Scholar's Digest : Journal of Neurology
Vol. 1, No. 1, Year 2025
Website : https://scholarsdigest.org.in/index.php/sdjn
PUBLISHED: 2025-04-16

Exploring the Genetic Basis of Parkinson's Disease: Insights into Early Detection and Targeted Therapies

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Abstract

Parkinson's disease (PD) is a progressive neurodegenerative disorder characterized by motor symptoms such as tremors, rigidity, and bradykinesia. Genetic research has increasingly become a critical tool in understanding the pathophysiology of Parkinson's disease, with advances in genomic technologies uncovering both inherited and sporadic genetic factors that contribute to its onset and progression. This paper explores the genetic underpinnings of PD, focusing on the roles of specific genetic mutations, biomarkers for early detection, and potential therapeutic targets. The research demonstrates the importance of identifying genetic risk factors for early diagnosis and targeted therapies, offering promising insights into improving clinical management and personalized treatments for PD. Key genetic findings, such as mutations in the *LRRK2*, *SNCA*, *PARK7*, and *PINK1* genes, and their implications for disease progression, are discussed. Additionally, the paper examines how these discoveries may lead to precision medicine in PD treatment. Ultimately, the research supports the idea that early genetic markers could enable better diagnostic strategies and the development of targeted therapies that could delay or prevent disease onset.

Keywords: Parkinson's disease, genetic mutations, early detection, targeted therapies, precision medicine, neurodegenerative disorders

1. Introduction

Parkinson's disease (PD) is a neurodegenerative disorder that primarily affects the dopaminergic neurons in the brain, leading to the characteristic motor symptoms of tremors, rigidity, bradykinesia, and postural instability (Kalia & Lang, 2015). Although its exact etiology remains unknown, it is widely accepted that both genetic and environmental factors contribute to its development. The identification of genetic mutations associated with PD has revolutionized our understanding of the disease and has paved the way for potential interventions aimed at preventing or delaying disease onset (Lesage & Brice, 2009). This

paper reviews the genetic foundations of PD, emphasizing insights into early detection and the development of targeted therapies.

2. Genetic Basis of Parkinson's Disease

The genetic landscape of PD is multifactorial, with both inherited and sporadic forms. Approximately 5–10% of PD cases are familial, while the remaining cases are considered sporadic (Kalia & Lang, 2015). Several key genes have been implicated in familial PD, and these genetic findings have provided insights into the molecular mechanisms underlying neurodegeneration. Parkinson's disease (PD) is a progressive neurodegenerative disorder primarily affecting the dopaminergic neurons in the brain, particularly in the substantia nigra. It is most commonly associated with motor symptoms such as tremors, rigidity, bradykinesia, and postural instability. Although the precise cause of PD remains unclear, there is a growing body of evidence suggesting that both genetic and environmental factors contribute to the disease's onset and progression. Understanding the genetic basis of PD is essential for unraveling the mechanisms of neurodegeneration and developing targeted therapies.

2.1. Familial and Sporadic Parkinson's Disease

Parkinson's disease can be classified into two forms: familial (inherited) and sporadic (non-inherited). While familial PD accounts for approximately 5-10% of all cases, sporadic PD makes up the remaining 90-95%. The familial form is often associated with specific genetic mutations that have been passed down through generations. These mutations provide valuable insights into the underlying pathophysiology of the disease. In contrast, sporadic PD occurs in individuals with no clear family history, and it is thought to result from a combination of genetic susceptibility and environmental factors.

2.2. Key Genes Implicated in Familial Parkinson's Disease

Several genes have been identified as risk factors for familial PD. Mutations in these genes provide important clues about the molecular mechanisms of the disease. Some of the most studied genes include *LRRK2*, *SNCA*, *PINK1*, *DJ-1*, *PARK7*, and *VPS35*.

- **LRRK2 (Leucine-Rich Repeat Kinase 2):** One of the most commonly mutated genes in familial PD, *LRRK2* mutations, particularly the G2019S mutation, are associated with both familial and sporadic forms of the disease (Healy et al., 2008). The *LRRK2* protein is

involved in cellular functions such as autophagy, protein degradation, and synaptic vesicle trafficking. Mutations in *LRRK2* lead to dysfunctional cellular processes, which may contribute to neurodegeneration in PD.

