
Alzheimer's Disease and Genetics

- Where are we now?
- What can genetics findings be used for?
- What do we expect to achieve?
- What is the final goal?

Is technology driving what we do?

Or

Is technology being used to answer questions?



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Where are we now?

Rare Variants

Early-Onset AD Rare variants

1. *APP*
2. *PSEN1*
3. *PSEN2*

Late-Onset AD Rare variants

1. *PSEN2 (early and late onset)*
2. *APP (protective variant)*
3. *TREM2*
4. *UNC5C*
5. *TREML2*
6. *PLXNA4*
7. *AKAP9*



1. *APOE*
2. *SORL1*
3. *CR1*
4. *CLU*
5. *PICALM*
6. *BIN1*
7. *CD2AP*
8. *EPHA1*
9. *MS4A4A*
10. *ABCA7*
11. *HLA-DRB5/HLA-DRB1*
12. *PTK2B*
13. *SLC24A4/RIN3*
14. *MAPT*

Closest
gene

15. *CASS4*
16. *INPP5D*
17. *MEF2C*
18. *NME8*
19. *ZCWPW1*
20. *CELF1*
21. *FERMT2*
22. *TREM2L/TREM2*
23. *GLIS3*
24. *ABCG1*
25. *GalNAc*
26. Intergenic – chr 9
27. *FRMD4A*

Late-Onset AD
Common variants

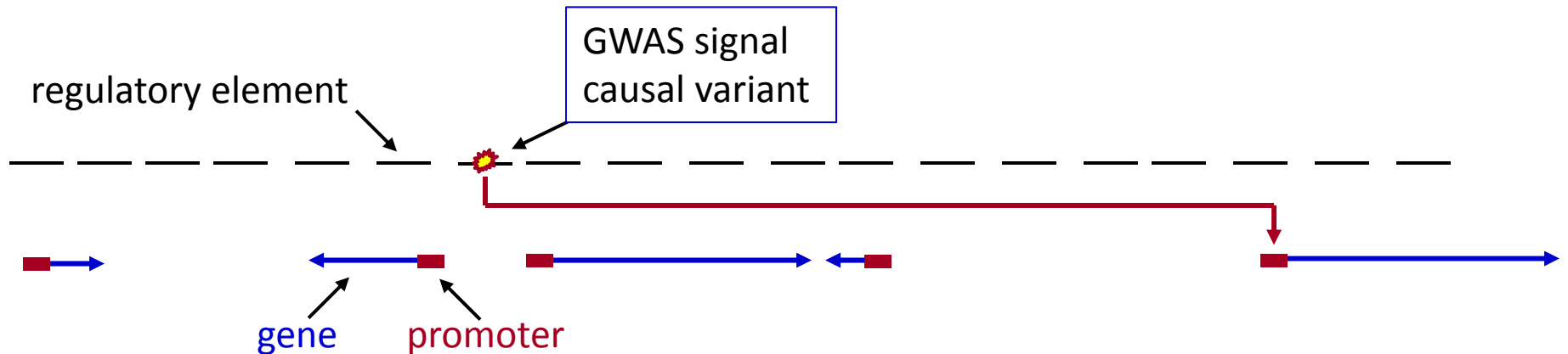
not CD33

- $P < 5 \times 10^{-8}$
- OR = 1.08 – 1.37, **5.22**
- MAF = 3.9% - 49%

APOE



GWAS signals: 90-95% of causative variants are in non-promoter regulatory elements

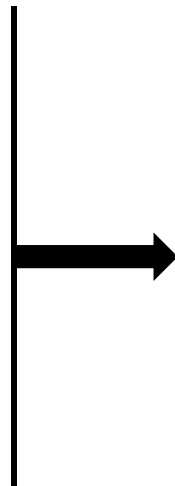


Genomic information

- eQTL (GTEx)
- Roadmap
- Encode
- Fantom 5

New Technology

- Capture C methods
- CRISPR



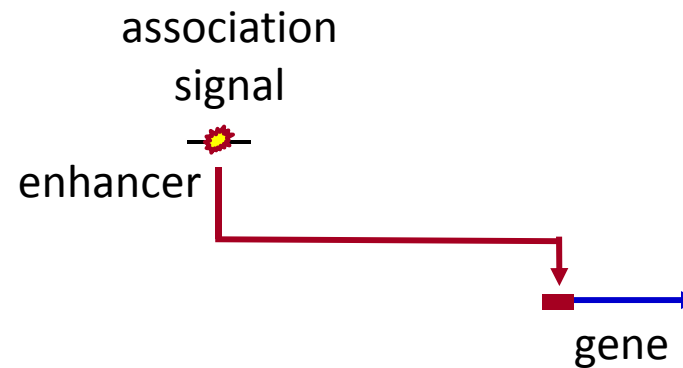
association signal



Known AD Genes

1. *APP*
2. *PSEN1*
3. *PSEN2*
4. *APOE*
5. *SORL1*
6. *CR1*
7. *ABCA7*
8. *MAPT*
9. *TREM2*
10. *UNC5C*
11. *PLXNA4*
12. *AKAP*

Other GWAS loci



“New wine
from old
bottles”



