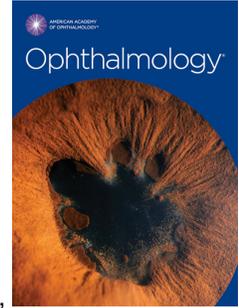


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Intraocular pressure, glaucoma and dietary caffeine consumption: a gene–diet interaction study from the UK Biobank

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1 **Intraocular pressure, glaucoma and dietary caffeine consumption: a gene–diet**
2 **interaction study from the UK Biobank**

3
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30
31 Running head: IOP, glaucoma and caffeine: genetic interactions in the UK Biobank

32
33 Abbreviations and Acronyms: IOP = Intraocular pressure; PRS = polygenic risk score;
34 MR = Mendelian Randomization; SD = standard deviation; GWAS = genome-wide
35 association study; POAG = primary open-angle glaucoma; UKB = UK Biobank; ORA =
36 Ocular Response Analyzer; IOP_{cc} = corneal-compensated IOP; SNP = single
37 nucleotide polymorphism; MET = Metabolic Equivalent of Task; BMI = body mass index;
38 OR = odds ratio.

39
40
41 **Tables #3; Figures #2**

42
43 **This article contains additional online-only material. The following should appear**
44 **online-only: Supplementary Appendix, Supplemental Tables 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9,**
45 **and Supplemental Figure 1.**

Abstract:

Objective: We examined the association of habitual caffeine intake with intraocular pressure (IOP) and glaucoma and whether these associations were modified by genetic predisposition to higher IOP. We also assessed whether genetic predisposition to higher coffee consumption was related to IOP.

Design: A cross-sectional study in the UK Biobank.

Participants: We included 121,374 participants (baseline ages 39-73 years) with data on coffee and tea intake (collected 2006-2010) and corneal-compensated IOP measurements in 2009. In a subset of 77,906 participants with up to five web-based 24-hour-recall food frequency questionnaires (2009-2012) we evaluated total caffeine intake. We also assessed the same relations with any glaucoma (9,286 cases and 189,763 controls).

Method: We evaluated multivariable-adjusted associations with IOP using linear regression, and with glaucoma using logistic regression. For both outcomes, we examined gene-diet interactions, using a polygenic risk score (PRS), which combined the effects of 111 genetic variants associated with IOP. We also performed two-sample Mendelian Randomization (MR) using 8 genetic variants associated with coffee intake, to assess potential causal effects of coffee consumption on IOP.

Main Outcome and Measures: IOP; glaucoma.

Results: Mean IOP was 16.0 mmHg (Standard Deviation=3.8). MR analysis did not support a causal effect of coffee drinking on IOP ($P>0.1$). Greater caffeine intake was weakly associated with lower IOP: the highest (≥ 232 mg/day) vs. lowest (< 87 mg/day) caffeine consumption was associated with a 0.10 mmHg lower IOP ($P_{\text{trend}}=0.01$). However, this association was significantly modified by IOP PRS: among those in the highest IOP PRS quartile, consuming > 480 mg/day versus < 80 mg/day was associated with a 0.35 mmHg higher IOP ($P_{\text{interaction}}=0.01$). The relation between caffeine intake and glaucoma was null ($P\geq 0.1$). However, this relation was also significantly modified by IOP PRS: compared to those in the lowest IOP PRS quartile consuming no caffeine, those in the highest IOP PRS quartile consuming ≥ 321 mg/day had a 3.90-fold higher glaucoma prevalence ($P_{\text{interaction}}=0.0003$).

Conclusions: Habitual caffeine consumption was weakly associated with lower IOP and the association between caffeine consumption and glaucoma was null. However, among participants with the strongest genetic predisposition to elevated IOP, greater caffeine consumption was associated with higher IOP and higher glaucoma prevalence.

87 Introduction

88 Caffeine consumption, such as from coffee or tea, is a common behavior throughout the
89 world.¹ There is keen interest in whether caffeine consumption has an intraocular
90 pressure (IOP)-modifying effect,² as even modest elevations in ocular tension can
91 increase glaucoma risk.³ At a population level, small shifts in the distribution of ocular
92 tension could lead to a significant change in the number of people experiencing optic
93 nerve damage. Many studies of normal subjects,⁴⁻¹³ glaucoma suspects^{14, 15} or
94 glaucoma patients¹⁴⁻¹⁷ have examined the acute effects of consuming various caffeine-
95 containing substances on IOP. Most studies observed modest acute post-ingestion IOP
96 increases over a 1-4 hour period, ranging from nil to 4 mmHg. There have been fewer
97 studies of the relation between habitual coffee consumption and IOP or glaucoma risk.
98 For example, habitual coffee consumption can modulate the effects of acute caffeine
99 consumption on IOP.⁴ In the Blue Mountains Eye Study, while there was no
100 association between habitual caffeine consumption and IOP among normal subjects,
101 among those with open-angle glaucoma, consuming ≥ 200 mg/day versus consuming $<$
102 200 mg/day was associated with a suggestive, but non-significant 2.3 mmHg higher IOP.
103¹⁸ Studies of the relation between coffee drinking and glaucoma risk have reported
104 conflicting results¹⁹⁻²² and the association may depend on family history of glaucoma.^{20,}
105²¹ Thus, additional larger studies with adequate power to evaluate gene-caffeine
106 consumption interactions are needed. In addition, Mendelian randomization (MR)
107 methods may provide association results that inherently have much less confounding
108 bias to resolve conflicting data on the relation between habitual coffee/caffeine
109 consumption and IOP.²³ Indeed, genome-wide association studies (GWAS) indicate

110 that IOP is a polygenic trait,^{24, 25} and a higher IOP polygenic risk score (PRS) is
111 associated with a higher primary open-angle glaucoma (POAG) risk.²⁶ Furthermore, a
112 handful of genetic loci have been discovered that are associated with higher caffeine
113 consumption.²⁷

114
115 We used UK Biobank (UKB) data, the largest available resource which allowed for a
116 powerful evaluation of the relation between various sources of caffeine consumption
117 and IOP/glaucoma.²⁸ In addition, the large sample size also permitted an exploration of
118 whether genetic predisposition to higher IOP modifies the relationship between
119 coffee/tea/caffeine consumption and IOP/glaucoma. Finally the high throughput
120 genotyping data available in the UKB provided an opportunity to assess whether genetic
121 loci linked to coffee consumption²⁷ were associated with IOP using MR (see
122 **Supplemental Appendix** for more explanation of IOP PRS, MR and the gene x
123 environmental interaction models employed).

