## **ORIGINAL ARTICLE**

Rare ADH Variant Constellations are Specific for Alcohol Dependence

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Abstract — Aims: Some of the well-known functional alcohol dehydrogenase (ADH) gene variants (e.g. ADH1B\*2, ADH1B\*3 and ADH1C\*2) that significantly affect the risk of alcohol dependence are rare variants in most populations. In the present study, we comprehensively examined the associations between rare ADH variants [minor allele frequency (MAF) <0.05] and alcohol dependence, with several other neuropsychiatric and neurological disorders as reference. Methods: A total of 49,358 subjects in 22 independent cohorts with 11 different neuropsychiatric and neurological disorders were analyzed, including 3 cohorts with alcohol dependence. The entire ADH gene cluster (ADH7-ADH1C-ADH1B-ADH1A-ADH6-ADH4-ADH5 at Chr4) was imputed in all samples using the same reference panels that included whole-genome sequencing data. We stringently cleaned the phenotype and genotype data to obtain a total of 870 single nucleotide polymorphisms with 0< MAF <0.05 for association analysis. Results: We found that a rare variant constellation across the entire ADH gene cluster was significantly associated with alcohol dependence in European-Americans (Fp1: simulated global P = 0.045), European-Australians (Fp5: global P = 0.027; collapsing: P = 0.038) and African-Americans (Fp5: global P = 0.050; collapsing: P = 0.038), but not with any other neuropsychiatric disease. Association signals in this region came principally from ADH6, ADH7, ADH1B and ADH1C. In particular, a rare ADH6 variant constellation showed a replicable association with alcohol dependence across these three independent cohorts. No individual rare variants were statistically significantly associated with any disease examined after group- and region-wide correction for multiple comparisons. Conclusion: We conclude that rare ADH variants are specific for alcohol dependence. The ADH gene cluster may harbor a causal variant(s) for alcohol dependence.

#### INTRODUCTION

Alcohol dehydrogenases (ADHs) are largely distributed in the liver (e.g. ββADH encoded by ADH1B, γγADH encoded by ADH1C and ADH6 enzyme encoded by ADH6) and the upper digestive tract (e.g. ooADH encoded by ADH7) and partly in the central nervous system (e.g.  $\sigma\sigma$ ADH and ADH6) (Shmueli et al., 2003; Yanai et al., 2005). They possess high activity in converting ethanol to toxic acetaldehyde (Yasunami et al., 1991). Alterations of this activity may influence human drinking behavior and thus the risk of alcohol dependence. Additionally, these enzymes are also efficient in the oxidization of retinol, a vitamin A precursor (summarized in Satre et al., 1994; Luo et al., 2008). For example,  $\sigma\sigma$ ADH, also called retinol dehydrogenase, is the most efficient enzyme among ADHs in catalyzing retinol formation (Satre et al., 1994); the ADH6 enzyme is efficient in the oxidization of retinol as well (Km:15-40 µM) (Satre et al., 1994). Specifically, they convert retinol to retinal, which in turn is synthesized to retinoic acid (RA), the active form of vitamin A. RA is a pleiotrophic regulator of gene expression in vertebrates and plays a role in regulating embryonic development (including development of the brain). Dopamine neurons contain all necessary enzymatic components for these regulations. Proper development and maintenance of a functional dopaminergic system may depend strongly upon the supply of RA. Functional alterations of these enzymes can thus influence the development and maintenance of physiological dopaminergic system functioning (Luo et al., 2008). In addition to ethanol and retinol, ADH

enzymes are also implicated in the metabolism of various dopamine-related neurotransmitters. These support the hypothesis that, in addition to alcohol dependence, there could be associations between ADH gene variants and more neuropsychiatric and neurological disorders, given that the dopaminergic system is well known to play an important role in the etiology of those disorders. Furthermore, alcohol dependence has high rates of co-morbidity with numerous psychiatric disorders including anxiety disorders, major depression, bipolar disorders, schizophrenia, post-traumatic stress disorder, etc. (Regier et al., 1990; Kessler et al., 1996; Grant et al., 2004), which also supports the hypothesis that alcohol dependence and other neuropsychiatric disorders could have common susceptibility genes including ADH genes. So far, numerous studies have reported associations between ADH variants and alcohol dependence; ADH variants have also been associated with Parkinson's disease (ADH1C and ADH7) (Buervenich et al., 2000, 2005), cerebral infarction and lacunae (ADH1B) (Suzuki et al., 2004).

