INTRODUCTION
Exome resequencing studies have shown great success in identifying variants that cause rare Mendelian disease (Bamshad et al., 2011). More recently, exome association studies have begun to reveal coding variants that contribute to complex disease risk (Do et al., 2012; Kiezun et al., 2012). To fully understand disease pathoetiology the identification of these variants should be followed by experimental studies that seek to reveal their effects on biochemical pathways and cellular processes. This can be straightforward when much is already known about the mutated gene and its encoded protein. Nevertheless, disease-associated coding variants often lie within sequence or genes that are devoid of annotated functions or features, such as currently defined motifs or domains (Gollyer et al., 2006), or they occur within human genes whose proteins have not yet been experimentally characterized. Most human proteins currently have no well-defined molecular function (Lee et al., 2007). Even when proteins contain features such as catalytic amino acids that are indicative of enzymatic activity their substrates may remain unknown (Bartlett et al., 2003; Galperin and Koonin, 2004; Addou et al., 2009). A productive approach to determining the molecular functions of newly-assigned disease genes is to identify, using in-depth protein sequence analyses, homology relationships that reveal evolutionary relationships and domain architectures and, on occasion, explain the molecular and cellular deficits in disease (Goodstadt and Ponting, 2001).

Recently, a coding variant (p.Glu167Lys) in a human gene TM6SF2 (Transmembrane 6 Superfamily Member 2) was found to exceed genome-wide significance for association with total cholesterol and liver fat levels (Dongiovanni et al., 2014; Holmen et al., 2014; Kozlitina et al., 2014; Liu et al., 2014; Sookoian et al., 2014). This amino acid substitution also explains the genome-wide association study signals on chromosome 19p12 for plasma triglyceride or total cholesterol levels, and for increased myocardial infarction risk and non-alcoholic fatty liver disease (NAFLD) susceptibility (Dongiovanni et al., 2014; Holmen et al., 2014; Kozlitina et al., 2014; Mahdessian et al., 2014; Sookoian et al., 2014). These studies showed that TM6SF2 is expressed highly in the liver, with the Glu167Lys variant being expressed at greatly reduced levels, and that alteration of its transcript’s levels in the mouse results in changes in liver triglyceride, cholesterol, low-density and high-density lipoprotein levels and in very-low-density lipoprotein (VLDL) secretion.

Nevertheless, the molecular function of TM6SF2 remains unknown, and its only distinguishing features are its predicted 10 transmembrane helices, and its localisation to the endoplasmic
reticulum (ER) and the ER-Golgi intermediate compartment in liver cells (Mahdessian et al., 2014). In particular, it is currently unknown whether this protein has value of being a potential drug target (Holmen et al., 2014), and how its variant contributes to liver triglyceride metabolism, coronary artery disease and type 2 diabetes mellitus (Mahdessian et al., 2014). In-depth analysis of protein sequences, so successful previously in explaining the molecular bases of disease (for example, Sanchez-Pulido et al., 2012; Zhang et al., 2012; Babbs et al., 2013), may shed light on its function.

Consequently, we embarked on a computational sequence analysis of the TM6SF protein family and identified a novel domain (termed “EXPERA,” see below) that is present twice in TM6SF proteins and that is also conserved among MAC30 (Meningioma-associated protein 30; also known as Transmembrane protein 97 [TMEM97]), and EBP (Emopamil binding protein) protein families (Figures 1–4). These observations provide evidence that these previously uncharacterised human proteins have, in common with EBP, an isomerase enzymatic activity contributing to sterol metabolism.

