



Nutrition, the Brain and Epigenomics: A Lifelong Approach to Optimal Cognition

Margaret Joy Dauncey, PhD, ScD, FRSB

University of Cambridge
Wolfson College
Cambridge, United Kingdom
mjd4@cam.ac.uk

Abstract

Nutrition affects the brain throughout life, with profound implications for optimal cognition. Advances in epigenomics are helping to elucidate the underlying mechanisms involved. Nutrition is one of many epigenetic regulators that modify gene expression without changes in DNA sequence. Although epigenetic modifications can be stable and heritable, they can be reversible, emphasizing critical roles for nutrition in both prevention and treatment of cognitive impairment. Insights into nutritional regulation of gene expression, involving a One Health strategy across species, should provide novel lifelong approaches to optimal cognition and mental well-being in companion animals.

Introduction

Optimal brain development, structure and function result from complex interactions between numerous factors, including food intake, physical activity, microbiota, social interactions, stress, infections, and genetics. Advances in epigenomics, genomics, and brain imaging are providing insights into the molecular mechanisms involved.¹⁻⁹ They suggest novel approaches to optimization of cognition and prevention of cognitive decline and dementia.

Nutrition has a highly complex role in neurological function. Effects can be beneficial or detrimental, as well as immediate or long term. The concern is not with the impact of a single chemical on the brain, but with multiple nutritional components and other interacting environmental and genetic factors.¹⁰⁻¹⁴ Changes in expression of multiple genes and associated regulatory networks play a key role in mediating these effects, and responses to nutrition are, in turn, affected by genetic variability.^{3,4} A critical layer of regulation is provided by the epigenome. Nutrition is one of many epigenetic regulators that modify gene expression without changes in DNA sequence. Epigenetic modifications affect gene expression in multiple brain processes and are an integral part of brain development and function. Nutrition could, thus, be used throughout life to optimize cognition and alleviate adverse effects of early-life experiences on the brain.

Glossary of Abbreviations

BDNF: Brain-Derived Neurotrophic Factor

DHA: Docosahexaenoic Acid

IGF: Insulin-Like Growth Factor

miRNA: MicroRNA

ncRNA: Nonprotein-Coding RNA

SIRT1: Sirtuin Silent Information Regulator 1

This review focuses on interactions between nutrition, the brain, and cognition, and the underlying mechanisms involved. Three interrelated topics are discussed:

1. The role of nutrition in brain health and cognition
2. Underlying mechanisms in relation to gene expression and epigenetics
3. Interactions between nutrition and epigenomics and their relevance to nutritional optimization of cognition throughout life

1. Nutrition, the Brain and Cognition One Health Approach: Comparative Biology

The One Health approach aims to optimize health in humans, other animals, and the environment.¹⁵⁻¹⁸ Studies in comparative biology and medicine are increasing understanding of mechanisms underlying many aspects of health and disease, including growth, development, metabolism, and neuroscience.^{1,4,19-21}

Numerous advantages come from studies across species, with findings in humans being relevant to companion animals and vice versa. Moreover, the ability to closely control parameters such as diet, environmental temperature, and physical activity can be easier in one species than in another. However, biological differences among species need to be acknowledged, including stage of development at birth, body size, life span, nutritional requirements, and gastrointestinal, thermoregulatory, hormonal, metabolic, and neurological systems. In relation to nutrition and cognitive neuroscience, findings from a wide range of species are advancing knowledge of nutrition-gene interactions in brain health, dysfunction, and disease.

Definitions of cognition tend to be broad and imprecise and vary across species.^{4,10,22,23} In general, it refers to the mental processes involved in acquiring knowledge and the integration of these processes into responses such as learning, attention, concentration, and memory. Cognitive decline is often associated with aging.^{2,24} It involves an inability to reason, understand, and interpret, and can lead to dysfunctional behaviors and dementia. There are considerable

opportunities and challenges related to characterizing cognitive aging across species.²⁵ This review focuses on human studies, which often are highly relevant to nutritional strategies for optimal cognition and treatment of cognitive decline in companion animals.

Multiple Nutritional Components Affect Brain Function and Cognition

Numerous aspects of neuroscience are affected by nutrition including neurodevelopment, neurogenesis, myelinogenesis, and functions of neurons, synapses, and neural networks in specific brain regions.^{4,26,27} Multiple nutritional components are implicated in a wide range of cognitive functions and disorders including memory, mental health, depression, anxiety, dementia, schizophrenia, and Alzheimer's disease. These range from specific nutrients to dietary pattern, the microbiome, and energy status.^{4,10,12-14,23,28-38}

Energy status has a critical role in cognition and mental well-being.^{2,4,12} The term is used here to include energy intake, physical activity, energy metabolism, and related changes in body composition. This broader, less-precise term than energy balance reflects the multifaceted influence of a key component of nutritional status. Complex interactions occur between energy status and cognition. Physical activity, aerobic fitness and optimal energy intake in adults are beneficial to mental health and well-being. They decrease the risk of depression and improve mood and self-esteem. In older adults, regular aerobic exercise increases brain volume and reduces the risk of cognitive impairment, dementia, and Alzheimer's disease. By contrast, obesity is linked with cognitive dysfunction, cognitive decline, and dementia. In children, aerobic fitness benefits learning and memory, while inactivity is linked with poor cognitive health.

