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1 **Genetically determined serum serine level has a novel causal effect on**
2 **multiple sclerosis risk and predicts disability progression**

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23

24 **Abstract**

25 **Background**

26 There are currently no specific biomarkers for multiple sclerosis (MS). Identifying robust
27 biomarkers for MS is crucial to improve disease diagnosis and management.

28

29 **Methods**

30 This study first used six Mendelian randomisation methods to assess causal relationship of
31 174 metabolites with MS, incorporating data from European-ancestry metabolomics
32 (n=8,569-86,507) and MS (n=14,802 MS cases, 26,703 controls) genome-wide association
33 studies. Genetic scores for identified causal metabolite(s) were then computed to predict MS
34 disability progression in an independent longitudinal cohort (AusLong study) of 203 MS
35 cases with up to 15-year follow-up.

36

37 **Results**

38 We found a novel genetic causal effect of serine on MS onset (OR= 1.67, 95%CI= 1.51-1.84,
39 $P= 1.73 \times 10^{-20}$), such that individuals whose serine level are one standard deviation above the
40 population mean will have 1.67 times the risk of developing MS. This is robust across all
41 sensitivity methods (OR ranges from 1.49 to 1.67). In an independent longitudinal MS
42 cohort, we then constructed time-dynamic and time-fixed genetic scores based on serine
43 genetic instrument SNPs, where higher scores for raised serum serine level were associated
44 with increased risk of disability worsening, especially in the time-dynamic model (RR=1.25,
45 95%CI= 1.10-1.42, $P=7.52 \times 10^{-4}$).

46

47 **Conclusions**

48 These findings support investigating serine as an important candidate biomarker for MS onset
49 and disability progression.

50

51 **Key Messages**

52 **What is already known on this topic**

53 Several metabolites have been investigated in multiple sclerosis (MS) with mixed findings,
54 and the causality of metabolites with MS remain unclear.

55

56 **What this study adds**

57 This study used a suite of Mendelian randomisation methods to assess genetic causality of
58 174 metabolites with MS onset, and subsequently identified serine as a novel candidate
59 biomarker for MS. Serine-related genetic scores were then developed to predict risk of MS
60 disability progression in a longitudinal cohort with long-term follow-up.

61

62 **How this study might affect research, practice, or policy**

63 Findings from this study support investigating serine in fundamental and mechanistic
64 research as a next step, and if validated, earlier interventions based on serum serine level or
65 genetic scoring could allow personalised MS disease prognoses and optimisation of treatment
66 plans prior to irreversible disability development.

67

68 **Introduction**

69 Multiple sclerosis (MS) is a chronic, inflammatory/neurodegenerative disease of the central
70 nervous system¹. The continuing search of a cure for MS is impeded by an incomplete
71 understanding of the causes of MS, which is further compounded by the scarcity of a
72 routinely accessible and sensitive biomarker of MS onset and progression². In addition, there
73 is also uncertainty as to whether MS disease modifying therapy can yield long-term benefits
74 at the individual-level². Consequently, the discovery and validation of MS biomarkers are an
75 important step towards increased treatment precision and enabling assessments of treatment
76 efficacy before the occurrence of irreversible disease events and accumulation of disability.

77

78 Metabolites are small molecules reflecting a wide spectrum of biological processes. To date,
79 changes in serum levels of metabolites such as kynurenine have been associated with MS³,
80 though the causal relationships between the candidate metabolites and MS remain unclear. In
81 addition, there is growing interest in establishing predictive models capable of characterising
82 and monitoring MS disease progression based on molecular biomarkers⁴. Understanding the
83 causality between specific metabolites and MS risk can help identify diagnostic and
84 prognostic biomarkers for the purposes of developing new treatments and building more
85 accurate disease prediction models.

