1   Research article

Emergence and evolution of the ERM proteins and merlin in metazoans

Shabardina V.[1][*], Kashima Y.[2], Suzuki Y.[3], Makalowski W.[1]

[1]Institue of Bioinformatics, University of Muenster, Niels-Stensen-Strasse 14, Muenster,
48149, Germany.
[2]Department of Computational Biology and Medical Sciences, The University of Tokyo, 5-1-
5 Kashiwanoha, Kashiwa, Chiba, 277-8562, Japan.
[3]Laboratory of Systems Genomics, Department of Computational Biology and Medical
Sciences, The University of Tokyo, 5-1-5 Kashiwanoha, Kashiwa, Chiba, 277-8562, Japan.

Author for correspondence: Shabardina V., Institute of Bioinformatics, University of
Muenster, Muenster, Germany, +49 251 8353003, shabardi@uni-muenster.de

Abstract

Ezrin, radixin, moesin, and merlin are the cytoskeletal proteins which functions are specific to

metazoans. They participate in cell cortex rearrangements, including cell-cell contact

formation, and play important role in cancer progression. Here we perform a comprehensive

phylogenetic analysis of the proteins spanning 87 species. The results describe a possible

mechanism of the protein family origin in the root of Metazoa, paralogs diversification in

vertebrates and acquisition of novel functions, including tumor suppression. In addition, a

merlin paralog, present in most of vertebrates, but lost in mammals, has been described. We

also highlight the set of amino acid variations within the conserved motifs as the candidates for

determining physiological differences between the ERM paralogs.

Keywords

Protein evolution, paralogs fate, ERM phylogeny

Introduction

Ezrin, radixin, and moesin of the ERM protein family, further ERMs, are cytoskeleton proteins

that mediate physical connection between intermembrane proteins and actin filaments

(Bretscher, Edwards and Fehon, 2002). They also act as signaling molecules, for example, as

intermediaries in Rho signaling (Ivetic and Ridley, 2004). Therefore, ERMs facilitate diverse

cellular processes, ranging from cytoskeleton rearrangements to immunity (Bosanquet et al.

2014; McClatchey 2014; Ivetic & Ridley 2004; Marion et al. 2011). Dysregulation of ERMs'

activity and expression impairs normal wound healing process and contributes to the

progression of different types of tumors (Bosanquet *et al.*, 2014; Clucas and Valderrama, 2014).

The activity of ERMs in the cell is regulated by the conformational switch from the inactive,

dormant folding to the active, "stretched" form. The inactive state is established through the

auto-inhibitory interaction between the N-terminal FERM and the C-terminal CERMAD

domains. That results in masking of the binding sites for membrane proteins in the FERM

domain and actin binding cite (ABS) in the CERMAD (Turunen *et al.*, 1998). Upon activation

ERMs consequently exposed to their two activating factors: PIP_2 (phosphatidylinositol 4,5-

bisphosphate) that binds to the FERM domain and phosphorylation of a conserved threonine

in CERMAD (Yonemura et al. 2002; Niggli & Rossy 2008). The important role during this
transition belongs to the middle α-helical domain. In the dormant ERMs it forms coiled-coil
structure, bringing N- and C-terminal domains together (Schliep *et al.*, 2017).

Little is known about individuality of each ERMs in, both, health and disease. The three
proteins are paralogs and share high amino acid sequence similarity (~75% in human)
(Funayama *et al.*, 1991; Lankes and Furthmayr, 1991). They demonstrate similar cellular
localization and are often discussed as functionally redundant. However, data from several
studies on knock-out mice revealed different phenotypes targeting different organs, and only
ezrin's depletion appeared to be lethal (Kikuchi *et al.*, 2002; Kitajiri *et al.*, 2004; Saotome, Curto
and McClatchey, 2004; Liu *et al.*, 2015). Special interest in ERMs' role in cancer stimulated
multiple studies. The proteins' dysregulation can lead to disruption of cell-cell contacts,
enhanced cell migration and invasion, and higher cancer cells survival (Clucas and Valderrama,
2014). Some studies showed that ezrin, radixin and moesin may exploit different cellular
mechanisms in tumors. (Pujuguet *et al.*, 2003; Kobayashi *et al.*, 2004; Debnath and Brugge,
2005; Estecha *et al.*, 2009; Chen *et al.*, 2012; Valderrama, Thevapala and Ridley, 2012).

One of the well-known tumor suppressor factors is an ERM-like protein merlin. In human, it
shares 46% amino acid sequence similarity with the whole-length ezrin and 86% similarity
when comparing only FERM domains (Turunen *et al.*, 1998). Mutations in merlin results in
development of neurofibromatosis type 2 characterized by formation of schwannomas
(Stickney *et al.*, 2004; Curto *et al.*, 2007). Tumor suppression activity of merlin is linked to the
blue-box region in its FERM domain, conserved serine Ser518 and last 40 residues in the C-
terminus (Lallemand, Saint-Amaux and Giovannini, 2009; Cooper and Giancotti, 2014). Two
acting binding sites in merlin are located in the FERM domain, while typical to ERMs C-terminal
ABS is absent (Roy, Martin and Mangeat, 1997; Brault *et al.*, 2001).

With the more research being done, it is getting clear that ezrin, radixin, and moesin can
invoke different physiological effects in different tissue types, especially in cancer (Clucas and
Valderrama, 2014). However, their highly conserved sequence and tertiary structure make it
not a trivial task to distinguish their functions in vivo. Phylogenetic approach can be an effective
tool in resolving the problem, as it enables precise paralogs characterization by tracing
evolutionary history of the binding sites and conserved amino acid motifs. So far only few
phylogenies of ERMs and merlin have been described in the literature. As a rule, they feature
limited taxonomy representation or are included in the studies as an accessory and brief part
of the discussions (Turunen *et al.*, 1998; Golovnina *et al.*, 2005; Phang *et al.*, 2016). Thus,

although these phylogenies recover some interesting patterns, they do not provide the full

understanding of ERMs and merlin evolution. The studies agree on the fact that the proteins are

highly conserved within the metazoan clade, especially in vertebrates. Moreover, the

appearance of the ERM proteins and merlin in the tree of Life seems to coincide with the origin

of multicellularity in animals (Bretscher, Edwards and Fehon, 2002; Omelyanchuk *et al.*, 2009;

Nambiar, McConnell and Tyska, 2010; Sebé-Pedrós *et al.*, 2013). This view is supported by the

recent discovery of ERM-like proteins in Choanoflagellata and Filasterea, the closets unicellular

relatives of metazoans (Fairclough *et al.*, 2013; Suga *et al.*, 2013).

The position of merlin relative to the ERM family differs in the literature, and some studies

exclude merlin from the discussion of the ERM family altogether. Nevertheless, since these

proteins share evolutionary history and structural characteristics, it is reasonable to unite them

in one group. In this work we conduct the first comprehensive phylogenetic analysis for the

ERM family and merlin, that includes data from all sequenced by the time metazoan orders. The

results describe the ERM and merlin sequence conservation and paralog number diversity

within the clade of Metazoa*.* We suggest that the increased organism complexity led to

diversification of the protein paralogs in vertebrates. Moreover, we highlight the importance of

phylogenetic studies of paralogs, in general, in application to experimental biology, especially

in disease-related research.

<u>Results</u>

Full length ERM/merlin-like proteins appeared within Metazoa-Filasterea-Choanoflagellata

group

Search for the ERM and merlin homologs throughout all eukaryotic clades resulted in the

selection of 285 protein sequences spanning 87 species, including metazoan and unicellular

organisms. ERM-like proteins are also present in choanoflagellates (*Salpingoeca rosetta* and

Monosiga brevicollis) and filastereans (*Capsaspora owczarzaki*). A sequence of 298 amino acids

(Supplementary file) identified in corallochytrean *Corallochytrium limacisporum* revealed 25%

sequence identity to the FERM domain of human ezrin based on the tBLASTn search against the

species' whole genome sequence. Although such similarity level does not guarantee structural

alikeness, according to (Rost and Sander, 1994), the domain annotation by PFAM indicated that

this polypeptide from *C. limacisporum* belongs to the class of FERM domain with the high

statistical support (e-value < 10^{-5} for each of the three subdomains of FERM). Sequence-based

prediction of biochemical properties revealed that the two FERM domains, human and

corallochytrean, exhibit distinct features, including pI (8.75 for human ezrin FERM domain and

6.79 for the *C. limacisporum* polypeptide), amino acid content, instability index and

hydropathicity. In particular, metazoan FERM domain is predicted to be more hydrophilic than

its suggested corallochytrean homolog (grand average of hydropathicity (GRAVY) index is -

0.530 and -0.270, respectively) and less stable (instability index estimated to be 43.57, i.e.

unstable protein, and 31.80, stable, respectively). The only binding site conserved in the

corallochytrean FERM is the site for PIP_2 interaction. No ERM-like proteins or FERM-like

domains could be found in the other inspected taxa. The list of all the taxa and the

corresponding proteins IDs used for the analysis can be found at the Supplementary (Table S2).

