Non-canonical Telomerase Reverse Transcriptase Controls Osteogenic Reprogramming

of Aortic Valve Cells Through STAT5

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Running Title: TERT/STAT5 is required for valvular calcification

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Background: Calcific aortic valve disease (CAVD) is the pathological remodeling of valve

leaflets. The initial steps in valve leaflet osteogenic reprogramming are not fully understood. As

telomerase reverse transcriptase (TERT) overexpression primes mesenchymal stem cells to

differentiate into osteoblasts, we investigated whether TERT contributes to the osteogenic

reprogramming of valve interstitial cells (VICs).

Methods: Human control and CAVD aortic valve leaflets and patient-specific hVICs were used

in in vivo and in vitro calcification assays. Loss of function experiments in hVICs and cells

isolated from *Tert*$^{-/-}$ and *Terc*$^{-/-}$ mice were used for mechanistic studies. Calcification was

assessed in *Tert*$^{+/+}$ and *Tert*$^{-/-}$ mice ex vivo and in vivo. In silico modeling, proximity ligation and

co-immunoprecipitation assays defined novel TERT interacting partners. Chromatin

immunoprecipitation and CUT&TAG sequencing defined protein-DNA interactions.

Results: TERT protein was highly expressed in calcified valve leaflets without changes in

telomere length, DNA damage, or senescence markers, and these features were retained in

isolated primary hVICs. *TERT* expression increased with osteogenic or inflammatory stimuli,

and knock-down or genetic deletion of *TERT* prevented calcification in vitro and in vivo.

Mechanistically, TERT was upregulated via NF-κB and required to initiate osteogenic

reprogramming, independent of its canonical reverse transcriptase activity and the lncRNA

TERC. TERT exerts non-canonical osteogenic functions via binding with Signal Transducer and

Activator of Transcription 5 (STAT5). Depletion or inhibition of STAT5 prevented calcification.

STAT5 was found to bind the promoter region of Runt-Related Transcription Factor 2 (*RUNX2*),

the master regulator of osteogenic reprogramming. Lastly, we demonstrate that TERT and

STAT5 are upregulated and colocalized in CAVD tissue compared to control tissue.

Conclusions: TERT's non-canonical activity is required to initiate calcification. TERT is

upregulated via inflammatory signaling pathways and partners with STAT5 to bind the *RUNX2*

gene promoter. These data identify a novel mechanism and potential therapeutic target to

decrease vascular calcification.

ABBREVIATIONS:

CAVD, calcific aortic valve disease; CNN, calponin; CUT&Run, cleavage under targets &

release using nuclease; CUT&Tag, cleavage under targets & tagmentation; CFAST,

fluorescence-activating and absorption-shifting tag, C-domain; Ch-IP, chromatin

immunoprecipitation; E2F1, E2F transcription factor 1; ECM, extracellular matrix; GO, gene

ontology; γ-H2AX, phosphorylated gamma histone 2AX; hCASMCs, human coronary smooth

muscle cells; hVICs, human aortic valve interstitial cells; IP, immunoprecipitation; lncRNA, long

non-coding RNA; LPS, lipopolysaccharide; BMMSCs, bone marrow mesenchymal stem cells;

MSCs, mesenchymal stem cells; NFAST, fluorescence-activating and absorption-shifting tag, N-

domain; NT, no treatment; mVICs, mouse aortic valve interstitial cells OPN, osteopontin; OST,

osteogenic treatment; PCNA, proliferating cell nuclear antigen; PLA, proximity ligation assay ;

RUNX2, runt-related transcription factor 2; αSMA, alpha 2 smooth muscle actin; SMARCA4,

SWI/SNF chromatin remodeling complex A4; STAT5, signal transducer and activator of

transcription 5A/B; *lncTERC*, telomerase RNA component; TERT, telomerase reverse

transcriptase; TL, telomere length; TNAP, Tissue-Nonspecific Alkaline Phosphatase; TSS,

transcription start site, αTUB, alpha-tubulin

Key Words:

calcific aortic valve disease, vascular calcification, osteogenic reprogramming, TERT, STAT5

Novelty and Significance

What is known?

•   Calcific aortic valve disease (CAVD) is the most prevalent form of aortic valve pathology.

CAVD strongly correlates with age and leads to heart failure and a high risk of stroke.

Currently, the only therapeutic option is valve replacement, which comes with significant

healthcare costs and additional risks to patients.

•   Runt-related transcription factor 2 (RUNX2) is the master transcription factor required for

osteogenic differentiation of stem cells to osteoblasts and osteogenic reprogramming of

cardiovascular cells. Yet, the early events driving its activity in aortic valve cells are poorly

defined.

•   In addition to its reverse transcriptase enzymatic activity, TERT exhibits non-canonical

transcriptional regulatory functions and overexpression of TERT primes mesenchymal stem

cells to differentiate down the osteoblast lineage.

What new information does this article contribute?

• TERT protein levels in calcified aortic leaflets and valve interstitial cells, and its non-

canonical osteogenic activity are independent of changes in telomere length and cell

senescence.

• Genetic loss or depletion of TERT prevented calcification in valve interstitial cells, coronary

smooth muscle cells, and mesenchymal stem cells in vitro and the vasculature in vivo.

• Early in the osteogenic reprogramming inflammatory signaling promotes TERT to co-localize

with SMARCA4 and STAT5, and this TERT-tethered STAT5 binds to the *RUNX2* gene

promoter, the master regulator of osteogenic transcriptional programs.

• STAT5 depletion and pharmacological inhibition prevent calcification of human valve

interstitial cells, coronary smooth muscle cells, and mesenchymal stem cells.

What are the clinical implications?

• We have identified TERT-STAT5 as a novel signaling axis that orchestrates the early steps

in the osteogenic reprogramming of aortic valve cells. Inhibiting TERT/STAT5 interaction or

their activity may be leveraged for the development of therapeutic strategies to halt or

prevent calcification in the aortic valve, bioprosthetic valves, and or perhaps other

cardiovascular tissues.

• Invasive and expensive surgical procedures are currently the only treatment option for

patients with CAVD. The discovery and defining of the early events driving vascular

calcification identifies novel and druggable targets for developing non-surgical therapies.

INTRODUCTION

Calcific aortic valve disease (CAVD) encompasses a spectrum of pathological remodeling of the

valve leaflet, ranging from mild valve thickening that displays microcalcifications to

macrocalcifications that predominate in more advanced disease stages.[1,2] The advanced state,

aortic stenosis, results from fibrotic remodeling and the formation of calcified nodules on the

valve leaflet that impede and disrupt blood flow, causing excessive strain on the cardiac tissue,

increasing the risk of stroke and leading to heart failure.[3] CAVD severity and incidence increase

with age, with CAVD prevalence >1,000 per 100,000 individuals ≥75 years of age.[4,5] Further,

roughly 0.4-0.6% of the population harbors bicuspid aortic valve malformations, and these

malformed valves are prone to calcify and develop CAVD.[4] Currently, no therapeutic treatment

halts or reverses pathologic calcification that occurs in the aortic valve leaflets or other

cardiovascular tissues. The only therapeutic option to treat aortic stenosis is valve replacement

via surgical or transcatheter procedures, incurring substantial medical costs and health care

burdens to the patient.[6]

Aortic valve interstitial cells (VICs) are the primary cell type within the valve leaflet and are

responsible for maintaining leaflet integrity. VICs reside in a quiescent state; however, adaptive

or maladaptive responses to environmental factors such as inflammation, extracellular matrix

(ECM) breakdown, and mechanical stress may disrupt VIC homeostasis.[7,8] With alterations in

homeostasis, VICs acquire a myofibroblast-like phenotype, termed "activated VICs," capable of

proliferation, contraction, and secretion of proteins that further remodel the extracellular milieu.[9]

Activated VICs can transition into calcifying cells; however, the initial steps regulating this

process are not fully understood. It is well established that the osteogenic reprogramming of

cardiovascular cells such as VICs and vascular smooth muscle cells (SMCs) is analogous to the

differentiation of mesenchymal stem cells (MSCs) into bone-forming osteoblasts; osteogenic

differentiation of MSCs and the reprogramming of cardiovascular cells is primarily orchestrated

by Runt-related transcription factor 2 (*RUNX2*), the master regulator of osteogenic

transcriptional programs.[10-12] Other osteogenic signature markers, such as osteocalcin, alkaline

phosphatase, and osteopontin, are upregulated in the differentiation of stem cells to osteoblasts

and the calcifying of VICs.[9,13] While it is accepted that VICs upregulate the expression of

osteogenic genes in response to stresses such as inflammation, ECM remodeling, and

mechanical stress, the specific mechanistic steps between those stresses and the initial

reprogramming events in the activation of osteogenic transcriptional reprogramming remain ill-

defined.

The telomerase complex extends and maintains the ends of chromosomes after cell division.

The core complex consists of the telomerase long non-coding RNA component (*lncTERC*) and

telomerase reverse transcriptase (TERT) protein, along with other scaffolding proteins.[14] In

addition to reverse transcriptase activity, TERT also exhibits non-canonical functions

independent of telomere extension, such as regulating gene expression and orchestrating

chromatin remodeling.[15-17] For example, TERT acts as a cofactor in Wnt-dependent promoter

activation by interacting with the chromatin remodeling protein SWI/SNF related, matrix

associated, actin dependent regulator of chromatin, subfamily a, member 4 (SMARCA4),

facilitating the expression of Wnt/β-catenin target genes in stem cells.[18] In a murine model of

atherosclerosis, TERT induced chromatin remodeling and SMC proliferation by chaperoning the

retinoblastoma-associated transcription factor 1 (E2F1) binding to S-phase gene promoters.[19,20]

Linking together the themes of calcification and non-canonical TERT, two co-published studies

identified that the overexpression of *TERT* primed human MSCs to differentiate down the

osteogenic lineage and develop bone-like structures.[21,22] The mechanism by which TERT drives

the osteogenic differentiation of human MSCs is unknown. Collectively, these studies provide

strong evidence of telomerase-independent functions of TERT in altering chromatin states and

regulating gene expression via various protein-protein interactions.

Although telomere length is recognized as a biomarker of aging, it can vary significantly among

individuals of the same age, including twins.[23] Studies have examined the association between

shortened telomeres in circulating leukocytes and various vascular conditions, with mixed

results.[24-26] One study compared telomere lengths in leukocytes of control patients and those

with atherosclerotic plaques, as well as the atherosclerotic plaques themselves and found that

while atherosclerotic patients' leukocytes had shorter telomeres than controls, their plaque cells

exhibited longer telomeres than both groups' leukocytes, suggesting heightened telomerase

activity in the diseased tissue.[27-29] Thus, whether leukocyte telomere length can be used as a

biomarker remains speculative. A notable aspect of these prior studies is the lack of TERT

protein assessment or a focused investigation of telomere length in disease tissues.

Signal transducers and activators of transcription (STAT) proteins play essential roles in

inflammatory, proliferative, and apoptotic programs, mediating the signal transduction pathways

of various cytokines and growth factors.[30] STAT proteins function as transcription factors and

recruit chromatin remodeling and histone-modifying proteins to upregulate gene transcription.[31]

STAT5A and STAT5B are encoded by two highly conserved genes in humans and mice; 96% of

their amino acid sequence is shared, and many of their activities are redundant.[32] Herein,

unless specific tools are utilized to allow a distinction, we will generally refer to both as STAT5.

Upon phosphorylation, STAT5 dimerizes and translocates into the nucleus to bind the

consensus motif (TTCNNNGAA) and activates the promoters of various target genes by

recruiting transcriptional co-activators.[33,34] Crucially, studies have shown that several osteogenic

genes depend on STAT5 to promote chondrocyte and osteoblast differentiation.[35,36]

In this study, we tested the hypothesis that TERT contributes to the osteogenic reprogramming

of VICs. We utilized primary human aortic valve tissues from control donors and CAVD patients

and generated patient-specific VIC lines for in vitro disease modeling. We established baseline

patterns and osteogenic induction of *TERT* and calcification markers in CAVD tissue and VICs.

We assessed the consequences of genetic deletion or depletion of *TERT* during osteogenic

reprogramming in several cell types and in in vivo and ex vivo calcification models. We further

defined the underlying mechanism by which TERT and STAT5 participate in the osteogenic

reprogramming of VICs.

METHODS

Data Availability

The Materials, Methods, and Major Resources Table are found in the Supplemental Material.

The raw data, experimental materials, and analytic methods are available from the

corresponding author upon reasonable request.

RESULTS

TERT is elevated in CAVD tissues.

Human aortic valves were collected after surgical aortic valve replacement procedures or from

cadaveric tissue obtained via the Center for Organ Recovery and Education (CORE) of the

University of Pittsburgh Medical Center and processed as previously described.[37] Macroscopic

examination and histological staining with Von Kossa were used to determine and confirm

whether valves could be classified as a non-calcified control or as having calcific aortic valve

disease (CAVD) (**Figure 1A, Supplemental Figure 1A, Supplemental Table 1**). RUNX2 is the

master transcription factor required to initiate stem cells to differentiate into osteoblasts and is

critical for the pathological osteogenic reprogramming of vascular cells.[38-41] Immunofluorescent

staining showed RUNX2, and the late calcification marker osteopontin (OPN) were significantly

upregulated in CAVD tissue compared to control tissues, indicating activation of osteogenic

transcriptional programs in CAVD tissues (**Supplemental Figure 1B**). Previous studies found

that overexpression of TERT primes human MSCs to differentiate down the osteogenic

lineage.[21,22] We found that *TERT* transcript levels were significantly upregulated in CAVD tissue

relative to control samples (**Figure 1B**), and *TERT* expression levels showed no correlation with

the donor's age (**Supplemental Figure 1C**). Markers of senescence (cyclin-dependent kinase

inhibitor 1A, *CDKN1A*, galactosidase beta 1, *GLB1*), proliferation (proliferating cell nuclear

antigen, *PCNA*), DNA damage (tumor protein 53, *TP53*), and cytoskeletal markers (actin alpha

2 smooth muscle, *ACTA2*, vimentin, *VIM,* interleukin 6, *IL6*) showed no statistically significant

differences, while the inflammatory marker and tumor necrosis factor-alpha (*TNF)* was

significantly elevated in CAVD samples (**Supplemental Figure 1D**), supporting observations by

others that indicate a role for inflammatory signaling in aortic valve calcification

pathogenesis.[42,43]

We detected elevated TERT protein signal in CAVD valves compared to non-calcified controls,

with the signal localized to areas of calcification. Similarly, the number of cells expressing TERT

was significantly elevated in our CAVD tissues compared to non-calcified control tissues

(**Figure 1C**). No statistically significant differences were observed in the staining levels of

proliferation marker PCNA or the DNA damage indicator phosphorylated gamma histone 2AX

(γ-H2AX) between CAVD and control tissues (**Supplemental Figure 1E**). We also found no

statistically significant differences in the relative mean telomere length between the control and

CAVD tissues in our study (**Figure 1D**), indicating no overt influence of the canonical telomere-

extending functions of TERT. The mean age of CAVD patients in this study was slightly

elevated compared to the control patients, 68 and 54 years old, respectively (**Figure 1E**).

Together, these data show that TERT, osteogenic markers, and inflammatory signatures are

upregulated in CAVD tissues compared to controls, while markers indicating alterations in

proliferation, DNA damage, and senescence are not altered, suggesting that the non-canonical

activity of TERT is operative.

CAVD human VICs at baseline recapitulate observations in CAVD tissues.

We created patient-specific valve interstitial cell (VIC) lines from CAVD and control valves.[37] At

baseline, freshly isolated hVICs from CAVD and control patients exhibited no morphological or

statistical differences in their proliferative or migratory capacity (**Figure 2, A- C, and**

Supplemental Figure 1F). TERT and RUNX2 proteins were significantly elevated at baseline in

CAVD hVICs compared to control hVICs (**Figure 2D**). We observed no statistical differences in

the protein levels of the hVIC activation markers SM22 or αSMA between CAVD and control

hVICs, but observed a significant increase of the mineralizing enzyme tissue non-specific

alkaline phosphatase (TNAP) in CAVD hVICs at baseline (**Supplemental 1G**). As in the leaflets,

there was no statistical difference in the relative telomere length between CAVD and control

hVICs (**Figure 2E**). These data show that hVICs isolated from CAVD patients display gene

expression and protein signatures that recapitulate the osteogenic phenotype observed in

CAVD leaflet tissue.

TERT expression is upregulated in human VICs in an in vitro osteogenic disease model.

To model CAVD in vitro and investigate a role for TERT during hVIC osteogenic

reprogramming, we cultured CAVD and control hVICs in osteogenic media conditions (OST), a

media widely utilized to induce osteogenic differentiation of stem cells to osteoblasts.[44] Alizarin

Red staining for calcification revealed that both OST-treated CAVD and control hVICs lay down

calcified matrix as early as 14 days (d14), CAVD hVICs calcified earlier relative to control hVICs

(**Figure 2F**). Importantly, we observed that CAVD hVICs calcify de novo under no treatment

(NT) conditions, suggesting that CAVD hVICs are primed for osteogenic reprogramming (**Figure**

2F). The calcification markers RUNX2 and OPN were significantly upregulated in both control

and CAVD hVICs at d14 OST, indicating active osteogenic reprogramming (**Figure 2G**). TERT

protein levels were also significantly increased in control and CAVD hVICs after d14 of OST

(**Figure 2G**). TERT protein signal can be seen in CAVD hVICs at d14 under NT conditions

(**Figure 2H**, left panels). At d14 of OST, the TERT protein staining was elevated and localized

near areas of calcification in both control and CAVD hVICs; however, CAVD hVICs formed

larger calcified nodules (**Figure 2H**, right panels). We observed no significant differences in cell

numbers at the end of the d14 assay under NT or OST treatment conditions (**Supplemental**

Figure 2A). As we observed that CAVD hVICs exhibit elevated osteogenic markers at baseline

(**Supplemental Figure 1G**) and are prone to calcify (**Figure 2H**) de novo, we assessed

transcriptional differences between control hVICs under NT or OST. Osteogenic markers *BMP2*,

THBS1, *ALPL,* and myofibroblast markers *CNN1*, *TAGLN*, and *SMTN* were significantly

upregulated in control hVICs at d14 of OST treatment (**Figure 2I**). Likewise, the calcification-

associated gene *FOXO1* and the CAVD-associated metalloproteinase *MMP13* were also

significantly upregulated in OST conditions.[45,46] Lastly, the pro-inflammatory transcription factor

signal transducer and activator of transcription 5A *(STAT5A)* was significantly upregulated,

while the expression of the isoform *STAT5B* remained unchanged. These results show that

hVICs are undergoing osteogenic reprogramming and not de novo mineral nucleation.[47]

In cancer and stem cells, elevated expression of TERT is associated with long telomeres and

enables unlimited proliferation, while short telomeres can trigger cellular senescence.[48,49]

Although we observed no differences in telomere length in our tissues and cells in this study

(Figures 1D and 2E), we assessed cellular senescence and observed no significant differences

in the expression of senescence-associated β-galactosidase (SA-β-gal, *GLB1*) between CAVD

and control hVICs at baseline **(Supplemental Figure 2B)** nor increased in control hVICs in OST

treatment (**Figure 2I**). SA-β-gal activity staining indicated that cellular senescence was not

engaged even after 28 days of OST treatment (**Supplemental Figure 2C**). These data

confirmed that cellular senescence is not operative during hVICs osteogenic reprogramming.

NF-κB is a transcription factor complex that acts downstream of inflammatory signals to mediate

inflammatory responses, and the c-Myc transcription factor mediates cell proliferation and

differentiation. Others have shown that both NF-κB and c-Myc can upregulate transcription of

the *TERT* gene.[50-52] We found that inhibiting NF-κB with BAY-107082, an irreversible inhibitor

that blocks the phosphorylation of IκB-α,[53,54] inhibited *TERT* expression during the osteogenic

reprogramming of hVICs. We also observed downregulation of *RUNX2* expression, consistent

with upstream TERT's regulatory role on *RUNX2* expression (**Supplemental Figure 2D**).

Likewise, we found that inhibiting c-MYC with 10058-F4 inhibited *TERT* expression during the

osteogenic differentiation of hVICs (**Supplemental Figure 2E**), validating previous research

showing that c-MYC regulates *TERT* gene expression.[16] These results further support that

inflammatory signaling contributes to the development of CAVD.

TERT is required for the osteogenic differentiation of human MSCs.

Previous studies have shown that the overexpression of TERT primes human mesenchymal

stem cells (hMSCs) to differentiate into osteoblasts.[21,22] To assess the role of endogenous

TERT in osteogenic differentiation, we subjected hMSCs to NT and OST treatment. OST

treatment induced robust calcification as early as d14, while cells in NT conditions did not calcify

(**Supplemental Figure 3A**). Protein analysis showed that the TERT protein levels significantly

increased on day 3 of the OST treatment, coinciding with increased *RUNX2* expression and

RUNX2 protein levels (**Supplemental Figures 3B and 3C**). hMSCs in OST treatment exhibited

intense TERT staining, and TERT-positive cells clustered around calcified nodules

(**Supplemental Figure 3D**). Using lentiviral-mediated transduction of expressing short-hairpin

RNA to deplete TERT (shTERT) or scrambled control (shControl), we found that knockdown of

TERT significantly inhibited the calcification of hMSCs (**Supplemental Figures 3E and 3F**).

While previous studies show that overexpression of *TERT* primed hMSCs to undergo

osteogenic differentiation, our data show that TERT is required for the osteogenic differentiation

of hMSCs.[21,22]

TERT is required for calcification in vitro and in vivo.

Control hVICs were transduced with shControl and shTERT lentivirus, and like hMSCs,

knockdown of *TERT* significantly inhibited calcification compared to the control group and

downregulated RUNX2 protein levels (**Figures 3A and 3B**). We assessed TERT's role in

calcifying human coronary artery smooth muscle cells (hCASMCs), which calcify in

atherosclerotic plaques.[55] Knocking down TERT significantly inhibited hCASMCs calcification

(**Figure 3C**). Together, these data indicate that TERT is essential for the osteogenic

reprogramming of hVICs and hCASMCs. Next, mice VIC (mVICs) and bone marrow MSCs

(mBMMSCs) lines were generated from *Tert*^{+/+} and *Tert*^{-/-} mice.[56] In line with our observations in

human cells with depleted TERT, we observed significant inhibition of calcification in *Tert*^{-/-}

mVICs (**Figure 3D**) and *Tert*^{-/-} mBMMSCs (**Supplemental Figure 4A**) compared to *Tert*^{+/+} cells.

No statistically significant differences were observed in senescence-associated β-galactosidase

activity in mVICs or mBMMSCs (**Supplemental Figures 4B** and **4C**).

To determine whether TERT is required to initiate and/or maintain osteogenic reprogramming,

we cultured control hVICs in OST and transduced shTERT lentivirus on d7 or d14, and

calcification was assessed on d21. Control hVICs transduced with shTERT on day 7 showed a

significant reduction in calcification compared to the OST alone, while transduction of shTERT

on day 14 did not show any decrease in calcification (**Supplemental Figure 4D**), indicating that

TERT is required to initiate, not maintain, reprogramming to the osteogenic phenotype.

Next, we used *Tert*^{+/+} and *Tert*^{-/-} mice strains to test whether TERT is required for diet-induced

non-atherosclerotic medial arterial calcification in vivo in mice. Of note, *Tert*^{-/-} mice were

generated from heterozygous breeding pairs (F1 generation) and thus did not exhibit shortened

telomeres.[57] *Tert*^{+/+} and *Tert*^{-/-} mice were fed an adenine-phosphate (A6P6) diet, which was

previously shown to induce medial arterial calcification in the vasculature of mice.[58] At the end

of the 12-week regime, we observed significantly higher levels of calcification in the aorta of

Tert^{+/+} compared to *Tert*^{-/-} mice (**Figure 3E**). Staining for Runx2 protein mirrored calcification

presentation and was significantly higher in the *Tert*^{+/+} compared to *Tert*^{-/-} tissue (**Figure 3F**).

These findings were validated in an ex vivo calcification assay. Thoracic aortic rings obtained

from the *Tert*^{+/+} and *Tert*^{-/-} mice were cultured in ex vivo OST or control NT medium. *Tert*^{+/+}

aortic rings exhibited significantly elevated calcification compared to aortic rings from *Tert*^{-/-} mice

on d14 (**Supplemental Figure 4E**). *Tert*^{+/+} aortic rings also exhibited prominent staining for

Runx2 protein, which was absent in aortic rings from *Tert*^{-/-} mice (**Supplemental Figure 4F**),

and western blot analysis confirmed elevated Runx2 protein levels in *Tert*^{+/+} aortic rings

compared to $Tert^{-/-}$ (**Supplemental Figure 4G**). Neither calcification nor Runx2 was detected in

the NT groups. Together, these data show that TERT is required for osteogenic reprogramming

of cells in vitro and in vivo.

TERT's canonical telomere-extending activity requires the telomerase long non-coding RNA

component (*lncTerc*) to maintain chromosome telomere length and genome integrity.[14,59] *LncTerc*

exerts a dual function in the telomerase complex; it guides the telomerase complex to the telomere

ends and is the primer for TERT reverse transcriptase activity, and it serves as a scaffold for

tethering additional proteins to the telomerase complex (i.e., Dyskerin, NOP10, GAR1, and

NHP2).[60] To evaluate that TERT's role in calcification is independent of its canonical telomere-

extending function, we isolated mVICs from $Terc^{-/-}$ mice. While $Tert^{-/-}$ mVICs did not calcify under

OST conditions, $Terc^{-/-}$ mVICs were significantly calcified (**Figure 3G**). Similarly, in hVICs,

BIBR1532, which blocks the reverse transcriptase activity of TERT,[61] did not prevent calcification

nor decrease the expression of *RUNX2* (**Supplemental Figure 4H and 4I**). Together, these data

illustrate that the canonical telomere-extending function of TERT does not contribute to

osteogenic reprogramming.