86

87 Genetic data is increasingly used to strengthen causal inference in observational research,
88 including the assessments of candidate disease biomarkers⁵. Genome-wide association
89 studies (GWAS) are widely used to detect associations between genetic variants and
90 phenotypic outcomes. Utilising the fact that alleles segregate randomly at meiosis, Mendelian
91 randomisation (MR) simulates a “natural” randomised control trial to test the genetic
92 causality between two traits by comparing the outcome in groups with and without the effect

93 allele associated with a risk factor of interest. In the last decade, several MR methods⁶⁻¹¹ have
94 been developed to analyse summary-level data generated from GWAS, integrating the effects
95 of multiple genetic variants as instrumental variables (termed “genetic instrument SNPs” that
96 are associated with the risk factor of interest) to assess genetic causal relationship between
97 the risk factor and outcome. A recent metabolomics GWAS by Lotta et al.¹² identified
98 genetic loci regulating serum levels of 174 human metabolites, from which the GWAS
99 summary results can be used to perform MR and assess genetic causality of the metabolites in
100 disease traits. Based on the hypothesis that genetically determined serum metabolite levels
101 may affect MS risk, we leveraged six different MR methods to assess the genetic causal
102 relationships of metabolite levels with MS risk.

103

104 After using MR to identify metabolites with consistent genetic causal effects in MS, we
105 hypothesised that genetic instrument SNPs that influence candidate metabolite levels may
106 also influence MS disease progression and thus could be used to model and predict disease
107 worsening. Established methods such as genetic prognostic indexes (GPI)¹³ and polygenic
108 risk scores (PRS)¹⁴ can estimate the combined effects of genetic variants identified in
109 population-scale GWAS, with applications in predicting clinical outcomes^{13 15}. Thus, we
110 constructed a time-dynamic GPI as well as a PRS based on genetic instrument SNPs for the
111 candidate metabolites and assessed whether these genetic scores could predict disability
112 progression in an independent cohort of people with clinically definite MS with up to 15
113 years follow-up.

114

115 **Methods**

116 **Metabolomics GWAS Data**

117 We obtained full summary statistics from a European-ancestry metabolomics GWAS for the
118 effects of genetic variants on serum levels of 174 metabolites belonging to different
119 biochemical classes (amino acids, acylcarnitines, phosphatidylcholines, hexoses, biogenic
120 amines, lysophosphatidylcholines, and sphingomyelins)¹². This was obtained from an open
121 access repository¹⁶. In brief, Lotta et al.¹² conducted a meta-analysis of GWAS results from
122 the Fenland¹⁷, EPIC-Norfolk¹⁸ and INTERVAL¹⁹ studies, where the metabolites were
123 captured by AbsoluteIDQ Biocrates p180 kit (Biocrates Life Sciences) and measured using
124 mass spectrometry. The sample size for each metabolite varied from 8,569 to 86,507
125 individuals, depending on the contributing studies. For each metabolite, we excluded
126 multiallelic and ambiguous SNPs, and those with minor allele frequency <0.05. No further
127 quality control procedures were performed on the summary statistics.

128

129 **MS GWAS Data**

130 MS GWAS summary data on the effects of genetic variants on MS risk was from a meta-
131 analysis of 15 MS GWAS cohorts of European ancestry (n= 14,802 MS cases and 26,703
132 controls)²⁰. This data was obtained via application online²¹. Allele frequencies were
133 annotated using the 1000 Genome Project phase 3 EUR population reference²². We excluded
134 SNPs that were either multiallelic, ambiguous, with minor allele frequency <0.05, or not
135 present in all 15 GWAS cohorts. After these steps, a total of 5,543,512 SNPs were included
136 in our analysis.

137

138 **AusLong Data**

139 The Ausimmune Longitudinal (AusLong) study has prospectively followed an Australian
140 cohort of clinically isolated syndrome cases for up to 15 years following referral after a first
141 clinical episode of CNS demyelination²³. AusLong cases were genotyped for 665,608

142 variants using the Infinium Global Screening Array-24 Kit v2.0. These data were imputed to
143 ~9.7 million SNPs using the IMPUTE4 program²⁴. After excluding those who had not been
144 diagnosed with clinically definite MS at their last review, 203 MS cases with 1,267 repeated
145 disability observations were included in our survival analysis.

