

# Mendelian randomisation identifies alternative splicing of the FAS death receptor as a mediator of severe COVID-19

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105

106 **Abstract**

107  
108 Severe COVID-19 is characterised by immunopathology and epithelial injury. Proteomic studies  
109 have identified circulating proteins that are biomarkers of severe COVID-19, but cannot  
110 distinguish correlation from causation. To address this, we performed Mendelian randomisation  
111 (MR) to identify proteins that mediate severe COVID-19. Using protein quantitative trait loci  
112 (pQTL) data from the SCALLOP consortium, involving meta-analysis of up to 26,494 individuals,  
113 and COVID-19 genome-wide association data from the Host Genetics Initiative, we performed  
114 MR for 157 COVID-19 severity protein biomarkers. We identified significant MR results for five  
115 proteins: FAS, TNFRSF10A, CCL2, EPHB4 and LGALS9. Further evaluation of these candidates  
116 using sensitivity analyses and colocalization testing provided strong evidence to implicate the  
117 apoptosis-associated cytokine receptor FAS as a causal mediator of severe COVID-19. This  
118 effect was specific to severe disease. Using RNA-seq data from 4,778 individuals, we  
119 demonstrate that the pQTL at the *FAS* locus results from genetically influenced alternate splicing  
120 causing skipping of exon 6. We show that the risk allele for very severe COVID-19 increases the  
121 proportion of transcripts lacking exon 6, and thereby increases soluble FAS. Soluble FAS acts as  
122 a decoy receptor for FAS-ligand, inhibiting apoptosis induced through membrane-bound FAS. In  
123 summary, we demonstrate a novel genetic mechanism that contributes to risk of severe of  
124 COVID-19, highlighting a pathway that may be a promising therapeutic target.

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126 **Main**

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128 Severe COVID-19 is characterised by exaggerated inflammatory responses and  
129 immunopathology<sup>1-4</sup>. The two pharmacological treatments that have robustly demonstrated  
130 efficacy in reducing risk for severe COVID-19 in randomised clinical trials to date are  
131 glucocorticoids and interleukin 6 (IL-6) receptor blockade<sup>5-7</sup>. Treatments directed at the  
132 inflammatory response thus represent the most promising therapeutic strategy. A wide range of  
133 therapies directed at specific elements of the inflammatory response have been developed for  
134 autoimmune and inflammatory diseases<sup>8,9</sup>, and present potential repurposing opportunities for  
135 treatment of COVID-19. Profiling of plasma proteins in COVID-19 patients has revealed a  
136 signature of innate immune cell activation (including upregulation of IL-6, monocyte chemokines  
137 and neutrophil proteins) and epithelial/endothelial injury in severe disease<sup>10,11</sup>. A limitation of such  
138 observational studies, however, is that they cannot distinguish causal mediators of  
139 immunopathology from secondary downstream consequences of inflammation and/or tissue

140 injury. Bridging this knowledge gap is critical for prioritising therapeutic targets and triaging  
141 medicines for clinical trials.

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143 Making causal inference from human observational data is challenging due to confounding and  
144 reverse causation. Mendelian randomisation (MR) is an analytical approach that can circumvent  
145 these difficulties. MR enables causal inference by leveraging the random allocation of alleles at  
146 meiosis, which effectively provides a natural randomised trial<sup>12,13</sup>. MR tests whether there is a  
147 causal relationship between an exposure (e.g. a molecular trait) and an outcome (e.g. a clinical  
148 phenotype) using genetic variants as ‘instruments’. If a genetic variant associated with the  
149 exposure is also associated with the outcome, this provides evidence of a putatively causal  
150 relationship between the two. Using proteins as exposures in MR analyses has several  
151 advantages. First, proteins are gene products and as such are under greater genetic control than  
152 downstream phenotypes. Second, proteins are the targets of most drugs and so MR using  
153 proteins can identify and prioritise promising therapeutic targets. MR using proteins is now  
154 increasingly possible because of large genome-wide association studies (GWAS) that have  
155 identified genetic variants associated with levels of circulating proteins (protein quantitative trait  
156 loci, pQTL)<sup>14-16</sup>.

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158 Here, we performed MR analysis to test whether proteins observationally associated with COVID-  
159 19 severity play a causal role in critical illness from COVID-19, using pQTL identified through a  
160 meta-analysis of up to 26,494 individuals. Our results implicate the cytokine receptor FAS as  
161 playing a putatively causal role in severe COVID-19. We demonstrated the robustness of this  
162 result using a range of sensitivity analyses and colocalisation analysis, and we replicated it using  
163 an independent pQTL dataset. The pQTL for FAS in the *FAS* gene region could not be explained  
164 by a corresponding expression quantitative trait locus (eQTL). We therefore examined mRNA  
165 splicing events in whole blood RNA-seq data from 4,778 individuals. This revealed that the pQTL  
166 for FAS in the *FAS* gene region is mediated by genetically influenced alternative splicing, resulting  
167 in skipping of exon 6 and affecting the ratio of soluble to membrane-bound FAS. We thus  
168 demonstrate a novel genetic mechanism contributing to risk of severe COVID-19 via a splice QTL  
169 (sQTL). We hypothesise that modulating the FAS pathway may therefore be a promising  
170 therapeutic strategy.

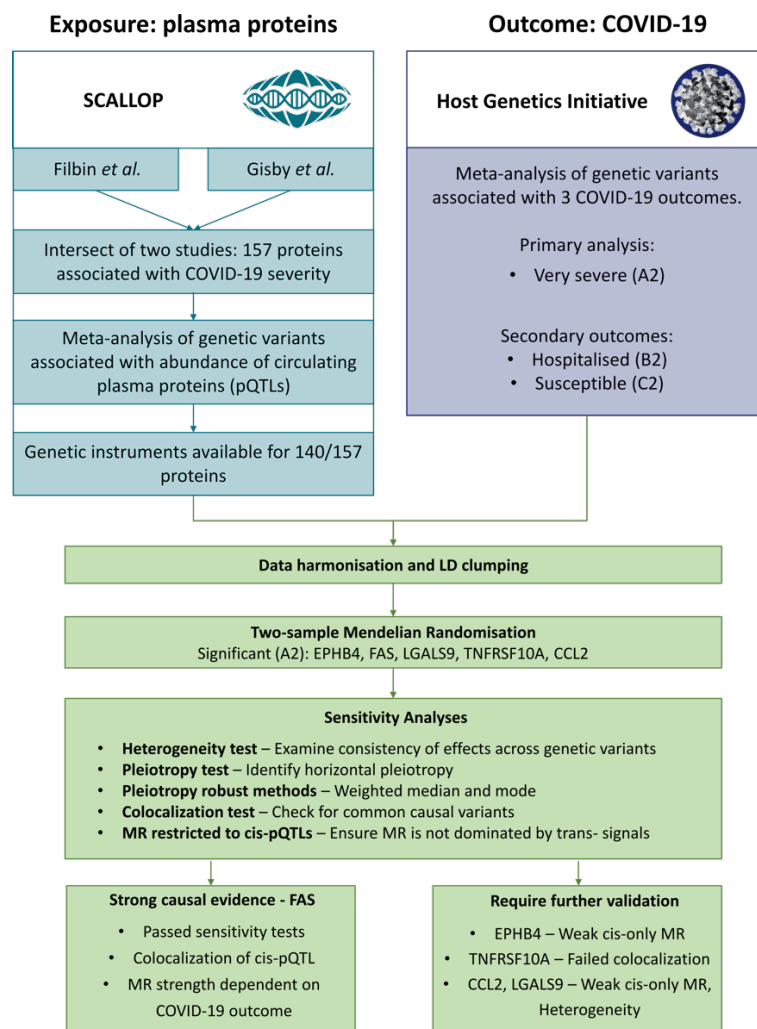
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## 172 **Results**

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174 We first identified a list of proteins associated with COVID-19 clinical severity grading by  
 175 examining two studies that performed broad proteomic profiling of COVID-19 patient plasma  
 176 samples using the Olink proteomics platform<sup>10,11</sup>. We took the lists of severity-associated proteins  
 177 from each study (Benjamini-Hochberg adjusted  $P < 0.05$ ) and intersected these to provide a high-  
 178 confidence list of 157 severity-associated proteins (**Fig. 1**). To evaluate whether these proteins  
 179 play a causal role in severe COVID-19, we performed two-sample Mendelian randomisation  
 180 analysis.

