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1 **GABRB1 single nucleotide polymorphism associated with altered brain responses (but not**
2 **performance) during measures of impulsivity and reward sensitivity in human adolescents**

3
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28
29 **Running Title:** $\beta 1$ GABA_A receptor variation and impulsivity

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44 **Abstract**

45 Variations in genes encoding several GABA_A receptors have been associated with human
46 drug and alcohol abuse. Among these, a number of human studies have suggested an
47 association between *GABRB1*, the gene encoding GABA_A receptor β 1 subunits, with alcohol
48 dependence, both on its own and comorbid with other substance dependence and
49 psychiatric illnesses. In the present study, we hypothesised that the *GABRB1* genetically-
50 associated increased risk for developing alcoholism may be associated with impaired
51 behavioral control and altered sensitivity to reward, as a consequence of altered brain
52 function. Exploiting the IMAGEN database (Schumann et al, 2010), we explored in a human
53 adolescent population whether possession of the minor (T) variant of the single nucleotide
54 polymorphism rs2044081 is associated with performance of tasks measuring aspects of
55 impulsivity, and reward sensitivity that are implicated in drug and alcohol abuse. Allelic
56 variation did not associate with altered performance in either a stop-signal task (SST),
57 measuring one aspect of impulsivity, or a monetary incentive delay (MID) task assessing
58 reward anticipation. However, increased fMRI BOLD response in the right hemisphere
59 inferior frontal gyrus, left hemisphere caudate/insula, and left hemisphere inferior temporal
60 gyrus during MID performance was higher in the minor (T) allelic group. In contrast, during
61 SST performance, the BOLD response found in the right hemisphere supramarginal gyrus,
62 right hemisphere lingual and left hemisphere inferior parietal gyrus indicated reduced
63 responses in the minor genotype. We suggest that β 1-containing GABA_A receptors may
64 play a role in excitability of brain regions important in controlling reward-related behavior,
65 which may contribute to susceptibility to addictive behavior.

66

67 **Keywords:** alcohol abuse; stop signal; monetary incentive delay; functional imaging; GABA_A
68 receptor; inferior frontal gyrus; inferior temporal gyrus; insula; supramarginal gyrus; inferior
69 parietal gyrus.

70

71

72

73 INTRODUCTION

74
75 Alcohol dependence (AD) is a complex, heterogeneous disease with both strong genetic and
76 environmental influences in its aetiology. Heritability estimates for the susceptibility for AD
77 explain between 50% and 60% of variance (Stacey et al., 2009). Recently, a number of genes
78 encoding subunits of GABA_A receptors have been associated with both alcohol dependence
79 and addiction to other drugs (see (Stephens et al., 2017) for a review).

80
81 Across mammalian species, genes encoding many of the GABA_A subunits are organised into
82 chromosomal clusters. In humans, *GABRA2*, *GABRA4*, *GABRB1* and *GABRG1*, encoding for
83 $\alpha 2$, $\alpha 4$, $\beta 1$, $\gamma 1$ subunits, respectively, are localised on chromosome 4p12 (Song et al., 2003).
84 Gene association studies have consistently identified single nucleotide polymorphisms
85 (SNPs) and haplotypes in this region to be associated with both alcohol and other drug
86 addictions. Variations in *GABRA2* have been most frequently associated with addictions and
87 related behaviors (Edenberg et al., 2004, Covault et al., 2004, Lappalainen et al., 2005, Dixon
88 et al., 2010, Enoch et al., 2010), but there is also a robust association of *GABRB1* with AD
89 comorbid with other substance dependence and psychiatric illnesses (Yang et al., 2012,
90 Kertes et al., 2011). Interestingly, the strength of the association with AD alone is less clear
91 (Parsian and Zhang, 1999, Dick and Foroud, 2003, Song et al., 2003, Reck et al., 2005). Very
92 recently, an association has been identified between the intergenic SNP rs2044081 in
93 *GABRB1* and alcohol dependence in a large (611 cases, 646 controls), well characterized
94 British/Irish population (Odds Ratio 4.2 [95% Confidence Intervals 1.5-11.5] $P_{\text{corrected}} 3.31 \times 10^{-2}$)
95 (McCabe et al., 2017).

96
97 While gene association data may suggest the contribution of the gene to the condition
98 studied, they do not provide information as to how the gene contributes to the phenotype.
99 GABA_A receptors play a crucial role in circuitries important in addiction processes, and
100 genetic variations may elicit a change in function of brain areas underlying behavioral traits
101 such as impulsivity and reward sensitivity that predispose to addiction. We were therefore
102 interested to discover whether variations in SNP rs2044081 of *GABRB1* associated with risk
103 for alcohol dependence, also predisposed to impulsive behavior, and altered sensitivity to
104 reward. However, impulsivity is exacerbated by drug use (Hogarth, 2011). Thus, in order to
105 assess genetic associations of *GABRB1* variants with impulsivity, it was important to study
106 such associations prior to the development of alcohol abuse. For this reason, it was
107 particularly informative to study genetic associations with brain functionality during
108 performance of tasks measuring impulsivity and reward sensitivity in adolescence, before
109 alcohol dependence develops. For this purpose, we used data collected within the IMAGEN
110 study of adolescents (Schumann et al., 2010). Besides measurements of alcohol use we have
111 also acquired measurements of drug taking as and smoking habits. As alcohol abuse is
112 associated with stress in early life (Stephens et al., 2017), we also included data obtained
113 from a life event questionnaire.

114
115 In the current paper we examine the association of variants in this SNP with variations in
116 behavioral measures associated with vulnerability to alcohol abuse, and in Blood-oxygen-
117 level dependent (BOLD) contrast imaging, using functional magnetic resonance imaging
118 (fMRI) in adolescents. We thus exploited the IMAGEN database (Schumann et al., 2010) to
119 identify individuals carrying the major and minor alleles of the rs2044081 SNP in a

120 population of 14-year olds, and investigated performance in tests of reward sensitivity and
121 impulsivity, and brain responses, using fMRI, during the performance of these tasks. There is
122 emerging evidence that individuals with alcohol dependency have a decreased sensitivity to
123 rewards (which correlates with hypoactivity in the nucleus accumbens (NAc; Volkow et al.,
124 2010). It has been postulated that this hypoactivity leads to drug use to compensate for the
125 deficit, and in turn disrupts metabolism of various prefrontal regions to increase impulsivity
126 and to lead in drug taking becoming compulsive and habitual (Hogarth, 2011).

