# **Research Article**

## The three-fingered protein domain of the human genome

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**Abstract.** Extracellular domains of some cellular receptors expressed in the organisms at different levels of development belong to three-fingered protein (TFP) fold. The *Homo sapiens* genome encodes at least 45 genes containing from one to three TFP domains (TFPDs), namely diverse paralogues of the Ly6 gene, CD59 and the receptors of activins, bone morphogenetic proteins, Mullerian inhibiting substance and transforming growth factor- $\beta$ . C4.4a and urokinase/plasminogen activatory receptor contain

two and three TFPD repeats, respectively. These diverse proteins have a low overall sequence similarity with each other and their hydrophobicity levels vary to a considerable degree. It is suggested that sequence differentiation within the TFPD led to distinct groups of proteins whose attributes were optimized to fit both the physicochemical properties specific to their functional microenvironment and selective targeting of their highly diversified extracellular cofactors.

Keywords. Ly6, LU-protein, three-fingered protein, three-finger protein, TGF $\beta$ -receptor family.

#### Introduction

Three-fingered protein (TFP) chain fold has been first established from the crystallographic structures of snake neurotoxins [1, 2]. Structural analyses revealed four disulfide bonds forming a tight network at the base of a palm from which three fingers emerge. These are structured with distinct clusters of  $\beta$ -strands roughly pointing in the same direction [1-3]. The TFP domains (TFPDs) have several distinct sequence and structural attributes [4]. Firstly, the disulfide network consists from 3 to 6 S-S bonds with specific tight packing of the three highly conserved disulfide bridges. The tight S-S network assures stability of its hydrophobic core and maintains structural integrity of diverse TFPDs in the extracellular space. Secondly, the TFPDs have a highly conserved C-terminal sequence, although a slight variation occurs in the sequence of the transforming growth factor- $\beta$  (TGF $\beta$ ) and Mullerian inhibiting substance (MIS) receptors that have a Ser residue inserted between the Cterminal Cys doublet. Thirdly, the specific distribution of the intramolecular interaction clusters remains identical in all the TFPDs studied to date [4]. Fourthly, extensive interactions between the N- and C-terminal segments remain well conserved despite the amino acid (AA) length of the TFPD and the domains flanking it. Fifthly, the hydrophobic core comprising the S-S network sustains a great variability of the sequence traits forming the three-fingers [4, 5]. The ectodomains (ECDs) of several cell surface receptors belonging to TGF<sup>β</sup> family of receptors  $(TGF\beta-R)$  share the TFPD-like fold [4–6]. The ECDs linked to the intracellular kinase domain via one transmembrane (TM) segment selectively bind diverse factors such as activins (Act), inhibin, nodal, growth and differentiation factor (GDF5), TGF $\beta$ , bone morphogenetic proteins (BMPs), and MIS [5,6]. Binding of dimeric growth factors linked through an intermolecular disulfide bond to those receptors

causes the kinase domain of type II receptor to phosphorylate the intracellular domain of type I receptor and transmits the signals to the nucleus [7, 8]. Likewise, several receptors tethered to the membrane *via* a glycosyl-phosphatidylinositol (GPI) linker, *i.e.*, the urokinase/plasminogen activatory receptor (uPAR) [9–11], Ly6-group of gene products and CD59 [12], have the TFPD-like fold. The TFPD-like genes are encoded in the genomes of diverse marine organisms such as the sea urchin *Hemicentrotus pulchiremus* and the tunicate *Ciona intestinalis*, the terrestrial nematode *Caenorhabditis elegans*, the fruit fly *Drosophila melanogaster* and different vertebrate genomes, suggesting that a TFPD fold emerged early in evolution of living species [4, 13].

In this communication we have analyzed several conserved sequence and structural attributes of the highly diversified group of human TFPDs, and compared these attributes with those of the TFPDs encoded in some other organisms. We suggest that some sequence attributes of the TFPDs were probably imposed by two evolutionary processes: (i) fine functional diversification and selective targeting of the TFPDs; and (ii) adaptation to physicochemical conditions within the microenvironments harboring the functional forms of proteins with one or multiple TFPDs.

#### Materials and methods

Databases and sequence-homology searching processes. The genomic databases produced in the National Center of Biotechnology Information (NCBI, http://ncbi.nlm.nih.gov) [14] were used. Two types of files were downloaded, the Fasta amino acid files and the GenBank flat format files. Two protein sequence databases assembled in the Protein Information Resources (PIR) databases (http://pir.georgetown.edu) [15] were used in searches for diverse sequence motifs. The predicted protein sequences of diverse genomes were also accessed from the website server at http://www.ensemble.org/ [16]. A series of Fortran 77 programs were written for searching the NCBI and PIR databases for the presence of diverse sequence motifs comprising Cys residues, e.g., C-(XY)<sub>n</sub>-C spaced by (n) AA residues and flanked on its C terminus by the motifs such as  $CC-(XY)_{4-6}$ -CN (a typical TFPD sequence hallmark), and CXC-(XY)<sub>4-7-</sub> CN (sequence hallmark of the TGFβ-RII and some small proteins encoded in the C. elegans genome).

