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1 **An expanded analysis framework for multivariate GWAS connects inflammatory biomarkers**
2 **to functional variants and disease**

3 **Running title: Expanded multivariate GWAS of inflammatory markers**

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27 **ABSTRACT**

28 Multivariate methods are known to increase the statistical power to detect associations in the case of
29 shared genetic basis between phenotypes. They have, however, lacked essential analytic tools to
30 follow-up and understand the biology underlying these associations. We developed a novel
31 computational workflow for multivariate GWAS follow-up analyses, including fine-mapping and
32 identification of the subset of traits driving associations (driver traits). Many follow-up tools require
33 univariate regression coefficients which are lacking from multivariate results. Our method overcomes
34 this problem by using Canonical Correlation Analysis to turn each multivariate association into its
35 optimal univariate Linear Combination Phenotype (LCP). This enables an LCP-GWAS, which in turn
36 generates the statistics required for follow-up analyses. We implemented our method on 12 highly
37 correlated inflammatory biomarkers in a Finnish population-based study. Altogether, we identified
38 11 associations, four of which (*F5*, *ABO*, *C1orf140* and *PDGFRB*) were not detected by biomarker-
39 specific analyses. Fine-mapping identified 19 signals within the 11 loci and driver trait analysis
40 determined the traits contributing to the associations. A phenome-wide association study on the 19
41 representative variants from the signals in 176,899 individuals from the FinnGen study revealed 53
42 disease associations ($p < 1 \times 10^{-4}$). Several reported pQTLs in the 11 loci provided orthogonal evidence
43 for the biologically relevant functions of the representative variants. Our novel multivariate analysis
44 workflow provides a powerful addition to standard univariate GWAS analyses by enabling
45 multivariate GWAS follow-up and thus promoting the advancement of powerful multivariate
46 methods in genomics.

47

48 **Keywords:** multivariate GWAS, inflammatory biomarkers, fine-mapping

49

50 **INTRODUCTION**

51 Genome-wide association studies (GWAS) of biomarkers have been highly successful in identifying
52 novel biological pathways and their impact on health and disease. Biomarkers increase statistical
53 power in GWAS, compared to disease diagnoses, due to their quantitative nature and lack of errors
54 due to subjectivity, such as misclassification. Thus, biomarker GWAS have identified thousands of
55 biomarker-associated loci and elucidated the mechanisms underlying numerous disease
56 associations(1-3). A recent study on 38 biomarkers in the UK Biobank (UKBB) identified over 1,800
57 independent genetic associations with causal roles in several diseases(4). Proteomics and
58 metabolomics integrated with genomics has also revealed causal molecular pathways connecting the
59 genome to multiple diseases, e.g. autoimmune disorders and cardiovascular disease(5-8). Although
60 biomarkers are more closely related to pathophysiology, a single biomarker is usually an inaccurate
61 estimator of complex disease due to phenotypic heterogeneity and individual variation. Therefore,
62 combinations of biomarkers provide a more robust predictive molecular signature. Studies examining
63 combinations of biomarkers are increasingly feasible given the availability of biobank resources
64 around the globe with deep phenotyping, i.e. precise and comprehensive data on phenotypic variation
65 including quantitative measures such as biomarkers(9,10).

66
67 Multivariate GWAS increases statistical power compared to univariate analysis, especially in the case
68 of complex biological processes and correlated traits(8,11,12). This leads to identifying multivariate
69 associations that are otherwise missed by univariate analysis(8,13). Efficient software programs are
70 available for performing multivariate GWAS such as metaCCA(14), yet multivariate analyses
71 currently have shortcomings in interpreting the arising signals. Follow-up tools for fine-mapping
72 causal variants within the associated loci are lacking and the subset of tested traits that drive the
73 association signals have not been identified. These shortcomings are largely due to the lack of a

74 multivariate counterpart to the univariate regression coefficients (beta estimates). Lack of these
75 necessary follow-up tools has hindered the utilization of multivariate methods.

76

77 In this study, we developed a novel computational workflow for multivariate GWAS discovery and
78 follow-up analyses including fine-mapping and identification of driver traits (Figure 1). Our
79 workflow includes 1) a customized version of the metaCCA software that overcomes the problem of
80 missing beta estimates by turning each multivariate association into its optimal univariate Linear
81 Combination Phenotype (LCP), enabling an LCP-GWAS, 2) fine-mapping, i.e. identifying putative
82 causal variants underlying each association using summary statistics from the LCP-GWAS and a
83 multivariate extension to FINEMAP(15), and 3) determining the traits driving each multivariate
84 association using a newly developed tool, MetaPhat(16) that efficiently decomposes the multivariate
85 associations into a smaller set of underlying driver traits. Taken together, we present to our knowledge
86 the first comprehensive framework to map multivariate associations into individual causal variants
87 and a subset of driver traits. We demonstrate the potential of our workflow in a Finnish population-
88 based cohort with 12 inflammatory biomarkers implicated in the pathogenesis of autoimmune
89 disorders and cancer(17-19). This set of highly-correlated biomarkers is particularly advantageous
90 for multivariate analysis as high correlation between traits increases the boost in statistical power
91 achieved by multivariate methods. Using multivariate analysis, we identify additional hits compared
92 to univariate analysis, totaling 11 independent associations. We follow them up in a phenome-wide
93 association study (PheWAS) in the FinnGen study ($n = 176,899$) across 2,367 disease endpoints and
94 in the UKBB ($n = 408,910$)(10). We discover multiple disease associations, as well as identify
95 orthogonal evidence for the biological impact of the causal variants through several protein
96 quantitative trait loci (pQTLs) within the multivariate loci.

