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Evolution of the albumin protein family in reptiles

by

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Undergraduate honors thesis under the direction of

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Department of Biological Sciences

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Evolution of the albumin protein family in reptiles

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11 **Abstract**

12 The albumin family of proteins consists of vitamin-D binding protein/group-specific component  
13 (GC), serum albumin (ALB), alpha-fetoprotein (AFP), and afamin (AFM). These proteins are  
14 found in the blood plasma of tetrapods and are responsible for transporting a large number of  
15 ligands throughout the body. This family is well studied in mammals but poorly characterized in  
16 non-mammalian lineages. In this study we investigate the evolution of the albumin family  
17 proteins in reptiles, using bioinformatic methods to survey available reptile genomes and  
18 transcriptomes for albumin family proteins and phylogenetically characterize their relationships.  
19 We reveal that the albumin protein family in reptiles is variable in both repertoire and genetic  
20 sequence, notably identifying an apparent loss of ALB in squamates and a new type of albumin  
21 family protein in reptiles. Our study provides a comparative genomic framework for further  
22 studies identifying lineage-specific gene expansions that may compensate for the lack of serum  
23 albumin in squamates.

24

25 **Key words:** albumin family, serum albumin, gene family evolution, squamates

26

27 **Introduction**

28 The albumin gene family consists of four water-soluble proteins found in blood plasma of  
29 tetrapods (Fasano et al., 2005). Albumin family proteins play important roles in vertebrate  
30 physiology acting as versatile serum transport proteins by binding and delivering a wide range of  
31 molecules within the circulatory system of all vertebrates (Fanali et al., 2012). In tetrapods the  
32 multigene family is comprised of 4 major genes that arose from a series of duplication events

33 (Gibbs et al., 1998; Nishio et al., 1996): Vitamin D-binding protein/group-specific component  
34 (GC), serum albumin (ALB), alpha-fetoprotein (AFP), and afamin (AFM).

35

36 The evolutionary relationships of the four albumin family genes are well established (Fig. 1B). A  
37 gene duplication event of the ancestral progenitor occurred approximately 580 My ago, before  
38 the evolution of tetrapods, producing GC, and a second copy (Gibbs et al., 1998; Haefliger et al.,  
39 1989). This second copy underwent a duplication event around 295 My ago, shortly after the  
40 divergence of amphibians and reptiles, producing ALB and a third copy that underwent a  
41 duplication event 250 MY ago, giving rise to AFP and the mammal-specific AFM (Gibbs et al.,  
42 1998; Haefliger et al., 1989). The albumin family is variably distributed and exists in several  
43 forms across tetrapods. GC is conserved across all vertebrates and ALB is present in tetrapods.  
44 However, ALB is differentially retained in fishes. While a broad survey has not been performed,  
45 individual studies have shown that ALB is absent in cartilaginous fishes, eel, Antarctic toothfish  
46 and carp, but is present in salmonid (salmon) species and lamprey (Metcalf et al., 2007; Noël et  
47 al., 2010). AFP and AFP-like proteins, which have high sequence similarity to AFP, are present  
48 in amniotes (mammals and reptiles) but absent in amphibians and fish while AFM is found  
49 exclusively in mammals (Noël et al., 2010). In addition to serving as generalized transport  
50 proteins, each member of this family has high and unique specificity for certain ligands that  
51 make albumin family proteins essential for the distribution of these molecules in the body and  
52 proper physiological function (Fanali et al., 2012; Terentiev and Moldogazieva, 2013; Voegelé et  
53 al., 2002; White and Cooke, 2000).

54

55 Serum albumin is the most well-studied and best-understood member of the family, being  
56 investigated for its physiological properties and potential biomedical and pharmaceutical  
57 applications (Fanali et al., 2012; Larsen et al., 2016). Serum albumin acts as a multifunctional  
58 transport protein that binds insoluble endogenous compounds such as fatty acids, toxic waste  
59 products such as bile pigments, and many pharmaceuticals including diazepam, warfarin, and  
60 penicillin (Curry, 2002; Evans, 2002; Fanali et al., 2012; Larsen et al., 2016). Serum albumin is  
61 highly conserved across vertebrates — its size, shape, genetic sequence, and function as a  
62 transporter remains largely unchanged across tetrapod lineages (Noël et al., 2010). Serum  
63 albumin is the most abundant plasma protein in mammals, and also functions in the regulation of  
64 osmotic pressure and blood pH in most vertebrates (Fanali et al., 2012). Serum albumin has also  
65 been shown to be an important circulating antioxidant (Roche et al., 2008). The ability of serum  
66 albumin to bind to many different ligands is due to its multi-domain structure (Fanali et al.,  
67 2012). Serum albumin contains three domains, each containing two binding sites for a total of 6  
68 distinct binding sites each with their own affinities for different ligands (Fasano et al., 2005). The  
69 three-domain structure is conserved across all four members of the protein family, but the  
70 binding sites differ in number and location (Li et al., 2017).

