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Definitive Roles of *TOMM40-APOE-APOC1* Variants in the Alzheimer's Risk

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Abstract

Despite advances, the roles of genetic variants from the *APOE*-harboring 19q13.32 region in Alzheimer's disease (AD) remain controversial. We leverage a comprehensive approach to gain insights into a more homogeneous genetic architecture of AD in this region. We use a sample of 2,673 AD-affected and 16,246 unaffected subjects from four studies and validate our main findings in the landmark Alzheimer's Disease Genetics Consortium cohort (3,662 AD-cases and 1,541 controls). We report the remarkably high excesses of the AD risk for carriers of the $\epsilon 4$ allele who also carry minor alleles of rs2075650 (*TOMM40*) and rs12721046 (*APOC1*) polymorphisms compared to carriers of their major alleles. The exceptionally high 4.37-fold ($p=1.34\times 10^{-3}$) excess was particularly identified for the minor allele homozygotes. The beneficial and adverse variants were significantly depleted and enriched, respectively, in the AD-affected families. This study provides compelling evidence for the definitive roles of the *APOE-TOMM40-APOC1* variants in the AD risk.

Keywords

Alzheimer's disease; apolipoprotein E polymorphism; haplotypes; linkage disequilibrium

1. INTRODUCTION

The autosomal dominant (familial) form of early-onset Alzheimer's disease is considered to be caused by mutations in the *APP*, *PSEN1*, and *PSEN2* genes that support its deterministic mechanism (Lanoiselee, et al., 2017, Levy-Lahad, et al., 1995, Rogaeve, et al., 1995, Sherrington, et al., 1995). Unlike the early form, late-onset Alzheimer's disease, which is prevalent after approximately 60–65 years, herein referred to as AD, is a

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Author contributions

A.M.K. conceived and designed the experiment and wrote the paper, I.P. and L.S. coded statistical tests and performed statistical analyses, I.P. contributed to drafting the manuscript, I.C. prepared data and wrote the paper.

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Supplemental Information includes

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polygenic heterogeneous disorder which risk is influenced by a complex interplay of various endogenous (e.g., genetics, physiology) and exogenous (e.g., environmental exposures, social milieu) factors, and their interactions (Escott-Price, et al., 2017, Finch and Kulminski, 2019, Sweeney, et al., 2019). The complexity of such influences and their uncertainty forces the view of a sporadic origin of AD.

A vivid example is the potential role of the *APOE* $\epsilon 4$ allele in AD pathogenesis. This well-studied variant is known as the strongest individual genetic risk factor of AD in various populations (Raichlen and Alexander, 2014). Nevertheless, even this variant is not considered a causative factor of AD (Belloy, et al., 2019) and can presumably contribute through multiple mechanisms (Yamazaki, et al., 2019, Zhao, et al., 2018). Furthermore, despite a quarter-century of *APOE*-AD research, neither the role of the *APOE* gene nor its interplay with the other genes in the neighboring region is evident because of uncertainty about how to treat genetic variants from this region (Belloy, et al., 2019, Lutz, et al., 2016, Roses, et al., 2010, Zhou, et al., 2019). The research driven by the medical genetics hypothesis of one gene, one function, one phenotype assumes the existence of genes with causal variants (Jansen, et al., 2019, Lambert, et al., 2013). This hypothesis may not apply, however, in the genetics of complex traits (A. M. Kulminski, et al., 2020a, Visscher, et al., 2017). Then, alternative explanations of genetic predisposition to complex traits, --such as, for example, the roles of common/rare variants with small effects, structural diversity of the human genome, intricate genetic architectures of complex traits (Eichler, et al., 2010, Gibson, 2012)--, are required. Prior research also supports the roles of haplotypes with variants from *APOE* and other genes in AD (Lescai, et al., 2011, Linnertz, et al., 2014, Zhou, et al., 2019).

The complexity of the AD pathogenesis is further augmented by an inherently heterogeneous genetic architecture of AD. This heterogeneity is supported by an elusive role of natural selection in driving molecular mechanisms of complex traits characteristic of post-reproductive life such as AD (Nesse and Williams, 1994). Indeed, following the famous essay by Theodosius Dobzhansky (1973), evolutionary medicine suggests potential mechanisms of such age-related traits. These mechanisms represent side-effects of natural selection rather than its direct role in the pathogenesis of a disease in post-reproductive life. For example, evolutionary medicine discusses mechanisms such as mismatch of disease and the environment, trade-offs between reproductive success and health, the cost of organism defenses, etc. (Nesse, et al., 2012). These mechanisms are inherent sources of heterogeneity in genetic predisposition to age-related traits such as AD. The role of natural selection is further challenged by increased human life span (Oeppen and Vaupel, 2002) and environmental changes during recent centuries (Corella and Ordovas, 2014, Crespi, et al., 2010, Kulminski, 2013, Vijg and Suh, 2005).

The evolutionary implications support non-trivial contributions of genetic variants to complex traits in a heterogeneous manner. This heterogeneity can be dissected by identifying the context in the genetic contributions that increases accuracy of the estimates of AD risks. Thus, consistently with the 2018 NIA-Alzheimer's-Association framework (Jack, et al., 2018, Knopman, et al., 2018, Silverberg, et al., 2018) and personalized medicine (Schork, 2015), gaining insights into mechanisms of AD pathogenesis requires thorough approaches in dissecting heterogeneity in predisposition to AD (Kulminski, et al., 2018).

Here, we adopt a comprehensive approach leveraging the analyses of differences in linkage disequilibrium (LD) structures in AD-affected and unaffected subjects, called molecular signatures, complemented by the analyses of allele frequencies and associations, to gain insights into a more homogeneous genetic architecture of AD in the *APOE* 19q13.32 region. For the main analysis, we use a pooled sample of 2,673 AD-affected and 16,246 AD-unaffected subjects of European ancestry from the Framingham Heart Study (FHS), the Cardiovascular Health Study (CHS), the Health and Retirement Study (HRS), and the National Institute on Aging (NIA) Late-Onset Alzheimer Disease Family Study (LOADFS). The main findings were validated using an independent sample of 3,662 AD-affected and 1,541 AD-unaffected subjects from the landmark Alzheimer's Disease Genetics Consortium (ADGC) initiative. Our primary research objective is to examine in detail the roles of variants from *APOE* and the neighboring *TOMM40* and *APOC1* genes in the AD risks.

