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Candidate genes for Alzheimer's disease are associated with individual differences in plasma levels of beta amyloid peptides in adults with Down syndrome

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ABSTRACT

We examined the contribution of candidate genes for Alzheimer's disease (AD) to individual differences in levels of beta amyloid peptides in adults with Down syndrome, a population at high risk for AD. Participants were 254 non-demented adults with Down syndrome, 30–78 years of age. Genomic deoxyribonucleic acid was genotyped using an Illumina GoldenGate custom array. We used linear regression to examine differences in levels of A β peptides associated with the number of risk alleles, adjusting for age, sex, level of intellectual disability, race and/or ethnicity, and the presence of the APOE ϵ 4 allele. For A β 42 levels, the strongest gene-wise association was found for a single nucleotide polymorphism (SNP) on *CAHLM1*; for A β 40 levels, the strongest gene-wise associations were found for SNPs in *IDE* and *SOD1*, while the strongest gene-wise associations with levels of the A β 42/A β 40 ratio were found for SNPs in *SORCS1*. Broadly classified, variants in these genes may influence amyloid precursor protein processing (*CALHM1*, *IDE*), vesicular trafficking (*SORCS1*), and response to oxidative stress (*SOD1*).

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1. Introduction

Amyloid β (A β) plays a critical role in the development of Alzheimer's disease (AD). A β peptides A β 40 and A β 42 are the 2 major species generated by sequential proteolytic cleavage by β and γ secretases of the amyloid precursor protein (APP) (Selkoe, 2001). Brain levels of A β 42 increase early in the development of dementia (Cummings and Cotman, 1995; Naslund et al., 2000), and studies of A β peptides in cerebrospinal fluid (CSF) have consistently shown that declining or low levels of A β 42 and A β 42/A β 40 ratio and high

concentrations of tau in patients with mild cognitive impairment are associated with higher brain A β load (Fagan et al., 2006, 2007, 2009) and predict conversion to AD (Blennow and Hampel, 2003; Hansson et al., 2007; Jack et al., 2013). Studies of plasma A β have shown less consistent relationships to risk of AD than studies of CSF A β and inconsistent correlations between plasma and CSF A β peptides (Toledo et al., 2013). Elevated plasma A β 42 levels have been proposed as a risk factor related to both age and risk for AD. Thus, although deposition of A β 42 in brain tissue is unlikely to result directly from increased plasma levels, both brain and plasma levels may reflect a general alteration in A β processing and individual differences in plasma A β 42 peptide level may serve as biological markers of risk, sensitive to the development and progression of AD.

Individuals with Down syndrome (DS) have increased risk for AD neuropathology and clinical dementia, which has been

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attributed to triplication and overexpression of the gene for *APP* located on chromosome 21 (Head et al., 2012), which leads to elevated levels of A β peptides from an early age (Conti et al., 2010; Head et al., 2011; Mehta et al., 1998; Schupf et al., 2001; Teller et al., 1996; Tokuda et al., 1997). In adults with DS, high initial levels of plasma A β 42 are associated with increased risk for AD (Coppus et al., 2012; Head et al., 2011; Jones et al., 2009; Matsuoka et al., 2009; Schupf et al., 2001, 2007). However, there are large individual differences in initial A β peptide levels and a wide range of age at the onset of AD within this population, suggesting a more complex underlying mechanism and a role for additional risk factors.

The factors that influence individual differences in plasma A β peptides are not well understood. Genetic and environmental risk factors may influence the development of AD by increasing production of A β or by reducing clearance or excess deposition of A β . Compared with individuals without DS, adults with DS could also be at increased risk for AD through triplication and overexpression of genes on chromosome 21 other than *APP*, and genes on other chromosomes may modify this risk. Multiple genome-wide association studies (GWAS) have identified potential genetic pathways for AD (Bertram and Tanzi, 2012; Hollingworth et al., 2011; Jun et al., 2010; Lambert et al., 2009a, 2013; Naj et al., 2011) but only a few studies have examined their relation to A β levels (Bali et al., 2012; Chouraki et al., 2014; Kim et al., 2011; Miners et al., 2010; Reitz et al., 2011b). Reasoning that individuals with DS may be a population group with increased sensitivity for revealing such pathways, in this study we examined the relation of candidate genes for AD to baseline levels of A β peptides, A β 42, A β 40, and the A β 42/A β 40 ratio in older adults with DS. The aim was to identify genetic factors associated with individual differences in level of A β peptides, which might act as biomarkers of risk for AD.

2. Methods

2.1. Study population

The study sample included 254 members of a community-based cohort of adults with confirmed DS, non-demented at their initial examination. Dementia status at baseline was classified using data from all available sources reviewed during a consensus conference. Following recommendations of the AAMR-IASSID Working Group for the Establishment of Criteria for the Diagnosis of Dementia in Individuals with Developmental Disability (Aylward et al., 1997; Burt and Aylward, 2000), participants were classified into 2 groups:

(1) dementia, if there was a history of progressive memory loss, disorientation, and functional decline over a period of at least 1 year and if there were no other medical or psychiatric conditions that might result in or mimic dementia present (e.g., untreated hypothyroidism, stroke) and (2) without dementia, if they were without cognitive or functional decline based on performance on neuropsychological assessments referenced to level of intellectual disability tested in young adulthood, review of medical records, and interviews with informants (Silverman et al., 2004). Among participants who were non-demented at baseline, we analyzed the relation of single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) in candidate genes to A β levels using plasma from the baseline visit (Schupf et al., 2010) to identify genetic factors associated with individual difference in levels of A β peptides, which might act as biomarkers of risk. All individuals were 31 years of age and older (range 31–78) and resided in New York, Connecticut, New Jersey, or northern Pennsylvania. Participants were recruited with the help of state and voluntary service provider agencies and were eligible for inclusion in the present study if (1) a family member or correspondent provided informed consent, (2) he or she either provided

consent or assent indicating willingness to participate, and (3) he or she was willing and able to provide blood samples. 76.4% of the study sample was women. The high frequency of women in the study sample reflects a focus in our research program on the relationship between menopause and risk for dementia among women with Down syndrome. Recruitment, informed consent, and study procedures were approved by the Institutional Review Boards of the New York State Institute for Basic Research in Developmental Disabilities, Columbia University Medical Center, and the Johns Hopkins University School of Medicine.