97

98

99 **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

100 **Study cohort and data**

101 We studied 12 highly correlated inflammatory biomarkers in the population-based national FINRISK
102 Study (20) collected in 1997 (n = 6,890) (Table 1, Supplementary Figure 1). The FINRISK Study is
103 a large Finnish population survey of risk factors for chronic, non-communicable diseases, and it has
104 been collected by independent random population sampling every five years beginning in 1972 with
105 multiple recruiting waves. The 12 inflammatory biomarkers included five interleukins (IL-4, IL-6,
106 IL-10, IL-12p70, IL-17), three growth factors (FGF2, PDGF-BB, VEGF-A), one colony-stimulating
107 factor (G-CSF), one interferon (IFN- γ), one chemokine (SDF-1 α), and one tumor necrosis factor
108 (TNF- β) (Table 1, Supplementary Figure 1). Hierarchical clustering identified the cluster of 12
109 inflammatory biomarkers out of 66 quantitative traits of cardiometabolic or immunologic relevance
110 (Supplementary Figure 2, Supplementary Table 1, and Supplementary Methods). The 66 quantitative
111 traits were measured as previously described(1,20,21).

112

113 **Genotyping, imputation and quality control**

114 Samples were genotyped using multiple different genotyping chips (Supplementary Table 2), for
115 which pre-imputation quality control (QC), phasing and imputation were done in multiple chip-wise
116 batches (Supplementary Methods). Imputation of the genotypes was done utilizing a Finnish
117 population-specific reference panel of 3,775 high-coverage whole-genome sequences. Genotype
118 imputation was followed by an additional post-imputation sample QC (Supplementary Methods) and
119 variant QC (imputation INFO > 0.8, minor allele frequency > 0.002 and Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium
120 p-value > 1×10^{-6}). A total of 26,717 samples and 11,329,225 variants passed this rigorous quality
121 control. All variants are reported based on the human genome reference sequence GRCh38.

122

123 **Univariate and multivariate GWAS**

124 Univariate genome-wide association analyses for the biomarkers were performed using a linear mixed
 125 model implemented in Hail(22), adjusting for age, sex, genotyping chip, first ten principal
 126 components of genetic structure and the genetic relationship matrix (GRM) (Supplementary
 127 Methods). The GRM was estimated using 73K independent high-quality genotyped variants
 128 (Supplementary Methods). We performed multivariate GWAS on the biomarkers using
 129 metaCCA(14), software that performs multivariate analysis by implementing Canonical Correlation
 130 Analysis (CCA) for a set of univariate GWAS summary statistics.

131
 132 The objective of CCA is to find the linear combination of the p predictor variables (X_1, X_2, \dots, X_p)
 133 that is maximally correlated with a linear combination of the q response variables (Y_1, Y_2, \dots, Y_q). If
 134 we denote the respective linear combinations by

135
 136
$$X^* = \mathbf{a}'\mathbf{x} = a_1x_1 + a_2x_2 + \dots + a_px_p$$

137 and

138
$$Y^* = LCP = \mathbf{b}'\mathbf{y} = b_1y_1 + b_2y_2 + \dots + b_qy_q,$$

139
 140 then finding the linear combination of the predictor variables that are maximally correlated with the
 141 linear combination of the response variables corresponds to finding vectors \mathbf{a} and \mathbf{b} that maximize

142
 143
$$r = \frac{(Xa)'(Yb)}{\|Xa\|\|Yb\|} = \frac{\mathbf{a}'\Sigma_{xy}\mathbf{b}}{\sqrt{\mathbf{a}'\Sigma_{xx}\mathbf{a}}\sqrt{\mathbf{b}'\Sigma_{yy}\mathbf{b}}}$$

144
 145 where Σ_{xx}, Σ_{yy} and Σ_{xy} represent the variance-covariance matrices of the predictor variables,
 146 response variables and both of them together, respectively. The maximized correlation r is the

147 *canonical correlation* between **X** and **Y**. Multivariate GWAS is a special case of CCA with multiple
148 response variables *Y*, but only one explanatory variable *X*, the genotypes at the variant tested.

149

150 **Novel multivariate LCP-GWAS method**

151 To enable follow-up analyses of multivariate GWAS results, such as fine-mapping, we developed a
152 novel method to produce linear combination phenotypes (LCP) at the single variant level by
153 extending the functionality of metaCCA. The updated metaCCA is available online at:
154 <https://github.com/acichonska/metaCCA>.

155

156 LCPs were constructed as the weighted sum of the trait residuals, where the weights ($\mathbf{b} = [b_1, b_2 \dots,$
157 $b_q]$) were chosen to maximize the correlation between the resulting linear combination of traits and
158 the genotypes at the variant. We determined association regions by adding 1Mb to each variant
159 reaching genome-wide significance (GWS; $p\text{-value} < 5 \times 10^{-8}$) in the multivariate analysis and joining
160 overlapping regions. We constructed LCPs for the lead variant, i.e. the variant with the smallest p -
161 value, in each of these regions, as a univariate representation of the multivariate association in that
162 region. Next, we performed chromosome-wide LCP-GWAS for the constructed LCPs in a similar
163 manner as for each of the biomarkers.

164

165 **Fine-mapping multivariate associations**

166 We used FINEMAP(15,23) on the LCP-GWAS summary statistics to identify causal variants
167 underlying the multivariate associations. FINEMAP analyses were restricted to a $\pm 1\text{Mb}$ region
168 around the GWS variants from the LCP-GWAS.

