacts daily living and independence.

Behavioral and psychological symptoms such as depression, agitation, and psychosis further complicate its management.

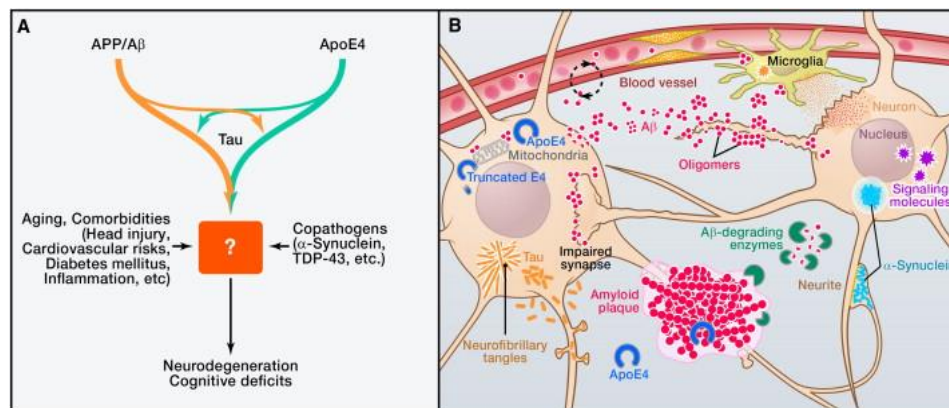
Pathophysiologically, AD is marked by the accumulation of amyloid-beta plaques and neurofibrillary tangles composed of hyperphosphorylated tau protein in the brain. These changes lead to synaptic dysfunction, neuronal death, and ultimately brain atrophy, especially in areas responsible for memory and cognition, such as the hippocampus and cerebral cortex. Risk factors for AD include advanced age, genetic predisposition (e.g., APOE-ε4 allele), and lifestyle factors like cardiovascular health and education levels.

Despite being recognized for over a century, the exact mechanisms driving AD remain incompletely understood, posing challenges to developing curative treatments. Current pharmacological strategies primarily aim to mitigate symptoms, delay functional decline, and improve the quality of life for patients and their caregivers. This review provides an overview of the available pharmacological treatments, focusing on cholinesterase inhibitors and NMDA receptor antagonists, and explores emerging therapeutic options.

Pathophysiology

The underlying pathophysiology of Alzheimer's Disease is complex and involves multiple molecular and cellular processes. Two major pathological hallmarks define the disease:

1. **Amyloid-Beta Plaques:** Abnormal aggregation of amyloid-beta peptides results in extracellular plaques that disrupt cell-to-cell communication and trigger inflammatory responses. These plaques are derived from the amyloid precursor protein (APP) through abnormal cleavage by beta- and gamma-secretase enzymes.
- 2.



"Figure (1) illustrates the complex interactions between APP/Aβ, Tau, and ApoE4, highlighting their roles in the pathophysiology of Alzheimer's disease. Panel A provides an overview of key contributing factors such as aging and comorbidities, while Panel B details the cellular mechanisms leading to neurodegeneration and synaptic impairment."

3. **Neurofibrillary Tangles:** Composed of hyperphosphorylated tau protein, these tangles accumulate within neurons, disrupting intracellular transport and leading to cell death. Tau pathology closely correlates with the severity of cognitive decline in AD.

Other contributing mechanisms include:

- **Neuroinflammation:** Chronic activation of microglia and astrocytes exacerbates neuronal damage by releasing inflammatory mediators.
- **Oxidative Stress:** Increased production of reactive oxygen species and mitochondrial dysfunction further contribute to neuronal injury.
- **Synaptic Dysfunction:** Loss of synapses and impaired neurotransmitter systems, particularly the cholinergic system, are central to the cognitive symptoms of AD.
- **Vascular Contributions:** Cerebral small vessel disease and blood-brain barrier dysfunction can exacerbate amyloid and tau pathology.

Understanding these interconnected pathways is crucial for developing targeted therapies to modify the disease course.

Cholinesterase Inhibitors: Mechanisms, Applications, And Key Drugs:

Cholinesterase inhibitors play a pivotal role in the pharmacological management of AD by addressing the cholinergic deficits that are characteristic of the disease. These drugs work by inhibiting the enzyme acetylcholinesterase, which breaks down acetylcholine, increasing its availability at synaptic clefts. Enhanced

cholinergic transmission has improved cognitive function, behavior, and the ability to perform daily activities in patients with mild to moderate AD.

