APOE Haplotype Phasing Using ONT Long-Read Sequencing Reveals Two

2 Common ε3 and ε4 intragenic haplotypes in the Spanish Population

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- 54 read sequencing, MCI, dementia, gene

Abstract

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Background: The apolipoprotein E (APOE) gene is a key genetic determinant of Alzheimer's disease (AD) risk, with the £4 allele significantly increasing susceptibility. While the pathogenic effects of the \(\epsilon4\) allele are well established, the functional impact of distinct haplotype configurations within the broader ε3 and ε4 backgrounds remains poorly understood. This study investigates the role of intragenic sub haplotypes in modulating APOE expression and their potential influence on AD progression. Methods: We utilized Oxford Nanopore Technology (ONT) long-read sequencing to phase variants within a 4-kilobase comprising the APOE locus in a cohort of 1,265 individuals with known APOE genotypes. We evaluated the impact of the identified intragenic haplotypes on APOE protein levels in cerebrospinal fluid (CSF) using the Olink platform, adjusting for demographic and molecular covariates. Statistical modeling was employed to assess the independent effects of these haplotypes alongside traditional APOE genotypes. Additionally, their influence on dementia progression in mild cognitive impairment (MCI) subjects was analyzed using adjusted Cox proportional hazards models. Results: Our analysis identified 48 Single Nucleotide Variants (SNVs) within a 4-kilobase region containing the APOE gene, including nine novel variants. Phasing of variants within the APOE locus revealed 59 unique haplotypes in the Spanish population, which were grouped into five major haplogroups—ε2, ε3A, ε3B, ε4A, and ε4B—including two common haplogroups for each of the ε3 and ε4 isoforms. The ε4A haplogroup was associated with a significant decrease in APOE $\varepsilon 4$ protein levels in CSF (p = 0.004), suggesting a regulatory mechanism that may mitigate the toxic gain-of-function effect typically attributed to the \(\epsilon 4 \) allele. Conversely, the \(\epsilon 3 \) B haplogroup was linked to increased APOE ε 3 protein levels in ε 3/ ε 4 carriers (p = 0.025), potentially serving a compensatory role.

These effects were independent of overall APOE genotype and remained significant after adjusting for covariates. Both haplogroups ($\varepsilon 4A$ and $\varepsilon 3B$) demonstrated protective effects in the progression from MCI to dementia, underscoring their potential relevance in Alzheimer's disease. **Conclusions:** This study provides new insights into the intragenic allelic variability of the APOE gene, demonstrating that intragenic APOE haplogroups within the $\varepsilon 3$ and $\varepsilon 4$ backgrounds can modulate APOE isoform expression in ways that might modulate AD. Our findings highlight the importance of considering haplotype-specific effects when interpreting the functional impact of APOE and in designing targeted therapeutic strategies. Further research is needed to explore the broader regulatory network of the APOE locus and its interaction with neighboring loci in the 19q13 region.

Keywords: Alzheimer, *APOE*, haplotype, long-read sequencing, risk, progression, protein levels

1. Introduction

Alzheimer's disease (AD) and related dementias present a growing global health challenge as populations age, with significant social and economic burdens^{1,2}. AD, the most common cause of dementia, is characterized by a progressive decline in cognitive function, leading to memory impairment, loss of independence, and ultimately, death. The profound effects on patients and caregivers, coupled with the strain on healthcare systems, highlight the urgent need for effective strategies to prevent and manage this disease³. Genetic factors are critical in developing late-onset AD (LOAD), with the Apolipoprotein E (*APOE*) gene identified as a key contributor. Specifically, the *APOE* ε4 allele significantly increases the risk for AD, while the ε2 allele appears to have a protective effect^{4,5}. However, the risk associated with the *APOE* ε4 allele varies across populations⁶⁻¹¹. Notably, individuals of African ancestry exhibit a reduced risk of Alzheimer's disease (AD) associated with the ε4 allele compared to those of European descent, suggesting the presence of protective effects within specific genetic backgrounds¹². Recent studies have highlighted a significant interaction between *APOE* ε4 and the rs10423769-A allele, which reduces AD risk by up to 75% in African-origin haplotypes¹². Understanding the genetic

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mechanisms modulating APOE and its association with AD—particularly the role of cis and trans regulatory elements—remains critical for developing targeted interventions aimed at mitigating the impact of this major risk factor and ultimately reducing the societal burden of the disease. The APOE gene encodes a major regulator of lipid metabolism, functioning by binding and transporting lipids within the bloodstream and the brain. In neurodegenerative diseases, APOE lipoprotein plays pivotal roles in amyloid-β clearance, synaptic maintenance, and neuroinflammatory processes^{13,14}. The APOE ε4 isoform has been shown to impair amyloid-β clearance, promoting its accumulation in the brain, a hallmark of AD pathology¹⁵. Furthermore, the \(\xi \) isoform is associated with enhanced neuroinflammation 16 and oxidative stress 17, contributing to neuronal damage and accelerating disease progression. These distinct roles of APOE isoforms emphasize the importance of understanding their functional differences, particularly in the context of AD pathology and progression¹⁸. Oxford Nanopore Technology (ONT)¹⁹ offers a cutting-edge solution for overcoming challenges associated with genetic analysis, particularly the issue of homoplasy, where genetic variants may independently arise but appear identical²⁰. Homoplasy is a well-known issue within the APOE locus, complicating efforts to link genetic variants with disease phenotypes²¹. ONT's long-read sequencing technology provides the ability to phase DNA variations, enabling the precise connection of single nucleotide variants (SNVs) with haplotypes and regulatory elements that modulate APOE gene expression. This level of resolution facilitates a clearer distinction between benign and disease-associated variants, enhancing our understanding of how different APOE haplotypes influence disease risk and progression across diverse populations²². The ability to phase the classic APOE isoforms with other variants located in functional elements provides an invaluable tool for elucidating the mechanisms by which cis-genetic variants configure APOE sub-haplotypes. This understanding extends beyond the classical ε2/ε3/ε4 isoforms, shedding light on how specific combinations contribute to Alzheimer's disease and other neurodegenerative conditions

In this study, we explore the association between intragenic APOE haplotypes and Alzheimer's disease (AD) progression, with a special focus on identifying existing haplotypes within the $\varepsilon 3$ and $\varepsilon 4$ protein isoforms. Utilizing ONT-based long-read sequencing, we analyzed the distribution of intragenic APOE sub-haplotypes in a large Spanish cohort, identifying 48 SNVs, including both known and novel variants. Our analysis specifically focuses on examining common variants within regulatory motifs that influence CSF APOE levels and AD biomarkers in an isoform-specific manner. Moreover, we identified distinct $\varepsilon 3$ and $\varepsilon 4$ sub-haplotypes that appear to influence the rate of conversion from mild cognitive impairment (MCI) to dementia, providing potential genetic markers for individualized disease risk assessment and therapeutic intervention.

2. Materials and methods

2.a. The ACE Alzheimer's Center Barcelona CSF cohort (ACE)

Patient recruitment and evaluation were conducted at the Memory Disorders Unit of the ACE Alzheimer Center Barcelona (ACE) in Spain, spanning the years 2016 to 2021²³. Diagnoses were established through consensus discussions involving neurologists, neuropsychologists, and social workers during case conferences. All patients classified as having mild cognitive impairment (MCI) met the criteria outlined by *Petersen et al.* for MCI diagnosis^{24,25}. These criteria include subjective memory complaints, a noticeable decline from normal cognitive function, intact daily living activities, the absence of dementia, and measurable impairments in one or more cognitive domains, whether amnestic MCI (single or multiple domains). Impairment thresholds were determined according to age and education level. Specific cutoffs for the tests in the neuropsychological battery (NBACE) are detailed in prior publications²⁶, with individuals scoring below these thresholds classified as having MCI.

For patients with MCI who were later followed up, dementia diagnoses were made according to the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders, Fifth Edition (DSM-V) criteria²⁷. Dementia subtypes were further categorized based on the 2011 National Institute on Aging-Alzheimer's Association (NIA-AA) criteria for Alzheimer's disease²⁸, the NINDS-AIREN criteria

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for vascular dementia²⁹, frontotemporal dementia³⁰, and the diagnostic criteria for Lewy body dementia³¹. Fasting patients provided paired CSF and plasma samples using standardized clinical methods. CSF was collected via lumbar puncture from the L3-L4 intervertebral space following standard protocols³². The procedure, performed by skilled neurologists under local anesthesia (1% mepivacaine), involved the patient sitting upright. Two 10-ml polypropylene tubes (Sarstedt ref 62,610,018) of CSF were collected, with one tube used for routine biochemistry tests (glucose, total protein, proteinogram, cell type, and count). The second tube was centrifuged (2000xg, 10 min at 4°C), aliquoted into polypropylene tubes (Sarstedt ref 72,694,007), and stored at -80°C within two hours of collection. On the day of biomarker analysis, an aliquot was thawed at room temperature, vortexed for 5-10 seconds, and analyzed for Aβ1-42, total tau (t-tau), and phosphorylated tau (p-tau) levels using enzyme-linked immunosorbent assays (ELISAs): Innotest Aβ1-42, Innotest hTAU Ag, and Innotest PHOSPHO-TAU (181P) (Fujirebio Europe)^{32–34}. CSF protein levels of APOE were measured using conventional ELISA protocols as previously described³⁵. In addition, APOE protein levels, along with the protein products of loci near the APOE gene (NECTIN2, BCAM, and APOC2), were also obtained from OLINK panels generated in our prior work as part of the PREADAPT JPND programs³⁶. Each selected protein's measurements were adjusted for age, sex, and the principal components of the CSF proteome variance. Standardized residuals were then used as dependent variables in subsequent analyses (see below). Informed consents for lumbar puncture, genetic analyses, and the anonymized use of clinical records for research were approved by the Ethics Committee of the Hospital Clinic i Provincial de Barcelona (Barcelona, Spain) in accordance with Spanish biomedical laws (Law 14/2007, of July 3, on biomedical research; Royal Decree 1716/2011, of November 18). The study also adhered to the recommendations of the Declaration of Helsinki. The Harpone project, encompassing all the research described in this manuscript, has also been approved by the Ethics Committee of the Hospital de Bellvitge (Barcelona, Spain) (Acta 04/21).

2.b. DNA extraction and APOE genotyping

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DNA extraction from blood specimens was performed automatically using standard procedures with the DNA Chemagic system (Perkin Elmer) or the Maxwell RSC48 instrument (Promega). Extensive DNA quality control was conducted, and only samples with DNA concentrations greater than 10 ng/μl and high integrity were included for *APOE* genotyping. The isoforms were determined by TaqMan probe analysis in the Real-Time PCR QuantStudio3 (ThermoFisher, Waltham, Massachusetts, USA) system or extracted from Affymetrix Axiom SP biobank arrays processed as previously described ^{37–39}.