ERM+merlin protein family is conserved throughout all the metazoan orders and three unicellular

species

Sequence comparison of the selected proteins demonstrated that the domain structure and

most of the known binding sites are conserved throughout the whole metazoan clade, although

there is some length variation. The amino acid motifs conservation analysis (Fig. 1) revealed

that the homologs of such early branching animals as *Trixhoplax adhaerens* (Placozoa) and

Amphimedon queenslandica (Porifera) demonstrate similar pattern to the mammalian proteins

with a high statistical significance. The FERM and CERMAD domains are characteristically well

preserved, even in the proteins from the unicellular organisms, while α-helical middle domain

is the least conserved ERM domain as has been previously described (Phang *et al.*, 2016). The

N-terminal part of the FERM shows some length variation throughout different taxa by

including short, non-conserved amino acid stretches. More striking length variation can be

observed within the region separating the α-helical domain and the CERMAD. It is short for

proteins from vertebrate animals, but is increased in all other taxa, the longest is in the protein

from *C. owczarzaki*. The sequence of this region is poorly preserved between the taxa. The

proteins from the species of flat worms, *Inoshia linei* and *C. owczarzaki* are the most divergent.

Figure 1. MEME conserved amino acid motif analysis. Motifs in pale color were found by the scanning

algorithm based on the de-novo motif identification (bright color). Note the reduced length of the region

separating the alpha-helical and CERMAD domains in eutherian proteins.

The binding sites for EBP50, ICAM-2, NHERF2 binding partners of the ERMs, for PIP_2, ABS,

and intramolecular interaction sites (Bretscher et al. 2002; McClatchey 2014; Ivetic & Ridley

2004; Marion et al. 2011; Li et al. 2015) can be identified in the most of the sequences

(Supplementary, Table S2). This signifies that the protein family is responsible for the basic

cellular functions and some of the interactions might have been established in the early

metazoan history. The most conserved regions in the ERM proteins are PIP_2 binding sites in F1

and F3 subdomains of the FERM domain and the C-terminal ABS (specifically, KYKTL motif).

The most differing proteins come from the early branching metazoans *Molgula tectiformis*

(Tunicata), *A. queenslandica* (Porifera*),* and endo- and exo-parasites (*I. linei*, flat worms, and

blood sucking leech). Interestingly PIP_2 binding motif within F1 subdomain is not preserved

only in *M. tectiformis*. Small variation in KYKTL motif can be seen in the proteins from

Echinodermata and shark *Callorhinchus milii*.

Based on the sequence, merlin proteins can be classified into three groups (Fig. 2): 1) non-

vertebrate proteins; 2) vertebrate merlin1, absent in most of Eutheria 3) all-vertebrate merlin2

(we arbitrary assign here merlin1 and merlin2 names to the merlin paralogs). The group 2

comprises merlin1 proteins coded by the paralogous gene that has not been described before

(the list of the proteins is in the Supplementary, Table S2). It is characterized by a unique

insertion of 68 amino acids in tetrapods and 15 amino acids PPYxPHSNRNSAYMx in bonny

fishes in C-terminal domain and lacks tumor-suppression region characterized in human

merlin2 between residues 532-579. It does have merlin specific blue-box region and the

conserved Ser518. Interestingly, within Eutheria clade only armadillos (superorder Xenarthra)

possess merlin1 gene. Invertebrate merlins, group 1, are similar to vertebrate merlin1 but lack

the C-terminal domain insertion. Merlin2, group 3, is present in all vertebrate taxa and has an

additional actin binding site in the F1 of FERM and the tumor-suppression amino acid stretch

in its CERMAD domain (residues 532-579 in human). The blue-box region can also be identified

in the two proteins from the unicellular species: XP_004364665.2 in *C. owczarzaki* and

XP_004991962.1 in *S. rosetta*.

Phylogenetic tree of the ERM+merlin family

The reconstructed ML tree resulted in high phylogenetic resolution among vertebrates, while

the branching for most of the other taxa have low statistical support (Fig. 2). The alternative

methods of phylogenetic reconstruction, including neighbor-joining algorithm, parsimony

method, and Bayesian inference, could not improve the resolution (data not shown). Two

former trees revealed almost identical branching and statistical confidence. The Bayesian

reconstruction could not achieve conversion after 3000000 generations. The run was

terminated and the consensus tree was built anyway. It featured clustering of vertebrate

proteins supported by high bootstrap values, but unresolved branching for the invertebrate

sequences. One of the reasons can be an unequal representation of the taxa due to the lack of

sequencing data for the invertebrate clades. Another complication for the analysis could be the

high divergence of the amino acid sequences between evolutionary distant lineages. The ML

tree is used for the further discussion.

The most "eccentric" sequence in the reconstructed phylogeny is the one of the hypothetical

protein from *I. linei*, that, although features all three ERM domains, has the highest substitution

rate and does not cluster with any other groups. Consequently, it cannot be defined as ERM-like

or as merlin-like protein. This is not surprising, as *I. linei*, a representative of orthonectids, is a

parasitic animal, and its hermaphrodite nature, fast reproductive cycles and high level of

inbreeding can be the reason that makes its genome distant from the genomes of other

metazoans (Lu *et al.*, 2017).

The protein from *I. linei* was arbitrary chosen to separate the tree into two major clusters:

ERM-like and merlin-like groups. Therefore, any "hypothetical" or "unknown" proteins could

be annotated whether as ERM-like or as merlin-like, based on their position relative to *I. linei*'s

protein. Besides improving annotation of such proteins, some false annotations deposited in

the public protein databases were corrected (Supplementary, Table S2).

Figure 2. Phylogenetic ML tree: ERM+merlin family. The ERM-like part of the tree is shaded in blue,

the merlin-like part is shaded in green. Note the emergence of the ezrin, radixin, moesin paralogs in

vertebrates; and divergence of vertebrate merlins on merlin1 and merlin2 paralogs. Some proteins from

the unicellular choanoflagellates species and a proteins from *Capsaspora* relate more to merlin-like

proteins, some – to ERM-like proteins. Color scheme for bootstrap values: green – 70-100%, yellow –

50-70%, red – below 50%. Refer to the tree file in Newick format to see branch lengths and bootstrap

values (Supplementary file).

Interesting observation can be made regarding the proteins from the unicellular species. The *C. owczarzaki*'s protein XP_004364665.2 and S. rosetta's protein XP_004991962.1 cluster as merlins; and XP_004997754.1 from *S. rosetta* and XP_001746613.1 from *M. brevicollis* cluster as ERM-like. However, the bootstrap support is not high enough to confidently assign these annotations. At the same time, the proteins XP_004994097.1 from *S. rosetta* and XP_001743289.1 from *M. brevicollis* rather cluster together with the invertebrate ERM-like group. That provides an insight into the origin of the ERM+merlin family and suggests that merlin and ERMs diverged from the common ancestral protein before emergence of Metazoa.

Cnidaria, Placozoa, Echinodermata, Scalidofora, Lophotrochozoa, Porifera, Hemichordata, Cephalochordata, and Mesozoa taxa branching could not be defined by this analysis with statistical confidence. ERM-like proteins from the clade Tunicata are the most related to the vertebrate ERMs (bootstrap support 83%), but the tunicate's merlins do not form clear clustering. The three clearly distinguishable groups, beside vertebrates, are Nematoda (99%) and Tardigrada (100%), and Arthropoda (76%) that includes Insecta (95%). ERM-like proteins from nematodes and tardigrades cluster together with the bootstrap support of 48%. The phylogenetic position of tardigrades is so far unclear and developmental stages and genetics of these animals share features of both, arthropods and round worms (Gabriel *et al.*, 2007; Yoshida *et al.*, 2017).

Ezrin divergence from the group radixin-moesin in Vertebrata is supported with 100% bootstrap value; radixin and moesin diverge in the separated clusters with the bootstrap of 66% and 100%, respectively. Radixin seems to be the slowest evolving protein in the family judging from the branch lengths. Coelacanthimorpha (*Latimeria chalumnae*), Teleostei (bonny fishes), Holostei (*Lepisosteus oculatus*), Chondrichthyes (cartilaginous fishes) and Amphibia are clearly separated from each other and the closely related group of Prototheria-Metatheria-Theria-Sauria (mammals, reptiles, birds). This is true for each of ezrin, radixin, and moesin clusters. The pattern is similar for the vertebrate merlins, except the merlins from *Xenopus laevis* cluster within the mammals-reptiles-birds group. Each ERM protein in the bonny fishes has an additional paralog and the divergence of ezrin, radixin, and moesin into two clusters each can be distinctly seen within the bonny fishes clade. This agrees with the hypothesis of the lineage-specific whole genome duplication (WGD) events (see further).

