

1 **Alcohol consumption and mate choice in UK Biobank: comparing**
2 **observational and Mendelian randomization estimates**

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Abstract

25 Alcohol use is correlated within spouse-pairs, but it is difficult to disentangle
26 the effects of alcohol consumption on mate-selection from social factors or
27 cohabitation leading to spouses becoming more similar over time. We hypothesised
28 that genetic variants related to alcohol consumption may, via their effect on alcohol
29 behaviour, influence mate selection.

30 Therefore, in a sample of over 47,000 spouse-pairs in the UK Biobank we
31 utilised a well-characterised alcohol related variant, rs1229984 in *ADH1B*, as a
32 genetic proxy for alcohol use. We compared the phenotypic concordance between
33 spouses for self-reported alcohol use with the association between an individual's
34 self-reported alcohol use and their partner's rs1229984 genotype using Mendelian
35 randomization. This was followed up by an exploration of the spousal genotypic
36 concordance for the variant and an analysis determining if relationship length may be
37 related to spousal alcohol behaviour similarities.

38 We found strong evidence that both an individual's self-reported alcohol
39 consumption and rs1229984 genotype are associated with their partner's self-
40 reported alcohol use. The Mendelian randomization analysis found that each unit
41 increase in an individual's weekly alcohol consumption increased their partner's
42 alcohol consumption by 0.26 units (95% C.I. 0.15, 0.38; $P=1.10 \times 10^{-5}$). Furthermore,
43 the rs1229984 genotype was concordant within spouse-pairs, suggesting that some
44 spousal concordance for alcohol consumption existed prior to cohabitation. Although
45 the SNP is strongly associated with ancestry, our results suggest that this
46 concordance is unlikely to be explained by population stratification. Overall, our
47 findings suggest that alcohol behaviour directly influences mate selection.

48

Introduction

49 Human mate choice is highly non-random; spouse-pairs are generally more
50 phenotypically similar than would be expected by chance¹⁻⁶. Previous studies
51 suggest that alcohol related phenotypes, ranging from consumption to alcohol
52 dependence, are highly correlated within spouse-pairs⁷⁻¹³. However, the extent to
53 which the spousal concordance is due to the effect of alcohol behaviour on mate
54 selection (assortative mating) is currently unclear. Indeed, the spousal concordance
55 may be related to assortment on other social and environmental factors (social
56 homogamy) or be a consequence of an individual's partner influencing their alcohol
57 behaviour after the individuals have paired up (partner interaction effects) or even
58 relate to spousal similarities influencing relationship length (relationship dissolution)
59¹¹⁻¹³. The mechanism explaining spousal concordance for alcohol consumption could
60 have important implications relating to human social and reproductive behaviour.
61 **Figure 1** illustrates possible explanations for spousal concordance on alcohol
62 consumption.

63 One biological mechanism that partially explains the phenotypic concordance
64 between spouse-pairs is that they are on average more genetically similar across the
65 genome than non-spouse-pairs¹⁴. Genotypes implicated in the aetiology of height,
66 education, blood pressure and several chronic diseases have been shown to be
67 correlated within spouse-pairs¹⁵⁻¹⁸. It is not known whether genetic variants
68 implicated in alcohol metabolism, via their effect on alcohol behaviour, contribute to
69 mate selection.

70 Alcohol behaviour has been shown to be highly heritable with estimates of
71 30-50% for alcohol use disorders^{19 20} and a common variant heritability of 13% for

72 self-reported alcohol consumption²¹; Genome-wide Association Studies (GWAS)
73 have identified more than 15 loci implicated in either the aetiology of alcohol
74 dependence²²⁻²⁶ or alcohol consumption volume^{21 24 27-29}. Notably, genetic variants
75 in the Alcohol Dehydrogenase (*ADH*) and Aldehyde Dehydrogenase (*ALDH*) gene
76 families are associated with differences in alcohol consumption³⁰. For example,
77 *ADH1B* is involved in the production of enzymes that oxidise alcohol and so
78 individuals with certain alleles may find alcohol consumption unpleasant, resulting in
79 lower intake. Similarly, a genetic variant in *ALDH2*, rare in non-east Asian
80 populations, is associated with a “flush reaction” to alcohol^{31 32}.

81 Alcohol consumption-related genetic variants can be useful to determine the
82 most likely explanation for the spousal phenotypic concordance for alcohol use, by
83 analogy with Mendelian randomization studies^{33 34}. Genetic variants for alcohol
84 consumption are in theory less susceptible to confounding from socioeconomic and
85 behavioural factors than measured alcohol consumption so can be used to rule out
86 the possibility that social homogamy is driving the spousal phenotypic concordance
87^{33 35}. The timing of the effects of alcohol consumption can be discerned by evaluating
88 the spousal genotypic concordance for alcohol use-related variants. Genotypic
89 concordance would imply that an effect exists prior to pairing, suggesting that some
90 degree of the spousal phenotypic concordance is attributable to assortative mating
91 **(Figure 2)**.

92 In this study we aimed to explore spousal similarities for alcohol consumption
93 using observational and genetic data. First, we estimated the association of an
94 individual’s self-reported alcohol use with the self-reported alcohol use of their
95 partner. Second, we used a Mendelian randomization framework to estimate the
96 effect of an individual’s alcohol use on their spouse’s alcohol use. Here, we used

97 their partner's rs1229984 genotype, a missense mutation in *ADH1B* strongly
98 associated with alcohol consumption as an instrumental variable for self-reported
99 alcohol consumption. Third, we estimated the association of rs1229984 genotype
100 between spouses, to evaluate the timing of possible causal effects, and investigate
101 the possibility of bias from population stratification. Fourth, using the mean age of
102 each couple as a proxy for relationship duration, we determined if there was an
103 association between longer relationships and more similar spousal alcohol
104 behaviour. As a positive control, to demonstrate the validity of derived spouse pairs
105 and the usage of a Mendelian randomization framework, we also analysed height,
106 known to be correlated between spouses, using similar methods.

