

1 **An Integrative Systems-based Analysis of Substance Use: eQTL-informed Gene-based**  
2 **Tests, Gene Networks, and Biological Mechanisms**

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49 **Abstract**

50 Genome-wide association studies have identified multiple genetic risk factors underlying  
51 susceptibility to substance use, however the functional genes and biological mechanisms  
52 remain poorly understood. The discovery and characterisation of risk genes can be facilitated  
53 by the integration of genome-wide association data and gene expression data across  
54 biologically relevant tissues and/or cell types to identify genes whose expression is altered by  
55 DNA sequence variation (expression quantitative trait loci; eQTLs). The integration of gene  
56 expression data can be extended to the study of genetic co-expression, under the biologically  
57 valid assumption that genes form co-expression networks to influence the manifestation of a  
58 disease or trait. Here, we integrate genome-wide association data with gene expression data  
59 from 13 brain tissues to identify candidate risk genes for 8 substance use phenotypes. We then  
60 test for the enrichment of candidate risk genes within tissue-specific gene co-expression  
61 networks to identify modules (or groups) of functionally related genes whose dysregulation is  
62 associated with variation in substance use. We identified six gene modules in brain that were  
63 enriched with gene-based association signals for substance use phenotypes. For example, a  
64 single module of 29 co-expressed genes was enriched with gene-based associations for  
65 smoking cessation and biological pathways involved in the immune response. Our study  
66 demonstrates the utility of eQTL and gene co-expression analysis to uncover novel biological  
67 mechanisms for substance use traits.

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73 **Introduction**

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75 Substance use is linked to hundreds of diseases and adverse societal outcomes (1). A reduction  
76 in the prevalence of substance use will therefore not only reduce the global burden of disease  
77 but reduce costs to individual sufferers, their families, and society. Substance use encompasses  
78 a range of behaviours (e.g. alcohol consumption, tobacco smoking, and cannabis use), each of  
79 which is moderately heritable with a highly polygenic background, where hundreds to  
80 thousands of genetic variants contribute to disease risk. Genome-wide association studies  
81 (GWAS) have identified hundreds of genomic regions that contain genetic risk variants (or  
82 single nucleotide polymorphisms [SNPs]) robustly associated with substance use traits,  
83 including, for example, alcohol use (2) and dependence (3) (SNP heritability [ $h^2_{\text{SNP}}$ ]: 9-12%),  
84 tobacco smoking (4) ( $h^2_{\text{SNP}}$ : 1-4%), and cannabis use ( $h^2_{\text{SNP}}$ : 11%) (5). However, the functional  
85 interpretation of these regions remains largely unknown due in part to the complex local  
86 correlation structure of the genome (linkage disequilibrium) and complex interaction patterns  
87 between genes, known as the “co-localisation problem” (6), making causal gene identification  
88 challenging. Single Nucleotide Polymorphisms, or genetic variants, may affect the expression  
89 of one or more genes or a broader network of genes within a disease relevant tissue or cell type  
90 (7). We and others have linked genetic variants to changes in gene expression, known as  
91 expression quantitative trait loci (eQTL), to identify individual risk genes as well as groups of  
92 correlated genes (risk modules) for mental health (8) and substance use disorders (9). The  
93 advantage of this approach is co-expressed genes can be causal for a trait without being  
94 influenced by the same genetic variant, thereby increasing the genomic search space for higher-  
95 order biological associations. In the present study, we will extend our earlier work (9) by  
96 generating gene co-expression modules characterized by correlated levels of gene expression.  
97 We will subsequently test for the enrichment of GWAS signals of 8 substance use traits within  
98 these co-expression modules.

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100 Different methods exist to integrate genetic and transcriptomic information with a primary  
101 distinction between studies that use single-variant approaches (i.e., evaluating the impact of a  
102 single variant on gene expression) (10) versus gene-based approaches that combine information  
103 across multiple SNPs (i.e., imputation of gene expression at a gene-based level) (11,12).  
104 Irrespective of the applied methodology, eQTL analyses are usually based on reference datasets  
105 in which genetic and transcriptomic information has been collected in disease-relevant tissues.

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110 For example, Genotype-Tissue Expression (GTEx) project (version 7) contains genotype data  
111 linked to gene expression across 53 tissues from 714 donors, including 13 brain tissues from  
112 216 donors. GTEx and other tissue-specific eQTL datasets represents a valuable resource with  
113 which to study gene expression and its relationship with genetic variation (13).

