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**Title:** ELN and FBN2 gene variants as risk factors for two sports-related musculoskeletal injuries

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1 ***ELN* and *FBN2* gene variants as risk factors for two sports related musculoskeletal**  
2 **injuries**

3 **Abstract**

4 The *ELN* and *FBN2* proteins are important in extracellular matrix function. The *ELN*  
5 rs2071307 and *FBN2* rs331079 gene variants have been associated with soft tissue  
6 pathologies. We aimed to determine whether these variants were predisposing factors for  
7 both Achilles tendinopathy (AT) and anterior cruciate ligament (ACL) ruptures.

8 For the AT study, 135 cases (TEN group) and 239 asymptomatic controls were recruited.

9 For the ACL rupture study our cohort consisted of 141 cases (ACL group) and 219 controls.

10 Samples were genotyped for both the *ELN* rs2071307 and *FBN2* rs331079 variants using  
11 TaqMan assays. Analysis of variance and chi-squared tests were used to determine whether  
12 either variant was associated with AT or ACL rupture with significance set at  $p < 0.05$ .

13 The GG genotype of the *FBN2* variant was significantly over-represented within the TEN  
14 group ( $p = 0.035$ ; OR=1.83; 95% CI 1.04–3.25) compared to the CON group. We also found  
15 that the frequency of the G allele was significantly different between the TEN ( $p = 0.017$ ;  
16 OR=1.90; 95% CI 1.11–3.27) and ACL groups ( $p = 0.047$ ; OR=1.76; 95% CI 1.00–3.10)  
17 compared to controls. The *ELN* rs207137 variant was not associated with either AT or ACL  
18 rupture. In conclusion, DNA sequence variation within the *FBN2* gene is associated with both  
19 AT and ACL rupture.

20 **Keywords** Gene; Achilles Tendinopathy; Tendon rupture; Ligament rupture; Injury  
21 prevention.

22

## 23 **Introduction**

24 Injury to the Achilles tendon and the anterior cruciate ligament are severe traumas typically  
25 sustained during sports activities. Achilles tendon injuries, including chronic Achilles  
26 tendinopathy (AT) and acute Achilles tendon rupture, are prevalent within athletic populations  
27 [26]. Indeed, the lifetime incidence of AT is approximately 10% in the general population and  
28 as high as 50% within competitive runners [12]. Chronic AT may be due, in part, to excessive  
29 exposure of the Achilles tendon to acute or repetitive mechanical loading forces experienced  
30 during exercise [15]. Anterior cruciate ligament (ACL) ruptures have low lifetime prevalence  
31 in the general population but have been reported to be nearly 80% among netball players [7].  
32 The most common mechanism of ACL rupture involves a sudden change in an athlete's  
33 direction or rapid deceleration [19]. Both AT and ACL ruptures are complex multifactorial  
34 phenotypes with several intrinsic and extrinsic risk factors. However, the exact aetiology is  
35 not yet fully understood [3].

36 Among the intrinsic risk factors, several genetic sequence variants have been shown to  
37 increase the risk (predispose individuals) to AT and ACL ruptures. Variants within the *TNC*  
38 [3], *MMP3* [29], *GDF5* [23] and *TIMP2* genes [5] are associated with the risk of AT.  
39 Furthermore, variants within the *COL1A1* [22] and *COL12A1* genes [24] have also been  
40 associated with ACL ruptures. Interestingly, a variant within the *COL5A1* gene was found to  
41 be associated with both AT [16] and ACL ruptures [25]. These findings show that both  
42 chronic AT and ACL ruptures have a partial polygenic basis where complex interactions  
43 between genes and the environment are likely to exacerbate the risk of both types of injuries  
44 [3]. All the genes described above encode proteins with either a structural or regulatory role  
45 in maintaining the homeostasis of the soft tissue extracellular matrix (ECM). Therefore, it is  
46 fair to assume that other genes, which code for additional regulatory components of the ECM  
47 might also be candidates for AT and ACL rupture.

