- NeuroChip, an updated version of the NeuroX genotyping platform to
- 2 rapidly screen for variants associated with neurological diseases
- 3 Cornelis Blauwendraat^{1,*}, Faraz Faghri^{2,3*}, Lasse Pihlstrom^{4,5,6}, Joshua T. Geiger¹, Alexis Elbaz^{7,8},
- 4 Suzanne Lesage⁹, Jean-Christophe Corvol⁹, Patrick May¹⁰, Aude Nicolas², Yevgeniya Abramzon²,
- 5 Natalie A. Murphy², J. Raphael Gibbs², Mina Ryten⁴, Raffaele Ferrari⁴, Jose Bras⁴, Rita
- 6 Guerreiro⁴, Julie Williams¹¹, Rebecca Sims¹¹, Steven Lubbe^{12,13}, Dena G. Hernandez^{2,14}, Kin Y.
- 7 Mok^{4,15}, Laurie Robak¹⁶, Roy H. Campbell³, Ekaterina Rogaeva^{17,18}, Bryan J. Traynor², Ruth Chia²,
- 8 Sun Ju Chung¹⁹, International Parkinson's Disease Genomics Consortium (IPDGC), COURAGE-PD
- 9 Consortium, John A. Hardy⁴, Alexis Brice⁹, Nicholas W. Wood¹², Henry Houlden⁴, Joshua M.
- Shulman^{16,20,21}, Huw R. Morris¹², Thomas Gasser^{14,21}, Rejko Krüger^{10,22}, Peter Heutink^{14,22}, Manu
- Sharma^{22,23}, Javier Simón-Sánchez^{14,22}, Mike A. Nalls^{2,24}, Andrew B. Singleton², Sonja W.
- 12 Scholz^{1,25,†}
- * these authors contributed equally
- ¹ Neurodegenerative Diseases Research Unit, National Institute of Neurological Disorders and
- 15 Stroke, National Institutes of Health, Bethesda, MD, USA
- ² Laboratory of Neurogenetics, National Institute on Aging, National Institutes of Health,
- 17 Bethesda, MD, USA
- ³ Department of Computer Science, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign, Urbana, IL, USA
- ⁴ Department of Molecular Neuroscience, UCL Institute of Neurology, London, UK
- 5 Institute of Clinical Medicine, Faculty of Medicine, University of Oslo, Oslo, Norway
- ⁶ Department of Neurology, Oslo University Hospital, Oslo, Norway

- ⁷ Université Paris-Saclay, Univ. Paris-Sud, UVSQ, CESP, INSERM-U1018, Hôpital Paul Brousse, 16
- 23 avenue Paul Vaillant-Couturier, Villejuif, France
- ⁸ Santé publique France, Direction santé travail, 94415, Saint-Maurice, France
- ⁹ Inserm U1127, CNRS UMR 7225, Sorbonne Universités, UPMC Univ Paris 06 UMR S1127,
- 26 Institut du Cerveau et de la Moelle épinière, ICM, Paris, France
- 27 Luxembourg Centre for Systems Biomedicine, House of Biomedicine, 7 Avenue des Hauts-
- 28 Fourneaux, Esch/Alzette L-4362, Luxembourg
- 29 ¹¹ Division of Psychological Medicine and Clinical Neurosciences, MRC Centre for
- 30 Neuropsychiatric Genetics and Genomics, Cardiff University, Cardiff, UK
- 31 ¹² Department of Clinical Neuroscience, UCL Institute of Neurology, Queen Square, London, UK
- 32 ¹³ Ken and Ruth Davee Department of Neurology, Northwestern University Feinberg School of
- 33 Medicine, Chicago, IL, USA
- 34 ¹⁴ German Center for Neurodegenerative Diseases (DZNE), Tübingen, Germany
- 35 ¹⁵ Division of Life Science, Hong Kong University of Science and Technology, Hong Kong SAR,
- 36 China
- 37 ¹⁶ Department of Neurology, Baylor College of Medicine, Houston, TX, USA
- 38 Tanz Centre for Research in Neurodegenerative Diseases, University of Toronto, Toronto,
- 39 Ontario, Canada
- 40 ¹⁸ Department of Medicine, Division of Neurology, University of Toronto, Toronto, Ontario,
- 41 Canada
- 42 ¹⁹ Department of Neurology, Asan Medical Center, University of Ulsan College of Medicine,
- 43 Seoul, Korea