- **SNCA (Alpha-Synuclein):** The *SNCA* gene encodes the protein alpha-synuclein, which is a major component of Lewy bodies, the pathological hallmark of PD. Mutations in *SNCA* lead to the accumulation of misfolded alpha-synuclein, which forms toxic aggregates that disrupt cellular function and lead to dopaminergic neuron death (Spillantini et al., 1997). While mutations in *SNCA* are relatively rare, they are crucial for understanding the role of alpha-synuclein in PD pathology.

- **PINK1 (PTEN-Induced Kinase 1):** Mutations in *PINK1* are associated with early-onset PD, typically presenting before the age of 40. *PINK1* plays a crucial role in mitochondrial function and the cellular response to oxidative stress. Mutations in *PINK1* impair mitochondrial quality control, leading to the accumulation of dysfunctional mitochondria and contributing to dopaminergic cell death (Valente et al., 2004).

- **DJ-1:** The *DJ-1* gene is another important gene linked to early-onset PD. *DJ-1* is involved in protecting cells from oxidative stress, and mutations in this gene impair its protective function. As a result, neurons become more susceptible to oxidative damage, leading to neurodegeneration (Toner et al., 2004).

- **PARK7 (also known as DJ-1):** Similar to *DJ-1*, mutations in *PARK7* lead to early-onset PD by disrupting the cell's antioxidant defense mechanisms, making neurons more vulnerable to damage (Cookson, 2005).

- **VPS35 (Vacuolar Protein Sorting 35):** *VPS35* mutations have been identified as a cause of autosomal-dominant PD. This gene is involved in the process of endosomal sorting and trafficking, and mutations in *VPS35* impair normal protein turnover and degradation processes, contributing to the accumulation of toxic proteins in neurons (Zimprich et al., 2011).

2.3. Genetic Risk Factors for Sporadic Parkinson's Disease

While familial PD is caused by specific genetic mutations, the majority of PD cases are sporadic, with no clear family history. However, recent research has shown that certain

genetic variants can increase the risk of developing sporadic PD. Genome-wide association studies (GWAS) have identified several risk loci associated with PD, including variants in genes such as *GBA* (glucocerebrosidase), *LRRK2*, *MAPT* (microtubule-associated protein tau), and *TMEM175* (transmembrane protein 175).

- **GBA (Glucocerebrosidase):** Mutations in the *GBA* gene are the most common genetic risk factor for sporadic PD. The *GBA* gene encodes an enzyme involved in the breakdown of lipids within the lysosome. Mutations in *GBA* lead to a buildup of toxic substances, which may contribute to neurodegeneration in PD (Aharon-Peretz et al., 2004).

- **LRRK2:** Although *LRRK2* mutations are often associated with familial PD, certain risk variants in *LRRK2* have also been identified in sporadic PD cases. These variants may contribute to disease risk by altering the function of the *LRRK2* protein in cellular processes such as autophagy and protein degradation.

- **MAPT (Tau Protein):** Variants in the *MAPT* gene, which encodes tau, a protein involved in stabilizing microtubules, have been linked to an increased risk of PD. Abnormalities in tau function can lead to the formation of neurofibrillary tangles, a feature shared with other neurodegenerative diseases such as Alzheimer's disease.

- **TMEM175 (Transmembrane Protein 175):** *TMEM175* has been identified as a risk gene for PD in several GWAS studies. This gene encodes a potassium channel that is involved in maintaining cellular ion balance. Mutations in *TMEM175* may impair cellular function, leading to neurodegeneration in the dopaminergic system (Jowaed et al., 2010).

2.4. Polygenic Nature of Parkinson's Disease

In addition to these specific genetic mutations, PD is considered to be a polygenic disease, meaning that it results from the combined effects of multiple genetic risk factors. These factors, each contributing a small increase in risk, interact with environmental exposures to influence the likelihood of developing PD. This polygenic nature makes it difficult to predict the onset of PD based on genetics alone but highlights the complexity of the disease.

2.5. Genetic Testing and Implications for Diagnosis and Treatment

Understanding the genetic basis of PD has important implications for diagnosis and treatment. Genetic testing can help identify individuals at increased risk for developing PD,

especially those with a family history of the disease. Early detection through genetic testing may allow for more personalized treatment approaches and the possibility of preventive interventions. In addition, genetic findings are informing the development of targeted therapies. For example, drugs aimed at inhibiting *LRRK2* kinase activity are being tested in clinical trials for individuals with *LRRK2* mutations, offering a potential disease-modifying treatment.