48 Elastin (ELN) is an insoluble polymer composed of several tropoelastin molecules covalently  
49 bound to each other by cross-links [31]. ELN proteins contribute to tendon and ligament  
50 elasticity by allowing them to stretch and return to their original state. These proteins have an  
51 important load-bearing role in musculoskeletal tissues and are expressed in places where  
52 mechanical energy is stored [8]. The *ELN* rs2071307 gene variant has been shown to be  
53 associated with other multifactorial conditions of the extracellular matrix, such as aortic  
54 stenosis [6] and aortic aneurysm [33]. Interestingly, the *ELN* rs2071307 variant is located  
55 within exon 20 of the gene and is a non-synonymous SNP. It is predicted to be deleterious  
56 (Queen's University. <http://compbio.cs.queensu.ca/F-SNP/>) since it substitutes a hydrophobic  
57 amino acid glycine with a hydrophilic serine residue (National Center for Biotechnology  
58 Information. <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/projects/SNP/>). This substitution may disrupt the  
59 integrity of the microfibrils rendering them more prone to damage [18] and therefore this  
60 variant may predispose to soft tissue damage during sports performance.

61 Fibrillins are large glycoproteins present in the extracellular matrix of tendons and ligaments  
62 [2]. Both fibrillin-1 (FBN-1) and fibrillin-2 (FBN-2) share high amino acid homology and are  
63 involved in providing strength and flexibility to various soft tissues. FBN-2 is abundant in  
64 elastic tissues, such as tendons and ligaments [35] where it plays an important role in the  
65 assembly of elastic fibres [2]. Mutations within the *FBN2* gene are known to associate with  
66 musculoskeletal pathologies such as congenital contractural arachnodactyly [9].  
67 Furthermore, the rs331079 variant located within intron 7 of the gene (University of Florida.  
68 [www.snpper.chip.org](http://www.snpper.chip.org)) has previously been associated with intracranial aneurysms [32].

69 As both the *FBN2* rs331079 and the *ELN* rs2071307 variants associate with other conditions  
70 related to the extracellular matrix we considered them as possible risk determinants for both  
71 AT and ACL rupture. Accordingly, the aim of this study was to test that hypothesis.

72

## 73 **Material and Methods**

74 One hundred and thirty five (60 Australian (AUS) and 75 South African (SA)) Caucasian  
75 participants with Achilles tendinopathy (TEN group) were recruited to this study from the  
76 Musculoskeletal Research Centre at La Trobe University in Melbourne, and from the Medical  
77 Practice at the Sports Science Institute of South Africa. Furthermore, 239 (143 AUS and 96  
78 SA) asymptomatic Caucasian controls (CON groups) were recruited to this study from  
79 recreational sports clubs within the Melbourne area in Australia, and within the Cape Town  
80 area in South Africa. Chronic AT was clinically diagnosed as described by Mokone et al.[17]  
81 in the first manuscript describing the South African AT cohort. The Australian cohort used the  
82 same clinical diagnosis described by Mokone et al. In addition, diagnosis was confirmed with  
83 soft tissue ultrasound examination in all the AUS and 40 of 75 SA participants. In addition,  
84 141 South African Caucasian participants with surgically diagnosed ACL ruptures (ACL  
85 group) and 219 apparently healthy (CON group), unrelated, physically active, gender  
86 matched South African Caucasian participants without any self-reported history of ligament  
87 or tendon injury were recruited for this study as previously described [22]. Seventy four  
88 participants sustained the injury through a non-contact mechanism and were analysed as a  
89 separate subgroup (NON subgroup).