2.2. Clinical assessment

Assessments included evaluations of cognition and functional abilities, behavioral and/or psychiatric conditions, and health status. Cognitive function was evaluated with a test battery designed for use with individuals varying widely in their initial levels of intellectual functioning, as previously described (Silverman et al., 2004). Structured interviews were conducted with caregivers to collect information on adaptive behavior and medical history. Past and current medical records were reviewed for all participants.

2.3. Plasma A β 42 and A β 40

Participants were asked to provide a 10 mL venous non-fasting blood sample (K₂EDTA lavender-top tube) at each assessment cycle. Blood draws were done between 10 AM and 4 PM. Plasma levels of A β 42 and A β 40 were measured blind to clinical status using a combination of monoclonal antibody 6E10 (specific to an epitope present on 1–16 amino acid residues of A β) and rabbit antisera R165 (vs. A β 42) and R162 (vs. A β 40) in a double antibody sandwich enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay as previously described (Mayeux et al., 2003; Mehta et al., 1998; Schupf et al., 2007). The detection limit for these assays was 5 pg/mL for A β 40 and 10 pg/mL for A β 42. A β 40 and A β 42 levels from each sample were measured twice using separate aliquots. Reliability between measurements was substantial for both peptides ($r = 0.93$ and 0.97 for A β 40 and A β 42, respectively, $p < 0.001$), and the mean of the 2 measurements was used in statistical analyses.

2.4. Apolipoprotein E genotypes

Apolipoprotein E (*APOE*) genotyping used standard polymerase chain reaction-restriction fragment length polymorphism methods using *Hha*1 (*Cfo*1) digestion of an *APOE* genomic polymerase chain reaction product spanning the polymorphic (cys/arg) sites at codons 112 and 158. Acrylamide gel electrophoresis was used to assess and document the restriction fragment sizes (Hixson and Vernier, 1990). Participants were classified according to the presence or absence of an *APOE* ϵ 4 allele.

2.4.1. Selection of candidate genes

An initial set of candidate genes included the top candidate genes from the ALZGENE database (<http://www.alzgene.org>) and additional positional candidate genes from published genome-wide linkage and association studies. We used SNAP (<http://www.broadinstitute.org/mpg/snap/ldsearch.php>) to identify genes within the candidate regions. This process generated 6 candidate genes on chromosome 21, and 41 genes on other chromosomes. Candidate genes on chromosome 21 included the genes for *APP*, β amyloid converting enzyme-2 (*BACE2*), the Down syndrome critical region-1 (*DSCR1*), runt-related transcription factor 1 (*RUNX1*), the astrocyte-derived neurotrophic factor *S100 β* , and Cu/Zn superoxide dismutase (*SOD-1*). Additional candidate

genes were on chromosomes 1, 2, 6–11, 15, 17, 19, 20, and X (see [Supplementary Table 1](#) for the full list of genes). [Fig. 1](#) provides an overview of SNP selection and SNP analysis performed in the two-stage candidate gene study.

2.5. SNP selection

We genotyped each gene with a sufficient number of SNPs to provide dense coverage ($r^2 \sim 0.8$), and the selected SNPs had a relatively high minor allele frequency (MAF > 0.15). To identify tag SNPs in these genes, we applied the TAGGER program ([de Bakker, 2009](#)) to a Caucasian population available from the HapMap dataset (<http://hapmap.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/>). In addition, we used SNAP (<http://www.broadinstitute.org/mpg/snap/ldsearch.php>) to check linkage disequilibrium patterns across the genic region to ensure that the coverage was comprehensive. For chromosome 21, 263 SNPs from the 6 genes had a median MAF of 0.30 and a median inter-marker distance of 1914.5 base pairs. For chromosomes other than 21, 1110 SNPs, exclusive of *APOE*, from 41 genes had a median MAF of 0.30 and a median inter-marker distance of 1955 base pairs. We present top strands generated from the Illumina customized platform.

2.6. SNP genotyping: customized SNP array in trisomic samples

Genomic deoxyribonucleic acid was genotyped using an Illumina GoldenGate custom array. Clustering and genotype calling of chromosome 21 SNPs and non-Chr21 SNPs were performed using GenomeStudio genotyping module v1.8, which supports

polyploidy loci. For SNPs on chromosome 21, the custom cluster option in GenomeStudio Genotyping Module v1.8 was used to specify 4 clusters and the custom GType was used to display genotype calls for polyploidy loci (AAA, AAB, ABB, or BBB). All genotype calls were inspected manually by viewing SNP graph cluster plots. [Fig. 2](#) shows a typical cluster plot for one of the trisomy SNPs tested (rs2830054). The minor allele was always coded as the risk allele.