124

125 **Methods**

126 *The UK Biobank (UKB)*

127
128 The UKB is a large-scale prospective cohort study of 502,506 participants aged
129 between 39-73 years at recruitment in 2006-2010. A wide range of phenotypic
130 information as well as biological samples were collected on these participants.²⁸ The
131 overall study protocol (<http://www.ukbiobank.ac.uk/resources/>) and individual test
132 procedures (<http://biobank.ctsu.ox.ac.uk/crystal/docs.cgi>) are available online. At
133 baseline, participants provided electronic signed consent and completed an extensive
134 touchscreen questionnaire and physical measurements in 22 initial assessment centers.

135 They also provided blood, urine, and saliva samples that were collected to generate
136 genetic, proteomic, and metabolomic data.²⁹ All participants also provided consent for
137 follow-up through linkage to their health-related records (e.g., primary care, screening
138 programs, and disease-specific registry data) and repeated assessments have been
139 conducted in a subset of participants to augment the baseline information. The UKB
140 was approved by the National Information Governance Board for Health and Social
141 Care and the NHS North West Multicenter Research Ethics Committee (reference
142 number 06/MRE08/65). This research has been conducted using the UKB Resource
143 under application number 36741.

144

145 *Assessment of dietary caffeine consumption*

146

147 Information on habitual coffee and tea consumption was assessed in the baseline
148 questionnaire (2006-2010). Participants were asked “How many cups of coffee do you
149 drink each day (including decaffeinated coffee)?” and “How many cups of tea do you
150 drink each day (including black and green tea)?” For both questions, participants were
151 asked to select the number of cups per day (“less than 1”, “Do not know”, “Prefer not to
152 answer” or they indicated the number of cups). For our analyses, we combined all
153 entries of 6 or more cups per day (in line with the second dietary instrument, see below)
154 and treated the category of less than 1 cup per day as 0.5 cups per day. As a follow-up
155 question, coffee drinkers were asked “What type of coffee do you usually drink?” and
156 they selected from: “decaffeinated coffee”, “instant coffee”, “ground coffee”, and “other
157 type of coffee”.

158

159 The web-based hybrid dietary assessment instrument (Oxford WebQ), a validated food
160 frequency questionnaire covering a 24-hour recall period, captured data on dietary
161 patterns.³⁰⁻³² The instrument was repeated up to five times between 2009 and 2012.
162 We used the WebQ data to estimate caffeine consumptions from 19 questions on
163 caffeine-containing foods and beverages such as coffee, tea, low calorie drinks,
164 carbonated drinks, and chocolate products. The WebQ first asked whether the
165 participant drank coffee yesterday or not. If the participant responded with “yes”, then
166 more information was requested about coffee type and the number of cups per day (i.e.,
167 half, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, and 6 or more). The WebQ also asked about tea consumption and the
168 number of cups of five specific tea types: black, rooibos, green, herbal, or other tea. For
169 coffee and tea, the participant was asked an additional question: “Was it decaffeinated
170 coffee?” and “Was your standard tea decaffeinated?”. The answer categories were “no”,
171 “yes” and “varied”. We categorized the tea/coffee as “caffeinated” for everyone
172 answering with “no” and “varied” (assuming that the majority of the beverages in the
173 ‘varied’ answer option would have been caffeinated). For carbonated drinks and low
174 calorie drinks, the number of glasses or cans the participant drank the previous day was
175 ascertained as half, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, and 6 or more. Chocolate intake was assessed from
176 seven items: chocolate bar, milk chocolate, dark chocolate, chocolate/yogurt covered
177 raisins, chocolate sweets, chocolate-covered biscuits, and chocolate biscuits.
178
179 Participants reported the number of portions as quarter, half, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 or more
180 servings. Using the reported dietary data in the WebQ and published reports on caffeine
181 content,³³⁻³⁵ we calculated the total caffeine consumption using all the caffeine-

182 containing foods mentioned above. Per-individual consumption of each caffeinated-
183 containing foods were averaged over all available time points. More details for deriving
184 total caffeine intake appear in the **Supplemental Appendix** and **Supplemental Tables**
185 **1-2**.

186

187 *IOP and glaucoma status ascertainment*

188 For 122,143 UKB participants, ophthalmic data, including IOP, were collected in 2009 at
189 6 assessment centers across the UK. IOP was measured once for each eye using the
190 Ocular Response Analyzer (ORA) noncontact tonometer (Reichert Corp., Philadelphia,
191 PA). Participants were excluded if they reported either eye surgery within the previous 4
192 weeks or an eye infection. We used corneal-compensated IOP (IOPcc), which is
193 derived from a linear combination of the inward and outward applanation tensions.³⁶ To
194 handle extreme IOP values, we excluded measurements in the top and bottom 0.5
195 percentiles.²⁶ Given the impact of glaucoma treatment on IOP, we excluded participants
196 who had a history of glaucoma laser or surgery. We imputed pre-treatment IOP for
197 participants using glaucoma medication by dividing the measured IOP by 0.7.^{24, 26, 37}
198 Participant-level IOP values were calculated by averaging the right- and left-eye values
199 for each participant. If data were available for only one eye, then we used that eye's IOP
200 value as the participant's IOP.

201

202 At baseline (2006-2010), participants with prior ophthalmic examinations completed a
203 touchscreen questionnaire and were considered to have glaucoma if they chose the
204 "Glaucoma" response to the question, "Has a doctor told you that you have any of the

205 following problems with your eyes?". Participants were also considered to have
206 glaucoma if they reported a history of glaucoma surgery or laser on the questionnaire or
207 if they carried an ICD9/10 code for glaucoma (ICD 9: 365.*; ICD10: H40.** (excluding
208 H40.01* and H42.*).

209
210 *Genotyping data, IOP polygenic risk score and MR experiments*

211
212 Genetic data on 488,377 UKB participants was generated using two genotyping arrays.
213 The Affymetrix UK BiLEVE Axiom Array returned genotypes at 807,411 markers on
214 49,950 individuals.³⁸ The Affymetrix UK Biobank Axiom Array provided genotypes at
215 825,925 markers for the remaining 438,427 individuals. Since these platforms shared
216 95% of genetic markers, quality controls and imputation (the determination of genotypes
217 at loci by inference and not by direct genotyping) were performed jointly, as previously
218 described.²⁸ Specifically, imputation was based on genetic architecture ascertained in
219 the 1000 Genomes Project, UK 10K, and the Haplotype Reference Consortium
220 reference panels. After quality control, 92,693,895 genetic markers of 487,442
221 participants were available in the data release.