Overweight and obesity/hyperadiposity are the most common forms of malnutrition in dogs and cats in developed countries.²⁴ These conditions are associated with multiple health disorders. The probability is that in companion animals, optimal energy status is linked with optimal cognition, while overnutrition and lack of exercise are detrimental to cognitive function.

Nutrition Has Immediate and Long-Term Effects on the Brain

Optimal nutrition is essential for optimal brain function throughout life, especially during early development.^{4,26,39} Programming is the phenomenon whereby an insult, such as malnutrition, during a critical period of development has long-term or permanent effects on structure and function. Both timing and type of insult are important to later brain function.

Critical periods of neurodevelopment occur prenatally and postnatally. Intrauterine growth restriction reflects a reduction in nutrient supply to the fetus, and infants born small for gestational age and preterm are at major risk of

impaired neurodevelopment and multiple cognitive deficits. This may be relevant to cognitive outcomes in the runt of the litter, often a favored and much-loved animal companion. Marked changes in brain structure and function occur in children, especially during the first two years after birth, and malnutrition during this period carries significant risk for long-term cognition.

Adolescence is a critical time during which the brain continues to be plastic to environmental modulation. During this period, when the brain is developing, there are marked changes in motor and cognitive abilities, and many psychiatric disorders are first manifest.⁴⁰

Parental nutrition has both immediate and long-term effects on brain function and cognition in the offspring.^{10,41} Prenatally, maternal intake of micronutrients including folate, vitamin B12, and omega-3 polyunsaturated fatty acids is positively associated with cognitive outcomes in children. Postnatally, breast milk is linked with enhanced neurodevelopment due, in part, to the beneficial effects of long-chain fatty acids and insulin-like growth factors (IGFs). Of additional critical importance is the realization that the father's nutritional status can affect development of the offspring.⁴²

In mature adults and the elderly, the brain remains remarkably plastic to nutritional intervention. This indicates that the effects of early nutritional programming could be mitigated by optimal nutrition later in life. Insights into mechanisms underlying nutritional regulation of brain function are suggesting new approaches to optimization of cognition at all life stages.

2. Underlying Mechanisms Nutrition and Gene Expression

Nutrition-gene interactions play a major role in brain development and function, with effects on cell membranes, enzymes, neurotransmitters, metabolism, neurogenesis, and synaptic plasticity.^{4,26} Nutritional regulation of gene expression is central to this response. Changes can be dynamic and short term, stable and long term, and even heritable among cell divisions and across generations. Moreover, gene variability significantly modifies the effects of nutrition on gene expression.

Nutrition has direct and indirect effects on gene expression.^{20,43} Many nutrients and metabolites act directly as ligands for nuclear receptors/transcription factors, e.g., vitamin A and retinoic acid receptor, vitamin D and its receptor, calcium and calcineurin, and fatty acids and peroxisome proliferator-activated receptors. By contrast, energy status acts indirectly by influencing numerous hormones and growth factors that act as nutritional sensors to influence expression of multiple genes. These include growth hormone, IGFs, insulin, brain-derived neurotrophic factor (BDNF), thyroid hormones, and glucocorticoids. Epigenetic mechanisms play a central role in many of these

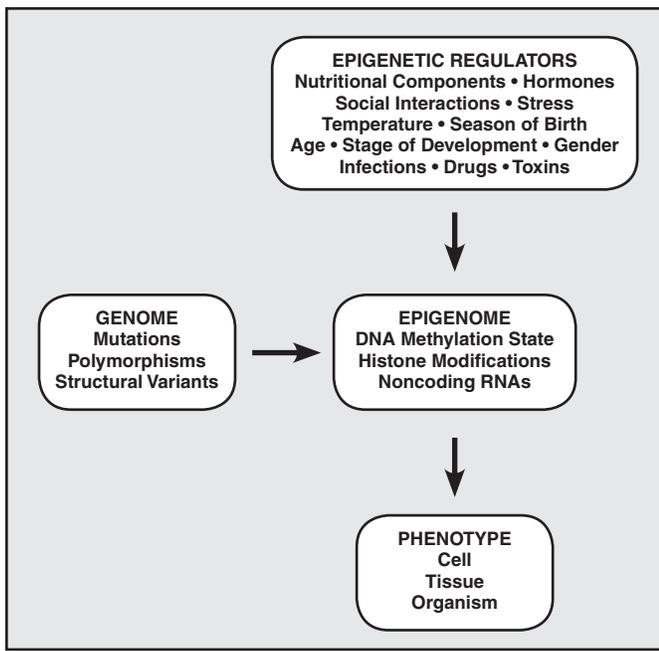


Figure 1. Interactions between extrinsic epigenetic regulators, genomics and epigenomics in specifying phenotype. Note that a single genome leads to multiple cell-specific epigenomes in different organs and tissues. Modified from Dauncey, 2013.¹

responses and enable nutrition to regulate expression of multiple genes linked with brain function and cognition. It should be stressed that nutrition is one of many environmental epigenetic regulators that play a highly complex interacting role in regulating gene expression (Figure 1). The epigenetic mechanisms involved are discussed in the next section.

