**Evaluation of oxidative stress markers in**

**Androgenetic Alopecia Patients: A Comprehensive**

**Review**

Youmna Ahmed Ibrahim 1\*, Ahmed Mohamed Hamed 1, Ahmed Mohamed Saeed 2, Ghada Mohamed Abd El Khalik 1 and Eman Gamal Behiry 3

1. Dermatology, Venerology and Andrology Department, Faculty of Medicine, Benha University, Benha, Egypt.
2. Ophthalmology Department, Faculty of Medicine, Benha University, Benha, Egypt.
3. Clinical Pathology Department, Faculty of Medicine, Benha University, Benha, Egypt.

\* Corresponding author

E-Mail: youmnaelbehisy123456@gmail.com

# Abstract

**Background:** Men and women can both experience the common type of hair loss known as androgenetic alopecia (AGA). Hair follicle miniaturisation is affected by a complicated interplay of inflammatory agents, hormones, and genetic predisposition. Advanced Glycation End Products (AGEs) and their receptors (RAGE) have been identified as putative participants in the pathophysiology of AGA, connecting inflammation and oxidative stress to changes in hair follicles. **Objective:** The purpose of this review is to investigate the relationship between AGA pathogenesis, RAGE production, and serum levels of AGEs. It explores the potential applications of AGEs and RAGE as diagnostic indicators or therapeutic targets, clarifying the molecular pathways by which they may affect follicular miniaturisation and hair loss. **Conclusions:** The pathogenesis of AGA is intricately linked to AGEs and RAGE, which may exacerbate oxidative stress and inflammation in the microenvironment of the hair follicle.

**Keywords:** Androgenetic Alopecia; Advanced Glycation End Products; Inflammation;

Oxidative Stress; Hair Loss.

# 1. Introduction

Androgenetic Alopecia (AGA) is defined by non-scarring progressive hair follicle miniaturisation in susceptible men and women in a pattern distribution. It is among the most typical reasons for a hair consultation. According to epidemiologic data, AGA prevalence rises with age, affecting 80 percent of Caucasian males and 40 to 50 percent of Caucasian women at some point in their lives [1].

AGA is caused by a combination of hormonal (androgens) and hereditary factors. In affected areas, the genetic targeting of the hair follicles for androgen activation results in the shrinkage of the hair follicles and pigmented, large hairs (terminal hairs) replacement with thinner, depigmented, shorter hairs (vellus hairs) [2].

The pathophysiology of AGA is also influenced by environmental variables, such as smoking, UV radiation, metabolic syndrome, and dietary effects [3].

Even though AGA is classified as a non-inflammatory illness clinically, histological examinations revealed perifollicular inflammation in hair follicles' upper third, demonstrating that inflammation has a pathogenic function in the condition [4].

Because inflammation and oxidative stress are strongly associated in biological systems, oxidative stress has also been shown to be seen in androgenetic alopecia patients' dermal papilla cells [5].

One of the main indicators of aging is persistent low-grade inflammation, which is also essential for the emergence of age-related diseases [6].

AGEs are chemicals that are extremely reactive and oxidant. The majority of AGEs are created by nonenzymatic glycation as well as oxidation. There are several lipids, amino acids, and saccharides that can be converted into these glycoxidation products [7].

Receptors that are triggered by Advanced Glycation End Products (RAGE) are seen on keratinocytes, immunological cells, and endothelial cells. The reaction between RAGE and its ligands stimulates reactive oxygen species formation, boosts metalloproteinase activity, stimulates immune cells, and encourages gene transcription that codes for proinflammatory cytokines. In this degenerative cycle, the inflammatory reaction subsequently causes an elevation in AGE formation, which causes even more inflammation [8].

As the name implies, agerelated macular degeneration (AMD) is an eye illness that is strongly associated with aging. It often first manifests at age 60 and can result in blindness and significant vision loss, particularly in developed nations [9].