169

170 We assessed variants in the top 95% credible sets, i.e. the sets of variants encompassing at least 95%
171 of the probability of being causal (causal probability) within each causal signal conditional on other

172 causal signals in the genomic region. Within these sets we excluded those sets that did not clearly
173 represent one signal, determined by low minimum linkage disequilibrium (LD, $r^2 < 0.1$). Among each
174 of the credible sets, the variant with the highest causal probability was chosen to represent the set as
175 the representative variant.

176

177 To validate the multivariate fine-mapping results, we also performed conventional stepwise
178 conditional analysis for all fine-mapping regions using LCPs. We iteratively conditioned on the lead
179 variant in the region until the smallest p-value in the region exceeded 5×10^{-8} .

180

181 **Identifying driver traits**

182 We determined the traits driving the multivariate associations for the representative variants of the
183 credible sets identified by fine-mapping using the MetaPhat software developed in-house(16).
184 MetaPhat determines the set of driver traits for each multivariate association by performing
185 multivariate testing using metaCCA iteratively on subsets of the traits, excluding one trait at a time
186 until a single trait remains. At each iteration, the trait to be excluded is the one whose exclusion leads
187 to the highest p-value for the remaining subset of traits. The driver traits are determined as a set of
188 traits that have been removed when the multivariate p-value becomes non-significant ($p > 5 \times 10^{-8}$).
189 The interpretation is that the driver traits make the multivariate association significant.

190

191 **Phenome-wide association testing in FinnGen and UKBB**

192 We performed a PheWAS in the FinnGen study for the representative variants of the credible sets
193 identified by multivariate fine-mapping. FinnGen (<https://www.finngen.fi/en>) is a large biobank
194 study that aims to genotype 500,000 Finns and combine this data with longitudinal registry data,
195 including national hospital discharge, death, and medication reimbursement registries, using unique
196 national personal identification numbers. FinnGen includes prospective epidemiological and disease-

197 based cohorts as well as hospital biobank samples. A total of 176,899 samples from FinnGen Data
198 Freeze 4 with 2,444 disease endpoints were analyzed using Scalable and Accurate Implementation of
199 Generalized mixed model (SAIGE), which uses saddlepoint approximation (SPA) to calibrate
200 unbalanced case-control ratios(24). Additional details and information on genotyping and imputation
201 are provided in the Supplementary Material and contributors of FinnGen are listed in the
202 Acknowledgements.

203

204 FinnGen disease associations with p -values $< 1 \times 10^{-4}$ were considered significant. We tested the p -
205 value threshold by sampling 1,000 allele frequency-matched sets of n variants, where n represents
206 the number of representative variants, from 8.2 million non-coding variants and determining a null
207 distribution of the number of FinnGen associations passing the p -value threshold. We confirmed the
208 validity of the p -value threshold by comparing the observed number of FinnGen associations passing
209 the p -value threshold to the null distribution (Supplementary Figure 3). We excluded disease
210 endpoints within the ICD-10 (International Statistical Classification of Diseases and Related Health
211 Problems 10th Revision) chapters XXI and XXII from PheWAS analyses, resulting in 2,367 disease
212 endpoints analyzed. To confirm whether the FinnGen disease associations of the representative
213 variants share a common causal variant with the most significantly associated variant (i.e. variant
214 with smallest p -value in FinnGen) within the locus, and thus evaluate their importance for the disease
215 associations, the FinnGen disease associations were conditioned on the most significantly associated
216 variant within the locus (± 0.5 MB of the representative variant). Finally, we assessed replication of
217 the disease associations in the UKBB, where associations with p -values < 0.05 were considered
218 replicated given that the direction of effects were coherent. Phecodes from the UKBB were mapped
219 to ICD-10 diagnosis codes using the PheCode map 1.2(25). The NHGRI-EBI GWAS Catalog(26)
220 was used for assessing the novelty of the observed genetic associations.

221

222 We also explored whether the fine-mapped representative variants or variants in LD with them ($r^2 >$
223 0.6) had previously been reported as pQTLs in studies by Suhre(5), Sun(6), Emilsson(27) and
224 Sasayama(28). Regional overlap and architecture were visualized in Target Gene Notebook(29). To
225 validate the overlap of our pQTL findings, we performed Bayesian colocalization analysis using the
226 COLOC package in R(30), within 200 kb from the representative variant, for all pQTL associations
227 from data sets with full summary statistics available.

228

229

230 **RESULTS**

231 **Comparison of multivariate and univariate GWAS of 12 inflammatory biomarkers**

232 We first tested for genome-wide associations of 12 highly correlated inflammatory biomarkers (Table
233 1, Supplementary Figure 1) measured in 6,890 FINRISK study participants using both multivariate
234 and univariate methods. Pearson correlations between the biomarkers ranged from 0.64 to 0.93, with
235 a mean of 0.80. Out of the 11,329,225 variants tested, 190 were significantly associated using both
236 univariate and multivariate analyses, 999 only by the multivariate analysis and two only by the
237 univariate analysis using a Bonferroni-corrected p-value threshold of $5 \times 10^{-8}/12$ (Figure 2). A total of
238 1,189 variants reached the significance threshold in the multivariate analysis compared to only 192
239 in the univariate analysis, reflecting a considerable increase in statistical power achieved by the
240 multivariate analysis. When the univariate effect sizes were all in the same direction (e.g. *GP6* locus,
241 all effects were positive), the gain in power was smaller compared to the situation where the effects
242 were both positive and negative (e.g. *F5* locus). This is as expected, as all the 12 traits were positively
243 correlated, and it is known that the gain in power in multivariate analyses is greatest when the
244 correlation matrix and effect sizes differ from each other(31). Despite the increase in power, the Type
245 I error rate of the multivariate GWAS was preserved as the corresponding genomic inflation factor λ
246 for all variants was 1.036, with no evidence of concerning genomic inflation due to Canonical

247 Correlation Analysis. We also assessed the Type I error rate for three minor allele frequency (maf)
248 bins (maf < 0.01, 0.01 < maf < 0.1, and maf > 0.1) separately, with rare variants not showing
249 noticeably more inflation than more common variants (Supplementary Figure 4).

