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Caffeine Consumption, Toxicity, Tolerance and Withdrawal; Shared Genetic Influences With Normative Personality and Personality Disorder Traits

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26

27 **ABSTRACT**

28 Our main aim was to estimate the extent of overlapping etiology between caffeine consumption and
29 response, and normative and pathological personality. Linear mixed-effects models were used to
30 identify normative personality domains and personality disorder (PD) traits for inclusion in
31 multivariate twin analyses together with individual caffeine related measures. Data were obtained
32 from Norwegian adult twins in a face-to-face interview conducted in 1999–2004 as part of a
33 population-based study of mental health, and through self-report in 2010-2011 and 2015-2017.
34 Personality disorder data was available for 2,793 twins, normative personality for 3,889 twins, and
35 caffeine for 3,862 twins (mean age 43.0 years). Normative personality was assessed using the self-
36 reported Big Five Inventory, PD traits were assessed by the Structured Interview for DSM-IV
37 Personality, and caffeine consumption, toxicity, tolerance and withdrawal were assessed through a
38 self-report questionnaire developed at the Norwegian Institute of Public Health. Caffeine measures
39 were found to be moderately heritable, $h^2=30.1\%-45.0\%$. All normative personality domains, and
40 four PD traits, antisocial, borderline, dependent and paranoid, were significantly associated with at
41 least one caffeine variable. A small proportion of variance in caffeine consumption was attributable
42 to genetic factors shared with normative personality (1.3%) and personality disorders (11.4%). A
43 modest proportion of variance in caffeine tolerance and toxicity was attributable to genetic factors
44 shared with both normative personality (26.9%, 24.8%) and personality disorders (21.0%, 36.0%). The
45 present study found caffeine consumption and response to be heritable, and provides evidence that
46 a small to-modest proportion of this genetic etiology is shared with both normative and pathological
47 personality.

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50 **Keywords:** Caffeine, heritability, personality, personality disorder traits, twin.

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53 **Public Significance Statement:** Both the amount of caffeine people consume, as well as their
54 response to caffeine is heritable. A modest proportion of the genetic influences underlying caffeine
55 use and response is shared with personality and personality disorder traits.

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62

63 All authors contributed significantly to the manuscript, and all authors have read and approved the
64 final manuscript. Every measure included in the analyses, as well as all data exclusions are reported
65 in the methods section.

66 None of the authors have any conflicts of interest to declare. None of the ideas or any of the results
67 on to the caffeine measures have previously been presented at conferences, websites or other
68 outlets. Results from analysis of the personality disorder data have been used in a number of
69 previous publications, and results from analysis of several substance measures, among them
70 nicotine, alcohol, as well as cannabis, have also been published.

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76 Caffeine consumption and response are heritable, and the present study provides evidence that a
77 small to-modest proportion of this genetic etiology is shared with both normative and pathological
78 personality.

79

80 **INTRODUCTION**

81

82 Caffeine, a central nervous system stimulant naturally occurring in coffee, tea, and an
83 additive in many soft drinks, is by far the most used psychoactive substance (James, 1997). More
84 than 80% of people in the US regularly drink coffee or tea (Mitchell, Knight, Hockenberry, Teplansky,
85 & Hartman, 2014), and the effect of caffeine on mood, mental state and behavior is well established.
86 In low to moderate doses, caffeine is known to increase alertness, reduce fatigue and improve
87 vigilance (Smith, 2002). In higher doses, caffeine can result in toxic effects, with symptoms including
88 nervousness, restlessness, insomnia, nausea, and anxiety (Daly & Fredholm, 1998).

89 There are modest phenotypic associations between caffeine use and certain normative
90 personality traits, such as novelty seeking (Gurpegui et al., 2007) and sensation seeking (Jones &
91 Lejuez, 2005). However, few studies have investigated the relationship between caffeine
92 consumption and the five domains of the prevailing model of normative personality. According to the
93 “Big Five” theory, the main features of normative personality can be summarized by scores on the
94 five primary domains of Extraversion, Agreeableness, Conscientiousness, Neuroticism and Openness
95 to experience (McCrae & John, 1992). The lack of studies investigating the relationship between the
96 Big Five domains and caffeine is in stark contrast to other psychoactive substances such as alcohol
97 (Malouff, Thorsteinsson, Rooke, & Schutte, 2007), nicotine (Terracciano & Costa Jr, 2004) and
98 cannabis (Fridberg, Vollmer, O'Donnell, & Skosnik, 2011). Furthermore, while the literature on Big
99 Five and caffeine is scarce, hardly any studies have explored whether there is an association between
100 caffeine and pathological personality. Of all the ten personality disorders listed in the Diagnostic and
101 Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders (DSM) (Association, 2000, 2013), association with caffeine has
102 only been investigated for antisocial traits (Kendler, Myers, & Gardner, 2006). This despite evidence
103 suggesting that caffeine intake is related to the risk of many clinical disorders, such as depression
104 (Grosso, Micek, Castellano, Pajak, & Galvano, 2016), anxiety and panic disorders (Vilarim, Rocha
105 Araujo, & Nardi, 2011), psychosis (Lara, 2010), eating disorders (Burgalassi et al., 2009), and the high