90 Previous injury data was used as inclusion criteria in the various cohorts analysed. In the  
91 AUS Achilles cohort, the CON group had no history of any tendon injury, whereas in the SA  
92 Achilles cohort, the CON group merely had no previous history of Achilles tendon injuries. In  
93 the case of ACL rupture, the first ACL rupture was documented as the specific inclusion  
94 injury. Therefore, by definition, no participant in the ACL group had a previous ACL rupture

95 None of the participants included in this study had symptoms or signs –of Ehlers-Danlos  
96 syndrome (EDS), hypermobility or benign hypermobility joint syndrome or other monogenic  
97 connective tissue disorders when their medical examinations were reviewed by the medical  
98 practitioner [16,17,34].

99 Physical activity data was recorded for the South African Achilles tendinopathy cohort (SA  
100 CON and SA TEN), but not for the Australian Achilles tendinopathy cohort (AUS CON and  
101 AUS TEN). In addition physical activity data was also recorded for the South African ACL  
102 cohort (SA ACL and SA CON). The data recorded for the SA CON and SA TEN groups  
103 included total years participated in running and high impact sports, as well as hours per week  
104 of participation in the last 2 years. The data reported for the ACL cohort included years of  
105 participation in contact sports, non-contact jumping sports, non-contact non-jumping sports  
106 and skiing sports. Data were collected as previously described [16, 25].

107 Based on our earlier work, this study had a large enough sample size to detect associations  
108 with an OR of 2.0 at  $p < 0.05$  with 80% power [28]. All participants gave informed written  
109 consent, in accordance with the journal's recommendations [10,11], and all completed a  
110 medical and injury history questionnaire. Ethical approval was obtained from the Research  
111 Ethics Committees at the University of Cape Town, South Africa, La Trobe University,  
112 Australia, Monash University, Australia and the University of Northampton, United Kingdom  
113 prior to initiating this work.

114 For the Australian cohort, DNA was extracted from whole blood using Qiagen DNA extraction  
115 kits (Flexigene DNA kit, Qiagen P/L, Valencia, California, USA) as per the manufacturer's  
116 recommendations. DNA from the South African individuals was extracted from blood using  
117 the method described by Lahiri and Nurnberg [14] and modified by Mokone et. al. [16,17].  
118 Upon extraction, DNA was frozen at  $-20\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$  for long-term storage, and smaller aliquots were  
119 stored at  $4\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$  for short term usage.

120 DNA from all participants was genotyped for the *FBN2* rs331079 and *ELN* rs2071307 gene  
121 variants using fluorescence-based TaqMan assays (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA,  
122 USA). PCR reactions contained allele-specific probes and primers in a PCR mastermix  
123 containing AmpliTaq DNA Polymerase Gold (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA, USA) in a  
124 total reaction volume of 12  $\mu\text{L}$ . PCR was performed on an Applied Biosystems

125 StepOnePlus™ real-time PCR system (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA, USA).  
126 Genotypes were called according to output clustering profiles using Applied Biosystems  
127 StepOnePlus™ real-time PCR software Version 2.1 (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA,  
128 USA). Rox was used as a passive reference to normalise fluorescence signal intensity  
129 relative to the amount of sample used.

130 The statistical power of the study was determined using Quanto v1.2  
131 (<http://hydra.usc.edu/gxe>). The initial calculations were done using a recessive model and a  
132 disease population prevalence of 10%. Assuming a risk allele frequency of 60%, a matched  
133 case-control population of 136 individuals per group was adequate to detect an allelic OR of  
134 2.0 at a power of 80% and a significance level of 5%.

135 Data were analysed using SPSS Version 20 (SPSS Science Inc, Chicago, Ill, USA) statistical  
136 program. A one-way analysis of variance was used to establish if any significant difference  
137 existed between the characteristics of the TEN and CON groups within the Australian and  
138 South African cohorts as well as between the ACL rupture and CON groups. A chi-squared  
139 ( $\chi^2$ ) analysis or Fisher's exact test was used to determine if significance differences existed  
140 between genotype and/or allele frequencies, as well as other categorical data between the  
141 groups. In all analysis significance was accepted when  $p < 0.05$ . Adjustments for multiple  
142 testing were not conducted as it has been previously described [21] that no appropriate  
143 method exists. Furthermore, the Bonferroni adjustment was considered too conservative [21]  
144 and inappropriate for a situation like this where there is prior evidence that the gene of  
145 interest is associated with a trait [20]. Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium was determined using the  
146 program Genepop web version 3.4 (Curtin University. <http://genepop.curtin.edu.au/>).

