

Evolution of Mammalian KELL Blood Group Glycoproteins and Genes (KEL): Evidence for a Marsupial Origin from an Ancestral M13 Type II Endopeptidase Gene

Roger S Holmes*

Eskitis Institute for Drug Discovery and School of Biomolecular and Physical Sciences, Griffith University, Nathan, QLD, Australia

Abstract

KELL is a member of the M13 family of type II neutral endopeptidases, which functions as a blood group antigen in human and animal populations. KELL amino acid sequences and structures and *KEL* gene locations were examined using bioinformatic data from several mammalian genome projects. Mammalian KELL sequences shared 55-99% identity, as compared with 21-31% sequence identities with other M13-like family members. Four predicted N-glycosylation sites were conserved among the mammalian KELL proteins examined. Sequence alignments, key amino acid residues and conserved predicted secondary and tertiary structures were also studied, including active site residues, predicted disulfide forming Cys residues, cytoplasmic, transmembrane and extracellular sequences and KELL C-terminus amino acid sequences. Mammalian *KEL* genes usually contained 18 or 19 coding exons on the direct strand. Transcription factor binding sites within the human *KEL* promoter may regulate transcription within erythroid cells. Phylogenetic analyses examined the relationships and potential evolutionary origins of the mammalian *KEL* gene with six other vertebrate neutral endopeptidase M13 family genes. These suggested that *KEL* originated in an ancestral marsupial genome from a gene duplication event of a neutral endopeptidase *M13*-like gene.

Keywords: KELL glycoproteins; Blood group antigens; KEL; Sequence conservation; Marsupial origin; Gene evolution

Abbreviations: KELL: Blood Group Glycoprotein; *KEL*: KELL Blood Group Glycoprotein Gene; MME: Membrane Metallo-Endopeptidase; ECE: Endothelin-Converting Enzyme; PHEX: Phosphate Regulating Neutral Endopeptidase; ECEL1: ECE-Like Protein 1; RBC: Red Blood Cell; XY protein: A Multipass Membrane Protein; QTL: Quantitative Trait Locus; BLAST: Basic Local Alignment Search Tool; BLAT: Blast-Like Alignment Tool; NCBI: National Center for Biotechnology Information; KO: Knock Out; AceView: NCBI Based Representation of Public mRNAs; SWISS-MODEL: Automated Protein Structure Homology-Modeling Server; UTR: Untranslated Gene Region

Introduction

KELL blood group glycoprotein (KELL, also called CD antigen 238; EC 3.4.24.-) is one of at least seven members of the M13 family of neutral endopeptidases, which are zinc-containing type II transmembrane enzymes [1-4]. KELL blood group glycoprotein contains several antigens that are highly immunogenic and serve as the third most effective system in triggering an immune reaction, after the ABO and Rh blood groups [5-7]. KELL is also a single-pass transmembrane protein which is linked to the XY protein, found in red blood cell (RBC) membranes [8,9], and serves as an endothelin-converting enzyme, an endopeptidase which cleaves 'big' endothelin-3 to form an active vasoconstrictor peptide [10,11].

Other M13 neutral endopeptidases have been described: Membrane endopeptidase (MME) or neprilysin (NEP) inactivates signaling peptides involved in regulating blood pressure, the immune system and neuronal activity [12-14]; membrane metallo-endopeptidase-like 1 (MMEL1) or neprilysin-like protein 1 (NEPL1), reported as a susceptibility locus for multiple sclerosis, primary biliary cirrhosis and rheumatoid arthritis with a proposed sperm function role [15-18]; endothelin-converting enzyme 1 (ECE1, EC=3.4.24.71) [19,20], and endothelin-converting enzyme 2 (ECE2, EC=3.4.24.71) participate in regulatory peptide processing [21,22]; endothelin-converting enzyme-like 1 (ECEL1) serves an essential role in the nervous control of respiration [23,24]; and phosphate-regulating neutral endopeptidase (PHEX), which is involved in bone mineralization, and has a proposed role in renal phosphate reabsorption [25,26].

The gene encoding KELL (*KEL* in humans; *Kel* in mice) is highly expressed in erythroid tissues, but also in other tissues, including testis, heart, spleen and skeletal muscle [3,9]. The structures of the human *KEL* and the mouse *Kel* genes have been reported, containing 18 or 19 exons of DNA encoding KELL sequences [9,10,27,28]. The molecular basis of the major human KELL antigens has been determined, which result from *KEL* point mutations and single amino acid substitutions [29]. At least 30 KELL antigens are reported [27,30,31], including the highest frequency *KEL* polymorphism in human populations, designated as K_1/K_2 , due to a C→T substitution in exon 6 causing a 193Thr to 193Met substitution and disruption of an N-glycosylation site [32]. Other high incidence KELL antigens have been reported, including KALT, which is sensitive to treatment of RBCs by trypsin [27,33]. A 'null' human *KEL* phenotype (designated as K_0), which abolishes KELL expression in erythroid tissues, resulting from a mutation at the splicing exon 3 donor site [33], while other K_0 alleles have been reported in low frequency in a Chinese population [34]. Knock-out (*Kel*-/*Kel*-) (KO) mice lacking RBC KELL glycoprotein exhibited changes in red cell ion transport and some mild motor dysfunction, have provided a useful model to study the biochemical and physiological roles for this protein [31]. RBC Gardos channel activity, which normally functions as a potassium chloride cotransport and calcium-activated potassium channel, and assists with maintaining RBC hydration status [34], was increased in KO erythrocytes, although lacking endothelin-converting endopeptidase activity. Antibodies generated in the circulation system in response to KELL antigens are usually immunoglobulin G, which

*Corresponding author: Roger S Holmes, Eskitis Institute for Drug Discovery, School of Biomolecular and Physical Sciences, Griffith University, Nathan, QLD 4111, Australia, Tel: +61 7 37356008; E-mail: r.holmes@griffith.edu.au

Received April 14, 2013; Accepted July 17, 2013; Published July 22, 2013

Citation: Holmes RS (2013) Evolution of Mammalian KELL Blood Group Glycoproteins and Genes (KEL): Evidence for a Marsupial Origin from an Ancestral M13 Type II Endopeptidase Gene. J Phylogen Evolution Biol 1: 112. doi:10.4172/2329-9002.1000112

Copyright: © 2013 Holmes RS. This is an open-access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License, which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original author and source are credited.

may result in severe hemolytic transfusion reactions and hemolytic disease of the fetus and newborn [5,7]. Recent studies have suggested that these reactions may occur not only as a result of immune RBC destruction, but also by the suppression of erythropoiesis by anti-KELL-K₁ antibodies, which can lead to severe anemia in the fetus or newborn [35,36].

This paper reports the predicted gene structures and amino acid sequences for several mammalian *KEL* genes and proteins, the predicted structures for mammalian KELL proteins and the structural, phylogenetic and evolutionary relationships for these genes and enzymes with those for six other vertebrate M13 neutral Type II endopeptidase gene families. The results suggest that the mammalian *KEL* gene arose from the duplication event of an ancestral mammalian M13 Type II-like endopeptidase gene, with the appearance corresponding to the emergence of marsupial mammals during evolution.

Methods

Mammalian *KEL* gene and KELL protein identification

BLAST studies were undertaken using web tools from the National Center for Biotechnology Information (NCBI) [37]. Protein BLAST analyses used mammalian KELL and six other vertebrate M13 neutral endopeptidase amino acid sequences previously described [1,2,9,23,38-43] (Table 1 and 2).

BLAT analyses were subsequently undertaken for each of the predicted KELL amino acid sequences and other M13 neutral endopeptidase-like genes, using the UC Santa Cruz Genome Browser with the default settings to obtain the predicted locations for each of these vertebrate genes, including predicted exon boundary locations and gene sizes (Table 1 and 2) [44]. The AceView website was used to obtain structures for the major human *KEL* and mouse *Kel* transcripts [28].