It is well known that at least four functional ADH gene variants including rs1229984 (*ADH1B*\*2; Arg48His), rs2066702 (*ADH1B*\*3; Arg370Cys), rs1693482 (*ADH1C*\*2; Arg272Gln) and rs698 (*ADH1C*\*2; Ile350Va) that significantly affect the risk of alcohol dependence are rare variants in most populations, e.g. in Asians [minor allele frequency (MAF)  $f_{rs2066702} = 0.000$ ;  $f_{rs1693482} = 0.023$ ;  $f_{rs698} = 0.025$ ], Europeans ( $f_{rs2066702} = 0.000$ ;  $f_{rs1229984} = 0.008$ ) and/or Africans ( $f_{rs1229984} = 0.000$ ;  $f_{rs1693482} = 0.052$ ;  $f_{rs698} = 0.042$ ) (Luo *et al.*, 2006). A recent genome-wide association study identified a common variant (rs1789891; f = 0.192) that was

significantly associated with alcohol dependence in people of German descent  $[P = 1.3 \times 10^{-8}; \text{ odds ratio (OR)} = 1.46]$  (Frank *et al.*, 2012). Notably, this significant risk variant is located between the four functional *ADH* rare variants. These suggest to us that rare *ADH* variants may play important roles in human diseases.

The role of rare genetic variants in human diseases has not been well studied until recently. An important hypothesis in medical genetics research is that many genetically influenced human diseases may not result from a single common variant, but rather, from a constellation of more rare, regionally concentrated, disease-causing variants. The signals of association credited to common genetic variants may be synthetic associations resulting from the contributions of multiple rare variants within a given gene region (Dickson *et al.*, 2010). With the emergence of sequencing technology, it is now feasible to test this hypothesis by thoroughly investigating the rare variants across the genome (e.g. capitalizing on the vast array of rare variant data deposited in databases such as the 1000 Genome Project).

In this study, we aimed to comprehensively examine the associations between rare ADH variants (MAF < 0.05) and 11 different neuropsychiatric and neurological disorders in subjects of European or African descent, which included three independent cohorts with alcohol dependence in European-Americans, European-Australians and African-Americans. In these three cohorts, no significant common ADH variants for risk of alcohol dependence have been found before (Bierut *et al.*, 2010; Edenberg *et al.*, 2010; Heath *et al.*, 2011). This study would help us to know whether the rare ADH variants are specific for alcohol dependence or shared by susceptibility to other disorders.

#### MATERIALS AND METHODS

#### Subjects

A total of 49,358 subjects in 22 independent cohorts with 11 different neuropsychiatric and neurological disorders were analyzed (Tables 1 and 2). These 22 cohorts included case-control and family-based samples, genotyped on different microarray platforms. These 11 disorders included alcohol dependence, major depression, bipolar disorder, schizophrenia, autism, attention deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD), Alzheimer's disease, amyotrophic lateral sclerosis (ALS), early onset stroke, ischemic stroke and Parkinson's disease. These data were all of those with neuropsychiatric and neurological disorders available for our analysis from the database of Genotypes and Phenotypes (dbGaP). Detailed demographics data are shown in Table 1.

These subjects contained three cohorts with alcohol dependence, including 1409 European-American cases, 1518 European-American controls, 6410 European-Australian family subjects with 1633 alcohol-dependent probands, 681 African-American cases and 508 African-American controls. All subjects in these three cohorts were interviewed using the Semi-Structured Assessment for the Genetics of Alcoholism (Bucholz *et al.*, 1994). Affected subjects met DSM-IV criteria for alcohol dependence (American Psychiatric Association, 1994). Additionally, 65.9% of patients with major depression had alcohol-drinking behavior (data not shown), i.e. at least 12 alcoholic drinks in the past 12 months. The samples with alcohol dependence and major depression were identical to those used in the published work (Boomsma *et al.*, 2008; Zuo *et al.*, 2011a,b).

