ConVarT: a search tool for orthologous variants:

A method and server for functional inference of human genetic variants

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Abstract

The availability of genetic variations, together with phenotypic annotations from model organisms,

facilitates comparing these variants with equivalent variants. However, existing databases and

search tools do not make it easy to scan for equivalent variants, namely "orthologous variants,"

between humans and other organisms. Therefore, we developed an integrated search engine called

ConVarT (http://www.convart.org/) for orthologous variants between humans, mice, and *C.

elegans*. ConVarT incorporates annotations (including phenotypic and pathogenic) into variants,

and these previously unexploited phenotypic OrthoVars from mice and *C. elegans* can give clues

about the functional consequence of human genetic variants. Our analysis shows that many

phenotypic variants in different genes from mice and *C. elegans*, so far, have no counterparts in

humans, and thus, can be useful resources when evaluating a relationship between a new human

mutation and a disease.

Graphical Abstract

Introduction

The progress of the genomics field is accelerating with the aid of next-generation sequencing technologies, most recently exemplified by the launch of the Exome Aggregation Consortium (ExAC) and Genome Aggregation Database (gnomAD). These genomic databases were gathered from more than 140,000 randomly selected individuals, providing large-scale collections of human genetic variants (Lek et al. 2016; Karczewski et al. 2020). Humans possess over 400 million genetic variants in the protein-encoding and non-protein-coding regions of the genome. However, the growing number of human genetic variants does not automatically mean that our understanding of the functional effects of these variants concurrently increases (Taliun et al. 2019). Due to their clinical importance, functional consequences are only available for a handful of genetic variants, while biological impacts are unavailable for most human genetic variants (Shendure and Akey 2015). The biological understanding of these genetic variants is crucial to diagnose diseases better and make therapeutic decisions regarding diseases, particularly noting each variant's especially discerning contribution to rare and complex diseases.

New Approach

Though examining the functional effects of variants is an efficient strategy for categorizing them as being either pathological or benign, a considerable workload and financial demand are limiting factors for such experimental efforts (Hieter and Boycott 2014; Yamamoto et al. 2014; McGurk et al. 2015; Chao et al. 2017; Wang et al. 2017). In this regard, model organisms are regularly used to examine the functional influence of clinically relevant variants, but unprecedented quantities of variant and phenotype data from model organisms largely go unnoticed. We assume that when a conserved amino acid undergoes an intolerable change in non-human species, as observed with phenotype-changing variants, human-equivalent variants will likely disrupt the function of genes

in humans. The basis for this claim is that the function of proteins is likely to be compromised

when the positions of highly conserved amino acids are altered (Vaser et al. 2016). Despite various

orthology available search, there is no existing search engine that: 1) allows users to scan for

equivalent variants between human and non-human species; 2) incorporates available

experimental data from model organisms into corresponding variant positions; and 3) enables users

to submit the empirical variant data (Kasprzyk 2011; Powell et al. 2014; Altenhoff et al. 2015;

Linard et al. 2015; Sonnhammer and Östlund 2015).

Here, we develop an integrated search tool and database called ConVarT (**Con**served clinical

Variation Visualization **T**ool) to search for equivalent variants (pathological, phenotypic, among

others) between human and non-human species. As a proof of concept, we matched amino acid-

changing variants from humans with variants from mice and the nematode *Caenorhabditis elegans*

and generated a list of equivalent variants called orthologous variants (OrthoVar) between human

and mice or *C. elegans*. Furthermore, we integrated available annotations (pathological,

phenotypic, among others) for variants into the database, typically making it easy for users to

search for OrthoVars with phenotypic data. Our comprehensive database may help deduce the

biological relevance of human variants from OrthoVars associated with functional data.

ConVarT: a search tool for "orthologous variants"

The availability of organism-specific databases (WormBase for *C. elegans* and Mutagenetix for

mice) containing non-naturally occurring variants and phenotype data for *C. elegans* and mice

enables us to equate them with human genetic variants from gnomAD, Clinical Variants (ClinVar),

COSMIC, and dbSNP **(Figure 1)** (Sherry et al. 1999; Wang et al. 2015; Harris et al. 2019; Tate et

al. 2019; Karczewski et al. 2020; Landrum et al. 2020). We initially derived the human gene

orthologs for *M. musculus* and *C. elegans*. We then collected amino acid-changing variants from

gnomAD, ClinVar, COSMIC, and dbSNP for humans, from WormBase for *C. elegans*, and from

the Australian Phenome Bank and Mutagenetix for mice. gnomAD describes over 16,179,380

variations, while the ClinVar database deposits over 500,000 variants, including pathogenic and

benign variants (Karczewski et al. 2020; Landrum et al. 2020). COSMIC and dbSNP contain over

6,842,627 variations and 1,086,546 variations, respectively (Sherry et al. 1999; Tate et al. 2019).