146

147 Disability assessments utilising the Expanded Disability Status Scale (EDSS)²⁵ were
148 undertaken at baseline, 2-3, 5, 10, and 15 years post first clinical episode of CNS
149 demyelination by an accredited study neurologist, as well as annually after the 5th year review
150 by computer-assisted telephone interviews using a validated telephone EDSS²³. As in
151 previous work¹³, a mixed-effect proportional model was used to impute missing EDSS scores
152 (15.4%) wherein we adjusted for the effects of clinical and environmental risk factors
153 including age at first demyelinating event, sex, relapse rate, anti-Epstein-Barr virus (EBV)
154 nuclear antigen IgG titres, body mass index (BMI), smoking status, Hospital Anxiety and
155 Depression Scores (HADS), previous EDSS scores, and auxiliary variables (latitude, vitamin
156 D and MS type) after having demonstrated their significant and independent associations
157 with EDSS. Key cohort characteristics have been summarised in Supplementary Table S1.

158

159 **Mendelian Randomisation Analysis**

160 We first used generalised-summary-data-based Mendelian randomisation (GSMR) to assess
161 whether metabolite levels had genetic causal effects on MS onset. GSMR is a method that
162 incorporates independent genome-wide significant variants for the exposure as genetic
163 instrument SNPs⁶, which has a built-in “HEIDI-outlier” method to remove genetic instrument
164 SNPs with apparent pleiotropic effects on both exposure and outcome. To perform GSMR
165 analysis, we screened 174 available metabolites and retained those with at least ten valid

166 genetic instrument SNPs ($P < 5 \times 10^{-8}$ and $P_{\text{HEIDI}} > 0.01$). Bonferroni correction method was
167 applied to account for multiple testing.

168

169 Further, we performed sensitivity analysis using five different two-sample MR methods,
170 including causal analysis using summary effect estimates method (CAUSE)⁷, inverse
171 variance weighted method (IVW)⁸, Mendelian randomisation Egger (MR-Egger)⁹, weighted
172 median¹⁰ and weighted mode¹¹. Each of these models estimates the causal effect based on
173 different assumptions and weighting of pleiotropic effects that arise from shared genetic
174 factors between traits. In the sensitivity analysis, we applied $P < 5 \times 10^{-8}$ as the threshold for
175 selecting genetic instrument SNPs across the methods except for CAUSE, where a threshold
176 of $P < 1 \times 10^{-5}$ was applied. Different to many existing MR methods that focus on the variants
177 most strongly associated with the risk factor of interest, CAUSE can improve power by
178 incorporating information from more variants⁷. Detailed description of the MR analyses is
179 available in Supplementary Methods. To assess instrument strength for instrument SNPs in
180 the IVW models, F-statistic was calculated using the formula established by Burgess et al.²⁶:

181
$$F = \left(\frac{n - k - 1}{k} \right) \left(\frac{R^2}{1 - R^2} \right)$$

182 where R^2 is the proportion of variance in the phenotype explained by the genetic variants, n is
183 the sample size, and k is the number of instruments. A commonly accepted threshold for
184 sufficient instrument strength is $F > 10$. Other validity tests including Cochran's Q-test²⁷,
185 leave-one-out analysis²⁸ and Egger intercept test²⁹ were also conducted to support validity of
186 identified instrument SNPs.

187

188 **Metabolite-related Genetic Scores and Survival Analysis**

189 For the candidate metabolite(s) that had consistent association signals across the six MR
190 methods, we performed survival analyses to examine the prospective associations of the

191 identified metabolite-associated genetic instrument SNPs in predicting worsening of
192 disability in the AusLong study. We computed two models to evaluate this, one of which was
193 a time-dynamic GPI based on the identified genetic instrument SNPs. Briefly, a univariate
194 Cox analysis was initially performed to assess prognostic effects of each genetic instrument
195 SNP, followed by a multivariate Cox model with backward selection (5% false discovery
196 rate; including identified genetic instrument SNPs for metabolite, previous EDSS states, and
197 their interactions) to identify SNPs associated with the time-to-worsening of disability. A
198 time-dynamic cross-validation based GPI was then constructed to combine the effects of the
199 selected SNP alleles^{13 30}. Next, we also computed PRS using the genetic instrument SNPs
200 identified for the candidate metabolite(s). Different to the GPI model, the PRS model was
201 intrinsically independent of time points at which the survival predictions were made.