#### Imputation

To make the genetic marker sets consistent across the different cohorts, we imputed the missing single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) across the entire ADH gene cluster (ADH7-ADH1C-ADH1B-ADH1A-ADH6-ADH4-ADH5 at Chr4: 100,204,900-100,631,900) in all samples using the same reference panels that included whole-genome sequencing data. To maximize the success rate and accuracy of imputation, we (a) used both 1000 Genome Project and HapMap 3 panels as the reference, and separated the European (CEU) and African (YRI) ethnicities during imputation; (b) used a Markov Chain Monte Carlo algorithm implemented in the program IMPUTE2 (Howie et al., 2009) to derive full posterior probabilities, not the 'best-guess', of the genotypes of each SNP; (c) set the imputation parameters at burnin = 10,000, iteration = 10,000, k = 100, Ne = 11,500 and confidence level = 0.99 (Howie *et al.*, 2009); (d) merged, within the same ethnicity, the data sets as much as possible to increase sample sizes and marker density for imputation, being subject to the following criteria: cases and controls that were paired within the same study; different panels of array data in the same subjects; and separate samples that had the same phenotype and were genotyped on the same microarray platform and (e) stringently cleaned the imputed data before association analysis (see below). Additionally, because the imputation process did not incorporate the family relationship information, Mendelian errors might occur in the imputed data. Thus, the families with at least one individual who had >0.5% Mendel errors (considering all SNPs tested) and the SNPs with >0.5% Mendel errors (considering all individuals tested) were excluded too. Finally, for SNPs that were directly genotyped, we used the direct genotypes rather than the imputed data.

### Data cleaning

We stringently cleaned the phenotype data and the genotype data before association analysis (detailed previously; Zuo et al., 2011a). Subjects with poor genotypic data and questionable diagnostic information, allele discordance, duplicated IDs, potential sample misidentification, sample relatedness, sample misspecification, gender anomalies, missing race, non-European and non-African ethnicity, population group outliers, a mismatch between self-identified and genetically inferred ethnicity, a missing genotype call rate  $\geq 2\%$  across all SNPs and subjects overlapped between two data sets [e.g. the Study of Addiction: Genetics and Environment (SAGE) data set and the Collaborative Study on the Genetics of Alcoholism (COGA) data set] were excluded (one copy). Furthermore, we excluded monomorphic SNPs and SNPs with allele discordance, Mendelian errors (in family samples) and an overall missing genotype call rate  $\geq 2\%$ . For those data sets merged from the separate samples (e.g. SAGE and COGA) that had the same phenotype and were genotyped on the same microarray platform, SNPs with allele frequency differences >2% between the original separate samples were excluded. For all merged data sets, SNPs with missing rate differences >2% between the original separate samples were

