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Genome sequencing analysis identifies new loci associated with Lewy body dementia and provides insights into the complex genetic architecture

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Abstract

The genetic basis of Lewy body dementia (LBD) is not well understood. Here, we performed whole-genome sequencing in large cohorts of LBD cases and neurologically healthy controls to study the genetic architecture of this understudied form of dementia and to generate a resource for the scientific community. Genome-wide association analysis identified five independent risk loci, whereas genome-wide gene-aggregation tests implicated mutations in the gene *GBA*. Genetic risk scores demonstrate that LBD shares risk profiles and pathways with Alzheimer's and Parkinson's disease, providing a deeper molecular understanding of the complex genetic architecture of this age-related neurodegenerative condition.

Introduction

Lewy body dementia (LBD) is a clinically heterogeneous neurodegenerative disease characterized by progressive cognitive decline, parkinsonism, and visual hallucinations[1]. There are no effective disease-modifying treatments available to slow disease progression, and current therapy is limited to symptomatic and supportive care. At postmortem, the disorder is distinguished by the widespread cortical and limbic deposition of α-synuclein protein in the form of Lewy bodies that are also a hallmark feature of Parkinson's disease. The vast majority of LBD patients additionally exhibit Alzheimer's disease co-pathology[2]. These neuropathological observations have led to the, as yet unproven, hypothesis that LBD lies on a disease continuum between Parkinson's disease and Alzheimer's disease[3]. Though relatively common in the community, with an estimated 1.4 million prevalent cases in the United States[4], the genetic contributions to this underserved condition are poorly understood.

The rapid advances in genome sequencing technologies offer unprecedented opportunities to identify and characterize disease-associated genetic variation. Here, we performed whole-genome sequencing in a cohort of 2,981 patients diagnosed with LBD and 4,391 neurologically healthy subjects. We analyzed these data using a genome-wide association study (GWAS) approach. This investigation identified five risk loci that were replicated in an independent case-control cohort[5,6]. We also performed gene-aggregation tests, and we modeled the relative contributions of Alzheimer's disease and Parkinson's disease risk variants to this fatal neurodegenerative disease (see Fig. 1 for an analysis overview). Additionally, we created a resource for the scientific community to mine for new insights into the genetic etiology of LBD and to expedite the development of targeted therapeutics.

Results

Genome-wide association analysis identifies new loci associated with LBD

After quality control, whole-genome sequence data from 2,591 patients diagnosed with LBD and 4,027 neurologically healthy subjects were available for study. Participants were recruited across 44 institutions/consortia and were diagnosed according to established consensus criteria. Using a GWAS approach, we identified five loci that surpassed the genome-wide significance threshold (Table 1, Fig. 2a). Three of these signals were located at known LBD risk loci within the genes *GBA, APOE,* and *SNCA*[7-10]. The remaining GWAS signals in *BIN1* and *TMEM175* represented novel LBD risk loci. Notably, these loci have been implicated in other age-related neurodegenerative diseases, including Alzheimer's disease (*BIN1*) and Parkinson's disease (*TMEM175*)[11,12]. We examined the associations of *BIN1* and *TMEM175* risk alleles with CERAD and Braak semi-quantitative pathological measures of Alzheimer's disease co-pathology. We found that the *BIN1* risk allele was significantly associated with increased neurofibrillary tangle pathology (Fisher's exact test *p*-value based on Braak neurofibrillary tangle staging = 0.0002; Supplementary Fig. 2). In contrast, there was no significant association of the *TMEM175* risk allele with Alzheimer's disease co-pathology. Conditional analyses detected a second signal at the *APOE* locus (Supplementary Fig. 1 for regional association plots, Supplementary Fig. 3 for conditional association analyses). Subanalysis GWAS of pathologically defined LBD cases only versus control subjects identified the same risk loci (Fig. 2b). Finally, we replicated each of the observed risk loci in an independent sample of 970 European-ancestry LBD cases and 8,928 control subjects (Table 1)[5,6].

Gene-level aggregation testing identifies *GBA* as a pleomorphic risk gene

The significant loci from our GWAS explained only a small fraction (1%) of the conservatively estimated narrow-sense heritability of LBD of 10.81% (95% confidence interval [CI]: 8.28% – 13.32%, *p*-value = 9.17×10^{-4}). To explore whether rare variants contribute to the remaining risk of LBD, we performed gene-level sequence kernel association – optimized (SKAT-O) tests of missense and loss-of-function mutations with a minor allele frequency (MAF) threshold ≤ 1% across the genome[13]. This rare variant analysis identified *GBA* as associated with LBD (Fig. 2c). *GBA*, encoding the lysosomal enzyme glucocerebrosidase, is a known pleomorphic risk gene of LBD and Parkinson's disease[7,14,15], and our rare and common variant analyses confirm a prominent role of this gene in the pathogenesis of Lewy body diseases.

