



## Telomerase reverse transcriptase and telomerase RNA component gene expression as novel biomarkers for Alzheimer's disease

Raya Kh. Yashooa, Ari Q. Nabi\*

Department of Biology, College of Science, Salahaddin University-Erbil, Erbil, 44001, Kurdistan, Iraq

### ARTICLE INFO

#### Original paper

#### Article history:

Received: August 26, 2022

Accepted: September 15, 2022

Published: September 30, 2022

#### Keywords:

Alzheimer, biomarker, telomerase, RT-qPCR, hTERT, TERC.

### ABSTRACT

Alzheimer's disease (AD) is a neurological, age-related condition that causes cognitive decline and memory loss; it induces dementia in the elderly. Telomerase is a reverse transcriptase ribonucleoprotein that adds nucleotides to the end of DNA. This study aimed to compare human telomerase reverse transcriptase (hTERT) and telomerase RNA component (TERC) expression in different phases of AD and healthy cohorts. Sixty participants were divided into 30 who had dementia and 30 who did not. After collecting blood samples, total RNAs were extracted from the plasma. Screening for hTERT and TERC gene expression was carried out by quantitative reverse transcriptase real-time polymerase chain reaction (RT-qPCR) using the relative quantification method to estimate the expression changes in hTERT and TERC. The RT-qPCR results show that hTERT and TERC gene expression was significantly down-regulated in Alzheimer's patients compared to the health subjects (P-value= <0.0001, 0.005), respectively. The area under curve AUC was 0.773 for hTERT and 0.703 for TERC. The Mini-Mental State Examination scores revealed a significant difference between dementia and non-dementia subjects (P=<0.0001). We conclude down-regulations in both hTERT and TERC gene expression in AD patients, which supports our hypothesis that the telomerase expression gene in the blood of AD patients can serve as a non-invasive, early, and novel diagnostic marker of AD.

Doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.14715/cmb/2022.68.9.2>

Copyright: © 2022 by the C.M.B. Association. All rights reserved.

### Introduction

Alois Alzheimer is the first to define AD (1), a neurodegenerative condition marked by cognitive degeneration, beginning with memory loss and progressing to affect behaviour, visuospatial orientation, speech, and the brain's motor functions (2). Alzheimer's disease is one of the most common kinds of dementia, and it is expected to impact about 131.5 million people by 2050 if no new treatments are developed (3). Genetic, epigenetic, and environmental factors all contribute to the progression of Alzheimer's disease (4). The number of AD sufferers grows as the population ages (5). AD is caused by damage in the AD patient's brain due to the aggregation of injurious protein amyloid- $\beta$  (A $\beta$ ) (6). The hallmark of AD pathology is the aggregation of hyperphosphorylated and truncated microtubule-associated tau protein in the neuropil threads and neurofibrillary tangles (7, 8)

The telomere is a nucleoprotein structure at the end of the terminal eukaryotic linear chromosome and capping it. In mammalian cells, the telomere sequence is 5'-TTAGGG-3' repeat (9, 10). It is essential to maintain genomic stability (11, 12) and protect end-to-end fusion, degradation, and cytogenetic abnormalities (9, 10).

Telomerase is a ribonucleoprotein with the activity of reverse transcriptase, which adds nucleotides at the DNA ends (13-15). Holoenzyme of telomerase comprises three subunits: catalytic protein subunits contain hTERT, and

RNA subunits consist of hTERC and telomerase-related protein (TEP). In humans, hTERT and TERC are the most essential (16-18). TERT and TERC play an indispensable role in facilitating telomere synthesis; furthermore, TERT and TERC are joined together to create the active telomerase enzyme. The Telomerase enzyme is a reverse transcriptase, producing telomeric repeats via hTERT as a template (19). With every cell division, telomeric DNA progressively erodes in most human cells without the telomerase enzyme (20). Biologically, telomere and telomerase highly correlate with developing many neurodegenerative diseases like Alzheimer's (21).

Human TERT is a part of the telomerase structure and functions in telomeres by adding a repeated specific sequence, TTAGGG (22). TERT has performed telomere elongation and other processes, including mitochondria translocation and oxidative stress reduction resulting in reactive oxygen species ROS accumulation (23). The Telomerase reverse transcriptase gene encodes the TERT (24) on human chromosome 5p15.33. The length of the TERT gene is about 42 kb. The Telomerase RNA Component TERC is located on the 3q26.2 chromosome. The TERC gene encodes TERC; TERC, a short RNA, non-coding, conserves as a template for DNA synthesis to preserve telomere length. Further, it participates in holoenzyme telomerase localization, catalysis, and assembly (24, 25)

This study investigated the differences in the expres-

\* Corresponding author. Email: [ari.nabi@su.edu.krd](mailto:ari.nabi@su.edu.krd)

sion levels of hTERT and TERC genes directly from the blood of Alzheimer's patients relative to the non-dementia cohort. The aim was to detect the association between AD and telomerase gene expression and the possibility of using hTERT and TERC as non-invasive, early diagnostic biomarkers for Alzheimer's disease.