**MATERIAL AND METHODS**

Multiple sequence alignments for each EXPERA domain-containing families were generated independently with the program T-Coffee using default parameters (Notredame et al., 2000), slightly refined manually and visualized with the Belvu program (Sonnhammer and Hollich, 2005). Profiles of the alignment as global hidden Markov models (HMMs) were generated using HMMer (Eddy, 1996; Finn et al., 2011). Profile-based sequence searches were performed against the Uniref50 protein sequence database (Wu et al., 2006) using HMMsearch (Eddy, 1996; Finn et al., 2011). We used NAIL to view and analyse the HMMsearch results, which provided a formatted view with hyper-links to related web resources and coloring related to taxonomic information, thus facilitating interpretation of the results (Sánchez-Pulido et al., 2000). Remote homology analyses were performed using
profile-to-profile comparisons (Söding et al., 2005). The significance of sequence-to-sequence, profile-to-sequence, and profile-to-profile matches were evaluated in terms of an E-value, which reflects the number of observations of better sequence matches expected by chance. Transmembrane predictions were performed using the TMHMM Server (Krogh et al., 2001). Figures were generated using Inkscape (http://inkscape.org/).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION
SEQUENCE ANALYSIS
We started by considering the number of transmembrane regions present in TM6SF protein family members. A few members of a second family, that of MAC30/TMEM97 proteins, are annotated by Pfam as being homologous to TM6SF proteins (Pfam entry: DUF2781—Domain of Unknown Function 2781) (Bateman et al., 2010; Punta et al., 2012). This was puzzling because ten transmembrane regions are consistently predicted for TM6SF proteins (Figures 1, S1) whereas only four such helices are evident for MAC30/TMEM97 proteins (Figures 1, S2). As transmembrane proteins often contain internal duplications (Shimizu et al., 2004), we considered whether TM6SF proteins contain tandem repeats of multiple transmembrane regions. Indeed, using the HHpred profile-profile comparison approach (Söding et al., 2005), and a sequence profile of the last four transmembrane regions of TM6SF (corresponding to human TM6SF2 amino acids 217–351), we identified statistically significant sequence

![Figure 2](http://www.frontiersin.org)

**Figure 2** | (A) Mapping alanine-scanning mutagenesis and known disease causing missense mutations in the EBP model. Alanine-scanning (Moebius et al., 1999) identified 11 residues as major determinants of EBP catalytic activity (His77, Glu81, Trp102, Tyr105, Asp109, Arg111, Tyr112, Glu123, Thr126, Asn194, and Trp197; here renumbered to the current EBP_HUMAN SwissProt entry numbering by subtracting one to the number of each position). Four (orange points) are present in exactly the same positions as are disease associated mutations (H76Y, E80K, R110Q, and W196S) and the remaining seven (W101, Y104, D108, V111, E122, T125, and N193) (yellow points) are located in the vicinity of disease associated mutations (fewer than five residues-distant). Mapped CDPX2 disease causing missense mutations (red points), derived from Human Gene Mutation Database (HGMD) and PubMed analysis (Stenson et al., 2003), are: M11 (Steijlen et al., 2007), M1V (Hello et al., 2010), R62W (Herman et al., 2002), L66P (Whittock et al., 2003), C67R (Monroe-Picard et al., 2011), W68C (Lambrecht et al., 2014), C72Y (Herman et al., 2002), I75N (Barboza-Cerda et al., 2014), H76Y (Umekoji et al., 2008), E80K (Braverman et al., 1999; Ikegawa et al., 2000; Aughton et al., 2003), V82C (Has et al., 2003; Derry et al., 1999; Hou, 2013), V119G (Non-lethal) (Cañueto et al., 2012; Bode et al., 2013), G130V (Herman et al., 2002), S133R (Braverman et al., 1999; Derry et al., 1999; Becker et al., 2001), R147H (Braverman et al., 1999; Has et al., 2003; Derry et al., 1999; Hou, 2013), R147H (Braverman et al., 1999; Has et al., 2003; Shirahama et al., 2003), G157S (Herman et al., 2002), W196S (Herman et al., 2002), L203P (Has et al., 2003; Derry et al., 1999; Hou, 2013), Y165C (Shirahama et al., 2003), G173R (Herman et al., 2002), W196S (Herman et al., 2002), L203P (Has et al., 2002), D206Y (Ausavarat et al., 2008), L18P and W47C (Milunsky et al., 2003; Furtado et al., 2010). Reaction catalyzed by EBP: Cholesterol carbon atoms C7, C8, and C9 are label...
similarity with a profile generated from TM6SF transmembrane regions three to six (corresponding to human TM6SF2 amino acids 61–186; \( E = 0.03 \)). In addition, this approach revealed significant sequence similarity between each of these repeats and a single repeat in the MAC30/TMEM97 family (corresponding to human MAC30/TMEM97 amino acids 10–157; \( E = 6 \times 10^{-7} \) and 0.03; Figure 4).

