



Differential intolerance to loss of function and missense mutations in genes that encode human matricellular proteins

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Abstract

Targeted gene disruption in mice has provided valuable insights into the functions of matricellular proteins. Apart from missense and loss of function mutations that have been associated with inherited diseases, however, their functions in humans remain unclear. The availability of deep exome sequencing data from over 140,000 individuals in the Genome Aggregation Database provided an opportunity to examine intolerance to loss of function and missense mutations in human matricellular genes. The probability of loss-of-function intolerance (pLI) differed widely within members of the thrombospondin, CYR61/CTGF/NOV (CCN), tenascin, small integrin-binding ligand N-linked glycoproteins (SIBLING), and secreted protein, acidic and rich in cysteine (SPARC) gene families. Notably, pLI values in humans had limited correlation with viability of the corresponding homozygous null mice. Among the thrombospondins, only *THBS1* was highly loss-intolerant (pLI = 1). In contrast, *Thbs1* is not essential for viability in mice. Several known thrombospondin-1 receptors were similarly loss-intolerant, although thrombospondin-1 is not the exclusive ligand for some of these receptors. The frequencies of missense mutations in *THBS1* and the gene encoding its signaling receptor CD47 indicated conservation of some residues implicated in specific receptor binding. Deficits in missense mutations were also observed for other thrombospondin genes and for *SPARC*, *SPOCK1*, *SPOCK2*, *TNR*, and *DSPP*. The intolerance of *THBS1* to loss of function in humans and elevated pLI values for *THBS2*, *SPARC*, *SPOCK1*, *TNR*, and *CCN1* support important functions for these matricellular protein genes in humans, some of which may relate to functions in reproduction or responding to environmental stresses.

Keywords Human genetic variation · Population genetics · Loss of function variants · Matricellular proteins · Gene families

Abbreviations

$\alpha 2\delta 1$	Precursor of the $\alpha 2$ and δ subunits of voltage-dependent calcium channel, encoded by <i>CACN2D1</i>	gnomAD	Genome Aggregation Database
CCN	Cyr61/CTGF/NOV gene family	IBSP	Bone sialoprotein
CD148	Membrane-bound tyrosine phosphatase, encoded by <i>PTPRJ</i>	LoF	Loss of function
COMP	Cartilage oligomeric matrix protein	LRP1	Low density lipoprotein receptor-related protein 1
DMP1	Dentin matrix protein 1	MEPE	Matrix extracellular phosphoglycoprotein
DSPP	Dentin sialophosphoglycoprotein	pLI	Probability of loss-of-function intolerance
ExAC	Exome Aggregation Consortium	SIBLING	Small integrin-binding ligand N-linked glycoproteins
		SIRP α	Signal regulatory protein- α
		SMOC	Secreted modular calcium-binding protein
		SNV	Single nucleotide variation
		SPARC	Secreted protein, acidic and rich in cysteine
		SPOCK	Sparc/osteonectin, CWCV, and kazal-like domains proteoglycan (Testican)
		SPP1	Osteopontin
		STIM1	Stromal interaction molecule 1
		THBS	Thrombospondin
		TN	Tenascin

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Introduction

Matricellular proteins were defined by Paul Bornstein in 1995 as extracellular regulators of cell function that modulate cell behavior by interacting with structural components of the extracellular matrix, cytokines, or proteases and by binding to specific cell surface receptors (Bornstein 1995; Murphy-Ullrich and Sage 2014). With some exceptions, matricellular proteins do not serve structural roles in the extracellular matrix. Rather, they are transiently expressed at specific stages of development, during tissue remodeling, or in response to acute injuries or chronic disease. Original members included thrombospondin-1 and -2, tenascins, the secreted protein acidic and rich in cysteine (SPARC) family, and osteopontin, a member of the small integrin-binding ligand N-linked glycoproteins (SIBLING) family. Matricellular proteins currently include additional families including the Cyr61/CTGF/NOV (CCN) gene family, short fibulins, galectins, and R-spondins (Elola et al. 2007; Knight and Hankenson 2014; Leask 2020; Murphy-Ullrich and Sage 2014; Nakamura 2018).

Human genetics and transgenic mice have provided complementary insights into the functions of matricellular proteins. Missense, regulatory, or inactivating mutations in genes encoding specific matricellular proteins including *CCN6*, *SPARC*, *SMOCl*, *SPOCK1*, *TNXB*, *DMP1*, *DSPP*, *THBS1*, *THBS2*, and *COMP* have been linked to inherited genetic disorders or disease risk in humans (Abouzeid et al. 2011; Bristow et al. 2005; Burke et al. 2009; Dharmija et al. 2014; Hurvitz et al. 1999; Mendoza-Londono et al. 2015; Okada et al. 2011; Posey et al. 2018; Rainger et al. 2011; Staines et al. 2012; Stenina et al. 2007; Topol et al. 2001). However, genes that serve critical roles during human fetal development may escape detection. Conversely, disruption of matricellular genes in mice by homologous recombination identified *CCN1*, *CCN2*, and *SMOCl* to be essential for viability (Ivkovic et al. 2003; Mo and Lau 2006; Mo et al. 2002; Okada et al. 2011), but other homozygous null mice were viable, and some initially lacked an obvious phenotype (Bouleftour et al. 2016; Bradshaw 2009; Canalis et al. 2010; Hankenson et al. 2005a, b; Jones and Jones 2000; Kutz et al. 2005; Midwood and Orend 2009; Svensson et al. 2002). In some cases, important gene functions have been revealed when these mice were subjected to specific stresses (Calabro et al. 2014; Kim et al. 2018; Murphy-Ullrich and Sage 2014; Roberts et al. 2012; Soto-Pantoja et al. 2015; Stenina-Adognravi and Plow 2019).

