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New insights on the genetic etiology of Alzheimer's and related dementia

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ABSTRACT

Alzheimer's disease (AD) is a severe and incurable neurodegenerative disease, and the failure to find effective treatments suggests that the underlying pathology remains poorly understood. Due to its strong heritability, deciphering the genetic landscape of AD and related dementia (ADD) is a unique opportunity to advance our knowledge. We completed a meta-analysis of genome-wide association studies (39,106 clinically AD-diagnosed cases, 46,828 proxy-ADD cases and 401,577 controls) with the most promising signals followed-up in 25,392 independent AD cases and 276,086 controls. We report 75 risk loci for ADD, including 42 novel ones. Pathway-enrichment analyses confirm the involvement of amyloid/Tau pathways, highlight the role of microglia and its potential interaction with APP metabolism. Numerous genes exhibited differential expression or splicing in AD-related conditions and gene prioritization implies EGFR signaling and TNF- α pathway through LUBAC complex. We also generated a novel polygenic risk score strongly associated with the risk of future dementia or progression from mild cognitive impairment to dementia. In conclusion, by more than doubling the number of loci associated with ADD risk, our study offers new insights into the pathophysiological processes underlying AD and offers additional therapeutic entry-points and tools for translational genomics.

Main

Alzheimer's disease (AD) is the most common form of dementia. It exhibits a high heritability estimated between 60 and 80%¹. This strong genetic component presents an opportunity to decipher the pathophysiological processes in AD and related dementia (ADD) and to identify novel biology, new prognosis/diagnosis markers and novel treatment targets (translational genomics). Characterizing the genetic risk factors of ADD is therefore a major objective and following the advent of the high-throughput genomic approaches, many loci/genes have been associated with the risk of ADD². However, much of the underlying heritability remains unexplained and increasing the sample size of genome-wide association studies (GWAS) is an obvious route, already successfully applied in other common, complex diseases like diabetes, to facilitate the characterization of new genetic risk factors.

GWAS analysis.

The European Alzheimer's Disease BioBank (EADB) consortium brings together the various European GWAS consortia already working on AD and a new dataset of 20,464 AD cases and 22,244 controls collated from 15 European countries. The EADB GWAS results were meta-analysed with a proxy-ADD GWAS performed in the UK Biobank (UKBB; the UKBB proxy-ADD designation is based on questionnaire data asking if parents had AD which is less specific than clinically or pathological diagnosed AD). The EADB Stage I (GWAS meta-analysis) was based on 39,106 clinically diagnosed AD cases, 46,828 proxy-ADD cases (as defined in the Supplementary Information) and 401,577 controls (Supplementary Tables 1 and 2) and on 21,101,114 variants that passed quality control measures (Fig.1 and see Supplementary Fig. 1 for QQ plot and genomic inflation factors). We selected all variants with P value less than 1×10^{-5} in Stage I. We defined non-overlapping regions around those variants, excluded the region corresponding to *APOE*, and examined the remaining variants in a large follow-up sample that included clinically diagnosed AD cases and controls from the ADGC, FinnGen and CHARGE consortia (Stage II; 25,392 AD cases and 276,086 controls). A signal was considered as genome-wide significant if nominally associated ($P \leq 0.05$) in Stage II, with same direction of association in the Stage I and Stage II analyses and if associated with ADD risk with $P \leq 5 \times 10^{-8}$ in the Stage I + Stage II meta-analysis. In addition, we applied a PLINK clumping procedure³ to define potential independent hits from the Stage I results (see Methods). After validation by conditional analyses (see Supplementary Information and Supplementary Tables 3 and 4), this approach led us to define 39 signals in 33 loci already known to be associated with the risk of developing ADD⁴⁻¹⁰ and to propose 42 new loci (Table 1, Supplementary Table 5 and Supplementary Fig. 2-29). Of the 42 new loci, 17 had $P \leq 5 \times 10^{-8}$ in Stage I and 25 were associated with $P \leq 5 \times 10^{-8}$ after follow-up (Stage I +

Stage II meta-analysis including ADGC, CHARGE and FinnGen data). We also identified 6 loci with $P \leq 5 \times 10^{-8}$ in the Stage I + Stage II analysis, but failing replication in Stage II (Supplementary Table 6). Of note, the magnitude of associations in Stage I did not change substantially if we restricted the Stage I analyses to clinically-diagnosed AD cases (Supplementary Table 7 and Supplementary Fig. 30). Similarly, none of the signals observed seems to be especially driven by the UKBB data (Supplementary Table 7 and Forest plots in Supplementary Fig. 2-29). We finally provide a detailed analysis of the HLA locus (Supplementary Fig. 31-32 and Supplementary Tables 8-9).

We tested the association of the lead variants within our novel loci with the risk of developing other neurodegenerative diseases or AD-related disorders (Supplementary Fig. 33 and Supplementary Tables 10-12) and performed colocalization analyses for three loci known to be associated with Parkinson's disease (PD) (*IDUA*) or frontotemporal lobar degeneration with TAR DNA binding protein (TDP-43) inclusions (FTLD-TDP) (*TMEM106B* and *GRN*). The *IDUA* signal in PD is independent of the signal in AD (coloc PP3=99.9%) while the *TMEM106B* and *GRN* signals in FTLD-TDP probably share the same causal variants with AD (coloc PP4=99.8% and PP4=80.1% respectively, Supplementary Tables 13-14).

Pathway analyses

To better understand the novel biological insights emerging from this newly expanded AD genetic landscape, we first performed pathway enrichment analyses in Stage I association results. 150 gene sets remained significant after multiple testing correction ($q \leq 0.05$, see Methods, Supplementary Table 15). The most significant gene sets relate to amyloid and tau; other significant gene sets relate to lipids and immunity, including macrophage and microglial cell activation.

We then performed a single-cell expression enrichment analysis using two complementary measures in different human brain cell types: average gene expression per nucleus (Av. exp) and percentage of nuclei in a cell type expressing each gene (% Cell exp). Only microglial expression of these genes reached significance across the two measurements after correcting for multiple testing (Supplementary Table 16), with increased expression corresponding to more significant association with ADD. A similar result was also observed using the mouse single cell dataset (Supplementary Table 17). We finally tested whether the relationship between microglial expression and association with ADD risk was specific to particular areas of biology (Supplementary Table 18). The most significant interaction was detected between GO:1902991 (regulation of amyloid precursor protein catabolic process) and gene expression level in microglia ($q = 1.2 \times 10^{-12}$ and 8.3×10^{-8} for % Cell Exp. and Av. Exp. respectively). Thus, genes in the amyloid-beta pathways with highest microglial expression show the strongest association with ADD, suggesting a functional relationship between microglia and APP/A β pathways (Supplementary Table 19).

