

# Aging and Immunity: Challenges, Insights and Breakthrough Solutions



Tommy C. Sim, M.D.

## ABSTRACT

As global life expectancy rises, the aging population faces increasing health challenges, with immunosenescence (the gradual decline in immune function) being a critical concern. This decline is driven by mechanisms such as thymic involution, reduced B-cell function, impaired antigen presentation and chronic low-grade inflammation (inflammaging). These factors increase susceptibility to infections, reduce vaccine efficacy and contribute to chronic inflammatory diseases in older adults.

This review explores mechanisms of immunosenescence and potential interventions, including thymic rejuvenation, stem cell therapies, immune-modulating diets and exercise and advancements in vaccine technologies (eg, adjuvant-enhanced and mRNA vaccines). Focus is placed on immunological strategies for aging individuals, particularly in the context of COVID-19.

Challenges in combating immunosenescence include variability in immune responses among older adults and safety concerns with therapies like checkpoint inhibitors. The complex mechanisms of immune aging, especially in T cells, remain poorly understood. Personalized medicine offers promising

solutions with gene editing technologies potentially repairing immune cells. However, traditional strategies such as exercise and proper nutrition remain crucial.

Developing biomarkers to track immune aging will enable early detection and personalized treatments. Addressing ethical, cultural and social factors is vital for equitable access and public acceptance of anti-aging treatments. Ultimately, a multidisciplinary approach combining personalized medicine, preventive strategies and immune-modulating therapies will enhance immune resilience, improve disease outcomes and promote healthier aging for older populations.

## INTRODUCTION

The global population is aging at an unprecedented rate, with the number of individuals over 60 years old projected to double by 2050.[1] This demographic shift presents significant challenges for public health and imposes substantial economic burdens. For instance, in the United States, annual healthcare spending for individuals over 65 is three times higher than for younger adults.[2] While life expectancy has increased, it does not guarantee a healthy life for everyone nor that one's full lifespan is spent in good health. Without effective interventions, global healthcare expenditures related to aging are expected to increase by over 30% by 2050, placing immense strain on public and private healthcare systems.[1,3] One of the most critical contributors to this burden is immunosenescence, the gradual deterioration of immune function with age.[4,5] Immunosenescence leads to diminished immune responses, increased vulnerability to infections,

✉ Tommy C. Sim  
docpinoy@aol.com

<sup>1</sup> Clinical Professor, Departments of Internal Medicine, Pediatrics, and Immunology, The University of Texas Medical Branch, Galveston, Texas, USA

Academic editor: Warren Bacorro

Submitted date: February 17, 2025

Accepted date: April 05, 2025

autoimmune diseases and chronic inflammatory conditions, as well as reduced vaccine efficacy. [6-8] These challenges underscore the urgent need for strategies to address immunosenescence and improve health outcomes in older populations. Although current medical strategies partially address some of these issues, emerging therapies and lifestyle interventions offer promising solutions for mitigating immunosenescence and its associated health impacts. This review explores mechanisms underlying immunosenescence, its consequences for health and latest research on therapies and lifestyle interventions aimed at reversing or alleviating its effects.

1. Immunosenescence: Age-Related Decline in Immune Function

Mechanisms of Immunosenescence

Immunosenescence involves both cellular and functional changes in the immune system. These alterations manifest in various components of the immune response, affecting both innate and adaptive immunity.[7] The key mechanisms of immunosenescence include:

*Thymic Involution:* The thymus is an essential organ for the development of T cells, which plays a pivotal role in adaptive immunity. As individuals age, the thymus undergoes involution (its size decreases and ability to generate naive T cells diminishes). The reduced thymic output leads to a diminished pool of naive T cells, compromising the immune system’s ability to recognize and respond to new pathogens. [9] The limited capacity of the thymus to generate new T cells also impairs the body’s ability to mount robust immune responses to infections and vaccines.[10]

*Innate Immunity Reduction:* Age-related changes in innate immunity include a decline in natural killer (NK) cell cytotoxicity and reduced macrophage phagocytic activity.[11] These impairments hinder the body’s initial defense against pathogens and may exacerbate inflammatory milieu observed in aging populations.

*B Cell Dysfunction:* B cells, responsible for antibody production, show reduced functionality in older adults, leading to diminished responses to infections and vaccines. Furthermore, failure to produce high-quality antibodies against new pathogens increases risk of severe infections.[11,12]

*Impaired Antigen-Presenting Cells (APCs):* Antigen-presenting cells, such as dendritic cells and macrophages, become less efficient at recognizing pathogens with age, delaying immune responses. This contributes to increased susceptibility to infections and slower recovery from illnesses.[13] This decline in antigen presentation can lead to diminished immune surveillance, especially for intracellular pathogens such as viruses.

*Chronic Inflammation (Inflammaging):* A hallmark of aging is chronic low-grade inflammation, often referred to as “inflammaging.”[7,14] This persistent inflammatory state is characterized by elevated levels of pro-inflammatory cytokines and proteins such as IL-6, TNF-α and C-reactive protein (CRP). While inflammation is crucial for immune responses, persistent inflammation in aging promotes tissue damage, metabolic disorders and contributes to age-related diseases such as cardiovascular disease and neurodegeneration.[15]

Key Point Table	
Mechanism	Impact on Immune Function
Thymic Involution	Decreased naive T cell production, impairing immune responses.
Innate Immunity Decline	Reduced NK cell cytotoxicity and macrophage phagocytosis.
B Cell Dysfunction	Lower antibody quality and production, increasing infection risk.
Impaired Antigen-Presenting Cells (APCs)	Less efficient pathogen recognition, slowing immune responses.
Chronic Inflammation (Inflammaging)	Persistent inflammation linked to age-related diseases (eg, cardiovascular disease, neurodegeneration).

Potential Solutions for Immunosenescence

There is a growing body of research aimed at mitigating the effects of immunosenescence and rejuvenating the immune system in older adults. Some of the promising strategies include:

*Thymic Rejuvenation:* Researchers are exploring therapies to rejuvenate the thymus and restore its functionality. Growth factors such as thymosin alpha-1, a naturally occurring peptide, have shown

promise in stimulating thymic activity, enhancing T cell production and improving immune responses in older adults.[10] Additionally, preclinical studies suggest that fibroblast growth factor 7 (FGF7) may aid thymic regeneration by promoting epithelial cell repair within the thymus.[16] Lifestyle factors, such as caloric restriction and exercise, have also been linked to slower thymic atrophy and improved immune function, providing accessible adjunctive strategies.[17]

*Stem Cell-Based Immune Reconstitution:* Hematopoietic stem cell transplantation (HSCT) is an innovative method to rejuvenate the aging immune system by replacing aged or damaged immune cells with stem cells capable of generating a new pool of functional immune cells. This technique has been shown to restore the body’s ability to combat infections and cancer, offering a potential avenue to mitigate immunosenescence.[18,19] Advances in autologous HSCT, where patients receive their own stem cells, may reduce the risk of complications like graft-versus-host disease, making the approach safer and more viable. However, significant challenges remain, including high cost (ranging between \$100,000 and \$200,000 per patient) and need for specialized facilities, which limit its accessibility for widespread use. Research is ongoing to reduce costs and refine transplantation protocols to minimize risks, such as using genetically modified stem cells with enhanced immunogenic potential.[20]

*CAR T-Cell Therapy:* Chimeric Antigen Receptor (CAR) T-cell therapy, initially developed to treat certain cancers, is now being investigated for its potential to enhance immune responses in aging populations. [21,22] By genetically engineering T cells to recognize and target specific antigens, CAR T-cell therapy can be tailored to boost immunity against infections and potentially combat chronic diseases linked to immunosenescence. Preclinical studies have demonstrated the feasibility of adapting CAR T-cell technology to target pathogens like cytomegalovirus (CMV), which disproportionately affects older adults due to declining immune surveillance.[21] While this approach is still in the experimental stages for aging-related immune dysfunction, its potential to bolster immune responses represents a transformative step forward. Further research is needed to optimize CAR T-cell therapy for safety, durability and affordability in older adults.