Functional inferences from colocalization and gene expression analyses

Most GWAS loci are thought to operate through the regulation of gene expression[16,17]. Thus, we performed a colocalization analysis to determine whether a shared causal variant drives association signals for LBD risk and gene expression. Expression quantitative trait loci (eQTLs) were obtained from eQTLGen and PsychENCODE[18,19], the largest available human blood and brain eQTL datasets. We found evidence of colocalization between the *TMEM175* locus and an eQTL regulating *TMEM175* expression in blood (posterior probability for H_4 (PPH4) = 0.99; Fig. 3a; Supplementary Table 1). There was also colocalization between the association signal at the *SNCA* locus and an eQTL regulating *SNCA-AS1* expression in the brain (PPH4 = 0.96; Fig. 3b; Supplementary Table 1). Interestingly, the index variant at the *SNCA* locus was located within the *SNCA-AS1* gene, which overlaps with the 5'-end of *SNCA* and encodes a long noncoding antisense RNA known to regulate *SNCA* expression. Sensitivity analyses confirmed

that these colocalizations were robust to changes in the prior probability of a variant associating with both traits (Supplementary Fig. 4).

We interrogated the effect of each SNP in the region surrounding *SNCA-AS1* on LBD risk using our GWAS data and *SNCA-AS1* expression using the PsychENCODE data (Supplementary Fig. 5a). All genome-wide significant risk SNPs in the locus had a negative beta coefficient, while the shared *SNCA-AS1* eQTL had a positive beta coefficient. This negative correlation suggested that increased *SNCA-AS1* expression is associated with reduced LBD risk (Spearman's rho = -0.42; *p*-value = 0.0012; Supplementary Fig. 5b).

Analysis of human bulk-tissue RNA-sequencing data from the Genotype-Tissue Expression (GTEx) consortium and single-nucleus RNA-sequencing data of the medial temporal gyrus from the Allen Institute of Brain Science [20,21] demonstrated that *TMEM175* is ubiquitously expressed, whereas *SNCA-AS1* is predominantly expressed in brain tissue (Supplementary Fig. 6a; Supplementary Table 2). At the cellular level, *TMEM175* is highly expressed in oligodendrocyte progenitor cells, while *SNCA-AS1* demonstrates neuronal specificity (Supplementary Fig. 6b; Supplementary Table 2). *SNCA* and *SNCA-AS1* share a similar, though not identical, tissue expression profile (Supplementary Fig. 7).

LBD risk overlaps with risk profiles of Alzheimer's disease and Parkinson's disease

We leveraged our whole-genome sequence data to explore the etiological relationship between Alzheimer's disease, Parkinson's disease, and LBD. To do this, we applied genetic risk scores derived from large-scale GWASes in Alzheimer's and Parkinson's disease to individual-

level genetic data from our LBD case-control cohort[22,23]. We tested the associations of the Alzheimer's and Parkinson's disease genetic risk scores with LBD disease status, and with age at death, age at onset, and the duration of illness observed among the LBD cases.

Patients diagnosed with LBD had a higher genetic risk for developing both Alzheimer's disease (odds ratio [OR] = 1.66 per standard deviation of Alzheimer's disease genetic risk, 95% CI = 1.58 - 1.74, p-value < 2×10^{-16}, Fig. 5a) and Parkinson's disease (OR = 1.20, 95% CI =1.14 - 1.26, p-value = 4.34×10^{-12}, Fig. 5b). These risk scores remained significant after adjusting for genes that substantially contribute to Alzheimer's disease (model after adjustment for *APOE*: OR = 1.53, 95% CI = 1.37 - 1.72, p-value = 3.29×10^{-14}) and Parkinson's disease heritable risk (model after adjustment for *GBA, SNCA*, and *LRRK2*: OR = 1.26, 95% CI = 1.19 - 1.34, p-value = 5.91×10^{-14}). The Alzheimer's disease genetic risk score was also found to be significantly associated with an earlier age of death in LBD (β = -1.77 years per standard deviation increase in the genetic risk score from the population mean, standard error [SE] = 0.19, p-value < 2×10^{-16}) and shorter disease duration (β = -0.90 years, SE = 0.27, p-value = 0.0007). In contrast, the Parkinson's disease genetic risk score was associated with an earlier age at onset among patients diagnosed with LBD (β = -0.98, SE = 0.28, p-value = 0.00045), indicating that higher Parkinson's disease risk is associated with earlier age at onset in LBD. We found no evidence of interaction between the genetic risk scores of Alzheimer's disease and Parkinson's disease in the LBD cohort (OR = 0.99, 95 % CI = 0.95 - 1.03, p-value = 0.59), implying that Alzheimer's disease and Parkinson's disease risk variants are independently associated with LBD risk.

Enrichment analysis identifies pathways involved in LBD

Pathway enrichment analysis of LBD, using a polygenic risk score based on the GWAS risk variants, found several significantly enriched gene ontology processes associated with LBD (Fig. 6). These related to the *regulation of amyloid-beta formation* (adjusted *p*-value = 0.04), *regulation of endocytosis* (adjusted *p*-value = 0.02), *tau protein binding* (adjusted *p*-value = 1.85 x 10^{-5}), and others. Among these, the regulation of *amyloid precursor protein, amyloid-beta formation*, and *tau protein binding* have been previously implicated in the pathogenesis of Alzheimer's disease, while regulation of endocytosis is particularly important in the pathogenesis of Parkinson's disease[24,25]. These observations support the notion of overlapping disease-associated pathways in these common age-related neurodegenerative diseases.