Predicted structures and properties of mammalian KELL proteins

Predicted secondary and tertiary structures for human and other mammalian KELL proteins were obtained using the SWISS-MODEL web-server [43], and the reported tertiary structure for human ECE1 complexed with phosphoramidon [20] (PDB:3dwbA), with a modeling residue range of 60-713 for human KELL. Molecular weights, N-glycosylation sites and predicted transmembrane [46], cytosolic and extracellular sequences for mammalian KELL and related vertebrate M13 Type II endopeptidase proteins were obtained using ExPasy web tools (http://au.expasy.org/tools/pi_tool.html). Identification of conserved domains for mammalian KELL proteins was made using NCBI web tools [47] (<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Structure/cdd/wrpsb.cgi>).

Comparative human (*KEL*) gene expression

The genome browser (<http://genome.ucsc.edu>) was used to examine GNF Expression Atlas 2 data, using U133A and GNF1H expression chips for the human *KEL* gene (<http://biogps.gnf.org>) [48]. Gene array expression 'heat maps' were examined for comparative gene expression levels among human and mouse tissues, showing high (red); intermediate (black); and low (green) expression levels.

Phylogeny studies and sequence divergence

Phylogenetic analyses were undertaken using the <http://phylogeny.fr> platform [49]. Alignments of mammalian KELL sequences, six other vertebrate M13 neutral endopeptidase sequences and a nematode (*Caenorhabditis elegans*) M13 endopeptidase-like sequence were assembled using PMUSCLE [50] (Table 1 and 2). Alignment ambiguous regions were excluded prior to phylogenetic analysis, yielding alignments for mammalian KELL sequences with other vertebrate neutral endopeptidase and nematode (*Caenorhabditis elegans*) M13-like sequences. The phylogenetic tree was constructed using the maximum likelihood tree estimation program PHYML [51].

Gene KELL	Species	RefSeq ID *Ensembl/NCBI	GenBank ID	UNIPROT ID	Amino Acids	Chromosome location	Coding Exons (strand)	Gene Size bps	Subunit MW	Gene Expression	pl	% Identity human KELL	% Identity human ECE1	% Identity human MME
Human (KELa)	<i>Homo sapiens</i>	NM_000420	BC003135	P23276	732	7:142,638,342-142,658,959	19 (-ve)	20,618	82,824	0.5	8.1	100	30	21
Human (KELb)	<i>Homo sapiens</i>	na	CH471198	na	713	7,142,638,342-142,659,588	18 (-ve)	20,247	80,793	na	8.6	100	30	21
Chimp	<i>Pan troglodytes</i>	XP_519445	na	na	732	7:144,486,459-144,507,070	19 (-ve)	20,612	82,864	na	8.3	98	30	21
Gorilla	<i>Gorilla gorilla</i>	XP_004046423	na	na	732	7:141,432,380-141,452,992	19 (-ve)	20,613	82,725	na	8.1	99	30	21
Gibbon	<i>Nomascus leucogenys</i>	XP_003270898	na	na	713	*397332:328,035-330,342	18 (-ve)	20,308	80,743	na	7.9	96	31	22
Rhesus monkey	<i>Macaca mulatta</i>	na	EHH17796	na	713	3:182,467,328-182,487,814	18 (-ve)	20,487	80,867	na	7.3	93	31	23
Squirrel monkey	<i>Saimiri boliviensis</i>	XP_003929965	na	na	713	*378140:9,028,614-9,050,096	18 (-ve)	21,483	80,867	na	7.3	90	31	22
Mouse	<i>Mus musculus</i>	NM_032540	BC099961	Q9EQF2	713	6:41,686,450-41,703,500	18 (-ve)	17,051	80,866	0.8	5.9	74	31	22
Rat	<i>Rattus norvegicus</i>	NM_001191611	na	na	713	4:69,392,966-69,409,477	18 (-ve)	16,512	81,008	0.2	7.1	70	31	21
Pig	<i>Sus scrofa</i>	XP_003134648	na	na	730	18:7,555,168-7,578,252	18 (-ve)	23,085	82,077	na	6.4	69	30	23
Horse	<i>Equus caballus</i>	XP_001489752	na	na	713	4:96,015,434-96,034,243	18 (-ve)	18,810	80,732	na	7.9	77	31	23
Cow	<i>Bos taurus</i>	XP_001788561	na	na	721	4:109,587,066-109,625,396	18 (-ve)	38,331	81,503	na	8.1	67	31	19
Rabbit	<i>Oryctolagus cuniculus</i>	XP_002712030	na	na	784	7:9,175,391-9,196,368	19 (+ve)	20,978	88,047	na	6.5	79	29	22
Panda	<i>Ailuropoda melanoleuca</i>	XP_002924225	na	na	738	*193114:349,706-368,327	19 (+ve)	18,622	83,365	na	7.9	79	31	22
Opossum	<i>Monodelphis domestica</i>	XP_001364826	na	na	768	8:205,592,264-205,612,188	18 (-ve)	19,925	86,352	na	6.3	55	27	21
MME														
Human	<i>Homo sapiens</i>	NM_000902	BC101632	P08473	750	3:154,801,957-154,898,245	22 (+ve)	96,289	85,514	4.3	5.5	21	36	100
ECE1														
Human	<i>Homo sapiens</i>	NM_004826	BC050453	O95672	775	2:233,344,866-233,351,363	17 (-ve)	6,498	87,791	0.4	6.6	30	100	36

Table 1: Mammalian *KEL* and human *ECE1* and *MME* genes and proteins.

RefSeq: the reference amino acid sequence; *predicted Ensembl amino acid sequence; na-not available; GenBank IDs are derived NCBI <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genbank/>; Ensembl ID was derived from Ensembl genome database <http://www.ensembl.org>; UNIPROT refers to UniprotKB/Swiss-Prot IDs for individual endopeptidase-like proteins (see <http://kr.expasy.org>); *refers to an unknown scaffold; bps refers to base pairs of nucleotide sequences; pl refers to theoretical isoelectric points; the number of coding exons are listed; high % identities are shown in **bold**; high gene expression levels are in **bold**; (a) and (b) refer to isoform sequences for human KELL.