127
128 Both subcortical (Li et al., 2008) and, more consistently, cortical prefrontal regions such as
129 orbitofrontal cortex, anterior cingulate cortex and inferior frontal gyrus show hypoactivity
130 during performance of a stop-signal task (SST) in people who have used illicit substances or
131 are predisposed to substance dependence (Whelan et al., 2012, Nymberg et al., 2013a), while
132 prefrontal cortex (PFC) reduced activation correlates negatively with performance. In the
133 monetary incentive delay (MID) task, in healthy adolescent volunteers, reward sensitivity is
134 associated with activation of the ventral striatum during anticipation of the reward (Knutson
135 et al., 2000, Nees et al., 2012a, Nees et al., 2012b). However, in adolescents with problematic
136 substance use, and in individuals predisposed to substance dependence, hypoactivity in the
137 NAc was found during performance in tasks involving reward sensitivity measurements
138 (Andrews et al., 2011, Schneider et al., 2012, Peters et al., 2011).

139
140 Therefore, the aim of the present study is to investigate the influence of the rs2044081 gene
141 variant on reward sensitivity and impulsivity in adolescents. It is hypothesised that 1)
142 individuals carrying the minor (T) allele will have lower BOLD responses in the prefrontal
143 regions during SST which will correlate with impaired performance; 2) individuals carrying the
144 minor allele will show lower responses in the NAc during MID which will correlate with
145 impaired performance.

146

147 **METHODS**

148 **Participants**

149 Pre-existing data collected from 1299 participants under the IMAGEN project were used
150 (details of the IMAGEN project's study design, recruitment procedures, inclusion/exclusion
151 criteria, and data storage/safety information can be found in Schumann et al, 2010) to test a
152 hypothesis that variations in the rs2044081 SNP of *GABRB1* are associated with altered brain
153 activity during performance of tasks implicated in the development of addictive behaviour.
154 Generally serious medical conditions (e.g. diabetes, rheumatologic disorders, neurological or
155 developmental conditions), previous trauma with loss of consciousness, MRI
156 contraindications (e.g. metal implants and claustrophobia) or adolescents with IQ <70 were
157 exclusion criteria. Participants were also excluded if their genotyping, neuroimaging, or
158 behavioral data did not pass the IMAGEN project's quality control checks. There were
159 627 males and 672 females in the sample. 1144 were right handed and 155 were left handed
160 or ambidextrous. Participants were 14 years old at time of data collection and were tested at
161 eight IMAGEN assessment centres (London, Nottingham, Dublin, Mannheim, Dresden, Berlin,
162 Hamburg, and Paris). Ethical approval was provided by the local ethical committees of each
163 assessment centre, and these procedures have been described previously (see Schumann et
164 al, 2010 for a list of the assessment centres involved). All variables were studied across all

165 locations using a standardised procedure across centres. Written informed consent was
166 obtained from a parent or guardian, and verbal assent was obtained from the adolescent.

167

168 **Design**

169 Participants were allocated to allelic groups depending on the presence or absence of the
170 minor T allele of rs2044081. Each participant was identified as being either homozygous for
171 the minor allele, homozygous for the major allele, or heterozygous. A between subjects
172 design was used. The independent variable was the allelic group for the SNP and comprised
173 three levels: homozygous minor (N=30; 11 male), heterozygous (N=305; 138 male) and
174 homozygous major (N=964; 479 male). For the subset of the 522 participants for whom data
175 for the SST is available, the corresponding numbers were: homozygous minor (N=10; 5 male),
176 heterozygous (N=116; 53 male) and homozygous major (N=396; 183 male).

177 **Materials**

178 Stop-Signal Task (SST).

179 On each trial of the SST (see figure 1 for a schematic outline), a green arrow (go signal), that
180 pointed either to the left or to the right, was presented in the centre of the computer
181 screen. Participants were asked to indicate the direction of the arrow by pressing one of two
182 buttons as quickly and as accurately as they could. On 20% of the trials (80 trials), the go
183 signal was followed by a stop signal (a green arrow pointing upwards), and participants were
184 told that in those instances, they should refrain from responding. Stopping difficulty was
185 manipulated across trials by varying the onset of the stop signal after the go signal (stop-
186 signal delay), using an algorithm which has been previously described (Rubia et al, 2005), so
187 that participants successfully stopped on 50% of trials. A block contained 400 go trials with a
188 stimulus duration of 1000 ms, and 80 stop trials with a stimulus duration of 0-900 ms (50 ms
189 steps; initial delay 250 ms) in accordance to the algorithm.

190 The main outcome variable was stop signal reaction time (SSRT), which was calculated by
191 subtracting the mean stop-signal delay from the Go RT at the percentile corresponding to the
192 proportion of unsuccessfully inhibited stop trials. Participants were familiarized with the task
193 prior to scanning by performing 60 trials in a 2 minute practice session. Due to technical
194 problems with calculating the latency referring to the ability to successfully stop the initiated
195 response in the SST, some participants' SST data were unusable. Thus data collected only from
196 a subset of 522 participants (241 males and 281 females; 461 were right handed, and 61 were
197 left handed or ambidextrous) are presented with regard to performance on Stop Signal Task.

198

199 Monetary Incentive Delay Task (MID; Knutson et al 2010).

200 On each trial of the MID task (see figure 2 for a schematic outline), one of three cues (a triangle;
201 a circle with a line through it; or a circle with 3 lines through it), was presented for 250 ms,
202 either to the left or to the right of the screen. The type of cue, and the cue's location predicted
203 the reward value (possibility of winning 0, 2, or 10 points upon correct responding), and the
204 location (left or right side of the screen), respectively, of a subsequently presented target
205 stimulus (a white square). The cue was followed by a fixation cross (4500 ms anticipation
206 period), which in turn was followed by the presentation of the target stimulus for a varied
207 duration (250-400 ms). Participants were told that they could win the predicted reward if they

208 correctly indicated the location of the target, by pressing a button with the index finger of
209 either their left or their right hand. If participants responded too early or too late they did not
210 receive points. Feedback on reward points was given following the presentation of the target
211 stimulus, and in order to increase motivation, participants received a single M&M sweet for
212 every 5 points that they won. Task difficulty was varied using a tracking algorithm that
213 ensured that participants were successful on 66% of trials, and did not win more than 200
214 points. There were 22 trials per condition (no win, small win, big win), and total task duration
215 was 11 minutes.