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 183 **Figure 1:** Mendelian randomisation study design and data sources. Severity-associated protein  
 184 biomarkers were identified from the studies by Filbin *et al.*<sup>10</sup> and Gisby *et al.*<sup>11</sup>.

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 187 To identify genetic instruments for MR, we accessed data from large European-heritage meta-  
 188 analyses of plasma pQTL studies that also used the Olink platform performed by the SCALLOP  
 189 consortium (<https://www.olink.com/scallop/>)<sup>15</sup>. The sample sizes of the protein GWAS meta-

190 analyses varied from 3,658 to 26,494 (**Methods**). MR analysis was possible for 140 proteins,  
191 where at least one non-HLA pQTL was available. For 30 proteins there were only local-acting  
192 ('cis') pQTL (i.e., the pQTL lies within +/-0.5 Mb of the gene encoding the protein), for 17 there  
193 were only distant-acting ('trans') pQTL, and for 93 there were both. At each pQTL, we performed  
194 linkage disequilibrium pruning ( $LD\ r^2 \leq 0.01$ ) to remove correlated variants, prior to MR (**Methods**).

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196 For the outcome data, we used GWAS summary statistics from the COVID-19 Host Genetics  
197 Initiative release 5 (HGI: <https://www.covid19hg.org>)<sup>17</sup> for very severe respiratory COVID-19  
198 (defined as hospitalised patients requiring respiratory support and/or who died (analysis A2); for  
199 brevity, hereafter referred to as 'severe COVID-19').

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201 We identified five proteins, EPH receptor B4 (EPHB4), C-C motif chemokine ligand 2 (CCL2),  
202 galectin 9 (LGALS9), Tumour Necrosis Factor Receptor Superfamily Member 10A (TNFRSF10A)  
203 and Fas cell surface death receptor (FAS), with significant MR causal estimates for severe  
204 COVID-19 after multiple testing correction (5% false discovery rate (FDR)) (**Table 1**).

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206 An important assumption of MR is that genetic instruments (here pQTL) affect the outcome (here  
207 severe COVID-19) only through the exposure (here the protein), and not through observed or  
208 non-observed confounding factors (the 'no horizontal pleiotropy' assumption)<sup>18,19</sup>. We therefore  
209 used a multi-layered strategy to assess whether our results were robust (**Methods, Fig. 1**). First,  
210 we used heterogeneity tests to test whether there was consistency in the causal effect estimates  
211 across the genetic variants used. Second, we performed sensitivity analyses using alternative MR  
212 methods that are robust to horizontal pleiotropy, including MR Egger, weighted mode and median  
213 methods. Third, we performed MR restricting genetic instruments to cis-pQTL. Finally, we used  
214 colocalization to test whether the pQTL and severe COVID-19 genetic association signals  
215 reflected the same or distinct underlying causal variants.

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217 For 3 proteins (EPHB4, FAS and TNFRSF10A) there was no heterogeneity in effect estimates  
218 between individual genetic variants, and effect estimates of pleiotropy-robust methods were  
219 similar to those of the inverse-variance method. In contrast, for LGALS9 and CCL2, we observed  
220 significant heterogeneity (Cochran's  $Q > 50$  and heterogeneity p-value  $< 0.05$ ) (**Table 1**,  
221 **Supplementary Fig. 1a**), casting doubt on the reliability of the causal inference for these two  
222 proteins.

223

224 Cis protein quantitative trait loci (cis-pQTL), genetic variants that lie near the gene encoding the  
 225 affected protein, are considered to be more reliable MR instruments since their direct relationship  
 226 with the protein means they are less likely to violate the ‘no horizontal pleiotropy’ assumption than  
 227 trans-pQTL, which may act through indirect pathways<sup>20</sup>. Therefore, as an additional sensitivity  
 228 analysis, we tested whether we observed consistent causal effects when limiting genetic  
 229 instruments to cis-pQTL. This cis-only MR analysis revealed significant results for FAS ( $P 6.7 \times 10^{-4}$ )  
 230 and TNFRSF10A ( $P 1.9 \times 10^{-3}$ ), but not EPHB4, CCL2 or LGALS9 ( $P > 0.1$ ); **Table 1**,  
 231 **Supplementary Fig. 1b**.

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234 **Table 1:** Mendelian Randomisation of COVID-19 severity-associated circulating proteins and risk  
 235 of severe COVID-19.

Protein*	# IV	MR P	FDR	OR (95% CI)	cis OR (95% CI)	cis P	Cochran's Q (p-value)	Egger Intercept P
EPHB4	5	$1.28 \times 10^{-6}$	$1.69 \times 10^{-4}$	0.56 (0.44-0.71)	0.64 (0.36-1.15)	0.13	4.3 (0.36)	0.90
CCL2	7	$2.43 \times 10^{-6}$	$1.69 \times 10^{-4}$	1.54 (1.29-1.84)	0.71 (0.26-1.92)	0.50	97.0 ( $1.1 \times 10^{-18}$ )	0.98
LGALS9	26	$6.38 \times 10^{-4}$	$2.96 \times 10^{-2}$	0.79 (0.69-0.91)	0.90 (0.78-1.04)	0.16	54.7 ( $5.4 \times 10^{-4}$ )	0.05
TNFRSF10A	28	$1.71 \times 10^{-3}$	$4.76 \times 10^{-2}$	0.81 (0.71-0.92)	0.81 (0.71-0.92)	$1.91 \times 10^{-3}$	9.4 (0.36)	0.03
FAS	7	$1.36 \times 10^{-3}$	$4.74 \times 10^{-2}$	1.40 (1.14-1.72)	1.44 (1.17-1.78)	$6.70 \times 10^{-4}$	29.1 (0.15)	0.05

