



Published in final edited form as:

Alzheimers Dement. 2020 August ; 16(8): 1134–1145. doi:10.1002/alz.12106.

Genome-wide association study of rate of cognitive decline in Alzheimer's Disease patients identifies novel genes and pathways

Richard Sherva^a, Alden Gross^b, Shubhabrata Mukherjee^c, Ryan Koesterer^d, Philippe Amouyel^{e,f,g}, Celine Bellenguez^{e,f,g}, Carole Dufouil^h, David A. Bennett^{i,j}, Lori Chibnik^{k,l}, Carlos Cruchaga^{m,n,o,p}, Jorge del-Aguila^{m,n,o,p}, Lindsay A. Farrer^{a,q,r,s,t,u}, Richard Mayeux^{v,w,x}, Leanne Munsie^y, Ashley Winslow^z, Stephen Newhouse^{aa,bb,cc,dd,ee}, Andrew J. Saykin^{ff}, John S.K. Kauwe^{gg}, Alzheimer's Disease Genetics Consortium, Paul K. Crane^c, Robert C. Green^{hh,ii,jj,kk}

^aDepartment of Medicine (Biomedical Genetics), Boston University School of Medicine, 72 East Concord St., E-200, Boston, MA 02118, USA

^bJohns Hopkins Bloomberg School of Public Health, 2024 E. Monument St, Johns Hopkins Center on Aging and Health, Suite 2-700, Baltimore, MD 21205, USA

^cDepartment of Medicine, University of Washington, Box 359780, 325 Ninth Avenue, Seattle, WA 98104, USA

^dPrograms in Metabolism and Medical & Population Genetics, Broad Institute, Cambridge, MA, USA

^eUniv. Lille, Inserm, CHU Lille, Institut Pasteur de Lille, U1167 - RID-AGE - Facteurs de risque et déterminants moléculaires des maladies liées au vieillissement, F-59000 Inserm UMR-1167, Institut Pasteur de Lille, 1 rue du Professeur Calmette, BP 245 - 59019 LILLE cedex, FRANCE

^fInstitut Pasteur de Lille, Lille, France.

^gUniversity of Lille, DISTALZ Laboratory of Excellence (LabEx), Lille, France

^hInserm Unit 1219 Bordeaux Population Health, CIC 1401-EC (Clinical Epidemiology), University of Bordeaux, ISPED (Bordeaux School of Public Health), Bordeaux University Hospital, Bordeaux, France

ⁱRush Alzheimer's Disease Center, Rush University Medical Center, Chicago, Illinois, USA.

^jDepartment of Neurological Sciences, Rush University Medical Center, Chicago, Illinois, USA

^kDepartment of Epidemiology, Harvard T.H. Chan School of Public Health, Boston, Massachusetts, USA

^lStanley Center for Psychiatric Research, Broad Institute of MIT and Harvard, Cambridge, Massachusetts, USA

Corresponding Author: Richard Sherva, PhD, Boston University School of Medicine, Department of Biomedical Genetics, 72 East Concord St., E-200, Boston, MA 02118, Phone: (617)358-3628, sherva@bu.edu.

^mHope Center for Neurological Disorders, Washington University School of Medicine, St. Louis, MO, USA

ⁿDepartment of Psychiatry, Washington University School of Medicine, Campus Box 8134, 425 S. Euclid Ave, Office 9607, St. Louis, MO 63110, USA

^oKnight Alzheimer's Disease Research Center, Washington University School of Medicine, St. Louis, MO, USA

^pNeuroGenomics and Informatics. Washington University School of Medicine, Saint Louis, USA

^qBioinformatics Graduate Program, Boston University, Boston, Massachusetts.

^rDepartment of Neurology, Boston University School of Medicine, Boston, Massachusetts

^sDepartment of Biostatistics, Boston University School of Public Health, Boston, Massachusetts

^tDepartment of Ophthalmology, Boston University School of Medicine, Boston, Massachusetts

^uDepartment of Epidemiology, Boston University School of Public Health, Boston, Massachusetts

^vTaub Institute for Research on Alzheimer's Disease and the Aging Brain, Vagelos College of Physicians and Surgeons, Columbia University, New York, NY, USA.

^wThe Gertrude H. Sergievsky Center, College of Physicians and Surgeons, Columbia University, New York, NY, USA

^xDepartment of Neurology, College of Physicians and Surgeons, New York-Presbyterian Hospital, Columbia University Medical Center, New York, NY, USA

^yEli Lilly and Company, Lilly Corporate Center, Indianapolis, IN 46285, USA

^zOrphan Disease Center, Perelman School of Medicine, University of Pennsylvania, 125 South 31st Street, Pennsylvania, PA 19104, USA

^{aa}Department of Biostatistics and Health Informatics, Institute of Psychiatry, Psychology and Neuroscience, King's College London, London, UK

^{bb}NIHR BioResource Centre Maudsley, NIHR Maudsley Biomedical Research Centre (BRC) at South London and Maudsley NHS Foundation Trust (SLaM) & Institute of Psychiatry, Psychology and Neuroscience (IoPPN), King's College London, London, UK

^{cc}Health Data Research UK London, University College London, London, UK;

^{dd}Institute of Health Informatics, University College London, London, UK;

^{ee}The National Institute for Health Research University College London Hospitals Biomedical Research Centre, University College London, London, UK

^{ff}Indiana Alzheimer Disease Center and Department of Radiology and Imaging Sciences, Indiana University School of Medicine, IU Health Neuroscience Center, Suite 4100, 355 West 16th Street, Indianapolis, IN 46202, USA

^{gg}Department of Biology, Brigham Young University, 105 FPH, Provo, UT 84602, USA

^{hh}Division of Genetics, Department of Medicine, Brigham and Women's Hospital, EC Alumnae Building, Suite 301, 41 Avenue Louis Pasteur, Boston, MA 02115, USA

ⁱⁱThe Broad Institute of MIT and Harvard, Cambridge, MA, USA

^{jj}Harvard Medical School, Boston, MA, USA

^{kk}Partners HealthCare Personalized Medicine, Boston, MA, USA

Abstract

INTRODUCTION: Variability exists in the disease trajectories of Alzheimer’s disease (AD) patients. We performed a genome-wide association study to examine rate-of-cognitive-decline (ROD) in AD patients.

METHODS: We tested for interactions between genetic variants and time since diagnosis to predict the ROD of a composite cognitive score in 3,946 AD cases and performed pathway analysis on the top genes.

RESULTS: Suggestive associations ($p < 1.0 \times 10^{-6}$) were observed on chromosome 15 in DNA polymerase- γ (rs3176205, $p = 1.11 \times 10^{-7}$), chromosome 7 (rs60465337, $p = 4.06 \times 10^{-7}$) in contactin-associated protein-2, in RP11-384F7.1 on chromosome 3 (rs28853947, $p = 5.93 \times 10^{-7}$), and family with sequence similarity 214 member-A on chromosome 15 (rs2899492, $p = 5.94 \times 10^{-7}$), and intergenic regions on chromosomes 16 (rs4949142, $p = 4.02 \times 10^{-7}$), and 4 (rs1304013, $p = 7.73 \times 10^{-7}$). Significant pathways involving neuronal development and function, apoptosis, memory, and inflammation were identified.

DISCUSSION: Pathways related to AD, intelligence, and neurological function determine AD progression, while previously identified AD risk variants, including *APOE*, do not have a major impact.

1. Introduction

Alzheimer’s disease (AD) is characterized by progressive cognitive deterioration and substantial variability exists in the cognitive trajectories of affected individuals. Several studies have examined factors associated with cognitive decline in non-demented adults¹⁻⁹, conversion from mild cognitive impairment (MCI) to AD¹⁰⁻¹⁸ and rate of decline (ROD) after AD diagnosis¹⁹⁻²⁶. Several non-genetic determinants of decline, including lifestyle factors, biomarkers and biometric variables, and co-morbid diagnoses have also been reported.^{27-37,38}

Several genetic and epigenetic factors that potentially contribute to ROD in AD cases have also been identified. Expression levels of leucine rich repeat and fibronectin type III domain containing 2 (*LRFN2*)³⁹, beta-nerve growth factor (β -*NGF*) and its receptors⁴⁰, myocyte-enhancer factor 2C (*MEF2C*)⁴¹, and inositol polyphosphate-5-phosphatase (*INPP5D*)⁴² have been associated with ROD in brains of people with AD. Epigenetic protein dysregulation has also been implicated in AD progression^{43,44}. A recent study identified 519 proteins whose abundance were associated with cognitive trajectory in adults without dementia at baseline. These proteins were enriched in pathways related to neuronal mitochondrial activities synaptic abundance, inflammation, and apoptosis⁴⁵. Two studies have examined the role of AD risk genes in cognitive decline and found specific SNPs and polygenic risk scores predict ROD in older, non-demented individuals^{46,47}. A different study also found that the

AD risk variants or polygenic risk scores do not affect ROD in AD individuals²⁶. Genetic association studies identified two SNPs in astrocytic water channel aquaporin-4 (*AQP4*) that predict ROD⁴⁸, and a genome-wide association study (GWAS) identified variants in six genes that interacted with AD diagnosis (vs MCI) to predict longitudinal cognitive change⁴⁹. We previously conducted a GWAS for ROD using AD cases from the Alzheimer's Disease Neuroimaging Initiative (ADNI, N=303) and cases from the Religious Orders Study and Rush Memory and Aging Project (ROS/MAP, N=323) as replication, and identified significant associations with variants in several genes, including F-spondin (*SPON1*), whose product binds the central domain of the amyloid precursor protein (APP)⁵⁰. We present here the results from a GWAS of ROD in an expanded sample of 3,946 AD cases of European ancestry and discuss methodological challenges related to analysis of cognitive data and interaction tests (SNP genotype x time with AD) using longitudinal data.