222
223 For gene-diet interaction tests, we calculated the PRS for each participant using 111
224 independent common single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) associated at the
225 genome-wide significant level ($P \leq 5 \times 10^{-8}$) with IOP from a recent GWAS meta-analysis
226 including the UKB.²⁶ The PRS was derived using a standard weighted sum of individual
227 SNP, i.e., $PRS = \sum_{i=1}^{111} \hat{\beta}_i \times SNP_i$ where $\hat{\beta}_i$ is the estimated effect size of SNP_i on IOP level
228 extracted from the aforementioned GWAS.²⁶ We normalized the IOP PRS with mean of
229 0 and standard deviation (SD) of 1 for analyses. For interaction analyses, all dietary

230 exposure data was treated as continuous variables. To assess the potential causal
231 effects of coffee drinking on IOP, we performed a 2-sample MR analysis in participants
232 of European descent using 8 independent genome-wide significant SNPs associated
233 with higher habitual coffee consumption.²⁷

234
235 *Statistical analysis*

236
237 Baseline characteristics of coffee and tea drinkers were compared across none, low
238 (below median consumption), and high (above median consumption) consumers of
239 either beverage by using mean difference and SD for continuous variables and
240 distribution differences (i.e., counts and percentages) for categorical variables. To
241 examine main associations between coffee, tea, or caffeine intake and IOP, we used
242 multiple linear regression models adjusted for covariates obtained from the baseline
243 self-administered questionnaire. Covariates included *a priori* determined IOP risk factors
244 reported in prior studies:³⁹ age (years), sex, ethnicity (Caucasian, Black and other),
245 smoking status (never, past and current smoker), number of cigarettes smoked among
246 current smokers, alcohol intake (daily or almost daily, 3-4 times a week, 1-2 times a
247 week, 1-3 times a month, special occasions only, never), physical activity (Metabolic
248 Equivalent of Task (MET)-hours/week), Townsend deprivation index (range: -6 to 11; a
249 higher index score indicates more relative poverty for a given residential area), body
250 mass index (BMI) (kg/m²), systolic blood pressure (mmHg), history of diabetes (yes or
251 no), and total energy intake (kcal/day; for the subset with caffeine data). In the analysis
252 for caffeine, we used quintile groups of total caffeine intake (< 87, 87 - < 140, 140 - <
253 184, 184 - < 232, and ≥ 232 mg/day) and trends across the groups were examined by
254 testing the association between median values of the caffeine groups.

255

256 To evaluate associations of coffee, tea, and caffeine intake with glaucoma status, we
257 carried out multiple logistic regression analyses adjusting for the same covariates used
258 in multiple linear regression models and used similarly defined exposure categories. All
259 IOP PRS-diet interactions also used multiple regression adjusting for the same
260 covariates. Interaction terms were defined as the product between the IOP PRS
261 (standardized with mean 0 and SD 1) and coffee intake (cup/day), tea intake (cup/day),
262 or total caffeine intake (per 80 mg/day). We also performed two-sample MR analysis to
263 test causal effects of coffee drinking on IOP.⁴⁰⁻⁴² We measured the association between
264 8 SNPs associated with higher coffee intake²⁷ and coffee consumption (β_{coffee}) and IOP
265 (β_{IOP}) in the UKB data.

266 We conducted various secondary analyses: (1) sensitivity analyses excluding those with
267 glaucoma for analyses of IOP, (2) sensitivity analyses using a different definition of
268 glaucoma (a more specific definition that captured POAG; namely H40.1 and 365.1 from
269 hospital records), (3) a subgroup analysis for men and women to explore sex-specific
270 effects, and (4) a stratified analysis to examine the main associations of coffee and IOP
271 by coffee types (ground, instant, and decaffeinated, and others).

272

273 **Results**

274

275 The sample sizes for eligible UKB subjects with complete data for our various analyses
276 are presented in **Figure 1**. Basic demographic characteristics for the UKB population
277 overall (n=502,506) and its various subsets used in our analyses are provided in

278 **Supplemental Table 3.**

279

280 *Consumption of coffee, tea, and total caffeine*

281
282 121,374 UKB participants contributed to the analysis of caffeinated product
283 consumption and measured IOP (**Table 1**). The mean age (SD) was 56.8 (8.0) years
284 and 53.8% of the participants were women. The average IOP was 16.0 (SD: 3.8)
285 mmHg. The majority of participants (76.4%) were Caucasian. Mean coffee intake was
286 1.9 (SD: 1.7) cups/day and mean tea intake was 3.1 (SD: 2.1) cups/day. The
287 association between coffee and tea consumption tended to be reciprocal. Higher coffee
288 consumption tended to be associated with being a current smoker and with more
289 regular alcohol consumption. Of the 121,374 participants, 77,906 also completed the
290 Web-Q diet questionnaires, allowing for an assessment of caffeine consumption from all
291 sources. Total mean caffeine intake ranged from 8.9 mg/d for non-coffee drinkers to
292 135.3 mg/d for high coffee consumers (>1 cup/day). Total mean caffeine intake ranged
293 from 2.9 mg/d for non-tea drinkers to 114.0 mg/d for high tea consumers (>3 cup/day).

294

295 *Consumption of coffee, tea, and total caffeine in relation to IOP*

296 Using data on coffee and tea consumption at baseline, with maximal adjustment for
297 confounding factors and mutual adjustment of caffeine sources, we observed weak
298 inverse linear associations between coffee and tea intake with IOP (difference in IOP
299 with each cup/day increase = -0.05 mmHg ($P < 0.001$) for each beverage) (**Table 2**).
300 Among participants who completed the Web-Q, we observed no association between
301 coffee or tea consumption and IOP, but we observed an inverse trend between caffeine
302 consumption and IOP (difference in IOP between highest versus lowest quintile of
303 caffeine intake = -0.10 mm Hg; P -trend = 0.01). For the baseline analysis, we observed
304 similar associations for men and women (**Supplemental Table 4**). When we evaluated

305 intake of different coffee types, instant coffee and decaffeinated coffee use were weakly
306 associated with lower IOP, whereas beverages with a higher caffeine content, such as
307 ground and other types of coffee, were weakly positively associated with IOP when
308 using the WebQ (**Supplemental Table 5**).

309

310 *Consumption of coffee, tea, and total caffeine in relation to glaucoma*

311 Next we explored diet-glaucoma relations among participants who completed the
312 baseline glaucoma questionnaire, regardless of whether they had IOP measures (9,229
313 glaucoma cases and 188,856 controls) (**Table 3**). We did not observe significant
314 associations between baseline tea or coffee and glaucoma. In the WebQ dataset (3,850
315 cases and 104,275 controls), we also observed no associations between coffee, tea or
316 caffeine consumption and glaucoma ($P \geq 0.05$ for all). Also, we did not find any
317 association of coffee, tea, and caffeine with the more specific outcome of POAG
318 (**Supplemental Table 6**).