1- Donepezil:

- **Mechanism:** Donepezil is a highly selective, reversible acetylcholinesterase inhibitor designed to enhance cholinergic neurotransmission in the central nervous system. It primarily increases acetylcholine levels in synapses by inhibiting its breakdown, thereby improving neuron communication.
- **Indications:** It is approved for treating all stages of AD, including mild, moderate, and severe cases. Donepezil is often the first-line therapy due to its well-documented efficacy and tolerability.
- **Clinical Efficacy:** Clinical trials have demonstrated significant improvements in cognitive functions, as assessed by standardized tools like the Alzheimer's Disease Assessment Scale-Cognitive Subscale (ADAS-Cog) and the Clinician's Interview-Based Impression of Change (CIBIC-Plus). Patients often report enhanced memory, attention, and daily living skills.
- **Pharmacokinetics:** Donepezil has a long half-life of approximately 70 hours, allowing for once-daily dosing. This improves patient compliance and reduces the burden of medication schedules.
- **Safety Profile:** Common side effects include gastrointestinal disturbances such as nausea, vomiting, and diarrhea, as well as insomnia and muscle cramps. These are generally mild and transient. Importantly, donepezil lacks significant hepatotoxicity, a notable improvement over earlier cholinesterase inhibitors like tacrine.
- **Additional Benefits:** Donepezil has also been shown to exhibit benefits beyond cognition, including reductions in neuropsychiatric symptoms like agitation and apathy, which are common in AD patients. Emerging evidence suggests it may have neuroprotective effects, potentially delaying disease progression in some cases.

2- Rivastigmine:

- **Mechanism:** Rivastigmine is a dual inhibitor of acetylcholinesterase and butyrylcholinesterase, providing broader cholinergic support. Targeting both enzymes compensates for the varied cholinesterase activities in different brain regions affected by AD.
- **Formulations:** Rivastigmine is available in oral capsules, liquid solutions, and transdermal patches. The patch formulation is particularly beneficial, offering steady drug delivery and reducing the risk of gastrointestinal side effects such as nausea and vomiting.
- **Clinical Efficacy:** Rivastigmine has shown improvements in cognitive functions, particularly in patients with mild to moderate AD and those with Parkinson's Disease Dementia (PDD). Studies highlight its ability to stabilize or slow cognitive and functional decline.
- **Safety Profile:** Common side effects include nausea, vomiting, dizziness, and weight loss. The transdermal patch formulation significantly minimizes these adverse effects, improving treatment adherence.
- **Applications:** Rivastigmine is particularly useful for patients who have experienced intolerable side effects with other oral cholinesterase inhibitors. Its dual mechanism provides an edge in cases where butyrylcholinesterase is more prominent.

3- Galantamine

- **Mechanism:** Galantamine functions as a cholinesterase inhibitor and a positive allosteric modulator of nicotinic acetylcholine receptors. This dual action enhances cholinergic transmission by increasing acetylcholine levels and sensitizing nicotinic receptors, which are crucial for memory and attention.
- **Indications:** Approved for mild to moderate AD, galantamine is particularly effective in improving cognitive symptoms and daily functioning.
- **Clinical Efficacy:** Clinical trials indicate significant cognitive and behavioral benefits, with improvements noted in ADAS-Cog scores and caregiver assessments. Galantamine's dual mechanism contributes to its unique ability to enhance cognitive processes.
- **Pharmacokinetics:** With a half-life of approximately 7 hours, galantamine is administered twice daily or once daily in an extended-release formulation. This flexibility aids in optimizing patient compliance.
- **Safety Profile:** Side effects include gastrointestinal disturbances such as nausea and vomiting, which are generally mild and diminish with continued use. Adequate hydration and dose titration mitigate these effects.

- **Advantages:** Galantamine's additional modulation of nicotinic receptors sets it apart from other cholinesterase inhibitors, providing a more comprehensive approach to symptom management. It has also been shown to improve behavioral symptoms like apathy and social withdrawal.

Table 1: Comparison of Current Alzheimer's Treatments.

<i>Drug</i>	<i>Mechanism of Action</i>	<i>Targeted Disease Stage</i>	<i>Targeted Symptoms</i>	<i>Common Side Effects</i>
Donepezil	Acetylcholinesterase inhibitor	All stages	Cognitive improvement	Nausea, diarrhea, insomnia
Rivastigmine	Dual inhibitor of acetylcholinesterase and butyrylcholinesterase	Mild to moderate stages	Cognitive improvement	Nausea, dizziness, weight loss
Galantamine	Acetylcholinesterase inhibitor and nicotinic receptor modulator	Mild to moderate stages	Cognitive improvement	Nausea, vomiting, appetite loss

Therapeutic Challenges and Future Directions

The treatment landscape for Alzheimer's Disease (AD) remains fraught with challenges. While cholinesterase inhibitors and NMDA receptor antagonists offer symptomatic relief, their efficacy is limited to modest improvements in cognition and daily functioning. Crucially, these drugs do not address the underlying pathophysiological processes driving AD, such as amyloid-beta aggregation and tau hyperphosphorylation.