Two primary forms of AMD

exist: dry AMD, also referred to as nonneovascular, non-exudative, or atrophic

AMD (nAMD), and wet AMD, also known as neovascular or exudative AMD. The most prevalent kind of AMD, known as dry AMD, is characterized by an elevation in extracellular deposits known as drusen. Advanced-stage geographic atrophy (GA) is typified by a reduction in choroidal capillaries, retinal pigment epithelium (RPE) cells, and photoreceptors [10].

Oxidative damage is thought to be the main cause of age-associated degenerative illnesses, and aging contributes to its accumulation [11].

Numerous research studies have focused on the interaction between inflammation and oxidative stress. Research suggests that inflammation is induced by oxidative stress during the pathogenic course of AMD. In addition to producing "oxidation-specific epitopes" (such AGEs and MDA) and inducing proinflammatory responses, pathological oxidative damage also results in damaged lipids, DNA, and proteins in addition to mitochondrial failure. It also encourages macrophage polarization and invasion [12, 13].

Nowadays, the greatest cause of death in developed nations is cardiovascular ischemia illness. The importance of inflammation and plaque composition in fostering the natural history of an atheroma has been underlined. Atherosclerotic plaque has also been reported to regularly result in calcification, even at an early stage. As the illness worsens, the calcification usually becomes more noticeable and results in more complex lesions [14].

Ultrasound measurements of the common carotid intima-media thickness (CCA-IMT) have been shown to indicate cardiovascular risk in people with and without coronary artery disease (CAD) [15].

Many earlier investigations, most of which used a cross-sectional design, produced convincing proof that middle-aged and older individuals have a greater cIMT than young adults [16].

This review intends to investigate the relationship between RAGE expression, AGE levels in the serum, and AGA etiology. By exploring their potential as diagnostic markers or therapeutic targets, it clarifies the molecular pathways via which AGEs and RAGE may affect follicular miniaturisation and hair loss.

**2. Androgenic Alopecia (AGA)**

By the age of 70, at least 80% of men and 50% of women will have AGA, also referred to as pattern hair loss. The frequency of AGA increases with age [17].

The syndrome is autosomal dominant and is characterized by terminal hair progressive transformation into vellus and intermediate hairs. Shorter hairs and eventual baldness are the results of changes in the hair cycle, which include a shorter anagen phase and a longer telogen phase [18].

# ❖ Etiology

As the name implies, AGA has a distinct hereditary propensity and is most likely caused by an increased androgen sensitivity [19].

# ❖ Epidemiology

The majority of affected patients are White, then Asians, African Americans, Native Americans, and Eskimos. In Caucasian males, the incidence roughly corresponds to age, with 50% afflicted by age 50 and up to 80% impacted by age 70. The illness is rather frequent in females, and its occurrence rises after menopause [20].

# ❖ Pathophysiology

Stimulation of the androgen receptor shortens the anagen in the normal hair growth cycle. Through a gradually shorter anagen phase, excessive activation in AGA leads to follicular miniaturisation, leading to thinner and shorter hair follicles that may not even ultimately reach the epidermis [21].

AGA is caused by a variety of multifactorial and even polygenic etiologies, of which the significance of microinflammation, which is frequently present in the hair follicles of AGA patients, has gradually come to light [22].❖ **Clinical features**

Male AGA starts as bitemporal frontal scalp thinning that extends to the vertex. When AGA affects women, the frontal hairline is usually spared, and there is widespread hair thinning between the frontal scalp and vertex. The histological hallmark of AGA is follicular miniaturisation, yet the diagnosis is typically symptomatic [23].

|  |
| --- |
| https://upload.wikimedia.org/wikipedia/commons/thumb/5/58/Partial_Norwood_scale_for_male_pattern_baldness.png/290px-Partial_Norwood_scale_for_male_pattern_baldness.png**Figure 1: Hamilton–Norwood scale for** [**male pattern baldness**](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Male_pattern_baldness) **[25].** |

Clinical diagnosis is typically made based on a history of delayed onset starting after puberty and, sometimes, a family history of pattern hair loss. Generally speaking, unless the diagnosis is ambiguous, a biopsy is not required [24].