Gene prioritization

We next attempted to identify those genes most likely to be responsible for the ADD association signal at each locus. All the prioritized genes are summarized in Fig. 2 with a full description of the genes analyzed in the Supplementary Information (see also Supplementary Tables 20-30 and Supplementary Fig. 34-42).

For ten of the novel loci, brain molecular quantitative trait loci (QTL) analyses and transcriptome-wide association studies (TWAS) in AD-relevant brain regions, blood genetics-driven methylation (MetaMeth) analyses and/or APP metabolism results supported the genes closest to the lead variant: *TNIP1* (L11), *ICA1* (L15), *TMEM106B* (L16), *JAZF1* (L17), *CTSB* (L19), *ABCA1* (L21), *CTSH* (L29), *MAF* (L31), *SIGLEC11* (L38) and *RBCK1* (L40). Five other genes in the new loci can be prioritized as likely to be causal since the lead variants correspond to protein-altering variants within the gene itself: *SORT1* (L1), *MME* (L6), *SHARPIN* (L20), *DOC2A* (L30) and *WDR81* (L34). For *SHARPIN*, *DOC2A*, and *WDR81*, we found additional evidences that ADD risk is associated with expression and/or splicing

events. Of note, while *DOC2A* and *WDR81* are the most likely candidates, these loci also include other plausible genes (Fig. 2).

For seven loci: *NCK2* (L4), *COX7C* (L10), *RASGEF1C* (L12), *HS3HT5* (L13), *UMAD1* (L14), *FOXF1* (L32) and *APP* (L42), none of the genes presented any AD-related modulations (see Methods), therefore we considered that their proximity to the lead variant was in favor of their prioritization but at this stage at a lower level of confidence, except for *APP* (an obvious candidate for ADD) and *NCK2* (where the lead variant is rare).

The remaining twenty novel loci present a more complicated pattern since several genes exhibit AD-related modulations at the same locus, and/or the prioritized gene is not the nearest protein-coding gene. We could efficiently prioritize candidate risk genes in twelve additional loci: *ADAM17* (L2), *ICA1L* (L5), *RHOH* (L8), *OTULIN* (L9), *EGFR* (L18), *CCDC6* (L22), *TSPAN14* (L23), *BLNK* (L24), *PLEKHA1* (L25), *RITA1* (L26), *MYO15A* (L35) and *GRN* (L36). Some of these loci also include other genes of potential interest. In locus 18, *EGFR* is a likely candidate gene: its eQTL signals colocalize with the ADD risk association signal, and its fine-mapped eTWAS hits (with FOCUS posterior inclusion probability values of ~ 1) associate a predicted increased *EGFR* expression with increased ADD risk (Fig. 3, Supplementary Fig. 39). In the complex locus 23, *TSPAN14* was identified as exhibiting numerous AD-related expression and splicing modulations, including novel cryptic complex splicing events that we identified and experimentally confirmed (Fig. 3, Supplementary Fig. 40). In the remaining eight loci, we did not clearly identify a single candidate but current evidence points towards the following genes: *DGKQ*, *SLC26A1* and *IDUA* in locus 7, *FAM96A* and *SNX1* in locus 28, *ATP8B3*, *REXO1* and *KLF16* in locus 37, *RTEL1* and *LIME1* in locus 41. For the locus 39, we consider *LILRB2* as the plausible risk gene based on literature review^{13,14}. Finally, we were not able to prioritize a gene in the complex IGH cluster (L27), nor in the *PRKD3* (L3) and *PRDM7* (L33) loci.

We performed protein-protein interaction (PPI) analyses based on previously known GWAS genes, our prioritized novel genes (dark green in Figure 2 and Supplementary Table 20) and a combination of both lists (see Supplementary Information section 11 for a description of the method). The largest network was 14, 8 and 31 proteins respectively (Supplementary Fig. 43). These networks were larger than expected by chance ($P < 2 \times 10^{-5}$, $P < 3.9 \times 10^{-3}$, $P < 2 \times 10^{-5}$ respectively). Notably, the number of interactions between our prioritized genes and previously known genes is also significantly larger than expected ($P = 1 \times 10^{-4}$), indicating the biological relevance of the newly prioritized genes to AD pathology. No such enrichment ($p = 0.77$) was observed for the remaining genes in the new loci, highlighting again the value of our prioritization approach.

Polygenic risk score

We explored whether the genetic ADD burden as measured by a polygenic risk score (PRS) generated from our genome-wide significant variants ($n = 83$, see Methods and Supplementary Table 31) might influence rate of progression to dementia starting from either normal cognition or mild cognitive impairment (MCI) using several longitudinal population-based and memory clinic cohorts (Supplementary Table 32).

In a meta-analysis of population-based studies, the PRS was significantly associated with risk of progression to all-causes of dementia (HR=1.05 per average risk variant, 95%CI [1.03-1.06], $P = 1.2 \times 10^{-13}$) and to AD (HR=1.06 per average risk variant, 95%CI [1.04-1.07], $P = 1.1 \times 10^{-12}$) (Figure 4). Results were confirmed in the Rotterdam population-based study: a PRS based on 77 variants (due to missing variant information) was also significantly associated with risk of progression to all-causes of dementia (HR=1.09 per average risk variant, 95%CI [1.08-1.11], $P = 7.6 \times 10^{-32}$) or with the risk of progression to AD (HR=1.10 per average risk variant, 95%CI [1.08-1.12], $P = 1.0 \times 10^{-27}$).

Similarly, in MCI patients from memory clinics, we observed a significant association of this PRS with the risk of progressing to all-causes of dementia (HR=1.04 per average risk variant,

95%CI [1.03-1.06], $P=2.6 \times 10^{-10}$) or AD (HR=1.06 per average risk variant, 95%CI [1.04-1.07], $P=2.8 \times 10^{-12}$) (Figure 4). All analyses were adjusted for age, sex, principal components and the number of APOE- $\epsilon 4$ and APOE- $\epsilon 2$ alleles (Figure 4, Supplementary Table 33).

Association of the PRS with the risk of dementia progression was not modified by APOE- $\epsilon 4$ (interaction $P=0.95$ and 0.44 in population-based or MCI studies respectively; see also APOE- $\epsilon 4$ strata analyses in Supplementary Fig. 44-45). As previously reported, APOE- $\epsilon 4$ influenced progression to all-causes of dementia (Supplementary Table 33).