2. Methods

2.1 Composition of the Data

Eleven cohorts with longitudinal cognitive data and genome-wide SNP data were available for study: ADNI⁵¹ (PMID: 23932184), ROS/MAP^{52,53} the Three City Study (3C)⁵⁴, AddNeuroMed (ANM)⁵⁵⁻⁵⁷, Myriad Flurizan phase III clinical trial⁵⁸, National Alzheimer's Coordinating Centers (NACC)⁵⁹, Pfizer⁶⁰, Lilly Semagacestat phase III clinical trial⁶¹, Washington University in St. Louis (WashU)²⁶, the Adult Changes in Thought study (ACT)⁶², and the Washington Heights Inwood Community Aging Project (WHICAP)⁶³. Details about the design, recruitment, and genotyping methods for each cohort are provided in supplemental materials.

2.2 Imputation and Quality Control

Following genotype chip quality control (removal of low call rate SNPs and individuals, individuals with excess heterozygosity, or ambiguous sex) each dataset was phased and imputed to the 1,000 Genomes Project (phase 1 integrated release 3, March 2012)⁶⁴ using SHAPEIT/IMPUTE2^{65,66} or MaCH/Minimac^{67,68} software. All reference population haplotypes were used for the imputation. Rare variants (MAF < 2%) and those with an r^2 < 0.70 were excluded from further analyses. In the mega-analysis, variants were excluded if they were missing or poorly imputed in > 30% of all samples. King Robust⁶⁹ was used to generate a kinship coefficient for each pair of individuals using a set of genotyped SNPs common to each cohort (N = 41,625 after LD pruning) using a merged dataset from all eleven cohorts. The member of each related or duplicate pair (kinship coefficient > 0.1) with the shortest amount of follow-up time was removed. Individuals were assigned ancestry using K-means clustering implemented in R, where K=3 based on the three reference populations (Eur, Afr, Asn) in the 1000 Genomes populations. Individuals were assigned to the cluster. The member of each related pair (kinship coefficient > 0.1) with the shortest amount of follow-up time was removed. Individuals were assigned ancestry using K-means (K=3) clustering with the 1000 Genomes populations (Eur, Afr, Asn) whose centroid was nearest across the first 10 PCs. Those samples that didn't cluster with Eur reference population were removed from downstream analysis. Subsequent PC analysis was conducted within cohort and also in the combined sample.

2.3 Composite Cognitive Score

Methods for combining cognitive tests in each cohort and harmonizing them across cohorts to produce a composite indicator of general cognitive performance (GCP) are published elsewhere⁷⁰. Each study administered at least two and as many as 21 cognitive tests (see⁶⁸). Briefly, we used item response theory (IRT) methods to derive a measure of general cognitive performance. We first identified common tests across studies (i.e., anchor tests) and tests that were not common. Anchor tests serve to anchor the cognitive metric across studies so that a unit difference in the underlying factor score has the same meaning across study⁷¹. Next, we estimated a confirmatory factor analysis, consistent with a graded-response IRT model^{72,73}, of all tests across all studies and time. This approach allows items to be weighted differently, by accommodating different factor loadings. Items also provide measurement at different locations or points along the general cognitive trait depending on how well respondents do on the tests.

2.4 Association Tests

Association tests were performed using two regression-based repeated measures methods. In one approach, linear regression models were solved with generalized estimating equations (GEE) assuming an autoregressive correlation structure with GCP as the outcome. To assess *rate* of decline rather than levels of cognitive performance, models included a term for the interaction between SNP allele dosage and time since AD diagnosis as the predictor of interest. This construct tests whether SNP genotype modifies the effect of duration of illness on cognitive performance. All models were adjusted for age, sex, ancestry principal components (computed within cohorts for cohort specific analyses and in the total sample for the mega-analyses), the main effects of SNP and time since diagnosis, and squared and cubic terms for time since AD diagnosis which account for any non-linear effects of time since diagnosis on GCP. Analyses were conducted within cohort and in the total sample through fixed effects inverse variance meta-analysis. In another approach, analyzed the total sample using linear mixed effects models including the same interaction term and covariates with random intercepts for individual and cohort. All association tests were performed using Universal Genome Analyst (Koesterer, Ryan. Universal Genome Analyst (uga). <https://github.com/rmkoesterer/uga>. DOI: 10.5281/zenodo.578712.), which parallelizes tests within the R packages GEEpack (<https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=geepack>) and LME4 (<https://github.com/lme4/lme4/>). We limited analyses to cognitive tests performed during the first two years of post-diagnosis follow-up. The top variants were further tested for association with GCP after adjusting for years of education.

2.5 Functional Annotation of Variants

We assessed regulatory potential for genic and intergenic SNPs using the online databases Genotype-Tissue Expression project (GTEx, <http://www.gtexportal.org/home/>) and BRAINEAC (www.braineac.org) to identify any eQTLs among the top SNPs. All SNPs were annotated using SNPeff which uses data from ENCODE and other sources to assign SNPs to promoter regions, CpG islands, DNAase hypersensitivity sites, and quantifies cross-species conservation and the impact of coding mutations⁷⁴.

2.6 Pathway Analysis

Genes containing variants with p-values $< 1 \times 10^{-4}$ (N=334) in at least two models tested were included in an Ingenuity pathway analysis (QIAGEN Inc., <https://www.qiagenbioinformatics.com/products/ingenuitypathway-analysis>). Only SNPs within introns, exons, and 3' and 5' UTRs (according to SNPeff annotation) were considered.

3. Results

After QC, 3,946 AD cases were available for analysis. Table 1 shows characteristics of each cohort, including the mean age at baseline, length of follow-up, and change in GCP during the study period, which we limited to the first two years of follow-up. The interaction terms between time with AD and age ($p=0.0001$), sex ($p=0.02$), and education status ($p=3.5 \times 10^{-5}$) were significantly associated with GCP.

3.1 Inflation

Significant inflation (λ) of the genome-wide interaction term test statistics was observed in several cohorts using both LME and GEE. The λ was moderately correlated with sample size. We attempted several approaches to reduce λ , including computing p-values using F and t distributions, setting the degrees of freedom equal to the sample size minus the number of variables in the model, using the Boss R package⁷⁵, including terms for time with AD squared and cubed, and limiting the follow-up time to two years post diagnosis. Ultimately, none of these steps eliminated inflation, and in three cohorts λ remained above 1.2 (ACT, ROS/MAP2, WHICAP) although inflation was reduced in models including non-linear time with AD terms and limiting to two years of follow-up. Consequently, we corrected all test statistics for the cohort-specific λ and conducted the meta-analyses with and without cohorts with $\lambda > 1.2$. Supplementary figures 1–3 show the λ -corrected quintile-quintile plots for both the GEE (meta-analysis with (supplementary figure 1) and without (supplementary figure 2) ACT, ROS/MAP2, WHICAP, and LME (mega-analysis including all cohorts, supplementary figure 3).

3.3 Association Results

Although multiple SNPs and structural variants in several independent regions were significantly associated with ROD in the GEE or LME models including all cohorts, none of these showed evidence in both GEE and LME models nor were they robust to the exclusion of the three cohorts with $\lambda > 1.2$. Using these stringent criteria, no SNPs showed genome-wide significance for associations with ROD. Table 2 shows variants (trimmed for LD) with p-values $< 1 \times 10^{-4}$ in all three models, as well as any gene(s) whose expression was predicted to be significantly altered by the SNP according to the Genotype-Tissue Expression (GTEx) database (<https://gtexportal.org/home/>)⁷⁶. Suggestive associations ($p < 1.0 \times 10^{-6}$) were observed in a large region on chromosome 15 spanning several genes including DNA polymerase- γ (*POLG*) (rs3176205, $p_{LME}=1.11 \times 10^{-7}$, figure 1), on chromosome 7 (rs60465337, $p_{GEE}=4.06 \times 10^{-7}$, figure 2) in an intron of contactin-associated protein 2 (*CNTNAP2*), in the lincRNA RP11-384F7.1 gene region on chromosome 3 (rs28853947, $p_{GEE}=5.93 \times 10^{-7}$), and family with sequence similarity 214 member A (*FAM214A*) on chromosome 15 (rs2899492, $p_{GEE}=5.94 \times 10^{-7}$); and in intergenic regions on

chromosomes 16 (rs4949142, $p_{GEE}=4.02\times 10^{-7}$), and 4 (rs1304013, $p_{GEE}=7.73\times 10^{-7}$). A variant in *SPONI* was associated with ROD at (rs200230690, $p_{GEE}=2.36\times 10^{-5}$). Fourteen of the SNPs in Table 2 are significant eQTLs, including several predicted to affect *POLG* expression.