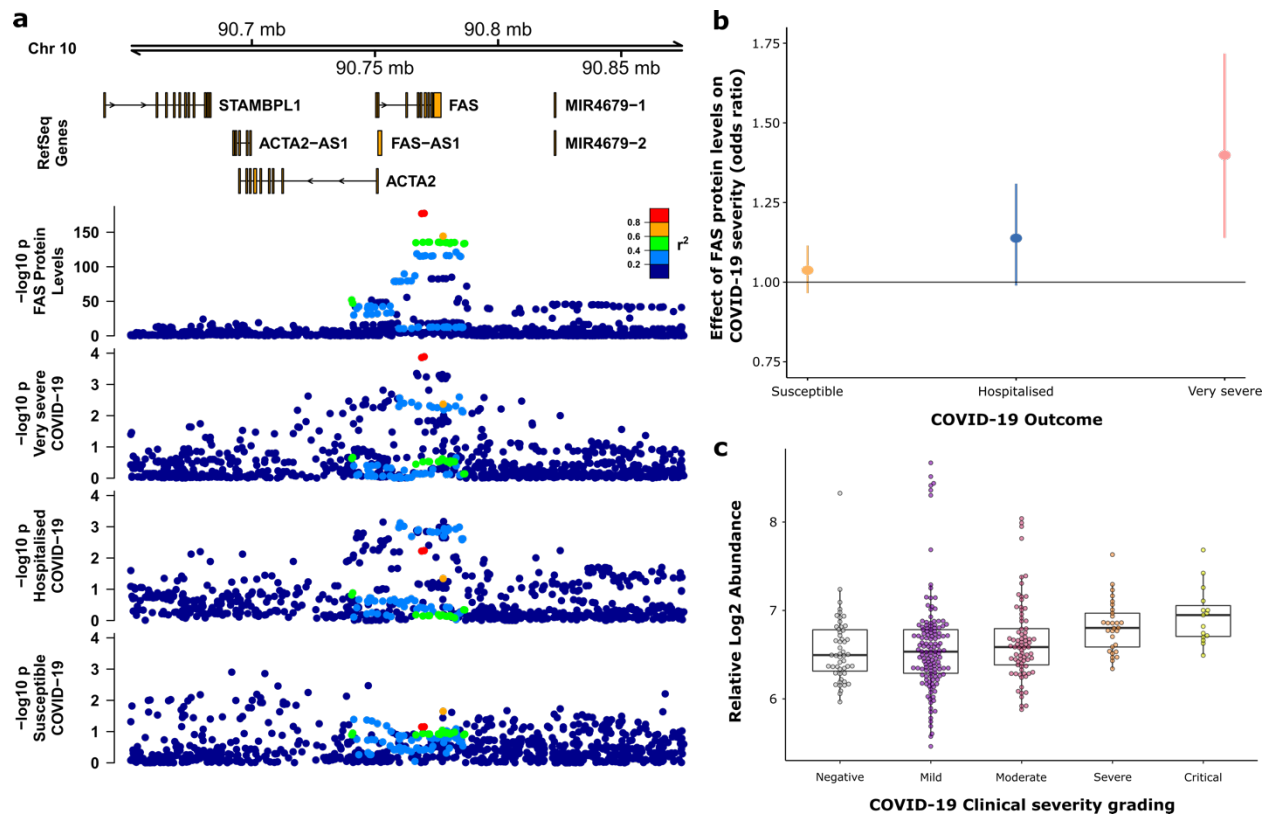
# IV - number of instruments used; MR P – Inverse-variance fixed effect MR p-value; FDR – Benjamini-Hochberg adjusted MR p-value; OR – odds ratio; cis OR – odds ratio using cis-only variants; cis P – Inverse-variance fixed effect p-value for cis-only MR analysis; Cochran's Q – inverse-variance weighted heterogeneity Cochran's Q and p-value; Egger Intercept p – p-value of the Egger intercept.

\*Proteins annotated using the symbols of the encoding gene. EPHB4 - Ephrin type-B receptor 4; CCL2 - C-C motif chemokine 2; LGALS9 - Galectin-9; TNFRSF10A - Tumor necrosis factor receptor superfamily member 10A; FAS – FAS (also known as Tumor necrosis factor receptor superfamily member 6).

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238 Next, to disentangle causal relationships from confounding by linkage disequilibrium, we  
 239 performed colocalisation analysis<sup>21</sup> at each locus to test whether the same causal variant  
 240 underlies the pQTL and the association with severe COVID-19. For the cis-pQTL for FAS, there  
 241 was convincing colocalisation of the pQTL and the severe COVID-19 signal (posterior probability  
 242 (PP) of shared causal variant 0.95) (**Fig. 2a**). In contrast, for the cis-pQTL for TNFRSF10A, it was  
 243 clear that the pQTL and the disease association were driven by different causal variants (PP of  
 244 distinct causal variants 0.87, **Supplementary Fig. 2a**). Thus, we have evidence to support a  
 245 causal role for FAS, but not TNFRSF10A, in severe COVID-19.

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**Figure 2: Mendelian Randomisation (MR) of soluble FAS protein levels and COVID-19 outcomes.**

**a)** Regional association plot (hg19 genome build) showing the cis-pQTL for soluble FAS (plasma) and the associations with COVID-19 outcomes. Posterior probability of a shared causal variant (PP H4) between FAS protein levels and very severe COVID-19 = 0.95.

**b)** MR estimates of the causal effect of soluble FAS protein on different COVID-19 outcomes: susceptibility to infection, hospitalisation and very severe disease.

**c)** Soluble FAS protein levels in COVID-19 patients, stratified by clinical severity, and non-infected controls (data from Gisby *et al.*<sup>11</sup>). Boxplots showing distribution of plasma protein levels according to COVID-19 status at the time of blood draw. Boxplots indicate median and interquartile range. n=256 samples from 55 COVID-19 patients and 51 samples from non-infected patients. ‘COVID-19 status’ indicates clinical severity score of the patient at the time the sample was taken. Mild n=135 samples; moderate n=77 samples; severe n=29 samples; critical n= 15 samples.

To empirically evaluate whether there was evidence of horizontal pleiotropy, we examined whether the cis genetic instruments for FAS used in the MR analysis, or variants in LD with them ( $r^2 > 0.6$ ), were associated with any protein. We utilised the PhenoScanner database that contains >5,000 genotype-phenotype associations<sup>22,23</sup> and found no other associations with other proteins (at  $P < 1 \times 10^{-5}$ ).



271 To validate our results, we repeated the two-sample MR for soluble FAS in severe COVID-19  
272 using genetic instruments derived from an independent pQTL dataset from a study using an  
273 alternative proteomics platform, the aptamer-based Somascan<sup>14</sup>. Consistent with our primary  
274 analysis, this revealed that genetic predisposition to higher circulating soluble FAS levels is  
275 associated with increased risk of severe COVID-19 (MR estimate OR = 1.35 [95% CI 1.14-1.60],  
276 p-value =  $4.6 \times 10^{-4}$ ) (**Supplementary Fig. 3**), providing independent support for our findings.

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278 Having established evidence for a putatively causal role for FAS in severe COVID-19, we asked  
279 whether it may also play a role in susceptibility to COVID-19. We repeated the MR analysis using  
280 different COVID-19 GWAS datasets: all individuals with COVID-19 versus controls (i.e.  
281 susceptibility to COVID-19 – HGI C2 analysis), and all hospitalised COVID-19 patients vs controls  
282 (i.e. selecting for a degree of severity – HGI B2 analysis). Strikingly, we saw a gradient of MR  
283 effects across these outcomes. FAS showed no causal effect on susceptibility to COVID-19, a  
284 weak effect on COVID-19 hospitalisation and strong effect on severe COVID-19 (**Fig. 2b**). These  
285 data suggest that genetic propensity to higher soluble FAS levels influences COVID-19 severity,  
286 but not susceptibility. Observational data from the analysis of Gisby *et al.*<sup>11</sup> revealed a similar  
287 pattern. Plasma FAS was not significantly differentially abundant in the comparison of all COVID-  
288 19 cases versus uninfected controls (Benjamini-Hochberg adjusted P value 0.280), but it was  
289 highly significantly associated with COVID-19 severity grading within-cases (Benjamini-Hochberg  
290 adjusted P 0.019) (**Fig. 2c**).