By iteratively improving the phyletic coverage in each protein family using HMMer database searches (Eddy, 1996), we obtained statistical significance from profile-profile comparisons that link these three sequence families (specifically, the two TM6SF repeats and the single MAC30/TMEM97 repeat) to the Emopamil binding protein (EBP) family (Figures 3, 4). The significance of these sequence similarities, their common transmembrane helix configuration, and their shared predicted C-terminal ER retention signal (Figures 1, 2) (Jackson et al., 1990) imply that these domains are homologous, having derived from a common evolutionary ancestor. We name this four transmembrane region the EXPERA (EXPanded EBP superfamily) domain.

**FIGURE 3** | Representative multiple sequence alignment of the EXPERA domain. Putative EBP catalytic residues (identified by alanine-scanning) described by Moebius et al. are label in black (Moebius et al., 1999). A mutation identified in TM6SF2 is label in red (Holmen et al., 2014; Kozlitina et al., 2014; Sookoian et al., 2014). Human sequence names are highlighted and the only member of the EXPERA superfamily in Saccharomyces cerevisiae, part of the MAC30/TMEM97 family, is indicated by a yellow box. Numbers shown in green represent inserted amino acids that have been removed from the alignment. Different groups of the EXPERA sequences identified by sequence similarity are shown by colored lines to the left of the alignment: light red, TM6SF family first repeat; dark red, TM6SF family second repeat; yellow, MAC30/TMEM97 family; purple, EBP family. DUF2781 (in blue), previously defined in Pfam (includes TM6SF second repeat and MAC30 family). The TMHMM helix transmembrane (Krogh et al., 2001) consensus prediction are shown below the alignment for each family, in red, yellow, and violet cylinders for TM6SF (repeats 1 and 2), MAC30/TMEM97, and EBP families, respectively (see Figures S1–S3). The limits of the protein sequences included in the alignment are indicated by flanking residue positions. Alignments were produced with T-Coffee, HMMer, and HHpred (Eddy, 1996; Notredame et al., 2000; Söding et al., 2005; Finn et al., 2011) using default parameters and slightly refined manually. The alignment was presented with the program Belvu (Sonnhammer and Hollich, 2005) using a coloring scheme indicating the average BLOSUM62 scores (which are correlated with amino acid conservation) of each alignment column: red (>0.7), violet between 0.7 and 0.4 and light yellow (between 0.4 and 0.2). Sequences are named according to their UniProt identifications (Wu et al., 2006). Species abbreviations: ARATH, Arabidopsis thaliana (Mouse-ear cress); ASPPC, Neosartorya fumigata; CAEE, Caenorhabditis elegans; CANGA, Candida glabrata (Yeast); CHLRE, Chlamydomonas reinhardtii (Green alga); CIOIN, Ciona intestinalis; CRAGI, Crassostrea gigas (Pacific oyster); DEBHA, Debaryomyces hansenii (Yeast); DICDI, Dictyostelium discoideum (Slime mold); EMH,U, Emiliania huxleyi (Chromalveolata); HUMAN, Homo sapiens (Horse); LOTTI, Lottia gigantea (Giant owl limpet); MALGO, Malassezia globosa (Fungus); MONBE, Monosiga brevicollis (Choanoflagellate); NAEGR, Naegleria gruberi (Amoeba); NEMVE, Nematostella vectensis (Starlet sea anemone); NEUCR, Neurospora crassa (Fungus); OSTTA, Ostreococcus tauri (Green alga); PHACS, Phanerochaete carnosa (Fungus); PICPG, Komagataella pastoris (Yeast); SCHPO, Schizosaccharomyces pombe (Fission yeast); SELML, Selaginella moellendorfii (Spikemoss); STRPU, Strongylocentrotus purpuratus (Purple sea urchin); THAPS, Thalassiosira pseudonana (Marine diatom); TRIAD, Trichoplax adhaerens; VOLCA, Volvox carteri (Green alga); YARLI, Yarrowia lipolytica (Yeast); YEAST, Saccharomyces cerevisiae (Baker’s yeast).
**FUNCTION PREDICTION**