250

251 Within the 1,189 genome-wide significant variants in the multivariate analysis, we identified 11
252 independently associated loci (Figure 3 and Supplementary Figure 5), four of which (*F5*, *C1orf140*,
253 *PDGFRB* and *ABO*) were not detected by univariate analyses corrected for multiple testing (Figure
254 3). The two variants that were significant only in the univariate analysis were both located in a locus
255 (*JMJD1C*) that was found to be significant also by the multivariate analysis. Thus, no loci that were
256 significant in the univariate analysis corrected for multiple testing went undetected by multivariate
257 analysis. Eight of the 11 loci had previously been associated with at least one of the 12 biomarkers in
258 the NHGRI-EBI GWAS catalog while three loci (*F5*, *C1orf140* and *PDGFRB*) were novel.

259

260 Comparing the multivariate and univariate lead variants in three loci significant in only one of the 12
261 univariate analyses (*CIQA*, *PCSK6*, and *VLDLR*), we noted that the multivariate and univariate lead
262 variants were never the same. In the *CIQA* and *PCSK6* loci the lead variants from both analyses were
263 in high LD (r^2 0.92 and 0.93, respectively), reflecting that the two methods were capturing the same
264 association signal, while in the *VLDLR* locus LD between the lead variants was low ($r^2 = 0.27$). In the
265 *CIQA* locus, an association with only TNF- β of the 12 biomarkers was noted in the univariate results.
266 The lead variant in the TNF- β univariate GWAS was chr1:g.22720394C>T (rs78655189, $p = 2.2 \times 10^{-24}$),
267 an intronic variant in the *EPHB2* gene. In contrast, the lead variant for the same locus in the
268 multivariate analysis was chr1:g.22637683G>A (rs17887074, $p = 1.2 \times 10^{-73}$), a Finnish-enriched
269 missense variant located in the *CIQA* gene. In the *PCSK6* locus both lead variants were intronic with
270 similar multivariate p-values (multivariate lead variant chr15:g.101451543G>T (rs11637184, $p =$
271 2.4×10^{-68}), univariate PDGF-BB lead variant chr15:g.101446695T>A (rs11634270, $p = 1.3 \times 10^{-67}$)).

272 In the *VLDLR* locus, where LD between the two lead variants was low, univariate fine-mapping of
273 VEGF, the only associated biomarker, suggested that the common lead variant chr9:g.2692583C>G
274 (rs2375981, allele frequency, AF = 47%) from the multivariate analysis was more likely causal than
275 the lead variant chr9:g.2694711G>A (rs10967570, AF = 19%) from the VEGF univariate analysis
276 (posterior probabilities 1.0 and 0.025, respectively).

277

278 **Functional coding variants**

279 GWAS hits are generally non-coding, although concentrated in regulatory regions(32), and
280 enrichment of functional coding variants has been seen mainly only after fine-mapping e.g. in
281 inflammatory bowel disease(33). We, however, observed enrichment of functional coding variants in
282 the multivariate GWAS hits already prior to fine-mapping. Considering all genome-wide significant
283 variants in the multivariate GWAS, we found 13 nonsynonymous or splice-region variants with at
284 least one such variant in five of the 11 multivariate loci (*CIQA*, *F5*, *C1orf140*, *SERPINE2*, and *GP6*).
285 Out of the 13 variants, 11 were missense variants, one was a splice-region variant and one a frameshift
286 variant. Only four missense variants at two loci were significantly associated in the univariate
287 analyses. Two of the 11 missense variants led the multivariate association at their respective loci
288 (chr1:g.22637683G>A (rs17887074) and chr19:g.55032292G>A (rs199588110), in the *CIQA* and
289 *GP6* loci respectively) and were enriched (>1.5-fold) in Finns compared to non-Finnish, Swedish,
290 Estonian Europeans (NFSEE) in the gnomAD genome reference database(34). A total of six (46.2%)
291 of the 13 variants were enriched in the Finnish population, highlighting the potential of utilizing
292 isolated populations in GWAS.

293

294 We studied whether the multivariate genome-wide significant variants were enriched for missense,
295 splice-region and frameshift variants compared to the 11.3M variants analyzed. P-values for
296 enrichment were calculated using the χ^2 -test for the number of nonsynonymous and splice-region or

297 missense variants within the genome-wide significant variants against the number of the
298 corresponding subset of variants within all variants tested. The multivariate genome-wide significant
299 variants were enriched for missense variants and missense, splice-region and frameshift variants (2.2-
300 fold, $p = 0.015$, and 1.9-fold, $p = 8.8 \times 10^{-4}$, respectively).

301

302 **Fine-mapping multivariate GWAS results**

303 To identify the causal variants of the multivariate associations, we studied the likelihood of multiple
304 variants contributing to the association signal in the 11 associated loci using FINEMAP(23). Our
305 novel multivariate LCP-GWAS method based on linear combinations calculated for each locus using
306 multivariate metaCCA results enabled fine-mapping of the multivariate results. The number of
307 credible sets varied from one to four for the multivariate associated loci (Supplementary Table 3),
308 resulting in a total of 19 independent sets of variants considered putatively causal. All 183 variants
309 within the 19 credible sets are available in Supplementary Table 3 and posterior probabilities for
310 different numbers of causal signals for each locus are available in Supplementary Table 4.