Gene KELL	Species	RefSeq ID 'Ensembl/NCBI	GenBank ID	UNIPROT ID	Amino Acids	Chromosome location	Coding Exons (strand)	Gene Size bps	Subunit MW	Gene Expression	pI
Human	Homo sapiens	NM_001113347	BC117256	P42892	770	1:21,546,451-21,616,907	19 (-ve)	70,457	87,163	4.4	5.6
Mouse	Mus musculus	NM_199307	AB060648	Q4PZA2	769	4:137,469,641-137,518,818	18 (+ve)	49,178	87,085	3.7	5.6
Chicken	Gallus gallus	NM_204717	AF98287	Q9DGN6	752	21:6,600,258-6,607,612	17 (+ve)	7,355	84,986	na	5.1
Zebrafish	Danio rerio	NP_001071260	BC125952	F1RAS8	752	11:28,797,446-28,829,975	18 (-ve)	32,530	85,206	na	5.8
ECE2											
Human	Homo sapiens	NM_014693	BC005835	O60344	883	3:183,967,483-184,010,023	19 (+ve)	42,451	99,773	1.4	5.0
Mouse	Mus musculus	NM_177940	BC115541	B2RQR8	881	16:20,611,698-20,645,306	19 (+ve)	33,609	99,480	1.0	5.0
Chicken	Gallus gallus	*XP_003641814	na	F1NW61	768	9:15,356,256-15,361,432	19 (-ve)	#5,177	86,536	na	5.1
Zebrafish	Danio rerio	*XP_00133328	na	na	759	15:4,034,811-4,106,595	19 (-ve)	71,785	85,699	na	5.0
MME											
Human	Homo sapiens	NM_000902	BC101632	P08473	750	3:154,801,957-154,898,245	22 (+ve)	96,289	85,514	4.3	5.5
Mouse	Mus musculus	NM_008604	BC034092	Q61391	750	3:63,040,057-63,184,251	22 (+ve)	80,195	85,702	2.0	5.6
Turkey	Meleagris gallopavo	*XP_003209305	na	G1NEB9	751	11:23,284,588-23,318,940	22 (-ve)	34,353	85,530	na	5.5
Puffer fish	Tetraodon nigroviridis	*ENSTNIP0000010506	na	H3CQH2	750	16:2,485,166-2,501,356	22 (+ve)	16,191	86,039	na	5.7
MMEL1											
Human	Homo sapiens	NM_033467	BC032051	Q495T6	779	1:2,522,432-2,560,923	23 (-ve)	38,492	89,367	0.5	5.6
Mouse	Mus musculus	NM_013783	AF157105	Q9JLI3	765	4:154,245,762-154,269,331	23 (+ve)	23,570	88,700	0.3	6.1
Chicken	Gallus gallus	*XP_001233077	na	na	745	21:1,388,408-1,409,376	22 (+ve)	20,969	85,614	na	5.6
Zebrafish	Danio rerio	*XP_689191	na	na	755	11:42,025,785-42,081,241	22 (+ve)	55,457	86,770	na	5.4
ECEL1											
Human	Homo sapiens	NM_004826	BC050453	O95672	775	2:233,344,866-233,351,363	17 (-ve)	6,498	87,791	0.4	6.6
Mouse	Mus musculus	NM_0213306	BC057569	Q9JMI0	775	1:89,044,565-89,051,564	17 (-ve)	7,000	87,993	0.7	7.9
Chicken	Gallus gallus	*XP_422744	na	F1NKL6	763	9:15,047,449-15,053,456	17 (-ve)	6,008	87,744	na	6.5
Tetraodon	Tetraodon nigroviridis	*ENSTNIT0000017527	na	H3C5L5	776	16:6,933,748-6,943,633	18 (-ve)	9,886	89,111	na	6.9
PHEX											
Human	Homo sapiens	NM_000444	BC105057	P78562	749	X:22,051,124-22,266,067	22 (+ve)	214,944	86,474	0.6	8.9
Mouse	Mus musculus	NM_011077	EF194891	A2ICR0	749	X:153,600,106-153,852,688	22 (-ve)	252,583	86,359	0.3	9.0
Chicken	Gallus gallus	NM_001199277	na	E1BXR4	751	1:118,329,962-118,421,519	22 (-ve)	91,558	87,146	na	9.2
Zebrafish	Danio rerio	NM_001089349	BC139673	F1R6K1	745	24:26,230,575-26,253,987	22 (+ve)	23,413	85,271	na	7.1
NEP22											
Worm	<i>Caenorhabditis elegans</i>	NM_077127	na	Q22763	798	X:9,034,601-9,038,311	12 (+ve)	3,711	88,549	na	5.2

Table 2: Vertebrate *ECEL1*, *ECE1*, *ECE2*, *MME*, *MMEL1* and *PHEX* genes and proteins.

RefSeq: the reference amino acid sequence; *predicted Ensembl amino acid sequence; na-not available; GenBank IDs are derived NCBI <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genbank/>; Ensembl ID was derived from Ensembl genome database <http://www.ensembl.org>; UNIPROT refers to UniprotKB/Swiss-Prot IDs for individual endopeptidase-like proteins (see <http://kr.expasy.org>); bps refers to base pairs of nucleotide sequences; pI refers to theoretical isoelectric points; the number of coding exons are listed; high gene expression levels are in **bold**.

Results and Discussion

Alignments of mammalian KELL amino acid sequences

The deduced amino acid sequences for gibbon (*Nomascus leucogenys*), horse (*Equus caballus*) and rat (*Rattus norvegicus*) KELL proteins are shown in Figure 1, together with previously reported sequences for human [2] and mouse KELL proteins [9] (Table 1). Alignments of human with other mammalian sequences examined were between 55-98% identical, suggesting that these are members of the same gene family, whereas comparisons of sequence identities of mammalian KELL proteins with human *ECE1* and *MME* proteins exhibited lower levels of sequence identities: 27-31% and 19-22%, respectively, indicating that these are members of distinct M13 Type II endopeptidase-like gene families (Table 1).

The amino acid sequences for mammalian KELL proteins contained between 713 (for human KELL isoform 'b') and 784 (for rabbit KELL) residues, whereas most mammalian KELL sequences contained either 732 amino acids (for human KELL isoform 'a'), or 713 residues (for human KELL isoform 'b') (Figure 1; Table 1). Previous studies have reported several key regions and residues for human and mouse KELL proteins (human isoform 'b' KELL amino acid residues were identified in each case). These included an N-terminus cytoplasmic tail (residues

1-28), followed by a hydrophobic transmembrane twenty residue segment, which may anchor the enzyme to the plasma membrane [2]. These N-terminal cytoplasmic tail and transmembrane regions revealed a high degree of amino acid sequence conservation (Figure 1). This region was further characterized by conserved 'book-end' residues for mammalian KELL, Arg27-Arg/Trp28 at the N-terminal end, and Tyr48 at the C-terminal end of the membrane anchoring segment, which may contribute to the membrane spanning properties. Figure 2 provides an alignment of the cytoplasmic N-terminal sequences for several mammalian KELL sequences, including human KELL 'a' and 'b' isoform sequences. These contained identical transmembrane and endopeptidase domains, but with N-terminal cytoplasmic domains of different lengths (residues 1-47 and 1-24 for the human 'a' and 'b' isoforms, respectively). This explains the differences in amino acid composition for these human KELL proteins (732 and 713 amino acids, respectively). Figure 2 also shows N-terminal cytoplasmic domain sequences for other mammalian cytoplasmic domain KELL sequences, including rabbit KELL, which contained an extended N-terminal cytoplasmic domain sequence of 99 amino acid residues.

Residues 49-713 of the human KELL sequence were identified using bioinformatics as a large peptidase family M13 endopeptidase-like domain involved in the proteolysis of peptides in the body [47].