114

115 The integration of genetic variation and tissue-specific gene expression data has been used to  
116 prioritise functional gene candidates for substance use traits in disease-relevant tissues (i.e.  
117 brain tissue). For example, a secondary analysis of a nicotine dependence GWAS found an  
118 intronic SNP that regulates the expression of *DNMT3B* in brain (14), while a similar analysis  
119 of cannabis dependence found genetic variation associated with the expression of *CHRNA2* in  
120 brain (15). In many instances, the functional gene candidate was not the gene most proximate  
121 to the associated risk variant; a GWAS of alcohol consumption, for example, identified risk  
122 variants within the gene *KLB* that affected the expression of two distantly located genes *RCF1*  
123 and *RPL9* (16). Indeed, associations in which the nearest gene is not the functional candidate  
124 is widespread in substance use traits, where some 66% of trait associated eQTLs in GTEx  
125 targeted genes other than their most proximal gene (9).

126

127 While single-eQTL approaches have improved the functional annotation of individual SNPs,  
128 more recent approaches combine eQTL information across multiple SNPs in close proximity  
129 to a gene. These methods either impute gene expression levels using a reference dataset (11,12)  
130 or incorporate eQTL information within a gene-based test (17). We recently developed a gene-  
131 based test called eMAGMA, which performs gene-level testing by combining GWAS summary  
132 statistics, tissue-specific cis-eQTL information, and reference linkage disequilibrium data (8).  
133 eMAGMA and other gene-based approaches, such as S-PrediXcan which imputes genetically-  
134 regulated gene expression levels using GWAS summary statistics, are more powerful than  
135 single-eQTL annotation (18) and may integrate tissue-specific gene expression information for  
136 the discovery of pathogenic and/or surrogate tissues. For example, a gene-based analysis of six  
137 substance use traits reported altered genetically regulated gene expression in case samples, with  
138 many candidate risk genes either unique to brain or whole blood (9). These results suggest  
139 many regulatory effects for substance use traits manifest in a subset of disease-relevant tissues  
140 such as brain, however some effects may be shared across tissues and detected in other tissues  
141 with larger eQTL reference set samples sizes, such as whole blood. By collapsing multiple  
142 SNPs to individual functionally relevant genes, these approaches also facilitate the  
143 identification of shared mechanisms underlying substance use traits; gene-based analyses of

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151 lifetime cannabis use (5) and alcohol consumption (16) both identified *CADM2* as a candidate  
152 risk gene, suggesting shared mechanisms underlying these traits.

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154 Genetic studies suggest substance use is highly polygenic; many genes are likely to interact  
155 with one-another in complex tissue- or cell-type specific networks influence substance use risk.  
156 Gene co-expression network analysis describes the relationship between genes in terms of their  
157 pairwise correlation, where highly correlated genes may share a functional relationship (i.e.  
158 highly correlated genes are likely to be involved in the same biological process). A genetic  
159 perturbation that affects the expression of a single gene within co-expression network may  
160 therefore alter the activity of a wider set of genes. We recently applied this heuristic in a gene  
161 co-expression network analysis of major depression, and identified novel gene candidates and  
162 gene modules both associated with major depression and disease-relevant biological pathways  
163 (8).

164  
165 In the present study, we aim to improve our understanding of the biological mechanisms  
166 underlying 8 substance use phenotypes by exploring associations with co-expression networks  
167 derived from human brain samples. First, to identify candidate causal genes, we will integrate  
168 GWAS summary statistics for each phenotype with eQTL information from brain tissues in  
169 GTEx using a novel gene-based method called eMAGMA (17). Second, we will explore the  
170 gene-based overlap of associations across substance use phenotypes. Finally, we will use a  
171 gene co-expression network analysis to identify modules of genes enriched with gene-based  
172 association signals, before using biological pathway analysis to characterise the substance use  
173 risk modules.

