KLB is associated with alcohol drinking, and its gene product - Klotho is necessary for FGF21 regulation of alcohol preference

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Excessive alcohol consumption is a major public health problem worldwide. While drinking habits are known to be inherited, few genes have been identified that are robustly linked to alcohol drinking. We conducted a genome-wide association meta-analysis and replication study among >105,000 individuals of European ancestry, and identified β-Klotho (KLB) as a locus associated with alcohol consumption (rs11940694; \( P = 9.2 \times 10^{-12} \)). β-Klotho is an obligate co-receptor for the hormone FGF21, which is secreted from the liver and implicated in macronutrient preference in man. We show that brain-specific β-Klotho knock-out mice have an increased alcohol preference and that FGF21 inhibits alcohol drinking by acting on the brain. These data suggest that a liver-brain endocrine axis may play an important role in the regulation of alcohol drinking behavior and provide a unique pharmacologic target for reducing alcohol consumption.

**Alcohol consumption**  |  β-Klotho  |  FGF21  |  mouse model  |  human

**Introduction**
Excessive alcohol consumption is a major public health problem worldwide causing an estimated 3.3 million deaths in 2012 (1). Much of the behavioral research associated with alcohol has focused on alcohol-dependent patients. However, the burden of alcohol-associated disease largely reflects the amount of alcohol consumption in a population, not alcohol dependence (2). It has long been recognized that small shifts in the mean of a continuously distributed behavior such as alcohol drinking can have major public health benefits (3). For example, a shift from heavy to moderate drinking could have beneficial effects on cardiovascular disease risk (4).

Alcohol drinking is a heritable complex trait (5). Genetic variants in the alcohol and aldehyde dehydrogenase gene family can result in alcohol intolerance caused by altering peripheral alcohol metabolism, and may thus influence alcohol consumption and dependence (6). However, genetic influences on brain functions affecting drinking behavior have been more difficult to detect because, as for many complex traits, the effect of individual genes is small, so large sample sizes are required to detect the genetic signal (7).

Here we report a genome-wide association (GWAS) and replication study of over 100,000 individuals of European descent. We identify a gene variant in β-Klotho (KLB) that associates with alcohol consumption. β-Klotho is a single-pass transmembrane protein that complexes with FGF receptors to form cell surface receptors for the hormones FGF19 and FGF21 (8, 9). FGF19 is induced by bile acids in the small intestine to regulate bile acid homeostasis and metabolism in the liver (9). FGF21 is induced in liver and released into the blood in response to various metabolic stresses, including high carbohydrate diets and alcohol (10-12). Notably, FGF21 was recently associated in a human GWAS study with macronutrient preference, including changes in carbohydrate, protein, and fat intake (13). Moreover, FGF21 was shown to suppress sweet and alcohol preference in mice (14, 15). Our current findings suggest that the FGF21-β-Klotho signaling pathway regulates alcohol consumption in humans.

**Results**
Association of KLB gene SNP rs11940694 with alcohol drinking in humans

We carried out a GWAS of quantitative data on alcohol intake in 70,460 individuals (60.9% women) of European descent from 30 cohorts. We followed up the most significantly associated SNPs (six sentinel SNPs \( P < 1.0 \times 10^{-8} \) from independent regions) among up to 35,438 individuals from 14 additional cohorts (Dataset S1; and Appendix 1). We analyzed both continuous data on daily alcohol intake in drinkers (as g/day, log transformed) and a dichotomous variable of heavy versus light or no drinking (Dataset S1).

Average alcohol intake in drinkers across the samples was 14.0 g/day in men and 6.0 g/day in women. We performed per cohort sex-specific and combined-sex single SNP regression analyses under an additive genetic model, and conducted meta-analysis across the sex-specific strata and cohorts using an inverse variance weighted fixed effects model.

