

Supportive information

Sarcopenia: what is the origin of this disorder?
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Fig. S1 A-B

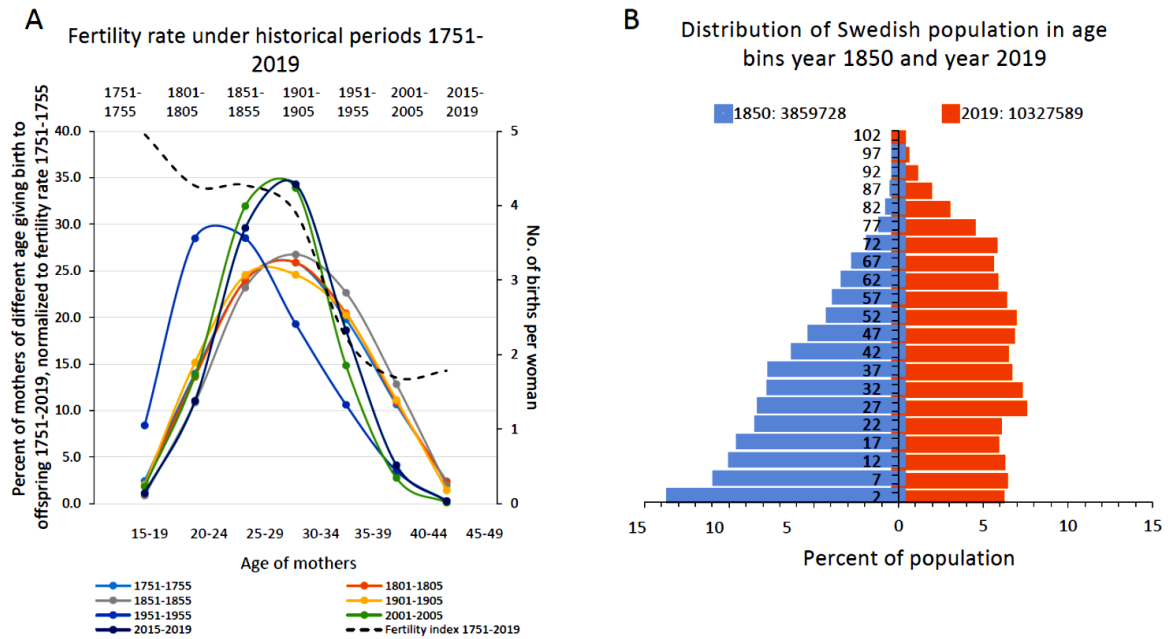


Fig. S1 A-B (A) shows the change in women's fertility rate from 1751 until 2019 (interrupted line; abscissa on the top and ordinate to the right) and frequency of child births (ordinate to the left) at different age of the mother (abscissa at the bottom) across the reproductive period divided in 5-year bins and starting at 1751 until 2019 (each period indicated by a different color; see key under diagram). Note that the fertility rate has been normalized to 1751 to facilitate comparison of reproductive behavior over time. Except for the mid-twentieth century during the dramatic drop in fertility rate, reproduction peak at ~30 years and is essentially unaltered between 1751 and 2019. Young and older mothers are, however, less common today, compressing the reproduction period. (B) shows the impact of life span extension 1850-2019 and the concomitant decrease in fertility rate on the distribution of the Swedish population in age bins 1850 and 2019, respectively. A-B are data replotted from^{1,2}.

1. Population development in Sweden in a 250-year perspective, Statistics Sweden, 1999:2, ISBN 91-618-1021-5.
2. Population statistics, Statistical database, Sweden Statistics, available at [www.http://www.statistikdatabasen.scb.se/pxweb/en/ssd/](http://www.statistikdatabasen.scb.se/pxweb/en/ssd/)

Effects of calorie (dietary) restriction

Calorie/dietary restriction (CR/DR) is the most robust and general (across mammalian and non-mammalian species) intervention known to retard aging. As described by Speakman¹ *mens sana in corpore sana* is part of our cultural heritage to feed modestly and stay fit and lean, to provision for

health and growing old. However, it was not until laboratory work in the 20th century (for references see¹) showing that reducing calorie or dietary (CR/DR restriction) intake by 10%-45% increased lifespan by up to 50% in many invertebrate and vertebrate species implicating that this intervention intercept with highly conserved mechanisms of systems biology involved in aging of organisms². In mammals, CR reduces the incidence of common morbidities such as cardiovascular diseases and cancer (main causes of death at older ages in HICs) and, thus, seems to extend health span to a similar extent as lifespan. Another interesting feature is that this intervention, at least in some species, shows a dose-response relationship (both degree of restriction and time under restriction) with health- and lifespan extension (*idem*).