Table 1. Demographic data of all cohorts

	Affected subjects					Unaffected subjects						
			Pedigrees Subjects Total Total		Male		Female		Male		Female	
Human disease	Ethnicity	Data set name	n n	n	Age (yrs)	n	Age (yrs)	n	Age (yrs)	n	Age (yrs)	
Alcohol dependence	EA (CC)	SAGE+COGA	2927	2927	883	$39.0 \pm 10.4$	526	$36.7 \pm 8.8$	445	$37.9 \pm 10.1$	1073	$39.0 \pm 9.1$
Alcohol dependence	AA (CC)	SAGE+COGA	1189	1189	428	$41.0 \pm 8.3$	253	$39.8 \pm 6.8$	169	$40.2 \pm 8.4$	339	$39.6 \pm 6.8$
Alcohol dependence	EAu (Fam)	OZ-ALC	1856	6410	1011	$42.0 \pm 8.4$	622	$39.2 \pm 7.3$	1709	$46.3 \pm 9.8$	2213	$45.6 \pm 9.5$
Major depression	CA (CC)	PRSC	3625	3625	548	$44.2 \pm 12.0$	1257	$41.2 \pm 12.8$	694	$47.1 \pm 14.4$	1126	$43.8 \pm 13.7$
Bipolar disorder	EA (CC)	BDO+GRU	1402	1402	190	$43.1 \pm 8.0$	178	$45.4 \pm 10.0$	532	$54.7 \pm 17.3$	502	$50.1 \pm 17.6$
Bipolar disorder	EA (CC)	BARD+GRU	1687	1687	322	$42.1 \pm 8.3$	331	$44.4 \pm 9.7$	532	$54.7 \pm 17.3$	502	$50.1 \pm 17.6$
Bipolar disorder	AA (CC)	BARD+GRU	812	812	39	$42.4 \pm 7.9$	102	$42.0 \pm 7.8$	272	$46.0 \pm 14.0$	399	$45.7 \pm 13.5$
Schizophrenia	AA (CC)	GAIN	2149	2149	746	$41.9 \pm 10.8$	449	$43.0 \pm 9.8$	362	$46.2 \pm 13.7$	592	$45.0 \pm 12.9$
Schizophrenia	EA (CC)	GAIN	2729	2729	947	$42.5 \pm 11.3$	404	$45.1 \pm 11.2$	634	$53.5 \pm 17.0$	744	$49.2 \pm 16.7$
Schizophrenia	EA (CC)	nonGAIN	2784	2784	996	$42.3 \pm 11.8$	441	$44.2 \pm 12.4$	669	$51.8 \pm 15.3$	678	$47.9 \pm 16.1$
Schizophrenia	AA (CC)	nonGAIN	118	118	60	$41.5 \pm 11.3$	38	$42.9 \pm 10.5$	20	$49.7 \pm 9.2$	0	_
Autism	EA (Fam)	AGP	1366	4075	1121	$7.2 \pm 3.2$	209	$7.1 \pm 3.0$	0	_	0	_
ADHD	CA (Fam)	IMAGE	922	2757	802	$10.9 \pm 2.8$	122	$10.8 \pm 3.0$	0	_	0	_
Alzheimer's disease	CA (Fam)	$LOAD \times 4$	2243	5219	788	$84.1 \pm 8.1$	1510	$86.3 \pm 8.7$	486	$66.7 \pm 10.7$	773	$66.1 \pm 10.5$
Alzheimer's disease	EA (CC)	GenADA	1588	1588	340	$77.6 \pm 8.3$	466	$78.3 \pm 8.8$	279	$74.4 \pm 7.7$	503	$72.8 \pm 8.1$
ALS	CA (CC)	GRU	507	507	138	$56.5 \pm 11.9$	123	$59.2 \pm 11.6$	136	$69.6 \pm 8.6$	110	$69.8 \pm 8.9$
Early onset stroke	EA (CC)	$GEOS \times 3$	802	802	198	$42.7 \pm 6.1$	174	$38.7 \pm 7.6$	208	$40.6 \pm 6.4$	222	$37.8 \pm 7.3$
Early onset stroke	AA (CC)	$GEOS \times 3$	599	599	144	$42.3 \pm 6.2$	165	$41.0 \pm 7.3$	129	$40.9 \pm 6.5$	161	$38.4 \pm 7.5$
Ischemic stroke	CA (CC)	ISGS	485	485	119	$71.8 \pm 8.3$	100	$71.6 \pm 8.1$	128	$69.7 \pm 8.6$	138	$69.7 \pm 8.9$
Parkinson's disease	CA (CC)	NGRC	3986	3986	1346	$67.2 \pm 10.5$	654	$67.3 \pm 11.0$	769	$70.7 \pm 13.9$	1217	$70.1 \pm 14.2$
Parkinson's disease	CA (CC)	PDRD+GRU	1767	1767	537	$70.5 \pm 9.3$	363	$70.2 \pm 10.0$	346	$53.5 \pm 15.7$	521	$55.2 \pm 11.2$
Parkinson's disease	CA (CC)	lng_coriell_pd	1741	1741	560	$66.3 \pm 10.9$	380	$65.9 \pm 11.2$	336	$62.3 \pm 14.4$	465	$56.0 \pm 17.2$

In the family data, only the affected and unaffected offspring are listed. Data set names refer to dbGaP.

*n*, sample size; yrs, years; CC, case–control sample; Fam, family sample. EA, European-American; AA, African-American; EAu, European-Australian; CA, Caucasian; ADHD, attention deficit hyperactivity disorder; ALS, amyotrophic lateral sclerosis. [GenADA: Li *et al.* Arch Neurol. 2008; 65(1):45–53; Filippini *et al.* Neuroimage. 2009;44(3):724–728. AGP: The AGP Consortium. Nature. 2010;466(7204):368–372; Human Molecular Genetics. 2010;19(20):4072–4082; Nature Genetics. 2007;39(3):319–328].