107 **Materials and Methods**

108 **Study participants**

109 *UK Biobank*

110 UK Biobank is a large-scale cohort study, including 502,655 participants aged
111 between 40-69 years. Study participants were recruited from 22 recruitment centres
112 across the United Kingdom between 2006 and 2010^{36,37}. For the purposes of our
113 analyses, we restricted the dataset to a subset of 463,827 individuals of recent
114 European descent with available genotype data, with individuals of non-European
115 descent removed based on a k-means cluster analysis on the first 4 genetic principal
116 components³⁸. The different subsets of UK Biobank utilised in our analyses are
117 illustrated in **Supplementary Figure 1**.

118 *Spouse-pair subsample*

119 Spouse information is not explicitly available, therefore we used similar
120 methods to previous studies¹⁵⁻¹⁷ to identify spouse-pairs in the UK Biobank. Starting

121 with the European subsample described above, household sharing information was
122 used to extract pairs of individuals who (a) report living with their spouse (6141-0.0),
123 (b) report the same length of time living in the house (699-0.0), (c) report the same
124 number of occupants in the household (709-0.0), (d) report the same number of
125 vehicles (728-0.0), (e) report the same accommodation type and rental status (670-
126 0.0, 680-0.0), (f) have identical home coordinates (rounded to the nearest km)
127 (20074-0.0, 20075-0.0), (g) are registered with the same UK Biobank recruitment
128 centre (54-0.0) and (h) both have available genotype data. If more than two
129 individuals shared identical information across all variables, these individuals were
130 excluded from analysis. At this stage, we identified 52,471 potential spouse-pairs.

131 We excluded 4,866 potential couples who were the same sex (9.3% of the
132 sample), as unconfirmed same sex pairs may be more likely to be false positives.
133 Although sexual orientation data was collected in UK Biobank, access is restricted
134 for privacy/ethical reasons. To reduce the possibility that identified spouse-pairs are
135 in fact related or non-related familial, non-spouse pairs; we removed 3 pairs
136 reporting the same age of death for both parents (1807-0.0, 3526-0.0). Then we
137 constructed a genetic relationship matrix (GRM) amongst derived pairs and removed
138 53 pairs with estimated relatedness (IBD >0.1). To construct the GRM; we used a
139 pool of 78,341 markers which were derived by LD pruning (50KB, steps of 5 KB,
140 $r^2 < 0.1$) 1,440,616 SNPs from the HapMap3 reference panel³⁹ using the 1000
141 Genomes CEU genotype data⁴⁰ as a reference panel. The final-sample included
142 47,549 spouse-pairs.

143 *Non-spouse-pair samples*

144 For secondary analyses requiring data from unrelated individuals, we derived
145 a sample of individuals of European descent and a more restrictive sample believed

146 to be of white British descent. Starting with the UK Biobank subset of 463,827
147 individuals of recent European descent, we removed 78,540 related individuals
148 (relevant methodology has been described previously³⁸) to generate the European
149 sample and using lists provided by UK Biobank, further restricted this sample to
150 337,114 individuals identifying as being of “white British” descent.

151

152 **Height and educational attainment**

153 At baseline, the height (cm) of UK Biobank participants was measured using a
154 Seca 202 device at the assessment centre (ID: 50-0.0). Measured height was used
155 as a positive control for the application of a Mendelian randomization framework in
156 the context of assortative mating.

157 Educational attainment as characterised by years in full-time education was
158 defined as in a previous publication⁴¹. Individuals born outside England, Scotland or
159 Wales were removed because of schooling system differences, participants with a
160 college or university degree were classified with a leaving age of 21 years and
161 participants who self-reported leaving school when younger than 15 years were
162 classified with a leaving age of 15. Educational attainment was included as a
163 covariate in phenotypic analyses of spousal alcohol behaviour similarities as a
164 possible confounder.

165

166 **Self-reported alcohol variables**

167 At baseline, study participants completed a questionnaire. Participants were
168 asked to describe their current drinking status (never, previous, current, prefer not to

169 say) (ID: 20117-0.0) and estimate their current alcohol intake frequency (daily or
170 almost daily, three or four times a week, once or twice a week, one to three times a
171 month, special occasions only, never, prefer not to say) (ID: 1558-0.0). Individuals
172 reporting a current intake frequency of at least “once or twice a week” were asked to
173 estimate their average weekly intake of a range of different alcoholic beverages (red
174 wine, white wine, champagne, beer, cider, spirits, fortified wine) (ID: 1568-0.0, 1578-
175 0.0, 1588-0.0, 1598-0.0, 1608-0.0).

176 From these variables, we derived three measures: ever or never consumed
177 alcohol (current or former against never), a binary measure of current drinking for
178 self-reported current drinkers (three or more times a week against less than three
179 times a week) and an average intake of alcoholic units per week, derived by
180 combining the self-reported estimated intakes of the different alcoholic beverages
181 consumptions across the five drink types, as in a previous study²¹. The
182 questionnaire used the following measurement units for each of the five alcoholic
183 drink types: measures for spirits, glasses for wines and pints for beer/cider which
184 were estimated to be equivalent to 1, 2 and 2.5 units respectively. Individuals
185 reporting current intake frequency of “one to three times a month”, “special
186 occasions only” or “never” (for whom this phenotype was not collected), were
187 assumed to have a weekly alcohol consumption volume of 0. More information on
188 alcohol variables used in this study is contained in **Supplementary Table 1**.