216 Participants were familiarized with the task prior to scanning by performing a practice session
217 for 3 minutes. While in the scanner, participants were reminded of the instructions. The
218 outcome measure of the MID task was the difference score between the frequency of
219 successful hits in big win trials and the frequency of successful hits during no win trials (MID-
220 Diff). The higher the difference score, the higher was the frequency of responding correctly on trials
221 on which a high reward was anticipated.

222 Questionnaires.

223 The Alcohol Use Disorders Identification Test (AUDIT; (Saunders et al., 1993)) is designed to
224 identify individuals with harmful or hazardous alcohol consumption, and was used to measure
225 history and severity of alcohol use. It consists of 10 questions measuring alcohol use history,
226 and an individual's assessment of other's feelings towards their alcohol consumption. The
227 present study used the total AUDIT score (AUDIT-Total) in analyses, with high scores reflecting
228 high severity of alcohol use. Additionally, individual reports on number of drinking occasions
229 were noted (see Table 1).

230 The Life Events Questionnaire (LEQ) (adapted from Newcombe and colleagues) (Newcomb et
231 al., 1981) was used to measure the amount and degree of severity of stressful life events that
232 occurred throughout the participant's life. The questionnaire consists of 39 items that
233 measure the occurrence ("ever" and "in the past year"), and the perceived affective impact
234 (rated on a 5-point scale) of common early life events covering the following domains:
235 Family/Parents, Accident/Illness, Sexuality, Autonomy, Deviance, Relocation, and Distress.
236 The present study used the total count of life-time events (LEQ-Total) in the analyses, with
237 high scores reflecting a high number of stressful life events.

238 The Puberty Development Scale (PDS; Peterson et al., 1988), a self-report measure of physical
239 development, with separate forms for males and females, was used to ascertain that male
240 and female participants in allelic groups did not differ with respect to their physical
241 development. Participants responded to questions about their growth in stature and pubic
242 hair, as well as menarche in females and voice changes in males. An average score was
243 calculated for each item.

244

245

246 **Procedures**

247 Genotyping.

248 DNA purification and genotyping was performed by the Centre National de Génotypage in
249 Paris. DNA was extracted from whole blood samples preserved in ethylene-diamine-tetra-
250 acetic_acid (EDTA) vacutainer tubes (BD, Becton, Dickinson and Company, Oxford, United

251 Kingdom) using Gentra Puregene Blood Kit (QIAGEN, Valencia, California) according to the
252 manufacturer's instructions. Genotype information was collected at 582,982 markers using
253 the Illumina HumanHap610 Genotyping BeadChip (Illumina, San Diego, California) as part of
254 a previous genome wide association study (Schumann et al., 2010).

255 Functional Magnetic Resonance Imaging.

256 MRI

257 Imaging data were acquired at eight IMAGEN assessment sites with 3T MRI scanners by
258 several manufacturers (Siemens, Philips, General Electric, Bruker). Full details of the MRI
259 acquisition protocols and quality checks have been described previously (Schumann et al.,
260 2010). The same scanning protocol was used at all sites. In brief, for each participant, high-
261 resolution anatomical images were acquired with a T1-weighted magnetization prepared
262 gradient echo (MPRAGE) sequence.

263 Functional MRI images were acquired with an echo-planar imaging (EPI) sequence. For each
264 participant, 300 volumes were acquired for the MID task, and 444 volumes were acquired for
265 the SST. For both tasks, each volume consisted of 40 slices (2.4-mm slice thickness, 1-mm gap)
266 and echo time was optimized (TE=30 ms; TR=2.2 s) to provide reliable imaging of subcortical
267 areas.

268 **Data Analysis**

269 Gender, handedness and IMAGEN centre were included as covariates for all analyses,
270 behavioral and imaging.

271 Behavioral.

272 Differences between allelic groups on SST and MID indices (i.e. SSRT and MID-Diff,
273 respectively) were determined using separate one-way ANCOVAs.

274 To determine the impact of life stress history on reward sensitivity and impulsivity, separate
275 Bonferroni corrected correlations were performed on the relationship between LEQ-Total
276 and: (a) SSRT, (b) MID-Diff, and (c) AUDIT-Total scores for each SNP's allelic group.

277 fMRI.

278 Functional MRI data were analysed with SPM8 and Matlab 2011b. The pre-processing of the
279 functional MRI data has been described previously (Nymberg et al., 2013b). Briefly, the data
280 were slice-time corrected; all volumes were aligned to the first volume; and non-linear
281 warping was performed to normalise slices to the standard MNI (Montreal Neurological
282 Institute) space. Images were then smoothed with a Gaussian kernel of 5-mm full width at
283 half-maximum.

284 At the first level of analysis of the MID functional MRI data, linear models were created by
285 convolving the canonical haemodynamic response function with the onsets of the
286 anticipation and feedback periods for each cue type (i.e. anticipation hit big win, anticipation
287 hit small win, anticipation hit no win, anticipation missed big win, anticipation missed small
288 win, anticipation missed no win, anticipation no response, feedback hit big win, feedback hit
289 small win, feedback hit no win, feedback missed big win, feedback missed small win, feedback
290 missed no win, press left, press right). For each participant movement parameters were
291 added to the model as regressors of no interest. The contrast "anticipation big win vs

292 anticipation no win" (MID-contrast) was computed for each participant as an index of neural
293 activity associated with anticipation of a large reward.