2. METHODS

2.1. Study cohorts and phenotypes

The main (discovery) analysis used data from four independent studies: FHS, comprised of the original (FHS_C1) and offspring (FHS_C2) cohorts (Cupples, et al., 2009), CHS (Fried, et al., 1991), HRS (Juster and Suzman, 1995), and the NIA LOADFS (Lee, et al., 2008). In LOADFS and FHS, AD was defined based on diagnoses made according to National Institute of Neurological and Communicative Disorders and Stroke and the Alzheimer's disease and Related Disorders Association. A diagnosis of AD in HRS and CHS was defined based on ICD-9:331.0x codes. Individuals with AD constituted the case group, N=2,673, and those without AD constituted the non-case group, N=16,246 (Supplemental Table S1).

The main findings from the discovery stage were validated using an independent sample from the NIA Alzheimer's Disease Centers (ADCs) cohort, which is a part of the Alzheimer's Disease Genetics Consortium (ADGC) initiative (Naj, et al., 2011). This sample consisted of autopsy-confirmed and clinically-confirmed AD-affected (N=3,662) and cognitively normal (N=1,541) subjects who were ascertained by the clinical and neuropathology cores of the NIA-funded ADCs.

We also used data from the FHS 3rd generation cohort (FHS_C3) and Coronary Artery Risk Development in Young Adults cohort (CARDIA) to examine the differences in proportions of the selected compound genotypes in younger and older AD-unaffected subjects.

All analyses focused on individuals who identified themselves as of European ancestry.

2.2. Genotypes

Genotype data were available from the same customized Illumina iSelect array in the FHS and CHS cohorts, Affymetrix 500K in the FHS, Illumina HumanCNV370v1 chip in the CHS, Illumina HumanOmni 2.5 Quad chip in the HRS, and Illumina Human 610Quadv1_B Beadchip in LOADFS.

The *BCAM-NECTIN2-TOMM40-APOE-APOC1* (19q13.32) region was represented by 32 SNPs, which were in moderate LD ($r^2 < 0.8$) and directly genotyped in at least two

studies. We excluded individuals with >5% missingness. To facilitate cross-platform comparisons, we selected directly genotyped target SNPs or their proxies ($r^2 > 0.8$ in the 1000 Genomes Project, CEU population) using all available arrays for each study. Non-genotyped SNPs were imputed (IMPUTE2 (Howie, et al., 2009)) according to the 1000 Genomes Project Phase I integrated variant set release (SHAPEIT2) in the NCBI build 37 (hg19) coordinate. Only SNPs with high imputation quality (info > 0.8) were retained for the analyses (Supplemental Table S2). Genotype data for the ADCs cohort included in ADGC was available from Human660W-Quad_v1_A array.

2.3. LD analysis

LD was characterized by the correlation coefficient r using a haplotype-based method, as argued in (Kulminski, et al., 2018, A. M. Kulminski, et al., 2020b). The significance of the LD estimates was evaluated using chi-square statistics, defined as $\chi^2 = r^2 n$, where $n = 2N$ is the number of gametes and N is the sample size (Lewontin, 1988). Given the potential loss of power because of inferring haplotypes from genotypes, we used a more conservative estimate, with N instead of n .

We employed a LD contrast test (Zaykin, et al., 2006) to characterize the significance of the differences in pair-wise estimates of LD between affected (r_1) and unaffected (r_0) subjects using $Z_2 = 2(r_1 - r_0)^2$ statistics. We used a permutation procedure by shuffling the labels for the affected and unaffected subjects to obtain an empirical distribution of Z_2 under the null hypothesis $r_1 = r_0$. The distribution of $r_1 - r_0$ was then tested for normality using Q-Q (quantile-quantile) plots and Shapiro-Wilk tests. Since the permutation distribution of $r_1 - r_0$ is approximately normal, we used the sample mean \bar{x} and standard deviation s of the permutation distribution of $r_1 - r_0$ to calculate $z = (r - \bar{x})/s$ where r is the estimate of the correlation coefficient obtained using the original (non-permuted) labels. To obtain p -values, we then compared z^2 to a chi-squared distribution with one degree of freedom. This parametric procedure allows one to compute accurate significance levels using far fewer permutations since one only needs to estimate the parameters of a normal distribution. In our analysis, we used 1,000 permutations to ensure robustness as the results were stable after 200 permutations.

Adopting a conservative Bonferroni correction for multiple testing, the locus-wide significance level for the LD estimates is $p = 0.05/32 = 1.6 \times 10^{-3}$, whereas for the difference in LD between the AD affected and unaffected subjects is $p = 0.05/496 (= 32 \times 31/2) = 10^{-4}$. Asymptotically valid confidence intervals were constructed using asymptotic variance adapted from (Wellek and Ziegler, 2009).

2.4. Statistical analysis

We evaluated effect sizes (beta) and odds ratios (ORs) for AD risk for carriers of compound genotypes constructed from rs429358, rs2075650, and rs12721046 SNPs using the base R function *glm* for logistic regression. The models were adjusted for age, sex, and study composition, defined by field centers (CHS), cohorts (FHS and HRS), and three ADC centers (ADGC). No other adjustments have been made.

We employed a fixed-effects model meta-analysis with inverse-variance weighting. The combined effect size was estimated as $\widehat{\beta}_M = (\sum_i w_i \widehat{\beta}_i) / (\sum_i w_i)$, and the variance of this effect-size was $var(\widehat{\beta}_M) = 1 / (\sum_i w_i)$, where $\widehat{\beta}_i$ is the effect size in the study i and w_i is the reciprocal of the variance of $\widehat{\beta}_i$. To produce the p -values for the meta-analysis, we adopted a Wald test with null hypothesis $E[\widehat{\beta}_M] = 0$ given by the test statistic $\chi^2 = \widehat{\beta}_M / var(\widehat{\beta}_M)$.