Positive selection in fish lineages

The long branch lengths for ezrin and merlin1 proteins in vertebrates suggest that they evolved faster than radixin, moesin and merlin paralogs2. To take a deeper look into the evolution of vertebrate ezrin and merlins we analyzed the ratio of nonsynonymous to synonymous nucleotide substitutions, omega, along ezrin and merlin trees separately from the rest of the data set. The codeml test in PAML for varying omega rates among the tree branches (branch free-ratio model) verified that the varying ratio scenario is more likely than not (p-value 5.7e-109 for ezrin and 1.5e-39 for merlin1-2). The branch free-ratio model is useful for overall estimation but not very informative due to the little statistical power, as it uses a big number of parameters for calculations. Therefore, we performed as well the branch-site model analysis in order to test for positive selection within some lineages, based on the ML tree and the branch-free ratio model estimation.

Among ezrin proteins only holostei and teleost fishes are likely to have undergone evolution under positive selection (p-value 0.005). Other lineages seem to evolve under stricter constrain. Such phenomena can be explained by the additional duplication events in fishes and, therefore, weaker selective pressure (Glasauer and Neuhauss, 2014).

In the case of merlin, all tested branches of merlin1 showed evidence for positive selection (p-value 4.6e-09). At the same time the sequence of merlin2, the paralog responsible for anti-tumor activity, seems to be highly conserved during evolution in all vertebrates.

Paralog number diversity

All invertebrate taxa included in this analysis are characterized by the presence of zero or two ERM-like paralogs and zero or one merlin-like paralogs (Table 1, Supplementary table S1). In particular, *I. linei*, *T. adhaerens* and all three species of Platyleminthes have only one gene coding for an ERM-like protein and no merlins. Among Nematoda species, *Loa loa* has only ERM-like protein, no merlin. These observations highlight the trend of simplification in parasites. All other invertebrate taxa have at least one ERM-like and one merlin-like proteins. Although, some paralogs can be missing from our data due to the incomplete genome assemblies. It is interesting to note that some cnidarians and lophotrochozoans underwent a local duplication of ERM-like genes, that resulted in the paralogous genes located within few thousand nucleotides from each other (*Lingula anatina*, *Exaiptasia pallida*).

Vertebrates have, as a rule, three ERM proteins (ezrin, radixin, and moesin) and two merlins. Although several very interesting exceptions can be found. As it was already mentioned,

Eutheria, except armadillos, keep only merlin2. We indicated a few more cases of lineage
specific paralogs lost or gain. For example, teleost fishes have four to six ERM paralogs in
different combinations, and Atlantic salmon (*Salmo salar*) has ten ERM genes (two of ezrin, four
radixin, and four of moesin). This observation is in accordance with the hypothesis of a lineage
specific WGD in salmonids (Glasauer and Neuhauss, 2014). Further, some of Neognathae birds
lost moesin gene. *X. laevis* has five ERM proteins (one ezrin, two radixins, two moesins) and
three merlin paralogs, likely the result of another lineage specific WGD that took place around
40 million years ago (Van de Peer, Maere and Meyer, 2009). Elephant shrew (*Elephantus*
edwardii) has two ezrin genes and one radixin. Interestingly, one of its ezrin genes is a
retrogene. Besides there are at least four pseudogenes descendant from the ERM family in this
species. There are few cases of ERM pseudogenes throughout mammals, but the case of
elephant shrew is the most prominent.

To avoid any errors during the paralogs number estimation, we ran tBLASTn searches
against any available RSA sequences and whole genome sequences for the species that show
lack of any of the paralogs.

Table 1. Number of paralogous genes in different metazoan lineages. For more detailed count refer to the Table S1 in the Supplementary.

	ERM-like	Merlin-like	comments
Mesozoa	1	0	*Intoshia linei*
Placozoa	1	0	*Trichoplax adhaerens*
Porifera	1	1	
Cnidaria	1-2	1	Local duplication in *E. pa*
Platyhelmynthes	1	0	
Nematoda	1	0-1	
Arthropoda	0-3	1	
Lophotrochozoa	0-3	0-1	
Hemichordata	1	1	*Saccoglossus kowalevskii*
Cephalochordata	1	1	*Branchiostoma belcheri*
Tunicata	1	1	
Chondrichthyes	3	1-2	cartilage fishes
Coelacanthimorpha	3	2	*Latimeria chalumnae*
Holostei	3	2	*Lepisosteus oculatus*
Teleostei	4-10	2	bonny fishes
Reptilia	3	1-2	
Aves	2-3	1-2	
Crocodylia	3	2	
Amphibia	5	3	*X. laevis*
Eutheria	2-3	1-2	
Metatheria	3	2	marsupials
Prototheria	3	2	platypus

Emergence of the three ERM paralogous genes in vertebrates could be a result of the two rounds of the WGD that took place in the root of vertebrates and a consequent loss of one copy of the gene. An additional increase of the paralogs number in the teleost fishes is likely to be the result of the lineage specific WGD event. Although the possibility of a duplication event of a local character cannot be excluded.

The situation with merlin genes is different. Even the lineages that underwent the additional WGD rounds and have increased number of ERM paralogs, still keep strictly two merlin genes.

However, there is a large exception within the Eutheria clade: majority of the lineages there lost merlin1 gene (Fig. 3). This fact was previously unknown or unappreciated, likely because most of the merlin studies were done on the representatives of Eutheria clade (human, mouse), thus describing only merlin2 paralog. Therefore, it is not surprising that merlin1 went unnoticed.

Figure 3. Scheme of gene duplication and paralogs lost in vertebrates. Erm – ERM-like, mrl – merlin-like, ezr – ezrin, rdx – radixin, moe – moesin.

Synteny relationships

We analyzed synteny conservation for ERM proteins at two levels: intra-synteny for ezrin, radixin, and moesin within *Homo sapiens* species, and synteny for ERMs and ERM-like proteins between metazoan lineages. Interestingly, ezrin, radixin, and moesin genes very poorly preserve synteny, neither in their closest neighborhood (~500 Gb up- and downstream), nor on the whole chromosomes (Fig. 4). Such observation suggests that the appearance of the three paralogs can be of a local character, rather than a result of the WGD event. However, in such case the persistence of the three paralogs in all the diverse vertebrate lineages would be also difficult to explain.

On the other hand, the similarity can be found in genes location between mammals (*H. sapiens, Mus musculus*), fish (*Danio rerio*), cnidarians (*Stylophora pistillata*), *T. adhaerens*, and *A. queenslandica*. The remarkable conservation of the syntenic block can be seen between human and mouse, for example, where all seven protein coding genes surrounding ezrin in human match those in mouse (data not shown). Insects (*Drosophila melanogaster*), however, show no trace of synteny with any of the lineages, that is surprising regarding the high sequence similarity of the ERM-like protein in fruit fly and human ERMs. Such divergence could reflect the specificity of insects' - or fruit fly, in particular - genome architecture and evolution.

Perhaps, analysis of conservation of non-coding sequences, including repetitive elements, could be useful in understanding the syntenic divergence in *D. melanogaster* and character of duplication events in vertebrate lineage.

Figure 4. Synteny relationships for ezrin, radixin, and moesin genes in the genome of *H. sapiens* and of ezrin and ERM-like proteins in different animals. Color scheme is used for the better visualization. Solid lines connect syntenic genes, dash lines are used in case if only parts of genes (proteins domains) are syntenic.

To assess the evolutionary background of the two merlin paralogs, we compared gene content around merlin1 and merlin2 genes in chicken and zebrafish. The revealed synteny suggests the higher genomic structure conservation between regions containing merlin2 genes. In particular, more syntenic genes located within 1 Mb interval and shared higher sequence identity. Synteny between the two different merlin paralogs (merlin1 and merlin2) is the least conserved, with only one syntenic gene pare present in the close proximity to the merlin genes (Tab. 2). This pattern is more striking if comparing human and zebrafish. The data present in the Synteny Database show 19 synteny pares around merlin2 gene in human and zebrafish and

347 no similarity when comparing human merlin2 and zebrafish merlin1 (see Supplementary,

348 TableS2).

350 Table 2. Comparison of synteny between merlin1 and merlin2 genes.

	Da.re mrl1-Da.re mrl2	Da.re mrl1-Ga.gl mrl1	Ga.gl mrl2-Da.re mrl2
Number of syntenic pares	14	16	34
Synteny within 1 Mb interval	1	2	9
Syntheny: same chromosome	13	14	25
Sequence identi estimator[a]	51%	66%	67%

[a] Sequence identity estimator shows how much of sequence identity share 50% of all

syntenic pares. The detailed comparison table can be found at the Supplementary table S2.