294 Similarly, at the first level of analysis, for the SST functional MRI data, for each participant,
295 linear models were created by convolving the canonical haemodynamic response function
296 with the onsets of each trial-type (i.e. go success, go too late, go wrong, stop success and stop
297 failure) to form regressors of interest. Movement parameters were added to the design
298 matrix as regressors of no interest. The "stop success-go success" contrast (SST contrast) was
299 computed for each participant in order to measure neural activity associated with successful
300 stopping.

301 MID and SST contrasts were submitted to separate 2nd-level one-way ANCOVAs, with testing-
302 site, gender, and handedness included as regressors of no interest, to test for differences
303 between allelic groups. The main effect of genotype (i.e. homozygotes minor vs.
304 heterozygotes vs. homozygous majors) was computed as an F contrast thresholded at $p =$
305 0.005 and a cluster extent threshold of $k=22$ voxels. This conjunction of specific voxel-level
306 and cluster-extent thresholds corresponds to a whole-brain-corrected significance of $p<0.05$.

307 The non-arbitrary cluster-extent threshold was determined by Monte-Carlo simulations using
308 the same parameters as in our study (Green et al., 2009, 1000 iterations;
309 http://www2.bc.edu/_slotnics/scripts.htm; see Katanoda et al., 2002, Ross and Slotnick,
310 2008).

311 **Regressions**

312 The coordinates of each significant cluster peak resulting from the factorial analyses (i.e. main
313 effect of group in each ANCOVA) were used as centers of 4mm sphere Regions-of-Interest
314 (ROIs), created using MarsBaR (<http://marsbar.sourceforge.net/>). For all participants,
315 separate 2nd- level regression models tested significant relationships between regional
316 activity resulting from the MID and SST contrasts within these ROIs and the MID-Diff and SSRT,
317 respectively. Additionally, these two contrasts were also entered into regression models with
318 the AUDIT-Total scores in order to test whether BOLD responses associated with the
319 anticipation of a large reward, or successful stopping was related with severity of alcohol use.
320 For all regression models, F contrasts examining both positive and negative associations were
321 computed and thresholded at $p = 0.005$ with a cluster extent threshold of $k=22$ voxels.

322

323 **RESULTS**

324 **Sample characteristics and behavioral results**

325 Means and standard deviations of AUDIT, drinking habits and LEQ score, as well as behavioral
326 results are presented in Table 1. Gender and handedness distribution is also given in Table 1.
327 Homogeneity of variance was not violated in any analysis ($F > .75$, *ns*).

328 Ethnicity information was missing from 4 participants in the entire sample, 3 of which were
329 also participants that were included in the sub-group that additionally completed the SST.

330 Allelic groups were matched well on gender ratio ($\chi^2 < 3.8$, *ns*, in all cases), and neither the
331 male nor the female participants differed in pubertal development among allelic groups [F
332 < 1.4 , *ns*, in both cases; see Table 1]. Allelic groups consisted predominantly of individuals
333 whose parents were both of Caucasian ethnicity (Minor: 28/29; Heterozygous: 285/303;
334 Major: 863/963). Comparisons showed that the minor allelic group did not differ from either

335 the heterozygous or the major groups in the distribution of ethnic background ($\chi^2 < 1.5$, ns, in
336 both cases). However, a difference in ethnic background distribution was found between the
337 heterozygous and major allele groups ($\chi^2 = 5.39$, $p < 0.05$).

338 From the subgroup that additionally completed the SST ($n=522$), allelic groups were matched
339 well on gender ratio ($\chi^2 < 1$, ns, in all cases), and neither the male nor the female participants
340 differed in pubertal development among allelic groups [$F < 1$, ns, in both cases]. As with the
341 larger cohort, this subgroup also consisted predominantly of individuals whose parents were
342 both of Caucasian ethnicity (Minor: 8/9; Heterozygous: 105/115; Major: 355/395).
343 Comparisons showed no differences between allelic groups in the distribution of ethnic
344 background ($\chi^2 < 1.75$, ns, in all cases).

345 The covariates included in the ANCOVAs did not correlate with the MID-Diff scores or SSRT.

346 After controlling for covariates, there were no differences between the allelic groups in
347 Monetary Incentive Delay difference (MID-Diff), GO Reaction Time, or Stop Signal Reaction
348 Time scores (all $F_s < 1$, ns).

349 No effects of genotype was found for AUDIT or LEQ score ([$F(2, 1296) = .600$, ns, and ([$F(2,$
350 $1296) = .900$, respectively]. No significant correlations were revealed between LEQ-Total and:
351 SSRT, MID-Diff, and AUDIT-Total scores within each allelic group.

352

353 **Brain imaging**

354 **Monetary Incentive Delay**

355 Despite the similarity in performance, there was a difference in BOLD response found in the
356 right hemisphere inferior frontal gyrus (IFG) [$F(2, 1293) = 7.75$, $p < .005$], left hemisphere
357 caudate/insula [$F(2, 1293) = 7.69$, $p < .005$], and left hemisphere inferior temporal gyrus (ITG)
358 [$F(2, 1293) = 8.25$, $p < .005$], with higher responses seen in the minor (TT) genotype. Contrasts
359 between the groups revealed a significantly higher brain response in the minor group than
360 either the major or the heterozygous groups. [$t_s > 1.7$, $p_s < 0.01$ in both cases, (see figure 3A)],
361 with regard to the IFG. Regarding ITG and the caudate, contrasts between the homozygous
362 major and the heterozygous genotype were significant [$t(1267) = 3.17$, $p < 0.001$ and
363 $t(1267) = -3.87$, $p < 0.001$, respectively; (see figure 3B and C)]. See Table 2 for details on brain
364 areas. Caudate BOLD changes were different in males and females. A gender main effect [F
365 $(1, 1293) = 4.860$, $p < 0.05$] but not a gender by genotype interaction [$F(2, 1293) = .270$, $n.s.$],
366 was found. Males showed a higher BOLD signal compared to females.

367

368 Since there was no difference regarding the ethnic background between minor vs. major or
369 heterozygous allelic groups (see above) the BOLD signal group differences cannot be
370 attributed to differences in ethnic background. However, it cannot be excluded at this stage
371 that differences in BOLD between heterozygous and homozygous major groups (see Fig 3B
372 and C) may depend on minor differences in ethnic composition of the groups (see above).