2.5. Familial history of AD in LOADFS

LOADFS did not provide information on the complete history of AD in families. We used the reported data on the AD affection status in LOADFS families to define the AD-affected families. Herein, the families whose members were affected by AD were referred to as having a familial history of AD. Consequently, the families whose members were not affected by AD were referred to as not having a familial history of AD.

3. RESULTS

3.1. The APOE ϵ 4- and ϵ 2-specific molecular signatures of AD

We evaluated molecular signatures of AD as differences in LD between 32 SNPs representing the *APOE* region (Supplemental Table S2) in AD-affected (cases) and unaffected (non-cases) subjects ($r = r_{\text{cases}} - r_{\text{non-cases}}$) who do not have either the ϵ 4 (Figure 1A) or ϵ 2 (Figure 1B) allele in the pooled sample of the LOADFS, HRS, CHS, and two older cohorts of the FHS, the original (FHS_C1) and offspring (FHS_C2) cohorts (see Methods). Figure 1 shows a substantially more heterogeneous AD signature associated with the ϵ 4 allele (Figure 1B) compared to that associated with the ϵ 2 allele (Figure 1A). Specifically, the ϵ 2-negative signature is characterized by locus-wide significance ($p < 10^{-4}$) for r for 173 SNP pairs compared to six pairs in the ϵ 4-negative signature (Supplemental Table S3).

We verified that the signs of r for the significant differences were consistent in the independent samples of the LOADFS and non-LOADFS (HRS, CHS, and FHS) studies, which is regarded as replication (Marigorta, et al., 2018). Specifically, directions of the significant differences r were the same for all six SNP pairs in the ϵ 4-negative sample and a vast majority of SNP pairs, 160 of 173 (93%), in the ϵ 2-negative sample (Supplemental Table S3). Furthermore, the signs were also consistent for a vast majority of r which attained suggestive significance ($5 \times 10^{-3} < p < 10^{-4}$) i.e., for 16 of 17 (94%) SNP pairs in the ϵ 4-negative sample and 57 of 66 (86%) SNP pairs in the ϵ 2-negative sample (Supplemental Table S4).

We found that the difference in LD between unfavorable AD-affected non- ϵ 2 sample ($r_{\epsilon 2 \text{negative-AD}}$) and the most favorable AD- and ϵ 4-negative sample ($r_{\epsilon 4 \text{negative-noAD}}$) was locus-wide significant ($p < 10^{-4}$) for 250 SNP pairs (Supplemental Table S3). Top LD difference between these samples $r_{\epsilon 2 \text{negative-AD}} - r_{\epsilon 4 \text{negative-noAD}} = 77.6\%$ ($p < 10^{-100}$) was for rs2075650 (*TOMM40*) and rs12721046 (*APOC1*) SNPs (Figure 2, ϵ 2-negative red vs ϵ 4-negative green). The most favorable sample was characterized by negligible LD, $r_{\epsilon 4 \text{negative-noAD}} = 7\%$ ($p = 3.02 \times 10^{-25}$). This SNP pair was well separated from the other pairs, followed by the rs2075650 and rs405509 (*APOE*) pair with the 2-fold smaller difference

in LD of 39% ($p < 10^{-100}$). The further analysis focuses on the rs429358, rs2075650, and rs12721046 triple.

3.2. Proportions of compound genotypes in the AD-affected and unaffected subjects

Proportions of carriers of compound genotypes constructed from rs429358, rs2075650, and rs12721046 were evaluated in the samples without exclusion of the $\epsilon 2$ allele as this exclusion did not make a difference. Of the 27 ($=3 \times 3 \times 3$) possible compound genotypes for three bi-allelic SNPs, there were 13 genotypes with more than 10 AD-affected or unaffected subjects, which we focus on thereafter (Table 1 and Supplemental Table S5), except explicitly noted. The most common genotypes in the pooled samples of LOADFS, HRS, CHS, and FHS studies, cases and non-cases combined and separately, were complete major allele homozygote for the three SNPs (rs429358_TT, rs2075650_AA, and rs12721046_GG, herein denoted as TT/AA/GG), followed by the complete heterozygote (Tc/Ag/Ga).

Bonferroni-adjusted significant effects (the two proportion z -test), $p = 0.05/13 = 3.8 \times 10^{-3}$, characterized by the differences in proportions $f_{\text{non-cases}} - f_{\text{cases}}$ or odds ratios (ORs), were observed for 11 of 13 compound genotypes (Table 1). Of them, there were three beneficial effects for non-carriers of the $\epsilon 4$ allele, TT/AA/GG, TT/AA/Ga, and TT/Ag/GG. The strongest adverse effect (OR=10.17, $p = 2.04 \times 10^{-110}$) was observed for carriers of the complete minor allele homozygote (cc/gg/aa).

3.3. Proportions of compound genotypes in AD-unaffected subjects and familial history of AD

We found that proportions of the selected 13 compound genotypes in the older population of $N = 14,633$ AD-unaffected subjects from the pooled sample of LOADFS, HRS, CHS, and FHS (55 years and older; 78.7 ± 8.8 years; mean age [MA] and standard deviation [SD]) resembled those in a younger population of $N = 5,914$ subjects (younger than 55 years; $MA \pm SD = 37.8 \pm 10.1$ years) from the FHS_C3 and CARDIA cohorts (Supplemental Table S6). Specifically, the differences between these proportions were at most 1.5%. None of them attained a Bonferroni-adjusted level of significance $p = 3.8 \times 10^{-3}$. As the younger sample has been under negligible survival selection, these proportions represent unbiased estimates in a general population.