Epigenetics and Epigenomics: Definitions, Mechanisms, Regulation

The term epigenetics means “above genetics” and includes mechanisms that alter gene expression without changes in DNA sequence. The epigenome is the overall sum of epigenetic modifications in the cell or tissue. Epigenetic modifications enable cell-specific and age-related differences in gene expression. They are fundamental to normal development and play a major role in health and disease.^{1,4,9,44-46}

Epigenetic mechanisms include DNA methylation, histone modifications, nonprotein-coding RNAs (ncRNAs), RNA editing, telomere control, and chromosomal position effects. Recent advances highlight the variety and complexity of these mechanisms. They often involve chemical modifications to chromatin — the form in which DNA is packaged with histone proteins in the cell nucleus. Induction of chromatin remodelling then results in altered gene expression, e.g., DNA methylation can reduce gene activity, whereas histone acetylation can increase gene activity. Although protein-coding genes are the focus of many functional studies, most of the genome gives rise to ncRNAs that play key roles in development, health, and disease. For example, microRNAs (miRNAs) are a class of short ncRNAs

that can act by translational control of transcription factors or via direct action on chromatin, and thus contribute to nongenetic control of environment-gene interactions.

Epigenetics explains the phenotypic diversity of adult-differentiated cells that arise from identical genomes. A single genome gives rise to multiple cell-specific epigenomes in different organs and tissues. Epigenetic modifications can be transient or stable, and may involve heritable effects between generations. However, epigenetic changes are not necessarily irreversible or one way but can be plastic and reversible. Indeed, reversible epigenetic memories are essential for normal development. In germ cells and early embryos, there is striking genomewide removal and subsequent re-establishment of epigenetic information.⁴⁷

Both intrinsic and extrinsic signals shape the epigenome. In very early development, retinol and ascorbic acid act synergistically to enhance the erasure of epigenetic memory and reprogramming of epiblast stem cells.⁴⁸ Occurrence of errors in the removal of epigenetic memory makes very early prenatal development an especially critical period that can impact long-term health and may extend to future generations. Environmental factors, including nutrition, have a major role in epigenetic regulation throughout life.^{1,3,4,6,12,49-52} The role of nutrition as a neuroepigenetic regulator is discussed in Section 3 of this review.

Neuroepigenetics in Health and Disease

Advances in neuroepigenetics have had a major impact on the understanding of brain function in health and disease.^{1,4,8,53} Epigenetic mechanisms in the brain impact proximally on gene transcription, protein synthesis, and synaptic plasticity and distally on cognitive functions including memory formation and impairment.^{3,54} These mechanisms are essential for the development of specific brain-cell types and regions, with marked influences on early development and age-related change.⁵⁵⁻⁵⁷ Epigenetic mechanisms are implicated in aging effects on brain DNA repair, cognitive decline, dementia, and Alzheimer’s disease.⁵⁸⁻⁶⁰

Numerous disorders of neurodevelopment, mental health, and neurology are linked with interactions between multiple genetic and environmental factors, including nutrition. It is now appreciated that epigenetic mechanisms are involved in many of these responses. Particular interest focuses on the potential roles of nutritional and pharmacological interventions in prevention and treatment of cognitive dysfunction.

3. Nutrition and Cognition: Role of Epigenomics

Nutrition Affects Epigenetic Regulation of Multiple Genes

Many nutritional components act as epigenetic regulators of numerous cell types. These include energy status and micronutrients involved in DNA methylation, e.g., folate, vitamins B6 and B12, choline, and methionine. Nutrition

also significantly affects ncRNAs and their functions in the gene regulation of multiple cells, tissues, and organs.

There is a close link between energy metabolism and epigenetic events, and BDNF plays a key role in mediating the effects of energy status on the brain.^{1,11,12,61} This molecule is involved in prenatal and adult neurogenesis; in the growth, differentiation and metabolism of neurons and synapses; and in synaptic plasticity. Optimal energy status improves mental health and cognition, in part, by epigenetic remodelling of chromatin containing the BDNF gene. This results in BDNF-induced plasticity in the hippocampus, an important region for cognitive function. By contrast, suboptimal energy status including very strenuous exercise or high-energy intake are related to an increase in reactive oxygen species, decrease in BDNF, and impaired cognition. Moreover, omega-3 fatty acids add to the effects of exercise on BDNF gene expression. It is now also apparent that the beneficial effects of high-flavonoid intake on cognition are linked with changes in BDNF.⁶²

Many other signalling molecules also are involved.^{4,20,27,43} For example, IGF1 mediates the actions of BDNF, and the histone deacetylase sirtuin silent information regulator 1 (SIRT1) is modified by energy metabolism. The key actions of glucocorticoids, thyroid hormones, vitamins A and D, polyunsaturated fatty acids, and other ligands of the nuclear receptor super family mediate the effects of nutrition on the brain, in part, via epigenetic events. Their receptors act as transcription factors to affect multiple genes via changes in histone acetylation and chromatin remodelling.

Advances in epigenetics provide the basis for anti-aging nutritional strategies that may prevent or alleviate cognitive decline and dementia.^{2,4,63-67} The limitations and advantages of these strategies are the subject of considerable current interest. Obesity is a major risk factor for cognitive decline, and many age-related changes in gene expression can be partially or completely prevented by a reduction in energy intake combined with adequate nutrient supply. Epigenetic mechanisms, including DNA methylation and histone modifications, are frequently involved in this response. Other anti-aging diets involve supplementation with nutrients in one-carbon metabolism and concomitant provision of methyl groups for DNA methylation. Diet also affects ncRNAs, and vitamin D supplements may have a beneficial effect on Alzheimer's disease, in part, via actions on miRNAs.