106 levels of comorbidity known to exist between clinical disorders and personality disorders
107 (Lenzenweger, Lane, Loranger, & Kessler, 2007). The lack of research on personality disorders and
108 caffeine cannot be attributed a low likelihood of shared etiological influences. Indeed, our research
109 group has previously found antisocial and borderline traits to be both phenotypically and etiologically
110 associated with the use of other psychoactive substances, including alcohol (Rosenström et al.,
111 2018), cannabis (Gillespie, Aggen, Neale, et al., 2018), and cocaine (Gillespie, Aggen, Gentry, et al.,
112 2018).

113 Twin studies have found the heritable influences on caffeine intake to be in the range 30 to
114 60% (Yang, Palmer, & de Wit, 2010), with some evidence that the heritability of heavy use (daily
115 consumption above 500mg) might be as high as 77% (Kendler & Prescott, 1999). Symptoms of
116 caffeine tolerance, toxicity, and withdrawal have been subject to less study in genetically informative
117 samples, and the only twin study to investigate these phenotypes reported heritability estimates in
118 the range 35 to 45% (Kendler & Prescott, 1999). Normative personality and personality disorders
119 have also been shown to be influenced by genetic factors, with genetic influences accounting for
120 approximately 40 to 60% of individual differences across the Big 5 domains (Bouchard & McGue,
121 2003; Vukasović & Bratko, 2015). The heritability of personality disorders as defined by the DSM
122 criteria are similar in magnitude to normative personality (Livesley & Jang, 2008; Reichborn-
123 Kjennerud, 2010).

124 While the literature suggests that familial factors predispose to caffeine intake, the extent to which
125 genetic and environmental influences are shared with both normative and disordered personality is
126 largely unexplored. To the extent that the same personality domains, both normative and
127 pathological, are associated with caffeine use as with other substances, genetically informative
128 studies can provided insight into the mechanisms of the association. If the association is largely
129 genetic, it could inform future genetic association studies, or alternatively motivate the search for
130 mediating environmental factors.

131 In this paper we present results from analyses of several caffeine related measures collected
132 from a large cohort of Norwegian twins. Our first aim is to estimate the heritability of caffeine
133 consumption, tolerance, toxicity and withdrawal. Our second aim is to determine whether any
134 domains of normative personality or personality disorder traits are associated with these caffeine
135 measures, and to what extent this association is attributable to shared or distinct etiological factors.

136

137 **METHODS**

138 *Participants*

139 Data for the study were provided by twins recruited from the population-based
140 Norwegian Twin Registry. The Norwegian Institute of Public Health self-report questionnaire
141 (NIPH-SR) was distributed to N= 6,308 eligible twins in the period November 2015 to June
142 of 2017. The invited twins consisted of two subsets. The first set of twins had previously
143 participated in two waves of psychiatric interviews (the first 2001-2004, and the second 2010-
144 2011), hereafter referred to as the AIAII study and the AIAII-follow up study respectively.
145 From the first subsample, valid responses were gathered from N=1,916 twins (mean (SD) age
146 = 43.1 and 3.8, range = 36-50). From the second group of twins, who had agreed to be
147 registered in the official Norway twin registry and were participating for the first time,
148 responses were returned from N=1,946 individuals, (age = 42.9 (3.7) range = 36-49). In total,
149 caffeine measures were available from N=3,862 twins. The study was approved by the
150 Norwegian Data Inspectorate and the Regional Committee for Medical and Health Research
151 Ethics, and written informed consent was obtained from all participants.