Results of the primary GWAS for log g/day alcohol are shown in Figures 1 and S1, Dataset S2. We identified five SNPs for replication at \( P < 1.0 \times 10^{-8} \): rs11940694 in the KLB gene, rs197273 in TANK, rs780949 in GCKR, rs350721 in ASB3 and rs10950202 in AUTS2 (Table 1, Dataset S2). In addition to rs10950202 in AUTS2 (\( P = 2.9 \times 10^{-7} \)), we took forward SNP rs943555 in AUTS2 (\( P = 1.4 \times 10^{-8} \)), which was previously reported in relation to alcohol drinking (7). In both men and women the newly discovered SNPs were all significantly associated with log g/day alcohol at \( P < 0.005 \) (Table S1). When combining discovery and replication data, we observed genome-wide significance for SNP rs11940694 (A/G) in KLB (\( P = 9.2 \times 10^{-12} \) (Table 1 and Figure S1), for which the minor allele A was associated with reduced drinking. KLB is localized on human chromosome 4p14 and encodes a transmembrane protein, β-Klotho, which is an essential component of receptors for FGF19 and FGF21 (8, 9). Rs197273 in the TRAF family member-associated NF-kappa-B activator gene (TANK) narrowly missed reaching genome-wide significance in the combined sample (Table 1, \( P = 4.4 \times 10^{-8} \)). In the dichotomous analysis of the primary GWAS, SNP rs12509112 in the Cadherin 13 gene (CDH13) and rs10927848 in the Transmembrane protein 82 gene (TMEM82) were significant at \( P = 2.3 \times 10^{-8} \) and \( P = 2.6 \times 10^{-7} \), respectively (Figure S2, Table S2 and Dataset S2), but did not reach genome wide significance in the combined analysis (Table S2).

SNP rs11940694 is localized in intron 1 of the KLB gene. The local linkage disequilibrium (LD) structure of the KLB gene is shown in Figure S3. The minor allele frequencies of this SNP were generally high (between 0.37 and 0.44) in different ethnic groups (Table S3). We found no significant association of rs11940694 with gene expression in peripheral blood of 5,236 participants of the Framingham Study (Table S4; 16).

**β-Klotho in the brain controls alcohol drinking in mice**

Significance

Alcohol is a widely consumed drug in western societies that can lead to addiction. A small shift in consumption can have dramatic consequences on public health. We performed the largest genome-wide association meta-analysis and replication study to date (>105,000 individuals) and identified a new genetic basis for alcohol consumption during non-addictive drinking. We found a locus in the gene encoding β-Klotho (KLB) is associated with alcohol consumption. β-Klotho is an essential receptor component for the endocrine fibroblast growth factors (FGFs) 19 and 21. Using mouse models and pharmacologic administration of FGF21, we demonstrate that β-Klotho in the brain controls alcohol drinking. These findings reveal a mechanism regulating alcohol consumption in humans that may be pharmacologically tractable for reducing alcohol intake.
Table 1. Associations of single nucleotide polymorphisms* with alcohol intake (log g/day) in the genome-wide association analysis (GWAS).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SNP</th>
<th>Chr</th>
<th>Position (hg 19)</th>
<th>Nearest gene</th>
<th>Effect / other alleles</th>
<th>EAF# Discovery GWAS</th>
<th>Replication</th>
<th>Combined</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>rs780094</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>27741237</td>
<td>GCKR</td>
<td>T/C</td>
<td>0.40</td>
<td>Beta (SE)</td>
<td>P-value</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3.6x10^-3</td>
<td></td>
<td>P=0.0035</td>
<td>0.238</td>
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<td>52980427</td>
<td>ASB3</td>
<td>C/G</td>
<td>0.18</td>
<td>0.0206</td>
<td>3.2x10^-3</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(0.0026)</td>
<td></td>
<td>(0.0040)</td>
<td>(0.0026)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rs197273</td>
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<td>16187466</td>
<td>TANK</td>
<td>A/G</td>
<td>0.49</td>
<td>-0.141</td>
<td>9.8x10^-4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(0.0026)</td>
<td></td>
<td>(0.0027)</td>
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<td>rs11940694</td>
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<td>39414993</td>
<td>KLB</td>
<td>A/G</td>
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<td>-0.0137</td>
<td>3.2x10^-4</td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td>(0.0027)</td>
<td></td>
<td>(0.0027)</td>
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<tr>
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<td>69806023</td>
<td>AUTS2</td>
<td>A/T</td>
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<td>-0.0115</td>
<td>1.4x10^-4</td>
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<tr>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(0.0030)</td>
<td></td>
<td>(0.0030)</td>
<td>(0.0030)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rs10950202</td>
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<td>69930098</td>
<td>AUTS2</td>
<td>G/C</td>
<td>0.16</td>
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<td>2.9x10^-3</td>
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<td></td>
<td>(0.0038)</td>
<td></td>
<td>(0.0042)</td>
<td>(0.0042)</td>
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</table>