## Materials and Methods

Samples were collected from a few private neurological clinics in Erbil city. The present study recruited 60 participants, 30 patients diagnosed with dementia divided into 11 MCI and 19 AD by neurologists according to the mini-mental state examination MMSE (26), and 30 healthy controls (non-dementia) were approximately of the same age and gender. The Mini-Mental State Examination MMSE scores were utilized to estimate the cognitive stage of the disease. MMSE is a cognitive test used in epidemiologic studies and clinical practice (26); The healthy non-dementia subjects had no sign of any neurological functions and features reflected by laboratory examination, and MMSE scores were higher than 24. Samples were collected during the period between December 2021 and March 2022. The information was obtained from AD patients and their caretakers by inquiring about their medical history. A questionnaire was used to identify both cohorts by asking about family history of Alzheimer's disease, cardiovascular diseases, diabetes mellitus, cancer, infectious diseases, types of medication, and other neurological diseases such as different types of dementia, Parkinson's disease, and multiple sclerosis. Neurologists give information about computerized tomography (CT) scans of the brain in AD cases.

## Blood sampling

Peripheral venous blood was collected from all participants using EDTA K3 tubes. The blood samples were centrifuged within 2 hours for 8 min at 1300 g at 4°C. Total RNA isolation was conducted directly from supernatant plasma, and replicates were stored in sterile DNA/RNA- Free Eppendorf tubes at -80°C for future investigation until used.

## RNA isolation and purification

Total RNA was isolated from plasma and performed using a specified kit to extract both mRNA and microRNA, GenElute™ Total RNA Purification Kit (Sigma, Aldrich, Germany). The RNase-Free DNase I kit (Norgen, Biotek Corp, Canadian) was applied to remove DNA traces. Each sample's isolated RNA purity and quality were assayed using a NanoDrop ND-1000 spectrophotometer (Thermo Scientific, Massachusetts, USA).

## The RT-qPCR detection

Real-time qPCR was performed directly following the total RNA extraction. An equal amount of RNA concentrations was taken from all purified RNA samples. Five microliters of isolated RNA were reverse transcribed into cDNA in the one-qPCR reaction; the first step is reverse transcribing the isolated RNA into cDNA, followed by qPCR amplification in the same reaction wells. Reactions were performed using SYBER® Green mix (One-Step SYBR® Green RT-qPCR kit) (Genecopoeia, USA). All reactions were run in duplicate. The amplification was carried out by Primer Pro 48 Real-time PCR (TECHNE, UK). Primers used in this study targeted the hTERT, TERC, and ACTB (an internal control reference gene for normalization). The primers were designed by NCBI and manufactured by (Genecopoeia, USA). The RT-qPCR primers sequence was used (Table 1.).

A one-step qPCR cycle profile was performed for all primers:

1. Reverse transcription of mRNAs into cDNA at 42 °C for 10 min, followed by initial denaturation at 95 °C for 3 min, then followed by 45 cycles (denaturation at 95 °C /10 s and extension at 60 °C /30 s).
2. Melting curve analyses were conducted at 0.3 °C intervals from 72 °C to 95 °C.
3. The cycle threshold (Ct) values for each sample were normalized using (ACTB) as an internal control (reference gene), relative quantification method was used to calculate the fold change in expression.

## The relative quantification (2<sup>-ΔΔCt</sup>) RT-qPCR

The RT-qPCR data were analyzed using the relative quantification (RQ) method 2<sup>-ΔΔCt</sup>, and RQ were calculated. First, the CT value is compared to a housekeeping gene (endogenous control). Then, the formula  $\Delta CT = (Ct \text{ AD mRNA gene} - Ct \text{ control reference gene})$  was used to normalize the Ct target gene to the Ct of the ACTB reference gene. Then,  $\Delta\Delta Ct = (\Delta Ct \text{ of dementia} - \Delta Ct \text{ of non-dementia})$  was used, normalizing the test sample's  $\Delta Ct$  to the control  $\Delta Ct$  to obtain expression ratio =  $2^{-\Delta\Delta Ct}$  fold change (27, 28).

## Statistical analysis

The data were analyzed utilizing a package of statistical programs (GraphPad Prism, version 8.0.1) and (SSPS, version 25). The Chi-square test of association was utilized to compare proportions. Mann-Whitney test was used to compare data and non-normal distribution variables of the two subjects. An unpaired student's t-test of two independent cohorts was used to compare the two groups. Finally, the receiver operating characteristic (ROC) was applied to

**Table 1.** Primer sequences and their amplicon sizes were used in the RT-qPCR reactions.

Genes	Primer sequence	Amplicon size	Catalogue number
hTERT	F: 5'-TGTC AAGGTGGATGTGAGGG-3' R: 5'-GCAGTACGTGTTCTGGGGTT-3'	97	Cat.No. HQP018017
TERC	F: 5'-AACCCCTAACTGAGAAGGGCG-3' R: 5'-AGAATGAACGGTGGAAAGGCG-3'	114	Cat.No. CSHQP1933L
ACTB	F: 5'-CCAACCGCGAGAAGATGA-3' R: 5'-CCAGAGGCGTACAGGGATAG-3'	97	Cat. No. HQP016381.

estimate the area under curve AUC for each mRNA gene. Youden's index (sensitivity+specificity-1) (29) was used to estimate the cutoff point of the screening variables where the highest index was selected as it gives the test's most heightened sensitivity and specificity in differentiating dementia from non-dementia and evaluating the diagnostic effect. A P-value  $\leq 0.05$  was considered significant.