152 *Questionnaire and interview data*

153 The following caffeine related measures were included in the NIPH-SR. Current caffeine use
154 was assessed by the question; *During the past year, how many cups of coffee/tea or bottles/cans*
155 *(0.33-0.5litres) of caffeinated beverages did you usually drink per day?*

156 Heavy use was defined as consuming five or more caffeinated beverages per day, corresponding
157 approximately to a daily consumption of caffeine greater than 500mg. Five cups of coffee has been
158 used as a threshold for heavy caffeine use in previous twin studies (Kendler et al., 2006). Caffeine
159 tolerance was indicated by an affirmative response to either of the following two questions; i) *“When*
160 *you drank caffeinated beverages the most, did you need to drink significantly more caffeinated*
161 *beverages in this period than you did when you first drank in order to get the desired effect?”*, or ii)
162 *“When you drank these in the same amounts as previously, did you experience less effect?”*. Caffeine
163 toxicity was defined as an affirmative response to the question; *“Did you ever feel unwell, shaky or*
164 *restless after having drunk caffeinated beverages?”*. Finally, caffeine withdrawal was indicated with a
165 positive response to either of the two questions i) *“Some people suffer from withdrawal symptoms*
166 *when they reduce their intake of caffeinated beverages. Did you have headaches when you cut*
167 *out/reduced your intake of caffeinated drinks?”* or ii) *“Did you experience nausea and/or vomiting*
168 *when you stopped/cut down on your intake of caffeinated drinks?”*.

169 Normative personality was assessed using the Big Five Inventory (BFI) (John & Srivastava,
170 1999), a self-report instrument consisting of 44 items each scored on a 5-point scale. Extraversion is
171 represented by eight items ($\alpha=0.86$), agreeableness by nine items ($\alpha =0.72$), conscientiousness by
172 nine items ($\alpha =0.75$), neuroticism by eight items ($\alpha =0.84$), and openness by ten items ($\alpha =0.78$). The
173 responses to the BFI items were summed for each of the five domains, resulting in variables that
174 were approximately normally distributed, and in all subsequent analyses personality variables were
175 treated as continuous. Twins who participated in the AIAII study completed the BFI instrument at
176 wave 2, while twins who did not participate in AIAII received a longer version of the NIPH-SR that also
177 included the BFI instrument. Complete BFI data was available on 3,889 twins.

178 At wave 1 in the AIAII study, all 10 DSM-IV personality disorders were assessed using
179 the comprehensive Structured Interview for DSM-IV Personality (SIDP-IV) (Pfohl, Blum, &
180 Zimmerman, 1997). 2,793 twins had valid data for DSM-IV personality disorders. The
181 endorsement rates for the individual personality disorder criteria were too low for twin models
182 to be fitted to DSM-derived categorical personality disorder diagnostic status. In the twin
183 models, we therefore analyzed the counts of personality disorder criteria endorsed either at the
184 clinical or subclinical level (SIDP score >0). Finally, to ensure that model estimation was not
185 adversely affected by empty cells in the twin contingency tables, symptom counts above 3 for
186 each of the personality disorder variables were collapsed. The final measure for each
187 personality disorder trait was thus an ordinal variable ranging from 0 to 3.

188 All but 231 (8.3%) of the SIDP interviews were conducted face-to-face, and the
189 remainder were conducted by telephone. Interviewers were mainly senior clinical psychology
190 graduate students or experienced psychiatric nurses, although some were clinical
191 psychologists. Each twin in a pair was interviewed by a different interviewer.

192

193 *Statistical Analyses*

194 We assessed the phenotypic association between caffeine consumption and normative
195 personality and personality disorder traits by calculating the Pearson correlation coefficient,
196 or the polychoric/polychoric correlations when one or both variable was ordinal or binary.
197 Polychoric and polychoric correlations are less prone than Pearson correlations to bias the
198 association between variables when one of them has few response categories (Olsson,
199 Drasgow, & Dorans, 1982).

200 Univariate twin models were fitted to each individual caffeine phenotype. These models
201 permit the variance of an observed measure to be partitioned into proportions attributable to
202 three separate sources. Additive genetic influences (A) can be inferred when the correlation

203 between monozygotic twins is twice as large as the correlation between dizygotic twins. The
204 proportion of the total variance of the trait that can be attributed additive genetic influences is
205 referred to as the heritability of the trait. The influence of shared environmental effects (C)
206 can be inferred when the correlation between dizygotic twins is *more* than half that of
207 monozygotic twins. Any remaining variance in the phenotypes that cannot be accounted for
208 by A or C is attributed to unique environmental influences (E). The E factor thus represent the
209 sum of influences that make individuals within both monozygotic and dizygotic twin pairs
210 dissimilar, and this includes measurement error. When all three sources of variance are
211 present in the model, it is referred to as an ACE model.

212 We then investigated the extent of genetic and environmental overlap between each
213 caffeine measure and personality. This was done separately for normative personality and
214 personality disorders. Shared etiology was investigated by fitting a series of multivariate
215 Cholesky models (M. Neale & Cardon, 1992). See figure 1 for an illustration of the structure
216 of the Cholesky decomposition. Since multivariate twin modelling on ordinal variables can be
217 extremely computationally demanding as the number of variables increases, we limited the
218 number of personality variables included in the twin models only to those that were found to
219 be significantly associated with at least one caffeine measure. This subset was determined
220 through a series of initial multiple mixed (multilevel) models, a class of models well suited
221 when observations are not independent (Hox, 1998), as is the case for individual twins within
222 a pair.