**Multiple sequence alignments and their analyses.** The Data\_SQ program was used in selecting diverse sequences that were aligned with the ClustalW60

program [17]. The MSA used in this work consists 802 entries (MSA802). It contains six distinct blocks of sequences: (1) neurotoxins and cardiotoxins from diverse snake venoms; (2) plethodontid modulating factors (PMFs) from various salamanders [18]; (3) series of sequences of the Ly6 and Plaur genes encoded in diverse genomes; (4) the ECDs of the TGF $\beta$  and uPAR receptors; (5) sequences that have low sequence similarity score (IDs) with the TFPDs but which have some sequence attributes similar to the TFPDs; (6) at the bottom of the MSA is an additional block of snake neurotoxins. Due to similar size of the polypeptide chain and highly conserved sequence distribution of the Cys motifs in snake neurotoxins and cardiotoxins (the top and bottom blocks), they impose some structure onto the entire MSA. Potential sequence correlations existing between diverse TFPDs were estimated with the Pola SQ program [19] that uses sequence profiles and physicochemical sequence attributes of the polypeptide chain such as hydrophobicity, pI and AA bulkiness of the aligned sequences. For this type of analysis we used the MSA310 containing only some sequences present in the MSA802. AA conservation was estimated from the MSAs using the following three measures: (i) Valdar-Thornton (VT) formula comprising average evolutionary distance calculated from given MSA [20]; (ii) a scoring function in Jensen-Shannon (JS) entropy [21, 22], and (iii) Shannon information  $(I_e)$ entropy [23]. The VT, JS and Ie were calculated with the pr\_vt\_sc.f program (written by the author). The MSA310, MSA802, and MSA802out (a databaseprocessing output file) are available upon request.

**Structural analyses.** The following new features were added to the CORDAN\_Pr program [4, 24]: (a) twodimensional (2D) distance maps computed from Xray structures were reorganized according to the sequence alignment (this allowed a redistribution of the interaction clusters in the 2D space of the bitriangular distance maps); (b) isomorphism of generated distributions of clusters was quantified with Kolmogorov-Smirnov (KS) statistics [25]; (c) nonbonding (van der Waals) and electrostatic (Coulombic) interaction energy components were calculated for the binary and ternary complexes of diverse TFPDs [4]. The overall hydrophobicity index (HI) was calculated using the Kyte-Doolittle hydrophobicity scale [26] and a nine-AA sliding frame.

#### **Results and discussion**

The TFPD repertoire of the human genome. Analyses of the human genomic database accessed from the



**Figure 1.** Overall sequence organization of several groups of human proteins containing three-fingered protein domain (TFPDs).

NCBI server [14] have revealed several clusters of genes containing the 'snake neurotoxin-like' Cys motifs (Table 1). Domain organizations of the human TFP-like proteins are illustrated in Figure 1, and the sequence alignment (MSA47) of the human TFPDs is shown in Figure 2. The sequences were aligned according to the decreasing HI values calculated for the two AAs ahead of the first Cys residue forming the disulfide network to the highly conserved C-terminal CN doublet [4]. This restriction allowed a direct comparison of the Ly6-like proteins with some toxic components of snake venoms. The overall HIs change insignificantly for the sequences having several additional AAs that cover the segment from the cleavage site of the signal peptide to the beginning of the TFPD.

TFPD-containing proteins are encoded on human chromosomes 2, 6, 8, 11 and 19, while a series of receptors of the TGF $\beta$  family are encoded on chromosomes 2, 3, 4, 10, 11 (Loc283155) and 12. These receptors have their counterparts encoded in diverse genomes. For example, in the *D. melanogaster* genome several TGF $\beta$ -like receptors [60] are encoded: thick veins (tkv, CG14026, NP\_787990) related to mammalian BMP-RIA [61], baboon (CG8224, NP\_477000) related to TGF $\beta$ -R [62], saxophone (sax, CG-1891, NP\_724606 and NP\_523252) related to Act-RII [61], punt (NP\_732926) related to Act-RIIA [63], and wishful thinking (wit, CG10776, NP\_524692) related to BMP-RII [64]. These 5 receptors of the fly and the 12 human TFPD-containing receptors are not only



**Figure 2.** Alignment of the human TFPDs (MSA47) (see Table 1). The fingers and  $\beta$ -turns linking them were indicated by F and Lk, respectively [4]; Cys residues forming the conserved S-S bonds (Db1, Db2, Db3 and Db4) were indicated in yellow, the highly conserved C-terminal Asn residue is in green, the Cys residues forming B3a are in red, whereas the Cys forming the unique S-S bond in the first finger (F1) of the ectodomain (ECD) of transforming growth factor  $\beta$  receptor II (TGF $\beta$ -RII) is in violet. Ly6D (NP\_067069) as an outlier was not included in the MSA47.