2.7. Quality control assessment

Before allelic association analysis, we first checked the quality of SNP genotyping. Quality scores were determined from allele cluster definitions for each SNP as determined by the Illumina GenomeStudio Genotyping Module version 3.0 and the combined intensity data from 100% of study samples. Genotype calls with a quality score (Gencall value) of ≥ 0.25 were considered acceptable. For chromosome 21, the average call rate was 98%. We dropped SNPs with a call rate <90% ($n = 23$) or SNPs that did not produce genotypes ($n = 9$). For chromosomes other than 21, the call rate for SNPs was 99%. A total of 11 SNPs were dropped because they had GenTrain scores below threshold or had a call rate of <98%. After the filtering process, we analyzed 231 SNPs on chromosome 21 and 1099 SNPs on chromosomes other than 21. As a further test of assay reliability, 15 randomly selected samples were genotyped in duplicate. The concordance rates for genotyped SNPs in these samples ranged from 91.8% to 100% for Chr 21 SNPs and from 95.2% to 99.6% for non-Chr 21 SNPs. We then conducted additional quality control assessments using PLINK ([Purcell et al., 2007](#)). We excluded SNPs with the following characteristics: missing genotyping rate >5%; minimum allele frequency <1%; Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium test [27] at a p value of <0.000001.

2.8. Population stratification

To adjust for population stratification, we applied the multidimensional scaling method as implemented in PLINK. Using all available SNPs that survived the quality control process, genetic similarity across individuals was estimated by computing identity by state. To anchor and cross-check against individuals with known ethnic background, we also included whites ($n = 165$), Africans ($n = 165$), and Asians ($n = 170$) from the HapMap database (www.hapmap.org). This analysis generated 3 distinct racial and/or ethnic clusters. These clusters were included in the multivariate model to account for ancestry.

2.9. Covariates

Covariates included age, sex, level of intellectual disability, race and/or ethnicity clusters from multidimensional scaling analysis, and the presence or absence of an *APOE* $\epsilon 4$ allele. Level of intellectual disability was classified into 2 groups based on intelligence quotient (IQ) scores obtained before onset of cognitive impairment because of onset of CMI or dementia: mild/moderate (IQ 35–70) and severe/profound (IQ < 35).

2.10. Statistical analyses

Linear regression was used to examine the relationship of potential confounders, including age, sex, race/ethnicity clusters, level of intellectual disability, and the presence of an *APOE* $\epsilon 4$ allele to peptide levels. To minimize penalties for multiple testing, we conducted a two-stage analysis to identify SNPs that are associated with levels of amyloid A β 42 and A β 40 ([Fig. 1](#)). In stage 1 (screening stage), using PLINK, we pruned SNPs to achieve a variance inflation

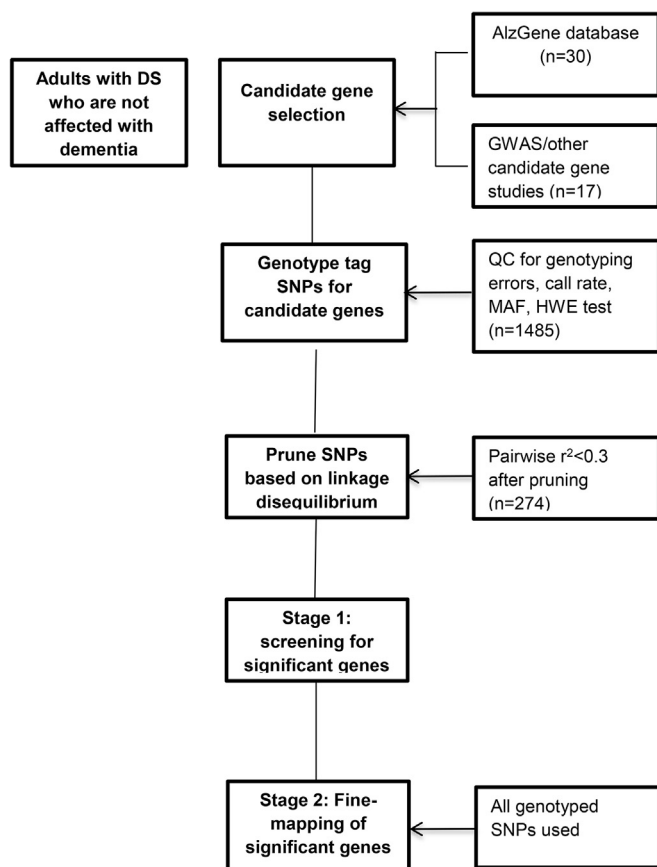


Fig. 1. Flow chart for a two-stage candidate gene study of A β 42, A β 40, or A β 42/40 ratio. Abbreviation: A β , amyloid beta.