373 **Stop Signal Task**

374 There was a difference between genotypes in BOLD response found in the right hemisphere
375 supramarginal gyrus [$F(2, 516) = 12.75$, $p < .005$; see Figure 4], right hemisphere lingual [$F(2,$
376 $516) = 10.93$, $p < .005$] and left hemisphere Inferior parietal Gyrus [$F(2, 516) = 11.32$, $p < .005$],

377 indicating a reduced BOLD response in the minor genotype (see Table 3 for details in the brain
378 areas).

379 Differences in the supramarginal gyrus reflected a significantly reduced brain response in the
380 minor compared to heterozygous and major allelic group [t (134) =-4.46, p<.001 and t (395)
381 =-2.63, p<.001 respectively].

382 Differences in the lingual gyrus reflected a significantly reduced BOLD response in the minor
383 compared to heterozygous and major allelic group [t (134) =-4.72, p<.001 and t (395) =-4.33,
384 p<.001 respectively] whereas differences in the parietal gyrus reflected an increased response
385 in the major compared to heterozygous allelic group [t (509) =-4.15, p<.001].

386 **Regression analysis**

387 *Monetary Incentive delay*

388 The bold response associated with MID contrast in IFG was positively associated with the
389 probability of responding on high win versus no win trials (MID-diff; contrast value 3.04, FWE
390 0.001). No significant correlations with behavior were found for the other clusters; regression
391 models with audit score did not result in any significant associations with changes in the BOLD
392 signal.

393 *Stop Signal Reaction Time*

394 No significant correlations were found.

395

396 **DISCUSSION**

397 The relevance of *GABRB1* in determining alcohol preference in man is suggested by a recent
398 study showing an association of between the intergenic SNP rs2044081 SNP in *GABRB1* with
399 alcohol dependence (McCabe et al., 2017). Previous studies have demonstrated significant
400 allelic association between the risk for alcohol dependence and both *GABRA2* and *GABRB1*
401 polymorphisms in humans (Parsian and Zhang, 1999, Porjesz et al., 2002, Sun et al., 1999,
402 Song et al., 2003, Edenberg et al., 2005, Edenberg et al., 2004).

403 It is unclear how variations in a non-coding region of *GABRB1* contribute to either altered
404 susceptibility to alcohol dependence, or to altered brain function during the performance of
405 psychometric tasks. One possibility is that the intronic variation contributes to efficiency of
406 expression of the gene, as has been suggested for intronic SNPs of *GABRA2* associated with
407 alcohol dependence (Lieberman et al, 2015). Although we have previously reported that
408 two independent mutations of mouse *Gabrb1* lead to enhanced ethanol consumption in
409 mice (Anstee et al., 2013), it is highly unlikely that variations in rs2044081 mimic such an
410 effect. The mouse mutant studies implicating $\beta 1$ found that the mutations of the gene giving
411 rise to increased alcohol intake did so by allowing spontaneous chloride flux through
412 affected GABA_A receptors. We do not know that this effect is unique to $\beta 1$ -containing
413 receptors, and it is likely that homologous mutations in other members of the β subunit
414 family would have similar consequences for channel gating, though whether they would
415 have similar behavioral effects is unknown. Thus the mouse studies provide only partial
416 evidence of a role of $\beta 1$ -containing GABA_A receptors in the control of alcohol drinking.

417 Secondly, in the human study, the rs2044081 SNP is located in a non-coding region of the
418 gene, and may reflect linkage with a nearby chromosomal region, rather than direct effects

419 on $\beta 1$ itself. Nearby genes include *GABRA2*, for which a significant body of work suggests a
420 link to alcohol use disorder. Nevertheless, taken together, the mouse and human studies
421 refocus attention on the GABA_A $\beta 1$ subunit as a potential contributor to addictive
422 phenotypes.

423 Rather than the association between $\beta 1$ SNP variants and alcohol abuse reflecting altered
424 sensitivity of the receptor to ethanol, the genetic variations may give rise to behavioral
425 traits such as altered reward sensitivity or impulsivity that predispose to loss of control over
426 excessive drug use. However, our data did not find a relationship to alcohol use history in
427 this population of adolescents. Variations in GABA_A receptors play a significant role in
428 impulsivity traits related to drug (and especially alcohol) misuse, in particular when
429 associated with early life stress. (Dick et al., 2010, Villafuerte et al., 2012, Villafuerte et al.,
430 2013, Dick et al., 2013); see (Stephens et al., 2017) for a review). Importantly, in our sample,
431 a life events questionnaire did not reveal any differences across the allelic groups.

432 Nevertheless, contrary to our expectations, within the adolescent sample, the rs2044081
433 allele was not associated with an impulsive or reward-sensitivity phenotype as measured by
434 SST and MID-Diff performance. Importantly, however, both SST and MID task performance
435 produced brain activity changes, which differed across genotypes. Thus, in SST, significant
436 differences in brain response during performance were seen in areas associated with
437 inhibitory control and attentional processing. According to expectation, a reduced brain
438 response was seen in the homozygous minor genotype compared to heterozygous and
439 homozygous major genotype in regions associated with inhibitory control (e.g. right
440 supramarginal gyrus) and visual working memory (lingual gyrus) and compared to
441 homozygous major in regions associated with attentional monitoring (e.g. inferior parietal
442 cortex). The altered brain responses in areas associated with task performance despite
443 unaltered performance may indicate that in these individuals, at this developmental stage,
444 compensatory changes in brain activity may serve to overcome potential deficits in
445 performance. Alternatively, the measure of the brain response may simply be more sensitive than
446 the measure of behavior, so that the behavioral changes are not detected.

447 Inferior parietal cortex activation has previously been found bilaterally during SST
448 performance by (Rubia et al., 2001), who concluded that this effect was due to movement-
449 related visuospatial attentional demands which may be higher in inhibition tasks.
450 Activations in Parietal and Temporal cortices areas have also been demonstrated previously
451 during SST performance (Nikolaou et al., 2013a). Interestingly, alcohol given acutely reduces
452 activation of inferior temporal cortex during successful stops in SST (Nikolaou et al., 2013a).