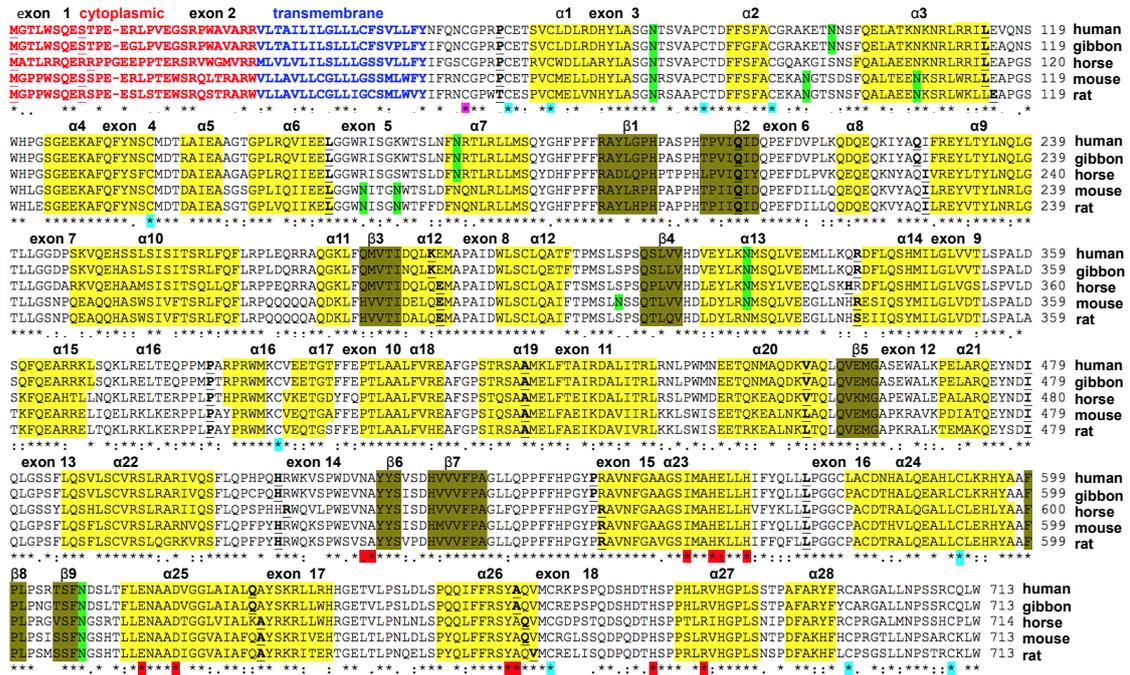


Figure 1: Amino acid sequence alignments for mammalian KELL sequences

See Table 1 for sources of KELL sequences; *shows identical residues for KELL subunits; : similar alternate residues; . dissimilar alternate residues; predicted cytoplasmic residues are shown in red; predicted transmembrane residues are shown in blue; N-glycosylated and potential N-glycosylated Asn sites are in green; endopeptidase active site residues are shown in red; three predicted Zinc-binding residues are also shown in red; conserved Cys53, forming a disulfide bond with XY protein is shown in pink; conserved Cys residues that align with MME disulfide bond forming Cys residues are in blue; predicted α -helices for vertebrate KELL are in shaded yellow, and numbered in sequence from the start of the predicted transmembrane domain; predicted β -sheets are in shaded green, and also numbered in sequence from the N-terminus; bold underlined font shows residues corresponding to known or predicted exon start sites; exon numbers refer to human *KEL* gene exons; note the three major domains identified as cytoplasmic (N-terminal tail); transmembrane (for linking KELL to the cell membrane); and extracellular domains.

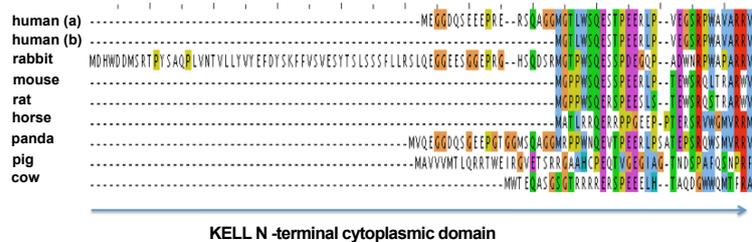


Figure 2: Amino acid sequence alignments for mammalian KELL cytoplasmic domain sequences.

Amino acids are color coded: yellow for proline (P); S (serine); green for hydrophilic amino acids, S (serine), Q (glutamine), N (asparagine), and T (threonine); brown for glycine (G); light blue for hydrophobic amino acids, L (leucine), I (isoleucine), V (valine), M (methionine), W (tryptophan); dark blue for amino acids, T (tyrosine) and H (histidine); purple for acidic amino acids, E (glutamate) and D (aspartate); and red for basic amino acids, K (lysine) and R (arginine); the N-terminus (cytoplasmic) domain is identified; human (a) and (b) refer to major KELL isoform sequences.

This C-terminal region is predicted to be localized extracellularly, and to contain an active M13-like endopeptidase sequence capable of metabolizing physiologically active peptides. Four (horse and pig KELL sequences) to eight (mouse KELL sequence) N-glycosylation sites were predicted for the mammalian KELL sequences examined, which shared 16 distinct N-glycosylation sites (Figure 1; Table 3). Most mammalian KELL sequences exhibited at least four common N-glycosylation sites, designated as sites 1, 10, 13 and 16 (Table 3). It is relevant to note that a high frequency human *KEL* polymorphism (site 10, Table 3) is responsible for removing an N-glycosylation site, resulting in the synthesis of antigens K_1 and K_2 with distinct antigenic properties [27,32]. This lends support to a significant role being played by at least this N-glycosylation site in contributing to the structure and antigenic properties of this protein.

Twelve active site residues were conserved for the mammalian KELL sequences examined (Figure 1; Supplementary Table 1s; Figure 1), which are deduced from the M13 peptidase domain active site residues reported for the NCBI domain studies [47]. These included an active site catalytic residue (Glu563); an active site proton donor (Asp619); 3 residues involved in binding the active site Zinc (His562, His566 and Glu615), deduced from 3D studies of a related enzyme, MME [14]; and 7 other active site residues, also deduced from the MME tertiary structure, namely Asn521, Ala522, Ile599, Tyr658, Ala659, His675 and Arg681 (Figure 1; Supplementary Table 1s). Of particular significance, however, was the amino acid substitution observed for the KELL 'active site' Glu563 residue, which was replaced by a basic amino acid (lysine) for the rat and rabbit KELL sequences. This is likely to have

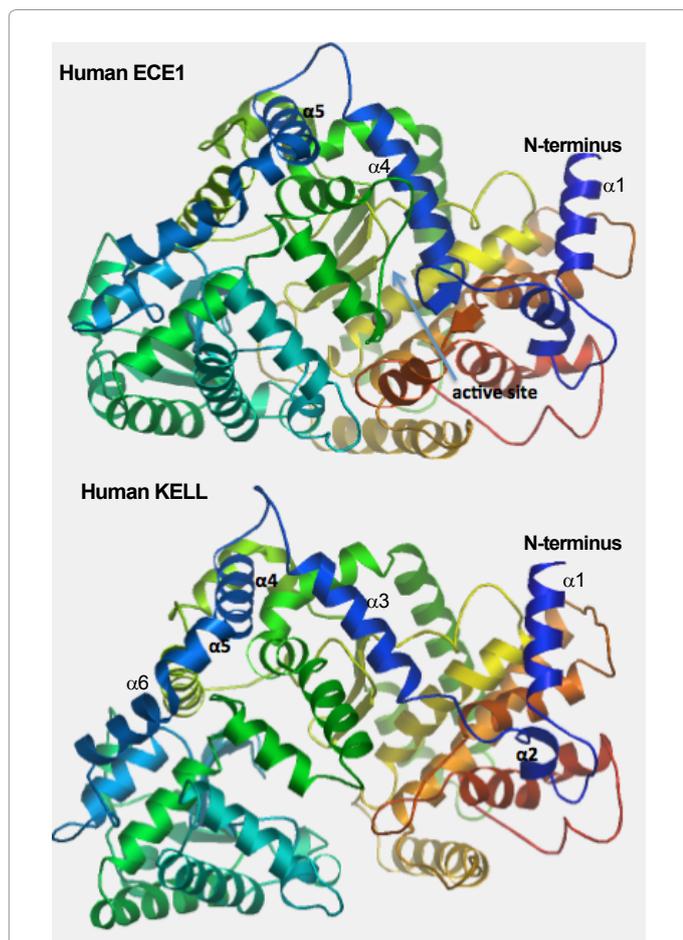


Figure 3: Comparisons of the known tertiary structure for human ECE1 with the predicted structure for human KELL.

The structure for the human ECE1 subunit and the predicted structure for the human KELL subunit are based on the reported structure for human ECE1 [20], and obtained using the SWISS MODEL web site based on PDB 3dwbA <http://swissmodel.expasy.org/workspace/>. The rainbow color code describes the 3-D structures from the N- (blue) to C-termini (red color); predicted α -helices, β -sheets and proposed active site cleft are shown.

a major impact on the endopeptidase activity for these proteins and may reflect a 'null' phenotype for rat and rabbit KELL proteins, similar to that observed for the human K_0 KELL variant phenotype [33]. Most of the other residues in the active site and C-terminal KELL regions were predominantly conserved for many of the mammalian KELL proteins examined, which may reflect strong functional roles for these sequences as well (Figure 1).