2.c. Long PCR amplification of the APOE locus

Long-range PCR was performed to amplify the APOE locus using primer pairs designed with the National Institutes of Health (NIH) primer designing tool software (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/tools/primer-blast/) to cover the entire region, from the promoter to the 3' UTR. We used Roche's ExpandTM Long Template PCR System kit (UNSPSC number: 41106300) for PCR amplification. To find the optimal reaction conditions, we tested in a single sample three different primer pairs, along with different DMSO concentrations (2.5, 5.0, 7.5 and 10%) and three kit-supplied reaction buffers (Supp. Table 1, Supp. Fig. 1). Based on our results, we used a 10% concentration of DMSO, kit-supplied reaction buffer 2 and the primer pair labeled "APOE III" for optimal long-range amplification of the region. The selected primers were: forward primer 5'- ACAGGGTCAGGAAAGGAGGA -3' and reverse primer 5'-GGCTGGGGCTTAGAGGAAAT -3', spanning a 3939 bp fragment surrounding the APOE locus. The reaction mixture included a high-fidelity DNA polymerase, PCR dNTP mix (Roche, UNSPSC code 41106300), template DNA, primers, DMSO, and buffer (including 17.5 mM MgCl₂) (Supp. Table 2). The PCR was carried out on a Thermo Fisher QuantStudio 3 Real-Time Thermal Cycler with the following conditions: initial denaturation at 94°C for 2 minutes, followed by 40 cycles of denaturation at 92°C for 10 seconds, annealing at 59°C for 30 seconds, and extension at 68°C for 4 minutes. A ramp increasing the elongation time by 20 seconds per cycle starting in cycle 11, and a final 10-minute elongation step at 68°C were included in the protocol to ensure complete amplification of the DNA segment. Following amplification, PCR products were purified using AMpure XP beads (Beckman Coulter, A63881), following the manufacturer's protocol to remove salts, primers, nucleotides, and enzymes, ensuring high-quality DNA for downstream applications. Amplification success was verified via automated capillary electrophoresis using the LabChip GX Touch Nucleic Acid Analyzer (Revvity, CLS138162) and the DNA 12K Reagent Kit (Revvity, 760569).

2.d. ONT long-read Sequencing and Library Preparation

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For the ONT sequencing of the APOE amplicon, we employed the ONT 96 Native Barcoding Kit (EXP-NBD196) to multiplex 96 samples in a single reaction, and the ONT Ligation Sequencing Kit (SQK-LSK109). We followed the protocol recommended by ONT based on these reagent kits: "Amplicon barcoding with Native Barcoding Expansion 96 (EXP-NBD196, and SQK-LSK109), Version: NBA 9102 v109 revA 09Jul2020". Purified APOE amplicons (100 fmoles) were quantified using the Quant-iT[™] PicoGreen[™] dsDNA Assay Kits (Invitrogen, P7589), and 250 ng were taken forward for barcode ligation. This process involved two steps: first, the ends of the DNA fragments were repaired using the NEBNext® UltraTM II End Repair/dA-Tailing Module (New England Biolabs, E7546), following manufacturer instructions. This reaction is optimized for the subsequent ligation reaction, yielding 5' phosphorylated and 3' dA-tailed ends. Then, unique barcodes were ligated to each sample using the NEB Blunt/TA Ligase Master Mix module (New England Biolabs, M0367). Subsequently, the barcoded library was pooled together and 480 uL were carried forward for purification using Ampure XP beads, removing excess barcodes and small fragments, and collected in a volume of 30 uL. Absorbance at 260 nm, A260/A280 and A260/230 ratios, measured with a BioTek Epoch Microplate Spectrophotometer, were used subsequently for rapid estimation of DNA concentration and purity. 500 ng (200 fmol) of the pulled library was then ligated to ONT sequencing adapters using the NEBNext Quick Ligation Module (New England Biolabs, E6056), following manufacturer instructions. A final AMpure XP purification step was performed to remove unwanted products. Finally, 100 ng (~40 fmoles) of the library were loaded onto primed ONT R9.4.1 flow cells. Sequencing was carried out on a MinION platform, enabling real-time demultiplexing by Guppy, until satisfactory coverage of all barcoded samples was achieved (at least 100x coverage of the least represented barcodes).

2.e. Bioinformatics Analysis

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The dry lab workflow for the identification of missense mutations in the APOE locus using Oxford Nanopore Technologies (ONT) sequencing data is based on the protocol described by Leija-Salazar et al.⁴⁰. This bioinformatics processing involves a series of computational steps, starting from raw signal data and culminating in the generation of a multi-sample VCF file. The process begins with basecalling and demultiplexing using Guppy v4.5.2 (https://nanoporetech.com/software/other/guppy), which converts raw electrical signals from the nanopore sequencing (.fast5) into nucleotide sequences (.fastq files), while simultaneously assigning each read to its corresponding barcode. Basecalling was conducted using the dna_r9.4.1_450bps_hac.cfg --config file for high accuracy. We generated in-silico gel electrophoresis images to visually assess the read length of sequencing reads, ensuring the signal detected for each barcode was present in the expected length (3939bp). Following this, the quality of the reads is assessed; only those marked as "PASS" and within the length range of 3800 to 4000 base pairs were retained to ensure only full-length APOE amplicons were included in downstream analysis. Subsequently, nanopolish (https://github.com/jts/nanopolish) was utilized to index the .fastq files, linking the sequencing data back to the original raw signal data in the fast5 files. This linkage is crucial for the later implementation of signal-based error correction. during variant calling. We used two different aligners—Graphmap v0.5.2 and NGLMR v0.2.7 to generate the SAM files providing the positional information of the filtered and indexed reads within the reference genome (GRCh38.p13). Subsequently, we used samtools v1.10 (http://www.htslib.org/) to convert the files to BAM format, and then sort and index the files. nanopolish was subsequently used for variant calling, employing the raw nanopore signal to enhance the accuracy of mutation detection. The output of this step is a .vcf file containing the identified variants within the APOE locus for each sample. Individual .vcf files from each sample were then merged using bcftools 1.9 (https://samtools.github.io/bcftools), and sample IDs were reassigned based on barcode correspondence, resulting in a multi-sample .vcf file that consolidates the variant information across all 96 samples. SNP identifiers and TOPMed allele frequencies were annotated based on dbSNP build 151 (GRCh38.p7). The mean ratio of the QUAL and TotalReads parameters generated by nanopolish was used as a quality measure for variant calling. Overall, this comprehensive approach allowed for the accurate detection of missense mutations in the *APOE* locus by leveraging both basecalled sequences and the inherent error-correction capabilities of Nanopolish based on the raw nanopore sequencing data.

2.f. Variant phasing and further haplotype analyses

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The phasing of APOEhaplotypes conducted using WhatsHap was (https://whatshap.readthedocs.io), a tool designed for accurate read-based phasing of long-read sequencing data^{41,42}. WhatsHap performs phasing by directly utilizing DNA sequencing reads, a method known as read-based phasing or haplotype assembly, which is particularly suited for long reads but also works well with short reads. By leveraging the long-range information from ONT sequencing, WhatsHap effectively separated detected variants into their respective haplotypes, enabling the reconstruction of complete APOE haplotypes for each individual. To facilitate downstream analyses, we developed a custom code. This program automated the extraction of individual-level haplotypes from the phased VCFs generated by WhatsHap, calculated haplotype frequencies, and encoded individual-level subhaplotypes for subsequent use. Additionally, the code prepared nexus files for evolutionary analyses in MEGA and formatted data for phenotypehaplotype correlation studies in SPSS. Following the phasing process, the evolutionary relationships of the APOE haplotypes were examined using MEGA Software v11.0.13 (https://www.megasoftware.net)⁴³. MEGA was used for the alignment and comparison of haplotype sequences, enabling the construction of phylogenetic trees and the assessment of evolutionary divergence. Specifically, the evolutionary history was inferred using the Maximum Likelihood method with the Tamura-Nei model⁴⁴. The tree was drawn to scale, with branch lengths representing the number of substitutions per site.

Sub-haplotypes derived from the different *APOE* common haplotypes were color-coded to facilitate interpretation: green for $\varepsilon 2$, orange for $\varepsilon 3$, red for $\varepsilon 4$, and blue for the ancestral sequence extracted from Ensembl⁴⁵.

2.g. Statistical analysis

For statistical analysis, SPSS (version 26.0 for Windows, IBM, Armonk, New York, USA) was used. Group differences were assessed using the Chi-Square test for categorical variables and the t-test for quantitative variables. To evaluate the impact of *APOE* sub haplotypes on the risk of conversion to dementia, Kaplan–Meier curves were generated, stratifying mild cognitive impairment (MCI) subjects into sub-haplotype categories based on the presence of $\varepsilon 3$ or $\varepsilon 4$ variants, encoded as the presence/absence of potentially disease-modifying subhaplotypes. Cox proportional-hazard regressions were then conducted to identify potential confounders of the categories, adjusting for covariates including age at lumbar puncture, sex, baseline MMSE score, formal education (years), AD biomarker levels, and biomarker determination methods (ELISA or CLEIA). To examine the impact of subhaplotypes on CSF AD biomarkers or CSF protein levels of APOE, BCAM, APOC3, and NECTIN2, a general linear model of the standardized residuals of the target proteins was further adjusted for AD biomarkers (except when exploring the impact of *APOE* subhaplotypes on AD biomarkers), *APOE* isoforms ($\varepsilon 2/\varepsilon 3/\varepsilon 4$), age, sex, and the principal components of the proteome variance as previously reported⁴⁶. The significance level was set at $\alpha = 0.05$.