319

320 *Genetic modification of caffeine product consumption – IOP relations*

321

322 We next assessed whether the association of coffee, tea and caffeine intake with IOP is
323 modified by an IOP PRS. These analyses were further restricted to participants with
324 genetic data (n=117,458). As expected,²⁶ a higher IOP PRS was strongly associated
325 with higher IOP ($\beta = 0.76$ mmHg per SD of PRS, $P < 0.001$). We found evidence for
326 significant effect modification of the IOP PRS on the associations between tea
327 consumption and IOP (P -interaction = 0.001) but not on the association between coffee
328 consumption and IOP (**Figure 2A** and **2B** upper panel). Caffeine – IOP PRS
329 interactions were observed for subjects who completed the WebQ and had genetic data

330 (n=75,686, **Figure 2C** - upper panel; *P*-interaction = 0.01). **Figure 2** illustrates that
331 among those with the highest genetic susceptibility for higher IOP, greater tea or
332 caffeine consumption were associated with higher IOP levels, but among those with a
333 lower IOP PRS (lowest three quartiles), higher tea or caffeine consumption was
334 associated with no change in IOP or slightly lower IOP. Most notably, among those in
335 the highest quartile of the IOP PRS, IOP increased from 16.95 mm Hg for those in the
336 lowest quintile of caffeine intake to 17.3 mmHg for those with the highest quintile of
337 caffeine intake (**Figure 2C**, upper panel). In secondary analyses to address the
338 possibility that those with glaucoma may change their caffeine consumption, we
339 excluded people with a self-report of glaucoma; the IOP PRS – dietary interactions were
340 not qualitatively different (IOP PRS x baseline coffee consumption, n=114,810 subjects,
341 p-interaction = 0.76; IOP PRS x baseline tea consumption, n=114,810 subjects, p-
342 interaction = 0.01; IOP PRS x caffeine consumption, n=74,060 subjects, p-interaction =
343 0.05)

344
345 *Genetic modification of diet – glaucoma relations*
346

347 We next assessed whether the association of coffee, tea and caffeine intake with
348 glaucoma is modified by IOP PRS. As anticipated,²⁶ there was a positive association
349 between IOP PRS and glaucoma prevalence (Odds Ratio (OR) = 1.57 per SD of PRS,
350 *P* < 0.001). The relation between coffee consumption and glaucoma was not modified
351 by the IOP PRS (**Figure 2A**, lower panel *P*-interaction = 0.75). We did observe
352 significant and positive effect modification by IOP PRS on the association between tea
353 consumption and glaucoma (OR_{interaction} = 1.02, *P*-interaction = 0.01 for tea; **Figure 2B**,
354 lower panel). Compared to tea non-drinkers with the lowest quartile of IOP PRS, those

355 consuming 3 to 6 cups/day and the highest quartile of IOP PRS had higher risk of
356 glaucoma approaching 3-fold; yet, those consuming 3-6 cups/day and the lowest
357 quartile of IOP PRS had slightly lower glaucoma risk. We also observed significant and
358 positive effect modification of the association between caffeine consumption and
359 glaucoma by IOP PRS using 3,767 glaucoma cases and 101,438 controls ($OR_{interaction} =$
360 1.06 , $P_{interaction} = 0.0003$; **Figure 2C** lower panels). Specifically, compared to those
361 in the lowest category of caffeine consumption and the lowest quartile of IOP PRS,
362 those in the highest category of caffeine and highest quartile of IOP PRS had a 3.9 OR
363 of glaucoma (**Figure 2C**, lower panel). Also, among those in the same strata of the
364 highest quartile of IOP PRS, the highest vs lowest caffeine consumption had a 1.3 fold
365 higher glaucoma odds (**Figure 2C**, lower panel). In secondary analyses, the IOP PRS
366 did not modify the associations of coffee, tea, and caffeine intakes with POAG ($P_{interaction} \geq 0.22$, **Supplemental Table 7**).

368

369 *Mendelian Randomization (MR) Analyses*

370 All 8 coffee consumption SNPs²⁷ were also positively associated with coffee drinking in
371 the UKB (**Supplemental Figure 1**; $n = 92,699$; all $\beta > 0$). Conversely, the same SNPs
372 were variably associated with IOP (**Supplemental Figure 1**; β range: -0.5 mmHg to
373 $+0.6$ mmHg) and the MR revealed no evidence of a causal relationship between coffee
374 intake and IOP among UKB participants with European decent (all $P > 0.1$;
375 **Supplemental Table 8 and Supplemental Figure 2**).

376

377 Discussion

378

379 Overall, we observed that coffee, tea and caffeine consumption were weakly associated

380 with lower IOP, and the associations between these exposures and glaucoma were null.

381 The caffeine associations were modified by an IOP PRS, such that higher caffeine

382 intake was positively associated with both IOP and glaucoma prevalence, but only

383 among those with the highest genetic susceptibility to elevated IOP.

384

385 This is the largest study to evaluate the association between habitual caffeinated

386 product consumption and IOP. Furthermore, it is also the first study to explore whether

387 this relation was modified by genetic predisposition to higher IOP. There has been very

388 little prior research that has examined the effect of habitual coffee consumption on IOP.

389 ^{4, 18} In one Japanese study, after adjusting for multiple covariates, IOP was lower

390 among male habitual coffee consumers versus abstainers. ⁴³ Similarly, in our study

391 there was a very modest inverse association between higher total caffeine intake and

392 IOP (>231 compared to <87mg/d total caffeine intake was associated with a 0.10 mmHg

393 lower IOP), an association that is not likely to be clinically significant. Indeed, our

394 analyses suggest there was a null association between higher caffeinated beverage

395 consumption and glaucoma risk. Furthermore, the MR analysis did not suggest any

396 causal effect of coffee drinking on IOP. Interestingly, most MR analyses between

397 caffeine consumption and a variety of health-related traits have also been negative. ^{23, 44}

398 However, our analysis suggests an IOP gene-caffeine interaction exists; specifically, for

399 those below the 75th percentile of IOP PRS, caffeinated product consumption had little

400 association with IOP; in contrast, for those in the highest quartile of IOP PRS, the

401 consumption of 6 cups versus 0 cups of tea/day was associated with 0.2 mmHg higher
402 and the consumption of 480 mg/d versus no caffeine was associated with 0.35 mmHg
403 higher IOP. While this latter association seems small, it is equivalent to the effect size of
404 *TMCO1* rs10918274, the gene variant with strongest effect on both higher IOP and
405 POAG risk.²⁶ Furthermore, the *TMCO1* risk variant was independently associated with
406 conversion from ocular hypertension to POAG in the Ocular Hypertension Treatment
407 Study.⁴⁵ In our study however, *TMCO1* (rs10918274) does not appear to be a key
408 driver of the IOP PRS – diet interaction we report (**Supplemental Table 9**). When
409 considering the IOP SNPs collectively, these results suggest that while caffeinated
410 beverage consumption may not be associated with higher IOP overall, this may not be
411 the case for those with the highest genetic propensity to higher IOP.