# ❖ Treatment

Topical minoxidil and finasteride are the two FDA-approved therapies for pattern baldness. Both take at least a 4- to 6-month trial period before showing results, and constant use is necessary to sustain a reaction [26].

The patient is satisfied with the cosmetic outcome and efficacy of the hair transplant. To fill the bald area, patients must, however, have a sufficient quantity of donor plugs (more than 40 follicular units/cm2) [27].

For pattern baldness, red light or laser at 660 nm has also shown promise in treating hair loss and is sold over the counter [28].

# 3. Advanced Glycation End Products

The non-enzymatic byproducts of interactions between glucose or other saccharide derivatives and proteins or lipids are heterogeneous compounds known as advanced glycation end products or AGEs. In human blood and tissues, as well as in food, more than 20 distinct AGEs have been found. There are two types of AGEs: nonfluorescent and fluorescent. The most significant ones are pentosidine, pyrraline (nonfluorescent AGEs), carboxyethyllysine (CEL), methylglyoxal-lysine dimer (MOLD), and carboxymethyllysine (CML) (fluorescent AGEs) [29].

Aggregate degradation products (AGEs) produce oxidative stress, which triggers the stimulation of many stressinduced transcription factors. This process results in the synthesis of proinflammatory and inflammatory mediators, including acute-phase proteins and cytokines [30].

# 4. Receptor for Advanced

**Glycation End Products**

A gene on chromosome 6 close to the major histocompatibility complex III encodes the transmembrane protein known as the receptor for advanced glycation end products (RAGE), which is a member of the immunoglobulin superfamily of cell surface receptors. It is composed of an extracellular portion with the transmembrane-spanning domain, short cytoplasmic tail, and types V1, C1, and C2 immunoglobulin domains [31].

RAGE molecule extracellular domain consists of two constant (Ctype) domains that are the key sites of binding for different types of ligands, after a variable (V-type) domain. However, a RAGE molecule's cytoplasmic tail is essential for signaling. AGEs (endogenous or foodderived), advanced oxidation protein products (AOPPs), implicated in oxidative stress, -amyloid linked to Alzheimer's disease, calcium-binding S100 proteins linked to multiple human cancers, and high-mobility group box-1 (HMGB), expressed in cancer and inflammation, are just a few of the molecules bound by the RAGE type V1 and type C1 domains [32].

Once ligands bind to RAGE, multiple signaling pathways are triggered, which in turn activates nuclear factor-kappa B (NF-κB), the transcription factor that elevates many proinflammatory genes transcription, MAPK, transducers, and Janus kinase signal from transcription (JAK-STAT) activators, as well as phosphoinositol 3 kinase. These events ultimately result in angiogenic, proliferative, thrombogenic, apoptotic, and fibrotic responses [33].

|  |
| --- |
| Diagram of a diagram of a cell membrane  Description automatically generated**Figure 2: Biochemical formation of AGEs, their signaling, and molecular signal transduction that led to pathological effects [34].**  |

# 5. Sources of Advanced Glycation End Products in the Skin

The two primary categories of AGE sources in the skin are exogenous ingestion and endogenous formation. Endogenous AGEs are created and collected in the skin as a result of aging and regular physiological metabolism, as well as conditions linked to inflammatory reactions and long-term metabolic disorders. Exogenous AGEs come from air pollution, cigarettes, sunlight, and the food we eat [35].

During the process of aging, the body naturally produces endogenous AGEs on its own when metabolic conditions are suitable. Nevertheless, when enzymes are not present, this reaction is slow. Because skin has a long collagen turnover period, the main factor contributing to the accumulation of AGEs (CML, CEL, and pentosides) in skin collagen is age. Inflammatory reactions and long-term metabolic illnesses, including diabetic mellitus (DM) and chronic renal failure, are significant sources of endogenous AGEs. One of the main causes of diabetes problems is a chronically high blood sugar state, and AGEs develop and accumulate as a result of diabetes, with diabetes mellitus playing a significant role in their production [36].