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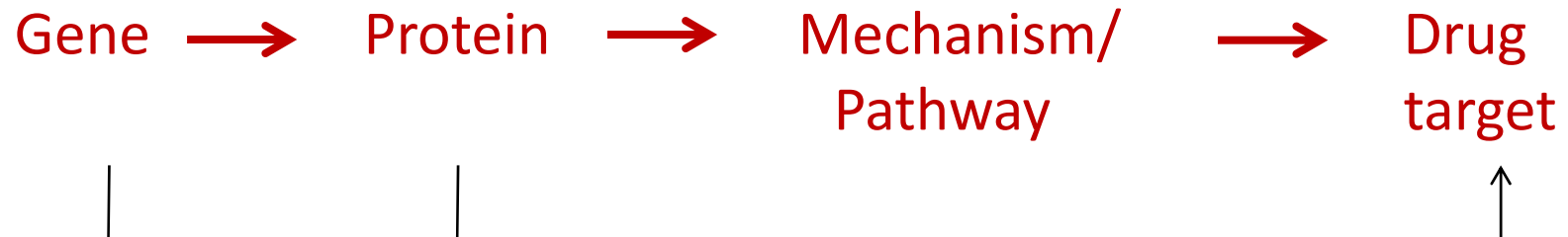
Is technology driving what we do?

Or

Is technology being used to answer questions?



- Prediction
- Mechanism
- Drug targets



- Prediction
- Mechanism
- Drug targets



APP

PSEN1

PSEN2

Autosomal dominant

Highly penetrant

Early-onset

Rare! (< 0.1%?)

Highly predictive

Applies to a very small number of cases

Used to design prevention trials




APOE

Genotype	Odds ratio (95% Confidence interval)	Control frequency (percent)	Case frequency (percent)
$\epsilon 3/\epsilon 3$	1.0 (referent)	60.9	36.4
$\epsilon 2/\epsilon 2$	0.6 (0.2 – 2.0)	0.8	0.2
$\epsilon 2/\epsilon 3$	0.6 (0.5 – 0.8)	12.7	4.8
$\epsilon 2/\epsilon 4$	2.6 (1.6 – 4.0)	2.6	2.6
$\epsilon 3/\epsilon 4$	3.2 (2.8 – 3.8)	21.3	41.1
$\epsilon 4/\epsilon 4$	14.9 (10.8 – 20.6)	1.8	14.8
$\epsilon 4/\epsilon 4$	35.07 (23.8 – 51.8)	onset age 60 – 69 years	



APOE

Genotype	Percent in Controls	Life Time Risk – Age 85 years (male/female)
$\epsilon 3/\epsilon 3$	60.9%	7% – 12%
$\epsilon 3/\epsilon 4$	21.3%	22% - 35%
$\epsilon 4/\epsilon 4$	1.8%	52% – 68% 

Life-time risk – risk to develop AD between birth and a specific age (85 year in table above)



Other rare variant genes

- *TREM2*

<i>TREM2</i>			
Variant	control carrier frequency	Odds ratio	p-value
R47H	0.4%	2.29	4.31×10^{-12}
R62H	1.26%	1.67	5.64×10^{-12}
Modest odds ratio Semi-rare			

Two additional loci:

- OR = 1.58 (risk allele frequency in controls = 1.28%)
- OR = 2.29 (risk allele frequency in controls = 0.4%)

African Americans	<i>ABCA7</i>	OR = 1.79 (CI, 1.47 – 2.12); risk allele controls = 7%
Caucasians	<i>ABCA7</i>	OR = 1.11 (CI, 1.11 – 1.19) risk allele controls = 19%

Reitz et al. JAMA 309, 1483 (2013)

Chr.	Closest gene ²	MAF (SE) ³	Overall	
			OR (95% CI)	Meta P-value
1	CR1	0.197 (0.012)	1.18 (1.14-1.22)	5.7x10 ⁻²⁴
2	BIN1	0.409 (0.017)	1.22 (1.18-1.25)	6.9x10 ⁻⁴⁴
6	CD2AP	0.266 (0.010)	1.10 (1.07-1.13)	5.2x10 ⁻¹¹
7	EPHA1	0.338 (0.010)	0.90 (0.88-0.93)	1.1x10 ⁻¹³
8	CLU	0.379 (0.010)	0.86 (0.84-0.89)	2.8x10 ⁻²⁵
11	MS4A6A	0.403 (0.012)	0.90 (0.87-0.92)	6.1x10 ⁻¹⁶
11	PICALM	0.358 (0.008)	0.87 (0.85-0.89)	9.3x10 ⁻²⁶
19	ABCA7	0.190 (0.012)	1.15 (1.11-1.19)	1.1x10 ⁻¹⁵
6	HLA-DRB5/HLA-DRB1	0.276 (0.012)	1.11 (1.08-1.15)	2.9x10 ⁻¹²
8	PTK2B	0.366 (0.012)	1.10 (1.08-1.13)	7.4x10 ⁻¹⁴
11	SORL1	0.039 (0.004)	0.77 (0.72-0.82)	9.7x10 ⁻¹⁵
14	SLC24A4/RIN3	0.217 (0.009)	0.91 (0.88-0.94)	5.5x10 ⁻⁹
2	INPP5D	0.488 (0.018)	1.08 (1.05-1.11)	3.2x10 ⁻⁸
5	MEF2C	0.408 (0.010)	0.93 (0.90-0.95)	3.2x10 ⁻⁸
7	NME8	0.373 (0.012)	0.93 (0.90-0.95)	4.8x10 ⁻⁹
7	ZCWPW1	0.287 (0.016)	0.91 (0.89-0.94)	5.6x10 ⁻¹⁰
11	CELF1	0.316 (0.022)	1.08 (1.05-1.11)	1.1x10 ⁻⁸
14	FERMT2	0.092 (0.009)	1.14 (1.09-1.19)	7.9x10 ⁻⁹
20	CASS4	0.083 (0.006)	0.88 (0.84-0.92)	2.5x10 ⁻⁸