412

413 Our analysis also shows that higher caffeine intake does not increase glaucoma risk
414 overall. However there was a similar interaction where greater caffeine intake was
415 adversely associated with glaucoma for those in the highest 25 percentile of genetic
416 predisposition to higher IOP, while greater caffeine intake was weakly inversely
417 associated with glaucoma among those in the lower 75% of IOP PRS. These findings
418 are consistent with studies that found that greater caffeine intake was more adversely
419 associated with open angle glaucoma among those reporting a family history of
420 glaucoma.^{20, 21} To what extent an IOP PRS captures a family history of glaucoma is
421 unknown. The variance of IOPcc in the UKB explained by GWAS SNPs⁴⁶ and the IOP
422 PRS is about 15% and 4%, respectively.

423

424 It is interesting to speculate about the biology underlying a possible interaction between
425 IOP PRS and dietary caffeine intake in modifying the risk of higher IOP and glaucoma. It
426 is possible that those with high IOP PRS have a lower reserve to withstand the
427 challenges of intermittent yet frequent acute elevations of IOP caused by caffeine
428 consumption. Overall, the dietary impact on our outcomes was small while the genetic
429 contribution was quite robust. Whether IOP-related genes act in concert or whether
430 specific IOP loci contribute to the gene – diet interactions we report remains to be
431 determined. Only 9 of the 111 SNPs demonstrated a nominally positive gene – caffeine
432 consumption interaction with respect to IOP, and none of these were significant at the
433 Bonferroni corrected p-value cutoff (4×10^{-4}) (**Supplemental Table 9**).

434
435 This study has strengths and limitations. A major study strength was the large sample
436 size, which allowed for the study of how genetic markers associated with IOP might
437 alter the relation between caffeine intake and IOP or glaucoma. Among limitations,
438 dietary caffeine measures can be challenging to ascertain with questionnaires (see
439 **Supplement note**). For example, variation in the caffeine content of coffee depends on
440 the amount of water, type of coffee bean and preparation method. Nonetheless, the
441 dietary measures were validated, and the MR analysis helped to indirectly validate the
442 data on coffee consumption collected in the UKB; specifically, gene variants associated
443 with higher coffee consumption in another dataset were indeed associated with higher
444 coffee consumption in the UKB (**Supplemental Figure 1**). Also, while IOP was only
445 measured once, the measures of IOP were relatively independent of central corneal
446 thickness. The definition of self-reported glaucoma was not highly specific. The gene -

447 diet interactions were not externally validated but they were internally consistent, i.e.,
448 consistent interactions were seen for both IOP and glaucoma.

449

450 Regarding generalizability, caffeine sources differ from country to country, but this does
451 not necessarily hamper the internal validity of our findings. Daily consumption of
452 caffeine in the UKB (135 mg/d among habitual coffee drinkers (**Table 1**) is lower than in
453 the US (~210 mg/d)⁴⁷ and elsewhere.⁴⁸ In the UK, there is a propensity to consume
454 more instant coffee and tea, which have less caffeine than ground coffee that is more
455 commonly consumed elsewhere. Nevertheless, we also observed very weak significant
456 positive associations ground coffee consumption and IOP (**Supplemental Table 5**; IOP
457 difference=0.03 mm Hg per cup), although these results may have been underpowered
458 due to the low number of participants consuming higher quantities. Therefore, the
459 association with IOP at the upper ranges in the US diet remains unknown. In sensitivity
460 analysis for IOP, after excluding those who had glaucoma and may have been advised
461 to limit caffeine intake, we observed similar results with regards to diet-gene interaction
462 analysis.

463

464 This study suggests that a large panel of IOP genetic biomarkers could modify the
465 relation between caffeine dietary intake and risk of glaucoma. Currently there is no
466 approved genetic testing to identify which subset of patients might be predisposed to
467 higher IOP and glaucoma. More research is needed to confirm these gene-diet
468 interactions and to determine whether specific genetic markers are modifying the
469 propensity to higher IOP and glaucoma or whether it is a nonspecific critical number of

470 any IOP markers that modify disease risk. If confirmed, our data suggest that
471 approaches to precision nutrition that incorporate genomic data⁴⁹ may be needed to
472 make recommendations regarding caffeine consumption and glaucoma risk.

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597

598

599 **Figure legends**

600

601 **Figure 1:** Flowchart outlining eligible subjects for this study in UK Biobank. This flow
602 diagram summarizes the number of participants available for each analysis.

603

604 **Figure 2:** Interactions between IOP PRS and coffee, tea, and caffeine intake in the
605 relation to IOP and glaucoma prevalence. The upper panels summarize how the
606 IOP PRS modifies the relation between coffee consumption (A), tea consumption
607 (B) and caffeine consumption (C) and IOP. The lower panels summarize how the
608 IOP PRS modifies the relation between coffee consumption (A), tea consumption
609 (B) and caffeine consumption (C) and glaucoma risk. Each color represents
610 quartiles of IOP PRS (orange = 1st quartile, green = 2nd quartile, light blue = 3rd
611 quartile, and magenta/purple = 4th quartile). The asterisk indicates the OR is
612 significantly different from the OR=1 (p-value < 0.05). NB: Dietary data in the
613 lower panel is shown as ordinal data to depict the nature the interactions, while it
614 was analyzed as continuous variables.

Table 1. Characteristics by coffee and tea consumption status among UK Biobank participants with IOP measurements and coffee and tea data at baseline (n = 121,374)