174

## 175 **Methods**

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### 177 **The Genotype-Tissue Expression (GTEx) project**

178 Fully processed, filtered and normalised gene expression data for 13 brain tissues  
179 (Supplementary Table 1) were downloaded from the Genotype-Tissue Expression project  
180 portal (version 7) (<http://www.gtexportal.org>). Only genes with ten or more donors were  
181 included. Other inclusion criteria for expressed genes were expression estimates > 0.1 Reads  
182 Per Kilobase of transcript (RPKM) and an aligned read count of six or more within each tissue.  
183 Within each tissue, the distribution of RPKMs in each sample was quantile-transformed based

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187 on the average empirical distribution observed across all samples. Expression levels for each  
188 gene in each tissue were subsequently transformed to the quantiles of the standard normal  
189 distribution.

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### 191 **Genome-wide association study of substance use traits**

192 We downloaded GWAS summary statistics for 8 substance use traits (smoking age of initiation,  
193 cigarettes per day, drinks per week, smoking cessation, smoking initiation, alcohol use  
194 disorder, alcohol dependence, and lifetime cannabis use) listed in Table 1. Detailed methods,  
195 including a description of population cohorts, quality control of raw SNP genotype data, and  
196 association analyses for substance use GWAS are provided in their respective publications (2–  
197 5).

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### 199 **eQTL-informed gene-level analysis of substance use GWAS signals**

200 We identified and prioritised risk genes for each substance use phenotype using eMAGMA  
201 (17) and S-PrediXcan, both of which integrate GWAS summary statistics with eQTL  
202 information from the GTEx project. eMAGMA assigns SNPs within or near target genes based  
203 on significant (FDR<0.05) SNP-gene associations in GTEx. Gene-based statistics were  
204 subsequently computed using the sum of the assigned SNP  $-\log(10)$   $P$  values while accounting  
205 for Linkage Disequilibrium. S-PrediXcan, on the other hand, imputes genetically-regulated  
206 gene expression from training models to estimate the phenotype-expression association, while  
207 also controlling for Linkage Disequilibrium. For both approaches, we used gene expression  
208 data for 13 brain tissues generated from GTEx (v7), and LD information from the 1000  
209 Genomes Project Phase 3 (19). For each tissue, we corrected for multiple testing using  
210 Bonferroni correction based on the number of genes per tissue (Supplementary Table 1). Due  
211 to correlated expression across tissues, no correction for the number of phenotypes studied  
212 (N=8) was performed.

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### 214 **Fine-mapping of causal gene sets**

215 S-PrediXcan and other transcriptomic approaches may yield false-positive gene-trait  
216 associations due to correlation (LD) among SNPs used to generate the eQTL weights in the  
217 predication models (20). We used fine-mapping of causal gene sets (FOCUS) to appropriately  
218 model the impact of gene-trait correlations on the S-PrediXcan expression weights and assign  
219 a causal probability to each gene within substance use risk loci (20). We built a multi-tissue

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227 eQTL database using GTEx v7 brain tissues (<https://github.com/bogdanlab/focus/>) to use as  
228 the eQTL weights database, and LD information from the 1000 Genomes Project Phase 3 (19)  
229 as reference genotypes.

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### 231 Identification of gene expression modules

232 Gene co-expression modules were constructed for 13 individual brain tissues using the  
233 weighted gene co-expression network analysis (WGCNA) package in R (21). An unsigned  
234 pairwise correlation matrix – using Pearson’s product moment correlation coefficient – was  
235 calculated. An appropriate “soft-thresholding” value, which emphasizes strong gene-gene  
236 correlations at the expense of weak correlations, was selected for each tissue by plotting the  
237 strength of correlation against a series (range 2 to 20) of soft threshold powers. The correlation  
238 matrix was subsequently transformed into an adjacency matrix. Matrices are characterised by  
239 nodes (corresponding to genes) and edges (corresponding to the connection strength between  
240 genes). Each adjacency matrix was normalised using a topological overlap function.  
241 Hierarchical clustering was performed using average linkage, with one minus the topological  
242 overlap matrix as the distance measure. The hierarchical cluster tree was cut into gene modules  
243 using the dynamic tree cut algorithm (22), with a minimum module size of 30 genes. We  
244 amalgamated modules if the correlation between their eigengenes – defined as the first  
245 principal component of their genes’ expression values – was greater or equal to 0.8.