TERT/STAT5 interact and bind to the *RUNX2* gene promoter to initiate osteogenic

reprogramming.

Several studies have shown that TERT participates in gene transcription by physically

interacting with transcription factors.[17,20,62,63] RUNX2 is the master regulator of osteogenic

differentiation of stem cells.[38,39] Increased *RUNX2* expression and transcriptional activity are the

hallmarks of osteoblast differentiation and cardiovascular calcification and are required for

osteogenic reprogramming of vascular cells.[40,41] As our data show that RUNX2 is significantly

downregulated in *TERT*-knockdown and deficient cells (Figure 3), we used the LASAGNA[64] and

TRANSFAC/MATCH[65] programs to identify putative transcription factor binding sites in the 5 kb

region upstream of the human *RUNX2* gene promoter (NM_001015051.3) and identified eight

potential STAT5 binding sites (**Supplemental Table 2**). We sought to determine whether

STAT5 is bound to the *RUNX2* gene promoter and focused on the two most proximal predicted

STAT5 sites located at -1371 bp and -193 bp upstream of the transcriptional start site (TSS), as

both have high homology to the tetrameric consensus STAT5 binding site and show an elevated

likelihood of being functional sites (**Figures 4A** and **4B**). As inflammation and inflammatory

signaling pathways are known to contribute to CAVD pathogenesis[1,66], and *TERT* expression

was induced via that inflammatory transcription factor NF-κB (Supplemental Figure 2D), we

used bacterial lipopolysaccharide (LPS) as a broad method to activate inflammatory response

pathways in hVICs. We found that LPS was sufficient to induce calcification of hVICs and that

TERT-positive cells accumulated near calcified nodules (**Figure 4C**). Protein analysis showed

that OST and LPS significantly upregulate TERT, RUNX2, and STAT5 proteins (**Figure 4D**).

TERT protein levels were elevated in both the cytosol and nucleus of cells upon OST

stimulation (**Supplemental Figure 5A**). Under NT conditions, STAT5 is observed in the

membrane and cytosol but translocates and accumulates in the nucleus of hVICs in OST

(**Supplemental Figure 5B**). Next, we used genetic and pharmacological approaches to

determine the requirement of STAT5 for the calcification of hVICs. The small molecules StafiA-1

and StafiB-1 specifically inhibit STAT5A and STAT5B, respectively.[67,68] We found that StafiA-1

significantly inhibited the calcification of control hVICs during a 21-day OST assay and that this

inhibition was greater than the inhibition observed with StafiB-1 (**Figure 4E**). In line with these

findings, we also observed that inhibition of STAT5A significantly reduced the expression of

RUNX2 at d7 of osteogenic differentiation of hVICs, suggesting that STAT5A is a main

participant during the osteogenic reprogramming of hVICs (**Figure 4F**). Similarly, StafiA-1

significantly reduced calcification in hCASMCs and hMSCs (**Supplemental Figures 5C** and

5D). Lentiviral-mediated delivery of shControl or shSTAT5 constructs showed that depletion of

STAT5 significantly attenuated calcification and *RUNX2* expression (**Figure 4G and 4H**),

confirming an essential role for STAT5 in the osteogenic reprogramming of hVICs. Similar to

TERT (Supplemental Figure 4D), knocking down STAT5 after 7 or 14 days of OST treatment did

not reduce calcification (**Figure 4I**), indicating that STAT5 activity is required during the initial

steps of osteogenic reprogramming. Others have established that TERT can interact with

transcription factors to regulate gene expression.[17,20,62,63] We assessed whether TERT and

STAT5 directly interact. Three methods were utilized: proximity ligation assay (PLA), co-

immunoprecipitation (IP), and exogenously expressing TERT and STAT5 reporters. PLA can

detect protein-protein proximity <40 nm apart.[69] PLA revealed that OST significantly increased

TERT and STAT5 colocalization in control hVICs after 21 days of OST treatment relative to NT

condition (**Figure 4J**). Focusing on nuclear co-localization, TERT/STAT5 puncta are

significantly elevated in the nucleus of calcifying hVICs relative to the NT condition

(**Supplementary Figure 5E**). Protein IP shows that TERT and STAT5 physically interact in

hVICs upon OST treatment relative to NT condition (**Figure 4K**). A Dual-Luciferase reporter

assay shows that the human *RUNX2* promoter, containing the -194 and -1371 putative STAT5

binding sites, is upregulated early (d3) under OST treatment relative to NT, and that this

upregulation is abrogated with pharmacological inhibition of STAT5A, validating the functionality

of the predicted STAT5 binding in the *RUNX2* promoter (**Supplementary Figure 5F**).

Furthermore, an electrophoretic mobility shift assay (EMSA) confirmed the physical binding of

STAT5A to DNA oligos containing the predicted -194 STAT5A binding site on the RUNX2

promoter (wt RUNX2 oligo). This interaction was validated by challenging the oligo-STAT5

complex with increasing amounts of unlabeled (cold) oligos. Moreover, the binding was entirely

abrogated by incubating the STAT5 extract with oligos where the STAT5A binding site was

entirely randomized (mut RUNX2 oligo) (**Supplementary Figure 5G**). Supporting a role for

STAT5 in osteogenic reprogramming, STAT5 protein levels were significantly lower in the aorta

of *Tert*^{-/-} mice fed the A6P6 diet compared to the aorta from *Tert*^{+/+} mice (**Supplemental Figures**

5H), and these findings were replicated in the ex vivo calcification assay (**Supplemental Figure**

5I)**.** These experiments demonstrate that STAT5 directly acts on DNA in the *RUNX2* promoter

and contributes to osteogenic reprogramming in cardiovascular tissues.

While the domains of TERT were initially defined by their role in the telomere-extending

functions of TERT, protein partners required for the known non-canonical functions of TERT

have been found in several domains throughout the protein.[70] Further, sites for protein binding

partners to STAT5, such as epigenetic modifiers and transcriptional regulators, have been found

throughout the protein.[71] We used AI-assisted technology to generate tertiary structures of

TERT and STAT5 dimers and predict how they may interact. AlphaFold[72] mapped the

interaction between human TERT and dimerized human STAT5A, and these binding data were

visualized using HDOCK[73] (**Supplemental Figure 5J and 5K**). To gain a more comprehensive

and detailed understanding of the TERT/STAT5 interaction we will utilize a next-generation

fluorescence-based complementation system developed by Tebo and Gautier in 2019

(splitFAST).[74] This system has very low background fluorescence and can be temporally

regulated, enabling the visualization of transient TERT/STAT5 interactions in living cells or fixed

cells, to provide a scalable model that can be used to screen for compounds that block the

TERT/STAT5 interaction. We fused the human cDNA of TERT and STAT5 to NFAST and

CFAST splitFAST reporters, respectively, to generate TERT-NFAST and STAT5A-CFAST

fusion proteins. This approach allows monitoring of the formation and dissociation of a protein

assembly.[74] Control hVICs were co-transfected with TERT-NFAST and STAT5A-CFAST

plasmids and 5 µM HBR-3,5DOM (4-hydroxy-3,5- dimethoxy benzylidene rhodamine)

administered at d3, d5, and d7 of OST or NT. We found that the TERT/STAT5 splitFAST signal

was highly elevated in calcifying control hVICs relative to the NT condition as early as d3

throughout d7, supporting the early formation of the TERT/STAT5 complex in calcifying hVICs

(**Figure 4L**). Together, these approaches confirm TERT and STAT5 interaction and

translocation into the nucleus during osteogenic reprogramming.

To assess the function of TERT-STAT5 interaction, we performed chromatin

immunoprecipitation analysis (Ch-IP). We found that STAT5 is significantly enriched on both

putative STAT5 binding sites in the *RUNX2* promoter during osteogenic reprogramming (**Figure**

4M). *RUNX2* transcription is initiated from two distinct promoters: the distal promoter region P1,

located upstream of exon 1, and the proximal P2 promoter, located upstream of exon 2.[75,76] The

P1 promoter is highly active and required for osteoblast progenitor expansion, osteoblast

maturation, and bone formation, while the P2 promoter-derived isoform is expressed in

osteoblastic and non-osteoblastic mesenchymal cells.[77-79] Genome-wide CUT&Run analysis of

the histone marker H3K4me3 showed that RUNX2 promoters P1 and P2 are significantly

upregulated during osteogenic differentiation on human VICs, while Gene Ontology (GO)

pathway analysis revealed that genes related to the telomerase complex, chromatin remodeling,

and metabolic pathways are upregulated during osteogenic differentiation of hVICs

(**Supplementary Figures 5L and 5M**, GEO accession GSE280657). We assessed STAT5

binding to the *Runx2* P1 and P2 promoters during osteogenic differentiation using CUT&Tag

analysis in the *Tert*^{+/+} and *Tert*^{-/-} mVICs. We found that STAT5 binds to the *Runx2* P1 and P2

promoters during osteogenic differentiation and that STAT5 was absent from these regions in

Tert^{-/-} mVICs, highlighting the Tert requirement for Stat5 binding to *Runx2* gene promoters

(**Figure 4N**, GEO accession GSE274226). By comparing *Tert*^{+/+} and *Tert*^{-/-} mVICs CUT&Tag

sequencing, we found that Stat5 occupies promoter, intragenic, and intergenic regions

throughout the genome (**Figure 4O**). GO pathway analysis revealed that genes with high Stat5

binding participate in biological processes related to protein phosphorylation, JAK/STAT

signaling, inflammation, osteoblast differentiation, SMC function, and chromatin remodeling

(**Figure 4P**). Together, these data identify that TERT's effects are mediated via STAT5 binding

on the *Runx2* gene promoter and the promoters involved in several pathways known to be

operative during osteogenic reprogramming of cardiovascular cells.

TERT and STAT5 are upregulated in calcified tissue.

Confirming our in vitro, ex vivo, and in vivo data above, in human CAVD tissue we found that

STAT5 protein levels are significantly elevated and localized to areas of calcification in the

calcified leaflet alongside TERT distribution. Additionally, the number of STAT5-positive cells

was significantly higher in CAVD tissue compared to control tissue (**Figure 5A**). Furthermore,

the number of TERT/STAT5 co-positive nuclei was significantly greater in CAVD valves

compared to control valves (**Figure 5B**). These data support our in vitro investigations and

indicate that TERT/STAT5 interaction contributes to human CAVD pathogenesis.

TERT interacts with SMARCA4 during the osteogenic reprogramming of VICs.

Studies by others have shown that TERT facilitates chromatin accessibility and transcription by

recruiting SMARCA4 (previously referred to as BRG1), the catalytic subunit of the SWI/SNF

chromatin remodeling complex, to specific DNA loci.[18,80,81] We investigated whether SMARCA4

plays a role in the osteogenic reprogramming of hVICs via interacting with TERT. There was no

difference in SMARCA4 protein staining in the aorta of *Tert*^{+/+} and *Tert*^{-/-} mice fed the A6P6 diet,

nor in aortic rings ex vivo (**Supplemental Figures 6A and 6B**). However, in hVICs, expression

analysis revealed significant upregulation of *SMARCA4* transcripts as early as d5 of OST

stimulation (**Supplementary Figure 6C**). Immunoprecipitation showed that TERT and

SMARCA4 physically interact in hVICs upon OST treatment (**Supplementary Figure 6D**).

Immunofluorescence staining showed that TERT and SMARCA4 are detected and colocalized

in cells in the calcified human leaflet (**Supplementary Figure 6E**), mirroring TERT and STAT5

distribution in human CAVD tissue. These findings suggest that SMARCA4 plays an active role

in the osteogenic reprogramming of VICs.

DISCUSSION

This study investigated the early steps required for the osteogenic reprogramming of human

valve interstitial cells in CAVD and establishes a critical role for TERT and STAT5 in this

process (**Figure 6**). Specifically, our data show that 1) TERT is upregulated in CAVD tissue and

elevated in primary VIC lines stimulated with osteogenic media. While TERT is elevated in these

calcified tissues and cells, telomere length is not impacted, nor is there evidence of cell

senescence; 2) TERT is required for the calcification of VICs, CASMCs, and MSCs. The

requirement for TERT occurs early in the process of osteogenic reprogramming, as knocking

down TERT protein levels after seven days of osteogenic stimulation did not deter calcification.

These osteogenic reprogramming activities of TERT are independent of its telomerase

enzymatic activity, as $Terc^{-/-}$ cells or the use of the TERT reverse transcriptase inhibitor did not

deter calcification. Further, TERT co-immunoprecipitated with the chromatin remodeling enzyme

SMARCA4, and these two proteins were also found in the nucleus of CAVD tissues; 3)

Inflammatory signals are known to contribute to CAVD pathogenesis, and we found such

signaling can increase TERT levels, as well as the transcription factor STAT5. In silico modeling

predicted TERT/STAT5 interaction, which was proven experimentally with immunoprecipitation,

proximity ligation assay, and a fluorescence complementation system developed for the

visualization of transient protein-protein interactions, and like TERT, genetic knockdown of

STAT5, or specific inhibition of STAT5 activity, prevented calcification. We found that STAT5

directly binds the DNA of the RUNX2 promoter, as well as genes in pathways related to

chromatin remodeling and cellular proliferation and differentiation. Lastly, the requirement for

TERT was established in in vivo and ex vivo calcification models. Collectively, these

experiments support a novel role for TERT and STAT5 in driving CAVD pathogenesis and

cardiovascular reprogramming and identify a unique, druggable target for cardiovascular

calcification.

TERT is well-known for its canonical telomere-extending activity, yet TERT also regulates gene

expression and chromatin remodeling independent of affecting telomere integrity. TERT

interacts physically with several transcription factors to promote the expression of several

genes, including β-catenin, to stimulate genes involved in bone development.[15,16,62] In a wire-

injury restenosis model, TERT binds to the transcription factors SP1 at the *VEGF* promoter and

E2F1 at *MCM7*, *CCNA1*, and *PCNA* promoters, stimulating SMC proliferation and neointima

formation.[20,56,63,82] We did not detect proliferative or migratory differences between control and

CAVD VICs despite elevated levels of TERT at baseline (Figures 2B and 2C), indicating cell-

specific and stress-specific functions of TERT.

In addition to supporting transcription factor function, TERT can act as a cofactor to orchestrate

chromatin remodeling machinery. Studies have shown that TERT serves as a chaperone to

facilitate the recruitment of SMARCA4 and histone acetyltransferases to stimulate chromatin

accessibility and transcription or to maintain heterochromatin structure,[18,80,81] and loss of TERT

abrogates the cellular response to DNA double-strand breaks and alters the overall chromatin

configuration without affecting telomere integrity.[17] We now show that TERT is upregulated in

calcified valve tissues and VICs under osteogenic and inflammatory stimuli. TERT interacts with

STAT5, which binds to the *RUNX2* gene promoter and drives osteogenic reprogramming of the

aortic valve cells. TERT depletion reduced *RUNX2* expression and calcification in several cell

types, and TERT, STAT5, and the chromatin remodeling enzyme SMARCA4 co-

immunoprecipitated in OST-treated VICs (Supplementary Figure 6). Further, TERT and

SMARCA4 co-localized in the nucleus of CAVD tissues. These discoveries, along with the

findings of others showing that *TERT* overexpression drives osteogenic differentiation in human

MSCs,[21,22] support a broad role for TERT serving as a co-factor bridging chromatin remodeling

complexes and transcription factors to facilitate euchromatin formation to modulating cellular

phenotypic transition and osteogenic reprogramming.

Telomere length is considered a biomarker of aging, yet it varies widely between people of the

same age, even twins.[23] Several studies have utilized circulating leukocytes to investigate

whether shortened telomeres correlate with various vascular disease states.[24,25] One study

correlated telomere length in circulating leukocytes with aortic stenosis and found that leukocyte

telomere length was slightly shorter in individuals with aortic stenosis than in age-matched

controls.[26] However, telomere length in leukocytes does not indicate global telomere length in

an individual, telomerase complex activity, or TERT protein function in all cell types. Further,

somatic mosaicism and clonal hematopoiesis discoveries underscore the importance of not

ascribing telomere length in one cell type to telomere length and/or TERT activities in another.[28]

Short telomeres in circulating leukocytes may reflect increased cell turnover due to systemic

inflammation, as leukocytes are highly proliferative, and telomere attrition is highly likely to be a

tissue- and disease-dependent process. In this regard, Huzen et al. compared the telomere

length of the leukocytes of age-matched controls and patients with atherosclerosis and the

telomere length of the cells in the atherosclerotic plaques of the patients.[27] They found that

while telomere length in leukocytes from the atherosclerosis patient group was significantly

shorter than in the control group, telomere length in the atherosclerotic plaques was significantly

longer, indicative of increased telomerase activity. Thus, total leukocyte telomere length does

not represent telomere length in the diseased tissue. Our study investigated TERT protein levels

directly in the valve tissue and patient-specific VICs. We determined that the expression levels

of TERT and osteogenic markers in CAVD tissue and cells were elevated, without changes in

telomere length, proliferation, and DNA damage markers (Figures 1-2, Supplemental Figures 1-

4), suggesting non-canonical TERT activity in these cells.

VIC calcification shares aspects of the transcriptional program observed during the

differentiation of MSCs into osteoblasts, including the upregulation of *RUNX2, BGLAP, TNAP*,

and the secretion of bone-forming proteins and accumulation of calcium minerals.[10,12,83]

Likewise, signals such as mechanical stress, disturbed flow, and inflammation promote VIC

calcification and the osteogenic differentiation of MSCs.[84] These observations suggest that VICs

switch from their quiescent state and undergo an osteogenic reprogramming akin to the

differentiation of MSCs into osteoblasts, acquiring a calcifying phenotype. The mechanisms

coordinating the early molecular events in these cell transitions have yet to be fully understood.

We have hypothesized that fully differentiated cells can de-differentiate into a transitory,

multipotent stem cell-like state and then acquire an osteogenic phenotype.[85] VICs exhibit the

potential to differentiate into osteogenic, chondrogenic, or adipogenic lineages, properties

comparable to mesenchymal stem cells.[86] We chose to investigate TERT in the osteogenic

reprogramming of VICs as TERT is highly expressed in stem cells, and its overexpression

primes mesenchymal stem cells into the osteogenic lineage.[21,22] Our data supports the role of

TERT in the osteogenic reprogramming of VICs, whereby TERT serves as a bridge between

DNA-binding transcription factors and chromatin remodeling enzymes.

The osteogenic differentiation of stem cells is orchestrated by RUNX2, which is also required for

the osteogenic reprogramming of valvular and vascular cells.[40,41] In a recent transcriptomic

study, Xu et al. identified 14 cell populations in aortic valve tissue samples from two control and

four CAVD valves.[87] The severity of CAVD was assessed via ultrasound imaging, which detects

leaflet mobility; however, examining the macroscopic pictures and histological staining of valve

leaflets used in this analysis shows that while these valves are indeed stiff, they do not exhibit

robust nodules of calcification as do the valves in our data set (Figures 1, 5, and Supplemental

Figure 1). Analysis by Xu et al identified three VIC populations defined by expression of *FOS,*

HSPA6, and SPARC. However, cells from six valves were pooled, with 10.4% of cells from

control tissue and the remaining 89.6% from CAVD tissues. Bulk transcriptomic data from these

tissues show only a small 1.49-fold increase in *RUNX2* gene expression in CAVD tissues, in

stark contrast with our more stringent analysis of *RUNX2* expression by quantitative PCR

(Figure 2, Supplemental Figure 4).[10-12] Inspection of the publicly available bulk RNA-sequencing

data (PRJNA552159) showed no increase in *TERT* transcript expression. While the

hemodynamic data showed those valves had undergone fibrotic remodeling, few calcifying cells

were present, as seen by their histological staining. This lack of calcification may explain why

TERT expression was undetected in their study. In the general population, aortic sclerosis

commonly goes undetected until a patient develops symptoms such as dyspnea, angina, and

syncope, as the stiffness and remodeling of the leaflet obstructs ventricular outflow. A

population-based study assessed aortic valve disease in 552 randomly selected men and

women aged 55 to 86. Using imaging and Doppler echocardiography, mild calcification was

observed in 40% of the individuals, severe calcification in 13%, and symptomatic stenosis in

only 2.2%.[88] This population-based study illustrates how common aortic valve remodeling is and

highlights the importance of using multiple modalities to accurately determine valve pathology

(i.e., fibrotic vs calcified). In our study, a portion of each patient valve was used for cell isolation

while the rest was utilized for calcification assessment by histological staining, following a

workflow that we developed that guarantees that cells isolated from surgically removed and

postmortem tissues retain their proliferative capacity and endothelial and interstitial phenotypes

in culture.[37] While unbiased sequencing approaches may help uncover novel mechanisms

contributing to disease states, they are skewed towards genes exhibiting the largest changes in

gene expression in a snapshot of time and can miss short-lived transitory events.

The function of STAT5 in bone formation is multifaceted. While it was shown that STAT5 could

promote the differentiation of MSCs into osteoblasts by upregulating the osteogenic genes in a

Jak2-dependent manner, a *Stat5a* global knockout mouse exhibited elevated bone mass and

mineral density.[89,90] These conflicting reports indicate that the role of STAT5 in bone formation

and remodeling is complex, and more studies are required. STAT5 has diverse functions as a

transcription factor: it interacts with histone acetyltransferases and transcription factors such as

the glucocorticoid receptor, SP1, YY1, and C/EBPβ to stimulate gene expression,[91-93] and

studies in cancer cells identified that STAT5 can induce *TERT* expression.[94,95] Using in silico

modeling we found multiple putative STAT5 binding sites in the *RUNX2* P1 promoter region,

which were confirmed with Ch-IP assays. This supports our hypothesis that STAT5/TERT acts

to initiate the osteogenic reprogramming of VICs, establishing a novel mechanism in CAVD

pathogenesis whereby TERT/STAT5 bind to each other and activate osteogenic gene

transcription, which drives the early events in cellular osteogenic reprogramming. Cell

phenotype reprogramming requires chromatin restructuring to allow for the transcription of

repressed genes. As observed in other cell types, we found TERT co-immunoprecipitated with

SMARCA4, as well as STAT5, and genetic depletion of TERT or STAT5 midway through the

OST assay (i.e., after d7) did not perturb the calcification of cells. Our observations strongly

supports that TERT complexes with SMARCA4 to remodel chromatin and with the STAT5

transcription factor to bind and activate *RUNX2* gene transcription. We explored the potential

physical direct interaction between TERT and STAT5, and we propose that the RNA binding

domain of TERT is the most likely candidate to interact with STAT5 (Supplemental Figure 5).

This location is of interest, as we found that *Terc^-/- mVICs* robustly calcify; this begs the question

of whether the loss of *lncTERC* binding is what enables or regulates the non-canonical activities

of TERT. Studies identifying critical domains for interaction are currently ongoing.

The strengths of this study lie in the utilization of patient-specific tissues and cell lines generated

from valve leaflets, and the use mouse models and knockout cells for mechanistic studies.

While our results are robust, it is important to address the limitations of our study. Firstly, we

worked with a limited number of human samples obtained from age- and sex-matched donors.

Due to this limited sample size, we limited our statistical analyses to non-parametric analysis,

comparing two to four groups, and no mixed models were included. Regardless, one strength of

our study is the multiprong approach to determining the role of TERT and STAT5 in vascular

calcification. Secondly, STAT5A and STAT5B are two different genes, with 96% of their amino

acid sequence shared and their activities redundant.[32] We have determined that VICs express

both variants; however, our antibodies and shRNA constructs could not differentiate between

the two variants. Thus, the two isoforms may interact with TERT to bind the *RUNX2* gene

promoter. STAT5 is activated by multiple cytokines, including IL-2, IL-6, and TNF-α, and it was

shown that IL-2 specifically activates STAT5 to induce TERT expression in cancer cells.[94,96]

Whether STAT5 first induces TERT expression and then TERT and STAT5 cooperate to control

the expression of *RUNX2* needs to be determined. Thirdly, there is redundancy regarding

STAT1/3/5 functions and signaling.[97] Our study was not designed to address all the

complexities of STAT signaling per se but rather to investigate the role of TERT as a key protein

that orchestrates the osteogenic reprogramming of aortic valve cells; our future studies will

explore the role of STAT5 further.