In contrast, proportions of compound genotypes in LOADFS sample without AD (Supplemental Table S7) were substantially different from these unbiased estimates (Supplemental Tables S5, non-cases, and S6). We observed significant depletion of the TT/AA/GG genotype and enrichment of Tc/AA/GG, Tc/Ag/Ga, and cc/gg/aa genotypes in LOADFS AD-unaffected subjects from families with ($MA \pm SD = 64.7 \pm 10.6$ years) and without ($MA \pm SD = 76.2 \pm 8.9$ years) history of AD (Supplemental Table S8). The proportions of genotypes in subjects without familial history of AD resembled those in the general (unbiased) population (Figure 3; Table 1 and Supplemental Table S8). We found that the LOADFS AD-unaffected subjects from families with a history of AD are relatively young ($MA \pm SD = 64.7 \pm 10.6$ years), and that they are substantially younger than the AD-affected subjects from the same families ($MA \pm SD = 81.0 \pm 7.6$ years). Thus, they may merely not be old enough to develop AD yet. The observed differences in proportions indicate the

clustering of the adverse compound genotypes in families with a history of AD. In the pooled sample of LOADFS, HRS, CHS, and FHS studies, this effect is diluted, and the exclusion of subjects with familial history of AD did not make a difference.

3.4. Compound-genotype-specific risks of AD

The regression analyses were not adjusted for family structure because the clustering of compound genotypes in families (see above Section) indicated meaningful biological effect. Subjects carrying a minor allele of rs429358, rs2075650, or rs12721046 SNP were at higher risks of AD measured by odds ratio (OR) (Supplemental Table S9). The smallest risks in groups of no, one, and two $\epsilon 4$ alleles were for TT/AA/GG, Tc/AA/GG, and cc/AA/GG carriers, respectively, i.e., for non-carriers of minor alleles of rs2075650 and rs12721046. Thus, carriers of minor alleles of rs2075650 and rs12721046 were at higher AD risk in each $\epsilon 4$ group (Figure 4, left panel, Supplemental Tables S9 and S10). The $\epsilon 4$ carriers of minor alleles of rs2075650 and rs12721046 were also at higher AD risk than non-carriers of these alleles (Figure 4, right panel, Supplemental Table S11). The risk for carriers of one $\epsilon 4$ allele who have at least one minor allele of rs2075650 and rs12721046 (Figure 4, 111 or 1XY) resembled that for carriers of two $\epsilon 4$ alleles who do not have minor alleles of these SNPs (Figure 4, 200).

3.5. Validation in ADGC: Definitive roles of the $\epsilon 4$ -bearing compound genotypes in the AD risks

Next, we characterized the excess of the AD risks for the $\epsilon 4$ carriers who carry and do not carry minor alleles of rs2075650 and rs12721046. Table 2 and Supplemental Table S12 show that carrying minor alleles of rs2075650 and rs12721046 substantially increased the risks of AD for carriers of the $\epsilon 4$ allele in the pooled sample. These findings were validated in an independent ADGC sample of the AD-affected ($N=3,662$, $MA\pm SD=79.7\pm 7.7$ years) and unaffected ($N=1,541$, $MA\pm SD=75.8\pm 9.5$ years) subjects. A meta-analysis of these results showed that carriers of one copy of the $\epsilon 4$ allele who also carry one minor allele of rs2075650 and rs12721046 (complete heterozygote, Tc/Ag/Ga, 111) were under 1.59-fold ($p=8.46\times 10^{-7}$) higher risk of AD than those who do not carry these minor alleles (Tc/AA/GG [100] genotype). Carriers of two copies of the $\epsilon 4$ allele who have two minor alleles of rs2075650 and rs12721046 (complete minor allele homozygote, cc/gg/aa [222]) were under 4.37-fold ($p=1.34\times 10^{-3}$) higher risk of AD compared to non-carriers of minor alleles of rs2075650 and rs12721046 (cc/AA/GG [200] genotype). Overall, the risk of AD for carriers of the $\epsilon 4$ allele who carry minor alleles of rs2075650 and rs12721046 compared to those who do not have them was 1.89-fold higher ($p=4.69\times 10^{-13}$; Table 2, 1XY+2XY). Excluding carriers of the $\epsilon 2$ allele did not explain the observed excesses (Supplemental Table S12).

4. DISCUSSION

This article advances the understanding of the contribution of genetic variants from the *APOE*-harboring 19q13.32 region to AD risk, emphasizing the *APOE* $\epsilon 2$ and $\epsilon 4$ alleles, along three lines. First, we show that LD structures in this region differ in the AD affected and unaffected subjects in an $\epsilon 2/\epsilon 4$ -dependent manner, and that the molecular signature of

AD is substantially more heterogeneous in the $\epsilon 2$ -negative sample than in the $\epsilon 4$ -negative sample. This finding extends previous qualitative observations of the differences in LD structures in AD affected and unaffected subjects (Takei, et al., 2009, Yu, et al., 2007, Zhou, et al., 2019) and rigorous quantitative characterizations of such differences in the *APOE* $\epsilon 2/\epsilon 4$ non-stratified populations (Kulminski, et al., 2018). These signatures show that AD is associated with polygenic profiles rather than with individual alleles in this region, and that the architecture of these profiles is more affected by the $\epsilon 4$ allele than the $\epsilon 2$ allele. The difference in the $\epsilon 2$ - and $\epsilon 4$ -based molecular signatures of AD supports the independence of the $\epsilon 2$ - and $\epsilon 4$ -based genetic mechanisms of protection against AD and predisposition to AD, respectively. Accordingly, different explanations for the $\epsilon 2$ -related protective effect and the $\epsilon 4$ -related adverse effect is required contributing, thus, to a central question in AD research on elucidating a spectrum of *APOE* function (Belloy, et al., 2019).

Second, we provided compelling evidence on the non-independent role of the $\epsilon 4$ allele in AD, and identified the leading role of the compound genotype comprised of rs429358 (the $\epsilon 4$ -coding SNP), rs2075650 (*TOMM40*), and rs12721046 (*APOC1*) in AD. These findings are supported by the differences in (i) LD between rs2075650 and rs12721046 SNPs in the $\epsilon 2$ -negative and $\epsilon 4$ -negative samples (Figure 2), (ii) proportions of compound genotypes in the AD-affected and unaffected subjects (Table 1), and (iii) the AD risks for carriers of the $\epsilon 4$ allele who carry and do not carry minor alleles of rs2075650 and rs12721046 (Figure 4). The leading role of this triple of SNPs in AD is also supported by the highly significant difference in joint variations of this triple in AD-affected and unaffected subjects accessed in (Alexander M. Kulminski, et al., 2020) via an alternative metric.