We also examined the top SNPs in 32 known AD risk genes⁷⁷⁻⁷⁹, and also the SNPs tagging the APOE $\epsilon 2$ and $\epsilon 4$ alleles, for association with ROD. After correcting for the number of SNPs tested, only rs1476679 in zinc finger CW-type and PWWP domain containing 1 (*ZCWPWI*, $p_{LME}=3.07\times 10^{-6}$, $p_{GEE}=3.9\times 10^{-4}$), was significantly associated with ROD. Notably, the minor allele (C) is protective for AD and associated with slower ROD⁷⁷. Although the associations were observed with different variants, *CNTNAP2*⁷⁹ and phospholipase C gamma 2 (*PLCG2*)⁸⁰ have also recently been implicated as AD risk genes.

3.4 Pathway Analysis

Among the genes that met criteria for inclusion in pathway analysis (Supplementary table 1), several have direct links to AD pathology, including amyloid beta precursor protein binding family A member 1 (*APBA1*), beta-secretase 1 (*BACE1*), paired immunoglobulin like type 2 receptor alpha (*PILRA*), are in the same families as established AD risk genes such as ATP binding cassette subfamily A member 1 (*ABCA1*) and EPH receptor B1 (*EPHB1*). Three genes are related to other neurodegenerative diseases. Synuclein alpha (*SNCA*), and parkin RBR E3 ubiquitin protein ligase (*PRKN*) are associated with Parkinsons disease risk, and HECT, C2 and WW domain containing E3 ubiquitin protein ligase 1 (*HECW1*) is associated with familial amyotrophic lateral sclerosis. Supplementary table 2 shows the individual SNP results for these genes. Subsets of these genes were significantly overrepresented in 56 canonical pathways (many of which are closely related and contain a largely overlapping set of genes) at Benjamini-Hochberg⁸¹ p-value < 0.05 (Supplementary table 3). Many of these pathways are related to neuronal development and function (Gαq signaling, ephrin signaling, synaptic long term depression, axonal guidance signaling), neuronal apoptosis (G beta gamma signaling, Huntington's disease signaling, phospholipase C signaling), memory (CREB signaling in neurons, protein kinase A signaling), and inflammation and immunity (CXCR4 signaling, thrombin signaling). Similarly, a portion of these genes were significantly (FDR corrected p-value < 0.05) overrepresented in 53 physiological systems (supplementary table 4) related to nervous system function, including development of neurons ($p=7.03\times 10^{-9}$), neuritogenesis ($p=9.02\times 10^{-8}$), morphology of the nervous system ($p=9.08\times 10^{-8}$), neurite branching ($p=1.64\times 10^{-7}$), neurotransmission ($p=3.03\times 10^{-7}$), and synaptic transmission ($p=3.61\times 10^{-7}$).

4. Discussion

We report results from a GWAS for ROD in the largest cohort of AD cases with longitudinal cognitive data assembled to date. We identified several suggestive associations in genes with no previous links to AD risk, as well as one study-wide significant association with *ZCWPWI* in tests focused on previously established AD risk genes, and identified novel variants in *CNTNAP2* and *PLCG2*. These newly implicated genes have roles in a diverse set of physiological pathways that have functions related to known AD processes and more

generalized neural biology and development. Several of these pathways showed statistically significant enrichment of the top-ranked genes in the GWAS.

POLG is involved in proofreading during mitochondrial DNA (mtDNA) replication⁸². Mutations in the gene have been associated with multiple mitochondrial disorders including Alpers type mtDNA depletion syndrome⁸³ and progressive external ophthalmoplegia⁸⁴. Several animal studies have induced accelerated aging phenotypes by altering the function of *POLG*^{85,86}, and the effects appear to be driven by increased neuronal apoptosis⁸⁵. Given the well-established role of mitochondrial dysfunction in AD (reviewed in⁸⁷⁻⁸⁹) and the links between variants in this gene and aging phenotypes, this gene is a biologically compelling candidate for a ROD mediator. The top variant in the gene is a significant eQTL for *POLG*, suggesting its effects on ROD might be through increased expression.

CNTNAP2 encodes a neuronal member of the neurexin superfamily and is involved in neural-glia interactions and clustering of potassium channels in axons. It is expressed at high levels in the prefrontal and anterior temporal cortex, the dorsal thalamus, caudate, putamen, and amygdala, with enriched expression in circuits involved in higher cortical functions including language⁹⁰. Variants have been associated with neurodevelopmental disorders including autism⁹¹⁻⁹³, ADHD⁹⁴, intellectual disabilities⁹⁵ through multiple protein function and regulatory mechanisms. It is downregulated in the hippocampus of AD patients, possibly through increased expression of the transcription factor Storkhead box 1A (*STOX1A*)⁹⁶. The variant we identified is intronic with no known regulatory effects.

There is evidence that several of the top-ranked genes have roles in the immune system and neuroinflammation, including (cytokine dependent hematopoietic cell linker) (*CLNK*)⁹⁷, CD8b molecule (*CD8B*)⁹⁸, and *PLCG2*⁹⁹. Hect, c2, and ww domains-containing e3 ubiquitin-protein ligase 1 (*HECWI*) binds to mutated superoxide dismutase 1 (SOD1) to produce Lewy body-like hyaline inclusions in ventral horn motor neurons in familial amyotrophic lateral sclerosis patients¹⁰⁰.

The pathway analysis results highlight additional mechanisms affecting ROD, broadly implicating neuronal development, apoptosis, and synapse formation. The vast majority of the significant canonical pathways are linked by the involvement of genes encoding G protein coupled receptor (GPCR) subunits. GPCRs regulate many neurotransmitters in the brain and also directly influence the amyloid cascade by modulating α -, β -, and γ -secretase, proteolysis of the amyloid precursor protein (APP), and regulation of amyloid- β degradation¹⁰¹. The top pathway, G α q signaling, is involved in axon growth and has been a drug target for multiple disorders, including a negative phase 2 clinical trial for AD¹⁰². The second ranked pathway, G beta gamma signaling, has also been studied in the context of AD and affects apoptosis¹⁰³. The significant diseases and biological functions largely involve a different set of genes than those overrepresented in the canonical pathways and suggest roles for neural development and neurotransmission in ROD. *CNTNAP2*, *APBA1*, and *BACE1* are all involved in the top functions, although it is unclear from these data whether these findings represent pre or post disease alterations.

Our findings also highlight genetic links between intelligence and AD-related pathways. A recent study identified 187 independent loci associated with intelligence from a meta-analysis of 248,482 non-demented subjects¹⁰⁴. Of these loci, ten (*APBA1* $p_{\min}=1.63\times 10^{-6}$, *BANK1* $p_{\min}=4.30\times 10^{-5}$, *KCNH5* $p_{\min}=5.42\times 10^{-5}$, *NEGR1* $p_{\min}=3.09\times 10^{-7}$, *PDEAD* $p_{\min}=1.01\times 10^{-6}$, *PTPRN2* $p_{\min}=1.59\times 10^{-5}$, *RBFOX1* $p_{\min}=2.23\times 10^{-5}$, *SGCZ* $p_{\min}=3.91\times 10^{-6}$, *SLC17A3* $p_{\min}=4.27\times 10^{-5}$, and *ZCCHC4* $p_{\min}=2.34\times 10^{-5}$ were among our top-ranked genes for ROD measured in individuals after onset of AD symptoms. Each of these associations remained or increased in significance after adjusting for years of education, suggesting that the effects of these genes are not limited to general, pre-disease cognitive ability and may actively alter disease pathology. Of these genes, only *APBA1* is known to be involved in AD pathology^{105,106}. None of the top SNPs in these ten genes that were associated with ROD were tagged by the lead SNP associated with intelligence in¹⁰⁴, making it impossible to determine whether the effect directions matched, but also suggesting the possibility that different causal variants within those genes may affect ROD and general intelligence. These results, combined with the significant ROD pathways we identified and the observation that ROD is associated with rs1476679 in *ZCWPWI* only among known AD risk variants (although different variants in *CNTNAP2* and *PLCG2* were associated with ROD), suggest that post-diagnosis cognitive functioning may be determined more by genetic variation influencing general neural function and connectivity than by genes involved in the cascade of events leading to AD-related pathology.

In aggregate, these results suggest that like AD itself, cognitive decline is highly polygenic and controlled by a diverse set of pathways. The individual variant results suggest roles for mitochondrial dysfunction, neuron function, and immunity, while the pathway results implicate, GPRC-mediated amyloid- β and/or neurotransmitter processing neuronal development, pruning, and survival.