Table 1. Diven	se three-fingered p	rotein domains (TFF	Ds) encoc	led in the <i>Hor</i>	no sapie	ns genome.					
No/MSA	Name or alias	Accession code	Naa	m(kDa)	pI	HI(%)	TFPD	Gene	Chromosome	Biological profiles	Reference
1/12	FLJ41033	NP_653187	165	17900	7.8	43.6	23 - 108	LYPD1	2q21.2	expressed in brain	[14]
2/37	MGC52057	NP_919298	171	19118	5.7	36.3	47 - 129	LYPD6	2q23.2	unknown	[14]
3/47	Loc130576	NP_808879	207	23340	7.8	35.3	84 - 166	LYPD7	2q22.2-23.3	testis, lung, prostate	[27]
4/44	Act-RIA	$NP_{001096}$	509	57153	7.0	38.3	33 - 101	ACVR1	2q23-q24	receptor (ALK2)	[28]
5/33	Act-RIIA	NP_001607	513	57848	5.5	40.9	28-112	ACVR2A	2q22.3	receptor	[29]
6/38	BMP-KII	$NP_001195$	1038	115202	ν. κ. ι	27.0	32-125	BMPR2	2q33-q34	idem	[30]
0//	Act-KIC	NP_660302	493 512	04979 04272	1.1	4/.3 2 0 0	20-94 27 111	ACVRIC	2q24.1	idem (ALK/)	[31] [21]
0/47	ACI-KIIB TCE DII	160100 DIA	21C	04//0	0 A 0 A	0.4.0 n cc	71 115	AUVK2B	77dc		[10]
9123 10/28	IUF-KII DMD DID	NP_005255	/ 00	04008	0 r 0 r		49-140 101 101	I UFBK2	5p22	idem	[22]
10/38	BMP-KIB		200	16600		1.67	30-104 57 138	BMPKIB	4q22-q24	Idem (ALKO)	[vc]
11/3		UAU80042	14/	10710	4.7	49.1	57-158 104		0p21.3		[34] [25]
12/Outlier	Lyo-D	NP_U0/U09	155 201	19051	0.0	40.0	22-104	TY OGOD	0p21.3	MHC-III region	[cc]
13/7	Lybudge	CAC85545	107	71 277	7. v 0 t	24.2	20-100	LYOUDB	0021.31		[34] [21] 23
14/32	Ly6_G6E	NP_07/028	125	13524	9.7	49.6	28-96 26 88	LY6G6E	6p21.3		[34, 35]
12/29	Ly6_G6C	NP_0/933/	<b>C</b> 21	13821	8.0	43.2	66-07	LYGGOC	6q21.33	DIdi	[34, 35]
16/9	ArsB	$NP_{065160}$	103	11186	5.1	54.4	23 - 101	<b>SLURP1</b>	8q24.3	keratinocytes	[36]
17/22	SLURP2	NP_005663	123	12912	4.9	56.1	21 - 94	PSCA	8q24.3	prostate antigen	[37]
18/16	LY6DL	NP_002057	158	17730	6.9	30.8	29 - 112	GML	8q24.3	p53-induced	[38]
19/4	Lynx1	NP_076435	131	14027	6.3	55.7	57 - 130	Lynx1_a	8q24.3	neuromodulator	[39]
20/35	Lynx1c	NP 803252	116	12641	7.7	50.9	21 - 93	Lynx1 c	8q24.3	neuronal ligand	[39]
21/24	$Ly6_h$	NP_002338	140	14669	7.0	51.4	26 - 112	LY6H	8q24.3	cancer marker	[40, 41]
22/18	RGTR430	NP_991108	125	13115	5.6	58.4	23 - 101	LYPD2	8q24.3	unknown	[42]
23/45	E48	NP_003686	128	13287	8.1	38.3	21 - 94	LY6D	8q24-qter	cancer marker	[43, 44]
24/1	Lv6_e	NP_002337	131	13507	7.7	72.5	21 - 100	LY6E	8q24.3	cancer marker	[45]