The definitive roles of the $\epsilon 4$ -bearing compound genotypes comprised of alleles from this triple of SNPs are supported by the high excess of the AD risk for carriers of the $\epsilon 4$ allele who carry minor alleles of rs2075650 and rs12721046 compared to those who do not have them (Table 2). These findings were validated in the landmark NIA-funded ADGC initiative study. For example, meta-analysis showed the remarkably high 4.37-fold ($p=1.34 \times 10^{-3}$) excess of the AD risk for carriers of two $\epsilon 4$ alleles who carry two minor alleles of rs2075650 and rs12721046 (cc/gg/aa) compared to those who do not have them (cc/AA/GG). We propose considering the cc/gg/aa genotype as a more specific exceptionally high-risk genetic profile of AD.

Third, we show that the beneficial and adverse compound genotypes are clustered in families with a history of AD (Figure 3), regardless of whether these families are contrasted by older (MA=78.7 years) or younger (MA=37.8 years) general population. Enrichment of the adverse compound genotypes and depletion of the beneficial genotype in families with a history of AD compared to the younger population, which was not under noticeable survival selection, provides compelling support on the clustering of such genotypes due to their transmittance through generations. This finding is supported by the significant difference of LD structures between AD-affected and the younger population, and the lack of such difference between older AD-unaffected and the younger population (A. M. Kulminski, et al., 2020b). These findings raise a fundamental issue of driving forces of the AD-related compound genotypes. These forces should be related to recent evolutionary selection and be indirectly relevant to AD. Clustering of adverse/beneficial compound genotypes

in families suggests that such driving forces should be associated with the AD-specific familial “exposures” such as ancestry, lifestyle, toxins, familial AD-related risk factors, etc. Accordingly, our findings call for comprehensive studies of potential mediating or moderating roles of various AD-related factors, especially those in AD-affected families, rather than just routinely considering them as adjustable covariates in the models. The importance of such studies is that they can help in identifying *modifiable* AD-related factors amenable to preventive interventions (Finch and Kulminski, 2019).

Despite the rigor of this study, we acknowledge its limitations. First, our study inherits intrinsic limitations pertinent to gathering AD-related information in large-scale studies that can affect the quality of AD diagnoses. Second, unlike model organisms and human monozygotic twins, human cohorts include subjects with a different genetic background. These individual-level genetic differences, complemented by potential ancestral differences between sub-populations, contribute to genetic heterogeneity. In large-scale studies, however, these limitations are partly offset by the size of the studied cohorts.

Thus, this study provides compelling evidence for the definitive roles of the *APOE-TOMM40-APOC1* variants in the AD risk that aligns with the complex role of the *APOE* region in AD pathogenesis reported in previous studies (Babenko, et al., 2018, Crenshaw, et al., 2013, Lescai, et al., 2011, Linnertz, et al., 2014, Lutz, et al., 2016, Zhou, et al., 2019). Our findings support the independence of the mechanisms of the $\epsilon 2$ -based protection against AD and the $\epsilon 4$ -based predisposition to AD. Clustering of adverse/beneficial compound genotypes in families supports the role of haplotypes in AD. The complex structure of the $\epsilon 4$ -based molecular signature of AD shows that other SNPs (or their proxies not examined in this work) may be involved in compound genotypes or haplotypes in a heterogeneous manner. Then, AD can be further tailored to even more homogeneous genetic profiles, consistently with the idea of personalized AD medicine. A better understanding of the potential roles of variants in the *APOE* region is critical for gaining insights into the biological mechanisms of AD and for defining more specific genetic profiles for assessment of subjects at an exceptionally high risk of AD.

Supplementary Material

Refer to Web version on PubMed Central for supplementary material.

Acknowledgments

This article was prepared using a data obtained through dbGaP (accession numbers phs000007.v28 [FHS], phs000287.v6 [CHS], phs000428.v2 [HRS], phs000168.v2 [LOADFS], phs000285.v3 [CARDIA], and phs000372.v1 [ADGC]) and the University of Michigan. Phenotypic HRS data are available publicly and through restricted access from <http://hrsonline.isr.umich.edu/index.php?p=data>. The authors thank Arseniy P. Yashkin for help in the preparation of phenotypes in HRS. See extended acknowledgment in the Supplemental Acknowledgement file.

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Highlights

1. The $\epsilon 2$ and $\epsilon 4$ alleles are associated with different molecular signatures of AD
2. AD is associated with polygenic profiles rather than with individual APOE alleles
3. Complex architecture of these profiles is more affected by the $\epsilon 4$ than $\epsilon 2$ allele
4. The $\epsilon 4$ -bearing haplotype, but not $\epsilon 4$ allele alone, confers the strongest AD risk

