

1 **Proteogenomic signature of risk of Alzheimer's disease and related dementia risk in**  
2 **individuals with a history of major depression disorder**

3 *Running title: ADRD risk in major depressive disorder*

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23 **Abstract**

24 The mechanisms linking a history of major depressive disorder (MDD) to an increased risk of  
25 Alzheimer's disease and related dementia (ADRD) are not fully understood. Using the UK  
26 Biobank available proteomic and genomic data, we evaluated the biological mechanisms linking  
27 both conditions. In participants with a history of MDD at baseline (n=3,615), we found that  
28 plasma levels of NfL, GFAP, PSG1 were associated with higher risk (HR=1.38; 1.37; 1.34,  
29 respectively; all adjusted p-values<0.05), while VGF, GET3, and HPGDS were associated with  
30 lower risk of incident ADRD (n=150) (HR=0.73; 0.71; 0.66, respectively; all adjusted p-  
31 values<0.05) during a mean follow-up of 13.7 years (SD=2.2). Two-sample Mendelian  
32 randomization analysis using cis-pQTLs genetic instruments revealed that a lower protein  
33 expression of apolipoprotein E and higher IL-10 receptor subunit B were causally linked to  
34 incident ADRD. Finally, we developed a Proteomic Risk Score (PrRS<sub>MDD-ADRD</sub>), which showed  
35 strong discriminative power (C-statistic = 0.84) to identify participants with MDD that developed  
36 ADRD upon follow-up. In addition to demonstrating an association between plasma proteins  
37 associated with inflammation and future ADRD risk in individuals with MDD, our findings include  
38 an element of causality using Mendelian Randomization (MR) and PrRS<sub>MDD-ADRD</sub> can be useful  
39 to identify individuals with the highest risk to develop ADRD in a highly vulnerable population.  
40 Key-words: Major depressive disorder; Alzheimer's disease; dementia; proteomics; genomics,  
41 inflammation.

42

## 43 Introduction

44 Major depressive disorder (MDD) is a highly heterogeneous, multifactorial condition with  
45 multiple concurrent risk factors, as well as pathophysiological processes playing a significant  
46 role in its phenotypic manifestation and long-term outcomes<sup>1, 2</sup>. The elevated burden of disease  
47 associated with MDD<sup>3</sup> is due not only to the severity of psychopathology but also to its  
48 association with adverse health outcomes and multiple other diseases of aging<sup>4</sup>.  
49 Epidemiological studies have consistently shown that a history of MDD across the lifespan  
50 significantly increases the risk of incident Alzheimer's disease and related dementia (ADRD) in  
51 older adults<sup>5, 6</sup>. The association between MDD and the risk of ADRD cannot be underestimated.  
52 For example, there are over 7 million people living with ADRD in the US, with 11.1% to 14.7% of  
53 these cases attributable to major depression<sup>7</sup>. Therefore, preventing MDD in the general  
54 population, or reducing the risk of development of ADRD among those with MDD can  
55 significantly lower the incidence of ADRD in older ages<sup>7-9</sup>.

56 Despite well-known associations, underlying mechanisms linking MDD to a higher risk of  
57 developing ADRD are unclear. For example, previous studies did not suggest that a major  
58 depressive episode increases brain amyloid burden<sup>10-12</sup>, the primary pathological mechanism of  
59 Alzheimer's disease, despite some conflicting results<sup>13</sup>. On the other hand, the presence of mild  
60 cognitive impairment (MCI) during an MDD episode increases the risk of incident ADRD<sup>14</sup> and is  
61 associated with greater cortical and hippocampal atrophy and dysregulation in multiple  
62 biological pathways implicated in aging<sup>15, 16</sup> that are relevant to the ADRD physiopathology,  
63 including increased pro-inflammatory burden, loss of proteostasis control, cellular senescence,  
64 and metabolic control<sup>17-19</sup>. Also, a recent study demonstrated a significant genetic correlation  
65 between MDD and AD and a potential causal link between MDD and AD using a generalized  
66 data-summary Mendelian randomization approach<sup>20</sup>.

67           Despite the relevance of these past studies, they did not provide definitive evidence of  
68    which biological mechanisms may underlie the elevated risk of ADRD among individuals with  
69    MDD. Moreover, the results were based on relatively small sample sizes. Large-scale  
70    population studies, including identifying MDD cases at baseline and incident ADRD cases, along  
71    with multi-omics measurements (e.g., genomic and proteomic data), are necessary to identify  
72    the biological processes linking MDD to a higher risk of ADRD. For example, the UK Biobank  
73    (UKB, <https://www.ukbiobank.ac.uk/>) is one of the largest biomedical databases containing data  
74    from up to half a million UK participants. Through linkage with electronic health records from  
75    primary care and hospital settings, the UKB includes data on the history of MDD and a variety of  
76    long-term outcomes, including the diagnosis of ADRD. In addition, the UKB offers in-depth  
77    biological information, including genomic and proteomic data, which enables the discovery of  
78    over 14,000 protein quantitative loci (pQTL). Identifying pQTLs and disease associations can  
79    provide more robust causal inference information via approaches such as Mendelian  
80    Randomization supporting drug development or repurposing strategies<sup>21, 22</sup>. Our primary goal  
81    was to investigate the proteogenomic signatures of MDD that are distinctively associated with  
82    the risk of ADRD by integrating proteomic and genomic available from the UKB.

83

## 84    **Methods**

### 85    **UK Biobank Pharma Proteomics Project (UKB PPP) cohort**

86           A total of 53,018 active participants were included in the UKB Pharma Proteomics  
87    Project (UKB PPP) cohort<sup>22</sup>. The plasma proteomic analysis was done using the Olink® Explore  
88    3072 assay, covering 2,923 proteins. Normalized protein expression (NPX) levels were  
89    calculated to account for technical variations<sup>22</sup>. After removing three proteins with high missing  
90    rates (GLIPR1 99.7%, NPM1 74.0%, and PCOLCE 63.6%), the median missing rate per protein  
91    was 14.7% (interquartile range 3.0% to 17.4%), and the median missing rate per individual was

92 0.5% (interquartile range 0.1% to 7.5%). Missing proteomic data were imputed using the  $k$ -  
93 nearest neighbor approach ( $k=10$ ), with higher weights to neighbors sharing higher similarities  
94 across proteins<sup>23</sup>.