202

203 Detailed description of the genetic scores and subsequent survival analysis is available in
204 Supplementary Methods. Briefly, the survival endpoint in our survival analysis was time
205 elapsed since first demyelinating event to disability worsening outcome, where an increase in
206 EDSS was defined as a “worsening” event ($y= 1$) and a decrease or no change in EDSS was
207 an “improved/stable” event ($y= 0$). Separate mixed-effects Cox models were fitted to
208 examine associations of GPI and PRS with EDSS worsening outcome, adjusting for age, sex,
209 anti-EBV nuclear antigen IgG titres, relapse rate, BMI, smoking status, HADS, and vitamin
210 D supplementation. We further assessed and compared the models based on the Akaike
211 information criterion (AIC) and estimated the intra-class correlation due to individual-level
212 and phenotype-level differences in EDSS progression rates.

213

214 **Statistical Analysis**

215 Data analyses were performed using the following software: R version 3.6.1 (R package
216 'gsmr' version 1.0.9, 'TwoSampleMR' version 0.4.26, 'cause' version 1.0.0, 'JointAI' version
217 1.0.2, 'coxme' version 2.2-16, 'mstate' version 0.3.2, 'msm' version 1.6.9, 'mfp' version 1.5.2.2,
218 'survival' version 3.3-1, 'dynpred' version 0.1.2, 'JM' version 1.5-1), PLINK version 1.90, and
219 IMPUTE4.

220

221 **Results**

222 **Novel Genetic Causal Effect of Serine on MS risk**

223 We found that 41 of 174 metabolites had ten or more valid genetic instrument SNPs that
224 could be taken forward into MR analysis to investigate the effects of the metabolites on MS
225 risk (Figure 1A; Supplementary Table S2). Thus, we used a Bonferroni-corrected p-value
226 threshold of $0.05/41=1.22 \times 10^{-3}$. Summarised in Figure 1, serine and kynurenine were the two
227 metabolites that passed this threshold in the GSMR analysis, where genetically determined
228 higher levels of both metabolites increased genetic susceptibility for MS. Upon sensitivity
229 analysis using other MR methods, we observed a consistent pattern of positive association
230 with MS onset for genetic serine level (Figure 1B; Supplementary Table S3; Supplementary
231 Figure S1), including the CAUSE method ($p = 0.03$ for the causal model being a better fit
232 than the model without causal effect). In the GSMR analysis, the built-in HEIDI test was able
233 to remove two outliers and retain 18 of 20 instrument SNPs identified for serine
234 (Supplementary Table S4). We then conducted additional tests to examine validity of these
235 18 SNPs. Firstly, we performed Cochran's Q test and found no evidence of heterogeneity for
236 the 18 SNPs ($Q = 26.7$, $DF = 17$, $P = 0.06$). Secondly, we calculated the F-statistic of
237 instrument strength for the 18 SNPs ($F = 69.0$), which satisfied the accepted threshold of
238 $F > 10$. Thirdly, we also performed leave-one-out analysis by leaving out each instrument SNP
239 in turn and found that the association was unlikely to be driven by a single instrument SNP

240 based on the consistent effect estimates (Supplementary Table S6). Fourthly, Egger intercept
241 test for these 18 SNPs (Supplementary Table S7) suggested no evidence of directional
242 horizontal pleiotropy driving the results (Egger intercept= -5.2×10^{-3} , $P = 0.71$). Based on
243 these, the 18 instrument SNPs passed all validity tests and we found consistent association
244 patterns to GSMR when using these SNPs in sensitivity MR methods (Supplementary Table
245 S3). Therefore, these 18 SNPs were used to generate serine-based genetic scores in
246 subsequent analyses. Additionally, we repeated the same validity tests for the full set of 20
247 serine instrument SNPs and summarised in Supplementary Table S5-7. Furthermore, we
248 assessed potential reverse causality by examining MS onset as the risk factor and genetically
249 determined serum serine level as the outcome, and we found no evidence supporting genetic
250 causality in this direction (Figure 1C; Supplementary Table S3).

251

252 For kynurenine, we noted a pattern of positive associations with similar effect sizes in
253 sensitivity analysis (Figure 1B; Supplementary Table S3), though not reaching statistical
254 significance. Additionally, we also found evidence supporting genetic causality in the reverse
255 direction (Figure 1C; Supplementary Table S3), which suggested that the relationship of
256 genetically determined serum kynurenine level with MS risk may arise from shared genetic
257 factors rather than causal effects.