**Results**

**Participant's characteristics**

The total participants in the present study were (60 subjects), and were divided into the dementia group (30 consisting of MCI (11) and AD (19) and the non-dementia group (30). The participants' distribution of gender and

age is shown in (Table 2.). The statistical analysis shows no significant differences in age and gender between the AD cases and non-dementia cohorts, with P-value= 0.107 and 0.795, respectively.

**Demographic characteristics of participants**

Family history, infectious disease, the presence of another neurological disease, cardiovascular disease, diabetes mellites, smoking, and cancer; the statistical analysis revealed no significant differences in those variables between the two groups P-value= 0.052, 0.237, 0.1120.136, 0.542, 0.795, 1.00, respectively. The clinical and demographic characteristics of demented and non-demented subjects are presented in (Table 3.).

**Table 2.** Patient characteristics distribution of dementia cases and healthy controls.

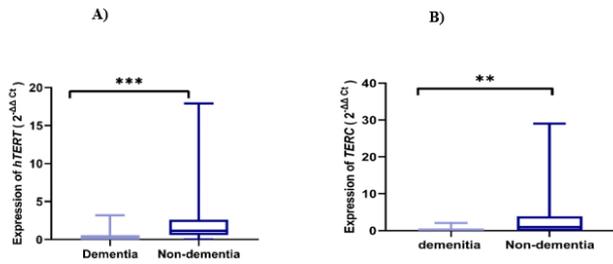
Variables	Dementia	Non-dementia	Total	P-value <sup>a</sup>
	No. (%)	No. (%)	No. (%)	
<b>Age</b>	73.7±9.0	71.3±8.2		0.107
< 65	2 (6.7)	8 (26.7)	10 (16.7)	
65-74	13 (43.3)	9 (30.0)	22 (36.7)	
>75	15 (50.0)	13 (43.3)	28 (46.7)	
<b>Gender</b>				0.795
Male	13 (43.3)	14 (46.7)	27 (45.0)	
Female	17 (56.7)	16 (53.3)	33 (55.0)	
<b>Total</b>	30 (100.0 %)	30 (100.0 %)	60 (100.0 %)	

<sup>a</sup> Chi-square means ±SD.

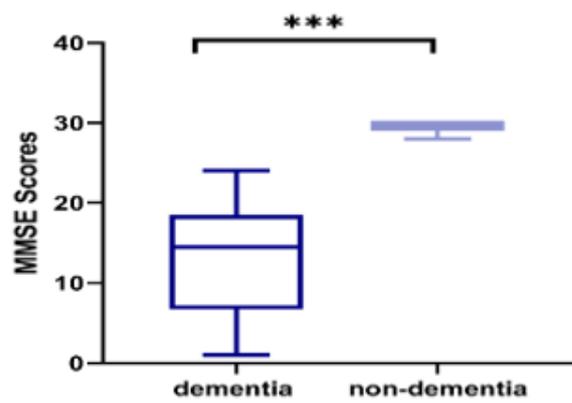
**Table 3.** Clinical and demographic characteristics of demented and non-demented subjects regarding family history and many neurological and physiological factors.

Variables	Dementia	Non-dementia	Total	P-value <sup>b</sup>
	No. %	No.%	No.%	
<b>Family history of AD</b>				0.052
Yes	5 (16.7)	0 (0.0)	5 (8.3)	
No	25 (83.3)	30 (100.0)	55 (91.7)	
<b>Cardiovascular disease</b>				0.136
Yes	10 (33.3)	5 (16.7)	15 (25.0)	
No	20 (66.7)	25 (83.3)	45 (75.0)	
<b>Diabetes mellitus</b>				0.542
Yes	6 (20.0)	8 (26.7)	14 (23.3)	
No	24 (80.0)	22 (73.3)	46 (76.7)	
<b>Other neurological diseases</b>				0.112
Yes	4 (13.3)	0 (0.0)	4 (6.7)	
No	26 (86.7)	30 (100.0)	56 (93.3)	
<b>Infectious disease</b>				0.237
Yes	3 (10.0)	0 (0.0)	3(5.0)	
No	27 (90.0)	30 (100.0)	57 (95.0)	
<b>Smoking</b>				0.754
Yes	6 (20.0)	7 (23.3)	13(21.7)	
No	24 (80.0)	23 (76.7)	47 (78.3)	
<b>Cancer</b>				1.00
Yes	1 (3.3)	0 (0.0)	1 (1.7)	
No	29 (96.7)	30 (100.0)	59 (98.3)	
<b>Total</b>	30(100.0)	30 (100.0)	60 (100.0)	

<sup>b</sup> by Chi-square.