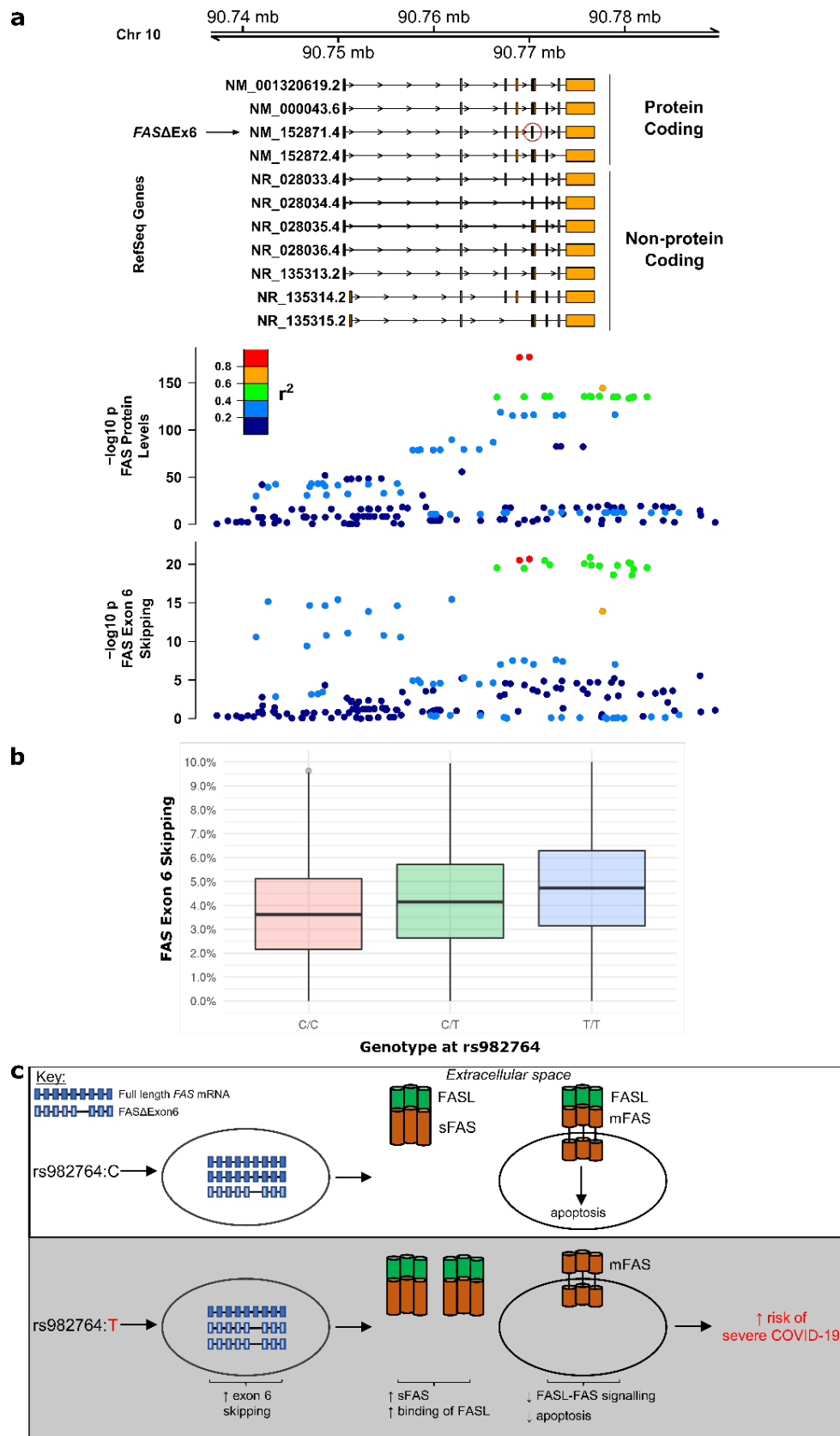
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292 We next investigated the mechanism underlying the cis-pQTL for plasma FAS. The most strongly  
293 associated pQTL variant for FAS was rs982764 (**Supplementary Table 1**), an intronic single  
294 nucleotide polymorphism (SNP) in *FAS*, located between exons 4 and 5. This is a common  
295 variant, with minor allele frequency (MAF) ~31% in European ancestry individuals. The major  
296 allele, rs982764:T, was associated with higher circulating soluble FAS levels and higher risk of  
297 severe COVID-19 (**Supplementary Fig. 4**). The sentinel variant, rs982764, was not in LD ( $r^2$   
298  $>0.2$ ) with any non-synonymous protein-coding variants. We therefore evaluated whether the  
299 pQTL was mediated through regulation of gene expression by examining eQTL data from the  
300 GTEx Catalogue (multiple tissues), whole-blood data from eQTLGen<sup>24</sup>, and sorted immune cell  
301 subsets from Peters *et al.*<sup>25</sup>. While these data revealed a cis-eQTL for FAS that was common to  
302 multiple tissues (e.g. lung, whole-blood, monocytes, adipose tissue, and artery), the eQTL signal  
303 did not colocalise with the pQTL (PP of distinct causal variants of 1.00 for both eQTLGen and  
304 GTEx) (**Supplementary Fig. 5**). Since the results of colocalisation methods can be affected by

305 the presence of multiple independent variants, we then performed colocalisation using a method  
306 that allows for multiple causal variants (SuSiE<sup>26</sup>). This confirmed that, even after accounting for  
307 conditionally independent signals, the eQTL signal and pQTL signals for FAS did not colocalise  
308 (PP of distinct causal variants = 1.00).

309  
310 Given that the pQTL could not be explained by an eQTL, we hypothesised that it might arise due  
311 to genetically influenced alternative splicing. FAS is a receptor for the cytokine FASL-ligand  
312 (FASL), and binding of FASL to FAS on the cell surface triggers an intracellular signalling cascade  
313 that leads to apoptosis of the cell. In humans, the *FAS* gene has 9 exons and encodes a cell  
314 surface receptor consisting of an extracellular portion, a transmembrane domain and an  
315 intracellular portion. In addition to the full-length *FAS* mRNA, several shorter transcripts arising  
316 from alternative splicing have been described (**Fig. 3a**)<sup>27,28</sup>. Alternative splicing leading to  
317 skipping of exon 6 (transcript isoform *FAS*Δ*Ex6*) results in a secreted protein lacking the  
318 transmembrane domain<sup>28</sup>. This soluble form of FAS acts as a decoy receptor for FASL and thus  
319 has biologically opposing actions to membrane-bound FAS by reducing FAS-FASL signalling,  
320 resulting in reduced apoptosis<sup>29</sup>.

321  
322 We therefore tested the hypothesis that the pQTL for plasma FAS resulted from genetically  
323 regulated skipping of exon 6. Using whole-blood RNA-seq data from 4,778 individuals, we  
324 examined alternative splicing and tested for associations between variants in the *FAS* region and  
325 transcripts lacking exon 6. The sentinel pQTL SNP, rs982764, was strongly associated with exon  
326 6 skipping ( $P = 2.1 \times 10^{-22}$ ). Moreover, the exon 6 splice QTL displayed the same association  
327 pattern as the pQTL and the GWAS signal for very severe COVID-19 (**Fig. 3a**). Formal  
328 colocalisation analysis confirmed that the splice QTL and the pQTL were highly likely to reflect  
329 the same underlying causal variant (PP of shared causal variant of 0.998). The risk allele for  
330 severe COVID-19 (rs982764:T) was associated with a shift towards transcripts lacking exon 6,  
331 which are known to encode soluble FAS (**Fig. 3b**). We confirmed this empirically via our pQTL  
332 data, with rs982764:T associated with higher plasma soluble FAS abundance. Together these  
333 data reveal a novel genetic mechanism by which a non-coding variant impacts the risk of severe  
334 COVID-19 through alternative splicing leading to elevated soluble FAS.

335



337 **Figure 3: a)** Regional association plot showing (from top to bottom): transcript isoforms, the  
338 soluble FAS cis-pQTL, and the associations with FAS exon 6 splicing. *FASΔEx6* indicates the  
339 transcript isoform lacking exon 6 (red circle). The posterior probability of a shared causal variant  
340 (PP H4) between FAS protein levels and exon 6 splicing = 0.99.

341 **b)** Boxplot showing exon 6 splice quantitative trait locus (sQTL). Number of individuals by  
342 genotype at rs982764: 443 (CC), 1992 (CT), 2329 (TT). In 14 individuals genotype could not be  
343 reliably ascertained. Y-axis represents % of transcripts with exon 6 skipping. P for association  
344 with genotype  $4 \times 10^{-22}$  (linear model).

345 **c)** Proposed model by which genetic variation in *FAS* increases risk of severe COVID-19. A non-  
346 coding variant acts as a splice QTL. The risk allele for very severe COVID-19 (rs982764:T) is  
347 associated with an increased proportion of transcripts lacking exon 6 resulting in higher levels of  
348 soluble FAS (sFAS). sFAS acts as a decoy receptor for FAS-ligand (FASL), blocking FASL  
349 binding to membrane-bound FAS (mFAS) on the cell surface and thus reducing apoptosis.