71

72 The three other albumin proteins are less well characterized, but serve similar roles in the  
73 transport of molecules in the blood plasma. The function of GC is well characterized in humans  
74 but remains largely unknown in other animals (Bikle and Schwartz, 2019). As its name implies,  
75 GC principally acts as a transporter for vitamin D and its metabolites, however it has also been  
76 found to act as an actin scavenger and plays a major role in the activation of macrophages during  
77 immune and inflammatory responses in mammals. (Chun, 2012; White and Cooke, 2000)

78

79 Alpha-fetoprotein (AFP) is known to be expressed in the yolk of bird eggs and fetal tissue in  
80 humans (Bader et al., 2004; Cordeiro and Hincke, 2016). Expression of AFP in human fetuses  
81 peaks at 14 weeks of gestation and steadily decreases until almost ceasing at birth (Bader et al.,  
82 2004). Studies have shown that AFP is capable of binding and transporting hydrophobic ligands  
83 such as fatty acids, bilirubin, and estrogen, and acts as a dual regulator of cell proliferation and  
84 tissue growth (Terentiev and Moldogazieva, 2013). Although its function in pregnancy and fetal  
85 development is still being investigated, AFP has become a powerful diagnostic tool, notably as a  
86 prominent tumor marker (Abelev and Eraiser, 1999; Terentiev and Moldogazieva, 2013).  
87 Increased expression of AFP in adult tissue is characteristic of hepatocellular carcinoma, germ  
88 cell tumors, and several liver diseases. (Abelev and Eraiser, 1999; Bader et al., 2004). In  
89 mammals, the precursor to AFP underwent a duplication that gave rise to AFP and AFM, which  
90 is not found in other tetrapods. AFM is the most recently described member of the family and  
91 least understood albumin transport protein but is known to bind and transport vitamin E and Wnt  
92 proteins, important signaling molecules in many cellular and developmental pathways (Jerkovic  
93 et al., 2005; Naschberger et al., 2017).

94

95 Comparative studies on albumin proteins have focused on mammals due to their greater  
96 availability of whole-genome assemblies and importance in human medicine (Li et al., 2017).  
97 However, their functions and underlying genetic sequences are poorly characterized in other  
98 vertebrates. Until recently, a comprehensive examination of variation in sauropsids, the sister  
99 groups of mammals, was not possible due to a lack of comparative data from crocodylians,  
100 turtles, squamates (lizards and snakes), and rhynchocephalians (tuatara). This dearth of genomic

101 data has limited our ability to decipher orthologous and paralogous relationships among the  
102 albumin genes of different vertebrates. With the recent release of multiple nonavian sauropsid  
103 genomes, we can now extend these studies to include all major groups of amniotes. Comparative  
104 studies suggest that most amniotes possess a full set of albumin proteins, several with an  
105 expanded repertoire (Li et al., 2017).

106

107 In this study we characterize the evolutionary relationships of albumin family proteins in  
108 sauropsids, and identify the absence of canonical serum albumin in squamate reptiles. Our results  
109 indicate that different sauropsid lineages have diverse repertoires of albumin proteins derived  
110 from differential retention of ancestral genes. We also find a new clade of AFP in reptiles that  
111 share conserved AFP domains, yet are phylogenetically distinct from mammalian AFP. The  
112 importance of characterizing these proteins and their relationships in understudied lineages will  
113 lead to the discovery of novel sequences and functions that could have biomedical applications.  
114 Specifically, further investigation into the loss of serum albumin in squamates may offer insight  
115 into the human condition of analbuminemia and potential treatments (Koot et al., 2004).