4.1 Strengths and Limitations

Several limitations to this work should be noted. The data are comprised of multiple, relatively small cohorts with different ascertainment schemes. This, combined with the inherently heterogeneous nature of AD presentation, symptom profile, and pathology, suggests that participants in this study may be at different stages of the disease and/or may represent multiple biologically distinct AD subtypes. The different sets of cognitive tests performed across cohorts may have limited our ability to detect true genetic associations with ROD, although our previous work demonstrated that the metric of the GCP composite factor is consistent across studies⁷⁰. Finally, the longitudinal interaction tests we used were associated with inflation in the test statistics for both LME and GEE models and, consequently, our results may be less robust after a heavy correction for genomic control. However, we minimized this concern by excluding datasets showing high levels of inflation.

Despite these issues, several indicators suggest our findings are robust. First, the significance of the top results are commensurate with the sample size, and the effect sizes and directions are generally consistent across cohorts, with no single sample exerting an excessive effect on the overall association. The variants reported are also associated with ROD using two distinct regression-based approaches to modeling correlated data, and are robust even when

the cohorts showing the greatest inflation are excluded. The top-ranked findings were observed generally with relatively common variants that were well imputed ($r^2 = 0.8$). In addition, evidence suggesting we identified genes in AD-relevant pathways, significant pathways related to neuronal function, and genes that are also significantly associated with cognitive performance more broadly suggest our analysis uncovered true determinants of ROD. Future directions include further expanding the sample and repeating the analyses using pre-diagnosis cognitive scores. Finally, our phenotype is a measure of global cognitive function and it is possible that additional genes contribute to specific domains of cognition (i.e. memory or executive function).

Supplementary Material

Refer to Web version on PubMed Central for supplementary material.

Acknowledgements

The study was supported by NIH grants P30AG10161, R01AG15819, R01AG17917, K25AG055620 P30AG10161, R01AG15819, R01AG17917, R01AG042437, R01AG044546, P01AG003991, RF1AG053303, R01AG058501, U01AG058922, U01AG052411, R01AG05777, P50 AG05681, P01 AG03991, R01 AG067501 and P01 AG026276, Alzheimer's Association grants NIRG-11-200110, BAND-14-338165, AARG-16-441560 and BFG-15-362540, and Young Investigator Award (Sherva/Green)

The Three City (3C) Study is conducted under a partnership agreement among the Institut National de la Santé et de la Recherche Médicale (INSERM), the University of Bordeaux, and Sanofi-Aventis. The Fondation pour la Recherche Médicale funded the preparation and initiation of the study. The 3C Study is also supported by the Caisse Nationale Maladie des Travailleurs Salariés, Direction Générale de la Santé, Mutuelle Générale de l'Éducation Nationale (MGEN), Institut de la Longévité, Conseils Régionaux of Aquitaine and Bourgogne, Fondation de France, and Ministry of Research-INSERM Programme 'Cohortes et collections de données biologiques.' Lille Génopole received an unconditional grant from Eisai. The Three-city biological bank was developed and maintained by the laboratory for genomic analysis LAG-BRC - Institut Pasteur de Lille.

References

1. Kaffashian S et al. Predicting cognitive decline: a dementia risk score vs. the Framingham vascular risk scores. *Neurology* 80, 1300–6 (2013). [PubMed: 23547265]
2. Prince M, Lewis G, Bird A, Blizard R & Mann A A longitudinal study of factors predicting change in cognitive test scores over time, in an older hypertensive population. *Psychol Med* 26, 555–68 (1996). [PubMed: 8733214]
3. Formiga F et al. Factors predicting 2-year cognitive decline in nonagenarians without cognitive impairment at baseline: the NonaSantfeliu study. *J Am Geriatr Soc* 55, 1152–4 (2007). [PubMed: 17608903]
4. De Jager C, Blackwell AD, Budge MM & Sahakian BJ Predicting cognitive decline in healthy older adults. *Am J Geriatr Psychiatry* 13, 735–40 (2005). [PubMed: 16085791]
5. Chodosh J, Reuben DB, Albert MS & Seeman TE Predicting cognitive impairment in high-functioning community-dwelling older persons: MacArthur Studies of Successful Aging. *J Am Geriatr Soc* 50, 1051–60 (2002). [PubMed: 12110065]
6. Crowe M et al. Life-space and cognitive decline in a community-based sample of African American and Caucasian older adults. *J Gerontol A Biol Sci Med Sci* 63, 1241–5 (2008). [PubMed: 19038840]
7. Woodard JL et al. Prediction of cognitive decline in healthy older adults using fMRI. *J Alzheimers Dis* 21, 871–85 (2010). [PubMed: 20634590]
8. Llado-Saz S, Atienza M & Cantero JL Increased levels of plasma amyloid-beta are related to cortical thinning and cognitive decline in cognitively normal elderly subjects. *Neurobiol Aging* 36, 2791–7 (2015). [PubMed: 26182906]

9. Pankratz VS et al. Predicting the risk of mild cognitive impairment in the Mayo Clinic Study of Aging. *Neurology* 84, 1433–42 (2015). [PubMed: 25788555]
10. Adak S et al. Predicting the rate of cognitive decline in aging and early Alzheimer disease. *Neurology* 63, 108–14 (2004). [PubMed: 15249619]
11. Landau SM et al. Comparing predictors of conversion and decline in mild cognitive impairment. *Neurology* 75, 230–8 (2010). [PubMed: 20592257]
12. Devanand DP et al. MRI hippocampal and entorhinal cortex mapping in predicting conversion to Alzheimer's disease. *Neuroimage* 60, 1622–9 (2012). [PubMed: 22289801]
13. Rodriguez-Rodriguez E et al. Genetic risk score predicting accelerated progression from mild cognitive impairment to Alzheimer's disease. *J Neural Transm (Vienna)* 120, 807–12 (2013). [PubMed: 23180304]
14. Heister D et al. Predicting MCI outcome with clinically available MRI and CSF biomarkers. *Neurology* 77, 1619–28 (2011). [PubMed: 21998317]
15. Yang H et al. Prognostic polypeptide blood plasma biomarkers of Alzheimer's disease progression. *J Alzheimers Dis* 40, 659–66 (2014). [PubMed: 24503613]
16. Moradi E et al. Machine learning framework for early MRI-based Alzheimer's conversion prediction in MCI subjects. *Neuroimage* 104, 398–412 (2015). [PubMed: 25312773]
17. Tosto G, Zimmerman ME, Carmichael OT, Brickman AM & Alzheimer's Disease Neuroimaging I. Predicting aggressive decline in mild cognitive impairment: the importance of white matter hyperintensities. *JAMA Neurol* 71, 872–7 (2014). [PubMed: 24821476]
18. Ellendt S et al. Predicting Stability of Mild Cognitive Impairment (MCI): Findings of a Community Based Sample. *Curr Alzheimer Res* 14, 608–619 (2017). [PubMed: 27978792]
19. Treiber KA et al. Cognitive stimulation and cognitive and functional decline in Alzheimer's disease: the cache county dementia progression study. *J Gerontol B Psychol Sci Soc Sci* 66, 416–25 (2011). [PubMed: 21441386]
20. Small BJ, Viitanen M, Winblad B & Backman L Cognitive changes in very old persons with dementia: the influence of demographic, psychometric, and biological variables. *J Clin Exp Neuropsychol* 19, 245–60 (1997). [PubMed: 9240484]
21. Capitani E, Cazzaniga R, Francescani A & Spinnler H Cognitive deterioration in Alzheimer's disease: is the early course predictive of the later stages? *Neurol Sci* 25, 198–204 (2004). [PubMed: 15549505]
22. Nagahama Y et al. Cerebral correlates of the progression rate of the cognitive decline in probable Alzheimer's disease. *Eur Neurol* 50, 1–9 (2003). [PubMed: 12824705]
23. Lopez OL et al. Predicting cognitive decline in Alzheimer's disease: an integrated analysis. *Alzheimers Dement* 6, 431–9 (2010). [PubMed: 21044773]
24. Mielke MM et al. Interaction between vascular factors and the APOE epsilon4 allele in predicting rate of progression in Alzheimer's disease. *J Alzheimers Dis* 26, 127–34 (2011). [PubMed: 21593560]
25. Canevelli M et al. Predicting the Rate of Cognitive Decline in Alzheimer Disease: Data From the ICTUS Study. *Alzheimer Dis Assoc Disord* 30, 237–42 (2016). [PubMed: 27556936]
26. Del-Aguila JL et al. Assessment of the Genetic Architecture of Alzheimer's Disease Risk in Rate of Memory Decline. *J Alzheimers Dis* 62, 745–756 (2018). [PubMed: 29480181]
27. Bleckwenn M et al. Impact of coronary heart disease on cognitive decline in Alzheimer's disease: a prospective longitudinal cohort study in primary care. *Br J Gen Pract* 67, e111–e117 (2017). [PubMed: 27993897]
28. Benedictus MR et al. Lower cerebral blood flow is associated with faster cognitive decline in Alzheimer's disease. *Eur Radiol* 27, 1169–1175 (2017). [PubMed: 27334014]
29. Eldholm RS et al. Progression of Alzheimer's Disease: A Longitudinal Study in Norwegian Memory Clinics. *J Alzheimers Dis* 61, 1221–1232 (2018). [PubMed: 29254085]
30. Farina N, Jernerer F, Turner C, Hart K & Tabet N Homocysteine concentrations in the cognitive progression of Alzheimer's disease. *Exp Gerontol* 99, 146–150 (2017). [PubMed: 29024723]