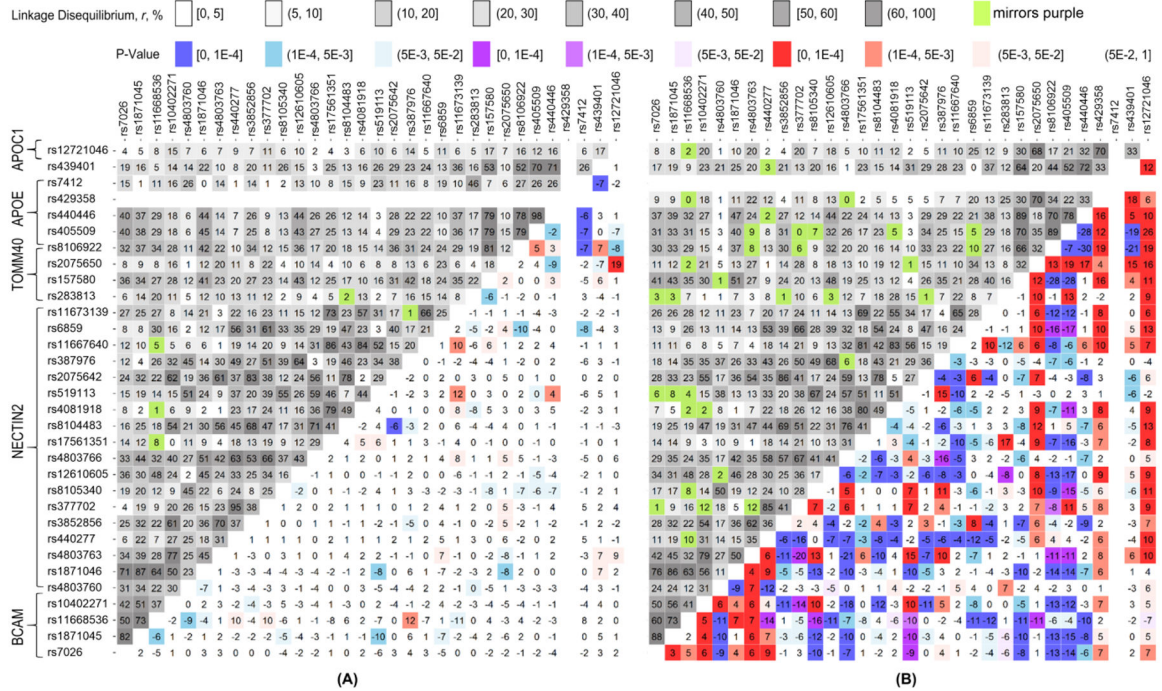


Fig. 1. Molecular signatures of Alzheimer’s Disease (AD) in (A) e4-negative and (B) e2-negative samples.

Upper-left triangle: Linkage disequilibrium (LD) pattern ($r, \%$) in the pooled sample, non-cases. Lower-right triangle: heat map for $r = r_{cases} - r_{non-cases}$ representing the molecular signature of AD. Red denotes $r_{cases} > r_{non-cases}$ and blue denotes $r_{cases} < r_{non-cases}$. Purple and green show the estimates with opposite signs of r_{cases} and $r_{non-cases}$. For convenience, positive sign of $r_{non-cases}$ has been selected. The legend on the top shows color-coded p -values and grey-coded LD. Numerical estimates are given in Supplemental Table S3.

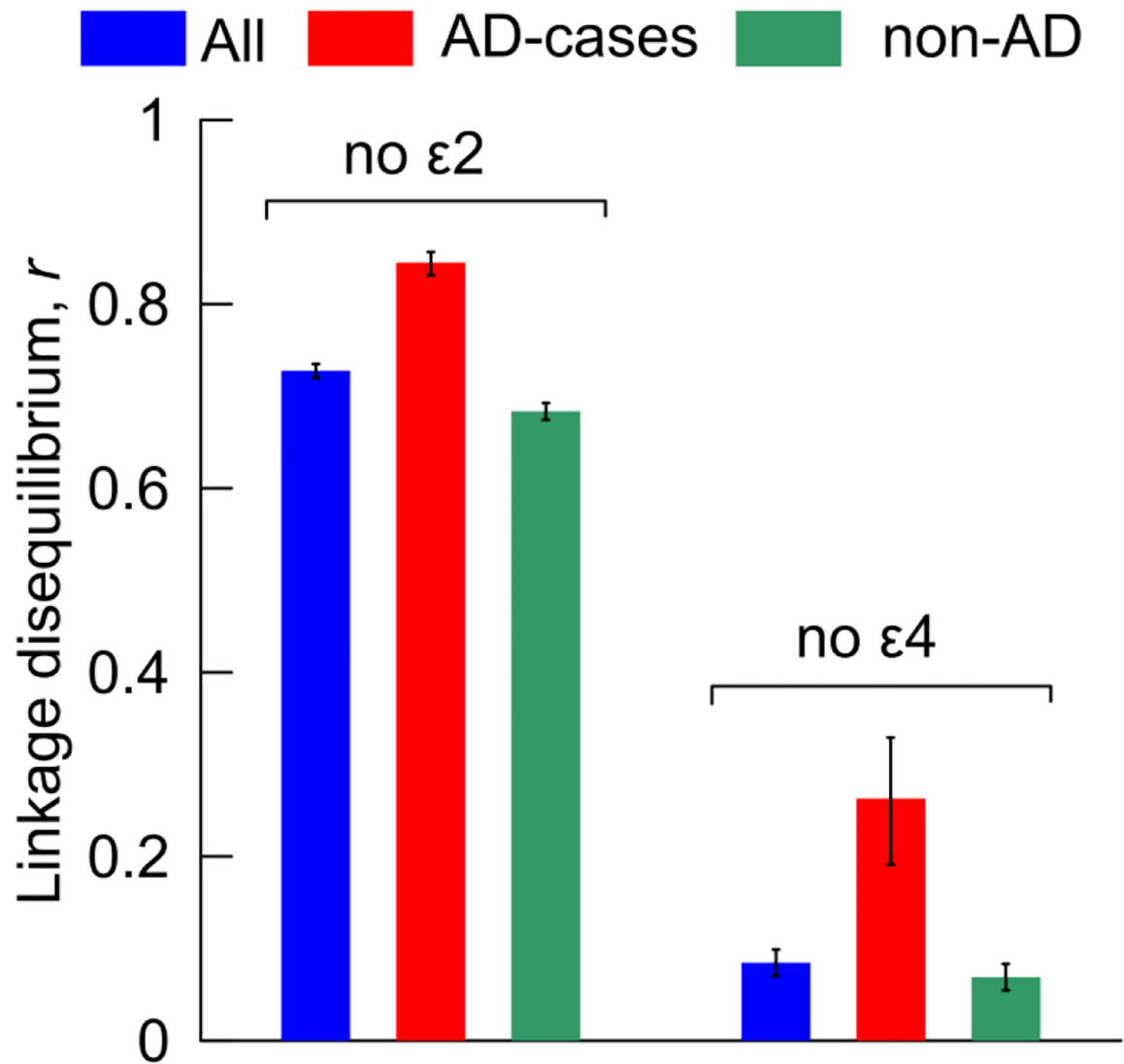


Fig. 2. Linkage disequilibrium (r) between rs2075650 (*TOMM40*) and rs12721046 (*APOE1*) in the $\epsilon 2$ - and $\epsilon 4$ -negative samples.