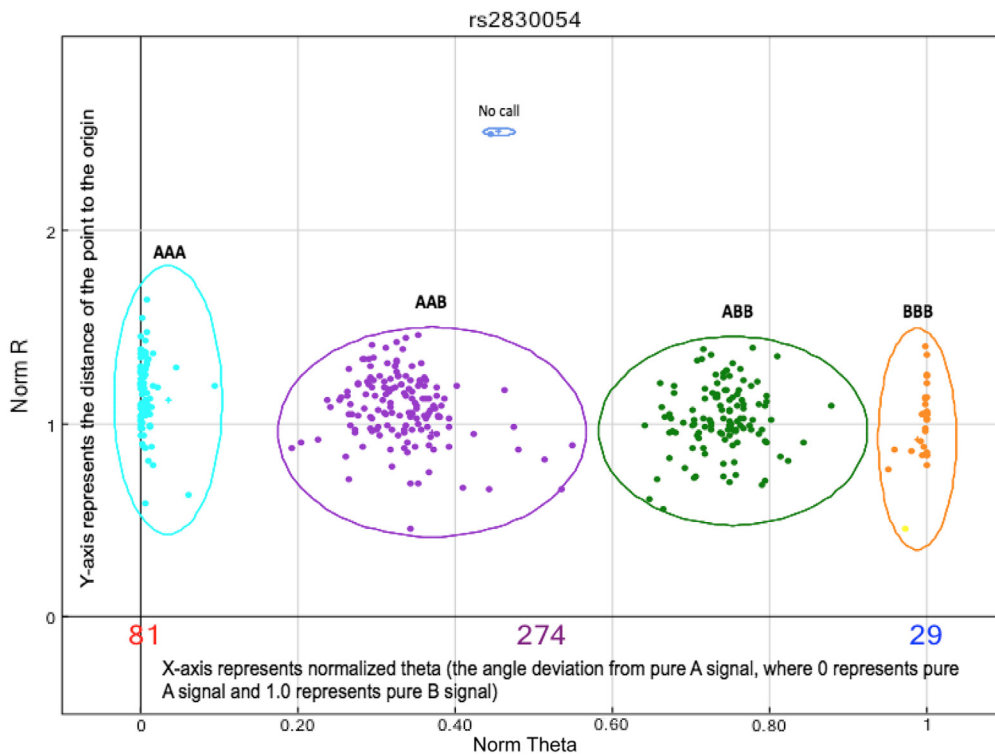


Fig. 2. Cluster plot for an SNP on chromosome 21: rs2830054 as an example. Abbreviation: SNP, single nucleotide polymorphism.

factor of 1.43, which is equivalent to a pairwise $r^2 < 0.3$. Using PLINK, we evaluated the allelic association between a SNP and A β 42, A β 40, and A β 42/A β 40 levels using a linear regression model after adjusting for confounders. An additive model was used: based on the number of risk alleles. An empirical p -value was computed using 10,000 permutations. In stage 2 (fine mapping stage), we focused on candidate genes where at least one SNP met an empirical p -value < 0.05 . To perform the fine mapping analysis, we included all SNPs that were genotyped within that gene. We repeated the linear regression model and, in addition, we computed adjusted p -values to correct for multiple testing, as proposed by Benjamini and Hochberg (1995) and Benjamini and Yekutieli (2001). The R statistical package (<http://www.r-project.org/>) was used to compute adjusted p -values. For the 3 most promising genes from the single point analysis (*CALMH1* and A β 42, *IDE* and A β 40, *SORCS1* and A β 42/A β 40 ratio), we used PLINK to conduct haplotype analysis with a 3-SNP sliding windows approach to identify contiguous regions with significant association.

3. Results

Valid genotypes were obtained for 254 participants for chromosome 21 genes and for 219 participants for non-chromosome 21 genes. The demographic characteristics of the 2 subsets of participants were comparable. For both subsets, mean age was 49.6 years, 76.4% of the study sample was women, 56.7% had a mild or moderate level of intellectual disability whereas the remainder had severe intellectual disability, and 90.6% of the sample was Caucasian. The *APOE* ϵ 4 allele frequency was 11.3% (Table 1). Mean levels of A β peptides were also comparable across both sets. Mean A β 42 level was 28.2 pg/mL (8.0–132.4) for the 254 participants with genotypes on chromosome 21 and 27.3 pg/mL (8.0–110.7) for the 219 participants with genotypes on other chromosomes. Mean

A β 40 level was 156.0 pg/mL (24.3–491.4) and the mean A β 42/A β 40 ratio was 0.21 pg/mL (0.047–1.15) for both subsets of participants.

For all participants, level of intellectual disability, sex, race/ethnicity components, and the presence of an *APOE* ϵ 4 allele were not related to baseline levels of A β 42, A β 40, or A β 42/A β 40 ratio. A β 40 levels increased with age ($r = 0.135$, $p = 0.031$), whereas levels of A β 42 and A β 42/A β 40 ratio decreased with age ($r = -0.17$, $p = 0.008$ and $r = -0.16$, $p = 0.009$, respectively).

3.1. A β 42

Stage 1 screening based on tag SNPs identified SNPs in *RUNX1* and *DSCR1* on chromosome 21 genes (Table 2), and identified SNPs in *MTHFR*, *MTHFD1L*, *RELN*, *CALHM1*, *SORCS1*, *SORL1*, *ACAN*, and *PCDH11X* on non-chromosome 21 genes that were associated with A β 42 levels at an empirical p -value of < 0.05 (Table 2). In stage 2 fine mapping for genes on chromosome 21, none of the SNPs for A β 42 level achieved the adjusted gene-wise empirical p -values using the Benjamini and Hochberg approach (Benjamini and Hochberg, 1995; Benjamini and Yekutieli, 2001) (Table 2). In stage 2 fine mapping for non-chromosome 21 genes, 2 SNPs (rs177736358 and rs755577) that are ~ 2.5 kb apart on the calcium homeostasis modulator 1 (*CALHM1*) gene were significant after correcting for multiple testing, and 2 SNPs (rs11814111 and rs8878183) on *SORCS1* had adjusted p -values of 0.066, approaching the threshold of 0.05, whereas SNPs on the other non-chromosome 21 genes failed to achieve the adjusted gene-level empirical p -values (Table 2).

3.2. A β 40

Stage 1 screening based on tag SNPs identified SNPs in the *APP*, *SOD1*, *DSCR1*, and *BACE2* chromosome 21 genes (Table 3) and SNPs in the *BIN1*, *RELN*, *DAPK1*, *IDE*, *ACAN*, *LDLR*, and *PCDH11X* non-chromosome 21 genes that were associated with A β 40 levels at an

Table 1
Demographic characteristics

Characteristic	Participants
Sample size	254
Age (mean \pm S.D.)	49.6 \pm 6.8
Sex (n, %)	
Male	60 (23.6)
Female	194 (76.4)
Level of intellectual disability (n, %)	
Mild/moderate	144 (56.7)
Severe/profound	110 (43.3)
Ethnicity (n, %)	
White	230 (90.6)
Non-white	24 (9.4)
APOE allele frequency	
E4	0.113
E3	0.806
E2	0.0801
A β peptides (pg/mL: mean, range)	
A β 42	28.2 (8.0–132.4)
A β 40	156.0 (24.3–491.4)
A β 42/A β 40 ratio	0.21 (0.047–1.15)

Key: A β , amyloid beta; S.D., standard deviation.

empirical p -value of <0.05 (Table 3). In stage 2 fine mapping, 3 SNPs in the *SOD1* gene that were significant at the p -value of 0.05 for single point analysis barely missed the threshold $p = 0.05$ for significance ($p = 0.0529$) in the gene-wise analysis correcting for multiple testing, but none of the SNPs in *APP*, *DSCR1*, or *BACE2* chromosome 21 genes achieved significance in the gene-wise analysis (Table 2). Twelve of 13 SNPs in the insulin degrading enzyme (*IDE*) gene, spanning 20 kb, remained significant after adjusting for multiple testing, whereas SNPs in the other non-chromosome 21 genes did not achieve gene-wise empirical p -values (Table 3).