31. Reyes-Coronel C et al. Predicting rapid cognitive decline in Alzheimer's disease patients using quantitative EEG markers and neuropsychological test scores. *Conf Proc IEEE Eng Med Biol Soc* 2016, 6078–6081 (2016).
32. Ferrari C et al. Alzheimer's Disease Progression: Factors Influencing Cognitive Decline. *J Alzheimers Dis* 61, 785–791 (2018). [PubMed: 29226870]
33. De Vos A et al. The Cerebrospinal Fluid Neurogranin/BACE1 Ratio is a Potential Correlate of Cognitive Decline in Alzheimer's Disease. *J Alzheimers Dis* 53, 1523–38 (2016). [PubMed: 27392859]
34. Sanders C et al. Nutritional Status is Associated with Faster Cognitive Decline and Worse Functional Impairment in the Progression of Dementia: The Cache County Dementia Progression Study1. *J Alzheimers Dis* 52, 33–42 (2016). [PubMed: 26967207]
35. Drummond E et al. Proteomic differences in amyloid plaques in rapidly progressive and sporadic Alzheimer's disease. *Acta Neuropathol* 133, 933–954 (2017). [PubMed: 28258398]
36. Farina N, Rusted J & Tabet N The effect of exercise interventions on cognitive outcome in Alzheimer's disease: a systematic review. *Int Psychogeriatr* 26, 9–18 (2014). [PubMed: 23962667]
37. Woods B, Aguirre E, Spector AE & Orrell M Cognitive stimulation to improve cognitive functioning in people with dementia. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev*, CD005562 (2012).
38. McDermott KL, McFall GP, Andrews SJ, Anstey KJ & Dixon RA Memory Resilience to Alzheimer's Genetic Risk: Sex Effects in Predictor Profiles. *J Gerontol B Psychol Sci Soc Sci* 72, 937–946 (2017). [PubMed: 28025282]
39. Berezcki E et al. Synaptic markers of cognitive decline in neurodegenerative diseases: a proteomic approach. *Brain* 141, 582–595 (2018). [PubMed: 29324989]
40. Crispoltoni L et al. Changes in Plasma beta-NGF and Its Receptors Expression on Peripheral Blood Monocytes During Alzheimer's Disease Progression. *J Alzheimers Dis* 55, 1005–1017 (2017). [PubMed: 27802234]
41. Sao T et al. MEF2C mRNA expression and cognitive function in Japanese patients with Alzheimer's disease. *Psychiatry Clin Neurosci* 72, 160–167 (2018). [PubMed: 29112298]
42. Yoshino Y et al. INPP5D mRNA Expression and Cognitive Decline in Japanese Alzheimer's Disease Subjects. *J Alzheimers Dis* 58, 687–694 (2017). [PubMed: 28482637]
43. Mahady L et al. Frontal Cortex Epigenetic Dysregulation During the Progression of Alzheimer's Disease. *J Alzheimers Dis* 62, 115–131 (2018). [PubMed: 29439356]
44. Yu L et al. Association Between Brain Gene Expression, DNA Methylation, and Alteration of Ex Vivo Magnetic Resonance Imaging Transverse Relaxation in Late-Life Cognitive Decline. *JAMA Neurol* 74, 1473–1480 (2017). [PubMed: 29084334]
45. Wingo AP et al. Large-scale proteomic analysis of human brain identifies proteins associated with cognitive trajectory in advanced age. *Nat Commun* 10, 1619 (2019). [PubMed: 30962425]
46. Andrews SJ, Das D, Anstey KJ & Eastel S Late Onset Alzheimer's Disease Risk Variants in Cognitive Decline: The PATH Through Life Study. *J Alzheimers Dis* 57, 423–436 (2017). [PubMed: 28269768]
47. Andrews SJ, Das D, Cherbuin N, Anstey KJ & Eastel S Association of genetic risk factors with cognitive decline: the PATH through life project. *Neurobiol Aging* 41, 150–158 (2016). [PubMed: 27103528]
48. Burfeind KG et al. The effects of noncoding aquaporin-4 single-nucleotide polymorphisms on cognition and functional progression of Alzheimer's disease. *Alzheimers Dement (N Y)* 3, 348–359 (2017). [PubMed: 29067342]
49. Lee E et al. Single-nucleotide polymorphisms are associated with cognitive decline at Alzheimer's disease conversion within mild cognitive impairment patients. *Alzheimers Dement (Amst)* 8, 86–95 (2017). [PubMed: 28560309]
50. Sherva R et al. Genome-wide association study of the rate of cognitive decline in Alzheimer's disease. *Alzheimers Dement* 10, 45–52 (2014). [PubMed: 23535033]
51. Weiner MW et al. The Alzheimer's Disease Neuroimaging Initiative: a review of papers published since its inception. *Alzheimers Dement* 9, e111–94 (2013). [PubMed: 23932184]
52. Bennett DA et al. Overview and findings from the rush Memory and Aging Project. *Curr Alzheimer Res* 9, 646–63 (2012). [PubMed: 22471867]

53. Bennett DA, Schneider JA, Arvanitakis Z & Wilson RS Overview and findings from the religious orders study. *Curr Alzheimer Res* 9, 628–45 (2012). [PubMed: 22471860]
54. Group CS Vascular factors and risk of dementia: design of the Three-City Study and baseline characteristics of the study population. *Neuroepidemiology* 22, 316–25 (2003). [PubMed: 14598854]
55. Lovestone S et al. AddNeuroMed--the European collaboration for the discovery of novel biomarkers for Alzheimer's disease. *Ann N Y Acad Sci* 1180, 36–46 (2009). [PubMed: 19906259]
56. Lourdasamy A et al. Identification of cis-regulatory variation influencing protein abundance levels in human plasma. *Hum Mol Genet* 21, 3719–26 (2012). [PubMed: 22595970]
57. Voyle N et al. A Pathway Based Classification Method for Analyzing Gene Expression for Alzheimer's Disease Diagnosis. *J Alzheimers Dis* 49, 659–69 (2016). [PubMed: 26484910]
58. Green RC et al. Effect of tarenflurbil on cognitive decline and activities of daily living in patients with mild Alzheimer disease: a randomized controlled trial. *JAMA* 302, 2557–64 (2009). [PubMed: 20009055]
59. Morris JC et al. The Uniform Data Set (UDS): clinical and cognitive variables and descriptive data from Alzheimer Disease Centers. *Alzheimer Dis Assoc Disord* 20, 210–6 (2006). [PubMed: 17132964]
60. Jones RW et al. The Atorvastatin/Donepezil in Alzheimer's Disease Study (LEADe): design and baseline characteristics. *Alzheimers Dement* 4, 145–53 (2008). [PubMed: 18631958]
61. Doody RS et al. A phase 3 trial of semagacestat for treatment of Alzheimer's disease. *N Engl J Med* 369, 341–50 (2013). [PubMed: 23883379]
62. Kukull WA et al. Dementia and Alzheimer disease incidence: a prospective cohort study. *Arch Neurol* 59, 1737–46 (2002). [PubMed: 12433261]
63. Albert SM et al. Hospitalization and Alzheimer's disease: results from a community-based study. *J Gerontol A Biol Sci Med Sci* 54, M267–71 (1999). [PubMed: 10362011]
64. Genomes Project C et al. An integrated map of genetic variation from 1,092 human genomes. *Nature* 491, 56–65 (2012). [PubMed: 23128226]
65. Howie BN, Donnelly P & Marchini J A flexible and accurate genotype imputation method for the next generation of genome-wide association studies. *PLoS Genet* 5, e1000529 (2009). [PubMed: 19543373]
66. Delaneau O, Marchini J & Zagury JF A linear complexity phasing method for thousands of genomes. *Nat Methods* 9, 179–81 (2011). [PubMed: 22138821]
67. Li Y, Willer CJ, Ding J, Scheet P & Abecasis GR MaCH: using sequence and genotype data to estimate haplotypes and unobserved genotypes. *Genet Epidemiol* 34, 816–34 (2010). [PubMed: 21058334]
68. Howie B, Fuchsberger C, Stephens M, Marchini J & Abecasis GR Fast and accurate genotype imputation in genome-wide association studies through pre-phasing. *Nat Genet* 44, 955–9 (2012). [PubMed: 22820512]
69. Manichaikul A et al. Robust relationship inference in genome-wide association studies. *Bioinformatics* 26, 2867–73 (2010). [PubMed: 20926424]
70. Gross AL et al. Calibrating longitudinal cognition in Alzheimer's disease across diverse test batteries and datasets. *Neuroepidemiology* 43, 194–205 (2014). [PubMed: 25402421]
71. Dorans NJ Principles and Practices of Test Score Equating. (ed. Moses TP) (ETS, Princeton, NJ, 2010).
72. Samejima F Estimation of Latent Ability Using a Response Pattern of Graded Scores. *Psychometrika* 34, 1–& (1969).
73. Takane Y & DeLeeuw J On the Relationship between Item Response Theory and Factor-Analysis of Discretized Variables. *Psychometrika* 52, 393–408 (1987).
74. Cingolani P et al. A program for annotating and predicting the effects of single nucleotide polymorphisms, SnpEff: SNPs in the genome of *Drosophila melanogaster* strain w1118; iso-2; iso-3. *Fly (Austin)* 6, 80–92 (2012). [PubMed: 22728672]
75. Voorman A, Rice K & Lumley T Fast computation for genome-wide association studies using boosted one-step statistics. *Bioinformatics* 28, 1818–22 (2012). [PubMed: 22592383]