Table 2. Associations between ADH gene cluster and different neuropsychiatric or neurological disorders

						Affected		Unaffected		NC 1	CNID //	CNID //
Human disease	Ethnicity	Data set name	dbGaP#	Most sig. SNP	Gene	n	MAF	n	MAF	Minimal <i>P</i> -value	SNP # (total)	SNP # (P < 0.05)
Alcohol dependence	EA (CC)	SAGE+COGA	phs000092.v1.p1	rs1596180	ADH7	1409	0.018	1518	0.007	0.0009	343	9
Alcohol dependence	AA (CC)	SAGE+COGA	phs000092.v1.p1	rs114618736	ADH1C	681	0.018	508	0.006	0.0108	486	6
Alcohol dependence	EAu (Fam)	OZ-ALC	phs000181.v1.p1	rs11733695	ADH6	1633	0.042	1633	0.105	0.0353	385	2
Major depression	CA (CC)	PRSC	phs000020.v2.p1	rs7690269	ADH7	1805	0.019	1820	0.009	0.0004	341	16
Bipolar disorder	EA (CC)	BDO+GRU	phs000017.v3.p1	rs6532797	ADH4	368	0.043	1034	0.021	0.0072	215	10
Bipolar disorder	EA (CC)	BARD+GRU	phs000017.v3.p1	rs1391088	ADH1C	653	0.060	1034	0.038	0.0224	250	7
Bipolar disorder	AA (CC)	BARD+GRU	phs000017.v3.p1	rs283417	ADH1C	141	0.029	671	0.008	0.0094	193	2
Schizophrenia	AA (CC)	GAIN	phs000021.v3.p2	rs4699743	ADH1C	1195	0.013	954	0.030	0.0086	276	11
Schizophrenia	EA (CC)	GAIN	phs000021.v3.p2	rs60652198	ADH4	1351	0.041	1378	0.027	0.0165	277	4
Schizophrenia	EA (CC)	nonGAIN	phs000167.v1.p1	rs71612689	ADH7	1437	0.004	1347	0.000	0.0220	354	5
Schizophrenia	AA (CC)	nonGAIN	phs000167.v1.p1	rs76919634	ADH6	98	0.008	20	0.045	0.2905	35	0
Autism	EA (Fam)	AGP	phs000267.v1.p1	rs62325239	ADH5	1330	0.003	1330	0.002	0.0141	361	44
ADHD	CA (Fam)	IMAGE	phs000016.v2.p2	rs1442483	ADH7	924	0.017	924	0.059	0.0039	356	9
Alzheimer's Disease	CA (Fam)	$LOAD \times 4$	phs000168.v1.p1	rs116192122	ADH4	2298	0.012	2298	0.002	0.0030	356	10
Alzheimer's disease	EA (CC)	GenADA	phs000219.v1.p1	rs35361391	ADH4	806	0.034	782	0.009	0.0162	267	18
ALS	CA (CC)	GRU	phs000101.v3.p1	rs115081066	ADH4	261	0.006	246	0.033	0.0017	334	7
Early Onset Stroke	EA (CC)	$GEOS \times 3$	phs000292.v1.p1	rs1596180	ADH1B	372	0.019	430	0.003	0.0048	301	8
Early onset stroke	AA (CC)	$GEOS \times 3$	phs000292.v1.p1	rs114188790	ADH1C	309	0.081	290	0.036	0.0026	451	48
Ischemic stroke	CA (CC)	ISGS	phs000102.v1.p1	rs72681936	ADH7	219	0.078	266	0.034	0.0202	348	6
Parkinson's disease	CA (CC)	NGRC	phs000196.v2.p1	rs78304974	ADH1B	2000	0.007	1986	0.002	0.0089	341	7
Parkinson's disease	CA (CC)	PDRD+GRU	phs000126.v1.p1	rs1693457	ADH7	900	0.029	867	0.048	0.0129	360	25
Parkinson's disease	CA (CC)	lng_coriell_pd	phs000089.v3.p2	rs28472487	ADH7	940	0.026	801	0.043	0.0260	354	11