147

## 148 **Results**

149 Running was the predominant sporting activity resulting in Achilles tendon injuries (63.1%,  
150 N=65) in the SA cohort. The SA groups were matched for the mean number of years  
151 participating in running (CON,  $8.7 \pm 8.2$  yrs, n=95; TEN,  $10.0 \pm 11.0$  yrs, n=62; p=0.402).  
152 However, there was a significant difference in hours of training between the two groups  
153 (CON,  $3.6 \pm 3.0$  hrs/week, n=91; TEN,  $2.4 \pm 2.7$  hrs/week, n=55; p=0.011), where the SA  
154 CON group trained for more hours per week. The SA TEN participants participated in more  
155 years of high impact sports compared to the SA CON group in the past (CON,  $9.4 \pm 8.4$  yrs,  
156 n=95; TEN,  $13.1 \pm 11.1$  yrs, n=62; p=0.018), however, the SA CON group performed a  
157 greater amount of high impact sports during the last 2 years (CON,  $3.6 \pm 3.1$  yrs, n=95; TEN,  
158  $2.5 \pm 12.9$  yrs, N=62; p=0.029. Although all AUS participants were physically active  
159 individuals, the type of sporting activity involved in, the hours of training and the frequency of  
160 activity were not recorded.

161 The SA ACL and SA CON groups were matched for years of participation in contact sports  
162 (SA CON,  $11.7 \pm 7.1$  yrs, n=219; SA ACL,  $11.5 \pm 8.0$  yrs, n=141; p=0.892), non-contact  
163 jumping sports (SA CON,  $27.8 \pm 19.9$  yrs, n=190; SA ACL,  $25.7 \pm 22.6$  yrs, n=141; p=0.398),  
164 non-contact non-jumping sports (SA CON,  $11.5 \pm 7.1$  yrs, n=219; SA ACL,  $10.5 \pm 8.5$  yrs,  
165 n=141; p=0.575), and skiing sports (SA CON,  $19.1 \pm 16.9$  yrs, n=219; SA ACL,  $8.6 \pm 8.5$  yrs,  
166 n=141; p=0.094).

167 Since the *ELN* rs2071307 and *FBN2* rs331079 allele and genotype frequencies in both of the  
168 South African (SA) and Australian (AUS) TEN and CON groups were similar (Supplementary  
169 table 1), the data was collectively analysed. The CON and TEN groups were similarly  
170 matched for age and gender (Table 1). When co-varied for sex, the two groups were  
171 similarly matched for height. Furthermore, when co-varied for sex and age at recruitment, the  
172 TEN group was found to be significantly heavier ( $p < 0.001$ ) with larger BMIs ( $p < 0.001$ ) (Table  
173 1). The TEN group was recruited on average 5.1 years after the initial injury.



174 Participants in the AUS TEN group carrying the *ELN* rs2071307 AA ( $53.1 \pm 11.6$ , n=10)  
175 genotype were significantly ( $p=0.005$ ) older when they reported their initial Achilles tendon  
176 injury when compared to those with a GG ( $37.2 \pm 12.6$ , n=16) or GA ( $37.8 \pm 13.6$ , n=32)  
177 genotype. There were, however, no significant differences in the mean ages of the three  
178 genotype groups in the CON AUS group (GG:  $40.7 \pm 11.8$ , n=48; GA:  $37.4 \pm 12.2$ , n=68; AA:  
179  $40.1 \pm 12.1$ , n=24;  $p=0.323$ ). There were no other significant genotype effects of either  
180 variants with respect to height, weight, BMI, or sex in the AT group (data not shown).  
181 Furthermore, the investigated variants did not show any interaction with age, height, weight,  
182 BMI and sex in the ACL population (data not shown).