311

312 Among each of the 19 sets, the variant with the highest causal probability was chosen to represent
313 the set as the representative variant (Table 2 and Supplementary Figure 6). The 19 representative
314 variants, included all except one (chr15g.101991748G>C, rs11637184 in the *PCSK6* locus) of the 11
315 lead variants from multivariate GWAS. Highlighting the importance of fine-mapping multivariate
316 GWAS results, one of the four representative variants (chr15:g.101339772G>A, rs111482836) in the
317 *PCSK6* locus was associated with disease in FinnGen, whereas the lead variant was not. Additionally,
318 the 19 representative variants were further enriched for both missense variants and missense, splice-
319 region and frameshift variants (37-fold, $p = 1.3 \times 10^{-17}$, and 28-fold, $p = 1.4 \times 10^{-17}$, respectively)
320 compared to multivariate genome-wide significant variants (2.2-fold, $p = 0.015$, and 1.9-fold, $p =$
321 8.8×10^{-4} , respectively), as were the 183 variants in the credible sets (3.9-fold, $p = 0.050$, and 2.9-fold,

322 $p = 0.050$, respectively). In one of the two credible sets in the *F5* locus a missense variant
323 (chr1:g.169515529A>G, rs9332701), predicted deleterious by SIFT and probably damaging by
324 PolyPhen, was found to be in high LD ($r^2 = 0.996$) with the representative non-coding variant
325 chr1:g.169505159C>T (rs61808983) with a marginally smaller causal probability (46.1% vs. 53.3%).
326 We assessed whether the causal probabilities changed in the credible set if the LCP was generated
327 for the missense variant rs9332701 rather than the lead variant rs61808983. This had no notable
328 effects on the causal probabilities (46.1% vs. 48.5%, 53.3% vs. 51.5% for rs9332701 and rs61808983,
329 respectively).

330

331 To assess the possible bias toward the lead variants more generally, we constructed LCPs for all
332 multivariate genome-wide significant variants in the *F5* locus ($n = 85$). For each of the variants, we
333 compared the p-value from LCP-GWAS in which the LCP was constructed for the *F5* lead variant to
334 that in which the LCP was constructed for the variant itself (Supplementary Figure 7). LCP-GWAS
335 results indicated no significant bias toward the lead variant, and thus, no substantial bias in the fine-
336 mapping results, even when the LD between the variants was only moderate. In addition, we assessed
337 how the phenotype weights used to construct LCPs correlated among variants in the same locus, and
338 also compared to them across loci. As expected, the phenotype weights were highly correlated for
339 variants in high LD (e.g. in the same credible set or the same locus), but not across different loci
340 (Supplementary Figure 8).

341

342 Fine-mapping suggested at least as many causal signals as there were conditional rounds in stepwise
343 conditional analysis ($n = 16$), thus verifying the results from FINEMAP. Further, 13 of the 19 (68.4%)
344 representative variants were also conditioned on in the conditional analysis (Supplementary Table 5).
345 The main benefit of fine-mapping is the probabilistic quantification of possible causal configurations

346 that contain multiple variants. Such metrics are not available in standard implementations of stepwise
347 conditional analysis.

348

349 **Identifying driver traits**

350 Next, we studied which traits were driving the multivariate associations in each of the 11 loci using
351 metaPhat(16). The number of driver traits for each of the 11 loci varied between one and all 12. The
352 driver traits were very much in line with the univariate results; the most significantly associated
353 biomarkers in the univariate GWAS were typically included among the driver traits (Table 2). In loci
354 with multiple representative variants, driver traits for the variants were generally subsets of the lead
355 variant's driver traits, and a stronger multivariate association increased the number of driver traits.
356 However, this relationship between multivariate p-value and the number of driver traits did not hold
357 across loci. Further, driver traits typically included all or some of the biomarkers that had previously
358 been associated with the locus (Table 2).

359

360 **Disease implications of the multivariate loci**

361 Finally, we tested how the 19 representative variants in the 11 loci associated with disease risk among
362 2,367 disease endpoints defined in FinnGen. Altogether, 53 disease associations were observed with
363 seven representative variants. Two of these variants did not lead the multivariate associations at the
364 11 loci and thus would have gone unnoticed without fine-mapping.

365

366 To assess the relevance of the representative variants for their disease associations in FinnGen, the
367 disease associations were conditioned on the variant with the strongest FinnGen disease association
368 within the locus. In 13 of the 53 FinnGen disease associations with the representative variants, the
369 representative variant or a variant in near perfect LD ($r^2 > 0.95$) led the association signal or remained
370 significant after conditioning. We also tested the disease associations in the UKBB, where

371 associations with p-values < 0.05 were considered replicated given that the direction of effects were
372 coherent (Supplementary Table 6).

373

374 In addition to disease associations, we explored whether the representative variants or variants in LD
375 with them ($r^2 > 0.6$) had previously been reported as pQTLs. Several reported pQTLs(5,6,27,28) in
376 the 11 loci, most of which colocalized with the multivariate biomarker associations, provided
377 evidence for the biologically relevant functions of the representative variants (Supplementary Table
378 7).

379

380 Here we further discuss results for the three multivariate loci with disease associations ($p < 1 \times 10^{-4}$)
381 in FinnGen that remained significant after conditioning. The variants identified by multivariate
382 testing for which the associations became insignificant after conditioning, were regarded unnecessary
383 for the observed disease association. Full disease association results for the 11 loci are shown in
384 Supplementary Table 8.