**Figure 1.** Telomerase gene (hTERT, TERC) expression level, (A) hTERT was a down-regulated expression in the dementia group compared with no dementia group, with a significant difference in the relative expression level of the hTERT gene in patients with dementia and non-dementia subjects ( $P= <0.0001$ ). (B) Fold change in TERC gene expression level between two groups ( $P=0.005$ ) dementia cohort decreased relative to healthy control (non-dementia).



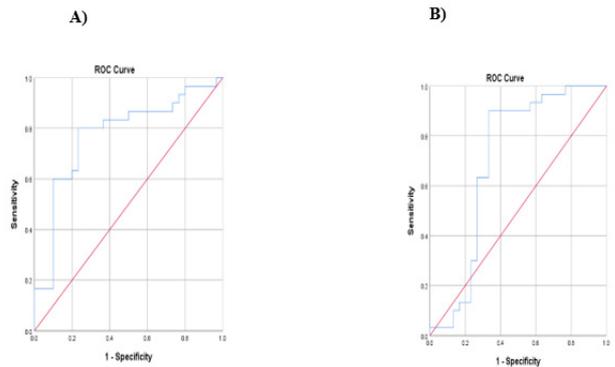
**Figure 2.** Shows that the demented group has lower MMSE scores than non-demented individuals  $P=<0.0001$ .

**Evaluation of hTERT and TERC expression via RT-qPCR**

The Ct value of hTERT and TERC was normalized to ACTB as a reference gene to calculate the  $2^{-\Delta\Delta Ct}$  (fold change in expression); the Ct value of ACTB after RT-qPCR amplification analysis revealed no significant difference between the two cohorts, and the average was 24.1 for AD and 23.8 for healthy control.

hTERT and TERC gene expression were analyzed to show the differences in expression levels between the two groups. The level of hTERT was significantly down-regulated  $P=<0.0001$  and about 7- fold lower than in the non-dementia cohort (Figure 1A). The same with TERC gene expression validation by RT-qPCR relative quantification confirmed a significant decrease in TERC gene expression in plasma concentration of AD cases close to non-dementia  $P=0.005$ . (Figure 1B) is displayed the differences in fold change expression TERC gene. The MMSE scores consider abnormal when being less than 24 (26), whereas higher than 24, which means average cognitive impairment,  $P= <0.001$ , was significant among cohorts (Figure 2), which shows the difference between AD patients and healthy aged individuals in scores of cognitive test of MMSE.

McNemar test was used to test the validity of telomerase genes when the results of dementia were compared to non-dementia, as shown in (table 5). The ROC curve predestined the diagnostic value of significant alteration of telomerase gene expression (hTERT, TERC). The test was applied to evaluate the AUC, sensitivity, and specificity of hTERT and TERC mRNA genes as a diagnostic biomarker of AD between two cohorts (30) (table 5, Figure 4. A, B),



**Figure 3.** Receiver operating characteristic ROC curve for hTERT, TERC to predict dementia for discriminative ability between dementia and non-dementia (A) ROC curve for hTERT, AUC=0.773 and cutoff= $<0.665$  (B) ROC curve for TERC, AUC=0.703 and cutoff= $<0.671$ .

presenting the AUC for hTERT TERC to predict dementia.

Tables 4 and 5 is shown the analysis of the ROC curve used to estimate the AUC to estimate the sensitivity and specificity of hTERT and TERC genes as diagnostic biomarkers of AD between two cohorts. ROC analysis of hTERT revealed AUC=0.773,  $P$ -value= $<0.0001$ , SD=0.063, 95% confidence intervals = (0.649-0.898), sensitivity=80 % and specificity=76.7 %, the validity of hTERT in predicting of dementia, while TERC gene was AUC=0.703,  $P$ -value=0.0061, SD=0.074, 95% confidence intervals = (0.559-0.848), sensitivity 90 %, and specificity 66.7 %, the validity of TERC in predicting dementia. The hTERT and TERC are considered good non-invasive dia-

**Table 4.** The area under the hTERT, TECC ROC curve.

Test results variables	Area Under the Curve				
	Area	Std. Error	Asymptotic Sig. P-value	Asymptotic 95% Confidence Interval Lower Bound	Upper Bound
hTERT	0.773	0.063	0.000	0.649	0.898
TERC	0.703	0.074	0.007	0.559	0.848

**Table 5.** Validity of hTERT, TERC in predicting dementia.

Telomerase genes	Cutoff value	Sensitivity	Specificity	PV+	PV-	agreement	P-value*
hTERT	$<0.665$	80%	76.7%	77.4%	79.3%	78.3%	1.000
TERC	$<0.671$	90%	66.7%	73%	87%	78.3%	0.092

\*McNemar test, PV+ predictive value positive, PV- Predictative value negative.

gnostic biomarkers for the early detection and prediction of Alzheimer's disease.