116

## 117 **Materials and Methods**

### 118 **Bioinformatic Searches**

119 Ancestral tetrapod albumin sequences were retrieved from the spotted gar (*Lepisosteus oculatus*),  
120 zebrafish (*Danio rerio*), and the western clawed frog (*Xenopus tropicalis*) was chosen (vs. *X.*  
121 *laevis*) for its diploid genome. Albumin family reference sequences were retrieved from the  
122 UniProtKB/Swiss-Prot database (Acids research, 2017) for house mouse (*Mus musculus*) and  
123 chicken (*Gallus gallus*). We performed bioinformatic searches for albumin sequences in several



124 sauropsid genomes, with emphasis on squamate reptiles. We searched the NCBI genomic  
125 database (refseq\_genomic) using a low stringency BLASTx algorithm, with match/mismatch  
126 scores of 1 and 1, and gap existence and extension costs of 2 and 1, respectively. For tuatara  
127 (*Sphenodon punctatus*), because it is the sole representative of the order Rhynchocephalia (sister  
128 to Squamata), we included four transcriptome-derived sequences in the analyses of genome-  
129 derived sequences (Tzika et al., 2015). We obtained multiple best hits (e-value cutoff of  $e^{-6}$  and  
130 identical bit scores) for several species, likely representing paralogous sequences and/or  
131 isoforms. Thus, we performed functional annotation using InterProScan 5 (Jones et al., 2014)  
132 and removed sequences that lacked conserved protein domain annotations for each gene. If  
133 multiple sequences remained, we then chose the longest sequence as a representative. The full set  
134 of species and genes is listed in Supplementary Table S1.

135

### 136 **Phylogenetic Analyses**

137 To determine the orthology of albumin family sequences, we performed phylogenetic analyses  
138 using Maximum Likelihood (ML) and Bayesian Inference (BI) approaches. First, nucleotide and  
139 amino acid sequences were aligned using MAFFT (Kato and Standley, 2013) and  
140 trimmed/cleaned with trimAL (Capella-Gutiérrez et al., 2009) . We performed ML analyses in  
141 RAxML v8 (Stamatakis, 2014) with 20 searches for the best tree using the GTR GAMMA model  
142 of nucleotide evolution and PROT GAMMA model of protein evolution. Nodal support for the  
143 best ML topology was assessed using non-parametric bootstrapping with the autoMRE option in  
144 RAxML, and we reconciled the best ML tree with the bootstrap replicates in RAxML. Bayesian  
145 Inference was performed in MrBayes v3.2 (Ronquist et al., 2012) using four independent runs  
146 with four chains each for  $5 \times 10^{10}$  generations, sampling trees every 5000 generations, and using

147 default priors. Runs and chains were considered to have reached stationarity if the average  
148 standard deviation of split frequencies was  $< 0.01$ . Convergence was assessed by checking that  
149 the effective sample size of all priors/variables was  $>200$  and manually examined in Tracer  
150 (Rambaut et al., 2018). We discarded trees collected before the chains reached convergence and  
151 summarized results with a majority-rule consensus of trees.

152

### 153 **Synteny Search**

154 Sequences and gene order were obtained from the genome assemblies of the mouse *Mus*  
155 *musculus* (GRCg6a/galGal6), from the chicken *Gallus gallus* (GRCm38/mm10), and from the  
156 green anole *Anolis carolinensis* (AnoCar2.0) available through the NCBI  
157 (<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genome/gdv/>) and UCSC (<https://genome.ucsc.edu/>) websites  
158 (last accessed: 15 March 2020). Gene order was manually recorded and represented in Figure 2.

159

### 160 **Results**

161 **Bioinformatic surveys.** We integrated synteny, phylogenetic, and genomic information to  
162 reconstruct the evolutionary history of the albumin family of proteins in sauropsids. We queried  
163 the genome databases to locate genes with sequence similarity to albumin family proteins using  
164 mammals, birds, frogs, and fish as references. We functionally annotated albumin genes and  
165 used phylogeny reconstructions to resolve orthology and paralogy. These surveys spanned all  
166 orders of sauropsids, including 15 species of squamates (lizards and snakes), 4 turtles, 2  
167 crocodylians, plus zebra finch and chicken as representative birds. A total of 24 species covering  
168 several major squamate lineages were examined for albumin-like sequences. In this study, we  
169 searched for putative albumins out of the available overall protein sequences, including turtles,

170 birds, alligators, and squamates (lizards and snakes) using mouse, chicken, frog, and fish  
171 albumins as reference. Our findings indicate that they are variably present and exist in several  
172 forms.