Association of polygenic risk with clinical dementia severity

We performed an association analysis of LBD polygenic risk with dementia severity, as measured by the Clinical Dementia Rating scale[26]. We found that LBD patients in the highest polygenic risk score quintile had more severe impairment at baseline evaluation compared to LBD patients in the lowest quintile ($\chi^2 = 5.60$, df = 1, *p*-value = 0.009; Supplementary Fig. 8).

Discussion

Our analyses highlight the contributions of common and rare variants to the complex genetic architecture of LBD, a common and fatal neurodegenerative disease. Specifically, our GWAS identified five independent genome-wide significant loci (*GBA, BIN1, TMEM175, SNCA-AS1, APOE*) that influence risk for developing LBD, whereas the genome-wide gene-based aggregation tests implicated mutations in *GBA* as being critical in the pathogenesis of the

disease. We further detected strong cis-eQTL colocalization signals at the *TMEM175* and *SNCA-AS1* loci, indicating that the risk of disease at these genomic regions is driven by expression changes of these particular genes. Finally, we provided definitive evidence that the risk of LBD is driven, at least in part, by the genetic variants associated with the risk of developing both Alzheimer's disease and Parkinson's disease.

We replicated all five GWAS signals in an independent LBD case-control dataset derived from imputed genotyping array data. Among these, *GBA* (encoding the lysosomal enzyme glucocerebrosidase), *APOE* (encoding apolipoprotein E), and *SNCA* (encoding α-synuclein) are known LBD risk genes[7-9]. In addition to these previously described loci, we identified a novel locus on chromosome 2q14.3, located 28 kb downstream to the *BIN1* gene, which is a known risk locus for Alzheimer's disease[11]. *BIN1* encodes the bridging integrator 1 protein that is involved in endosomal trafficking. The depletion of *BIN1* reduces the lysosomal degradation of β-site APP-cleaving enzyme 1 (BACE1), resulting in increased amyloid-β production[27]. Furthermore, the loss of *BIN1* promotes the propagation of tau pathology by increasing aggregate internalization via endocytosis and endosomal trafficking[28]. The direction of effect observed in LBD is the same as in Alzheimer's disease (Supplementary Table 3). The observed pleiotropic effects between LBD and Alzheimer's disease prompt us to speculate that mitigating *BIN1*-mediated endosomal dysfunction could have therapeutic implications in both neurodegenerative diseases.

A second novel LBD signal was detected within the lysosomal *TMEM175* gene on chromosome 4p16.3, a known Parkinson's disease risk locus[12]. Deficiency of *TMEM175*,

encoding a transmembrane potassium channel, impairs lysosomal function, lysosome-mediated autophagosome clearance, and mitochondrial respiratory capacity. Loss-of-function further increases the deposition of phosphorylated α-synuclein[29], which makes *TMEM175* a plausible LBD risk gene. The direction of effect is the same in LBD as it is in Parkinson's disease (Supplementary Table 3), and identification of *TMEM175* underscores the role of lysosomal dysfunction in the pathogenesis of Lewy body diseases.

Our data confirm the hypothesis that the LBD genetic architecture is complex and overlaps with the risk profiles of Alzheimer's disease and Parkinson's disease. First, several genome-wide significant risk loci in our GWAS analysis have been previously described either in the Alzheimer's disease literature (*APOE, BIN1*) or have been associated with risk of developing Parkinson's disease (*GBA, TMEM175, SNCA*)[11,12,30-32]. Second, genome-wide gene-based aggregation tests of rare mutations similarly identified *GBA*, which has been previously implicated in Parkinson's disease[7]. Third, genetic risk scores derived from Alzheimer's disease and Parkinson's disease GWAS meta-analyses predicted risk for LBD independently, even after removal of the strongest signals (*APOE, GBA, SNCA,* and *LRRK2*). Interestingly, our data did not show a synergistic effect between the risk of PD and AD in the pathogenesis of LBD, though analysis of larger cohorts will be required to confirm this observation.

Comparing the patterns of the risk loci in LBD with the patterns of risk in published Parkinson's disease and Alzheimer's disease GWAS meta-analyses provided additional insights into this complex relationship. The directions of effect at the index variants of the *GBA* and *TMEM175* loci were the same in LBD as the directions observed in Parkinson's disease[23].

Likewise, the directions of effect for the *BIN1* and *APOE* signals were the same as the directions detected in Alzheimer's disease (Supplementary Table 3)[33]. However, we observed a notably different profile at the *SNCA* locus in LBD compared to PD. Our GWAS and colocalization analyses implicated *SNCA-AS1*, a non-coding RNA that regulates *SNCA* expression, as the main signal at the *SNCA* locus. In contrast, the main signal in Parkinson's disease is detected at the 3'-end of *SNCA*[34]. This finding suggests that the regulation of *SNCA* expression may be different in LBD compared to Parkinson's disease and that only specific *SNCA* transcripts that are regulated by *SNCA-AS1* drive risk for developing dementia. Further, *SNCA-AS1* may prove to be a more amenable therapeutic target than *SNCA* itself due to its neuronal specificity.