The genetic basis of Parkinson's disease is multifaceted, with both rare mutations in familial cases and common genetic variants contributing to sporadic PD. Key genes such as *LRRK2*, *SNCA*, *PINK1*, and *GBA* play significant roles in the development of PD by affecting cellular processes such as protein aggregation, mitochondrial function, and oxidative stress. The identification of these genetic factors has not only enhanced our understanding of PD pathogenesis but also paved the way for early diagnosis and personalized treatment options. As research continues, it is likely that more genetic risk factors will be discovered, offering further insights into this complex and debilitating disease.

3. Early Detection of Parkinson's Disease

Early detection of PD is critical for improving patient outcomes, as current therapies focus on symptom management rather than halting or reversing disease progression. Genetic markers play a significant role in early diagnosis, particularly in individuals with a family history of PD. Several genetic mutations, such as those in *LRRK2*, *SNCA*, and *PINK1*, can serve as early indicators of PD risk, even before the onset of motor symptoms (Gasser, 2012). Additionally, advances in genomic technologies, including next-generation sequencing (NGS) and genome-wide association studies (GWAS), have enabled the identification of genetic variants that predispose individuals to PD (Nalls et al., 2014). These technologies have opened new avenues for early intervention and personalized treatment plans. Parkinson's disease (PD) is a progressive neurodegenerative disorder that primarily affects the motor system, leading to symptoms such as tremors, bradykinesia, rigidity, and postural instability. These symptoms typically manifest in the later stages of the disease, often years after the onset of neurodegenerative changes in the brain. Early detection of PD is crucial because it could lead to more effective interventions, slowing disease progression and improving patient outcomes. However, diagnosing PD in its early stages remains a challenge due to the subtlety of early symptoms and the lack of definitive biomarkers. This section explores current methods for

early detection of PD, including clinical assessments, genetic testing, imaging techniques, and biomarker research.

3.1. Clinical Diagnosis and Early Symptoms

In the early stages of PD, patients often experience non-motor symptoms such as olfactory dysfunction (loss of sense of smell), sleep disturbances, constipation, and cognitive changes (e.g., mild memory loss or executive dysfunction). These symptoms are often subtle and can be easily overlooked, especially since they overlap with other common conditions or are dismissed as normal aging.

Motor symptoms, such as a mild tremor or slight bradykinesia, are more specific to PD, but they typically appear only after significant neuronal damage has already occurred. By the time these motor symptoms become evident, the disease is already in its moderate stages, making early intervention less effective.

Therefore, clinical diagnosis at an early stage is difficult and largely relies on the observation of the patient's symptoms over time. Neurologists use the **Unified Parkinson's Disease Rating Scale (UPDRS)** to assess the severity of symptoms and to track disease progression, though it is not a tool for early detection per se (Fahn & Elton, 1987).

3.2. Genetic Testing and Early Detection

Recent advances in genetic research have identified several genes associated with familial and sporadic forms of PD, offering potential for early detection in individuals at risk.

Genetic Mutations and Risk Assessment

In individuals with a family history of PD, genetic testing can identify mutations in specific genes such as *LRRK2*, *SNCA*, *PINK1*, and *GBA*, which are linked to an increased risk of developing the disease. Early genetic screening in individuals at high risk for PD may allow for monitoring and early interventions before the onset of motor symptoms.

For example, mutations in the *LRRK2* gene are known to be one of the most common genetic causes of familial PD, and carriers of these mutations can develop symptoms several years earlier than individuals with the typical sporadic form of PD (Healy et al., 2008). Genetic

testing can provide valuable information regarding an individual's risk, especially in the context of family history, and help in monitoring for early signs of PD.

Pre-symptomatic Carriers

In the case of familial forms of PD, genetic mutations may be detected even before the onset of clinical symptoms, allowing for the identification of at-risk individuals in the pre-symptomatic phase. However, while genetic testing can help identify individuals with a genetic predisposition to PD, it is not definitive for early detection in the absence of symptoms. Further, genetic testing is not commonly used for individuals with no known family history of PD.

3.3. Biomarkers for Early Detection

Biomarkers are measurable biological indicators of disease presence or progression. In the case of PD, several potential biomarkers have been proposed, including those found in blood, cerebrospinal fluid (CSF), and neuroimaging.