There were several conserved Cys residues among the mammalian KELL sequences examined, including Cys53 (Figure 1), which forms a heterodimeric disulfide bond with the XK red cell membrane protein, a multipass transport protein [8]. Ten other Cys residues were conserved among the mammalian KELL sequences examined, which aligned with 10 of 12 Cys residues reported as forming disulfide bonds for the human MME sequence [53]. These included the following potential disulfide bond positions for human KELL: Cys58-Cys63; Cys81-Cys698; Cys89-Cys663; Cys136-Cys391; and Cys591-Cys729, which suggests that mammalian KELL proteins contain five disulfide bonds in similar positions to those reported for five of the six human MME disulfide bonds [53], in addition to the disulfide bond linking KELL with the XK red cell membrane protein [8].

Alignments of the C-terminal sequences for human, opossum and tasmanian devil (*Sarcophilus harrisi*), KELL proteins are shown in Supplementary Figure 1s, together with the corresponding *KEL* 3' nucleotide sequences. In contrast to all other mammalian C-terminal KELL sequences examined, the opossum KELL sequence contained three additional amino acids (Leu-Ser-Ala) to the C-terminal Trp residue observed for all other mammalian KELL sequences. It is likely that mutations in this region of the ancestral opossum *KEL* sequence may have caused a shift of the stop codon downstream, with a corresponding extension of the C-terminal opossum KELL sequence.

Predicted secondary and tertiary structures for mammalian KELL proteins

Predicted secondary structures for human, mouse, gibbon, horse and rat KELL sequences were examined, particularly for the extracellular sequences (Figure 1), using the known structure reported for an M13 family peptidase, human ECE1 [20]. α -Helix and β -sheet structures were identical in each case, with 28 α -helices and 9 β -sheet structures being observed. Of particular interest were α -helices 23, 25,

Endopeptidase	Site 1	Site 2	Site 3	Site 4	Site 5	Site 6	Site 7	Site 8	Site 9	Site 10	Site 11	Site 12	Site 13	Site 14	Site 15	Site 16	Total No of Sites
KELL																	of Sites
Human	75NTSV				96NNSF					172NRTL			326NMSQ			608NDSL	5
Chimpanzee	75NTSV				96NNSF					172NQTL			326NMSQ			608NDSL	5
Gorilla	75NTSV				96NNSF					172NRTL			326NMSQ			608NDSL	5
Gibbon	75NTSV				96NNSF					172NRTL			326NMSQ		603NGTS	608NDSL	6
Rhesus	75NTSV								165NWTS	172NRTL			326NMSQ			608NDSL	5
Squirrel monkey	75NTSV				96NTSF				165NWTS	172NRTL			326NMSQ			608NDSL	6
Mouse	75NRSV	93NGTS				106NKSR		161NITG	165NWTS			311NSSQ	326NMSQ			608NGSH	8
Rat	75NRSA	93NGTS				106NKSR		161NISG	165NWTF				326NMSQ			608NGSH	7
Cow	84NTSV	102NRTG						147NMSA			181NQTL		334NMSQ			616NVSQ	6
Horse	75NTSV									172NRTL			326NMSY			608NGSR	4
Pig		110NRTR								189NQTL			343NMSR			625NGSY	4
Rabbit		164NGTS				177NKSR			236NWTS	243NQTL			397NMSQ		679NGTS		6
Panda	100NTSV								190NWTS	197NRTL			351NMSQ		628NGTF	633NGSR	6
Opossum	124NASA		140NLTS	147NESR						226NHTL	275NYTQ			419NLSQ			6

Table 3: Predicted N-Glycosylation sites for mammalian KELL sequences.

Amino acids are represented as N (asparagine), P (proline); S (serine); Q (glutamine), T (threonine); G (glycine); L (leucine), I (isoleucine), V (valine), M (methionine), W (tryptophan); H (histidine); E (glutamate); D (aspartate); K (lysine) and R (arginine); sites are numbered in sequence from the N-terminus.

26 and 27, which contained several predicted active site residues for human KELL. A predicted tertiary structure for human KELL is shown in Figure 3, together with human ECE1 [20]. The tertiary structure of the extracellular domain (residues 60-713) for human KELL was similar to that described for human ECE1 [20]. Twenty-eight α -helices and nine β -sheet structures were observed, which is similar to that described for the predicted secondary structure for this enzyme. In addition, two major domains for these enzymes were observed, that enclose a large cavity previously shown to contain the enzyme's active site. The more C-terminal of these two domains has been shown to have a fold similar to that of thermolysin which contains the active site residue, whereas the other domain may serve to control access of substrates to the active site [20]. Overall, the predicted human KELL structure closely resembled that reported for human ECE1 [20], and MME [14]. Previous modeling studies have reported that the human KELL protein contains two globular domains, consisting mostly of α -helices, with the domain situated closest to the transmembrane sequence containing both the N- and C-terminal sequences and the active site [54]. In addition, the outer domain of the protein contained all of the amino acids involved in forming at least 30 human KELL antigenic sites.

Gene locations, exonic structures and regulatory sequences for mammalian *KEL* genes

Table 1 summarizes the predicted locations for mammalian *KEL* genes based upon BLAT interrogations of several mammalian genomes, using the reported sequences for human [2] and mouse [9], *KEL* and the predicted sequences for other mammalian *KEL* proteins and the UC Santa Cruz genome browser [44]. The mammalian *KEL* genes examined were transcribed on the minus strand. Figure 1 summarizes

the predicted exonic start sites for human, mouse, gibbon, horse and rat *KEL* genes, based on the *KEL* 'b' isoform, with each having 18 coding exons, in identical or similar positions to those predicted for the human *KEL* gene.

Figure 4 shows the predicted structures for the major human and mouse *KEL* transcripts. In each case, two major transcripts were observed, including the reference sequences (NM_000420 and NM_032540), which were 2811 and 2531 bps in length, with extended 5'- and 3'-untranslated regions (UTR), for the human and mouse *KEL* transcripts. The two major human *KEL* transcript isoforms, designated as 'a' and 'b', encode proteins with distinct N-terminal amino acid sequences, and contain 732 and 713 amino acids with 19 and 18 coding exons, respectively (Table 1; Figure 2) [28]. The human *KEL* promoter region does not contain a TATA box, but has potential transcription factor binding sites for GATA-1 and Sp1 [29], as well as several other *KEL* promoter transcription factor binding sites (Table 4). Of particular significance to *KEL* gene regulation for erythroid cell development are the following sites: *NF-E2*: a transcriptional factor essential for erythroid maturation and differentiation, which also participates in the transcriptional activation of the mammalian beta-globin gene locus [55]; *GATA1*: a transcriptional activator localized in the promoters of the globin gene family and other erythroid-specific genes [56]; and *EV11*: a transcription activator which is essential for the proliferation and maintenance of hematopoietic stem cells [57]. It would appear that the *KEL* gene promoter is well endowed with gene regulatory sequences, which may contribute to the high levels of *KEL* expression in mammalian erythroid cells, and to the maintenance of this expression during development.

