

The structural basis for the recognition of acetylated histone H4 by the bromodomain of histone acetyltransferase Gcn5p

David J.Owen, Prisca Ornaghi¹,
Ji-Chun Yang, Nicholas Lowe,
Philip R.Evans, Paola Ballario¹,
David Neuhaus, Patrizia Filetici¹ and
Andrew A.Travers²

MRC Laboratory of Molecular Biology, Hills Road, Cambridge CB2 2QH, UK and ¹Centro di studio per gli Acidi Nucleici, CNR, c/o Dipartimento di Genetica e Biologia Molecolare, Università 'La Sapienza', P.le A.Moro 5, 00185 Roma, Italy

²Corresponding author
email: aat@mrc-lmb.cam.ac.uk

The bromodomain is an ~110 amino acid module found in histone acetyltransferases and the ATPase component of certain nucleosome remodelling complexes. We report the crystal structure at 1.9 Å resolution of the *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* Gcn5p bromodomain complexed with a peptide corresponding to residues 15–29 of histone H4 acetylated at the ζ-N of lysine 16. We show that this bromodomain preferentially binds to peptides containing an N-acetyl lysine residue. Only residues 16–19 of the acetylated peptide interact with the bromodomain. The primary interaction is the N-acetyl lysine binding in a cleft with the specificity provided by the interaction of the amide nitrogen of a conserved asparagine with the oxygen of the acetyl carbonyl group. A network of water-mediated H-bonds with protein main chain carbonyl groups at the base of the cleft contributes to the binding. Additional side chain binding occurs on a shallow depression that is hydrophobic at one end and can accommodate charge interactions at the other. These findings suggest that the Gcn5p bromodomain may discriminate between different acetylated lysine residues depending on the context in which they are displayed.

Keywords: acetylated histone H4/bromodomain structure/histone acetyltransferase Gcn5p/recognition/*Saccharomyces cerevisiae*

Introduction

The recognition of specific modifications in the N- and C-terminal tails of the nucleosomal histones has been postulated to be one of the key interactions determining the transcriptional competence of chromatin (Strahl and Allis, 2000). One such modification is the acetylation of particular lysine residues in the N-terminal regions of histones H3 and H4. This type of modification has long been correlated with the activation of transcription (reviewed by Turner, 1991; Grunstein, 1997; W.L.Cheung *et al.*, 2000; Kouzarides, 2000; Sterner and Berger, 2000). Histone acetylation is mediated by acetyltransferases

including Gcn5p (Brownell *et al.*, 1996), p300/CBP (Bannister and Kouzarides, 1996; Ogryzko *et al.*, 1996), P/CAF (Yang *et al.*, 1996) and TAF_{II}250 (Mizzen *et al.*, 1996). The selectivity of these enzymes depends on both their substrates and their environment within the cell. Free Gcn5p preferentially acetylates Lys14 of free histone H3 and to a lesser extent Lys8 and Lys16 of free histone H4 (Kuo *et al.*, 1996). However, Gcn5p by itself is unable to modify nucleosomal histones (Kuo *et al.*, 1996). Such an ability is conferred by association with other proteins in large macromolecular histone acetylation complexes such as the ADA and SAGA complexes (Grant *et al.*, 1997). In these complexes the pattern of lysine modification by Gcn5p is altered (Grant *et al.*, 1997).