3.3. A β 42/A β 40 ratio

In stage 1 screening, SNPs in the *APP*, *RUNX1*, and *BACE2* chromosome 21 genes (Table 4) and SNPs in the *DAPK1*, *SORCS1*, *SORL1*, and *LDLR* non-chromosome 21 genes reached the threshold of 0.05 for single point analysis and were associated with variation in the level of the A β 42/A β 40 ratio (Table 4). In stage 2 fine mapping, the contiguous 7 SNPs for the sortilin-related VPS10 domain containing receptor 1 (*SORCS1*) gene located on 10q23–q25, which were strongly associated with the A β 42/A β 40 ratio in stage 1 screening,

remained significant after multiple testing adjustment ($0.0337 < p < 0.0394$), whereas SNPs in the other genes did not achieve statistical significance (Table 4).

3.4. Haplotype analysis

To further characterize candidate regions that may harbor putative variants, we then performed a 3-mer sliding window haplotype analysis for the 3 promising candidate genes with the strongest support for association, *CALHM1* for A β 42, *IDE* for A β 40, and *SORCS1* for A β 42/A β 40. As shown in Supplementary Tables 2–4, multiple haplotypes anchoring on the SNPs that were significant from the single point gene-wise analysis strengthened the support for association.

4. Discussion

We found significant SNP-wise associations with A β peptide levels for SNPs on 17 genes of 47 candidate genes examined, and 3 genes (*CALHM1*, *IDE*, and *SORCS1*) remained significant after correcting for multiple testing. These 47 candidate genes were selected from previous genome-wide linkage, association, and expression studies of AD in the DS and general populations. Our results extend previous findings of a relationship between SNPs in *APP*, *PICALM*, *SORL1*, *BACE1*, *ALDH18A*, and *RUNX1* and risk of AD in adults with DS (Jones et al., 2013; Lee et al., 2007; Margallo-Lana et al., 2004; Patel et al., 2011) to include examination of plasma beta amyloid peptides as a critical risk factor for AD in DS, and using a wider range of SNPs and genes. We found significant gene-wise associations with A β peptide levels for SNPs in 3 genes: *CALHM1*, *IDE*, and *SORCS1*. For A β 42 levels, 2 SNPs (rs755577 and rs17736358) in *CAHLM1* were associated at the gene-wise level. For A β 40 levels, the strongest gene-wise associations were found for a set of SNPs on *IDE*, located 94,217,038 to 94,335,799 bp. These were represented by a set of contiguous 3-mer haplotypes with empirical p -values ranging from 0.00015 to 0.00063 (see Supplementary Table 3). As an external confirmation, the 2-stage meta-analysis of the Alzheimer Disease Genetics Consortium (ADGC) dataset reported that rs2421942 was significantly associated with AD. For levels of the A β 42/A β 40 ratio, the strongest gene-wise associations were found for SNPs in *SORCS1*, located in the region encompassing 108,479,649 to 108,647,761 bp. Although the exact same set of SNPs were associated with AD in the Alzheimer Disease Genetics

Table 2
A β 42 SNPs significant in stage 1^a and stage 2 analysis

Chr	Gene	SNP ^b	Location (Hg19)	Risk allele	MAF	Beta	SE	Empirical (pointwise)	Genewise BH adjusted empirical p
21	<i>RUNX1</i>	rs8134179	36,279,713	G	0.188	3.08	1.20	0.0107	0.7169
21	<i>DSCR1</i>	rs2284599	35,952,322	T	0.315	−2.01	0.95	0.0361	0.1487
21	<i>DSCR1</i>	rs3787720	35,904,053	T	0.352	−2.10	1.01	0.0374	0.1487
1	<i>MTHFR</i>	rs17037425	11,870,383	A	0.131	3.58	1.81	0.0469	0.0871
6	<i>MTHFD1L</i>	rs10457867	151,318,079	A	0.172	3.69	1.61	0.0205	0.7708
7	<i>RELN</i>	rs362710	103,177,947	G	0.267	−2.76	1.34	0.0421	0.5810
7	<i>RELN</i>	rs362642	103,249,871	A	0.486	2.71	1.16	0.0167	0.5762
10	<i>CALHM1</i>	rs755577	105,224,066	A	0.302	3.32	1.30	0.0088	0.0352
10	<i>CALHM1</i>	rs17736358	105,226,538	G	0.174	4.36	1.51	0.0036	0.0288
10	<i>SORCS1</i>	rs11814111	108,355,659	A	0.251	−3.78	1.42	0.0090	0.0665
10	<i>SORCS1</i>	rs878183	108,533,358	A	0.183	4.77	1.54	0.0022	0.0661
10	<i>SORCS1</i>	rs4918282	108,862,741	A	0.412	−2.70	1.18	0.0241	0.1004
11	<i>SORL1</i>	rs578506	121,323,477	G	0.482	2.86	1.17	0.0143	0.8294
15	<i>ACAN</i>	rs2280468	89,381,556	A	0.299	−2.76	1.33	0.0371	0.7580
X	<i>PCDH11X</i>	rs5984894	91,393,737	G	0.461	3.01	1.21	0.0145	0.2973
X	<i>PCDH11X</i>	rs2573905	91,402,220	G	0.495	3.21	1.22	0.0107	0.2973

Key: BH, Benjamini and Hochberg; Chr, chromosome; MAF, minor allele frequency; SNP, single nucleotide polymorphism.