DISCUSSION

This meta-analysis combining a new large case-control study and previous GWAS identified 75 independent genetic risk factors for ADD, 33 previously reported and 42 corresponding to novel signals, greatly expanding our knowledge of the complex genetic landscape of AD. A short description of the prioritized genes and their potential significance in AD pathophysiology is presented in the Supplementary Information.

Our meta-analysis and the characterization of these new loci refine and expand our current understanding of AD etiology. The pathway enrichment analyses remove ambiguities concerning the involvement of Tau binding proteins and APP/A β metabolism in late-onset AD processes. In addition, we implicated for the first time *ADAM17*, a gene whose protein product is known to carry α -secretase activity as ADAM10¹⁵. This observation affirms that a deregulation of the non-amyloidogenic pathway of APP metabolism is also important in the AD process. In addition, we identified four highly plausible candidate genes likely to modulate APP metabolism based on biological evidence (*ICA1L*, *ICA1*, *DOC2A* and *WDR81*).

These pathway enrichment analyses also confirmed the involvement of innate immunity and microglial activation in ADD (Supplementary Table 15). In addition, single-cell expression enrichment analysis also highlighted genes expressed in microglia (Supplementary Tables 16 and 17). Finally, ten of our prioritized genes appeared to be primarily expressed in microglia (Fig. 2 and Supplementary Table 34). Several publications have already demonstrated involvement of the corresponding proteins in microglia function/activation (see Supplementary Information) and importantly three, i.e. *GRN*, *SIGLEC11* and *LILRB2* have also been linked to A β peptides/amyloid plaques^{13,16,17}. However, it is also important to keep in mind that six of our prioritized genes are expressed at only a very low level in microglia (Supplementary Table 34), emphasizing that ADD results from a complex crosstalk between different cell-types in the brain^{18,19}. Of note, we report here the implication of the EGFR but also TNF- α signaling through the LUBAC complex (three out of its four complements are coded by ADD genetic risk factors, i.e. *OTULIN*, *SHARPIN*, and *RBCK1*) reinforcing the role of neuroinflammation in ADD²⁰.

Of note, several novel loci were also associated with the risk of developing FTLD, i.e. *MAPT*, *GRN*, and *TMEM106B*. This may be related to the misclassification in the diagnosis of clinical AD and the proxy-ADD diagnoses in the UKBB. However, both *GRN* and *TMEM106B* are associated with AD neuropathological features and *MAPT* encodes tau, the protein in AD neurofibrillary tangles. Our results may thus also emphasize a continuum between AD and FTD²⁰⁻²².

Increasing our understanding of the pathophysiological processes operating in AD will lead to better and more specific therapies. Doubling the number of genetic loci associated with ADD risk also gave us the opportunity to create a novel PRS. There are differing opinions regarding the best strategy to define PRS and the model used to evaluate prediction²⁴⁻²⁸. In our approach, we found an association of the PRS with the risk of incident dementia in a healthy population, as well as with progression from MCI to dementia. These results suggest that ADD susceptibility variants, in general, have a similar effect on progression at different clinical stages (independent of age and APOE). We also observed that inclusion of confirmed low frequency and rare variants could improve the power of our PRS (we compare HR between PRSs including different MAF thresholds in Supplementary Table 33).

In conclusion, our work doubles the number of ADD associated loci, expanding current knowledge of AD pathophysiological processes, presenting novel opportunities for the development of gene-specific treatments and PRS, further clarifying a path to translational genomics and personalized medicine.

METHODS Online

Samples. All discovery meta-analysis samples are from the following consortia/datasets: EADB, GR@ACE, EADI, GERAD/PERADES, DemGene, Bonn, the Rotterdam study, the CCHS study, NxC and the UK Biobank. Of note, in the UK Biobank, individual who did not report dementia or any family history of dementia were used as controls: analysis included 2,447 diagnosed cases, 46,828 proxy cases of dementia and 338,440 controls. Summary demographics of these case-control studies are described in Supplementary Table 1 and more detailed descriptions are available in the Supplementary Information. Replication samples are from the ADGC, CHARGE and FinnGen consortia (Supplementary Table 1 and Supplementary Information) and fully described elsewhere^{5,6,9,10,29-31}. Written informed consent was obtained from study participants or, for those with substantial cognitive impairment, from a caregiver, legal guardian, or other proxy. Study protocols for all cohorts were reviewed and approved by the appropriate institutional review boards.

Quality control and imputation. Standard quality control was performed on variants and samples on all datasets individually. The samples were then imputed with the Trans-Omics for Precision Medicine (TOPMed) reference panel^{32,33}. The Haplotype Reference Consortium (HRC) panel³⁴ was also used for some datasets (Supplementary Table 2). For the UK Biobank, we used the provided imputed data, generated from a combination of the 1000 Genomes (1000G), HRC and UK10K reference panels. See Supplementary Information for details.

Stage I analyses. Association tests between ADD clinical or proxy status and autosomal genetic variant were conducted separately in each dataset using logistic regression assuming an additive genetic model as implemented in SNPTEST³⁵ or in PLINK³, except in the UK Biobank where a logistic mixed model as implemented in SAIGE³⁶ was considered. Analyses were performed on the genotype probabilities in SNPTEST (newml method) and on dosages in PLINK and SAIGE. Analyses were adjusted for principal components and genotyping centers when necessary (Supplementary Table 2). For the UK Biobank dataset, effect sizes and standard errors were corrected by a factor of two to take into account that proxy cases were analysed⁷. We filtered out duplicated variants and variants with (i) missing effect size, standard error or P value, (ii) absolute value of effect size above 5, (iii) imputation quality less than 0.3, (iv) the product of the minor allele count (MAC) and the imputation quality (mac-info score) less than 20. In the UK Biobank dataset, only variants with minor allele frequency (MAF) above 0.01% and MAC above 3 were analyzed. For datasets not imputed with the TOPMed reference panel, we also excluded (i) variants for which conversion of position or alleles from the GRCh37 assembly to the GRCh38 assembly was not possible or problematic, or (ii) variants with very large difference of frequency between the TOPMed reference panel and the reference panels used to perform imputation. Results were then combined across studies with a fixed-effect meta-analysis using the inverse variance weighted approach as implemented in the METAL software³⁷. We filtered (i) variants with heterogeneity P value below 5×10^{-8} , (ii) variants analyzed in less than 20% of the total number of cases and (iii) variants with frequency amplitude above 0.4 (defined as the difference between the maximum and minimum frequency across studies). We further excluded variants analyzed in the UK Biobank only or variants not analyzed in the EADB-TOPMed dataset.