350

351

## 352 Discussion

353

354 Here we performed Mendelian Randomisation (MR) to evaluate whether proteins observationally  
355 associated with severe COVID-19 play a causal role in severe disease. We focused on severe  
356 COVID-19 as this is responsible for the loss of life and has threatened to overcome the capacity  
357 of healthcare systems across the world. In addition to vaccination programmes, there is an urgent  
358 need for therapies to ameliorate severe disease. This requires improved understanding of the  
359 aberrant host immune response in this subset of patients.

360

361 We took a broad, but hypothesis-driven approach, by focussing on proteins that have been shown  
362 to robustly associate observationally with disease severity in COVID-19 patients in two  
363 independent clinical cohorts. A strength of our study was the use of a large-scale pQTL meta-  
364 analyses to provide robust genetic instruments. Our MR analysis revealed that the genetic  
365 tendency to higher plasma soluble FAS increased the risk of very severe COVID-19, implicating  
366 soluble FAS as a causal factor in severe COVID-19. Using a range of COVID-19 patient severity  
367 phenotypes (any diagnosis of COVID-19 infection, hospitalisation due to COVID-19, and very  
368 severe COVID-19 requiring respiratory support) in our MR analyses revealed a gradient of causal  
369 effect size estimates proportional to COVID-19 severity (**Fig. 2b**). These data suggest that the  
370 FAS pathway plays a role specifically in the pathogenesis of severe disease, rather than  
371 susceptibility to COVID-19 infection. Examination of soluble FAS levels in the plasma of patients  
372 with COVID-19 revealed a similar pattern (**Fig. 2c**).

373

374 The *FAS* gene encodes the FAS death receptor, also known as tumour necrosis factor receptor  
375 superfamily member 6 (TNFRSF6). Alternative splicing leads to multiple transcript isoforms (**Fig.**

376 **3a)**<sup>27,28</sup>. The canonical isoform encodes a type 1 transmembrane protein that is the cell surface  
377 receptor for the cytokine FAS-ligand (FASL), and plays important roles in the control of apoptosis,  
378 particularly in lymphocytes<sup>30</sup>. Binding of FASL to the extracellular portion of membrane-bound  
379 FAS triggers an intracellular cascade resulting in apoptosis of the FAS-expressing cell. Apoptosis  
380 is mediated by a 'death domain', an 85 amino acid-long structure in the intracellular portion of  
381 FAS, encoded by exon nine<sup>31</sup>. In contrast, an isoform arising from skipping of exon 6 encodes a  
382 secreted protein lacking the transmembrane domain. This soluble form of FAS acts as a decoy  
383 receptor for FASL and therefore has biologically opposing actions to membrane-bound FAS, by  
384 reducing FAS-FASL signalling and thus blocking the pro-apoptotic pathway<sup>29</sup>.

385  
386 Investigation of the mechanism underpinning the cis-pQTL for FAS revealed that the risk allele  
387 for severe COVID-19 influences FAS mRNA splicing, resulting in a greater proportion of  
388 transcripts lacking exon 6 (**Fig. 3b**), which in turn lead to more soluble FAS (**Supplementary Fig.**  
389 **4**), the anti-apoptotic decoy receptor for FASL. Our data therefore support a model whereby  
390 genetic predisposition to reduced FASL signalling through membrane-bound FAS leads to  
391 increased risk of severe COVID-19 (**Fig. 3c**). We hypothesise that this may result in impaired  
392 apoptosis of activated lymphocytes (enhancing immune-mediated pathology) or virus-infected  
393 cells (retarding viral clearance). *In vitro*, treatment with ibrutinib, a Bruton's tyrosine kinase (BTK)  
394 inhibitor used in the treatment of haematological malignancy, has been shown to decrease soluble  
395 FAS, thereby enhancing FAS-mediated apoptosis<sup>32</sup>, suggesting a potential repurposing  
396 opportunity for severe COVID-19. Interestingly, case reports describe clinical improvement in  
397 haematology patients with severe COVID-19 on re-instigation of ibrutinib therapy<sup>33,34</sup>.

398  
399 *Fas* knock-out mice develop an autoimmune disease similar to human lupus, with anti-nuclear  
400 antibodies, nephritis, lymphadenopathy and splenomegaly<sup>35</sup>. Mirroring this, deleterious mutations  
401 in the *FAS* gene in humans result in a rare Mendelian disease (autoimmune lymphoproliferative  
402 syndrome, ALPS, OMIM: 601859), characterised by autoimmunity and lymphoproliferative  
403 disease as a result of defective lymphocyte apoptosis<sup>36-38,39</sup>. In addition, common variants in the  
404 *FAS* gene region are associated with the proportion of lymphocytes in the blood white cell count<sup>40</sup>,  
405 chronic lymphocytic leukaemia (CLL)<sup>41,42</sup>, and autoimmune diseases including juvenile idiopathic  
406 arthritis (JIA)<sup>43</sup>. The risk allele for JIA (rs7069750:C) reduces *FAS* gene expression.

407  
408 These observations reveal striking parallels in the spectrum of immune-mediated disease  
409 phenotypes related to genetic variation in *FAS*. Non-functional *FAS* protein (resulting from rare

410 coding mutations) and quantitatively reduced levels of FAS gene expression (due to common  
411 non-coding polymorphisms) both predispose to autoimmune disease. Similarly, we show that  
412 elevation of soluble FAS, which inhibits signalling via membrane-bound FAS, increases  
413 susceptibility to severe COVID-19. Thus distinct genetic variants in the *FAS* gene converge on  
414 impaired FASL-FAS signalling, and result in immunopathology.

415  
416 Other studies have performed Mendelian randomisation of proteins in COVID-19<sup>44,45</sup>. The MR  
417 analysis of Zhou *et al* identified OAS1 as a causal factor common to COVID-19 susceptibility,  
418 hospitalisation and very severe disease<sup>44</sup>. In contrast, we identified FAS as contributing  
419 specifically to severe COVID-19, but not susceptibility to infection. Gaziano *et al.*<sup>45</sup> identified  
420 IFNAR2 and ACE2 as playing causal roles in COVID-19.

421  
422 In summary, we demonstrate that that genetic tendency to higher levels of soluble FAS is a causal  
423 factor in severe COVID. Moreover, we reveal a novel genetic mechanism by which the risk allele  
424 for severe COVID-19 influences susceptibility through alternative splicing of FAS. This non-coding  
425 variant affects alternative splicing, resulting in increased levels of soluble FAS, a decoy receptor  
426 for FASL which blocks signalling of FASL via membrane-bound FAS on the cell surface. Our data  
427 provide insights into the pathogenesis of severe COVID-19 and suggest a potential therapeutic  
428 opportunity from restoration of FASL signalling.

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## **Methods**

### **Mendelian Randomisation.**

Mendelian randomisation uses genetic variants as instrumental variables in order to investigate the effects of a risk factor (exposure) on a disease (outcome), provided certain assumptions hold. The method reduces bias created from confounding, by treating the variants used as equivalent to treatment allocation in randomized control trials<sup>13,46-48</sup>. We used two-sample Mendelian Randomization (MR) to test the causal role of plasma proteins in severe COVID-19.

### **Defining a list of proteins robustly associated with COVID-19 severity.**

We identified plasma proteins that were significantly associated (5% FDR) with COVID-19 severity in the two studies that used Olink proteomics platform (Filbin *et al.*<sup>10</sup> and Gisby *et al.*<sup>11</sup>). To define a set of robust COVID-19 biomarkers, we took the intersect of the lists of significant associations from these two studies. This resulted in 157 proteins.

### **Identification of genetic instruments through pQTL mapping.**

To provide a set of genetic instruments for MR, we performed a meta-analysis of pQTL studies through framework of the SCALLOP consortium. All contributing pQTL studies had been performed using plasma with proteins measured using Olink immunoassays (Olink Bioscience, Uppsala, Sweden).