Unicellular ancestry of ERM+merlin family

With the assumption that the closest unicellular relatives of animals are choanoflagellates and

filastereans, we assumed that their ERM-like and merlin-like proteins are the best candidates

for speculating about the proteins ancestral form. We built a small phylogeny tree, including

only few sequences from an eutherian representative (*H. sapiens*) and *S. rosetta, M. brevicollis,*

and C. owczarzaki. Eliminating the rest of the taxa decreases the reliability of the reconstruction,

but, regarding the high sequence diversity and scarcity of the data for invertebrates, this

approach is the most straightforward. The tree highlights three groups: 1) merlins (Eutheria,

Choanoflagellata, Filasterea), although this cluster can be separated into two subgroups:

filasteran and eutarian+choanoflagellate; 2) highly specialized (or the result of genome mis-

assembly) proteins of the two choanolagellate short proteins lacking most of the middle

domain; 3) ERM group comprising eutherian and choanoflagellate homologs (Fig. 5).

Figure 5. ML tree indicating three clusters of ERM/merlin-like proteins in the unicellular organisms:

two species form choanoflagellates and one filasterean species. Group A unites merlin and merlin-like

proteins, clade B is represented by the two proteins with a rudimental middle domain, clade C – ERM-

like proteins. The tree in Newick format is in Supplementary file.

Although the tree is more a scheme than an illustration of the phylogenetic relationships, it

is useful for speculating about the origin of the modern protein family. We, therefore, modelled

an ancestral sequence for ERM+merlin family based on this tree (Supplementary file). It

suggests the conserved domain structure and presence of the most characteristic binding sites

(for PIP$_2$, intramolecular interaction, ABS), but includes an additional 63 amino acid region

separating alpha-helical domain and CERMAD. Computational prediction of the tertiary

structure of this insertion characterized the corresponding polypeptide as an extended

structure with a low probability to form α-helix (Fig. 6).

Figure 6. Structural modelling. A: 3D peptide structure prediction for the first 50 residues of the

insertion in the reconstructed ancestral protein. Coloring is used for a better visualization. B: Probability

plot for the first 47 amino acids of the insertion, each amino acid is assigned a probability to be included

in a particular structure: red – α-helix, blue – random coil, green – extended structure. Higher values

mean higher probability. The plot suggests that the analyzed polypeptide folds into an extended

structure. Reconstruction was done in PEP-FOLD3.

Discussion

Phylogenetic analysis is a valuable approach in protein annotation and characterization and can

significantly improve genome annotations. Unfortunately, it requires more time and efforts

than an automated genome annotation pipelines. However, it can and should be routinely used

for proteins that are actively studied in vivo and for medical applications, if not for evolutionary

studies. The presented here phylogenetic tree allows distinguishing between ERM-like and

merlin-like subgroups of the protein family and between different ERM paralogs in the

approach proposed more than 20 years ago by Jonathan Eisen (Eisen, 1998). As a result, we

were able to improve annotations of these proteins in different species, as well correcting

errors in several cases when, for example, an ezrin was erroneously called a radixin or a moesin.

Furthermore, the tree clearly demonstrates that assignment of the invertebrate proteins to

"ezrin", "radixin" or "moesin" is inconsistent, since the divergence of the three ERM paralogs

happened in the root of Vertebrata. A good example are the two incorrect assignments at the

NCBI protein database: XP_002160112.1 protein annotated as radixin in *Hydra vulgaris* and

NP_727290.1 protein annotated as moesin in *D. melanogaster*. We suggest to restrict the names

ezrin, radixin, moesin only to the vertebrate proteins, while referring to others as ERM-like or

merlin-like.

Some inconsistencies also happen in the studies with vertebrate ERMs. For example, there

are experimental data discussed for chicken moesin (Winckler *et al.*, 1994; Li and Crouch,

2000), even though the authors did not find enough evidence to confidently claim moesin's expression in the samples. Indeed, such experiments are questionable, as our phylogenetic analysis indicates that chicken (*Gallus gallus*) lost moesin gene and has only ezrin and radixin. Such an example shows the importance of incorporating bioinformatics milieu in the wet-lab studies, especially for the proteins from the less studied, not model organisms, to avoid confusion and data discrepancy.

To get an insight on the evolution of the ERM+merlin protein family, we collected protein sequences from 84 species of Metazoa and 3 unicellular species from the clades Choanoflagellata and Filasterea. We could also identify a FERM-like domain with the conserved PIP_2 binding site in a species from Corallochytrea clade, likely the first lineage with FERM domain in the tree of Life (Fig. 7A). This finding is in agreement with the study of the domain gain and lost in different taxa, that estimated that the FERM's origin took place in Holozoa (Grau-Bové *et al.*, 2017). This is also consistent with the fact that FERM domain is the most conserved part of the proteins in the family. It is possible, that this corallochytrean FERM domain is a full-length protein, as computational prediction by ExPASy ProtParam algorithm estimated that it likely folds into a stable structure. We suggest that this FERM-like protein is a membrane binding protein involved in communication of the cell and extracellular environment. It can be similar to a predecessor of the ERM+merlin family. Domain shuffling and/or shifts within the open reading frame of the predecessor gene could lead to the origin of a longer protein with an acting binding capability of its newly acquired C-terminal part, i.e. with a scaffolding function similar to that of the modern ERMs. Such mechanisms, for example, were discussed in the studies about emergence of animal multicellularity (Shalchian-Tabrizi *et al.*, 2008; Richter and King, 2013).

We found first full-length ERM/merlin-like proteins in the closest unicellular relatives of metazoan – choanoflagellates (*S. rosetta* and *M. brevicollis*), and filasterean (*C. owczarzaki*). These proteins combine some characteristics of ERM-like (for example, C-terminal ABS) and merlin-like (multiple dispersed prolines at the C-terminal end of the alpha-helical domain, absence of the ERM-specific $R_{/K}EK_{/R}EEL$ repeat within the α-helix) groups. It points out that modern merlin-like and ERM-like proteins likely emerged from the same ancestral form in the root of Metazoa. Phylogenetic reconstruction of a sequence of this ancestral form suggests that it could bind actin filaments and PIP_2 lipid, therefore, could perform the function of mechanical linkage of the cell membrane and underlying actin filaments.

441  An ancestor of filasterean and choanoflagellates was likely able to form transient cell-cell or
442 cell-surface contacts and could exploit its ERM/merlin-like protein for this purpose, as *S. rosetta*
443 and *C. owczarzaki* probably do, as suggested by sequence analysis of their homologs. This trend
444 could be expanded in primitive metazoans to the scaffolding function within cell-cell contacts,
445 for example, adherens junctions in trichoplax. ERM-like protein of this early branching
446 metazoan already possesses the key features of the ERM family: ABS and binding sites for PIP_2,
447 EBP50, ICAM-2, NHERF2, and intramolecular binding sites. Similarly, one study suggested that
448 ERM proteins were involved in the development of the filopodia in metazoans (Sebé-Pedrós *et*
449 *al.*, 2013). However, more sequencing data from other unicellular taxa and in vivo experiments
450 are required to support or reject this hypothesis.

451  Function of the protein family in the unicellular organisms was probably limited and
452 restricted to scaffolding, partly because of inability to activity regulation. Indeed, the auto-
453 inhibitory interaction in the unicellular proteins is questionable, due to the presence of an extra
454 amino acid stretch between the middle and CERMAD domains (Fig. 7B). Prediction of the
455 tertiary structure of this insertion indicates that it is unlikely an α-helix, therefore, such
456 inclusion could drastically change protein folding.

Figure 7. Early metazoan history of ERM+merlin protein family. A: Schematic illustration of the early
ERM+merlin phylogenetic history. The arrows show first appearance of the protein structures. B:
Domain structure comparison. The predicted ERM/merlin ancestral protein and the protein from *C.*
owczarzaki demonstrate longer insertions between the α-helix and CERMAD. Numbers indicate number
of amino acids.