246

### 247 Gene-set analysis of gene co-expression modules

248 To identify gene co-expression modules enriched with substance risk genes, we performed  
249 gene-set analysis of eMAGMA gene-level results in the derived tissue-specific gene co-  
250 expression modules using the gene-set analysis function in MAGMA v1.06 (17,23). The  
251 competitive analysis tests whether the genes in a gene-set (i.e. gene co-expression module) are  
252 more highly associated with risk genes than other genes while accounting for gene size and  
253 gene density. We applied an adaptive permutation procedure (23) (N=10,000 permutations) to  
254 obtain P values corrected for multiple testing. The 1000 Genomes European reference panel  
255 (Phase 3) was used to account for Linkage Disequilibrium between SNPs. For each tissue and  
256 gene-based enrichment method, a quantile-quantile plot of observed versus expected P values  
257 was generated to assess inflation in the test statistic.

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### 259 Characterisation of gene expression modules

262 Gene expression modules enriched with substance use GWAS association signals were  
263 assessed for enrichment of biological pathways and processes using g:Profiler  
264 (<https://biit.cs.ut.ee/gprofiler/>) (24). Ensembl gene identifiers within substance use gene  
265 modules were used as input; we tested for the over-representation of module genes in Gene  
266 Ontology (GO) biological processes. We set the statistical domain scope (i.e. reference gene  
267 set) to “only annotated genes”. The g:Profiler algorithm uses a Fisher’s one-tailed test for gene  
268 pathway enrichment; the smaller the P value, the lower the probability a gene belongs to both  
269 a co-expression module and a biological term or pathway purely by chance. Multiple testing  
270 correction was done using g:SCS; this approach accounts for the correlated structure of GO  
271 terms and biological pathways, and corresponds for an experiment-wide threshold of  $\alpha=0.05$ .

272

### 273 **Preservation of gene co-expression networks across tissues**

274 To examine the tissue-specificity of modular enrichments and biological pathways, we  
275 assessed the preservation (i.e. replication) of network modules across GTEx brain tissues using  
276 the “modulePreservation” R function implemented in WGCNA (25). Briefly, the module  
277 preservation approach takes as input “reference” and “test” network modules and calculates  
278 statistics for three preservation classes: i) density-based statistics, which assess the similarity  
279 of gene-gene connectivity patterns between a reference network module and a test network  
280 module; ii) separability-based statistics, which examine whether test network modules remain  
281 distinct in reference network modules; and iii) connectivity-based statistics, which are based  
282 on the similarity of connectivity patterns between genes in the reference and test networks. We  
283 report the “Zsummary” statistic as a measure of preservation. A Zsummary value greater than  
284 10 suggests there is strong evidence a module is preserved between the reference and test  
285 network modules, while a value between 2 and 10 indicates weak to moderate preservation and  
286 a value less than 2 indicates no preservation.

287

## 288 **Results**

289

### 290 **Study cohorts**

291 The substance use phenotypes included in our study are presented in Table 1. The GSCAN  
292 (GWAS and Sequencing Consortium of Alcohol and Nicotine use) analysis of 5 substance use  
293 phenotypes in 1.2 million individuals contributed the largest number of significant loci (566  
294 variants in 406 loci) for our study. All of the included studies, with the exception of alcohol

295 dependence from the Psychiatric Genomics Consortium, used samples derived from the UK  
296 Biobank and/or 23andMe. Over half of the significant loci across the 8 phenotypes were related  
297 to smoking initiation, which contained the largest number of samples (N=1,232,091).

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### 299 **Gene-based tests of association**

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300 To identify genes whose expression is influenced by genetic variation underlying disease risk,  
301 we performed eMAGMA using GWAS summary statistics and gene expression information  
302 from 13 brain tissues in GTEx v7 (Table S2). We identified 272 unique gene-based associations  
303 across all brain tissues (after Bonferroni correction for the number of genes in each tissue)  
304 (Supplementary Table 2). The number of significant genes for each phenotype was a function  
305 of GWAS sample size; 118 genes in 13 brain tissues associated with smoking initiation (GWAS  
306 N samples=1,232,091), while a single significant gene was associated with alcohol dependence  
307 (GWAS N samples = 46,568).