223 *The five caffeine measures were used as dependent variables in five separate mixed*
224 *models. In all models, age and sex were included as control variables. If not controlled for,*
225 *age and sex could bias the estimates of the genetic variance shared between personality and*
226 *caffeine. There are strong sex differences in the prevalence of personality disorders (Paris,*
227 *2004), and patterns of normative personality (Schmitt, Realo, Voracek, & Allik, 2008).*

228 *Furthermore, both the amount of caffeine consumed, as well as the response to caffeine*
229 *consumption are associated with sex (Nehlig, 2018). A similar argument, though perhaps for*
230 *somewhat weaker associations, can be made for age (McCrae et al., 1999, Nehlig, 2018).“.*
231 Non-independence caused by within twin-pair similarity was handled by the inclusion of a
232 twin-pair specific random intercept.

233 Analogous to the way in which the variance in a phenotype can be partitioned into A, C,
234 and E, multivariate Cholesky twin models allow the *covariance* between variables to be
235 partitioned into the same sources. This decomposition, in turn, can be used to calculate the
236 genetic and environmental correlation between any two variables in the model. Note that there
237 can be significant genetic correlations despite lack of phenotypic correlations when
238 environmental correlations work to cancel the phenotypic one, and *vice versa*.

239 Because of the large number of twin pairs required to estimate sex-specific effects, path
240 coefficients were constrained to be equal across sex, but separate thresholds and means were
241 estimated for male twins and female twins to account for mean-level sex differences.

242 All statistical analyses were performed in R, version 3.6.1 (Team, 2019). We fitted the
243 mixed models using the mle4 package (Bates, Maechler, Bolker, & Walker, 2014), and twin
244 models using the free R-based OpenMx structural equation modelling package (M. C. Neale
245 et al., 2016). Model parameters in the twin analyses were estimated by means of full
246 information maximum likelihood, an approach that makes use of all observed data.

247 Competing twin models were compared using Akaike’s information criterion (AIC), a fit
248 statistic that jointly expresses the parsimony and explanatory power of a model (Akaike,
249 1987).

250

251 **RESULTS**

252

253 *Descriptive Results*

254 Altogether 93.5% of participants reported drinking caffeinated beverages such as coffee, tea,
255 Coca Cola or Pepsi Max, either every day or several times a week. The average number of beverages
256 consumed daily was 3.4 (sd =2.0), with males reporting higher levels than females (3.7 vs 3.1).
257 Individuals who reported drinking at least 5 units per day were classified as heavy users, a subgroup
258 that constituted 24.7% of the sample (N=937). Furthermore, 10.3% (N=396) met the criteria for
259 caffeine tolerance, 32.3% (N=1196) for toxicity and 12.8% (N=473) for withdrawal.

260

261 *Univariate analyses of caffeine*

262 Results from univariate twin models on the caffeine variables are given in table 1. Twin
263 correlations for the caffeine measures were substantial, and the pattern was suggestive of a largely
264 genetic etiology, with MZ correlations being approximately twice as large as DZ correlations. In line
265 with this, according to AIC, the AE model, with shared environmental effects set to zero, was the best
266 fitting for all five caffeine related measures. The highest heritabilities were observed for daily use
267 ($h^2=0.45$, 95% CI [0.33, 0.51]), heavy use ($h^2=0.41$, 95% CI [0.12, 0.53]), and toxicity ($h^2=0.42$, 95% CI
268 [0.04, 0.57]). Marginally lower additive genetic influence were observed for withdrawal ($h^2=0.31$,
269 95% CI [0.00, 0.49]) and tolerance ($h^2=0.34$, 95% CI [0.00, 0.48]).

270

271 *Mixed models*

272 Results from the mixed models for normative personality and personality disorder traits are
273 given Table 2a and Table 2b respectively. All Big Five domains were significantly associated with at
274 least one caffeine measures, and all were therefore included in the subsequent Cholesky twin
275 models. We observed modest associations between normative personality and daily caffeine use,
276 while associations were more pronounced for tolerance and withdrawal.

277 Four personality disorder traits were significantly associated with at least one caffeine
278 variable in the multiple mixed models; antisocial, borderline, dependent and paranoid. While only a
279 single PD trait was significant in most models on the caffeine measures, after controlling for sex and
280 age, toxicity was significantly associated with three (paranoid, antisocial and borderline).