Our work highlights the importance of primary human tissue-based studies. Murine models are

not ideal for studying non-genetic drivers of CAVD, as mice do not develop CAVD de novo.[98,99]

Mouse leaflets' structure differs from human leaflets as they lack a trilaminar organization and

present a melanocyte cell population not present in human valves.[100-102] Recent elegant work

from the Giachelli group showed that in mice, calcification happens in the sinus wall and, to a

lesser extent, at the leaflet hinge, the region between the leaflet VICs and SMCs of the aorta,

with no detectable calcification in the aortic valve leaflets after 26 weeks of a high-fat diet in a

Ldlr knockout mice model.[103] This distribution of aortic root calcification is also observed in a

mouse model described by a Honda et al which detected calcification in the sinus wall 16 weeks

post wire-induced mechanical injury.[98] Due to the lack of aortic valve leaflet calcification in

atherosclerotic or mechanical injury murine models, we utilized a adenine/phosphate diet-

induced model of medial arterial calcification (MAC).[58] MAC is not associated with lipid

deposition, fibrous cap formation, or intimal hyperplasia; instead, MAC stems from the

progressive accumulation of calcium and phosphate within the arterial walls.[104] These structural

features distinguish MAC from atherosclerosis and are more representative of the pathogenesis

of valve leaflet calcification.[2,104]

This study has uncovered the early molecular events that enable the osteogenic reprogramming

of the interstitial cells of the aortic valve. Current CAVD therapies are surgical, limited to

mechanical or bioprosthetic valve replacement, and performed only when the disease has

progressed to the advanced point of affecting blood flow and heart function. Our data show that

perturbing TERT or STAT5 can inhibit calcification; however, broadly inhibiting one or the other

of these proteins may have deleterious off-target effects. Understanding the specific binding

domains and other protein binding partners of TERT and STAT5 will enable the development of

small molecules to block their interaction, which is a more feasible therapeutic strategy for aortic

valve calcification than global inhibition. CAVD affects over 9.5 million people in the U.S. and

has an associated 56-67% 5-year mortality rate; hence, the need for early, non-surgical

therapies is great.[4] This study uncovers a novel and targetable pathway that may be leveraged

to halt or prevent CAVD progression.

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DISCLOSURES

The University of Pittsburgh has filed a provisional patent application regarding technology on

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FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure 1. TERT is elevated in CAVD tissues. (A) Examples of non-calcified control (top) and

calcified CAVD (bottom) human valves used in this study. Arrowheads indicate calcified nodules

Scalebar. 1 cm. (B), TERT mRNA transcript quantification in control and CAVD valve tissues. n

= 8 control, n= 9 CAVD. (C), Representative serial sections of Von Kossa (dark precipitation)

and TERT immunofluorescent staining in control and CAVD valve tissues. Scalebar 100 µm.

Graphs show the quantification of TERT intensity and the number of TERT-positive cells. n = 9

control, n = 9 CAVD. (D), Telomere length measurements in valve tissues. n = 19 control, n =

12 CAVD. (E), Age of the patients utilized in this study. n = 25 control, n = 16 CAVD. Data are

shown as means ± SD. P values were calculated using the Mann-Whitney U test and shown on

each graph. L = lumen.

Figure 2. TERT is elevated in CAVD hVICs at baseline and upregulation during

osteogenic reprogramming. (A), Representative images showing cell morphology of control

and CAVD hVICs. Scalebar 50 µm. (B), Proliferation of control and CAVD hVICs at baseline. n

= 3 both groups. (C) Relative migration distances of control and CAVD VICs. n = 10 both

groups. (D) Western blot staining of control and CAVD hVICs at baseline. Quantification of

protein levels is shown on the right panels. n = 4 both groups. (E) Telomere length

measurements in VICs. n = 8, control, n = 5 CAVD. (F) Representative images of early

calcification in hVICs growing in normal conditions (no treatment NT) or stimulated with

osteogenic media (OST) for 14 days. Calcium deposition was visualized by Alizarin Red

staining. Scalebar 50 μm. Quantification of calcification on the right graphs. n = 7 both groups.

(G), Western blot staining of samples from control and CAVD hVICs after 14 days of NT or

OST. Quantification of protein levels is shown on the bottom graphs. n = 4 both groups. (H),

Representative immunofluorescent staining images of TERT in control and CAVD hVICs after

14 days of NT or OST. Calcium deposition was visualized with OsteoImage. Scalebar 100 μm.

(I) Expression profile control VICs after 14 days of NT and OST treatment. n = 4 both groups.

Data are shown as means ± SD. P values were calculated with the Mann-Whitney U test

(Figures B, C, D, E, G, and I) and the Kruskal-Wallis H test with Dunn post hoc test (Figure F)

and shown on each graph

Figure 3. TERT is required to initiate osteogenic transition and calcification. (A) Control

hVICs were transduced lentivirus containing shControl or shTERT and followed by OST

stimulation for up to 28 days. Calcium deposition was visualized by Alizarin Red staining. n = 6

shControl, n = 6 shTERT at 21 days and n = 9 each group at day 28. Scalebar 400 μm. (B)

Representative western blot staining of control hVICs transduced with lentivirus containing

either shControl or shTERT followed by 7 days of OST. (C) hCASMCs were transduced with

shControl or shTERT and stimulated with OST for 14 and 21 days. n = 4 for each group at both

time points. Scalebar 400 μm. (D) Representative images of mVIC isolated from $Tert^{+/+}$ and $Tert^{-}$

$^{/-}$ mice were stimulated with OST for 28 days. Scalebar 400 μm. (E) Representative Von Kossa

staining images of $Tert^{+/+}$ and $Tert^{-/-}$ mice aortas (dark precipitation). Scale bar 400 μm.

Quantification of calcification is shown on the right panel. (F) Representative immunofluorescent

images of Runx2 expression indicative of calcification (red, insert) on $Tert^{+/+}$ and $Tert^{-/-}$ mice

aorta. Scale bar 400 μm. Runx2 quantification of calcification is shown on the right panel. (G)

Representative images of mVICs isolated from F1 $Tert^{-/-}$ or $Terc^{-/-}$ mice were stimulated with

OST for up to 21 days. Scalebar 100 μm. Data are shown as means ± SD. P values were

calculated using the Kruskal-Wallis H test, Dunn post hoc test (Figures A, C, and G), and Mann-

Whitney U test (Figures D, E, and F).

Figure 4. STAT5 binds to TERT and is required for the calcification of human VICs. (A)

Graphic of in silico analysis identifying the consensus binding site for STAT5. (B), Diagram

depicting STAT5 binding to RUNX2 promoter and the positions of the predicted STAT5 binding

sites (purple boxes). (C) Representative immunofluorescence images of control hVICs after 14

days of LPS treatment or OST stimulation. Scalebar 50 μm. (D) Representative western blot

staining of hVICs after 14 days of OST stimulation. (E) Representative images of control hVICs

treated with 10 μM of the STAT5 inhibitors StafiA-1 or StafiB-1 throughout 28 days of

osteogenic stimulation. Scalebar 400 μm. n = 8 each group. The quantification of calcification is

shown on the right graph. (F) RUNX2 mRNA transcript quantification at d7 OST, n = 10. (G)

Control hVICs were transduced with lentivirus containing shControl or shSTAT5 constructs and

treated with OST for 21 days. Calcium deposition was visualized by Alizarin Red staining. n = 9

for each group. Scalebar 400 μm. (H) RUNX2 mRNA transcript quantification at d7 OST, n = 6.

(I) Schematic of OST treatment with delayed shTERT transduction (top panel).Representative

images of hVIC (left panels) treated with 10 μM of the STAT5 inhibitors StafiA-1 at d7 or d14 of

OST treatment. Samples were collected at d21 (bottom panel). Scalebar 400 μm. n = 6 for each

group. (J) Representative images of TERT/STAT5 complex (red foci) in control hVICs cultured

for 21 days in osteogenic medium and detected by PLA. Scalebar 100 μm. n = 4 for each group.

(K) STAT5 co-immunoprecipitation in control hVICs under OST for 10 days to detect

TERT/STAT5 interaction. (L) Control hVIC co-expressing TERT-NFAST and STAT5A-CFAST

were labeled with 5 μM HBR-3,5DOM (4-hydroxy-3,5- dimethoxybenzylidene rhodamine, coral)

and imaged at d3, d5, and d7 of osteogenic treatment (OST) or control no-treatment (NT). Scale

bars 50 μm. (M) Chromatin immunoprecipitation shows enrichment of STAT5 on RUNX2

promoter OST conditions compared to NT. The base position is indicated in the blue boxes. n=4

for each group as in B. (N) STAT5 CUT&Tag sequencing tracks in genomic regions of Runx2 in

no-treatment control and osteogenic condition-treated mice VICs. (O) Stacked chart

representing genome-wide STAT5 occupancy in promoters, genes, and intergenic regions

frequency in mice VICs. (P) Top 20 GO pathways enriched in genes with significant loss of

STAT5 in Tert+/+ vs Tert-/- mice VICs. Data are shown as means ± SD. P values were

calculated by the Mann-Whitney U test (Figures F, H, and J) and the Kruskal-Wallis H test

(Figures E and G) and indicated on top of each graph.

Figure 5. TERT and STAT5 are upregulated and colocalized in CAVD tissue. (A)

Representative serial sections of Von Kossa (dark precipitation) and TERT and STAT5

immunofluorescent staining in control and CAVD tissues. Scalebar 100 µm. STAT5 intensity

and STAT5-positive cells (STAT5+) are quantified on the right panels. (B) Quantification of

STAT5-TERT-positive cells. Data are shown as means ± SD, n = 5 control, n = 6 CAVD. P

values were calculated with the Mann-Whitney U test and indicated on each graph. L = lumen.

Figure 6. TERT/STAT5 promotes osteogenic reprogramming. Inflammatory signals promote

the upregulation and interaction of TERT and STAT5A. The TERT/STAT5 complex translocates

into the nucleus, where TERT interacts with SMARCA4 (also known as BRG1), which facilitates

a permissive chromatin configuration, and STAT5A binds specific sites on the RUNX2 promoter,

leading to the osteogenic reprogramming of valve interstitial cells during the early stages of

CAVD pathogenesis.

Supplemental Figure 1. Characterization of human CAVD valves and patient-isolated

VICs at baseline. (A) Representative section of Von Kossa staining in control and valve CAVD

leaflets tissue. Scalebar 1 mm. (B) Representative serial sections of RUNX2 immunofluorescent

staining and OPN in control and CAVD valve tissues. Scalebar 100 μm. Quantification of

RUNX2-positive cells and OPN-positive cells on the leaflet specimen is shown on the right

graphs. n = 5 control, n = 6 CAVD. (C) Correlation between age of the donor and TERT

expression in valve tissues. n = 8 control, n = 9 CAVD. (D) Gene expression profile in the valve

leaflets. n = 7 each group. (E) Representative images of immunofluorescent staining of PCNA

(top panels) and γ-H2AX (bottom panels) in control and CAVD valve tissues. Scalebar 100 μm.

Quantification of PCNA-positive cells and γ-H2AX-positive cells are shown on the right graphs.

n = 4 control, n = 3 CAVD. (F) Representative images of a scratch assay in control and CAVD

hVICs. Time points are indicated on top of each panel. Blue lines denote the cell migration front.

Scalebar 1 mm. n = 10 of each group. (G) Representative images of αSMA, CNN, SM22, TNAP,

and f-Actin in control and CAVD hVICs. Scalebar 50 μm. Signal quantification is shown on the

right. n = 4 each group. Data are shown as means ± SD. P values were calculated using the

Mann-Whitney U test (Figures B, D, E, and G) and the Pearson correlation test (Figure C). L =

lumen.

Supplemental Figure 2. Inhibition of reverse transcriptase activity of TERT does not

prevent osteogenic reprogramming of hVICs. (A) Cell counts of control and CAVD hVICs

after 14 days of NT or OST stimulation. n = 4 each group. (B) β-galactosidase (BLG1) mRNA

transcript quantification in control and CAVD hVICs at baseline. n = 5 control, n= 4 CAVD. (C)

Representative images of senescence-associated β-galactosidase activity staining of hVICs

after 28 days of NT or OST stimulation. Blue cells were considered positive for senescence.

Quantification of senescence is shown on the right graph. n = 4 each group. Scalebar 400 μm.

(D) hVICs growing in no treatment (NT), OST media, or OST media supplemented with the NF-

κβ inhibitor BAY-117082 for 7 days, n = 6. (E) hVICs growing in no treatment (NT), OST media,

or OST media supplemented with the c-MYC inhibitor 10058-F4 for 7 days, n = 7. qRT-PCR

quantified TERT and RUNX2 gene expression. In D and E, inhibitors were dissolved in DMSO

thus NT and OST were supplemented with the highest volume of vehicle (DMSO) used in

treatment groups. Data are shown as means ± SD. P values were calculated with the Mann-

Whitney U test (Figure B) and the Kruskal-Wallis H test with Dunn pairwise comparison post hoc

test (Figures A, C-E) and shown on top of each graph.

Supplemental Figure 3. TERT is upregulated and required for the osteogenic

differentiation of human mesenchymal stem cells. (A) Representative images of hMSCs

stimulated with OST for 14 days. Calcium deposition was visualized by Alizarin Red staining.

Scalebar 50 µm. (B) Western blot staining of samples from hMSCs collected during the 14 days

of OST treatment. (C) RUNX2 expression profile of differentiating hMSCs stimulated for 14 days

with OST media. n = 3. (D) Representative TERT immunofluorescent staining images of hMSCs

stimulated with OST for 14 days. Scalebar 100 µm. (E) Representative images of hMSCs

infected with shTERT or shControl virus and stimulated with OST for 14 days. Calcium

deposition was visualized by Alizarin Red staining. The quantification of calcification is shown

on the right graph. n = 3. (F) Western blot staining of samples from hMSCs collected during the

14 days of OST treatment. Data are shown as means ± SD. P values were calculated with the

Kruskal-Wallis H test with Dunn pairwise comparison post hoc test (Figure C) and the Mann-

Whitney U test (Figure E) and shown on each graph.

Supplemental Figure 4. Inhibition of reverse transcriptase activity of TERT does not

prevent osteogenic reprogramming of VICs. (A) Representative images of mBMMSCs

isolated from $Tert^{+/+}$ or $Tert^{-/-}$ mice and stimulated with OST for 21 days. Scalebar 100 µm.

Quantification of calcification is presented as average absorbance on the right graphs, n = 5 for

each group. (B, C) Representative images of a senescence-associated β-galactosidase (SA-β-

gal) staining of mVICs and mBMMSCs isolated from *Tert*^{+/+} or F1 *Tert*^{-/-} mice after 21 days of

OST stimulation. In each group, blue cells were considered positive for senescence, n = 5. (D)

Schematic of OST treatment with delayed shTERT transduction (top panel). VICs were

transduced with shTERT, and calcification was assessed with Alizarin Red S stain at day 21.

Scalebar 400 µm. n = 6 for each group. (E) Representative sections of Von Kossa staining in

thoracic aortic rings isolated from *Tert*^{+/+} and *Tert*^{-/-} mice after 14 days of OST treatment relative

to NT control treatment. Quantification is shown on the right. Scale bar 400 μm (F)

Immunofluorescence staining of thoracic aortic rings after OST treatment as in B. Quantification

of Runx2 is shown on the right graph. Scale bar 400 μm (G) Western blot staining of aortic ring

specimens collected and treated in B. Quantification of Runx2 is shown on the right graph. (H)

Human VICs were treated with the TERT inhibitor BiBR1532 and stimulated with OST, and

calcification was assessed on day 28, with n = 5 in each group. (I) TERT, RUNX2, and STAT5A

expression were evaluated on day 14, n = 6 DMSO, n = 5 BIBR1532. Data are shown as means

± SD. P values were calculated with the Kruskal-Wallis H test with Dunn pairwise comparison

post hoc test (Figures A, B, C, E, H) and the Mann-Whitney U test (Figures D, F, G, I) and are

shown on top of each graph.

Supplemental Figure 5. STAT5 is upregulated, binds to TERT, and is required for

osteogenic reprogramming of VICs. (A) Western blot analysis of cytoplasmic and nuclear

fractions of TERT from control VICs obtained after seven days of OST stimulation. TUB,

(tubuline); H3, (Histone H3); Cyt, cytoplasmic fraction; Nuc, nuclear fraction. (B) Representative

immunofluorescence image of STAT5 subcellular distribution after 14 days of NT and OST

stimulation. Scalebar 40 µm. (C) Representative images of human CASMCs treated with 10 µM

of the STAT5 inhibitors StafiA-1 or StafiB-1 during the 14 days of OST stimulation. Scalebar 400

μm. n = 4 for each group. (D) Representative images of human MSCs treated with 10 μM of the

STAT5 inhibitors StafiA-1 or StafiB-1 during the 21 days of OST stimulation. Scalebar 400 μm. n

= 4 for each group. (E) Representative images of TERT/STAT5 complex (red foci) detected by

proximity ligation assay (PLA) in the nucleus of control VICs. Scalebar 25 μm. n = 4 for each

group. (F) Relative luciferase activity in hVICS after transfection of *hRUNX2* Promoter GLuc-ON

pEZX-PG04.1. Samples were analyzed 72 hours after OST treatment. STAT5A inhibitor StafiA-

1 (10 μM) was dissolved in DMSO. NT and OST conditions were also supplemented with

DMSO, n = 10 per group. (G) Biotin-labeled 60 bp oligos containing the -194 STAT5 binding

sequence on the promoter of human RUNX2 were incubated cell extracts from HEK293s in

which STAT5 protein was overexpressed (lane 1). Extracts were also incubated with an

increasing amounts of unlabeled oligos (lanes 2-5). Cell extract was also incubated with a oligo

containing a mutated STAT5A site (mut RUNX2 DNA) (line 9) and incubated with an increased

amount of unlabeled mut RUNX2 oligo (lanes 10-13). Blots include the positive and negative

controls include in the LightShift Chemiluminescent EMSA Kit (lanes 6-8 and 14-16). (H)

Representative immunofluorescent images of Stat5 expression after 12 weeks of high adenine

high phosphate diet on Tert-/- and Tert-/- mice aorta. Scale bar 400 *μ*m. Quantification of Stat5

expression is shown on the right panel. (I) Representative images of Stat5 immunofluorescence

staining of thoracic aortic rings isolated from Tert+/+ and Tert-/- mice after 14 days of OST

treatment relative to NT control treatment. Quantification of Stat5 is shown on the right graph.

Scale bar 400 *μ*m. (J) Mol*3D Viewer rendering of the TERT-STAT5 dimer interaction predicted

by the HDock. Red boxes indicate the position of the interaction between TERT and STAT5. (K)

The diagram shows the regions involved in the predicted interaction as indicated in A, and the

docking and confidence scores predicted by HDock are indicated. TEN: DNA anchor domain for

processive telomeric repeat addition, RBD: Telomerase RNA binding domain, RT: Finger and

palm region of the reverse transcriptase domain, CTE: C-terminal extension or putative thumb

domain of the reverse transcriptase, CCD: Coiled-coil domain, required for nuclear localization,

DBD: DNA binding domain, HLK: Helical linker and DNA binding domain, SH2: Domain required

for activation and dimerization, TD: Transactivation domain. (L) H3K4me3 CUT&Run

sequencing tracks in genomic regions of Runx2 in no-treatment control and osteogenic

condition-treated human VICs. (M) Top 20 GO pathways enriched in genes with significant loss

of H3K4me3 in OST- vs NT-treated human VICs. Data are shown as means ± SD. P values

were calculated with the Mann-Whitney U test (Figures E and G) and the Kruskal-Wallis H test

with Dunn pairwise comparison post-test (Figures C, D, and H) and indicated in each graph.

Supplemental Figure 6. Chromatin remodeling enzyme SMARCA4 is upregulated and

interacts with TERT during the osteogenic reprogramming of VICs. (A) Representative

immunofluorescent images of Smarca4 expression after 12 weeks of high adenine high

phosphate diet on $Tert^{-/-}$ and $Tert^{-/-}$ mice aorta. Scale bar 400 μm. Quantification of Smarca4

expression is shown on the right panel. (B) Representative images of Smarca4

immunofluorescence staining of thoracic aortic rings isolated from $Tert^{+/+}$ and $Tert^{-/-}$ mice after

14 days of OST treatment relative to NT control treatment. Quantification of Smarca4 is shown

on the right graph. (C) SMARCA4 expression was evaluated on days 5 and 10 on VICs

stimulated with OST. n = 5 each group. (E) TERT/STAT and TERT/SMARCA4 interaction was

detected by co-immunoprecipitation upon osteogenic stimulation on VIC. (E) Representative

TERT and SMARCA4 immunofluorescent staining in control and CAVD tissues. The number of

positive cells is shown on the right graphs. n = 9 control, n = 9 CAVD. Scalebar 100 μm. Data

are shown as means ± SD, and P values were calculated with the Mann-Whitney U test and

indicated on each graph in Figures A and C. L = lumen.

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1305

Non-canonical Telomerase Reverse Transcriptase Controls Osteogenic Reprogramming

of Aortic Valve Cells Through STAT5

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Running Title: TERT/STAT5 is required for valvular calcification

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Background: Calcific aortic valve disease (CAVD) is the pathological remodeling of valve

leaflets. The initial steps in valve leaflet osteogenic reprogramming are not fully understood. As

telomerase reverse transcriptase (TERT) overexpression primes mesenchymal stem cells to

differentiate into osteoblasts, we investigated whether TERT contributes to the osteogenic

reprogramming of valve interstitial cells (VICs).

Methods: Human control and CAVD aortic valve leaflets and patient-specific hVICs were used

in in vivo and in vitro calcification assays. Loss of function experiments in hVICs and cells

isolated from $Tert^{-/-}$ and $Terc^{-/-}$ mice were used for mechanistic studies. Calcification was

assessed in $Tert^{+/+}$ and $Tert^{-/-}$ mice ex vivo and in vivo. In silico modeling, proximity ligation and

co-immunoprecipitation assays defined novel TERT interacting partners. Chromatin

immunoprecipitation and CUT&TAG sequencing defined protein-DNA interactions.

Results: TERT protein was highly expressed in calcified valve leaflets without changes in

telomere length, DNA damage, or senescence markers, and these features were retained in

isolated primary hVICs. *TERT* expression increased with osteogenic or inflammatory stimuli,

and knock-down or genetic deletion of *TERT* prevented calcification in vitro and in vivo.

Mechanistically, TERT was upregulated via NF-κB and required to initiate osteogenic

reprogramming, independent of its canonical reverse transcriptase activity and the lncRNA

TERC. TERT exerts non-canonical osteogenic functions via binding with Signal Transducer and

Activator of Transcription 5 (STAT5). Depletion or inhibition of STAT5 prevented calcification.

STAT5 was found to bind the promoter region of Runt-Related Transcription Factor 2 (*RUNX2*),

the master regulator of osteogenic reprogramming. Lastly, we demonstrate that TERT and

STAT5 are upregulated and colocalized in CAVD tissue compared to control tissue.

Conclusions: TERT's non-canonical activity is required to initiate calcification. TERT is

upregulated via inflammatory signaling pathways and partners with STAT5 to bind the *RUNX2*

gene promoter. These data identify a novel mechanism and potential therapeutic target to

decrease vascular calcification.

ABBREVIATIONS:

CAVD, calcific aortic valve disease; CNN, calponin; CUT&Run, cleavage under targets &

release using nuclease; CUT&Tag, cleavage under targets & tagmentation; CFAST,

fluorescence-activating and absorption-shifting tag, C-domain; Ch-IP, chromatin

immunoprecipitation; E2F1, E2F transcription factor 1; ECM, extracellular matrix; GO, gene

ontology; γ-H2AX, phosphorylated gamma histone 2AX; hCASMCs, human coronary smooth

muscle cells; hVICs, human aortic valve interstitial cells; IP, immunoprecipitation; lncRNA, long

non-coding RNA; LPS, lipopolysaccharide; BMMSCs, bone marrow mesenchymal stem cells;

MSCs, mesenchymal stem cells; NFAST, fluorescence-activating and absorption-shifting tag, N-

domain; NT, no treatment; mVICs, mouse aortic valve interstitial cells OPN, osteopontin; OST,

osteogenic treatment; PCNA, proliferating cell nuclear antigen; PLA, proximity ligation assay ;

RUNX2, runt-related transcription factor 2; αSMA, alpha 2 smooth muscle actin; SMARCA4,

SWI/SNF chromatin remodeling complex A4; STAT5, signal transducer and activator of

transcription 5A/B; *lncTERC*, telomerase RNA component; TERT, telomerase reverse

transcriptase; TL, telomere length; TNAP, Tissue-Nonspecific Alkaline Phosphatase; TSS,

transcription start site, αTUB, alpha-tubulin

Key Words:

calcific aortic valve disease, vascular calcification, osteogenic reprogramming, TERT, STAT5

Novelty and Significance

What is known?

• Calcific aortic valve disease (CAVD) is the most prevalent form of aortic valve pathology.

CAVD strongly correlates with age and leads to heart failure and a high risk of stroke.

Currently, the only therapeutic option is valve replacement, which comes with significant

healthcare costs and additional risks to patients.

• Runt-related transcription factor 2 (RUNX2) is the master transcription factor required for

osteogenic differentiation of stem cells to osteoblasts and osteogenic reprogramming of

cardiovascular cells. Yet, the early events driving its activity in aortic valve cells are poorly

defined.

• In addition to its reverse transcriptase enzymatic activity, TERT exhibits non-canonical

transcriptional regulatory functions and overexpression of TERT primes mesenchymal stem

cells to differentiate down the osteoblast lineage.

What new information does this article contribute?

• TERT protein levels in calcified aortic leaflets and valve interstitial cells, and its non-

canonical osteogenic activity are independent of changes in telomere length and cell

senescence.

• Genetic loss or depletion of TERT prevented calcification in valve interstitial cells, coronary

smooth muscle cells, and mesenchymal stem cells in vitro and the vasculature in vivo.

• Early in the osteogenic reprogramming inflammatory signaling promotes TERT to co-localize

with SMARCA4 and STAT5, and this TERT-tethered STAT5 binds to the *RUNX2* gene

promoter, the master regulator of osteogenic transcriptional programs.

• STAT5 depletion and pharmacological inhibition prevent calcification of human valve

interstitial cells, coronary smooth muscle cells, and mesenchymal stem cells.

What are the clinical implications?