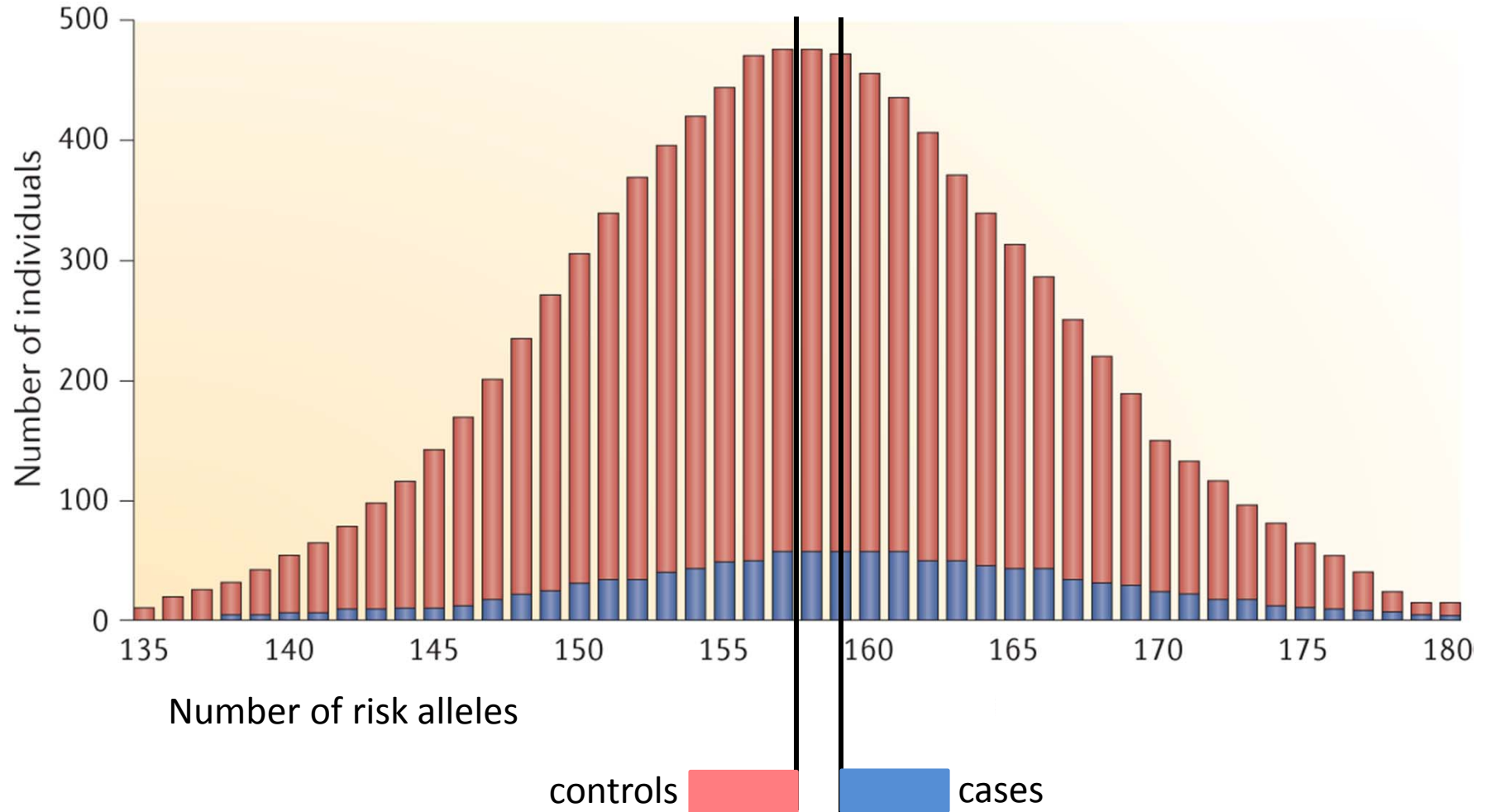


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OR or (1/OR) range = 1.08 – 1.22