385

386 ***GP6* gene locus**

387 *Multivariate association and FinnGen disease associations*

388 The Finnish enriched rare missense variant chr19:g.55032292G>A (rs199588110, AF = 0.33%, 3.7-
389 fold enrichment), predicted deleterious by SIFT(35) and probably damaging by Polyphen(36), was
390 suggested causal in the *GP6* locus. In FinnGen it led the association with benign neoplasms of
391 meninges (OR = 6.4, $p = 4.9 \times 10^{-5}$). The association was not replicated in the UKBB, although this
392 may be due to impaired power as the AF of the Finnish enriched variant in the UKBB (0.036%) was
393 roughly a tenth of its AF in FinnGen, and an inadequate match of the discovery and replication
394 phenotypes, as UKBB phenotype definitions included all benign neoplasms of the brain and spinal
395 cord and were not restricted to neoplasms of the meninges.

396

397 *Driver traits*

398 All 12 biomarkers were considered driver traits of the multivariate association. Cytokines, including
399 many of the 12 biomarkers studied (e.g. IL-6, IL-4, PDGF-BB and VEGF-A), have been implicated
400 in the autocrine regulation of meningioma cell proliferation and motility(37-40). Further, higher
401 expression levels of both PDGF-BB and VEGF occur in atypical and malignant meningiomas than in
402 benign meningiomas(40,41) and microvascular density regulated by VEGF has been linked with time
403 to recurrence(42). Several phase II clinical trials have tested therapies targeting VEGF and PDGF-
404 BB signaling pathways as treatments for recurrent or progressive meningiomas(38) with promising
405 results for two multifunctional tyrosine kinase inhibitors, sunitinib and PTK787/ZK 222584 that
406 inhibit both VEGF and PDGF receptors(38,43).

407

408 ***SERPINE2* gene locus**

409 *Multivariate association and FinnGen disease associations*

410 The *SERPINE2* locus was the locus with the most significant association in the multivariate analysis
411 ($p < 1 \times 10^{-324}$). Fine-mapping identified three independent association signals, represented by three
412 representative variants (chr2:g.224010157G>A (rs13412535), chr2:g.224036001del (rs58116674),
413 and chr2:g.224257750T>A (rs7578029)). One of them, the intronic lead variant rs13412535 from the
414 multivariate analysis, increased the risk of hypertrophic scars (OR = 1.3, $p = 7.5 \times 10^{-5}$) and was in
415 very high LD with the variant that led the disease association in FinnGen (chr2:g.224015781T>C,
416 rs68066031, $r^2 = 0.99$). The association was not replicated in the UKBB, possibly due to differences
417 in case ascertainment as the prevalence of hypertrophic scars was 6.5 times greater in FinnGen
418 compared the UKBB (0.350% vs. 0.053%, respectively), and had not been previously reported at
419 gene-level. Nonetheless, the variant in question had an association with another hypertrophic skin
420 disorder, acquired keratoderma (OR = 1.5, $P = 0.02$) in the UKBB.

421

422 *Previous knowledge of gene function and driver traits*

423 The *SERPINE2* gene encodes protease nexin-1, a protein in the serpin family of proteins that inhibits
424 serine proteases, especially thrombin, and has therefore been implicated in coagulation and tissue
425 remodeling(44). The gene has been associated with chronic obstructive pulmonary disease and
426 emphysema(45). As previously reported, *SERPINE2* has been shown to inhibit extracellular matrix
427 degradation(46) and overexpression of *SERPINE2* has been shown to contribute to pathological
428 cardiac fibrosis in mice(47). Additionally, serine protease inhibitor genes including *SERPINE2* have
429 been noted to be heavily induced during wound healing(48). According to GTEx the *SERPINE2* gene
430 is most highly expressed in fibroblasts. Further, inflammation plays an important role in hypertrophic
431 scar formation and cytokines including PDGF and VEGF are dysregulated in hypertrophic scars(49).
432 The lead variant had genome-wide significant associations with 11 of the 12 biomarkers and all 12
433 were regarded as driver traits of the association.

434

435 *pQTLs*

436 The lead variant (chr2:g.224010157G>A, rs13412535) is a pQTL impacting one of the driver traits,
437 PDGF-BB levels (posterior probability of shared causal variant from colocalization analysis, PP =
438 5.06×10^{-5}), and an intronic variant chr2:g.224015781T>C (rs68066031) in high LD ($r^2 = 0.99$) with
439 the lead variant is a pQTL for *SERPINE2*(6,27) (PP = 0.976). PDGF is considered essential in wound
440 repair(50) and growth factors including PDGF are considered key players in the pathogenesis of
441 hypertrophic scars(51). PDGF enhances pathologic fibrosis in several tissues such as skin, lung, liver,
442 and kidney by means of mitogenic and chemoattractant actions on the principal collagen-producing
443 cell type, myofibroblasts, as well as stimulation of collagen production(52).