^a Positive SNPs from stage 1 are given in italics. Nonitalicized SNPs were added in stage 2.

^b SNPs with adjusted empirical $p < 0.05$ based on the genewise Benjamini and Hochberg method in stage 2 are in bold.

Table 3
A β 40 SNPs significant in stage 1^a and stage 2 analysis

Chr	Gene	SNP ^b	Location (Hg19)	Minor allele	MAF	Beta	SE	Empirical (pointwise)	Genewise BH adjusted empirical p
21	<i>APP</i>	<i>rs7283500</i>	27,343,288	C	0.207	-11.61	5.45	0.0326	0.7137
21	<i>SOD1</i>	<i>rs1041740</i>	33,040,162	T	0.319	-10.61	4.51	0.0191	0.0529
21	<i>SOD1</i>	<i>rs4817420</i>	33,040,371	A	0.323	-9.5	4.49	0.037	0.0529
21	<i>SOD1</i>	<i>rs12626475</i>	33,042,929	G	0.339	-8.73	4.52	0.0529	0.0529
21	<i>DSCR1</i>	<i>rs3787720</i>	35,904,053	T	0.352	-10.88	4.47	0.0149	0.1886
21	<i>BACE2</i>	<i>rs6517653</i>	42,534,253	A	0.169	13.05	5.45	0.0174	0.2353
2	<i>BIN1</i>	<i>rs1866236</i>	127,895,655	C	0.287	17.95	6.17	0.0041	0.1148
7	<i>RELN</i>	<i>rs11981312</i>	103,289,857	A	0.351	18.53	7.07	0.0089	0.4071
7	<i>RELN</i>	<i>rs12705170</i>	103,581,271	A	0.208	-18.11	7.13	0.0118	0.4071
9	<i>DAPK1</i>	<i>rs3128522</i>	90,216,821	G	0.299	-14.01	6.45	0.0290	0.6386
10	<i>IDE</i>	<i>rs11187009</i>	94,217,038	A	0.224	23.37	6.75	0.0005	0.0020
10	<i>IDE</i>	<i>rs7899603</i>	94,225,017	G	0.373	20.78	5.97	0.0003	0.0020
10	<i>IDE</i>	<i>rs4646957</i>	94,229,912	A	0.339	18.61	6.10	0.0022	0.0048
10	<i>IDE</i>	<i>rs11187025</i>	94,257,976	A	0.188	24.34	7.29	0.0009	0.0021
10	<i>IDE</i>	<i>rs17445028</i>	94,271,176	G	0.188	24.34	7.29	0.0009	0.0021
10	<i>IDE</i>	<i>rs7078413</i>	94,290,484	C	0.315	24.29	6.19	0.0001	0.0020
10	<i>IDE</i>	<i>rs1832197</i>	94,298,331	A	0.364	20.17	5.90	0.0007	0.0020
10	<i>IDE</i>	<i>rs11187060</i>	94,304,132	A	0.321	20.72	6.02	0.0005	0.0020
10	<i>IDE</i>	<i>rs17445328</i>	94,305,189	G	0.224	23.37	6.75	0.0005	0.0020
10	<i>IDE</i>	<i>rs11187064</i>	94,308,253	G	0.224	23.37	6.75	0.0005	0.0020
10	<i>IDE</i>	<i>rs7076966</i>	94,325,511	A	0.491	-14.29	6.37	0.0267	0.0534
10	<i>IDE</i>	<i>rs7099761</i>	94,335,799	A	0.480	20.54	6.20	0.0007	0.0020
10	<i>IDE</i>	<i>rs11187076</i>	94,336,963	G	0.423	22.57	6.46	0.0006	0.0020
15	<i>ACAN</i>	<i>rs1983332</i>	89,409,603	G	0.290	-12.83	6.39	0.0456	0.3053
19	<i>LDLR</i>	<i>rs4804570</i>	11,256,059	G	0.224	-18.26	7.60	0.0172	0.2408
X	<i>PCDH11X</i>	<i>rs5942146</i>	91,437,953	A	0.491	-14.03	6.06	0.0181	0.2255
X	<i>PCDH11X</i>	<i>rs3855797</i>	91,704,677	A	0.246	-15.70	7.68	0.0431	0.2895

Key: BH, Benjamini and Hochberg; Chr, chromosome; MAF, minor allele frequency; SE, standard error; SNP, single nucleotide polymorphism.

^a Positive SNPs from stage 1 are given in italics. Nonitalicized SNPs were added in stage 2.^b SNPs with adjusted empirical $p < 0.05$ based on the genewise Benjamini and Hochberg method in stage 2 are in bold.

Consortium meta-analysis, rs12248379 (chr10:108562008) ($p = 0.00534$) overlapped with haplotype A–C–C that was significant in our dataset ($p = 0.00329$). Broadly classified, variants in these genes may influence APP processing (*CALHM1*, *IDE*) and vesicular trafficking (*SORCS1*), neurodevelopmental processes, response to oxidative stress (*SOD1*).