Only the most significant risk markers are listed; in family-based cohorts, N = sample size of affected offspring; "affected MAF" = "transmitted MAF", "unaffected MAF" = "untransmitted MAF" in offspring. Data set names refer to dbGaP. COGA data set access number is phs000125.v1.p1. MAF, minor allele frequency; *n*, CC, Fam, EA, AA, EAu, CA, ADHD and ALS: also see Table 1. The corrected  $\alpha$  was  $2.1 \times 10^{-5}$  (European) and  $1.5 \times 10^{-5}$  (African), respectively.

also excluded. The SNPs with MAF = 0 in either cases or controls were excluded, because it could not be determined if they were missed during the imputation process or truly

non-polymorphic in nature in some phenotype groups. Finally, only a total of 870 SNPs with 0<MAF<0.05 in either cases or controls were extracted for association analysis

Table 3. P-values for associations between rare variant constellations and diseases

Diseases	Ethnicity	Data set name	Tests	MAF upper bound	ADH cluster	ADH1A	ADH1B	ADH1C	ADH4	ADH5	ADH6	ADH7
Alcohol dependence	EA	SAGE+COGA	Fp	0.01	0.045	0.231	0.979	0.591	0.085	0.725	0.008	0.076
Alcohol dependence	EA	SAGE+COGA	Fp	0.05	0.707	0.929	0.965	0.210	0.893	0.965	0.655	0.650
Alcohol dependence	EA	SAGE+COGA	νT	Variable	0.089	0.239	0.887	0.877	0.329	0.986	0.010	0.138
Alcohol dependence	EA	SAGE+COGA	Collapsing	0.05	0.542	0.827	0.943	0.197	0.693	0.847	0.479	0.568
Alcohol dependence	EAu	OZ-ALC	Fp	0.01	0.206	0.092	0.509	0.056	0.645	0.765	0.397	0.195
Alcohol dependence	EAu	OZ-ALC	Fp	0.05	0.027	0.635	0.025	0.034	0.315	0.480	0.449	0.009
Alcohol dependence	EAu	OZ-ALC	νT	Variable	0.055	0.396	0.103	0.023	0.344	0.797	0.030	0.047
Alcohol dependence	EAu	OZ-ALC	Collapsing	0.05	0.038	0.851	0.016	0.038	0.335	0.482	0.472	0.005
Alcohol dependence	AA	SAGE+COGA	Fp	0.01	0.543	0.941	0.795	0.452	0.492	0.447	0.496	0.889
Alcohol dependence	AA	SAGE+COGA	Fp	0.05	0.050	0.784	0.723	0.151	0.077	0.121	0.051	0.491
Alcohol dependence	AA	SAGE+COGA	νT	Variable	0.226	0.822	0.854	0.563	0.273	0.173	0.099	0.981
Alcohol dependence	AA	SAGE+COGA	Collapsing	0.05	0.038	0.555	0.861	0.139	0.051	0.069	0.056	0.581
Major depression	CA	PRSC	Fp	0.01	0.307	0.643	0.282	0.339	0.765	0.646	0.040	0.697
Major depression	CA	PRSC	Fp	0.05	0.107	0.349	0.319	0.856	0.123	0.071	0.294	0.675
Major depression	CA	PRSC	νT	Variable	0.557	0.198	0.678	0.496	0.607	0.314	0.302	0.133
Major depression	CA	PRSC	Collapsing	0.05	0.108	0.336	0.359	0.770	0.106	0.072	0.361	0.621

MAF, minor allele frequency; Fp1, Fp5 and VT, association tests using SCORE-Seq; Collapsing, association test using ARIEL; EA, EAu, AA, CA and data set names refer to Table 1. Significant *P*-values are bold.

(Supplementary data, Table A1). The cleaned sample sizes, cleaned SNP numbers, ethnicity, diagnosis, dbGaP access numbers and data set name abbreviations of these samples are shown in Tables 1 and 2.