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308 There was no overlap in significant eMAGMA associations across all phenotypes, and only  
309 modest overlap between phenotype pairs. For example, 27 genes were significantly associated  
310 with both alcohol use disorder and the number of drinks per week (Table 3). There was a high  
311 correlation between the number of samples for each tissue and significant gene-based  
312 associations (Pearson's  $r = 0.87$ ). Cerebellum accounted for the largest number of significant  
313 associations (N associations=183) and also contained the largest number of post-mortem brain  
314 samples (N samples=154). We compared the number of significant associations from the  
315 eMAGMA analysis with previous findings from conventional MAGMA and S-PrediXcan  
316 (Supplementary Table 3). The total number of eMAGMA associations is smaller than the  
317 number of significant conventional MAGMA associations, but larger than the number of S-  
318 PrediXcan associations. Genes found by eMAGMA but not conventional MAGMA or S-  
319 PrediXcan by phenotype are shown in Supplementary Table 4.

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320 The gene CADM2, which has been linked to behavioural undercontrol, was associated with 4  
321 substance use phenotypes (drinks per week, alcohol use, smoking initiation, and cannabis use).

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322 Furthermore, the effect direction of CADM2 was consistent across phenotypes (Supplementary  
323 Table 5). Another four genes (AMT, CHRNA2, GPX1, KANSL1) were significant across three  
324 phenotypes (cigarettes per day, age of smoking initiation, and smoking cessation (Table 4).

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325 Overall, we found moderate correlation of eMAGMA Z-scores between phenotype pairs  
326 (Supplementary Table 6 and Supplementary Figure 1), with the strongest correlations between

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357 (AUDIT) and drinks per week (Pearson's  $r = 0.263$ ,  $P < 2.22 \times 10^{-16}$ ) and smoking initiation  
358 and drinks per week ( $r = 0.220$ ,  $P = 3.95 \times 10^{-14}$ ).

### 360 **Fine-mapping further prioritises genes within GWAS risk loci**

361 We applied the fine-mapping of causal gene sets (FOCUS) algorithm to prioritise genes within  
362 GWAS risk loci. All of the phenotypes, with the exception of alcohol dependence, contained  
363 "credible" genes (that is, genes most likely to be causal for a given phenotype). We identified  
364 a total of 269 unique credible genes across 77 distinct loci for 7 substance use phenotypes.  
365 Smoking initiation had the largest number of loci with credible genes (N=42 loci containing  
366 117 credible genes), followed by cigarettes per day (N=19 loci containing 46 credible genes).  
367 Candidate casual genes with the highest posterior inclusion probability (PIP) included *FPGT*  
368 (S-PrediXcan Z score -6.33; PIP: 1) for smoking initiation; *ZNF780B* (S-PrediXcan Z score  
369 5.37; PIP 1) for smoking cessation; *RFCL* (S-PrediXcan Z score -9.41; PIP: 1) for drinks per  
370 week; *SNRPA* (S-PrediXcan Z score -9.44; PIP: 1) for cigarettes per day; *CADM2* (S-  
371 PrediXcan Z score 4.38; PIP: 0.624) for lifetime cannabis use; *GRK4* (S-PrediXcan Z score -  
372 4.7; PIP: 0.542) for age of smoking initiation; and *FAM180B* for alcohol use disorder (S-  
373 PrediXcan Z score -5.74; PIP: 0.749). A full list of credible genes for each phenotype is  
374 provided in Supplementary Table 7. We assessed the overlap in credible genes across  
375 phenotypes. A total of 43 credible genes were prioritised in more than one phenotype  
376 (Supplementary Table 8). Interestingly, the genes *SNRPA* and *ZNF780B* had posterior  
377 probabilities close to or equal to 1 for both smoking cessation and cigarettes per day, while the  
378 S-PrediXcan Z scores for these genes had opposite effect directions. This is consistent with the  
379 inverse relationship between the phenotypes, and provides strong evidence of their  
380 involvement in substance use risk.

### 382 **Network-based enrichment of substance use risk genes**

383 We tested for the enrichment of gene-based association signals in brain tissue-dependent gene  
384 co-expression networks. Age of initiation of smoking (AOI), drinks per week (DPW), and  
385 smoking cessation (SMC) each showed enrichment of gene-based association signals within  
386 two modules. The module DPW-1 had the largest number of gene-based associations with a  
387 nominal P value  $< 0.05$  (N=9 genes; 22.5%), followed by the module DPW-2 (N=27; 16.5%)  
388 (Supplementary Table 9). The module DPW-2 also harboured two genes—*TUFM* (nucleus