189 **Genotyping**

190 488,377 UK Biobank study participants were assayed using two similar
191 genotyping arrays, the UK BiLEVE Axiom™ Array by Affymetrix1 (N= 49,950) and
192 the closely-related UK Biobank Axiom™ Array (N= 438,427). Directly genotyped
193 variants were pre-phased using SHAPEIT3⁴² and then imputed using Impute4 using

194 the UK10K⁴³, Haplotype Reference Consortium⁴⁴ and 1000 Genomes Phase 3⁴⁰
195 reference panels. Post-imputation, data were available on approximately ~96 million
196 genetic variants.

197 **Statistical analysis**

198 *Utilising genetic variation to disentangle spousal correlations*

199 In general, the effects of genetic variation on a phenotype can be assumed to
200 be via the variant's effect on intermediary observable or unobservable phenotypes.
201 In the context of assortative mating, it is unlikely that individuals would assort based
202 directly on genotype but rather on an observed phenotype influenced by genetic
203 factors. Assuming that a phenotype is influenced by genetic factors G and individuals
204 assort on the phenotype such that the phenotypic correlation between spouses is
205 equal to C , then expected correlations between an index individual's G and their
206 partner's phenotype and G induced by assortment can be shown to be a function of
207 the heritability of the phenotype and the spousal phenotypic correlation C
208 (**Supplementary Methods**). This implies that estimates of assortative mating
209 utilising genetic data are likely to be attenuated compared to the true value of
210 phenotypic assortment, unless genetic factors completely explain variation in the
211 phenotype of interest.

212 However, there are notable advantages of applying genetic approaches such
213 as Mendelian randomization and genetic correlation analyses to the context of
214 assortative mating for mechanistic understanding. In conventional Mendelian
215 randomization studies^{33 34}, genetic variants are used as proxies for a measured
216 exposure to evaluate potential causal relationships between an exposure and an
217 outcome (e.g. LDL cholesterol and coronary heart disease⁴⁵). Genetic proxies may

218 be more reliable than the measured exposure because of the reduced potential for
219 confounding and reverse causation.

220 In the context of Mendelian randomization across spouses, the premise is
221 largely similar; the exposure is an individual's phenotype (e.g. alcohol consumption),
222 proxied by a genetic instrument, and the outcome is their partner's phenotype (e.g.
223 alcohol consumption). A Mendelian randomization approach can evaluate a direct
224 effect of an individual's alcohol consumption on the alcohol consumption of their
225 partner as opposed to effects of social homogamy. A direct effect captured by a
226 Mendelian randomization framework could capture; individuals being likely to select
227 a mate with similar behaviour (assortative mating), an individual's alcohol
228 consumption influencing their partner's during the relationship (partner interaction
229 effects) or more similar couples staying together for longer (relationship dissolution).
230 Interpretation can be nuanced, as for example, it seems unlikely that an individual's
231 height could influence the height of their partner, but partner interaction effects are
232 highly plausible for alcohol behaviour.

233 Similarly, estimating the genotypic concordance between-spouses for variants
234 relating to a trait of interest can be used to improve mechanistic understanding. The
235 interpretation of genotypic concordance is comparable to that of Mendelian
236 randomization across spouses with two important distinctions. First, genotypic
237 concordance will not capture partner interaction effects as germline DNA is fixed for
238 both spouses prior to assortment. Second, concordance induced by assortment will
239 be further attenuated compared to a Mendelian randomization approach.

240 *Phenotypic spousal concordance for height*

241 To verify the validity of the derived spouse-pair sample, we evaluated the
242 spousal phenotypic concordance for height. Previous studies have found strong
243 evidence of spousal concordance for height, so comparable results would be
244 consistent with derived spouses being genuine. The spousal phenotypic
245 concordance was estimated using a linear regression of an individual's height
246 against the height of their partner, adjusting for sex. With one unique phenotype
247 pairing within couples (male spouse height/ female spouse height), each individual in
248 the data-set was included only once as either the reference individual or their
249 partner.

250 *Mendelian randomization: Genetically influenced height and measured height of*
251 *partner*

252 We validated the application of a Mendelian randomization approach to
253 assortative mating using height as a positive control; genotypes influencing height
254 have previously demonstrated to be highly correlated between spouse-pairs¹⁵. As a
255 measure of genetically influenced height, we started with 382 independent SNPs,
256 generated using LD clumping ($r^2 < 0.001$) in MR-Base⁴⁶, from a recent Genome-wide
257 Association Study (GWAS) of adult height in Europeans⁴⁷.

258 For the purposes of the Mendelian randomization analysis, we restricted
259 analyses to spouse-pairs with complete measured height data and genotype data.
260 First, we estimated the association between 378 SNPs (4 SNPs were unavailable in
261 the QC version of the data-set) and height in the same individual, using the spouse-
262 pair sample with sex included as a covariate. Second, we estimated the association
263 between the 378 SNPs and spousal height. PLINK⁴⁸ was used to estimate the SNP-

264 phenotype associations also including sex as a covariate. We then estimated the
265 effect of a 1 cm increase in an individual's height on their partner's height using the
266 TwoSampleMR R package ⁴⁶ and the internally derived weights described above.
267 The fixed-effects Inverse-Variance Weighted (IVW) method was used as the primary
268 analysis. Cochran's Q test and the I^2 statistic were used to test for heterogeneity in
269 the fixed-effects IVW ⁴⁹. MR Egger ⁵⁰ was used to test for directional pleiotropy. The
270 weighted median ⁵¹ and mode ⁵² were used to test the consistency of the effect
271 estimate. With two unique pairings between genotype and phenotype in each couple
272 (male spouse genotype/ female spouse height and the converse), each individual in
273 the data-set was included twice as both the reference individual and as the partner.