## 95 **Baseline cohort**

96 The “*baseline cohort*” included 42,807 UKB PPP participants after excluding participants  
97 at baseline with (1) pre-existing psychiatric disorders (schizophrenia, unspecified nonorganic  
98 psychosis, manic episode, and bipolar affective disorder); (2) pre-existing ADRD or dementia in  
99 other diseases, (3) diagnosis of MDD before the age of 18 years; (4) any missing baseline  
100 covariate data (age at recruitment, self-reported sex, ethnicity, and education, body mass index  
101 [BMI], hypertension diagnosis (yes/no), diabetes diagnosis (yes/no), *APOE* e4 carrier status  
102 (yes/no), antidepressant use (yes/no), and selection by the UKB PPP consortium (yes/no)  
103 (**Figure S1**). A total of 3,615 individuals had a history of MDD at baseline ( $n=3,615$ ) (**Figure S1**).  
104 Cases of MDD and incident ADRD were identified using the first occurrence data derived by the  
105 UKB, which integrated multi-source data based on ICD-10 codes (primary care, hospital  
106 admissions, death registry, and baseline self-reported medical condition data) (**Table S1**). Data  
107 extraction was conducted using the field IDs presented in **Table S1**. The anatomical therapeutic  
108 chemical codes of antidepressants used to confirm antidepressant use at baseline are provided  
109 in **Table S2**.

## 110 **Association between protein expression and incident ADRD in participants with a history** 111 **of MDD at baseline**

112 We applied the inverse normal transformation to individual proteins ( $n=2,920$ ) in the baseline  
113 cohort to correct distributional skewness and unify the scales into z-scores<sup>24</sup>. The association of  
114 each protein with incident ADRD was modeled using a Cox regression model, adjusting for  
115 baseline covariates (age at recruitment, self-reported sex, ethnicity, education, BMI,

116 hypertension diagnosis (yes/no), diabetes diagnosis (yes/no), *APOE* e4 carrier status (yes/no),  
117 antidepressant use (yes/no), and selection by the UKB PPP consortium (yes/no). A sensitivity  
118 analysis was performed by excluding *APOE* e4 carrier status from the covariates. P-values were  
119 corrected for multiple testing using the Benjamini-Hochberg false discovery rate (FDR)  
120 approach<sup>25</sup>, and adjusted p-values smaller than 5% were considered statistically significant.  
121 Proteins significant at the FDR-adjusted level of 5% were jointly modeled in a Cox regression  
122 model adjusting for covariates to evaluate their dependency.

### 123 **Two-sample Mendelian randomization analysis**

124 Observational study data provide limited evidence about causal relationships between  
125 an exposure (e.g., protein expression) and an outcome (e.g., incidence of ADRD) due to the  
126 lack of experimental control, unmeasured confounding, and risk of reverse causality that are  
127 intrinsic to observational study designs<sup>26, 27</sup>. Mendelian randomization (MR) analyses can help  
128 overcome these limitations by using genetic variants. Genotypes are fixed at conception as  
129 instrumental variables to examine exposure-outcome relationships<sup>28</sup>. The focus on protein  
130 quantitative trait loci (pQTL) helps to understand how common and rare genetic variation  
131 influences protein levels<sup>29</sup> and identify proteins to target for drug development.

132 Two-sample Mendelian Randomization (MR) methods were applied to assess the causal  
133 effect of each protein on incident ADRD in UKB European-descent participants with a history of  
134 MDD at baseline. Autosomal cis-protein quantitative trait loci (cis-pQTL) were used as genetic  
135 instruments for protein expression levels. The selection of cis-pQTL was based on the genome-  
136 wide association study (GWAS) summary statistics using UKB European-descent participants  
137 from the Sun et al. discovery cohort<sup>22</sup>. They were further validated in the subset with a history of  
138 MDD at baseline (“MR: baseline MDD cohort” [n=3,896], see **Figure S2**). To avoid bias from  
139 sample overlap, we estimated the associations between cis-pQTL and incident ADRD using

140 UKB European-descent participants with a history of MDD at baseline who were not in the UKB  
141 PPP (referred to as the “MR: incident ADRD in MDD cohort” [n=30,903], **Figure S2**).

### 142 ***Selection of genetic instruments***

143 Genetic variants that showed significant associations with each protein, with a p-value<  
144  $5 \times 10^{-8}$  and were located within 1 Mb of the coding gene region (i.e., cis-gene region)<sup>30</sup> were  
145 extracted from the Sun et al<sup>22</sup>. discovery GWAS summary statistics. These variants were  
146 identified through individual associations with each protein following the inverse normal  
147 transformation, using a two-step procedure involving standard linear regression models<sup>22</sup>.

148 Those with a minor allele frequency smaller than 0.01 or an INFO score <0.7 (low  
149 imputation accuracy) were excluded. For each protein, linkage disequilibrium (LD) clumping was  
150 performed on the remaining variants to select independent cis-pQTL. The selection started from  
151 the most significant variant with the smallest p-value and then the next after excluding those in  
152 LD ( $r^2 > 0.01$ ) or within 500 kb of that variant (clumping window 500 kb). The LD between genetic  
153 variants was assessed using genome-wide genotype data from 5,000 randomly selected  
154 unrelated UKB participants of European descent. This procedure was repeated until no further  
155 cis-pQTL was identified.

156 We excluded cis-pQTL that showed a discrepancy in  $\beta$  greater than 0.1 for associations  
157 with the coded protein (i.e., >0.1 SD change in the transformed NPX per effect allele increase)  
158 between the Sun et al. discovery cohort<sup>22</sup> and the MR baseline MDD cohort. Similar covariate  
159 adjustments were made in the MR baseline MDD cohort, including age at baseline assessment  
160 (age in short), age<sup>2</sup>, sex, age  $\times$  sex, age<sup>2</sup>  $\times$  sex, genotyping array, top 10 genetic principal  
161 components in the UKB, and the consortium selection.