25/20	$Ly6_k$	NP_059997	223	24983	9.5	33.2	99 - 181	LY6K	8q24.3	cancer marker	[46]
26/31	Hd_LBP	NP_835466	184	19806	4.6	28.8	63 - 138	<b>GPIHBP1</b>	8q24.3	lipoprotein ligand	[14]
27/17	TGF-RI	NP_004603	503	55960	7.3	41.2	34 - 108	<b>TGFBR1</b>	9q22	receptor (ALK5)	[47, 48]
28/13	Ly6-like_ORF	XP_059954	237	26580	8.2	52.3	155 - 237	C9orf57	9q21.13	hypothetical receptor	[14]
29/14	BMP_trunc	NP_036474	260	29108	7.6	40.0	28 - 106	BAMBI	10p12.3-p11.2	BMP inhibitor, ALK3	[49]
30/26	AVP1a	$NP_{001603}$	265	28157	4.5	20.4	188 - 264	ACRV1	11q23-q24	sperm-zona binding	[50]
31/15	Pate_M	I	108	12487	6.9	40.7	24 - 104		11	reproduction/neurons	[51]
32/28	Pate_DJ	I	105	12450	8.8	46.7	28 - 103		11	ibid	[51]
33/40	Pate_B	I	100	11533	8.4	39.0	25 - 100		11	ibid	[51]
34/19	Pate	NP_612151	126	14271	7.8	50.8	46 - 124	PATE	11q24.2	ibid	[52]
35/41	CD59	NP_000602	128	14177	6.0 1	36.7	26 - 96	CD59	11p13	binding complement C5	[53]
36/46	Act-RII_L	NP_000011	503	56139	7.3	38.4	32-97	ACVRLI	12q11-q14	receptor (ALK1)	[28]
37/11	Act-RIB	$NP_{004293}$	505	56807	9.9	40.2	32 - 103	ACVR1B	12q13	receptor (ALK4)	[28]
38/36	BMP-RIA	$NP_{004320}$	532	60198	7.4	39.5	59 - 132	BMPR1A	12q11-q14	receptor	[28, 54]
39/25	MIS-R	$NP_{065434}$	573	62750	5.5	33.0	22 - 118	AMHR2	12q13	ibid	[55]
40/2	MGC42718	NP_775777	246	26773	8.3	62.6	27 - 117	LYPD4	19q13.2	unknown	[14]
41/8,10	C4.4A	NP_055215	346	35872	7.4	38.2	2-TFPDs	LYPD3	19q13.31	cancer marker	[56]
42/21,30,43	uPAR	NP_002650	335	36978	6.2	32.8	3-TFPDs	PLAUR	19q13	matrix remodeling	[57]
43/34	FLJ30469	$NP_{-}1026919$	208	22228	6.9	30.8	90 - 172	LYPD5	19q13.31	unknown	[14]
44/27	SAMP14	NP_598005	124	13004	5.4	44.4	21 - 98	SPACA4	19q13.33	acrosomal protein	[58]
45/5	<b>TEX101</b>	NP_113639	267	28617	4.7	47.3	44 - 134	<b>TEX101</b>	19q13.31	testis/gonad expressed	[59]
Naa mumbar of	amino acid residue	et nase (m) in hDatt	he nIc and	HIs mare calc	ulated ac	decorihed [7	2] for the entir	e sequences the	TEDD limits ware (	antativaly actabliched ac state	in the text
IV da, IIUIIUUU UI	ו מוווווט מכוח וכצוחוני	55, 111d55 (111) 111 hL/a, 1	The pris alle	ITTS ACTC CATC	nialcu ai	z) nontroon (z	יל וחו תוכבוותו	e sequences, une	TTT TTTTTTTTTTTTTTTTTTTTTTTTTTTTTTTTTT	ICILIALI VOI SUAULISIICU AS SUALCU	