453 There was no significant difference between allelic groups regarding performance in the MID
454 task. However, that differences in BOLD response of left inferior frontal gyrus (IFG) during
455 performance were seen across the allelic groups suggests that greater activation was required
456 in the homozygous minor group compared to other two genotypes, for equal level of
457 performance of the task. Apart from its regulatory function in inhibiting pre-potent responses
458 (Aron et al., 2003a, Menon et al., 2001, Aron et al., 2003b, Picton et al., 2007, Nikolaou et al.,
459 2013b), IFG has also been associated with the detection of salient cues carrying emotionally
460 important information (Hampshire et al., 2009, Hampshire et al., 2010). Interestingly, IFG
461 responses were associated with the probability of responding on high win versus no win trials
462 in the MID task.

463 Caudate/insula were also found to be more activated during MID performance in the
464 homozygous minor group compared to heterozygous and homozygous major genotype.
465 These areas are involved in the cognitive and emotional processing of reward (striatum e.g.
466 (O'Doherty et al., 2002): insula e.g. (Tobler et al., 2006), and we have also shown these areas
467 (striatum and insula) to be activated in another reward anticipation measure, the incentive
468 conflict task (Duka et al., 2011). In keeping, (Knutson et al., 2000) have also shown increased
469 putamen activation during performance of the MID task. The putamen is rich in dopaminergic
470 terminals and along with the caudate makes up the dorsal striatum, an area heavily implicated
471 in supporting motivational behavior associated with reward (Knutson et al., 2000). Increased
472 BOLD responses in caudate in the homozygous minor group over the other groups may
473 indicate greater sensitivity to reward, leading in turn to increased IFG activity (seen also in
474 the homozygous minor group), presumably because participants were holding the outcome
475 of the MID predictive cues in working memory (Krawczyk et al., 2007). This suggestion may
476 be supported by the fact that correlations showed that the higher the response in the IFG,
477 the higher the anticipation response difference between large and small reward.

478 Increased brain responses during MID was also seen for the homozygous minor allelic group
479 relative to the other two genotypes in the inferior temporal gyrus. This area has been
480 associated with visual perception and recognition (Green and Proffitt, 2001), perhaps
481 suggesting that altered function in this area may contribute to changes in cue recognition
482 important in initiating the reward anticipatory response.

483 Although an association with rs2044081 in *GABRB1* and alcohol dependence has been
484 identified in predominantly middle-aged adults (McCabe et al., 2017), we found no significant
485 difference in the overall AUDIT score or on alcohol drinking habits in our sample of adolescent
486 participants. However, this is not surprising as the adolescent participants may be yet to
487 develop severe alcohol-related problems.

488 A strength of the present study is the sample size and cultural diversity of the adolescent
489 group. The generalizability is supported by the fact that testing centre was never a significant
490 covariate for SST and MID performance indicating there was no effect of country on the
491 results. A potential weakness of the study is the measure of impulsivity. The SST is an
492 impulsive action task which directly measures motor inhibition, while the MID is usually
493 interpreted as a measure of reward anticipation, rather than impulsivity (but see (Pena-Oliver
494 et al., 2016)).

495 In conclusion, the present study finds in adolescents that variations in *GABRB1* are associated
496 with altered brain responses in regions implicated in reward processing, and behavioral
497 control during performance of the MID, and SST respectively. While we found no evidence to
498 directly implicate these variations of *GABRB1* as risk factors for impulsivity and reward
499 sensitivity phenotypes, successful performance in these tasks may reflect altered function in
500 certain brain regions in adolescents.

501
502 However, whether these individuals will ultimately show a higher incidence of addictions
503 will reveal itself in follow up studies over the next twenty years. The current paper suggests
504 that it will be worthwhile investigating the *GABRB1* gene in these follow-up studies.

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506

507

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515 College, London for sharing her data (McCabe et al., 2017) indicating an association between
516 *GABRAB1* and alcohol dependence.

517 The authors declare that the research was conducted in the absence of any commercial or
518 financial relationships that could be construed as a potential conflict of interest.

519

520

521 **List of tables**

522 Table 1: Sample characteristics (gender and handedness distribution AUDIT-Total, LEQ-Total
 523 scores, Puberty development score and drinking habits), and behavioral data (proportion of
 524 correct responses to large and no wins as well as differences of large win no win in the MID
 525 (MID-diff); SSRT and RT of correct go responses in the SST). Data are presented as Mean and
 526 Standard Deviation (SD) for each allelic group separately. PDS: Puberty Development Scale
 527

SNP rs2044081	Homozygous Minor (n=30; male=11)	Heterozygous (n=305; male =137)	Homozygous Major (n=964; male=479)
Handedness (N) Right	25	267	852
Left	5	36	104
Both	0	2	8
AUDIT-Total	1.33 (2.20)	1.33 (2.10)	1.51 (2.61)
LEQ-Total	14.83 (4.81)	14.01(4.82)	14.36 (4.45)
PDS score Female	4.27 (.70)	4.32 (.69)	4.31 (.71)
PDS score male	2.39 (.40)	2.64 (.57)	2.65 (.51)
Occasions drinking in lifetime	1.80 (1.54)	2.02 (1.78)	1.98 (1.75)
Occasions drinking >5drinks	1.67 (.81)	1.95 (1.38)	1.79 (1.41)
MID correct large win (proportion)	70.30 (14.90)	66.85 (12.62)	67.36 (12.61)
MID correct no win (proportion)	49.70 (20.22)	51.74 (16.83)	51.10 (17.73)
MID-Diff (proportion)	20.61 (28.14)	15.11 (20.99)	16.25 (22.51)
SSRT (ms)	223.57 (27.67)	220.79 (37.57)	220.63(38.7)
SS correct go RT (ms)	433.06 (52.78)	432.21 (55.98)	428.47 (62.81)

528

529

530 Table 2: Whole brain magnitude related *F* scores and MNI coordinates of response peak for
 531 main effect of allelic group on the MID task.