3. Results

3.a. ACE CSF cohort description

Table 1 provides a detailed descriptive overview of the demographic, clinical, neurological, and biological characteristics of the ACE CSF cohort, comprising 1,267 subjects sequenced for the *APOE* gene using ONT long-read sequencing. The ACE cohort is predominantly female (57.9%), with a mean age of 72.68 years (SD = 8.46), a mean body mass index (BMI) of 26.9 kg/m² (SD = 4.36), and an average of 8.17 years of education (SD = 4.77). Syndromic diagnoses based on

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Clinical Dementia Rating (CDR) scores include 6.2% with subjective cognitive decline (SCD, CDR = 0), 62.7% with mild cognitive impairment (MCI, CDR = 0.5), and 30.1% with dementia (CDR > 0). The AT(N) classification reveals that 33% of participants fall under the A+T+N+ category, indicating the presence of both amyloid pathology and tauopathy, while 29.7% are A-T-N-, showing no evidence of AD pathology. Of note, a relatively large proportion of individuals (37.7%) displayed intermediate AT(N) profiles, with or without the presence of amyloidosis, suggesting the existence of a relatively big proportion of individuals with an ongoing neurodegenerative process that does not yet fulfill the full positive AT(N) molecular pattern (Table 1). Additional clinical and biochemical data include a mean Mini-Mental State Examination (MMSE) score of 24.4 (SD = 4.41), and CSF biomarkers with mean concentrations of 72.28 pg/mL (SD = 45.35) for phosphorylated tau (pTau181), 811.2 pg/mL (SD = 393.5) for amyloid β 42, and 469.2 pg/mL (SD = 330.1) for total tau. Lastly, among the MCI group with follow-up information available (n=720), 49.1% converted to dementia, reflecting the longitudinal progression of a significant proportion of MCI subjects. Analysis of APOE genotype distribution shows that, as expected, the $\varepsilon 3/\varepsilon 3$ genotype is the most prevalent (57.9%), followed by $\epsilon 3/\epsilon 4$ (27.9%), with less frequent occurrences of $\epsilon 2/\epsilon 3$ (7.2%), $\epsilon 4/\epsilon 4$ (4.7%), $\epsilon 2/\epsilon 4$ (1.9%), and $\varepsilon 2/\varepsilon 2 \ (0.3\%).$

3.b. DNA Sequencing of the *APOE* locus in the Spanish Population

We applied Oxford Nanopore Technologies (ONT) long-read DNA sequencing to a 3939 bp region surrounding the *APOE* locus (from the promoter to the 3'UTR) in our cohort of 1,267 individuals (Table 1). Our study focuses exclusively on SNVs within the *APOE* region on chromosome 19 due to the known limitations of ONT sequencing, which tends to be less reliable for detecting insertion and deletion (indel) mutations⁴⁷. By limiting our analysis to SNVs, we leverage the strengths of ONT sequencing, ensuring higher confidence in variant detection and reducing the risk of false positives typically associated with indel identification. The results of this sequencing project are presented in Table 2 and Fig. 1. Overall, we identified 48 single nucleotide variants (SNVs) in the *APOE* gene region using the methods and criteria applied.

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We categorized detected SNVs based on their frequency and novelty status: 8 were common (MAF>0.01), 7 rare (0.01>MAF>0.001), 24 very rare (MAF<0.001), and 9 unlisted in dbSNP. These classifications are derived using allele frequency data from the TOPMed⁴⁸ and GR@ACE ^{37–39} populations. The eight common variants are well-documented in population databases, indicating a relatively high frequency in the general population. Notably, the observed and expected frequencies of SNVs with a frequency of 1% or higher in previous studies align almost perfectly with the frequencies observed in our study, underscoring the reliability of the results for SNVs using the ONT technology implemented (Fig. 2). These variants are primarily distributed in intronic and exonic regions, suggesting potential regulatory or coding impacts. The 7 rare variants are less prevalent, and their occurrence is limited to specific subpopulations or contexts. The 24 very rare variants exhibit an extremely low frequency (<0.1%) in global databases and are mostly singletons, underscoring their possible relevance to niche population studies or for tracking rare genetic traits. We also generated confidence ratings for each variant based on their frequency and sequencing quality, with 37 variants labeled as Very Good or Good, and all the new ones marked with caution (Fig. 1, Supp. Table 3). We labeled two additional variants as 'caution': rs1488164590 was detected in a single chromosome, had an exceptionally low QUAL to TotalReads ratio, and was present in a homopolymer region; rs147236548 was called in only one chromosome using the Graphmap but not the NGLMR aligner. Comparing our data with available TOPMed imputed genotypes from the GR@ACE project ^{37–39}, we confirmed that the Graphmap call matched the genotype of this sample, so we kept this aligner over NGLMR for downstream analyses. This emphasizes the robustness of the ONT sequencing approach while highlighting new variants requiring careful interpretation. Additionally, substitution types indicate that 31 are transitions and 17 are transversions (Ts/Tv rate 1.82). We also found 9 novel variants are not found in public databases, suggesting they are unique to this dataset and could represent newly identified mutations. Of these, 6 are located within intronic regions, 1 is in the 5'UTR region, and 2 are found in exon 4 (Table 2).

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We analyzed these 9 potentially novel SNVs using the Ensembl Variant effect prediction tool (VEP)⁴⁹, revealing that the majority are classified as having a modifier impact. This classification typically means that these variants do not directly alter the protein function but may influence gene regulation, splicing, or transcriptional control (Supp. Table 4). Most of these variants are in upstream, downstream, or intronic regions of the APOE gene, suggesting that their impact is more likely to be on gene expression rather than protein coding. Two new variants, specifically 19:44908665:C/T and 19:44908797:C/A, were identified as synonymous variants in the exon 4 of APOE but do not affect the resulting amino acid. These types of changes often have minimal impact on protein structure, although they could potentially affect splicing or regulatory elements. VEP confirmed that analyzed variants appear are novel, as they were not registered in the VEP databases (Supp. Table 4). We repeated the VEP analysis using the 15 coding SNVs detected in this study (Supp. Table 5). The most important VEP predictions for coding variants identified in the APOE locus are summarized in Fig. 3. Half of the observed variants are classified as Disease Causing (Predicted+Literature), indicating potential pathogenicity based on in silico predictions. This visualization helps in identifying the functional impact of each variant based on CADD scores, providing further insights into the severity and potential functional consequences of the observed genetic alterations. Only the APOE variants encoding the classic APOE alleles (rs429358 tagging ε4, and rs7412 tagging ε2), rs563571689 (D19N substitution) and rs121918393 (R180H substitution also known as Christchurch mutation) displayed relatively high CADD scores although with a modest impact according to standard CADD criteria even not reaching a moderately deleterious score (scoring ranged between 5 and 10)⁵⁰.

3.c. Haplotype analysis of the APOE locus using ONT long read sequences

In this section, we present a comprehensive analysis of the *APOE* haplotypes derived from the SNVs in the Spanish population. Specifically, we are focusing on characterizing intragenic 4KB-haplotypes derived from a detailed examination of the phase of the 48 detected variants. This analysis was run using WhatsHap⁴¹, known for its high accuracy in phasing genomic variants through sequencing data.

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We identified 59 distinct APOE haplotypes in the Spanish population, ranging from a maximum of 970 (38.07%) observations for the most common haplotype (Haplotype 1) to just a single observation (0.04% of the total observations) for the rarest haplotypes (Supp. Table 6). This count reflects the prevalence of each haplotype within the population, offering insights into its genetic structure in the APOE locus. We also categorized the haplotypes into haplogroups, considering the common APOE isoform backgrounds ($\varepsilon 2$, $\varepsilon 3$, $\varepsilon 4$) and the presence or absence of the alternative sequence (T-allele) of the homoplasic SNV rs405509 (Supp. Fig. 2). For instance, Haplotype 1 is classified under haplogroup 3a, while Haplotype 3 falls under haplogroup 4a. This classification framework aids in understanding the evolutionary relationships and potential health implications associated with each haplotype. A detailed examination of haplotype frequencies revealed a total of 17 distinct haplotypes that exhibited three or more occurrences among the sampled individuals (Fig. 4, Table 3). Our findings revealed that the five most prevalent haplotypes accounted for 92.74% of all haplotypes identified in this cohort. Specifically, Haplotype 1 and Haplotype 2 are associated with the \varepsilon3 allele, while Haplotype 3 and Haplotype 4 are linked to the ε4 allele. Additionally, we identified a common ε2 haplotype, designated as Haplotype 5. The predominance of these haplotypes suggests shared ancestry within this population, offering valuable insights into the genetic landscape of the APOE gene and its potential health implications. This haplotype frequency distribution underscores the genetic diversity present within the population, which may be influenced by historical demographic factors including migration, genetic drift, and natural selection. The high frequency of certain haplotypes suggests a possible selective advantage, which could be related to environmental adaptations or other health-related traits. This aspect of our findings provides a foundational understanding of the APOE intragenic variation that exists within the Spanish population, reflecting broader evolutionary processes. Importantly, this study firmly demonstrates the existence of two common haplotypes for ε3 and ε4, just determined by the phasing of a single homoplasic variant located in the promoter region of the APOE gene (rs405509). We utilized this information to simplify and statistically manage a

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panoply of the less common haplotypes, which were categorized into A or B haplogroups based on the correct phasing of classic APOE isoforms and the presence of the T-allele of the rs405509 variants (Fig. 4, Supp. Table 6). To elucidate the evolutionary relationships among the identified haplotypes, we employed the Maximum Likelihood method in conjunction with the Tamura-Nei model implemented in the MEGA software⁴³ (Fig. 5). These are well-established techniques in phylogenetic analysis. The dataset for this analysis comprised a total of 60 alleles, including the 59 observed haplotypes (Supp. Table 5) and the homo sapiens ancestral APOE allele obtained from Ensembl⁴⁵. This analysis yielded a phylogenetic tree with a log likelihood of -404.80, indicating robust statistical support for the inferred relationships among haplotypes. The constructed tree was scaled to represent genetic distances, with branch lengths proportional to the number of nucleotide substitutions per site. This visualization allowed for a clear interpretation of the evolutionary trajectories and relationships among the haplotypes, revealing insights into how these genetic variants may have diverged and adapted over time within the population (Fig. 5). According to the MEGA analysis the oldest haplotype observed in the Spanish population is Haplotype 4, corresponding to the 4b haplogroup of the APOE ε4 allele (Table 3). This information is fully concordant with previous small-scale studies in other populations²¹. Furthermore, the analysis permitted the identification of the exact haplotype context (Haplotype 26) of other missense variants of the APOE coding sequence, including the APOE Christchurch mutation^{51–53}, which occurs in the APOE ε 3 isoform and haplogroup ε 3b in the Spanish population (Supp. Table 6). An intriguing aspect of our findings was the absence of a full ancestral sequence among the Spanish APOE haplotypes examined. Instead, our analysis indicated that all haplotypes, except for two singletons, harbored alternative sequences shared to Neanderthal-derived sequences at two specific positions within the gene (rs1212454788 and rs749102800). This observation raises the possibility of introgression, suggesting that some of the genetic material associated with the APOE sequences in modern humans may have originated from interbreeding events between early

humans and Neanderthals. However, extended sequencing is needed to elucidate this possibility.

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Furthermore, our analysis confirmed the presence of homoplasy for the variant rs405509, a phenomenon previously documented²¹. This phenomenon complicates the phasing of APOE haplotypes and introduces potential inconsistencies in understanding the relationships between these genetic variants located in APOE regulatory regions and their associated phenotypic outcomes. Homoplasy, defined as the independent occurrence of the same genetic variant in distinct lineages, can obscure the accurate tracing of inheritance patterns and complicate interpretations of their functional implications. As illustrated in the simplified Supp. Fig. 2, the homoplasy observed for rs405509 could be attributed to a single ancestral recombination (or gene conversion) event within the APOE gene. This event likely reshuffled SNVs in the promoters and intronic enhancers of the APOE gene in the ancestral £4b and possibly £3b backgrounds, leading to the differentiation of the ε3 and ε4 isoforms into the two (A and B) haplogroups in a single mutation step. Subsequently, further diversification of haplotypes occurred within each observed haplogroup, resulting in variants that differ by only 1-3 positions from the most common haplotypes (Haplotypes 1-5). Supp. Fig. 2 displays a simplified phylogenetic network and the corresponding genomic context of most common APOE intragenic haplotypes observed in the Spanish population, highlighting their evolutionary relationships and associated regulatory elements within the APOE locus and the classic protein isoforms.