Processing of APP by cleavage by β and γ secretases to generate A β peptides is central to the pathogenesis of AD (Vardarajan et al., 2012). Missense mutations in the gene for APP, which increase the proteolytic conversion of APP into the fibrillogenic A β 42 peptide, have been shown to lead to early onset of AD (Goate et al., 1991; Guerreiro et al., 2012; Rogaeva et al., 2007; Scheuner et al., 1996; Younkin,

1997), but less work has been done on the relation of common SNPs in APP to age at onset, risk of AD, or individual differences in A β peptide levels (Benitez et al., 2013; Chapman et al., 2013; Kimura et al., 2007; Shulman et al., 2013). Several, but not all, studies have found a relationship between high initial levels of A β 42 and subsequent development of AD, both among adults with Down syndrome (Coppus et al., 2012; Head et al., 2011; Jones et al., 2009; Matsuoka et al., 2009; Schupf et al., 2001, 2007) and in the general population (Blasko et al., 2010; Mayeux et al., 1999, 2003; Pomara et al., 2005; Schupf et al., 2008). However, large GWAS studies of AD have not found an association between SNPs in APP and late onset AD (LOAD) (Bertram and Tanzi, 2012; Hollingworth et al., 2011; Lambert

Table 4
A β 42/A β 40 SNPs significant in stage 1^a and stage 2 analysis

Chr	Gene	SNP ^b	Location (Hg19)	Minor allele	MAF	Beta	SE	Empirical (pointwise)	Genewise BH adjusted empirical p
21	<i>APP</i>	<i>rs7283500</i>	27,343,288	C	0.207	0.03	0.01	0.049	0.3305
21	<i>RUNX1</i>	<i>rs12627198</i>	36,420,786	A	0.156	-0.04	0.02	0.0163	0.3585
21	<i>BACE2</i>	<i>rs6517653</i>	42,534,253	A	0.169	-0.04	0.01	0.0144	0.2496
21	<i>BACE2</i>	<i>rs8130833</i>	42,556,885	G	0.278	-0.03	0.01	0.0462	0.3295
21	<i>BACE2</i>	<i>rs960230</i>	42,622,479	T	0.171	0.05	0.02	0.0056	0.2496
9	<i>DAPK1</i>	<i>rs2058882</i>	90,114,746	G	0.1878	-0.04	0.02	0.0436	0.8611
9	<i>DAPK1</i>	<i>rs3095747</i>	90,218,678	C	0.3416	-0.04	0.02	0.0152	0.8611
10	<i>SORCS1</i>	<i>rs11814111</i>	108,355,659	A	0.2511	-0.05	0.02	0.0067	0.0577
10	<i>SORCS1</i>	<i>rs10884341</i>	108,479,649	A	0.1946	0.06	0.02	0.0022	0.0337
10	<i>SORCS1</i>	<i>rs11193042</i>	108,531,704	C	0.2081	0.06	0.02	0.0021	0.0337
10	<i>SORCS1</i>	<i>rs878183</i>	108,533,358	A	0.1833	0.07	0.02	0.0017	0.0337
10	<i>SORCS1</i>	<i>rs11193046</i>	108,536,810	A	0.2104	0.06	0.02	0.0021	0.0337
10	<i>SORCS1</i>	<i>rs7091546</i>	108,546,957	G	0.2081	0.06	0.02	0.0015	0.0337
10	<i>SORCS1</i>	<i>rs10509823</i>	108,554,591	G	0.2104	0.06	0.02	0.0021	0.0337
10	<i>SORCS1</i>	<i>rs7916892</i>	108,647,761	C	0.4072	0.05	0.02	0.0030	0.0394
11	<i>SORL1</i>	<i>rs578506</i>	121,323,477	G	0.4819	0.03	0.02	0.0323	0.9796
19	<i>LDLR</i>	<i>rs4804570</i>	11,256,059	G	0.224	0.04	0.02	0.0352	0.2464

Key: A β , amyloid beta; BH, Benjamini and Hochberg; Chr, chromosome; MAF, minor allele frequency; SE, standard error; SNP, single nucleotide polymorphism.^a Positive SNPs from stage 1 are given in italics. Nonitalicized SNPs were added in stage 2.^b SNPs with adjusted empirical $p < 0.05$ based on the genewise Benjamini and Hochberg method in stage 2 are in bold.

et al., 2009b; Naj et al., 2011). A recent GWAS meta-analysis of plasma A β peptide concentrations in non-demented elderly also failed to find SNPs on *APP* that were associated with A β levels, although several suggestive loci were found on other genes; the gene most strongly associated with A β 42 was *CTXN3* (cortixin3), involved in A β 42 secretion (Chouraki et al., 2014). In our cohort of adults with DS, we did find SNPs on *APP* that were significantly associated with A β peptides in the single point analysis; however, after correcting for multiple testing at the gene-wise level, those SNPs were no longer significant. This may reflect the very high level of A β that is found among all adults with DS (Conti et al., 2010; Head et al., 2011; Mehta et al., 1998; Schupf et al., 2001; Teller et al., 1996; Tokuda et al., 1997); it may be that processing and clearance rather than generation of A β are more important factors associated with the individual differences we have examined. It is also possible, given the results of the single point analysis, that studies of SNPs in *APP*, using a much larger sample than we were able to study in this article, will identify SNPs in *APP* associated with individual differences in levels of A β peptides.

We found that the A allele in rs755577 and the G allele in rs17736358 on *CALHM1* were associated with individual differences in A β 42 levels. However, this SNP is located 5.8 and 8.3 kb away from rs2986017 the SNP that has been associated with increased risk and age at onset in some (Boada et al., 2010; Dreses-Werringloer et al., 2008; Lambert et al., 2010), but not all (Beecham et al., 2009; Bertram et al., 2008; Minster et al., 2009) prior studies. *CALHM1* is expressed in the hippocampus and encodes a calcium channel involved in APP processing. The *CALHM1* rs2986017 polymorphism has been proposed to increase A β levels by interfering with *CALHM1*-mediated Ca²⁺ permeability (Dreses-Werringloer et al., 2008). Replication in a larger dataset will be required to confirm this finding.