## Discussion

Many scientists have been dedicated to exploring tools to find the relationship between ageing and Alzheimer's disease, and many variables have been hypothesized in the etiopathogenesis of Alzheimer's (31). In the brain, the telomeres' activity characterizes during development and plays a role in neuronal survival and differentiation (32). During early embryonic development in somatic cells, the TERT gene and telomerase activity levels decrease (33). Telomerase expression during neuronal differentiation is essential in promoting neuron survival (34). Knockdown experiments and mutational analysis revealed that telomerase deficiency led to telomere loss, resulting in system organ failure (35, 36). The telomerase level plays a significant role in modulating the damage to DNA and repair during neural development. Moreover, it has been known to protect the cell against insults such as amyloid peptides and excitotoxins, which have a role in neurodegenerative disease pathogenesis (34, 37, 38).

Furthermore, it suggested that a decline in the telomerase level in mature neurons contributes to various neurodegenerative conditions (33). Telomerase prevents telomere shortening; it acts as an anti-ageing enzyme (35). The current study examines hTERT and TERC genes as early diagnostic biomarkers for the prediction of Alzheimer's disease. Moreover, the ROC curve revealed that hTERT and TERC have the sensitivity and specificity for typical early biomarkers of AD; our results indicate that both hTERT and TERC have good non-invasive and early diagnostic values to differentiate AD from healthy subjects. Alzheimer's is a popular form of dementia in ageing people (39). It is a progressive form of the disease, and multiple factors like genetic, environmental, and epigenetic factors contribute to its progress; oxidative stress plays a pivotal function in the pathogenesis of AD (4, 31). In humans, the end replication problem is due to the absence of DNA polymerase at the 3' end of the strand, resulting in the telomere not fully replicated at the 3' end leading to telomere shortening with each replication cycle (40). They discovered that telomerase is essential in maintaining the telomere length after each replication cycle by adding six tandem repeated sequences (19). Previous studies have found a relative telomere shortening with age-related disease and lifespan (41-43). The mechanical telomere short detected in the AD brain was associated with the decline in the expression of telomerase. These data gave a novel automated insight into the pathophysiology of Alzheimer's disease(44).

Interestingly, it has been found that the blood-brain barrier BBB is partly destroyed in Alzheimer's patients (45), and the function of BBB is to protect the central nervous system from the unregular passage of molecules to the circulation (46). Therefore, the BBB breakdown, considered a novel finding in neurological diseases, could be a tool for developing effective diagnostic strategies for treating neurological disorders (45). Previous studies revealed the human telomere length in the blood cells of AD patients. They detected the length of telomere and telomerase activity decline in MCI and AD cases compared to healthy individuals(47-50). In addition, another work detected

hTERT and TERC genetic polymorphism in human Alzheimer's cases and revealed that it might influence AD occurrence(51-54).

Statistical analysis revealed that the hTERT gene was down-regulated in dementia cases, including MCI and AD compared to the non-dementia subject; the TERC gene shows lower in dementia patients than in healthy control. MMSE scores in dementia cases were lower than in non-dementia, showing significant differences. The present study detected no significant differences regarding age, gender, diabetes mellitus, infectious disease, smoking, cancer, family history of AD, cardiovascular disease, and other neurological diseases.

Moreover, when comparing the 30 dementia subjects (MCI and AD), we detected that hTERT and TERC were down-regulated significantly and differed from 30 healthy controls. RT-qPCR was used to estimate the expression concentration relative to the healthy cohort. Specifically, the hTERT and TERC were substantially lower in the dementia cohort. However, there is very little information concerning telomerase expression in human blood cells and brain tissue. Few studies support our finding, which in tissues of animal models were investigated; our result agrees with another study reported by Franco and Blasco (55), who revealed a decrease of TERT levels in AD subjects relative to the control (55). The present work is a line of results presented by Tsoukalas and Buga (56), who detected low TERT expression levels in 12 months rats compared with six-month-old rats. Other researchers have investigated telomerase activity by analyzing different tissues of aged animal models. They found that TERT and TERC were relatively expressed at lower levels than other tissues and controls, which correlates to the decreased telomerase activity in the same brain tissue (57). Many studies have detected a decline in telomerase activity and protein expression levels in Alzheimer's patients (58).

Moreover, previous studies discovered that increasing telomerase expression via engineering-modified and utilized anti-ageing drugs might be a novel tool for treating neurological diseases. Shim and Horner (59) first detected an increase in amyloid- $\beta$  ( $A\beta$ ) accumulation in AD cases and a decline in TERT expression when modifying AD mice to maintain the physiological expression level of the TERT gene and reduction  $A\beta$  accumulation (59). Further, Otgaar and Ferreira (60) the effect of anti-ageing drugs resulting in elevated telomerase activity and hTERT level; LRP::FLAG might be a novel anti-ageing drug through the cellular process of ageing (60).