Further in the metazoan evolution, decreasing distance between the middle and the C-
terminal domain could be one of the evolutionary modifications that facilitated ERMs'
characteristic auto-inhibitory, intramolecular binding. Therefore, our hypothesis is in
accordance with the rheostat-like model of ezrin activation that ascribes the major role in this
process to the alpha-helical domain (Li *et al.*, 2007). The rheostat-like manner of activation
allows intermediate protein states between its inactive and active form. This multilevel manner
of conformational regulation granted biochemical flexibility to ERM and merlin proteins.
Consequently, they evolved more regulatory and binding sites and, therefore, acquired more
functions in the cell, and eventually, became involved in signaling pathways. ERM's intricate
activity regulation mechanism became beneficial in vertebrate animals with increasing
complexity of their cellular physiology and number of cell types. As a result, three ERM and two
merlin paralogs diverged, acquiring some tissue specific functions in a process that can be
described by the birth-and-death model (Nei and Rooney, 2005).

In agreement with the high sequence conservation among different lineages, ERM proteins
also show high synteny preservation, especially within mammalian taxa, but also in such a
distantly related animals as trichoplax and sponges. Surprisingly, very poor synteny
conservation can be observed between ERM proteins within species. In the case of human
ERMs, one syntenic genes pare for regions around moesin and radixin genes, and one – for
regions around ezrin and radixin genes. Keeping in mind the mentioned conserved features of
the proteins and their coding genes it is unlikely that the ERM paralogs appeared within a local
duplication event. Rather the genomic regions including the ERM genes underwent significant
diversification within species.

Spatial expression of paralogs is often shown to be different from the ancestral gene, that can
be a sign of sub-functionalization (Glasauer and Neuhauss, 2014). Indeed, the existing RNAseq
data of ezrin, radixin, and moesin demonstrate different expression patterns in different human
tissues (Fig. 8). This can explain the inconsistency of some data about ezrin, moesin, radixin,
and merlin roles in cancer, since the experimental results can be influenced by the cell/tissue
type, momentary availability of interacting partners or ERMs' binding sites exposure.
Therefore, it is important to investigate in details the ERMs and merlin expression levels, for
example, with the use of long read sequencing, and including experiments in different
developmental stages. Tissue distribution of different splice isoforms is another interesting
topic in ERM+merlin research: for example, in humans there are two ezrin splice variants, six –
for radixin, five – for moesin, and eleven - for merlin. Unfortunately, not much is known about
functions of different isoforms.

Figure 8. Expression levels for human ezrin, radixin, and moesin in different tissues. TPM – transcripts per kilobase million. Based on the data from Genotype tissue expression portal (GTExPortal, 2019).

Biochemical and physiological studies of the paralog specific amino acid variations are important for understanding each protein's role in healthy and cancer cells. Based on such variations' conservation within vertebrate lineages, we highlighted several motifs that can be candidates for such studies. For example, there is not much known about the role of the polyproline stretch in ezrin and radixin. Moesin lacks this stretch although has a structural analog (Li *et al.*, 2007), and merlin possesses multiple discontinues prolines in the homologous site. The polyproline stretch can possibly bind SH3 domain as another way of the proteins' activity regulation (Li *et al.*, 2007) that would not be possible in moesin and merlin. Another motif of interest is located at the beginning of the α-helix and is specific to each of the proteins: EREKEQ in ezrin, EKEKEK in radixin, EKEKER in moesin, and ERTR/EKEK/EREK in merlin. This motif was earlier shown to be important for supporting the coiled-coil folding (Phang *et al.*, 2016). Next to it there is the REKEEL motif that is specific to ERMs and is absent from merlins. Another candidate is the amphipathic stretch of 14 amino acids within the α-helix region that is known to be essential for binding regulatory RII subunit of protein kinase A (Dransfield *et al.*, 1997). This region is highly conserved in ezrin and radixin but in moesin the conservation level is only 70%. The six amino acids motif in the N-terminal end of CERMAD is $H_{/Q}$DENxA in radixin and moesin and $xxExS_{/x}x$ in ezrin (where x is any amino acid, S/x meaning that S is conserved in half of the cases).

At the same time, ezrin, radixin, and moesin retained the set of overlapping, redundant functions, most essential for cell survival, such as organizing molecular complexes in the

regions of cell-cell contacts. Ezrin is considered to be the major, indispensable paralog. Indeed,

its knock out in mice causes early death of the animals. However, genomes of Tasmanian devil

lack ezrin gene, at least based on the sequencing material that is available for this species at the

moment. Some birds and mammals (elephant shrew) lost either radixin or moesin genes. This

suggest the genetic plasticity of ERM family between different vertebrate lineages that is likely

due to the conformational plasticity of the proteins.

In this work, we for the first time, to our knowledge, stress the existence of the two merlin

paralogs in the vertebrate genomes: merlin1 and merlin2. Merlin1 was, apparently, lost in the

Eutheria lineage, while merlin2 is present in all vertebrates. Merlin1 contains an additional

amino acid stretch within its CERMAD that is absent from merlin2. Also, merlin1 has a weak

sequence similarity to merlin2 in the last 30 amino acids, that is responsible for anti-tumor

activity in human merlin2. Strikingly, merlin1 lacks one of the two N-terminal actin binding

sites (in the F1 subdomain). These observations together with the fact that actin binding is

important for merlin anti-proliferative activity (Cooper & Giancotti 2014), suggests that

merlin1 is unlikely to exhibit tumor suppressive effect. It can, therefore, perform a novel,

unknown function or specifically participate in cytoskeleton scaffolding, similar to merlin2 in

its unfolded conformation (Lallemand, Saint-Amaux and Giovannini, 2009).

The paralog number of merlin proteins is extremely conserved among all metazoan: while

ERMs' gene number can vary as a result of lineage specific duplications, there is always only

one merlin gene in invertebrates and mammals (except armadillo, who keeps, both merlin1 and

merlin2) and two merlin paralogs (merlin1 and merlin2) in other vertebrates. Such

conservation may signify the sensitivity to gene dosage effect for both merlin paralogs. It is

unclear, though, why merlin1 was lost in the most of mammalian lineages and what protein

took over its function. One could also speculate that this paralog was lost together with the

organ/tissue-specific function that are present in Amphibia, Sauria, and fishes, but not in

Mammalia.

At the same time merlin2 seems to be evolved specifically to counteract cellular

dysregulations leading to cancer. It is likely that within evolution merlin2 paralog acquired

additional to scaffolding function to contribute to evolving of the intricate anti-cancer

protective system in vertebrates. Its increased in comparison to merlin1 importance is

mirrored in higher synteny conservation and lower rate of nonsynonymous substitutions

appearance. One can say that merin2 protein is one of the features that were evolved by the

animal cell as adaptation to complex multicellularity.

Emergence of new proteins and new protein functions is an important question in
evolutionary biology, and fate of paralogous forms is probably one of the least understood
aspects of the process. Based on sequence comparison and phylogenetic reconstruction we
hypothesized the way the ERM+merlin protein family could have gone from the first
appearance of the FERM domain in holozoans to the functionally multifaceted group of five
homologs with tissue specificity. We propose that the three ERM paralogs retained in the
vertebrates due to their conformational plasticity that appeared to be beneficial in the
conditions of the vertebrate evolution: increased complexity of organisms' physiology and
biochemistry of the cells. Merlin1 paralog is for the first time discussed here, and suggested to
perform a yet unknown function specific to non-mammalian vertebrates. Merlin2 is the most
interesting example of this protein family evolution, as it seems to be specifically adapted in
vertebrates to anti-cancer protection.
570
571   <u>Materials and methods</u>
572
Data collection
The amino acid sequences of ezrin, radixin, moesin, and merlin were collected using BLASTp
(Altschul *et al.*, 1997) with the human protein sequences as queries (ezrin NP_001104547.1,
radixin AAA36541.1, moesin NP_002435.1, merlin NP_000259.1) against non-redundant (nr)
protein sequences collection at the NCBI database. The selected sequences were manually
monitored to exclude database duplicates, splice variants, truncated sequences and to
reconstruct correct protein sequences when needed. If several splice variants were described
for an organism, the longest one was chosen for the analysis. Only the sequences that spanned
all three ERM domains were selected for the analysis. PFAM (Finn *et al.*, 2006), InterProScan
(Jones *et al.*, 2014) and CDD domain search (Marchler-Bauer *et al.*, 2015) were used for domain
structure analysis and verification.
Taxa selection was done based on the following requirements: 1) every described order of
Metazoa should be represented by one species, although some exceptions were made in order
to balance taxa representation; 2) whole genome or transcriptome of a representative species
should have been sequenced and available; 3) high quality of the genome assembly annotation.
In the case if no representative genome was available for an order, tBLASTn search was run
against all available nucleotide sequences for that taxa. Search for possible homologs of ezrin,
radixin, moesin, and merlin was performed among other Opisthokonta (Holozoa, Nuclearia,