Variable / No.	Coffee consumption			Tea consumption		
	Non-drinkers (0 cup/day) (n = 26,967)	Low consumption (≤ 1 cup/day) (n = 34,726)	High consumption (> 1 cup/day) (n = 59,681)	Non-drinkers (0 cup/day) (n = 17,244)	Low consumption (≤ 3 cups/day) (n = 49,980)	High consumption (> 3 cups/day) (n = 54,150)
Age (year), mean (SD)	55.6 (8.2)	57.2 (8.0)	57.2 (7.9)	55.9 (8.2)	56.6 (8.2)	57.4 (7.8)
Sex, no. (%)						
Male	11,376 (42.2)	15,390 (44.3)	29,314 (49.1)	7,546 (43.8)	23,341 (46.7)	25,193 (46.5)
Female	15,591 (57.8)	19,336 (55.7)	30,367 (50.9)	9,698 (56.2)	26,639 (53.3)	28,957 (53.5)
Ethnicity, ^a no. (%)						
White (Caucasian genetically)	18,607 (69.3)	26,091 (75.5)	47,979 (80.7)	13,324 (77.6)	35,551 (71.5)	43,802 (81.2)
Black (self-report)	367 (1.4)	412 (1.2)	383 (0.6)	121 (0.7)	686 (1.4)	355 (0.7)
Other	7,861 (29.3)	8,076 (23.4)	11,070 (18.6)	3,726 (21.7)	13,490 (27.1)	9,791 (18.1)
Smoking status, no. (%)						
Never	16,308 (60.7)	20,221 (58.4)	30,919 (52.0)	9,211 (53.5)	28,431 (57.1)	29,814 (55.2)
Past	8,270 (30.8)	11,828 (34.2)	21,782 (36.6)	5,918 (34.4)	17,111 (34.3)	18,884 (35.0)
Current	2,290 (8.5)	2,560 (7.4)	6,766 (11.4)	2,074 (12.1)	4,274 (8.6)	5,270 (9.8)
Alcohol drinking frequency, no. (%)						
Never or special occasions only	8,928 (33.1)	6,761 (19.5)	9,447 (15.8)	4,295 (24.9)	9,689 (19.4)	11,152 (20.6)
At least once per month	18,017 (66.9)	27,948 (80.5)	50,188 (84.2)	12,940 (75.1)	40,253 (80.6)	42,960 (79.4)
Physical activity (MET-hr/wk), mean (SD)	44.9 (46.5)	43.6 (42.8)	43.7 (44.0)	44.0 (46.0)	41.8 (41.7)	45.9 (45.8)
BMI (kg/m ²), mean (SD)	27.4 (4.7)	27.0 (4.5)	27.4 (4.5)	27.9 (4.9)	27.1 (4.5)	27.2 (4.4)
SBP (mmHg), mean (SD)	136.6 (18.6)	137.4 (18.5)	137.7 (18.1)	136.8 (18.3)	137.2 (18.3)	137.7 (18.4)
Diabetes (yes), no. (%)	1,797 (6.7)	2,002 (5.8)	3,450 (5.8)	1,234 (7.2)	3,080 (6.2)	2,935 (5.4)
Deprivation Index ^b , mean (SD)	-0.6 (3.1)	-1.1 (3.0)	-1.3 (2.9)	-0.9 (3.1)	-1.0 (3.0)	-1.2 (2.9)
Coffee intake (cup/day), mean (SD)	0.0	0.9 (0.2)	3.3 (1.4)	3.1 (2.1)	2.1 (1.6)	1.3 (1.5)
Coffee type, no. (%)						
Non-coffee drinker	26,967 (100.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	2,856 (16.6)	7,860 (15.8)	16,251 (30.2)
Decaffeinated	0 (0.0)	6,354 (18.5)	11,090 (18.7)	2,809 (16.4)	7,267 (14.6)	7,368 (13.7)
Instant	0 (0.0)	17,086 (49.7)	33,566 (56.6)	8,372 (48.8)	21,894 (44.1)	20,386 (37.9)
Ground	0 (0.0)	9,868 (28.7)	13,865 (23.4)	2,898 (16.9)	11,791 (23.8)	9,044 (16.8)
Others	0 (0.0)	1,050 (3.1)	785 (1.3)	237 (1.4)	806 (1.6)	792 (1.5)
Tea intake (cup/day), mean (SD)	3.8 (2.0)	3.7 (1.8)	2.5 (2.0)	0.0	2.0 (0.9)	5.1 (0.9)
Total caffeine intake ^c (mg/day), mean (SD)	8.9 (27.8)	49.1 (48.9)	135.3 (89.0)	2.9 (13.7)	49.8 (38.2)	114.1 (57.1)
Quintiles of total caffeine intake, ^{c,d} no. (%)						
Quintile 1	5,851 (36.7)	4,924 (21.8)	4,807 (12.2)	3,847 (34.6)	7,725 (23.7)	4,010 (11.7)
Quintile 2	2,871 (18.0)	4,479 (19.8)	4,219 (10.7)	1,340 (12.1)	6,288 (19.3)	3,941 (11.5)
Quintile 3	4,409 (27.7)	6,758 (29.9)	8,420 (21.4)	1,898 (17.1)	7,468 (22.9)	10,221 (29.9)
Quintile 4	2,431 (15.3)	4,251 (18.8)	8,901 (22.6)	1,794 (16.2)	5,308 (16.3)	8,481 (24.8)
Quintile 5	374 (2.3)	2,157 (9.6)	13,054 (33.1)	2,226 (20.0)	5,802 (17.8)	7,557 (22.1)
Total energy intake ^c (kcal/day), mean (SD)	2059.4 (809.5)	2088.4 (749.3)	2138.6 (751.2)	2069.6 (836.0)	2091.3 (739.2)	2135.5 (761.3)
IOP (mmHg), mean (SD)	15.8 (3.8)	16.1 (3.8)	16.0 (3.8)	15.9 (3.8)	16.1 (3.8)	15.9 (3.8)
IOP polygenic risk score, ^e mean (SD)	0.05 (1.0)	0.02 (1.0)	-0.0002 (1.0)	0.02 (1.0)	0.03 (1.0)	0.005 (1.0)

Abbreviations: IOP = intraocular pressure; BMI = body mass index (kg/m²); MET-hr/wk = metabolic equivalent of task-hours per week; SBP = systolic blood pressure; SD = standard deviation; WebQ: Web-based 24-hour diet questionnaire administered up to 4 times between February 2011 and June 2012.

^a For Whites, ethnicity is based on Principal Component Analysis. For other ethnicities it is based on self-report (see ref 26).

^b Unit was 1 unit of the Townsend Deprivation Index (a composite measure of deprivation based on unemployment, non-car ownership, non-home ownership, and household overcrowding; a lower value represents higher socioeconomic status)

^c Data on total caffeine intake and total energy intake was from 77,906 participants who completed the WebQ.

^d Cutoffs of caffeine (mg/day) quintiles among WebQ responders (n=77906): 20th percentile=86.7, 40th percentile=139.1, 60th percentile=182.9, and 80th percentile=231.9

^e The IOP polygenic risk score was normalized so that the mean was 0 and the SD was 1. Data on the IOP polygenic risk score was from the 117,458 participants with genetic data.