173

174 **ALB is absent in squamates.** In our sequence searches, we did not find canonical ALB for any  
175 snake or lizard, despite extensive annotation efforts. In contrast, serum albumin is present in all  
176 other sauropsids surveyed (Fig. 1A). We identified canonical serum albumin in fish, mammals,  
177 frogs, archosaurs (birds and alligators), and turtles. Many squamate sequences that had been  
178 assigned serum albumin annotations were actually more closely related to alpha-fetoprotein.  
179 Notably, the tuatara (*Sphenodon punctatus*), sister to squamate reptiles, has a partial (degraded)  
180 serum albumin sequence. This absence of canonical serum albumin is further supported by  
181 synteny analysis of a representative of the order squamata, the Green Anole (*Anolis*  
182 *carolinensis*). In mammals and birds (represented by *Mus musculus* and *Gallus gallus*,  
183 respectively), the gene order of serum albumin and the neighboring genes is conserved and  
184 placed on a single chromosome with the gene order: COX18-ANKRD17-ALB-AFP-RASSF6,  
185 with AFM being present in *M. musculus* between AFP and RASSF6 (Figure 2). In *A.*  
186 *carolinensis*, however, this region has been split, with COX18 and ANKRD17 found on  
187 chromosome 6, AFP found on an uncharacterized chromosome, and ALB and RASSF6 unable to  
188 be recovered (Figure 2).

189

190 **Vitamin D-binding protein is highly conserved across reptiles.** Vitamin D-binding protein (GC)  
191 is highly conserved across all lineages and reflects the expected species topology (Figure 1). All  
192 protein sequences identified as GC contained 6-9 GC-specific fingerprints (PR00804 from the

193 PRINTS database) and most (17/23) sequences were annotated with the Pfam profile model  
194 PF09164. GC serves several physiological important functions, including acting as the principal  
195 transporter of vitamin D and its metabolites, scavenging G-actin, and as an activator of  
196 macrophages in immune responses (Chun, 2012; White and Cooke, 2000), and no cases of  
197 complete loss have been reported. This suggests GC is essential for normal development and  
198 survival and is likely under strong purifying selection.

199

200 **Alpha-fetoprotein is highly variable in reptiles.** All protein sequences categorized as AFP were  
201 annotated with 3 characteristic ALB domains (PF00273) from the Pfam database. However, the  
202 number of reptile AFP fingerprints per sequence were highly variable (0-6), compared to  
203 canonical mammal AFP (7 fingerprints). Putative reptile AFP sequences were similarly variable  
204 in ProDom and PROSite annotations compared to mammals. Phylogenetic analysis shows at  
205 least two distinct clades of AFP genes: one found in mammals, and another that is reptile-  
206 specific (represented in Figure 1A as AFP-R). Within the reptile-specific AFP clade (AFP-R),  
207 we find evidence for a major split between squamates and other reptiles. Tuatara, the sister group  
208 to squamates, has an AFP that is sister to turtles, crocodylians, and birds (Figure 1A). However,  
209 there also appears to be a squamate-specific clade, with all squamate AFP sequences forming a  
210 monophyletic clade that reflects the expected species topology (Figure 1A).

211

212 **Only characteristic ALB residues are conserved across reptiles.** Characteristic motifs and  
213 residues in the four albumin genes were identified. Only the most conserved domains (e.g.,  
214 PFAM profile PR00802) were conserved across putative ALB sequences in our study. All other  
215 domains and motifs were highly variable in both sequence and number. It is clear the overall

216 sequence identities of albumin characteristic domains are very low across vertebrates. This  
217 aspect of our results is still under investigation, and further results will be included in the final  
218 draft of this manuscript to be submitted for publication in a scientific journal.

219

## 220 **Discussion**

221 Given its physiological importance and conservation across vertebrates, ALB should be retained  
222 in all reptiles. Surprisingly, we did not detect serum albumin for any of the 15 squamate species  
223 spanning 8 families in this study, despite exhaustive annotation efforts. Most amniotes possess a  
224 full set of albumin proteins (GC, ALB, AFP, and AFM), several with an expanded repertoire.  
225 However, ALB is generally conserved across vertebrates. Thus, our findings suggest the loss or  
226 modification beyond recognition of serum albumin in squamates.