Disruption of *Thbs1*, encoding thrombospondin-1 in mice, yielded viable mice that were fertile and appeared healthy except for lung inflammation (Lawler et al. 1998).

The lung inflammation may relate to exposure to a specific pathogen because the lung phenotype was lost when the mice were rederived in a different vivarium (Isenberg et al. 2008a). Subsequent studies identified beneficial as well as detrimental effects of *Thbs1* gene disruption on the ability of mice to survive exposure to specific pathogens or respond to a variety of physiological stresses (Arun et al. 2020; Martin-Manso et al. 2012; McMaken et al. 2011; Qu et al. 2018; Soto-Pantoja et al. 2015; Zhao et al. 2015). These studies illustrate how gene functions can be influenced by the environmental context. Such environmental stresses that could reveal important adaptive functions of matricellular protein genes may be absent in the highly controlled environment of a laboratory vivarium.

Despite our ability to control our environment, the ability to survive numerous environmental stresses including acute injuries and ongoing exposures to endemic and novel pathogens has played an important role in human evolution. Genetic diversity is critical for the long-term survival of any species facing such unpredictable challenges, and identifying relevant variations in specific genes is one goal of population genetics. The Exome Aggregation Consortium (ExAC) assembled a data set containing variant calls across 60,706 human exomes to globally examine the prevalence of missense and predicted loss of function (LoF) mutations (Lek et al. 2016). Known and previously unrecognized essential genes were identified by having significantly fewer LoF mutations than expected. This genomic variation data was expanded to include 141,456 individuals in the Genome Aggregation Database (gnomAD), which currently includes 125,748 deep-sequenced exomes and 15,701 full genome sequences from unrelated individuals (Karczewski et al. 2020). Individuals with severe pediatric genetic diseases and their first-degree relatives were excluded to better reflect the incidence of recessive disease-causing alleles. Here we analyzed gnomAD v2.1.1 data to examine the rates of missense and predicted LoF mutations in several families of matricellular protein genes. Focusing on gene families that include several paralogs provided useful controls because the expected frequencies of LoF mutants depends in part on the length of their coding regions (Lek et al. 2016).

Materials and methods

Data for missense and LoF mutants in genes that encode human matricellular proteins was accessed and analyzed using the ExAC browser (<http://exac.broadinstitute.org>) and, subsequently, the Genome Aggregation Database (gnomAD, <https://gnomad.broadinstitute.org>) (Karczewski et al. 2020; Lek et al. 2016). Mouse knockout phenotypes were obtained from mousephenotype.org or <http://www.informatics.jax.org/> (Bult et al. 2019) and published studies where indicated.

Data for clinical associations with variants in human genes was obtained from ClinVar (<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/clinvar/>).

Results

Variation in the frequencies of LoF mutations in the thrombospondin gene family

Previous studies demonstrated that mice with homozygous LoF mutants in any single *THBS* family gene are viable (Frolova et al. 2010; Hankenson et al. 2005a, b; Lawler et al. 1998; Svensson et al. 2002). Characterization of strains bearing multiple *THBS* gene knockouts indicated minimal functional cross-compensation between the five *THBS* genes (Posey et al. 2008). In contrast, the ExAC data from 60,706 individuals and the expanded human gnomAD dataset representing 141,456 individuals showed deficits in the observed versus expected numbers of individuals with LoF mutants for *THBS1* and *THBS2* (Table 1). The pLI for *THBS1* was 1.00 in both datasets, indicating this gene to be highly loss intolerant. None of the individuals with *THBS1* LoF mutant

alleles were homozygotes. *THBS2* also showed substantial loss intolerance, whereas the numbers of observed LoF mutants in *THBS3*, *THBS4*, and *COMP* did not differ significantly from the expected numbers. None of the *THBS2*, *THBS3*, or *COMP* LoF mutants were homozygous, whereas the *THBS4* mutants in two individuals were homozygous frameshifts (p.Thr915GlnfsTer and p.Thr915GlnfsTer).

LoF mutations in the *SPARC* gene family

Among the *Sparc* gene family members in mice, only *Smoc1* is essential for viability based on studies of homozygous null mice (Okada et al. 2011). Homozygous nonsense and splice mutants in murine *Smoc1* recapitulated the features of the *SMOC1*-dependent human autosomal-recessive disorder microphthalmia with limb anomalies (Waardenburg Anophthalmia syndrome), and mice bearing these mutations died shortly after birth. Despite being essential for normal ocular and limb development in mice and humans (Okada et al. 2011; Rainger et al. 2011), *SMOC1* did not show a significant pLI in humans (Table 2). One caveat in interpreting this result is that the number of expected LoF mutants for *SPARC* family genes is smaller than for the *THBS* family because the