Nutrition Affects Cognition Throughout Life Via the Epigenome

Prenatal and postnatal nutrition can cause lifelong, persisting epigenetic changes in the brain.^{2,4,45,68,69} Early childhood malnutrition also is linked with long-lasting effects on DNA methylation patterns in multiple neuropsychiatric genes, including those linked with cognition.⁷⁰ In adolescence, methyl donor deficiency affects epigenetic status and memory in the hippocampus.⁷¹ Moreover, epigenetic responses to nutritional factors persist into old age.

The extent to which neuroepigenetic changes can propagate through the germline and affect neurological function in subsequent generations is of considerable interest. It was originally thought that after the dramatic epigenetic reprogramming that occurs in very early development, DNA methylation marks were permanent. However, it is now clear that they can be modified by environmental factors, emphasizing the importance of nutrition to immediate and long-term health. Not only do reversible epigenetic memories play a key role in development, they also are a mechanism by which nutrition could be used to ameliorate adverse effects of early life environment.

Prenatal environment has a major effect on the newborn's epigenome. Both preterm birth and birthweight-for-gestational age are linked with DNA methylation changes in the newborn and during childhood.^{72,73} Nutritional status of both parents is implicated in this response and may have long-term consequences for cognition.^{42,74,75} A supply of methyl donors is essential for epigenetic regulation of brain function, as is the relative intake of specific nutrients. Maternal folate intake is linked with improved birth outcomes of human infants,⁷⁶ and supplements of docosahexaenoic acid (DHA) have small but relevant effects on DNA methylation in newborns.⁷⁷ Maternal vitamin D status also affects DNA methylation in the young that may persist in multiple generations⁷⁸ and have an impact on brain function and Alzheimer's disease.²

Nutrient-nutrient interactions play a complex and critical role in long-term neuroprotection and cognition via effects on the epigenome.^{4,14,79,80} For example, maternal folate depletion combined with high-fat feeding from weaning affects DNA methylation and DNA repair in the brain of adult mouse offspring. Moreover, maternal imbalance of folate and vitamin B12 causes DNA hypomethylation in neonatal offspring. This is not normalized by postnatal nutrition, whereas prenatal maternal omega-3 fatty acid supplementation can normalize DNA methylation postnatally.

Maternal obesity affects expression of multiple genes in the developing brain and can alter the developmental program of fetal brain cell networks linked with neurological function in later life.⁸¹ Moreover, maternal and paternal obesity before conception are associated with altered DNA methylation in newborns.⁸² Paternal obesity is linked, in part, with altered epigenetic differences in sperm.^{6,74} This has important implications for neurological function. Paternal obesity is an independent risk factor for autism in offspring.⁸³

Conclusions

Advances in understanding nutrition-epigenome interactions are providing insights into mechanisms underlying brain health and disease (Figure 2). Effects can be beneficial or harmful, and consequences can be immediate or long term, with major consequences for cognitive function.

A lifelong approach to nutritional optimization of cognition and prevention of cognitive decline and dementia is of

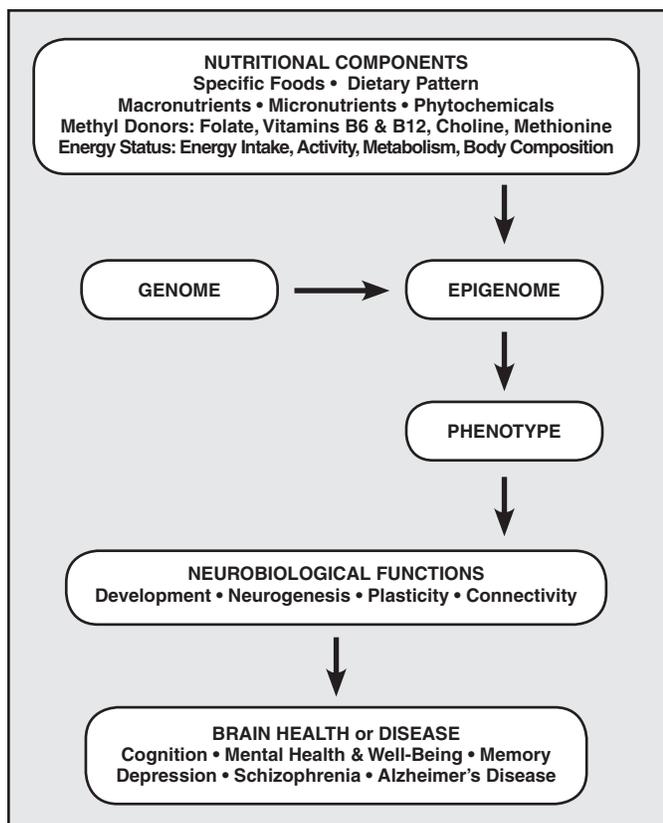


Figure 2. Impact of interactions between nutrition, genome, and epigenome on brain health and disease. Note that epigenome and phenotype are cell-type specific. Modified from Dauncey, 2013, 2015.^{1,4}

critical importance. Understanding that parental, infant, childhood, adolescent, and adult environment profoundly impacts neuroepigenetic mechanisms should help in the development of strategies for optimizing nutritional status of humans and their animal companions throughout life.