162 We conducted a sensitivity analysis using cis-pQTL as selected by Sun et al.<sup>22</sup>, who  
163 used similar criteria but a more stringent GWAS significance level ( $p < 1.7 \times 10^{-11}$ ) and the

164 clumping windows of 10,000 kb followed by 500 kb to account for potential long-range LD, while  
165 also merging overlapped clumps.

### 166 **Associations between genetic instruments for protein expression levels and incident** 167 **ADRD in MDD**

168 Cox regression models were used adjusting for age at baseline assessment (age in  
169 short), age<sup>2</sup>, sex, age × sex, age<sup>2</sup> × sex, genotyping array, and top 10 genetic principal  
170 components in the UKB. Both associations of cis-pQTL with a protein (from Sun et al.<sup>22</sup>) and  
171 incident ADRD were expressed as the effects per copy increase in the level-increasing allele. In  
172 the MR analysis, we reported the hazard ratio (HR) for incident ADRD per SD increase in the  
173 genetically determined NPX.

### 174 **Two-sample Mendelian randomization methods**

175 The primary two-sample MR analysis was conducted using the inverse-variance  
176 weighted (IVW) method<sup>31</sup>. A fixed-effect model was used when there were three variants or  
177 fewer, and a random-effects model otherwise. Additionally, we applied the MR-Egger regression  
178 and MR-Robust Adjusted Profile Score (MR-RAPS) methods<sup>32, 33</sup>. Comparing the results across  
179 different methods allows us to evaluate the robustness of our findings. Based on the IVW  
180 results, proteins significant at the FDR level of 5% were further examined for the 1) strength of  
181 cis-pQTL (weak instrument if the IVW F-statistic<10), 2) heterogeneity in the causal effect  
182 estimates of cis-pQTL (significant heterogeneity if the IVW Cochran's Q test p<0.01), and 3)  
183 pleiotropy (MR-Egger intercept test p<0.01) for those with little evidence against the no  
184 measurement error assumption of MR-Egger ( $I^2 \geq 0.9$ ). When the NOME assumption is not met,  
185 an inflated type I error is expected for the pleiotropy test<sup>34</sup>. After excluding proteins that failed in  
186 any of the examinations, we compared the IVW and MR-RAPS results, with similar results  
187 between methods suggesting finding robustness.

### 188 **Prediction model for incident ADRD in participants with a history of MDD at baseline**



189 We evaluated the prediction for incident ADRD using all included proteins (n=2,920) in  
190 participants with proteomic data and a history of MDD at baseline. Proteins were selected by a  
191 least absolute shrinkage and selection operator (LASSO) Cox regression model, where the  
192 regularization parameter lambda that determined the shrinkage of regression coefficients  
193 associated with the proteins for a parsimonious model was chosen for close-to-optimal deviance  
194 within one standard error of the minimal deviance (i.e., one-standard-error rule)<sup>35</sup> using the 10-  
195 fold cross-validation. The selected proteins were carried forward to fit a Gompertz model<sup>36</sup> to  
196 develop a proteomic risk score (PrRS<sub>MDD-ADRD</sub>) to estimate the 10-year risk of ADRD. We  
197 compared different prediction models, including sociodemographic factors and *APOE* e4 carrier  
198 status, for the prediction of incident ADRD in MDD using Harrell's C-index<sup>37</sup>.

199 To further validate PrRS<sub>MDD-ADRD</sub>, we examined its correlations with intermediate  
200 phenotypes of ADRD, i.e., cognitive function measures and brain MRI image-derived  
201 phenotypes. We selected five cognitive function measures from the baseline or first imaging  
202 visit, depending on when they were first implemented in the UK Biobank,

- 203 1. reaction time (processing speed);
- 204 2. digit span forward test (working memory);
- 205 3. symbol digit substitution (executive function);
- 206 4. trail making test B (executive function);
- 207 5. matrix pattern completion (non-verbal reasoning);

208 showing moderate to high concurrent validity with well-validated reference tests and test-retest  
209 reliability<sup>38</sup>. Their UKB field IDs were provided in **Table S1**, with measurement details described  
210 elsewhere<sup>38</sup>. We also selected brain MRI T1 structural and T2-weighted image-derived  
211 phenotypes (IDPs), including regional gray matter volumes, subcortical volumes, and white  
212 matter hyperintensities (UKB field IDs in **Table S1**). We calculated Spearman correlations  
213 between PrRS<sub>MDD-ADRD</sub> and cognitive function measures or IDPs, and p-values were adjusted

214 using the FDR approach. Cognitive function measures from the first imaging visit were adjusted  
215 for the time gap between the baseline and first imaging visits. Brain MRI measures were  
216 adjusted for the between-visit time gap and head size.

217 All the statistical tests were two-sided. The statistical analyses were performed in R  
218 version 4.2.3. The R packages used included “survival” for fitting Cox regression models<sup>39</sup>,  
219 “glmnet” for fitting LASSO Cox regression models<sup>40</sup>, “flexsurv”<sup>41</sup> for fitting Gompertz models,  
220 “gwasRtools”<sup>42</sup> for LD clumping, “MendelianRandomization”<sup>43</sup> for two-sample MR analyses, and  
221 “stat” for multiple testing adjustments.

222

## 223 **Results**

224 In the baseline cohort (n=42,807, **Figure S1**), 3,615 were diagnosed with MDD before or  
225 at baseline. The characterization of participants with and without a history of MDD at baseline is  
226 reported in **Table S3**. During a mean follow-up of 13.3 years (SD=2.2), the incidence of ADRD  
227 was higher in participants with a history of MDD than in those who were MDD-free at baseline  
228 (4.1% versus 3%), including the incidence of ADRD subtypes, such as Alzheimer’s disease  
229 (1.8% versus 1.4%) and vascular dementia (0.9% versus 0.5%). A history of MDD was  
230 significantly associated with higher risks of ADRD (HR=1.81, 95% CI 1.52 to 2.15,  $p=1.37\times 10^{-11}$ ),  
231 Alzheimer’s disease (HR=1.72, 95% CI 1.32 to 2.23,  $p=4.79\times 10^{-5}$ ), and vascular dementia  
232 (HR=2.38, 95% CI 1.65 to 3.43,  $p=3.72\times 10^{-6}$ ) after adjusting for baseline covariates, age, sex,  
233 ethnicity, education, BMI, smoking status, diabetes diagnosis, hypertension diagnosis, and  
234 *APOE* e4 carrier status.