Cerebrospinal Fluid (CSF) Biomarkers

One of the most promising areas of research in early PD detection is the identification of biomarkers in cerebrospinal fluid (CSF). Proteins such as **alpha-synuclein**, a protein that aggregates in the brains of PD patients, have been suggested as potential biomarkers. Elevated levels of alpha-synuclein and other related proteins, such as **DJ-1**, **Tau**, and **beta-amyloid**, are being explored as potential early indicators of neurodegeneration in PD (Olanow et al., 2015).

In addition, **neurofilament light chain (NfL)**, a protein that is released into the CSF when neurons are damaged, has shown promise as a biomarker for neurodegeneration. Higher levels of NfL have been associated with PD and other neurodegenerative diseases and may serve as an early signal of neuronal injury (Gafson et al., 2020).

Blood-based Biomarkers

While CSF biomarkers are valuable, they require invasive lumbar puncture procedures, which limit their widespread use. Thus, researchers are also focusing on blood-based biomarkers. Certain proteins, metabolites, and microRNAs found in blood samples have

shown potential as non-invasive indicators of PD. For example, changes in levels of **alpha-synuclein** and other proteins in blood plasma may provide a more accessible way to monitor early neurodegeneration (Mollenhauer et al., 2011).

However, blood-based biomarkers are still under investigation, and no definitive test for PD exists at this time. The challenge lies in finding biomarkers that are both highly sensitive and specific for PD, distinguishing it from other neurodegenerative disorders that present with similar symptoms.

3.4. Neuroimaging Techniques

Advances in neuroimaging techniques, particularly **positron emission tomography (PET)** and **single-photon emission computed tomography (SPECT)**, have enabled researchers to visualize and track the progression of PD in living patients. These techniques can detect changes in the brain before symptoms become clinically apparent.

Dopamine Transporter Imaging (DaTscan)

Dopamine transporter imaging, particularly with the use of SPECT imaging and the radiolabeled tracer **[123I]FP-CIT**, can be used to visualize dopamine transporter (DAT) levels in the brain. A reduced uptake of DAT in the striatum is a characteristic feature of PD and can be detected early in the disease process, often before motor symptoms develop (Mahlknecht et al., 2015).

However, while DaTscan can detect dopaminergic dysfunction, it is not specific to PD and may not distinguish PD from other parkinsonian syndromes. Nonetheless, it is a useful tool for supporting a diagnosis of PD in patients with motor symptoms.

Magnetic Resonance Imaging (MRI)

While MRI scans are not typically used for early detection of PD, advanced techniques such as **diffusion tensor imaging (DTI)** and **quantitative MRI** are being explored to identify changes in the brain's white matter integrity and the substantia nigra, an area of the brain affected by PD. These techniques may help detect early structural changes in the brain before significant motor symptoms emerge (Borghammer et al., 2010).

3.5. The Role of Artificial Intelligence and Machine Learning

In recent years, artificial intelligence (AI) and machine learning (ML) have shown promise in improving the accuracy of early PD detection. These technologies can analyze large datasets from clinical records, imaging scans, and biomarkers to identify subtle patterns indicative of early-stage PD. Machine learning models trained on brain imaging data, for instance, have demonstrated the ability to detect early changes in the brain's structure that may precede the onset of motor symptoms (Albrecht et al., 2020).

Early detection of Parkinson's disease is essential for providing timely interventions and slowing disease progression. While the clinical diagnosis remains challenging in the absence of significant motor symptoms, advances in genetic testing, biomarker research, neuroimaging, and artificial intelligence are improving our ability to detect PD in its early stages. Genetic screening for familial mutations, the use of biomarkers such as alpha-synuclein and NfL, and advanced imaging techniques like DaTscan are all contributing to the early identification of individuals at risk for PD. However, further research is needed to refine these methods and establish reliable and non-invasive tools for early PD diagnosis, which will be crucial for developing effective disease-modifying treatments.