Table 2. Associations of coffee, tea, or caffeine intake and IOP (mmHg)

	No.	Model 1	Model 2 ^b	Model 3 ^c
		<i>Difference in IOP (mmHg; 95% CI)</i>	<i>Difference in IOP (mmHg; 95% CI)</i>	<i>Difference in IOP (mmHg; 95% CI)</i>
Baseline				
Coffee intake (cup/day)	121,374	-0.03 (-0.04, -0.02)	-0.03 (-0.04, -0.02)	-0.05 (-0.06, -0.03)
Tea intake (cup/day)	121,374	-0.04 (-0.05, -0.03)	-0.03 (-0.04, -0.02)	-0.04 (-0.06, -0.03)
WebQ				
Coffee intake (cup/day)	77,906	0.01 (-0.03, 0.04)	0.00 (-0.03, 0.03)	-0.02 (-0.06, 0.01)
Tea intake (cup/day)	77,906	-0.01 (-0.03, 0.01)	0.00 (-0.02, 0.02)	-0.01 (-0.03, 0.02)
Quintiles of total caffeine intake				
1 (0 to < 86.6 mg/d)	15,581	Reference	Reference	Reference
2 (86.6 to < 139.1 mg/d)	15,581	0.01 (-0.07, 0.09)	-0.01 (-0.10, 0.07)	-0.02 (-0.10, 0.07)
3 (139.1 to < 182.9 mg/d)	15,576	0.06 (-0.02, 0.14)	0.04 (-0.05, 0.13)	0.03 (-0.05, 0.12)
4 (182.9 to < 231.9 mg/d)	15,583	-0.07 (-0.16, 0.01)	-0.10 (-0.19, -0.01)	-0.10 (-0.19, -0.01)
5 (\geq 231.9 mg/d)	15,585	-0.12 (-0.21, -0.04)	-0.09 (-0.18, -0.004)	-0.10 (-0.19, -0.01)
P-trend ^d		0.001	0.01	0.01

Abbreviations: IOP = intraocular pressure; CI = confidence interval; WebQ = Web-based 24-hour diet questionnaire administered up to 4 times between February 2011 and June 2012.

^a Model 1: Adjusting for age (linear age in years), sex (male/female), and ethnicity (genetic Caucasian, self-reported Black, all others)

^b Model 2: Model 1 with further adjustment for smoking status (never, past or present), number of cigarettes (0 for never or past smokers, number of cigarettes smoked daily by current smokers), frequency of alcohol drinking (never or special occasion only, 1-3 times a month, 1-2 times per week, 3-4 times per week, daily or almost daily), physical activity (MET-hr/wk), deprivation index (linear score), BMI (kg/m^2), SBP (mmHg), and diabetes (yes/no)

^c Model 3 (for coffee intake): Model 2 with further adjustment for tea intake (cup/day)

Model 3 (for tea intake): Model 2 with further adjustment for coffee intake (cup/day)

Model 3 (for total caffeine intake): Model 2 with further adjustment for total energy intake (kcal/day)

^d P-trend was obtained from the p-value of a continuous variable representing the median values of the quintile groups; the p-trend provides a test of whether there is a linear association with increasing quintile of caffeine

Table 3. Associations of coffee, tea, or caffeine intake and glaucoma^a

	No.	Model 1 ^b		Model 2 ^c		Model 3 ^d	
		OR (95% CI)	P-value	OR (95% CI)	P-value	OR (95% CI)	P-value
Baseline							
Coffee intake (cup/d)	198,085	1.00 (0.99, 1.02)	0.49	1.00 (0.99, 1.02)	0.53	1.00 (0.98, 1.01)	0.97
Tea intake (cup/d)	198,085	0.99 (0.98, 1.00)	0.02	0.99 (0.98, 1.00)	0.08	0.99 (0.98, 1.00)	0.11
WebQ							
Coffee intake (cup/d)	108,125	1.04 (1.00, 1.08)	0.04	1.04 (1.00, 1.08)	0.08	1.04 (0.99, 1.08)	0.10
Tea intake (cup/d)	108,125	0.96 (0.94, 0.99)	0.01	0.97 (0.94, 1.00)	0.04	0.97 (0.94, 1.00)	0.05
Quintiles of total caffeine intake							
1 (0 to < 87.0 mg/d)	21,514	1.00		1.00		1.00	
2 (87.0 to < 140.2 mg/d)	21,736	0.99 (0.89, 1.10)		0.97 (0.87, 1.09)		0.97 (0.87, 1.10)	
3 (140.2 to < 183.8 mg/d)	21,625	1.01 (0.91, 1.12)		1.03 (0.92, 1.15)		1.03 (0.92, 1.15)	
4 (183.8 to < 232.4 mg/d)	21,625	0.99 (0.89, 1.10)		1.03 (0.91, 1.15)		1.03 (0.91, 1.15)	
5 (≥ 232.4 mg/d)	21,625	1.02 (0.92, 1.13)		1.01 (0.90, 1.14)		1.01 (0.90, 1.14)	
P-trend ^e		0.70		0.60		0.59	

Abbreviations: No. = Number; OR = odds ratio; CI = confidence interval, WebQ: Web-based 24-hour diet questionnaire administered up to 4 times between February 2011 and June 2012.

^a Glaucoma was defined as a self-report of a glaucoma. The number of cases of glaucoma was 9,229 and the number of controls was 188,856 in UK biobank. For the participants who completed the WebQ there were 3,850 glaucoma cases and 104,275 controls.

^b Model 1: Adjusting for age (linear age in years), sex (male/female), and ethnicity (genetic Caucasian, self-reported Black, all others)

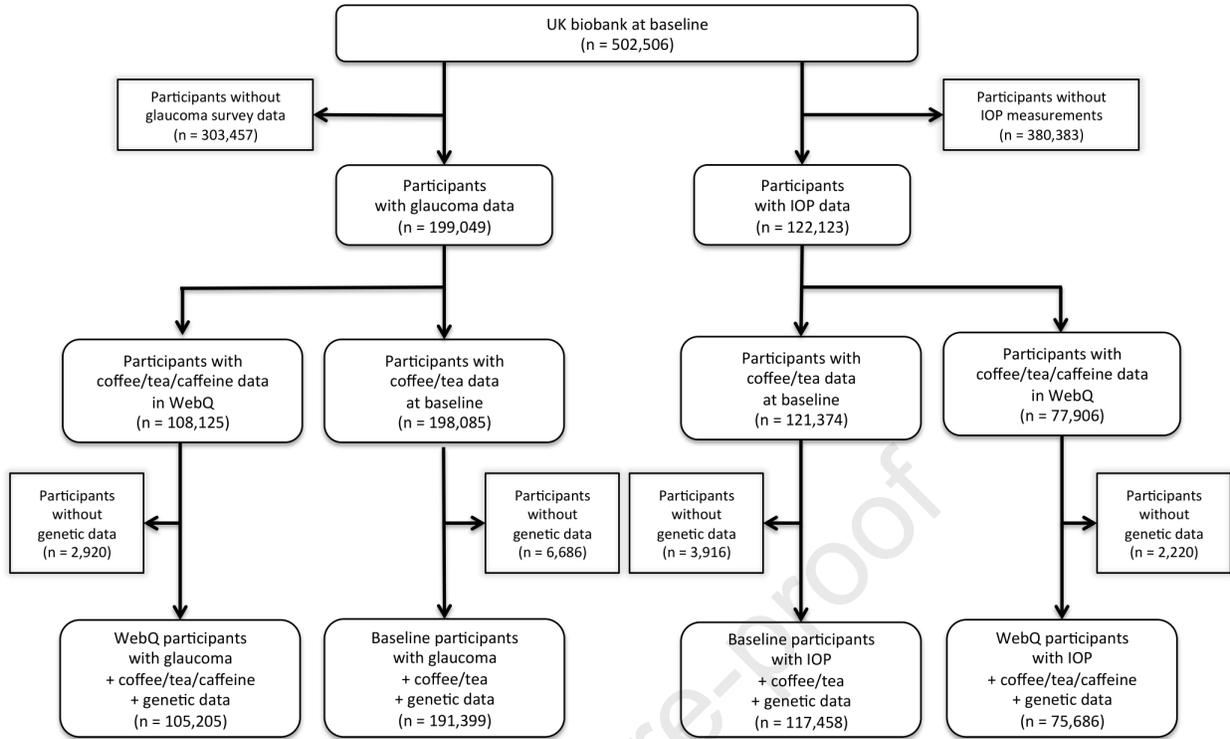
^c Model 2: Model 1 with further adjustment for smoking status (never, past or current), number of cigarettes (0 for never or past smokers, number of cigarettes smoked daily by current smokers), frequency of alcohol drinking (never or special occasion only, 1-3 times a month, 1-2 times per week, 3-4 times per week, daily or almost daily), physical activity (MET-hr/wk), deprivation index (linear score), BMI (kg/m²), SBP (mmHg), and diabetes (yes/no)