Alzheimer's is shared among the ageing population, creating medical crises and effects enormous personal and family burdens. The problem increases with inadequate tools for early diagnosis and identifying AD patients. In this study, we investigated telomerase mRNA expression genes in blood. We concluded that the expression of hTERT and TERC genes are down-regulated in dementia samples relative to the non-dementia cohort. Our findings could represent a starting point for future researchers to investigate telomerase genes directly in blood/plasma as an early diagnostic tool for AD. Further, the present results will provide a motive for feature investigation of the clinical value of plasma telomerase mRNA expression in AD progress and therapeutic efficiency.

## Acknowledgements

The authors would like to thank Dr Ehsan K. Abdul Zahra (Consultant Neurologist) and Dr Faiq Braymok Basa Sarok for assistance in diagnosing AD patients and collecting samples. The entire experimental part was conducted at the Research center-Salahaddin university, thanks to Dr Karzan A. Mohammad (Director of the Salahaddin University-Research Center) and the staff of Molecular and Genetic labs. Moreover, the authors greatly appreciate the assistance of Dr Namir Ghanim AL-Tawil with the statistical analysis.

## Interest conflict

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

## Consent for publications

The authors read and proved the final manuscript for publication.

## Availability of data and material

All data generated during this study are presented in this published article.

## Authors' Contribution

AN designed the study, supervised the experimental works, and reviewed and edited the final version of the manuscript; RKY conducted the laboratory works, writing and editing the manuscript drafts.

## Funding

No funding was obtained for this study. This manuscript is part of a post-graduate study funded personally by the Master's student. At the same time, the experimental work was performed free of charge in the aforementioned Research Center.

## Ethics approval and consent to participate

The study design was approved by the Ethics Committee of Salahalddin University-Erbil for clearance since it involved human participants. The authors ensured that this work was carried out following The Code of Ethics of the World Medical Association (Declaration of Helsinki) for experiments involving humans. All participants obtained informed consent before participating in the present study.

## References

1. Alzheimer A, Stelzmann RA, Schnitzlein HN, Murtagh FRJCa. An English translation of Alzheimer's 1907 paper," *Über eine eigenartige Erkankung der Hirnrinde*". 1995;8(6):429-31.
2. DeTure MA, Dickson DW. The neuropathological diagnosis of Alzheimer's disease. *Mol Neurodegener*. 2019;14(1):1-18.
3. Cummings J, Aisen PS, DuBois B, Frölich L, Jack CR, Jones RW, et al. Drug development in Alzheimer's disease: the path to 2025. *Alzheimers Res Ther*. 2016;8(1):1-12.
4. Delay C, Mandemakers W, Hébert SS. MicroRNAs in Alzheimer's disease. *Neurobiol Dis*. 2012;46(2):285-90.
5. Campisi J, d'Adda di Fagagna F. Cellular senescence: when bad things happen to good cells. *Nature reviews Molecular cell biology*. 2007;8(9):729-40.
6. Jeynes B, Provias J. The case for blood-brain barrier dysfunction in the pathogenesis of Alzheimer's disease. *J Neurosci Res*. 2011;89(1):22-8.
7. Alonso AdC, Grundke-Iqbal I, Iqbal K. Alzheimer's disease hy-