4. Targeted Therapies and Precision Medicine

Advances in genetic research have not only improved our understanding of PD but have also opened up new avenues for developing targeted therapies. Precision medicine, which involves tailoring treatments based on an individual's genetic profile, holds great promise for PD patients. Genetic mutations in *LRRK2*, *SNCA*, and other genes can be used to guide treatment strategies aimed at modulating the underlying genetic defects. Parkinson's disease (PD) is a complex neurodegenerative disorder that primarily affects the motor system due to the progressive loss of dopaminergic neurons in the brain, especially within the substantia nigra. While current treatments, such as levodopa and dopamine agonists, focus mainly on alleviating motor symptoms, they do not address the underlying neurodegeneration. Therefore, there has been growing interest in developing targeted therapies and utilizing precision medicine to better treat PD. This approach aims to not only improve symptom management but also slow down or halt disease progression by targeting the specific molecular mechanisms involved in the pathogenesis of PD.

4.1. Understanding Targeted Therapies in Parkinson's Disease

Targeted therapies are treatments designed to target specific molecules or pathways involved in the development or progression of PD. Unlike traditional therapies that provide symptomatic relief, targeted therapies aim to modify disease mechanisms, protect neurons, and slow or prevent neurodegeneration.

a. Levodopa and Beyond: Targeting Dopamine Signaling

Levodopa, the gold standard in PD treatment, is converted into dopamine in the brain, helping to alleviate motor symptoms. However, long-term use of levodopa often results in diminishing returns and motor fluctuations, such as **"on-off"** phenomena and dyskinesias. Although levodopa remains essential for managing symptoms, targeted therapies aim to overcome its limitations.

One approach is to enhance **dopamine receptor signaling** by targeting specific dopamine receptors (such as D1 and D2 receptors) to maximize their effects on motor control without the side effects seen with long-term levodopa use. Researchers are exploring compounds that can selectively stimulate specific receptors or modulate dopamine transmission more effectively, improving motor function while reducing dyskinesia and fluctuations.

b. LRRK2 Inhibition: A Key Target for Genetic Parkinson's Disease

Mutations in the *LRRK2* gene are one of the most common genetic causes of familial PD, and variants in *LRRK2* are also linked to an increased risk of sporadic PD. The *LRRK2* protein is involved in multiple cellular processes, including autophagy, vesicle trafficking, and inflammation. Mutations in *LRRK2* result in dysregulated kinase activity, contributing to neurodegeneration.

Inhibiting *LRRK2* kinase activity represents a promising therapeutic strategy. Several **LRRK2 inhibitors** are currently being developed and tested in clinical trials. These drugs aim to reduce the toxic effects of *LRRK2* mutations, enhance autophagy (the cell's cleaning process), and prevent protein aggregation, which are thought to contribute to the progressive loss of dopaminergic neurons (Coppola et al., 2017). Early trials have shown that these inhibitors may slow disease progression in patients with *LRRK2* mutations, offering the potential for disease-modifying therapy.

c. Alpha-Synuclein Targeting

Alpha-synuclein is a protein that forms toxic aggregates known as Lewy bodies, which are hallmarks of PD. The accumulation of misfolded alpha-synuclein in neurons is thought to play a central role in the neurodegeneration seen in PD.

Targeted therapies aimed at **reducing alpha-synuclein aggregation** or promoting its clearance are actively being developed. Approaches include:

- **Immunotherapy:** Vaccines and monoclonal antibodies are being tested to stimulate the immune system to recognize and clear misfolded alpha-synuclein. For example, the antibody **prasinezumab** has shown promise in early-phase clinical trials by reducing the accumulation of alpha-synuclein aggregates (Mandler et al., 2020).
- **Gene Therapy:** Experimental gene therapies aim to deliver genes encoding proteins that can promote the degradation of alpha-synuclein aggregates or inhibit the production of alpha-synuclein entirely.

These approaches have the potential to not only slow disease progression but also provide a more disease-modifying treatment by addressing the underlying pathological hallmark of PD.

d. Mitochondrial Dysfunction and PINK1/PARKIN Pathways

Mitochondrial dysfunction is another key aspect of PD pathogenesis. *PINK1* and *PARKIN* are genes associated with early-onset familial PD and play crucial roles in maintaining mitochondrial health. They are involved in the **mitophagy process**, which is responsible for clearing damaged mitochondria from neurons.

In PD, dysfunction of this pathway results in the accumulation of defective mitochondria, which leads to neuronal death. Researchers are exploring **mitochondrial-targeted therapies** to restore the function of *PINK1* and *PARKIN* pathways. These therapies aim to enhance mitochondrial clearance and prevent the toxic buildup of defective mitochondria, which could help protect neurons and delay disease progression.