### 235 *Identification of proteins associated with incident ADRD in participants with a history of MDD*

236 Of the 2,920 proteins tested, six were significantly associated with the risk of ADRD in  
237 participants with a history of MDD at baseline (FDR-adjusted  $p < 0.05$ ). Higher expression of

238 GFAP (glial fibrillary acidic protein), NFL (neurofilament light chain protein), and PSG1  
239 (pregnancy-specific beta-1-glycoprotein 1) were associated with increased risk of ADRD, while  
240 higher expression of VGF (neurosecretory protein VGF), GST3 (guided entry of tail-anchored  
241 proteins factor 3, ATPase), and HPGDS (hematopoietic prostaglandin D synthase) were  
242 associated with decreased risk of ADRD upon follow-up (**Table S4, Figure 1**). These  
243 associations remained statistically significant after excluding *APOE* e4 carrier status from the  
244 covariates, but GLYR1 (Glyoxylate Reductase 1 Homolog) also became statistically significant  
245 (**Table S5**). In the joint model with GFAP, NEFL, PSG1, GET3, HPGDS, and VGF, adjusting for  
246 covariates including *APOE* e4 carrier status, the hazard ratios associated with these proteins  
247 little changed compared to those from models with one protein at a time and covariates.

#### 248 *A two-sample Mendelian randomization analysis*

249 Of 2,920 proteins, 2,003 had one or more autosomal cis-pQTL. After excluding 3,670  
250 associations between cis-pQTL and their coded proteins that showed a significant discrepancy  
251 (absolute difference in standardized  $\beta$  greater than 0.1) between general whites in the discovery  
252 cohort of Sun et al. and its subset with a history of MDD at baseline, 1,982 proteins remained.  
253 Half of the proteins had 5 or less cis-pQTL (range 1 to 81). Individual cis-pQTL showed an  
254 ignorable discrepancy in effect allele frequencies ( $\leq 0.021$ ) between the two cohorts (whites vs.  
255 non-whites with a history of MDD).

256 Genetically determined lower apolipoprotein E and higher IL10RB protein expression  
257 levels were significantly associated with incident ADRD in MDD (IVW HR=1.81 and 1.41 per  
258 SD, FDR-adjusted p-values  $5.79 \times 10^{-10}$  and 0.035, respectively). **Figure 2** shows the ratio  
259 estimate ( $\log(\text{HR})$ ) of per allele association with incident ADD to per allele association with the  
260 expression of *APOE* or IL10RB. Both IVW and MR-RAPS showed similar results (**Table S6**).  
261 Additionally, there was no evidence of weak instruments (IVW F-statistic $>10$ ), heterogeneity

262 among causal estimates (IVW Cochran's Q test  $p > 0.01$ ), and pleiotropy (MR-Egger intercept  
263 test  $p > 0.01$ ) (**Table S6**).

264 We conducted a sensitivity analysis using the IVW method with 1 or 2 cis-pQTL per  
265 protein ( $n = 1,734$ ), as reported in Sun et al<sup>22</sup>, removing cis-pQTL with a minor allele frequency  
266 smaller than 0.01. The hazard ratios associated with genetically determined protein expression  
267 levels were moderately correlated (Pearson correlation coefficient 0.76) across proteins  
268 ( $n = 1,718$ ) between analyses using this set of cis-pQTL and cis-pQTL identified in our setting  
269 (primary analysis) (**Table S7**).

#### 270 Prediction of ADRD risk in individuals with a history of MDD

271 We fitted a LASSO Cox regression model to identify the protein set that could best  
272 predict the future risk of ADRD among participants with a history of MDD at baseline. The  
273 hyperparameter lambda ( $\lambda$ ) was chosen as 0.009731. Nineteen proteins were selected by a  
274 LASSO Cox regression model (**Table S8**). These proteins were used to develop a Proteomic  
275 Risk Score ( $\text{PrRS}_{\text{MD-ADRD}}$ ) for incident ADRD in a Gompertz model (Gompertz parameter  
276 estimates in **Table S9**). The  $\text{PrRS}_{\text{MDD-ADRD}}$  showed a strong discriminative power separating  
277 incident ADRD cases and controls within 10-year of follow-up among participants with a history  
278 of MDD at baseline (C-statistics = 0.84, SE = 0.016) (**Table 1**). Its discriminative power was  
279 higher than common risk factors and predictors of ADRD in the general population (e.g., age,  
280 sex, education, and *APOE* e4 carrier status, whether considered individually or in combination).  
281 Interestingly, the discriminative power of the model with  $\text{PrRS}_{\text{MD-ADRD}}$  alone was higher than the  
282 model with  $\text{PrRS}_{\text{MDD-ADRD}}$ , age, sex, education, and *APOE* carrier status.

#### 283 Correlations between $\text{PrRS}_{\text{MDD-ADRD}}$ with intermediate phenotypes of ADRD

284 We examined the correlations between  $\text{PrRS}_{\text{MDD-ADRD}}$  and intermediate phenotypes of  
285 ADRD in participants with a history of MDD at baseline. It is worth noting that the sample size  
286 was reduced due to limited overlaps between cohorts and incomplete data, ranging from 556

287 (numeric memory) to 4527 individuals (reaction time test) for cognitive function measures and  
288 from 568 (white matter hyperintensities phenotypes) to 591 (regional cortical volume  
289 phenotypes) for brain MRI IDPs. An increased  $\text{PrRS}_{\text{MDD-ADRD}}$  was significantly correlated with  
290 worse cognitive performance among individuals with a history of MDD at baseline (**Figure 3**).  
291 These cognitive domains are commonly affected in individuals with a history of MDD and are  
292 strong predictors of the future development of ADRD<sup>44</sup>. We also observed significant  
293 correlations of  $\text{PrRS}_{\text{MDD-ADRD}}$  with atrophy in multiple cortical and subcortical regions and  
294 increased cerebrovascular burden in brain regions critical for cognitive and emotional  
295 processing and implicated in both MDD and ADRD<sup>45</sup> (**Figure 4, Table S10**). These results  
296 reinforce the robustness of  $\text{PrRS}_{\text{MDD-ADRD}}$ .