* One SNP with smallest P-value taken forward per region
# Effect Allele Frequency, in Discovery GWAS

Fig. 1. Genome-wide association results of log g/day alcohol in AlcGen and CHARGE+ consortia. (A) Manhattan plot showing the significance of the association (-log10 transformed P value on the y axis) for each SNP at chromosomal position shown on the x axis. The dotted line represents the genome-wide significance level at P=5x10^-8. The genes that were followed up are labelled. (B) Quantile-quantile plot comparing the expected P value on the x axis and the observed P value on the y axis (both were -log10 transformed).

To examine whether β-Klotho affects alcohol drinking in mice, and whether it does so through actions in the brain, we measured alcohol intake and the alcohol preference ratio of brain-specific β-Klotho-knockout (KlbCamk2a(fl/fl)) mice and control floxed Klb (Klb(fl/+)) mice. We used a voluntary two-bottle drinking assay performed with water and alcohol. Since we previously showed that FGF21-transgenic mice, which express FGF21 at pharmacologic levels, have a reduced alcohol preference (14), we performed these studies while administering either recombinant FGF21 or vehicle by osmotic minipump. Alcohol preference versus water was significantly increased in vehicle-treated KlbCamk2a mouse compared to Klb(fl/+), mice at 16 vol. % alcohol (Fig. 2A). FGF21 suppressed alcohol preference in Klb(fl/+), mice, but not in KlbCamk2a demonstrating that the effect of FGF21 on alcohol drinking depends on β-Klotho expressed in the brain (Fig. 2A). There was a corresponding decrease in plasma alcohol levels immediately after 16 vol. % alcohol drinking, which reflects the modulation of the drinking behavior (Fig. 2B). However, plasma FGF21 levels were comparable in Klb(fl/) and KlbCamk2a mice administered recombinant FGF21 at the end of the experiment (Fig. 2C). Alcohol bioavailability was not different between FGF21 treated Klb(fl/) and KlbCamk2a mice (Fig. 2D). We have previously shown that FGF21 decreases the sucrose and saccharin preference ratio in Klb(fl/) but not KlbCamk2a mice, and has no effect on the quinine preference ratio (14). To rule out a potential perturbation of our findings as a result of the experimental procedure, we independently measured preference and consumption of 16 vol. % alcohol in Klb(fl/) and KlbCamk2a mice without osmotic minipump implantation. Again, KlbCamk2a mice showed significantly greater alcohol consumption and increased alcohol preference compared to Klb(fl/) mice (Fig. 2E and F), thus replicating our findings above. Alcohol bioavailability after an intraperitoneal injection was not different between Klb(fl/) and KlbCamk2a mice after 1 and 3 hours (Fig. 2G).

β-Klotho in brain does not regulate emotional behavior in mice

Increased alcohol drinking in humans and mice may be motivated by its reward properties or as a means to relieve anxiety...
Fig. 2. FGF21 reduces alcohol preference in mice by acting on β-Klotho in brain. (A) Alcohol preference ratios determined by two-bottle preference assays with water and the indicated ethanol concentrations for control (Klb<sup>fl/fl</sup>) and brain-specific β-Klotho knockout (KlbCamk2a) mice administered either FGF21 (0.7 mg/kg/day) or vehicle (n=10/group). (B) Plasma ethanol and (C) FGF21 concentrations at the end of the 16% ethanol step of the two-bottle assay. (D) Plasma ethanol concentrations 1 and 3 hours after i.p. injection of 2 g/kg alcohol (n=4/each group). (E) Consumption of 16% ethanol (g/kg/d) and (F) alcohol preference ratios in two-bottle preferences assays performed with control (Klb<sup>fl/fl</sup>) and brain-specific β-Klotho-knockout (KlbCamk2a) mice. Alcohol preference was measured by volume of ethanol/total volume of fluid consumed (n=13/group). Values are means ± S.E.M. For (A-C), *p<0.05; **p<0.01; ***p<0.001 for Klb<sup>fl/fl</sup> + vehicle versus Klb<sup>fl/fl</sup> + FGF21 groups; and ###p<0.001 for Klb<sup>fl/fl</sup> + FGF21 versus KlbCamk2a + FGF21 groups as determined by one-way ANOVA followed by Tukey’s post-tests. For (E, F), *p<0.05 and **p<0.01.