281

282 *Multivariate twin analyses*

283 As a result of the personality domains found to be significant in the multilevel models, six-
284 variate Cholesky models were run for the Big Five domains, and five-variate models for the
285 personality disorder traits. As no shared environmental effects were implicated in the univariate
286 analyses on caffeine, and since none was reported in previous publications on normative personality
287 and personality disorder traits, only AE versions of the multivariate twin models were run. Table 3a
288 and 3b list the phenotypic, genetic and environmental correlation between normative and
289 disordered personality, and the caffeine measures, as well as the proportion of genetic variance
290 shared with personality. Across the different caffeine measures, more of the variance was accounted
291 for by personality disorder measures than normative personality. For both normative and disordered
292 personality, the least amount of genetic overlap was observed with daily caffeine consumption. Both
293 normative personality and personality disorder traits shared a substantial proportion of genetic
294 variance with caffeine tolerance and toxicity. The estimates of genetic liability for caffeine were
295 largely identical in the univariate and multivariate models, though marginally higher values estimated
296 for tolerance and toxicity in the multivariate analyses.

297

298

299 **DISCUSSION**

300 To our knowledge, this is the first study to investigate to what extent genetic factors can
301 explain the association between caffeine use, tolerance, toxicity and withdrawal, and personality.
302 The five caffeine related measures were found to be moderately heritable, with 26-45% of individual
303 differences attributable to additive genetic influences. Genetic influences underlying daily caffeine
304 use were only weakly shared with normative personality and personality disorders. Conversely,
305 tolerance and toxicity were moderately shared with both normative personality and personality
306 disorder traits. Higher levels of conscientiousness was associated with significantly lower
307 consumption of caffeine, which in turn may account for the reduced levels of tolerance and
308 withdrawal also observed in the linear mixed analyses. The observation that there are both negative
309 genetic and environmental correlations between conscientiousness and caffeine tolerance and
310 withdrawal, is also consistent with a causal negative effect of conscientiousness.

311 Our estimate of the heritability of daily caffeine use (0.45), as measured by the number of
312 caffeinated beverages consumer daily, is squarely in line with results from previous studies. Carmelli,
313 Swan, Robinette, and Fabsitz (1990) found the heritability to be 0.36 in a sample of 4,960 adult twins,
314 though prior to adjusting for occupation and socioeconomic status, their estimates were also 0.45.
315 Two studies have reported heritability estimates for heavy use of caffeine, and both placed the
316 estimates in the upper range of what has been reported for regular use. Kendler and Prescott (1999)
317 found a heritability of 0.77 in a sample of 1,934 twins, using a strict criteria of daily caffeine intake
318 above 625 mg. Swan, Carmelli, and Cardon (1997), based on identical operationalization of “heavy
319 use” as in the present study (500mg), placed the value at 0.51 in a sample of 4,593 twins.

320 Like Kendler and Prescott, we also found toxicity to be more heritable than tolerance and
321 withdrawal (Kendler & Prescott, 1999). While their estimates for withdrawal were similar to ours, we
322 observed a somewhat lower heritability for tolerance, although it should be noted that the
323 confidence intervals are largely overlapping.

324 In our sample, three of the Big Five personality domains were significantly related to daily
325 caffeine intake, but the association was weak, and accounted only for 1.3% the genetic variance.
326 Extraversion was found to have the largest genetic correlation with caffeine use. We believe a
327 reasonable interpretation of this can be that extraversion contains the lower level facet of
328 excitement-seeking, a trait found in previous studies to be phenotypically related to caffeine use
329 (Jones & Lejuez, 2005). Also for heavy use, the highest genetic correlation was with extraversion. The
330 pattern of genetic correlation was noticeably different for tolerance, toxicity and withdrawal. For all
331 these phenotypes, genetic correlation was highest for neuroticism, and in particularly tolerance and
332 toxicity was found to share etiological factors with normative personality.

333 The proportion of genetic variance shared with personality disorder traits was higher than for
334 normative personality for all but one caffeine related outcome, tolerance. Two of the PD traits here
335 linked to caffeine, antisocial and borderline, have in previous papers been found to be both
336 phenotypically and etiologically associated with the use of other psychoactive substances, including
337 alcohol (Rosenström et al., 2018), cannabis (Gillespie, Aggen, Neale, et al., 2018), and cocaine
338 (Gillespie, Aggen, Gentry, et al., 2018). Antisocial traits have also been implicated in a co-twin control
339 (Kendler et al., 2006), where caffeine-associated toxicity and dependence were found to be
340 moderately associated with risk for a wide range of psychiatric and substance use disorders. These
341 results raises the intriguing question of whether individuals with antisocial and borderline liability are
342 likely to consume more caffeine, and in turn experience more of the adverse effects, or whether they
343 are through their disposition more sensitive to the effects of caffeine or caffeine toxicity and
344 tolerance. Teasing these directions apart would be a valuable contribution of future studies.