• We have identified TERT-STAT5 as a novel signaling axis that orchestrates the early steps

in the osteogenic reprogramming of aortic valve cells. Inhibiting TERT/STAT5 interaction or

their activity may be leveraged for the development of therapeutic strategies to halt or

prevent calcification in the aortic valve, bioprosthetic valves, and or perhaps other

cardiovascular tissues.

• Invasive and expensive surgical procedures are currently the only treatment option for

patients with CAVD. The discovery and defining of the early events driving vascular

calcification identifies novel and druggable targets for developing non-surgical therapies.

INTRODUCTION

Calcific aortic valve disease (CAVD) encompasses a spectrum of pathological remodeling of the

valve leaflet, ranging from mild valve thickening that displays microcalcifications to

macrocalcifications that predominate in more advanced disease stages.[1,2] The advanced state,

aortic stenosis, results from fibrotic remodeling and the formation of calcified nodules on the

valve leaflet that impede and disrupt blood flow, causing excessive strain on the cardiac tissue,

increasing the risk of stroke and leading to heart failure.[3] CAVD severity and incidence increase

with age, with CAVD prevalence >1,000 per 100,000 individuals ≥75 years of age.[4,5] Further,

roughly 0.4-0.6% of the population harbors bicuspid aortic valve malformations, and these

malformed valves are prone to calcify and develop CAVD.[4] Currently, no therapeutic treatment

halts or reverses pathologic calcification that occurs in the aortic valve leaflets or other

cardiovascular tissues. The only therapeutic option to treat aortic stenosis is valve replacement

via surgical or transcatheter procedures, incurring substantial medical costs and health care

burdens to the patient.[6]

Aortic valve interstitial cells (VICs) are the primary cell type within the valve leaflet and are

responsible for maintaining leaflet integrity. VICs reside in a quiescent state; however, adaptive

or maladaptive responses to environmental factors such as inflammation, extracellular matrix

(ECM) breakdown, and mechanical stress may disrupt VIC homeostasis.[7,8] With alterations in

homeostasis, VICs acquire a myofibroblast-like phenotype, termed "activated VICs," capable of

proliferation, contraction, and secretion of proteins that further remodel the extracellular milieu.[9]

Activated VICs can transition into calcifying cells; however, the initial steps regulating this

process are not fully understood. It is well established that the osteogenic reprogramming of

cardiovascular cells such as VICs and vascular smooth muscle cells (SMCs) is analogous to the

differentiation of mesenchymal stem cells (MSCs) into bone-forming osteoblasts; osteogenic

differentiation of MSCs and the reprogramming of cardiovascular cells is primarily orchestrated

by Runt-related transcription factor 2 (*RUNX2*), the master regulator of osteogenic

transcriptional programs.[10-12] Other osteogenic signature markers, such as osteocalcin, alkaline

phosphatase, and osteopontin, are upregulated in the differentiation of stem cells to osteoblasts

and the calcifying of VICs.[9,13] While it is accepted that VICs upregulate the expression of

osteogenic genes in response to stresses such as inflammation, ECM remodeling, and

mechanical stress, the specific mechanistic steps between those stresses and the initial

reprogramming events in the activation of osteogenic transcriptional reprogramming remain ill-

defined.

The telomerase complex extends and maintains the ends of chromosomes after cell division.

The core complex consists of the telomerase long non-coding RNA component (*lncTERC*) and

telomerase reverse transcriptase (TERT) protein, along with other scaffolding proteins.[14] In

addition to reverse transcriptase activity, TERT also exhibits non-canonical functions

independent of telomere extension, such as regulating gene expression and orchestrating

chromatin remodeling.[15-17] For example, TERT acts as a cofactor in Wnt-dependent promoter

activation by interacting with the chromatin remodeling protein SWI/SNF related, matrix

associated, actin dependent regulator of chromatin, subfamily a, member 4 (SMARCA4),

facilitating the expression of Wnt/β-catenin target genes in stem cells.[18] In a murine model of

atherosclerosis, TERT induced chromatin remodeling and SMC proliferation by chaperoning the

retinoblastoma-associated transcription factor 1 (E2F1) binding to S-phase gene promoters.[19,20]

Linking together the themes of calcification and non-canonical TERT, two co-published studies

identified that the overexpression of *TERT* primed human MSCs to differentiate down the

osteogenic lineage and develop bone-like structures.[21,22] The mechanism by which TERT drives

the osteogenic differentiation of human MSCs is unknown. Collectively, these studies provide

strong evidence of telomerase-independent functions of TERT in altering chromatin states and

regulating gene expression via various protein-protein interactions.

Although telomere length is recognized as a biomarker of aging, it can vary significantly among

individuals of the same age, including twins.[23] Studies have examined the association between

shortened telomeres in circulating leukocytes and various vascular conditions, with mixed

results.[24-26] One study compared telomere lengths in leukocytes of control patients and those

with atherosclerotic plaques, as well as the atherosclerotic plaques themselves and found that

while atherosclerotic patients' leukocytes had shorter telomeres than controls, their plaque cells

exhibited longer telomeres than both groups' leukocytes, suggesting heightened telomerase

activity in the diseased tissue.[27-29] Thus, whether leukocyte telomere length can be used as a

biomarker remains speculative. A notable aspect of these prior studies is the lack of TERT

protein assessment or a focused investigation of telomere length in disease tissues.

Signal transducers and activators of transcription (STAT) proteins play essential roles in

inflammatory, proliferative, and apoptotic programs, mediating the signal transduction pathways

of various cytokines and growth factors.[30] STAT proteins function as transcription factors and

recruit chromatin remodeling and histone-modifying proteins to upregulate gene transcription.[31]

STAT5A and STAT5B are encoded by two highly conserved genes in humans and mice; 96% of

their amino acid sequence is shared, and many of their activities are redundant.[32] Herein,

unless specific tools are utilized to allow a distinction, we will generally refer to both as STAT5.

Upon phosphorylation, STAT5 dimerizes and translocates into the nucleus to bind the

consensus motif (TTCNNNGAA) and activates the promoters of various target genes by

recruiting transcriptional co-activators.[33,34] Crucially, studies have shown that several osteogenic

genes depend on STAT5 to promote chondrocyte and osteoblast differentiation.[35,36]

In this study, we tested the hypothesis that TERT contributes to the osteogenic reprogramming

of VICs. We utilized primary human aortic valve tissues from control donors and CAVD patients

and generated patient-specific VIC lines for in vitro disease modeling. We established baseline

patterns and osteogenic induction of *TERT* and calcification markers in CAVD tissue and VICs.

We assessed the consequences of genetic deletion or depletion of *TERT* during osteogenic

reprogramming in several cell types and in in vivo and ex vivo calcification models. We further

defined the underlying mechanism by which TERT and STAT5 participate in the osteogenic

reprogramming of VICs.

METHODS

Data Availability

The Materials, Methods, and Major Resources Table are found in the Supplemental Material.

The raw data, experimental materials, and analytic methods are available from the

corresponding author upon reasonable request.

RESULTS

TERT is elevated in CAVD tissues.

Human aortic valves were collected after surgical aortic valve replacement procedures or from

cadaveric tissue obtained via the Center for Organ Recovery and Education (CORE) of the

University of Pittsburgh Medical Center and processed as previously described.[37] Macroscopic

examination and histological staining with Von Kossa were used to determine and confirm

whether valves could be classified as a non-calcified control or as having calcific aortic valve

disease (CAVD) (**Figure 1A, Supplemental Figure 1A, Supplemental Table 1**). RUNX2 is the

master transcription factor required to initiate stem cells to differentiate into osteoblasts and is

critical for the pathological osteogenic reprogramming of vascular cells.[38-41] Immunofluorescent

staining showed RUNX2, and the late calcification marker osteopontin (OPN) were significantly

upregulated in CAVD tissue compared to control tissues, indicating activation of osteogenic

transcriptional programs in CAVD tissues (**Supplemental Figure 1B**). Previous studies found

that overexpression of TERT primes human MSCs to differentiate down the osteogenic

lineage.[21,22] We found that *TERT* transcript levels were significantly upregulated in CAVD tissue

relative to control samples (**Figure 1B**), and *TERT* expression levels showed no correlation with

the donor's age (**Supplemental Figure 1C**). Markers of senescence (cyclin-dependent kinase

inhibitor 1A, *CDKN1A*, galactosidase beta 1, *GLB1*)*,* proliferation (proliferating cell nuclear

antigen, *PCNA*), DNA damage (tumor protein 53, *TP53*), and cytoskeletal markers (actin alpha

2 smooth muscle, *ACTA2*, vimentin, *VIM,* interleukin 6, *IL6*) showed no statistically significant

differences, while the inflammatory marker and tumor necrosis factor-alpha (*TNF)* was

significantly elevated in CAVD samples (**Supplemental Figure 1D**), supporting observations by

others that indicate a role for inflammatory signaling in aortic valve calcification

pathogenesis.[42,43]

We detected elevated TERT protein signal in CAVD valves compared to non-calcified controls,

with the signal localized to areas of calcification. Similarly, the number of cells expressing TERT

was significantly elevated in our CAVD tissues compared to non-calcified control tissues

(**Figure 1C**). No statistically significant differences were observed in the staining levels of

proliferation marker PCNA or the DNA damage indicator phosphorylated gamma histone 2AX

(γ-H2AX) between CAVD and control tissues (**Supplemental Figure 1E**). We also found no

statistically significant differences in the relative mean telomere length between the control and

CAVD tissues in our study (**Figure 1D**), indicating no overt influence of the canonical telomere-

extending functions of TERT. The mean age of CAVD patients in this study was slightly

elevated compared to the control patients, 68 and 54 years old, respectively (**Figure 1E**).

Together, these data show that TERT, osteogenic markers, and inflammatory signatures are

upregulated in CAVD tissues compared to controls, while markers indicating alterations in

proliferation, DNA damage, and senescence are not altered, suggesting that the non-canonical

activity of TERT is operative.

CAVD human VICs at baseline recapitulate observations in CAVD tissues.

We created patient-specific valve interstitial cell (VIC) lines from CAVD and control valves.[37] At

baseline, freshly isolated hVICs from CAVD and control patients exhibited no morphological or

statistical differences in their proliferative or migratory capacity (**Figure 2, A- C, and**

Supplemental Figure 1F). TERT and RUNX2 proteins were significantly elevated at baseline in

CAVD hVICs compared to control hVICs (**Figure 2D**). We observed no statistical differences in

the protein levels of the hVIC activation markers SM22 or αSMA between CAVD and control

hVICs, but observed a significant increase of the mineralizing enzyme tissue non-specific

alkaline phosphatase (TNAP) in CAVD hVICs at baseline (**Supplemental 1G**). As in the leaflets,

there was no statistical difference in the relative telomere length between CAVD and control

hVICs (**Figure 2E**). These data show that hVICs isolated from CAVD patients display gene

expression and protein signatures that recapitulate the osteogenic phenotype observed in

CAVD leaflet tissue.

TERT expression is upregulated in human VICs in an in vitro osteogenic disease model.

To model CAVD in vitro and investigate a role for TERT during hVIC osteogenic

reprogramming, we cultured CAVD and control hVICs in osteogenic media conditions (OST), a

media widely utilized to induce osteogenic differentiation of stem cells to osteoblasts.[44] Alizarin

Red staining for calcification revealed that both OST-treated CAVD and control hVICs lay down

calcified matrix as early as 14 days (d14), CAVD hVICs calcified earlier relative to control hVICs

(**Figure 2F**). Importantly, we observed that CAVD hVICs calcify de novo under no treatment

(NT) conditions, suggesting that CAVD hVICs are primed for osteogenic reprogramming (**Figure**

2F). The calcification markers RUNX2 and OPN were significantly upregulated in both control

and CAVD hVICs at d14 OST, indicating active osteogenic reprogramming (**Figure 2G**). TERT

protein levels were also significantly increased in control and CAVD hVICs after d14 of OST

(**Figure 2G**). TERT protein signal can be seen in CAVD hVICs at d14 under NT conditions

(**Figure 2H**, left panels). At d14 of OST, the TERT protein staining was elevated and localized

near areas of calcification in both control and CAVD hVICs; however, CAVD hVICs formed

larger calcified nodules (**Figure 2H**, right panels). We observed no significant differences in cell

numbers at the end of the d14 assay under NT or OST treatment conditions (**Supplemental**

Figure 2A). As we observed that CAVD hVICs exhibit elevated osteogenic markers at baseline

(**Supplemental Figure 1G**) and are prone to calcify (**Figure 2H**) de novo, we assessed

transcriptional differences between control hVICs under NT or OST. Osteogenic markers *BMP2*,

THBS1, *ALPL,* and myofibroblast markers *CNN1*, *TAGLN*, and *SMTN* were significantly

upregulated in control hVICs at d14 of OST treatment (**Figure 2I**). Likewise, the calcification-

associated gene *FOXO1* and the CAVD-associated metalloproteinase *MMP13* were also

significantly upregulated in OST conditions.[45,46] Lastly, the pro-inflammatory transcription factor

signal transducer and activator of transcription 5A *(STAT5A)* was significantly upregulated,

while the expression of the isoform *STAT5B* remained unchanged. These results show that

hVICs are undergoing osteogenic reprogramming and not de novo mineral nucleation.[47]

In cancer and stem cells, elevated expression of TERT is associated with long telomeres and

enables unlimited proliferation, while short telomeres can trigger cellular senescence.[48,49]

Although we observed no differences in telomere length in our tissues and cells in this study

(Figures 1D and 2E), we assessed cellular senescence and observed no significant differences

in the expression of senescence-associated β-galactosidase (SA-β-gal, *GLB1*) between CAVD

and control hVICs at baseline **(Supplemental Figure 2B)** nor increased in control hVICs in OST

treatment (**Figure 2I**). SA-β-gal activity staining indicated that cellular senescence was not

engaged even after 28 days of OST treatment (**Supplemental Figure 2C**). These data

confirmed that cellular senescence is not operative during hVICs osteogenic reprogramming.

NF-κB is a transcription factor complex that acts downstream of inflammatory signals to mediate

inflammatory responses, and the c-Myc transcription factor mediates cell proliferation and

differentiation. Others have shown that both NF-κB and c-Myc can upregulate transcription of

the *TERT* gene.[50-52] We found that inhibiting NF-κB with BAY-107082, an irreversible inhibitor

that blocks the phosphorylation of IκB-α,[53,54] inhibited *TERT* expression during the osteogenic

reprogramming of hVICs. We also observed downregulation of *RUNX2* expression, consistent

with upstream TERT's regulatory role on *RUNX2* expression (**Supplemental Figure 2D**).

Likewise, we found that inhibiting c-MYC with 10058-F4 inhibited *TERT* expression during the

osteogenic differentiation of hVICs (**Supplemental Figure 2E**), validating previous research

showing that c-MYC regulates *TERT* gene expression.[16] These results further support that

inflammatory signaling contributes to the development of CAVD.

TERT is required for the osteogenic differentiation of human MSCs.

Previous studies have shown that the overexpression of TERT primes human mesenchymal

stem cells (hMSCs) to differentiate into osteoblasts.[21,22] To assess the role of endogenous

TERT in osteogenic differentiation, we subjected hMSCs to NT and OST treatment. OST

treatment induced robust calcification as early as d14, while cells in NT conditions did not calcify

(**Supplemental Figure 3A**). Protein analysis showed that the TERT protein levels significantly

increased on day 3 of the OST treatment, coinciding with increased *RUNX2* expression and

RUNX2 protein levels (**Supplemental Figures 3B and 3C**). hMSCs in OST treatment exhibited

intense TERT staining, and TERT-positive cells clustered around calcified nodules

(**Supplemental Figure 3D**). Using lentiviral-mediated transduction of expressing short-hairpin

RNA to deplete TERT (shTERT) or scrambled control (shControl), we found that knockdown of

TERT significantly inhibited the calcification of hMSCs (**Supplemental Figures 3E and 3F**).

While previous studies show that overexpression of *TERT* primed hMSCs to undergo

osteogenic differentiation, our data show that TERT is required for the osteogenic differentiation

of hMSCs.[21,22]

TERT is required for calcification in vitro and in vivo.

Control hVICs were transduced with shControl and shTERT lentivirus, and like hMSCs,

knockdown of *TERT* significantly inhibited calcification compared to the control group and

downregulated RUNX2 protein levels (**Figures 3A and 3B**). We assessed TERT's role in

calcifying human coronary artery smooth muscle cells (hCASMCs), which calcify in

atherosclerotic plaques.[55] Knocking down TERT significantly inhibited hCASMCs calcification

(**Figure 3C**). Together, these data indicate that TERT is essential for the osteogenic

reprogramming of hVICs and hCASMCs. Next, mice VIC (mVICs) and bone marrow MSCs

(mBMMSCs) lines were generated from *Tert*^{+/+} and *Tert*^{-/-} mice.[56] In line with our observations in

human cells with depleted TERT, we observed significant inhibition of calcification in *Tert*^{-/-}

mVICs (**Figure 3D**) and *Tert*^{-/-} mBMMSCs (**Supplemental Figure 4A**) compared to *Tert*^{+/+} cells.

No statistically significant differences were observed in senescence-associated β-galactosidase

activity in mVICs or mBMMSCs (**Supplemental Figures 4B** and **4C**).

To determine whether TERT is required to initiate and/or maintain osteogenic reprogramming,

we cultured control hVICs in OST and transduced shTERT lentivirus on d7 or d14, and

calcification was assessed on d21. Control hVICs transduced with shTERT on day 7 showed a

significant reduction in calcification compared to the OST alone, while transduction of shTERT

on day 14 did not show any decrease in calcification (**Supplemental Figure 4D**), indicating that

TERT is required to initiate, not maintain, reprogramming to the osteogenic phenotype.

Next, we used *Tert*^{+/+} and *Tert*^{-/-} mice strains to test whether TERT is required for diet-induced

non-atherosclerotic medial arterial calcification in vivo in mice. Of note, *Tert*^{-/-} mice were

generated from heterozygous breeding pairs (F1 generation) and thus did not exhibit shortened

telomeres.[57] *Tert*^{+/+} and *Tert*^{-/-} mice were fed an adenine-phosphate (A6P6) diet, which was

previously shown to induce medial arterial calcification in the vasculature of mice.[58] At the end

of the 12-week regime, we observed significantly higher levels of calcification in the aorta of

Tert^{+/+} compared to *Tert*^{-/-} mice (**Figure 3E**). Staining for Runx2 protein mirrored calcification

presentation and was significantly higher in the *Tert*^{+/+} compared to *Tert*^{-/-} tissue (**Figure 3F**).

These findings were validated in an ex vivo calcification assay. Thoracic aortic rings obtained

from the *Tert*^{+/+} and *Tert*^{-/-} mice were cultured in ex vivo OST or control NT medium. *Tert*^{+/+}

aortic rings exhibited significantly elevated calcification compared to aortic rings from *Tert*^{-/-} mice

on d14 (**Supplemental Figure 4E**). *Tert*^{+/+} aortic rings also exhibited prominent staining for

Runx2 protein, which was absent in aortic rings from *Tert*^{-/-} mice (**Supplemental Figure 4F**),

and western blot analysis confirmed elevated Runx2 protein levels in *Tert*^{+/+} aortic rings

compared to *Tert*^{-/-} (**Supplemental Figure 4G**). Neither calcification nor Runx2 was detected in

the NT groups. Together, these data show that TERT is required for osteogenic reprogramming

of cells in vitro and in vivo.

TERT's canonical telomere-extending activity requires the telomerase long non-coding RNA

component (*lncTerc*) to maintain chromosome telomere length and genome integrity.[14,59] *LncTerc*

exerts a dual function in the telomerase complex; it guides the telomerase complex to the telomere

ends and is the primer for TERT reverse transcriptase activity, and it serves as a scaffold for

tethering additional proteins to the telomerase complex (i.e., Dyskerin, NOP10, GAR1, and

NHP2).[60] To evaluate that TERT's role in calcification is independent of its canonical telomere-

extending function, we isolated mVICs from *Terc*^{-/-} mice. While *Tert*^{-/-} mVICs did not calcify under

OST conditions, *Terc*^{-/-} mVICs were significantly calcified (**Figure 3G**). Similarly, in hVICs,

BIBR1532, which blocks the reverse transcriptase activity of TERT,[61] did not prevent calcification

nor decrease the expression of *RUNX2* (**Supplemental Figure 4H and 4I**). Together, these data

illustrate that the canonical telomere-extending function of TERT does not contribute to

osteogenic reprogramming.

TERT/STAT5 interact and bind to the *RUNX2* gene promoter to initiate osteogenic

reprogramming.

Several studies have shown that TERT participates in gene transcription by physically

interacting with transcription factors.[17,20,62,63] RUNX2 is the master regulator of osteogenic

differentiation of stem cells.[38,39] Increased *RUNX2* expression and transcriptional activity are the

hallmarks of osteoblast differentiation and cardiovascular calcification and are required for

osteogenic reprogramming of vascular cells.[40,41] As our data show that RUNX2 is significantly

downregulated in *TERT*-knockdown and deficient cells (Figure 3), we used the LASAGNA[64] and

TRANSFAC/MATCH[65] programs to identify putative transcription factor binding sites in the 5 kb

region upstream of the human *RUNX2* gene promoter (NM_001015051.3) and identified eight

potential STAT5 binding sites (**Supplemental Table 2**). We sought to determine whether

STAT5 is bound to the *RUNX2* gene promoter and focused on the two most proximal predicted

STAT5 sites located at -1371 bp and -193 bp upstream of the transcriptional start site (TSS), as

both have high homology to the tetrameric consensus STAT5 binding site and show an elevated

likelihood of being functional sites (**Figures 4A** and **4B**). As inflammation and inflammatory

signaling pathways are known to contribute to CAVD pathogenesis[1,66], and *TERT* expression

was induced via that inflammatory transcription factor NF-κB (Supplemental Figure 2D), we

used bacterial lipopolysaccharide (LPS) as a broad method to activate inflammatory response

pathways in hVICs. We found that LPS was sufficient to induce calcification of hVICs and that

TERT-positive cells accumulated near calcified nodules (**Figure 4C**). Protein analysis showed

that OST and LPS significantly upregulate TERT, RUNX2, and STAT5 proteins (**Figure 4D**).

TERT protein levels were elevated in both the cytosol and nucleus of cells upon OST

stimulation (**Supplemental Figure 5A**). Under NT conditions, STAT5 is observed in the

membrane and cytosol but translocates and accumulates in the nucleus of hVICs in OST

(**Supplemental Figure 5B**). Next, we used genetic and pharmacological approaches to

determine the requirement of STAT5 for the calcification of hVICs. The small molecules StafiA-1

and StafiB-1 specifically inhibit STAT5A and STAT5B, respectively.[67,68] We found that StafiA-1

significantly inhibited the calcification of control hVICs during a 21-day OST assay and that this

inhibition was greater than the inhibition observed with StafiB-1 (**Figure 4E**). In line with these

findings, we also observed that inhibition of STAT5A significantly reduced the expression of

RUNX2 at d7 of osteogenic differentiation of hVICs, suggesting that STAT5A is a main

participant during the osteogenic reprogramming of hVICs (**Figure 4F**). Similarly, StafiA-1

significantly reduced calcification in hCASMCs and hMSCs (**Supplemental Figures 5C** and

5D). Lentiviral-mediated delivery of shControl or shSTAT5 constructs showed that depletion of

STAT5 significantly attenuated calcification and *RUNX2* expression (**Figure 4G and 4H**),

confirming an essential role for STAT5 in the osteogenic reprogramming of hVICs. Similar to

TERT (Supplemental Figure 4D), knocking down STAT5 after 7 or 14 days of OST treatment did

not reduce calcification (**Figure 4I**), indicating that STAT5 activity is required during the initial

steps of osteogenic reprogramming. Others have established that TERT can interact with

transcription factors to regulate gene expression.[17,20,62,63] We assessed whether TERT and

STAT5 directly interact. Three methods were utilized: proximity ligation assay (PLA), co-

immunoprecipitation (IP), and exogenously expressing TERT and STAT5 reporters. PLA can

detect protein-protein proximity <40 nm apart.[69] PLA revealed that OST significantly increased

TERT and STAT5 colocalization in control hVICs after 21 days of OST treatment relative to NT

condition (**Figure 4J**). Focusing on nuclear co-localization, TERT/STAT5 puncta are

significantly elevated in the nucleus of calcifying hVICs relative to the NT condition

(**Supplementary Figure 5E**). Protein IP shows that TERT and STAT5 physically interact in

hVICs upon OST treatment relative to NT condition (**Figure 4K**). A Dual-Luciferase reporter

assay shows that the human *RUNX2* promoter, containing the -194 and -1371 putative STAT5

binding sites, is upregulated early (d3) under OST treatment relative to NT, and that this

upregulation is abrogated with pharmacological inhibition of STAT5A, validating the functionality

of the predicted STAT5 binding in the *RUNX2* promoter (**Supplementary Figure 5F**).

Furthermore, an electrophoretic mobility shift assay (EMSA) confirmed the physical binding of

STAT5A to DNA oligos containing the predicted -194 STAT5A binding site on the RUNX2

promoter (wt RUNX2 oligo). This interaction was validated by challenging the oligo-STAT5

complex with increasing amounts of unlabeled (cold) oligos. Moreover, the binding was entirely

abrogated by incubating the STAT5 extract with oligos where the STAT5A binding site was

entirely randomized (mut RUNX2 oligo) (**Supplementary Figure 5G**). Supporting a role for

STAT5 in osteogenic reprogramming, STAT5 protein levels were significantly lower in the aorta

of *Tert*^{-/-} mice fed the A6P6 diet compared to the aorta from *Tert*^{+/+} mice (**Supplemental Figures**

5H), and these findings were replicated in the ex vivo calcification assay (**Supplemental Figure**

5I)**.** These experiments demonstrate that STAT5 directly acts on DNA in the *RUNX2* promoter

and contributes to osteogenic reprogramming in cardiovascular tissues.