Region	Cluster	L/R	F	MNI coord (x,y,z)
Inferior Temporal Gyrus	26	L	8.25	(-42, -13, -35)
			6.02	(-48, -16, -29)
Inferior Frontal Triangularis	23	R	7.75	(57, 35, 7)
Caudate/Insula	22	L	7.69	(-21, 20, 22)
			7.34	(-15, 26, 25)
			7.27	(-21, 26, 10)

532 Note. Table only includes significant grey matter clusters.

533

534 Table 3: Whole brain magnitude related *F* scores and MNI coordinates of response peak for
 535 main effect of allelic group during SST task.

Region	Cluster	L/R	F	MNI coord (x,y,z)
Supramarginal gyrus	68	R	12.75	(66, -55, 40)
			7.95	(66, -46, 43)
			7.52	(66, -49, 34)
Inferior Parietal	27	L	11.32	(-27, -52, 34)
Lingual	23	R	10.93	(18, -70, -11)
			5.65	(18, -58, -8)

536 Note. Table only includes significant grey matter clusters.

537

538

539 **Figure legends**

540 **Figure 1**

541 Schematic display of SST procedure (cited in Rubia et al, 2005)

542 **Figure 2**

543 Schematic outline of the stages of MID (cited in Nymberg et al, 2013)

544 **Figure 3:**

545 Activity enhancement or reduction associated with large win versus no win in MID during the
546 anticipation phase in the group of homozygous minor, heterozygous and homozygous major
547 for the SNP rs2044081. Increased BOLD responses within (A) the right inferior frontal
548 triangularis and (B) the left inferior frontal gyrus was found only in the group of homozygous
549 minor; also responses within (C) caudate/insula was larger in the homozygous minor group
550 compared with the other two groups. Data are presented in mean±SEM

551 **Figure 4**

552 Activity enhancement or reduction associated with “stop success” versus “go success”
553 contrast (SST contrast) in the group of homozygous minor, heterozygous and homozygous
554 major for the SNP rs2044081. Data are presented in mean±SEM

555

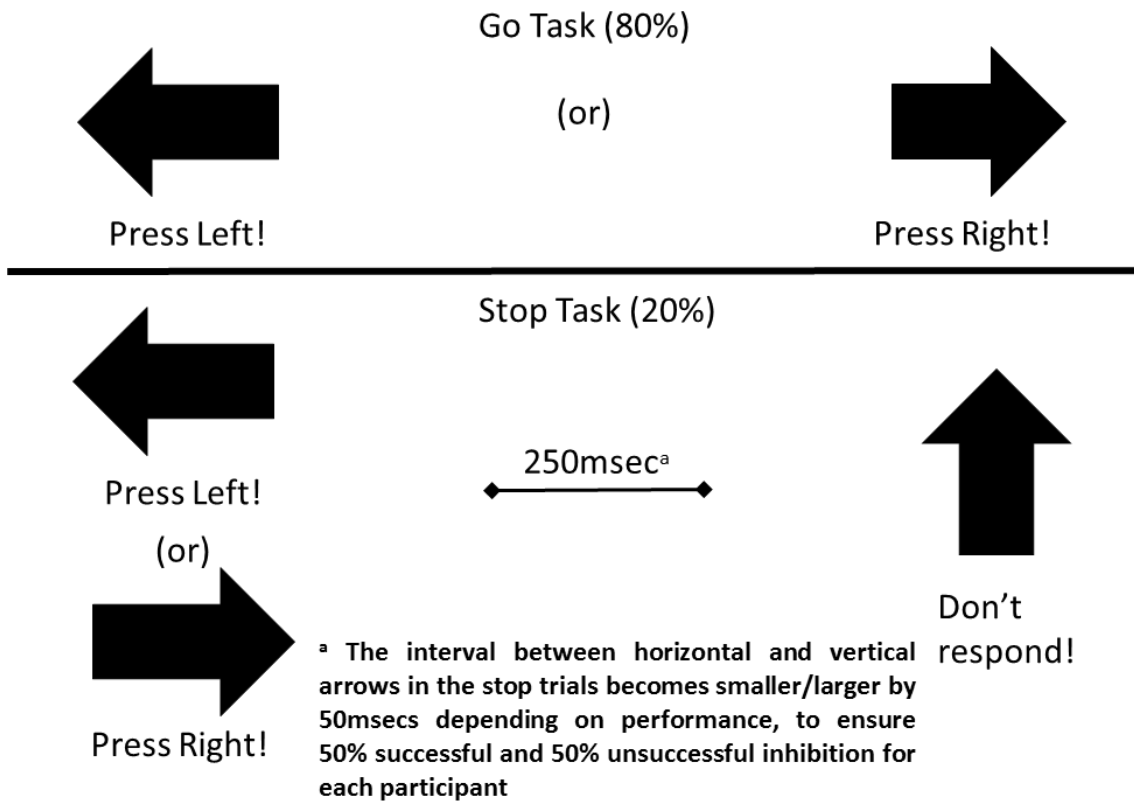
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558 **List of Figures**