345 Caffeine is the overwhelmingly most used psychoactive substance, and understanding the etiological
346 mechanisms is interesting in its own right. However, we believe that caffeine may also serve as a
347 model for the study of associations between personality and psychoactive substances not influenced
348 by social or societal sanctions. Therefore, while our results pertain to caffeine, we believe they may

349 have implications for research on psychoactive substances in general, and potentially stimulants in
350 particular.

351 *Limitations*

352 The interpretation of results presented in this study should be considered in the light of
353 several possible limitations. First, due to the low prevalence of endorsed criteria, we were unable to
354 analyze categorical personality disorder diagnoses. In previous publications we have examined
355 whether the personality disorder criterion count variables are in accordance with an underlying
356 continuous liability to increasing levels of endorsements of the personality disorder criteria, and
357 found this assumption to be satisfied empirically (Reichborn-Kjennerud et al., 2007). Second, the
358 sample consists of Norwegian twins in a fairly limited age range of adulthood, and the results may
359 therefore not generalize to other populations. Third, more than a decade separates the
360 measurement of the personality disorder traits and caffeine. Also, while normative personality was
361 measured concurrently with report on caffeine for a subset of the twins (N=1946), the remaining
362 participants (N=1916) completed the BFI instrument approximately 6 years before the NIPH-SR
363 questionnaire. It is possible that the presence of age specific genetic influences may have attenuated
364 our estimates of the shared etiology between phenotypes assessed at different times. A further
365 limitation follows from only including those personality disorder traits in the twin models that were
366 significantly associated with caffeine in the preliminary mixed models. While this was necessary in
367 order to make the twin models computationally tractable, the approach can potentially lead to an
368 overestimation of the genetic correlations between caffeine and the included subset of personality
369 disorder traits. However, we believe this risk is modest, as the excluded traits were not significantly
370 associated with caffeine. A final limitation concerns the lack of more explicit modeling of sex-
371 differences. Sex-limited twin models of ordinal data require very large samples to attain sufficient
372 power. However, previous twin studies have failed to find either quantitative or qualitative gender

373 differences for DSM-IV personality disorders and personality traits (Reichborn-Kjennerud, 2008;
374 Vukasović & Bratko, 2015).

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501 Table 1: ^a Pearson correlation is reported for “daily consumption”, polychoric correlation is reported
502 for the remaining four caffeine measures. ^b Akaike information criteria for univariate ACE, AE and CE
503 twin models, with the best fitting model indicated in bold. ^c Parameter estimates from the full
504 univariate ACE model.

Caffeine measure	Twin correlations ^a		Univariate model fit (AIC) ^b			Univariate model estimates ^c		
	Correlation MZ Pairs (95% CI) ^a	Correlation DZ Pairs (95% CI) ^a	ACE	AE	CE	A	C	E
Daily consumption	.46 (.39, .52)	.19 (.10, .27)	8134.67 5	8132.67 5	8160.52 3	.45 (.33, .51)	.00 (.00, .09)	.55 (.49, .61)
Heavy consumption	.43 (.29, .56)	.15 (.00, .30)	3440.39 5	3442.49 1	3436.05 5	.41 (.12, .53)	.00 (.00, .22)	.59 (.47, .72)
Toxicity	.45 (.32, .57)	.24 (.10, .38)	2785.09 5	2787.07 5	2782.28 7	.42 (.04, .57)	.03 (.00, .33)	.55 (.43, .68)
Withdrawal	.31 (.07, .52)	.13 (-.08, .32)	4592.86 2	4594.86 2	4593.54 8	.30 (.00, .49)	.00 (.00, .32)	.70 (.52, .92)
Tolerance	.34 (.06, .58)	.01 (-.21, .24)	4897.13 6	4899.13 6	4897.30 3	.26 (.00, .48)	.00 (.00, .27)	.74 (.52, 1.00)

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507 Table 2a: ^(a)Beta coefficients, ^(b)Odds-ratios, and their associated 95% confidence intervals from linear
 508 mixed models with normative personality domains as independent variables. All estimates are
 509 controlled for age and sex. Coefficients with associated p-values less than 0.05 are marked in bold.