3.d. Exploring APOE haplogroups effects in Alzheimer's Disease

As previously mentioned, our technique permitted us to separate $\varepsilon 3$ and $\varepsilon 4$ isoforms into two haplogroups. We decided to investigate the potential impact of these common haplogroups on Alzheimer's disease progression and other potentially relevant endophenotypes. We initially split our population by *APOE* haplogroups and detected the expected 15 categories resulting from the combination of the five common haplogroups ($\varepsilon 2$, $\varepsilon 3a$, $\varepsilon 3b$, $\varepsilon 4a$ and $\varepsilon 4b$). Supp. Fig. 3 illustrates the distribution and survival analysis of *APOE* haplogenotypes stratified by these *APOE* haplogroups. Panel A shows the frequency distribution of these haplogenotypes, revealing that '3a/3b', '3a/3a', and '3b/3b' are the most common. Panel B presents survival curves for all 15 haplogenotypes, indicating distinct survival patterns for each group. Panels C-E display specific

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APOE genotypes analyses: $\varepsilon 3/\varepsilon 3$ carriers (Panel C), $\varepsilon 3/\varepsilon 4$ carriers (Panel D), and $\varepsilon 4/\varepsilon 4$ carriers (Panel E) further divided by relevant epsilon haplogroups ('3a/3a', '3a/3b', '3b/3b' for \varepsilon 3 haplogroups and '4a/4a', '4a/4b', '4b/4b' for £4 haplogroups), revealing varying disease progression probabilities among these categories. The generation of haplogroups enhances analytical power by refining the categorization of subjects. However, the excess of categories observed tends to reduce statistical power. Despite of this limitation, our initial exploration revealed a significant impact of the haplogroups in the global analysis (panel B) and for the 3b haplogroup in $\varepsilon 3/\varepsilon 3$ carriers (p < 0.04), along with a trend toward association for the 4A haplogroup (Supp. Fig. 3). Overall, we observed evidence suggesting protective effects of the 4A and 3B haplogroups. Consequently, we encoded two dichotomous variables—"presence of 4A" and "presence of 3B" haplogroups—to further investigate their potential effects in detail and to assess the impact of other important covariates that might confound our observations in MCI to AD Disease conversion. Following this idea, we conducted an analysis on the impact of haplogroups on MCI to AD phenoconversion adjusted by demographics, AD biomarkers and the APOE genotype. Fig. 7 illustrates the results obtained for these analyses. Panel A shows the distribution of APOE haplogroups in the cohort, categorized into four distinct groups: presence of the 4A haplogroup, presence of the 3B haplogroup, presence of both protective haplogroups (3B/4A), and absence of both (None). Panel B depicts the results of the Cox proportional hazard risk model to explore 4A and 3B haplogroups effect in MCI to AD phenotypic conversion, the table is showing the hazard ratios (HR) of 4A and 3B haplogroups, adjusted for the APOE genotype, demographics, and AD biomarkers. Both haplogroups demonstrated significant and independent protective effects in this comprehensive analysis even in a model adjusted by the other haplogroup and the APOE genotype. Panel C shows the survival curves specific effect of the 4A haplogroup, where carriers had a significantly reduced risk of disease progression (HR = 0.599, p = 0.002). In the same way, Panel D displays the effect of the 3B haplogroup, highlighting its protective association (HR =

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0.79, p = 0.037). These results suggest that both haplogroups confer independent protective effects and that encoding dichotomous variables based on these haplogroups might be instrumental for understanding their contributions in modulating disease progression, beyond the APOE genotype alone. To gain insight into the potential mechanism of action of the haplogroups and considering that sequence differences between them are located in the promoter region of the gene and other intronic enhancers (Supp. Fig. 2), we hypothesized that the specific combination of these variants with the \(\epsilon\) and \(\epsilon\) 4 APOE isoforms might influence the expression levels of each isoform in the central nervous system. However, one critical issue for testing this hypothesis is ensuring the accuracy of protein level measurements in the CSF. We reviewed results from various methods tested in our laboratory, including SomaScan⁵⁴, ELISA measures previously reported by us³⁵, and the Olink platform³⁶. Our exploratory study concluded that the Olink method provides the most reliable measurements, as it explains a much larger proportion of variance in APOE protein levels when considering wellknown demographic and molecular factors, compared to other techniques (Fig. 7). Furthermore, this method was also able to replicate the classic observation of decreasing APOE protein levels by genotype ($\varepsilon 2 > \varepsilon 3 > \varepsilon 4$), as reported by other research groups⁵⁵ (Fig. 7). Thus, we decided to test our hypothesis using the Olink measurements of APOE lipoprotein in CSF, which were available for 499 individuals with known APOE haplogroups (Fig. 7C and D). To this end, we performed a general linear model using standardized residuals of Olink APOE protein levels (adjusted for age, sex, principal components of the variance in the CSF proteome, and AD biomarkers) as the dependent variable, with APOE genotype and the presence of the E4A and E3B haplogroups as independent variables. As expected, our results showed a strong effect of the APOE genotype on CSF APOE protein levels (p = 2.1E-33, Fig. 7). Moreover, the model identified independent, though more modest, effects of the protective haplogroups on APOE protein levels (Fig. 7). Interestingly, the direction of these effects was opposite for the two haplogroups. Specifically, the ϵ 4A haplogroup was associated with a decrease in APOE protein levels in ϵ 4 carriers (p = 0.004, Fig. 7), while the presence of the ϵ 3B haplogroup showed the opposite effect, increasing APOE protein levels in the CSF (p = 0.025), even after adjusting for the remaining covariates and *APOE* genotype. We also examined the impact of the haplogroups on AD biomarkers (Supp. Fig. 5) and other proteins located on 19q13 surrounding the *APOE* locus (Supp. Fig. 5), detecting negligible effects of the ϵ 4A and ϵ 3B haplogroups on amyloid beta 42 levels, phospho-Tau81, NECTIN2, BCAM, and APOC1.

Finally, by analyzing the phase of the ϵ 3 and ϵ 4 isoforms in combination with upstream variants that configure the detected sub-haplotypes (Supp. Fig. 2), we concluded that the upstream variants defining the ϵ 4A haplogroup specifically reduce the levels of the APOE ϵ 4 protein isoform in the CSF. In contrast, the 3B haplogroup uniquely increases levels of the APOE ϵ 3 isoform, particularly in individuals with the ϵ 3/ ϵ 4 genotype. This finding could be significant, as it suggests that elevated ϵ 4 allele expression may be detrimental (indicative of a toxic gain of function). Thus, reducing ϵ 4 expression in the brain could potentially benefit individuals experiencing

4. Discussion

neurodegenerative processes.

The *APOE* gene remains one of the most extensively studied genetic determinants of AD due to its significant impact on AD risk. Despite decades of research since the initial identification of the *APOE* & allele as a major AD susceptibility factor^{4,56}, the precise molecular mechanisms by which different *APOE* variants influence disease pathogenesis are still not fully understood. Additionally, the extensive pleiotropy of the *APOE* locus, which modulates the levels of numerous proteins in plasma and CSF, several cardiovascular traits, and various neurodegenerative diseases, remains a question that continues to fascinate the scientific community.

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Regarding the potential mechanism of action of APOE in relation with Alzheimer's disease, the controversy continues. While the ADGC consortium has recently reviewed the substantial evidence suggesting that the $\varepsilon 4$ allele may act as a toxic gain-of-function variant⁵⁷, consensus is still lacking on whether its effects result from a toxic gain or a loss of function. In fact, a large study conducted within the Copenhagen Heart Study cohort suggested that reducing APOE protein expression in plasma, regardless of the protein isoform, could have detrimental effects, thereby supporting the notion of a potential loss-of-function mechanism for the APOE protein^{58,59}. This alternative mechanism has been further supported by classic studies using APOE knockout (KO) mouse models, which demonstrated similar effects on cardiovascular traits, particularly arteriosclerosis^{60,61}. Additionally, the loss-of-function mechanisms that explain the deleterious effect of the APOE \(\preceq 4 \) allele are further supported by its demonstrated partial inability to transport lipoproteins effectively. Specifically, the \(\epsilon\) 4 isoform has reduced capacity to clear chylomicrons, VLDL particles, and other triglyceride-rich particles from the bloodstream, leading to dyslipidemia and associated cardiovascular outcomes, including atherosclerosis hypertension^{62,63}. However, while these robust demonstrations of the APOE \(\varepsilon 4 \) isoform's hypomorphism (i.e., partial loss-of-function) role are linked to cardiovascular traits, they are considered independent of its effect on increasing dementia risk in humans⁶⁴. Connecting these controversies with our findings, it is tempting to speculate that, depending on sub-haplotype configurations and the effects of variants influencing APOE expression across different tissues, we might explain the paradoxical toxic gain-of-function effects of the same alleles on central nervous system physiology, alongside hypomorphic loss-of-function effects in the periphery and vascular system for the same protein isoforms. However, large-scale population studies examining central and peripheral APOE levels, as well as molecular experiments to assign tissue specificity to the array of regulatory elements controlling APOE gene expression, are essential. Much more research is needed to understand the precise regulation of APOE gene expression in cells influencing both atherosclerosis and Alzheimer's disease risk⁶⁵.