4.2. Precision Medicine: Tailoring Treatment to Individual Patients

Precision medicine involves tailoring medical treatment to the individual characteristics of each patient, including genetic makeup, environment, and lifestyle. In PD, precision medicine

seeks to identify specific subtypes of the disease based on genetic, molecular, and clinical features, and provide personalized treatment plans that target the underlying causes of neurodegeneration. This approach is particularly relevant for genetic forms of PD, where specific mutations drive disease pathogenesis.

a. Genetic Profiling and Personalized Treatment Plans

Genetic profiling of PD patients can help identify mutations in key genes, such as *LRRK2*, *PINK1*, *SNCA*, and *GBA*, which are associated with increased disease risk or early onset. Identifying these mutations allows clinicians to predict disease progression and tailor treatment to the specific genetic profile of the patient. For example, patients with *LRRK2* mutations may benefit from **LRRK2 inhibitors**, while individuals with mutations in the *GBA* gene, which is linked to both PD and Gaucher disease, may benefit from treatments targeting the lysosomal storage system.

b. Biomarkers and Disease Monitoring

Incorporating biomarkers into precision medicine allows for more accurate diagnosis, monitoring, and treatment optimization. As research into biomarkers for PD progresses, new diagnostic tools are expected to emerge that can identify patients earlier in the disease process and predict their response to specific treatments.

For example, blood-based biomarkers such as **neurofilament light chain (NfL)**, **alpha-synuclein**, and **DJ-1** could be used to monitor disease progression and adjust treatment strategies accordingly (Gafson et al., 2020). These biomarkers can help identify patients who are more likely to respond to certain therapies, thereby optimizing treatment efficacy and minimizing unnecessary side effects.

c. Individualized Symptom Management

Precision medicine also focuses on providing individualized treatments for the wide range of non-motor symptoms of PD, such as sleep disturbances, cognitive decline, and mood disorders. Personalized approaches may involve adjusting dopaminergic medications or using adjunctive therapies such as **deep brain stimulation (DBS)** or **cognitive behavioral therapy (CBT)**. By targeting the specific symptoms and underlying mechanisms in each patient, precision medicine aims to improve overall quality of life for those with PD.

4.3. Challenges and Future Directions

While targeted therapies and precision medicine offer great promise, several challenges remain:

- **Complexity of PD Pathogenesis:** PD is a multifactorial disease with both genetic and environmental factors contributing to its onset and progression. The interactions between these factors are not yet fully understood, making it difficult to develop universal targeted therapies.
- **Biomarker Development:** Reliable biomarkers for early detection and monitoring of treatment efficacy are still in development. While several promising biomarkers have been identified, more validation is needed before they can be widely implemented in clinical practice.
- **Cost and Accessibility:** Advanced genetic testing, biomarkers, and precision therapies can be expensive and may not be accessible to all patients. Efforts to reduce costs and improve accessibility are essential to ensure that these innovations benefit a wider patient population.

Despite these challenges, the future of PD treatment is increasingly focused on precision medicine and targeted therapies. With continued advancements in genetic research, biomarker discovery, and drug development, it is likely that future treatments will be better tailored to individual patients, offering more effective disease-modifying options for those with Parkinson's disease.

Targeted therapies and precision medicine represent the future of Parkinson's disease treatment. By focusing on the underlying molecular mechanisms of the disease, such as alpha-synuclein aggregation, mitochondrial dysfunction, and genetic mutations, these approaches offer the potential to not only alleviate symptoms but also slow or halt the progression of PD. As our understanding of PD's genetic, molecular, and clinical heterogeneity improves, precision medicine will play a critical role in providing more personalized and effective care for individuals with Parkinson's disease.

5. Conclusion

The genetic basis of Parkinson's disease has been a subject of intense research, leading to significant advancements in understanding the molecular mechanisms that contribute to neurodegeneration. The identification of specific genetic mutations, such as those in the *LRRK2*, *SNCA*, *PINK1*, and *PARK7* genes, has provided valuable insights into early detection and potential therapeutic targets. With the growing emphasis on precision medicine, genetic testing and personalized therapies are poised to revolutionize the management of PD, offering the potential for early intervention and disease-modifying treatments. Future research will undoubtedly continue to explore the complex interplay between genetic factors and environmental influences, further refining our approach to early detection and targeted therapies for Parkinson's disease.

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