Key Point Table	
Approach	Description
Thymic Rejuvenation	Use of thymosin alpha-1, fibroblast growth factors, exercise and caloric restriction to restore thymic function.
Stem Cell-Based Immune Reconstitution	Hematopoietic stem cell transplants (HSCT) to replenish immune cells.
CAR T-Cell Therapy	Genetically engineered T cells to enhance immune function.

2. Impaired Vaccine Response in Older Adults

Despite widespread use of vaccines, older adults continue to account for over 80% of deaths related to vaccine-preventable diseases such as influenza and pneumonia.[23] This highlights the urgent need to improve vaccine efficacy in aging populations. Older adults exhibit diminished immune responses to critical vaccines, including those for influenza, pneumococcal disease, shingles and COVID-19, placing them at higher risk of severe illness, complications and death.[24,25] For instance, the efficacy of the influenza vaccine in older adults ranges from 17%-53%, compared to 70%-90% in younger adults, with similar reductions observed for other vaccines.[26]

Mechanisms of Impaired Vaccine Response

*Weakened Antibody Production:* Aging compromises the function of B cells, which are responsible for producing antibodies to neutralize pathogens. Older adults may generate lower quantities of antibodies after vaccination, and these antibodies often exhibit reduced affinity and quality making them less effective at neutralizing pathogens. [27] The reduced ability of aging germinal centers in lymph nodes to facilitate affinity maturation further limits the effectiveness of antibody response. Additionally, a shift in B cell populations, with a higher proportion of dysfunctional or senescent B cells, contributes to impaired humoral immunity.[28]

*Reduced T Cell Function:* T cells, which are critical for cellular immunity and coordinating immune responses, also exhibit significant declines with age.[29] Thymic involution, the shrinking of thymus with age, results in reduced output of naive T cells, which are necessary for responding to new infections and vaccine antigens.[9] Additionally,

existing T cells become senescent and lose their ability to proliferate and mount a robust response, further impairing the immune system’s capacity to defend against pathogens. Changes in antigen presentation, mediated by aged dendritic cells, also limit the ability of T cells to recognize and respond to vaccine antigens effectively.

*Memory Response Decline:* Aging impairs the immune system’s ability to develop and maintain immunological memory, leading to weaker and less durable secondary immune responses upon re-exposure to a pathogen.[30] This decline is attributed to reduction in both memory B cells and memory T cells, which play a critical role in generating rapid and strong immune defenses after vaccination or infection. The functional decline of these memory cells results in less effective protection against diseases, requiring additional strategies to boost and sustain immunity in older adults.

Key Point Table	
Mechanism	Impact on Immune Function
Weakened Antibody Production	Reduced antibody quantity and quality.
Reduced T Cell Function	Fewer naive T cells and less effective response to new pathogens.
Memory Response Decline	Less effective immunological memory, weaker protection after vaccination.

Potential Solutions for Improving Vaccine Efficacy

*Adjuvanted Vaccines:* Adjuvants are substances added to vaccines to enhance the immune response, particularly in populations with weaker immunity. For example, the MF59 adjuvant used in the Fludac influenza vaccine has been shown to significantly improve immune responses in older adults by enhancing antigen uptake, activating innate immunity and improving T cell and B cell activation. [31] The ongoing SHIVERS study (also called Vaccine Adjuvantation in the Elderly), a 5-year (2023–2028) multiagency and multidisciplinary collaboration, investigates improving immune responses to flu vaccines in the elderly population through various adjuvants. Similar adjuvants are being explored for other vaccines, such as those for shingles and COVID-19, to improve their effectiveness in aging populations.[32]

*Boosters and Revaccination:* Booster doses are a proven strategy for maintaining immunity in older adults.[33] For instance, booster shots of the COVID-19 mRNA vaccines have been shown to restore neutralizing antibody levels and improve vaccine efficacy in individuals aged 65 and older. [34] Research is ongoing to develop vaccines specifically tailored for older adults, which may include higher doses of antigens, longer-lasting formulations or adjuvanted boosters to sustain protective immunity.[35]

*Vaccine-Specific Modifications:* Modifying vaccine formulations to better suit the aging immune system is another promising approach. High-dose vaccines, such as the Fluzone High-Dose influenza vaccine, contain four times the amount of antigen compared to standard doses, resulting in a stronger immune response in older adults.[36] Additionally, nasal vaccines, which stimulate mucosal immunity may provide a more effective and durable response in older populations by directly targeting the primary sites of infection for respiratory pathogens like influenza.[37]

*mRNA Vaccines:* The success of mRNA vaccines for COVID-19 has opened new possibilities for addressing the challenges of vaccination in older adults. Unlike traditional vaccines, mRNA vaccines can stimulate both humoral (antibody-mediated) and cellular (T cell-mediated) immunity, making them particularly effective in aging populations.[38] Researchers are actively exploring mRNA vaccine platforms for other diseases, including influenza, respiratory syncytial virus (RSV) and even cancers with the goal of improving efficacy in older adults. [39]

*Nanoparticle-Based Vaccines:* Nanoparticle vaccines represent an innovative approach to improving vaccine delivery and efficacy.[40] These vaccines use nanoparticles to encapsulate and present antigens in a way that enhances uptake by immune cells, leading to a more robust immune response. Studies on nanoparticle-based influenza and COVID-19 vaccines have demonstrated promising results, with improved antigen stability and immunogenicity in preclinical models.[41] This technology holds significant potential for improving vaccine efficacy in older adults by overcoming some of the limitations of traditional vaccine platforms.

*DNA and Viral Vector Vaccines:* DNA vaccines and viral vector-based vaccines are also being

explored for their ability to elicit strong immune responses in older adults. DNA vaccines introduce genetic material encoding, an antigen into host cells, prompting them to produce the antigen and stimulate immunity.[42] Viral vector vaccines, like the Johnson & Johnson COVID-19 vaccine, use harmless viruses to deliver antigens, activating both innate and adaptive immunity. These platforms have shown promise for improving vaccine efficacy in aging populations and may play a key role in development of future vaccines.[43]

Key Point Table	
Approach	Description
Adjuvanted Vaccines	Use of immune-boosting additives like MF59 to enhance responses.
Boosters and Revaccination	Additional doses to sustain immunity over time.
Vaccine-Specific Modifications	Higher-dose or nasal vaccines for stronger responses.
mRNA Vaccines	Potential for stronger immune responses in older adults.
Nanoparticle-Based Vaccines	Improved antigen delivery for better immune activation.
DNA and Viral Vector Vaccines	New vaccine platforms targeting age-related immune decline.

3. Chronic Inflammation and Autoimmunity in Older Adults

Chronic low-grade inflammation (inflammaging) is not only a driver of age-related diseases, but also plays a significant role in the development of autoimmune disorders. As immunosenescence progresses, the immune system may lose its ability to distinguish between self and non-self, leading to autoimmune diseases where the body attacks its own tissues.