AGEs are produced in the human body and then accumulate, according to multiple studies. This accumulation causes skin tissue destruction by controlling gene expression, breaking down protein structures, binding to RAGEs, mediating multiple signaling pathways, and influencing skin-related cell apoptosis and differentiation. AGEs have an impact on the skin at every level, resulting in inflammation, aging, yellowing, and other problems [37].

RAGE production was seen in the dermis as well as the epidermis, and it was higher in places exposed to the sun than in areas shielded from UV radiation. RAGE is expressed by keratinocytes, fibroblasts, dendritic cells, and to a lesser degree by endothelium and lymphocyte cells [38].

# 6. Age-Related Macular Degeneration (AMD)

The most common cause of blindness in developed nations, especially among those over 60, is agerelated macular deterioration, or AMD. The fovea, which is the core region of the retina, is affected by macular degenerative alterations. Affected central vision is responsible for 8.7% of all forms of blindness globally [39].

There is uncertainty regarding the pathophysiology of AMD. AMD is classified into three stages: early, moderate, and advanced, according to clinical indications and symptoms that are both functional and structural. Within five years, one in five AMD patients may proceed to an advanced stage, exhibiting geographic atrophy (GA) and/or choroidal neovascularization (CNV) [40].

# 7. Optical coherence tomography (OCT)

Optical coherence tomography (OCT) is an ultrasonic imaging modality that uses low-coherence interferometry to produce crosssectional retinal pictures. It collects light scattering from the tissue in order to evaluate the spatial details of tissue microstructures. It uses infrared light from a super-luminescent diode divided into two halves, one of which is scattered by biological tissue and returned from a reference mirror. The two reflected light beams are produced to form interference patterns in order to determine the echo time delay and their amplitude information, which together form an A-Scan. A-Scans obtained at nearby retinal regions using a transverse scanning technique are combined to form a 2-dimensional image. From the original, OCT is available in three different varieties [41].

|  |
| --- |
| **Figure 3: time domain optical coherence tomography (top left), spectral domain optical coherence tomography (top right), and swept-source optical coherence tomography (bottom) of normal macula [42].** |

# 8. Carotid intima-media thickness (C-IMT)

The thickness of the intimal and medial layers of the carotid artery wall, or carotid intima-media thickness (CIMT), can be assessed noninvasively with ultrasound scans and is thought to be a diagnostic for atherosclerosis early stage [43].

Adults' mean CIMT readings range from 650 to 900 µm, and they typically rise by 0 to 40 µm annually. Numerous randomized controlled studies (RCTs) have indicated that therapeutic measures may impede the advancement of cancer-induced muscle tau (CIMT). Nevertheless, it is unclear if changes in CIMT progression result in a lower risk of cardiovascular disease (CVD) events or if CIMT progression serves as a reliable surrogate marker for CVD [43].

# 9. Association between AGEs and AGA

In the cutaneous field, it has been shown that AGEs promote apoptosis and cellular senescence in the skin. AGEs are known to grow with age in most organs and tissues and to be involved in the beginning of agingrelated disorders by disrupting cellular functioning [44]

Through their interactions with other cells, including hair matrix cells, dermal papilla cells (DPCs) play vital roles in maintaining hair follicular homeostasis. Hair abnormalities may result from disturbances in the mesenchymal epidermal interface. DPCs upregulate TGF- and IL-6, among other cytokines in AGA. These cytokines prevent hair matrix cells from proliferating [45].

According to theory, AGEs cause AGA to occur sooner by increasing inflammatory cytokines, mostly through the ROS-mediated NFkB pathway in DPCs, which prevents mesenchymal-epidermal interaction

[46].