In addition to its histone acetyltransferase (HAT) domain, Gcn5p contains a C-terminal domain that is also found both in other HATs, including P/CAF, p300/CBP and TAF_{II}250, and in the ATPase subunit of certain chromatin remodelling complexes, including RSC, SWI/SNF and their homologues (Haynes *et al.*, 1992; Jeanmougin *et al.*, 1997). This conserved 110 amino acid module is termed the bromodomain and was originally identified as a sequence motif common to the *Drosophila* brahma and female-sterile homeotic proteins, the yeast SWI2/SNF2 proteins and the human CCG1 protein (Tamkun *et al.*, 1992). The name is derived from brahma by analogy to the chromodomain. Several lines of evidence suggest that the bromodomain may be directly involved in chromatin remodelling, particularly that associated with transcriptional activation. In the absence of Gcn5p, the nuclease-sensitive region of the *HIS3* promoter is invaded by nucleosomes and the gene is repressed (Filetici *et al.*, 1998). Efficient activation of *HIS3* gene transcription specifically requires the bromodomain of Gcn5p in addition to the HAT domain (Marcus *et al.*, 1994), although the former module is not required for the interaction of Gcn5p with ADA2, a component of the ADA complex. Similarly, Syntichaki *et al.* (2000) demonstrated that the Gcn5p bromodomain was not required *in vivo* for Gcn5p-mediated histone acetylation at a synthetic promoter, but was necessary for subsequent Swi2p-dependent nucleosome remodelling and consequent transcriptional activation. At the yeast *PHO5* and *PHO8* promoters, loss of Gcn5p HAT activity prevents the complete chromatin remodelling associated with sub-maximal and maximal activation, respectively (Gregory *et al.*, 1998, 1999), while no remodelling is observed at *PHO8p* in the absence of active Swi2 (Gregory *et al.*, 1999). At the *HO* promoter, the Swi2p-containing SWI-SNF remodelling complex recruits the SAGA complex (Cosma *et al.*, 1999; Krebs *et al.*, 1999) prior to activation. Taken together these observations suggest a model which proposes that transcriptional activation at certain promoters requires the concerted action of both the

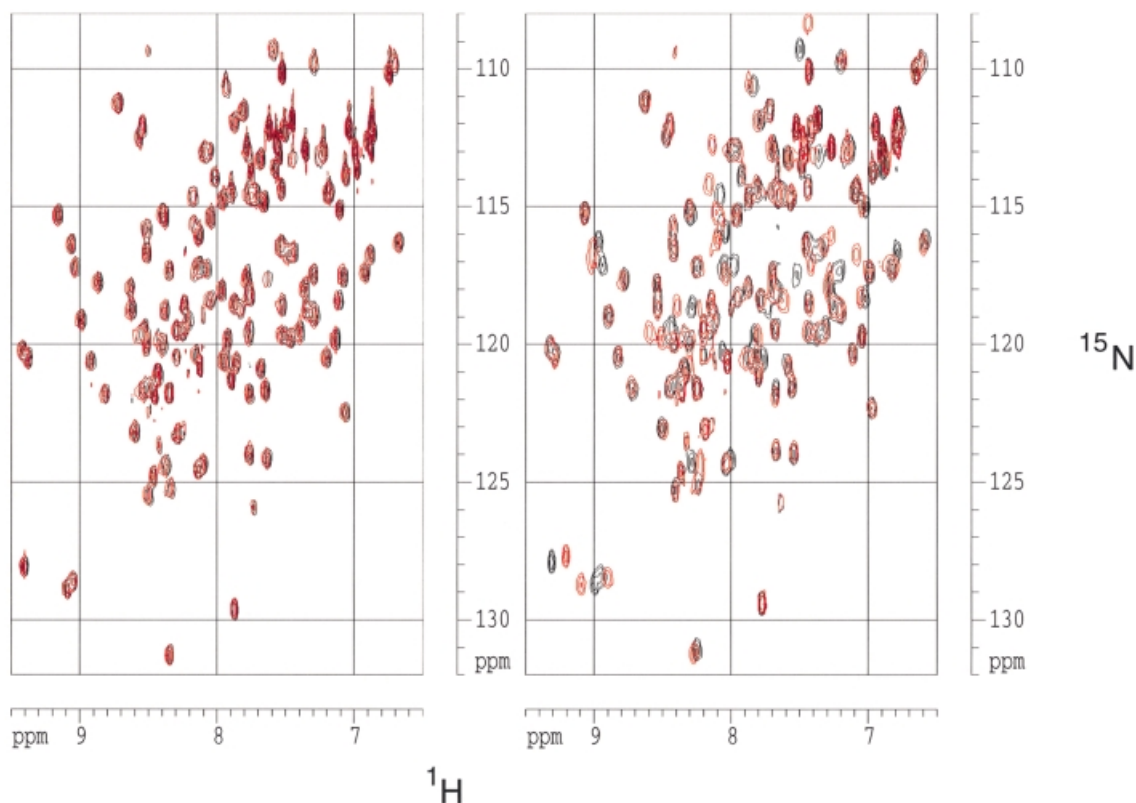


Fig. 2. The Gcn5p bromodomain binds specifically to an H4 peptide containing *N*-acetyl lysine. Superimposed (^{15}N , ^1H) HSQC spectra of free bromodomain and bromodomain plus unacetylated peptide (left) and free bromodomain and bromodomain plus acetylated peptide (right). In both cases, the spectrum for the free bromodomain is shown in black and that complexed with the peptide in red.