297

298

299

## 300 **Discussion**

301 Prior studies showed a significant genetic correlation between MDD and ADRD, a  
302 significant overlap of biological processes between MDD and ADRD (including inflammation-  
303 related pathways), and that amyloid-related pathways are causally linked to MDD and ADRD  
304 using bi-directional Mendelian randomization. However, these studies relied on cross-sectional  
305 data, summary-based GWAS data, and analyses of post-mortem brain tissues, and despite the  
306 robustness of the findings, these samples and study designs can introduce significant biases to  
307 the results. Moreover, these studies did not provide a biologically based predictive model to  
308 identify individuals with MDD that have the highest risk to progress to ADRD over time.

309 Our results are consistent with these prior observations, but significantly extend them in  
310 several ways. First, using proteomic data from the UKB, we found that a small set of proteins

311 was significantly associated with the incidence of ADRD among individuals with MDD, including  
312 2 proteins (i.e., NfL and GFAP) that have been extensively associated with the risk of ADRD in  
313 the general population. Our Mendelian randomization approach relied on the identification of  
314 cis-pQTLs as genetic instruments instead of GWAS summary statistics, which can provide more  
315 robust causal inference evidence<sup>21, 22</sup>. Using this approach, we determined that genetically  
316 determined protein expression of apolipoprotein E and IL-10 receptor subunit B are causally  
317 related to the elevated risk of ADRD in individuals with MDD. Finally, we developed a proteomic  
318 risk score ( $PRS_{MDD-ADRD}$ ) with strong predictive power to identify those with MDD that will  
319 progress to ADRD over a long-term follow-up. Importantly,  $PrRS_{MDD-ADRD}$  was also associated  
320 with intermediate phenotypes relevant to both MDD and ADRD, such as worse cognitive  
321 performance, cortical brain atrophy in areas relevant to both conditions, and cerebrovascular  
322 disease burden. Therefore,  $PrRS_{MDD-ADRD}$  can be used in clinical trials as a biomarker to identify  
323 those with the highest risk of developing ADRD to test interventions aiming at reducing the risk  
324 of ADRD in a highly vulnerable population.

325 We identified a small set of proteins that were significantly associated with the risk of  
326 ADRD in MDD. The GFAP and NfL are well-established markers of astroglial activation and  
327 neurodegeneration, respectively, higher levels of these proteins in the blood are associated with  
328 progression from mild cognitive impairment to clinical dementia in multiple cohorts<sup>46</sup>. Our  
329 findings, thus, support the role of unspecific neurodegenerative and neuroinflammatory  
330 abnormalities as markers related to the progression to ADRD in individuals with MDD. VGF is a  
331 multifunctional polyprotein, primarily secreted by neurons and involved in neuroplasticity,  
332 neurogenesis, and energy metabolism<sup>47</sup>. Previous studies showed that VGF levels are reduced  
333 in MDD (both in plasma and CSF), and lower levels are associated with more severe cognitive  
334 impairment<sup>48, 49</sup>. Also, lower levels of VGF have been reported in older adults with MCI and AD  
335 and related to Alzheimer's disease neuropathological changes<sup>50, 51</sup>.

336 We found novel proteins associated with the risk of ADRD among individuals with MDD  
337 that have not been previously reported in the literature. HPGDS is responsible for the  
338 conversion of prostaglandin H<sub>2</sub> (PGH<sub>2</sub>) to prostaglandin G<sub>2</sub> (PGD<sub>2</sub>) in the immune cells. The  
339 primary effect of PGD<sub>2</sub> is the regulation of inflammatory processes through the recruitment of  
340 CD4<sup>+</sup> TH<sub>2</sub> cells and it has been associated with allergic reactions and asthma development<sup>52</sup>.  
341 However, PGD<sub>2</sub> is also the most abundant prostaglandin in the brain and previous studies have  
342 reported lower levels in individuals with MDD<sup>53</sup>, but higher levels of PGD<sub>2</sub> have been reported in  
343 AD<sup>54</sup>. Therefore, our results showing that higher levels of HPGDS are associated with reduced  
344 risk of ADRD are contradictory and warrant further investigation. GET3 is a protein chaperone  
345 and important in the cytoplasmic protein trafficking and protection against oxidative stress  
346 damage, playing a major role in maintaining proteostasis<sup>55</sup>. PSG1 is a protein that is mostly  
347 secreted during pregnancy in the placenta, but is also secreted by multiple tissues in non-  
348 pregnant people<sup>56</sup>. It has a potent immunomodulatory effect by activating the TGF- $\beta$  signaling  
349 pathway<sup>57</sup> and higher expression of PSG1 is associated with poor prognosis in multiple  
350 cancers<sup>58</sup>. Further investigations are necessary to clarify their roles in both conditions and how  
351 they can lead to a higher risk of ADRD in individuals with MDD.

352 The Mendelian randomization analyses revealed that genetically determined protein  
353 expression of apolipoprotein E and IL-10 receptor is causally linked to the risk of ADRD among  
354 individuals with MDD. The *APOE* gene is a well-established risk factor for ADRD and the  
355 presence of its  $\epsilon$ 4 allele significantly increases the ADRD risk, while the  $\epsilon$ 2 allele is protective  
356 against it in the general population<sup>59, 60</sup>. The presence of the allele  $\epsilon$ 4 leads to structural  
357 modification, reduced lipidation potential, and lower protein expression levels<sup>61-63</sup> of  
358 apolipoprotein E, and the net effect is reduced clearance of toxic amyloid- $\beta$  proteins in the brain  
359 and a greater propensity to amyloid- $\beta$  aggregation and development of neuritic plaques. A  
360 recent large-scale proteogenomic study showed that *APOE* is also a pQTL and the allele  $\epsilon$ 2

361 leads to higher genetically determined protein expression of apolipoprotein E compared to the  
362 allele  $\epsilon 4^{22}$ . Such finding provides additional mechanistic evidence why different *APOE* gene  
363 polymorphisms confer a protective or harmful effect against ADRD development.