Mechanisms of Inflammaging and Autoimmunity

*Elevated Pro-Inflammatory Mediators:* Cellular senescence contributes to chronic inflammation through the secretion of pro-inflammatory cytokines (eg, IL-6 and TNF-α), chemokines (eg, CXCL-8, CCL2, CCL5), proteases (eg, neutrophil-derived proteases) and other related proteins (eg, CRP), collectively known as the senescence-associated secretory phenotype (SASP).[44] These factors exacerbate tissue damage and immune dysregulation, fueling

age-related diseases such as cardiovascular disease, type 2 diabetes and Alzheimer’s disease.[45]

*Loss of Immune Tolerance:* Aging can lead to a breakdown in immune tolerance, where the immune system fails to recognize the body’s own cells as self. This loss of immune tolerance can contribute to autoimmune diseases, including rheumatoid arthritis, lupus and multiple sclerosis, which are more common in older adults. The progressive breakdown of immune regulation may also contribute to development of chronic inflammation.[46]

Key Point Table	
Mechanism	Impact on Immune Function
Elevated Pro-Inflammatory Mediators	SASP cytokines drive chronic inflammation and age-related diseases.
Loss of Immune Tolerance	Autoimmune diseases become more common with aging.

Potential Solutions for Chronic Inflammation and Autoimmunity

*Anti-Inflammatory Therapies:* Researchers are developing anti-inflammatory treatments that target the cytokines driving inflammaging. Targeting specific pro-inflammatory cytokines such as IL-6 and TNF-α may reduce systemic inflammation observed in older adults. JAK inhibitors (eg, tofacitinib) have shown promise in reducing inflammation and improving immune function.[47] Drugs like tocilizumab, which blocks IL-6 receptors, have shown promise in managing autoimmune diseases like rheumatoid arthritis and may help mitigate the effects of chronic inflammation in older adults.[48] Drugs that selectively eliminate senescent cells have shown promise in preclinical models of inflammaging by reducing SASP-related inflammation.[49]

*Targeted Antioxidant Therapy:* Oxidative stress plays a crucial role in the aging process and is linked to inflammaging. As individuals age, an imbalance between production of unstable reactive oxygen species (ROS) and body’s ability to neutralize them with antioxidants can lead to cellular damage, immune dysregulation and increased susceptibility to autoimmune diseases.[50] To counteract these effects, targeted antioxidant therapy is being explored as a potential strategy to reduce the burden of inflammaging and improve immune function by attenuating chronic low-grade inflammation



in older adults. Several antioxidant compounds have shown promise in this regard. Curcumin, a polyphenol derived from turmeric possesses potent anti-inflammatory and antioxidant properties. It has been shown to inhibit key inflammatory pathways, such as NF-κB and COX-2, which contribute to chronic immune activation.[51] Vitamin E, a fat-soluble antioxidant, helps protect cell membranes from oxidative damage and supports T cell function, which declines with age. Studies also suggest that vitamin E supplementation may enhance immune responses in older adults by improving the activity of NK cells and reducing the risk of infections.[52] Another promising compound is N-acetylcysteine (NAC), a precursor to glutathione, one of the body’s most powerful endogenous antioxidants.[53] NAC has been shown to reduce oxidative stress, modulate inflammatory cytokines and support respiratory health, which is particularly important for older adults prone to infections and autoimmune-related lung conditions. Beyond individual antioxidants, combination therapies that target multiple aspects of oxidative stress and immune dysregulation are also being explored. Some research suggests that synergistic effects may be achieved by combining antioxidants with other anti-inflammatory interventions, such as dietary modifications and physical activities.[54]

*Immunomodulatory Drugs:* As individuals age, the immune system undergoes significant changes, often leading to chronic inflammation and increased risk of autoimmune diseases. Immunomodulatory drugs are being investigated as potential therapies to counteract these effects and restore immune balance. One such drug is rapamycin, an mTOR (mechanistic target of rapamycin) inhibitor, which has demonstrated the ability to extend lifespan in animal models by modulating immune and metabolic pathways.[55] By suppressing excessive immune activation while preserving the body’s ability to combat infections, rapamycin and similar compounds may help reduce age-related chronic inflammation. Other immunomodulatory therapies, such as metformin, JAK inhibitors and monoclonal antibodies are also being studied for their potential to fine-tune immune responses in older adults.[56,57] These drugs could enhance immune function, decrease susceptibility to infections and mitigate autoimmune diseases like rheumatoid arthritis and lupus, which become more prevalent with age. Additionally, researchers

are exploring the use of senolytic drugs, which target and eliminate senescent immune cells that contribute to chronic inflammation.[58] Research on senolytic drugs is growing with several clinical trials underway. For instance, a Phase 2 trial of dasatinib and quercetin is exploring their effects in reducing senescent cell burden and improving immune function in older adults. While they are promising, these therapies require further clinical research to determine optimal dosages, long-term effects and potential risks.

*Gene therapy:* It is an innovative field that involves modifying the genetic material inside a person’s cells to treat or prevent disease. In the context of aging and immunosenescence, gene therapy could be used to enhance immune function directly by modifying genes that control immune cell production or inflammation. For example, gene editing could restore production of functional T cells or enhance the body’s ability to mount immune responses to infections.[59] Although still in its early stages, this technology could eventually be used to rejuvenate the aging immune system. However, the high cost of gene-editing technologies currently limits their availability to high-income countries. Additionally, ethical concerns surrounding germline modifications must be addressed to ensure equitable use.

Key Point Table	
Approach	Description
Adjuvanted Vaccines	IL-6 and TNF-α inhibitors (eg, tocilizumab), JAK inhibitors to reduce inflammation.
Targeted Antioxidant Therapy	Curcumin, vitamin E, NAC to reduce oxidative stress and prevent further cellular damage, immune dysregulation and increased susceptibility to autoimmune diseases.
Immunomodulatory Drugs	Rapamycin, metformin, senolytic drugs to balance immune function and mitigate autoimmune diseases.
Gene Therapy	Potential to modify immune-related genes to restore immune function.

4. Immune Responses to COVID-19 in Older Adults

The COVID-19 pandemic underscored the heightened vulnerability of older adults, who

experienced the highest rates of severe illness, hospitalizations and fatalities worldwide.[60] In the United States, individuals aged 65 and older accounted for over 80% of COVID-19-related deaths.[61] This increased risk arises not only from age-related conditions such as cardiovascular disease and diabetes, but also from a weakened immune system, which reduces the body’s ability to effectively combat SARS-CoV-2. In addition to acute susceptibility, older adults face prolonged recovery periods and higher rates of long COVID (post-acute sequelae of SARS-CoV-2 infection, or PASC).[62] Long COVID symptoms such as fatigue, cognitive impairment and persistent inflammation disproportionately affect older adults, further exacerbating pre-existing immune dysfunction and chronic inflammation. Addressing unique immune challenges in this population is critical for improving both acute and long-term outcomes.

Mechanisms of Immune Responses to COVID-19

*Weakened T Cell Responses:* Immunosenescence weakens T cell function, impairing the immune response to SARS-CoV-2 infection. Aging T cells show reduced clonal expansion, lower cytotoxic activity and slower recognition of viral antigens, which delays viral clearance and raises the risk of severe disease.[63] Additionally, the buildup of exhausted T cells (those that lose function after prolonged activation) further weakens immunity, increasing susceptibility to complications like cytokine storms and severe respiratory distress.[64]

*Blunted Vaccine Response:* While COVID-19 vaccines have proven to be a critical tool in mitigating the pandemic, vaccine responses in older adults are less robust compared to younger individuals. For example, clinical trials reported vaccine efficacy rates of approximately 85% in younger adults, but only 50%-60% in individuals aged 65 and older.[65] This diminished response is attributed to impaired B cell function, reduced antibody production and weaker T cell-mediated immunity in older adults. Additionally, studies have shown that vaccine-induced neutralizing antibody titers wane more rapidly in older populations, necessitating frequent booster doses to maintain immunity.[66]

Key Point Table	
Mechanism	Impact on Immune Function
Weakened T Cell Responses	T cell function declines with age, reducing viral clearance and increasing risk of severe disease.
Blunted Vaccine Response	Vaccine responses in older adults are less robust compared to younger individuals.