- 44 ²⁰ Department of Neurology, Baylor College of Medicine, Houston, TX, USA
- 45 ²¹ Jan and Dan Duncan Neurological Research Institute, Texas Children's Hospital, Houston, TX,
- 46 USA

52

54

57

59

- 47 ²² Hertie Institute for Clinical Brain Research, University of Tübingen, Tübingen, Germany
- 48 ²³ Centre for Genetic Epidemiology, Institute of Clinical Epidemiology and Applied Biometry,
- 49 University of Tübingen, Tübingen, Germany
- 50 ²⁴ Founder/Consultant with dataconsult.io, Glen Echo, MD, USA
- 51 ²⁵ Department of Neurology, Johns Hopkins University Medical Center, Baltimore, MD, USA
- Word count: 2,157 (without abstract); Number of Tables: 1, Number of Figures: 1;
- 55 Corresponding author: Sonja W. Scholz, M.D. Ph.D., Neurogenetics Branch, NINDS | National
- Institutes of Health; 35 Convent Drive, Bethesda, MD 20892, USA; email: sonja.scholz@nih.gov
- 58 Keywords: Genotyping, NeuroX, NeuroChip, Genetic Screening, Neurodegeneration

Abstract

60

61

62

63

64

65

66

67

68

69

70

71

72

73

74

75

76

77

78

79

Genetics has proven to be a powerful approach in neurodegenerative diseases research, resulting in the identification of numerous causal and risk variants. Previously, we introduced the NeuroX Illumina genotyping array, a fast and efficient genotyping platform designed for the investigation of genetic variation in neurodegenerative diseases. Here, we present its updated version, named NeuroChip. The NeuroChip is a low cost, custom-designed array containing a tagging variant backbone of about 306,670 variants complemented with a manually curated custom content comprised of 179,467 variants implicated in diverse neurological diseases, including Alzheimer's disease, Parkinson's disease, Lewy body dementia, amyotrophic lateral sclerosis, frontotemporal dementia, progressive supranuclear palsy, corticobasal degeneration and multiple system atrophy. The tagging backbone was chosen because of the low cost and good genome-wide resolution; the custom content can be combined with other backbones, like population or drug development arrays. Using the NeuroChip, we can accurately identify rare variants and impute over 5.3 million common SNPs from the latest release of the Haplotype Reference Consortium. In summary, we describe the design and usage of the NeuroChip array, and show its capability for detecting rare pathogenic variants in numerous neurodegenerative diseases. The NeuroChip has a more comprehensive and improved content, which makes it a reliable, high-throughput, cost-effective screening tool for genetic research and molecular diagnostics in neurodegenerative diseases.

1. Introduction

80

81

82

83

84

85

86

87

88

89

90

91

92

93

94

95

96

97

98

99

100

Neurodegenerative diseases are a major burden to the aging world population and currently these diseases are incurable and irreversible. Common and rare genetic alterations in many genes have been identified as disease-causing or contributing to the development of neurodegeneration (Naj et al., 2017, Singleton and Hardy, 2016). To date, there are four main uses of genetics: 1) to confirm a clinical diagnosis by identifying a causal mutation, 2) to identify risk variants and disease modifiers that influence risk for disease, 3) to increase knowledge of the molecular pathobiology of disease in the hopes of identifying therapeutic targets, and 4) to improve patient selection for pathway-specific clinical trial design. A reliable, high-throughput and cost-effective platform that can rapidly conduct these functions could therefore be immensely valuable to the field. Previously, we presented the NeuroX array, which was a collaborative effort with the objective of designing a genotyping platform that would allow rapid genetic characterization of samples in the context of genetic mutations and risk factors associated with common neurodegenerative diseases (Nalls et al., 2015). This was an exonic array (or exome chip) based on the Infinium HumanExome Beadchip v1.1 containing 242,901 exome-focused variants as well as 24,706 custom variants focusing on neurological diseases. The NeuroX array has already been successfully used in dozens of studies (Barber et al., 2017, Carrasquillo et al., 2016, Ghani et al., 2015, Nalls et al., 2016, Rosenthal et al., 2016). However, due to the backbone's focus on rare exonic variation, common non-exonic variants were largely missed, resulting in a modest genome-wide resolution and only partial capture of the known low frequency exonic variation.

Additionally, the number of genotype-phenotype associations and pathogenic variants keeps expanding, so there was a continued need for updating this useful platform.