Fungi) and Amoebozoa, Excavata, Archaeplastida (includes green plants), SAR cluster
(Stramenopiles, Alveolata, and Rhizaria), and other protist groups (refer to the tree of Life
scheme (Adl *et al.*, 2012)). Prokaryota and Archaea nucleotide sequences were scanned for the
whole length proteins or only FERM domain using tBLASTn search against nr nucleotide
collection at NCBI. The taxonomic structure describing the final dataset can be viewed at the
Supplementary (Table S1) and is based on the topologies employed by NCBI Taxonomy
database (Federhen, 2012) and the Tree Of Life project (Letunic & Bork). The taxa variety will
be further discussed in terms "vertebrate" and "invertebrate", the later including the rest of
Eumetazoa. The sequences were retrieved by July 2018; data for vertebrates were updated in
May 2019.
601
Reconstruction of the ERM+merlin phylogeny
Multiple sequence alignment was generated using MAFFT software (Katoh *et al.*, 2002) with
the PAM70 (Dayhoff, 1965) substitution matrix, as defined by ProtTest3 (Darriba *et al.*, 2011),
and manually edited to remove uninformative columns. CLUSTALX (Larkin *et al.*, 2007) and
Geneious (Geneious, 2019) were used for the alignment visualization. Maximum Likelihood
(ML) phylogenetic trees were build using RAxML tool (Stamatakis, 2014) with the parameters
estimated by running RAxML parameter test (Stamatakis, 2015). As a result, the
PROTGAMMALG model was chosen, where GAMMA model estimates the substitution rate
between sites and LG is amino acid substitution matrix (Le and Gascuel, 2008). The statistical
support for the tree clustering was calculated by running 1000 bootstrap replicates. The
resulting trees were inspected and edited using iTOL online tree viewer (Letunic and Bork,
2019) and FigTree software (Rambaut A., 2019).
A reduced data set (Supplementary, Table S2) was used to reconstruct a tree for analyzing
evolutionary relationships between the proteins from the unicellular organisms and metazoans
with the same model as described earlier. Ancestral sequence reconstruction was performed
for this data set using rooting option and defining marginal ancestral states option by RAxML
with the model PROTGAMMALG.
MEGA (Kumar, Stecher and Tamura, 2016) software was used for an alternative tree
reconstruction for neighbor-joining and parsimony algorithms with the 500 bootstrap
replicates and LG amino acid substitution matrix. Bayesian inference method was also applied
on MrBayes tool (Ronquist *et al.*, 2012) under LG matrix. Six chains were run for 3000000

generations, every 1000 generations trees were sampled in two runs. The first 25% of trees

were discarded before constructing a consensus tree.

Protein sequence analysis

Tertiary structure of polypeptides was predicted by PEP-FOLD3 (Lamiable *et al.*, 2016).

Estimation of proteins' biochemical and biophysical characteristics from their amino acid

sequences was done with ExPASy ProtParam (Gasteiger *et al.*, 2005). Conserved amino acid

motifs were analyzed throughout major metazoan lineages using MEME suite (Bailey *et al.*,

2009) on the selected set of protein sequences (see Supplementary, Table S2).

Testing for positive selection in vertebrate ezrin and merlin

Codeml tool from PAML software (Yang, 2007) was run under model = 1 to test whether ratio

of nonsynonymous-synonymous substitutions varies among tree branches. Twice difference

between log likelihood of the alternative and the null (the ratio is the same for all branches)

hypotheses were compared to χ^2 distribution. Several lineages then were tested for positive

selection: model = 2, NSsites = 2, fix_omega = 0, omega = 1. The null hypothesis in this case was

estimated under parameters model = 2, NSsites = 2, fix_omega = 1, omega = 1. As well, χ^2

distribution test for statistical support was used. Each codeml estimation of alternative

hypothesis was run twice with varying parameter 'omega' to test for contingency. Parameter

'cleandata' was set to 0 allowing for retaining gaps in alignment.

PAL2NAL tool (Suyama, Torrents and Bork, 2006) was used to generated nucleotide

alignments based on amino acid multiple sequence alignments and the corresponding mRNA

sequences. The mRNA sequences were extracted from NCBI data base by using efetch command

from E-utilities suit (Sayers, 2018). The phylogenetic trees for ezrin and merlin protein set from

vertebrate animals were built as described earlier and can be found in Supplementary file.

Synteny analysis

A BLASTp strategy was applied to analyze syntenic relationships between genes coding for the

ERM and ERM-like proteins in different species. Sequences of the proteins encoded by the genes

surrounding ezrin (seven proteins), radixin (three proteins), and moesin (four proteins) from

H. sapiens within the region of 1 Mb were used as query in BLASTp search against all proteins

in the following species: *M. musculus*, *D. rerio*, *D. melanogaster*, *S. pistillata* (cnidarians), *T.*

adhaerens, and *A. queeslandica* with expect threshold of 1e-10. The analysis was repeated with

the similarly selected proteins from *D. melanogaster* as a query. Intraspecies synteny analysis

for *H. sapiens* was done in a similar manner, but with only human proteins in the target, with

expected threshold of 1e-10.

For synteny analysis of the merlin gene surrounding, two species with both merlin paralogs

were chosen: *D. rerio* and *G. gallus.* All proteins, which genes are located within 1Mb of merlin1

or merlin2 genes, were taken as queries. BLASTp searches with expected threshold 1e-10 were

run against all proteins from the corresponding chromosomes: chromosomes 5 (has gene

coding for merlin2 protein) and 21 (merlin1) for D. rerio, and chromosomes 15 (merlin2) and

19 (merlin1). Synteny Database (Catchen, Conery and Postlethwait, 2009) was used for

processing the synteny data for *H. sapiens* and *D. rerio*.

Custom python, perl and bash scripts were used for data processing.

<u>Acknowledgments</u>

This work was supported by the Institute of Bioinformatics, University of Muenster. The open

access publishing is supported by the University of Muenster.

<u>Competing interests</u>

The authors declare no competing interests.

All authors have read and approved the final version of the manuscript.

References:

Adl, S. M. *et al.* (2012) 'The Revised Classification of Eukaryotes Eukaryotic Microbiology', *J.*

Eukaryot. Microbiol, 59(5), pp. 429–493. doi: 10.1111/j.1550-7408.2012.00644.x.

Altschul, S. F. *et al.* (1997) 'Gapped BLAST and PSI-BLAST: a new generation of protein database

search programs.', *Nucleic acids research*, 25(17), pp. 3389–402. Available at:

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/9254694 (Accessed: 23 July 2017).

Bailey, T. L. *et al.* (2009) 'MEME SUITE: tools for motif discovery and searching.', *Nucleic acids*

research. Oxford University Press, 37(Web Server issue), pp. W202-8. doi: 10.1093/nar/gkp335.

Bosanquet, D. C. *et al.* (2014) 'FERM family proteins and their importance in cellular movements

and wound healing (Review)', *International Journal of Molecular Medicine*, 34(1), pp. 3–12. doi:

10.3892/ijmm.2014.1775.

Brault, E. *et al.* (2001) 'Normal membrane localization and actin association of the NF2 tumor

suppressor protein are dependent on folding of its N-terminal domain.', *Journal of cell science*, 114(Pt

10), pp. 1901–12. Available at: http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/11329377 (Accessed: 22 April

2019).

Bretscher, A., Edwards, K. and Fehon, R. G. (2002) 'ERM proteins and merlin: integrators at the cell

cortex.', *Nature reviews. Molecular cell biology*, 3(8), pp. 586–99. doi: 10.1038/nrm882.

Catchen, J. M., Conery, J. S. and Postlethwait, J. H. (2009) 'Automated identification of conserved

synteny after whole-genome duplication', *Genome Research*, 19(8), pp. 1497–1505. doi:

10.1101/gr.090480.108.

Chen, S.-D. *et al.* (2012) 'Knockdown of radixin by RNA interference suppresses the growth of

human pancreatic cancer cells in vitro and in vivo.', *Asian Pacific journal of cancer prevention : APJCP*,

13(3), pp. 753–9. Available at: http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/22631643 (Accessed: 26

January 2019).

Clucas, J. and Valderrama, F. (2014) 'ERM proteins in cancer progression', *Journal of Cell Science*,

127(2), pp. 267–275. doi: 10.1242/jcs.133108.

Cooper, J. and Giancotti, F. G. (2014) 'Molecular insights into NF2/Merlin tumor suppressor

function.', *FEBS letters*. NIH Public Access, 588(16), pp. 2743–52. doi: 10.1016/j.febslet.2014.04.001.

Curto, M. *et al.* (2007) 'Contact-dependent inhibition of EGFR signaling by Nf2/Merlin', *The Journal

of Cell Biology*, 177(5), pp. 893–903. doi: 10.1083/jcb.200703010.