Potential Solutions for COVID-19 Immunity in Older Adults

*Boosters and Modified Vaccines:* Booster doses play a crucial role in restoring immunity in older adults by increasing antibody levels and enhancing protection against severe disease. A third dose of mRNA vaccines, for example, can raise neutralizing antibody levels by up to fivefold compared to the standard two-dose regimen.[67] To further address age-related immune decline, researchers are developing vaccines tailored to older adults, such as high-dose or adjuvanted formulations. These formulations may include immune-enhancing adjuvants like MF59 or AS03, as well as higher antigen doses to improve immunogenicity.[35,68]

*Monoclonal Antibodies:* For older adults with poor immune responses to vaccines or those who are immunocompromised, monoclonal antibody therapies provide an alternative means of protection. Monoclonal antibodies, such as bamlanivimab and combination of casirivimab and imdevimab have been shown to significantly reduce the risk of severe disease and hospitalization when administered early during infection.[69] In addition, long-acting monoclonal antibody therapies such as tixagevimab-cilgavimab, offer pre-exposure prophylaxis for high-risk individuals, providing months of protection against infection. These therapies are particularly valuable for older adults who cannot mount adequate immune responses to vaccination.[70]

Key Point Table	
Approach	Description
Boosters and Modified Vaccines	Booster doses enhance immunity and high-dose or adjuvanted vaccines may improve response.
Monoclonal Antibodies	Offer pre-exposure protection for high-risk individuals.

5. General Strategies for Enhancing Immune Function in Older Adults

Beyond targeted interventions for immunosenescence, several general strategies can strengthen immune function and support overall health in older adults.

*Improved Diet:* A balanced diet rich in essential nutrients like antioxidants, omega-3 fatty acids, vitamin D and zinc can help support immune health. These nutrients play key roles in regulating immune responses and reducing inflammation.[71] In low-income settings, access to supplements like omega-3 fatty acids may be limited. However, locally sourced alternatives such as oily fish or fortified grains could offer similar benefits at lower cost. Additionally, public health programs promoting outdoor activities can help address vitamin D deficiencies. Probiotics and prebiotics can also promote gut health, which is critical for immune function.[72] In the near future, artificial intelligence-based tools can be used to analyze genetic, microbiome and lifestyle data to develop personalized interventions targeting specific immune deficiencies in older adults.[73]

*Physical Activity:* Regular exercise is one of the most effective ways to enhance immunity in older adults. Moderate aerobic activity (such as brisk walking for 30 minutes, five times a week) can boost T cell function and improve vaccine responses by up to 50%.[74] Likewise, resistance training twice a week helps lower chronic inflammation by reducing IL-6 levels.[75] Programs like Silver Sneakers in the United States illustrate these benefits, as participants experience a 22% reduction in annual healthcare visits, underscoring the direct link between physical activity and improved health outcomes.[76]

*Sleep Hygiene:* Quality sleep is crucial for a well-functioning immune system, yet many older adults experience disruptions that further weaken immune defenses. Sleep disturbances, often due to age-related changes in circadian rhythms, reduced melatonin production and conditions like insomnia or sleep apnea can exacerbate inflammation and impair T and B lymphocyte production. [77,78] Encouraging healthy sleep habits, such as maintaining a consistent schedule and addressing sleep disorders can significantly improve immune function.[77] Moreover, studies have shown that poor sleep quality is linked to higher levels of CRP, a marker of systemic inflammation that is often elevated in older adults with chronic diseases.[79]

*Stress Reduction Strategies:* Chronic stress weakens immune function by increasing cortisol levels, which suppress immune cell activity and promote inflammation.[80] In older adults, prolonged stress worsens immunosenescence, impairs vaccine responses and heightens infection risk.[81] Mind-body interventions, such as mindfulness-based stress reduction (MBSR) have shown promise in counteracting these effects. Studies reveal that MBSR lowers pro-inflammatory cytokines like IL-6 while enhancing NK cell activity which plays a crucial role in defending against infections and cancer.[82] Similarly, yoga has been found to lower markers of systemic inflammation and improve the expression of genes associated with immune resilience.[83] In older adults, regular yoga practice has been linked to reduced stress, improved quality of life and better immune function, particularly in individuals with chronic illnesses such as arthritis or cardiovascular disease. Other stress-reduction techniques, such as tai chi and qi gong, also demonstrate immune-enhancing effects. A meta-analysis found that tai chi improves T cell-mediated immunity and reduces inflammation in older adults, suggesting its potential as a low-impact intervention for boosting immune resilience.[84] Additionally, engaging in social activities and maintaining strong social connections can alleviate loneliness and stress, further supporting immune function. For instance, studies indicate that socially isolated older adults have higher levels of inflammatory markers, while those with strong social networks demonstrate better immune responses to vaccination.[85,86] Incorporating stress-reduction strategies into daily life, whether through mindfulness, yoga or social engagement offers a holistic and accessible approach to mitigating stress-related immune dysfunction. These interventions not only enhance immune markers, but also improve mental health and overall well-being in older populations.

Key Point Table	
Strategy	Description
Improved Diet	Nutrients like vitamin D, zinc and omega-3s support immunity; probiotics promote gut health. AI-based tools may personalize dietary interventions.
Physical Activity	Moderate aerobic exercise improves T cell function and vaccine responses; resistance training reduces inflammation and chronic disease risk.



Key Point Table	
Strategy	Description
Sleep Hygiene	Poor sleep impairs immune function and increases inflammation. Maintaining a regular sleep schedule and treating sleep disorders is essential.
Stress Management	Chronic stress weakens immunity. Mindfulness, yoga, tai chi and social engagement reduce inflammation and improve immune resilience.

6. Challenges in Current Approaches

*Efficacy of Treatments:* The variability of immune responses among older adults complicates treatment strategies. A study on flu vaccine efficacy in older adults highlighted significant differences in how individuals responded to the vaccine.[87] While some older adults show robust immune responses, others may exhibit poor responses, leading to suboptimal protection. This variation is often due to genetic factors (eg, differences in immune genes) and environmental factors (such as lifestyle, pre-existing health conditions and previous exposure to pathogens). As a result, tailoring vaccines and treatments to account for these variabilities is a major challenge. Research into vaccine adjuvants and formulations specifically designed for older adults is ongoing to address this issue, aiming to improve vaccine effectiveness in this population.

*Safety Concerns:* Immunotherapies, like checkpoint inhibitors, have shown remarkable success in treating cancers by enhancing the body’s immune response against tumors. However, these therapies are not without risks. One of the primary safety concerns is the potential for autoimmune reactions.[88] Checkpoint inhibitors work by blocking regulatory proteins like Programmed Cell Death Protein 1 (PD-1) or Cytotoxic T-Lymphocyte Associated Protein 4 (CTLA-4), which normally prevent T cells from attacking healthy tissue. While this can lead to stronger anti-tumor immune responses, it can also make the immune system attack normal tissues leading to autoimmune side effects. In older adults, these risks are compounded by comorbidities (such as cardiovascular disease or diabetes), which are more common in this age group. The immune system of older adults is often already compromised or dysregulated and adding immunotherapy into the mix can lead to unpredictable and potentially dangerous outcomes, such as inflammation or

organ damage. To mitigate these risks, treatment regimens are evolving to include lower dosages and combination therapies to improve safety and efficacy for older patients.

*Understanding the Underlying Mechanisms:* The molecular mechanisms underlying immunosenescence are overly complex and not fully understood. Research into T cell dynamics is a key area for improving our knowledge of how aging affects immunity. Understanding these mechanisms is crucial for designing treatments and interventions that can enhance immune function in the elderly. Researchers are investigating how epigenetic changes and chronic low-grade inflammation contribute to decline in immune function, as these factors may hold the key to future therapeutic interventions.