#### Association tests for region-wide rare variant constellations

Synthetic effects of region-wide rare variant constellations may be more significant than individual rare variants in some specific gene regions on disease phenotypes. These effects were tested using a score-type program, SCORE-Seq (Lin and Tang, 2011). The mutation information was aggregated by virtue of a weighted linear combination across all rare variants of the entire ADH gene cluster or across each ADH gene region, and then related to disease phenotypes using appropriate regression models. Sex, age, alcohol drinking and the first 10 principal components served as the covariates in the regression models. Principal component scores for each individual were estimated using the program EIGENSTRAT (Price et al., 2006). The first 10 principal components explained >95% of variance in our samples. Two fixed MAF threshold with flexible weight tests (Fp1: MAF <0.01; Fp5: MAF <0.05) and one variable threshold with fixed weight test (VT test: MAF < 0.05) were performed to derive the global P-values from these regression models (Table 3). In Fp tests, the weight was 1/sqrt(p(1-p)) where P was the estimated MAF with pseudo counts in the pooled sample. In VT test, the weight was 1 when MAF <threshold and 0 otherwise, where the threshold varied between 0 and 0.05. Statistical significance was assessed by resampling 1 million times (Lin and Tang, 2011). Additionally, we used ARIEL (Asimit et al., 2012), a regression-based collapsing approach that incorporates variant quality scores, to confirm the tests by SCORE-Seq. All association analyses were performed within the same ethnicity.

#### Association tests for individual rare variants

For case–control samples, the allele frequencies of each SNP were compared between cases and controls using logistic regression analysis as implemented in PLINK (Purcell *et al.*, 2007). Diagnosis served as the dependent variable, alleles

served as the independent variables and sex, age, alcohol drinking and the first 10 principal components served as the covariates. For family samples, we tested the allele-disease associations using the program Family-Based Association Test (Horvath *et al.*, 2001). The MAFs and *P*-values of the most significant risk SNPs and the numbers of the nominally significant risk SNPs (P < 0.05) in all samples are shown in Table 2.

# *Correction for multiple testing in single-point association tests*

The experiment-wide significance levels ( $\alpha$ ) were corrected for the numbers of cohorts (i.e. 22) and the numbers of effective markers that were calculated by the program SNPSpD (Li and Ji, 2005), which is an adjusted Bonferroni correction taking the linkage disequilibrium structure into account. Approximately, 110 and 150 effective SNPs captured most of the information of all rare variants across the entire *ADH* gene cluster in cohorts of European and African descent, respectively. Thus, the corrected significance levels ( $\alpha$ ) for single-point association tests were set at  $2.1 \times 10^{-5}$  in cohorts of European descent and  $1.5 \times 10^{-5}$  in cohorts of African descent, respectively.

#### RESULTS

The rare variant constellation across the entire ADH gene cluster was specifically associated with alcohol dependence in European-Americans [Fp1: global P = 0.045; 108 variants (SNPs) with 2067 minor alleles], European-Australians (Fp5: global P = 0.027; Collapsing P = 0.038; 388 variants with 92,429 minor alleles) and African-Americans (Fp5: global P = 0.050; Collapsing P = 0.038; 486 variants with 20,513 minor alleles), but not with any other neuropsychiatric disease (P > 0.10). In testing the rare variant constellations within each individual gene region, several results were obtained. First, the ADH6 variant constellation was significantly associated alcohol dependence with in European-Americans (Fp1: P = 0.008; VT: P = 0.010; 10 variants with 155 minor alleles), European-Australians (VT: P = 0.030; 49 variants with 10,546 minor alleles) and African-Americans (Fp5: P = 0.051; Collapsing P = 0.056; 85 variants with 4529 minor alleles). Second, the ADH7 variant constellation was significantly associated with in European-Australians alcohol dependence (Fp5: P = 0.009; VT: P = 0.047; Collapsing P = 0.005; 98 variants with 20,280 minor alleles), and suggestively in European-Americans (Fp1: P = 0.076; 22 variants with 348 minor alleles). Third, the ADH1B and ADH1C variant constellations were modestly associated with alcohol dependence in European-Australians (for ADH1B: Fp5: P = 0.025 and collapsing: P = 0.016; for ADH1C: Fp1: P = 0.056, Fp5: P = 0.034, VT: P = 0.023 and collapsing: P = 0.038), but not in European-Americans and African-Americans (P > 0.10;Table 3). Additionally, single-point association analysis showed that, of a total of 343 individual rare variants in European-Americans, 9 SNPs were nominally associated with alcohol dependence (P < 0.05), the most significant of which (rs1596180, at 5 of ADH7) was suggestively associated with alcohol dependence (P = 0.0009; Table 2).