As part of this study, we created a foundational resource that will facilitate the study of molecular mechanisms across a broad spectrum of neurodegenerative diseases. We anticipate that these data will be widely accessed for several reasons. First, the resource is the largest whole-genome sequence repository in LBD to date. Second, the nearly 2,000 neurologically healthy, aged individuals included within this resource can be used as control subjects for the study of other neurological and age-related diseases. Third, we prioritized the inclusion of pathologically confirmed LBD patients, representing more than two thirds of the case cohort, to ensure high diagnostic accuracy among our case cohort participants. Finally, all genomes are of high quality and were generated using a uniform genome sequencing, alignment, and variant-calling pipeline. Whole genome sequencing data on this large case-control cohort has allowed us to undertake a comprehensive genomic evaluation of both common and rare variants, including immediate fine-mapping of association signals to pinpoint the functional variants at the *TMEM175* and *SNCA-AS1* loci. The availability of genome-sequence data will facilitate similar

comprehensive evaluations of less commonly studied variant types, such as repeat expansions and structural variants.

Our study has limitations. We focused on individuals of European ancestry, as this is the population in which large cohorts of LBD patients were readily available. Recruiting patients and healthy controls from diverse populations will be crucial for future research to understand the genetic architecture of LBD. Another constraint is the use of short-read sequencing, rather than long-read sequencing applications, that limits the resolution of complex, repetitive, and GC-rich genomic regions[35]. Most study participants did not have in-depth phenotype information using standardized rating scales available. Further, despite our large sample size, we had limited power to detect common genetic variants of small effect size, and additional large-scale genomic studies will be required to unravel the missing heritability of LBD.

In conclusion, our study identified novel loci as relevant in the pathogenesis of LBD. Our findings confirmed that LBD genetically intersects with Alzheimer's disease and Parkinson's disease and highlighted the polygenic contributions of these other neurodegenerative diseases to its pathogenesis. Determining shared molecular genetic relationships among complex neurodegenerative diseases paves the way for precision medicine and has implications for prioritizing targets for therapeutic development. We have made the whole-genome sequence data available to the research community. These genomes constitute the largest sequencing effort in LBD to date and are designed to accelerate the pace of discovery in dementia.

Methods

Cohort description and study design

A total of 5,154 participants of European ancestry (2,981 LBD cases, 2,173 neurologically healthy controls) were recruited across 17 European and 27 North American sites/consortia to create a genomic resource for LBD research (Supplementary Table 4). In addition to these resource genomes, we obtained convenience control genomes from (1) the Wellderly cohort (n = 1,202), a cohort of healthy, aged European-ancestry individuals recruited in the United States[36], and (2) European-ancestry control genomes generated by the National Institute on Aging and the Accelerating Medicine Partnership - Parkinson's Disease Initiative (www.amp-pd.org; n = 1,016). This brought the total number of control subjects available for this study to 4,391.

All control cohorts were selected based on a lack of evidence of cognitive decline in their clinical history and absence of neurological deficits on neurological examination. Pathologically confirmed control subjects (n = 605) had no evidence of significant neurodegenerative disease on histopathological examination. LBD patients were diagnosed with pathologically definite or clinically probable disease according to consensus criteria[37,38]. The case cohort included 1,789 (69.0%) autopsy-confirmed LBD cases and 802 (31.0%) clinically probable LBD patients. 63.4% of LBD cases were male, as is typical for the LBD patient population[39]. The demographic characteristics of the cohorts are summarized in Supplementary Table 5. The appropriate institutional review boards of participating institutions approved the study (03-AG-N329, NCT02014246), and informed consent was obtained from all subjects or their surrogate decision-makers, according to the Declaration of Helsinki.

Whole-genome sequencing

Fluorometric quantitation of the genomic DNA samples was performed using the PicoGreen dsDNA assay (Thermo Fisher). PCR-free, paired-end libraries were constructed by automated liquid handlers using the Illumina TruSeq chemistry according to the manufacturer's protocol. DNA samples underwent sequencing on an Illumina HiSeq X Ten sequencer (v.2.5 chemistry, Illumina) using 150 bp, paired-end cycles.

Sequence alignment, variant calling

Genome sequence data were processed using the pipeline standard developed by the Centers for Common Disease Genomics (CCDG; https://www.genome.gov/27563570/). This standard allows for whole-genome sequence data processed by different groups to generate 'functionally equivalent' results[40]. The GRCh38DH reference genome was used for alignment, as specified in the CCDG standard. For whole-genome sequence alignments and processing, the Broad Institute's implementation of the functional equivalence standardized pipeline was used. This pipeline, which incorporates the GATK (2016) Best Practices[41], was implemented in the workflow description language for deployment and execution on the Google Cloud Platform. Single-nucleotide variants and indels were called from the processed whole-genome sequence data following the GATK Best Practices using another Broad Institute workflow for joint discovery and Variant Quality Score Recalibration. Both Broad workflows for WGS sample processing and joint discovery are publicly available (https://github.com/gatk-workflows/broad-prod-wgs-germline-snps-indels). All whole-genome sequence data were processed using the same pipeline.

Quality control

For sample-level quality control checks, genomes were excluded from the analysis for the following reasons: (1) a high contamination rate (>5% based on VerifyBamID freemix metric)[42], (2) an excessive heterozygosity rate (exceeding +/- 0.15 F-statistic), (3) a low call rate (≤ 95%), (4) discordance between reported sex and genotypic sex, (5) duplicate samples (determined by pi-hat statistics > 0.8), (6) non-European ancestry based on principal components analysis when compared to the HapMap 3 Genome Reference Panel (Supplementary Fig. 10)[43], and (7) samples that were related (defined as having a pi-hat > 0.125).