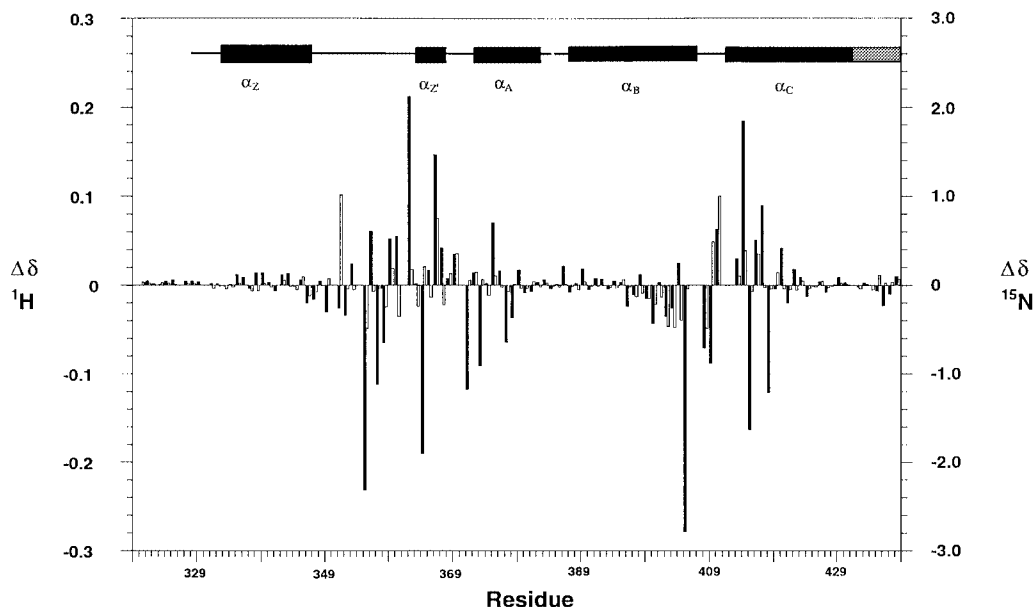


Fig. 3. Histogram of chemical shift changes induced on addition of H4 peptide acetylated at Lys16. ^1H and ^{15}N changes are denoted by filled and open bars, respectively.

end of the molecule (Figure 4D). The number of changed chemical shifts observed in the presence of the H4 15–29 peptide, acetylated at position 16, although generally congruent with those observed by Dhalluin *et al.* (1999), on addition of an H4 peptide

corresponding to residues 1–12 in which Lys8 was acetylated, was significantly greater, suggesting that the H4 15–29 peptide is involved in more extensive interactions. This inference is consistent with the binding studies of Ornaghi *et al.* (1999), who observed

that the Gcn5p bound the unacetylated H4 peptide containing residues 16–34, but not that containing residues 1–16.

Crystal structure of a Gcn5p bromodomain–acetylated H4 peptide complex

The crystal structure of the Gcn5p bromodomain–H4 peptide complex was solved at a resolution of 1.9 Å using phasing from a single mercury derivative. No electron density was found for the first 10 N-terminal residues and the C-terminal residue of the bromodomain construct, and also for the C-terminal 10 residues of the peptide corresponding to histone H4 positions 20–29.