Darriba, D. *et al.* (2011) 'ProtTest 3: fast selection of best-fit models of protein evolution',

Bioinformatics, 27(8), pp. 1164–1165. doi: 10.1093/bioinformatics/btr088.

Dayhoff, M. O. (1965) *No Title*. Silver Spring: National Biomedical research Foundation.

Debnath, J. and Brugge, J. S. (2005) 'Modelling glandular epithelial cancers in three-dimensional

cultures', *Nature Reviews Cancer*, 5(9), pp. 675–688. doi: 10.1038/nrc1695.

Dransfield, D. T. *et al.* (1997) 'Ezrin is a cyclic AMP-dependent protein kinase anchoring protein.',

The EMBO journal. European Molecular Biology Organization, 16(1), pp. 35–43. doi:

10.1093/emboj/16.1.35.

Eisen, J. A. (1998) 'Phylogenomics: improving functional predictions for uncharacterized genes by

evolutionary analysis.', *Genome research*, 8(3), pp. 163–7. Available at:

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/9521918 (Accessed: 30 April 2019).

Estecha, A. *et al.* (2009) 'Moesin orchestrates cortical polarity of melanoma tumour cells to initiate

3D invasion.', *Journal of cell science*, 122(Pt 19), pp. 3492–501. doi: 10.1242/jcs.053157.

Fairclough, S. R. *et al.* (2013) 'Premetazoan genome evolution and the regulation of cell

differentiation in the choanoflagellate Salpingoeca rosetta', *Genome Biology*. BioMed Central, 14(2), p.

R15. doi: 10.1186/gb-2013-14-2-r15.

Federhen, S. (2012) 'The NCBI Taxonomy database.', *Nucleic acids research*. Oxford University Press,

40(Database issue), pp. D136-43. doi: 10.1093/nar/gkr1178.

Fievet, B. T. *et al.* (2004) 'Phosphoinositide binding and phosphorylation act sequentially in the

activation mechanism of ezrin.', *The Journal of cell biology*, 164(5), pp. 653–9. doi:

10.1083/jcb.200307032.

Finn, R. D. *et al.* (2006) 'Pfam: clans, web tools and services', *Nucleic Acids Research*. Oxford

University Press, 34(90001), pp. D247–D251. doi: 10.1093/nar/gkj149.

Funayama, N. *et al.* (1991) 'Radixin is a novel member of the band 4.1 family.', *The Journal of cell*

biology, 115(4), pp. 1039–48. Available at:

http://www.pubmedcentral.nih.gov/articlerender.fcgi?artid=2289953&tool=pmcentrez&rendertype=

abstract (Accessed: 15 August 2015).

Gabriel, W. N. *et al.* (2007) 'The tardigrade Hypsibius dujardini, a new model for studying the

evolution of development', *Developmental Biology*. Academic Press, 312(2), pp. 545–559. doi:

10.1016/J.YDBIO.2007.09.055.

Gasteiger, E. *et al.* (2005) 'Protein Identification and Analysis Tools on the ExPASy Server', in *The*

Proteomics Protocols Handbook. Totowa, NJ: Humana Press, pp. 571–607. doi: 10.1385/1-59259-890-

0:571.

Geneious (2019) *Geneious Prime | Sequence Analysis Software | Academic & Government*, *2019*.

Available at: https://www.geneious.com/academic/ (Accessed: 22 April 2019).

Glasauer, S. M. K. and Neuhauss, S. C. F. (2014) 'Whole-genome duplication in teleost fishes and its

evolutionary consequences', *Molecular Genetics and Genomics*, 289(6), pp. 1045–1060. doi:

10.1007/s00438-014-0889-2.

Golovnina, K. *et al.* (2005) 'Evolution and origin of merlin, the product of the Neurofibromatosis

type 2 (NF2) tumor-suppressor gene.', *BMC Evolutionary Biology*, 5(1), p. 69. doi: 10.1186/1471-2148-

5-69.

Grau-Bové, X. *et al.* (2017) 'Dynamics of genomic innovation in the unicellular ancestry of animals',

eLife, 6. doi: 10.7554/eLife.26036.

GTExPortal (2019) *GTEx Portal*. Available at: https://gtexportal.org/home/ (Accessed: 4 December

2018).

Ivetic, A. and Ridley, A. J. (2004) 'Ezrin/radixin/moesin proteins and Rho GTPase signalling in

leucocytes.', *Immunology*, 112(2), pp. 165–76. doi: 10.1111/j.1365-2567.2004.01882.x.

Jones, P. *et al.* (2014) 'InterProScan 5: genome-scale protein function classification', *Bioinformatics*,

30(9), pp. 1236–1240. doi: 10.1093/bioinformatics/btu031.

Katoh, K. *et al.* (2002) 'MAFFT: a novel method for rapid multiple sequence alignment based on fast

Fourier transform', *Nucleic Acids Research*. Oxford University Press, 30(14), pp. 3059–3066. doi:

10.1093/nar/gkf436.

Kikuchi, S. *et al.* (2002) 'Radixin deficiency causes conjugated hyperbilirubinemia with loss of Mrp2

from bile canalicular membranes.', *Nature genetics*, 31(3), pp. 320–5. doi: 10.1038/ng905.

Kitajiri, S. *et al.* (2004) 'Radixin deficiency causes deafness associated with progressive

degeneration of cochlear stereocilia.', *The Journal of cell biology*, 166(4), pp. 559–70. doi:

10.1083/jcb.200402007.

Kobayashi, H. *et al.* (2004) 'Clinical significance of cellular distribution of moesin in patients with

oral squamous cell carcinoma.', *Clinical cancer research : an official journal of the American Association*

for Cancer Research, 10(2), pp. 572–80. Available at: http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/14760079

(Accessed: 26 January 2019).

Kumar, S., Stecher, G. and Tamura, K. (2016) 'MEGA7: Molecular Evolutionary Genetics Analysis

Version 7.0 for Bigger Datasets', *Molecular Biology and Evolution*, 33(7), pp. 1870–1874. doi:

10.1093/molbev/msw054.

Lallemand, D., Saint-Amaux, A. L. and Giovannini, M. (2009) 'Tumor-suppression functions of merlin

are independent of its role as an organizer of the actin cytoskeleton in Schwann cells', *Journal of Cell*

Science, 122(22), pp. 4141–4149. doi: 10.1242/jcs.045914.

Lamiable, A. *et al.* (2016) 'PEP-FOLD3: faster *de novo* structure prediction for linear peptides in

solution and in complex', *Nucleic Acids Research*, 44(W1), pp. W449–W454. doi: 10.1093/nar/gkw329.

Lankes, W. T. and Furthmayr, H. (1991) 'Moesin: a member of the protein 4.1-talin-ezrin family of

proteins.', *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America*, 88(19), pp.

8297–301. Available at:

http://www.pubmedcentral.nih.gov/articlerender.fcgi?artid=52495&tool=pmcentrez&rendertype=ab

stract (Accessed: 15 August 2015).

Larkin, M. A. *et al.* (2007) 'Clustal W and Clustal X version 2.0', *Bioinformatics*, 23(21), pp. 2947–

2948. doi: 10.1093/bioinformatics/btm404.

Le, S. Q. and Gascuel, O. (2008) 'An Improved General Amino Acid Replacement Matrix', *Molecular*

Biology and Evolution. Oxford University Press, 25(7), pp. 1307–1320. doi: 10.1093/molbev/msn067.

Letunic, I. and Bork, P. (2019) 'Interactive Tree Of Life (iTOL): an online tool for phylogenetic tree

display and annotation'. Available at: http://itol.embl.de/help/17050570.pdf (Accessed: 11 May

2017).

Li, Q. *et al.* (2007) 'Self-masking in an Intact ERM-merlin Protein: An Active Role for the Central α-

Helical Domain', *Journal of Molecular Biology*, 365(5), pp. 1446–1459. doi: 10.1016/j.jmb.2006.10.075.

Li, Q. *et al.* (2015) 'Ezrin/Exocyst Complex Regulates Mucin 5AC Secretion Induced by Neutrophil

Elastase in Human Airway Epithelial Cells', *Cellular Physiology and Biochemistry*, 35(1), pp. 326–338.

doi: 10.1159/000369699.

Li, W. and Crouch, D. H. (2000) 'Cloning and expression profile of chicken radixin.', *Biochimica et*

biophysica acta, 1491(1–3), pp. 327–32. Available at:

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/10760599 (Accessed: 16 December 2018).

Liu, X. *et al.* (2015) 'Moesin and myosin phosphatase confine neutrophil orientation in a

chemotactic gradient.', *The Journal of experimental medicine*. Rockefeller University Press, 212(2), pp.