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The existence of cis-acting modulators increasing or decreasing the inherent risk associated to APOE \(\varepsilon 4 \) isoform is largely suspected and a few studies have been conducted to uncover the potential modulators surrounding the APOE locus⁶⁶⁻⁶⁹. Importantly, there are evidences in the literature suggesting a differential risk of the APOE isoforms in different human ancestries. For example, different research work identified genetic markers upstream the APOE locus that might explain the attenuated or increase effect of the APOE ε4 in an ancestry-dependent manner^{6,8–10}. Connected with this idea, there are previous descriptions of common variants surrounding the APOE locus that might alter the transcription of the mRNA^{70,71}. Some of the common variants we have detected during our sequencing study such rs40550977 or rs440446^{72,73} among others have been proposed as candidate factors modulating APOE expression with different levels of evidence. In addition, the 3' region of the gene including the exon 4 (which encode the APOE isoforms itself) have been proven to contain an epigenetic modulator acting as CpG element^{74–77}. Additionally, regional and GWAS analyses of plasma APOE protein levels also support the notion that a relatively large number of independent variants surrounding the locus might alter the production of the *APOE* isoform even in a tissue specific manner 69,78 . Previous research reinforces the importance of phasing the potential modulators of APOE expression with APOE protein isoforms because a differential distribution of different haplogroups among populations might contribute to explain differences in the effect of the APOE risk alleles in different genetic backgrounds. The use of ONT for generating long-range haplotypes has proven instrumental in studying the APOE locus²² and other regions across the human genome⁷⁹, although the existence of technical problems must not be ignored⁸⁰. However, due to the small scale of previously reported studies, little is known about the clinical impact of the detected sub-haplotypes or common haplogroups. To our knowledge, this is the largest study indicating differential effects of sub haplotypes within the ε4 and ε3 isoforms. Our strategy has permitted the accurate phasing of the nearest 5' (upstream) intragenic regulatory variants in the locus with the classic protein isoforms, resolving the homoplasy of key variants upstream the exon 4 of the gene. This enabled us to identify distinct sub-haplotypes for the common APOE &

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and & isoforms in the Spanish population, providing for the first time insights into how these haplotypic configurations might modulate disease progression in MCI subjects and influence APOE protein expression in the CSF. Importantly, the haplotypic architecture identified using our method is somewhat consistent with other small-scale studies previously published. Fullerton et al. used allele-specific amplification techniques twenty-four years ago to resolve homoplasy variants in the APOE locus and detected ε3 and ε4 sub haplotypes across diverse populations²¹. Our findings confirm these early observations, particularly for the common haplogroups detected. More recently, Abondio et al. demonstrated the presence of $\varepsilon 3$ and $\varepsilon 4$ sub haplotypes across geographic macro areas⁸¹. Although their study used inference methods rather than long-read sequencing, the six core variants they identified (rs440446, rs565782572, rs769449, rs769450, rs429358, and rs7412) represent a shared haplotype cluster that aligns well with our findings. This study reinforces the relevance of longread sequencing for characterizing APOE haplogroups and validating the core haplotype composition in different human populations. The study of intragenic haplogroups may be particularly relevant because they are not dependent on ancestry background. This implies that detected haplogroups are present across different ancestries, albeit in varying proportions. Furthermore, the combination of these intragenic haplogroups with other distal and more ancestry-dependent elements could complicate the interpretation of studies aimed at identifying ancestry-specific modulators of the \(\epsilon 4 \) allele. In any case, large scale studies are necessary to elucidate the intragenic haplogroup composition in different populations and its impact in $\varepsilon 4$ expressivity. From an evolutionary perspective, the distinct regulatory profiles detected for E4A and E3B haplogroups raise intriguing questions about the evolutionary trajectory of the human APOE gene. Previous studies have suggested that the ε4 allele may have been positively selected in ancestral human populations due to its advantageous effects on lipid metabolism and immune response⁶².

However, the emergence of sub haplotypes such as ε4A, which appears to mitigate some of the

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mechanisms associated with our findings.

adverse effects of the E4 allele, suggests a more complex evolutionary history involving balancing selection and regulatory adaptations. The opposing effects of the ε4A and ε3B haplogroups on CSF APOE protein levels are noteworthy. The £4A haplogroup, associated with a significant reduction in APOE £4 isoform levels, suggests a potential attenuation of the well-established toxic gain-of-function model proposed for the ε4 allele⁵⁷. Previous research has shown that the ε4 allele exacerbates amyloid pathology and tau hyper-phosphorylation, thereby contributing to neurodegeneration through both direct and indirect mechanisms¹⁸. However, our findings indicate that specific functional variants within the ε4A haplogroup might counteract this effect by reducing the levels of the toxic ε4 isoform, potentially mitigating its deleterious impact in ε4 carriers. Conversely, the ε3B haplogroup was associated with an increase in APOE ε3 protein levels, particularly in individuals carrying the ε3/ε4 genotype. This suggests that certain variants within this haplogroup may act elevating \$\varepsilon 3\$ isoform expression and potentially compensating for the presence of the £4 allele. These isoform-specific regulatory effects highlight the complex interplay between promoter variants and overall APOE function, underscoring the need to consider haplotype configurations in future genetic studies. Our study suggests that the combination of intragenic regulatory variants may fine-tune APOE expression. This is supported by our observation that the $\varepsilon 4A$ and $\varepsilon 3B$ haplogroups exert opposing effects despite sharing a common genetic background, including the T-allele of the homoplasic rs405509 with the ε4 and ε3 alleles, respectively. However, each is uniquely combined with different SNPs in intronic enhancers of the gene (the C-allele of rs440646 in haplotype 2 and its derivatives [\varepsilon 3B haplogroup] and the A-allele of rs769449 in the \varepsilon 4A haplogroup). It is possible that the specific combination of these variants within enhancer-active regions may induce paradoxical effects on the gene expression of homoplasic variants. However, an exhaustive functional characterization of the entire intragenic haplotypes is necessary to understand the

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Present results may have significant implications for the design of APOE-targeted gene therapies. Gene-editing strategies aimed at controlling & expression, such as CRISPR-Cas9 or epigenomebased approaches⁸², should carefully consider the potential for unintended effects on neighboring regulatory elements within the less harmful ε4A haplogroup. Likewise, therapeutic strategies that seek to upregulate ε3 expression must account for the presence of enhancers within the ε3B haplogroup, which could amplify & isoform levels. Again, a comprehensive understanding of APOE haplotype structure is thus essential for the rational design of future isoform-specific interventions. Despite the novel insights provided by our study, several limitations must be acknowledged. First, our sample size, while robust for a single-cohort study, may not capture the full spectrum of haplotypes present across diverse populations. Ancestry-specific effects, highlighted in several studies ^{11,83,84}, also influence the impact of these *APOE* intragenic haplogroups on AD risk. Future studies should aim to replicate our findings in larger, multi-ethnic cohorts to assess the generalizability of these results. Second, measuring APOE protein levels in CSF remains challenging, as different platforms yield varying results depending on the assay method used (e.g., SomaScan, ELISA, Olink). Therefore, while our findings are robust, they should be interpreted with caution until validated using complementary methodologies. Third, our study focused exclusively on APOE protein levels in the CSF. The effects of these intragenic haplogroups in other tissues, particularly circulating APOE measured in plasma and produced in the liver, remain to be determined. A more comprehensive analysis of the impact of these intragenic haplogroups across multiple cell types and tissues is warranted. Fourth, this study centers on the APOE gene itself without accounting for the broader APOE region, which includes other potentially ADrelated genes such as TOMM40, BCAM, or APOC1. These neighboring loci are known to interact with APOE at the regulatory level. Future research should aim to map the full haplotype structure of the entire 19q13 region to provide a more complete understanding of its functional and genetic landscape. Fifth, due to the inherent limitations of ONT, we focused our sequencing effort solely on SNV sites. Indel variants might also contribute to intragenic haplotype diversity of the APOE perpetuity.

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689 locus. Further sequencing efforts combining short-read and long-read sequencing are necessary 690 to fully characterize the exact sequence composition of APOE intragenic haplogroups. This 691 information will be essential and relevant for elucidating the functional mechanisms behind the 692 observed effects on APOE protein isoform expressivity. 693 In summary, our high-resolution intragenic haplotype analysis of the APOE gene revealed 694 different alleles within the £3 and £4 backgrounds that have distinct effects on APOE protein 695 levels in the CSF and on MCI to AD progression. These findings provide new insights into the 696 functional regulation of APOE in AD, suggesting that precise modulation of isoform-specific 697 expression may be a promising therapeutic strategy. Further research is needed to explore the 698 broader implications of these haplogroups in AD risk and pathogenesis and to refine our 699 understanding of the regulatory mechanisms that govern APOE function in the brain. The 700 prevalence of specific haplotypes, alongside insights into their evolutionary trajectories and 701 possible Neanderthal genetic contributions, opens new research avenues aimed at elucidating the 702 genetic elements that influence the expression of APOE locus. Our findings lay the groundwork 703 for further exploration of the implications of intragenic APOE subhaplotypes in human 704 populations, emphasizing the importance of continued research in APOE regulation and its impact 705 in AD and other human conditions.

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7. Figures

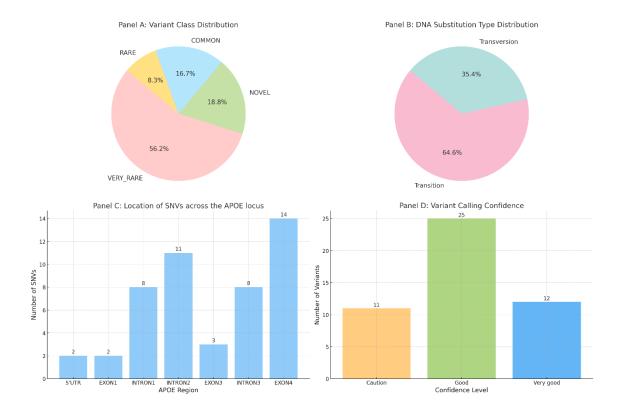


Figure 1: Summary of Variant Class, Substitution Types, Genomic Location, and Annotation Confidence for APOE Gene Variants.

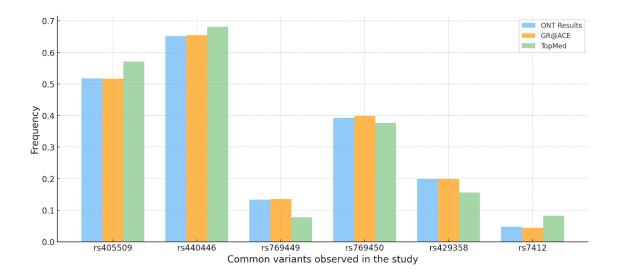


Figure 2: Comparison of common variant frequencies Across ONT Results, GR@ACE samples and the TOPMed database. The GR@ACE data reflects the frequencies in 1026 overlapping individuals genotyped using the Affymetrix Axiom Spain Biobank array and imputed with the TOPMed reference panel, as described elsewhere ^{37–39}. TOPMed frequencies reflect those reported by dbSNP build 151.

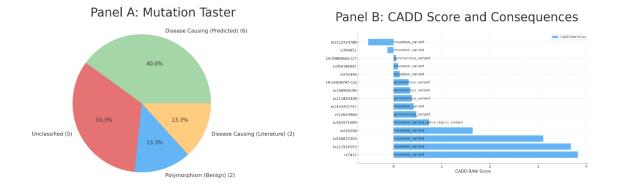


Figure 3: Comparison of Mutation Taster Predictions and CADD Scores for Observed **APOE** Coding Variants. Panel A illustrates the distribution of Mutation Taster⁸⁵ predictions for the coding variants observed in the gene. Variants are categorized into four groups: Disease Causing (Predicted), Disease Causing (based on Literature records), Polymorphism (Benign), and Unclassified. panel B presents the CADD scores for each observed variant in the APOE gene (most of them are very low). The scores are plotted alongside their corresponding consequence annotations predicted by VEP, such as missense variant, synonymous variant, or missense with potential splice region consequence.