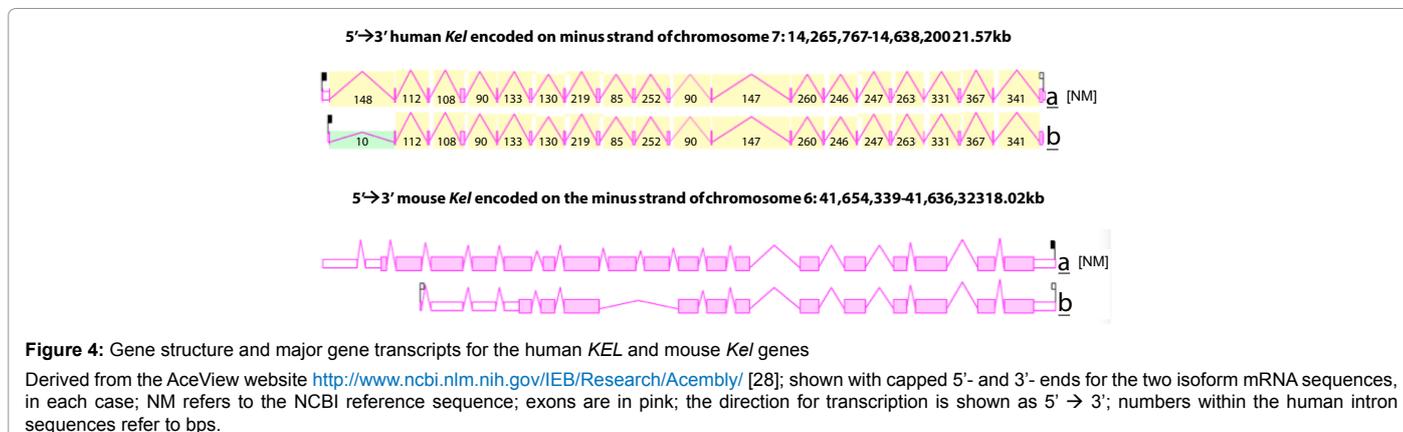


Figure 4: Gene structure and major gene transcripts for the human *KEL* and mouse *Kel* genes
 Derived from the AceView website <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/IEB/Research/Acembly/> [28]; shown with capped 5'- and 3'- ends for the two isoform mRNA sequences, in each case; NM refers to the NCBI reference sequence; exons are in pink; the direction for transcription is shown as 5' → 3'; numbers within the human intron sequences refer to bps.

TFBS	Name	Strand	Chr 7 Position	Function/Role	Sequence	UNIPROT ID
NFE2	Transcription factor NF-E2	(-ve)	142,661,722-142,662,732	Essential for regulating erythroid maturation and differentiation	TGATGACTCAC	Q16621
BACH2	Transcription regulator protein BACH2	(+ve)	142,661,721-142,661,731	Transcriptional regulator	GGTGAGTCATC	Q9BYV9
GATA1	Erythroid transcription factor	(-ve)	142,661,694-142,661,706	Transcriptional activator acting as a general switch for erythroid development	GGGTGATAAGAAG	P15976
FOXJ2	Forkhead box protein J2	(+ve)	142,660,952-142,660,965	Transcriptional activator	ACAATAATATCTAA	Q9P0K8
EV11	MDS1 and EV11 complex locus protein EV11	(+ve)	142,660,943-142,660,958	Transcriptional regulator involved in hematopoiesis	TGGCAAGATACAATAA	P14404
EV11	MDS1 and EV11 complex locus protein EV11	(-ve)	142,659,507-142,659,522	Transcriptional regulator involved in hematopoiesis	TGAGAAGCTGAGATAA	P14404
TLX2	T-cell leukemia homeobox protein 2	(-ve)	142,658,874-142,658,883	Transcriptional activator that binds DNA via its homeobox	AGGTAAGTGG	Q9UQ48

Table 4: Identification of Transcription Factor Binding Sites (TFBS) within the Human *KEL* gene promoter.
 The identification of *KEL* TFBS within the *KEL* promoter region was undertaken using the human genome browser (<http://genome.ucsc.edu>); UNIPROT refers to UniprotKB/Swiss-Prot IDs for individual TFBS sequences (<http://kr.expasy.org>).

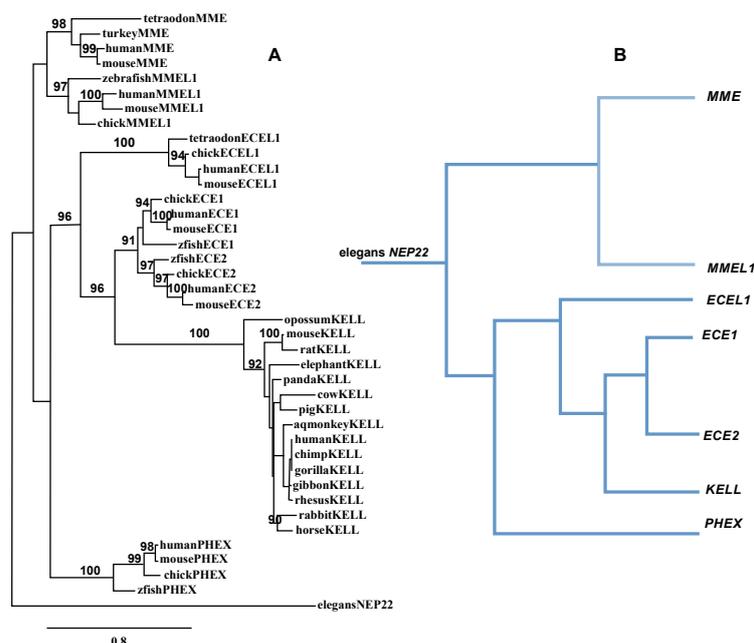


Figure 5: Phylogenetic tree of mammalian KELL amino acid sequences with representative vertebrate MME, MMEL1, ECE1, ECE2, ECEL1 and PHEX sequences. The tree is labelled with the endopeptidase-like name and the name of the animal and is 'rooted' with the worm (*Caenorhabditis elegans*) NEP22 sequence, which was used to 'root' the tree. Note the 5 major groups corresponding to the MME and MMEL1; PHEX; ECEL1; KEL; and ECE1 and ECE2 gene families. A genetic distance scale is shown. The number of times a clade (sequences common to a node or branch) occurred in the bootstrap replicates are shown. Only replicate values of 90 or more, which are highly significant, are shown with 100 bootstrap replicates performed in each case. A proposed sequence of gene duplication events is shown arising from an ancestral endopeptidase-like gene.

KEL tissue expression

Supplementary Figure 2 presents 'heat maps' showing comparative *KEL* expression in various human tissues obtained from GNF Expression Atlas 2 Data using U133A and GNF1H (human) chips (<http://genome.ucsc.edu>; <http://biogps.gnf.org>) [48]. These data supported high level tissue expression for human *KEL*, particularly in bone marrow (BM) erythroid cells, which is consistent with previous reports for this gene [5-7]. Another study reported that the *KEL* protein is expressed in nonerythroid tissues, including testis and skeletal muscle, although *KEL* transcripts were also reported in several other tissues [3]. Supplementary Figure 2 supports this wider *KEL* tissue expression, particularly for testis and fetal liver. Overall, human *KEL* and mouse *Kel* tissue expression levels were 0.5-0.8 times the average level of gene expression which supports a key role for this protein as an endopeptidase, but with a highly specific erythroid tissue expression profile [5-7,28].

Phylogeny and divergence of mammalian *KEL* and other vertebrate M13 type II endopeptidase genes and proteins

A phylogenetic tree (Figure 5) was calculated by the progressive alignment of 15 mammalian *KEL* amino acid sequences with several other vertebrate M13 type II endopeptidase-like sequences, which was 'rooted' with the worm (*Caenorhabditis elegans*) membrane metalloproteinase (NEP22) sequence Table 1 and 2). The phylogram showed clustering of the *KEL* sequences into groups consistent with their evolutionary relatedness, as well as groups for each of the vertebrate M13 type II endopeptidase families, which were distinct from the worm NEP22 sequence. These groups were significantly different from each other (with bootstrap values >90). This data suggests that the *KEL* gene and *KEL* protein have appeared early in marsupial and eutherian mammalian evolution, for which a proposed common

ancestor for these genes may have predated or coincided with the appearance of marsupial mammals during vertebrate evolution. The *KEL* gene (and *KEL* protein) was apparently absent from monotreme (platypus: *Ornithorhynchus anatinus*), bird (chicken: *Gallus gallus*), reptile (lizard: *Anolis carolinensis*), amphibian (frog: *Xenopus tropicalis*) and fish (zebrafish: *Danio rerio*) genomes, whereas other vertebrate M13 type II endopeptidase genes (*MME*, *MMEL1*, *ECE1*, *ECE2*, *ECEL1* and *PHEX*) were present throughout vertebrate evolution (Figure 5) [57]. In addition, these results suggested that the mammalian *KEL* gene evolved, following a gene duplication event of an *ECE*-like gene, given that *ECE1*, *ECE2* and *KEL* appear to be more closely related to each other, than to other M13 type II endopeptidase genes. This is consistent with a recent study of the evolution of vertebrate *ECEL1* genes and proteins [57].