274 *Spousal genetic concordance for height*

275 To evaluate spousal genotypic concordance for height, we evaluated the
276 association between height genetic risk scores (GRS) across spouse-pairs. Height
277 GRS were constructed using previously described height loci in PLINK ⁴⁸. The cross-
278 spouse association was estimated using linear regression of an individual's GRS
279 against the GRS of their partner. With one unique genotype pairing within couples
280 (male spouse genotype/female spouse genotype), each individual in the dataset was
281 included only once as either the reference individual or their partner.

282 *Phenotypic spousal concordance for self-reported alcohol behaviour*

283 To evaluate the phenotypic concordance on alcohol use we compared self-
284 reported alcohol behaviour between spouses. We estimated the spousal
285 concordance for the two binary measures (ever or never consumed alcohol, three or
286 more times a week) using a logistic regression of the relevant variable for an
287 individual against the relevant variable for their partner, adjusting for sex, age and

288 partner's age. In addition, we included recruitment centre, height and education (of
289 both spouses) in the model as potential confounders. Similarly, linear regression was
290 used to estimate the spousal-concordance for continuous weekly alcohol
291 consumption volume, adjusting for the same covariates. Spouse-pairs with any
292 missing phenotype data, or where one or more spouses reported their weekly
293 alcohol consumption volume to be more than five standard deviations away from the
294 mean (calculated using the sample of individuals with non-zero weekly drinking)
295 were removed from relevant analyses. With one unique phenotype pairing within
296 couples (male alcohol variable/ female alcohol variable), each individual in the data-
297 set was included only once as either the reference individual or their partner.

298 *Mendelian randomization: Genetically influenced alcohol consumption volume and*
299 *self-reported alcohol consumption of partner*

300 We then applied the Mendelian randomization framework to investigate if an
301 individual's genotype at rs1229984 in *ADH1B* affects the self-reported alcohol
302 consumption volume of their partner. Given the rarity of individuals homozygous for
303 the minor allele in European populations, the MAF is 2.9% in the 1000 Genomes
304 CEU population⁴⁰, we first determined whether an additive or a dominant model (as
305 used in previous studies^{45 53}) was most appropriate for the SNP by comparing the
306 association of genotype at rs1229984 with self-reported weekly alcohol consumption
307 in the European and British samples. We found strong evidence to suggest that the
308 SNP has an additive effect on alcohol consumption (**Supplementary Table 2**) and
309 assumed this model in all relevant analyses.

310 For the Mendelian randomization analysis, we restricted analysis to spouse-
311 pairs where both members had genotype data, and one or more members had self-
312 reported alcohol consumption volume. First, we estimated the association of the

313 rs1229984 genotype with alcohol consumption in the same individual after adjusting
314 for sex, age, centre and the first 10 principal components of the reference individual.
315 Second, we estimated the association between rs1229984 and spousal alcohol
316 consumption after adjusting for sex, age (of both spouses), centre and the first 10
317 principal components of both spouses. PLINK⁴⁸ was used to estimate the SNP-
318 phenotypic associations. We then estimated the effect of a 1 unit increase in an
319 individual's weekly alcohol consumption volume on the same variable in their
320 partner. The Wald ratio estimate was obtained using `mr_wald_ratio` function in the
321 TwoSample MR R package⁴⁶ using internally derived weights. Sensitivity analyses
322 were limited due to the use of a single genetic instrument. With two unique pairings
323 between genotype and phenotype in each couple (male alcohol variable/ female
324 genotype and the converse), each individual in the data-set was included twice as
325 both the reference individual and as the partner.

326 *Spousal genotypic concordance for rs1229984 genotype*

327 We then investigated properties of the rs122984 variant in the UK Biobank
328 that may be relevant to assortative mating. Starting with the UK Biobank subset of
329 463,827 individuals of recent European descent, we removed 78,540 related
330 individuals (relevant methodology has been described previously³⁸) and tested
331 Hardy-Weinberg Equilibrium (HWE) in the resulting sample of 385,287 individuals.
332 To evaluate the possibility of population stratification, we investigated the association
333 of both the SNP and self-reported alcohol consumption with genetic principal
334 components and birth coordinates. As a sensitivity analysis, we also restricted the
335 sample to a more homogeneous sample of British individuals, provided by the UK
336 Biobank, and repeated analyses.

337 We then estimated the genotypic concordance between derived spouse-pairs
338 for rs1229984 genotype using linear regression. As a sensitivity analysis, we then
339 investigated the possibility that spousal-concordance for rs1229984 was driven by
340 fine-scale assortative mating due to geography, which is itself associated with
341 genetic variation within the UK^{54 55}. For this, we restricted the sample to include only
342 28,653 spouse-pairs born within 100 miles of each other. To test the validity of this
343 sensitivity analysis, we explored whether birth or genetic differences (as determined
344 by principal components) between spouses are associated with alcohol behaviour or
345 rs122984 genotype differences in the restricted and full spouse-pair samples. The
346 spouse-pairs were then stratified into the 22 different UK Biobank recruitment
347 centres and logistic regression analyses were re-run to estimate the spousal-
348 concordance of the *ADH1B* genotype by centre. With one unique genotype pairing
349 within couples (male genotype/female genotype), each individual in the dataset was
350 included only once as either the reference individual or their partner. Geographical
351 patterns of heterogeneity across the different UK Biobank recruitment centres would
352 provide evidence of population stratification.

353 *Relationship duration and spousal alcohol behaviour*

354 Relationship length may influence spousal similarities for alcohol behaviour
355 because spouses become more similar over time or because pairs with similar
356 alcohol behaviour tend to have longer relationships. To explore these possibilities,
357 we investigated the association between relationship length and alcohol behaviour
358 and rs122984 genotype similarities. Without available data on relationship length, we
359 used the mean age of each couple as a proxy and evaluated associations using a
360 linear regression of mean couple age against spousal difference in weekly alcohol

361 consumption and rs1229984 genotype. Analyses were adjusted for the sex of
362 reference individual.