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crucial for signal transmission induced by the gradients of morphogens during embryogenesis and neurogenesis in developing organisms, they are also involved in other functions in adult organisms [6-8, 32, 33, 60-67].

The reading frame of the antisense gene LYPD1 (chromosome 2) in part overlaps with that of G protein-coupled receptor (GPR39). LYPD1 is expressed in the brain, whereas GPR39 is mainly expressed in different organs such as the liver and kidney [68]. Since LYPD1 should be expressed on the cell surface or in a soluble form, it may constitute a signaling molecule whose binding to a GPR transmit signals via G protein-associated networks. Loc130576 is expressed in the testis, lung, stomach and prostate (LYPD7) [27]. A cluster of 5 Ly6-related genes is encoded on chromosomes 6 in the major histocompatibility complex (MHC) class III region [34]. These proteins have highly hydrophobic TFPDs. Pairwise comparisons of their sequences revealed that the IDs were low compared with each other, which may imply a substantial differentiation of their apparent immunomodulatory functions [66].

Chromosome 8 contains a cluster of 11 Ly6-related genes including a high-density lipoprotein binding protein (Hd\_LBP, vigilin) [14, 42]. The TFPDs belonging to this cluster are preceded by signal sequences for extracellular secretion, are followed by potential proteolytic cleavage sites and are terminated with a GPI attachment signal sequence that result in soluble and membrane-tethered TFPDs. The latter type may be crucial in controlling lipid rafts of the plasma membrane that help in concentrating key signaling molecules. The ARS component B, also known as secreted lymphocyte antigen-6 (Ly6)/ uPAR-type plasminogen activator receptor-related protein 1 (SLURP1) [66], has a hydrophobic TFPD. It is an epidermal neuro-modulator whose rarely occurring AA mutations cause hyperkeratosis (Mal de Meleda diseases) [67]. SLURP2 is a hydrophobic protein also known as prostate stem cell antigen (PSCA) [44, 69]. The Lynx1 gene has three splicing forms whose products are endogenous toxin-like modulators of nicotinic acetylcholine receptors [39] that enhance their desensitization [70]. It has been suggested that E48 is restrictively expressed in keratinocytes and squamous tumor cells [43, 44]. Several other Ly6-proteins can also be potential markers of tumors [71-74]. It has been suggested that the Ly6cluster of the TFPs encoded on human chromosome 8 may form the susceptibility locus to HIV-1 infection in some individuals [75].

Several cell transformation proteins are encoded on chromosome 11, *e.g.*, PATE-like gene products [51, 52], the sperm acrosomal protein AVP1a that has several splicing isoforms [76] ranging in size from 81 to 265 AAs, and the CD59 receptor on the opposite chromosomal arm. The PATE gene products are expressed in the prostate and testis but their low expression levels have been detected in some specific regions of the brain [51]; Pate\_B and Pate\_M have almost identical sequences to those of XP\_374945 and NP\_997720 (LVLF3112), respectively [14, 42]. CD59, also known as protectin, is a membrane-anchored inhibitor of autologous lysis that binds to the C5–C8 complex, thereby detouring a membrane attack complex [12]. Although CD59 was found in the genomes of diverse vertebrates, it is also encoded in the *Saimiriine* herpesvirus 2 genome (NP\_040217).

On chromosome 19, several TFPs are encoded that have with one, two and three consecutive TFPDs. The C4.4a protein has two TFPDs [56], whereas the uPAR, also known as CD87, has three consecutive TFPDs and a GPI-anchored C-terminal signal sequence [9– 11]. The two TFPDs of C4.4a have similar Cys-motifs to those in TFPD-I and II of the uPAR, *i.e.*, they have similar sequence distributions of eight and ten Cys residues. The overall masses of C4.4a and uPAR are similar (35–36 kDa) but the former has a long hydrophobic C terminus. A testis-specific differentiation antigen, also known as acrosomal vesicle protein 14, is encoded in the same locus [58].

Sequence conservation in the human TFPDs. Alignment of the sequences summarized in Table 1 revealed that the maximum of the IDs lies at the range 20-30%(Fig. 3A), whereas the plot of the I<sub>e</sub> values calculated from the MSA47 indicates that only few sequence positions remain conserved. Similar distributions of the IDs (ID<sub>ave</sub>=23%) and I<sub>e</sub>s were calculated from the MSA802. The numbers of Cys residues in the aligned sequences (MSA47) vary from 6 to 12. Of the sequence, 36 (77%) have 10 Cys residues, while 4 of them have 12 Cys. The plot of the  $I_e$  values (Fig. 3B) indicates that several Cys sequence positions and the C-terminal CN doublet are well conserved, whereas the other sequence positions have highly variable AA compositions. A dendrogram of all human TFPDs generated from the dnd file produced with the ClustalW program is shown in Figure 1S of the supplementary material, whereas the numerical measures for conservation levels of sequence fragments corresponding to  $\beta$ -strands present in 1M9Z (TGF $\beta$ -RII) and 1IQ9 (a neurotoxin) are given in Tables 1S and 2S, respectively (supplementary material). Conservation of sequence fragments corresponding to different secondary structures of the arbitrarily chosen sequence of the ECD of TGF $\beta$ -RII (1M9Z) is shown in Table 1S, whereas similar measures calculated from the MSA310 using the sequence of the



**Figure 3.** (*A*) Distribution of the sequence similarity score (IDs) in sequence alignment of human TFPDs. (*B*) Shannon information entropy ( $I_e$ ) values calculated from the MSA47 using the sequence of 1M9Z as reference. Only the sequence positions having at least 25% residue occupancy are shown in the graph, whereas the full set of numerical data is given in MSA47.out in supplementary materials. The Cys residues were explicitly placed on the graph with the highly conserved positions indicated by the arrows. The following disulfide bonds are formed: C1-C3 (Db1), C2-C4 (Db2), C5-C6 (Db3), C7-C8 (Db4), and C1a-C1b (Db1a disulfide bond in Finger 1).

short neurotoxin from *N. nigricollis* (P01246, 1IQ9) [77] is shown in Table 2S. Both tables illustrate that the fragments have moderate conservation with the C-terminal segment reaching the highest conservation level and the lowest divergence between its AA composition and that derived from the human genomic database.