Table 1 LoF mutants in the thrombospondin gene family

Gene	ORF (kb)	Expected LoF mutants	Observed LoF mutants	Observed/expected (90% range)	pLI	Null mouse phenotype
<i>THBS1</i>	3.5	56	7	0.13 (0.07–0.23)	1.00	viable
<i>THBS2</i>	3.5	59.5	13	0.22 (0.14–0.35)	0.56	viable
<i>THBS3</i>	2.9	57.4	41	0.71 (0.56–0.93)	0.0	viable
<i>THBS4</i>	2.9	51.6	36	0.7 (0.53–0.92)	0.0	viable
<i>COMP</i>	2.3	39.5	21	0.53 (0.38–0.77)	0.0	viable

Observed numbers of LoF mutants identified based on exome sequencing from 141,456 individuals in the Genome Aggregation Database (v2.1.1) were used to calculate the probability the indicated genes are loss-intolerant (pLI) as described (Karczewski et al. 2020; Lek et al. 2016). Where multiple isoforms exist, ORF length is presented for isoform 1 except where noted. Null mouse viability phenotypes are from <http://www.informatics.jax.org/> (Bult et al. 2019).

Table 2 LoF mutations in the *SPARC* gene family

Gene	ORF (kb)	Expected LoF mutants	Observed LoF mutants	Observed/expected (90% range)	pLI	Null mouse phenotype
<i>SPARC</i>	0.9	16	2	0.12 (0.05–0.39)	0.89	Viable
<i>SPARCL1</i>	2.0	28.8	19	0.66 (0.46–0.97)	0.0	Viable
<i>SPOCK1</i>	1.3	23.4	4	0.17 (0.08–0.39)	0.83	Viable
<i>SPOCK2</i>	1.3 ^b	24.9	6	0.24 (0.13–0.47)	0.24	Pending ^a
<i>SPOCK3</i>	1.3 ^b	25.4	8	0.32 (0.18–0.57)	0.01	Viable
<i>SMOC1</i>	1.3	24.4	8	0.33 (0.19–0.59)	0.01	Neonatal lethal
<i>SMOC2</i>	1.4	25.3	9	0.36 (0.21–0.62)	0.0	Viable

^aMouse registered but phenotype not currently available at www.mousephenotype.org

^bIsoform 2

former have much shorter coding regions. Because the 90% confidence range for all of the *SPOCK* and *SMOC* paralogs extends to significant observed/expected LoF ratios, future availability of exome data for a larger human population will be required to confirm or exclude significant pLI values for any of these genes.

Despite being nonessential for development in mice (Gilmour et al. 1998; Roll et al. 2006), *SPARC* and *SPOCK1* had high pLI values in the human data (Table 2). Humans lacking *SPARC* have not been reported to date, but missense mutations in *SPARC* cause osteogenesis imperfecta, type XVII (Mendoza-Londono et al. 2015). Most studies of *SPARC* in humans have focused on its role in various cancers and their metastatic spread (Nagaraju et al. 2014). Abnormalities in *Sparc* null mice include cataract formation and rupture of the lens capsule in the eye, severe osteopenia, and accelerated closure of dermal wounds (Bradshaw 2009; Gilmour et al. 1998).

Humans lacking *SPOCK1* have not been reported to date, but a missense mutation in *SPOCK1* (p.D80V) was identified in a patient with developmental delay, agenesis of the corpus callosum, and microcephaly (Dhamija et al. 2014). *SPOCK1* encodes the proteoglycan testican-1, which is involved in neurogenesis and epithelial-to-mesenchymal transition (Roll et al. 2006; Sun et al. 2020). The lack of obvious abnormalities in *Spock1* null mice may be due to functional redundancies that were reported with testican-2 (*Spock2*) and testican-3 (*Spock3*) (Roll et al. 2006).

LoF mutations in the *CCN* gene family

CCN1 was the only member of the *CCN* gene family with an elevated pLI (Table 3). This is consistent with the embryonic and perinatal lethal phenotype of a homozygous *Ccn1* LoF mutant in mice (Mo and Lau 2006; Mo et al. 2002). As with the *SPARC* family, the relatively short coding sequences of *CCN* genes may require exome data from a larger population to reliably confirm or exclude intolerance to LoF, especially for *CCN3* and *CCN6* where the 90% range for observed/expected LoF mutants extends below the standard 0.3 pLI threshold. Loss of *Ccn2* limits viability in mice based on its

roles in bone and lung development (Baguma-Nibasheka and Kablar 2008; Ivkovic et al. 2003; Kawaki et al. 2008). None of the coding variations for *CCN2* currently in ClinVar have a known clinical relevance, but analysis of additional exomes may determine whether human functions of *CCN2* parallel those identified in the null mice. Three siblings diagnosed with early-onset parkinsonism were homozygous for a p.D82G mutation in *CCN3* (Bentley et al. 2020), which suggests a pathophysiological function that would not be detected by this LoF screen. The same mutation occurred once as a heterozygous variant in the gnomAD dataset (Karczewski et al. 2020; Lek et al. 2016).

Previous studies indicated that the phenotypes associated with LoF mutants in *CCN6* diverge between humans and mice (Kutz et al. 2005). Inactivating mutations in human *CCN6* cause an autosomal recessive skeletal disorder, progressive pseudorheumatoid dysplasia (Hurvitz et al. 1999), whereas comparable mutants of *Ccn6* in mice had no skeletal phenotype (Kutz et al. 2005). In humans with pseudorheumatoid dysplasia, a nonsense variant of *CCN6* was always in cis with a G83E missense allele (Supplemental Table 20 in (Lek et al. 2016)).