While the domains of TERT were initially defined by their role in the telomere-extending

functions of TERT, protein partners required for the known non-canonical functions of TERT

have been found in several domains throughout the protein.[70] Further, sites for protein binding

partners to STAT5, such as epigenetic modifiers and transcriptional regulators, have been found

throughout the protein.[71] We used AI-assisted technology to generate tertiary structures of

TERT and STAT5 dimers and predict how they may interact. AlphaFold[72] mapped the

interaction between human TERT and dimerized human STAT5A, and these binding data were

visualized using HDOCK[73] (**Supplemental Figure 5J and 5K**). To gain a more comprehensive

and detailed understanding of the TERT/STAT5 interaction we will utilize a next-generation

fluorescence-based complementation system developed by Tebo and Gautier in 2019

(splitFAST).[74] This system has very low background fluorescence and can be temporally

regulated, enabling the visualization of transient TERT/STAT5 interactions in living cells or fixed

cells, to provide a scalable model that can be used to screen for compounds that block the

TERT/STAT5 interaction. We fused the human cDNA of TERT and STAT5 to NFAST and

CFAST splitFAST reporters, respectively, to generate TERT-NFAST and STAT5A-CFAST

fusion proteins. This approach allows monitoring of the formation and dissociation of a protein

assembly.[74] Control hVICs were co-transfected with TERT-NFAST and STAT5A-CFAST

plasmids and 5 µM HBR-3,5DOM (4-hydroxy-3,5- dimethoxy benzylidene rhodamine)

administered at d3, d5, and d7 of OST or NT. We found that the TERT/STAT5 splitFAST signal

was highly elevated in calcifying control hVICs relative to the NT condition as early as d3

throughout d7, supporting the early formation of the TERT/STAT5 complex in calcifying hVICs

(**Figure 4L**). Together, these approaches confirm TERT and STAT5 interaction and

translocation into the nucleus during osteogenic reprogramming.

To assess the function of TERT-STAT5 interaction, we performed chromatin

immunoprecipitation analysis (Ch-IP). We found that STAT5 is significantly enriched on both

putative STAT5 binding sites in the *RUNX2* promoter during osteogenic reprogramming (**Figure**

4M). *RUNX2* transcription is initiated from two distinct promoters: the distal promoter region P1,

located upstream of exon 1, and the proximal P2 promoter, located upstream of exon 2.[75,76] The

P1 promoter is highly active and required for osteoblast progenitor expansion, osteoblast

maturation, and bone formation, while the P2 promoter-derived isoform is expressed in

osteoblastic and non-osteoblastic mesenchymal cells.[77-79] Genome-wide CUT&Run analysis of

the histone marker H3K4me3 showed that RUNX2 promoters P1 and P2 are significantly

upregulated during osteogenic differentiation on human VICs, while Gene Ontology (GO)

pathway analysis revealed that genes related to the telomerase complex, chromatin remodeling,

and metabolic pathways are upregulated during osteogenic differentiation of hVICs

(**Supplementary Figures 5L and 5M**, GEO accession GSE280657). We assessed STAT5

binding to the *Runx2* P1 and P2 promoters during osteogenic differentiation using CUT&Tag

analysis in the *Tert*^{+/+} and *Tert*^{-/-} mVICs. We found that STAT5 binds to the *Runx2* P1 and P2

promoters during osteogenic differentiation and that STAT5 was absent from these regions in

Tert^{-/-} mVICs, highlighting the Tert requirement for Stat5 binding to *Runx2* gene promoters

(**Figure 4N**, GEO accession GSE274226). By comparing *Tert*^{+/+} and *Tert*^{-/-} mVICs CUT&Tag

sequencing, we found that Stat5 occupies promoter, intragenic, and intergenic regions

throughout the genome (**Figure 4O**). GO pathway analysis revealed that genes with high Stat5

binding participate in biological processes related to protein phosphorylation, JAK/STAT

signaling, inflammation, osteoblast differentiation, SMC function, and chromatin remodeling

(**Figure 4P**). Together, these data identify that TERT's effects are mediated via STAT5 binding

on the *Runx2* gene promoter and the promoters involved in several pathways known to be

operative during osteogenic reprogramming of cardiovascular cells.

TERT and STAT5 are upregulated in calcified tissue.

Confirming our in vitro, ex vivo, and in vivo data above, in human CAVD tissue we found that

STAT5 protein levels are significantly elevated and localized to areas of calcification in the

calcified leaflet alongside TERT distribution. Additionally, the number of STAT5-positive cells

was significantly higher in CAVD tissue compared to control tissue (**Figure 5A**). Furthermore,

the number of TERT/STAT5 co-positive nuclei was significantly greater in CAVD valves

compared to control valves (**Figure 5B**). These data support our in vitro investigations and

indicate that TERT/STAT5 interaction contributes to human CAVD pathogenesis.

TERT interacts with SMARCA4 during the osteogenic reprogramming of VICs.

Studies by others have shown that TERT facilitates chromatin accessibility and transcription by

recruiting SMARCA4 (previously referred to as BRG1), the catalytic subunit of the SWI/SNF

chromatin remodeling complex, to specific DNA loci.[18,80,81] We investigated whether SMARCA4

plays a role in the osteogenic reprogramming of hVICs via interacting with TERT. There was no

difference in SMARCA4 protein staining in the aorta of *Tert*^{+/+} and *Tert*^{-/-} mice fed the A6P6 diet,

nor in aortic rings ex vivo (**Supplemental Figures 6A and 6B**). However, in hVICs, expression

analysis revealed significant upregulation of *SMARCA4* transcripts as early as d5 of OST

stimulation (**Supplementary Figure 6C**). Immunoprecipitation showed that TERT and

SMARCA4 physically interact in hVICs upon OST treatment (**Supplementary Figure 6D**).

Immunofluorescence staining showed that TERT and SMARCA4 are detected and colocalized

in cells in the calcified human leaflet (**Supplementary Figure 6E**), mirroring TERT and STAT5

distribution in human CAVD tissue. These findings suggest that SMARCA4 plays an active role

in the osteogenic reprogramming of VICs.

DISCUSSION

This study investigated the early steps required for the osteogenic reprogramming of human

valve interstitial cells in CAVD and establishes a critical role for TERT and STAT5 in this

process (**Figure 6**). Specifically, our data show that 1) TERT is upregulated in CAVD tissue and

elevated in primary VIC lines stimulated with osteogenic media. While TERT is elevated in these

calcified tissues and cells, telomere length is not impacted, nor is there evidence of cell

senescence; 2) TERT is required for the calcification of VICs, CASMCs, and MSCs. The

requirement for TERT occurs early in the process of osteogenic reprogramming, as knocking

down TERT protein levels after seven days of osteogenic stimulation did not deter calcification.

These osteogenic reprogramming activities of TERT are independent of its telomerase

enzymatic activity, as $Terc^{-/-}$ cells or the use of the TERT reverse transcriptase inhibitor did not

deter calcification. Further, TERT co-immunoprecipitated with the chromatin remodeling enzyme

SMARCA4, and these two proteins were also found in the nucleus of CAVD tissues; 3)

Inflammatory signals are known to contribute to CAVD pathogenesis, and we found such

signaling can increase TERT levels, as well as the transcription factor STAT5. In silico modeling

predicted TERT/STAT5 interaction, which was proven experimentally with immunoprecipitation,

proximity ligation assay, and a fluorescence complementation system developed for the

visualization of transient protein-protein interactions, and like TERT, genetic knockdown of

STAT5, or specific inhibition of STAT5 activity, prevented calcification. We found that STAT5

directly binds the DNA of the RUNX2 promoter, as well as genes in pathways related to

chromatin remodeling and cellular proliferation and differentiation. Lastly, the requirement for

TERT was established in in vivo and ex vivo calcification models. Collectively, these

experiments support a novel role for TERT and STAT5 in driving CAVD pathogenesis and

cardiovascular reprogramming and identify a unique, druggable target for cardiovascular

calcification.

TERT is well-known for its canonical telomere-extending activity, yet TERT also regulates gene

expression and chromatin remodeling independent of affecting telomere integrity. TERT

interacts physically with several transcription factors to promote the expression of several

genes, including β-catenin, to stimulate genes involved in bone development.[15,16,62] In a wire-

injury restenosis model, TERT binds to the transcription factors SP1 at the *VEGF* promoter and

E2F1 at *MCM7*, *CCNA1*, and *PCNA* promoters, stimulating SMC proliferation and neointima

formation.[20,56,63,82] We did not detect proliferative or migratory differences between control and

CAVD VICs despite elevated levels of TERT at baseline (Figures 2B and 2C), indicating cell-

specific and stress-specific functions of TERT.

In addition to supporting transcription factor function, TERT can act as a cofactor to orchestrate

chromatin remodeling machinery. Studies have shown that TERT serves as a chaperone to

facilitate the recruitment of SMARCA4 and histone acetyltransferases to stimulate chromatin

accessibility and transcription or to maintain heterochromatin structure,[18,80,81] and loss of TERT

abrogates the cellular response to DNA double-strand breaks and alters the overall chromatin

configuration without affecting telomere integrity.[17] We now show that TERT is upregulated in

calcified valve tissues and VICs under osteogenic and inflammatory stimuli. TERT interacts with

STAT5, which binds to the *RUNX2* gene promoter and drives osteogenic reprogramming of the

aortic valve cells. TERT depletion reduced *RUNX2* expression and calcification in several cell

types, and TERT, STAT5, and the chromatin remodeling enzyme SMARCA4 co-

immunoprecipitated in OST-treated VICs (Supplementary Figure 6). Further, TERT and

SMARCA4 co-localized in the nucleus of CAVD tissues. These discoveries, along with the

findings of others showing that *TERT* overexpression drives osteogenic differentiation in human

MSCs,[21,22] support a broad role for TERT serving as a co-factor bridging chromatin remodeling

complexes and transcription factors to facilitate euchromatin formation to modulating cellular

phenotypic transition and osteogenic reprogramming.

Telomere length is considered a biomarker of aging, yet it varies widely between people of the

same age, even twins.[23] Several studies have utilized circulating leukocytes to investigate

whether shortened telomeres correlate with various vascular disease states.[24,25] One study

correlated telomere length in circulating leukocytes with aortic stenosis and found that leukocyte

telomere length was slightly shorter in individuals with aortic stenosis than in age-matched

controls.[26] However, telomere length in leukocytes does not indicate global telomere length in

an individual, telomerase complex activity, or TERT protein function in all cell types. Further,

somatic mosaicism and clonal hematopoiesis discoveries underscore the importance of not

ascribing telomere length in one cell type to telomere length and/or TERT activities in another.[28]

Short telomeres in circulating leukocytes may reflect increased cell turnover due to systemic

inflammation, as leukocytes are highly proliferative, and telomere attrition is highly likely to be a

tissue- and disease-dependent process. In this regard, Huzen et al. compared the telomere

length of the leukocytes of age-matched controls and patients with atherosclerosis and the

telomere length of the cells in the atherosclerotic plaques of the patients.[27] They found that

while telomere length in leukocytes from the atherosclerosis patient group was significantly

shorter than in the control group, telomere length in the atherosclerotic plaques was significantly

longer, indicative of increased telomerase activity. Thus, total leukocyte telomere length does

not represent telomere length in the diseased tissue. Our study investigated TERT protein levels

directly in the valve tissue and patient-specific VICs. We determined that the expression levels

of TERT and osteogenic markers in CAVD tissue and cells were elevated, without changes in

telomere length, proliferation, and DNA damage markers (Figures 1-2, Supplemental Figures 1-

4), suggesting non-canonical TERT activity in these cells.

VIC calcification shares aspects of the transcriptional program observed during the

differentiation of MSCs into osteoblasts, including the upregulation of *RUNX2, BGLAP, TNAP*,

and the secretion of bone-forming proteins and accumulation of calcium minerals.[10,12,83]

Likewise, signals such as mechanical stress, disturbed flow, and inflammation promote VIC

calcification and the osteogenic differentiation of MSCs.[84] These observations suggest that VICs

switch from their quiescent state and undergo an osteogenic reprogramming akin to the

differentiation of MSCs into osteoblasts, acquiring a calcifying phenotype. The mechanisms

coordinating the early molecular events in these cell transitions have yet to be fully understood.

We have hypothesized that fully differentiated cells can de-differentiate into a transitory,

multipotent stem cell-like state and then acquire an osteogenic phenotype.[85] VICs exhibit the

potential to differentiate into osteogenic, chondrogenic, or adipogenic lineages, properties

comparable to mesenchymal stem cells.[86] We chose to investigate TERT in the osteogenic

reprogramming of VICs as TERT is highly expressed in stem cells, and its overexpression

primes mesenchymal stem cells into the osteogenic lineage.[21,22] Our data supports the role of

TERT in the osteogenic reprogramming of VICs, whereby TERT serves as a bridge between

DNA-binding transcription factors and chromatin remodeling enzymes.

The osteogenic differentiation of stem cells is orchestrated by RUNX2, which is also required for

the osteogenic reprogramming of valvular and vascular cells.[40,41] In a recent transcriptomic

study, Xu et al. identified 14 cell populations in aortic valve tissue samples from two control and

four CAVD valves.[87] The severity of CAVD was assessed via ultrasound imaging, which detects

leaflet mobility; however, examining the macroscopic pictures and histological staining of valve

leaflets used in this analysis shows that while these valves are indeed stiff, they do not exhibit

robust nodules of calcification as do the valves in our data set (Figures 1, 5, and Supplemental

Figure 1). Analysis by Xu et al identified three VIC populations defined by expression of *FOS,*

HSPA6, and SPARC. However, cells from six valves were pooled, with 10.4% of cells from

control tissue and the remaining 89.6% from CAVD tissues. Bulk transcriptomic data from these

tissues show only a small 1.49-fold increase in *RUNX2* gene expression in CAVD tissues, in

stark contrast with our more stringent analysis of *RUNX2* expression by quantitative PCR

(Figure 2, Supplemental Figure 4).[10-12] Inspection of the publicly available bulk RNA-sequencing

data (PRJNA552159) showed no increase in *TERT* transcript expression. While the

hemodynamic data showed those valves had undergone fibrotic remodeling, few calcifying cells

were present, as seen by their histological staining. This lack of calcification may explain why

TERT expression was undetected in their study. In the general population, aortic sclerosis

commonly goes undetected until a patient develops symptoms such as dyspnea, angina, and

syncope, as the stiffness and remodeling of the leaflet obstructs ventricular outflow. A

population-based study assessed aortic valve disease in 552 randomly selected men and

women aged 55 to 86. Using imaging and Doppler echocardiography, mild calcification was

observed in 40% of the individuals, severe calcification in 13%, and symptomatic stenosis in

only 2.2%.[88] This population-based study illustrates how common aortic valve remodeling is and

highlights the importance of using multiple modalities to accurately determine valve pathology

(i.e., fibrotic vs calcified). In our study, a portion of each patient valve was used for cell isolation

while the rest was utilized for calcification assessment by histological staining, following a

workflow that we developed that guarantees that cells isolated from surgically removed and

postmortem tissues retain their proliferative capacity and endothelial and interstitial phenotypes

in culture.[37] While unbiased sequencing approaches may help uncover novel mechanisms

contributing to disease states, they are skewed towards genes exhibiting the largest changes in

gene expression in a snapshot of time and can miss short-lived transitory events.

The function of STAT5 in bone formation is multifaceted. While it was shown that STAT5 could

promote the differentiation of MSCs into osteoblasts by upregulating the osteogenic genes in a

Jak2-dependent manner, a *Stat5a* global knockout mouse exhibited elevated bone mass and

mineral density.[89,90] These conflicting reports indicate that the role of STAT5 in bone formation

and remodeling is complex, and more studies are required. STAT5 has diverse functions as a

transcription factor: it interacts with histone acetyltransferases and transcription factors such as

the glucocorticoid receptor, SP1, YY1, and C/EBPβ to stimulate gene expression,[91-93] and

studies in cancer cells identified that STAT5 can induce *TERT* expression.[94,95] Using in silico

modeling we found multiple putative STAT5 binding sites in the *RUNX2* P1 promoter region,

which were confirmed with Ch-IP assays. This supports our hypothesis that STAT5/TERT acts

to initiate the osteogenic reprogramming of VICs, establishing a novel mechanism in CAVD

pathogenesis whereby TERT/STAT5 bind to each other and activate osteogenic gene

transcription, which drives the early events in cellular osteogenic reprogramming. Cell

phenotype reprogramming requires chromatin restructuring to allow for the transcription of

repressed genes. As observed in other cell types, we found TERT co-immunoprecipitated with

SMARCA4, as well as STAT5, and genetic depletion of TERT or STAT5 midway through the

OST assay (i.e., after d7) did not perturb the calcification of cells. Our observations strongly

supports that TERT complexes with SMARCA4 to remodel chromatin and with the STAT5

transcription factor to bind and activate *RUNX2* gene transcription. We explored the potential

physical direct interaction between TERT and STAT5, and we propose that the RNA binding

domain of TERT is the most likely candidate to interact with STAT5 (Supplemental Figure 5).

This location is of interest, as we found that *Terc*^{-/-} *mVICs* robustly calcify; this begs the question

of whether the loss of *lncTERC* binding is what enables or regulates the non-canonical activities

of TERT. Studies identifying critical domains for interaction are currently ongoing.

The strengths of this study lie in the utilization of patient-specific tissues and cell lines generated

from valve leaflets, and the use mouse models and knockout cells for mechanistic studies.

While our results are robust, it is important to address the limitations of our study. Firstly, we

worked with a limited number of human samples obtained from age- and sex-matched donors.

Due to this limited sample size, we limited our statistical analyses to non-parametric analysis,

comparing two to four groups, and no mixed models were included. Regardless, one strength of

our study is the multiprong approach to determining the role of TERT and STAT5 in vascular

calcification. Secondly, STAT5A and STAT5B are two different genes, with 96% of their amino

acid sequence shared and their activities redundant.[32] We have determined that VICs express

both variants; however, our antibodies and shRNA constructs could not differentiate between

the two variants. Thus, the two isoforms may interact with TERT to bind the *RUNX2* gene

promoter. STAT5 is activated by multiple cytokines, including IL-2, IL-6, and TNF-α, and it was

shown that IL-2 specifically activates STAT5 to induce TERT expression in cancer cells.[94,96]

Whether STAT5 first induces TERT expression and then TERT and STAT5 cooperate to control

the expression of *RUNX2* needs to be determined. Thirdly, there is redundancy regarding

STAT1/3/5 functions and signaling.[97] Our study was not designed to address all the

complexities of STAT signaling per se but rather to investigate the role of TERT as a key protein

that orchestrates the osteogenic reprogramming of aortic valve cells; our future studies will

explore the role of STAT5 further.

Our work highlights the importance of primary human tissue-based studies. Murine models are

not ideal for studying non-genetic drivers of CAVD, as mice do not develop CAVD de novo.[98,99]

Mouse leaflets' structure differs from human leaflets as they lack a trilaminar organization and

present a melanocyte cell population not present in human valves.[100-102] Recent elegant work

from the Giachelli group showed that in mice, calcification happens in the sinus wall and, to a

lesser extent, at the leaflet hinge, the region between the leaflet VICs and SMCs of the aorta,

with no detectable calcification in the aortic valve leaflets after 26 weeks of a high-fat diet in a

Ldlr knockout mice model.[103] This distribution of aortic root calcification is also observed in a

mouse model described by a Honda et al which detected calcification in the sinus wall 16 weeks

post wire-induced mechanical injury.[98] Due to the lack of aortic valve leaflet calcification in

atherosclerotic or mechanical injury murine models, we utilized a adenine/phosphate diet-

induced model of medial arterial calcification (MAC).[58] MAC is not associated with lipid

deposition, fibrous cap formation, or intimal hyperplasia; instead, MAC stems from the

progressive accumulation of calcium and phosphate within the arterial walls.[104] These structural

features distinguish MAC from atherosclerosis and are more representative of the pathogenesis

of valve leaflet calcification.[2,104]

This study has uncovered the early molecular events that enable the osteogenic reprogramming

of the interstitial cells of the aortic valve. Current CAVD therapies are surgical, limited to

mechanical or bioprosthetic valve replacement, and performed only when the disease has

progressed to the advanced point of affecting blood flow and heart function. Our data show that

perturbing TERT or STAT5 can inhibit calcification; however, broadly inhibiting one or the other

of these proteins may have deleterious off-target effects. Understanding the specific binding

domains and other protein binding partners of TERT and STAT5 will enable the development of

small molecules to block their interaction, which is a more feasible therapeutic strategy for aortic

valve calcification than global inhibition. CAVD affects over 9.5 million people in the U.S. and

has an associated 56-67% 5-year mortality rate; hence, the need for early, non-surgical

therapies is great.[4] This study uncovers a novel and targetable pathway that may be leveraged

to halt or prevent CAVD progression.

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DISCLOSURES

The University of Pittsburgh has filed a provisional patent application regarding technology on

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FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure 1. TERT is elevated in CAVD tissues. (A) Examples of non-calcified control (top) and

calcified CAVD (bottom) human valves used in this study. Arrowheads indicate calcified nodules

Scalebar. 1 cm. (B), TERT mRNA transcript quantification in control and CAVD valve tissues. n

= 8 control, n= 9 CAVD. (C), Representative serial sections of Von Kossa (dark precipitation)

and TERT immunofluorescent staining in control and CAVD valve tissues. Scalebar 100 µm.

Graphs show the quantification of TERT intensity and the number of TERT-positive cells. n = 9

control, n = 9 CAVD. (D), Telomere length measurements in valve tissues. n = 19 control, n =

12 CAVD. (E), Age of the patients utilized in this study. n = 25 control, n = 16 CAVD. Data are

shown as means ± SD. P values were calculated using the Mann-Whitney U test and shown on

each graph. L = lumen.

Figure 2. TERT is elevated in CAVD hVICs at baseline and upregulation during

osteogenic reprogramming. (A), Representative images showing cell morphology of control

and CAVD hVICs. Scalebar 50 µm. (B), Proliferation of control and CAVD hVICs at baseline. n

= 3 both groups. (C) Relative migration distances of control and CAVD VICs. n = 10 both

groups. (D) Western blot staining of control and CAVD hVICs at baseline. Quantification of

protein levels is shown on the right panels. n = 4 both groups. (E) Telomere length

measurements in VICs. n = 8, control, n = 5 CAVD. (F) Representative images of early

calcification in hVICs growing in normal conditions (no treatment NT) or stimulated with

osteogenic media (OST) for 14 days. Calcium deposition was visualized by Alizarin Red

staining. Scalebar 50 μm. Quantification of calcification on the right graphs. n = 7 both groups.

(G), Western blot staining of samples from control and CAVD hVICs after 14 days of NT or

OST. Quantification of protein levels is shown on the bottom graphs. n = 4 both groups. (H),

Representative immunofluorescent staining images of TERT in control and CAVD hVICs after

14 days of NT or OST. Calcium deposition was visualized with OsteoImage. Scalebar 100 μm.

(I) Expression profile control VICs after 14 days of NT and OST treatment. n = 4 both groups.

Data are shown as means ± SD. P values were calculated with the Mann-Whitney U test

(Figures B, C, D, E, G, and I) and the Kruskal-Wallis H test with Dunn post hoc test (Figure F)

and shown on each graph

Figure 3. TERT is required to initiate osteogenic transition and calcification. (A) Control

hVICs were transduced lentivirus containing shControl or shTERT and followed by OST

stimulation for up to 28 days. Calcium deposition was visualized by Alizarin Red staining. n = 6

shControl, n = 6 shTERT at 21 days and n = 9 each group at day 28. Scalebar 400 μm. (B)

Representative western blot staining of control hVICs transduced with lentivirus containing

either shControl or shTERT followed by 7 days of OST. (C) hCASMCs were transduced with

shControl or shTERT and stimulated with OST for 14 and 21 days. n = 4 for each group at both

time points. Scalebar 400 μm. (D) Representative images of mVIC isolated from $Tert^{+/+}$ and $Tert^{-}$

$^{/-}$ mice were stimulated with OST for 28 days. Scalebar 400 μm. (E) Representative Von Kossa

staining images of $Tert^{+/+}$ and $Tert^{-/-}$ mice aortas (dark precipitation). Scale bar 400 μm.

Quantification of calcification is shown on the right panel. (F) Representative immunofluorescent

images of Runx2 expression indicative of calcification (red, insert) on $Tert^{+/+}$ and $Tert^{-/-}$ mice

aorta. Scale bar 400 μm. Runx2 quantification of calcification is shown on the right panel. (G)

Representative images of mVICs isolated from F1 $Tert^{-/-}$ or $Terc^{-/-}$ mice were stimulated with

OST for up to 21 days. Scalebar 100 μm. Data are shown as means ± SD. P values were

calculated using the Kruskal-Wallis H test, Dunn post hoc test (Figures A, C, and G), and Mann-

Whitney U test (Figures D, E, and F).