444

445 ***ABO* gene locus**

446 *Multivariate association and FinnGen disease associations*

447 An association with the *ABO* locus was only detected by multivariate analysis (minimum univariate
448 $p = 2.1 \times 10^{-5}$ for the lead variant from multivariate analysis). Fine-mapping identified one association
449 signal represented by the intronic lead variant chr9:g.133271182T>C (rs550057, aka rs879055593)
450 from multivariate analysis ($p = 8.5 \times 10^{-14}$). It was associated with 45 endpoints in FinnGen, such as
451 endometriosis, heart failure, and statin usage. Most of these associations resulted from LD to other
452 stronger regional associations, however, nine remained significant after conditioning on other lead
453 variants within the *ABO* locus, including a risk-increasing effect on anemias, for which rs550057 led
454 the genome-wide significant association signal ($p = 4.7 \times 10^{-8}$), visual field disturbances ($p < 6.5 \times 10^{-5}$),
455 and diseases of the ear and mastoid process ($p = 4.8 \times 10^{-5}$). Replication of only two of the nine
456 associations (other anemias and visual field defects) could be attempted in the UKBB due to poor
457 phenotype matching and did not replicate; however, bearing relevance to the genome-wide significant
458 finding in anemia, rs550057 led the association with red blood cell count in the UKBB ($p = 1.3 \times 10^{-212}$).
459 (53)

460

461 *Driver traits*

462 IL-4 was the only driver trait of the multivariate association and has been implicated in the
463 pathogenesis of many of the diseases associated with the locus. Aplastic anemia is considered to result
464 primarily from immune-mediated bone marrow failure and an imbalance in Type I versus Type II T-
465 cells that secrete IL-4 among other cytokines has been reported(54). In endometriosis, IL-4 levels
466 have been shown to be upregulated and induce the proliferation of endometriotic stromal cells(55,56).

467

468 *pQTLs*

469 The lead variant chr9:g.133271182T>C (rs550057) is a pQTL impacting the levels of four proteins:
470 ALPI (PP = 0.999), CHST15 (PP = 0.999), FAM177A1 (PP = 0.999), and JAG1 (PP = 0.995)(6).

471 Two of these proteins, carbohydrate sulfotransferase 15 (CHST15) and Jagged1 (JAG1), have been
472 implicated in the pathogenesis of diseases associated with the locus. A small-interfering RNA
473 targeting CHST15 improved myocardial function as well as reduced cardiac fibrosis, hypertrophy,
474 and secretion of proinflammatory cytokines in rats with chronic heart failure(57). Upregulation of
475 JAG1 has been reported in the endometrium of patients with endometriosis compared to controls(58).
476 Alagille Syndrome mainly caused by mutations in the JAG1 gene, is accompanied by congenital heart
477 defects and varying degrees of hypercholesterolemia(59).

478

479

480 **DISCUSSION**

481 We developed a novel method for multivariate GWAS follow-up analyses and demonstrated the
482 considerable boost in power provided by multivariate GWAS using 12 highly correlated
483 inflammatory markers. In total, four out of 11 genome-wide significant loci were detected only by
484 multivariate analysis when adjusting univariate GWAS for multiple testing. Multivariate analysis
485 might also highlight more plausible candidates for causal variants than univariate analyses. For
486 example, in the *CIQA* locus, the lead variant in the univariate GWAS of the driver trait TNF- β was
487 an intronic variant in the *EPHB2* gene, whereas the lead variant for the locus in the multivariate
488 analysis was a Finnish-enriched missense variant located in the *CIQA* gene which has been
489 previously associated with immunologic diseases(60). Our multivariate analysis may point toward a
490 plausible mechanism underlying these associations via TNF- β levels.

491

492 Although both univariate and multivariate scans have previously been applied to these
493 biomarkers(1,61), these studies have suffered from the lack of essential follow-up analyses due to the
494 absence of beta estimates in multivariate summary statistics. Our novel method enables two key
495 follow-up analyses for multivariate GWAS: fine-mapping and trait prioritization. Our method solves

496 the problem of missing effect sizes and standard errors required for fine-mapping by an extension of
497 metaCCA followed by LCP-GWAS. This process allows for the transformation of CCA-based
498 multivariate GWAS results into univariate summary statistics and thus extends the use of FINEMAP
499 and other summary statistics-based tools to multivariate GWAS. Fine-mapping complex multivariate
500 associations allows for assessing causality of the variants within the associated loci. This has not been
501 previously feasible. We also further describe the multivariate associations by determining the traits
502 driving the associations using MetaPhat. This workflow allows the identification of both the variants
503 and traits underlying the multivariate associations.

504

505 Our study also elucidates the advantage of multivariate analysis combined with large biobank-based
506 phenome-wide screening by discovering multiple novel disease associations. For example, in the *GP6*
507 locus we observe a novel risk-increasing association between the Finnish enriched rare missense
508 variant chr19:g.55032292G>A (rs199588110) and benign neoplasms of meninges. Altogether, a
509 majority of the observed disease associations were for the *ABO* locus that was only detected by
510 multivariate GWAS. All these associations, including a genome-wide significant association with
511 anemia that replicated in the UKBB as an effect on red blood cell count, would have gone undetected
512 had we used univariate GWAS. In addition to disease association discovery, our workflow promotes
513 increasing insight into the pathophysiology underlying the associations by identifying the biomarkers
514 driving the associations. Exploration of biological evidence including pQTLs, most of which
515 colocalized with the multivariate biomarker associations, in the *GP6*, *SERPINE2*, and *ABO* loci
516 orthogonally supports our evidence of causal variants and driver traits. For example, in the *SERPINE2*
517 locus one of the three representative variants chr2:g.224010157G>A (rs13412535) increased the risk
518 of hypertrophic skin disorders in FinnGen and was a pQTL for PDGF-BB(6) that is considered a key
519 player in the pathogenesis of hypertrophic scars(51), increasing evidence of the biologically relevant
520 functions of this variant.