Here, we report on an updated version of NeuroX, named NeuroChip. The NeuroChip backbone is based on a genome-wide genotyping array (Infinium HumanCore-24 v1.0) containing 306,670 tagging variants and a custom content that has been updated and extended with neurodegenerative disease-related custom content consisting of 179,467 variants. This backbone was chosen because of the low cost and good genome-wide resolution. This backbone is flexible and other arrays can be used with this custom content, such as population or drug development arrays (Infinium Multi-Ethnic, Infinium DrugDev). The NeuroChip allows to accurately identify rare neurodegenerative candidate variants and impute over 5.3 million common variants. Its approximate cost of ~\$40 per sample is a fraction of the price of next-generation whole exome or whole genome sequencing, and therefore provides a valuable, high-throughput screening tool for loci and variants implicated in neurodegenerative diseases. Further, this array can be used as a tool to prioritize samples for more expensive genome sequencing approaches.

2. Methods

2.1 NeuroChip array design

The backbone of the array, the Infinium HumanCore-24 v1.0, contains 306,670 highly informative tagging SNPs which can be used for high-throughput and high-quality imputation of genome-wide variants across diverse populations (Illumina). In addition, the chip contains 179,467 custom disease-associated variants (Table 1) covering neurodegenerative diseases

including: Alzheimer's disease (AD), Parkinson's disease (PD), Lewy body dementia (LBD), frontotemporal dementia (FTD), amyotrophic lateral sclerosis (ALS), progressive supranuclear palsy (PSP), corticobasal degeneration (CBD) and multiple system atrophy (MSA). The customcontent has been curated by members of the International Parkinson's Disease Genomics Consortium (IPDGC) and the Comprehensive Unbiased Risk factor Assessment for Genetics and Environment in Parkinson disease (COURAGE-PD) consortium to include common variants and rare mutations implicated in neurological diseases as reported in the Human Gene Mutation Database (HGMD Professional 2016.4, QIAGEN), the NHGRI GWAS Catalog (www.ebi.ac.uk/gwas/), the Online Mendelian Inheritance in Man (OMIM) database (www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/omim/), the Parkinson's Disease Mutation Database (www.molgen.vibua.be/PDMutDB), the Alzheimer's Disease and Frontotemporal Dementia Database (www.molgen.ua.ac.be/admutations/), and based on literature review as well as own data; particularly in the latter case, collaborators submitted variants that were identified in multiple ongoing (or completed) unpublished projects, including variants from genome-wide association (GWA), whole exome, whole genome, targeted sequencing studies and systems biology studies. See Supplementary Table 1 for the complete content of the NeuroChip array.

139

140

141

142

143

144

123

124

125

126

127

128

129

130

131

132

133

134

135

136

137

138

2.2 NeuroChip array genotyping

We genotyped a cohort of 273 controls as per the manufacturer's instructions (Illumina) to generate pilot NeuroChip data. These samples have been collected by the North American Brain Expression Consortium (NABEC) and described elsewhere (Hernandez et al., 2012). In total, 183 males and 90 females were included. All samples were obtained from North American brain

banks and subjects reported European ancestry and had no reported neurological disease. To assess the reproducibility of the NeuroChip, we genotyped 15 samples twice in separate experiments.

Raw data files were imported into GenomeStudio (version 2.0, Illumina). For initial quality control, we confirmed accurate, high quality genotyping using a call rate threshold of > 95%.

We reclustered the samples using a GenCall threshold of 0.15 and recalled all variants. The genotyping cluster file based on ~3,500 individuals of ongoing projects is available in the Supplementary Materials (Supplementary File 1). The mean call rate post-reclustering was 0.992 (range: 0.954-0.995). The data were exported from GenomeStudio using the Illumina-to-PLINK module 2.1.4 and imported into PLINK (version 1.90) (Chang et al., 2015). Next, we checked individuals for discrepancies between reported sex and genotypic sex, cryptic relatedness (PIHAT <0.05), and heterogeneity contamination, and found that no samples failed this quality control step.

2.3 NeuroChip content annotation

Annotation of the NeuroChip content was performed using ANNOVAR (Wang et al., 2010). For each variant, a gene-based annotation, *in silico* impact scores, and frequencies from public databases were obtained. To predict the impact scores, the following algorithms were used: SIFT (Kumar et al., 2009), Polyphen-2 (Adzhubei et al., 2010), and CADD (Kircher et al., 2014). Population frequencies were obtained from the Exome Aggregation Consortium (version 0.3.1) (http://exac.broadinstitute.org/) containing 60,706 individuals. Additionally, all variants were investigated for their presence in the Human Gene Mutation Database (HGMD, accessed 20

December 2016). Variants associated with a common neurodegenerative syndrome (AD, ALS,

FTD and PD) were manually curated and are summarized in Supplementary Table 2.