Figure 4. STAT5 binds to TERT and is required for the calcification of human VICs. (A)

Graphic of in silico analysis identifying the consensus binding site for STAT5. (B), Diagram

depicting STAT5 binding to RUNX2 promoter and the positions of the predicted STAT5 binding

sites (purple boxes). (C) Representative immunofluorescence images of control hVICs after 14

days of LPS treatment or OST stimulation. Scalebar 50 μm. (D) Representative western blot

staining of hVICs after 14 days of OST stimulation. (E) Representative images of control hVICs

treated with 10 μM of the STAT5 inhibitors StafiA-1 or StafiB-1 throughout 28 days of

osteogenic stimulation. Scalebar 400 μm. n = 8 each group. The quantification of calcification is

shown on the right graph. (F) RUNX2 mRNA transcript quantification at d7 OST, n = 10. (G)

Control hVICs were transduced with lentivirus containing shControl or shSTAT5 constructs and

treated with OST for 21 days. Calcium deposition was visualized by Alizarin Red staining. n = 9

for each group. Scalebar 400 μm. (H) RUNX2 mRNA transcript quantification at d7 OST, n = 6.

(I) Schematic of OST treatment with delayed shTERT transduction (top panel).Representative

images of hVIC (left panels) treated with 10 μM of the STAT5 inhibitors StafiA-1 at d7 or d14 of

OST treatment. Samples were collected at d21 (bottom panel). Scalebar 400 μm. n = 6 for each

group. (J) Representative images of TERT/STAT5 complex (red foci) in control hVICs cultured

for 21 days in osteogenic medium and detected by PLA. Scalebar 100 μm. n = 4 for each group.

(K) STAT5 co-immunoprecipitation in control hVICs under OST for 10 days to detect

TERT/STAT5 interaction. (L) Control hVIC co-expressing TERT-NFAST and STAT5A-CFAST

were labeled with 5 μM HBR-3,5DOM (4-hydroxy-3,5- dimethoxybenzylidene rhodamine, coral)

and imaged at d3, d5, and d7 of osteogenic treatment (OST) or control no-treatment (NT). Scale

bars 50 μm. (M) Chromatin immunoprecipitation shows enrichment of STAT5 on RUNX2

promoter OST conditions compared to NT. The base position is indicated in the blue boxes. n=4

for each group as in B. (N) STAT5 CUT&Tag sequencing tracks in genomic regions of Runx2 in

no-treatment control and osteogenic condition-treated mice VICs. (O) Stacked chart

representing genome-wide STAT5 occupancy in promoters, genes, and intergenic regions

frequency in mice VICs. (P) Top 20 GO pathways enriched in genes with significant loss of

STAT5 in Tert+/+ vs Tert-/- mice VICs. Data are shown as means ± SD. P values were

calculated by the Mann-Whitney U test (Figures F, H, and J) and the Kruskal-Wallis H test

(Figures E and G) and indicated on top of each graph.

Figure 5. TERT and STAT5 are upregulated and colocalized in CAVD tissue. (A)

Representative serial sections of Von Kossa (dark precipitation) and TERT and STAT5

immunofluorescent staining in control and CAVD tissues. Scalebar 100 µm. STAT5 intensity

and STAT5-positive cells (STAT5+) are quantified on the right panels. (B) Quantification of

STAT5-TERT-positive cells. Data are shown as means ± SD, n = 5 control, n = 6 CAVD. P

values were calculated with the Mann-Whitney U test and indicated on each graph. L = lumen.

Figure 6. TERT/STAT5 promotes osteogenic reprogramming. Inflammatory signals promote

the upregulation and interaction of TERT and STAT5A. The TERT/STAT5 complex translocates

into the nucleus, where TERT interacts with SMARCA4 (also known as BRG1), which facilitates

a permissive chromatin configuration, and STAT5A binds specific sites on the RUNX2 promoter,

leading to the osteogenic reprogramming of valve interstitial cells during the early stages of

CAVD pathogenesis.

Supplemental Figure 1. Characterization of human CAVD valves and patient-isolated

VICs at baseline. (A) Representative section of Von Kossa staining in control and valve CAVD

leaflets tissue. Scalebar 1 mm. (B) Representative serial sections of RUNX2 immunofluorescent

staining and OPN in control and CAVD valve tissues. Scalebar 100 μm. Quantification of

RUNX2-positive cells and OPN-positive cells on the leaflet specimen is shown on the right

graphs. n = 5 control, n = 6 CAVD. (C) Correlation between age of the donor and TERT

expression in valve tissues. n = 8 control, n = 9 CAVD. (D) Gene expression profile in the valve

leaflets. n = 7 each group. (E) Representative images of immunofluorescent staining of PCNA

(top panels) and γ-H2AX (bottom panels) in control and CAVD valve tissues. Scalebar 100 μm.

Quantification of PCNA-positive cells and γ-H2AX-positive cells are shown on the right graphs.

n = 4 control, n = 3 CAVD. (F) Representative images of a scratch assay in control and CAVD

hVICs. Time points are indicated on top of each panel. Blue lines denote the cell migration front.

Scalebar 1 mm. n = 10 of each group. (G) Representative images of αSMA, CNN, SM22, TNAP,

and f-Actin in control and CAVD hVICs. Scalebar 50 μm. Signal quantification is shown on the

right. n = 4 each group. Data are shown as means ± SD. P values were calculated using the

Mann-Whitney U test (Figures B, D, E, and G) and the Pearson correlation test (Figure C). L =

lumen.

Supplemental Figure 2. Inhibition of reverse transcriptase activity of TERT does not

prevent osteogenic reprogramming of hVICs. (A) Cell counts of control and CAVD hVICs

after 14 days of NT or OST stimulation. n = 4 each group. (B) β-galactosidase (BLG1) mRNA

transcript quantification in control and CAVD hVICs at baseline. n = 5 control, n= 4 CAVD. (C)

Representative images of senescence-associated β-galactosidase activity staining of hVICs

after 28 days of NT or OST stimulation. Blue cells were considered positive for senescence.

Quantification of senescence is shown on the right graph. n = 4 each group. Scalebar 400 μm.

(D) hVICs growing in no treatment (NT), OST media, or OST media supplemented with the NF-

κβ inhibitor BAY-117082 for 7 days, n = 6. (E) hVICs growing in no treatment (NT), OST media,

or OST media supplemented with the c-MYC inhibitor 10058-F4 for 7 days, n = 7. qRT-PCR

quantified TERT and RUNX2 gene expression. In D and E, inhibitors were dissolved in DMSO

thus NT and OST were supplemented with the highest volume of vehicle (DMSO) used in

treatment groups. Data are shown as means ± SD. P values were calculated with the Mann-

Whitney U test (Figure B) and the Kruskal-Wallis H test with Dunn pairwise comparison post hoc

test (Figures A, C-E) and shown on top of each graph.

Supplemental Figure 3. TERT is upregulated and required for the osteogenic

differentiation of human mesenchymal stem cells. (A) Representative images of hMSCs

stimulated with OST for 14 days. Calcium deposition was visualized by Alizarin Red staining.

Scalebar 50 µm. (B) Western blot staining of samples from hMSCs collected during the 14 days

of OST treatment. (C) RUNX2 expression profile of differentiating hMSCs stimulated for 14 days

with OST media. n = 3. (D) Representative TERT immunofluorescent staining images of hMSCs

stimulated with OST for 14 days. Scalebar 100 µm. (E) Representative images of hMSCs

infected with shTERT or shControl virus and stimulated with OST for 14 days. Calcium

deposition was visualized by Alizarin Red staining. The quantification of calcification is shown

on the right graph. n = 3. (F) Western blot staining of samples from hMSCs collected during the

14 days of OST treatment. Data are shown as means ± SD. P values were calculated with the

Kruskal-Wallis H test with Dunn pairwise comparison post hoc test (Figure C) and the Mann-

Whitney U test (Figure E) and shown on each graph.

Supplemental Figure 4. Inhibition of reverse transcriptase activity of TERT does not

prevent osteogenic reprogramming of VICs. (A) Representative images of mBMMSCs

isolated from *Tert*$^{+/+}$ or *Tert*$^{-/-}$ mice and stimulated with OST for 21 days. Scalebar 100 µm.

Quantification of calcification is presented as average absorbance on the right graphs, n = 5 for

each group. (B, C) Representative images of a senescence-associated β-galactosidase (SA-β-

gal) staining of mVICs and mBMMSCs isolated from *Tert*$^{+/+}$ or F1 *Tert*$^{-/-}$ mice after 21 days of

OST stimulation. In each group, blue cells were considered positive for senescence, n = 5. (D)

Schematic of OST treatment with delayed shTERT transduction (top panel). VICs were

transduced with shTERT, and calcification was assessed with Alizarin Red S stain at day 21.

Scalebar 400 μm. n = 6 for each group. (E) Representative sections of Von Kossa staining in

thoracic aortic rings isolated from *Tert*$^{+/+}$ and *Tert*$^{-/-}$ mice after 14 days of OST treatment relative

to NT control treatment. Quantification is shown on the right. Scale bar 400 μm (F)

Immunofluorescence staining of thoracic aortic rings after OST treatment as in B. Quantification

of Runx2 is shown on the right graph. Scale bar 400 μm (G) Western blot staining of aortic ring

specimens collected and treated in B. Quantification of Runx2 is shown on the right graph. (H)

Human VICs were treated with the TERT inhibitor BiBR1532 and stimulated with OST, and

calcification was assessed on day 28, with n = 5 in each group. (I) TERT, RUNX2, and STAT5A

expression were evaluated on day 14, n = 6 DMSO, n = 5 BIBR1532. Data are shown as means

± SD. P values were calculated with the Kruskal-Wallis H test with Dunn pairwise comparison

post hoc test (Figures A, B, C, E, H) and the Mann-Whitney U test (Figures D, F, G, I) and are

shown on top of each graph.

Supplemental Figure 5. STAT5 is upregulated, binds to TERT, and is required for

osteogenic reprogramming of VICs. (A) Western blot analysis of cytoplasmic and nuclear

fractions of TERT from control VICs obtained after seven days of OST stimulation. TUB,

(tubuline); H3, (Histone H3); Cyt, cytoplasmic fraction; Nuc, nuclear fraction. (B) Representative

immunofluorescence image of STAT5 subcellular distribution after 14 days of NT and OST

stimulation. Scalebar 40 μm. (C) Representative images of human CASMCs treated with 10 μM

of the STAT5 inhibitors StafiA-1 or StafiB-1 during the 14 days of OST stimulation. Scalebar 400

µm. n = 4 for each group. (D) Representative images of human MSCs treated with 10 µM of the

STAT5 inhibitors StafiA-1 or StafiB-1 during the 21 days of OST stimulation. Scalebar 400 µm. n

= 4 for each group. (E) Representative images of TERT/STAT5 complex (red foci) detected by

proximity ligation assay (PLA) in the nucleus of control VICs. Scalebar 25 µm. n = 4 for each

group. (F) Relative luciferase activity in hVICS after transfection of *hRUNX2* Promoter GLuc-ON

pEZX-PG04.1. Samples were analyzed 72 hours after OST treatment. STAT5A inhibitor StafiA-

1 (10 µM) was dissolved in DMSO. NT and OST conditions were also supplemented with

DMSO, n = 10 per group. (G) Biotin-labeled 60 bp oligos containing the -194 STAT5 binding

sequence on the promoter of human RUNX2 were incubated cell extracts from HEK293s in

which STAT5 protein was overexpressed (lane 1). Extracts were also incubated with an

increasing amounts of unlabeled oligos (lanes 2-5). Cell extract was also incubated with a oligo

containing a mutated STAT5A site (mut RUNX2 DNA) (line 9) and incubated with an increased

amount of unlabeled mut RUNX2 oligo (lanes 10-13). Blots include the positive and negative

controls include in the LightShift Chemiluminescent EMSA Kit (lanes 6-8 and 14-16). (H)

Representative immunofluorescent images of Stat5 expression after 12 weeks of high adenine

high phosphate diet on Tert-/- and Tert-/- mice aorta. Scale bar 400 μm. Quantification of Stat5

expression is shown on the right panel. (I) Representative images of Stat5 immunofluorescence

staining of thoracic aortic rings isolated from Tert+/+ and Tert-/- mice after 14 days of OST

treatment relative to NT control treatment. Quantification of Stat5 is shown on the right graph.

Scale bar 400 μm. (J) Mol*3D Viewer rendering of the TERT-STAT5 dimer interaction predicted

by the HDock. Red boxes indicate the position of the interaction between TERT and STAT5. (K)

The diagram shows the regions involved in the predicted interaction as indicated in A, and the

docking and confidence scores predicted by HDock are indicated. TEN: DNA anchor domain for

processive telomeric repeat addition, RBD: Telomerase RNA binding domain, RT: Finger and

palm region of the reverse transcriptase domain, CTE: C-terminal extension or putative thumb

domain of the reverse transcriptase, CCD: Coiled-coil domain, required for nuclear localization,

DBD: DNA binding domain, HLK: Helical linker and DNA binding domain, SH2: Domain required

for activation and dimerization, TD: Transactivation domain. (L) H3K4me3 CUT&Run

sequencing tracks in genomic regions of Runx2 in no-treatment control and osteogenic

condition-treated human VICs. (M) Top 20 GO pathways enriched in genes with significant loss

of H3K4me3 in OST- vs NT-treated human VICs. Data are shown as means ± SD. P values

were calculated with the Mann-Whitney U test (Figures E and G) and the Kruskal-Wallis H test

with Dunn pairwise comparison post-test (Figures C, D, and H) and indicated in each graph.

Supplemental Figure 6. Chromatin remodeling enzyme SMARCA4 is upregulated and

interacts with TERT during the osteogenic reprogramming of VICs. (A) Representative

immunofluorescent images of Smarca4 expression after 12 weeks of high adenine high

phosphate diet on *Tert$^{-/-}$* and *Tert$^{-/-}$* mice aorta. Scale bar 400 *µ*m. Quantification of Smarca4

expression is shown on the right panel. (B) Representative images of Smarca4

immunofluorescence staining of thoracic aortic rings isolated from *Tert$^{+/+}$* and *Tert$^{-/-}$* mice after

14 days of OST treatment relative to NT control treatment. Quantification of Smarca4 is shown

on the right graph. (C) SMARCA4 expression was evaluated on days 5 and 10 on VICs

stimulated with OST. n = 5 each group. (E) TERT/STAT and TERT/SMARCA4 interaction was

detected by co-immunoprecipitation upon osteogenic stimulation on VIC. (E) Representative

TERT and SMARCA4 immunofluorescent staining in control and CAVD tissues. The number of

positive cells is shown on the right graphs. n = 9 control, n = 9 CAVD. Scalebar 100 µm. Data

are shown as means ± SD, and P values were calculated with the Mann-Whitney U test and

indicated on each graph in Figures A and C. L = lumen.

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Figure 1. TERT is elevated in CAVD tissues. (A) Examples of non-calcified control (top) and calcified CAVD (bottom) human valves used in this study. Arrowheads indicate calcified nodules Scalebar. 1 cm. (B), *TERT* mRNA transcript quantification in control and CAVD valve tissues. n = 8 control, n= 9 CAVD. (C), Representative serial sections of Von Kossa (dark precipitation) and TERT immunofluorescent staining in control and CAVD valve tissues. Scalebar 100 μm. Graphs show the quantification of TERT intensity and the number of TERT-positive cells. n = 9 control, n = 9 CAVD. (D), Telomere length measurements in valve tissues. n = 19 control, n = 12 CAVD. (E), Age of the patients utilized in this study. n = 25 control, n = 16 CAVD. Data are shown as means ± SD. P values were calculated using the Mann-Whitney U test and shown on each graph. L = lumen.

Figure 2. TERT is elevated in CAVD hVICs at baseline and upregulation during osteogenic reprogramming. (**A**), Representative images showing cell morphology of control and CAVD hVICs. Scalebar 50 μm. (**B**), Proliferation of control and CAVD hVICs at baseline. n = 3 both groups. (**C**) Relative migration distances of control and CAVD VICs. n = 10 both groups. (**D**) Western blot staining of control and CAVD hVICs at baseline. Quantification of protein levels is shown on the right panels. n = 4 both groups. (**E**) Telomere length measurements in VICs. n = 8, control, n = 5 CAVD. (**F**) Representative images of early calcification in hVICs growing in normal conditions (no treatment NT) or stimulated with osteogenic media (OST) for 14 days. Calcium deposition was visualized by Alizarin Red staining. Scalebar 50 μm. Quantification of calcification on the right graphs. n = 7 both groups. (**G**), Western blot staining of samples from control and CAVD hVICs after 14 days of NT or OST. Quantification of protein levels is shown on the bottom graphs. n = 4 both groups. (**H**), Representative immunofluorescent staining images of TERT in control and CAVD hVICs after 14 days of NT or OST. Calcium deposition was visualized with OsteoImage. Scalebar 100 μm. (**I**) Expression profile control VICs after 14 days of NT and OST treatment. n = 4 both groups. Data are shown as means ± SD. P values were calculated with the Mann-Whitney U test (Figures B, C, D, E, G, and I), and the Kruskal-Wallis H test with Dunn post hoc test (Figure F) and shown on each graph.

Figure 3. TERT is required to initiate the osteogenic transition and calcify human VICs. (A) Control hVICs were transduced lentivirus containing shControl or shTERT and followed by OST stimulation for up to 28 days. Calcium deposition was visualized by Alizarin Red staining. n = 6 shControl, n = 6 shTERT at 21 days and n = 9 each group at day 28. Scalebar 400 µm. (B) Representative western blot staining of control hVICs transduced with lentivirus containing either shControl or shTERT followed by 7 days of OST. (C) hCASMCs were transduced with shControl or shTERT and stimulated with OST for 14 and 21 days. n = 4 for each group at both time points. Scalebar 400 µm. (D) Representative images of mVIC isolated from *Tert*+/+ and *Tert*-/- mice were stimulated with OST for 28 days. Scalebar 400 µm. (E) Representative Von Kossa staining images of *Tert*+/+ and *Tert*-/- mice aortas (dark precipitation). Scale bar 400 µm. Quantification of calcification is shown on the right panel. (F) Representative immunofluorescent images of Runx2 expression indicative of calcification (red, insert) on *Tert*+/+ and *Tert*-/- mice aorta. Scale bar 400 µm. Runx2 quantification of calcification is shown on the right panel. (G) Representative images of mVICs isolated from F1 *Tert*-/- or *Terc*-/- mice were stimulated with OST for up to 21 days. Scalebar 100 µm. Data are shown as means ± SD. P values were calculated using the Kruskal-Wallis H test, Dunn post hoc test (Figures A, C, and G), and Mann-Whitney U test (Figures D, E, and F).

Figure 4. STAT5 binds to TERT and is required for the calcification of human VICs. (A) Graphic of in silico analysis identifying the consensus binding site for STAT5. (B), Diagram depicting STAT5 binding to RUNX2 promoter and the positions of the predicted STAT5 binding sites (purple boxes). (C) Representative immunofluorescence images of control hVICs after 14 days of LPS treatment or OST stimulation. Scalebar 50 μm. (D) Representative western blot staining of hVICs after 14 days of OST stimulation. (E) Representative images of control hVICs treated with 10 μM of the STAT5 inhibitors StafiA-1 or StafiB-1 throughout 28 days of osteogenic stimulation. Scalebar 400 μm. n = 8 each group. The quantification of calcification is shown on the right graph. (F) *RUNX2* mRNA transcript quantification at d7 OST, n = 10. (G) Control hVICs were transduced with lentivirus containing shControl or shSTAT5 constructs and treated with OST for 21 days. Calcium deposition was visualized by Alizarin Red staining. n = 9 for each group. Scalebar 400 μm. (H) *RUNX2* mRNA transcript quantification at d7 OST, n = 6. (I) Schematic of OST treatment with delayed shTERT transduction (top panel).Representative images of hVIC (left panels) treated with 10 μM of the STAT5 inhibitors StafiA-1 at d7 or d14 of OST treatment. Samples were collected at d21 (bottom panel). Scalebar 400 μm. n = 6 for each group. (J) Representative images of TERT/STAT5 complex (red foci) in control hVICs cultured for 21 days in osteogenic medium and detected by PLA. Scalebar 100 μm. n = 4 for each group. (K) STAT5 co-immunoprecipitation in control hVICs under OST for 10 days to detect TERT/STAT5 interaction. (L) Control hVIC co-expressing TERT-NFAST and STAT5A-CFAST were labeled with 5 μM HBR-3,5DOM (4-hydroxy-3,5- dimethoxybenzylidene rhodamine, coral) and imaged at d3, d5, and d7 of osteogenic treatment (OST) or control no-treatment (NT). Scale bars 50 μm. (M) Chromatin immunoprecipitation shows enrichment of STAT5 on RUNX2 promoter OST conditions compared to NT. The base position is indicated in the blue boxes. n=4 for each group as in B. (N) STAT5 CUT&Tag sequencing tracks in genomic regions of Runx2 in no-treatment control and osteogenic condition-treated mice VICs. (O) Stacked chart representing genome-wide STAT5 occupancy in promoters, genes, and intergenic regions frequency in mice VICs. (P) Top 20 GO pathways enriched in genes with significant loss of STAT5 in *Tert*^{+/+} vs *Tert*^{-/-} mice VICs. Data are shown as means ± SD. P values were calculated by the Mann-Whitney U test (Figures F, H, and J) and the Kruskal-Wallis H test (Figures E and G) and indicated on top of each graph.

Figure 5. TERT and STAT5 are upregulated and colocalized in CAVD tissue. (A) Representative serial sections of Von Kossa (dark precipitation) and TERT and STAT5 immunofluorescent staining in control and CAVD tissues. Scalebar 100 μm. STAT5 intensity and STAT5-positive cells (STAT5+) are quantified on the right panels. (B) Quantification of STAT5-TERT-positive cells. Data are shown as means ± SD, n = 5 control, n = 6 CAVD. P values were calculated with the Mann-Whitney U test and indicated on each graph. L = lumen.

Figure 6. TERT/STAT5 promotes osteogenic reprogramming. Inflammatory signals promote the upregulation and interaction of TERT and STAT5A. The TERT/STAT5 complex translocates into the nucleus, where TERT interacts with SMARCA4 (also known as BRG1), which facilitates a permissive chromatin configuration, and STAT5A binds specific sites on the RUNX2 promoter, leading to the osteogenic reprogramming of valve interstitial cells during the early stages of CAVD pathogenesis.

Supplemental Figure 1. Characterization of human CAVD valves and patient-isolated VICs. (A) Representative section of Von Kossa staining in control and valve CAVD leaflets tissue. Scalebar 1 mm. **(B)** Representative serial sections of RUNX2 immunofluorescent staining and OPN in control and CAVD valve tissues. Scalebar 100 μm. Quantification of RUNX2-positive cells and OPN-positive cells on the leaflet specimen is shown on the right graphs. n = 5 control, n = 6 CAVD. **(C)** Correlation between age of the donor and TERT expression in valve tissues. n = 8 control, n = 9 CAVD. **(D)** Gene expression profile in the valve leaflets. n = 7 each group. **(E)** Representative images of immunofluorescent staining of PCNA (top panels) and γ-H2AX (bottom panels) in control and CAVD valve tissues. Scalebar 100 μm. Quantification of PCNA-positive cells and γ-H2AX-positive cells are shown on the right graphs. n = 4 control, n = 3 CAVD. **(F)** Representative images of a scratch assay in control and CAVD hVICs. Time points are indicated on top of each panel. Blue lines denote the cell migration front. Scalebar 1 mm. n = 10 of each group. **(G)** Representative images of αSMA, CNN, SM22, TNAP, and f-Actin in control and CAVD hVICs. Scalebar 50 μm. Signal quantification is shown on the right. n = 4 each group. Data are shown as means ± SD. P values were calculated using the Mann-Whitney U test (Figures B, D, E, and G) and the Pearson correlation test (Figure C). L = lumen.

Supplemental Figure 2. Inhibition of reverse transcriptase activity of TERT does not prevent osteo-genic reprogramming of hVICs. (**A**) Cell counts of control and CAVD hVICs after 14 days of NT or OST stimulation. n = 4 each group. (**B**) β-galactosidase (BLG1) mRNA transcript quantification in control and CAVD hVICs at baseline. n = 5 control, n= 4 CAVD. (**C**) Representative images of senescence-associated β-galactosidase activity staining of hVICs after 28 days of NT or OST stimulation. Blue cells were considered positive for senescence. Quantification of senescence is shown on the right graph. n = 4 each group. Scalebar 400 µm. (**D**) hVICs growing in no treatment (NT), OST media, or OST media supplemented with the NF-Kβ inhibitor BAY-117082 for 7 days, n = 6. (**E**) hVICs growing in no treatment (NT), OST media, or OST media supplemented with the c-MYC inhibitor 10058-F4 for 7 days, n = 7. qRT-PCR quantified TERT and RUNX2 gene expression. In D and E, inhibitors were dissolved in DMSO thus NT and OST were supplemented with the highest volume of vehicle (DMSO) used in treatment groups. Data are shown as means ± SD. P values were calculated with the Mann-Whitney U test (Figure B) and the Kruskal-Wallis H test with Dunn pairwise comparison post hoc test (Figures A, C-E) and shown on top of each graph.