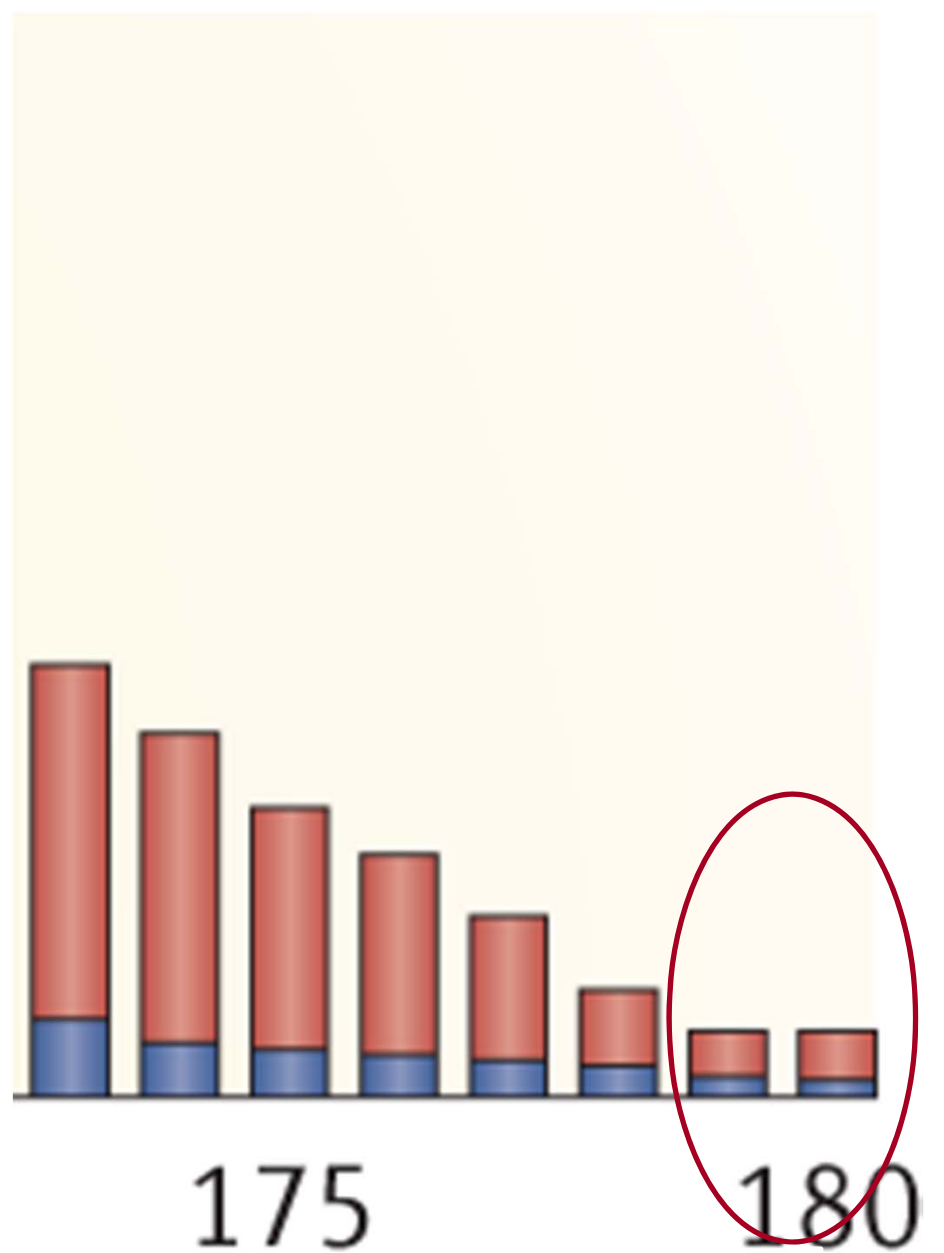
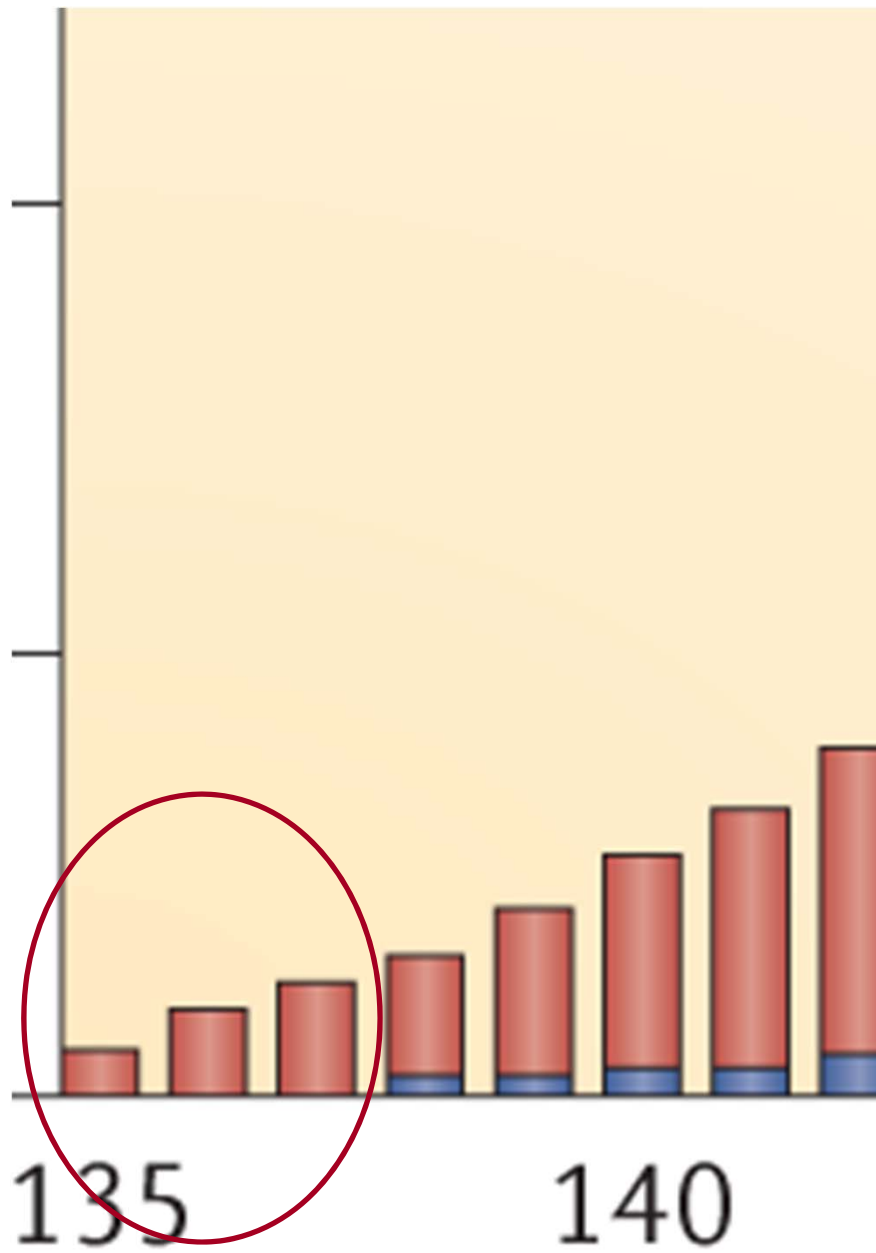
Prediction?