Ideally, the focus should be on optimal energy status in relation to overall food intake, activity, and body composition. However, if it is impossible to improve food intake and activity, as may occur in the elderly, then the focus should be on key nutrients linked with epigenomics and cognition, including those involved in DNA methylation, DNA repair, histone modifications, and ncRNA function. Considerably more research is needed in this area, including study of nutrient-nutrient interactions and of individual gene variability that will affect responses to nutrition.

Moreover, significant interactions occur between nutrition and other extrinsic factors such as stress, social interactions, living conditions, temperature, infections, age, stage of development, and gender.^{1,2,4,69,84,85} Understanding how multiple inputs from nutrition, other epigenetic regulators, and genetic variability affect the brain should help in the development of novel preventive and therapeutic approaches to cognitive decline. Future progress will result from increased links between nutrition studies and advances in epigenomics, genomics, and neuroscience.^{1,2,7,9,86-89}

The companion animal-human bond is highly relevant to a One Health strategy for understanding links between nutrition, epigenomics, and cognition. There are clear advantages from studies of pets and their owners. For example, the relationship between obesity in people and their pet animals is closer and more complex than often acknowledged.^{15,17,90,91} A fundamental understanding of epigenetic mechanisms involved in responses to nutrition is essential for future advances. Moreover, a two-way scientific approach linking humans and companion animals is critically important in relation to optimal brain health, mental well-being, and prevention/alleviation of devastating conditions such as cognitive decline and dementia.

Acknowledgements

This review is based on a lecture to be presented at the Nestlé Purina Companion Animal Nutrition (CAN) Summit, May 4-6, 2017, Vancouver, British Columbia, Canada, on The Nexus of Pet and Human Nutrition: Focus on Cognition and Microbiome, during the session on Brain Development and Cognition. I thank the organizers, especially Steven Hannah, Director of Molecular Nutrition, Nestlé Research Center, St. Louis, USA, for inviting me to speak at this conference. The author is a Fellow of Wolfson College, University of Cambridge, and thanks many colleagues worldwide for valuable discussions and the computing and library staff at the University of Cambridge for their expert advice.

References

- Dauncey MJ. Genomic and Epigenomic Insights into Nutrition and Brain Disorders. *Nutrients*. 2013;5:887-914.
- Dauncey MJ. Nutrition, the Brain and Cognitive Decline: Insights from Epigenetics. *Eur J Clin Nutr*. 2014;68:1179-1185.
- Saab BJ, Mansuy IM. Neuroepigenetics of Memory Formation and Impairment: The Role of microRNAs. *Neuropharmacology*. 2014;80C:61-69.
- Dauncey MJ. Nutrition, Genes, and Neuroscience: Implications for Development, Health, and Disease. In: *Diet and Exercise in Cognitive Function and Neurological Diseases*. Farooqui T, Farooqui AA (eds). Hoboken, NJ: Wiley Global Education. 2015;1:1-13.
- Angermueller C, Clark SJ, Lee HJ, et al. Parallel Single-Cell Sequencing Links Transcriptional and Epigenetic Heterogeneity. *Nat Methods*. 2016;13:229-232.
- Schagdarsurengin U, Steger K. Epigenetics in Male Reproduction: Effect of Paternal Diet on Sperm Quality and Offspring Health. *Nat Rev Urol*. 2016;13:584-595.