Genomic inflation factor lambda was computed with the R package GenABEL³⁸ using the median approach after exclusion of the *APOE* region (44 Mb to 46 Mb on chromosome 19 in GRCh38). The linkage disequilibrium (LD) score (LDSC) regression intercept was computed with the LDSC software using the “baselineLD” LD scores built from 1000 Genomes Phase 3³⁹. The analysis was restricted to HapMap 3 variants and excluded multi-allelic variants, variants without an rsID and variants in the *APOE* region.

Definition of associated loci. A region of +/- 500kb was defined around each variant with a Stage I P value below 1×10^{-5} . Those regions were then merged with the bedtools software to define non-overlapping regions. The region corresponding to the APOE locus was excluded. We then applied the PLINK clumping procedure to define independent hits in each of those regions. The clumping procedure was applied on all variants with a Stage I P value below 1×10^{-5} . It is an iterative process beginning with the variant with the lowest P value, named index variant. Variants with a Stage I P value below 1×10^{-5} , located within 500 kb of this index variant, and in LD with the index variant (r^2 above 0.001) are assigned to the clump of this index variant. The clumping procedure is then applied on all the remaining variants, until no variant is left. LD was computed in the EADB-TOPMed dataset using high quality (probability ≥ 0.8) imputed genotypes.

Stage II analyses. Variants with a Stage I P value below 1×10^{-5} were followed up (see Supplementary Information). A fixed-effect meta-analysis was performed with METAL (inverse variance weighted approach) to combine the results across Stages I and II. In each clump, we then reported the replicated variant (same direction of effects between Stage I and Stage II, with a Stage II P value below 0.05) with the lowest P value in the meta-analysis. Those variants were considered associated at the genome-wide significance level if they had a P value below 5×10^{-8} in the Stages I + II meta-analysis. Among them, we excluded the variant chr6:32657066:G:A because its frequency amplitude was large.

Pathway analysis. The assignment of Gene Ontology (GO) terms to human genes was obtained from the “gene2go” file, downloaded from NCBI on March 11th 2020. “Parent” GO terms were assigned to genes using the ontology file also downloaded on the same date. GO terms were assigned to genes based on experimental or curated evidence of a specific type, so evidence codes IEA (electronic annotation), NAS (non-traceable author statement), RCA (inferred from reviewed computational analysis) were excluded. Pathways were downloaded from the Reactome website on April 26th 2020. Biocarta, KEGG and Pathway Interaction Database (PID) pathways were downloaded from v7.1 (March 2020) of the Molecular Signatures Database. Analysis was restricted to GO terms containing between 10 and 2000 genes. No size restrictions were placed on the other gene sets, since there were fewer of them. This resulted in a total of 10,271 gene sets for analysis. Gene set enrichment analyses were performed in MAGMA⁴⁰, correcting for the number of variants in each gene, linkage disequilibrium (LD) between variants and LD between genes. LD was computed in the EADB-TOPMed dataset using high quality (probability ≥ 0.9) imputed genotypes. The measure of pathway enrichment is the MAGMA “competitive” test (where the association statistic for genes in the pathway is compared to those of all other protein-coding genes), as recommended by De Leeuw et al.⁴¹. We used the “mean” test statistic, which uses the sum of $-\log(\text{variant P value})$ across all genes. The primary analysis assigned variants to genes if they lie within the gene boundaries, but a secondary analysis used a window of 35kb upstream and 10kb downstream to assign variants to genes, as in Kunkle et al.⁵. The primary analysis used all variants with imputation quality above 0.8. We used q-values⁴² to account for multiple testing. Enrichment analyses were performed on single cell expression data from human (Allen Brain Atlas) or mouse (Skene et al.⁴³) by using average gene expression per nucleus or percentage of nuclei in a cell type expressing each gene as quantitative covariates in a MAGMA gene property analysis.

QTLs/TWAS/MetaMeth. In order to prioritize candidate genes in the new loci, we employed several approaches: (i) expression quantitative trait loci (eQTLs) and colocalization (eQTL coloc) analyses combined with expression transcriptome-wide association studies (eTWAS) in AD-relevant brain regions; (ii) splicing quantitative trait loci (sQTL) and colocalization (sQTL coloc) analyses combined with splicing transcriptome-wide association studies (sTWAS) in AD-relevant brain regions; (iii) genetic-driven methylation as a biological mediator of genetic signals in blood (MetaMeth). In our regions of interest, we systematically searched if a gene has a significant e/sQTL, colocalization e/sTWAS and/or MetaMeth

signal(s) within a region of 1 Mb around the lead variant. In addition to the “nearest” genes from the lead variant, we kept for further analyses those exhibiting such AD-related modulations. We then added several additional approaches: (i) data from a genome-wide, high-content siRNA screening approach to assess the functional impact of gene under-expression on APP metabolism⁴⁴, (ii) methylation QTL (mQTL) and histone acetylation QTL (haQTL) effects of the lead variants in DLPFC⁴⁵, (iii) eQTL effects of the lead variants in monocytes and macrophages⁴⁶⁻⁵¹, (iv) e/sQTL effects of lead variants in LCL along with e/sQTL coloc and e/sTWAS analyses in LCL, and (v) e/sQTL effects of lead variants in microglia along with e/sQTL coloc analyses⁵². A full description of how the genes were prioritized is reported in the Supplementary Information (see also Supplementary Tables 20-30 and Supplementary Fig. 34-42).

Cell type expression. Assignment of newly identified ADD risk genes to specific cell classes of the adult brain was performed as previously described⁵³. Briefly, middle temporal gyrus (MTG) single-nucleus transcriptomes (15,928 total nuclei derived from 8 human tissue donors ranging in age from 24-66 year), were used to annotate and select 6 main cell classes using *Seurat 3.1.1*⁵⁴: Glutamatergic Neurons, GABAergic Neurons, Astrocytes, Oligodendrocytes, Microglia and Endothelial cells.

PRS analysis. Eight longitudinal MCI cohorts and six population-based studies were included in the analysis and are fully described in the Supplementary Information and Supplementary Table 32.

PRS were calculated as previously described²⁴. Briefly, we considered variants with genome-wide significant evidence of association with ADD in our study and used three different MAF thresholds (Fig. 1, Table 1 and Supplementary Table 33). Variants were directly genotyped or imputed ($R^2 \geq 0.3$). We did not include any *APOE* variants in the PRS. The PRS (based on dosage) was calculated as the weighted average of the number of risk increasing alleles for each variant using dosages. Weights were based on the respective log(OR) obtained in the Stage II. The PRS was then multiplied by the number of included variants. Thus, an increase in HR corresponds to carry one additional average risk allele.