For variant-level quality control, we excluded: (1) variants that showed non-random missingness between cases and controls (p-value $\leq 1 \times 10^{-4}$), (2) variants with haplotype-based non-random missingness (p-value $\leq 1 \times 10^{-4}$), (3) variants with an overall missingness rate of ≥ 5%, (4) non-autosomal variants (X, Y, and mitochondrial chromosomes), (5) variants that significantly departed from Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium in the control cohort (p-value $\leq 1 \times 10^{-6}$), (6) variants mapping to variable, diversity, and joining (VDJ) recombination sites, as well as variants in centromeric regions +/- 10 kb (due to poor sequence alignment and incomplete resolution of the reference genome assembly at these sites)[44], (7) variants for which the allele frequency in the aged control subjects (Wellderly cohort) significantly deviated from the other control cohorts (non-Wellderly) based on FDR-corrected chi-square tests (p-value < 0.05), (8) variants for which the MAFs in our control cohorts significantly differed from reported frequencies in the NHLBI Trans-Omics TOPMed database (freeze 5b; www.nhlbiwgs.org) or

gnomAD (version 3.0) (FDR-corrected chi-square test p-value < 0.05)[45], (9) variants that failed TOPMed variant calling filters, and (10) spanning deletions.

After these quality control filters were applied, there were 6,651 samples available for analysis. Supplementary Fig. 9 shows quality control metrics.

Single-variant association analysis

We performed a GWAS in LBD (n = 2,591 cases and 4,027 controls) using logistic regression in PLINK (v.2.0) with a minor allele frequency threshold of >1% based on the allele frequency estimates in the LBD case cohort[46]. We used the step function in the R MASS package to determine the minimum number of principal components (generated from common single nucleotide variants) required to correct for population substructure[47]. The first two principal components in our study cohorts compared to the HapMap3 Genomic Resource Panel are shown in Supplementary Fig. 10a. Based on this analysis, we incorporated sex, age, and five principal components (PC1, PC3, PC4, PC5, PC7) as covariates in our model. Quantile-quantile plots revealed minimal residual population substructure, as estimated by the sample size-adjusted genome-wide inflation factor λ_{1000} of 1.004 (Supplementary Fig. 10b). The Bonferroni threshold for genome-wide significance was 5.0×10^{-8}. A conditional analysis was performed for each GWAS locus by adding each respective index variant to the covariates (Supplementary Fig. 3).

For the LBD GWAS replication analysis, we obtained genotyping array data from two independent, non-overlapping, European-ancestry LBD case-control cohorts, totaling 970 LBD cases and 8,928 controls combined, as described elsewhere[5,6]. The data were cleaned by applying

the same sample- and variant-level quality control steps that were used in the discovery genomes. We imputed the data against the NHLBI TopMed imputation reference panel under default settings with Eagle v.2.4 phasing[48-50]. Variants with an R^2 value < 0.3 were excluded. A meta-analysis of the two cohorts was performed with METAL under a fixed-effects model and variants that were significant in the discovery stage were extracted[51].

Genotype-pathology association analysis

We evaluated the association of the newly identified LBD risk alleles in *BIN1* and *TMEM175* with the pathological changes of Alzheimer's disease. Neuritic plaque staging information, assessed by the CERAD method[52], was available for 700 pathologically-confirmed LBD cases, while neurofibrillary tangle pathology staging, as assessed by Braak method[53], was available for 1,459 definite LBD cases. Association testing between the risk alleles and the semi-quantitative neuritic plaque and neurofibrillary tangle burden was performed using Fisher's exact tests.

Colocalization analyses

Coloc (v.4.0.1) was used to evaluate the probability of LBD loci and expression quantitative trait loci (eQTLs) sharing a single causal variant[54]. This tool incorporates a Bayesian statistical framework that computes posterior probabilities for five hypotheses: namely, there is no association with either trait (hypothesis 0, H_0); an associated LBD variant exists but no associated eQTL variant (H_1); there is an associated eQTL variant but no associated LBD variant (H_2); there is an association with an eQTL and LBD risk variant, but they are two independent variants (H_3); and there is a shared associated LBD variant and eQTL variant within the analyzed

region (H_4). Cis-eQTLs were derived from eQTLGen (n = 31,684 individuals; accessed February 19, 2019) and PsychENCODE (n = 1,387 individuals; accessed February 20, 2019)[18,19]. For each locus, we examined all genes within 1Mb of a significant region of interest, as defined by our LBD GWAS (*p*-value < 5.0 x 10^{-8}). Coloc was run using the default $p_1 = 10^{-4}$ and $p_2 = 10^{-4}$ priors, while the p_{12} prior was set to $p_{12} = 5 \times 10^{-6}$ [55]. Loci with a posterior probability for H_4 (PPH4) ≥ 0.90 were considered colocalized. All colocalizations were subjected to sensitivity analyses to explore the robustness of our conclusions to changes in the p_{12} prior (i.e., the probability that a given variant affects both traits).