We found SNPs on *IDE* that were associated with individual differences in A β 40 levels. *IDE* shares insulin and A β as substrates (Kurochkin and Goto, 1994). Consistent with our findings, *IDE* is upregulated in amyloid plaques (Bernstein et al., 1999) and lower expression of *IDE* is found in the hippocampus in brains of elders with LOAD who are *APOE* ϵ 4 positive (Cook et al., 2003; Qiu and Folstein, 2006), and in persons with mild cognitive impairment (Zhao et al., 2007), who are at highest risk for LOAD. Lower *IDE* expression has also been found to correlate with higher levels of cellular A β 42 associated with *PSEN1* mutations in cellular models. Several studies have found an association between a variant on *IDE* and plasma A β 42 or A β 40 levels (Carrasquillo et al., 2010; Reitz et al., 2012). However, data on the relation of the *IDE* locus with AD are conflicting. Some studies showed no association between the *IDE* locus and LOAD (Abraham et al., 2001; Boussaha et al., 2002; Nowotny et al., 2005; Ozturk et al., 2006; Sakai et al., 2004), whereas other studies have found an association (Carrasquillo et al., 2010; Vepsalainen et al., 2007; Zuo and Jia, 2009).

SORCS1 is a member of the vacuolar protein sorting 10 (VPS10) domain-containing receptor protein family. VPS10 receptors are involved with APP trafficking and can influence APP processing and A β production through linking APP to the endosomal retromer complex and access to secretases that cleave APP (Lane et al., 2010, 2013). SNPs in *SORCS1* have been associated with increased risk for late onset AD (Reitz et al., 2011a; Rogava et al., 2007) and also influence A β peptide levels where overexpression of *SORCS1* reduces γ -secretase activity and A β levels, and *SORCS1* suppression increases γ -secretase processing of APP and A β levels (Rogava et al., 2007).

An interesting connection between *IDE* and *SORCS1*, the candidate genes with strongest signals in chromosome 10 in our study, is that both may be related to hyperinsulinemia and type 2 diabetes, potential important risk factors for LOAD (Cheng et al., 2011; Luchsinger et al., 2004). Certain *IDE* genotypes are related to a higher risk of diabetes (Fakhrai-Rad et al., 2000; Karamohamed

et al., 2003; Kwak et al., 2008; Rudovich et al., 2009), although the contribution of *IDE* to diabetes is controversial (Groves et al., 2003) and other studies have found no relationship (Florez et al., 2006; Qin and Jia, 2008). *SORCS1* may also affect insulin levels and the risk of diabetes (Clee et al., 2006; Goodarzi et al., 2007; Lane et al., 2010). Diabetes and insulin resistance are also more prevalent in persons with Down syndrome (Fonseca et al., 2005). Thus, the connection of *IDE*, *SORCS1*, insulin resistance and diabetes, A β and AD in Down syndrome requires further investigation.

Several genes on chromosome 21 are involved in inflammation and are overexpressed in DS, including *APP*, superoxide dismutase (*SOD-1*), Ets-2 transcription factors, Down Syndrome Critical Region 1 (*DSCR1*) stress-inducible factor, beta-site APP cleaving enzyme (*BACE-2*), and *S100 β* . In this study, SNPs in *SOD1* were associated with individual differences in levels of A β 40, but not with A β 42 or the A β 42/A β 40 ratio, and *SOD1* has been implicated in neurodegenerative processes (Lott et al., 2006). Adults with DS overexpress *SOD1* and show increased free radical-mediated oxidative damage (Markesbery and Lovell, 2007; Reynolds and Cutts, 1993). Increased *SOD1* expression has been found in degenerating neurons in the brain of adults with DS (Furuta et al., 1995). The rate of production of A β from APP may be increased in the presence of this type of oxidative damage (Dickinson and Singh, 1993; Lott and Head, 2001), where membrane damage secondary to lipoperoxidation allows for abnormal cleavage of the protein (Singh and Dickinson, 2006). Zis et al. (2012) observed in a longitudinal study that higher *SOD* levels were positively associated with memory performance over a period of 4 years in 26 adults with Down syndrome and suggested that these enzymes may have protective, antioxidant effects. Further work will need to be conducted to determine the contribution of *SOD* levels to onset of dementia in adults with DS.

In sum, recent GWAS and meta-analyses of genes associated with risk for AD have identified SNPs associated with several major pathways, including amyloid production, lipid/cholesterol metabolism, immune response and inflammation, vesicular trafficking/synaptic function, and neurodevelopment. Our study examined the relation of candidate genes for AD to individual differences in A β peptide levels among unaffected adults with Down syndrome. We found significant associations with candidate genes in several of these pathways but the strongest associations were related to A β processing, neuro-developmental processes, and oxidative damage. These findings support the hypothesis that individual differences in A β processing or deposition, distinct from overexpression of *APP*, may act as an initial step in the pathogenesis of AD.

Our study has several limitations. Timing of blood draws was not specifically controlled for. Blood draws were done between 10 AM and 4 PM. We believe that this diurnal variation is unlikely to alter the relation between A β levels and SNPs, since timing was randomly distributed and variations would be expected to lead to non-differential bias. However, this is a potential source of increased variability in our A β measures.

Not all the genes associated with individual differences in A β peptide levels in our cohort of adults with DS have been confirmed in recent large GWAS and meta-analyses as associated with risk for AD in the general population. Our study is limited by a relatively small sample size, but examined the role of these genes in a very high-risk group that is characterized by early onset of AD and by especially high levels of A β peptides. These findings may therefore help to clarify pathways that contribute to the development of AD, both in adults with DS and within the broader population.

Disclosure statement

The authors have no conflicts of interest to declare.

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data associated with this article can be found, in the online version, at <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.neurobiolaging.2015.06.020>.

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