258

259 **Serine-related Genetic Scores Predicted Worsening of Disability in MS**

260 Based on the 18 genetic instrument SNPs for serum serine level (Supplementary Table S4),
261 we found in univariable Cox mixed-effect models that two variants had suggestive
262 association with survival time to EDSS worsening (Supplementary Table S8). Using
263 backward elimination in the multivariable model including identified serine genetic
264 instrument SNPs, previous EDSS states, and their interactions, we retained a model with 17

265 genetic effects (Supplementary Table S9) that were predictive of survival probability for
266 disability worsening outcome, which were subsequently used to construct the serine GPI. In
267 line with findings from the MR analysis, we found a one unit increase in serine GPI was
268 associated with increased risk of transitioning into higher EDSS states, after adjusting for
269 covariates in the GPI model (relative risk (RR) =1.25, 95%CI= 1.10-1.42, P=7.52x10⁻⁴).
270 When splitting into quartiles, we observed statistically significant differences between the
271 quartiles of serine GPI (Figure 2, P=7.8x10⁻³⁵ for survival curves' comparisons using log-
272 rank test). Consistent associations were also seen in the quartile GPI model after adjustments
273 (Supplementary Table S10).

274

275 The PRS approach showed a similar association pattern after adjusting for covariates in the
276 model (RR = 1.12, 95%CI= 1.00-1.27, P=0.06). When splitting into quartiles, we did not
277 observe clear differences between quartiles in log-rank test (P = 0.10; Supplementary Figure
278 S2), though there was a significant difference (P = 0.02) in survival curves for those with
279 serine PRS in the lowest quartile compared to those in the combined upper three quartiles
280 (Supplementary Figure S3). Supplementary Table S10 summarises associations from the
281 quartile PRS model after adjustments, which had consistent direction of effect compared to
282 the GPI model.

283

284 In the longitudinal MS cohort, the GPI model (AIC=2182.07) performed better than the PRS
285 model (AIC=2189.37). The GPI scores alone explained a greater percentage of between
286 individual worsening rates (r²=78%) compared to the PRS scores alone (r²=72%), where the
287 PRS model may have assigned smaller risk scores to individuals with worse prognosis over
288 time and underestimated the risk of worsening of disability.

289

290 **Discussion**

291 In this study, we analysed the genetic determinants of 174 metabolites from a recent large
292 metabolomics GWAS study¹², and found consistent strong evidence supporting genetic
293 causality of raised serine levels with MS risk. We then hypothesised that these genetic
294 determinants of raised serine may also influenced worsening of disability among people with
295 MS. We examined the combined effects of genetic instrument SNPs for serine levels on the
296 rate of EDSS progression in the AusLong prospective cohort of early MS based on two
297 different models: a time-dynamic risk prediction model (GPI) and a time-independent risk
298 prediction model (PRS). In these models, the serine-related genetic scores showed consistent
299 associations with worsening disability as measured by EDSS transitions to a higher (worse)
300 disability state. Based on the GPI model, there was a significant five-year difference between
301 the highest and lowest quartiles of the serine GPI in median survival time to worsening of
302 disability. Together, these findings support further investigations of serine as an important
303 candidate biomarker for MS onset and disability progression.

304

305 The MR analysis revealed consistent positive association signals for genetically determined
306 serum serine level across different models, with similar effect sizes, suggesting that
307 genetically determined higher serine levels are associated with increased risk of MS. Further,
308 despite modest contributions of individual serine-related SNPs to time-to-worsening of
309 disability outcome, genetic scores combining their effects were consistently predictive of the
310 time to EDSS worsening. Based on previous research¹³, MS disability prognoses at the
311 individual- and group-level can change over time. Utilising this information in a time-
312 dynamic GPI model, we demonstrated that a serine-related GPI was significantly predictive
313 of disability worsening over time.