Cell-type and tissue specificity measures

To determine specificity of a gene's expression to a tissue or cell-type, specificity values were generated from two independent gene expression datasets: 1) bulk-tissue RNA-sequencing of 53 human tissues from the Genotype-Tissue Expression consortium (GTEx; v.8)[21]; and 2) human single-nucleus RNA-sequencing of the middle temporal gyrus from the Allen Institute for Brain Science (n = 7 cell types)[20]. Specificity values for GTEx were generated using modified code from a previous publication[56]. Expression of tissues was averaged by organ (except in the case of brain; n = 35 tissues in total). Specificity values for the Allen Institute for Brain Science-derived dataset were generated using gene-level exonic reads and the 'generate.celltype.data' function of the EWCE package[57]. The specificity values for both datasets and the code used to generate these values are available at https://github.com/RHReynolds/MarkerGenes.

Heritability analysis

The narrow-sense heritability (h^2), a measure of the additive genetic variance, was calculated using GREML-LDMS to determine how much of the genetic liability for LBD is explained by common genetic variants[58]. This analysis included unrelated individuals (pi-hat < 0.125, n = 2,591 LBD cases, and n = 4,027 controls) and autosomal variants with a MAF >1%. The analysis was adjusted for sex, age, and five principal components (PC1, PC3, PC4, PC5, PC7), and a disease prevalence of 0.1% to account for ascertainment bias.

Gene-based rare variant association analysis

We conducted a genome-wide, gene-based sequence kernel association test - optimized (SKAT-O) analysis of missense ~~and loss-of-function~~ mutations to determine the difference in the aggregate burden of rare coding variants between LBD cases and controls[13]. This analysis was performed in RVTESTS (v.2.1.0) using default parameters after annotating variants in ANNOVAR (v.2018-04/16)[59,60]. The study cohort for this analysis consisted of 2,591 LBD cases and 4,027 control subjects. We used a MAF threshold of ≤ 1% and a minor allele count (MAC) of ≥ 3 as filters. The covariates used in this analysis included sex, age, and five principal components (PC1, PC3, PC4, PC5, PC7). The Bonferroni threshold for genome-wide significance was 2.86 x 10^{-6} (0.05 / 17,483 autosomal genes tested).

Predictions of LBD risk using Alzheimer's disease and Parkinson's disease risk scores

Genetic risk scores were generated using PLINK (v.1.9)[46] based on summary statistics from recent Alzheimer's disease and Parkinson's disease GWAS meta-analyses[22,23]. Considering the LBD cohort as our target dataset, risk allele dosages were counted across Alzheimer's

disease or Parkinson's disease loci per sample (i.e., giving a dose of two if homozygous for the risk allele, one if heterozygous, and zero if homozygous for the alternate allele). The SNPs were weighted by their log odds ratios, giving greater weight to alleles with higher risk estimates, and a composite genetic risk score was generated across all risk loci. Genetic risk scores were z-transformed prior to analysis, centered on controls, with a mean of zero and a standard deviation of one in the control subjects. Regression models were then applied to test for association with the risk of developing LBD (based on logistic regression) or the age at death, age at onset, and disease duration (linear regression), adjusting for sex, age (risk and disease duration only), and five principal components (PC1, PC3, PC4, PC5, PC7) to account for population stratification.

Polygenic risk score generation for pathway enrichment and phenotype associations

A genome-wide LBD polygenic risk score was generated using PRSice-2[61]. The polygenic risk score was computed by summing the risk alleles associated with LBD that had been weighted by the effect size estimates generated by performing a GWAS in the pathologically confirmed LBD cases and controls. This workflow identified the optimum *p*-value threshold (1×10^{-4} in our dataset) for variant selection, allowing for the inclusion of variants that failed to reach genome-wide significance but that contributed to disease risk, nonetheless. After excluding variants without an rs-identifier, the remaining 122 variants were ranked based on their GWAS *p*-values, with the *APOE*, *GBA*, *SNCA*, *BIN1* and *TMEM175* genes added to the top five positions. The list was then analyzed for: a) pathway enrichment using the g:Profiler toolkit (v.0.1.8)[62]. We defined the genes involved in the pathways and gene sets using the following databases: (i) Gene Ontology, (ii) Kyoto Encyclopedia of Genes and Genomes, (iii) Reactome, and (iv) WikiPathways[63,64]. Significant pathways and gene lists with a single gene or containing

more than 1,000 genes were discarded. Significance was defined as a *p*-value of less than 0.05. The g:Profiler algorithm applies a Bonferroni correction to the *p*-value for each pathway to correct for multiple testing.

Next, we tested whether the same LBD polygenic risk scores were associated with cognitive impairment, as measured by the the Clinical Dementia Rating scale. This analysis was performed in the 214 LBD cases provided by the National Alzheimer's Coordinating Center, as this was the only cohort for which the Clinical Dementia Rating scale had been collected at baseline evaluation. Genetic risk scores were z-transformed before separating all cases into quintiles based on their individual polygenic risk scores. A two-proportions z-test was performed to compare the proportion of severe LBD cases within the highest genetic risk score quintile group versus the lowest quintile.