227

228 The clade Sauropsida consists of extant reptiles, a diverse set of organisms with a wide variety of  
229 adaptations that are largely understudied when compared to their mammalian counterparts.

230 Within Sauropsids, squamates (lizards and snakes of the order Squamata) represent the largest  
231 order of Sauropsids and the second largest order of vertebrates, with over 10,000 described  
232 species. The loss of a major physiological protein such as serum albumin is highly surprising and  
233 presumably leads to major physiological shifts in order to account for this absence.

234

235 Although ALB serves vital physiological transport roles, there is a human medical condition  
236 characterized by the absence, or abnormally low levels, of ALB circulating in the blood serum  
237 known as congenital analbuminemia (Koot et al., 2004; Minchiotti et al., 2019). This condition is  
238 an inherited autosomal recessive disorder with an incidence of 1:1,000,000 live births, arising

239 from a mutation that causes premature truncations in the ALB molecule (Caridi et al., 2019;  
240 Minchiotti et al., 2019). As of 2019 there are 27 known genetic variants of the ALB gene that  
241 result in the pathogenic condition, including a variant of the start codon, frameshift/insertions,  
242 frameshift/deletions, nonsense mutations, and mutations affecting splicing (Caridi et al., 2019;  
243 Minchiotti et al., 2019). The majority of these variants are unique to each identified affected  
244 family, but one particular frameshift deletion called Kayseri is known to cause one third of all  
245 known cases (Minchiotti et al., 2019). Surprisingly, this condition has long believed to be largely  
246 asymptomatic and there are only 90 cases recorded worldwide (Cormode et al., 1975; Watkins et  
247 al., 1994), but recent studies have shown that congenital analbuminemia can lead to the  
248 miscarriage and preterm birth of fetuses with the condition by means of oligohydramnions and  
249 placental abnormalities, and increases the chance of death in early childhood, being associated  
250 with low birth weight, oedema, fluid retention, and lower respiratory tract infections (Minchiotti  
251 et al., 2019). The few reported cases of patients with congenital analbuminemia surviving until  
252 adulthood still suffer several mild detrimental effects such as fatigue and reduced blood pressure  
253 however they survive due to compensatory measures of other plasma proteins (Minchiotti et al.,  
254 2019). By characterizing differences in albumin composition derived from gene duplications,  
255 losses, and retention of ancestral genes in non-mammalian lineages, we may gain insight into  
256 how these genetic changes affect physiological adaptations in these lineages, and better  
257 understand human pathologies and potential therapies. Exciting future challenges involve  
258 identifying what compensatory mechanisms have evolved in snakes and lizards, and if these  
259 mechanisms could be used to develop biomedical therapies for congenital analbuminemia.  
260

261 AFP has long been known as the fetal counterpart to albumin, but this function has only been  
262 characterized in mammals (Bader et al., 2004). AFP is an important transporter in mammals  
263 during fetal development due to its ability to cross the placental barrier, unlike ALB (Newby et  
264 al., 2005). In reptiles the role of AFP in development as well as its expression and function in  
265 adulthood remains unknown. The lack of knowledge of the function of this protein in non-  
266 mammalian lineages limits our understanding of this protein and its potential uses. The  
267 divergence of reptilian and squamate AFP could indicate novel functions in these lineages that  
268 warrant rigorous investigation.

269

270 Comparative studies on reptiles, especially lizards and snakes, suffer from a dearth of genomic  
271 resources. Additionally, the resources available are incomplete and plagued with assembly  
272 artifacts (Hoffmann et al., 2018)). Future studies with more well-annotated genomes for reptiles  
273 could effectively explore the expansion and contraction of gene families more thoroughly.  
274 However, our study provides a comparative genomic framework for identifying any lineage-  
275 specific gene expansions that may compensate for the lack of the physiologically important  
276 serum albumin in squamates.