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396 accumbens basal ganglia;  $P=1.07 \times 10^{-10}$  and *RPL9* (nucleus accumbens basal ganglia;  $P=2.08$   
397  $\times 10^{-7}$ )—with significant (Bonferroni-corrected) eMAGMA associations, highlighting their  
398 potentially coordinated association with drinks per week. Furthermore, the genes *RPS26* and  
399 *SNF8* had nominally significant eMAGMA P values in the modules *DPW-2* (*RPS26*,  $P=$   
400  $0.0316$ ; *SNF8*,  $P=0.0006$ ) and *AOI-2* (*RPS26*,  $P=5.55 \times 10^{-5}$ ; *SNF8*,  $P=0.0007$ ), suggesting  
401 some shared modular activity across substance use phenotypes (Supplementary Table 9). A  
402 biological category association analysis of the enriched modules identified processes related to  
403 RNA processing (module *AOI-2*;  $P=5.12 \times 10^{-8}$ ); GABA synthesis, release, reuptake and  
404 degradation (module *DPW-1*;  $P=1.39 \times 10^{-6}$ ) and the immune response (module *SMC-1*;  
405  $P=1.64 \times 10^{-67}$ ) (Table 5 and Supplementary Table 10). We extracted eMAGMA associations  
406 for genes that intersect both the enriched module and significant biological pathways  
407 (Supplementary Table 11). Several biological pathways had a relatively large proportion of  
408 nominally significant eMAGMA associations. For example, 4 out of 8 overlapping module  
409 genes for the *AOI-2* pathway “metabolism of RNA” contained eMAGMA P values  $< 0.05$   
410 (Supplementary Table 12). These data support the involvement of the gene co-expression  
411 modules in substance use, although the overlap between eMAGMA associations and biological  
412 pathways is modest for several phenotype modules (e.g. *DPW-1* “neurotransmitter transport”  
413 contains 2 genes with eMAGMA associations, one of which has a nominal P value  $< 0.05$ ).

414 There was strong preservation ( $Z$  score  $> 10$ ) of gene connectivity structure within significant  
415 modules across brain tissues (Figure 1), however *DPW-2* (anterior cingulate cortex enriched  
416 with developmental and neurotransmitter pathways) had slightly lower preservation compared  
417 to other tissue modules. These data suggest modules and pathway enrichments may be  
418 generalised across tissue types for substance use traits and provide further support to maximise  
419 tissue sample size for a single brain tissue/region rather than maximising brain region coverage.

## 420 Discussion

421 Genetic risk factors for substance use alter the expression of target genes, which may in turn  
422 influence the activity of highly co-expressed (but not necessarily co-regulated) genes in a  
423 tissue-specific manner. We used expression quantitative trait loci from 13 brain tissues in a  
424 novel gene-based test (eMAGMA) to identify candidate risk genes for 8 substance abuse traits.

425 The risk genes were subsequently tested for enrichment in tissue-specific gene co-expression  
426 networks to identify groups of highly correlated genes associated with substance abuse and  
427 improve the biological interpretation of gene-based associations. We identified 272 gene-based

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442 associations across 8 substance use traits, many of which were associated with multiple traits.  
443 Candidate risk genes for 3 substance use traits (age of initiation, drinks per week, and smoking  
444 cessation) were enriched in at least one co-expression module, which contained genes involved  
445 in gene expression and cellular metabolism. These results demonstrate the utility of integrating  
446 genetic, gene expression, and gene co-expression data for the biological interpretation of  
447 complex traits such as substance use.

448 Our gene-level (eMAGMA) approach annotates target genes by assigning genetic variants to  
449 genes based on tissue-specific eQTL information before testing for the enrichment of GWAS  
450 signals in target genes. The number of significant gene-level associations across the 8 substance  
451 use traits ranged from 1 (alcohol dependence) to 118 (smoking initiation). The number of  
452 associations was a function of GWAS sample size, highlighting the importance of sample size  
453 in genetic studies of complex traits. In a comparison of eMAGMA and other gene-based  
454 methods, eMAGMA performed similarly to S-PrediXcan in terms of number of significant  
455 associations, while it shows a 1.2 to 7-fold reduction compared to MAGMA gene-based test  
456 results (17) (Table S6). The latter finding is not unexpected since the total number of tested  
457 genes in eMAGMA (i.e., genes of which gene expression is controlled by at least one eQTL)  
458 is substantially lower than the total number of protein-coding genes (e.g. the number of tested  
459 genes in amygdala using eMAGMA is 1301 versus 18,128 tested genes using conventional  
460 MAGMA). However, while eMAGMA identifies fewer genes than its conventional MAGMA  
461 counterpart, the gene candidates are directly linked to the regulation of gene expression in a  
462 particular tissue and thereby offer a biologically meaningful substrate for follow-up analyses.