363

364 A list of derived spouse-pairs has been returned to UK Biobank. For details please
365 contact access@ukbiobank.ac.uk.

366

367 **Results**

368 **Spousal concordance for height**

369 *Phenotypic concordance for height*

370 Measured height was strongly concordant between spouse-pairs. In a sample
371 of 47,377 spouse-pairs, a 1 unit increase in an individual's height was associated
372 with a 0.24-unit increase (95% C.I. 0.23, 0.25, $P < 10^{-16}$) in their partner's height. This
373 result is consistent with previous findings^{56 57}, validating the derived spouse pairs.

374 *Mendelian randomization framework: Genetically influenced height and height of* 375 *partner*

376 The application of Mendelian randomization to spousal height was consistent
377 with the previous evidence for assortative mating on height. Across 47,377 spouse-
378 pairs, a 1 cm increase in an individual's height was associated with a 0.19 cm
379 increase in their partner's height (95% C.I. 0.18, 0.21; $P < 10^{-16}$), distinctly smaller
380 than the phenotype estimate (Z-test for difference of means: $P = 8.3 \times 10^{-8}$). The I^2
381 statistic (2.9%) and Cochran's Q test ($P = 0.64$) suggested consistent effects across
382 SNPs, and estimates were consistent across the weighted median, weighted modal

383 and MR-Egger estimators with the MR-Egger intercept test finding no strong
 384 evidence for directional pleiotropy (**Table 1**).

385 **Table 1: Mendelian randomization estimates for the effect of a 1 cm increase in**
 386 **height on partner's height**

Test	Interpretation	Estimate (95% C.I.)	P-value
Phenotypic association for comparison	N/A	0.24 (0.23, 0.25)	$<10^{-16}$
Inverse variance weighted	Primary causal estimate ¹	0.19 (0.18, 0.21)	$<10^{-16}$
Heterogeneity of Inverse variance weighted	Balanced pleiotropy	$I^2=3.6\%$	0.68
MR-Egger	Intercept test for directional pleiotropy ²	0.001 (-0.006, 0.008)	0.75
	Regression estimate ¹	0.19 (0.15, 0.21)	$<10^{-16}$
Weighted median	Consistency ¹	0.18 (0.15, 0.21)	$<10^{-16}$
Weighted mode	Consistency ¹	0.17 (-0.23, 0.57)	0.41

387 ¹ Units: mm change in partner's height per 1-unit increase in individual's height

388 ² Units: Average pleiotropic effect of a height genetic variant on partner's height

389

390 *Genotypic concordance for height*

391 Similarly, the genotypic concordance analysis for height was strongly
 392 concordant with previous findings; we found strong evidence that spouses have
 393 similar genotypes at height influencing loci. Each 1 S.D. increase in an individual's
 394 height GRS was associated with a 0.024 S.D. increase in their partner's GRS (95%
 395 C.I. 0.015, 0.033; $P=1.96 \times 10^{-7}$).

396

397 **Spousal concordance for self-reported alcohol behaviour**

398 *Phenotypic spousal concordance*

399 The majority of derived spouse-pairs had complete data for relevant self-
400 reported alcohol behaviour phenotypes. Strong evidence was found for phenotypic
401 concordance between spouse-pairs for all self-reported alcohol variables. Amongst
402 45,066 spouse-pairs, an individual self-reporting as a never-drinker was associated
403 with increased odds (OR 13.03, 95% C.I., 10.98, 15.44 $P < 10^{-16}$) of their partner self-
404 reporting as a never-drinker. Similarly, when restricting to 40,723 pairs who both
405 reported being current-drinkers, an individual drinking three or more times a week
406 had increased odds (OR 6.24, 95% C.I., 5.95, 6.54 $P < 10^{-16}$) of their partner also
407 drinking three or more times a week.

408 For self-reported alcohol consumption volume; 44,886 spouse-pairs had
409 either complete phenotype data or reported their consumption frequency as less
410 than weekly (in which case their weekly volume was assumed to be 0). After
411 removing 189 pairs with outlying values (>5 S.D from the mean) from one or more
412 members, the final sample included 47,321 spouse-pairs. In this sample, each unit
413 increase in an individual's weekly alcohol consumption volume was associated with
414 a 0.37-unit increase (95% C.I. 0.36, 0.38 $P < 10^{-16}$) in the same variable in their
415 partner.

416 *Mendelian randomization: Genetically influenced alcohol consumption and self-* 417 *reported alcohol behaviour of partner*

418 To evaluate the degree to which an individual's alcohol consumption is
419 affected by their partner's genetically influenced alcohol consumption, we used a
420 sample of 47,321 spouse-pairs with available data on weekly alcohol consumption.
421 In this sample, each additional copy of the *ADH1B* major allele was associated with

422 an increased weekly alcohol consumption of 3.98 units a week (95% C.I. 3.51, 4.43;
423 $P < 10^{-16}$) in the same individual. Each additional copy of the major allele was
424 associated with an increased weekly alcohol consumption of 1.04 units a week (95%
425 C.I. 0.58, 1.51; $P = 1.09 \times 10^{-5}$) in the reference individual's partner. After scaling the
426 estimate using a Wald estimator; a 1 unit increase in an individual's alcohol
427 consumption led to having partner's with alcohol consumption 0.26 units higher than
428 baseline (95% C.I. 0.15, 0.38; $P = 1.10 \times 10^{-5}$). This effect is slightly lower than the
429 phenotypic estimate of 0.37 units (95% C.I. 0.36, 0.38) although confidence intervals
430 overlap (Z-test for difference of means: $P = 0.064$).