Fig. 3. Behavior tests in brain-specific β-Klotho knockout mice. Results from (A) novelty suppressed feeding, (B) elevated plus maze and (C) open field activity assays performed with control (Klb<sup>fl/fl</sup>) and brain-specific β-Klotho-knockout (KlbCamk2a) mice (n=15/each group). Values are the time (seconds) spent for each step of the assay.

and stress (17). In mice, FGF21 increases corticotropin-releasing hormone expression in hypothalamus, circulating glucocorticoid concentrations and sympathetic outflow (18-20), which are linked to heightened anxiety. We therefore tested Klb<sup>ββ</sup> and KlbCamk2a mice in behavioral paradigms measuring anxiety, including novelty suppressed feeding (Fig. 3A), elevated plus maze (Fig. 3B),
and open field activity tests (Fig. 3C). However, we did not find differences between $Klb^{β−}$ and $Klb^{Camk2a}$ mice in any of these anxiety measures or in general locomotor activity. Our finding of increased alcohol preference in $Klb^{Camk2a}$ mice may thus be caused by alteration of alcohol-associated reward mechanisms. While this notion is consistent with our previous results showing $Klb$ expression in areas important for alcohol reinforcement, specifically the nucleus accumbens and the ventral tegmental area (14), additional studies will be required to determine precisely where in the brain and how $β$-Klotho affects alcohol drinking.

Discussion

Here we report that in a GWAS performed in over 100,000 individuals, SNP rs119406094 in $KLB$ associates with alcohol consumption in non-addicts. We further show that mice lacking $β$-Klotho in the brain have increased alcohol consumption and are refractory to the inhibitory effect of FGF21 on alcohol consumption. These findings reveal a previously unrecognized brain pathway regulating alcohol consumption in humans that may prove pharmacologically tractable for suppressing alcohol drinking.

FGF21 is induced in liver by simple sugars through a mechanism involving the transcription factor carbohydrate response element-binding protein (18, 19). FGF21 in turn acts on brain to suppress sweet preference (14, 15). Thus, FGF21 is part of a liver-brain feedback loop that limits the consumption of simple sugars. Notably, FGF21 is also strongly induced in liver by alcohol and contributes to alcohol-induced adipose tissue lipolysis in a mouse model of chronic-binge alcohol consumption (12). Our present data suggest the existence of an analogous feedback loop wherein liver-derived FGF21 acts on brain to limit the consumption of alcohol. However, additional studies will be required to establish the existence of this FGF21 pathway in vivo.

In murine brain, there is evidence that FGF21 suppresses sweet preference through effects on the paraventricular nucleus in the hypothalamus (15). Among its actions in the hypothalamus, FGF21 induces corticotropin-releasing hormone (18, 19), which is a strong modulator of alcohol consumption (23). Notably, $β$-Klotho is also present in mesolimbic regions of the brain that regulate reward behavior, including the ventral tegmental area and nucleus accumbens, and FGF21 administration reduced tissue levels of dopamine and its metabolites in the nucleus accumbens (14). Thus, FGF21 may act coordinately on multiple brain regions to regulate the consumption of both simple sugars and alcohol.

In closing, our data linking $β$-Klotho to alcohol consumption together with previous GWAS data linking FGF21 to macronutrient preference also raise the intriguing possibility of a liver-brain endocrine axis that plays an important role in the regulation of complex adaptive behaviors, including alcohol drinking. While our findings support an important role for the $KLB$ gene in the regulation of alcohol drinking, we cannot rule out the possibility that $KLB$ rs11940694 acts by affecting neighboring genes. Therefore additional genetic and mechanistic studies are warranted. Finally, it will be important to follow up on our findings in more severe forms of alcohol drinking, since our results suggest that this pathway could be targeted pharmacologically for reducing the desire for alcohol.