When initiated at young age (pre puberty) CR will retard growth compared with free feeding age matched controls. When administrated later (post adolescence or middle ages) mice and rats will lose some of the starting whole body weight while adapting to CR^{3,4} which affect both lean body mass and, in particular, adipose tissue⁵⁻⁸. After this adaptation at least small rodents maintain a very stable body weight throughout most of the lifespan (*idem*). The impact of CR on the lean body mass at later ages is mainly on the musculoskeletal system because beyond 3-6 months of age most internal organs like lungs, liver and kidneys have ceased to growth and adaptive responses are small compared with muscle and fat tissues^{9,10}. Small rodents are endothermic and respond to CR with a lowering of average daily body temperature and torpor^{6-8,11,12}. These adaptations are accompanied by alterations in the endocrine system with decreased levels of TSH, T4 and T3¹³⁻¹⁵ (HPT axis), growth hormone and IGF-1, and lower levels of blood glucose and insulin as well as increased insulin sensitivity^{8,16-18}. Metabolically, there is a shift from glycolytic (glucose) towards lipolytic (fatty acids, β -oxidation) metabolism¹⁹ and indirect calorimetry has shown that subjects under CR synthesize fatty acids during the postprandial period to be energy substrates during the period without access to food. In subjects who maintain CR, the increase in metabolic activity of the over-all reduced amount of white adipose tissue (WAT) is accompanied by an upregulation of key lipid enzymes^{19,20} and a browning of the white fat²⁰. While the size of the remaining adipose tissues may be important to reach optimal benefits from CR at least in-between strains of laboratory mice^{21,22}, the overall decrease will alter adipose tissue signalling with lower levels of leptin and increased levels of adiponectin in proportion to the reduction of WAT²³. The metabolic shift has also been argued to be the main reason for the lower levels of oxidative (ROS) stress in subjects under CR^{1,24,25} providing a partial rescue from molecular damage, including DNA, which is considered a main factor driving organismal aging^{1,16,17}. Under CR the decreased production of ATP (higher AMP:ATP ratio) and increased adiponectin signalling will both induce AMP-activated-protein-kinase (AMPK)²³ which will enhance mitochondrial biogenesis, p53 activity and depress anabolic drive by inhibition of mTOR (*idem*). mTOR (mammalian/mechanistic target of rapamycin) is a key protein of the TORC complex (TORC1/2) serving as a platform regulating cell growth by promoting protein translation and inhibiting the FOXO family (1,3 and 4) of transcription factors (*idem*). Tyrosine kinase receptor (TKR) activation can induce TORC activity and an important modulator of mTOR which is depressed under CR is the signalling through IGF-1/insulin-insulin/IGF-TKR-insulin response element IRS1/2. In addition to inhibiting mTOR, CR induces also another family of proteins, the sirtuins (Sirt 1-6)^{26,27}. The sirtuins (nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide (NAD)-dependent protein deacetylases) are metabolic sensors that stimulate mitochondrial biogenesis through PGC-1 α , lower oxidative stress, inhibit mTOR and induce both FOXO and autophagy-lysosomal activity, reduce oxidative stress and DNA damage and increase p53 activity²⁸⁻³². At least Sirt 1 and 3 seem to be non-redundant for the response to CR in

mice^{28,29,31}. Both sirtuins and the inhibition of mTOR will activate the FOXO family of transcription factors paving the way for increased regulated proteolysis through the ubiquitin-proteasome system (UPS) and increased degradation of proteins, molecular complexes and organelles through the autophagy-lysosomal pathway conferring a more rapid turn-over of cellular constituents³³⁻³⁵. FOXO also upregulates cellular oxidative defence and have an inhibiting function on proteins involved in cell cycling (*idem*). Combined, the CR mediated decrease in oxidative stress, increased biogenesis of mitochondria and accelerated turn-over of cellular constituents may slow the wear and tear that generates the cumulative build-up of unrepaired damage during aging. The possibility that the beneficiary effects of CR may be co-mediated by the microbiome has not yet been sufficiently explored but existing data indicates that aging brings about changes to the composition of the microbiota leading to a dysbiosis that may contribute significantly to the aging process³⁶ (Fig. 2). . The extent of energy saving contributed by a decreased physical activity is still being the subject of debate^{4-8,11,37}. However, during periods of rest CR subjects have a lower body temperature than controls and resting CR mice often enter torpor, implicating that energy is saved by a lower resting metabolic rate (RMR). Trials with chemical compounds that show promising extension of life span in model organisms are all partial mimics of CR and targets mTOR (rapamycin^{38,39}), AMPK (metformin⁴⁰) or indirectly both sirtuins and AMPK by inhibiting mitochondrial function (resveratrol⁴¹). Trials with CR on long-lived species as primates⁴²⁻⁴⁵ and humans⁴⁶ remain for obvious reasons limited but show so far promising outcomes and suggest that CR mediates its effects through the same evolutionary conserved mechanisms as described above for small rodents and that several of the gene variants associated with human longevity¹⁷ are genes implicated in the beneficial outcome of CR, such as FOXO(3A), the growth hormone-IGF-1 signal transduction pathway and proteins involved in cell cycling^{47,48}.

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