- perphosphorylated tau sequesters normal tau into tangles of filaments and disassembles microtubules. *Nat Med*. 1996;2(7):783-7.
8. Basurto-Islas G, Luna-Munoz J, Guillozet-Bongaarts AL, Binder LI, Mena R, García-Sierra F. Accumulation of aspartic acid421- and glutamic acid391-cleaved tau in neurofibrillary tangles correlates with progression in Alzheimer disease. *J Neuropathol Exp Neurol*. 2008;67(5):470-83.
9. Makarov VL, Hirose Y, Langmore JP. Long G tails at both ends of human chromosomes suggest a C strand degradation mechanism for telomere shortening. *Cell*. 1997;88(5):657-66.
10. Wright WE, Tesmer VM, Huffman KE, Levene SD, Shay JW. Normal human chromosomes have long G-rich telomeric overhangs at one end. *Genes Dev*. 1997;11(21):2801-9.
11. Mirabello L, Yu K, Kraft P, De Vivo I, Hunter DJ, Prescott J, et al. The association of telomere length and genetic variation in telomere biology genes a. *Hum Mutat*. 2010;31(9):1050-8.
12. Robles-Espinoza CD, del Castillo Velasco-Herrera M, Hayward NK, Adams DJ. Telomere-Regulating Genes and the Telomere Interactome in Familial CancersTelomere-Regulating Genes in Familial Cancers. *Mol Cancer Res*. 2015;13(2):211-22.
13. Bodnar AG, Ouellette M, Frolkis M, Holt SE, Chiu C-P, Morin GB, et al. Extension of life-span by introduction of telomerase into normal human cells. *Science*. 1998;279(5349):349-52.
14. Blackburn EH, Collins K. Telomerase: an RNP enzyme synthesizes DNA. *Cold Spring Harbor perspectives in biology*. 2011;3(5):a003558.
15. Tukey TM, Lundblad V. Regulated assembly and disassembly of the yeast telomerase quaternary complex. *Genes Dev*. 2014;28(19):2077-89.
16. Feng J, Funk WD, Wang S-S, Weinrich SL, Avilion AA, Chiu C-P, et al. The RNA component of human telomerase. *Science*. 1995;269(5228):1236-41.
17. Nakamura TM, Cech TR. Reversing time: origin of telomerase. *Cell*. 1998;92(5):587-90.
18. Autexier C, Lue NF. The structure and function of telomerase reverse transcriptase. *Annu Rev Biochem*. 2006;75:493-517.
19. Greider CW, Blackburn EH. A telomeric sequence in the RNA of Tetrahymena telomerase required for telomere repeat synthesis. *Nature*. 1989;337(6205):331-7.
20. Harley CB, Futcher AB, Greider CW. Telomeres shorten during ageing of human fibroblasts. *Nature*. 1990;345(6274):458-60.
21. Li C, Gang Y. An overview on the role of telomere, telomerase in degenerative diseases and cancer. *ADMET and DMPK*. 2015;3(3):254-9.
22. Donaghy PC, McKeith IG. The clinical characteristics of dementia with Lewy bodies and a consideration of prodromal diagnosis. *Alzheimers Res Ther*. 2014;6(4):46.
23. Miwa S, Czapiewski R, Wan T, Bell A, Hill KN, von Zglinicki T, et al. Decreased mTOR signalling reduces mitochondrial ROS in brain via accumulation of the telomerase protein TERT within mitochondria. *Aging (Albany NY)*. 2016;8(10):2551.
24. Zhang Q, Kim N-K, Feigon J. Architecture of human telomerase RNA. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*. 2011;108(51):20325-32.
25. Anitha A, Thanseem I, Vasu MM, Viswambharan V, Poovathinal SA. Telomeres in neurological disorders. *Adv Clin Chem*. 2019;90:81-132.
26. Folstein MF, Folstein SE, McHugh PR. "Mini-mental state": a practical method for grading the cognitive state of patients for the clinician. *J Psychiatr Res*. 1975;12(3):189-98.
27. Schmittgen TD, Livak KJ. Analyzing real-time PCR data by the comparative CT method. *Nat Protoc*. 2008;3(6):1101-8.
28. Livak KJ, Schmittgen TD. Analysis of relative gene expression data using real-time quantitative PCR and the 2- $\Delta\Delta$ CT method.