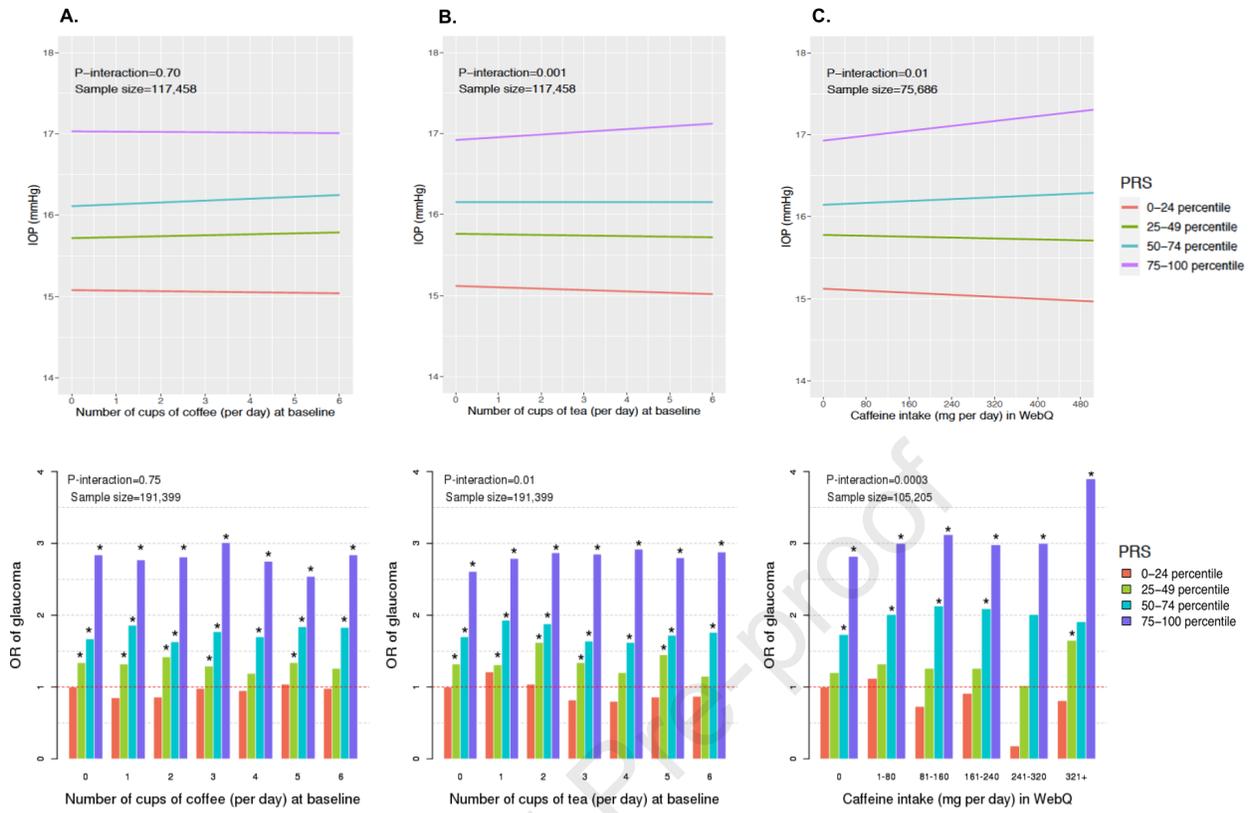
^d Model 3 (for coffee intake): Model 2 with further adjustment for tea intake (cup/day)

Model 3 (for tea intake): Model 2 with further adjustment for coffee intake (cup/day)

Model 3 (for total caffeine intake): Model 2 with further adjustment for total energy intake (kcal/day)

^e P-trend was obtained from the p-value of a continuous variable representing the median values of the quintile groups; the p-trend provides a test of whether there is a linear association with increasing quintile of caffeine.

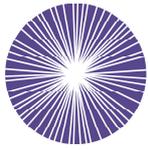




Precis

For UK biobank participants, we found minimal relations between habitual caffeine consumption, intraocular pressure and glaucoma risk; however, adverse associations were observed among those who were genetically susceptible to high intraocular pressure.

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TITLE OF ARTICLE: Intraocular pressure, glaucoma and dietary caffeine consumption: a gene–diet interaction study from the UK

Biobank

AUTHORS: Jihye Kim, Hugues Aschard, Jae H. Kang, Marleen AH Lentjes, Ron Do, Janey L. Wiggs, Anthony P. Khawaja, Louis

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Marleen AH Lentjes	x	x	x	x
Ron Do	x	x	x	x
Janey L. Wiggs	x	x	x	x
Anthony P. Khawaja	x	x	x	x
Louis R. Pasquale	x	x	x	x

OTHER CONTRIBUTIONS: All authors contributed to all aspects of work. Some specific contributions include: Dr. Kim performed all analyses. Dr. Kang organized biweekly zoom conferences to discuss the data. She also performed a data check to assess the validity of the outcomes with Dr. Kim. Dr. Lentjes developed a script to derive caffeine intake from the dietary questionnaires. Drs.

Kang and Lentjes provided input on the dietary exposures in relation to the outcomes given their expertise in nutritional epidemiology. Dr. Khawaja developed a script to derive IOP PRS for study participants. Dr. Pasquale obtained funding for the project. Drs. Aschard and Pasquale provided input on the GxE aspects of the project. Drs. Do, Khawaja and Wiggs provided critical input regarding the genetics aspects of the work.

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