431

432 *Characteristics of rs1229984 in the UK Biobank*

433 In the sample of 385,287 individuals of recent European descent, the MAF of
434 rs1229984 was 2.8% and very strong evidence was found for the SNP violating
435 HWE ($\text{Chi}^2 = 275$, $P < 10^{-16}$) due to fewer heterozygotes compared to expectation
436 (expected=20,972, observed=20,194). However, when restricting to the sample of
437 337,114 individuals of British descent, the MAF of rs1229984 was 2.2% and there
438 was little evidence of the SNP violating HWE ($\text{Chi}^2 = 2.0$, $P = 0.16$) and there were
439 more heterozygotes compared to expected (expected= 14,506 observed=14,743)
440 (**Supplementary Table 3**). Evidence was found of allele frequency differences for
441 rs1229984 between the two samples ($\text{Chi}^2 = 445$, $P < 10^{-16}$) suggesting that population
442 substructure differences may explain the HWE results.

443 The SNP was found to be strongly associated with both genetic principal
444 components and birth coordinates in both samples. In the less restrictive European
445 sample, each additional major allele of rs1229984 was associated with being born

446 24.6 miles farther north (95% C.I. 22.2, 27.0) and 13.3 miles farther west (95% C.I.
447 12.1, 14.5). The SNP was similarly associated with principal components and birth
448 coordinates in the sample of British descent although there were differences in effect
449 estimates between the two samples (**Supplementary Table 4**). We also found
450 strong evidence that self-reported alcohol consumption is strongly associated with
451 birth coordinates and principal components in both samples concordant directionally
452 with the SNP associations (**Supplementary Table 5**).

453 *Genotypic concordance*

454 Amongst 47,549 spouse-pairs, strong concordance was observed for the
455 genotype of rs1229984. Each additional copy of the major rs1229984 allele was
456 associated with an increased number of major alleles in their partner (Beta 0.019;
457 95% C.I. 0.010, 0.028; $P=5.0 \times 10^{-5}$).

458 As a sensitivity analysis, we restricted the sample to 28,653 spouse-pairs
459 born within 100 miles of each other and stratified spouse-pairs by the 22 different UK
460 Biobank recruitment centres. In this sample, we did not find strong evidence that
461 birth location differences were associated with similarities in alcohol behaviour or
462 rs1229984 genotype, contrasting with clear evidence of associations in the full
463 spouse-sample. However, we did find evidence that genomic principal component
464 differences were associated with spousal similarities for these variables, likely
465 reflecting the fine-scale population structure of UK Biobank (**Supplementary Table**
466 **6**). Of the 22 centres, 2 centres were omitted from the meta-analysis because the
467 limited sample sizes led to convergence issues in regression. A fixed-effects meta-
468 analysis was then used to estimate the spousal-concordance across the remaining
469 20 centres and 28,615 spouse-pairs. Evidence was found of spousal concordance

470 for rs1229984 (Beta 0.016; 95% C.I. 0.004, 0.028; P=0.011), consistent with the
 471 previous analysis. Cochran's Q test for heterogeneity across the betas suggested no
 472 strong evidence for heterogeneity (P= 0.34) across the different centres (**Table 2**).

473 **Table 2: Meta-analysis of spousal-concordance for rs1229984 across the UK**
 474 **Biobank recruitment centres**

Recruitment Centre	Number of spouse-pairs born within 100 km of each other	Beta (95% C.I.)
Stockport	9	N/A ¹
Manchester	662	0.024 (-0.088, 0.0675)
Oxford	669	-0.010 (-0.088, 0.067)
Cardiff	930	0.022 (-0.043, 0.088)
Glasgow	1046	0.072 (0.019, 0.125)
Edinburgh	611	-0.047 (-0.166, 0.070)
Stoke	1215	-0.012 (-0.075, 0.051)
Reading	1352	0.003 (-0.055, 0.060)
Bury	2244	0.012 (-0.031, 0.055)
Newcastle	2976	-0.025 (-0.064, 0.013)
Leeds	2563	0.041 (0.001, 0.081)
Bristol	2117	0.015 (-0.030, 0.060)
St Bartholomew's Hospital	122	-0.073 (-0.220, 0.074)
Nottingham	2342	0.025 (-0.017, 0.066)
Sheffield	2260	0.037 (-0.009, 0.082)
Liverpool	2632	0.023 (-0.020, 0.066)
Middlesbrough	1477	0.002 (-0.050, 0.053)
Hounslow	838	0.073 (-0.000, 0.147)
Croydon	1034	0.044 (-0.027, 0.115)
Birmingham	1440	-0.019 (-0.068, 0.031)
Swansea	85	-0.068 (-0.283, 0.146)
Wrexham	29	N/A ¹
Combined (Fixed effects)	28,615	0.016 (0.004, 0.028) P=0.011

475 ¹ Linear regression estimates did not converge due to limited sample sizes, these studies were excluded from the meta-
 476 analysis.

477 *Relationship length and spousal alcohol behaviour similarities*

478 We did not find strong evidence that increased mean couple age, used as a
 479 proxy for relationship length, was associated with more concordant spousal alcohol
 480 behaviour. Per 1-year increase in couple mean age, spousal differences in terms of
 481 weekly alcohol units consumed were 0.017 smaller (95% C.I. -0.040, 0.007, P=0.16).
 482 In terms of genotypic differences at rs1229984, we found weak evidence that older

483 couples were more dissimilar at the locus. Per 1-year increase in couple mean age,
484 spousal allelic differences at rs1229984 were 0.0004 larger (95% C.I. 0.0000,
485 0.0009; P=0.035).