183 The genotype frequency distributions of the *FBN2* rs331079 and the *ELN* rs2071307 variants  
184 within the AT and the ACL rupture groups are shown in table 2. In the combined TEN cohort,  
185 the *FBN2* rs331079 genotype frequency was significantly different ( $p=0.035$ ) between the  
186 CON (GG, 76.9%; GC + CC, 23.1%) and TEN (GG, 85.9%; GC + CC, 14.1%) groups (Table  
187 2). The GG genotype was significantly over-represented within the TEN group ( $p=0.035$ ;  
188 OR=1.83; 95% CI 1.04 – 3.25). We also found a significant ( $p=0.017$ ; OR=1.90; 95% CI 1.11  
189 – 3.27) allele frequency distribution difference for the *FBN2* rs331079 variant between the  
190 CON (G, 87.4%; C, 12.6%) and TEN (G, 93.0%; C, 7.0%) groups (Table 2). Similarly, we  
191 also found a significant ( $p=0.047$ ; OR=1.76; 95% CI 1.00 – 3.10) allele frequency distribution  
192 difference of the rs331079 locus between the CON (G, 89.3%; C, 10.7) and ACL (G, 93.6%;  
193 C, 6.4%) groups. Also, in the AT population, there were no significant *ELN* rs2071307  
194 genotype ( $p=0.795$ ) or allelic ( $p=0.741$ ) frequency differences between the CON and TEN  
195 groups (Table 2).

196 Although not significant, we found a tendency towards an allelic ( $p=0.064$ ) association for the  
197 *ELN* rs2071307 variant and a tendency towards a genotypic ( $p=0.075$ ;  $p=0.112$ ) association  
198 between the CON and ACL groups for the *FBN2* rs331079 and *ELN* rs2071307 variants  
199 respectively. There were no genotypic or allelic associations between the CON and NON

200 subgroup. Furthermore, these gene variants did not show any significant distribution  
201 difference when participants were grouped into genders (data not shown).

## 202 **Discussion**

203 We have shown that the *FBN2* rs331079 variant is significantly associated with the risk of  
204 both AT and ACL rupture. Specifically, the GG genotype was over-represented in  
205 participants with chronic AT and the G allele was over-represented in both pathologies.  
206 Therefore, it appears that individuals carrying the G allele or the GG genotype are  
207 approximately twice as likely to develop either of the two injuries. Interestingly this same  
208 variant has recently been shown to associate with intracranial aneurysms in a Dutch  
209 population [32]. However, in the Dutch study it was the C allele that was found to be the risk  
210 factor as opposed to the G allele. It is noteworthy that *FBN2* mRNA levels have been shown  
211 to be elevated in rat Achilles tendon undergoing repair with expression of *FBN2* reported to  
212 be increased for ten days post injury [13]. Similarly, an increase in the expression of *FBN2*  
213 has been found in other pathologies such as mitral valve prolapse [27].

214 ELN and FBN-2 are known to form a network of microfibrils that maintains the tendon  
215 architecture [31]. An increase in FBN-2 levels might be expected to increase the density of  
216 the tendon and lead to an increase in tendon stiffness and rigidity possibly affecting the  
217 compliance of the tendon to muscle movement [4]. On the other hand, a decrease in FBN-2  
218 levels could result in weaker tendons caused by structural deficiencies in the microfibril  
219 network [30]. Impairment of the function of FBN-2 is believed to be a major determinant of  
220 microfibrilopathy [30] which is speculated to precede a tendinopathy. Furthermore, the  
221 increase in *FBN2* expression levels observed during tendon repair [13] is consistent with an  
222 important role for FBN-2 in maintaining the tendon's architectural integrity.