1. **Recommendations and future prospectives:**

In order to manage androgenetic alopecia, investigating therapies that target Advanced Glycation End Products (AGEs) and their receptors (RAGE) seems like a potential path (AGA). Techniques to reduce inflammation-induced damage to hair follicles by modifying the AGE/RAGE pathways have the potential to be novel treatment approaches. Furthermore, researching compounds that can prevent AGE development or stop RAGE activation may provide new ways to stop or lessen hair loss in individuals with AGA. In order to cure AGA symptoms and restore the health of hair follicles, more study into certain inhibitors or drugs that target these pathways may open the door to effective molecularly-based interventions. Furthermore, more research into diagnostic markers linked to AGEs and RAGE expression may result in better early detection techniques, allowing for proactive AGA treatment in clinical settings.

1. **Conclusions:**

To sum up, the thorough investigation into the connection between AGEs, their receptors, and androgenetic alopecia (AGA) highlights the critical roles that these molecules play in the etiology of this common hair disorder. The review clarified how AGEs exacerbate the miniaturisation of hair follicles in AGA by causing oxidative stress and inflammation. Furthermore, AGEinduced RAGE activation sets up signaling cascades that intensify inflammatory reactions, potentially upsetting the delicate equilibrium in the follicular milieu. This enhanced comprehension of the molecular interactions among AGEs, RAGE, and AGA presents opportunities for innovative diagnostic methods and focused treatment plans intended to reduce hair loss in those who are impacted.

Moreover, the identification of AGEs and RAGE participation in AGA not only reveals their impact on follicular modifications but also emphasizes their potential as therapeutic targets or diagnostic indicators. This review highlights the importance of investigating therapies that could control AGE/RAGE pathways by clarifying the processes behind hair follicle miniaturisation caused by AGE-induced inflammation.

# 12. References

1. P. Müller Ramos, D.F. Melo, H. Radwanski, R.F.C. de Almeida, H.A.

Miot. Female-pattern hair loss: therapeutic update. An Bras

Dermatol;98:506-19. 2023

1. B.E. Prie, L. Iosif, I. Tivig, I. Stoian, C. Giurcaneanu. Oxidative stress in androgenetic alopecia. J Med Life;9:79-

83. 2016

1. T. Katzer, A. Leite Junior, R. Beck, C. da Silva. Physiopathology and current treatments of androgenetic alopecia: Going beyond androgens and anti-androgens. Dermatol

Ther;32:e13059. 2019

1. M. Goyal, S. Khandpur, M. Ramam, V.K. Sharma, M.K. Singh. A Study of the Histopathological Features of Alopecias on Transverse Sections of

Scalp Biopsies. Indian J

Dermatol;64:47-54. 2019

1. R.M. Trüeb. Oxidative stress and its impact on skin, scalp and hair. Int J Cosmet Sci;43 Suppl 1:S9-s13. 2021
2. J.J. Baechle, N. Chen, P. Makhijani, S. Winer, D. Furman, D.A. Winer. Chronic inflammation and the hallmarks of aging. Mol

Metab;74:101755. 2023 7. A. Twarda-Clapa, A. Olczak, A.M. Białkowska, M. Koziołkiewicz. Advanced Glycation End-Products (AGEs): Formation, Chemistry,

Classification, Receptors, and Diseases Related to AGEs. Cells;11. 2022

1. E.A. Oczypok, T.N. Perkins, T.D. Oury. All the "RAGE" in lung disease: The receptor for advanced glycation endproducts (RAGE) is a major mediator of pulmonary inflammatory responses. Paediatr Respir Rev;23:409. 2017
2. E. Di Carlo, A.J. Augustin. Prevention of the Onset of Age-Related Macular Degeneration. J Clin Med;10. 2021
3. W. Tan, J. Zou, S. Yoshida, B.