2.4 NeuroChip content imputation

After confirming high-quality genotyping (call rate >95%) and European ancestry in all individuals (based on 1000Genomes clustering) (Genomes Project et al., 2015), we performed imputation using the Michigan imputation server, according to established guidelines (https://imputationserver.sph.umich.edu) (Das et al., 2016). In brief, genotypes were prepared for imputation using provided scripts (HRC-1000G-check-bim.pl), which compares variant ID, strand, and allele frequencies to the haplotype reference panel (HRC version r1.1, April 2016) (McCarthy et al., 2016). A total of 332,015 autosomal SNPs were submitted to the Imputation Server using ShapeIT (v2.r790).

2.5 APOE allele genotyping

To determine the accuracy of *APOE* allele predictions, we performed Taqman genotyping of two nonsynonymous *APOE* SNPs (rs7412 and rs429358) on an Applied Biosystems ViiA 7 Real-Time PCR System using an established protocol (Federoff et al., 2012). 272 out of 273 control samples had sufficient DNA for genotyping. Allelic discrimination was conducted using QuantStudio software (version 1.3, Thermo Fisher Scientific, Carlsbad, CA, USA). Taqman genotype results were then compared to the corresponding results for the same SNPs generated using the NeuroChip. Given the importance of *APOE*, NeuroChip was designed so that rs7412 is genotyped by four separate probes (three of which performed well: rs7412, seq-

rs7412-B1, seq-rs7412-B3). Similarly, rs429358 was genotyped by five separate bead probes (two of which performed well: seq-rs429358-T2, seq-rs429358-T3). This redundancy ensures accurate *APOE* genotyping by the NeuroChip platform.

3. Results

3.1 NeuroChip content overview

In total, the NeuroChip array contains 473,442 autosomal variants, 11,840 sex chromosomal variants, and 160 mitochondrial variants. Additionally, 16,274 NeuroChip variants detect small insertions or deletions (Table 1). The overlap between NeuroX and NeuroChip is small (n= 19,289 variants) due to the difference in the design of the backbone; the NeuroX array is focused on exonic content, whereas the NeuroChip is focused on genome wide tagging content.

3.2 NeuroChip pathogenic variant content

In total, the NeuroChip harbors 8,086 disease-associated variants that are included in HGMD, a professionally curated database of published genetic variants that have been linked to inherited human diseases (neurological and non-neurological). The NeuroChip HGMD content includes 1,233 variants (1,202 SNPs and 31 indels) linked to common neurodegenerative syndromes (see Supplementary Figure 1 for a comparison between NeuroX and NeuroChip). In this content, after manually curation, 601 variants are associated with ALS or FTD, 348 with PD, and 284 with AD. Figure 1 shows the number of disease associated variants per gene covered in common neurodegenerative syndromes based on the HGMD database. Detailed, manually curated and annotated variant lists for the abovementioned neurodegenerative disease categories are

211 documented in Supplementary Table 2. These annotated lists can be used as filters to quickly 212 screen for known mutations and risk variants.

213

214

215

216

217

218

219

220

3.3 NeuroChip genotyping results

Genotyping reproducibility

Of the 15 technical replicates, all samples yielded high quality, reproducible genotyping results.

The mean concordance rate per technical replicate was 0.9996 (range=0.9991-0.9999); on

average, 190 variants (range=27-435) differed per technical replicate (0.04% of the total

included variants on the array). Across the 15 technical replicates, 1,978 unique variants were

discordant, of which 749 (37.9%) were from the backbone and 1,229 (62.1%) were from the

custom content (Supplementary Table 3).

SNPs (Lambert et al., 2013, Nalls et al., 2014).