364 On the other hand, a genetically determined higher expression of IL-10 receptor subunit  
365 B (IL-10RB) is causally linked to ADRD among MDD individuals. The IL-10 cytokine, through the  
366 interaction of its receptor IL-10, has a primarily anti-inflammatory effect and is a master  
367 regulator of the resolution of the inflammatory response<sup>64</sup>. IL-10 has a similar  
368 immunomodulatory effect in the brain and is associated with the response against acute insults  
369 to the brain, e.g., acute brain injuries and stroke<sup>65</sup>. However, the hyperactivation of the IL-10/IL-  
370 10R system can be detrimental, preventing the resolution of tissue damage, autoimmune  
371 conditions, and immunological escape of tumors<sup>66, 67</sup>. Interestingly, the primary intracellular  
372 signaling pathway activated by IL-10/IL-10R is the JAK/STAT signaling pathway. The  
373 overactivation of this pathway can lead to the inhibition of pro-apoptotic factors and induction of  
374 cellular senescence<sup>68, 69</sup>. It is worth noting that elevated senescence burden has been  
375 associated with major depression and cognitive impairment across the lifespan<sup>18, 70</sup> and that IL-  
376 10 is overexpressed in immunosenescent cells<sup>71</sup>, thus increased activation of IL-10 in this  
377 context may be more reflective of this cytokine's role in cellular senescence than its anti-  
378 inflammatory properties.

379 Overall, our findings from the Mendelian randomization and observational analyses  
380 provide a robust mechanistic explanation for the higher risk of ADRD in individuals with MDD.  
381 First, a genetically determined reduction in the apolipoprotein E expression can promote the  
382 aggregation of the amyloid- $\beta$  protein in the brain. Coupled with impaired control of the immune  
383 response by the genetically determined higher expression of IL-10RB, there is a reduction in the  
384 capacity of brain tissues to resolve the local insults secondary to the amyloid- $\beta$  accumulation.  
385 Over time, the imbalance of amyloid- $\beta$  accumulation and lower damage resolution capacity in



386 individuals with MDD can lead to additional development of astrogliosis, neuronal injury, cellular  
387 senescence, reduced neurotrophic support, impaired proteostasis and metabolic control,  
388 culminating in the progression of neurodegenerative changes and the development of ADRD. It  
389 is important to note that other characteristics of a depressive episode, that were not captured in  
390 the current study, like chronic perceived stress, medical comorbidities, and poor lifestyle and  
391 behaviors, can contribute to the intensification of these pathophysiological processes and  
392 moderate the risk of ADRD in individuals with MDD.

393 Antidepressant treatment may have a mild effect on improving cognitive performance in  
394 individuals with MDD<sup>72</sup>, although they do not seem to have a robust effect preventing ADRD in  
395 individuals with MDD<sup>73</sup>. Therefore, more specific interventions are needed, and our results point  
396 to more specific treatment targets for interventions aiming to mitigate the risk of ADRD in this  
397 group. For example, several drugs that inhibit the JAK/STAT pathway, a major pathway  
398 activated by the IL-10 receptor, are clinically available (e.g., baricitinib and tofacitinib) and could  
399 be repurposed aiming the prevention of ADRD in individuals with MDD; however, their side  
400 effect profile and low brain penetrance may preclude its effectiveness for this purpose<sup>74</sup>. On the  
401 other hand, there has been a growing interest in modulating apolipoprotein E effects as a  
402 treatment target for ADRD and several compounds have been developed and tested in animal  
403 models<sup>75</sup> and they could be also promising in the prevention of ADRD in individuals with MDD.

404 To the best of our knowledge, we were the first to develop a proteomic risk score  
405 estimating the 10-year risk of ADRD in individuals with a history of MDD. Our model ( $\text{PrRS}_{\text{MDD-ADRD}}$ )  
406 had a strong discriminative performance, with a C-statistics of 0.84. Interestingly,  $\text{PrRS}_{\text{MDD-ADRD}}$   
407 alone showed a stronger predictive performance than well-established risk factors for  
408 ADRD in the general population, including APOE genotype, socio-demographic variables (age,  
409 education, and sex), or their combination. Importantly, the  $\text{PrRS}_{\text{MDD-ADRD}}$  was also associated  
410 with intermediate phenotypes of ADRD like worse cognitive performance, atrophy in cortical and

411 subcortical brain regions, and cerebrovascular burden. These findings support the robustness of  
412  $PrRS_{MDD-ADRD}$  to predict ADRD development in MDD populations and for its potential use in  
413 observational studies and clinical trials aiming to evaluate the association between MDD and  
414 ADRD.

415 Our results should be interpreted in light of the study limitations. The UK Biobank sample  
416 is relatively healthier, with better socioeconomic status, and predominantly white compared to  
417 the general UK population. Thus, our findings may not be generalizable to the general  
418 population or other geographical locations. The identification of MDD cases was based on  
419 electronic health records. Despite of the strong validity of EHR for the identification of MDD  
420 cases in the UK Biobank<sup>76</sup>, the lack of formal psychiatric interview for the majority of UK  
421 Biobank participants does not allow for a fine-grained characterization of the major depressive  
422 episode, such as currently depressed or in remission, age of onset, chronicity and number of  
423 prior episodes, trajectories of depressive symptoms after the diagnosis, treatment response  
424 which are all variables that can influence the risk of ADRD in this population<sup>77, 78</sup>. Similarly, the  
425 identification of ADRD was based on EHR and there is no information about AD-related  
426 biomarkers (amyloid- $\beta$  and phosphorylated Tau protein). Thus, there is a risk of misclassification  
427 of cases that could have influenced the current results. We were not able to validate our models  
428 and results using an external validation study. This is due to the absence of large-scale  
429 epidemiologic studies with the identification of MDD cases and future cases of ADRD that also  
430 have used the OLINK Explore 3072<sup>®</sup> proteomic assay. Therefore, our findings must be  
431 replicated and validated in future studies, including large and diverse sample sizes.