559

560 **Figure 1**

561

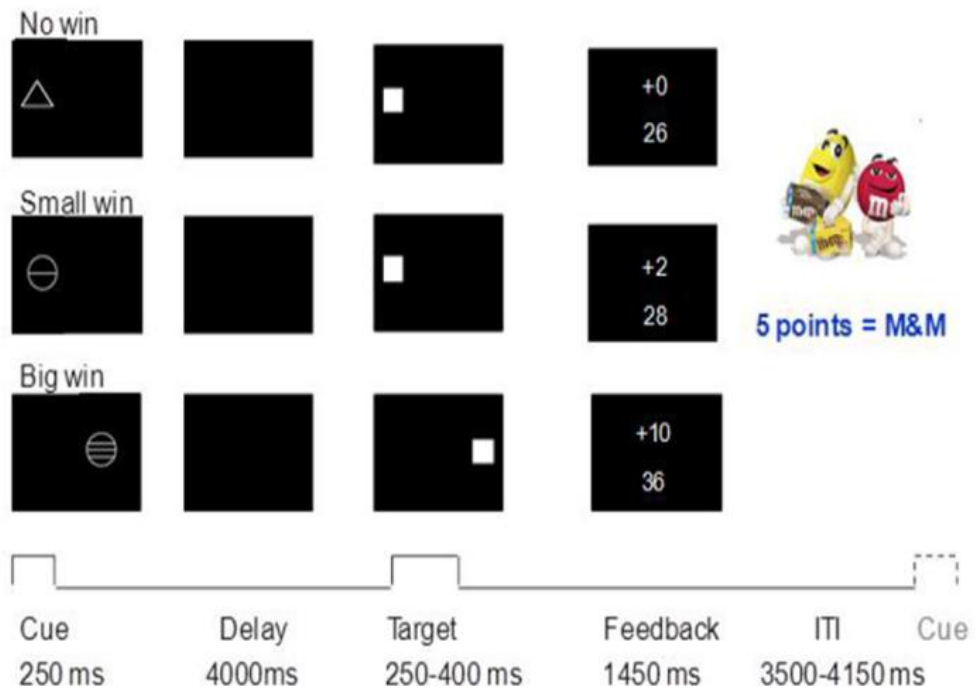


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565 **Figure 2**



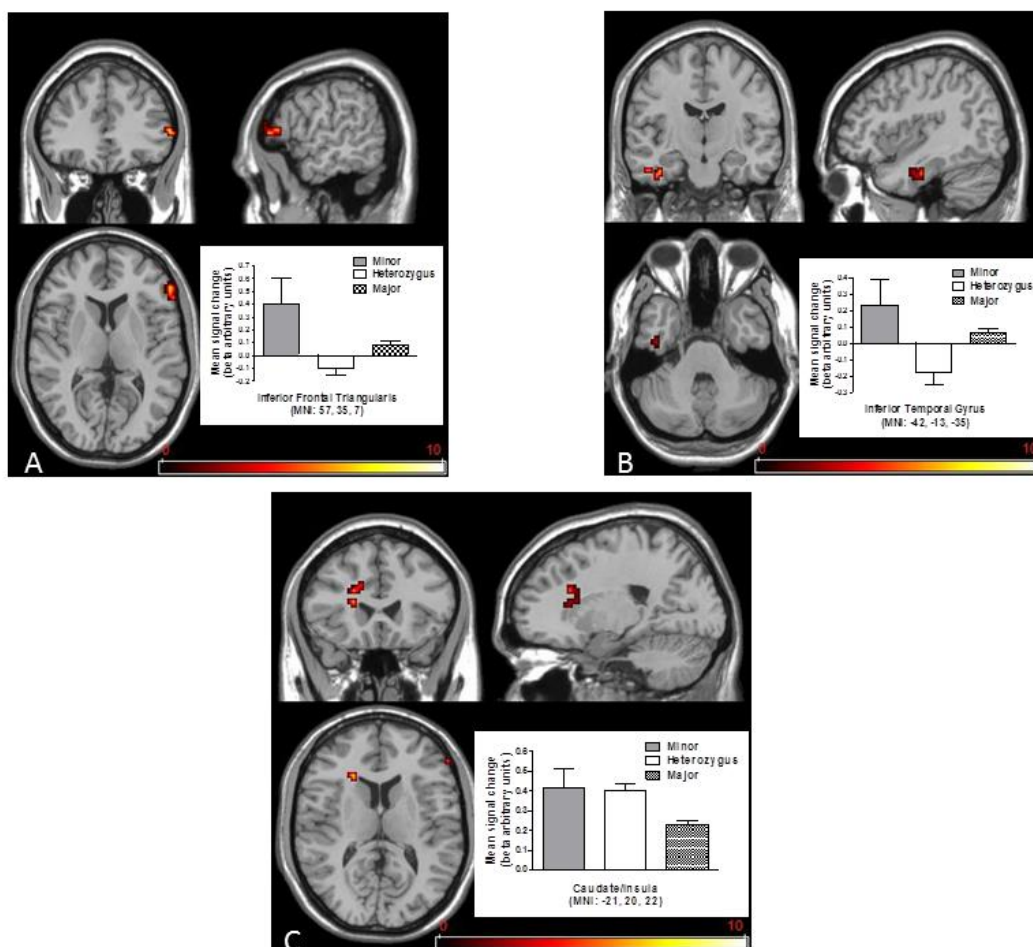
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569 **Figure 3 (A, B, C)**

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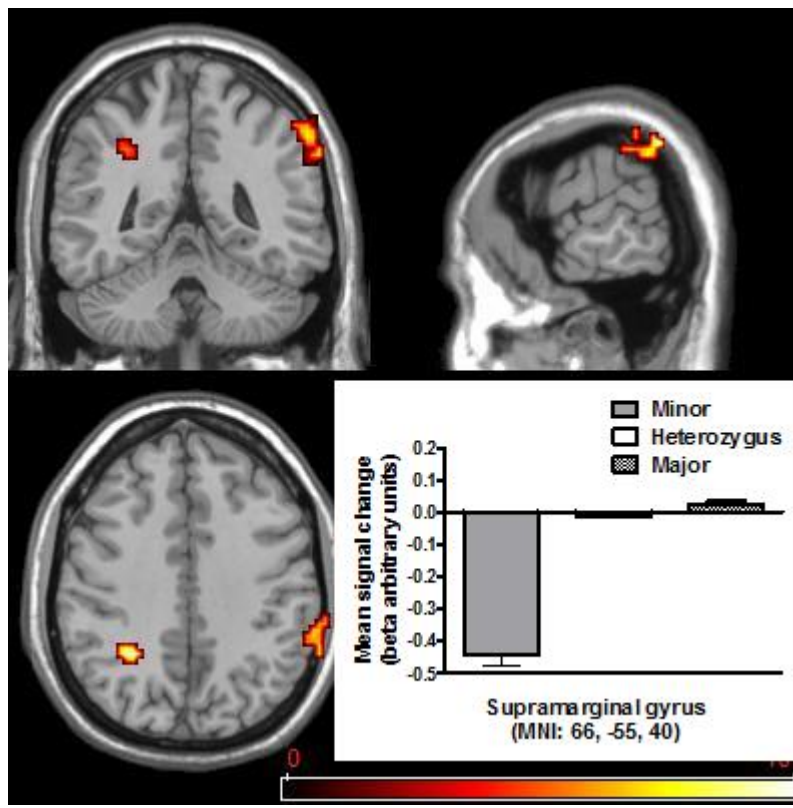
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574 **Figure 4**

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