200 risk genes
 Risk allele is common (0.1 – 0.9)
 GRR = 1.04
 Disease prevalence is 10%





135

140

175

180



Prediction

- Some rare variants are highly predictive
- Some rare variants will be modestly predictive
- *APOE* is a major contributor to risk
- Common variants have a limited contribution to risk assessment

- Will find more common variants
- May find more rare-variants – modest predictive value
- Unlikely that a common large effect gene (*e.g. APOE*) will be found



-
- Prediction
 - Mechanism
 - Drug targets

Expected outcomes:

- Find genes that identify specific mechanisms
- Multiple genes in the same pathway
- Effect direction
 - High risk allele loss or gain of function
 - High-risk allele increase or decrease expression



Mechanisms/pathways

A β metabolism

APP, PSEN1, PSEN2

Innate immune system – microglial cells

TREM2, CR1, MS4 region, two new genes

Cholesterol metabolism (?)

APOE, ABCA7

Intracellular vesicle trafficking

SORL1, ABCA7

Synaptic dysfunction/membrane function

PICALM, BIN1, EPHA1



- Prediction
- Mechanism
- Drug targets

Can Genetic discoveries be used for drug target identification?

Alzheimer's Disease

A β antibodies

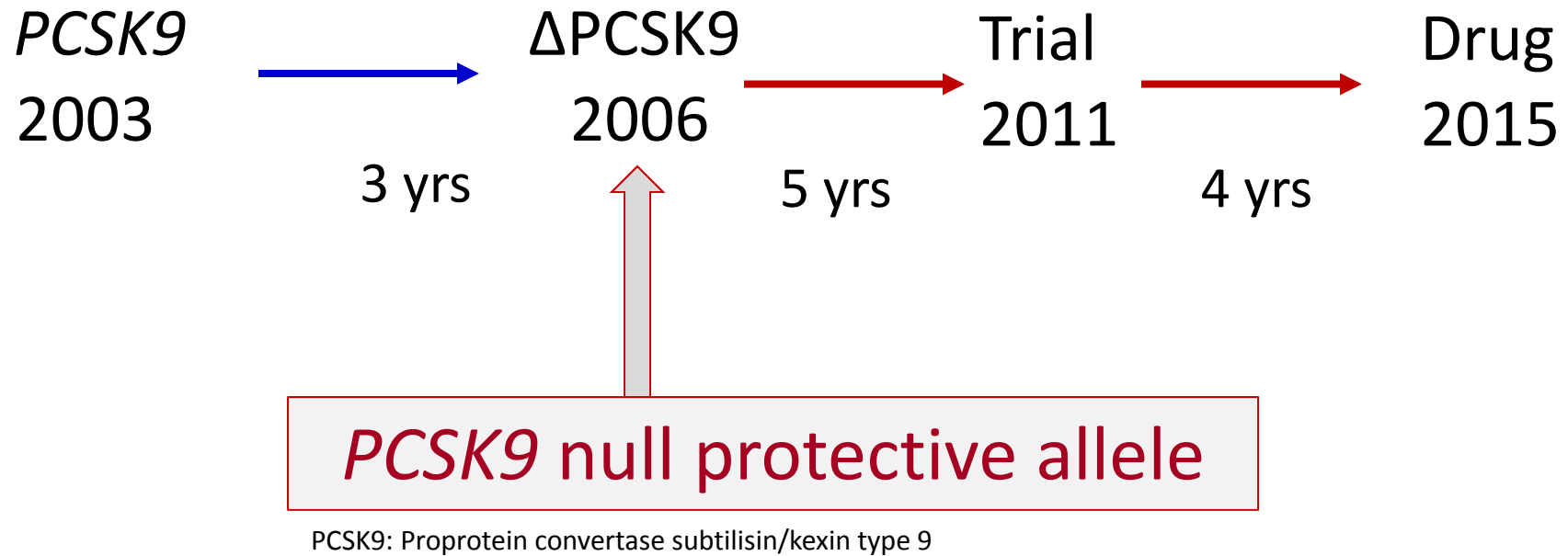
Presenilin inhibitors

BACE1 inhibitors

APOE



Coronary artery disease



What about small-effect genes and drug development?



Biological, clinical and population relevance of 95 loci for blood lipids

A list of authors and their affiliations appears at the end of the paper.