Sequence attributes of the human TFPDs. Several genomic databases [14] have been recently analyzed using the concept of overall hydrophobicity of proteins that let us to divide the protein kingdom into several groups according to their HIs [22]. Using the

same concept we sorted the human TFPDs into three arbitrary zones according to their HIs. Zone 1 comprises the hydrophilic entities (Z1, HIs  $\leq 25\%$ ), Z2 those with moderate hydrophobicity (25% < HIs) $\leq$  40%), and Z3 the hydrophobic domains (HIs  $\geq$ 40%). The 2D distribution of the HIs versus the pIs of the human TFPDs is shown in Figure 4. The hydrophilic zone contains the ECDs of several receptors whose HIs are similar to those of the soluble forms of diverse neurotoxins and muscarinic toxins [4]. The ECDs of MIS-R, TGFβ-RII and SLURP2 are moderately hydrophobic, whereas the ECDs of TGFβ-RI, TGF $\beta$ -RII, Act-RIIC and several other TFPDs such as Pate\_M, SLURP1, SLURP2, Lynx1, TEX101, LY6H and LYPD4 are in the hydrophobic zone. The HIs of the three consecutive TFPDs in the uPAR are in the moderately hydrophobic and hydrophilic zones, whereas the two TFPDs of C4.4A are both in the hydrophobic zone. The pls of the majority of the human TFPDs are below 7. For example, the ECDs of diverse receptors (Act-RI, MIS-R), the TFPDs of the uPARs and several Ly6-related gene products (CD59 or Lynx) are moderately acidic to neutral (pIs 5.5-7.5). Likewise, the TFPDs in the *C. elegans* and *D*. melanogaster genomes and all the PMFs have acidic pIs. The homologues of the PATE, GML, E48 or LYPD4 have basic pls, similar to the toxic components of snake venoms, i.e., neurotoxins, cardiotoxins or weak toxins that vary from basic to very basic (pIs  $\geq$  8.5) [4].

Data shown in Figure 4 may reflect some functional traits of the TFPDs, showing that these two sequence attributes were adapted to the physicochemical properties of each functional niche harboring human TFPDs and their targets. For example, human PATE and PATE\_M are probably involved in membrane penetration via their hydrophobic interactions in the sperm/egg ensemble, paralleling the action of snake cardiotoxins penetrating into membranes [78]. Their less hydrophobic homologues, Pate\_DJ and Pate\_B, may bind to the membranes via a combined set of charge/charge and hydrophobic interactions. The majority of human TFPDs have moderate HIs similar to those the C. elegans HOT(1-7) gene products, whereas CD59, E48 and several ECDs are hydrophilic, which is a hallmark of the majority of the neurotoxins and muscarinic toxins that bind to diverse GPR-like receptors [79]. The pIs of the TFPDs may also have some functional meaning. Human SLURP1, SLURP2, and the majority of the ECDs of the large receptors have acidic pIs, similar to the HOT(1-7)gene products in C. elegans [80], which should retain them in an outer sphere of the cell, or keep them in a direct association with the exterior part of a receptor. Likewise, the PMFs are secreted, negatively charged

proteins that bind to vomeronasal (olfactive) receptors of the salamander [18].



**Figure 4.** Two-dimensional (2D) distribution of the HIs *versus* pIs of the TFPDs aligned in Fig. 2. The HIs and pIs were calculated for the length of the TFPD given in Table 1. For clarity, only some squares were explicitly labeled (see Table 1 for the abbreviations used). uPAR-I, uPAR-II, uPAR-III, C4.4\_S1 and C4.4\_S2 correspond to the consecutive TFPDs in the uPAR and C.4a proteins, respectively.

Conserved traits in the 3D structures in the TFPDs targeting different ligands. In Figure 5, a 2D bitriangular distance map derived from two highresolution X-ray structures is shown: the ECD of TGFβ-RII (1M9Z, 1.05 Å, upper triangle) [81] and the weak toxin bucandin (1F94, 0.97 Å, lower triangle) [82]. Their 3D models are shown in Figure 6A and B. Intramolecular interaction clusters were redistributed according to the sequence alignment shown in the upper coordinate of the distance matrix (at the top of the figure). In bucandin (lower triangle), finger 1 (F1) is made with  $\beta$ -strands 1 and 2 ( $\beta$ 1- $\beta$ 2) that are linked by  $\beta$ -turn 1 ( $\tau$ 1) forming  $\beta$ -hairpin I.  $\beta$ -strands 3 and 4 ( $\beta$ 3- $\beta$ 4) are linked by  $\beta$ -turn 3 ( $\tau$ 3) and form finger 2 (F2,  $\beta$ -hairpin II).  $\beta$ -hairpin II is linked to  $\beta$ hairpin I via  $\beta$ -turn 2 ( $\tau$ 2) that is positioned at the base of a palm of each TFPD.  $\beta$ -strand 5 is linked to  $\beta$ strand 6 via a conserved extended loop (Finger 3, F3) whereas  $\beta$ -turn 5 ( $\tau$ 5) links F3 to the C-terminal highly conserved part that has two intercalating  $\beta$ -turns ( $\tau 6$ ). These three fingers have their counterparts in the upper triangle despite the fact that the ECD of the TGFβ-RII receptor has several loops that are longer than the loops in the toxin, and the secondary structure content of the three fingers is somewhat different than in the bucandin (Fig. 6A, B). In the ECD of the TGF $\beta$ -RII (upper triangle), long finger 1 consists four  $\beta$ -strands  $\beta$ 1,  $\beta$ 1a,  $\beta$ 2 and  $\beta$ 2a) that are linked by  $\beta$ -turns. Finger 2 is made of  $\beta$ -strands  $\beta$ 3 and  $\beta$ 4, whereas finger 3 consists  $\beta$ -strands  $\beta$ 5 and  $\beta$ 6 and is linked *via* a short  $\alpha$ -helix to  $\beta$ -strand 7.  $\beta$ 2a interacts with  $\beta$ 7 that is the last secondary structure before the TM segment that links the ECD with an intracellular kinase domain.  $\beta$ 7 also interacts with  $\beta$ 5, whereas  $\beta$ 6 forms a cluster of interactions with the long loop linking  $\beta$ -strands 4 and 5 (green arrows). A short  $\alpha$ -helical segment at the C-terminal part is shown near the diagonal as a red oval.