Conclusions

This study suggests that mammalian *KEL* genes and encoded *KEL* proteins represent a distinct gene and protein family of M13 Type II neutral endopeptidase-like proteins which share conserved sequences, and active site residues with those reported for other related M13 Type II endopeptidases, *MME*, *MMEL1*, *ECE1*, *ECE2*, *ECEL1* and *PHEX*, previously studied [19-22,25,58]. *KEL* has a distinctive property among these M13 Type II neutral endopeptidases in serving as a major RBC antigen and blood group within human populations [2,5-7]. In addition, *KEL* is capable of processing 'big' endothelin-3, generating endothelin-3 (ET-3), which is a potent bioactive peptide capable of acting as a vasoconstrictor [10]. *KEL* 'null' variants, however, exist naturally in human populations without apparent major health impact [31,34,35]. Moreover, the mammalian active site Glu563 residue is substituted in rat and rabbit *KEL* proteins by a lysine residue (Supplementary Table 1s), which may reflect a more substantial role for *KEL* as a RBC blood group antigen rather than as an active endopeptidase.

KELL is encoded by a single gene (*KEL*), among the marsupial and eutherian mammalian genomes studied, which is highly expressed in human and mouse erythroid cells and usually contained 18 or 19 coding exons on the negative strand. Several transcription factor binding sites were localized within the human *KEL* gene promoter region, including *GATA1*, *EVII* and *NFE2*, which are essential in regulating erythroid cell differentiation and maintenance of expression, and may contribute significantly to the high level of gene expression in bone marrow erythroid cells.

Predicted secondary and tertiary structures for vertebrate KELL proteins showed a strong similarity with other M13 type II endopeptidase-like proteins. Several major structural domains were apparent for mammalian KELL proteins, including a N-terminal cytoplasmic tail of varying lengths between human KELL isoforms and other mammalian KELL sequences; a transmembrane domain which anchors the enzyme to the cell membrane; and an extracellular domain, containing the active site (including a zinc binding site), which is responsible for endopeptidase activity; and four conserved N-glycosylation sites, which may contribute significantly to the antigenic properties for this blood group protein. Several KELL endopeptidase domain cysteine residues were conserved among mammalian sequences, including Cys53 (see Figure 1), which forms a heterodimeric disulfide bond with the XK red cell membrane protein, a multipass transport protein [8]. Ten other Cys residues were also conserved which aligned with 10 of 12 Cys residues forming disulfide bonds for the human MME sequence [53]. This suggests that mammalian KELL proteins may contain five disulfide bonds in similar positions to those reported for five of the six human MME disulfide bonds [53]. Alternatively, these Cys residues may serve other KELL structural or functional roles.

A phylogenetic study used 15 mammalian KELL sequences with a range of other vertebrate M13 type II endopeptidase sequences, which indicated that the *KEL* gene had appeared early in marsupial mammalian evolution, prior to or coincident with the appearance of marsupial mammals, and existed as a distinct gene family within this group, together with the *MME* and *MMEL1*; *ECE1* and *ECE2*; *ECEL1*; and *PHEX* gene groups. Moreover, the study indicated that the *KEL* gene may have originated from a gene duplication event of an ancestral mammalian *ECE*-like gene, in common with the *ECE1* and *ECE2* genes, which originated much earlier in vertebrate evolution, as both of these genes have been reported in bird, reptile, amphibian and fish genomes [57].

References

1. Rawlings ND, Barrett AJ (1993) Evolutionary families of peptidases. *Biochem J* 290: 205-218.
2. Lee ME, Temizer DH, Clifford JA, Quertermous T (1991) Cloning of the GATA-binding protein that regulates endothelin-1 gene expression in endothelial cells. *J Biol Chem* 266: 16188-16192.
3. Russo D, Wu X, Redman CM, Lee S (2000) Expression of Kell blood group protein in nonerythroid tissues. *Blood* 96: 340-346.
4. Bland ND, Pinney JW, Thomas JE, Turner AJ, Isaac RE (2008) Bioinformatic analysis of the neprilysin (M13) family of peptidases reveals complex evolutionary and functional relationships. *BMC Evol Biol* 8: 16.
5. Reid ME, Mohandas N (2004) Red blood cell blood group antigens: structure and function. *Semin Hematol* 41: 93-117.
6. Mohandas N, Narla A (2005) Blood group antigens in health and disease. *Curr Opin Hematol* 12: 135-140.
7. Dean L (2005) The Kell blood group. In: *Blood Groups and Red Cell Antigens*, Chapter 8, National Center for Biotechnology Information, Bethesda MD, USA.
8. Russo D, Redman C, Lee S (1998) Association of XK and Kell blood group proteins. *J Biol Chem* 273: 13950-13956.
9. Lee S, Russo DC, Pu J, Ho M, Redman CM (2000) The mouse Kell blood group gene (Kell): cDNA sequence, genomic organization, expression, and enzymatic function. *Immunogenetics* 52: 53-62.
10. Lee S, Lin M, Mele A, Cao Y, Farmar J, et al. (1999) Proteolytic processing of big endothelin-3 by the kell blood group protein. *Blood* 94: 1440-1450.
11. Clapéron A, Rose C, Gane P, Collec E, Bertrand O, et al. (2005) The Kell protein of the common K2 phenotype is a catalytically active metalloprotease, whereas the rare Kell K1 antigen is inactive. Identification of novel substrates for the Kell protein. *J Biol Chem* 280: 21272-21283.
12. Letarte M, Vera S, Tran R, Addis JB, Onizuka RJ, et al. (1988) Common acute lymphocytic leukemia antigen is identical to neutral endopeptidase. *J Exp Med* 168: 1247-1253.
13. Shipp MA, Richardson NE, Sayre PH, Brown NR, Masteller EL, et al. (1988) Molecular cloning of the common acute lymphoblastic leukemia antigen (CALLA) identifies a type II integral membrane protein. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 85: 4819-4823.
14. Oefner C, D'Arcy A, Hennig M, Winkler FK, Dale GE (2000) Structure of human neutral endopeptidase (Neprilysin) complexed with phosphoramidon. *J Mol Biol* 296: 341-349.
15. Bonvouloir N, Lemieux N, Crine P, Boileau G, DesGroseillers L (2001) Molecular cloning, tissue distribution, and chromosomal localization of MMEL2, a gene coding for a novel human member of the neutral endopeptidase-24.11 family. *DNA Cell Biol* 20: 493-498.
16. Hirschfield GM, Liu X, Han Y, Gorlov IP, Lu Y, et al. (2010) Variants at IRF5-TNPO3, 17q12-21 and MMEL1 are associated with primary biliary cirrhosis. *Nat Genet* 42: 655-657.
17. Ban M, McCauley JL, Zuvich R, Baker A, Bergamaschi L, et al. (2010) A non-synonymous SNP within membrane metalloendopeptidase-like 1 (MMEL1) is associated with multiple sclerosis. *Genes Immun* 11: 660-664.
18. Danoy P, Wei M, Johanna H, Jiang L, He D, et al. (2011) Association of variants in MMEL1 and CTLA4 with rheumatoid arthritis in the Han Chinese population. *Ann Rheum Dis* 70: 1793-1797.
19. Schmidt M, Kröger B, Jacob E, Seulberger H, Subkowski T, et al. (1994) Molecular characterization of human and bovine endothelin converting enzyme (ECE-1). *FEBS Lett* 356: 238-243.
20. Schulz H, Dale GE, Karimi-Nejad Y, Oefner C (2009) Structure of human endothelin-converting enzyme I complexed with phosphoramidon. *J Mol Biol* 385: 178-187.
21. Lorenzo MN, Khan RY, Wang Y, Tai SC, Chan GC, et al. (2001) Human endothelin converting enzyme-2 (ECE2): characterization of mRNA species and chromosomal localization. *Biochim Biophys Acta* 1522: 46-52.
22. Mzhavia N, Pan H, Che FY, Fricker LD, Devi LA (2003) Characterization of endothelin-converting enzyme-2. Implication for a role in the nonclassical processing of regulatory peptides. *J Biol Chem* 278: 14704-14711.
23. Valdenaire O, Richards JG, Faull RL, Schweizer A (1999) XCE, a new member of the endothelin-converting enzyme and neutral endopeptidase family, is preferentially expressed in the CNS. *Brain Res Mol Brain Res* 64: 211-221.
24. Schweizer A, Valdenaire O, Köster A, Lang Y, Schmitt G, et al. (1999) Neonatal lethality in mice deficient in XCE, a novel member of the endothelin-converting enzyme and neutral endopeptidase family. *J Biol Chem* 274: 20450-20456.
25. Du L, Desbarats M, Viel J, Glorieux FH, Cawthorn C, et al. (1996) cDNA cloning of the murine Pex gene implicated in X-linked hypophosphatemia and evidence for expression in bone. *Genomics* 36: 22-28.
26. Miao D, Bai X, Panda D, McKee M, Karaplis A, et al. (2001) Osteomalacia in hyp mice is associated with abnormal phex expression and with altered bone matrix protein expression and deposition. *Endocrinology* 142: 926-939.
27. Lee S, Zambas E, Green ED, Redman C (1995) Organization of the gene encoding the human Kell blood group protein. *Blood* 85: 1364-1370.
28. Thierry-Mieg D, Thierry-Mieg J (2006) AceView: A comprehensive cDNA-supported gene and transcripts annotation. *Genome Biol* 7: S12.
29. Redman CM, Lee S (1995) The Kell blood group system. *Transfus Clin Biol* 2: 243-249.
30. Lee S, Wu X, Son S, Naime D, Reid M, et al. (1996) Point mutations characterize KEL10, the KEL3, KEL4, and KEL21 alleles, and the KEL17 and KEL11 alleles. *Transfusion* 36: 490-494.