LoF mutations in the tenascin gene family

TNR was the only member of the tenascin gene family with an elevated pLI (Table 4). Because *Tnr* null mice are viable, and the associated null phenotypes involve altered cognitive functions (Weber et al. 1999), the rationale for a deficit in LoF mutants in humans is unclear. Tenascin-R is primarily expressed in the central nervous system, and homozygous deletion of *TNR* was found in a patient with intellectual disability (Dufresne et al. 2012). The SNV rs6686722 in *TNR* was associated with attention deficit hyperactivity disorder in a hypothesis-free genome-wide association study (Hawi et al. 2018).

LoF mutations in the *SIBLING* gene family

None of the *SIBLING* family genes are essential for viability in mice, and reported disease-associated mutations in

Table 3 LoF mutations in the *CCN* gene family

Gene	ORF (kb)	Expected LoF mutants	Observed LoF mutants	Observed/expected (90% range)	pLI	Null mouse phenotype
<i>CCN1</i> (Cyr61)	1.1	17.2	3	0.17 (0.08–0.45)	0.71	Embryonic or perinatal lethal
<i>CCN2</i> (CTGF)	1.0	12.4	7	0.56 (0.32–1.06)	0.0	Perinatal lethal
<i>CCN3</i> (NOV)	1.1	14.7	6	0.41 (0.22–0.81)	0.01	Viable
<i>CCN4</i> (WISP1)	1.1	17.3	12	0.69 (0.44–1.13)	0.0	Viable
<i>CCN5</i> (WISP2)	0.8	9.8	8	0.82 (0.48–1.46)	0.0	Viable
<i>CCN6</i> (WISP3)	1.2	17.1	8	0.47 (0.27–0.84)	0.0	Viable

Table 4 LoF mutations in tenascins

Gene	ORF (kb)	Expected LoF mutants	Observed LoF mutants	Observed/expected (90% range)	pLI	Null mouse phenotype
<i>TNC</i>	6.6	91.4	30	0.33 (0.24–0.45)	0.00	Viable
<i>TNXB</i>	2.0 ^b	21.8	7	0.32 (0.18–0.6)	0.02	Viable
<i>TNN</i>	3.9	59.6	49	0.82 (0.65–1.04)	0.00	Pending*
<i>TNR</i>	4.1	72.4	16	0.22 (0.15–0.34)	0.52	Viable

*Mouse registered but phenotype not currently available at www.mousephenotype.org

^bIsoform 2

humans generally have postnatal effects (Bouleftour et al. 2016; Staines et al. 2012). Correspondingly, elevated pLI values were not found for these genes in the gnomAD data (Table 5). Mutations in *DMP1* cause autosomal recessive hypophosphatemic rickets, type 1 and osteomalacia (Feng et al. 2006; Lorenz-Depiereux et al. 2006). Mutations in *DSPP* are associated with dentinogenesis imperfecta and dentin dysplasia (Song et al. 2008; Zhang et al. 2001).

Distribution and frequencies of missense mutations in *THBS* family genes

In the ExAC data, deficits in LoF mutants positively correlated with deficits in missense SNVs (Lek et al. 2016). Consistent with this global correlation and the pLI data in Table 1, *THBS1* had the highest Z-score in the thrombospondin gene family for observed/expected missense mutants in the gnomAD data, and *THBS2* was the second highest (Table 6). Notably, all members of the *THBS* family had deficits in observed versus expected missense SNVs that exceeded the 90% range.

The frequency of missense variants across the *THBS1* coding sequence is presented in Fig. 1. One of the most frequent variants is at N700. The N700S variant was associated with increased risk for early myocardial infarction (Topol et al. 2001), and biochemical studies established that this variant decreases the affinity for calcium binding (Stenina et al. 2005) and destabilizes the protein (Carlson et al. 2008). In addition to altering the secretion or stability of

thrombospondin-1, missense mutations could interfere with its interactions with other proteins that mediate its functions, including multiple cell surface receptors (Resovi et al. 2014). Except for more frequent variations at G454 and R517 in sequences identified to be recognized by CD36 (Dawson et al. 1997; Tolsma et al. 1993), all variations in sequences previously implicated in interactions of thrombospondin-1 with its integrin and non-integrin receptors (Calzada and Roberts 2005) occurred at frequencies $< 10^{-4}$. Furthermore, the frequencies of rare variants in these sequences were similar to those for SNVs occurring throughout the coding sequence. Therefore, the frequency of missense SNVs in these putative functional sequences is insufficient to infer protection of specific receptor binding sites.