222

223

224

225

226

227

228

229

230

231

232

221

Imputation

Imputation of autosomal variants was performed on a series of 273 European descent individuals using the haplotype reference panel (McCarthy et al., 2016) containing 39,235,157 variants, all with an estimated minor allele count of >= 5 in 32,488 individuals. Initial preimputation filtering of the NeuroChip data (including removing duplicates and non-overlapping variants, switch strands, and updating position) resulted in 332,015 variants. After imputation, 11,879,345 variants were obtained with an imputation R² of > 0.30. Filtering based on MAF > 0.05, Hardy-Weinberg Equilibrium p-value of > 1e-6 resulted in 5,316,028 variants. In this imputed dataset, we successfully identified 22 of 26 PD risk alleles and 19 of the 21 AD GWA

Genotype accuracy

GenTrain scores were calculated for all NeuroChip variants using GenomeStudio (version 2, Illumina). The GenTrain score is a statistical score based on the shapes of the different allelic clusters and their relative distance to each other (Illumina). Typically, GenTrain scores > 0.7 are considered high quality genotypes. Previously, GenTrain scores of the NeuroX showed that genotyping quality in the custom content was lower compared to the backbone (Nalls et al., 2015). However, preliminary NeuroChip data from several ongoing projects (based on ~3,500 individuals) reveals that the backbone and the custom content have a high comparable average score (0.819 and 0.820, respectively), indicating high genotyping accuracy (Supplementary Figures 2 & 3).

Validation of APOE genotyping

APOE alleles are important genetic risk factors for both AD and LBD, but genotyping of this region is complicated by high GC content (Singleton et al., 2002, Strittmatter and Roses, 1996). For this reason, we chose to validate the accuracy of APOE allele genotyping by comparing Taqman results with genotype predictions from the NeuroChip (Supplementary Table 4). Taqman genotyping for rs7412 and rs429358 was successful in all 272 samples. NeuroChip genotyping for both SNPs was successful in 265 out of these 272 controls. Five samples were discordant for APOE allele genotyping between Taqman and NeuroChip, likely due to relatively low quality genotype calls in either the Taqman assay or the NeuroChip, representing 1.9% of our test cohort (n = 265 samples). Overall, the performance of the NeuroChip for APOE

genotyping was significantly better than the original NeuroX platform, which was unable to reliably detect rs7412 and rs429358 genotypes (Ghani et al., 2015, Nalls et al., 2015).

257

258

259

260

261

262

263

264

265

266

267

268

269

270

271

272

273

274

275

255

256

4. Discussion

The main goal was to develop a genotyping array that allows a rapid, high-throughput identification of common and rare single nucleotide variants in the human genome. Affordable screening of large cohorts for disease-associated variants allows for testing of polygenic inheritance that could explain the diversity of clinical and pathological characteristics of neurodegenerative diseases. The NeuroChip is estimated to cost ~ \$40/sample, which is currently less than ~ 10% and ~ 5% of the cost of whole exome sequencing and whole genome sequencing, respectively. We have designed, implemented, and validated the NeuroChip array platform for high throughput genotyping. However, it is important to recognize the limitations of this approach. Like all genotyping arrays, NeuroChip does not detect novel sequence changes. It is also not possible to genotype variants in complex genomic regions (e.g. due to pseudogenes) or to identify repeat expansions due to the difficulty in designing reliable probes. Nevertheless, every effort was made to improve genotyping calling in NeuroChip. For example, it was recognized that the APOE locus performed poorly on the original NeuroX platform (Ghani et al., 2015). Given the importance of this genomic region in neurodegeneration, the revised NeuroChip probe design included multiple probes for SNPs in this region. This led to reliable APOE allele calling with a concordance rate of 98.1% between NeuroChip and Taqman.

In conclusion, we describe the design and implementation of the NeuroChip array, which has a more comprehensive and improved content compared to NeuroX. This versatile genotyping platform provides the community with a novel tool that can be used in both a clinical and research setting. In a clinical setting, it is possible to rapidly screen patients for a large number of known pathogenic variants and in a research setting cost-effective and high throughput detection of both common and rare variants gives the opportunity to perform several analyses including GWAS, burden tests and genetic risk scores calculations.

References

Adzhubei IA, Schmidt S, Peshkin L, Ramensky VE, Gerasimova A, Bork P, et al. A method and server for predicting damaging missense mutations. Nat Methods 2010;7(4):248-9.
Barber IS, Braae A, Clement N, Patel T, Guetta-Baranes T, Brookes K, et al. Mutation analysis of sporadic early-onset Alzheimer's disease using the NeuroX array. Neurobiol Aging 2017;49:215 e1- e8.
Carrasquillo MM, Barber I, Lincoln SJ, Murray ME, Camsari GB, Khan Q, et al. Evaluating pathogenic dementia variants in posterior cortical atrophy. Neurobiol Aging 2016;37:38-44.
Chang CC, Chow CC, Tellier LC, Vattikuti S, Purcell SM, Lee JJ. Second-generation PLINK: rising to the challenge of larger and richer datasets. Gigascience 2015;4:7.