**Cohort-level pQTL analysis.** Details of the cohorts and cohort-specific ethical approval are included in the **Supplementary Table 2**. Plasma protein levels were measured using up to 5 Olink 92-plex immunoassays (“Inflammation”, “Cardiovascular2”, “Cardiovascular3”, “Cardiometabolic” and “Immune Response”). Despite the nomenclature, inflammation and immune related proteins were highly enriched on all panels. The sample size per protein across all available cohorts varied from 3,658 (for proteins on the Immune Response panel) to 26,494 (from proteins on the cardiovascular2 and cardiovascular3 panels). All subjects were of European heritage. Protein levels were rank-based inverse-normal transformed prior to genetic association testing. Genome-wide association analyses were performed using an additive regression model of protein on genotype with adjustment for age, sex and cohort specific covariates. Population structure was accounted for using by including principal components as covariates or by accounting for relatedness using linear mixed models as appropriate to the specific cohort.

**pQTL meta-analysis.** Prior to meta-analysis cohort-level summary statistics were quality controlled EasyQC software<sup>49</sup>, following the protocol as described in Winkler *et al.*<sup>49</sup>. Meta-analysis was performed using inverse-variance fixed effect method implemented in METAL<sup>50</sup> (“STDERR” option), followed by correction for genomic control. Meta-analysis summary statistics were then further filtered for minor allele frequency (MAF) > 0.01, and heterogeneity in effect size estimates. Variants with heterogeneity  $I^2 \geq 75\%$  were not considered significant and were removed prior to further analysis.

**pQTL locus definition.** To define the boundaries of each pQTL locus, we first selected all genetic variants with  $p\text{-value} < 1 \times 10^{-5}$  and then calculated the distance between each consecutive variant located on the same chromosome. Two consecutive variants were identified as belonging to different loci if they were more than 250 kb apart. The sentinel variant was defined as the variant with the lowest p-value within the locus. A locus was defined as a cis-pQTL if the sentinel variant was within 0.5 Mb of the start or end of the gene encoding the given protein, otherwise it was classified as a trans-pQTL.

480

### 481 **Outcome data for MR testing: COVID-19 GWAS.**

482 We accessed COVID-19 GWAS data from the COVID-19 Host Genetics Initiative website  
483 (<https://www.covid19hg.org/>). To match the ancestry of the individuals in the pQTL meta-analysis,  
484 we downloaded data from European-ancestry individuals. Specifically, we downloaded the  
485 following datasets: European summary statistics without 23 and me data from the HGI website  
486 release 5 (release date 7<sup>th</sup> January 2021) for A2 (very severe respiratory confirmed COVID-19  
487 versus population), B2 (hospitalised COVID-19 versus population), C2 (susceptibility - COVID-19  
488 versus population). Prior to downstream analyses, all variants with heterogeneity p-value 0.001  
489 (as per HGI recommendation) were removed. The following links were used to download the data:

490 [https://storage.googleapis.com/covid19-hg-](https://storage.googleapis.com/covid19-hg-public/20201215/results/20210107/COVID19_HGI_A2_ALL_eur_leave_ukbb_23andme_20210107.b37.txt.gz)

491 [public/20201215/results/20210107/COVID19\\_HGI\\_A2\\_ALL\\_eur\\_leave\\_ukbb\\_23andme\\_20210](https://storage.googleapis.com/covid19-hg-public/20201215/results/20210107/COVID19_HGI_A2_ALL_eur_leave_ukbb_23andme_20210107.b37.txt.gz)

492 [107.b37.txt.gz](https://storage.googleapis.com/covid19-hg-public/20201215/results/20210107/COVID19_HGI_A2_ALL_eur_leave_ukbb_23andme_20210107.b37.txt.gz)

493 [https://storage.googleapis.com/covid19-hg-](https://storage.googleapis.com/covid19-hg-public/20201215/results/20210107/COVID19_HGI_B2_ALL_eur_leave_ukbb_23andme_20210107.b37.txt.gz)

494 [public/20201215/results/20210107/COVID19\\_HGI\\_B2\\_ALL\\_eur\\_leave\\_ukbb\\_23andme\\_20210](https://storage.googleapis.com/covid19-hg-public/20201215/results/20210107/COVID19_HGI_B2_ALL_eur_leave_ukbb_23andme_20210107.b37.txt.gz)

495 [107.b37.txt.gz](https://storage.googleapis.com/covid19-hg-public/20201215/results/20210107/COVID19_HGI_B2_ALL_eur_leave_ukbb_23andme_20210107.b37.txt.gz)

496 [https://storage.googleapis.com/covid19-hg-](https://storage.googleapis.com/covid19-hg-public/20201215/results/20210107/COVID19_HGI_C2_ALL_eur_leave_ukbb_23andme_20210107.b37.txt.gz)

497 [public/20201215/results/20210107/COVID19\\_HGI\\_C2\\_ALL\\_eur\\_leave\\_ukbb\\_23andme\\_20210](https://storage.googleapis.com/covid19-hg-public/20201215/results/20210107/COVID19_HGI_C2_ALL_eur_leave_ukbb_23andme_20210107.b37.txt.gz)

498 [107.b37.txt.gz](https://storage.googleapis.com/covid19-hg-public/20201215/results/20210107/COVID19_HGI_C2_ALL_eur_leave_ukbb_23andme_20210107.b37.txt.gz)

499

500 The goal of our MR analysis was to test the causal role of proteins in very severe COVID-19 and  
501 so for our principal analyses we used the A2 COVID-19 GWAS dataset as the outcome. For FAS,  
502 the significant protein identified by our principal MR analysis (FAS), we also performed MR using  
503 COVID-19 dataset B2 and C2.

504

### 505 **Details of MR testing.**

506 *Primary MR analysis.* For each protein, MR evaluating its causal role in very severe COVID-19  
507 was performed using the TwoSampleMR package<sup>51</sup>. Where a single variant was used as the  
508 genetic instrument, we performed a Wald Ratio (WR) test. In the case of multiple genetic variants,  
509 we used the fixed effects inverse variance weighted (IVW) method.

510

511 *Variant selection.* For each protein first we selected genetic variants associated with the protein  
512 level at genome-wide significance ( $P$ -value  $< 5 \times 10^{-8}$ ). From these, we retained variants that were  
513 also present in the outcome (very severe COVID-19) GWAS summary statistics. Next, to obtain  
514 a set of genetic instruments with low correlation, we performed LD pruning of these variants using  
515 Plink 1.9<sup>52</sup> and the options `clump_r2 = 0.01` and `clump_kb = 10,000`. The LD reference panel for  
516 the pruning procedure was created by randomly selecting 10,000 unrelated individuals of British  
517 ancestry (evaluated on the basis of genomic data) from UK Biobank, followed by removing  
518 positional and marker name duplicated SNPs from imputed genotypes using `--rm-dup exclude-all`  
519 function using Plink 2.0<sup>52</sup>. Variants in the MHC region (hg19 genome build chr6:26,000,000-  
520 34,000,000) were excluded.

521

522 *Sensitivity analyses.* Since MR relies on certain assumptions, that often cannot be directly  
523 evaluated, we performed a range of sensitivity analyses. We used statistical methods to test for  
524 horizontal pleiotropy including MR Egger<sup>53</sup>. We performed MR using the weighted mode and  
525 median methods<sup>54</sup>, which are more robust to the presence of horizontal pleiotropy, and the  
526 maximum likelihood (ML) method. The ML method allows for uncertainty in the effect size of the  
527 genetic associations with the exposure (unlike the IVW method which uses simple weights), and  
528 it allows for genetic associations with the exposure and with the outcome for each variant to be  
529 correlated<sup>55</sup>.



530

531 *Cis-only MR.* As additional sensitivity analysis we repeated MR restricting the genetic  
532 instruments to cis-pQTLs only, as these are less likely to be affected by horizontal pleiotropy<sup>20</sup>.  
533 To select cis-only instruments we performed LD pruning (as described earlier) on all variants  
534 with  $p < 5 \times 10^{-8}$  within a cis locus.