Table 2: Emerging Drugs and New Therapeutic Strategies.

Drug/Approach	Therapeutic Target	Development Stage	Challenges
Anti-beta-amyloid antibodies	Reduce amyloid accumulation	Clinical trials	Long-term efficacy
Tau phosphorylation inhibitors	Prevent tau tangles	Clinical trials	Drug delivery to the brain
Neuroinflammation inhibitors	Reduce inflammation	Preclinical	Potential side effects

Challenges in Current Therapies:

1. **Limited Efficacy:** Existing pharmacological options provide only temporary relief, with benefits often diminishing after months of treatment. Furthermore, a significant proportion of patients do not respond to these therapies.
2. **Side Effects:** Adverse effects, particularly gastrointestinal disturbances and dizziness, often lead to poor compliance among patients.
3. **Late Diagnosis:** By the time AD is diagnosed, significant neuronal damage has already occurred, limiting the effectiveness of symptomatic treatments.
4. **Heterogeneity of Disease:** AD varies greatly between individuals, with differences in genetics, comorbidities, and disease progression, complicating the development of one-size-fits-all treatments.

Future Directions:

1. **Disease-Modifying Therapies:** Researchers are actively exploring interventions that target the core pathological features of AD. Monoclonal antibodies against amyloid-beta, such as aducanumab, have shown promise in reducing plaque burden, though their clinical benefits remain contentious.

- Tau-Based Therapies:** Tau protein aggregation is another critical target. Efforts include tau phosphorylation inhibitors, microtubule stabilizers, and immunotherapies aimed at clearing tau aggregates.
- Addressing Neuroinflammation:** Chronic inflammation in the brain is increasingly recognized as a key player in AD pathogenesis. Anti-inflammatory agents and microglial modulators are under investigation to mitigate this response.
- Neuroprotective Strategies:** Enhancing synaptic plasticity and protecting neurons from oxidative stress and excitotoxicity are essential goals. Agents targeting mitochondrial function and free radicals hold potential.
- Biomarkers and Early Detection:** Advances in imaging and fluid biomarkers are paving the way for earlier diagnosis and intervention, which could enhance the efficacy of future treatments.
- Personalized Medicine:** Tailoring treatments based on individual genetic and molecular profiles may optimize therapeutic outcomes, addressing the heterogeneity of AD.

Despite these advances, substantial challenges remain in translating research findings into clinical practice. Collaborative efforts between academia, industry, and regulatory bodies will be essential to overcoming these hurdles and delivering transformative therapies for AD.

Table 3: Future Research Directions.

Research Direction	Techniques Used	Potential Outcome
Early diagnosis	Biomarkers	Improved diagnosis and intervention
Gene therapies	Gene editing via CRISPR	Addressing root causes
Enhancing mitochondrial function	Antioxidants	Improved neuronal survival

Conclusion

In summary, Alzheimer's Disease continues to pose immense challenges to healthcare systems worldwide. Current pharmacological treatments, such as cholinesterase inhibitors and NMDA receptor antagonists, provide important symptomatic relief but fail to address underlying disease mechanisms. The need for innovative, disease-modifying therapies is more urgent than ever, with promising advances being made in amyloid-beta and tau-targeting drugs and neuroprotective and anti-inflammatory approaches. A greater focus on early diagnosis, biomarker development, and personalized treatment strategies will likely improve patient outcomes in the coming years. Achieving these goals will require robust collaboration across research disciplines and industry sectors, ensuring that scientific discoveries translate into meaningful clinical interventions for AD.

References:

- McGleenon, B. M., Dynan, K. B., & Passmore, A. P. (1999). Acetylcholinesterase inhibitors in Alzheimer's disease. *British Journal of Clinical Pharmacology*, 48(4), 471-480.
- Yiannopoulou, K. G., & Papageorgiou, S. G. (2013). Current and future treatments for Alzheimer's disease. *Therapeutic Advances in Neurological Disorders*, 6(1), 19-33.
- Cummings, J. (2021). New approaches to symptomatic treatments for Alzheimer's disease. *Molecular Neurodegeneration*, 16, 1-13.
- Massoud, F., & Léger, G. C. (2011). Pharmacological treatment of Alzheimer's disease. *The Canadian Journal of Psychiatry*, 56(10), 579-588.
- Bloom, G. S. (2014). Amyloid-beta and tau: the trigger and bullet in Alzheimer disease pathogenesis. *JAMA Neurology*, 71(4), 505-508.
- Selkoe, D. J. (2019). Alzheimer's disease: Genes, proteins, and therapy. *Physiological Reviews*, 81(2), 741-766.
- Hardy, J., & Selkoe, D. J. (2002). The amyloid hypothesis of Alzheimer's disease: Progress and problems on the road to therapeutics. *Science*, 297(5580), 353-356.
- Alzheimer's Association. (2020). Alzheimer's disease facts and figures. *Alzheimer's & Dementia*, 16(3), 391-460.
- Jack, C. R., et al. (2018). NIA-AA Research Framework: Towards a biological definition of Alzheimer's disease. *Alzheimer's & Dementia*, 14(4), 535-562.
- Winblad, B., et al. (2006). Memantine in moderate-to-severe Alzheimer's disease: A meta-analysis of randomised clinical trials. *Dementia and Geriatric Cognitive Disorders*, 21(1), 20-28.

11. Lannfelt, L., et al. (2014). Targeting amyloid beta in Alzheimer's disease with BAN2401. *Alzheimer's Research & Therapy*, 6(1), 16.
12. Braak, H., & Braak, E. (1991). Neuropathological staging of Alzheimer-related changes. *Acta Neuropathologica*, 82(4), 239-259.
13. Querfurth, H. W., & LaFerla, F. M. (2010). Alzheimer's disease. *New England Journal of Medicine*, 362(4), 329-344.
14. Masters, C. L., et al. (2015). Alzheimer's disease. *Nature Reviews Disease Primers*, 1(1), 15056.
15. Glenner, G. G., & Wong, C. W. (1984). Alzheimer's disease: Initial report of the purification and characterization of a novel cerebrovascular amyloid protein. *Biochemical and Biophysical Research Communications*, 120(3), 885-890.
16. Heneka, M. T., et al. (2015). Neuroinflammation in Alzheimer's disease. *The Lancet Neurology*, 14(4), 388-405.
17. Spiers-Jones, T. L., & Hyman, B. T. (2014). The intersection of amyloid beta and tau at synapses in Alzheimer's disease. *Neuron*, 82(4), 756-771.
18. Long, J. M., & Holtzman, D. M. (2019). Alzheimer disease: An update on pathobiology and treatment strategies. *Cell*, 179(2), 312-339.
19. Arvanitakis, Z., et al. (2019). Cognitive resilience in ageing and neurodegenerative disease. *The Lancet Neurology*, 18(5), 447-456.
20. Sperling, R. A., et al. (2011). Toward defining the preclinical stages of Alzheimer's disease: Recommendations from the National Institute on Aging-Alzheimer's Association workgroups on diagnostic guidelines for Alzheimer's disease. *Alzheimer's & Dementia*, 7(3), 280-292.
21. Citron, M. (2010). Alzheimer's disease: Strategies for disease modification. *Nature Reviews Drug Discovery*, 9(5), 387-398.
22. Livingston, G., et al. (2020). Dementia prevention, intervention, and care: 2020 report of the Lancet Commission. *The Lancet*, 396(10248), 413-446.
23. Hardy, J., et al. (2014). Pathways to discovery in Alzheimer's disease research. *Nature Medicine*, 20(9), 1051-1057.
24. Walsh, D. M., & Selkoe, D. J. (2007). A beta oligomer - a decade of discovery. *Journal of Neurochemistry*, 101(5), 1172-1184.
25. Holtzman, D. M., et al. (2011). Tau: From research to clinical development. *Nature Reviews Drug Discovery*, 10(10), 769-779.
26. Aisen, P. S., et al. (2016). On the path to 2025: Understanding the Alzheimer's disease continuum. *Alzheimer's Research & Therapy*, 8(1), 39.
27. Bertram, L., et al. (2010). The genetics of Alzheimer's disease: Back to the future. *Neuron*, 68(2), 270-281.
28. Serrano-Pozo, A., et al. (2011). Neuropathological alterations in Alzheimer's disease. *Cold Spring Harbor Perspectives in Medicine*, 1(1), a006189.
29. Musiek, E. S., & Holtzman, D. M. (2015). Three dimensions of the amyloid hypothesis: Time, space, and 'wingmen'. *Nature Neuroscience*, 18(6), 800-806.
30. Bateman, R. J., et al. (2012). Clinical and biomarker changes in dominantly inherited Alzheimer's disease. *New England Journal of Medicine*, 367(9), 795-804.