Das S, Forer L, Schonherr S, Sidore C, Locke AE, Kwong A, et al. Next-generation genotype imputation service and methods. Nat Genet 2016;48(10):1284-7.

297	Federoff M, Jimenez-Rolando B, Nalls MA, Singleton AB. A large study reveals no association
298	between APOE and Parkinson's disease. Neurobiol Dis 2012;46(2):389-92.
299	Genomes Project C, Auton A, Brooks LD, Durbin RM, Garrison EP, Kang HM, et al. A global
300	reference for human genetic variation. Nature 2015;526(7571):68-74.
301	Ghani M, Lang AE, Zinman L, Nacmias B, Sorbi S, Bessi V, et al. Mutation analysis of patients
302	with neurodegenerative disorders using NeuroX array. Neurobiol Aging 2015;36(1):545
303	e9-14.
304	Hernandez DG, Nalls MA, Moore M, Chong S, Dillman A, Trabzuni D, et al. Integration of GWAS
305	SNPs and tissue specific expression profiling reveal discrete eQTLs for human traits in
306	blood and brain. Neurobiol Dis 2012;47(1):20-8.
307	Kircher M, Witten DM, Jain P, O'Roak BJ, Cooper GM, Shendure J. A general framework for
308	estimating the relative pathogenicity of human genetic variants. Nat Genet
309	2014;46(3):310-5.
310	Kumar P, Henikoff S, Ng PC. Predicting the effects of coding non-synonymous variants on
311	protein function using the SIFT algorithm. Nat Protoc 2009;4(7):1073-81.
312	Lambert JC, Ibrahim-Verbaas CA, Harold D, Naj AC, Sims R, Bellenguez C, et al. Meta-analysis of
313	74,046 individuals identifies 11 new susceptibility loci for Alzheimer's disease. Nat Genet
314	2013;45(12):1452-8.
315	McCarthy S, Das S, Kretzschmar W, Delaneau O, Wood AR, Teumer A, et al. A reference panel of
316	64,976 haplotypes for genotype imputation. Nat Genet 2016;48(10):1279-83.

317	Naj AC, Schellenberg GD, Alzheimer's Disease Genetics C. Genomic variants, genes, and
318	pathways of Alzheimer's disease: An overview. Am J Med Genet B Neuropsychiatr Genet
319	2017;174(1):5-26.
320	Nalls MA, Bras J, Hernandez DG, Keller MF, Majounie E, Renton AE, et al. NeuroX, a fast and
321	efficient genotyping platform for investigation of neurodegenerative diseases. Neurobiol
322	Aging 2015;36(3):1605 e7-12.
323	Nalls MA, Keller MF, Hernandez DG, Chen L, Stone DJ, Singleton AB, et al. Baseline genetic
324	associations in the Parkinson's Progression Markers Initiative (PPMI). Mov Disord
325	2016;31(1):79-85.
326	Nalls MA, Pankratz N, Lill CM, Do CB, Hernandez DG, Saad M, et al. Large-scale meta-analysis of
327	genome-wide association data identifies six new risk loci for Parkinson's disease. Nat
328	Genet 2014;46(9):989-93.
329	Rosenthal LS, Drake D, Alcalay RN, Babcock D, Bowman FD, Chen-Plotkin A, et al. The NINDS
330	Parkinson's disease biomarkers program. Mov Disord 2016;31(6):915-23.
331	Singleton A, Hardy J. The Evolution of Genetics: Alzheimer's and Parkinson's Diseases. Neuron
332	2016;90(6):1154-63.
333	Singleton AB, Wharton A, O'Brien KK, Walker MP, McKeith IG, Ballard CG, et al. Clinical and
334	neuropathological correlates of apolipoprotein E genotype in dementia with Lewy
335	bodies. Dement Geriatr Cogn Disord 2002;14(4):167-75.
336	Strittmatter WJ, Roses AD. Apolipoprotein E and Alzheimer's disease. Annu Rev Neurosci
337	1996;19:53-77.

338	Wang K, Li M, Hakonarson H. ANNOVAR: functional annotation of genetic variants from high
339	throughput sequencing data. Nucleic Acids Res 2010;38(16):e164.
340	
341	