Blue, red, and green denote pooled samples from all studies of (all) AD-cases and non-cases combined, AD-cases, and (non-AD) AD-non-cases, respectively. Vertical lines show standard errors. Numerical estimates are given in Supplemental Table S3.

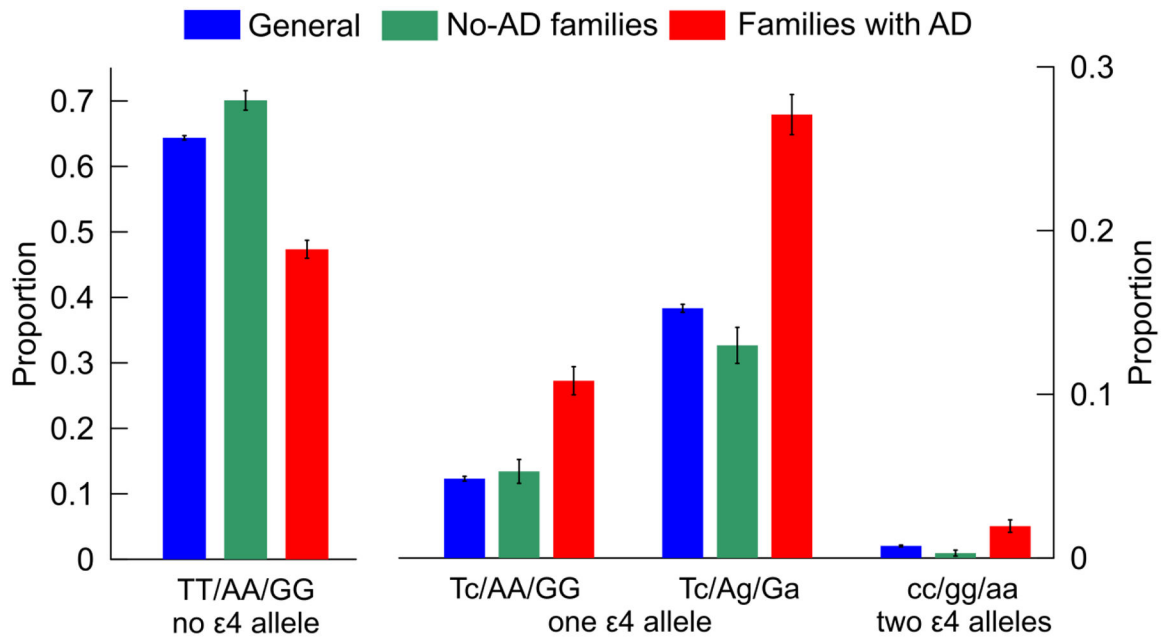


Fig. 3. Proportions of the beneficial (A) and adverse (B and C) compound genotypes in the Alzheimer's disease (AD) unaffected subjects.

The labels on the *x*-axis show compound genotypes constructed from SNPs ordered as rs429358, rs2075650, or rs12721046 comprising samples with: (A) no $\epsilon 4$ allele, (B) one copy of $\epsilon 4$ allele, and (C) two copies of $\epsilon 4$ allele. Blue ("general"): the pooled sample of LOADFS, HRS, FHS, and CHS (data are in Supplemental Table S5, non-cases). Samples from the LOADFS from families: (green, "no-AD families") without a history of AD and (red, "families with AD") with history of AD (data are in Supplemental Table S8). Vertical lines show standard errors.

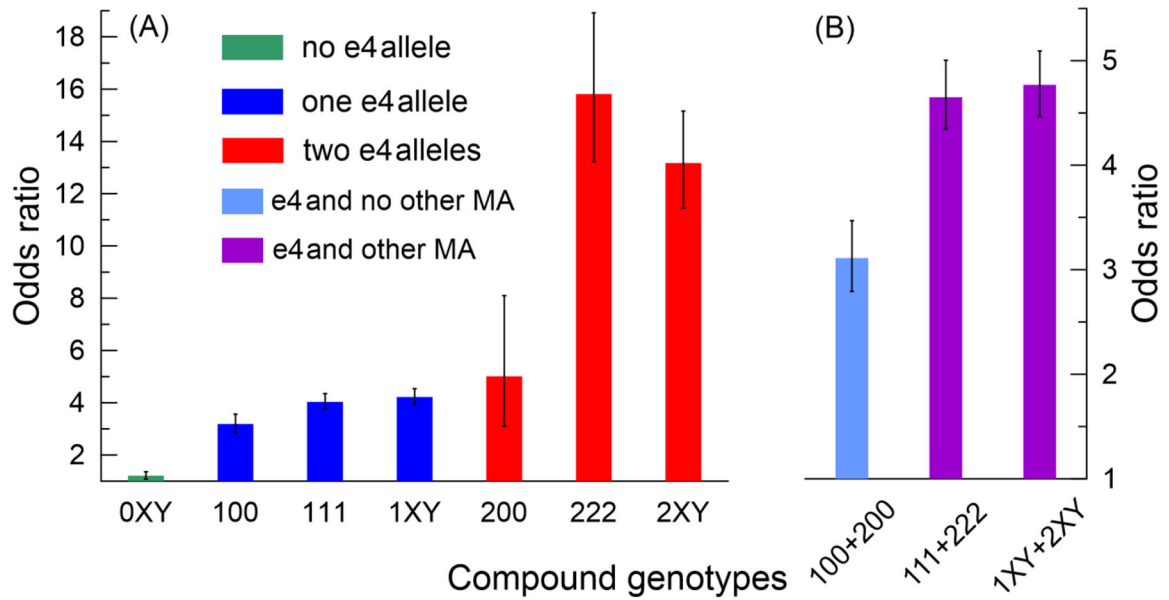


Fig. 4. Odds ratios (ORs) for Alzheimer's disease (AD) for selected compound genotypes. (A) green, blue, and red denote ORs in samples with no, one, and two copies of the e4 allele, respectively. (B) ORs for the e4 allele carriers who do not carry (light blue) and carry (purple) minor alleles (MAs) of rs2075650 and rs12721046 SNPs. Numbers in the labels on the x-axes show the number of MAs for SNPs ordered as rs429358, rs2075650, or rs12721046. Symbols "X" and "Y" denote aggregated compound genotypes; these symbols take values of 0, 1, or 2 but not simultaneously 0. Bars show the estimates of ORs from the models with the major allele homozygous genotype (TT/AA/GG) as a reference. Numerical estimates for ORs for: (i) 100, 111, 200, and 222 are in Supplemental Table S9, (ii) 0XY, 1XY, and 2XY are in Supplemental Table S10, and (iii) 100+200, 111+222, and 1XY+2XY are in Supplemental Table S11. Vertical lines show standard errors.