Jiang, Y. Zhou. The Role of

Inflammation in Age-Related Macular

Degeneration. Int J Biol Sci;16:2989-

3001. 2020

11. U.E. Warraich, F. Hussain, H.U.R. Kayani. Aging - Oxidative stress, antioxidants and computational modeling. Heliyon;6:e04107. 2020 12. N. Kushwah, K. Bora, M. Maurya, M.C. Pavlovich, J. Chen. Oxidative Stress and Antioxidants in Age-Related Macular Degeneration. Antioxidants (Basel);12. 2023

13. S.G. Jarrett, M.E. Boulton. Consequences of oxidative stress in age-related macular degeneration. Mol Aspects Med;33:399-417. 2012 14. M.C. Fishbein, G.A. Fishbein. Arteriosclerosis: facts and fancy. Cardiovasc Pathol;24:335-42. 2015

15. R.R. Kasliwal, M. Bansal, D. Desai, M. Sharma. Carotid intima-media thickness: Current evidence, practices, and Indian experience. Indian J Endocrinol Metab;18:13-22. 2014 16. I.C.L. van den Munckhof, H. Jones, M.T.E. Hopman, J. de Graaf, J.

Nyakayiru, B. van Dijk, et al. Relation between age and carotid artery intimamedial thickness: a systematic review. Clin Cardiol;41:698-704. 2018 17. M.S. Nestor, G. Ablon, A. Gade, H. Han, D.L. Fischer. Treatment options for androgenetic alopecia: Efficacy, side effects, compliance, financial considerations, and ethics. J Cosmet Dermatol;20:3759-81. 2021

18. F. Asghar, N. Shamim, U. Farooque, H. Sheikh, R. Aqeel. Telogen Effluvium: A Review of the Literature. Cureus;12:e8320. 2020 19. G. Fabbrocini, M. Cantelli, A. Masarà, M.C. Annunziata, C. Marasca, S. Cacciapuoti. Female pattern hair loss: A clinical, pathophysiologic, and therapeutic review. Int J Womens Dermatol;4:203-11. 2018

1. S. Zari. Short-Term Efficacy of Autologous Cellular Micrografts in Male and Female Androgenetic Alopecia: A Retrospective Cohort Study. Clin Cosmet Investig

Dermatol;14:1725-36. 2021

1. J.M. Ceruti, G.J. Leirós, M.E. Balañá. Androgens and androgen receptor action in skin and hair follicles. Mol Cell Endocrinol;465:122-33. 2018
2. J. Kong, W. Qiang, J. Jiang, X. Hu, Y. Chen, Y. Guo, et al. Safflower oil body nanoparticles deliver hFGF10 to hair follicles and reduce microinflammation to accelerate hair regeneration in androgenetic alopecia. Int J Pharm;616:121537. 2022
3. S. Khunkhet, K. Chanprapaph, S.

Rutnin, P. Suchonwanit.

Histopathological Evidence of Occipital Involvement in Male Androgenetic Alopecia. Front Med (Lausanne);8:790597. 2021

1. A. Ahmed, H. Almohanna, J. Griggs, A. Tosti. Genetic Hair Disorders: A Review. Dermatol Ther (Heidelb);9:421-48. 2019
2. C.T. Wirya, W. Wu, K. Wu. Classification of Male-pattern Hair Loss. Int J Trichology;9:95-100. 2017
3. S.S. Sattur, I.S. Sattur. Pharmacological Management of Pattern Hair Loss. Indian J Plast Surg;54:422-34. 2021
4. A. Venkataram, V. Mysore. Logic of Hair Transplantation. J Cutan Aesthet Surg;11:169-72. 2018 28. P. Suchonwanit, N. Chalermroj, S. Khunkhet. Low-level laser therapy for the treatment of androgenetic alopecia in Thai men and women: a 24-week, randomized, double-blind, sham device-controlled trial. Lasers Med Sci;34:1107-14. 2019
5. A. Perrone, A. Giovino, J. Benny, F. Martinelli. Advanced Glycation End Products (AGEs): Biochemistry, Signaling, Analytical Methods, and Epigenetic Effects. Oxid Med Cell