Normative personality trait	Daily cups ^a	Heavy Use ^b	Tolerance ^b	Toxicity ^b	Withdrawal ^b
Extraversion	0.03 (0.01, 0.04)	1.03 (1.01, 1.05)	1.22 (1.11, 1.33)	1.00 (0.98, 1.02)	1.09 (1.08, 1.10)
Agreeableness	0.00 (-0.02, 0.02)	0.99 (0.96, 1.01)	1.06 (0.95, 1.18)	1.01 (0.98, 1.03)	0.94 (0.93, 0.94)
Conscientiousness	-0.03 (-0.04, -0.01)	0.99 (0.97, 1.01)	0.82 (0.74, 0.91)	0.97 (0.95, 1.00)	0.80 (0.79, 0.80)
Neuroticism	0.01 (0.00, 0.03)	1.01 (0.99, 1.03)	1.19 (1.09, 1.31)	1.08 (1.06, 1.10)	1.08 (1.07, 1.10)
Openness	-0.01 (-0.02, 0.00)	0.99 (0.97, 1.00)	0.99 (0.91, 1.07)	1.07 (1.05, 1.09)	0.85 (0.85, 0.86)

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513 Table 2b: ^(a)Beta coefficients, ^(b)Odds-ratios, and their associated 95% confidence intervals from linear
 514 mixed models with personality disorder traits as independent variables. All estimates are controlled
 515 for age and sex. Coefficients with associated p-values less than 0.05 are marked in bold.

Personality disorder trait	Daily cups	Heavy Use ^a	Tolerance ^a	Toxicity ^a	Withdrawal ^a
Paranoid	0.00 (-0.12, 0.11)	1.08 (0.92, 1.28)	0.96 (0.78, 1.17)	1.16 (1.00, 1.34)	1.39 (1.10, 1.76)
Schizoid	0.00 (-0.15, 0.15)	1.01 (0.81, 1.24)	1.20 (0.94, 1.53)	1.14 (0.95, 1.38)	1.10 (0.81, 1.48)
Schizotypal	-0.02 (-0.17, 0.14)	0.96 (0.77, 1.20)	1.01 (0.78, 1.32)	1.03 (0.85, 1.26)	0.85 (0.61, 1.17)
Antisocial	0.17 (0.04, 0.30)	1.12 (0.94, 1.34)	0.99 (0.80, 1.22)	1.24 (1.05, 1.45)	1.12 (0.87, 1.45)
Borderline	0.04 (-0.06, 0.15)	1.05 (0.91, 1.23)	1.48 (1.23, 1.78)	1.25 (1.09, 1.43)	1.17 (0.94, 1.45)

Histrionic	0.02 (-0.08, 0.12)	0.95 (0.82, 1.09)	0.91 (0.76, 1.09)	1.04 (0.92, 1.19)	1.00 (0.82, 1.22)
Narcissistic	-0.05 (-0.16, 0.05)	1.02 (0.88, 1.19)	1.06 (0.88, 1.27)	1.01 (0.88, 1.15)	0.91 (0.73, 1.13)
Avoidant	0.05 (-0.05, 0.14)	1.04 (0.90, 1.20)	1.02 (0.85, 1.21)	1.04 (0.92, 1.19)	0.83 (0.67, 1.03)
Dependent	-0.02 (-0.13, 0.09)	0.84 (0.71, 0.99)	0.91 (0.74, 1.11)	0.87 (0.75, 1.01)	0.85 (0.67, 1.07)
Obsessive	0.00 (-0.09, 0.08)	1.10 (0.98, 1.25)	1.05 (0.90, 1.23)	0.99 (0.89, 1.11)	1.02 (0.85, 1.21)

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519 *Table 3a: Phenotypic correlations (rP), genetic correlations (rA) and unique environmental*
520 *correlations (rE) between normative personality and caffeine measures. ^a Percentage of genetic*
521 *variance in caffeine shared with normative personality. ^b Percentage of genetic variance in caffeine*
522 *measures not shared with normative personality, ^c Proportion of total variance in respective caffeine*
523 *measures that is attributable to additive genetic influences.*