Missense SNV frequencies in other matricellular gene families

The loss-intolerant SPARC family members *SPARC* and *SPOCK1* also had elevated Z-scores for deficits in missense SNVs (Table 6). As noted previously, missense mutations in *SPARC* (E263K, R166H) cause osteogenesis imperfecta, type XVII (Mendoza-Londono et al. 2015), and a p.D80V missense mutation in *SPOCK1* was associated with developmental delay, agenesis of the corpus callosum, and microcephaly (Dhamija et al. 2014). Only one SPARC p.Arg166His allele (frequency 3.98×10^{-6}) was found in gnomAD. SPARC p.E263K and SPOCK1 p.D80V variants were not found in the gnomAD data. Consistent with *Smoc1*

Table 5 LoF mutations in SIBLING gene family members

Gene	ORF (kb)	Expected LoF mutants	Observed LoF mutants	Observed/expected (90% range)	pLI	Null mouse phenotype
<i>SPP1</i>	0.9	9.7	9	0.93 (0.56–1.59)	0.0	Viable
<i>DMP1</i>	1.5	18.1	13	0.72 (0.47–1.14)	0.0	Viable
<i>DSPP</i>	3.9	17.6	13	0.74 (0.48–1.17)	0.0	Viable
<i>MEPE</i>	1.6	7	4	0.57 (0.28–1.29)	0.01	Viable
<i>IBSP</i>	1.0	17.5	17	0.97 (0.67–1.46)	0.0	Viable

Osteopontin (SPP1), Dentin matrix protein 1 (DMP1), Dentin sialophosphoglycoprotein (DSPP), Matrix extracellular phosphoglycoprotein (MEPE), and Bone sialoprotein (IBSP).

Table 6 Missense mutation frequencies in matricellular protein genes

Gene	Expected missense SNVs	Observed missense SNVs	Observed/expected (90% range)	Z score
<i>THBS1</i>	721.4	516	0.72 (0.67–0.77)	2.72
<i>THBS2</i>	758.7	587	0.77 (0.72–0.83)	2.21
<i>THBS3</i>	574.9	455	0.79 (0.73–0.85)	1.78
<i>THBS4</i>	553.9	474	0.86 (0.79–0.92)	1.21
<i>COMP</i>	454.8	348	0.77 (0.7–0.84)	1.78
<i>SPARC</i>	180.5	139	0.77 (0.67–0.89)	1.10
<i>SPARCLI</i>	340.3	337	0.99 (0.91–1.08)	0.06
<i>SPOCK1</i>	241.7	190	0.79 (0.7–0.89)	1.18
<i>SPOCK2</i>	249	199	0.8 (0.71–0.9)	1.13
<i>SPOCK3</i>	235.9	219	0.93 (0.83–1.04)	0.39
<i>SMOC1</i>	246.8	214	0.87 (0.78–0.97)	0.74
<i>SMOC2</i>	284.5	254	0.89 (0.81–0.99)	0.64
<i>CCN1</i>	216.2	201	0.93 (0.83–1.04)	0.37
<i>CCN2</i>	182.8	163	0.89 (0.78–1.01)	0.52
<i>CCN3</i>	201.3	192	0.95 (0.85–1.07)	0.23
<i>CCN4</i>	245.5	236	0.96 (0.86–1.07)	0.22
<i>CCN5</i>	156.8	144	0.92 (0.8–1.05)	0.36
<i>CCN6</i>	190.2	184	0.97 (0.86–1.09)	0.16
<i>TNC</i>	1287.7	1296	1.01 (0.96–1.05)	-0.08
<i>TNXB</i>	246.9	245	0.99 (0.89–1.1)	0.04
<i>TNN</i>	781.6	824	1.05 (0.99–1.12)	-0.54
<i>TNR</i>	813	685	0.84 (0.79–0.9)	1.60
<i>SPPI</i>	176.5	166	0.94 (0.83–1.07)	0.28
<i>DMP1</i>	267.6	255	0.95 (0.86–1.06)	0.27
<i>DSPP</i>	676.8	596	0.88 (0.82–0.94)	1.10
<i>MEPE</i>	276.8	268	0.97 (0.88–1.07)	0.19
<i>IBSP</i>	173.2	156	0.9 (0.79–1.03)	0.46

Higher positive Z-scores indicate increased selective pressure to limit missense mutations

being essential for viability in mice and potential cross compensation between *SMOC1* and *SMOC2* (DeGroot et al. 2019), *SMOC1* and *SMOC2* had similar moderate deficits in missense SNVs ($Z=0.74$ and 0.64 , respectively).

Among the tenascins, only *TNR* had a deficit in observed versus expected missense SNVs that exceeded the 90% range ($Z=1.60$, Table 6). Several *TNR* missense variants (C155S, T166A, N180H, T592A) were previously linked to familial Parkinson disease, but their pathologic significance remained uncertain (Farlow et al. 2016). The variant p.Cys155Ser occurred in 13 alleles in gnomAD with a frequency of 4.63×10^{-5} , p.Thr166Ala in 1175 alleles (4.2×10^{-3}), p.Asn180His in 1164 alleles (4.12×10^{-3}), and p.Thr592Ala in 53 alleles (1.98×10^{-4}). The high frequencies of these variants raise caution regarding their disease relevance. Missense variants in *TNR* (p.Arg1192Trp, p.Ala397Thr) were also linked to a nonprogressive neurodevelopmental disorder with spasticity and transient opisthotonos, with the former

variant being clinically significant (Wagner et al. 2020). The R1192W variant was not found in the gnomAD data, which supports its role in disease. The A397T variant occurred in 4 alleles with a frequency of 1.59×10^{-5} , suggesting need for further investigation.