486

487 **Discussion**

488 In this study, we used a large sample of derived spouse-pairs in a UK-based
489 cohort to demonstrate that an individual's self-reported alcohol use and their
490 genotype for an alcohol implicated variant, rs1229984 in *ADH1B*, are associated with
491 their partner's self-reported alcohol use. Furthermore, we showed that the genotype
492 of the variant is concordant within spouse-pairs. There are several possible
493 explanations for our findings. First, that rs1229984 influences alcohol behaviour,
494 which has a downstream effect on mate selection. Second, that a participant's
495 alcohol use is influenced by their partner's alcohol use. Third, spouse-pairs with
496 more similar alcohol behaviour were more likely to remain in a relationship, and so
497 be present in our study sample. Fourth, that given the strong association of the SNP
498 with both genetic principal components and birth coordinates, the spousal
499 concordance is related to factors influencing social homogamy, independent of
500 alcohol behaviour, such as place of birth, ancestry or socio-economic status. Indeed,
501 the allele frequency of rs1229984 was found to deviate between European and
502 British subsets of the UK Biobank.

503 However, we presented evidence suggesting that a substantial proportion of
504 the spousal concordance is likely to be explained by the biological effects of the
505 variant on alcohol consumption in the index individual. Firstly, we have tested the
506 association between a causal SNP for alcohol consumption, and not the measured

507 consumption itself, thereby avoiding any post-birth confounding factors suggesting
508 that alcohol use has a direct effect on spousal alcohol use. Secondly, because
509 rs1229984 is concordant between spouses, there must be some degree of
510 assortment on alcohol consumption prior to cohabitation. Furthermore, we found little
511 evidence to suggest that the mean age of each spouse-pair, used as a proxy for
512 relationship length, was associated with alcohol behaviour similarities. These
513 findings suggest that the spousal concordance is unlikely to be due to relationship
514 dissolution after the age of 40. Thirdly, we accounted for possible effects of ancestral
515 factors, which could have induced confounding, by including principal components
516 as covariates in the Mendelian randomization analysis. Additionally, as a sensitivity
517 analysis, we conducted a within centre sensitivity analysis excluding spouse-pairs
518 born more than 100 miles apart, finding a consistent effect estimate.

519 The strong evidence for spousal-concordance on the variant has implications
520 for conventional Mendelian randomization studies (i.e. estimating the causal effect of
521 an exposure on an outcome)³³ which use the SNP as a genetic proxy for alcohol
522 intake⁴⁵. Assortative mating could lead to a violation of the Mendelian randomization
523 assumption, that the genetic instrument for the exposure is not strongly associated
524 with confounders of the exposure-outcome relationship. If both genetic and
525 environmental factors affect alcohol consumption, then assortative mating on alcohol
526 consumption could contribute to associations between genetic and environmental
527 factors in the offspring, with the strength of association dependent on the degree of
528 assortative mating⁵⁸.

529 Interestingly, the minor allele of rs1229984 (i.e. associated with lower alcohol
530 consumption) has been previously found to be positively associated with years in

531 education⁴⁵ and socio-economic related variables, such as the Townsend
532 deprivation index and number of vehicles in household^{59 60}. Each copy of the minor
533 allele was associated with an additional 0.023 (95% C.I. 0.012 to 0.034, P=0.00005)
534 years of education and a 0.016 S.D. (95% C.I. -0.001 to 0.033, P=0.06) increase in
535 intelligence^{61 62}. These associations may be down-stream causal effects of alcohol
536 consumption, which implies that some of the spousal concordance for alcohol
537 consumption could be explained by assortative mating on educational attainment¹⁵
538 or alternatively these associations may reflect maternal genotype and intrauterine
539 effects⁶³. Over time, assortative mating on alcohol consumption may further
540 strengthen the associations between rs1229984 and socio-economic related
541 variables⁵⁸. Of further interest is that the variant has previously been shown to be
542 under selection⁶⁴ suggesting that the variant has historically had a substantial effect
543 on reproductive fitness and may partially explain the violation of HWE observed
544 across Europeans in our analyses.

545 The analyses in this study extended previous work on the concordance
546 between spouse-pairs for alcohol behaviour⁷⁻¹² by comparing the phenotypic
547 concordance with analyses utilising a genetic variant strongly associated with alcohol
548 consumption. A major strength of this study is the use of distinct methods with
549 different non-overlapping limitations, allowing for improved inference by triangulating
550 the results from the different methods⁶⁵. First, we evaluated the spousal phenotypic
551 concordance for self-reported alcohol consumption, second we investigated the
552 effect of an individual's rs1229984 genotype on the alcohol consumption of their
553 spouse using Mendelian randomization, third we demonstrated spousal genotypic
554 concordance for rs1229984 and fourth we explored whether older couples have
555 more similar alcohol behaviour. The use of the UK Biobank data-set was a

556 considerable strength for these analyses because of the low frequency of the
557 rs1229984 minor allele; the large scale of the UK Biobank allowed for the
558 identification of thousands of genotyped spouse-pairs. A further strength of these
559 analyses is that we have demonstrated the utility of a Mendelian randomization
560 framework for application to assortative mating by applying it to height and alcohol
561 use. Indeed, the evidence for differences between the observational and Mendelian
562 randomization estimates for spousal height suggest that the observational estimate
563 may be inflated by confounding factors although differences could also be related to
564 the attenuated effects of phenotypic assortment on genetic associations. A similar
565 approach using polygenic risk scores has previously demonstrated assortative
566 mating on educational attainment¹⁸. However, the use of Mendelian randomization
567 has a notable advantage over polygenic approaches because of the possibility of
568 using various sensitivity analyses to test for heterogeneity and consistency of the
569 effect estimate⁵⁰⁻⁵².