7. What the Future Holds for the Aging Population

*Personalized Medicine:* The concept of personalized medicine represents a significant shift in the future of healthcare, particularly for treating immunosenescence. Traditionally, medical treatments have been designed for a “one-size-fits-all” approach, but personalized medicine focuses on tailoring treatments to an individual’s unique genetic, environmental and lifestyle factors. The future of treating immunosenescence will likely involve personalized approaches, where genetics and epigenetics are used to create therapies that target underlying mechanisms of aging at the individual level.[89] This could revolutionize how we prevent and treat age-related diseases and boost immune function in older adults. However, challenges such as data privacy concerns, high cost of personalized treatments and the need for large-scale genomic data may slow down widespread implementation of these approaches.

*Anti-Aging Therapies:* Anti-aging therapies are rapidly advancing, with one of the most exciting areas being the use of gene editing technologies. [90] Gene editing can be utilized to repair aged immune cells, enhancing their ability to respond to infections and other immune challenges. This could be a significant change for treating immunosenescence, as it allows for direct manipulation of the genetic code of immune cells. While promising, this approach also raises ethical concerns regarding off-

target effects and long-term consequences of genetic modifications. Moreover, the technology is still in its early stages and its practical application for aging-related immune system improvement is yet to be fully realized.

*Preventive Measures:* While innovative therapies like gene editing are garnering a lot of attention, more traditional preventive measures like lifestyle changes remain a cornerstone of promoting healthy aging and immune function. Preventive measures, especially regular exercise and good nutrition are simple yet powerful tools to help mitigate immunosenescence and maintain robust immune function as we age. [74,75] These lifestyle changes should be prioritized alongside advanced medical interventions to ensure healthier aging. Governments and healthcare providers should support the integration of these strategies into public health guidelines to maximize their impact on aging populations.

*Biomarkers for Immune Age:* The development of biomarkers to track immune system aging is becoming an increasingly important area of research.[91] Recent studies are advancing our ability to identify immune age biomarkers, which could serve as critical tools for measuring the functional state of the immune system in older adults. [92] Identifying biomarkers for immunosenescence would allow for early detection of immune decline, facilitating preventive interventions before age-related immune dysfunction leads to infections or chronic diseases. With reliable biomarkers, doctors could more accurately assess immune health of an individual, potentially tailoring treatments or lifestyle recommendations to optimize immune function as they age. This would be particularly valuable in clinical trials and personalized medicine approaches, allowing researchers to more precisely measure effects of therapies aimed at reversing or slowing immunosenescence.

## 8. Acceptability of Solutions

*Cultural and Ethical Considerations:* As anti-aging treatments become more prevalent, it is essential to consider both cultural diversity and ethical implications of such interventions, particularly in terms of equity, fairness and respect for natural processes.[93] Ensuring that these treatments are accessible and not reinforcing societal inequalities is a major challenge for policymakers, researchers and

healthcare providers. Additionally, different cultural perceptions of aging may influence how anti-aging therapies are received. In some cultures, aging is viewed with respect and dignity, and interventions to reverse aging may be met with resistance. Policymakers must take these cultural factors into account when developing public health strategies.

*Trust in New Treatments:* To successfully implement new immunosenescence interventions, building and maintaining public trust is essential. This requires not only demonstrating safety and effectiveness of treatments through rigorous clinical trials, but also engaging the public through transparent communication and active community involvement in the decision-making process.[94] In addition, long-term monitoring of outcomes will be crucial to ensure sustained effectiveness and safety of these treatments in older populations.

*Quality of Life Considerations:* For many elderly individuals, quality of life is often seen as more important than simply extending lifespan. While living longer may be desirable, many older adults prioritize maintaining a good quality of life, which includes having the ability to engage in daily activities, preserve cognitive function and experience physical well-being.[95] For instance, a prolonged lifespan may not be appealing if it comes with prolonged suffering due to chronic illness, disability or cognitive decline. Therefore, the focus in clinical trials and aging therapies must shift from just adding years to life to enhancing life in those years. Moreover, addressing cognitive health alongside physical health will be important to ensuring a holistic approach to aging therapies.

## CONCLUSION

Immunosenescence represents a significant challenge for older adults, leading to weakened immune responses, increased vulnerability to infections and higher rates of chronic diseases. However, advancements in immunology, immunotherapies and personalized medicine offer an exciting potential to improve immune function of older adults. From gene editing and cell-based therapies to advanced vaccine strategies and microbiome interventions, the future holds promising solutions to challenges posed by immunosenescence. By embracing a multifaceted approach that integrates innovative therapies with evidence-based lifestyle

modifications, we can transform the future of healthcare for aging populations, enabling them to lead healthier and more resilient lives. Personalized strategies tailored to diverse needs of older adults will be critical in overcoming the hurdles posed by immunosenescence. To meet the needs of aging populations, policymakers must invest in research, healthcare infrastructure and equitable access to emerging therapies. Collaborative efforts between scientists, clinicians and public health officials will be essential to transform the landscape of aging health. While ongoing trials and studies are making

significant strides in understanding and combating immunosenescence, there remain challenges in terms of efficacy, safety and personalized approaches. The future holds exciting possibilities, including more tailored, preventive and potentially even regenerative therapies, but their success will depend on how well they are integrated into the aging population's lifestyle, values and healthcare systems. Acceptability of such solutions will hinge on overcoming cultural, ethical and trust-related barriers, as well as ensuring that these interventions lead to a better quality of life for the elderly.