432 Despite the study limitation, our analyses have unique strengths such as the large  
433 sample of individuals with MDD, proteomic data, and a long follow-up. Despite UKB participants  
434 being younger, healthier, and better off socio-economically we were still able to detect the  
435 association between MDD and ADRD and to develop a robust predictive model based on the

436 proteomic data. Finally, the Mendelian randomization analysis, using cis-pQTLs as genetic  
437 instruments, allows one to move beyond typically descriptions of associations with all the  
438 multitudes of different and unavoidable biases of observational studies and towards studies  
439 involving inference of biological causation.

440

441

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445

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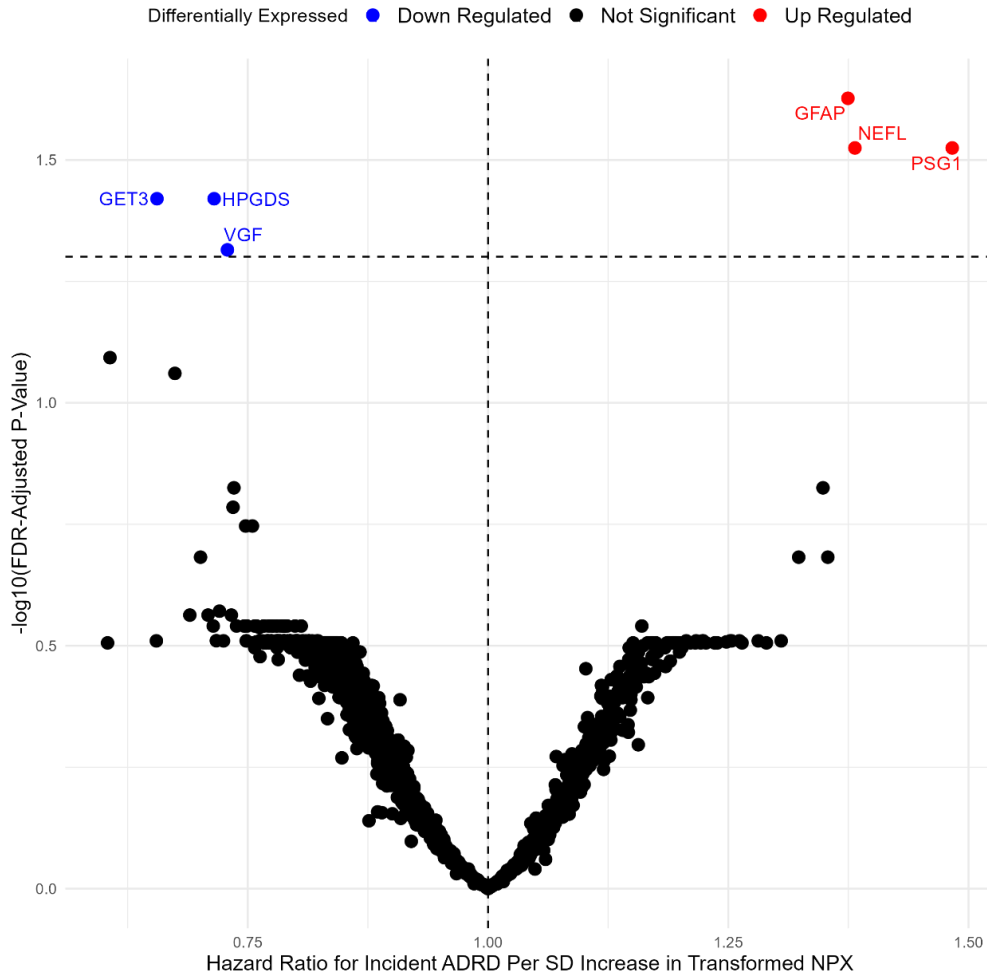
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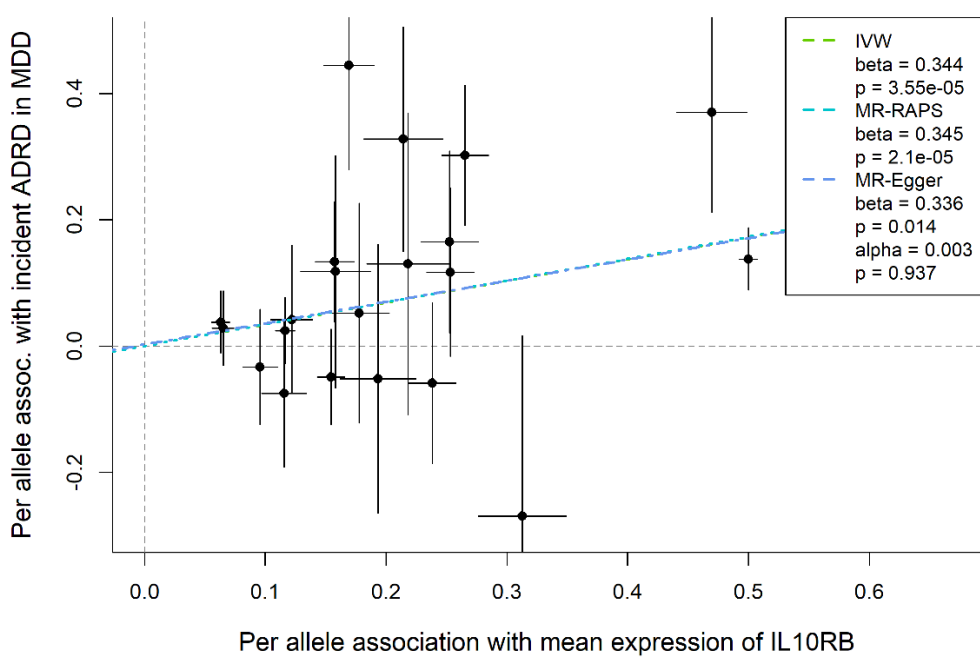
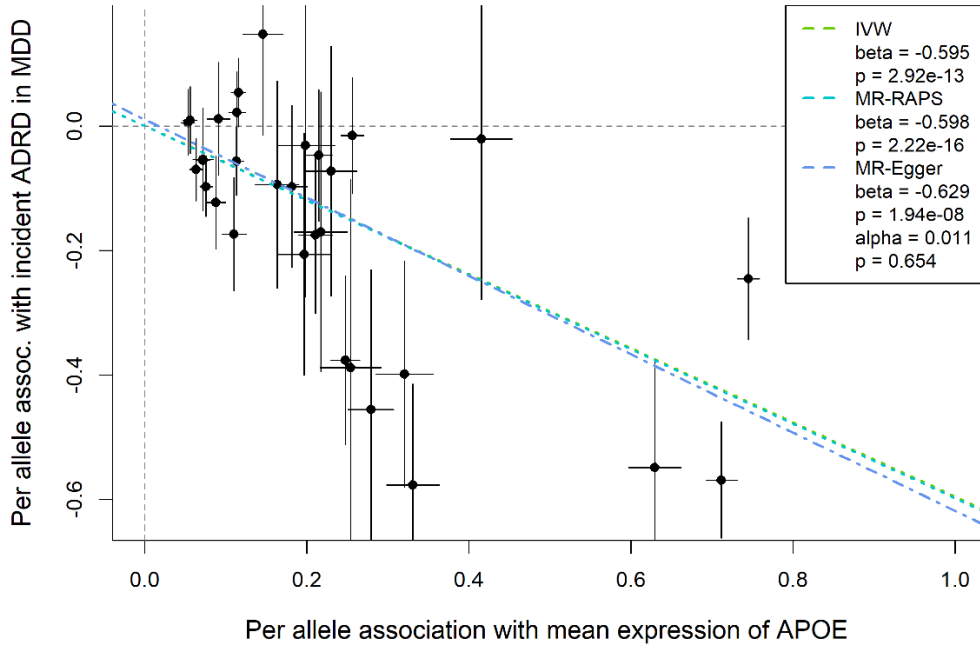
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**Figure 1 Proteins significantly associated with incident ADRD in participants with a history of MDD at baseline**