7. Van Den Heuvel MI, Thomason ME. Functional Connectivity of the Human Brain *in Utero*. *Trends Cogn Sci*. 2016;20:931-939.
8. Delgado-Morales R, Esteller M. Opening Up the DNA Methylome of Dementia. *Mol Psychiatr*. 2017;00:1-12.
9. Rodger EJ, Chatterjee A. The Epigenomic Basis of Common Diseases. *Clin Epigenetics*. 2017;9:5.
10. Dauncey MJ. New Insights into Nutrition and Cognitive Neuroscience. *Proc Nutr Soc*. 2009;68:408-415.
11. Gomez-Pinilla F. The Combined Effects of Exercise and Foods in Preventing Neurological and Cognitive Disorders. *Prev Med*. 2011;52(Suppl 1):S75-S80.
12. Dauncey MJ. Recent Advances in Nutrition, Genes and Brain Health. *Proc Nutr Soc*. 2012;71:581-591.
13. Hardman RJ, Kennedy G, Macpherson H, et al. Adherence to a Mediterranean-Style Diet and Effects on Cognition in Adults: A Qualitative Evaluation and Systematic Review of Longitudinal and Prospective Trials. *Front Nutr*. 2016;3:22.
14. Rathod R, Kale A, Joshi S. Novel Insights into the Effect of Vitamin B12 and Omega-3 Fatty Acids on Brain Function. *J Biomed Sci*. 2016;23:17.
15. Day MJ. One Health: The Small Animal Dimension. *Vet Rec*. 2010;167:847-849.
16. Ducrot C, Bed'hom B, Beringue V, et al. Issues and Special Features of Animal Health Research. *Vet Res*. 2011;42:96.
17. Sandoe P, Palmer C, Corr S, et al. Canine and Feline Obesity: A One Health Perspective. *Vet Rec*. 2014;175:610-616.
18. Youssef SA, Capucchio MT, Rofina JE, et al. Pathology of the Aging Brain in Domestic and Laboratory Animals, and Animal Models of Human Neurodegenerative Diseases. *Vet Pathol*. 2016;53:327-348.
19. Dauncey MJ. From Whole Body to Molecule: An Integrated Approach to the Regulation of Metabolism and Growth. *Thermochim Acta*. 1995;250:305-318.
20. Dauncey MJ, White P, Burton KA, et al. Nutrition-Hormone Receptor-Gene Interactions: Implications for Development and Disease. *Proc Nutr Soc*. 2001;60:63-72.
21. Dauncey MJ, Katsumata M, White P. Nutrition, Hormone Receptor Expression and Gene Interactions: Implications for Development and Disease. In: *Muscle Development of Livestock Animals: Physiology, Genetic and Meat Quality*. Te Pas MFW, Everts ME, Haagsman HP (eds). Wallingford, Oxfordshire, UK: CABI International. 2004;5:103-124.
22. Vitale Shreve KR, Udell MA. What's Inside Your Cat's Head? A Review of Cat (*Felis silvestris catus*) Cognition Research Past, Present and Future. *Anim Cogn*. 2015;18:1195-1206.
23. Milgram B. Nutritional Modulation of Cognitive Structure in the Dog. *Proc Companion Animal Nutrition Summit*. Pet Nutrition: Beyond Essential. Nestlé Purina PetCare. 2016:95-101.
24. Laflamme DP. Nutritional Care for Aging Cats and Dogs. *Vet Clin N Am-Small*. 2012;42:769-791.
25. Roberson ED, Defazio RA, Barnes CA, et al. Challenges and Opportunities for Characterizing Cognitive Aging Across Species. *Front Aging Neurosci*. 2012;4:6.
26. Dauncey MJ, Bicknell RJ. Nutrition and Neurodevelopment: Mechanisms of Developmental Dysfunction and Disease in Later Life. *Nutr Res Rev*. 1999;12:231-253.
27. Yoon H, Kleven A, Paulsen A, et al. Interplay Between Exercise and Dietary Fat Modulates Myelinogenesis in the Central Nervous System. *Biochim Biophys Acta*. 2016;1862:545-555.
28. Cisternas P, Salazar P, Serrano FG, et al. Fructose Consumption Reduces Hippocampal Synaptic Plasticity Underlying Cognitive Performance. *Biochim Biophys Acta*. 2015;1852:2379-2390.
29. Warthon-Medina M, Moran VH, Stammers AL, et al. Zinc Intake, Status and Indices of Cognitive Function in Adults and Children: A Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis. *Eur J Clin Nutr*. 2015;69:649-661.
30. Jenkins TA, Nguyen JC, Polglaze KE, et al. Influence of Tryptophan and Serotonin on Mood and Cognition with a Possible Role of the Gut-Brain Axis. *Nutrients*. 2016;8(1):56.
31. Knight A, Bryan J, Wilson C, et al. The Mediterranean Diet and Cognitive Function Among Healthy Older Adults in a 6-Month Randomised Controlled Trial: The MedLey Study. *Nutrients*. 2016;8(9):579.
32. Kobe T, Witte AV, Schnelle A, et al. Vitamin B-12 Concentration, Memory Performance, and Hippocampal Structure in Patients with Mild Cognitive Impairment. *Am J Clin Nutr*. 2016;103:1045-1054.
33. McGowan Ragen TS. 'Oiling the Brain' or 'Cultivating the Gut': Impact of Diet on Anxious Behavior in Dogs. *Proc Companion Animal Nutrition Summit*. Pet Nutrition: Beyond Essential. Nestlé Purina PetCare. 2016:87-93.