## REFERENCES

- World Health Organization (WHO). Ageing and health. 2022 [cited: 2022 September 08]. Available from: <https://www.who.int/news-room/fact-sheets/detail/ageing-and-health>
- McGough M, Claxton G, Amin K, Cox C. How do health expenditures vary across the population? Peterson-KFF Health System Tracker, KFF Health News. 2024 Jan 4: News Release.
- Chen J, Zhao M, Zhou R, Ou W, Yao P. How heavy is the medical expense burden among the older adults and what are the contributing factors? A literature review and problem-based analysis. *Front Public Health* [Internet]. 2023;11:1165381. Available from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.3389/fpubh.2023.1165381>
- Jones CH, Dolsten M. Healthcare on the brink: navigating the challenges of an aging society in the United States. *NPJ Aging* [Internet]. 2024;10(1):22. Available from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/s41514-024-00148-2>
- Oh SJ, Lee JK, Shin OS. Aging and the immune system: The impact of immunosenescence on viral infection, immunity and vaccine immunogenicity. *Immune Netw* [Internet]. 2019;19(6):e37. Available from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.4110/in.2019.19.e37>
- Nikolich-Zugich J. The twilight of immunity: emerging concepts in aging of the immune system. *Nat Immunol* [Internet]. 2018;19(1):10–9. Available from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/s41590-017-0006-x>
- Liu Z, Liang Q, Ren Y, Guo C, Ge X, Wang L, et al. Immunosenescence: molecular mechanisms and diseases. *Signal Transduct Target Ther* [Internet]. 2023;8(1):200. Available from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/s41392-023-01451-2>
- Ajoolabady A, Pratico D, Tang D, Zhou S, Franceschi C, Ren J. Immunosenescence and inflammaging: Mechanisms and role in diseases. *Ageing Res Rev* [Internet]. 2024;101(102540):102540. Available from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.arr.2024.102540>
- Thomas R, Wang W, Su D-M. Contributions of age-related thymic involution to immunosenescence and inflammaging. *Immun Ageing* [Internet]. 2020;17(1):2. Available from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1186/s12979-020-0173-8>
- Lynch HE, Goldberg GL, Chidgey A, Van den Brink MRM, Boyd R, Sempowski GD. Thymic involution and immune reconstitution. *Trends Immunol*. 2009 Jun 18;30(7):366–73. Available from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.it.2009.04.003>
- Qi C, Liu Q. Natural killer cells in aging and age-related diseases. *Neurobiol. Dis*. 2023 Jul;183. Available from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.nbd.2023.106156>
- O'Hara AM, Shanahan F. The Gut Flora as a Forgotten Organ. *EMBO Reports*. 2006 Jul 1;7, 688-93. Available from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/sj.embor.7400731>
- Wong C, Goldstein DR. Impact of aging on antigen presentation cell function of dendritic cells. *Curr Opin Immunol*. 2013 Aug;25(4), 535-541. Available from: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.coi.2013.05.016>
- Fulop T, Larbi A, Dupuis G, Le Page A, Frost EH, Cohen AA, et al. Immunosenescence and inflamm-aging as two sides of the same coin: Friends or foes? *Front Immunol* [Internet]. 2017;8:1960. Available from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.3389/fimmu.2017.01960>
- Omarjee L, Perrot F, Meilhac O, Mahe G, Bousquet G, Janin A. Immunometabolism at the cornerstone of inflammaging, immunosenescence, and autoimmunity in COVID-19. *Aging (Albany NY)* [Internet]. 2020;12(24):26263–78. Available from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.18632/aging.202422>
- Duah M, Li L, Shen J, Lan Q, Pan B, Xu K. Thymus degeneration and regeneration. *Front Immunol* [Internet]. 2021;12:706244. Available from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.3389/fimmu.2021.706244>
- Duggal NA. Reversing the immune ageing clock: lifestyle modifications and pharmacological interventions. *Biogerontology* [Internet]. 2018;19(6):481–96. Available from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s10522-018-9771-7>
- Lin RJ, Elias HK, van den Brink MRM. Immune reconstitution in the aging host: Opportunities for mechanism-based therapy in allogeneic hematopoietic cell transplantation. *Front Immunol*. 2021 Apr 18:12. Available from: <https://doi.org/10.3389/fimmu.2021.674093>
- Stankiewicz LN, Rossi FMV, Zandstra PW. Rebuilding and rebooting immunity with stem cells. *Cell stem cell* [Internet]. 2024;31(5):597–616. Available from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.stem.2024.03.012>
- Hussen BM, Taheri M, Yashooa RK, Abdullah GH, Abdullah SR, Kheder RK, et al. Revolutionizing medicine: recent developments and future prospects in stem-cell therapy. *Int J Surg* [Internet]. 2024;110(12):8002–24. Available from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1097/JS9.0000000000002109>
- Demsky I. CAR T-cells show promise against age-related diseases in mice. Memorial Sloan Kettering Cancer Center, *In the News*. 2024 Feb 1; News Release.
- Amor C, Fernández-Maestre I, Chowdhury S, Ho Y-J, Nadella S, Graham C, et al. Prophylactic and long-lasting efficacy of senolytic CAR T cells against age-related metabolic dysfunction. *Nat Aging* [Internet]. 2024;4(3):336–49. Available from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/s43587-023-00560-5>
- Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. Vaccine-preventable adult diseases. CDC Website. 2024 Jun 14; Available from: <https://www.cdc.gov/vaccines-adults/diseases/index.html>
- Talbird SE, La EM, Carrico J, Poston S, Poirrier J-E, DeMartino JK, et al. Impact of population aging on the burden of vaccine-preventable diseases among older adults in the United States. *Hum Vaccin Immunother* [Internet]. 2021;17(2):332–43. Available from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/21645515.2020.1780847>
- Lord JM. The effect of ageing of the immune system on vaccination responses. *Hum Vaccin Immunother* [Internet]. 2013;9(6):1364–7. Available from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.4161/hv.24696>
- Yager EJ, Ahmed M, Lanzer K, Randall TD, Woodland DL, Blackman MA. Age-associated decline in T cell repertoire diversity leads to holes in the repertoire and impaired immunity to influenza virus. *J Exp Med* [Internet]. 2008;205(3):711–23. Available from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1084/jem.20071140>
- Weinberger B, Herndler-Brandstetter D, Schwanninger A, Weiskopf D, Grubeck-Loebenstien B. Biology of immune responses to vaccines in elderly persons. *Clin Infect Dis* [Internet]. 2008;46(7):1078–84. Available from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1086/529197>
- Crooke SN, Ovsyannikova IG, Poland GA, Kennedy RB. Immunosenescence and human vaccine immune responses. *Immun Ageing* [Internet]. 2019 Sep 13;16(25):1–16. Available from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1186/s12979-019-0164-9>