535

### 536 **Replication of FAS MR.**

537 The genetic instruments used in the primary analysis were pQTL identified in a meta-analysis of  
538 studies that used Olink immunoassays. To validate this, we repeated the MR analysis for FAS  
539 using an alternative pQTL dataset based on proteomic profiling using the aptamer-based  
540 SomaLogic platform<sup>14</sup>. The COVID-19 GWAS data was the same as for the primary analysis (HGI  
541 A2 GWAS summary statistics).

542

### 543 **Colocalisation.**

544 To distinguish causal relationships from confounding by LD we used colocalisation analysis.  
545 Colocalisation analysis tests whether regional genetic association signals for different traits arise  
546 from distinct or the same shared causal variant. The Bayesian colocalisation method implemented  
547 in the `coloc.abf()` function from the “`coloc`”<sup>21</sup> R package provides posterior probabilities (PP) for 5  
548 different hypotheses: the null hypothesis of no association with either of the traits (H0) and four  
549 alternative hypotheses of either association with only one of the traits (H1, H2), or association of  
550 both traits but under the effect of distinct underlying causal variants (H3), or association of both  
551 traits under the effect of a shared causal variant (H4) i.e. colocalisation. For candidate proteins  
552 identified by the MR analysis, we compared the HGI A2 COVID-19 regional association signal(s)  
553 with that of the relevant pQTL. We considered a  $PP > 0.8$  as a strong evidence in favour of that  
554 hypothesis.

555

556 We also used `coloc` to test whether the FAS cis-pQTL colocalised with eQTLs from multiple cell  
557 types across multiple studies. These included multiple tissue types from GTEx v7 (obtained from  
558 the GTEx Portal on 03/23/21), whole blood data from eQTLGen<sup>24</sup>, and 5 sorted leukocyte subsets  
559 from Peters *et al.*<sup>25</sup>. An assumption of `coloc` is that there is at most one causal variant at the locus  
560 per trait. To allow for the possibility of multiple independent eQTLs or pQTLs, we used the Sum  
561 of Single Effects method<sup>26</sup>, which allows for simultaneous colocalisation testing of multiple causal  
562 variants.

563

### 564 **FAS levels in COVID-19 patients.**

565 We used data on COVID-19 patients and sex, age and ethnicity matched non-infected controls  
566 from the study by Gisby *et al.*<sup>11</sup>. The study design involved serial plasma sampling from the  
567 COVID-19 patients. For full details of association testing see Gisby *et al.*<sup>11</sup>. Briefly, differential  
568 abundance analysis of FAS levels between COVID-19 patients and controls was performed using  
569 linear mixed models with age, sex and ethnicity as covariates. Associations of FAS and clinical  
570 severity scores were performed within COVID-19 cases, using a 4-level ordinal scale for clinical  
571 severity (mild, moderate, severe and critical) at the time of blood sampling. Again, linear mixed  
572 models were used to account for repeated measurements from the same individual.

573

### 574 **RNA-sequencing and splice QTL analysis.**

575 In 5,000 individuals of the INTERVAL cohort, 3 ml of whole blood were collected in Tempus Blood  
576 RNA Tubes (ThermoFisher Scientific), following the manufacturer’s instructions. RNA extraction  
577 was performed by QIAGEN Genomic Services using an in-house developed protocol based on  
578 QIAGEN’s proprietary silica technology. We assessed the quality of the extracted RNA using  
579 spectrophotometric analysis. RNA Integrity Number (RIN) values were determined using a

580 TapeStation 4200 system (Agilent), following the manufacturer's protocol. Messenger RNA  
581 (mRNA) was isolated using a NEBNext Poly(A) mRNA Magnetic Isolation Module (NEB). Globin  
582 depletion was performed using a KAPA RiboErase Globin Kit (Roche). RNA library preparation  
583 was done using a NEBNext Ultra II DNA Library Prep Kit for Illumina (NEB) on a Bravo WS  
584 automation system (Agilent). Libraries were pooled to 96-plex in equimolar amounts, quantified  
585 using a High Sensitivity DNA Kit on a 2100 Bioanalyzer (Agilent), and then normalised to 2.8 nM  
586 prior to sequencing. Samples were sequenced using 75 bp paired-end sequencing reads (reverse  
587 stranded) on a NovaSeq 6000 system (S4 flow cell, Xp workflow; Illumina). We assessed the  
588 sequence data quality using FastQC v0.11.8. Reads were aligned to the GRCh38 human  
589 reference genome (Ensembl GTF annotation v99) using STAR v2.7.3.a<sup>56</sup>. Data from 4,778  
590 individuals were subjected to downstream analyses. We extracted transcript splice junctions with  
591 the regtools "junction extract" tool, and introns were clustered and excision ratios calculated and  
592 normalised for downstream sQTL analysis according to the leafcutter<sup>57</sup> pipeline (build #aa12b1e)  
593 with default parameters. Cis-sQTLs were calculated on the resulting leafcutter ratios for the  
594 excision event of FAS exon 6 (ENSE00003500194) and flanking introns, and genotypes with a  
595 minor allele frequency >0.01 in the region +/- 200kb of the FAS gene using tensorQTL<sup>58</sup> 1.0.5.  
596 Blood cell type proportions, sex, and 10 genomic and 10 splicing principal components were  
597 added as covariates to the linear model.

598

599 **Supplementary Material**

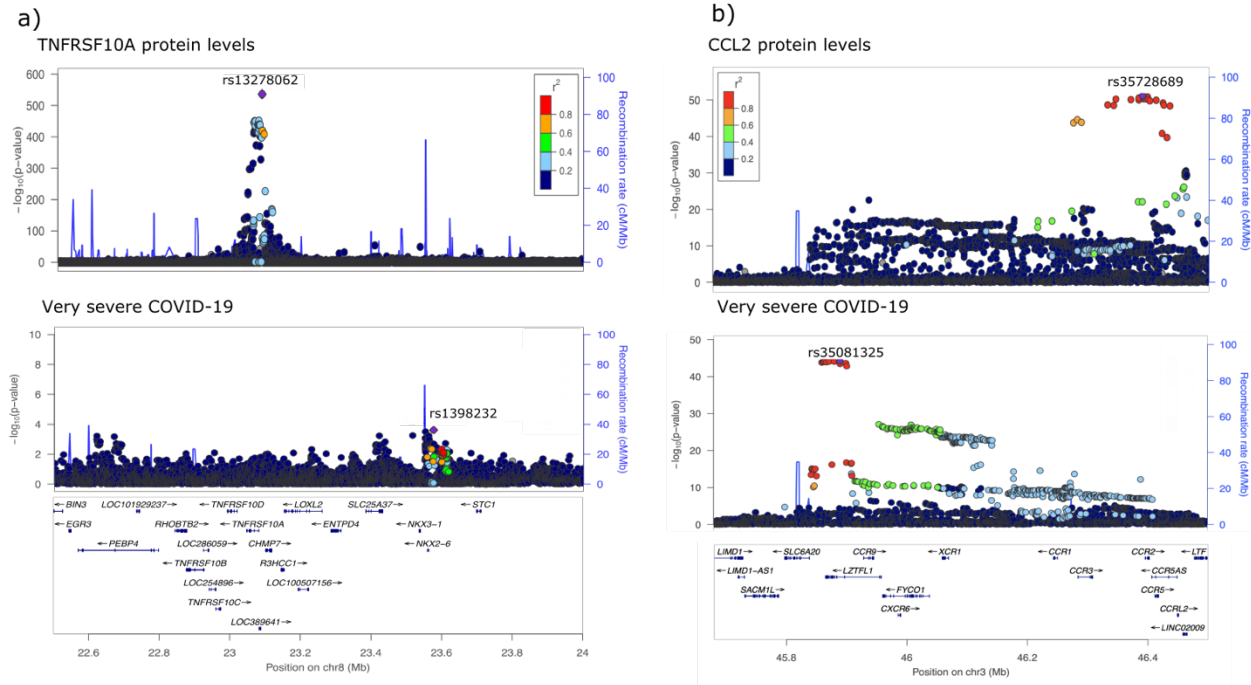
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601 **Supplementary Tables and Figures**