Methods

Alcohol phenotypes

Alcohol intake in grams of alcohol per day was estimated by each cohort based on information about drinking frequency and type of alcohol consumed. For cohorts that collected data in ‘drinks per week,’ standard drink sizes differed from the standard. For cohorts that collected alcohol use in grams of ethanol per week, the numbers were divided by 7 directly into ‘grams per day.’ Cohorts with only a categorical response to the question for drinks per week used mid-points of each category for the calculation. Non-drinkers (individuals reporting zero drinks per week) were removed from the analysis. The ‘grams per day’ variable was then transformed prior to the analysis. Sex-specific residuals were derived by regressing alcohol in log_{10} (grams per day) in a linear model on age, age-square, weight, and if applicable, study site and principal components to account for population structure. The sex-specific residuals were pooled and used as the main phenotype for subsequent analyses of alcohol drinking as well as $β$-Klotho expression in areas important for alcohol reinforcement.

Dichotomous alcohol phenotype was created based on categorization of ‘drinks per week’ variable. Heavy drinking was defined as $>21$ drinks per week in women and $>42$ drinks per week in men. Light drinking was defined if male participants had $<14$ drinks per week, or female participants had $<7$ drinks per week. Drinkers having $>14$ to $<21$ drinks for men, or $>7$ to $<14$ drinks for women were excluded. Where information was available, current non-drinkers of men who were former drinkers of $>14$ drinker per week, and $>7$ drinks per week in women, as well as current non-drinker who was a former drinker of unknown amount were excluded; whereas current non-drinkers who were former drinkers of $<14$ for men or $<7$ for women were included. Further exclusion was made if there were missing data on alcohol consumption or on the covariates.

The analyses only included participants of European origin and were performed in accordance with the principles expressed in the Declaration of Helsinki. Each cohort’s study protocol was reviewed and approved by their respective institutional review board and informed consent was obtained from all study subjects.

Discovery GWAS in AlcGen and CHARGE+ and replication analyses

Genotyping methods are summarized in Dataset S1B, S1C and S1F. SNPs were excluded if: HWE $p$-value $>1×10^{-6}$ or based on cohort-specific criteria; MAF $<1%$; SNPs with genotyping call-rate $<0.85$; or if results were only available from 2 or fewer cohorts, or total N $<10,000$. Population structure was accounted for within cohorts via principal components analysis (PCA). Linkage disequilibrium (LD) score expansion was used to examine the degree of inflation in test statistics, and genomic control correction was considered unnecessary (MAF,0.01 and intercept=1.00; λA=99 to 1.06 for individual cohorts, Dataset S1B and S1C). SNPs were taken forward for replication discovery GWAS if they passed the above criteria and if they had $P$-value $<1×10^{-6}$ (one SNP with the smallest $P$ value taken forward in each region, except for AUT72 for which two SNPs were taken forward based on previous results (7)). Meta-analyses were performed by METAL (25) or R (v3.2.2).

Gene expression profiling in Framingham study

In the Framingham study, gene expression profiling was undertaken on a total of 5,826 participants from the Offspring (N=2,446) at examination eight and the Third Generation (N=3,180) at examination two. Fasting peripheral whole blood samples (2.5ml) were collected in PAXgene® tubes (PreAnalytIX, Hombrechtikon, Switzerland). RNA expression profiling was conducted using the Affymetrix Human Exon Array ST 1.0 (Affymetrix Inc., Santa Clara, CA) for samples that passed RNA quality control. The expression values for ~18,000 transcripts were obtained for replication from discovery GWAS if they passed the above criteria and if they had $P$-value $<1×10^{-6}$ (one SNP with the smallest $P$ value taken forward in each region, except for AUT72 for which two SNPs were taken forward based on previous results (7)). Meta-analyses were performed by dbGaP (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/gap; accession number phs0000007).