Table 1.

Proportions of the most frequent 13 compound genotypes in the pooled sample.

ID	MA coding	Genotype	All		AD cases		Non-cases		<i>f</i> , %	OR	<i>p</i> value
			N	%	N	%	N	%			
1	000	TT/AA/GG	10,359	60.3	731	33.0	9,628	64.4	31.3	0.27	4.10E-174
2	001	TT/AA/Ga	851	5.0	45	2.0	806	5.4	3.4	0.36	1.14E-11
4	010	TT/Ag/GG	782	4.6	59	2.7	723	4.8	2.2	0.54	4.98E-06
5	011	TT/Ag/Ga	138	0.8	18	0.8	120	0.8	0.0	1.01	9.57E-01
10	100	Tc/AA/GG	950	5.5	225	10.2	725	4.8	-5.3	2.22	1.68E-24
11	101	Tc/AA/Ga	216	1.3	51	2.3	165	1.1	-1.2	2.12	2.22E-06
13	110	Tc/Ag/GG	123	0.7	37	1.7	86	0.6	-1.1	2.94	1.13E-08
14	111	Tc/Ag/Ga	3,000	17.5	718	32.4	2,282	15.3	-17.2	2.67	7.19E-88
15	112	Tc/Ag/aa	104	0.6	21	0.9	83	0.6	-0.4	1.72	2.58E-02
17	121	Tc/gg/Ga	107	0.6	35	1.6	72	0.5	-1.1	3.32	8.36E-10
19	200	cc/AA/GG	27	0.2	11	0.5	16	0.1	-0.4	4.67	1.54E-05
23	211	cc/Ag/Ga	146	0.9	77	3.5	69	0.5	-3.0	7.78	3.28E-47
27	222	cc/gg/aa	265	1.5	155	7.0	110	0.7	-6.3	10.17	2.04E-110

The pooled sample includes National Institute on Aging Late Onset Alzheimer's disease Family Study (LOADFS), Health and Retirement Study (HRS), Cardiovascular Health Study (CHS), Framingham Heart Study (FHS) original cohort, and FHS offspring cohort.

ID corresponds to that in the extended Supplementary Table S5.

MA coding: the number of minor alleles in each SNP ordered as rs429358, rs207650, and rs12721046.

Genotype: actual genotypes of rs429358, rs207650, and rs12721046, in that order; upper/lower case denotes major/minor allele.

All: Alzheimer's disease (AD) cases and non-cases combined.

$f = f_{\text{non-cases}} - f_{\text{cases}}$ is the difference of proportions of a given compound genotype in AD non-cases and cases.

OR is odds ratio defined as $(f_{\text{cases}}/f_{\text{non-cases}}) \times (1 - f_{\text{non-cases}}) / (1 - f_{\text{cases}})$.

Table 2.

Excess of the Alzheimer's disease (AD) risk for the $\epsilon 4$ carriers who carry and do not carry minor alleles of rs2075650 and rs12721046.

MA coding	Sample	N _{total}	N _{AD}	Beta	SE	Odds ratio	p-value
100	Reference						
111	Pooled	3000	718	0.28	0.12	1.32	2.51E-02
111	ADGC	1437	1230	0.71	0.14	2.03	8.29E-07
111	Meta	4437	1948	0.46	0.09	1.59	8.46E-07
1XY	Pooled	3558	863	0.32	0.12	1.38	7.73E-03
1XY	ADGC	1733	1463	0.61	0.14	1.85	8.39E-06
1XY	Meta	5291	2326	0.45	0.09	1.57	7.81E-07
200	Reference						
222	Pooled	265	155	1.40	0.63	4.05	2.73E-02
222	ADGC	310	299	1.56	0.67	4.76	1.96E-02
222	Meta	575	454	1.48	0.46	4.37	1.34E-03
2XY	Pooled	468	257	1.23	0.56	3.42	2.77E-02
2XY	ADGC	559	535	1.25	0.63	3.49	4.75E-02
2XY	Meta	1027	792	1.24	0.42	3.45	3.05E-03
100+200	Reference						
111+222	Pooled	3265	873	0.41	0.12	1.51	6.95E-04
111+222	ADGC	1747	1529	0.86	0.14	2.37	4.56E-10
111+222	Meta	5012	2402	0.61	0.09	1.84	2.68E-11
1XY+2XY	Pooled	4026	1120	0.48	0.12	1.61	5.69E-05
1XY+2XY	ADGC	2292	1998	0.84	0.13	2.32	2.08E-10
1XY+2XY	Meta	6318	3118	0.64	0.09	1.89	4.69E-13

Column **MA coding** shows compound genotypes coded by the number of minor alleles (0, 1, or 2) in each SNP ordered as rs429358, rs2075650 and rs12721046. Symbols "X" and "Y" denote aggregated compound genotypes; these symbols take values of 0, 1, or 2 but not simultaneously 0.

Column **Sample** shows the results for the pooled sample and the AD Genetics Consortium (ADGC) sample, and the results from the meta-analysis of the pooled and ADGC samples. The pooled sample includes the NIA Late Onset Alzheimer's disease Family Study, the Health and Retirement Study, the Cardiovascular Health Study, and the Framingham Heart Study original and offspring cohorts. **N_{total}** is the total number of subjects; **N_{AD}** is the number of AD cases; **SE** is the standard error.