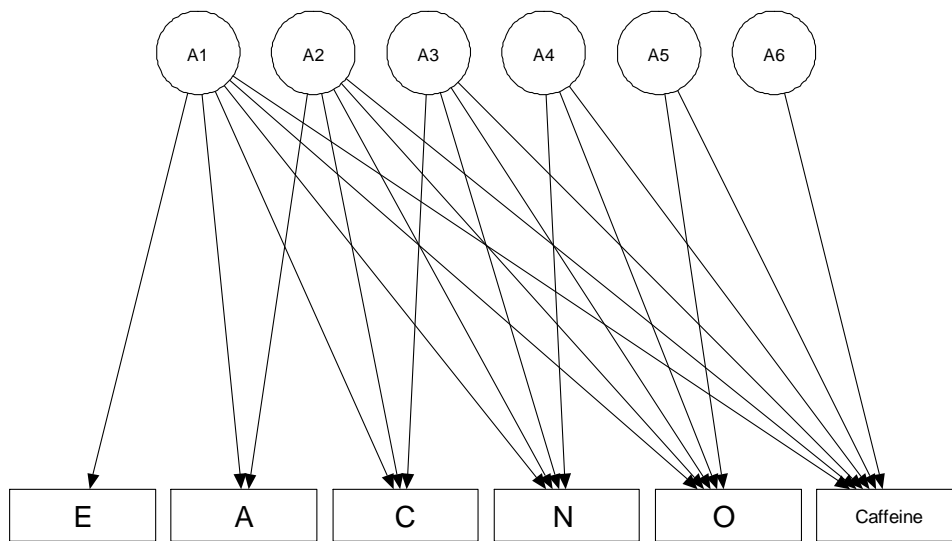
Normative personality trait / genetic variance	Daily cups			Heavy use (>5 units)			Tolerance			Toxicity			Withdrawal		
	rP	rA	rE	rP	rA	rE	rP	rA	rE	rP	rA	rE	rP	rA	rE
Extraversion	0.03	0.09	-0.04	0.04	0.10	0.01	0.03	0.05	0.03	0.05	0.03	0.08	0.04	-0.12	0.01
Agreeableness	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Conscientiousness	0.04	0.02	-0.02	0.07	0.10	0.01	0.11	0.07	0.16	0.07	0.11	0.06	0.08	0.02	0.15
Neuroticism	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Openness	0.08	0.01	-0.08	0.07	0.01	0.04	0.17	0.09	0.20	0.13	0.23	0.05	0.11	-0.13	0.14
%Shared ^a	1.3 (0.0, 5.6)			2.8 (0.0, 15.0)			26.9 (13.4, 41.4)			24.8 (13.5, 41.2)			6.0 (0.0, 34.8)		
%Unique ^b	98.7 (94.4, 100)			97.2 (85.0, 100)			73.1 (58.6, 86.6)			75.2 (58.8, 86.5)			94.0 (65.2, 100.0)		
% of total var ^c	45.0			40.8			30.1			47.0			30.5		

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527 *Table 3b: Phenotypic correlations (rP), genetic correlations (rA) and unique environmental*
528 *correlations (rE) between personality disorder traits and caffeine measures. ^a Percentage of genetic*
529 *variance in caffeine shared with personality disorder traits. ^b Percentage of genetic variance in*
530 *caffeine measures not shared with personality disorder traits, ^c Proportion of total variance in*
531 *respective caffeine measures that is attributable to additive genetic influences.*

Personality disorder trait / genetic variance	Daily cups			Heavy use (>5 units)			Tolerance			Toxicity			Withdrawal		
	rP	rA	rE	rP	rA	rE	rP	rA	rE	rP	rA	rE	rP	rA	rE
	Antisocial	0.12	0.24	0.04	0.14	0.07	0.10	0.12	0.18	0.07	0.21	0.49	0.02	0.07	0.18
Borderline	0.05	0.32	-0.05	0.03	0.11	0.02	0.22	0.27	0.22	0.23	0.58	0.00	0.11	0.08	0.15
Dependent	-			-	-					-					
	0.01	0.04	0.07	0.04	0.33	0.13	0.04	0.40	0.08	0.07	0.17	0.03	0.02	-0.05	0.05
Paranoid	0.02	0.22	-0.02	0.09	0.16	0.02	0.09	0.17	0.14	0.09	0.36	0.09	0.06	0.18	0.11
%Shared^a	11.4 (0.00, 23.2)			27.2 (8.1, 43.6)			21.0 (2.0, 40.4)			36.0 (11.8, 60.7)			11.4 (0.0, 60.6)		
%Unique^b	88.6 (76.8, 100.0)			72.8 (56.4, 91.2)			79.0 (59.6, 98.0)			64.0 (39.3, 88.2)			88.6 (39.4, 100.0)		
% of total var^c	46.0			40.9			28.0			47.3			30.0		

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533 *Figure 1: The latent variables (circles) in the Cholesky model represent the additive genetic effects*
534 *influencing scores on the big 5 personality domains (Extraversion (E), Agreeableness (A),*
535 *Conscientiousness (C), Neuroticism (N) and Openness to experience (O)) and caffeine use. The first*
536 *genetic factor (A1) is shared by all six variables, the second (A2) is shared by the rightmost five, and*
537 *so on. The genetic influence represented by A6 is unique to caffeine, and the variance in caffeine it*
538 *causes is not shared with normative personality.*



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