As for the TM6SF family, the molecular function of MAC30/TMEM97 is currently poorly understood. Nevertheless, because of its wide phylogenetic distribution in eukaryotes (in plants, metazoa and fungi) it is likely to have a fundamental cellular function. As expected from our sequence analysis, it is mainly localized in the ER (Huh et al., 2003; Matsuyama et al., 2006). Under sterol-depleted conditions, however, it becomes enriched in the endo-lysosomal compartment where it interacts with NPC1 (Niemann-Pick disease, type C1 Protein) and regulates cellular cholesterol levels (Wilcox et al., 2007; Bartz et al., 2009). In a variety of cancers, elevated MAC30/TMEM97 expression has been directly related to unfavorable prognosis, and its down-regulation inhibits the proliferation of gastric cancer cells (Kayed et al., 2004; Zhang et al., 2006; Moparthi et al., 2007; Yan et al., 2010; Zhao et al., 2011; Han et al., 2013; Xiao et al., 2013; Yang et al., 2013; Xu et al., 2014).

The only member of the EXPERA superfamily with known molecular function is EBP, an enzyme with a Δ8, Δ7 sterol isomerase activity that catalyzes the transposition of a double bond from C8 = C9 to C7 = C8 in the sterol B-ring (Figure 2) (Wilton et al., 1969; Akhtar et al., 1970; Silve et al., 1996; Bae et al., 2001; Nes et al., 2002; Rahier et al., 2008).

EBP forms homotetramers (Nes et al., 2002) and higher-order protein complexes with sterol Δ7 reductase (DHCR7), catalyzing and regulating key steps in the final cholesterol biosynthesis pathway (Kedjouar et al., 2004; de Medina et al., 2010; Silvente-Poirat and Poirot, 2012). Mutations in EBP cause Conradi-Hünermann-Happle syndrome (also known as Chondrodysplasia punctata type II disease), a rare X-linked dominant disorder characterized by skeletal malformations, skin abnormalities, cataracts, and short stature (Braverman et al., 1999; Derry et al., 1999; Has et al., 2000, 2002; Cañueto et al., 2012, 2014).

Based on consensus transmembrane predictions over the expanded EBP family and superfamily (EXPERA domain-containing proteins) (Figures 3, S3) we generated a five transmembrane EBP model (Figures 1, 2), that adds to and reconciles the main features of previously proposed four transmembrane EBP models (Hanner et al., 1995; Moebius et al., 1997, 2000; Dussossoy et al., 1999). Our model is in agreement with a luminal localization of the EBP N-terminal region (Dussossoy et al., 1999), and with a cytoplasmic localization of its predicted C-terminal ER retention motif (Jackson et al., 1990; Hanner et al., 1995; Moebius et al., 1997, 2000). Mapping alanine-scanning mutagenesis variants (Moebius et al., 1999) and known disease-causing missense mutations (Figure 2) onto the EBP model, predict that the luminal, and transmembrane portions of the EBP EXPERA domain contain the greater fraction of key functional sites (Figures 2, 3).

Several of these sites, previously proposed contain catalytic residues (Moebius et al., 1999), are conserved not just in EBP orthologues but also across the EXPERA domain superfamily (Figure 3). Conservation of acidic amino acids at positions 80 and 108 (human EBP numbering) strongly suggests their involvement in catalysis involving sterols across all members of this superfamily. How these residues might catalyze sterol isomerisation is unclear, but may be similar to the enzymatic action of ketosteroid isomerases for which acidic residues (Asp or Glu) act as a proton donor or acceptor (Pollack, 2004; Sharma et al., 2006). EBP’s proposed catalytic mechanism initially involves C-9 protonation of the steroid molecule, with the subsequent generation of a carbonium ion at C-8, and finally the elimination of a proton from C-7 (Wilton et al., 1969; Nes et al., 2002; Rahier et al., 2008) (Figure 1). It is possible that the conserved acidic residues in other EXPERA domain proteins, including MAC30/TMEM97 and TM6SF1/2, catalyze a similar sterol isomerisation reaction as proton donors and acceptors.