The cis-expression quantitative trait loci analysis in the Framingham study

To investigate possible effects of rs11940694 in KLB on gene expression, we performed cis-eQTL analysis. The cis-eQTL analysis variable in association analysis with the transcript of KLB measured using whole blood samples in the FHS (n=5,236). Affymetrix probe 2724308 was used to represent the KLB transcript. The effect sizes and effects and blood cell differentials were included as covariates in the association analysis. Linear mixed model was used to account for familial correlation in association analysis.

Mouse studies

All mouse experiments were approved by the Institutional Animal Care and Research Advisory Committee of the University of Texas Southwestern Medical Center. Male littermates (2 to 4-month-old) maintained on a 12 hr light/dark cycle with ad libitum access to chow diet (Harlan Teklad TD2916) were used for all experiments. The Klb gene was deleted from brain by crossing $Klb^{β−}$ mice with Camk2a-Cre mice on a mixed C57BL/6J:129sv background as described (26).

Alcohol drinking in mice

For voluntary two-bottle preference experiments, male mice (n=9-13 per group) were given access to two bottles, one containing water and the other containing 2% ethanol (v/v) in water. After acclimation to the two-bottle paradigm, mice were exposed to each concentration of ethanol for 4 days. Total fluid intake (water + ethanol-containing water), food intake and body weight were measured each day. Alcohol consumption (g) was calculated based on EOH density (0.789 g/ml). To obtain accurate alcohol intake that corrected for individual differences in littermate size, alcohol consumption was defined as the measure of relative alcohol preference. The preference ratio was calculated at each alcohol concentration by dividing total consumed alcohol solution (g) by total fluid volume. Two-bottle preference assays were also performed with sucrose (0.5% and 5%) and quinine (2% (v/v), 20 mg/dl) solutions. For real-time PCR, total RNA was isolated from brain tissue using the RNeasy Micro Kit (Qiagen). RNA expression profiling was conducted using the Affymetrix Human Exon Array v3.2.2.

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experiments, the positions of the two bottles were changed every two days to exclude position effects.  

Mouse experiments with FGFR21  

For FGFR21 administration studies, recombinant human FGFR21 protein provided by Novo Nordisk was administered at a dose of 0.7 mg/kg/day by subcutaneous osmotic mini-pumps (Alzet 1004Ai) to 12-week-old C57BL/6J mice following mini-pump surgery, which was conducted under isoflurane anesthesia and 24 hour buprenorphine analgesia. Mice were allowed to recover from mini-pump surgery for 4 days prior to alcohol drinking tests. After experiments, mice were sacrificed by decapitation and plasma was collected using EDTA or heparin after centrifugation for 15 minutes at 3000 rpm. Plasma FGFR21 concentrations were measured using the Biovendor FGFR21 ELISA Kit according to manufacturer’s protocol.  

Plasma ethanol concentration and clearance  

For alcohol bioavailability tests, mice (n=4-5 per group) were injected i.p. with alcohol (2.0 g/kg, 20% w/v) in saline, and tail vein blood was collected after 1 and 3 hours. Plasma alcohol concentrations were measured using the EnzyChrom™ Ethanol Assay Kit.  

Emotional behavior in mice  

For open field activity assays, naïve mice were placed in an open arena (44 x 44 cm, with the center defined as the middle 14 x 14 cm and the periphery defined as the area 5 cm from the wall), and the amount of time spent in the center versus along the walls and total distance traveled were measured. For elevated plus maze activity assays, mice were placed in the center of a plus maze with 2 dark enclosed arms and 2 open arms. Mice were allowed to move freely around the maze, and the total duration of time in each arm and the frequency to enter both the closed and open arms was measured. For novelty suppression of feeding assays, mice fasted for 12 hours were placed in a novel environment and the time to approach and eat a known food was measured.  

Statistical analysis  

All data are expressed as means ± S.E.M. Statistical analysis between groups was performed by unpaired two-tailed Student’s t test using Excel or GraphPad Prism (GraphPad Software, Inc.). For multiple comparisons, the two groups was performed by unpaired two-tailed Student’s t test using a known food was measured.

Acknowledgments  


References  

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