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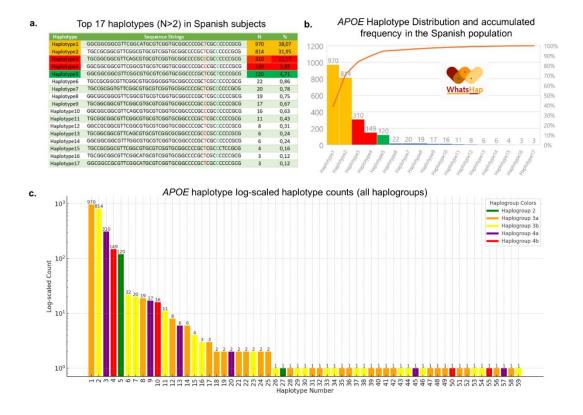


Figure 4: APOE Haplotype Analysis in a Spanish Population. The figure illustrates the distribution and characteristics of the APOE haplotypes identified in a Spanish population. Panel A shows the top 17 haplotypes with a count greater than two, detailing their specific sequences, frequencies, and classifications based on $\varepsilon 2/\varepsilon 3/\varepsilon 4$ isoform information. Panel B provides a graphical representation of the haplotype distribution, illustrating both the count of individuals carrying each haplotype (bars) and the accumulated frequency of these haplotypes in the population (line). Haplotype backgrounds are color-coded: red indicates $\varepsilon 4$, orange indicates $\varepsilon 3$, and green indicates $\varepsilon 2$. Panel C provides the distribution of haplotype counts across different haplogroups using log-scaled visualization. Numbers at the tip of each bar indicate the count of individuals for each haplotype.

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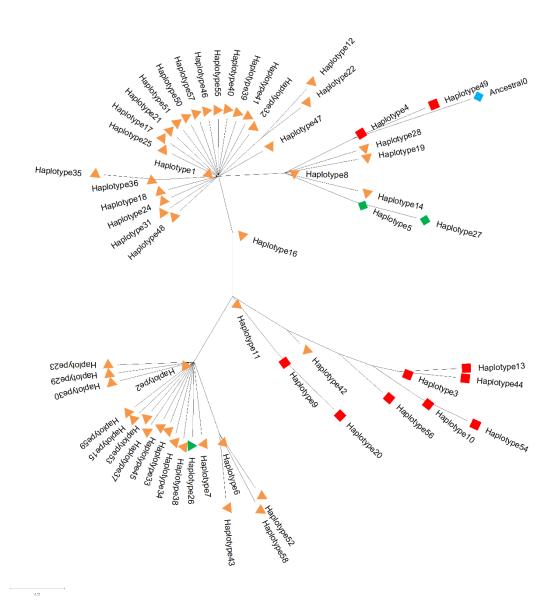


Figure 5: Phylogenetic Network of *APOE* intragenic Haplotypes Based on SNV Variations in the Spanish Population. This phylogenetic network illustrates the evolutionary relationships among the 59 *APOE* haplotypes identified in the Spanish population. Each node represents a distinct haplotype, and branches reflect the genetic distances based on single nucleotide variant (SNV) differences. The shapes and colors of the nodes correspond to specific isoform backgrounds: Orange triangles: ε3 background. Green triangle: Christchurch mutation under the isoform ε3 background. Green diamond: Haplogroup 2 (ε2 background). Red squares: ε4 background). Blue diamond is the ancestral allele sequence according to EMBL database. The

clustering of nodes indicates shared evolutionary paths, highlighting how specific haplotypes are grouped based on shared genetic variations.

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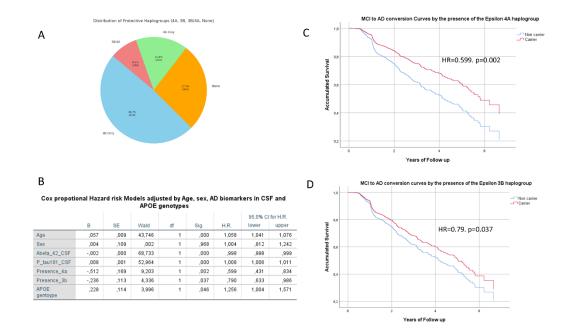


Figure 6: Distribution and Protective Effects of *APOE* Haplogroups (4A and 3B) on Disease Progression Analyzed Using Cox Proportional Hazard Models. Panel A: Pie chart showing the distribution of subjects based on the presence of 4A, 3B, both haplogroups (3B/4A), or neither (None). Panel B: Cox proportional hazard model displaying adjusted hazard ratios for the presence of 4A and 3B haplogroups along with other covariates (*APOE* genotype, demographics, and AD biomarkers). Panel C: Survival analysis highlighting the protective effect of the 4A haplogroup (HR = 0.599, p = 0.002). Panel D: Survival analysis showing the protective impact of the 3B haplogroup (HR = 0.79, p = 0.037).

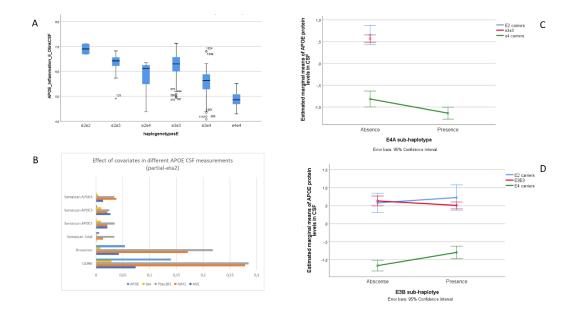


Figure 7: Effect of APOE Genotype and Haplogroups on CSF APOE Protein Levels Using **Olink Measurements.** This figure illustrates the impact of APOE genotype and the presence of ε4A and ε3B haplogroups on APOE protein levels in CSF measured using the Olink platform. Panel A: Boxplots showing CSF APOE protein levels across APOE genotypes ($\varepsilon 2/\varepsilon 2$, $\varepsilon 2/\varepsilon 3$, $\varepsilon 2/\varepsilon 4$, $\varepsilon 3/\varepsilon 3$, $\varepsilon 3/\varepsilon 4$, and $\varepsilon 4/\varepsilon 4$). The observed decreasing trend in APOE protein levels by genotype $(\varepsilon 2 > \varepsilon 3 > \varepsilon 4)$ replicates previous findings by other groups, confirming the reliability of the Olink measurements. Panel B: Partial eta-squared values indicating the effect of demographic and molecular covariates on CSF APOE levels measured using different platforms (Somascan APOE4, APOE3, and APOE2⁵⁴; ELISA method³⁵; and Olink³⁶). The Olink platform explains the highest variance, supporting its use for accurate quantification of APOE protein levels. Panel C: Estimated marginal means of APOE protein levels by presence or absence of the ε4A haplogroup across different genotypes (ε^2 carriers, $\varepsilon^3/\varepsilon^3$, and ε^4 carriers). The ε^4 A haplogroup is associated with a significant decrease in APOE levels in $\epsilon 4$ carriers (p = 0.004), indicating a specific regulatory effect on the ε4 isoform. Panel D: Estimated marginal means of APOE protein levels by presence or absence of the ε3B haplogroup across different genotypes. The presence of the ϵ 3B haplogroup is associated with increased APOE protein levels in CSF (p = 0.025), particularly in $\varepsilon 3/\varepsilon 4$ carriers, suggesting a specific upregulation of the $\varepsilon 3$ isoform.

8. Tables

Table 1: Demographic, clinical, neurological, and biomarker Profiles of the ACE CSF Cohort

Demographics. N=1267								
Female (n, %)	733 (57.9%)							
Age (years, sd)	72.68 (8.46)							
BMI (kg/m3, sd)	26.9 (4.36)							
Education (years, sd)	8.17 (4.77)							
Syndromic diagnosis N(%)							
SCD (CDR=0)	79 (7.2%)							
MCI (CDR=0.5)	795 (62.7%)							
Dementia (CDR≥1)	381 (30.1%)							
NA	12 (0.9%)							
AT(N) classification N(%)								
A-T-N-	376 (29.7%)							
A-T-N+	13 (1.0%)							
A-T+N-	39 (3.1%)							
A-T+N+	162 (12.8%)							
A+T-N-	183 (14.4%)							
A+T-N+	10 (0.8%)							
A+T+N-	65 (5.1%)							
A+T+N+	418 (33.0%)							
NA	1 (0.1%)							
APOE status (N,%)								
e2e2	4 (0.3%)							
e2e3	91 (7.2%)							
e2e4	24 (1.9%)							
e3e3	734 (57.9%)							
e3e4	354 (27.9%)							
e4e4	60 (4.7%)							
Other Clinical and Biochemic	al Data							
MMSE (mean, sd)	24.4 (4.41)							
MCI converted/non conv (%)	354/366 (49.1%)							
APOE CSF levels (n=499)(mean, sd)	6.02 (0.58)							
pTau181 CSF levels	72.28 (45.35)							
Amyloid b42 CSF levels	811.2 (393.5)							
Total tau CSF Levels	469.2 (330.1)							

Table 2: Summary of Single Nucleotide Variants Observed in the *APOE* **Gene Region Using ONT Sequencing.** rsIDs, genomic coordinates, reference alleles and alternative alleles are based on dbSNP build 151. CHR, chromosome; POS, position; REF, reference allele; ALT, alternative allele; AF, alternative allele frequency; AF TOPmed, TOPMed alternative allele frequency (as reported by dbSNP build 151); AF GR@ACE, alternative allele frequency in 1026 overlapping individuals from the GR@ACE^{37–39} cohort; Qual/TotalReads, Mean QUAL to TotalReads ratio.