Longev;20:381. 2020

1. K. Zgutka, M. Tkacz, P. Tomasiak,

M. Tarnowski. A Role for Advanced

Glycation End Products in Molecular Ageing. Int J Mol Sci;24. 2023

1. L. Sessa, E. Gatti, F. Zeni, A. Antonelli, A. Catucci, M. Koch, et al.

The receptor for advanced glycation end-products (RAGE) is only present in mammals, and belongs to a family of cell adhesion molecules (CAMs). PLoS One;9:903. 2014

1. V. Rai, A.Y. Maldonado, D.S. Burz, S. Reverdatto, S.F. Yan, A.M. Schmidt, et al. Signal transduction in receptor for advanced glycation end products (RAGE): solution structure of Cterminal rage (ctRAGE) and its binding to mDia1. J Biol Chem;287:5133-44. 2012
2. L. Chen, R. Chen, H. Wang, F. Liang. Mechanisms Linking

Inflammation to Insulin Resistance. Int J Endocrinol;2015:508. 2015 34. A. Perrone, A. Giovino, J. Benny, F. Martinelli. Advanced Glycation End Products (AGEs): Biochemistry, Signaling, Analytical Methods, and Epigenetic Effects. Oxid Med Cell Longev;2020:3818196. 2020 35. C.Y. Chen, J.Q. Zhang, L. Li, M.M. Guo, Y.F. He, Y.M. Dong, et al. Advanced Glycation End Products in the Skin: Molecular Mechanisms, Methods of Measurement, and Inhibitory Pathways. Front Med (Lausanne);9:837. 2022

1. J.H. Chen, X. Lin, C. Bu, X. Zhang. Role of advanced glycation end products in mobility and considerations in possible dietary and nutritional intervention strategies. Nutr Metab (Lond);15:72. 2018
2. W. Zheng, H. Li, Y. Go, X.H.F. Chan, Q. Huang, J. Wu. Research Advances on the Damage Mechanism of Skin Glycation and Related

Inhibitors. Nutrients;14:213-9. 2022

1. E. Roig-Rosello, P. Rousselle. The

Human Epidermal Basement Membrane: A Shaped and Cell

Instructive Platform That Aging Slowly Alters. Biomolecules;10:312-9. 2020

1. O. Sergejeva, R. Botov, R. Liutkevičienė, L. Kriaučiūnienė. Genetic factors associated with the development of age-related macular degeneration. Medicina

(Kaunas);52:79-88. 2016

1. K. Romond, M. Alam, S. Kravets, L. Sisternes, T. Leng, J.I. Lim, et al. Imaging and artificial intelligence for progression of age-related macular degeneration. Exp Biol Med

(Maywood);246:2159-69. 2021

1. BE Bouma, JF de Boer, D. Huang, I.K. Jang, T. Yonetsu, C.L. Leggett, et al. Optical coherence tomography. Nat Rev Methods Primers;2:139-44. 2022
2. M. Bhende, S. Shetty, M.K. Parthasarathy, S. Ramya. Optical coherence tomography: A guide to interpretation of common macular diseases. Indian J Ophthalmol;66:20-

35. 2018

1. P. Willeit, L. Tschiderer, E. Allara, K. Reuber, L. Seekircher, L. Gao, et al.

Carotid Intima-Media Thickness Progression as Surrogate Marker for Cardiovascular Risk: Meta-Analysis of 119 Clinical Trials Involving 100 667

Patients. Circulation;142:621-42. 2020

1. B.G. Childs, M. Durik, D.J. Baker, J.M. van Deursen. Cellular senescence in aging and age-related disease: from mechanisms to therapy. Nat

Med;21:1424-35. 2015

1. A. Madaan, R. Verma, A.T. Singh, M. Jaggi. Review of Hair Follicle Dermal Papilla cells as in vitro screening model for hair growth. Int J Cosmet Sci;40:429-50. 2018
2. Y. Shimizu, E.H. Ntege, H. Sunami, Y. Inoue. Regenerative medicine strategies for hair growth and regeneration: A narrative review of literature. Regen Ther;21:527-39. 2022