31. Zhu X, Rivera A, Golub MS, Peng J, Sha Q, et al. (2009) Changes in red cell ion transport, reduced intratumoral neovascularization, and some mild motor function abnormalities accompany targeted disruption of the Mouse Kell gene (Kel). *Am J Hematol* 84: 492-498.
32. Lee S, Wu X, Reid M, Redman C (1995) Molecular basis of the K:6,-7 [Js(a+b-)] phenotype in the Kell blood group system. *Transfusion* 35: 822-825.
33. Lee S, Debnath AK, Wu X, Scofield T, George T, et al. (2006) Molecular basis of two novel high-prevalence antigens in the Kell blood group system, KALT and KTIM. *Transfusion* 46: 1323-1327.
34. Yu LC, Twu YC, Chang CY, Lin M (2001) Molecular basis of the Kell-null phenotype: a mutation at the splice site of human KEL gene abolishes the expression of Kell blood group antigens. *J Biol Chem* 276: 10247-10252.
35. Yang Y, Wang L, Wang C, Chen H, Guo Z, et al. (2009) Two novel null alleles of the KEL gene detected in two Chinese women with the K(null) phenotype. *Transfus Med* 19: 235-244.
36. Hoffman JF, Joiner W, Nehrke K, Potapova O, Foye K, et al. (2003) The hSK4 (KCNN4) isoform is the Ca²⁺-activated K⁺ channel (Gardos channel) in human red blood cells. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 100: 7366-7371.
37. Tuson M, Hue-Roye K, Koval K, Imlay S, Desai R, et al. (2011) Possible suppression of fetal erythropoiesis by the Kell blood group antibody anti-Kp(a). *Immunohematology* 27: 58-60.
38. Altschul SF, Gish W, Miller W, Myers EW, Lipman DJ (1990) Basic local alignment search tool. *J Mol Biol* 215: 403-410.
39. Guo R, Quarles LD (1997) Cloning and sequencing of human PEX from a bone cDNA library: Evidence for its developmental stage-specific regulation in osteoblasts. *J Bone Miner Res* 12: 1009-1017.
40. Grieff M, Mumm S, Waeltz P, Mazzarella R, Whyte MP, et al. (1997) Expression and cloning of the human X-linked hypophosphatemia gene cDNA. *Biochem Biophys Res Commun* 231: 635-639.
41. Dixon PH, Christie PT, Wooding C, Trump S, Grieff M, et al. (1998) Mutational analysis of PHEX gene in X-linked hypophosphatemia. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab* 83: 3615-3623.
42. Kiryu-Seo S, Sasaki M, Yokohama H, Nakagomi S, Hirayama T, et al. (2000) Damage-induced neuronal endopeptidase (DINE) is a unique metalloproteinase expressed in response to neuronal damage and activates superoxide scavengers. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 97: 4345-4350.
43. Benoit A, Vargas MA, Desgroseillers L, Boileau G (2004) Endothelin-converting enzyme-like 1 (ECE1) is present both in the plasma membrane and in the endoplasmic reticulum. *Biochem J* 380: 881-888.
44. Kent WJ, Sugnet CW, Furey TS, Roskin KM, Pringle TH, et al. (2002) The human genome browser at UCSC. *Genome Res* 12: 996-1006.
45. Schwede T, Kopp J, Guex N, Peitsch MC (2003) SWISS-MODEL: An automated protein homology-modeling server. *Nucleic Acids Res* 31: 3381-3385.
46. Krogh A, Larsson B, von Heijne G, Sonnhammer EL (2001) Predicting transmembrane protein topology with a hidden Markov model: Application to complete genomes. *J Mol Biol* 305: 567-580.
47. Marchler-Bauer A, Lu S, Anderson JB, Chitsaz F, Derbyshire MK, et al. (2011) CDD: a Conserved Domain Database for the functional annotation of proteins. *Nucleic Acids Res* 39: D225-D229.
48. Su AI, Wiltshire T, Batalov S, Lapp H, Ching KA, et al. (2004) A gene atlas of the mouse and human protein-encoding transcriptomes. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 101: 6062-6067.
49. Dereeper A, Guignon V, Blanc G, Audic S, Buffet S, et al. (2008) Phylogeny.fr: Robust phylogenetic analysis for the non-specialist. *Nucleic Acids Res* 36: W465-W469.
50. Edgar RC (2004) MUSCLE: A multiple sequence alignment method with reduced time and space complexity. *BMC Bioinformatics* 5: 113.
51. Guindon S, Gascuel O (2003) A simple, fast, and accurate algorithm to estimate large phylogenies by maximum likelihood. *Syst Biol* 52: 696-704.
52. Oefner C, Roques BP, Fournie-Zaluski MC, Dale GE (2004) Structural analysis of neprilysin with various specific and potent inhibitors. *Acta Crystallogr D Biol Crystallogr* 60: 392-396.
53. Lee S, Debnath AK, Redman CM (2003) Active amino acids of the Kell blood group protein and model of the ectodomain based on the structure of neutral endopeptidase 24.11. *Blood* 102: 3028-3034.
54. Shyu YC, Lee TL, Ting CY, Wen SC, Hsieh LJ, et al. (2005) Sumoylation of p45/NF-E2: nuclear positioning and transcriptional activation of the mammalian beta-like globin gene locus. *Mol Cell Biol* 25: 10365-10378.
55. Trainor CD, Evans T, Felsenfeld G, Boguski MS (1990) Structure and evolution of a human erythroid transcription factor. *Nature* 343: 92-96.
56. Shimabe M, Goyama S, Watanabe-Okochi N, Yoshimi A, Ichikawa M, et al. (2009) Pbx1 is a downstream target of Evi-1 in hematopoietic stem/progenitors and leukemic cells. *Oncogene* 28: 4364-4374.
57. Holmes RS, Cox LA (2013) Comparative studies of vertebrate endothelin-converting enzyme-like 1 genes and proteins. *Res Rep Biochemistry* 3: 1-16.