Plasma concentrations of total cholesterol, low-density lipoprotein cholesterol, high-density lipoprotein cholesterol and triglycerides are among the most important risk factors for coronary artery disease (CAD) and are targets for therapeutic intervention. We screened the genome for common variants associated with plasma lipids in >100,000 individuals of European ancestry. Here we report 95 significantly associated loci ($P < 5 \times 10^{-8}$), with 59 showing genome-wide significant association with lipid traits for the first time. The newly reported associations include single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) near known lipid regulators (for example, *CYP7A1*, *NPC1L1* and *SCARB1*) as well as in scores of loci not previously implicated in lipoprotein metabolism. The 95 loci contribute not only to normal variation in lipid traits but also to extreme lipid phenotypes and have an impact on lipid traits in three non-European populations (East Asians, South Asians and African Americans). Our results identify several novel loci associated with plasma lipids that are also associated with CAD. Finally, we validated three of the novel genes—*GALNT2*, *PPP1R3B* and *TTC39B*—with experiments in mouse models. Taken together, our findings provide the foundation to develop a broader biological understanding of lipoprotein metabolism and to identify new therapeutic opportunities for the prevention of CAD.

Gene*	P-value	Trait	Effect size (mg/dl)	drug
HMG co-A reductase	9×10^{-47}	TC	+2.84	statins
<i>NPC1L1</i>	3×10^{-11}	TC	+2.01	ezetimibe
PCSK9	2×10^{-28}	LDL	+2.01	alirocumab
<i>APOE</i>	9×10^{-147}	LDL	+7.14	none



The support of human genetic evidence for approved drug indications

Matthew R Nelson¹, Hannah Tipney², Jeffery L Painter¹, Judong Shen¹, Paola Nicoletti³, Yufeng Shen^{3,4}, Aris Floratos^{3,4}, Pak Chung Sham^{5,6}, Mulin Jun Li^{6,7}, Junwen Wang^{6,7}, Lon R Cardon⁸, John C Whittaker² & Philippe Sanseau²

Over a quarter of drugs that enter clinical development fail because they are ineffective. Growing insight into genes that influence human disease may affect how drug targets and indications are selected. However, there is little guidance about how much weight should be given to genetic evidence in making these key decisions. To answer this question, we investigated how well the current archive of genetic evidence predicts drug mechanisms. We found that, among well-studied indications, the proportion of drug mechanisms with direct genetic support increases significantly across the drug development pipeline, from 2.0% at the preclinical stage to 8.2% among mechanisms for approved drugs, and varies dramatically among disease areas. We estimate that selecting genetically supported targets could double the success rate in clinical development. Therefore, using the growing wealth of human genetic data to select the best targets and indications should have a measurable impact on the successful development of new drugs.

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We estimate that selecting genetically supported targets could double the success rate in clinical development.



Drug targets

- Genetic studies can lead to successful drug development
- Effect size:
 - Does not predict druggability
 - Small effect genes are potential drug targets.



Tesla Syndrome

It's new
It's shiny
It must be better!

I want one!



Business Day
Tesla's Model 3 Already Has 325,000 Preorders
By BILL VLASIC APRIL 7, 2016



Add to cart



Tesla Syndrome

Is technology driving what we do?

Or

Are we using better technology to answer important questions?



Add to cart



Next Generation DNA sequencing

- whole exome
- whole genome

RNASeq

Histone acetylation/methylation

Methylation

DNase hypersensitivity

XYZomics



Add to cart



Whole exome sequencing

- DNA sequence for all (most) exons
- **~\$600/sample**
- Coding/splice junction mutations
- 5' and 3' UTR
- Some small RNAs

Whole genome sequencing

- DNA sequence for all (most) 3×10^9 nucleotides
- **\$1,250 – \$1,350/sample**
- All coding, non-coding, intergenic mutations
- **Can get all (most) structural variants**



Pros - Whole exome sequencing

- cheaper
- Less costly to process data (\$40/subject versus \$140/subject)
- Easy (sort of) to interpret

Cons

- Miss 98% of genetic variability
- Limited resolution for structural variants

Pros - Whole genome sequencing

- Get all (most) mutations
- **Potential for all structural variants**

Cons

- More expensive to produce/process/store
- More difficult to interpret **ALL** the data