277

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283

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381

382 **FIGURE CAPTIONS**

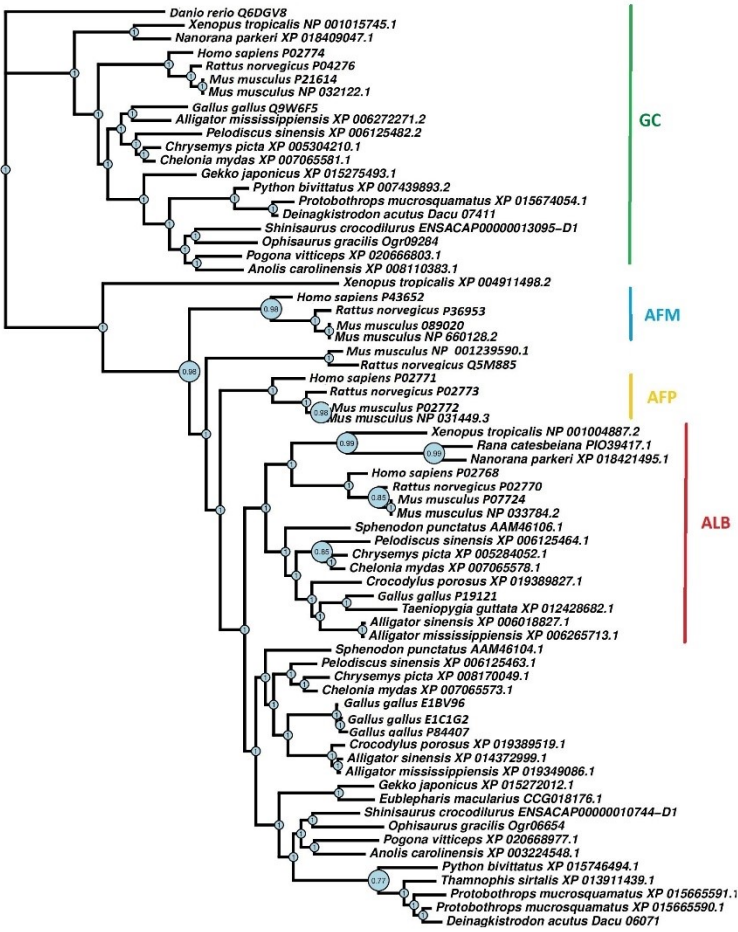
383 **Figure 1.**

384 (A.) Bayesian phylogeny of amino acid sequences. Values at nodes indicate posterior  
385 probabilities. Protein clades are labeled with the protein name and a colored bar. Colors  
386 correspond to each family protein: green for GC, red for ALB, yellow for AFP, purple for AFP-  
387 R, and blue for AFM. AFP-R represents reptilian AFP, a reptile specific AFP distinct from  
388 mammal AFP. (B.) Representation of the accepted relationships of the albumin family members.  
389 (C.) The accepted vertebrate phylogeny with a corresponding matrix showing the distribution of  
390 albumin family members in each lineage. Lineages that comprise sauropsida are highlighted.

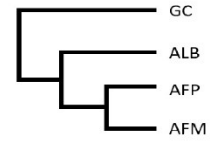
391

392 **Figure 2.** Synteny of the albumin gene family chromosomal regions in the genomes of house  
393 mouse (*Mus musculus*), chicken (*Gallus gallus*), and green anole (*Anolis carolinensis*). Members  
394 of the albumin gene family are shown in black, while neighboring genes are shown in white. The  
395 highlighted blue portion of each chromosome corresponds to the region containing the shown  
396 genes. The orange arrow in *A. carolinensis* chromosome 5 represents a point of interest where a  
397 translocation may have occurred. The line breaks in *M. musculus* chromosome 5 and *G. gallus*  
398 chromosome 4 represents a distance of 4 million base pairs.

(A.)



(B.)



(C.)