The homologous relationships described here between TM6SF2 and EBP could also explain the reported side-effects of tamoxifen (Oien et al., 1999; Hackshaw et al., 2011), which is an antagonist of the estrogen receptor commonly used in breast cancer therapy (Jordan, 2000). Drug cross-reactivity among homologous proteins frequently underlies undesired pleiotropic effects (Sears, 2003; Campillos et al., 2008).
Tamoxifen is a known inhibitor of EBP (Moebius et al., 1998; Kedjouar et al., 2004; de Medina et al., 2010; Silvente-Poirot and Poirot, 2012), and if its homolog TM6SF is similarly inhibited by tamoxifen then this would result in a reduction of total cholesterol level and the induction of NAFLD (Holmen et al., 2014; Kozlitina et al., 2014; Liu et al., 2014; Sookoian et al., 2014) which are precisely the known side-effects of tamoxifen administration (Oien et al., 1999; Hackshaw et al., 2011).

MAC30/TMEM97 is expressed at high levels in breast, esophageal, stomach, and colon cancers (Kayed et al., 2004). Human gastric cancer cells are known to have reduced cellular proliferation and mobility when MAC30/TMEM97 transcript levels are down-regulated (Xu et al., 2014). This implies that the inhibition of MAC30/TMEM97 catalytic activity by tamoxifen may also lead to reduced proliferation of cancer cells. Identification of the EXPERA domain family may thus help to elucidate the complex interplay between cancer and cholesterol metabolism (Silvente-Poiriot and Poiriot, 2014).

In summary, our analyses have identified TM6SF1, TM6SF2, and MAC30/TMEM97 as EBP homologs. This indicates that these proteins are all likely to possess similar catalytic activities, potentially as sterol isomerases. These results provide new opportunities for their experimental characterization, and for the development of drugs that would inhibit members of the EXPERA superfamily.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS
Luis Sanchez-Pulido and Chris P. Ponting designed the research and wrote the paper.

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SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL
The Supplementary Material for this article can be found online at: http://www.frontiersin.org/journal/10.3389/fgene.2014.00439/abstract

We include as Supplementary Material three full-length multiple sequence alignments of representative sequences and transmembrane predictions for the EXPERA domain-containing families: TM6SF, MAC30/TMEM97 and EBP (Figures S1–S3).

Figure S1 | TM6SF family representative full-length alignment and transmembrane prediction. The sequence variant identified in TM6SF2 is labeled in red (Holmen et al., 2014; Kozlitina et al., 2014; Sookoian et al., 2014). EXPERA domains limits are marked with red bars (light red for the first repeat and dark red for the second repeat) above the alignment. The most conserved positions of both EXPERA domains (E101 and E255) are labeled. TMHMM helix transmembrane (Krogh et al., 2001) predictions are shown below each input sequence (consensus of these predictions is shown in Figure 3). The alignment was presented with the program Belvu (Sonnhammer and Hollich, 2005) using a coloring scheme indicating the average BLOSUM62 scores (which are correlated with amino acid conservation) of each alignment column: black (>=3), gray (between 3 and 1.5) and light gray (between 1.5 and 0.5). Sequences are named according to their UniProt identifications (Wu et al., 2006). Human proteins identifications are underlined in red (TM6SF2, Q9BZW4_HUMAN and TM6SF1, Q9BZWS5_HUMAN). Species abbreviations: CALMI, Callarhynchus mili (Australian ghost shark); CION, Ciona intestinalis; CRAGI, Crassostrea gigas (Pacific oyster); HUMAN, Homo sapiens; MONBE, Monosiga brevicollis (Choanoflagellate); OREN1, Oreochromis niloticus (Nile tilapia); SALR5, Salpingoeca rosetta (Choanoflagellate); STRP, Stronglylocentrotus purpuratus (Purple sea urchin); TETUR, Tetranychus urticae (Chelicera); XENTR, Xenopus tropicalis.