Supplemental Figure 3. TERT is upregulated and required for the osteogenic differentiation of human mesenchymal stem cells. (**A**) Representative images of hMSCs stimulated with OST for 14 days. Calcium deposition was visualized by Alizarin Red staining. Scalebar 50 µm. (**B**) Western blot staining of samples from hMSCs collected during the 14 days of OST treatment. (**C**) *RUNX2* expression profile of differentiating hMSCs stimulated for 14 days with OST media. n = 3. (**D**) Representative TERT immunofluorescent staining images of hMSCs stimulated with OST for 14 days. Scalebar 100 µm. (**E**) Representative images of hMSCs infected with shTERT or shControl virus and stimulated with OST for 14 days. Calcium deposition was visualized by Alizarin Red staining. The quantification of calcification is shown on the right graph. n = 3. (**F**) Western blot staining of samples from hMSCs collected during the 14 days of OST treatment. Data are shown as means ± SD. P values were calculated with the Kruskal-Wallis H test with Dunn pairwise comparison post hoc test (Figure C) and the Mann-Whitney U test (Figure E) and shown on each graph.

Supplemental Figure 4. Inhibition of reverse transcriptase activity of TERT does not prevent osteogenic reprogramming of VICs. (**A**) Representative images of mBMMSCs isolated from *Tert⁺/⁺* or *Tert⁻/⁻* mice and stimulated with OST for 21 days. Scalebar 100 μm. Quantification of calcification is presented as average absorbance on the right graphs, n = 5 for each group. (**B, C**) Representative images of a senescence-associated β-galactosidase (SA-β-gal) staining of mVICs and mBMMSCs isolated from *Tert⁺/⁺* or F1 *Tert⁻/⁻* mice after 21 days of OST stimulation. In each group, blue cells were considered positive for senescence, n = 5. (**D**) Schematic of OST treatment with delayed shTERT transduction (top panel). VICs were transduced with shTERT, and calcification was assessed with Alizarin Red S stain at day 21. Scalebar 400 μm. n = 6 for each group. (**E**) Representative sections of Von Kossa staining in thoracic aortic rings isolated from *Tert⁺/⁺* and *Tert⁻/⁻* mice after 14 days of OST treatment relative to NT control treatment. Quantification is shown on the right. Scale bar 400 μm (**F**) Immunofluorescence staining of thoracic aortic rings after OST treatment as in B. Quantification of Runx2 is shown on the right graph. Scale bar 400 μm (**G**) Western blot staining of aortic ring specimens collected and treated in B. Quantification of Runx2 is shown on the right graph. (**H**) Human VICs were treated with the TERT inhibitor BiBR1532 and stimulated with OST, and calcification was assessed on day 28, with n = 5 in each group. (**I**) *TERT, RUNX2,* and *STAT5A* expression were evaluated on day 14, n = 6 DMSO, n = 5 BIBR1532. Data are shown as means ± SD. P values were calculated with the Kruskal-Wallis H test with Dunn pairwise comparison post hoc test (Figures A, B, C, E, H) and the Mann-Whitney U test (Figures D, F, G, I) and are shown on top of each graph.

Supplemental Figure 5. STAT5 is upregulated, binds to TERT, and is required for osteogenic reprogramming of VICs. (A) Western blot analysis of cytoplasmic and nuclear fractions of TERT from control VICs obtained after seven days of OST stimulation. TUB, (tubuline); H3, (Histone H3); Cyt, cytoplasmic fraction; Nuc, nuclear fraction. (B) Representative immunofluorescence image of STAT5 subcellular distribution after 14 days of NT and OST stimulation. Scalebar 40 µm. (C) Representative images of human CASMCs treated with 10 µM of the STAT5 inhibitors StafiA-1 or StafiB-1 during the 14 days of OST stimulation. Scalebar 400 µm. n = 4 for each group. (D) Representative images of human MSCs treated with 10 µM of the STAT5 inhibitors StafiA-1 or StafiB-1 during the 21 days of OST stimulation. Scalebar 400 µm. n = 4 for each group. (E) Representative images of TERT/STAT5 complex (red foci) detected by proximity ligation assay (PLA) in the nucleus of control VICs. Scalebar 25 µm. n = 4 for each group. (F) Relative luciferase activity in hVICS after transfection of hRUNX2 Promoter GLuc-ON pEZX-PG04.1. Samples were analyzed 72 hours after OST treatment. STAT5A inhibitor StafiA-1 (10 µM) was dissolved in DMSO. NT and OST conditions were also supplemented with DMSO, n = 10 per group. (G) (G) Biotin-labeled 60 bp oligos containing the -194 STAT5 binding sequence on the promoter of human RUNX2 were incubated cell extracts from HEK293s in which STAT5 protein was overexpressed (lane 1). Extracts were also incubated with an increasing amounts of unlabeled oligos (lanes 2-5). Cell extract was also incubated with a oligo containing a mutated STAT5A site (mut RUNX2 DNA) (line 9) and incubated with an increased amount of unlabeled mut RUNX2 oligo (lanes 10-13). Blots include the positive and negative controls include in the LightShift Chemiluminescent EMSA Kit (lanes 6-8 and 14-16). (H) Representative immunofluorescent images of Stat5 expression after 12 weeks of high adenine high phosphate diet on Tert-/- and Tert-/- mice aorta. Scale bar 400 µm. Quantification of Stat5 expression is shown on the right panel. (I) Representative images of Stat5 immunofluorescence staining of thoracic aortic rings isolated from Tert+/+ and Tert-/- mice after 14 days of OST treatment relative to NT control treatment. Quantification of Stat5 is shown on the right graph. Scale bar 400 µm. (J) Mol*3D Viewer rendering of the TERT-STAT5 dimer interaction predicted by the HDock. Red boxes indicate the position of the interaction between TERT and STAT5. (K) The diagram shows the regions involved in the predicted interaction as indicated in A, and the docking and confidence scores predicted by HDock are indicated. TEN: DNA anchor domain for processive telomeric repeat addition, RBD: Telomerase RNA binding domain, RT: Finger and palm region of the reverse transcriptase domain, CTE: C-terminal extension or putative thumb domain of the reverse transcriptase, CCD: Coiled-coil domain, required for nuclear localization, DBD: DNA binding domain, HLK: Helical linker and DNA binding domain, SH2: Domain required for activation and dimerization, TD: Transactivation domain. (L) H3K4me3 CUT&Run sequencing tracks in genomic regions of Runx2 in no-treatment control and osteogenic condition-treated human VICs. (M) Top 20 GO pathways enriched in genes with significant loss of H3K4me3 in OST- vs NT-treated human VICs. Data are shown as means ± SD. P values were calculated with the Mann-Whitney U test (Figures E and G) and the Kruskal-Wallis H test with Dunn pairwise comparison post-test (Figures C, D, and H) and indicated in each graph.

Supplemental Figure 6. Chromatin remodeling enzyme SMARCA4 is upregulated and interacts with TERT during the osteogenic reprogramming of VICs. (A) Representative immunofluorescent images of Smarca4 expression after 12 weeks of high adenine high phosphate diet on *Tert⁻ and Tert⁻* mice aorta. Scale bar 400 µm. Quantification of Smarca4 expression is shown on the right panel. (B) Representative images of Smarca4 immunofluorescence staining of thoracic aortic rings isolated from *Tert⁺/⁺* and *Tert⁻/⁻* mice after 14 days of OST treatment relative to NT control treatment. Quantification of Smarca4 is shown on the right graph. (C) *SMARCA4* expression was evaluated on days 5 and 10 on VICs stimulated with OST. n = 5 each group. (E) TERT/STAT and TERT/SMARCA4 interaction was detected by co-immunoprecipitation upon osteogenic stimulation on VIC. (E) Representative TERT and SMARCA4 immunofluorescent staining in control and CAVD tissues. The number of positive cells is shown on the right graphs. n = 9 control, n = 9 CAVD. Scalebar 100 µm. Data are shown as means ± SD, and P values were calculated with the Mann-Whitney U test and indicated on each graph in Figures A and C. L = lumen.

SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIAL

Non-canonical Telomerase Reverse Transcriptase Controls Osteogenic Reprogramming

of Aortic Valve Cells Through STAT5

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Running Title: TERT/STAT5 is required for valvular calcification

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METHODS

Availability of Materials

We abide by the NIH Grants Policy on Sharing of Unique Research Resources, including the

NIH Policy on Sharing of Model Organisms for Biomedical Research (2004), NIH Grants Policy

Statement (2003), and Sharing of Biomedical Research Resources: Principles and Guidelines

for Recipients of NIH Grants and Contracts (1999), and the Bayh-Dole Act and the Technology

Transfer Commercialization Act of 2000. De-identified human cell lines and tissues generated in

our laboratory will be made available for non-commercial research per established University of

Pittsburgh Office of Research IRB and MTA protocols.

Ethics

Human aortic valves were collected from subjects enrolled in studies approved by the

institutional review board (IRB) of the University of Pittsburgh per the Declaration of Helsinki. No

bicuspid valves were used in this study. Mice used for the generation of cell lines were given

veterinary care by the University of Pittsburgh Division of Laboratory Animal Resources, which

adheres to the NIH policy on the Animal Welfare Act and all other applicable laws. Facilities are

under the full-time supervision of veterinarians and are AAALAC-accredited. Our protocols

follow the AVMA Guidelines on Euthanasia. All animal use was approved by the Institutional

Animal Care and Use Committee at the University of Pittsburgh.

Human Tissue Collection and Isolation

Surgical specimens from humans were collected from subjects who consented and enrolled in

studies approved by the institutional review board (IRB) of the University of Pittsburgh per the

Declaration of Helsinki. Personnel involved with specimen handling underwent extensive

institutional training. Cadaveric donor tissues were obtained via the Center for Organ Recovery

and Education (CORE) and were approved by the University of Pittsburgh Committee for

Oversight of Research and Clinical Training Involving Decedents (CORID). A detailed protocol

describing tissue collection hand handling was published previously.[1] Briefly, valves were

collected from valve replacement surgeries or recovered from cadaveric organs and stored in

cold Belzer UW Cold Storage Transplant Solution (Bridge to Life) at 4°C for transporting. Aortic

roots were excised and washed with a sterile rinsing solution (sterile PBS supplemented with

2.5 µg/mL of fungicide, 0.05 mg/mL of gentamicin, and 5 µg/mL of bactericide). Leaflets were

unbiasedly selected for VIC isolation, Von Kossa staining for calcification, and snap freezing for

RNA collection. Tissues were processed as close as possible to the extraction time to

guarantee the best yield of cell recovery.

Human Cell Isolation

We established patient-specific lines by using the same valves for histopathology, RNA, and cell

isolation. Human primary aortic valve interstitial cells (VICs) lines were generated from male and

female subjects as previously described.[1] Briefly, leaflets were washed with PBS containing 10

mg/ml gentamicin (GIBCO) and 250 µg/ml fungizone (GIBCO) and dissociated with 0.1%

collagenase II at 37 C and 5% of CO_2 for 18 hours. Then, the tissue was further dissociated by

gently mixing it by pipetting with a serological pipette to ensure the release of VICs and then

passed through a 0.70 µm filter to remove debris. Cells were pelleted and then resuspended in

Dulbecco's Modified Eagle's Medium (DMEM) supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS)

and 1X penicillin-streptomycin (P/S). Human coronary artery smooth muscle cells (CASMC)

were obtained from the patient coronary as previously described.[2] Briefly, vessels were washed

with PBS containing 10 mg/ml gentamicin (GIBCO) and 250 µg/ml fungizone (GIBCO). Vessels

were cut open to expose the lumen, and intima and adventitia were gently scrapped. Vessels

were then sectioned and dissociated with 0.1% collagenase II for 3 hrs. Cells were pelleted and

then seeded and expanded.

Murine tissue and cell isolation

All murine cell lines are generated from a single animal. Males and females, 6 to 8 weeks old,

Mus musculus Terc^{-/-} (Jackson Labs, strain # 004132) mice were utilized for cell isolation. Males

and female *Tert*^{-/-} (Jackson Labs, strain # 005423, 10-12 weeks old) mice were bred with wild-

type mice (Jackson Labs, 000664) to produce *Tert*^{+/-} heterozygous mice. Heterozygous *Tert*^{+/-}

breeding regimes were used to prevent telomere attrition. PCR confirmed genotype. Mouse BM-

MSCs were isolated from femurs, and tibias were dissected from three-month-old *Tert*^{+/+} or *Tert*[-

/-] mice. The marrow was rinsed out of the bones with MSC media, and cells were plated and

expanded as described previously.[3] Mouse VICs were isolated from the hearts of three-month-

old *Tert*^{+/+} *or Tert*^{-/-} or mice and were removed, dissected, and valve leaflets removed. Cells

were isolated and expanded as described previously.[4] Animals were handled by designed

members in our lab. Tissue and cell isolation were carried out by a different team to ensure

randomization. Mice were given veterinary care by the University of Pittsburgh Division of

Laboratory Animal Resources, which adheres to the NIH policy on the Animal Welfare Act and

all other applicable laws. Facilities are under the full-time supervision of veterinarians and are

AAALAC-accredited. Our protocols follow the AVMA Guidelines on Euthanasia. All animal

breeding and isolations were approved by the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee at

the University of Pittsburgh. We made attempts to minimize the number of mice required to

complete experiments.

Cell Culture

VICs lines were expanded in Dulbecco's Modified Eagle's Medium supplemented with 10% fetal

bovine serum and 1X penicillin-streptomycin. Cells were used between passages 4 and 15.

Growth media was changed every three days, and cells were split 1:2 when confluent. Human

coronary artery smooth muscle cells (CASMCs) lines were expanded in smooth muscle media

SMGM (CC-3181) supplemented with BULLETKIT (CC-4149). Human mesenchymal stem cells

(MSCs, PT-2501, Lonza) were expanded on Minimum Essential Medium alpha without

nucleosides and supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum and 1X penicillin-streptomycin and

used between passages 4 and 10. Cells are routinely tested for mycoplasma contamination.

Osteogenic Assay

For osteogenic experiments, 250,000 cells per 9.5 cm^2 were seeded and treated with

osteogenic media (OST, Gibco Minimum Essential Medium alpha with nucleosides, 10% FBS,

1X P/S, 10 mM glycerol phosphate, 50 µM ascorbic acid 2-phosphate, and 100 nM

dexamethasone).[5] No treatment media consisted of Gibco Minimum Essential Medium alpha

with nucleosides, 10% FBS, 1X P/S. Media was replaced every four days and prepared fresh

every time. BiBR1532 (2981, Tocris) was added to the media at 1, 10, or 100 nM every two

days during the OST treatment.[6] Inhibitors StafiA-1 and StafiB-1 (HY-136546, HY-112647 MedC

hemExpress) were used at 10 µM. Inhibitors BAY-117082 (catalog number S2913,

SelleckChem) and 10058-F4 (catalog number S7153, SelleckChem) were used at a maximum

of 10 and 50 10 µM, respectively. Inhibitors were added every two days for the duration of the

OST treatment. For inflammatory assays, we used 2.5 µg/mL of LPS from Escherichia coli

O111:B4 (Sigma-Aldrich) every two days for the duration of the OST treatment.

SDS-Page and Immunoblotting

Cells were lysed in lysis buffer (1% CHAPS hydrate, 150 mM sodium chloride, 25 mM HEPES

buffer), supplemented with 1x protease and phosphatase inhibitor cocktail (Sigma-Aldrich).

Cells were scraped and transferred into microcentrifuge tubes, vortexed for 10 minutes,

freeze/thawed for 5 cycles, then centrifuged at 12,000 x g for 10 minutes at 4°C, and

supernatants were collected. Proteins were separated with TGX 4-20% stain-free

polyacrylamide gel (Bio-Rad) in 1x Tris/Glycine/SDS buffer (Bio-Rad) and transferred to 0.2 um

nitrocellulose (1620112, Bio-Rad) membrane in 1x Trans-Blot Turbo Transfer Buffer (Bio-Rad)

using the Trans-Blot Turbo Transfer System (Bio-Rad) according to the manufacturer

recommendations. The membranes were blocked in Odyssey blocking buffer (PBS, Li-COR)

and immunoblotted overnight with primary antibodies against TERT (600-401-252, Rockland),

STAT5 (9420S, Cell Signaling), RUNX2 (ab192256, Abcam), OPN (AF808, R&D systems),

αSMA (ab5494, Abcam), TNAP (MAB2909, R&D systems), a-tubulin (926-42213, LI-COR),

followed by secondary anti-rabbit or anti-mouse IgG antibody (926-68070, 926-68021, 926-

32211, LI-COR). Primary and secondary antibodies were diluted in Odyssey blocking buffer with

0.1% Tween 20. Membranes were washed in PBS with 0.1% Tween 20. Immunofluorescence

signals were detected with the Odyssey CLx system (LI-COR), and images were analyzed with

Image Studio (Version 5.2, LI-COR).

Immunofluorescent Staining on Fixed Cells

Cells were washed with PBS and then fixed with 4% paraformaldehyde (5025999, Electron

Microscopy Sciences) for 15 minutes at room temperature, followed by 10 minutes of

permeabilization with TRITON X-100 0.5% (Fisher Scientific). Cells were incubated at room

temperature for 1 hour in a blocking buffer (PBS, 0.5% Triton-X 100, 5% FBS). Primary

antibodies were diluted in the blocking solution and then incubated overnight at 4°C. Next, cells

were washed three times for five minutes each with PBS containing 0.1% TWEEN. Fluorescent

secondary antibodies were diluted in blocking solution and incubated for one hour protected

from the light, then washed three times for five minutes each with PBS, 0.1% TWEEN 20 with a

final wash in PBS. Specimens were finally mounted with Fluoroshield Mounting Medium with

DAPI (Abcam) and imaged within 24 hours. F-Actin was stained with AlexaFluor488 Phalloidin

(Molecular Probes) for 30 minutes, then washed with PBS before mounting. Calcium

accumulation was determined with OsteoImage (Lonza) following the manufacturer's

recommendations. Images were obtained in an EVOS FL microscope (AMA3300, Life

Technologies) at 20x with an EVOS Plan Fluor 20x/0.5 objective (AMEP 4698, Life

Technologies) at 360/447 nm excitation/emission (DAPI), 470/525 nm excitation/emission

(GFP), and 530/593 nm excitation/emission (RFP) filters. Representative images are selected

based on quality, and if the assay includes quantification, the image that shows the average of

the quantification across multiple images.

Immunofluorescent Staining on Paraffin Sections

Human specimens were embedded in paraffin and cut to 10 µm thickness. Slides were warmed

to 65°C, deparaffinized using xylene and graded alcohol baths, rehydrated in distilled H_2O, and

boiled for 20 minutes in antigen unmasking solution (H-3300, Vector Labs). Cooled samples

were then washed with PBS for five minutes. Specimens were then blocked with PBS

containing 3% fish skin gelatin and 10% horse serum for one hour. Primary antibodies were

diluted in the blocking solution and incubated overnight at 4°C. Next, specimens were washed

three times for five minutes each with PBS containing 3% fish skin gelatin and 0.1% TWEEN 20.

Fluorescent secondary antibodies were diluted in a blocking solution, incubated for one hour,

protected from the light, and washed thrice for five minutes each. Normal rabbit polyclonal IgG

(Invitrogen, 31235) and Normal mouse IgG (Vector, I-200U) were used as a negative isotype

antibody control at the same concentration of the specific antibodies. Specimens were finally

mounted with Fluoroshield Mounting Medium with DAPI (Abcam) and imaged within 24 hours.

Images were obtained in a EVOS FL microscope (AMA3300, Life Technologies) at 20x with a

EVOS Plan Fluor 20x/0.5 objective (AMEP 4698, Life Technologies) at 360/447 nm

excitation/emission (DAPI), 470/525 nm excitation/emission (GFP), and 530/593 nm

excitation/emission (RFP) filters. Representative images are selected based on quality, and if

the assay includes quantification, the image that shows the average of the quantification across

multiple images.

Alizarin Red Staining and Quantification

Cells were washed with PBS and then fixed with 4% paraformaldehyde (Electron Microscopy

Sciences) for 15 minutes at room temperature, followed by two washes with deionized water.

Fixed cells were then covered with 40 mM Alizarin Red S (Sigma-Aldrich) at pH 4.1 – 4.3 and

gently rocked for 20 minutes at room temperature. Cells were then washed twice with deionized

water to remove any unincorporated dye. After imaging, Alizarin Red S was extracted with 10%

(v/v) acetic acid (Fisher Scientific) for 30 minutes, scraped into a microcentrifuge tube, vortexed,

and then incubated at 85°C for 10 minutes. After chilling on ice for 5 minutes, the mixture was

centrifuged at 20,000 x g for 15 minutes at 4°C. 500 μl of supernatant was transferred to a new

tube, and 10% (v/v) ammonium hydroxide (Fisher Scientific) was then added to the supernatant.

Absorbance was at 405 nm using a 96-well plate spectrophotometer.

Von Kossa Staining

Human specimens embedded in paraffin were warmed to 65°C for one hour and then

deparaffinized through xylene and graded alcohol incubations. Specimens were then

rehydrated in distilled water. Specimens were stained using the Von Kossa Method of Calcium

Kit (Polysciences, 24633-1) following the manufacturer's instructions.

Lentiviral Production and Cell Infection

Lentiviruses were produced by transfecting Dharmacon SMARTvector Lentiviral plasmids

encoding shTERT TurboGFP (shTERT, V3SH11240-225610522). Turbo SMARTvector Non-

targeting Control (shControl,VSC11707) into HEK293T cells following manufacturer

recommendations. shSTAT5A (sc-29495-V) was obtained from Santa Cruz. The viral-containing

supernatant was collected at 48h after transfection, filtered through a 0.45-μm filter, and stored

at -80C. Human VICs, CASMCs, and MSCs lines were transduced with MOI of 5 in the

presence of 0.8 μg ml^{-1} polybrene (Millipore) to enhance transduction efficiency.

Transcriptional Analysis

Tissue RNA was isolated using Trizol (Life Technologies). Cell RNA was isolated using Quick-

RNA MiniPrep (Zymo Research). RNA was treated with DNAse I (Zymo Research) in

accordance with the manufacturer's instructions. Reverse transcription was performed using

MultiScribe Reverse Transcriptase system (43-112-35, Fisher). Sixteen ng of cDNA was used

per reaction. qPCR was performed on a CFX Connect Real-Time System (Bio-Rad) using

PowerUP SYBR Green Master Mix (A25741, Applied Biosystems) as follows: one cycle at 95°C

(10 minutes) and 40 cycles of 95°C (20 seconds) and 58°C (20 seconds) and 72°C (1 minutes).

GAPDH or *18s* gene expression was used to normalize expression. Relative expression was

calculated using the average threshold cycle number and the $2^{(\text{Ct}(\textit{housekeeping gene})-\text{Ct}(\textit{target gene}))}$

formula. Primers are listed in Supplementary Table 3.

Luciferase Assay

Human VICs (0.5×10^5 cells/well) were seeded in 24-well plates and transfected with the RUNX2

Promoter GLuc-ON plasmid (HPRM32232-PG04, Genecopoeia) using Lipofectamine 3000

(L3000001, ThermoFisher). This plasmid encodes 1627 bp upstream of the human *RUNX2*

gene NM_001015051. 48 hrs after transfection, the cells were treated with OST media for 72

hrs. Luciferase activities were measured using the Secrete-Pair Dual Luminescence Assay Kit

(LF032, Genecopoeia), following to the manufacturer's instructions. The results were expressed

as relative light units (RLU) of luciferase to secreted alkaline phosphatase (SEAP)

CUT&Run

The CUT&Run assay was performed using the CUTANA Kit V3 (14-1048, EpiCypher) according

to the manufacturer's instructions. Briefly, human VICs were cultured in osteogenic media for

seven days. On the extraction day, 500,000 cells were harvested and tagged with concanavalin

A-coated magnetic beads. The coated cells were incubated overnight with 0.5 µg of H3K4me3

antibody (Part number 13-0041k, EpiCypher) at 4°C. The following day, samples were

incubated with pAG-MNase (Part number 15-1016, EpiCypher) for 2 hours at 4°C. DNA was

purified and indexed with 14 PCR cycles to generate the libraries. Sequencing was performed

on an Illumina NextSeq 2000, resulting in the generation of 60-bp paired-end reads. Raw data

was processed and analyzed using CLC Genomic Workbench (version 24.0.1, Qiagen). Reads

resulting from H3K4me3 binding were aligned to the human genome assembly GRCh38. Peaks

were annotated to the nearest gene, and the binding between no treatment and osteogenic

conditions was compared to identify osteogenic differentially regulated genes with a P-value of

less than 0.05 (GEO accession number GSE274226). Visualization was conducted using the

CLC Genomic Workbench. GO pathway analyses were performed with DAVID version

2023q4.[7,8]

CUT&Tag

CUT&Tag assay was performed using the CUT&Tag-IT Assay Kit (Catalog No. 53160, Active

Motif) following the manufacturer's instructions. Briefly, wild-type *Tert+/+* and *Tert-/-* mouse VICs

were cultured in osteogenic media for seven days. On the extraction day, 500,000 cells were

harvested and tagged with concavalin-A-coated magnetic beads. Coated cells were incubated

overnight with 1 μg of antibody against STAT5 (9420S, Cell Signaling) in 50 μl of total volume at

4°C with slow rotation. After washing, cells were incubated with guinea pig anti-rabbit antibody

(Part No. 105465, Active Motif) at room temperature for 1 hour, followed by incubation with pre-

assembled pA-Tn5 Transposomes at room temp for 1 hour (Part No. 105458, Active Motif).

Tagmented DNA was purified and indexed with 14 PCR cycles with Q5 Polymerase (part no.

104483, Active Motif) to generate the libraries. Sequencing was performed on an Illumina

NextSeq 2000. 60-bp paired-end reads were generated. Raw data was processed and analyzed

with CLC Genomic Workbench (version 24.0.1, Qiagen) supplied by the University of Pittsburgh.