29. Haynes L, Swain SL. Why aging T cells fail: implications for vaccination. *Immunity* [Internet]. 2006;24(6):663–6. Available from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.immuni.2006.06.003>
30. American Society of Microbiology. Understanding Immunological Memory. ASM Website. 2023 May 11. Available from: <https://asm.org/articles/2023/may/understanding-immunological-memory>
31. Tregoning JS, Russell RF, Kinnear E. Adjuvanted influenza vaccines. *Hum Vaccin Immunother* [Internet]. 2018;14(3):550–64. Available from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/21645515.2017.1415684>
32. Jung M, Kim H, Choi E, Shin M-K, Shin SJ. Enhancing vaccine effectiveness in the elderly to counter antibiotic resistance: The potential of adjuvants via pattern recognition receptors. *Hum Vaccin Immunother* [Internet]. 2024;20(1):2317439. Available from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/21645515.2024.2317439>
33. Sim TC. Current insights into covid-19 vaccination. *Journal of Medicine, University of Santo Tomas* [Internet]. 2023;7(2):1252–8. Available from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.35460/2546-1621.2023-0077>
34. Haveri A, Solastie A, Ekström N, Österlund P, Nohynek H, Nieminen T, et al. Neutralizing antibodies to SARS-CoV-2 Omicron variant after third mRNA vaccination in health care workers and elderly subjects. *Eur J Immunol* [Internet]. 2022;52(5):816–24. Available from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/eji.202149785>
35. Hou Y, Chen M, Bian Y, Hu Y, Chuan J, Zhong L, et al. Insights into vaccines for elderly individuals: from the impacts of immunosenescence to delivery strategies. *NPJ Vaccines* [Internet]. 2024;9(1):77. Available from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/s41541-024-00874-4>
36. Izikson R, Brune D, Bolduc J-S, Bourron P, Fournier M, Moore TM, et al. Safety and immunogenicity of a high-dose quadrivalent influenza vaccine administered concomitantly with a third dose of the mRNA-1273 SARS-CoV-2 vaccine in adults aged ≥65 years: a phase 2, randomised, open-label study. *Lancet Respir Med* [Internet]. 2022;10(4):392–402. Available from: [http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S2213-2600\(21\)00557-9](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S2213-2600(21)00557-9)
37. Xing M, Hu G, Wang X, Wang Y, He F, Dai W, et al. An intranasal combination vaccine induces systemic and mucosal immunity against COVID-19 and influenza. *NPJ Vaccines* [Internet]. 2024;9(1):64. Available from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/s41541-024-00857-5>
38. Zhang Z, Shen Q, Chang H. Vaccines for COVID-19: A systematic review of immunogenicity, current development, and future prospects. *Front Immunol*. 2022 Apr 26;22. <http://dx.doi.org/10.3389/fimmu.2022.843928>
39. Al Fayed N, Nassar MS, Alshehri AA, Alnefaie MK, Almughem FA, Alshehri BY, et al. Recent advancement in mRNA vaccine development and applications. *Pharmaceutics* [Internet]. 2023;15(7). Available from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.3390/pharmaceutics15071972>
40. Bezbaruah R, Chavda VP, Nongrang L, Alom S, Deka K, Kalita D, et al. Nanoparticle-based delivery systems for vaccines. *Vaccines*. 2022 Nov 17;10(11):1946. <http://dx.doi.org/10.3390/vaccines10111946>
41. Saleh M, El-Moghazy A, Elgohary AH, Saber WIA, Helmy YA. Revolutionizing nanovaccines: A new era of immunization. *Vaccines (Basel)* [Internet]. 2025;13(2). Available from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.3390/vaccines13020126>
42. Lu B, Lim JM, Yu B, Song S, Neeli P, Sobhani N, et al. The next-generation DNA vaccine platforms and delivery systems: advances, challenges and prospects. *Front Immunol* [Internet]. 2024;15:1332939. Available from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.3389/fimmu.2024.1332939>
43. Travieso T, Li J, Mahesh S, Mello JDFRE, Blasi M. The use of viral vectors in vaccine development. *NPJ Vaccines* [Internet]. 2022;7(1):75. Available from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/s41541-022-00503-y>
44. Saito Y, Yamamoto S, Chikenji TS. Role of cellular senescence in inflammation and regeneration. *Inflamm Regen* [Internet]. 2024;44(1):28. Available from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1186/s41232-024-00342-5>
45. Guo J, Huang X, Dou L, Yan M, Shen T, Tang W, et al. Aging and aging-related diseases: from molecular mechanisms to interventions and treatments. *Signal Transduct Target Ther* [Internet]. 2022;7(1):391. Available from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/s41392-022-01251-0>
46. Lindstrom TM, Robinson WH. Rheumatoid arthritis: a role for immunosenescence?: Link between rheumatoid arthritis and aging. *J Am Geriatr Soc* [Internet]. 2010;58(8):1565–75. Available from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1532-5415.2010.02965.x>
47. Schwartz DM, Kanno Y, Villarino A, Ward M, Gadina M, O'Shea JJ. JAK inhibition as a therapeutic strategy for immune and inflammatory diseases. *Nat Rev Drug Discov* [Internet]. 2017;17(1):78. Available from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/nrd.2017.267>
48. Li Y, Liu Y, Tian Y, Gu H, Meng Q, Cui J, et al. The research progress of biologics in elderly-onset rheumatoid arthritis (EORA). *Front Aging* [Internet]. 2024;5:1511812. Available from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.3389/fragi.2024.1511812>
49. Robbins PD, Jurk D, Khosla S, Kirkland JL, LeBrasseur NK, Milleret JD, et al. Senolytic drugs: reducing senescent cell viability to extend health span. *Annu Rev Pharmacol Toxicol*. 2020 Sep 30;61:779–803. Available from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1146/annurev-pharmtox-050120-105018>
50. Prasert S, Gavin S, Sawaek W. Oxidative stress and inflammation: the root causes of aging. *Explor Med* [Internet]. 2023;127–56. Available from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.37349/emed.2023.00129>
51. Zia A, Farkhondeh T, Pourbagher-Shahri AM, Samarghandian S. The role of curcumin in aging and senescence: Molecular mechanisms. *Biomed Pharmacother* [Internet]. 2021;134(1111119):111119. Available from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.biopha.2020.111119>
52. Mocchegiani E, Costarelli L, Giacconi R, Malavolta M, Basso A, Piacenza F, et al. Vitamin E-gene interactions in aging and inflammatory age-related diseases: implications for treatment. A systematic review. *Ageing Res Rev* [Internet]. 2014;14:81–101. Available from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.arr.2014.01.001>
53. Tenório MCDS, Graciliano NG, Moura FA, Oliveira ACM de, Goulart MOF. N-acetylcysteine (NAC): Impacts on human health. *Antioxidants (Basel)* [Internet]. 2021;10(6):967. Available from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.3390/antiox10060967>
54. Sharifi-Rad M, Anil Kumar NV, Zucca P, Varoni EM, Dini L, Panzarini E, et al. Lifestyle, oxidative stress, and antioxidants: Back and forth in the pathophysiology of chronic diseases. *Front Physiol* [Internet]. 2020;11:694. Available from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.3389/fphys.2020.00694>
55. Selvarani R, Mohammed S, Richardson A. Effect of rapamycin on aging and age-related diseases-past and future.



- GeroScience [Internet]. 2021;43(3):1135–58. Available from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s11357-020-00274-1>
56. Ursini F, Russo E, Pellino G, D'Angelo S, Chiaravalloti A, De Sarro G, et al. Metformin and autoimmunity: A "New Deal" of an old drug. *Front Immunol* [Internet]. 2018;9:1236. Available from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.3389/fimmu.2018.01236>
  57. Fries W, Basile G, Bellone F, Costantino G, Viola A. Efficacy and safety of biological therapies and JAK inhibitors in older patients with inflammatory bowel disease. *Cells* [Internet]. 2023;12(13):1722. Available from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.3390/cells12131722>
  58. Robbins PD, Jurk D, Khosla S, Kirkland JL, LeBrasseur NK, Miller JD, et al. Senolytic drugs: Reducing senescent cell viability to extend health span. *Annu Rev Pharmacol Toxicol* [Internet]. 2021;61(1):779–803. Available from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1146/annurev-pharmtox-050120-105018>
  59. Pereira B, Correia FP, Alves IA, Costa M, Gameiro M, Martins AP, et al. Epigenetic reprogramming as a key to reverse ageing and increase longevity. *Ageing Res Rev* [Internet]. 2024;95(102204):102204. Available from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.arr.2024.102204>
  60. Koff WC, Williams MA. Covid-19 and immunity in aging populations - A new research agenda. *N Engl J Med* [Internet]. 2020;383(9):804–5. Available from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1056/NEJMp2006761>
  61. Mueller AL, McNamara MS, Sinclair DA. Why does COVID-19 disproportionately affect older people? Aging (Albany NY) [Internet]. 2020;12(10):9959–81. Available from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.18632/aging.103344>
  62. Taylor CA, Patel K, Patton ME, Reingold A, Kawasaki B, Meek J, et al. COVID-19-associated hospitalizations among U.S. adults aged ≥65 years - COVID-NET, 13 states, January–August 2023. *MMWR Morb Mortal Wkly Rep* [Internet]. 2023;72(40):1089–94. Available from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.15585/mmwr.mm7240a3>
  63. Han S, Georgiev P, Ringel AE, Sharpe AH, Haigis MC. Age-associated remodeling of T cell immunity and metabolism. *Cell Metab* [Internet]. 2023;35(1):36–55. Available from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.cmet.2022.11.005>
  64. Bartleson JM, Radenkovic D, Covarrubias AJ, Furman D, Winer DA, Verdin E. SARS-CoV-2, COVID-19 and the ageing immune system. *Nat Aging* [Internet]. 2021;1(9):769–82. Available from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/s43587-021-00114-7>
  65. Liang C-K, Lee W-J, Peng L-N, Meng L-C, Hsiao F-Y, Chen L-K. COVID-19 vaccines in older adults: Challenges in vaccine development and policy making. *Clin Geriatr Med* [Internet]. 2022;38(3):605–20. Available from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.cger.2022.03.006>
  66. Evans JP, Zeng C, Carlin C, Lozanski G, Saif IJ, Oltz EM, et al. Neutralizing antibody responses elicited by SARS-CoV-2 mRNA vaccination wane over time and are boosted by breakthrough infection. *Sci Transl Med* [Internet]. 2022;14(637):eabn8057. Available from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1126/scitranslmed.abn8057>
  67. Mattiuzzi C, Lippi G. Efficacy of COVID-19 vaccine booster doses in older people. *Eur Geriatr Med* [Internet]. 2022;13(1):275–8. Available from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s41999-022-00615-7>
  68. Zhang N, Li K, Liu Z, Nandakumar KS, Jiang S. A perspective on the roles of adjuvants in developing highly potent COVID-19 vaccines. *Viruses* [Internet]. 2022;14(2):387. Available from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.3390/v14020387>
  69. Kelley B, De Moor P, Douglas K, Renshaw T, Traviglia S. Monoclonal antibody therapies for COVID-19: lessons learned and implications for the development of future products. *Curr Opin Biotechnol* [Internet]. 2022;78(102798):102798. Available from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.copbio.2022.102798>
  70. Cowan J, Amson A, Christofides A, Chagla Z. Monoclonal antibodies as COVID-19 prophylaxis therapy in immunocompromised patient populations. *Int J Infect Dis* [Internet]. 2023;134:228–38. Available from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ijid.2023.06.021>
  71. Pecora F, Persico F, Argentiero A, Neglia C, Esposito S. The role of micronutrients in support of the immune response against viral infections. *Nutrients* [Internet]. 2020;12(10):3198. Available from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.3390/nu12103198>
  72. Wu R, Jeffrey M, Johnson-Henry K, Green-Johnson J, Sherman P. Impact of prebiotics, probiotics and gut derived metabolites on host immunity. *LymphoSign J* [Internet]. 2016;(lymphosign-2016-0012). Available from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.14785/lymphosign-2016-0012>
  73. Abavisani M, Khoshrou A, Foroushan SK, Ebadpour N, Sahebkar A. Deciphering the gut microbiome: The revolution of artificial intelligence in microbiota analysis and intervention. *Curr Res Biotechnol* [Internet]. 2024;7(100211):100211. Available from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.crbiot.2024.100211>
  74. Turner JE, Brum PC. Does regular exercise counter T cell immunosenescence reducing the risk of developing cancer and promoting successful treatment of malignancies? *Oxid Med Cell Longev* [Internet]. 2017;2017:4234765. Available from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1155/2017/4234765>
  75. Kim S-D, Yeun Y-R. Effects of resistance training on C-reactive protein and inflammatory cytokines in elderly adults: A systematic review and meta-analysis of randomized controlled trials. *Int J Environ Res Public Health* [Internet]. 2022;19(6):3434. Available from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.3390/ijerph19063434>
  76. Hamar B, Coberley CR, Pope JE, Rula EY. Impact of a senior fitness program on measures of physical and emotional health and functioning. *Popul Health Manag* [Internet]. 2013;16(6):364–72. Available from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1089/pop.2012.0111>
  77. Garbarino S, Lanteri P, Bragazzi NL, Magnavita N, Scoditti E. Role of sleep deprivation in immune-related disease risk and outcomes. *Commun Biol* [Internet]. 2021;4(1):1304. Available from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/s42003-021-02825-4>
  78. Tatineny P, Shafi F, Gohar A, Bhat A. Sleep in the elderly. *Mo Med*. 2020;117(5):490–5. PMID: 33311760.
  79. Dzierzewski JM, Donovan EK, Kay DB, Sannes TS, Bradbrook KE. Sleep inconsistency and markers of inflammation. *Front Neurol* [Internet]. 2020;11:1042. Available from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.3389/fneur.2020.01042>
  80. Knezevic E, Nenic K, Milanovic V, Knezevic NN. The role of cortisol in chronic stress, neurodegenerative diseases, and psychological disorders. *Cells* [Internet]. 2023;12(23). Available from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.3390/cells12232726>
  81. Alotiby A. Immunology of stress: A review article. *J Clin Med* [Internet]. 2024;13(21):6394. Available from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.3390/jcm13216394>