Data availability

The individual-level sequence data for the resource genomes have been deposited at dbGaP (accession number: phs001963.v1.p1 NIA DementiaSeq). The GWAS summary statistics have been deposited in the GWAS catalog: https://www.ebi.ac.uk/gwas/home. eQTLGen data are available at https://www.eqtlgen.org/cis-eqtls.html. PsychENCODE QTL data are available at http://resource.psychencode.org/. Bulk-tissue RNA sequence data (GTEx version 8) are available at the Genotype-Tissue Expression consortium portal (https://www.gtexportal.org/home/). Human single-nucleus RNA sequence data are available at the Allen Institute for Brain Science portal (portal.brain-map.org/atlases-and-data/rnaseq/human-mtg/smart-seq). Specificity values for the Allen Institute for Brain Science and GTEx data and

the code used to generate these values are openly available at:
https://github.com.RHReynolds/MarkerGenes.

Code availability

Analyses were performed using open-source tools and code for analysis is available at the associated website of each software package. Genome sequence alignment and variant calling followed the implementation of the GATK Best Practices pipeline (https://github.com/gatk-workflows/broad-prod-wgs-germline-snps-indels). Contamination rates were assessed using VerifyBamID (https://genome.sph.umich.edu/wiki/VerifyBamID). Quality control checks, association analyses, and conditional analyses were performed in PLINK2 (https://www.cog-genomics.org/plink/2.0/). Data formatting and visualizations were performed in R (version 3.5.2; (https://www.r-project.org) using the following packages: MASS, tidyverse, stringr, ggrepel, data.table, viridis, ggplot2, gridExtra, grid. Imputation was performed using Eagle v.2.4 phasing (https://github.com/poruloh/Eagle). Meta-analysis was performed using METAL (https://genome.sph.umich.edu/wiki/METAL). Heritability analysis was performed using GRML-LDMS in GCTA (https://cnsgenomics.com/software/gcta). Rare variant analysis was performed using RVTESTS (v.2.1.0) (http://zhanxw.github.io/rvtests/) after annotating variant files in ANNOVAR (v.2018-04/16) (https://doc-openbio.readthedocs.io/projects/annovar/en/latest/).
Genetic risk score analyses were performed in PLINK 1.9 (https://www.cog-genomics.org/plink). LBD summary statistics were converted from hg38 to hg19 using the R implementation of the LiftOver tool, which is available from the rtracklayer package (genome.sph.umich.edu/wiki/LiftOver). Colocalization analyses were performed in R-3.2 using

the packages coloc (v.4.0.1) (https://github.com/chr1swallace/coloc). Specificity values for the AIBS-derived dataset were generated using gene-level exonic reads and the 'generate.celltype.data' function of the EWCE package (https://github.com/NathanSkene/EWCE). Polygenic risk scores were constructed using PRSice-2 (v.2.1.1) (https://www.prsice.info). Pathway enrichment analysis was performed using the R package gprofiler2 (https://cran.r-project.org/web/packages/gprofiler2/vignettes/gprofiler2.html).

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AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

C.L.D, B.J.T., and S.W.S. conceptualized and supervised the study. M.S.S., S.A., R.L.W., J.T.G., and Y.A. performed sample preparations; C.V. performed library preparations and genome sequencing. J.D., A.M., J.R.G., and C.L.D. performed genome sequence alignment, variant calling, and initial quality control checks. R.C., S.W.S., and B.J.T. curated the data. R.C. performed quality control checks and genome-wide association analysis, and Z.S. contributed to this analysis. R.C. also led the genome-wide gene-based rare variant analysis; M.B.M., M.D.-F., and C.B. contributed to this analysis. M.S.S. performed the heritability analysis. S.B.-C. performed the genetic risk score analysis. S.S.-A. computed polygenic risk scores and performed enrichment analyses. R.H.R., E.G. and M.R performed eQTL analyses. M.A.N. consulted on the statistical analysis. M.K.P. performed validation experiments. R.H.R., M.R., A.C., G.M., A.C., G.F. R.C.B., F.B., Z.G.-O., P.M., R.K., D.G., G.L., N.T., E.S., L.N.-K., J.-A.P., H.K, V.S., K.L.N., E.M., R.C.K., C.A.C., E.M., M.B., M.S.A., O.P., J.C.T., M.F., Q.M., E.H.B., E.R.-R., J.I., C.L., I.G.-A., P.S.-J., L.M.P., B.G., J.K., S.E.B., M.M., E.R., C.D., A.B., S.L., G.X., M.J.B., B.T., S.G., G.L., G.S., T.G.B., I.G.M., A.J.T., J.A., C.M.M., L.P., S.L., C.T., S.A.-S., A.H., D.A., G.K., S.M.K., R.W., P.P., L.M.B., J.L., L.B., A.K., A.R., A.G., D.A.B., C.S., H.R.M., R.F., S.P.-B., F.K., W.K., A.L., J.A., D.A., J.F., L.F., S.M.R., T.T., T.F., N.R.G.-R., Z.W., T.F., B.F.B., J.A.H., D.D., A.B.S., A.C., O.A.R., B.J.T., and S.W.S. provided biospecimens and clinical data. D.J.S., J.E., L.P., A.B.S., J.A.H., O.A., L.C., L.H., K.M., A.L., P.St.G-H., I.B., K.M., A.B., K.B., T.L., G.D., I.S., P.T., L.M., M.O., N.J.C., J.C.M., G.M.H., V.V.D., J.Q.T., T.G., C.S., A.C., B.J.T., and S.W.S. provided replication data. A.T., D.G.H., J.R.G., and A.B.S. provided convenience control genomes. S.W.S. wrote the initial manuscript. All authors critically reviewed and edited the article.