Reads resulting from STAT5 binding were aligned to the mouse reference genome mm10

assembly version GRCm39. The peaks were annotated to the nearest gene, and binding

between no treatment and osteogenic conditions was compared to define osteogenic

differentially regulated genes of those with a P-value less than 0.1 (GEO accession number

GSE274226). Visualization was performed with IGV and CLC Genomic Workbench. GO

pathway analyses were performed with DAVID version 2023q4.[7,8]

Telomere Length Analysis

Tissue and VICs genomic DNA was isolated from passage 1 using DirectAmp Tissue Genomic

DNA Amplification Kit (Denville Scientific). Telomere length was analyzed using real-time PCR

as previously described.[9] Briefly, genomic DNA was isolated following standard protocol, and 10

ng of gDNA per reaction was utilized. Samples were run in triplicate with 35 ng of DNA per

reaction, and telomere repeats were amplified using PowerUP SYBR Green Master Mix

(Thermofisher Scientific) on a CFX Connect Real-Time PCR System (Bio-Rad). Repeated

amplification data were normalized to *RPLP0/36b4* as a single copy-gene. Primers are listed in

Supplementary Table 3.

Electrophoretic Mobility Shift Assay (EMSA)

HEK293 overexpressing STAT5 were lysed in ice-cold hypertonic non-denaturing buffer (20 mM

Tris-HCl, pH 8.0, 137 mM NaCl, 1% Nonident P-40, and 2 mM EDTA) and microfuged at 14,000

rpm for 5 minutes at 4°C. The supernatant containing STAT5 was collected, and 6.8 µg of the

extract was incubated for 30 minutes at 37°C with 20 fmol of biotinylated–end-labeled 60-mer

double-stranded RUNX2 promoter containing the STAT5 centered at -194 5'-

AAGCTATATCCTTCTGG<u>ATGCCAGGAAAGGCCTTACCACAAG</u>CCTTTTGTGAGAGAAAGA-

3' (underlined) binding site. The specificity of STAT5 binding to the wild-type probe was

determined with mutated STAT5 binding site, 5'-

AAGCTATATCCTTCTGGA<u>AACAACTGCTCGGCGAGACACAGT</u>CCTTTTGTGAGAGAAAGA-

3' oligonucleotide. Binding reactions were carried out with LightShift® Chemiluminescent

EMSA Kit (ThermoFisher) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Briefly, a final volume

of 20 µL containing the STAT5 extract and the probe plus 1 µg poly(dI-dC), 100 mM MgCl2,

50% glycerol, and 1x propietary binding buffer. Bound complexes were separated on 6%

acrylamide gel with TBE running buffer, crosslinked to a nylon membrane at 120mJ/cm^2, and

then visualized on BioChem Docs (Bio-RAD). No STAT5 binding was displaced by adding

unlabeled (cold) wild-type oligonucleotide to the reaction. No STAT5 binding to the mutated

probe was detected in our experiments, confirming the specificity of interaction between STAT5

and wild-type oligonucleotide.

Proliferation Assays

Cell proliferation was evaluated using Trypan Blue incorporation in an automatized cell counter

Countess II FL (Invitrogen). Briefly, cells were grown on alpha-MEM supplemented with 10% of

FBS and penicillin and streptomycin cocktail (GIBCO) for the duration of the assay. Growth was

quantified twice a week. Cell number during OST treatment was determined at the beginning

and end of the assay.

Senescence-Associated β-Galactosidase Assays

Cellular senescence was evaluated by senescence-associated β-Galactosidase (SA-β-Gal)

activity assay. Briefly, cells were washed with PBS and then fixed with 4% paraformaldehyde

(Electron Microscopy Sciences) for 5 minutes at room temperature and then washed twice with

PBS. Next, cells were incubated in X-Gal Solution Mix containing 1 mg/mL of 5-Bromo-4-

Chloro-3-Indolyl-Alpha-D-Galactopyranoside (American Bioanalytical), 40 mM Sodium

Phosphate monobasic solution (Sigma-Aldrich), 40 mM Sodium Phosphate Dibasic solution

(Sigma-Aldrich), 40 mM Citric Acid (Sigma-Aldrich), 5 mM Potassium Ferrocyanaide (Sigma-

Aldrich), 5 mM Potassium Ferricyanaide (Sigma-Aldrich), 150 mM $NaCl_2$, and 2 mM $MgCl_2$, pH

6.0, for 16 hours at 37°C without CO_2 to develop blue color. Then, cells were washed twice with

PBS, and SA-$β$-gal positive cells were imaged and calculated based on randomly selected

bright fields areas containing at least 200 cells per field as revelated by subsequent DAPI

staining.

Cell Migration Assays

VICs were seeded in a 12-well plate at a concentration of $1x10^5$ cells per well and were left until

they reached 90% of confluence. The well surface was scratched with a 200 µl sterile pipette tip

and washed with PBS to remove detached cells. Horizontal lines were drawn on the bottom

outside of the well and used as a reference for alignment to obtain the same field for each

image acquisition run. VICs media was added, and images were collected at different time

points with a phase-contrast microscope using the horizontal lines as reference marks. Scratch

area and scratch width were determined with the Wound Healing Size Macro Tool using

ImageJ.[10] Linear regression was used to compare the changes in the area and the average

length of the scratch

Chromatin Immunoprecipitation

Chromatin Immunoprecipitation (ChIP) was performed on cultured cells as previously

described.[11] Briefly, VICs were stimulated with OST for 14 days and then collected in 20 mM

Na-butyrate dissolved in PBS, and cross-linking of DNA and proteins was performed with

formaldehyde (1% vol/vol final concentration) at room temperature. Cross-linking was stopped

with 125 mM glycine for 10 min. Cross-linked chromatin was sonicated to obtain fragments

between 250 and 750 base pairs in a Bioruptor Pico sonication device (Diagenode). The

sheared chromatin was immunoprecipitated with 1 ug of antibody raised against TERT

(Rockland, 600-401-252S) and 0.3 ug STAT5 (Cell Signaling, 94205S). Normal rabbit polyclonal

IgG (Cell Signaling, 2729S) was used as a negative control. Negative control was incubated

with rabbit IgG and input DNA primary antibody. Chromatin complexes were recovered with

ChIP-grade Protein G magnetic beads (9006S, Cell Signaling). DNA was recovered with

standard phenol-chloroform extraction. Immunoprecipitated DNA was amplified by quantitative

RT-PCR using SYBR green. ChIP primers are listed in Supplementary Table 3.

Proximity Ligation Assays (PLA)

PLA was performed directly after cell fixation and according to manufacturer instructions. Briefly,

cells were blocked with Duolink blocking solution for 60 minutes at 37°C. Samples were then

incubated with rabbit TERT and mouse STAT5 antibodies diluted in Duolink Blocking Solution

and incubated overnight at 4°C. Samples were then incubated with secondary antibodies

conjugated with PLA probes (DUO92002, DUO92004, Sigma) for 2 h at 37°C in a humidity

chamber, followed by probe ligation for 30 minutes at 37°C as recommended by the

manufacturer. Amplification was performed with Duolink detection kit Red 595 nm for 100

minutes at 37°C (DUO92101, Sigma). Samples were mounted in DAPI-containing mounting

media and prepared for image acquisition. PLA foci were quantified using ImageJ relative to the

number of cells per field. Fields with over 50 cells and 5 fields per cell line were acquired.

Nuclear PLA foci were all puncta circumscribed to the nuclear (DAPI) signal.

Promoter Analysis

The upstream region of the *RUNX2* (NM_001015051.3) promoter was scanned with LASAGNA

and TRANSFAC/ suites.[12,13] Searches were conducted with data version 2021.3, high-quality

matrices, and cut-offs to minimize false positive hits. STAT5 logo analysis was performed with

WebLogo (weblogo.berkeley.edu).

SplitFAST plasmid construction and SplitFAST assay

Plasmids containing full-length human CDS TERT pEZ-M02-CMV-hTERT and STAT5A pEZ-

M02_CMV_hSTAT5A were purchased from Genecopeia (catalog numbers EX-Q0450-M02-10

and EX-F0979-M02-10, respectively). Plasmids containing NFAST (pCMV-FRB-NFAST) and

CFAST (pCMV-FKBP-CFAST) tags were purchased from The Twinkle Factory (catalog

numbers PL058 and PL040, respectively). Fusion plasmids were constructed by PCR assembly.

TERT and STAT5A were amplified using primers hTERT-RP-SplitFAST and hTERT-FP-

SplitFAST and hSTAT5A-RP-SplitFAST and hSTAT5A-FP-SplitFAST, respectively

(Supplementary Table 3). The plasmid pCMV-TERT-NFAST was generated by inserting TERT

gene into pAG148-FRB-NFAS using restriction enzymes *Bgl*II and *Kpn*2I. The plasmid pCMV-

STAT5A-CFAST was generated by inserting the STAT5A gene into pAG152-FRB-FRB-

CFAST11 using restriction enzymes *Bgl*II and *Kpn*2I. Insertions were validated by full plasmid

sequencing. pCMV-TERT-NFAST and pCMV-STAT5A-CFAST fusion plasmids were

transfected in a 1:1 ratio in control hVICs with XtremeGene 9 DNA transfection reagent (catalog

number 39320900, Roche) following manufacturer recommendations. To image the interaction

between TERT and STAT5A, cells were imaged in alpha-MEM supplemented with 5 µM µM 4-

hydroxy-3,5- dimethoxy benzylidene rhodamine (HBR-3,5DOM, dissolved in DMSO) at d3, d5,

and d7 of OST treatment in an EVOS FL microscope (AMA3300, Life Technologies) at 20x with

an EVOS Plan Fluor 20x/0.5 objective (AMEP 4698, Life Technologies) at 360/447 nm

excitation/emission (DAPI), 470/525 nm excitation/emission (GFP).

In-Silico Modeling

PDB files for TERT (UniProt 014746) and STAT5A (UniProt K7EIF9) were downloaded from the

EMBL-EBI-maintained AlphaFold protein structure database.[14] The STAT5A file was then

uploaded to the HDOCK server as both the receptor and ligand.[15] The top predicted model for

the STAT5A dimer was downloaded and reuploaded as the receptor file, while the TERT file

was uploaded as the ligand. The top predicted model was downloaded and visualized with the

Mol viewer.[16] Separately, the residue data were examined to assess which regions of TERT and

STAT5 were predicted to localize.

Animal Model of Aortic Artery Calcification (in vivo calcification)

Vascular calcification was induced in 8-weeks old *Tert*^{+/+} and *Tert*^{-/-} mice with a 12-week diet

regime consisting of chow (LabDiet 5P00, Prolab RMH 3000), supplemented with 0.2% adenine

(adenine 0.2%, FD&C Blue No. 2 0.3%, LabDiet 5ZAF) for 6 weeks followed by chow

supplemented with 0.2% adenine and 1.8% phosphate (adenine 0.2%, FD&C Blue No. 40 0.3%,

sodium phosphate 0.65%, potassium phosphate 1,0%, dicalcium phosphate 3.55%, LabDiet

5ZRX) or 6 weeks.[17] Both groups included an equal number of male and female mice. At the

end of the 12-week diet, aortas were dissected for histological analysis, Von Kossa, and

immunohistochemistry.

Cultured Aortic Segments Calcification (ex vivo calcification)

Aorta were dissected from $Tert^{-/-}$ and $Tert^{+/+}$ mice after euthanized with CO2 and cervical

dislocation, followed by in situ perfusion with 10 ml of PBS. Collected arteries were cut into 3-4

mm segments and cultured in osteogenic or control media for 14 days in a humidified incubator

with 5% CO2 at 37 °C. The medium was changed every 2-3 days. Aortic arteries osteogenic

media was prepared as follows: DMEM (11965092, Thermo Fisher Scientific, MA, USA)

supplemented with 1% fetal bovine serum (FBS), 1% Antibiotic-Antimycotic (15240062, Thermo

Fisher Scientific), 10 mM β-glycerophosphate disodium (G9422, Sigma), 0.25 mM L-ascorbic

acid (49752, Sigma), and 10 nM dexamethasone (D4902, Sigma). The control medium was

prepared with DMEM supplemented with 1% FBS and 1% Antibiotic-Antimycotic. At the end of

the treatments, aortic segments were washed with PBS, fixed in 4% PFA for 4 hours, embedded

in paraffin wax, and cut in 10 um slices for histology and immunofluorescence staining.

Blinding Procedures

Professionally trained technicians handled animal welfare, including weaning and mouse line

expansion, diets, sacrifice, and surgery. For experiments involving human samples and in vivo

and ex vivo murine experiments, blinding procedures were used. Individuals conducting and

analyzing experiments did not know the clinical diagnosis nor treatment groups until after the

analysis was performed.

Sample Size and Power Analysis.

The two-sample Cohen's D algorithm for large-size effects was used.[18] Power was defined at >

80%, with confidence levels of 95%, alpha at 0.05, and P significance value. The animal size

was based on a power analysis that assumes confidence levels of 95%, the probability of

finding a statistical difference between groups of 80%, an expected difference of 37% between

groups, and a standard deviation of 25%; experiments required at least five mice per group. A

25% redundancy is built-in to allow for mortality associated with treatments and other

complications.

Statistics

Statistical analyses were performed with GraphPad Prism 9.2 (GraphPad Software, San Diego,

CA) software. All experiments used at least n = 3 biological replicates and were run in technical

duplicates. Statistical comparisons between the two groups were performed by a nonparametric

Mann-Whitney *U* test. Statistical comparisons among more than two groups were performed by

nonparametric Kruskal-Wallis *H* tests with post hoc Dunn's multiple pairwise comparisons

between groups. Shapiro-Wilk normality test was used to test data distribution. Data are

presented as mean ± SD.

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503

Supplemental Table 1: Patient information

Patient ID	Age	Sex	Valve	Cause of Death	Calcification (Von Kossa Staining)	Hypertension	Diabetes	Smoking	Alcohol
2016-034	91	Male	Tricuspid	Natural causes	Yes	No	No	No	Unknown
2016-037	31	Male	Tricuspid	Brain anoxia due to cardiovascular complications	No	No	No	Unknown	Yes
2016-038	81	Male	Tricuspid	Myocardial Infarction	No	No	No	Unknown	Unknown
2016-042	22	Female	Tricuspid	Brain anoxia due to head trauma	No	No	No	No	Unknown
2016-045	59	Female	Tricuspid	Stroke	No	PH	Yes	Yes	Unknown
2016-046	65	Male	Tricuspid	Head trauma from accident	No	No	No	Unknown	Unknown
2016-048	56	Female	Tricuspid	Stroke	No	HTN	No	Unknown	Unknown
2016-050	65	Male	Tricuspid	Stroke	No	HTN	No	Unknown	Yes
2016-051	65	Male	Tricuspid	Natural causes	Yes	HTN	No	Yes	Yes
2016-053	73	Male	Tricuspid	Congestive heart failure	Yes	No	No	No	Unknown
2016-054	63	Female	Tricuspid	Hemorriage and Ruptire AAA	No	No	Yes	No	Unknown
2016-060	73	Male	Tricuspid	Cardiac arrest	Yes	No	No	Unknown	Unknown
2016-061	67	Male	Tricuspid	Natural causes	Yes	No	Yes	Unknown	Unknown
2016-062	59	Male	Tricuspid	Cardiac arrest	Yes	No	No	Yes	Unknown
2016-065	58	Male	Tricuspid	Stroke	No	HTN	Yes	Yes	Unknown
2016-068	68	Female	Tricuspid	Intracranial hemorrhage	Yes	No	No	Yes	Unknown
2016-072	62	Female	Tricuspid	Cardiac arrest	Yes	No	No	No	Unknown
2016-073	41	Female	Tricuspid	Traumatic arrest and motor vehicle accident	No	HTN	No	Yes	Unknown
2016-078	34	Female	Tricuspid	Heart Failure	No	No	No	Unknown	Unknown
2016-079	59	Male	Tricuspid	Respiratory failure	No	HTN	No	No	Unknown
2016-083	52	Male	Tricuspid	Stroke	No	PAH	No	Yes	Unknown
2016-085	52	Male	Tricuspid	Myocardial Infarction	No	PH	No	Unknown	Unknown
2016-091	59	Female	Tricuspid	Stroke	No	HTN	No	Unknown	Unknown
2016-092	47	Female	Tricuspid	Stroke	No	No	No	No	Unknown
2016-093	43	Male	Tricuspid	Cardiac arrest	Yes	HTN	Yes	No	Unknown
2016-095	87	Male	Tricuspid	Myocardial Infarction	Yes	HTN	No	Yes	Unknown
2016-098	57	Male	Tricuspid	Cardiac arrest	No	HTN	No	Yes	Unknown
2016-101	37	Female	Tricuspid	Cardiac Death	No	No	No	Unknown	Unknown

2016-102	58	Female	Tricuspid	Cardiac arrest and asystole	Yes	No	No	Yes	Unknown
2016-103	72	Male	Tricuspid	Cardiac arrest	Yes	HTN	No	Unknown	Unknown
2016-105	86	Male	Tricuspid	Cardiac arrest	Yes	No	No	No	Unknown
2016-118	62	Male	Tricuspid	Cardiac arrest	Yes	No	No	No	Unknown
2016-146	79	Male	Tricuspid	Cardiac arrest	No	No	No	Yes	Unknown
2017-005	66	Female	Tricuspid	Stroke	No	No	No	Unknown	Unknown
2017-025	57	Female	Tricuspid	Brain anoxia due to choking	Yes	No	Yes Type II	Unknown	Unknown
2017-035	48	Female	Tricuspid	Brain anoxia due to CO poisoning	No	No	No	Unknown	Unknown
2017-051	56	Male	Tricuspid	Brain anoxia due to cardiac arrest	No	No	No	Unknown	Unknown
2017-069	37	Male	Tricuspid	Motor vehicle accident	No	No	No	Unknown	Unknown
2017-076	68	Female	Tricuspid	Myocardial Infarction	Yes	No	No	No	Unknown
03-0127	61	Male	Tricuspid	Surgical replacement	No	HTN	No	Unknown	Unknown
03-0129	68	Male	Tricuspid	Surgical replacement	No	HTN	Yes Type II	Unknown	Unknown

HTN = Hypertension

PH = Pulmonary Hypertension

PAH = Pulmonary Arterial Hypertension

Supplemental Table 2: LASAGNA and TRANSFAC STAT5 Search on RUNX promoter

Name	Position	DB	Strand	Sequence	p-value
STAT5B (homodimer)	-4572	TRANSFAC	(-)	cttttccaagaaagc	0
STAT5A (homotetramer)	-2844	TRANSFAC	(-)	taccaacaactttttttctttgaaattgatttcaagatc	0.000325
STAT5A (homotetramer)	-1429	LASAGNA	(-)	tcctagttactgtcacactaggaa	0.00015
STAT5A (homotetramer)	-1372	TRANSFAC	(-)	taaatggcaaaaaaATGCCtagaa	0.0005
STAT5A	-1218	LASAGNA	(+)	gagttcta	0
STAT5A	-430	LASAGNA	(-)	cagaattt	0.0004
STAT5A (homotetramer)	-279	LASAGNA	(+)	ttacaggagtttgggctccttcag	0.000525
STAT5A (homotetramer)	-194	TRANSFAC	(+)	tgccaggaaaggccttaccacaag	0

Supplemental Table 3: qPCR, Cloning Primers, and Oligos

Species	Gene	Forward Primer Sequence 5' -> 3'	Reverse Primer Sequence 5' -> 3'	Amplicon	Technique	Source
Human	TERT	GCATTGGAATCAGACAGCAC	CCACGACGTAGTCCATGTTC	165	qPCR	Sigma-
Human	RUNX2	ATTCCTGTAGATCCGAGCACC	GCTCACGTCGCTCATTTTGC	81	qPCR	IDT
Human	MSX2	GAGCTGGGATGTGGTAAAGG	AAATTCAGAAGATGGAGCGG	142	qPCR	IDT
Human	CDKN1A	TGTCCGTCAGAACCCATG	AAAGTCGAAGTTCCATCGCTC	139	qPCR	IDT
Human	PCNA	ACACTAAGGGCCGAAGATAAC	ACAGCATCTCCAATATGGCTGA	209	qPCR	IDT
Human	TP53	GAGGTTGGCTCTGACTGTACC	TCCGTCCCAGTAGATTACCAC	133	qPCR	IDT
Human	ALPL	ATGGGATGGGTGTCTCCACA	CCACGAAGGGGAACTTGTC	108	qPCR	IDT
Human	GLB1	TATACTGGCTGGCTAGATCACTG	GGCAAAATTGGTCCCACCTATAA	138	qPCR	IDT
Human	STAT3	CAGCAGCTTGACACACGGTA	GCCCAATCTTGACTCTCAATCC	110	qPCR	IDT
Human	STAT5A	ATGTGAAACCACAGATCAAG	TCTGTGGGTACATGTTATAGG	141	qPCR	Sigma-
Human	STAT5B	ATGGGACTCAGTAGATCTTG	CTTCAGTAAAAACCCATCTTCC	127	qPCR	Sigma-
Human	TGFb2	CTGCATCTGGTCACGGTCG	CCTCGGGCTCAGGATAGTCT	151	qPCR	IDT
Human	OSX	CCCCCTTTACAAGCACTAATGG	GGCAGACAGTCAGAAGAGCTG	172	qPCR	IDT
Human	ACTA2	AAAAGACAGCTACGTGGGTGA	GCCATGTTCTATCGGGTACTTC	76	qPCR	IDT
Human	FOXO1	TCGTCATAATCTGTCCCTACACA	CGGCTTCGGCTCTTAGCAAA	168	qPCR	Sigma-
Human	18s	GTAACCCGTTGAACCCCATT	CCATCCAATCGGTAGTAGCG	151	qPCR	IDT
Human	MYH11	CGCCAAGAGACTCGTCTGG	TCTTTCCCAACCGTGACCTTC	129	qPCR	IDT
Human	IL6	AAATTCGGTACATCCTCGACGG	GGAAGGTTCAGGTTGTTTTCTGC	112	qPCR	IDT
Human	VIM	GGAAACTAATCTGGATTCACTC	CATCTCTAGTTTCAACCGTC	83	qPCR	Sigma-
Human	SOX9	GCCAGGTGCTCAAAGGCTA	TCTCGTTCAGAAGTCTCCAGAG	213	qPCR	IDT
Human	KLF4	CCCACATGAAGCGACTTCCC	CAGGTCCAGGAGATCGTTGAA	170	qPCR	IDT
Human	SM22	AGTGCAGTCCAAAATCGAGAAG	CTTGCTCAGAATCACGCCAT	154	qPCR	IDT
Human	TNF	CCTCTCTCTAATCAGCCCTCTG	GAGGACCTGGGAGTAGATGAG	220	qPCR	IDT
Human	BGLAP	GGACTGTGACGAGTTGGCTG	CCGTAGAAGCGCCGATAGG	60	qPCR	IDT
Human	SMTN	CAAAAAGTCCTAACCCCTGCT	TCATGTCGTCCACCTCCAC	77	qPCR	IDT
Human	THBS1	TGCTCCAATGCCACAGTTCC	CTGCTGAATTCCATTGCCACA	132	qPCR	IDT
Human	CNN1	GTCAACCCAAAATTGGCACCA	ACCTTGTTTCCTTTCGTCTTCG	183	qPCR	IDT
Human	MMP13	CACCAATTCCTGGGAAGTCT	GCAGCTGTTCACTTTGAGGA	136	qPCR	IDT
Human	SMARCA4	GATGTCGATGATGAATATGGC	ATCTGGTACTGTTTGAGGAC	140	qPCR	Sigma-
Human	GAPDH	CTGGGCTACACTGAGCACC	AAGTGGTCGTTGAGGGCAATG	101	qPCR	IDT
Human	pRUNX2-1	ACCTTACAGGAGTTTGGGCT	CTTTCCTGGCATCCAGAAGGATA	99	ChIP	IDT
Human	pRUNX2-2	CCGCCCACCCCATTTACTT	GGCGAACAGACCAATTTTCTAGG	124	ChIP	IDT
Human	hTelomere	GGTTTTTGAGGGTGAGGGTGAGGGT	TCCCGACTATCCCTATCCCTATCCCT		PCR	Sigma-
Human	hTERT-RP-SpliFAST	TATATATCCGGAGTCCAGGATGGTCTTGAAGTCTGAGGGC			Cloning	IDT
Human	hTERT-FP-SpliFAST	TATATAAGATCTATGCCGCGCGCTCCCCGCTGC			Cloning	IDT
Human	hSTAT5A-RP-SpliFAST	TATATATCCGGATGAGAGGGAGCCTCTGGCAGA			Cloninig	IDT
Human	hSTAT5A-FP-SpliFAST	TATATAAGATCTATGGCGGGCTGGATCCAGGCC			Cloninig	IDT
Human	hRUNX2-194-WT	AAGCTATATCCTTCTGGATGCCAGGAAAGGCCTTACCACAAGCCTTTTGTGAGAGAAAGA			EMSA	IDT
Human	hRUNX2-194-mut	AAGCTATATCCTTCTGGAAACAACTGCTCGGCGAGACACAGTCCTTTTGTGAGAGAAAGA			EMSA	IDT
Mouse	mRunx2-194-WT	AAAAGCTATAACCTTCTGAATGCCAGGAAGGCCTTACCACAAGCCTTTTGTCAGAGGGAG			EMSA	IDT
Mouse	mRunx2-194-mut	AAAAGCTATAACCTTCTGAACAACTGCTCGGCGAGACACAGTACCTTTTGTCAGAGGGAG			EMSA	IDT