82. Black DS, Slavich GM. Mindfulness meditation and the immune system: a systematic review of randomized controlled trials. *Ann N Y Acad Sci* [Internet]. 2016;1373(1):13–24. Available from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/nyas.12998>
83. Estevao C. The role of yoga in inflammatory markers. *Brain Behav Immun Health* [Internet]. 2022;20(100421):100421. Available from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.bbih.2022.100421>
84. Oh B, Bae K, Lamoury G, Eade T, Boyle F, Corless B, et al. The effects of Tai Chi and Qigong on immune responses: A systematic review and meta-analysis. *Medicines (Basel)* [Internet]. 2020;7(7):39. Available from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.3390/medicines7070039>
85. Leschak CJ, Eisenberger NI. Two distinct immune pathways linking social relationships with health: Inflammatory and antiviral processes. *Psychosom Med* [Internet]. 2019;81(8):711–9. Available from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1097/PSY.0000000000000685>
86. Gallagher S, Howard S, Muldoon OT, Whittaker AC. Social cohesion and loneliness are associated with the antibody response to COVID-19 vaccination. *Brain Behav Immun* [Internet]. 2022;103:179–85. Available from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.bbi.2022.04.017>
87. Cadar AN, Martin DE, Bartley JM. Targeting the hallmarks of aging to improve influenza vaccine responses in older adults. *Immun Ageing* [Internet]. 2023;20(1):23. Available from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1186/s12979-023-00348-6>
88. Ramos-Casals M, Brahmner JR, Callahan MK, Flores-Chávez A, Keegan N, Khamashta MA, et al. Immune-related adverse events of checkpoint inhibitors. *Nat Rev Dis Primers* [Internet]. 2020;6(1):38. Available from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/s41572-020-0160-6>
89. Wang R, Xiong K, Wang Z, Wu D, Hu B, Ruan J, et al. Immunodiagnosis - the promise of personalized immunotherapy. *Front Immunol* [Internet]. 2023;14:1216901. Available from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.3389/fimmu.2023.1216901>
90. Yu J, Li T, Zhu J. Gene therapy strategies targeting aging-related diseases. *Aging Dis* [Internet]. 2023;14(2):398–417. Available from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.14336/AD.2022.00725>
91. Moqri M, Herzog C, Poganik JR, Biomarkers of Aging Consortium, Justice J, Belsky DW, et al. Biomarkers of aging for the identification and evaluation of longevity interventions. *Cell* [Internet]. 2023;186(18):3758–75. Available from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.cell.2023.08.003>
92. Tao X, Zhu Z, Wang L, Li C, Sun L, Wang W, et al. Biomarkers of aging and relevant evaluation techniques: A comprehensive review. *Aging Dis* [Internet]. 2024;15(3):977–1005. Available from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.14336/AD.2023.00808-1>
93. Mackey T. An ethical assessment of anti-aging medicine. *J Anti Aging Med* [Internet]. 2003;6(3):187–204. Available from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1089/109454503322733045>
94. Occa A, Merritt AS, Leip A, Stapleton JL. What influences trust in and understanding of clinical trials? An analysis of information and communication technology use and online health behavior from the Health Information National Trends Survey. *Clin Trials* [Internet]. 2024;21(1):95–113. Available from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/17407745231204813>
95. van Leeuwen KM, van Loon MS, van Nes FA, Bosmans JE, de Vet HCW, Ket JCF, et al. What does quality of life mean to older adults? A thematic synthesis. *PLoS One* [Internet]. 2019;14(3):e0213263. Available from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0213263>



**Open Access** This article is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-ShareAlike 4.0 International License, which permits use, share — copy and redistribute the material in any medium or format, adapt — remix, transform, and build upon the material, as long as you give appropriate credit, provide a link to the license, and indicate if changes were made. You may do so in any reasonable manner, but not in any way that suggests the licensor endorses you or your use. You may not use the material for commercial purposes. If you remix, transform, or build upon the material, you must distribute your contributions under the same license as the original. You may not apply legal terms or technological measures that legally restrict others from doing anything the license permits. The images or other third party material in this article are included in the article's Creative Commons license, unless indicated otherwise in a credit line to the material. If material is not included in the article's Creative Commons license and your intended use is not permitted by statutory regulation or exceeds the permitted use, you will need to obtain permission directly from the copyright holder. To view a copy of this license, visit <https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-sa/4.0/>.