76. Consortium GT The Genotype-Tissue Expression (GTEx) project. *Nat Genet* 45, 580–5 (2013). [PubMed: 23715323]
77. Lambert JC et al. Meta-analysis of 74,046 individuals identifies 11 new susceptibility loci for Alzheimer's disease. *Nat Genet* 45, 1452–8 (2013). [PubMed: 24162737]
78. Kunkle BW et al. Genetic meta-analysis of diagnosed Alzheimer's disease identifies new risk loci and implicates Abeta, tau, immunity and lipid processing. *Nat Genet* 51, 414–430 (2019). [PubMed: 30820047]
79. Jansen IE et al. Genome-wide meta-analysis identifies new loci and functional pathways influencing Alzheimer's disease risk. *Nat Genet* 51, 404–413 (2019). [PubMed: 30617256]
80. Sims R et al. Rare coding variants in *PLCG2*, *ABI3*, and *TREM2* implicate microglial-mediated innate immunity in Alzheimer's disease. *Nat Genet* 49, 1373–1384 (2017). [PubMed: 28714976]
81. Benjamini Y & Hochberg Y Controlling the False Discovery Rate - a Practical and Powerful Approach to Multiple Testing. *Journal of the Royal Statistical Society Series B-Statistical Methodology* 57, 289–300 (1995).
82. Bogenhagen DF, Rousseau D & Burke S The layered structure of human mitochondrial DNA nucleoids. *J Biol Chem* 283, 3665–75 (2008). [PubMed: 18063578]
83. Naviaux RK & Nguyen KV *POLG* mutations associated with Alpers syndrome and mitochondrial DNA depletion. *Ann Neurol* 58, 491 (2005). [PubMed: 16130100]
84. Van Goethem G, Dermaut B, Lofgren A, Martin JJ & Van Broeckhoven C Mutation of *POLG* is associated with progressive external ophthalmoplegia characterized by mtDNA deletions. *Nat Genet* 28, 211–2 (2001). [PubMed: 11431686]
85. Trifunovic A et al. Premature ageing in mice expressing defective mitochondrial DNA polymerase. *Nature* 429, 417–23 (2004). [PubMed: 15164064]
86. Kujoth GC et al. Mitochondrial DNA mutations, oxidative stress, and apoptosis in mammalian aging. *Science* 309, 481–4 (2005). [PubMed: 16020738]
87. Macdonald R, Barnes K, Hastings C & Mortiboys H Mitochondrial abnormalities in Parkinson's disease and Alzheimer's disease: can mitochondria be targeted therapeutically? *Biochem Soc Trans* 46, 891–909 (2018). [PubMed: 30026371]
88. Van Giau V, An SSA & Hulme JP Mitochondrial therapeutic interventions in Alzheimer's disease. *J Neurol Sci* 395, 62–70 (2018). [PubMed: 30292965]
89. Onyango IG, Khan SM & Bennett JP Jr. Mitochondria in the pathophysiology of Alzheimer's and Parkinson's diseases. *Front Biosci (Landmark Ed)* 22, 854–872 (2017). [PubMed: 27814651]
90. Abrahams BS et al. Genome-wide analyses of human perisylvian cerebral cortical patterning. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 104, 17849–54 (2007). [PubMed: 17978184]
91. Alarcon M et al. Linkage, association, and gene-expression analyses identify *CNTNAP2* as an autism-susceptibility gene. *Am J Hum Genet* 82, 150–9 (2008). [PubMed: 18179893]
92. Arking DE et al. A common genetic variant in the neurexin superfamily member *CNTNAP2* increases familial risk of autism. *Am J Hum Genet* 82, 160–4 (2008). [PubMed: 18179894]
93. Bakkaloglu B et al. Molecular cytogenetic analysis and resequencing of contactin associated protein-like 2 in autism spectrum disorders. *Am J Hum Genet* 82, 165–73 (2008). [PubMed: 18179895]
94. Elia J et al. Rare structural variants found in attention-deficit hyperactivity disorder are preferentially associated with neurodevelopmental genes. *Mol Psychiatry* 15, 637–46 (2010). [PubMed: 19546859]
95. Mikhail FM et al. Clinically relevant single gene or intragenic deletions encompassing critical neurodevelopmental genes in patients with developmental delay, mental retardation, and/or autism spectrum disorders. *Am J Med Genet A* 155A, 2386–96 (2011). [PubMed: 22031302]
96. van Abel D et al. Direct downregulation of *CNTNAP2* by *STOX1A* is associated with Alzheimer's disease. *J Alzheimers Dis* 31, 793–800 (2012). [PubMed: 22728895]
97. Cao MY, Davidson D, Yu J, Latour S & Veillette A *Clnk*, a novel SLP-76-related adaptor molecule expressed in cytokine-stimulated hemopoietic cells. *J Exp Med* 190, 1527–34 (1999). [PubMed: 10562326]

98. Johnson P A human homolog of the mouse CD8 molecule, Lyt-3: genomic sequence and expression. *Immunogenetics* 26, 174–7 (1987). [PubMed: 3114136]
99. Kang JS et al. Cloning and functional analysis of the hematopoietic cell-specific phospholipase C(γ)2 promoter. *FEBS Lett* 399, 14–20 (1996). [PubMed: 8980110]
100. Miyazaki K et al. NEDL1, a novel ubiquitin-protein isopeptide ligase for dishevelled-1, targets mutant superoxide dismutase-1. *J Biol Chem* 279, 11327–35 (2004). [PubMed: 14684739]
101. Thathiah A & De Strooper B The role of G protein-coupled receptors in the pathology of Alzheimer's disease. *Nat Rev Neurosci* 12, 73–87 (2011). [PubMed: 21248787]
102. Lenz RA et al. Adaptive, dose-finding phase 2 trial evaluating the safety and efficacy of ABT-089 in mild to moderate Alzheimer disease. *Alzheimer Dis Assoc Disord* 29, 192–9 (2015). [PubMed: 25973909]
103. Giambarella U et al. G protein betagamma complex-mediated apoptosis by familial Alzheimer's disease mutant of APP. *EMBO J* 16, 4897–907 (1997). [PubMed: 9305632]
104. Hill WD et al. A combined analysis of genetically correlated traits identifies 187 loci and a role for neurogenesis and myelination in intelligence. *Mol Psychiatry* 24, 169–181 (2019). [PubMed: 29326435]
105. Saluja I, Paulson H, Gupta A & Turner RS X11alpha haploinsufficiency enhances Abeta amyloid deposition in Alzheimer's disease transgenic mice. *Neurobiol Dis* 36, 162–8 (2009). [PubMed: 19631749]
106. Xie Z, Romano DM & Tanzi RE RNA interference-mediated silencing of X11alpha and X11beta attenuates amyloid beta-protein levels via differential effects on beta-amyloid precursor protein processing. *J Biol Chem* 280, 15413–21 (2005). [PubMed: 15699037]

Research in context

Systematic review:

The authors reviewed the literature using PubMed sources. While the genetics of cognitive decline has not been widely studied (except by our group), non-genetic factors influencing AD progression have been identified. The relevant citations are appropriately cited.

Interpretation:

Our findings point to novel variants and pathways affecting cognitive decline, and show a limited role for known AD risk variants. These results may inform the design and analysis of future clinical trials of AD drugs.

Future directions:

The manuscript outlines a framework for the generation and analysis of longitudinal cognitive scores which will be applied to larger samples and specific domains of cognitive function in order to confirm and expand these findings. Functional studies are necessary to determine whether the genes/pathways identified are suitable for drug targets.