314

315 A previous small study (n= 33 MS cases and 17 controls)³¹ found increased plasma
316 concentrations of L-serine-O-phosphate (the immediate precursor to L-serine in the serine
317 synthesis pathway) in MS cases compared to controls, though could not detect any significant
318 differences in plasma concentrations of serine likely due to limited statistical power. Further,
319 there is significant evidence that oligodendrocytes are involved in MS pathophysiology³²⁻³⁴,
320 while recent studies have found that increased ceramide abundance was associated with
321 oligodendrocyte apoptosis³⁵ and EDSS progression³⁶ in MS. The ceramide synthesis pathway
322 begins with the condensation of palmitoyl-CoA and serine³⁷, and targeting the rate-limiting
323 enzyme (serine palmitoyltransferase) in this step has been proposed as a potential therapeutic
324 approach for MS³⁷. Furthermore, serine is a key source of one-carbon units involving in one-
325 carbon metabolism, and T cells are known to depend on serine for proliferation and effector
326 function^{38 39}. In the one-carbon metabolism pathway, MTHFD2 is an enzyme highly
327 expressed in inflammatory diseases, and a recent study by Sugiura et al.³⁹ showed that
328 pharmacological inhibition of MTHFD2 *in vivo* decreased pathology in mouse models of MS.
329 Additionally, serine synthesis pathway inhibition has been reported to augment the
330 therapeutic efficacy of dietary serine limitation as a treatment for cancer⁴⁰, although similar
331 studies have not been conducted in MS. If our results are confirmed in future functional
332 studies, modulation of serine synthesis pathways combined with serine-restricted diet
333 interventions may be fruitful areas of research to prevent or treat MS particularly in those
334 with a higher serine GPI.

335

336 In our study, we integrated large genetic datasets to first identify serine as a high-confidence
337 candidate in MS risk, followed by analysis in an independent clinical dataset to demonstrate
338 the use of serine-associated genetic instrument SNPs in predicting worsening of MS
339 disability outcome. If serine is validated as a MS biomarker, serine-related measurements

340 may be useful for personalised disease prognoses, and potentially increase precision in
341 disease management strategies such as treatment selection and serine levels could be
342 modulated by dietary interventions. It is currently necessary to wait for further disability to
343 develop to know that treatment is not working², and earlier interventions based on biomarkers
344 (serum serine levels) or genetic scoring could allow optimisation of treatment plans prior to
345 irreversible disability development.

346

347 **Limitations and Strengths**

348 Our analysis is not without its limitations. Firstly, the MR methods were not able to fully
349 distinguish pleiotropic effects from causal effects. That said, the HEIDI-outlier method
350 implemented in the GSMR analysis was used to remove a proportion of genetic instrument
351 SNPs with pleiotropic effects, while the CAUSE model could account for the effects of
352 correlated pleiotropy. Secondly, the sample size for our longitudinal cohort is modest
353 compared to cross-sectional GWAS studies, which may partly explain why the PRS failed to
354 clearly discriminate risk of worsening between individuals as observed in Figure 2.
355 Nevertheless, the AusLong dataset has a long follow-up time up to 15 years, measuring a
356 wide range of clinical, environmental, and genetic information that we were able to
357 incorporate in our survival analysis to strengthen our findings. Thirdly, despite the
358 capabilities of GPI-based prediction models in capturing dynamic predictive effects over time
359 while accounting for previous disability measurements, these prognostic models are not as
360 useful for making individual predictions of survival endpoints¹³. However, dynamic risk
361 predictions using the GPI is an efficient way of aggregating evidence from genetic markers
362 when predicting disability in MS, with the goal of assigning higher risk scores to individuals
363 with worst prognosis and vice-versa¹³. Fourthly, we analysed EDSS using a continuous-time
364 evolution of the disability progression process, which is a powerful way of modelling

365 disability progression given the long-term follow-up in AusLong cohort. However, the model
366 as per all measures of EDSS could not account for potential misclassifications (e.g., test-
367 retest variability, and inter- and intra-rater variability) in longitudinal EDSS assessments.
368 Lastly, we identified a causal effect of genetically determined serum serine level on MS
369 onset, though we could not ascertain the causality of serine with MS disability worsening. It
370 is possible that the SNPs associated with higher serum serine levels may affect MS disability
371 worsening through mechanistic pathways unrelated to serine. Similarly, serum serine level
372 itself may not be a robust biomarker in the absence of knowledge about an individual's
373 genetic makeup. A future step for mechanistic research could be a longitudinal multi-omics
374 study that integrates multiple layers of high-throughput omics data (e.g., genomics,
375 epigenomics, metabolomics, and lipidomics) and phenotype data to further understand serine
376 and relevant metabolites in MS progression.