rsid	CHR	POS	REF	ALT	CLASS	AF	AF TOPMed	AF GR@ACE	APOE region	Substitution type	Confidence	Qual/TotalReads
rs405509	19	44905579	T	G	COMMON	0,517954723	0,57121241	0,51712963	5'UTR	Transversion	Very good	8,80
19:44905709:G:A	19	44905709	G	A	NOVEL	0,00039	0	0	5'UTR	Transition	Caution	1,91
rs9282609	19	44905856	C	T	RARE	0,00078064	0,00739042	0,000459559	INTRON1	Transition	Very good	4,82
rs440446	19	44905910	C	G	COMMON	0,651834504	0,68091393	0,65437788	EXON1	Transversion	Very good	7,29
rs563571689	19	44905923	G	A	VERY_RARE	0,00078064	0,00064507	0,000377929	EXON1	Transition	Good	5,91
rs877973	19	44906026	C	A	COMMON	0,00039032	0,01068744	0,000459559	INTRON1	Transversion	Very good	4,33
rs528229851	19	44906085	G	C	VERY_RARE	0,00117096	NA	0,000755858	INTRON1	Transversion	Good	3,85
19:44906188:G:A	19	44906188	G	A	NOVEL	0,00039	0	0	INTRON1	Transition	Caution	3,56
rs769448	19	44906322	C	T	COMMON	0,007806401	0,01403224	0,007359706	INTRON1	Transition	Very good	2,70
rs147236548	19	44906338	G	T	VERY_RARE	0,00039032	0,004881817	0	INTRON1	Transversion	Caution	5,23
rs568489254	19	44906449	T	C	VERY_RARE	0,00078064	0,00057339	0	INTRON1	Transition	Good	2,46
19:44906536:T:C	19	44906536	T	C	NOVEL	0,00039	0	0	INTRON1	Transition	Caution	2,60
rs143063029	19	44906731	C	T	RARE	0,00234192	0,00148127	0,002757353	INTRON2	Transition	Very good	3,05
rs769449	19	44906745	G	A	COMMON	0,133099141	0,0772012	0,135272392	INTRON2	Transition	Very good	4,03
rs1370426995	19	44906802	G	C	VERY_RARE	0,00039032	3,98E-05	0	INTRON2	Transversion	Good	5,04
rs1488788938	19	44906941	C	T	VERY_RARE	0,00039032	NA	0	INTRON2	Transition	Good	2,38
rs769450	19	44907187	G	A	COMMON	0,392661983	0,3771343	0,398344066	INTRON2	Transition	Very good	5,87
19:44907281:T:A	19	44907281	T	A	NOVEL	0,00039	0	0	INTRON2	Transversion	Caution	4,98
rs1383989611	19	44907326	G	T	VERY_RARE	0,00078064	3,19E-05	0,000377644	INTRON2	Transversion	Good	4,36
19:44907563:C:G	19	44907563	C	G	NOVEL	0,00039	0	0	INTRON2	Transversion	Caution	9,30
rs1307012197	19	44907629	G	A	VERY_RARE	0,00039032	1,59E-05	0	INTRON2	Transition	Good	4,17
rs769451	19	44907654	T	G	RARE	0,009758002	0,00535965	0,009199632	INTRON2	Transversion	Very good	6,37

rs780533924	19	44907715	C	G	VERY_RARE	0,00039032	7,96E-06	0	INTRON2	Transversion	Good	4,63
rs111833428	19	44907785	G	A	VERY_RARE	0,00078064	0,00025484	0	EXON3	Transition	Good	1,75
rs1212454788	19	44907814	G	A	VERY_RARE	0,00039032	1,59E-05	0	EXON3	Transition	Good	2,37
rs769452	19	44907853	T	C	RARE	0,00273224	0,00134588	0,001382488	EXON3	Transition	Very good	2,79
19:44907977:G:C	19	44907977	G	C	NOVEL	0,00039	0	0	INTRON3	Transversion	Caution	5,58
rs560770492	19	44908033	C	T	VERY_RARE	0,00039032	9,56E-05	0,000377644	INTRON3	Transition	Good	4,76
rs746300299	19	44908048	G	A	VERY_RARE	0,00078064	NA	0	INTRON3	Transition	Good	3,32
rs952830931	19	44908176	G	A	VERY_RARE	0,00039032	3,98E-05	0	INTRON3	Transition	Good	2,07
rs865935864	19	44908380	C	T	VERY_RARE	0,00039032	1,59E-05	0	INTRON3	Transition	Good	3,35
rs1488164590	19	44908468	C	T	VERY_RARE	0,00039032	7,96E-06	0	INTRON3	Transition	Caution	0,20
rs1212541952	19	44908472	C	A	VERY_RARE	0,00039032	1,59E-05	0	INTRON3	Transversion	Good	3,72
19:44908477:C:T	19	44908477	C	T	NOVEL	0,00039	0	0	INTRON3	Transition	Caution	3,01
rs768998148	19	44908650	G	T	VERY_RARE	0,00039032	7,96E-06	0	EXON4	Transversion	Good	5,09
19:44908665:C:T	19	44908665	C	T	NOVEL	0,00039	0	0	EXON4	Transition	Caution	2,95
rs429358	19	44908684	T	C	COMMON	0,198672912	0,15559697	0,199355433	EXON4	Transition	Very good	2,50
rs121918393	19	44908756	C	A	VERY_RARE	0,00039032	7,96E-06	0	EXON4	Transversion	Good	4,27
rs954186991	19	44908762	G	A	VERY_RARE	0,00039032	7,96E-06	0	EXON4	Transition	Good	2,27
19:44908797:C:A	19	44908797	C	A	NOVEL	0,00039	0	0	EXON4	Transversion	Caution	5,22
rs7412	19	44908822	C	T	COMMON	0,047228728	0,08213876	0,044577206	EXON4	Transition	Very good	4,90
rs1434405741	19	44908837	C	G	VERY_RARE	0,00039032	7,96E-06	0	EXON4	Transversion	Good	3,64
rs72654468	19	44908947	C	T	VERY_RARE	0,00156128	0,00081231	0,000378788	EXON4	Transition	Good	1,72
rs530010303	19	44908999	C	T	VERY_RARE	0,00039032	5,57E-05	0	EXON4	Transition	Good	2,59
rs750138933	19	44909152	C	T	VERY_RARE	0,00039032	7,96E-06	0	EXON4	Transition	Good	3,15
rs749102800	19	44909209	G	A	VERY_RARE	0,00039032	3,19E-05	0,000377644	EXON4	Transition	Good	2,37
rs374329439	19	44909275	C	T	VERY_RARE	0,00078064	0,00045394	0,000755287	EXON4	Transition	Good	3,67
rs951089672	19	44909353	G	A	VERY_RARE	0,00039032	1,59E-05	0,000377644	EXON4	Transition	Good	3,47

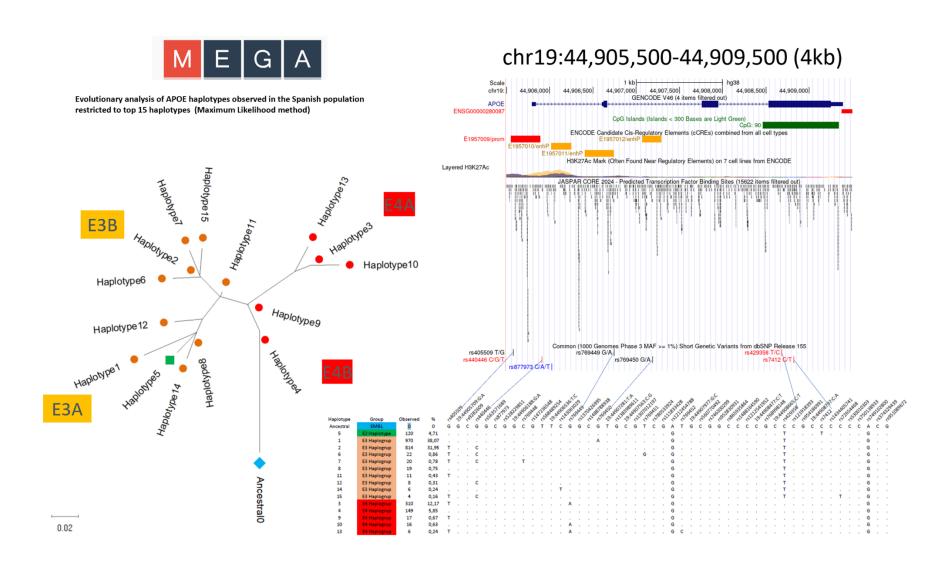
Table 3. Complete list of the 17 Spanish *APOE* haplotypes with more than two occurrences in our population. Each row of the table corresponds to a distinct haplotype, specifying its sequence across the 48 positions within the APOE locus containing detected SNVs, along with its count, frequency and other classifications. The count column indicates the number of chromosomes carrying each specific haplotype. We also categorized the haplotypes into haplogroups, considering the common APOE isoform backgrounds ($\epsilon 2$, $\epsilon 3$, $\epsilon 4$) and the presence or absence of the alternative sequence (T-allele) of the homoplasic SNV rs405509 (Supp. Fig. 2), specifying the isoform background and the corresponding haplogroup for each haplotype. This classification framework aids in understanding the evolutionary relationships and potential health implications associated with each haplotype.

Haplotype	Sequence	Count	Frequency (%)	Background	Haplogroup
Haplotype1	GGCGGCGCGTTCGGCATGCGTCGGTGCGGCCCCGCTCGCCCCCGCG	970	38,069	ε3	3a
Haplotype2	TGCCGCGGCGTTCGGCGTCGGTGCGCCCCGCTCGCCCCCGCG	814	31,947	ε3	3b
Haplotype3	TGCGGCGGCGTTCAGCGTGCGTCGGTGCGCCCCGCCCCCCGCG	310	12,166	ε4	4a
Haplotype4	GGCGGCGCGTTCGGCGTCGGTGCGGCCCCGCCCCCCCCGCG	149	5,848	ε4	4b
Haplotype5	GGCGGCGTTCGGCGTGCGTCGGTGCGCCCCGCTCGCTCCCCGCG	120	4,710	ε2	2
Haplotype6	TGCCGCGGCGTTCGGCGTGCGGCGCCCCCCCCGCG	22	0,863	ε3	3b
Haplotype7	TGCCGCGGTGTTCGGCGTGCGTCGGCCCCGCT	20	0,785	ε3	3b
Haplotype8	GGCGGCGTTCGGCGTGCGTGCGGCCCCGCTCGCCCCCGCG	19	0,746	ε3	3a
Haplotype9	TGCGGCGGCGTTCGGTGCGTGCGCCCCGCCCCCCCGCG	17	0,667	ε4	4a
Haplotype10	GGCGGCGGCTTCAGCGTGCGTCGGTGCGGCCCCGCCCCCCGCG	16	0,628	ε4	4b
Haplotype11	TGCGGCGGCGTTCGGCGTGCGTCGGCCCCGCG	11	0,432	ε3	3b
Haplotype12	GGCCGCGGCGTTCGGCGTGCGTCGGCCCCGCTCGCCCCCGCG	8	0,314	ε3	3a
Haplotype13	TGCGGCGGCGTTCAGCGTGCGTCGGCGCGCCCCGCCCCCCGCG	6	0,235	ε4	4a
Haplotype14	GGCGGCGCTTTGGCGTGCGTCGGTGCGGCCCCGCTCGCCCCCGCG	6	0,235	ε3	3a
Haplotype15	TGCCGCGGCGTTCGGCGTGCGTCGGCCCCGCTCGCCCTCCGCG	4	0,157	ε3	3b
Haplotype16	TGCGGCGGCGTTCGGCATGCGTCGGTGCGGCCCCGCTCGCCCCCGCG	3	0,118	ε3	3b