All principal components (PCs) used were generated per cohort, using the same variants that were used on the case/control study PCA. The number of *APOE*-e4 alleles was obtained based on direct genotyping or, if missing, based on genotypes (with probability > 0.8) derived from the TOPMed imputations.

The association of the PRS with risk of progression to dementia in cognitively normal persons or in patients with MCI was assessed using Cox proportional hazards models, initially for all-cause dementia and next, using analysis focused on conversion to AD. Herein, converter to non-AD dementias were coded as censored.

Each Cox-regression analysis was first performed unadjusted for covariates and then repeated, adjusted for age, sex and the first four PCs to correct for potential population stratification. In the 3C study, analysis was adjusted on age, sex, the two first PCs and center. Analyses were additionally controlled for the number of *APOE*-e4 and *APOE*-e2 alleles (assuming an additive effect) to assess the independence of the PRS from *APOE*. The interaction between the PRS and the number of *APOE*-e4 alleles was tested. Analyses were repeated stratified by the presence or absence of at least one *APOE*-e4 allele. Results from individual cohorts were meta-analyzed using fixed effects meta-analysis.

Imputations in Rotterdam were performed using the HRC imputation panel and 6 variants were missing. This study was therefore not included in the meta-analysis.

URLs:

Bedtools: <https://bedtools.readthedocs.io/en/latest/>

BCFtools: <http://samtools.github.io/bcftools/bcftools.html>

Samtools: <http://www.htslib.org/doc/samtools.html>

gene2go: <ftp://ftp.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/gene/DATA/>

Gene Ontology: <http://geneontology.org/docs/download-ontology/>

Reactome: <https://reactome.org/download-data>
KEGG and Pathway Interaction Database (PID) pathways: <https://www.gsea-msigdb.org/gsea/msigdb/index.jsp>
AMP-AD rnaSeqReprocessing Study: <https://www.synapse.org/#!/Synapse:syn9702085>
MayoRNAseq WGS VCFs: <https://www.synapse.org/#!/Synapse:syn11724002>
ROSMAP WGS VCFs: <https://www.synapse.org/#!/Synapse:syn11724057>
MSBB WGS VCFs: <https://www.synapse.org/#!/Synapse:syn11723899>
GTEx pipeline: <https://github.com/broadinstitute/gtex-pipeline>
Leafcutter: <https://github.com/davidaknowles/leafcutter>
RegTools: <https://github.com/griffithlab/regtools>
Enhanced version of FastQTL: <https://github.com/francois-a/fastqtl>
Picard: <https://broadinstitute.github.io/picard/>
eQTLGen: <https://www.eqtlgen.org/>
eQTL Catalogue database: <https://www.ebi.ac.uk/eqtl/>
Brain xQTL serve: <http://mostafavilab.stat.ubc.ca/xqtl/>
GTEx v8 eQTL and sQTL catalogues: <https://www.gtexportal.org/>
coloc: <https://github.com/chr1swallace/coloc>
FUSION: https://github.com/gusevlab/fusion_twas
GTEx v8 expression and splicing prediction models: <http://predictdb.org/>
MetaXcan: <https://github.com/hakyimlab/MetaXcan>
FOCUS: <https://github.com/bogdanlab/focus>
qcat: <https://github.com/nanoporetech/qcat>
minimap2: <https://github.com/lh3/minimap2>
NanoStat: <https://github.com/wdecoster/nanostat>
mosdepth: <https://github.com/brentp/mosdepth>
ggplot2: <https://ggplot2.tidyverse.org/>
LocusZoom: <https://github.com/statgen/locuszoom-standalone>
pyGenomeTracks: <https://github.com/deeptools/pyGenomeTracks>
BECon website: <https://redgar598.shinyapps.io/BECon/>
VCFs of phased biallelic SNV and INDEL variants of 1KG samples (de novo called on GRCh38):
ftp://ftp.1000genomes.ebi.ac.uk/vol1/ftp/data_collections/1000_genomes_project/release/20190312_biallelic_SNV_and_INDEL/
MiGA eQTLs: <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.4118605>
MiGA sQTLs: <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.4118403>
MiGA Meta-analysis: <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.4118676>

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FinnGen

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QTLs/TWAS analyses. The results published here are in whole or in part based on data obtained from the AD Knowledge Portal (<https://adknowledgeportal.synapse.org/>). For MayoRNAseq, the study data were provided by the following sources: The Mayo Clinic Alzheimers Disease Genetic Studies, led by Dr. Nilufer Ertekin-Taner and Dr. Steven G. Younkin, Mayo Clinic, Jacksonville, FL using samples from the Mayo Clinic Study of Aging, the Mayo Clinic Alzheimers Disease Research Center, and the Mayo Clinic Brain Bank. Data collection was supported through funding by NIA grants P50 AG016574, R01 AG032990, U01 AG046139, R01 AG018023, U01 AG006576, U01 AG006786, R01 AG025711, R01 AG017216, R01 AG003949, NINDS grant R01 NS080820, CurePSP Foundation, and support from Mayo Foundation. Study data includes samples collected through the Sun Health Research Institute Brain and Body Donation Program of Sun City, Arizona. The Brain and Body Donation Program is supported by the National Institute of Neurological Disorders and Stroke (U24 NS072026 National Brain and Tissue Resource for Parkinsons Disease and Related Disorders), the National Institute on Aging (P30 AG19610 Arizona Alzheimers Disease Core Center), the Arizona Department of Health Services (contract 211002, Arizona Alzheimers Research Center), the Arizona Biomedical Research Commission (contracts 4001, 0011, 05-901 and 1001 to the Arizona Parkinson's Disease Consortium) and the Michael J. Fox Foundation for Parkinsons Research. For ROSMAP, the study data were provided by the Rush Alzheimer's Disease Center, Rush University Medical Center, Chicago. Data collection was supported through funding by NIA grants P30AG10161 (ROS), R01AG15819 (ROSMAP; genomics and RNAseq), R01AG17917 (MAP), R01AG30146, R01AG36042 (5hC methylation, ATACseq), RC2AG036547 (H3K9Ac), R01AG36836 (RNAseq), R01AG48015 (monocyte RNAseq) RF1AG57473 (single nucleus RNAseq), U01AG32984 (genomic and whole exome sequencing), U01AG46152 (ROSMAP AMP-AD, targeted proteomics), U01AG46161(TMT proteomics), U01AG61356 (whole genome

sequencing, targeted proteomics, ROSMAP AMP-AD), the Illinois Department of Public Health (ROSMAP), and the Translational Genomics Research Institute (genomic). Additional phenotypic data can be requested at www.radc.rush.edu. For MSBB, the data were generated from postmortem brain tissue collected through the Mount Sinai VA Medical Center Brain Bank and were provided by Dr. Eric Schadt from Mount Sinai School of Medicine.