34. Pallister T, Spector TD. Food: A New Form of Personalised (Gut Microbiome) Medicine for Chronic Diseases? *J R Soc Med*. 2016;109:331-336.
35. Vauzour D, Camprubi-Robles M, Miquel-Kergoat S, et al. Nutrition for the Ageing Brain: Towards Evidence for an Optimal Diet. *Ageing Res Rev*. 2016(Oct 3):1-19.
36. Weiser MJ, Butt CM, Mohajeri MH. Docosahexaenoic Acid and Cognition Throughout the Lifespan. *Nutrients*. 2016;8:99.
37. Zamroziewicz MK, Zwillig CE, Barbey AK. Inferior Prefrontal Cortex Mediates the Relationship Between Phosphatidylcholine and Executive Functions in Healthy, Older Adults. *Front Aging Neurosci*. 2016;8:226.
38. Sandhu KV, Sherwin E, Schellekens H, et al. Feeding the Microbiota-Gut-Brain Axis: Diet, Microbiome, and Neuropsychiatry. *Transl Res*. 2017;179:223-244.
39. Dauncey MJ. From Early Nutrition and Later Development ... to Underlying Mechanisms and Optimal Health. *Brit J Nutr*. 1997;78(Suppl 2):S113-S123.
40. McVey Neufeld KA, Luczynski P, Dinan TG, et al. Reframing the Teenage Wasteland: Adolescent Microbiota-Gut-Brain Axis. *Can J Psychiat*. 2016;61:214-221.
41. Innis SM. Impact of Maternal Diet on Human Milk Composition and Neurological Development of Infants. *Am J Clin Nutr*. 2014;99:734S-741S.
42. Romanus S, Neven P, Soubry A. Extending the Developmental Origins of Health and Disease Theory: Does Paternal Diet Contribute to Breast Cancer Risk in Daughters? *Breast Cancer Res*. 2016;18:103.
43. Dauncey MJ, White P. Nutrition and Cell Communication: Insulin Signalling in Development, Health and Disease. *Rec Res Dev Nutr*. 2004;6:49-81.
44. Kim-Ha J, Kim YJ. Age-Related Epigenetic Regulation in the Brain and Its Role in Neuronal Diseases. *BMB Rep*. 2016;49:671-680.
45. Szutorisz H, Hurd YL. Feeding the Developing Brain: The Persistent Epigenetic Effects of Early Life Malnutrition. *Biol Psychiat*. 2016;80:730-732.
46. Wilczynska A, Bushell M. The Complexity of miRNA-Mediated Repression. *Cell Death Differ*. 2015;22:22-33.
47. Von Meyenn F, Berrens RV, Andrews S, et al. Comparative Principles of DNA Methylation Reprogramming During Human and Mouse *in Vitro* Primordial Germ Cell Specification. *Dev Cell*. 2016;39:104-115.
48. Hore TA, Von Meyenn F, Ravichandran M, et al. Retinol and Ascorbate Drive Erasure of Epigenetic Memory and Enhance Reprogramming to Naive Pluripotency by Complementary Mechanisms. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA*. 2016;113:12202-12207.
49. Lo CL, Zhou FC. Environmental Alterations of Epigenetics Prior to the Birth. *Int Rev Neurobiol*. 2014;115:1-49.
50. Nolte-t Hoen EN, Van Rooij E, Bushell M, et al. The Role of microRNA in Nutritional Control. *J Intern Med*. 2015;278:99-109.
51. Doherty TS, Roth TL. Insight from Animal Models of Environmentally Driven Epigenetic Changes in the Developing and Adult Brain. *Dev Psychopathol*. 2016;28:1229-1243.
52. Fontelles CC, Carney E, Clarke J, et al. Paternal Overweight Is Associated with Increased Breast Cancer Risk in Daughters in a Mouse Model. *Sci Rep*. 2016;6:28602.
53. Lardenoije R, Iatrou A, Kenis G, et al. The Epigenetics of Aging and Neurodegeneration. *Prog Neurobiol*. 2015;131:21-64.
54. Grigorenko EL, Kornilov SA, Naumova OY. Epigenetic Regulation of Cognition: A Circumscribed Review of the Field. *Dev Psychopathol*. 2016;28:1285-1304.
55. Li G, Zhang W, Baker MS, et al. Major Epigenetic Development Distinguishing Neuronal and Non-Neuronal Cells Occurs Postnatally in the Murine Hypothalamus. *Hum Mol Genet*. 2014;23(6):1579-1590.
56. Huffman K. The Developing, Aging Neocortex: How Genetics and Epigenetics Influence Early Developmental Patterning and Age-Related Change. *Front Genet*. 2012;3:212.
57. Azpurua J, Eaton BA. Neuronal Epigenetics and the Aging Synapse. *Front Cell Neurosci*. 2015;9:208.
58. Woldemichael BT, Mansuy IM. Micro-RNAs in Cognition and Cognitive Disorders: Potential for Novel Biomarkers and Therapeutics. *Biochem Pharmacol*. 2016;104:1-7.
59. Hernandez-Rapp J, Rainone S, Hebert SS. MicroRNAs Underlying Memory Deficits in Neurodegenerative Disorders. *Prog Neuropsychopharmacol Biol Psychiatry*. 2017;73:79-86.