521

522 These methodological development and novel findings notwithstanding, our study has some
523 limitations. First, our newly developed workflow for multivariate fine-mapping requires individual
524 level genotype and phenotype data, problematic for some analysis settings. Additionally, the LCPs
525 are optimized for the lead variants, potentially resulting in overestimation of the causal probability of
526 these variants. We did not, however, see evidence of this in the *F5* locus where we constructed LCPs
527 for each variant reaching genome-wide significance in the multivariate analysis and compared the p-
528 values from LCP-GWAS when the LCPs were constructed for either the lead variant or the variant
529 itself. Due to the regionality of the LCP-GWAS, it should be noted that LCP-GWAS summary
530 statistics cannot be used for genome-wide methods such as heritability estimation. We also
531 acknowledge that the credible sets we chose for follow-up may not encompass all causal signals
532 within the multivariate associations. The credible sets excluded due to low LD may arise from
533 multiple signals included in the same set, resulting in small LD within the set. Further, some disease
534 associations require replication and follow-up analyses.

535

536 On the other hand, our study has many strengths. First, a prospective cohort study was used to assess
537 deep phenotype data rarely available at large scale. Second, we are the first to present phenome-wide
538 results from FinnGen, a very large and well-phenotyped Finnish biobank study, and also make use of
539 the UKBB in disease association follow-up, ensuring enough power for disease association detection.
540 Finland has a public healthcare system and national health registries, which enable the vast and
541 accurate phenotyping in FinnGen. Besides FinnGen, an additional advantage to performing the study
542 in Finns is that deleterious variants are enriched in the Finnish population due to population
543 history(21). Furthermore, our reference panel for genotype imputation is from the same population
544 as our discovery and follow-up data sets, which, as demonstrated also by others(62,63), allows us to
545 study variants that are enriched (and often unique) in the study-specific population.

546

547 In conclusion, we developed a novel workflow for multivariate GWAS discovery and follow-up
548 analyses, including fine-mapping and identification of driver traits, and thus promote the
549 advancement of powerful multivariate methods in genomic analyses. We demonstrate the benefit of
550 applying this workflow by identifying novel associations and further describing previously reported
551 associations with both biomarkers and diseases using a set of inflammatory markers. We show that
552 compared to univariate analyses, multivariate analysis of biomarker data combined with large
553 biobank-based PheWAS reveals a considerably increased number of novel genetic associations with
554 several diseases.

555

556

557 **DATA SHARING**

558 Full summary statistics of the multivariate GWAS on the 12 inflammatory biomarkers are available
559 via the NHGRI-EBI GWAS Catalog, accession number GCST90000584, URL:
560 ftp://ftp.ebi.ac.uk/pub/databases/gwas/summary_statistics/GCST90000584. The FinnGen data may
561 be accessed through Finnish Biobanks' FinnBB portal (www.finbb.fi) and THL Biobank data through
562 THL Biobank (<https://thl.fi/en/web/thl-biobank>). The FinnGen data may be accessed through Finnish
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565

566

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594

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1201

1202 **FIGURES**

1203

1204 **Figure 1. Study workflow.** The novel LCP-GWAS method that enables follow-up analyses
1205 such as fine-mapping for multivariate GWAS is illustrated in the violet panel on the right.

1206

1207 **Figure 2. Power comparison between multivariate and univariate methods.** Red and blue
1208 dots represent genetic variants reaching genome-wide significance only by the multivariate
1209 (metaCCA) or univariate method, respectively. Black dots reach the genome-wide significance
1210 threshold by both methods and grey dots do not by either method. Respective numbers are
1211 reported in the accompanying table.

1212

1213 **Figure 3. Manhattan plot of the multivariate GWAS results on 12 inflammatory**
1214 **biomarkers.** Gene names colored in orange represent associations only detected by the
1215 multivariate method while black are detected by both multivariate and univariate methods. 13
1216 genome-wide significant nonsynonymous and splice-region variants are denoted with
1217 diamonds.

1218 **TABLES**

1219

1220 **Table 1. Characterization of the 12 inflammatory biomarker measurements.** n = sample
1221 size, SD = standard deviation. The cytokine concentrations are pg/ml.

1222

1223 **Table 2. Results of the 19 representative variants of the credible sets.**

1224 * missense variant

1225 ▲ variant was in high linkage disequilibrium ($r^2 = 0.997$) with a missense variant
1226 (chr1:g.169529737T>C, rs6030)

1227 ** variant was in high linkage disequilibrium ($r^2 = 0.996$) with a missense variant within its
1228 credible set (chr1:g.169515529A>G, rs9332701) predicted deleterious by SIFT and probably
1229 damaging by PolyPhen.

1230 ^a Bolded variants are lead variants. Genomic positions are mapped to Genome Assembly
1231 GRCh38.

1232 ^b AF = allele frequency, FIN enrichment = AF in Finns compared to AF in non-Finnish,
1233 Swedish, Estonian Europeans (NFSEE) in the gnomAD genomes database; reported if it was
1234 at least 1.5-fold.

1235 ^c Driver traits can only be determined for those variants with a genome-wide significant
1236 association in the multivariate analysis.

1237 ^d Previous associations with the 12 biomarkers were searched for in the NHGRI-EBI GWAS
1238 Catalog within a region encompassing ± 500 kB around the variant. An association was
1239 regarded novel if no associations with any of the 12 biomarkers had been reported in this
1240 region.

1241 ^e Posterior probability of being causal, determined by FINEMAP.

- 1242 ^f Only associations that remain significant after conditioning are reported here. Closely related
- 1243 disease diagnoses are represented in a shared cell and their replication is assessed jointly.
- 1244 ^g Novelty of disease associations was assessed at gene-level.