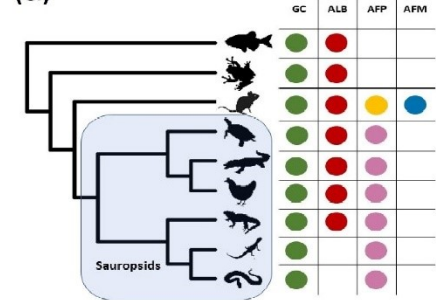
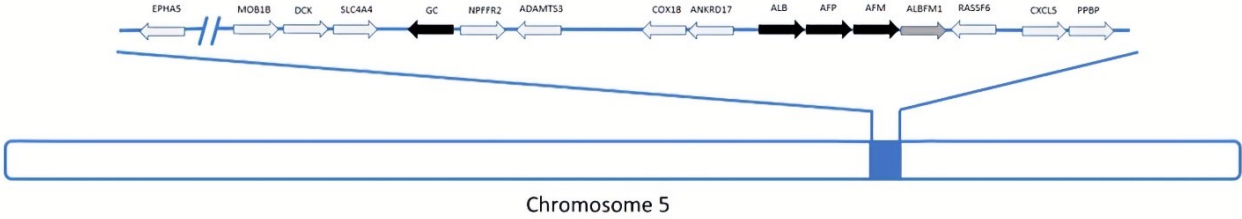
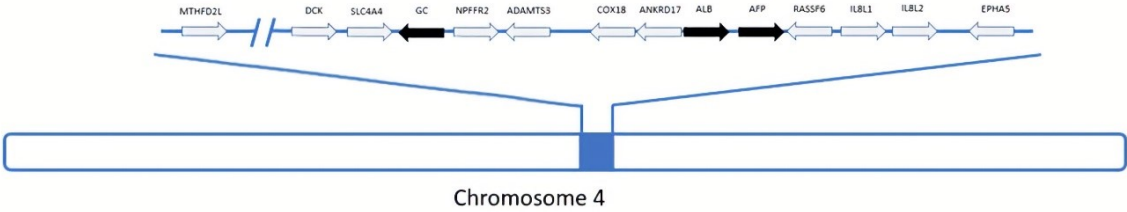


Figure 1.

Mouse (*Mus musculus*)



Chicken (*Gallus gallus*)



Green Anole (*Anolis carolinensis*)

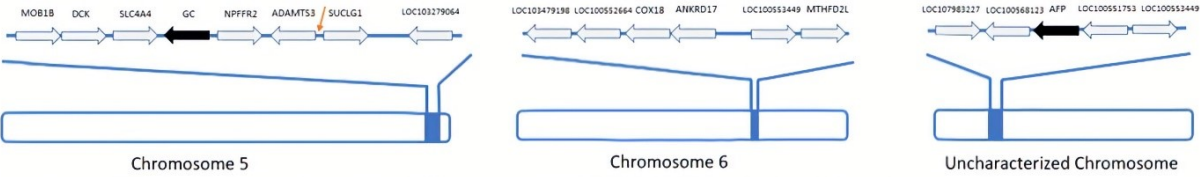


Figure 2.

**Supplementary Table 1. Gene list.** Protein name, gene ID, organism, and source sequence was retrieved for all amino acid sequences used in bioinformatic and phylogenetic analysis.

Higher Taxonomy	Genus	species	Protein Name	ID	Source
Actinopterygii	Danio	rerio	GC	Q6DGV8	Phylome
Amphibia	Xenopus	tropicalis	GC	NP_001015745.1	NCBI
Amphibia	Xenopus	tropicalis	ALB	NP_001004887.2	Refseq
Amphibia	Xenopus	tropicalis	Ancestral albumin	XP_004911498.2	NCBI
Amphibia	Nanorana	parkeri	GC	XP_018409047.1	NCBI
Amphibia	Nanorana	parkeri	ALB	XP_018421495.1	NCBI
Amphibia	Rana	catesbeiana	ALB	PIO39417.1	NCBI
Aves	Gallus	gallus	GC	Q9W6F5	TrEMBL
Aves	Gallus	gallus	ALB	P19121	SwissProt
Aves	Gallus	gallus	AFP	E1BV96	Phylome
Aves	Gallus	gallus	AFP	E1C1G2	Phylome
Aves	Gallus	gallus	AFP	P84407	SwissProt
Crocodylia	Alligator	mississippiensis	GC	XP_006272271.2	TrEMBL
Crocodylia	Alligator	mississippiensis	ALB	XP_006265713.1	TrEMBL
Crocodylia	Alligator	mississippiensis	AFP	XP_019349086.1	TrEMBL
Crocodylia	Alligator	sinensis	ALB	XP_006018827.1	TrEMBL
Crocodylia	Alligator	sinensis	AFP	XP_014372999.1	TrEMBL
Crocodylia	Crocodylus	porosus	ALB	XP_019389827.1	Blastp
Crocodylia	Crocodylus	porosus	AFP	XP_019389519.1	Blastp
Tetsudinae	Chrysemys	picta	GC	XP_005304210.1	NCBI
Mammalia	Homo	sapiens	GC	P02774	SwissProt
Mammalia	Rattus	norvegicus	GC	P04276	Phylome
Mammalia	Mus	musculus	GC	P21614	SwissProt
Mammalia	Mus	musculus	GC	NP_032122.1	NCBI
Tetsudinae	Pelodiscus	sinensis	GC	XP_006125482.2	TrEMBL
Tetsudinae	Chelonia	mydas	GC	XP_007065581.1	NCBI
Squamata	Gekko	japonicus	GC	XP_015275493.1	NCBI
Squamata	Python	bivittatus	GC	XP_007439893.2	NCBI
Squamata	Protobothrops	muscrossquamatus	GC	XP_015674054.1	NCBI