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Competing Interests Statement

HH is an employee of Eisai Inc. This work has been performed during his previous position at Sorbonne University, Paris, France. At Sorbonne University HH was supported by the AXA Research Fund, the “*Fondation partenariale Sorbonne Université*” and the “*Fondation pour la Recherche sur Alzheimer*”, Paris, France.

Author contributions

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Data Availability Statement

Summary statistics will be made available upon publication.

All the data used in the gene prioritization are publically available:

AMP-AD rnaSeqReprocessing Study: <https://www.synapse.org/#!Synapse:syn9702085>

MayoRNAseq WGS VCFs: <https://www.synapse.org/#!Synapse:syn11724002>

ROSMAP WGS VCFs: <https://www.synapse.org/#!Synapse:syn11724057>

MSBB WGS VCFs: <https://www.synapse.org/#!Synapse:syn11723899>

GTEEx pipeline: <https://github.com/broadinstitute/gtex-pipeline>

eQTLGen: <https://www.eqtngen.org/>

eQTL Catalogue database: <https://www.ebi.ac.uk/eqtl/>

Brain xQTL serve: <http://mostafavilab.stat.ubc.ca/xqtl/>

GTEEx v8 eQTL and sQTL catalogues: <https://www.gtexportal.org/>

GTEEx v8 expression and splicing prediction models: <http://predictdb.org/>

MiGA eQTLs: <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.4118605>

MiGA sQTLs: <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.4118403>

MiGA Meta-analysis: <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.4118676>

Table 1: Summary of association results in Stage I + II for (a) known loci and (b) new loci with a genome-wide significant signal.

^aReference SNP (rs) number according to dbSNP build 153; ^bChromosome; ^cGRCh38 assembly; ^dNearest protein coding gene according to Gencode release 33; ^eWeighted average of minor allele frequency across discovery studies; ^fApproximate odds-ratio calculated with respect to the minor allele; ^g95% confidence interval; ^hP value.

Figure 1: Manhattan plot of the Stage I results. Variants with P value below 1×10^{-36} are not shown. Loci with a genome-wide significant signal are annotated (known loci in black and new loci in red). Variants in new loci are highlighted in red. The red dotted line represents the genome-wide significance level ($P=5 \times 10^{-8}$), while the black dotted line represents the suggestive significance level ($P=1 \times 10^{-5}$).

Figure 2: (A) Top candidate genes in the 42 new genome-wide-significant loci and (B) their level of expression in different brain cell types. In order to prioritize candidate genes in the new loci, we considered the nearest protein-coding gene from the lead variant and the genes exhibiting AD-related modulations within a region of 1 Mb around the lead variant. The average expression of each gene expressed by at least 10% of cells ($\text{pct.exp} > 0.1$) was rescaled from 0 to 2, allowing the identification of genes expressed by unique or multiple cell classes. On the left panel, the brown squares represent significant hits for the respective columns. The prioritized genes in each locus are marked with dark green colour, meanwhile light green colour is used when several candidate genes were retained in the same locus and/or the overall evidence is weaker than the evidence for the prioritized genes with the dark green squares. CADD (v1.6) PHRED scores of protein-altering lead variants are shown in the respective column. The columns demonstrating lead variant m/haQTL effects in DLPFC and lead variant eQTL effects in naive state monocyte, macrophages and microglia are annotated for the type of association (mQTL: methylation QTL, haQTL: histone acetylation QTL, mon: monocyte eQTL, mac: macrophage eQTL).

Figure 3: QTL mapping, QTL colocalization, and TWAS results on SEC61G and TSPAN14 loci. (a) An intergenic, distant, and low-frequency cis-eQTL for *EGFR* locus colocalizes (PP4: 0.98) with EADB GWAS signal where genetic downregulation of *EGFR* is significantly associated with lower ADD risk. (b) Elucidation of *TSPAN14* locus: through e/sQTLs, the protective signal is associated with decreased *TSPAN14* expression and increased cryptic splicing (within ADAM10-interacting domain) that are confirmed by long-read single-molecule sequencing on cDNA derived from hippocampus (Hipp.), frontal cortex (FC), lymphoblastoid cell lines (LCL). GWAS and e/sQTL association signals are shown as $-\log_{10}(P)$ and cumulative coverage tracks are in \log_{10} scale. The purple dots show the lead variants in the investigated loci, and LD r^2 values were calculated with respect to these lead variants using the 1000 Genomes non-Finnish European LD reference panel prepared for the TWAS analyses.

Figure 4: Association of PRS with the risk of progression to dementia starting from either (A) normal cognition or (B) mild cognitive impairment (MCI). Polygenic risk score (PRS) was based on the genetic data of 83 variants (see Methods and Supplementary Table 31).

HR: Hazard Ratio; MCI: Mild cognitive impairment; FE: fixed-effect; P het: heterogeneity P value