223 Mutations such as the G3532T and G3590A substitutions have been found within the *FBN2*  
224 gene that lead to the development of connective tissue disorders such as congenital  
225 contractural arachnodactyly [9]. The rs331079 variant that we investigated in this study

226 resides within an intronic region of the *FBN2* gene (University of Florida.  
227 [www.snpper.chip.org](http://www.snpper.chip.org)). Although intronic variants do not determine the primary sequence of  
228 a protein molecule [1], they may have other, hitherto, undiscovered roles that are necessary  
229 for appropriate expression of protein molecules. However, at present the functionality of this  
230 variant has not been described and therefore we do not know why it predisposes individuals  
231 to AT and ACL rupture. The rs331079 variant is known to be part of a linkage block in  
232 Caucasians and is in high linkage disequilibrium ( $D'=1$ ) with the *FBN2* rs331081, rs331082,  
233 and rs331085 variants (Wellcome Trust Sanger Institute. [www.ensembl.com](http://www.ensembl.com)). All three of  
234 these additional variants are also located within intron 7 of the *FBN2* gene (University of  
235 Florida. [www.snpper.chip.org](http://www.snpper.chip.org)). The linkage disequilibrium between the rs331079 variant that  
236 we investigated and rs331081, rs331082, and rs331085 means that it is conceivable that one  
237 of these linked variants may also have a role in predisposing to AT or ACL.

238 Our data do not support an association between the *ELN* rs2071307 variant and either AT or  
239 ACL ruptures. It is interesting to note however, that although we found no relationship  
240 between this variant and either pathology; the rs2071307 SNP is a non-synonymous and  
241 possibly deleterious polymorphism (Queen's University. [http://compbio.cs.queensu.ca/F-](http://compbio.cs.queensu.ca/F-SNP/)  
242 [SNP/](http://compbio.cs.queensu.ca/F-SNP/)) which results in a change of amino acid from hydrophobic glycine to hydrophilic serine  
243 (University of Florida. [www.snpper.chip.org](http://www.snpper.chip.org)). It is possible of course, that other variants  
244 within this gene may be associated with either AT or ACL ruptures.

245 Although our study found a significant association between the *FBN2* rs331079 G allele and  
246 the risk of AT and ACL rupture, the work has some limitations. Firstly, although our SA  
247 cohorts (both TEN and ACL rupture groups) were matched for some aspects of physical  
248 activity there were some differences in training behaviour and previous exposure to high  
249 impact sports for the TEN cohort.. Secondly, we did not have detailed information on sports  
250 history for the Australian cohort. Levels of physical activity should be accurately documented  
251 in future studies. Furthermore, although the study was sufficiently powered to detect  
252 associations with relatively large effects it should be repeated in bigger cohorts. Likewise,

253 additional association studies should be carried out in populations of different ethnicities  
254 showing different minor allele frequencies for the rs331079 (African, 3%; European, 10%; ad-  
255 mixed American, 28%; East Asian, 7%) and the rs2071307 (African, 26%; European, 39%;  
256 ad-mixed American, 30%; East Asian, 14%) variants (1000 Genomes Project,  
257 [www.1000genomes.org](http://www.1000genomes.org)).

258 Finally, the findings from this study advance our understanding of the polygenic basis of  
259 musculoskeletal injuries. We suggest that the *FBN2* rs331079 variant should be considered  
260 as an additional genetic locus to include in an injury risk assessment model that might be  
261 used to identify athletes who are predisposed to AT and ACL ruptures.

262

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#### 359 **List of legends**

360 **Table 1:** General characteristics of the Achilles tendinopathy group (TEN), the anterior  
361 cruciate ligament rupture group (ACL), and the ACL subgroup with the non-contact (NON)  
362 mechanism of injury as well as their respective control groups.

363 **Table 2:** The genotype and allele frequency distribution of the two selected candidate  
364 variants within the Achilles tendinopathy (TEN), ACL ruptures (ACL) and their respective  
365 asymptomatic control (CON) groups.

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