Squamata	Deinagkistrodon	acutus	GC	Dacu_07411	Blastp
Squamata	Shinisaurus	crocodilurus	GC	ENSACAP00000013095-D1	Blastp
Squamata	Ophisaurus	gracilis	GC	Ogr09284	Blastp
Squamata	Pogona	vitticeps	GC	XP_020666803.1	NCBI
Squamata	Anolis	carolinensis	GC	XP_008110383.1	TrEMBL
Mammalia	Homo	sapiens	AFM	P43652	SwissProt
Mammalia	Rattus	norvegicus	AFM	P36953	Phylome
Mammalia	Mus	musculus	AFM	89020	SwissProt
Mammalia	Mus	musculus	AFM	NP_660128.2	SwissProt
Mammalia	Mus	musculus	ALBFM1	NP_001239590.1	Phylome
Mammalia	Rattus	norvegicus	ALBFM1	Q5M885	Phylome
Mammalia	Homo	sapiens	AFP	P02771	SwissProt
Mammalia	Rattus	norvegicus	AFP	P02773	Phylome
Mammalia	Mus	musculus	AFP	P02772	SwissProt
Mammalia	Mus	musculus	AFP	NP_031449.3	Phylome
Mammalia	Homo	sapiens	ALB	P02768	SwissProt
Mammalia	Rattus	norvegicus	ALB	P02770	Phylome
Mammalia	Mus	musculus	ALB	P07724	SwissProt
Mammalia	Mus	musculus	ALB	NP_033784.2	Phylome
Squamata	Sphenodon	punctatus	ALB	AAM46106.1	NCBI
Tetsudinae	Pelodiscus	sinensis	ALB	XP_006125464.1	Blastp
Tetsudinae	Chrysemys	picta	ALB	XP_005284052.1	Blastp
Tetsudinae	Chelonia	mydas	ALB	XP_007065578.1	NCBI
Aves	Taeniopygia	guttata	ALB	XP_012428682.1	NCBI
Rhynchocephalia	Sphenodon	punctatus	AFP	AAM46104.1	NCBI
Squamata	Pelodiscus	sinensis	AFP	XP_006125463.1	NCBI
Tetsudinae	Chrysemys	picta	AFP	XP_008170049.1	NCBI
Tetsudinae	Chelonia	mydas	AFP	XP_007065573.1	NCBI
Squamata	Gekko	japonicus	AFP	XP_015272012.1	NCBI
Squamata	Eublepharis	macularius	AFP	CCG018176.1	Blastp
Squamata	Shinisaurus	crocodilurus	AFP	ENSACAP00000010744-D1	Blastp

Squamata	Ophisaurus	gracilis	AFP	Ogr06654	Blastp
Squamata	Pogona	vitticeps	AFP	XP_020668977.1	NCBI
Squamata	Anolis	carolinensis	AFP	XP_003224548.1	NCBI
Squamata	Python	bivittatus	AFP	XP_015746494.1	NCBI
Squamata	Thmanophis	sirtalis	AFP	XP_013911439.1	Blastp
Squamata	Protobothrops	muscrossquamatus	AFP	XP_015665591.1	NCBI
Squamata	Protobothrops	muscrossquamatus	AFP	XP_015665590.1	NCBI
Squamata	Deinagkistrodon	acutus	AFP	DACU_06071	Blastp