Figure 1

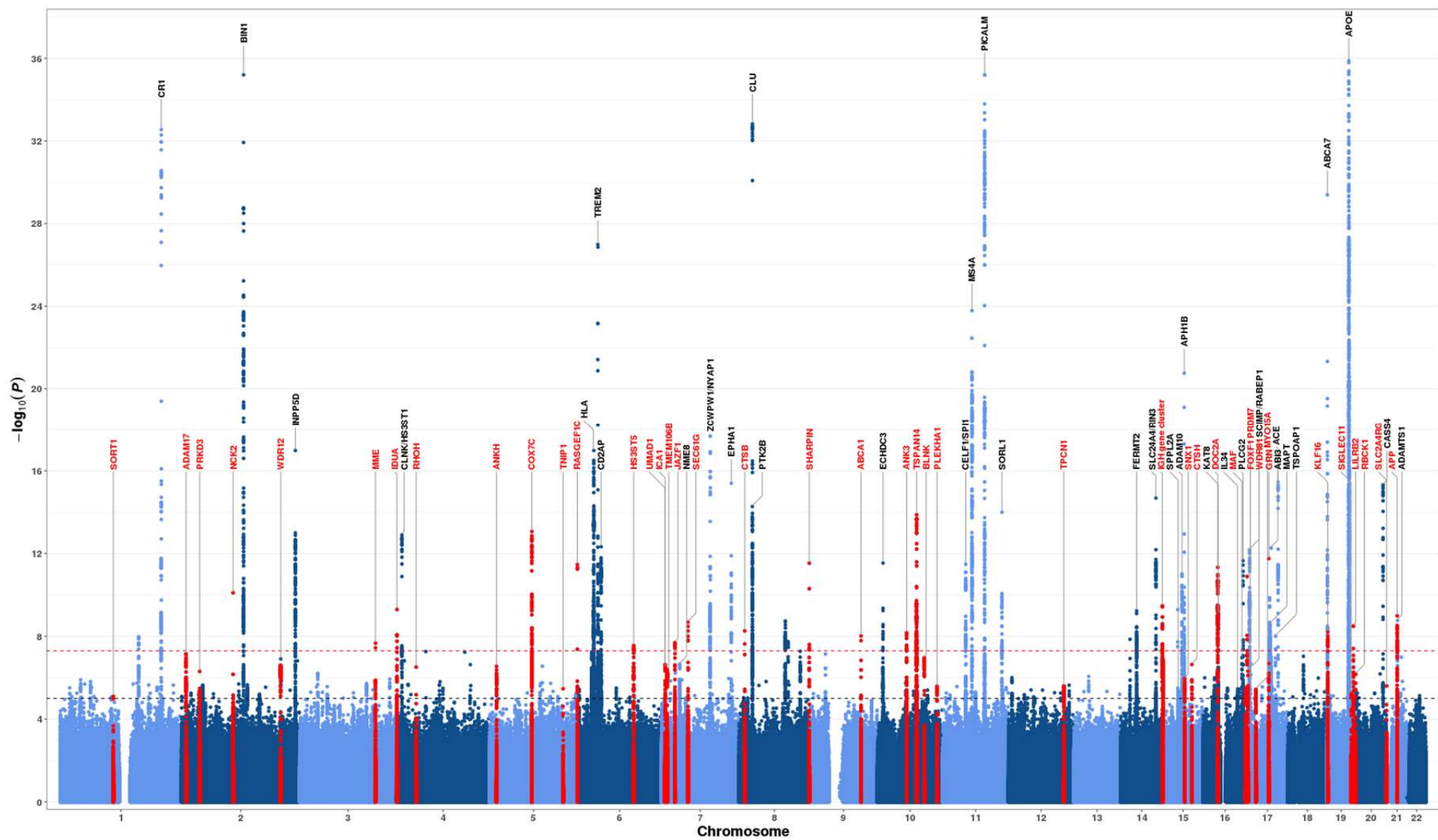


Figure 2

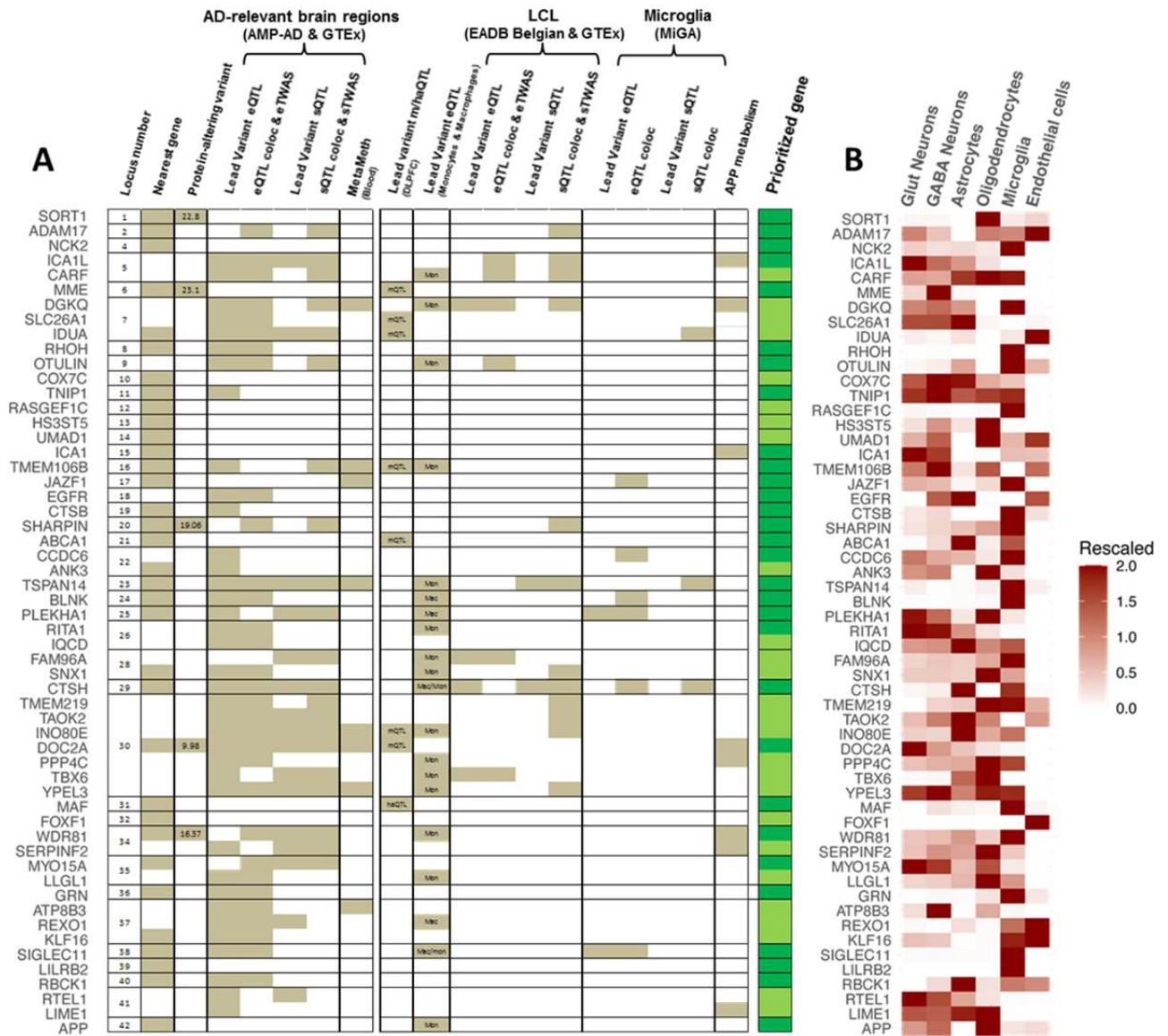