In the SIBLING family, only *DSPP* had a deficit in observed versus expected missense SNVs that exceeded the 90% range ($Z=1.10$, Table 6). Multiple deletion and missense mutations in *DSPP* including p.Ala15Val, p.Pro17Thr, p.Val18Phe, and p.Pro19Leu variants result in dentinogenesis imperfecta, deafness, and autosomal dominant non-syndromic sensorineural 39 (de La Dure-Molla et al. 2015; Liang et al. 2019). Among these residues only p.Pro17Ser had a single variant in gnomAD. The occurrence of multiple pathogenesis-associated missense mutations in *DSPP* may account for the overall deficit in mutations in this gene among healthy individuals.

Intolerance to LoF mutations in thrombospondin-1 receptors

The pLI values for known thrombospondin-1 receptors were examined to identify genetic evidence for which receptors mediate critical functions of thrombospondin-1 (Table 7). *CD36* was the first receptor linked to the anti-angiogenic activity of thrombospondin-1 (Dawson et al. 1997), but LoF mutations in *CD36* occurred at 2.8 times the expected rate for this gene (pLI 0.0, Table 7). The elevated frequency of LoF mutations is consistent with prior reports that genetic deficiencies associated with loss of *CD36* expression on red blood cells (Nak^a-negative phenotype) are common in Asian and African populations (Curtis and Aster 1996; Hirano et al. 2003). Type 1 LoF *CD36* mutations in these populations may be related to resistance to malaria (Chilon-gola et al. 2009; Liu et al. 2020), which would provide a rationale for the high number of observed LoF mutants. Conversely, deletion of *CD36* has been linked with cardiovascular disease and to insulin resistance (Miyaoaka et al. 2001; Yuasa-Kawase et al. 2012). These functions of *CD36* may be independent of its role as a thrombospondin-1 receptor, thereby accounting for the divergence of the pLI values for these genes.

CD47 mediates signaling functions of *CD47* in several cell types (Soto-Pantoja et al. 2015). In contrast to *CD36*, *CD47* had a low frequency of LoF mutations and high loss intolerance (pLI=0.92, Table 7). *CD47* is not essential for viability in mice (Lindberg et al. 1996; Soto-Pantoja et al. 2015), and loss of *CD47* expression has only been reported in human red blood cells in the context of mutations in protein 4.2 (*EPB42*) that cause hereditary spherocytosis (Bruce et al. 2002). *CD47* also has an independent function as the counter-receptor of *SIRP α* (Barclay and Van den Berg 2014), and *SIRPA* also had elevated loss-intolerance



Fig. 1 Missense mutations of putative functional sequences in human thrombospondin-1 (P07996). Yellow highlighted regions indicate peptide sequences reported to engage the indicated thrombospondin-1

receptors or ligands. Residues are colored based on variant frequency: no variants (black), $> 10^{-6}$ (blue), $> 10^{-5}$ (green), $> 10^{-4}$ (orange), and 10^{-3} to 10^{-1} (red)

(pLI=0.67, o/e=0.19 (0.09–0.43). Therefore, the basis for loss intolerance in human *CD47* remains unclear, but it is a candidate for playing a significant role in the loss intolerance of *THBS1*. Analysis of the frequency of coding variants in *CD47* revealed only rare variations in residues involved in its interaction with the counter-receptor SIRP α (Hatherley et al. 2008) and those subject to post-translational modifications including the glycosylation required for THBS1-dependent signaling (Kaur et al. 2011) (Fig. 2).

Thrombospondin-1 binding increases the enzymatic activity of the membrane-bound tyrosine phosphatase CD148, encoded by *PTPRJ* (Takahashi et al. 2012). *PTPRJ*

is a tumor suppressor gene, and allelic loss or loss of heterozygosity (LOH) occurs in human sporadic colorectal, lung and breast carcinomas and non-Hodgkin's lymphomas (Aya-Bonilla et al. 2013; Ruivenkamp et al. 2002). Two LoF variants that result in frameshift and insertion of a premature stop codon in *PTPRJ* (g.48131608A > G (c.97-2A > G and g.48158556delG (c.1875delG) are associated with an inherited autosomal recessive thrombocytopenia (Marconi et al. 2019). Consistent with *PtpRJ*-deficient mice being viable, fertile, and without any anatomical abnormalities (Trapasso et al. 2006), *PTPRJ* did not exhibit

Table 7 LoF mutants in genes encoding thrombospondin-1 receptors

Gene	Expected LoF mutants	Observed LoF mutants	Observed/expected (90% range)	pLI	Null mouse phenotype
<i>CD36</i>	23.4	66	2.82 (1.77–2)	0.0	Viable
<i>CD47</i>	16.9	2	0.12 (0.05–0.37)	0.92	Viable
<i>PTPRJ</i> (CD148)	62.4	29	0.46 (0.34–0.63)	0.0	Viable/lethal
<i>CACNA2D1</i> ($\alpha 2\delta 1$)	74.4	11	0.15 (0.09–0.24)	1.00	Viable
<i>STIM1</i>	31.3	6	0.19 (0.1–0.38)	0.78	Peri- and postnatal lethal
<i>LRP1</i>	246.9	8	0.03 (0.02–0.06)	1.00	Embryonic lethal
<i>ITGA3</i>	58.9	22	0.37 (0.27–0.53)	0.0	Perinatal lethal
<i>ITGA4</i>	62.9	19	0.3 (0.21–0.44)	0.0	Embryonic lethal
<i>ITGA6</i>	61.6	23	0.37 (0.27–0.53)	0.0	Perinatal lethal
<i>ITGB1</i>	38.7	6	0.15 (0.08–0.31)	0.98	Embryonic lethal
<i>ITGAV</i>	62.9	19	0.3 (0.21–0.44)	0.0	Viable
<i>ITGB3</i>	37.4	12	0.32 (0.2–0.52)	0.0	Reduced viability