570 There are several limitations of this study. First, although spouse-pairs were
571 identified using similar methods to previous studies¹⁵⁻¹⁷, the identified spouse-pairs
572 have not been confirmed. However, the phenotypic spousal concordance estimate
573 for height found in this study is highly concordant with previous estimates⁵⁶,
574 consistent with derived couples being genuine. Second, despite follow-up analyses,
575 it is difficult to definitively prove that the spousal concordance is a direct result of
576 assortative mating on alcohol consumption. Assortment independent of alcohol use,
577 potentially relating to ancestral or geographical factors, cannot be completely ruled
578 out and down-stream pleiotropic effects of the variant may influence mate selection.
579 Third, the use of a single genetic instrument in the Mendelian randomization
580 analysis, limited the use of sensitivity analyses⁵⁰⁻⁵² and meant it is not possible to

581 infer similar associations for other alcohol-implicated variants. Fourth, selection into
582 the UK Biobank, particularly with regards to participation of spouse-pairs is a
583 potential source of bias⁶⁶. Fifth, it is unclear whether the mean age of each couple is
584 a suitable proxy for relationship length, which limits conclusions regarding the
585 possibilities of partner interactions and relationship dissolution. Indeed, patterns of
586 assortment on alcohol behaviour changing over time would confound the use of this
587 proxy. Finally, it is difficult to extrapolate the results of this study in the UK Biobank to
588 non-European populations. This is because of potential contextual influences; for
589 example, in some East Asian populations, males are much more likely to consume
590 alcohol than females^{67 68}. Indeed, even within the UK, there may be regional
591 variation that we were unable to detect in this study. Additionally, there is some
592 evidence that the effect of genetic contributors to alcohol varies across different
593 populations²⁹.

594 To conclude, our results suggest that there is non-random mating on
595 rs1229984 in *ADH1B*, likely related to the effect of the variant on alcohol behaviour.
596 These results suggest that alcohol use influences mate selection and argue for a
597 more nuanced approach to considering social and cultural factors when examining
598 causality in epidemiological studies. Further research investigating other alcohol-
599 implicated variants, and other societies and ethnicities, and assortment on other
600 phenotypes, would strengthen these conclusions.

601

602 **Figure titles and descriptions**

603

604 **Figure 1** Possible explanations for spousal concordance on alcohol use.

605

606 (A) Assortative mating. Alcohol behaviour influences mate selection; individuals are
607 more likely to select a mate with similar alcohol consumption.

608

609 (B) Social homogamy or confounding. An unknown confounder influence mate
610 selection independent of alcohol behaviour. For example, ancestry or socio-
611 economic status may influence both alcohol use and mate choice.

612

613 (C) Partner interaction effects. As spouse-pairs cohabit their alcohol behaviour
614 becomes more similar over time.

615

616 (D) Relationship dissolution. Spouse-pairs with more similar alcohol behaviour are
617 more likely to remain in a relationship and be recruited into UK Biobank or similarly,
618 are more likely to participate in the study together.

619

620 **Figure 2** Interpretations of phenotypic concordance, Mendelian randomization and
621 genotypic concordance analyses between-spouses.

622

623 (A) Phenotypic concordance. Spousal concordance for alcohol use could be
624 explained by a direct effect of an individual's alcohol consumption on their partner's
625 alcohol consumption (assortative mating, partner interaction effects or relationship

626 dissolution) or confounding factors such as assortment on social factors (social
627 homogamy) leading to spousal correlation for alcohol use.

628

629 (B) Mendelian randomization framework. An association between an individual's
630 alcohol influencing genotype and their spouse's alcohol use would suggest that the
631 spousal concordance is explained by a direct effect of alcohol consumption. Genetic
632 variants are unlikely to be associated with socio-economic confounders suggesting
633 that social homogamy is unlikely. Spousal phenotype/genotype associations induced
634 by assortment are dependent on the heritability of the trait (see Supplementary
635 Methods).

636

637 (C) Genotypic concordance. Genotypic concordance for alcohol related genetic
638 variants would suggest that some degree of the spousal concordance is explained
639 by assortative mating or relationship dissolution. Partner interaction effects cannot
640 lead to genotypic concordance because genotypes are fixed from birth. Spousal
641 genotypic concordance induced by assortment is dependent on the trait heritability
642 (see Supplementary Methods).

643

644

645 **Acknowledgements**

646 LJH was a Medical Research Council funded PhD student at the University of Bristol
647 and is now funded by the British Heart Foundation and University College London.

648 NMD, SJL and GDS work in the Medical Research Council Integrative Epidemiology

649 Unit at the University of Bristol (MC_UU_00011/1) which is supported by the Medical
650 Research Council and the University of Bristol. NMD is supported by the Economics
651 and Social Research Council (ESRC) via a Future Research Leaders grant
652 [ES/N000757/1]. DJL [WT104125MA] and GH [208806/1/17/] are both supported by
653 the Wellcome Trust. UK Biobank received ethical approval from the Research Ethics
654 Committee (11/NW/0383). This research was approved as part of application 15825
655 (PI: Dr Philip Haycock).

656

657

Conflicts of interest

658 Neil Davies reports a grant for research unrelated to this work from the Global
659 Research Awards for Nicotine Dependence (GRAND), an independent grant making
660 body funded by Pfizer.

661

Contributions

662 LJH, GDS, GH and DJL formulated the project outline and analysis plan. LJH
663 performed all statistical analyses and drafted the first manuscript draft under
664 supervision from GDS, GH, SJL, BSP and NMD. All authors contributed to
665 interpretation of results and writing of the final manuscript.

666

667

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Birth

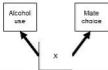
Spousal Pairing

Study Enrolment

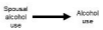
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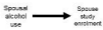
B



C



D



Time