Figure 3

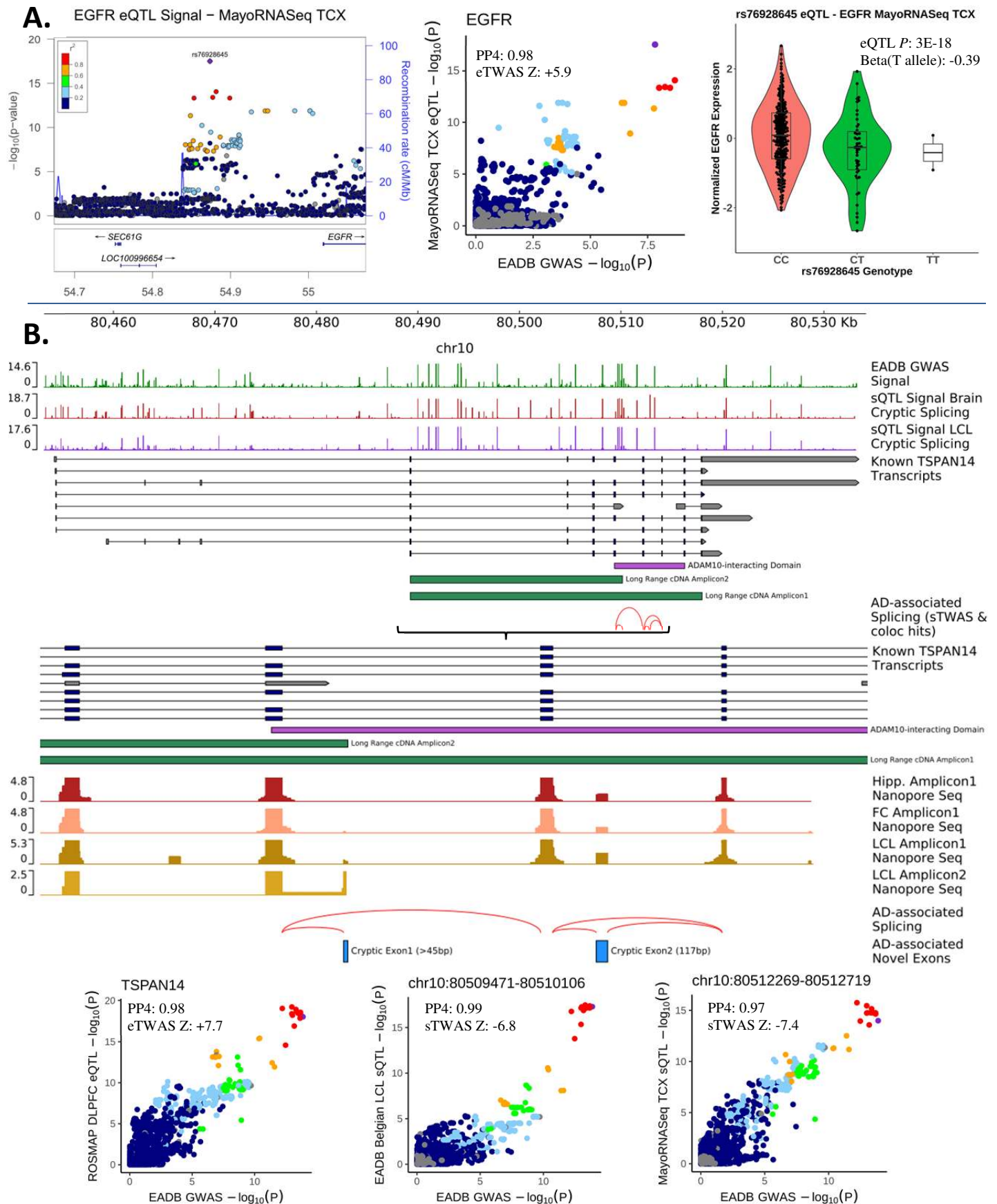
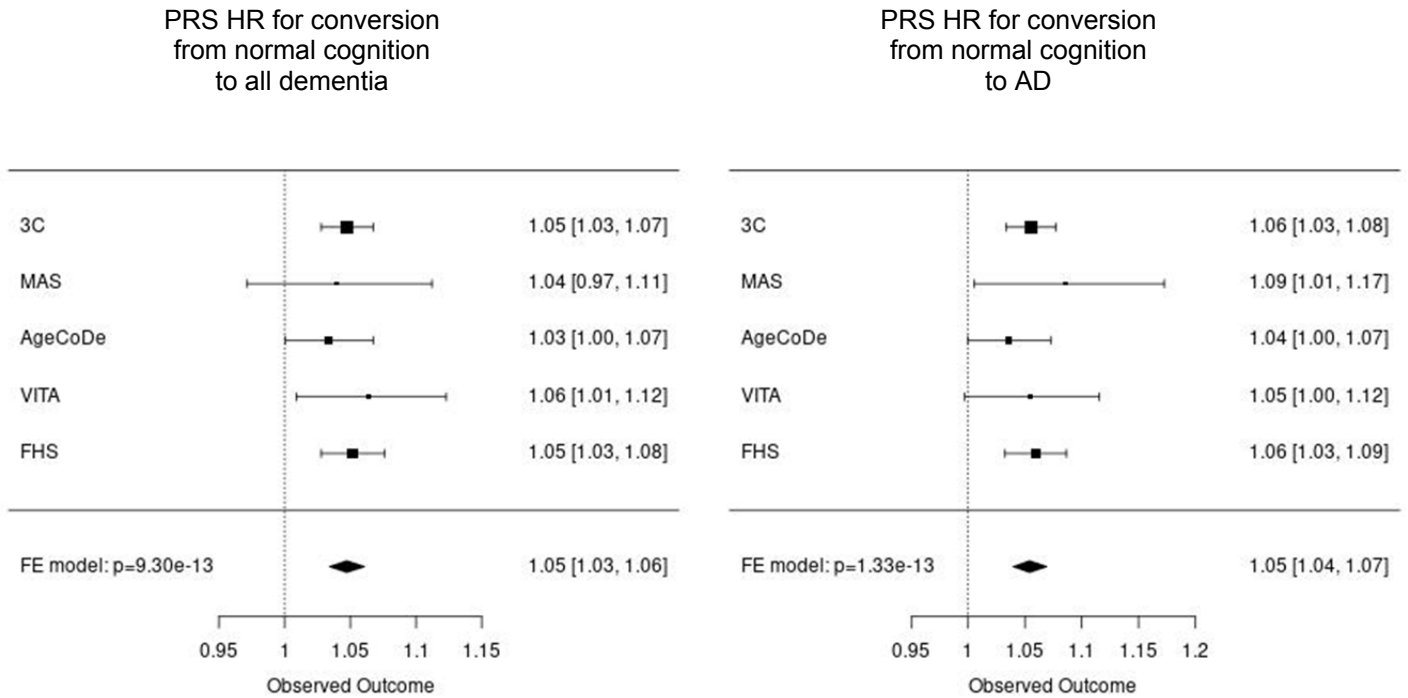


Figure 4

A



B