In both structures, the base of the palm is tightly packed around three highly conserved disulfide bridges (Db1, Db2 and Db4, see Fig. 2) that form a strong interaction cluster stabilizing the hydrophobic core despite its size or the nature of the domains flanking it [4]. The atomic interaction networks between the N-terminal segment and the C-terminal CN doublet (violet ovals at the upper and lower corners) remain well conserved. Some unique interactions visible in the upper triangle are due to a larger TFPD of type II TGF $\beta$  receptor. The KS statistics showed, however, that a virtually perfect correspondence exists for the major intramolecular interaction clusters contained in these two triangles (KS=0.610).

Spatial analogues of the TFPD. Some of the small proteins secreted in C. elegans display a distant sequence similarity to mammalian Ly6-like proteins. For example, the 125-AA polypeptide (F58B4.3, NP\_505786) may have some distant correlation to Lynx1, the 192-AA polypeptide (T21C12.1, NP\_492605) could be related to PATE, and the 111-AA polypeptide (F55C12.7, NP\_495170) may be related to SLURP1. Several splicing forms of the C. elegans Odr-2 gene (TO1C4.2, NP\_001024090, chromosome 5) and a series of homologous HOT genes (HOT-1 to HOT-7, chromosomes 1-4) encode the TFPD proteins involved in chemo-sensation (olfaction-like system of the nematode) [80]. The AA sequences linking the network of Cys residues are longer in the HOT(1-7) gene products than in the other TFPDs, so that these proteins may constitute the largest TFPD known to date. The HIs of the TFPDs in the HOT(1-7) proteins are similar to the HI of human CD59. Several TFPD-containing receptors are encoded by the C. elegans genome that are involved in development of the nematode [84]. For example, a TGFβ-like receptor (sma-6, C32D5.2, NP\_495271) is related to the tkv gene in D. melanogaster, whereas abnormal dauer formation (daf-4, NP\_498211) is related to the activin-like 'baboon' receptor [84]. Three other TGF $\beta$ -family receptors are encoded on *C*. elegans chromosome I (NP\_492183, NP\_493361 and NP\_492668).



**Figure 5.** 2D distance maps derived from the ECD of the TGF $\beta$ -RII (1M9Z, upper triangle) [81] and the structure of the weak toxin bucandin (1F94, lower triangle) [82]. Anti-parallel  $\beta$ -sheets (indicated as wide blue arrows) are positioned perpendicularly to the diagonal.

The Argos protein expressed in *D. melanogaster* contains three domains rich in  $\beta$ -sheet that are tightened by three disulfide bridges forming a palm similar to that present in the TFPD. Comparison of the crystallographic structures of Argos bound to Spitz<sub>EGF</sub> [85] with several X-ray structures of the TFPDs revealed that there is only a distant resemblance between their structures. For example, there is no interaction between the N- and C-terminal segments of the Argos domains; such interaction is a highly conserved hallmark in the TFPDs. Moreover, the disulfide bonds display a different clustering pattern than that observed in all the TFPDs [4].

The PRV-1 protein (CD177, NP\_065139), the gene for which is encoded in on chromosome 19 (*H. sapiens*) in the same loci as the uPAR, was found to be overexpressed in polycythemia rubra vera [86]. Due to exon

switching, the PRV-1 protein has some disulfides in different pairings than those in a typical TFPD.