377

378 **Conclusions**

379 In summary, our findings provide the first evidence for causality of genetically determined
380 serum serine level with MS risk, which was robust across six different MR methods. The MR
381 results also pointed to a relationship between kynurenine and MS that may arise from shared
382 genetic factors. In an independent longitudinal cohort of people with clinically definite MS,
383 we showed that serine-related genetic scores could predict survival probability for disability
384 worsening. Thus, findings from this study warrant further fundamental and mechanistic
385 research as a next step to investigate serine in MS onset and disability progression, which
386 yield opportunities for renewing mechanistic understanding of MS or even novel therapeutic
387 approaches.

388

389 **Data Availability**

390 Summary statistics for MS GWAS are available through application from:
391 https://imsgc.net/?page_id=31
392 Summary statistics for metabolites are available through an interactive web server
393 (<https://omicscience.org/apps/crossplatform/>) as well as the GWAS Catalog database
394 (<https://www.ebi.ac.uk/gwas/>, accession numbers GCST90010722–GCST90010862).
395 The AusLong dataset is available from the authors upon reasonable request but is not
396 publicly available due to ethical requirements.

397

398 **Code Availability**

399 All codes used for the analyses are available upon request.

400

401 **Contributors**

402 XL, BVT and YZ contributed to the conception and design of the study.

403 XL, YY, VFN and YZ contributed to the acquisition and analysis of data.

404 AusLong Investigator Group contributed to the design and data collection of AusLong study.

405 BVT and YZ supervised the study.

406 XL, YY, VFN, XY, SSY, IvdM, SAB, ALP, AusLong Investigator Group, KB, BVT and YZ

407 contributed to the interpretations of the findings and the critical revision of the manuscript.

408

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411 by the Health and Medical Research Ethics Committee, University of Tasmania (committee

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432 **Conflicts of Interest and Financial Disclosures**

433 BVT has received compensation for consulting, talks, and advisory/steering board activities
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559

560 **Figure 1. Causality of genetically determined metabolite levels with MS risk.**

561 A. In total, 41 metabolites of different biochemical classes (coloured) were included in GSMR main
562 analysis, two of which passed the adjusted p-value threshold; B. Genetic causality of genetically
563 determined serum serine and kynurenine levels (exposures) with MS onset (outcome) based on six
564 Mendelian randomisation methods; C. Genetic causality of MS onset (exposure) with serine and
565 kynurenine metabolites (outcomes) based on the six methods. “-log₁₀(P)” is based on p-values for
566 GSMR estimates. “N” refers to the number of SNPs included in the different models as genetic
567 instrument SNPs. Error bars in forest plots represent the 95% confidence intervals for GSMR estimates.
568 Abbreviations: CAUSE = causal analysis using summary effect estimates; GSMR = generalised-
569 summary-data-based Mendelian randomisation; IVW = inverse variance weighted; MR-Egger =
570 Mendelian randomisation-Egger; MS = multiple sclerosis.

571

572 **Figure 2. Survival curve comparison between quartiles of a time-dynamic serine genetic**

573 **prognostic index.** This figure visualises and compares the survival curves for 1267 repeated
574 observations (n = 203 individuals with clinically definite multiple sclerosis) separated into four quartiles
575 based on unadjusted serine genetic prognostic index (GPI). The serine GPI was calculated based on
576 serine-associated genetic instrument SNPs and their interaction effects with previous disability
577 measurements that passed the backward elimination procedure in a multivariable Cox mixed-effect
578 model. For the disability worsening outcome, we defined having an increase in the Expanded Disability
579 Status Scale (EDSS) as a “worsening” event (y= 1) and having a decrease or no change in EDSS as an
580 “improved/stable” event (y= 0). The time-to-worsening of disability (observation time for EDSS) was
581 the cumulative sum of time intervals between EDSS visits, adjusting for disease duration at the time of
582 EDSS measurement. Top right panel illustrates the distribution of the serine GPI. Bottom table
583 summarised the risk sets for disability worsening over time. Coloured area around the survival curves
584 indicates the corresponding 95% confidence intervals.

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