463 Our approach enables the study of tissue-specific gene expression changes underlying  
464 substance abuse traits. The majority of the significant associations were detected in cerebellum,  
465 a region that has been implicated in addiction (26). While a robust functional mechanism  
466 specific to cerebellum has not been established, a recent study in mice showed that the  
467 cerebellum controls the reward circuitry and social behaviour through direct projections from  
468 the deep cerebellar nuclei to the brain's reward center (i.e., the ventral tegmental area) (27).  
469 This suggests changes in gene expression in cerebellum precipitate behavioural changes related  
470 to substance use. It should be noted, however, that cerebellar gene-based associations may be  
471 proxy associations for a causal tissue or cell type, given cerebellum has the largest number of  
472 brain tissue samples in GTEx thereby increasing statistical power to identify gene associations.

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486 Previous studies showed moderate to large correlations of additive genetic effects across  
487 substance use traits (28,29). We aimed to investigate whether the genetic correlations would  
488 be recapitulated in terms of gene-level associations. Indeed, we observed substantial overlap  
489 for some trait combinations with high genetic correlations. For example, 82% of the genes that  
490 were significantly associated with alcohol use disorder were also linked to the number of drinks  
491 per week. This is higher than the genetic correlation ( $r_g$ ) between the two phenotypes (2).  
492 which may be the result of eMAGMA assigning different genetic variants underlying each  
493 phenotype to the same gene, increasing the overlap between phenotypes. However, it is  
494 difficult to compare the level of overlap in gene-level associations, which relate to specific loci,  
495 and genetic correlations, which measures genome-wide significant correlations. Interestingly,  
496 gene-level associations for lifetime cannabis use showed substantial overlap with drinks per  
497 week (32% overlap) and smoking initiation (27% overlap). One of the genes contributing to  
498 the genetic overlap is *CADM2*, which was found to be associated with 4 out of 8 traits (i.e.,  
499 alcohol consumption, alcohol use disorder, smoking initiation, and cannabis use). *CADM2* was  
500 previously found to be associated with a broad profile of risk-taking behaviour and behavioural  
501 under-control (30). Furthermore, *CADM2*-knockout mice have increased locomotor activity  
502 and reduced body weight, suggesting an important role in behavioural regulation and energy  
503 homeostasis (31). The robust association between *CADM2* expression and multiple substance  
504 use traits highlights the need for future functional studies to further explore the functional gene  
505 mechanisms.

506 We also detected the susceptibility locus at a chromosome 3p21.31 gene cluster for smoking-  
507 related phenotypes: smoking initiation, cigarettes per day, and smoking cessation. The cluster  
508 covers 7 genes with eMAGMA associations (*AMT*, *GPX1*, *NCKIPSD*, *P4HTM*, *WDR6*,  
509 *DALRD3*, and *CCDC71*), several of which have been related to intelligence and cognitive  
510 functional measurement (32). None of the predicted expression models in our fine-mapping  
511 (FOCUS) analysis explained the observed S-PrediXcan associations for these genes, meaning  
512 a putative causal gene could not be prioritised in the locus. This is most likely due to high  
513 linkage disequilibrium at the locus. Nonetheless, these associations are consistent with the  
514 highly negative genetic correlation of smoking-related phenotypes with years of education (4).  
515 Other overlapping gene-based associations included *MAPT* and *CRHR1* for AUDIT (alcohol  
516 use disorder) and drinks per week. These genes are located within a common inversion  
517 polymorphism at chromosome 17q21.31, which is related to alterations in tissue-specific gene  
518 expression (33) and neurodegenerative disorders such as Parkinson's disease and Alzheimer's

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529 disease (34,35). However, a causative role of individual genes within this locus in substance  
530 use has not been established and cannot be inferred from the present data.