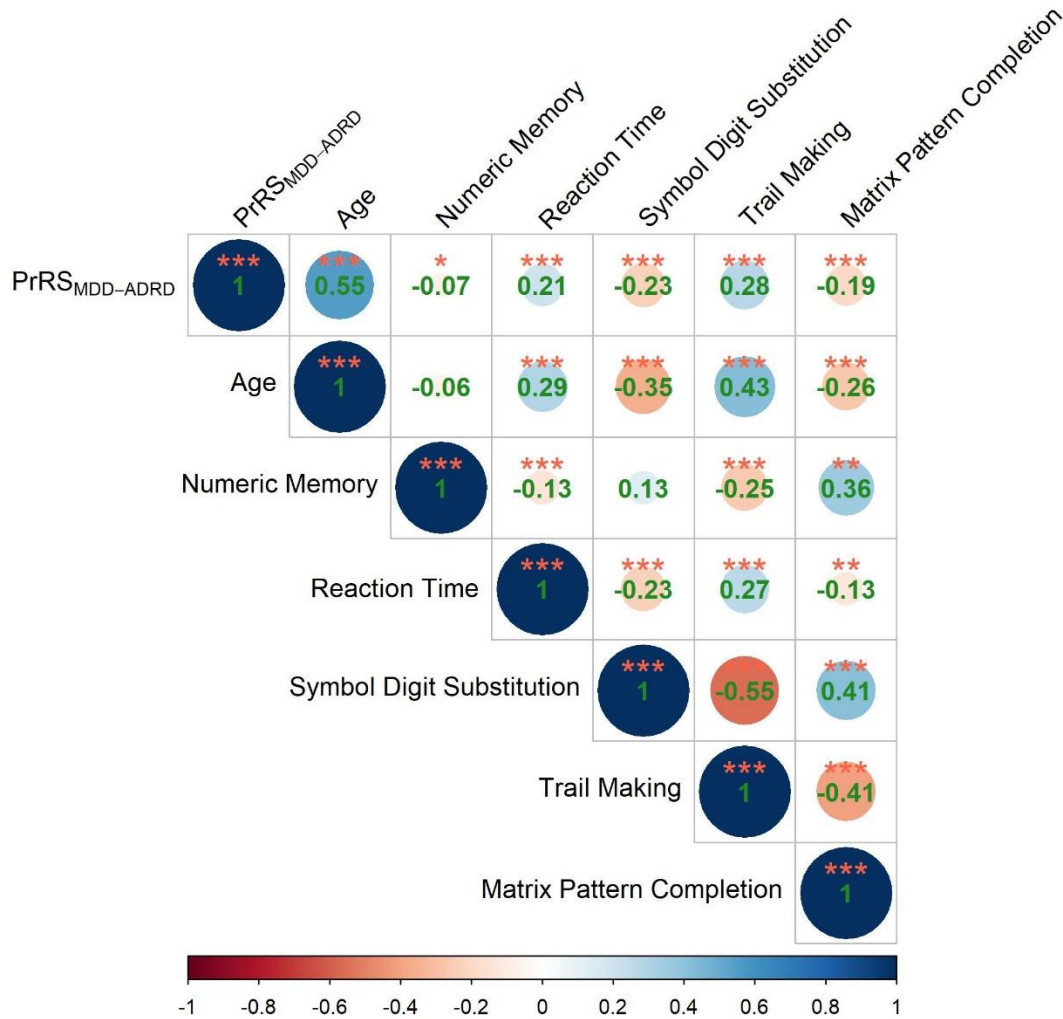
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**Figure 2 MR-Egger plots to show causal estimates from IVW vs. other MR methods for the effects of APOE and IL10RB (FDR-adjusted  $p < 0.05$ ) on incident ADRD in participants with a history of MDD at baseline. The slope estimates represent log(HR) per SD increase in genetically determined APOE or IL10RB.**



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**Figure 3 - Spearman correlations between PrRS<sub>MDD-ADRD</sub>, age, and cognitive performance measures from baseline (reaction time, numeric memory, fluid intelligence score) or first imaging visit (symbol digit substitution, trail making, matrix pattern completion). Significance: \*\*\*p<0.001, \*\*0.01<p<0.001, \*0.01<p<0.05.**



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**Figure 4 Spearman correlations of PrRS<sub>MDD-ADRD</sub> with T1 structural and T2-weighted brain MRI image-derived phenotypes (IDPs), adjusting for head size. IDPs labeled if FDR-adjusted p<0.05 and Spearman correlation >0.2.**