Genomic resources

- Encode
- RoadMap
- GTeX
- Fantom5
- Other databases

Enhance interpretation of
intergenic and intronic
genetic variation



Structural Variants (SVs) Introduction

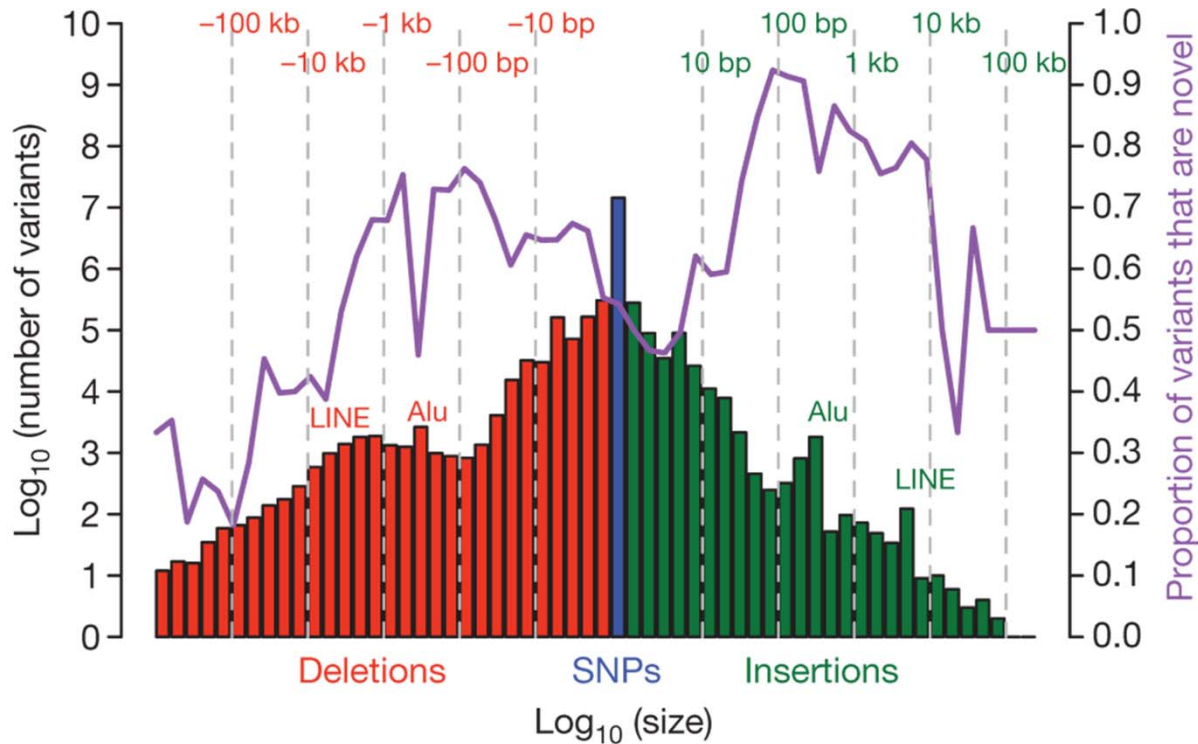
Type

- Insertions
- Deletions
- Inversions
- Translocations
- Copy number variation (CNV)

Size

- Inversely related to frequency
- 1bp to very large





A map of human genome variation from population-scale sequencing

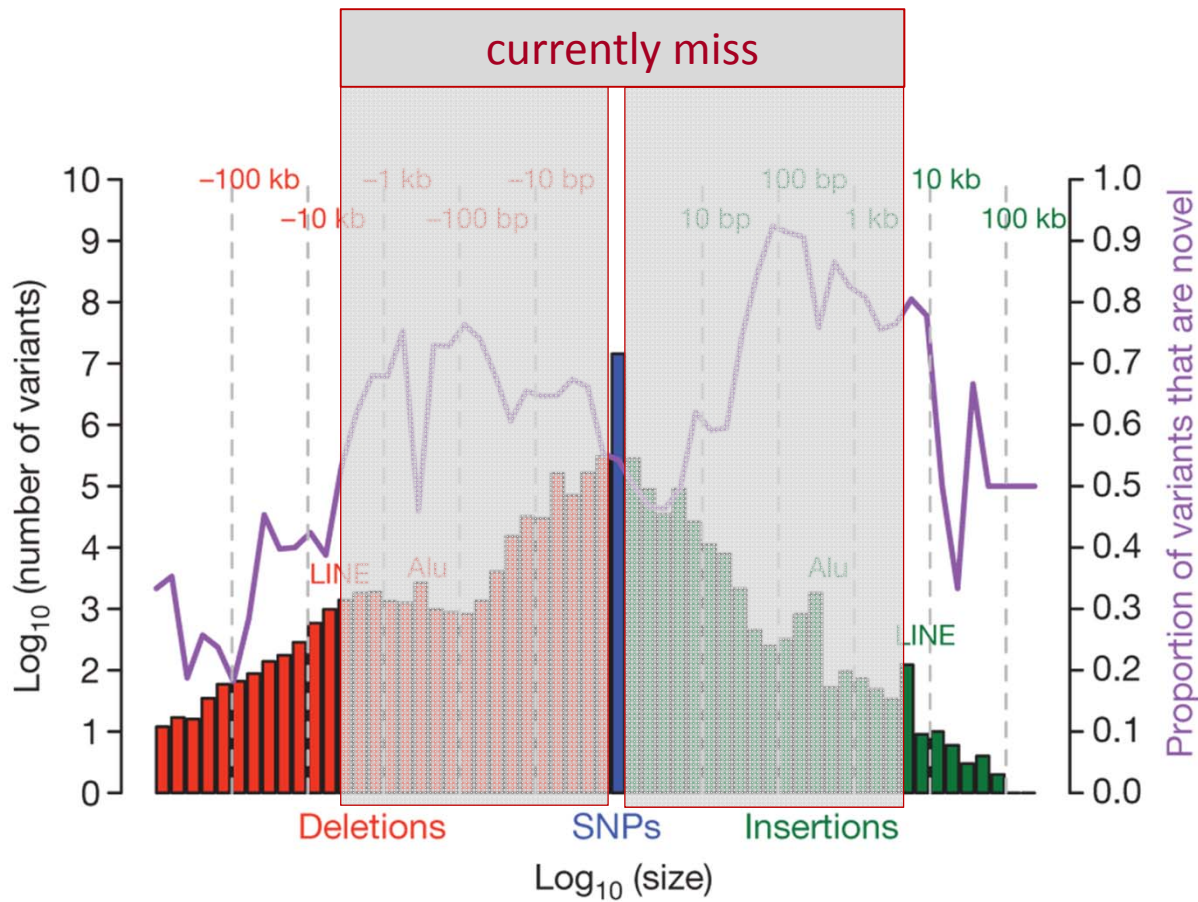
The 1000 Genomes Project Consortium*

*Lists of participants and their affiliations appear at the end of the paper.