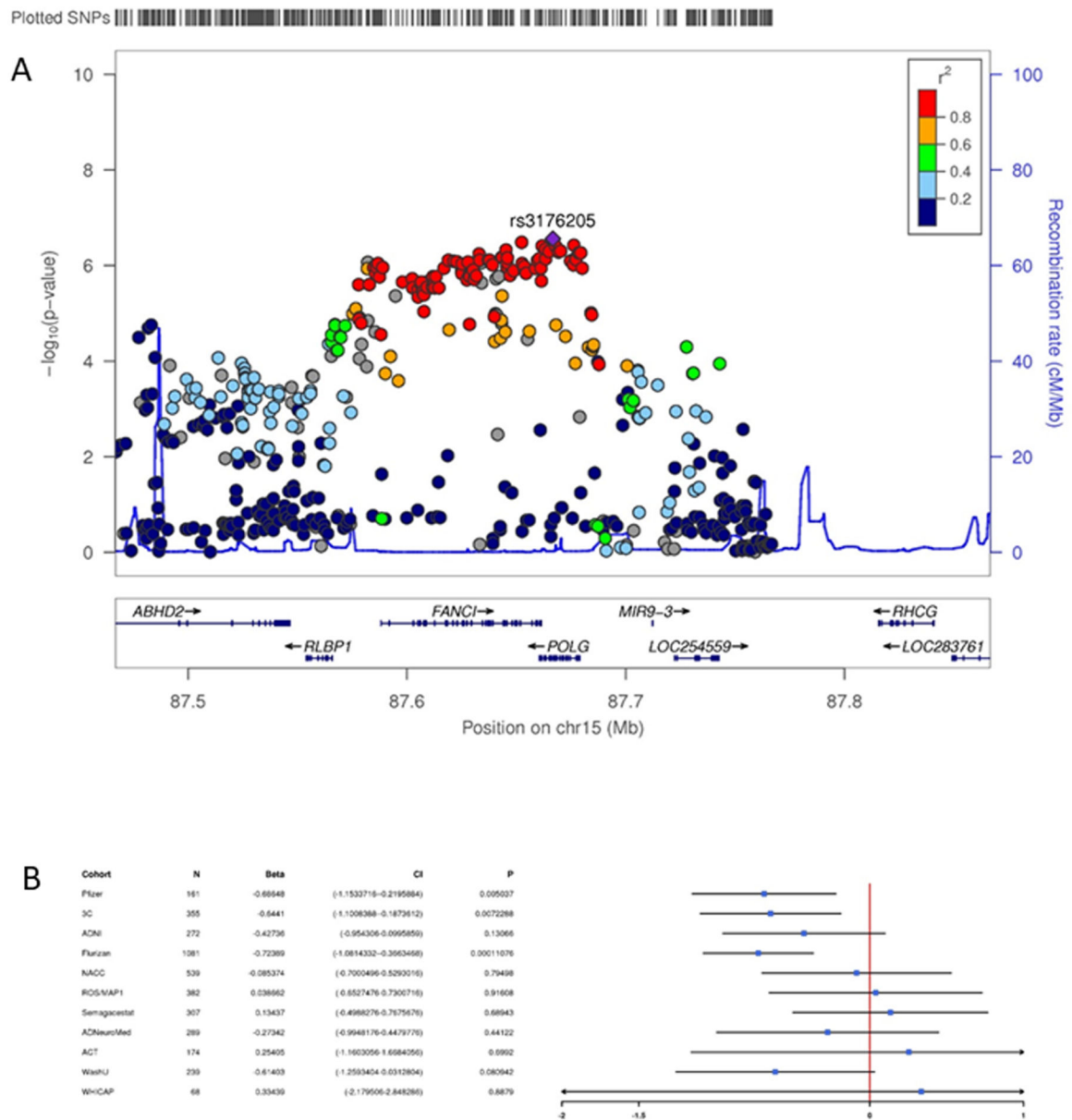


Figure 1. Association results for the region containing DNA polymerase- γ on chromosome 15 Regional Manhattan plot (A) and forest plot (B) showing the full generalized estimating equations model results for the region containing DNA polymerase- γ on chromosome 15. SNPs are color coded according to their linkage disequilibrium with the lead SNP in the region. The forest plot shows the beta and associated 95% confidence interval in each cohort.

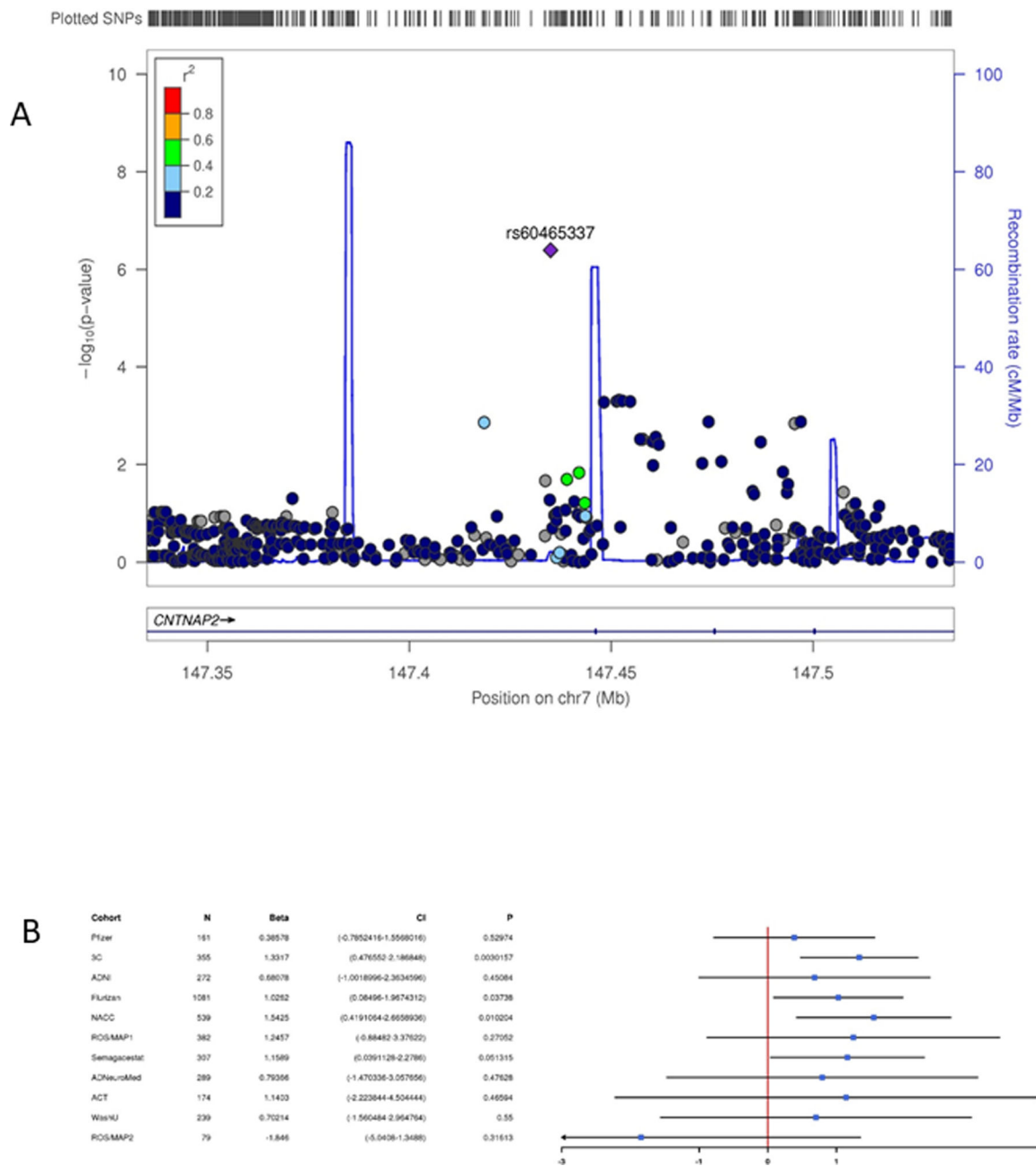


Figure 2. Association results for contactin-associated protein 2 on chromosome 7 Regional Manhattan plot (A) and forest plot (B) showing the full generalized estimating equations model results for the region containing contactin-associated protein 2 on chromosome 7. SNPs are color coded according to their linkage disequilibrium with the lead SNP in the region. The forest plot shows the beta and associated 95% confidence interval in each cohort.

Table 1.

Demographic information by study cohort

| Cohort | Age first visit, μ (SD) | N Males/N Females | Follow-up years, μ (SD) | Change in GCP*, μ (SD) | Change in MMSE* μ (SD) | λ^{\ddagger} GEE ‡ | λ LME § |
|--------------|-----------------------------|-------------------|-----------------------------|----------------------------|----------------------------|--|-----------------------|
| 3C | 77.9(5.6) | 139/216 | 6.5(2.5) | 2.8(4.5) | 2.1(3.6) | 1.06 | 1.36 |
| ACT | 78.2(6.1) | 68/106 | 7.7(2.8) | 4.1(5.4) | 1.40(3.9) | 1.45 | 1.16 |
| AddNeuroMed | 77.3(6.8) | 110/179 | 1.2(1.0) | 1.5(4.9) | 1.9(3.9) | 1.15 | 3.25 |
| ADNI | 75.7(6.4) | 157/115 | 2.7 (1.4) | 4.8 (5.1) | 2.4(4.6) | 1.11 | 3.18 |
| Flurizan | 74.6(8.2) | 548/533 | 1.2(0.6) | 2.2(7.1) | 3.6(5.0) | 1.05 | 2.26 |
| NACC | 78.3(7.9) | 271/268 | 2.2(1.7) | 6.2(6.2) | 1.8(3.8) | 1.10 | 2.14 |
| Pfizer | 75.7(5.0) | 69/92 | 1.5(2.5) | 2.5(4.3) | 2.0(3.6) | 1.06 | 2.31 |
| ROS/MAP1 | 82.4(6.5) | 120/262 | 7.9(4.5) | 4.5(7.0) | 1.1(3.5) | 1.08 | 3.23 |
| ROS/MAP2 | 82.6(7.7) | 24/55 | 1.4(.5) | 3.5(5.8) | 0.9(3.3) | 1.28 | 2.94 |
| Semagacestat | 74.1(7.7) | 152/155 | 1.3(.5) | 1.5(4.9) | 2.6(4.4) | 1.08 | 10.37 |
| WashU | 74.2(7.5) | 110/129 | 5.7(4.9) | 2.9(4.9) | 1.5(3.3) | 1.14 | 5.37 |
| WHICAP | 82.3(7.9) | 20/48 | 5.0(3.5) | 1.1(6.1) | 1.7(3.8) | 3.42 | 1.63 |

* during the first two years of follow up post AD diagnosis,

 ‡ genomic inflation factor, ‡ Generalized Estimating Equations, § Linear Mixed Effects

Table 2.