- Methods. 2001;25(4):402-8.
29. Fluss R, Faraggi D, Reiser B. Estimation of the Youden Index and its associated cutoff point. *Biometrical Journal: Journal of Mathematical Methods in Biosciences*. 2005;47(4):458-72.
  30. Zweig MH, Campbell G. Receiver-operating characteristic (ROC) plots: a fundamental evaluation tool in clinical medicine. *Clin Chem*. 1993;39(4):561-77.
  31. Mecocci P, Boccardi V, Cecchetti R, Bastiani P, Scamosci M, Ruggiero C, et al. A long journey into aging, brain aging, and Alzheimer's disease following the oxidative stress tracks. *J Alzheimers Dis*. 2018;62(3):1319-35.
  32. Greenberg RA, Allsopp RC, Chin L, Morin GB, DePinho RA. Expression of mouse telomerase reverse transcriptase during development, differentiation and proliferation. *Oncogene*. 1998;16(13):1723-30.
  33. Klapper W, Shin T, Mattson MP. Differential regulation of telomerase activity and TERT expression during brain development in mice. *J Neurosci Res*. 2001;64(3):252-60.
  34. Fu W, Killen M, Culmsee C, Dhar S, Pandita TK, Mattson MP. The catalytic subunit of telomerase is expressed in developing brain neurons and serves a cell survival-promoting function. *J Mol Neurosci*. 2000;14(1):3-15.
  35. Jaskelioff M, Muller FL, Paik J-H, Thomas E, Jiang S, Adams AC, et al. Telomerase reactivation reverses tissue degeneration in aged telomerase-deficient mice. *Nature*. 2011;469(7328):102-6.
  36. Bär C, Blasco MA. Telomeres and telomerase as therapeutic targets to prevent and treat age-related diseases. *F1000Research*. 2016;5.
  37. Fu W, Begley JG, Killen MW, Mattson MP. Anti-apoptotic role of telomerase in pheochromocytoma cells. *J Biol Chem*. 1999;274(11):7264-71.
  38. Zhu H, Fu W, Mattson MP. The catalytic subunit of telomerase protects neurons against amyloid  $\beta$ -peptide-induced apoptosis. *J Neurochem*. 2000;75(1):117-24.
  39. Hallock P, Thomas MA. Integrating the Alzheimer's disease proteome and transcriptome: a comprehensive network model of a complex disease. *OmicS: a journal of integrative biology*. 2012;16(1-2):37-49.
  40. Wong JM, Collins K. Telomere maintenance and disease. *The Lancet*. 2003;362(9388):983-8.
  41. Sanders JL, Newman AB. Telomere length in epidemiology: a biomarker of aging, age-related disease, both, or neither? *Epidemiol Rev*. 2013;35(1):112-31.
  42. Codd V, Nelson CP, Albrecht E, Mangino M, Deelen J, Buxton JL, et al. Identification of seven loci affecting mean telomere length and their association with disease. *Nat Genet*. 2013;45(4):422-7.
  43. Barrett JH, Iles MM, Dunning AM, Pooley KA. Telomere length and common disease: study design and analytical challenges. *Hum Genet*. 2015;134(7):679-89.
  44. Raina AK, Zhu X, Rottkamp CA, Monteiro M, Takeda A, Smith MA. Cyclin/toward dementia: cell cycle abnormalities and abortive oncogenesis in Alzheimer disease. *J Neurosci Res*. 2000;61(2):128-33.
  45. Bell RD, Zlokovic BV. Neurovascular mechanisms and blood-brain barrier disorder in Alzheimer's disease. *Acta Neuropathol*. 2009;118(1):103-13.
  46. Banks WA, Reed MJ, Logsdon AF, Rhea EM, Erickson MA. Healthy aging and the blood-brain barrier. *Nature aging*. 2021;1(3):243-54.
  47. Lin Y, Damjanovic A, Metter EJ, Nguyen H, Truong T, Najarro K, et al. Age-associated telomere attrition of lymphocytes in vivo is co-ordinated with changes in telomerase activity, composition of lymphocyte subsets and health conditions. *Clin Sci*. 2015;128(6):367-77.
  48. Tedone E, Arosio B, Colombo F, Ferri E, Asselineau D, Piette F, et al. Leukocyte telomere length in Alzheimer's disease patients with a different rate of progression. *J Alzheimers Dis*. 2015;46(3):761-9.
  49. Liu M, Huo YR, Wang J, Wang C, Liu S, Liu S, et al. Telomere shortening in Alzheimer's disease patients. *Ann Clin Lab Sci*. 2016;46(3):260-5.
  50. Scarabino D, Broggio E, Gambina G, Corbo RM. Leukocyte telomere length in mild cognitive impairment and Alzheimer's disease patients. *Exp Gerontol*. 2017;98:143-7.
  51. Nordfjäll K, Osterman P, Melander O, Nilsson P, Roos G. hTERT-1327T/C polymorphism is not associated with age-related telomere attrition in peripheral blood. *Biochem Biophys Res Commun*. 2007;358(1):215-8.
  52. Bateman RJ, Xiong C, Benzinger TL, Fagan AM, Goate A, Fox NC, et al. Clinical and biomarker changes in dominantly inherited Alzheimer's disease. *N Engl J Med*. 2012;367:795-804.
  53. Liu Y, Cao L, Li Z, Zhou D, Liu W, Shen Q, et al. A genome-wide association study identifies a locus on TERT for mean telomere length in Han Chinese. *PLoS One*. 2014;9(1):e85043.
  54. Scarabino D, Peconi M, Pelliccia F, Corbo RM. Analysis of the association between TERC and TERT genetic variation and leukocyte telomere length and human lifespan—A follow-up study. *Genes*. 2019;10(2):82.
  55. Franco S, Blasco MA, Siedlak SL, Harris PL, Moreira PI, Perry G, et al. Telomeres and telomerase in Alzheimer's disease: epiphenomena or a new focus for therapeutic strategy? *Alzheimer's & Dementia*. 2006;2(3):164-8.
  56. Tsoukalas D, Buga AM, Docea AO, Sarandi E, Mitrut R, Renieri E, et al. Reversal of brain aging by targeting telomerase: A nutraceutical approach. *Int J Mol Med*. 2021;48(5):1-11.
  57. Hartmann N, Reichwald K, Lechel A, Graf M, Kirschner J, Dorn A, et al. Telomeres shorten while Tert expression increases during ageing of the short-lived fish *Nothobranchius furzeri*. *Mech Ageing Dev*. 2009;130(5):290-6.
  58. Spilisbury A, Miwa S, Attems J, Saretzki G. The role of telomerase protein TERT in Alzheimer's disease and in tau-related pathology in vitro. *J Neurosci*. 2015;35(4):1659-74.
  59. Shim HS, Horner JW, Wu CJ, Li J, Lan ZD, Jiang S, et al. Telomerase Reverse Transcriptase Preserves Neuron Survival and Cognition in Alzheimer's Disease Models. *Nat Aging*. 2021;1(12):1162-74.
  60. Otgaar TC, Ferreira E, Malindisa S, Bernert M, Letsolo BT, Weiss SF. 37 kDa LRP:: FLAG enhances telomerase activity and reduces senescent markers in vitro. *Oncotarget*. 2017;8(49):86646.