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- SVs account for more of our genetic variability than single nucleotide variants (SNPs)





- Currently miss SVs in the 1 bp to ~5,000 bp range



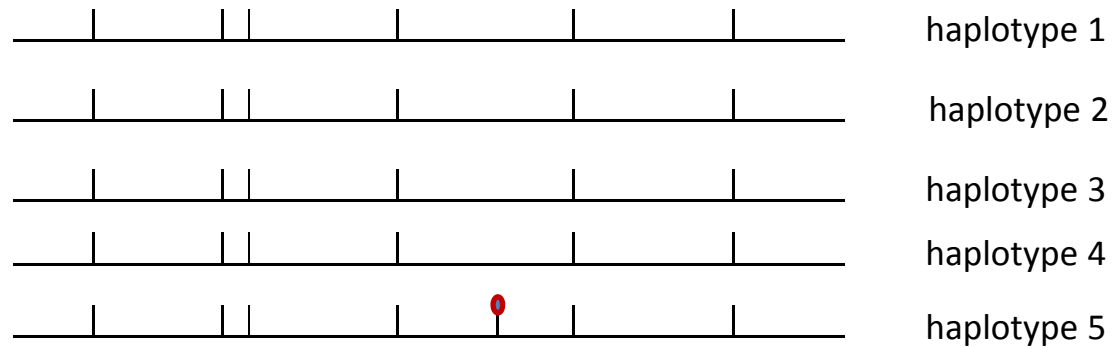
Structural Variants (SVs)

- SVs - Alzheimer's disease/other neurologic disorders
 - *APP* duplication
 - *SNCA* duplication
 - *PSEN1* indel
 - *PMP22* deletion/duplication
 - *MAPT* inversion/CNVs
 - **Loss-of-function deletion – *ABCA7***

Whole genome sequencing will allow us to see SVs of all sizes – not previously genotyped



Imputation

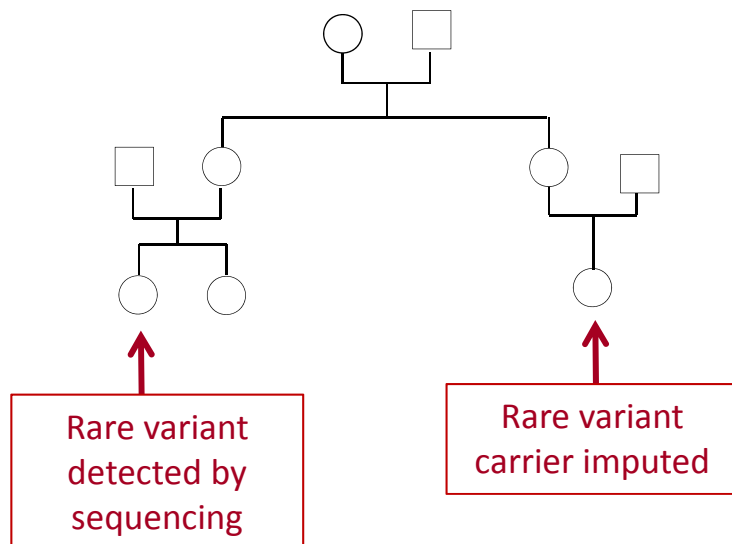


Reference panel

- 30,000 Genomes

1. Combined data from different genotyping platforms

2. Test variants not directly genotyped: rare-variants



Rare-Variant GWAS



Concordance: HRC vs. WGS

MAF Ranges	"Best Guess" % Concordance	"Stringent" % Concordance
0.2-1%	99.731	99.956
1-3%	99.522	99.924
3-5%	99.373	99.876
5-10%	99.389	99.847
10-15%	99.239	99.646
15-20%	99.068	99.424
Genotypes Used	90,251,702	76,642,843

- Hard-call genotypes from imputation
 - "Best Guess" – call goes to any genotype with prob>0.5
 - "Stringent" – call goes to genotypes only with prob>0.9
- Comparing HRC imputation of ADNI GWAS vs. ADNI WGS genotype calls in 213 ADNI samples
- Only looking at alternate genotype concordance (R/A; A/A)



Imputation:

- Uses existing GWAS genotypes
- Impute to an allele frequency of 0.1%

- Most SVs
- Disease specific mutations
- Ethnic groups not in reference panel



“New wine
from old
bottles”

**Analyze rare
variants not
directly genotyped**

Rare-Variant GWAS



Whole genome sequencing:

- detect all SVs
- detect rare variants not in reference panels
(e.g. Alzheimer's disease – specific variants)
- variants in different ethnic groups

Use both whole genome
sequencing and imputation



Future:

- Use imputed genotypes for replication studies
- Generate reference panels from:
 - Different ethnic groups
 - Disease populations
 - Sequence data processed for SVs



Goal: Completely resolve the genetics of AD – all genetic variation that alters risk

The longer the list of valid risk/preventative genes;

- The better the chance of finding a druggable target
- The more we will understand about disease mechanism



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The End