531 Our network-based approach identified gene co-expression networks enriched with GWAS  
532 signals of age of smoking initiation, alcohol consumption, and smoking cessation. The  
533 implicated modules were enriched in biological pathways related to cellular metabolism  
534 (“cellular metabolic process”, nucleus accumbens basal ganglia,  $P=0.0443$ ) and gene  
535 expression (“RNA processing”, spinal cord cervical C-1,  $P=6 \times 10^{-4}$ ), among others. The terms  
536 “gene expression” and “RNA processing” are difficult to interpret because they involve every  
537 processes in which a stretch of DNA is converted into a mature gene product. “Cellular  
538 metabolism”, while similarly broad in biological pathways, encompasses all chemical reactions  
539 involving the breakdown of drug compounds and alcohols and would therefore be expected to  
540 be associated with substance use. Interestingly, a module enriched with risk genes associated  
541 with drinks per week (DPW-1) was associated with the biological process “GABA synthesis,  
542 release, reuptake and degradation”. Alcohol directly binds to gamma-aminobutyric acid  
543 (GABA) receptors, causing the release of the inhibitory neurotransmitter GABA and inducing  
544 the sedative effects associated with alcohol use (36). Our findings represent some of the first  
545 evidence that alternations in genetically regulated expression in anterior cingulate cortex may  
546 influence alcohol consumption behaviour through changes in the brain’s reward circuitry and  
547 warrant follow-up validation studies.

548 The findings of this study should be interpreted in view of the following limitations. First,  
549 although GTEx is one of the most comprehensive genetic expression databases available to  
550 date, the statistical power for eQTL discovery is still modest (37). We observed a strong  
551 correlation (Pearson’s  $r = 0.87$ ) between the post-mortem sample size and the number of gene  
552 discoveries suggesting that molecular studies of substance use phenotypes should maximise  
553 brain tissue sample. It should be noted, however, as the sample size of GTEx continues to  
554 increase the number of genes with significant eQTLs (eGenes) will plateau and further  
555 increases in sample size will have little impact on biological conclusions. Second, our analyses  
556 focus on the role of eQTLs in brain tissues while recent studies have shown that eQTL effects  
557 may differ between cell types within a specific tissue (38). Cerebellum, for example, contains  
558 the largest number of neurons in the human brain (39), potentially increasing the likelihood of  
559 identifying neuronal-specific pathways compared to other brain regions. Third, the identified  
560 genes should be seen as ‘candidates’ as correlated levels of gene expression in high LD

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563 genomic regions makes it challenging to identify the true causal genes (40). Finally, our gene  
564 co-expression analyses rely on the stability (i.e. robustness) of gene networks both within and  
565 between tissues (8).

566 In summary, we assessed gene targets and biological pathways underlying 8 substance use  
567 traits. Our gene-based approach, eMAGMA, identified 272 candidate risk genes for substance  
568 use whose expression is altered in at least one of 13 brain tissues. We confirmed substantial  
569 gene-based overlap between substance use traits, with the highest overlap between drinks per  
570 well and alcohol use. The gene *CADM2*, recently associated with lifetime cannabis use, risk-  
571 taking behaviour, and a behavioural undercontrol, was associated with half of the substance  
572 based traits. We used gene co-expression networks in brain to identify broader, functionally  
573 related modules (groups) of genes potentially implicated in substance use. Six gene modules  
574 across 3 traits were enriched with gene-based associations. One of the associated co-expression  
575 modules, in anterior cingulate cortex, was enriched with biologically meaningful pathways  
576 related to GABA release and degradation, highlighting the utility of our approach in describing  
577 the molecular characteristics of substance use traits. The integration of summary statistics from  
578 larger GWAS of substance use traits with gene expression data from brain tissues, provided by  
579 GTEx (41) and other consortia (42), will facilitate the translation of statistical associations to  
580 the discovery of causal genes and molecular mechanisms.

581

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588 All other authors report no conflicts of interest.

589

#### 590 **Figure legends:**

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597 **Figure 1:** Preservation of gene connectivity across co-expression modules enriched with gene-  
598 based association signals for substance use traits. Notes: A Z-summary value greater than 10  
599 suggests there is strong evidence a module is preserved between the reference and test network  
600 modules, while a value between 2 and 10 indicates weak to moderate preservation and a value  
601 less than 2 indicates no preservation. Grey boxes indicate the tissue in which the significant  
602 association was found. AOI, age of smoking initiation; DPW, drinks per week; SMC, smoking  
603 cessation.

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