CD47 isoform 1 (NP_001768.1, ENST00000361309.5)

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1 MWPLVAALLL GSACCGSAQL LENKTKSVEF TFCNDTVVIP CFVTNMEAQN TTEVYVKWKF
61 KGRDIYTFDG ALNKSTVPTD FSSAKIEVSQ LLKGDASLKM DKSDAVSHTG NYTCEVTELT
121 REGETIIEELK YRVVSWFSPN ENILIVIFPI FAILLFWGQF GIKTLKYRSG GMDEKTIALL
181 VAGLVITVIV IVGAILFVPG EYSLKNATGL GLIVTSTGIL ILLHYVVFST AIGLTSFVIA
241 ILVIQVIAYI LAVVGLSLCI AACIPMHGPL LISGLSILAL AQLLGLVYMK FVASNQKTIQ
301 PPRKAVEEPL NAFKESKGM NDE

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CD47 Isoform 2 (NP_942088.1, ENST00000355354.7)

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301 PPRNN
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Fig. 2 Missense mutation frequencies in human CD47. Residues involved in SIRP α binding (yellow highlight) generally lack mutations. Residues subject to posttranslational modifications are high-

lighted in gray. Thrombospondin-1 signaling requires posttranslational modification of S⁸² (Kaur et al. 2011)

an elevated pLI (Table 7). Therefore, this interaction is unlikely to account for the loss intolerance of *THBS1*.

The auxiliary subunit of voltage-gated calcium channels $\alpha 2\delta 1$ interacts with several members of the *THBS* gene family that regulate channel function including thrombospondin-1 (Eroglu et al. 2009; Taylor and Harris 2020). The low frequency of LoF for *CACNA2D1* resulted in a pLI of 1.0 (Table 7), which is consistent with clinical pathologies associated with *CACNA2D1* mutations. Missense mutations in the extracellular region of $\alpha 2\delta 1$ at c.2867C > A p.S956T, c.2126 G > A p.S709N, and in the Cache domain (c.1648 G > T p.D550Y) have been associated with early repolarization syndrome (ERS) and inherited Brugada syndrome /J-wave syndromes that cause sudden cardiac death (Burashnikov et al. 2010). Loss of function mutants of *CACNA2D1* were also reported in a patient with Short QT syndrome (Templin et al. 2011) and associated with epilepsy and intellectual disability (Vergult et al. 2015). Because *THBS4* also interacts with and regulates $\alpha 2\delta 1$ but

was not loss intolerant, the relevance of this receptor to the elevated pLI for *THBS1* is unclear.

Stromal interaction molecule (STIM1) is an essential regulator of store-operated Ca²⁺ entry (SOCE) and Ca²⁺ release activated Ca²⁺ (CRAC) channels by binding to *ORAI1* (Feske 2010). In addition to its intracellular roles in calcium signaling, some STIM1 is on the cell surface and interacts with thrombospondin-1 (Ambily et al. 2014; Duquette et al. 2014). *STIM1* had a deficit in LoF mutations that indicates loss intolerance (pLI = 0.78, Table 7), which is consistent with the perinatal lethality of the null mouse (Varga-Szabo et al. 2008). LoF mutations in human *STIM1* and *ORAI1* abolished CRAC and SOCE channel currents and are associated with severe combined immunodeficiency, congenital myopathy, and anhydrotic ectodermal dysplasia (Feske 2010; Lacruz and Feske 2015). Therefore, *STIM1* is also a candidate to play a role in the loss intolerance of *THBS1*.

Low density lipoprotein receptor-related protein 1 (LRP1) is a scavenger receptor that mediates endocytosis of multiple ligands including lipoproteins and Thrombospondin-1 (Gonias et al. 2004). LRP1 modulates downstream intracellular signaling controlling cell survival associated with tissue remodeling in response to injury via a thrombospondin-1-calreticulin complex (Pallero et al. 2008). LoF mutations in *LRP1* were rare, indicating a high degree of loss intolerance (pLI = 1.0, Table 7), consistent with the embryonic lethal phenotype of *Lrp1* null mice at embryonic implantation (Herz et al. 1992). The promiscuity of this receptor precludes assessment of its relevance to the loss intolerance of *THBS1*.

Several integrin heterodimers act as thrombospondin-1 receptors including $\alpha 3\beta 1$, $\alpha 4\beta 1$, $\alpha 6\beta 1$, and $\alpha v\beta 3$ (Calzada and Roberts 2005; Resovi et al. 2014). Of the genes encoding their respective subunits, only *ITGB1* showed an elevated (pLI = 0.98, Table 7). Although *Itgb1* is essential for embryonic development in mice, the role of $\beta 1$ -integrins as receptors for multiple ECM proteins including members of the THBS, CCN, and tenascin families precludes assigning a specific role for any individual integrin in the loss intolerance for *THBS1* (Humphries et al. 2006).