Our analysis revealed that gnomAD, ClinVar, COSMIC, and dbSNP have identical and non-

identical variants (**Figure 2A)**. Mutagenetix and WormBase present almost 800,000 variants from

these organisms (Wang et al. 2015; Harris et al. 2019). To compare human variants with those

from mice and *C. elegans*, we matched the protein sequences of the ortholog genes, followed by

extensive multiple sequence alignments (MSAs) of these protein sequences to ensure alignment of

the corresponding amino acid positions. The schematic workflow of ConVarT is presented in

Figure 1. We then integrated genetic variants and variant-specific annotations (such as

pathogenicity, phenotypes, and allele frequency) from humans, mice, and *C. elegans* into

corresponding amino acid positions in each gene. We restricted our comparisons to amino acid-

changing variants, as amino acids are more conserved than non-amino acid-changing variants, and

protein function is likely to be affected by an alteration in the corresponding amino acids. For

visualization of MSAs together with variants from humans, mice, and *C. elegans*, we used in-

house software (Torun F&Bilgin H et al. Manuscript in preparation). Previous studies revealed

that many human variants overlap with amino acids undergoing post-translational modifications

(PTMs) and are enriched at the protein domains. Therefore, Pfam protein domains for humans and

383k PTMs from PhosphoSitePlus were systematically integrated into corresponding positions

(Bateman 2004; Hornbeck et al. 2015).

Our analysis revealed that many equivalent amino acid substitutions exist between humans and

these two organisms (**Figure 2B**). For example, both human AP1M1 and *C. elegans* UNC-101,

the orthologue of AP1M1, have the identical residue change at the corresponding positions

(Human NP_001123996.1: p.P375S, Variant ID: rs1490425955 vs *C. elegans* NP_001040675:

p.P362S, Variant ID: WBVar00679460). We have named these equivalent variations "orthologous

variants" (OrthoVars) (**Figure 2B, and Table S1, S2**). For a variant to be considered an OrthoVar,

the amino acid residue at the corresponding positions must be conserved between the human gene

and the ortholog gene. The Materials and Methods provides a detailed explanation. There are

50430 OrthoVars between humans and mice, while the number of OrthoVars between humans and

C. elegans is 42614 (**Figure 2B, and Table S1, S2**). Finally, to make the OrthoVars available to

the community, we created a web-based search engine and database called ConVarT

(http://www.convart.org/) to facilitate consistent and rapid visualization of OrthoVars and variant

annotations on MSAs together with human PTMs and protein domains. ConVarT reduces the time

needed to find the phenotypic and unknown significance of OrthoVars in the genomes of three

organisms from hours to seconds.

Usage of ConVarT to predict the functional effects of variants in disease analysis

Disease-causing variants are annotated as pathogenic in humans, whereas variants with phenotypic

annotations in non-human species indicate disease-like conditions for them. Both types of

annotations represent the disruption of the protein function, suggesting that the effect of mutations

on protein in human and non-human species is similar. Expectedly, compared to the fraction of

phenotypic OrthoVars coinciding with benign variants of ClinVar, the proportion of phenotypic

OrthoVars of *C. elegans* overlapping with pathogenic variants of ClinVar is calculated to be

significantly higher ($p < 0.0001$; Chi-square χ^2 test), which is consistent with the equality of

pathogenic with phenotypic variants. For phenotypic OrthoVars from mice, the mouse phenotypic

OrthoVars/ClinVar pathogenic variants ratio is slightly higher than the ratio of the mouse

phenotypic OrthoVars/ClinVar benign variants ($p < 0.05$; χ^2 test) (**Figure 2C and 2D**). ConVarT

can serve researchers and human geneticists in several ways. First, they can assess whether variants

of interest from humans currently have OrthoVars already associated with the phenotype in the

mice or *C. elegans,* potentially adding a new layer of support to their study. For example, the

OrthoVar p.G368E (allele name n4435 and NP_495455) in *C. elegans* KAT-1 (Human ACAT1)

was identified as phenotypic (short life span) in 2010. The p.G388E variant (NP 000010) in human

ACAT1 was pathogenic seven years later, resulting in human acetyl-CoA acetyltransferase

deficiency (Berdichevsky et al. 2010; Paquay et al. 2017). We presented all the phenotypic OrthoVars

of mice and *C. elegans*, overlapping with pathogenic and other variants in ClinVar, COSMIC,

dbSNP, and gnomAD (**Figure 2E, F, G, H, I and J, and Table S1- S17**). Second, there may

currently be no OrthoVars from humans for the phenotypic OrthoVars of the mice or *C. elegans*.

Where there may be the appearance of a new human variant associated with a disease, scientists

and human geneticists may look for the phenotypic OrthoVars in ConVarT, thereby helping to

assign certain variants as being potentially detrimental. Finally, the Million Mutation Project and

Mutagenetix have many strain collections that bear unique OrhoVar mutations. Many of these

mutations are poorly characterized, such as *C. elegans* and mice mutants bearing OrthoVars (*C.*

elegans DYF-18/CDK7 NP_502232: p.P245L and p.R26K; *C. elegans* OSM-3/KIF17

NP_001023308: p.T89I, p.P161L, p.S208L, p.A464T, and p.W572*; Mice Ros1, NP_025412:

p.T220A and p.V2050A; Mice Tg, NP_033401: p.S164G, p.T1555S, and p.C1993R) (**Figure 3A,**

B, C, and D) (Thompson et al. 2013; Wang et al. 2015). Therefore, the functional significance of

these OrthoVars is currently unknown. These mutants can be obtained from the distribution centers

for functional analysis (Thompson et al. 2013; Wang et al. 2015). Researchers can also easily

submit their variants and phenotype data to ConVarT, thereby sharing their phenotypic and variant

data with the community.