The rare variant constellation across the *ADH6* gene region was also modestly associated with major depression in Caucasians (Fp1: P = 0.040; 10 variants with 307 minor alleles). This association turned out to be non-significant after correction for multiple testing. Furthermore, among a total of 341 individual rare variants in Caucasians, 16 SNPs were nominally associated with major depression (P < 0.05), the most significant of which (rs7690269, at 5 of *ADH7*) was suggestively associated with major depression (OR = 2.16; P = 0.0004). This rs7690269 was also the most significant one among all 22 cohorts. Finally, no individual variants were statistically significantly associated with any disease examined after group- and region-wide correction ( $P > \alpha$ ), including alcohol dependence and major depression (Table 2).

#### DISCUSSION

We found that rare *ADH* variant constellations were specific for alcohol dependence. In particular, a rare *ADH6* variant constellation showed replicable association with alcohol dependence across three independent cohorts of European or African descent. Additionally, *ADH7*, *ADH1B* and *ADH1C* variant constellations might also be implicated in the risk for alcohol dependence. We speculate that the *ADH* gene cluster may harbor a causal variant(s) for alcohol dependence.

Searching the entire ADH cluster, we found no individual rare variants which were statistically significantly associated with any disease examined (including alcohol dependence) after group- and region-wide correction for multiple comparisons. Our study provides an additional example to support the hypothesis that the synthetic effects of region-wide rare variant constellations may be more significant than individual rare variants on disease phenotypes. Using multiple cohorts with large sample sizes, we found that rare ADH variant constellations were specific for alcohol dependence, but not associated with any other disease, which was consistent with previous reports (Luo et al., 2006) and with the fact that the ADH enzymes are mainly distributed in the liver, but only partly distributed in the central nervous system. Although the synthetic effects of rare ADH variants on alcohol dependence seemed to be modest in the present study, these effects appeared to be highly significant when compared with those on other 'non-alcohol dependence' neuropsychiatric disorders.

When testing each gene region, we detected modest associations between rare *ADH1B* and *ADH1C* variant constellations and alcohol dependence in European-Australians. The variants in these two genes may influence the risk of alcohol dependence via ethanol metabolism pathways, which is wellknown by numerous studies. However, these associations were not strong and not replicated in other populations in the present study. They remained to be confirmed in the future.

More robust associations were detected between ADH6 variants and alcohol dependence, which was replicable in three cohorts. Alteration of ADH6 enzyme activity caused by ADH6 variants may influence the ethanol metabolism as introduced above, and thus may influence the human drinking behavior and the risk for alcohol dependence. Alternatively, the retinol metabolism pathway or other non-ethanol metabolism pathways introduced above may be other possible mechanisms underlying the associations between ADH6 variant constellation and alcohol dependence, and possibly the suggestive association between ADH6 variant constellation and major depression as well. Similarly, these mechanisms might also underlie the suggestive associations between the rare ADH7 variant constellation and alcohol dependence and between individual ADH7 variants and major depression.

#### SUPPLEMENTARY DATA

Supplementary data are available at *Alcohol and Alcoholism* online.

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Conflict of interest statement. J.H.K. has been a paid consultant for Aisling Capital, LLC, AstraZeneca Pharmaceuticals, Brintnall & Nicolini, Inc., Easton Associates, Gilead Sciences, Inc., GlaxoSmithKline, Janssen Pharmaceuticals, Lundbeck Research USA, Medivation, Inc., Merz Pharmaceuticals, MK Medical Communications, F. Hoffmann-La Roche Ltd, SK Holdings Co., Ltd, Sunovion Pharmaceuticals, Inc., Takeda Industries and Teva Pharmaceutical Industries, Ltd. He serves as a member of Scientific Advisory Boards for Abbott Laboratories, Bristol-Myers Squibb, Eisai, Inc., Eli Lilly and Co., Forest Laboratories, Inc., Lohocla Research Corporation, Mnemosyne Pharmaceuticals, Inc., Naurex, Inc., Pfizer Pharmaceuticals and Shire Pharmaceuticals. He is the Editor for Biological Psychiatry, a member of Board of Directors of Coalition for Translational Research in Alcohol and Substance Use Disorders, and the President Elect for American College of Neuropsychopharmacology. He also gets support from Tetragenex Pharmaceuticals. Additionally, H.Z. has been a paid consultant for Eisai, Inc. Other authors have no conflict of interest.

See Letters to the Editor (p.129) for a response to this article.

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