Figure S2 | MAC30 family representative full-length alignment and transmembrane prediction. The extent of the EXPERA domain is marked with a yellow bar above the alignment. The most conserved position of the EXPERA superfamily (D56) is labeled. TMHMM helix transmembrane (Krogh et al., 2001) predictions are shown below each input sequence (consensus of these predictions is shown in Figure 3). The alignment was presented with the program Belvu (Sonnhammer and Hollich, 2005) using a coloring scheme indicating the average BLOSUM62 scores (which are correlated with amino acid conservation) of each alignment column: black (>=3), gray (between 3 and 1.5) and light gray (between 1.5 and 0.5). Sequences are named according to their UniProt identifications (Wu et al., 2006). MAC30/TMEM97 human protein identification is underlined in yellow (Q5B7F2_HUMAN). Species abbreviations: 9CHLO, Coccomyxa subellipsoidea; ACACA, Acanthamoeba castellani; ARATH, Arabidopsis thaliana (Mouse-eared cress); BYSSF, Byssochlamys spectabilis; CANAW, Candida albicans; CLAL4, Clavispora lusitaniae; CIOCIM, Coccidioides immitis; DEBH, Debaryomyces hansenii (Yeast); HUMAN, Homo sapiens; LOTGI, Lottia gigantea (Giant owl limpet); MARBU, Massarosnia brunnea; MIGCM, Mycosphaerella graminicola; MICPC, Micromonas pusilla; MUSAM, Musa acuminate; PHATC, Phaeodactylum tricornutum; PICG, Komagataella pastoris (Yeast); PICSI, Picea sitchensis; PICST, Scheffersomyces stipitis; PRUPE, Prunus persica; PSED2, Pseudogymnoascus destructans; SCHPO, Schizosaccharomyces pombe (Fission yeast); SELML, Selaginella moellendorffii (Spikemoss); TRIAD, Trichoplax adhaerens; VOLCA, Volvox carteri (Green algae); XENTR, Xenopus tropicalis; YEAST, Saccharomyces cerevisiae (Baker’s yeast).

Figure S3 | EBP family representative full-length alignment and transmembrane prediction. The extent of the EXPERA domain is marked with a violet bar above the alignment. The most conserved position of the EXPERA superfamily (D108) is labeled. TMHMM helix transmembrane (Krogh et al., 2001) predictions are shown below each input sequence (consensus of these predictions is shown in Figure 3). The alignment was presented with the program Belvu (Sonnhammer and Hollich, 2005) using a coloring scheme indicating the average BLOSUM62 scores (which are correlated with amino acid conservation) of each alignment column: black (>=3), gray (between 3 and 1.5) and light gray (between 1.5 and 0.5). Sequences are named according to their UniProt identifications (Wu et al., 2006). Human proteins identifications are underlined in red (EBP, Q15125_HUMAN and EBPL, Q9BY08_HUMAN). Species abbreviations: 9AGAR, Manilophthora roiei; 9GLOM, Rhizopus irregularis; ACACA, Acanthamoeba castellani; ARATH, Arabidopsis thaliana (Mouse-eared cress); ASP03, Aspergillus oryzae; BRAFL, Branchiostoma floridae (Amphioxus); CAEEL, Caenorhabditis elegans; CAPO3, Capaspora ovzczarzaki; COPC7, Coprinopsis cinerea; CRAGI, Crassostrea gigas (Pacific oyster); HUMAN, Homo sapiens; LOTGI, Lottia gigantea (Giant owl limpet); MAG07, Magnaportha oryzae; MONDO, Monodelphis domestica (opossum); NAEGR, Naegleria gruberi (amoeba); PHACS, Phanerochaete carnosa; RHOT1, Rhodosporidium toruloides; SELML, Selaginella moellendorffii; XENTR, Xenopus tropicalis.
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