COMPETING INTERESTS

T.G.B. is a consultant for Prothena Biosciences, Vivid Genomics and Avid Radiopharmaceutical, and is a scientific advisory board member for Vivid Genomics. J.A.H., H.R.M., S.P.-B., and B.J.T. hold US, EU and Canadian patents on the clinical testing and therapeutic intervention for the hexanucleotide repeat expansion of *C9orf72*. M.A.N.'s participation is supported by a consulting contract between Data Tecnica International and the National Institute on Aging, NIH, Bethesda, MD, USA; as a possible conflict of interest Dr. Nalls also consults for Neuron23 Inc., Lysosomal Therapeutics Inc., Illumina Inc., the Michael J. Fox Foundation and Vivid Genomics among others. J.A.P. is an editorial board member of Movement Disorders, Parkinsonism & Related Disorders, BMC Neurology, and Clinical Autonomic Research. B.F.B., J.L., and S.W.S. serve on the Scientific Advisory Council of the Lewy Body Dementia Association. S.W.S. is an editorial board member for the Journal of Parkinson's Disease. B.J.T. is an editorial board member for JAMA Neurology, Journal of Neurology, Neurosurgery, and Psychiatry, Brain, and Neurobiology of Aging. Z.K.W. serves as a principal investigator or co-principal investigator on Abbvie, Inc. (M15-562 and M15-563), Biogen, Inc. (228PD201) grant, and Biohaven Pharmaceuticals, Inc. (BHV4157-206 and BHV3241-301). Z.K.W. also serves as the principal investigator of the Mayo Clinic American Parkinson Disease Association (APDA) Information and Referral Center, and as co-principal investigator of the Mayo Clinic APDA Center for Advanced Research. All other authors report no competing interests.

FIGURE LEGENDS

Fig. 1 | Analysis workflow

Schematic illustration of the analytical workflow.

Fig. 2 | Genome-wide representation of common and rare variant associations in LBD

Manhattan plots depicting **a**, the GWAS results (n = 2,591 cases and 4,027 controls; MAF >1%), **b**, the GWAS subanalysis of pathologically confirmed LBD cases only (n = 1,789) versus controls (n = 4,027), and **c**, gene-based genome-wide SKAT-O test associations of rare missense ~~and loss-of-function~~ variants (MAF $\leq$ 1%, MAC $\geq$ 3). The x-axis denotes the chromosomal position for all 22 autosomes in hg38, and the y-axis indicates the association *p*-values on a $-\log_{10}$ scale. Each dot in **a**, and **b**, indicates a single-nucleotide variant or indel, while each dot in **c**, corresponds to a gene. Red dots highlight genome-wide significant signals, while suggestive variants are indicated with orange dots. A dashed line shows the conservative Bonferroni threshold for genome-wide significance. For **a**, and **b**, the gene with the closest proximity to the top variant at each significant locus is listed. Green font was used to highlight known LBD risk loci, while black font indicates novel association signals.

Fig. 3 | Regional association plots for eQTL and LBD GWAS colocalizations

Regional association plots for eQTLs (upper pane) and LBD GWAS signals (lower pane) in the regions surrounding **a**, *TMEM175* (PPH4 = 0.99) and **b**, *SNCA-AS1* (PPH4 = 0.96). The x-axis denotes the chromosomal position in hg19, and the y-axis indicates the association *p*-values on a $-\log_{10}$ scale.

Fig. 4 | Genetic risk scores from Alzheimer's disease and Parkinson's disease GWAS studies illustrate intersecting molecular genetic risk profiles with LBD

Alzheimer's disease and Parkinson's disease genetic risk scores predict risk for LBD and highlight overlapping molecular risk profiles. **a**, Violin plots comparing z-transformed Alzheimer's disease genetic risk score distributions in LBD cases, controls, and 100 random Alzheimer's disease cases, while **b**, shows the z-transformed Parkinson's disease genetic risk score distributions for LBD cases, controls, and 100 random Parkinson's disease cases. The center line of each violin plot is the median, the box limits depict the interquartile range, and whiskers correspond to the 1.5x interquartile range. Abbreviations: GRS, genetic risk score; AD, Alzheimer's disease; PD, Parkinson's disease.

Fig. 5 | Insights into LBD pathways based on polygenic risk score enrichment analysis

Functional enrichment analyses of the LBD polygenic risk scores. The x-axis corresponds to the enrichment category in LBD cases compared to controls, and the y-axis shows the enrichment percentages of significant associations after multiple testing correction. The enrichment percentage refers to the percentage of input genes/variants that are within in a given pathway. Significant gene ontology (GO) enrichments for biological processes (BP, red), cellular functions (CC, green), molecular processes (MP, blue), and pathways from WikiPathways (WP, purple) are shown. The size of each respective dot indicates the *p*-values on a $-\log_{10}$ scale.

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