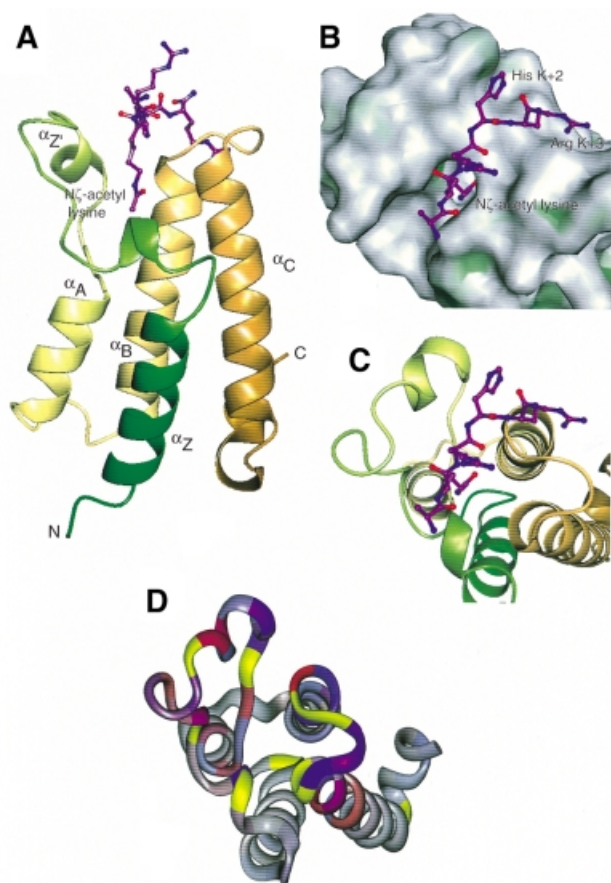


Fig. 4. Overall structure and peptide binding. (A) Ribbon diagram showing the bundle of four main α -helices, Z, A, B and C, with the $N\epsilon$ -acetyl lysine side chain of the peptide bound in a deep slot at the top of the bundle. The ribbon is coloured from green (N-terminus) to gold (C-terminus). (B) ‘Top’ view of the molecular surface coloured by hydrophobic potential (dark green marks favourable regions for hydrophobic interaction; grey, less favourable; light green, intermediate). The five visible residues of the peptide fit into a shallow groove, with the acetyl lysine side chain in a deep slot. The hydrophobic surface at the base of the pocket formed by Phe352 and Val356, as well as that lining the side of the pocket formed by Pro351, Val 356, Tyr364 and Tyr413, are not easily visible in this view. (C) The same view as (B), showing the underlying helices coloured as in (A). (D) Mapping of backbone NH chemical shift changes onto residues 329–438 of the peptide backbone of the Gcn5p bromodomain in the same orientation as (B) and (C). ^1H and ^{15}N changes are indicated in red and blue, respectively. The colours are merged so that the shade reflects the relative contributions of the two shift changes and the intensity reflects the magnitude of the changes. Residues for which no backbone amide groups were assigned are shown in yellow (see text).

The structure of the bromodomain from Gcn5p was, as expected from previous structures solved (Dhalluin *et al.*, 1999; Jacobson *et al.*, 2000), a four-helical bundle (Figure 4A). A number of conserved, mainly hydrophobic residues, but also some hydrophilic ones including Asn402, are involved in forming and stabilizing the hydrophobic core of the domain. A surface representation shows a narrow cleft with a cavity at the bottom formed by the ZA and BC loops (Figure 4B). Hydrophobic surface potential mapping showed the sides to be hydrophobic in nature, indicating its suitability as a site of hydrophobic contact mediating protein–peptide interactions.

The structure was determined in a complex with a peptide corresponding to residues 15–29 of histone H4. The peptide binds in an extended conformation across the patch of high hydrophobic surface potential with specificity being provided by the interactions of *N*-acetyl lysine at H4 position 16 and the side chains at positions 18 and 19 (Figures 4B, C and 5A). This ‘peptide-surface’ or ‘pronged plug in socket’ type of interaction between a small folded domain and a linear peptide is common. Such interactions have been described between SH2 or PTB domains and phosphotyrosine-containing peptides (Eck *et al.*, 1993, 1996; Waksman *et al.*, 1993; Zhou *et al.*, 1995), PDZ domains with C-terminal xS/TxV sequences (Doyle *et al.*, 1996), $\mu 2$ subunit of AP2 with Yxx Φ internalization motifs (Owen and Evans, 1998) and the clathrin N-terminal β -propeller with the L Φ x Φ D/E clathrin box motifs (ter Haar *et al.*, 2000). The peptide is spatially complementary with the groove in which it lies (Figure 4B), but its backbone makes only one direct H-bond with the protein surface.