267–80. doi: 10.1084/jem.20140508.

Lu, T.-M. *et al.* (2017) 'The phylogenetic position of dicyemid mesozoans offers insights into

spiralian evolution', *Zoological Letters*, 3(1), p. 6. doi: 10.1186/s40851-017-0068-5.

Marchler-Bauer, A. *et al.* (2015) 'CDD: NCBI's conserved domain database', *Nucleic Acids Research*,

43(D1), pp. D222–D226. doi: 10.1093/nar/gku1221.

Marion, S. *et al.* (2011) 'Ezrin promotes actin assembly at the phagosome membrane and regulates

phago-lysosomal fusion.', *Traffic (Copenhagen, Denmark)*, 12(4), pp. 421–37. doi: 10.1111/j.1600-

0854.2011.01158.x.

McClatchey, a. I. (2014) 'ERM proteins at a glance', *Journal of Cell Science*, (June), pp. 1–6. doi:

10.1242/jcs.098343.

Nambiar, R., McConnell, R. E. and Tyska, M. J. (2010) 'Myosin motor function: the ins and outs of

actin-based membrane protrusions', *Cellular and Molecular Life Sciences*, 67(8), pp. 1239–1254. doi:

10.1007/s00018-009-0254-5.

Nei, M. and Rooney, A. P. (2005) 'Concerted and birth-and-death evolution of multigene families.',

Annual review of genetics. NIH Public Access, 39, pp. 121–52. doi:

10.1146/annurev.genet.39.073003.112240.

Niggli, V. and Rossy, J. (2008) 'Ezrin/radixin/moesin: Versatile controllers of signaling molecules

and of the cortical cytoskeleton', *International Journal of Biochemistry and Cell Biology*, 40(3), pp. 344–

349. doi: 10.1016/j.biocel.2007.02.012.

Omelyanchuk, L. V *et al.* (2009) 'Evolution and origin of HRS, a protein interacting with Merlin, the

Neurofibromatosis 2 gene product.', *Gene regulation and systems biology*, 3, pp. 143–57. Available at:

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/20054405 (Accessed: 20 November 2018).

Pataky, F., Pironkova, R. and Hudspeth, A. J. (2004) 'Radixin is a constituent of stereocilia in hair

cells.', *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America*, 101(8), pp.

2601–6. Available at: http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/14983055 (Accessed: 16 December

2018).

Van de Peer, Y., Maere, S. and Meyer, A. (2009) 'The evolutionary significance of ancient genome

duplications.', *Nature reviews. Genetics*, 10(10), pp. 725–32. doi: 10.1038/nrg2600.

Phang, J. M. *et al.* (2016) 'Structural characterization suggests models for monomeric and dimeric

forms of full-length ezrin.', *The Biochemical journal*. Portland Press Limited, 473(18), pp. 2763–82. doi:

10.1042/BCJ20160541.

Pujuguet, P. *et al.* (2003) 'Ezrin Regulates E-Cadherin-dependent Adherens Junction Assembly

through Rac1 Activation', *Molecular Biology of the Cell*, 14(5), pp. 2181–2191. doi: 10.1091/mbc.e02-

07-0410.

Rambaut A. (2019) *FigTree, 2009*. Available at: http://tree.bio.ed.ac.uk/software/figtree/

(Accessed: 18 April 2019).

Richter, D. J. and King, N. (2013) 'The Genomic and Cellular Foundations of Animal Origins', *Annual*

Review of Genetics. Annual Reviews , 47(1), pp. 509–537. doi: 10.1146/annurev-genet-111212-

133456.

Ronquist, F. *et al.* (2012) 'MrBayes 3.2: Efficient Bayesian Phylogenetic Inference and Model Choice

Across a Large Model Space', *Systematic Biology*, 61(3), pp. 539–542. doi: 10.1093/sysbio/sys029.

Rost, B. and Sander, C. (1994) 'Combining evolutionary information and neural networks to predict

protein secondary structure', *Proteins: Structure, Function, and Genetics*. John Wiley & Sons, Ltd, 19(1),

pp. 55–72. doi: 10.1002/prot.340190108.

Roy, C., Martin, M. and Mangeat, P. (1997) 'A dual involvement of the amino-terminal domain of

ezrin in F- and G-actin binding.', *The Journal of biological chemistry*, 272(32), pp. 20088–95. Available

at: http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/9242682 (Accessed: 22 September 2015).

Saotome, I., Curto, M. and McClatchey, A. I. (2004) 'Ezrin is essential for epithelial organization and

villus morphogenesis in the developing intestine.', *Developmental cell*, 6(6), pp. 855–64. doi:

10.1016/j.devcel.2004.05.007.

Sayers, E. (2018) 'The E-utilities In-Depth: Parameters, Syntax and More'. National Center for

Biotechnology Information (US). Available at: https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/books/NBK25499/

(Accessed: 30 June 2019).

Schliep, K. *et al.* (2017) 'Intertwining phylogenetic trees and networks', *Methods in Ecology and*

Evolution. Edited by R. Fitzjohn. doi: 10.1111/2041-210X.12760.

Sebé-Pedrós, A. *et al.* (2013) 'Insights into the Origin of Metazoan Filopodia and Microvilli',

Molecular Biology and Evolution. Oxford University Press, 30(9), pp. 2013–2023. doi:

10.1093/molbev/mst110.

Shalchian-Tabrizi, K. *et al.* (2008) 'Multigene Phylogeny of Choanozoa and the Origin of Animals',

PLoS ONE. Edited by R. Aramayo, 3(5), p. e2098. doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0002098.

Stamatakis, A. (2014) 'RAxML version 8: a tool for phylogenetic analysis and post-analysis of large

phylogenies.', *Bioinformatics (Oxford, England)*, 30(9), pp. 1312–3. doi:

10.1093/bioinformatics/btu033.

Stamatakis, A. (2015) 'Using RAxML to Infer Phylogenies', in *Current Protocols in Bioinformatics*.

Hoboken, NJ, USA: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., pp. 6.14.1-6.14.14. doi: 10.1002/0471250953.bi0614s51.

Stickney, J. T. *et al.* (2004) 'Activation of the tumor suppressor merlin modulates its interaction with

lipid rafts.', *Cancer research*. American Association for Cancer Research, 64(8), pp. 2717–24. doi:

10.1158/0008-5472.CAN-03-3798.

Suga, H. *et al.* (2013) 'The Capsaspora genome reveals a complex unicellular prehistory of animals',

Nature Communications. Nature Publishing Group, 4(1), p. 2325. doi: 10.1038/ncomms3325.

Suyama, M., Torrents, D. and Bork, P. (2006) 'PAL2NAL: robust conversion of protein sequence

alignments into the corresponding codon alignments.', *Nucleic acids research*. Oxford University Press,

34(Web Server issue), pp. W609-12. doi: 10.1093/nar/gkl315.

Turunen, O. *et al.* (1998) 'Structure-function relationships in the ezrin family and the effect of

tumor-associated point mutations in neurofibromatosis 2 protein.', *Biochimica et biophysica acta*,

1387(1–2), pp. 1–16. Available at: http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/9748471 (Accessed: 8

October 2017).

Valderrama, F., Thevapala, S. and Ridley, A. J. (2012) 'Radixin regulates cell migration and cell-cell

adhesion through Rac1', *Journal of Cell Science*, 125(14), pp. 3310–3319. doi: 10.1242/jcs.094383.

Winckler, B. *et al.* (1994) 'Analysis of a cortical cytoskeletal structure: a role for ezrin-radixin-

moesin (ERM proteins) in the marginal band of chicken erythrocytes.', *Journal of cell science*, 107 (Pt

9), pp. 2523–34. Available at: http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/7531201 (Accessed: 5 May

2019).

Yang, Z. (2007) 'PAML 4: Phylogenetic Analysis by Maximum Likelihood', *Molecular Biology and*

Evolution. Narnia, 24(8), pp. 1586–1591. doi: 10.1093/molbev/msm088.

Yonemura, S. *et al.* (2002) 'Rho-dependent and -independent activation mechanisms of

ezrin/radixin/moesin proteins: an essential role for polyphosphoinositides in vivo.', *Journal of cell*

science, 115(Pt 12), pp. 2569–80. Available at: http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/12045227

(Accessed: 13 July 2015).

Yoshida, Y. *et al.* (2017) 'Comparative genomics of the tardigrades Hypsibius dujardini and

Ramazzottius varieornatus', *PLOS Biology*. Edited by C. Tyler-Smith. Public Library of Science, 15(7), p.

e2002266. doi: 10.1371/journal.pbio.2002266.