60. Langie SA, Cameron KM, Ficz G, et al. The Ageing Brain: Effects on DNA Repair and DNA Methylation in Mice. *Genes* (Basel.) 2017;8.
61. Gomez-Pinilla F, Tyagi E. Diet and Cognition: Interplay Between Cell Metabolism and Neuronal Plasticity. *Curr Opin Clin Nutr.* 2013;16:726-733.
62. Neshatdoust S, Saunders C, Castle SM, et al. High-Flavonoid Intake Induces Cognitive Improvements Linked to Changes in Serum Brain-Derived Neurotrophic Factor: Two Randomised, Controlled Trials. *Nutr Healthy Aging.* 2016;4:81-93.
63. Chouliaras L, Van Den Hove DL, Kenis G, et al. Age-Related Increase in Levels of 5-Hydroxymethylcytosine in Mouse Hippocampus Is Prevented by Caloric Restriction. *Curr Alzheimer Res.* 2012;9:536-544.
64. Kalani A, Kamat PK, Givvimani S, et al. Nutri-Epigenetics Ameliorates Blood-Brain Barrier Damage and Neurodegeneration in Hyperhomocysteinemia: Role of Folic Acid. *J Mol Neurosci.* 2014;52(2):202-215.
65. Lu'o'ng KV, Nguyen LT. The Role of Vitamin D in Alzheimer's Disease: Possible Genetic and Cell Signaling Mechanisms. *Am J Alzheimers Dis.* 2013;28:126-136.
66. Bacalini MG, Friso S, Olivieri F, et al. Present and Future of Anti-Ageing Epigenetic Diets. *Mech Ageing Dev.* 2014;136-137:101-115.
67. Kennedy G, Hardman RJ, Macpherson H, et al. How Does Exercise Reduce the Rate of Age-Associated Cognitive Decline? A Review of Potential Mechanisms. *J Alzheimers Dis.* 2017; 55:1-18.
68. Bolton JL, Bilbo SD. Developmental Programming of Brain and Behavior by Perinatal Diet: Focus on Inflammatory Mechanisms. *Dialogues Clin Neurosci.* 2014;16:307-320.
69. Bock J, Wainstock T, Braun K, et al. Stress in Utero: Prenatal Programming of Brain Plasticity and Cognition. *Biol Psychiatry.* 2015;78:315-326.
70. Peter CJ, Fischer LK, Kundakovic M, et al. DNA Methylation Signatures of Early Childhood Malnutrition Associated with Impairments in Attention and Cognition. *Biol Psychiatry.* 2016;80:765-774.
71. Tomizawa H, Matsuzawa D, Ishii D, et al. Methyl-Donor Deficiency in Adolescence Affects Memory and Epigenetic Status in the Mouse Hippocampus. *Genes Brain Behav.* 2015;14:301-309.
72. Sparrow S, Manning JR, Cartier J, et al. Epigenomic Profiling of Preterm Infants Reveals DNA Methylation Differences at Sites Associated with Neural Function. *Transl Psychiatry.* 2016;6:e716.
73. Agha G, Hajj H, Rifas-Shiman SL, et al. Birth Weight-for-Gestational Age Is Associated with DNA Methylation at Birth and in Childhood. *Clin Epigenetics.* 2016;8:118.
74. Braun K, Champagne FA. Paternal Influences on Offspring Development: Behavioural and Epigenetic Pathways. *J Neuroendocrinol.* 2014;26:697-706.
75. Pauwels S, Ghosh M, Duca RC, et al. Maternal Intake of Methyl-Group Donors Affects DNA Methylation of Metabolic Genes in Infants. *Clin Epigenetics.* 2017;9:16.
76. Weber D, Stuetz W, Bernhard W, et al. 5-Methyltetrahydrofolate and Thiamine Diphosphate in Cord-Blood Erythrocytes of Preterm Versus Term Newborns. *Eur J Clin Nutr.* 2013;67:1029-1035.
77. Van Dijk SJ, Zhou J, Peters TJ, et al. Effect of Prenatal DHA Supplementation on the Infant Epigenome: Results from a Randomized Controlled Trial. *Clin Epigenetics.* 2016; 8:114.
78. Xue J, Schoenrock SA, Valdar W, et al. Maternal Vitamin D Depletion Alters DNA Methylation at Imprinted Loci in Multiple Generations. *Clin Epigenetics.* 2016;8:107.
79. Langie SA, Achterfeldt S, Gorniak JP, et al. Maternal Folate Depletion and High-Fat Feeding from Weaning Affects DNA Methylation and DNA Repair in Brain of Adult Offspring. *FASEB J.* 2013;27:3323-3334.
80. Rathod R, Khaire A, Kemse N, et al. Maternal Omega-3 Fatty Acid Supplementation on Vitamin B12 Rich Diet Improves Brain Omega-3 Fatty Acids, Neurotrophins and Cognition in the Wistar Rat Offspring. *Brain Dev.* 2014;36: 853-863.
81. Stachowiak EK, Oommen S, Vasu VT, et al. Maternal Obesity Affects Gene Expression and Cellular Development in Fetal Brains. *Nutr Neurosci.* 2013;16:96-103.
82. Soubry A, Murphy SK, Wang F, et al. Newborns of Obese Parents Have Altered DNA Methylation Patterns at Imprinted Genes. *Int J Obesity.* 2013;1-8.
83. Suren P, Gunnes N, Roth C, et al. Parental Obesity and Risk of Autism Spectrum Disorder. *Pediatrics.* 2014;133: e1128-e1138.

84. Stella JL, Croney CC. Environmental Aspects of Domestic Cat Care and Management: Implications for Cat Welfare. *Scientific World Journal*. 2016;6296315:1.
85. Bakusic J, Schaufeli W, Claes S, et al. Stress, Burnout and Depression: A Systematic Review on DNA Methylation Mechanisms. *J Psychosom Res*. 2017;92:34-44.
86. Clark SJ, Lee HJ, Smallwood SA, et al. Single-Cell Epigenomics: Powerful New Methods for Understanding Gene Regulation and Cell Identity. *Genome Biol*. 2016;17:72.
87. Meng Q, Ying Z, Noble E, et al. Systems Nutrigenomics Reveals Brain Gene Networks Linking Metabolic and Brain Disorders. *E Bio Medicine*. 2016;7:157-166.
88. Sethna V, Pote I, Wang S, et al. Mother-Infant Interactions and Regional Brain Volumes in Infancy: An MRI Study. *Brain Struct Funct*. 2016. doi:10.1007/s00429-016-1347-1
89. Thomas DG, Bermingham EN, Rutherford-Markwick KJ. Defining Essential (or Optimal) Nutrition in Cats and Dogs. *Proc Companion Animal Nutrition Summit*. Pet Nutrition: Beyond Essential. Nestlé Purina PetCare. 2016:1-6.
90. Butterwick RF. Impact of Nutrition on Ageing the Process. Bridging the Gap: The Animal Perspective. *Brit J Nutr*. 2015; 113(Suppl):S23-S25.
91. Raffan E, Dennis RJ, O'Donovan CJ, et al. A Deletion in the Canine POMC Gene Is Associated with Weight and Appetite in Obesity-Prone Labrador Retriever Dogs. *Cell Metab*. 2016;23:893-900.