The major binding determinant is the acetylated lysine. This sits in the deep cleft, which is accessible to solvent on one side (Figure 4B). The walls of the cleft, which pack against the aliphatic part of the *N*-acetyl lysine side chain, are composed of Val361 and Tyr364 on one side and Pro351 and Tyr413 on the other. This accounts for its high hydrophobic potential. The interaction that plays the major role in orientating the *N*-acetyl group such that its carbonyl points towards the hydrophobic interior of the protein is a H-bond formed between the amide nitrogen of Asn407 and the oxygen of the acetyl carbonyl group (Figures 5B, C and 6). The carbonyl group and amide nitrogen from the *N*-acetyl group also form H-bonds to a number of well-ordered water molecules, which participate in a network of H-bonds between each other and carbonyl groups and side chains of the protein, in particular the carbonyl group of Pro351 and the hydroxyl group of Tyr364 (Figures 5A and 6). The methyl of the *N*-acetyl group is surrounded at the base of the pocket by the exposed hydrophobic surfaces of Phe352 and Val356. An unacetylated lysine residue that is positively charged would have no compensatory negative charge to interact within this hydrophobic environment and consequently its binding would be considerably less energetically favourable. This would explain both the failure to observe chemical shifts on addition of the unacetylated peptide at a concentration of 5 mM (Figure 2) and also the >20-fold weaker binding measured for the binding of an unacetylated as opposed to an acetylated lysine-containing peptide to the TAF_{II}250 dibromodomain (Jacobson *et al.*, 2000).

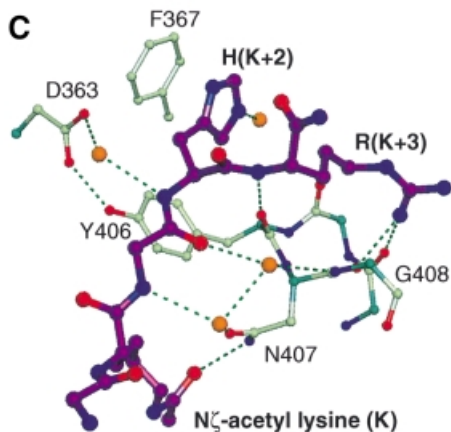
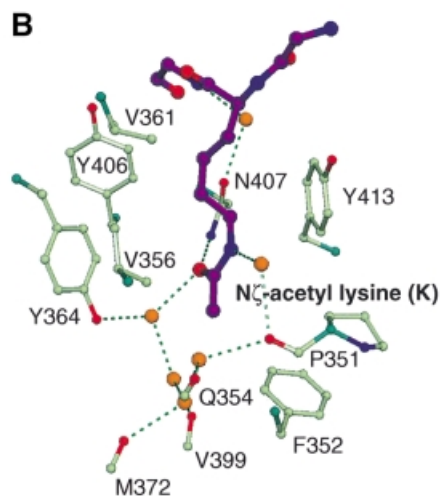
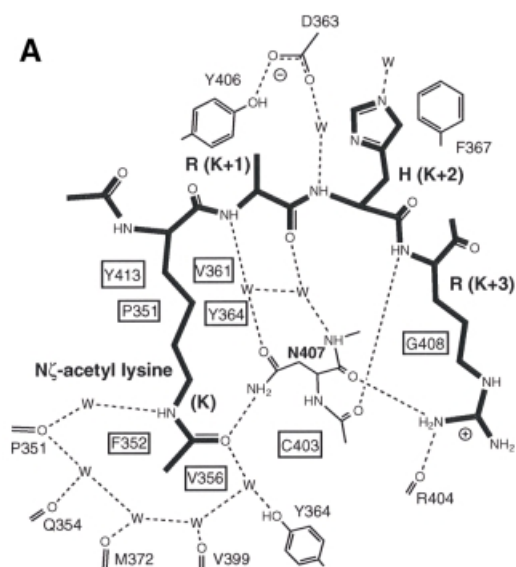