Results with $p < 1 \times 10^{-4}$ in all models tested

| Chr | SNP | A1* | A2† | Freq‡ | Gene | eQTLs§ | Beta¶ | P _{GEE} | P _{GEEA} # | P _{LME} | Direction** |
|-----|-------------|-----|-----|-------|------------------|-------------------------------|-------|------------------|---------------------|------------------|-------------------|
| 1 | rs61776523 | A | G | 0.86 | Y_RNA | - | -0.51 | 5.99E-05 | 5.97E-05 | 6.28E-05 | -----x-----+ |
| 2 | rs62146087 | A | G | 0.62 | CD8B | CD8B, PLGLB1 | 0.40 | 1.96E-05 | 2.47E-05 | 7.49E-05 | +++++++x- + |
| 2 | rs10930401 | T | C | 0.88 | intergenic | METTL5 | -0.49 | 7.00E-05 | 6.85E-05 | 7.81E-05 | -----+--x- |
| 2 | rs11683533 | G | A | 0.63 | intergenic | - | -0.45 | 2.09E-06 | 6.50E-06 | 9.10E-05 | -----+-- |
| 3 | rs1447793 | G | A | 0.95 | ROBO2 | - | 0.89 | 5.73E-05 | 1.19E-05 | 2.22E-05 | +x++++x- +xx |
| 3 | rs79279449 | T | C | 0.84 | LSAMP | - | -0.48 | 2.54E-05 | 8.21E-05 | 1.77E-05 | +--+-----x |
| 3 | rs28853947 | C | T | 0.70 | RP11- 384F7.1 | - | -0.45 | 2.29E-06 | 5.93E-07 | 8.59E-05 | -----+++x |
| 3 | rs4857800 | T | A | 0.65 | intergenic | - | -0.40 | 7.90E-06 | 1.03E-06 | 8.39E-05 | -----+-----+ |
| 4 | rs12501599 | G | C | 0.78 | CLNK | ZNF518B | 0.46 | 1.34E-05 | 7.35E-05 | 2.42E-05 | +++++----- + |
| 4 | rs2168075 | A | G | 0.45 | CCSER1 | CCSER1 | -0.37 | 4.62E-05 | 8.89E-05 | 9.38E-05 | -----+-- |
| 4 | rs1304013 | C | T | 0.73 | intergenic | - | 0.50 | 4.73E-07 | 8.82E-06 | 2.48E-05 | -+++++x-++ + |
| 6 | rs9393409 | A | G | 0.36 | intergenic | - | -0.39 | 2.70E-05 | 1.81E-05 | 9.17E-05 | -----x+++++ |
| 6 | rs9380681 | T | C | 0.70 | intergenic | - | 0.46 | 1.40E-06 | 1.80E-06 | 3.09E-05 | +++++x-+- + |
| 6 | rs45604140 | C | G | 0.90 | PTK7 | DNP1, KLHDC3 | -0.54 | 6.07E-05 | 1.98E-05 | 7.15E-06 | -+-----+-- |
| 6 | rs4897203 | T | C | 0.09 | TRDN | - | 0.74 | 1.34E-06 | 2.14E-06 | 9.56E-07 | +++++----- + |
| 7 | rs7806833 | T | G | 0.22 | SCIN | - | -0.46 | 4.99E-05 | 5.64E-05 | 4.44E-05 | -----+-- |
| 7 | rs39437 | G | C | 0.16 | OSBPL3- CYCS | - | 0.51 | 4.68E-06 | 2.15E-06 | 9.70E-05 | +++++----- + |
| 7 | rs17150563 | T | C | 0.72 | intergenic | HIBADH, TAX1BP1 | 0.40 | 6.08E-05 | 2.13E-05 | 3.61E-05 | ++-----x-+- + |
| 7 | rs7792776 | G | A | 0.87 | intergenic | - | -0.55 | 1.08E-05 | 1.68E-05 | 2.07E-05 | -----+-- |
| 7 | rs6959165 | A | G | 0.45 | HECW1 | - | 0.36 | 2.96E-05 | 1.82E-05 | 1.64E-05 | +++++x-+- + |
| 7 | rs60465337 | C | T | 0.97 | CNTNAP2 | - | 1.03 | 8.59E-07 | 4.06E-07 | 2.86E-05 | +++++----- +x- |
| 8 | rs16877878 | A | G | 0.96 | RP11- 566H8.3 | - | 1.18 | 1.13E-05 | 9.35E-05 | 1.33E-05 | x+++++x-+- +x |
| 10 | rs182768834 | G | A | 0.95 | intergenic | - | -0.87 | 1.60E-06 | 9.96E-06 | 6.31E-05 | -----x- |
| 11 | rs61897000 | G | A | 0.66 | CHRD2 | XRRA1 | -0.36 | 7.25E-05 | 1.69E-05 | 6.44E-05 | -+-----+-- |
| 12 | rs7301894 | A | G | 0.44 | ANO2 | - | -0.34 | 8.59E-05 | 6.21E-05 | 7.54E-05 | -----x-+- |
| 12 | rs10785192 | T | A | 0.07 | RP11- 585P4.5 | RP11- 585P4.5, GLIPR1L2 | -0.69 | 2.23E-05 | 5.99E-05 | 1.69E-06 | -+-----x |
| 12 | rs660322 | G | A | 0.24 | TMEM132D | - | 0.53 | 1.07E-05 | 9.44E-06 | 1.14E-05 | x+-----xx + |

| Chr | SNP | A1 [*] | A2 [†] | Freq [‡] | Gene | eQTLs [§] | Beta [¶] | P _{GEE} | P _{GEEA} [#] | P _{LME} | Direction ^{**} |
|-----|------------|-----------------|-----------------|-------------------|-----------------|--------------------|-------------------|------------------|--------------------------------|------------------|-------------------------|
| 15 | rs2899492 | C | T | 0.16 | FAM214A | ARPP19 | 0.62 | 5.94E-07 | 9.70E-07 | 1.37E-05 | +++ ++++x+xx + |
| 15 | rs8041705 | T | C | 0.56 | HMGB1P8 | - | -0.41 | 1.76E-05 | 2.66E-05 | 2.22E-05 | ----x---x+- |
| 15 | rs12324317 | T | C | 0.61 | RLBP1 | RLBP1, POLG | -0.40 | 1.80E-05 | 2.11E-05 | 1.91E-05 | ----++x-+- |
| 15 | rs9788714 | G | A | 0.62 | RLBP1- FANCI | POLG | -0.42 | 2.50E-06 | 1.70E-06 | 1.70E-06 | -----++-+x |
| 15 | rs2238301 | A | G | 0.61 | FANCI | POLG | -0.46 | 3.30E-07 | 1.59E-07 | 3.15E-07 | -----++-+x |
| 15 | rs3176205 | T | C | 0.61 | POLG | POLG | -0.46 | 2.75E-07 | 1.49E-07 | 1.11E-07 | -----++-+x |
| 16 | rs4949142 | A | G | 0.85 | intergenic | - | -0.60 | 5.83E-07 | 4.02E-07 | 7.82E-06 | -----x--x+ |
| 16 | rs12448088 | G | C | 0.40 | PLCG2 | - | -0.41 | 2.91E-05 | 2.36E-05 | 1.10E-05 | +---x---x-+ |
| 17 | rs2071194 | C | A | 0.36 | EVPL | TEN1 | 0.41 | 1.44E-05 | 3.84E-05 | 6.67E-05 | +++++++x-++ + |

* effect allele,

† other allele,

‡ frequency of effect allele,

§ Expression Quantitative Trait Locus: genes differentially expressed by SNP genotype according to GTEx database,

¶ beta from GEE model including all cohorts,

p-value from GEE model excluding cohorts with $\lambda > 1.2$,

** effect direction in individual cohorts from the GEE model including all cohorts. The order of the symbols is Pfizer, 3C, ADNI, Flurizan, NACC, ROS/MAP1, Semagacestat, ADNeuroMed, ACT, WashU, WHICAP, ROS/MAP2.