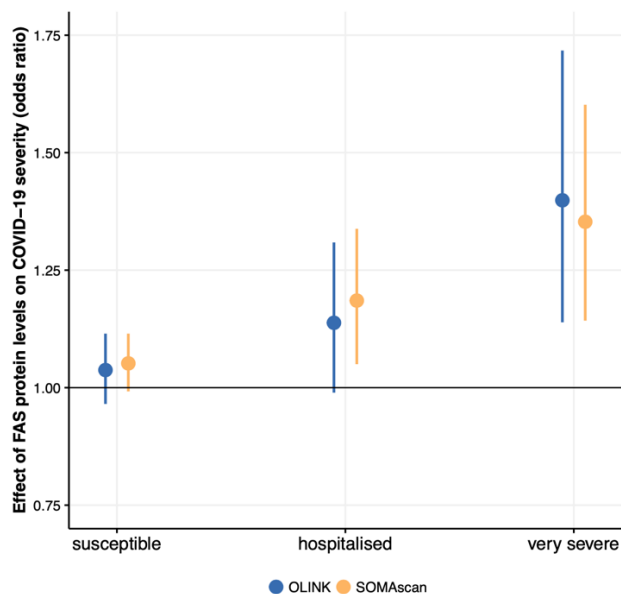
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604 **Supplementary Figure 1:** MR estimates using different MR methods for 5 proteins significant in  
605 the primary analysis (fixed effect inverse variance weighted method). a) MR effects estimated  
606 from all variants (both cis and trans). b) MR effects estimated using only cis variants. Vertical  
607 line represents odds ratio of 1.  
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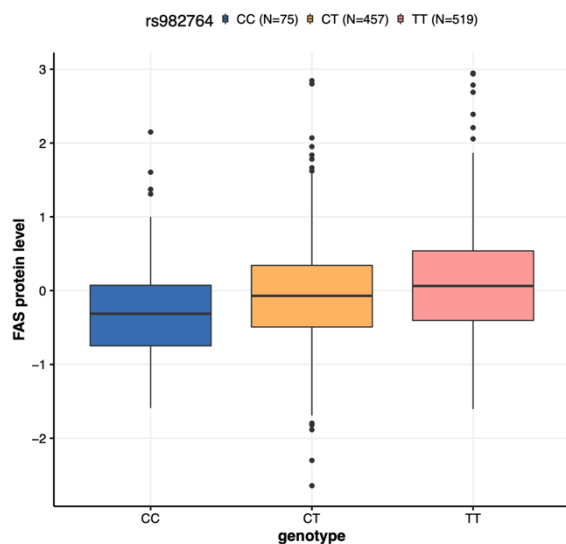
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**Supplementary Figure 2:** Genetic associations for TNFRSF10A and CCL2 plasma protein levels and very severe COVID-19 do not colocalise. **a)** The sentinel pQTL (rs13278062) for TNFRSF10A is in linkage equilibrium with the sentinel COVID-19 variant (rs1398232). The posterior probability of distinct causal variants from colocalisation testing (PP H3) = 0.87. **b)** A trans-pQTL located on chromosome 3 (sentinel variant rs35728689) for CCL2 (which is encoded on chromosome 17) lies approximately 5kb upstream of the *CCR2* gene, which encodes the receptor for CCL2, suggesting an obvious biological mechanism for the trans-pQTL. Single-variant MR performed using this trans-pQTL was significant (rs35728689  $P=2.8 \times 10^{-2}$ , Supplementary Table 1). However, LD  $r^2$  between sentinel CCL2 pQTL (rs35728689) and sentinel COVID-19 variant (rs35081325) is 0.006 in 1000 genomes EUR population and the posterior probability of distinct causal variants from colocalisation testing (PP H3) = 1.0.



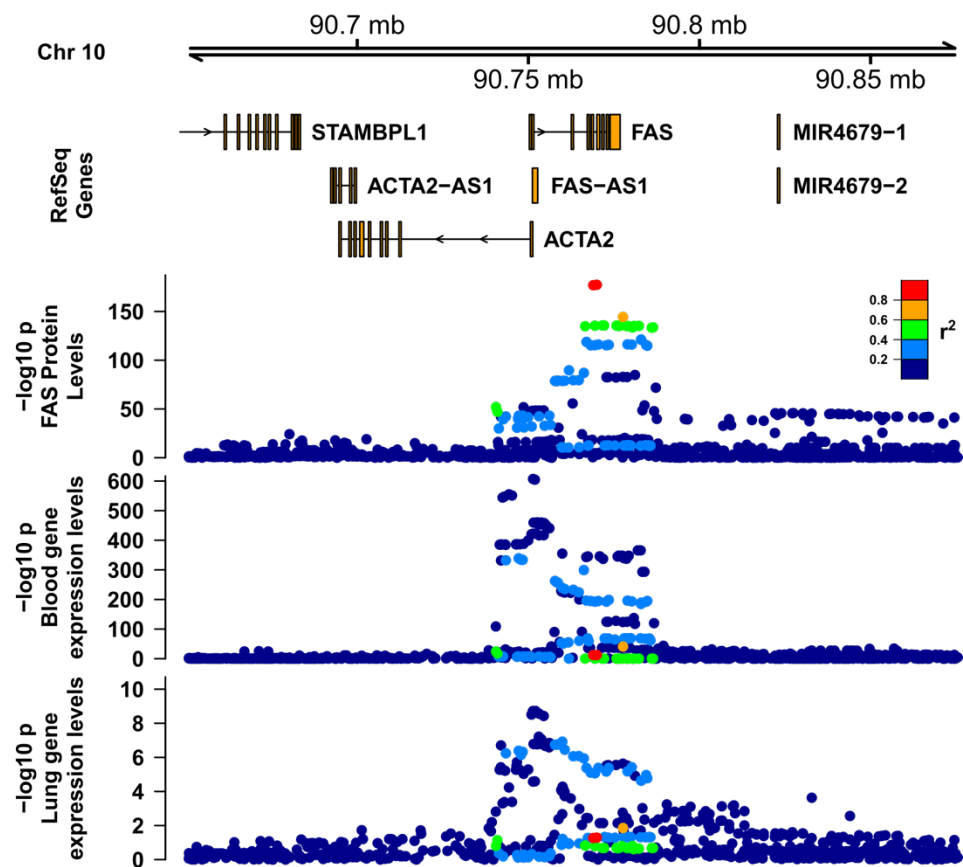
624  
625 **Supplementary Figure 3:** Validation of MR estimates of the causal effect of soluble FAS  
626 protein on COVID-19 outcomes. Genetic instruments were obtained from another pQTL study of  
627 FAS levels measured with a different proteomic platform (SOMAScan<sup>14</sup>). Details of individual  
628 instruments can be found in Supplementary Table 1. 'Olink' indicates the MR estimate obtained  
629 in our analysis.

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635 **Supplementary Figure 4:** Boxplot showing genotype at rs982764 versus plasma soluble FAS  
636 levels (after correction for age, sex, batch effects, season of blood sampling and genetic  
637 principal components) in the ORCADES cohort.

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**Supplementary Figure 5.** Regional association plots for FAS pQTL and eQTL. Tracks from top to bottom: FAS plasma pQTL (SCALLOP meta-analysis), FAS eQTL in whole blood (eQTLGen) and lung (GTEx v7).

649

650 **Supplementary Tables (xlsx)**

651

652 **Supplementary Table 1: SNP-wise estimates of the MR effect.** All - overall MR estimate,  
653 using all listed SNPs, exposure - protein levels, outcome - very severe COVID-19 (A2). genomic  
654 positions based on human genome build GRCh37

655

656 **Supplementary Table 2:** Details of contributing cohorts

657

658

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