#### Conclusions

In the human genome at least 45 genes are encoded for which the products have from one to three TFPDs. Although the overall TFPD fold retains several highly conserved structural attributes [4], it is not known to what extent the fold is conserved in the proteins secreted in the other organisms, *e.g.*, the *C. elegans* HOT(1-7) gene products (a largest putative TFPD), the highly diversified TFPDs of the activin-like receptors in *C. elegans* and *D. melanogaster* or the diverse human TFPDs and PRV-1. It would be interesting to explore if some intermediary forms



**Figure 6.** Models of the ECD of TGF $\beta$ -RII (1M9Z) (*A*), and the weak toxin bucandin (1F94) (*B*). The models were made with PyMol [83]. Db, disulfide bond; F1, F2 and F3, three fingers; Lk1, Lk2, and Lk3 linkers of the fingers. The marked N- and C-terminal residues are in blue and pink, respectively.

exist between the fold of a typical TFPD and the *D*. *melanogaster* Argos protein [85].

Some TFPs contained in snake venoms, such as neurotoxins, cardiotoxins and muscarinic toxins, display deleterious activities in bitten animals [3, 87]. Their structurally homologous domains, such as the Ly6, Plaur and TGF $\beta$ -family of gene products expressed in different organisms, constructively influence development and functioning of different organs. For example, the 12 human TFPD-containing receptors may interact with several dozens of growth factors, creating a complex local context of cell growth, differentiation and proliferation [6–8]. The

remaining TFPD-containing proteins and their splicing variants regulate diverse signaling pathways via GPRs and other receptors, influencing sophisticated networks of neuronal functions, immune responses and communication relays between different cells. Briefly, those diverse activities may be summarized as follow. First, the ECDs of several cellular receptors bind diverse morphogens and cytokines to their TFPlike folded domain, and become crucial in development and embryonic differentiation of the stem cell lines and diverse organs [6-8, 60-64, 88-90]. Deregulation of growth factor gradients or improper secretion of morphogens in adult tissues may be a cause of cancers [6]. Secondly, some of the GPI-tethered and soluble human TFPs (the Ly6-family of cell surface antigens) detected as being overexpressed in tumor tissues could become useful in the diagnostics of an early stage of certain tumors [6, 71-73, 91-97]. In fact, immunotherapeutic targeting of Ly6 proteins may be beneficial, leading to complete regression of some tumors [98]. Thirdly, selective binding of the Ly6-gene products to diverse GPRs may activate diverse signaling networks (Lynx1, LYPD1, Pateseries, SLURP1 and SLURP2) [39, 51, 52, 70, 99]. Do some soluble TFPDs bind to human vomeronasal or olfactive receptors (GPRs) by analogy to the PMFs (courtship pheromones) sensed by the olfactive system of the salamander [18]? For example, SLURP1 has been detected in the granular layer of the skin and in diverse body fluids [67]. Is SLURP1 or another human Ly6-protein a pheromone-like gender-dependent molecule? Fourthly, TFPDs tethered to the membranes may bind to GPRs or other receptors on diverse cells and influence their motility, proliferation, cell-cell adhesion. It could be hypothesized that the expressed TFPDs may behave as anchors for HIV-1infected cells and would modulate their migration towards the lymph nodes. Fifthly, several Pate gene products [51, 52] and acrosomal TFPDs are crucial at some reproductive stages. Sixthly, the specific traits of the fold of TFPDs encoded on chromosome 8 could have been fashioned to bind an excess of morphogens and other factors targeting the ECDs of the TGFβfamily of receptors and would protect the cells from improper activation cascades. Some of them may protect the cells from being attacked by the complement cascades, similar to the CD59 receptor [12]; unfortunately their expression on the cell's surface could effectively protect cancerous cells from being destroyed by immune interventions. Finally, the nature of the ligands binding to these diverse Ly6related proteins still remains enigmatic.

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**Electronic supplementary material.** Supplementary material is available in the online version of this article at springerlink.com (DOI 10.1007/s00018-008-8473-8) and is accessible for authorized users.

#### Materials placed in supplementary materials:

**Figure 1S.** Dendrogram derived from the alignment of all the human TFPDs shown in Table 1. Attention: some of the branches were probably correctly set up, *e.g.*, the ECDs of the TGF $\beta$  family of receptors that perhaps are due to gene duplication events. Arrangements of the other branches are less certain since the IDs were relatively low in this group of protein domains.

**Figure 2S.** (*A*) Distribution of the IDs in the MSA802; (*B*)  $I_e$  values calculated from the MSA802. The Cys residues were explicitly placed on the graph with the highly conserved positions indicated by the arrows. The following disulfide bonds are formed: C1-C3 (Db1), C2-C4 (Db2), C5-C6 (Db3), C7-C8 (Db4), and C1a-C1b (Db1a disulfide bond in Finger 1).

**MSA47.out** - Full set of the numerical values of the  $I_{es}$  calculated from the MSA47.

Table 15. Conservation levels in the MSA47.

Table 2S. Conservation levels in the MSA310.

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