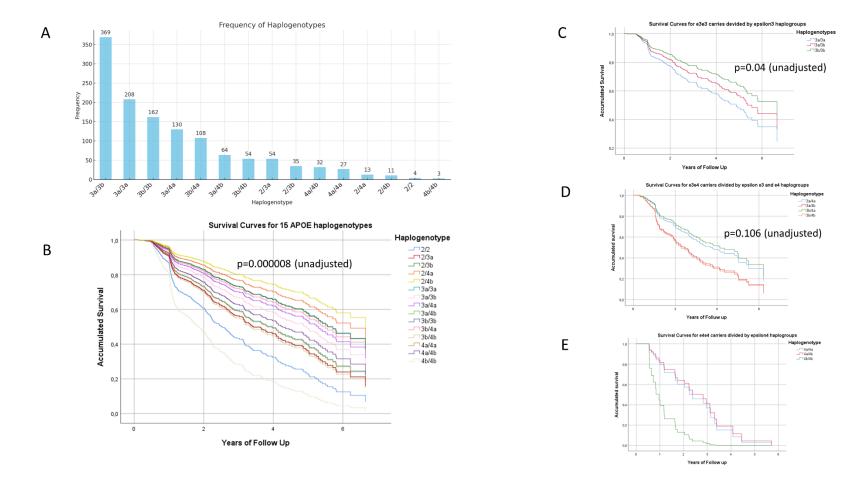
9. Supplementary Figures



- Supplementary figure 1. PCR optimization. Different conditions tested in a single sample to search for optimal reaction. The optimal conditions were primer
- pair APOE_III with 10% DMSO and buffer 2. The PCR products were examined by automated capillary electrophoresis using the LabChip GX Touch Nucleic
- Acid Analyzer (Revvity, CLS138162) and the DNA 12K Reagent Kit (Revvity, 760569).

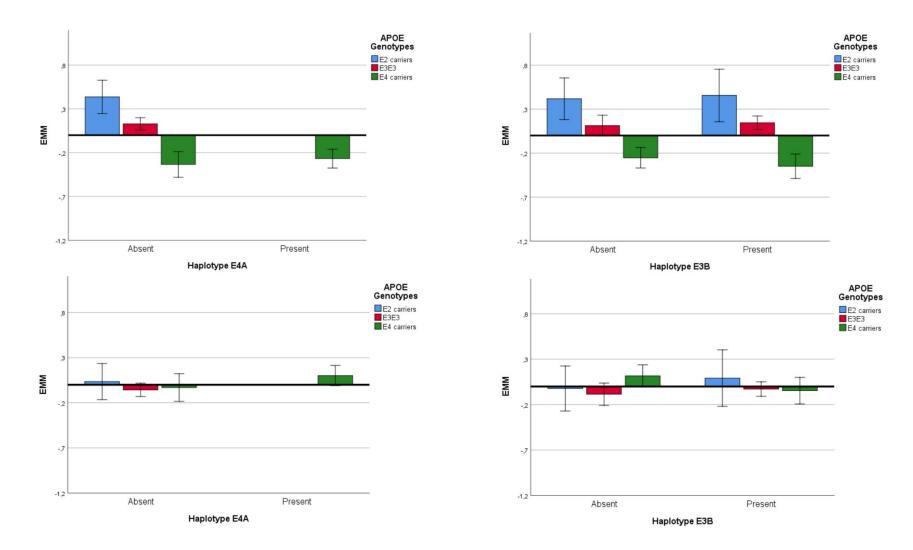


Supplementary Figure 2: Phylogenetic and Genomic Analysis of the most common APOE Haplotypes in the Spanish Population. This figure illustrates the evolutionary relationships and genomic context of the top 15 most frequent *APOE* haplotypes identified in the Spanish population. The left panel shows a phylogenetic network constructed using the Maximum Likelihood (ML) method, where haplotypes are grouped into distinct haplogroups based on their isoform backgrounds (E3A, E3B, E4A, and E4B). Each haplotype is represented as a node, color-coded according to its classification, with orange nodes for E3 haplotypes, red for E4 haplotypes, and green for the epsilon 2 haplogroup. The ancestral haplotype, labelled as "Ancestralo" (blue diamond), serves as the root from which other haplotypes diverged. The right panel provides a detailed map of the 4kb genomic region (chr19: 44,905,500-44,909,500) covering the *APOE* gene, with annotations highlighting promoters, enhancers, CpG islands, and transcription factor binding sites that may impact gene regulation. A summary table below the phylogenetic network details the SNV positions for each haplotype, observed count, and relative frequency in the population. This figure effectively integrates phylogenetic analysis with functional genomic annotations, providing insights into the evolutionary diversification and regulatory landscape of *APOE* haplotypes within the Spanish population.

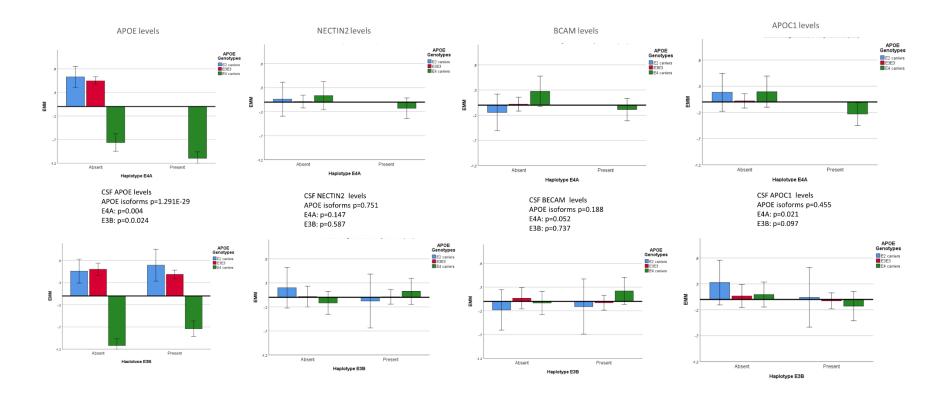


Supplementary Figure 3: Distribution and Survival Analysis of APOE Haplogenotypes. Panel A shows a bar chart depicting the frequency distribution of 15 different *APOE* haplogenotypes, with the x-axis representing distinct haplogenotypes and the y-axis indicating their respective counts within the sample population. The most common haplogenotypes are 3a/3b, 3a/3a, and 3b/3b. Panel B presents survival curves illustrating accumulated survival probabilities over

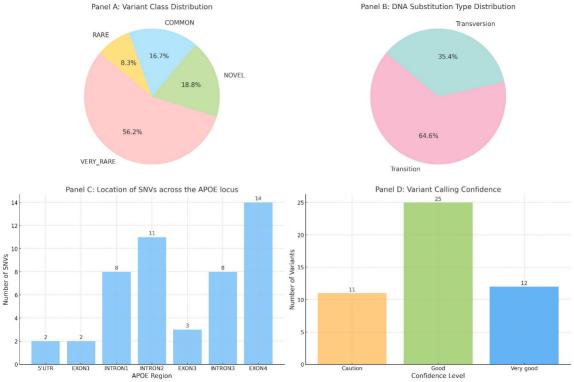
time for the 15 different *APOE* haplogenotypes, where each coloured line corresponds to a unique haplogenotype, demonstrating variation in survival across different genetic profiles. Panels C-E display survival curves for specific subgroups of carriers: Panel C shows ε3/ε3 carriers divided by epsilon3 haplogroups (3a/3a, 3a/3b, 3b/3b), Panel D shows ε3/ε4 carriers divided by epsilon3 and epsilon4 haplogroups (3a/3a, 3a/3b, 3b/3b), and Panel E shows e4e4 carriers divided by epsilon4 haplogroups (4a/4a, 4a/4b, 4b/4b), revealing varying survival trends based on distinct haplogenotype groupings.

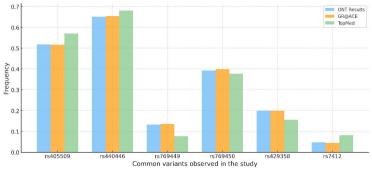


Supplementary Figure 4. Influence of haplogroups in AD biomarkers.

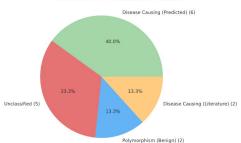


Supplementary Figure 5. Influence of haplogroups in other 19q13 genes (Olink platform).

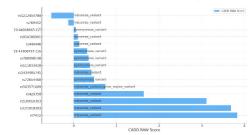




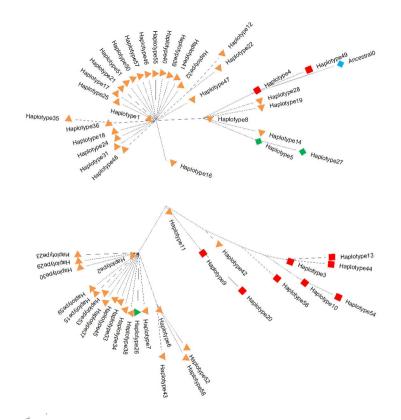
Panel A: Mutation Taster

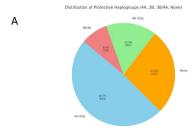


Panel B: CADD Score and Consequences

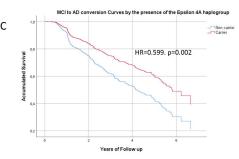






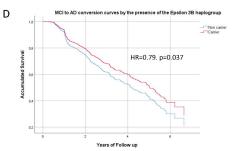


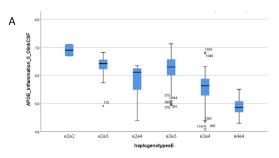
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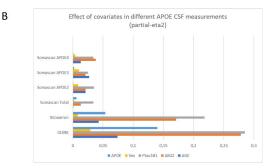


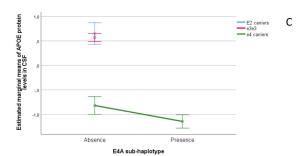
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Cox propotional Hazard risk Models adjusted by Age, sex, AD biomarkers in C APOE genotypes	SF and

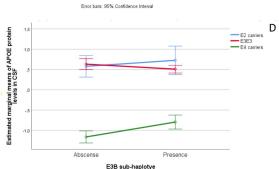
	В						95,0% CI	for H.R.
		SE	Wald	df	Sig.	H.R.	lower	upper
Age	,057	,009	43,746	1	,000	1,058	1,041	1,076
Sex	,004	,109	,002	1	,968	1,004	,812	1,242
Abeta_42_CSF	-,002	,000	68,733	1	,000	,998	,998	,999
P_tau181_CSF	,008	,001	52,964	1	,000	1,008	1,006	1,011
Presence_4a	-,512	,169	9,203	1	,002	,599	,431	,834
Presence_3b	-,236	,113	4,336	1	,037	,790	,633	,986
APOE	,228	,114	3,996	1	,046	1,256	1,004	1,571











Error bars: 95% Confidence Interval