Functional inference from phenotypic variants currently with no OrthoVars in humans

Eight missense variants in *C. elegans ben-1* (Human *TUBB4B*) encoding tubulin beta chain

(NP_497728: p.E69G, p.Q131L, p.S145F, p.S145F, p.A185P, p.F200Y, p.M257I, and p.D404N)

were implicated in displaying resistance to benzimidazole (BZ) and were labeled as putative loss-

of-function (LoF) variants (Hahnel et al. 2018; Kitchen et al. 2019) (**Figure 3E**). We found that

C. elegans missense residues were conserved in humans and mice, except for p.F200. Next, we

investigated whether these conserved residues had OrthoVars in humans, which revealed no

OrthoVars for p.E69G, p.Q131L, p.S145F, p.A185P, and p.D404N in humans. This result

suggested that these variants were under negative selection in the human population, potentially

due to their detrimental effects. All these variants were consistently predicted to be deleterious by

SIFT (**Table S3**). However, p.M257I and p.F167Y in C. elegans ben-1 (NP_497728) are the

OrthoVars of p.M257I and p.F167Y (variant IDs: COSM3929966 and COSM6451925) in human

TUBB4B (NP_006079.1), respectively, predicted to be pathogenic by the FATHMM (**Figure 3E**)

(Tate et al. 2019). Indeed, Indeed, the absence of the p.M257I and p.F167Y mutations in human

TUBB4B in gnomAD and TopMed suggests that they were likely negatively selected. This data

indicates that the experimental data already available from *C. elegans* and mice may provide

additional evidence to deduce the functional implication of human variants together with allele

frequency.

Conclusion

ConVarT is a search tool for OrthoVars and a database comparably displaying the pathogenic or phenotypic and unknown significance of variants from humans, mice, and *C. elegans.* ConVarT was designed to expand and include variants from other organisms, such as Zebrafish and Drosophila. The model organism community can easily submit new variant data and expand ConVarT to become an open platform for exchanging information about new OrhoVars, thereby aiding the presentation of empirical evidence from model organisms for the functional inference of human variants.

Material and Methods

Materials and methods are available in the supplementary file.

Code availability

All codes used for generating data, websites, and figures are accessible from https://github.com/thekaplanlab.

Figure 1: The schematic flow of ConVarT, a search tool for orthologous variants – Gene

orthology was determined, followed by MSAs and the incorporation of human variants from

gnomAD, ClinVar, COSMIC and dbSNP, and variants from the Australian Phenome Bank (Mice),

Mutagenetix (Mice) and WormBase (*C. elegans*). Human PTMs and human protein domains are

integrated for co-visualization with the MSA and variants.

Figure 2: Orthologous variants among human, mice, and *C. elegans* – **A)** Venn diagram

showing the number of overlapping and non-overlapping variants between gnomAD, ClinVar,

COSMIC, and dbSNP **B)** the total number of OrthoVars with phenotypes and unknown

significance from mice and *C. elegans* were displayed in the two distinct Venn diagrams. **C), D),**

Bar plots display the fraction of phenotypic or unknown significance of OrthoVars from mouse

and *C. elegans* with either ClinVar pathogenic or benign variants. A statistically significant

difference between two proportions was displayed for mouse and *C. elegans.* χ2= Chi Square **E),**

F) G), H, I and J) Bar plots display comparisons of phenotypic and unknown OrthoVars from

mice and *C. elegans* (percentage) with a range of human variants databases ClinVar, COSMIC,

gnomAD, and dbSNP. N: number of OrthoVars between human, mice or *C. elegans*.

Figure 3: Distribution of orthologous and pathological/phenotypic variants per gene –

Graphical representations of data (lollipop plots) exhibits pathological/phenotypic, orthologous,

variants of unknown significance, and benign or likely benign variants (annotated amino acid

changes) at their corresponding positions per gene. The length of each protein is shown, together

with specific functional protein domains (different colors). Protein IDs and gene names are

displayed next to the plots. **A), C), and E)** Comparison of *C. elegans* genes with human

counterparts. In Figure 3A, different colors for the asterisk reflect OrthoVars among humans and

C. elegans. **B) and D)** Mice and human genes are displayed.

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Author Contributions

O.I.K. and S.C originated project

H.I.B., F.M.T., and M.S.P. generated MSA data and collected variants

F.M.T. generated the homology table

H.B., F.T., A.S. and F.C. designed and developed web application

M.S.P. analyzed the data and generated Figure 2 and 3 and supplemental tables and figures

P.Z and Y. K. provided reagents.

O.I.K. directed the work of H.B., F.M.T., M.S.P., A.S. and F.C. and wrote the original draft

Footnotes

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3