Discussion

The elevated pLI values observed for several matricellular protein genes infer that LoF mutations in those genes confers a significant survival or reproductive disadvantage in humans (Lek et al. 2016). When homozygous knockout of the murine ortholog indicates an essential role in development, as reported for *CCN1*, loss-intolerance for the human gene is consistent with a similar role in human embryonic development. On the other hand, loss-intolerant matricellular genes such as *THBS1*, *THBS2*, *SPARC*, *SPOCK1*, and *TNR* that are not essential for murine embryonic development may have critical roles in human postnatal survival or in adult reproductive function. In the case of *THBS1*, the selective pressure to maintain this gene may have more than one origin. Studies in mice and primates indicated specific roles for *Thbs1* in reproduction (Bender et al. 2019; Greenaway et al. 2007) and in the ability of adult mice, rats and pigs to repair dermal wounds and survive exposure to ischemic injuries or genotoxic stress (Isenberg et al. 2007, 2008a, b; Soto-Pantoja et al. 2015). Loss of *Thbs1* in mice also alters their survival following exposure to several pathogens (Arun et al. 2020; Binsker et al. 2019; Lawler et al. 1998; Martin-Manso et al. 2012; Qu et al. 2018). Loss of *Thbs1* impairs survival for some of these stresses while improving survival or recovery from other stresses. These animal studies suggest that LoF mutants in human *THBS1* could alter the probability of surviving acute injuries and infections, some of

which could lead to a decrease in longevity or success in reproduction. The multiplicity of functions for thrombospondin-1 and other matricellular proteins suggests that no single function will account for the selection against individuals carrying LoF or missense mutants.

Although the expectation–maximization algorithm used in calculating the pLI values compensates for the influence of coding sequence length on the expected number of LoF mutants, genes with longer coding sequences remain more likely to achieve a significant pLI at a given sample number (Lek et al. 2016). Therefore, the predictions of loss-intolerance are more reliable for the thrombospondin and tenascin family members with longer ORFs than for CCN or SIBLING family genes. Despite this limitation, the *CCN1* data demonstrated loss-intolerance in humans, as expected based on its essential role in mouse embryonic development (Mo and Lau 2006; Mo et al. 2002). Additional factors including the breadth of tissue expression also correlate broadly with obtaining an elevated pLI (Lek et al. 2016), suggesting that matricellular genes with more restricted tissue expression or organ-specific essential functions are less likely to be detected in the gnomAD data. Temporal differences in the expression of matricellular proteins may also be a factor, as was documented for *THBS1* versus *THBS2* during dermal wound repair (Agah et al. 2002).

Significant loss intolerance was not demonstrated for some of the genes with shorter ORFs such as *SMOC1*, but the 90% confidence range extended beyond the cutoff for significant loss-intolerance, consistent with its essential role in murine embryonic development and other evidence that *SMOC1* plays an important role in human embryonic development (Okada et al. 2011; Rainger et al. 2011). As the number of available human genomes in gnomAD increases, additional matricellular genes may be identified to be significantly LoF-intolerant.

The overall deficit in missense mutations in *THBS1* and *THBS2* are consistent with selection pressures to maintain the functional integrity of these proteins. However, the distribution of missense mutations in *THBS1* did not clearly identify specific residues or regions of the protein that mediate these functions beyond those residues previously identified through genome-wide association studies linking one polymorphism in *THBS1* with cardiovascular disease. In contrast, multiple residues in *DSPP* that are subject to disease-causing missense mutations were invariant in the gnomAD data. Thus, another use for this broad population data is to validate the absence of previously identified disease-causing mutations in a large healthy population. Further analyses of missense mutations in other matricellular genes may also provide insights into specific interactions that mediate functional roles of these proteins in human development and disease.

Recent advances in understanding the complex effects of LoF mutations on gene regulation may help explain the observed divergence between pLI values for human matricellular protein genes such as *THBS1*, *SMOC1* and *CCN2* and the viability of mice bearing LoF mutants in the corresponding murine orthologs. One advantage of the gnomAD LoF analysis over the knockout mouse studies is that pLI values are derived from multiple independent LoF mutants in each human gene, whereas the mouse phenotypes are typically based on a single gene knockout strategy. Gene knockout strategies can have unanticipated effects that extend beyond the targeted gene. As was reported for *Thbs3* in mice, matricellular gene regulation may involve elements located within an adjacent essential gene (Collins et al. 1998). Using different methods to inactivate a gene can also result in contradictory phenotypes by triggering compensatory responses including transcriptional adaptation (Kontarakis and Stainier 2020). A subset of mutations causing premature transcript termination can result in gain of function rather than LoF alleles (Coban-Akdemir et al. 2018). An analysis of the ExAC data using an algorithm to predict such dominant gain of function alleles did not identify potential gain of function alleles for *THBS1*, *SMOC1* and *CCN2* (Coban-Akdemir et al. 2018). However, potential gain of function alleles were identified for *DMP1* and *DSPP* in the ExAC data (Supplemental Table 4 in Coban-Akdemir et al. 2018). Based on these data, clinically relevant gain of function mutants in *SIBLING* family genes should be further investigated.

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Compliance with ethical standards

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