Fig. 5. Details of the peptide binding site. (A) Schematic view of interactions, with water molecules represented as W. (B) The *N*-acetyl lysine slot showing the ring of water molecules around the acetyl group at the base of the slot, and the hydrophobic walls left and right. (C) The binding groove for the (*K* + 2) and (*K* + 3) peptide residues lies across the 405–408 loop between α_B and α_C . His(*K* + 2) packs against Phe367, and Arg(*K* + 3) forms hydrogen bonds back to the protein backbone. The peptide backbone forms four hydrogen bonds to the protein, three of them via water molecules.

Specificity for the sequence surrounding the *N*-acetyl lysine comes from the binding of side chains at the *K* + 2 and *K* + 3 positions, where *K* defines the position of the acetylated lysine. The side chains at *K* – 1 and *K* + 1 make no contacts with the protein, while no density can be seen for any of the 10 residues following *K* + 3 and these are therefore not likely to be involved in binding to the bromodomain. In this peptide, the *K* + 2 residue is a histidine which sits in a shallow hydrophobic pocket formed by the side chains of Tyr406 and Phe367 (Figures 4B and 5C). A hydrophobic residue or an arginine at this position would also be expected to form an energetically beneficial interaction and indeed there are other examples, shown in Table I, where a hydrophobic residue, in particular leucine or proline, is found in a corresponding position relative to other acetyltable lysine residues. The *K* + 3 residue is an arginine and interacts with the protein via two H-bonds to the backbone carbonyl groups of Arg404 and Asn407 (Figure 5C). It is interesting to note that 5 Å away from the guanidinium group of the

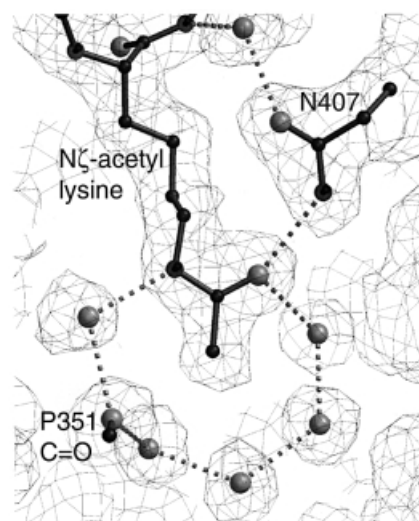


Fig. 6. The *N*- ϵ -acetyl lysine binding site, showing electron density from the final $2mF_o - DF_c$ map. Nitrogen atoms are black and oxygen atoms are grey. The acetyl group is surrounded by a ring of water molecules (grey balls) at the base of the slot, and the carbonyl oxygen of the acetyl group forms a hydrogen bond to the side chain of Asn407. An unacetylated lysine could not form these hydrogen bonds, and would introduce an unpaired charge into the slot.

Table I. Sequence context of acetyltable lysines in histones H3 and H4 from *S.cerevisiae*

Histone	Acetyltable lysine	Sequence
H3	9	RKSTG
H3	14	GK APR
H3	18	RK QLA
H3	23	SK AAR
H4	5	GK GGK
H4	8	GK GLG
H4	12	GK GGA
H4	16	AK RHR

The table shows the sequences from *K* – 1 to *K* + 3, where *K* is the acetyltable lysine. Residues that could potentially make secondary interactions with the Gcn5p bromodomain are shown in bold.

Table II. Statistics on data collection and phasing

	Native	EMTS
Data collection ^a		
resolution (Å) (outer bin)	19–1.87 (1.97)	19–1.85 (1.95)
R_{merge}^b	0.073 (0.204)	0.042 (0.283)
R_{meas}^c	0.079 (0.220)	0.052 (0.336)
$\langle\langle I \rangle / \sigma(\langle I \rangle)\rangle$	24.5 (8.7)	29.4 (6.7)
completeness (%)	99.8 (99.5)	99.1 (95.2)
multiplicity	7.4 (7.0)	6.7 (5.9)
Wilson plot B (Å ²)	19	22
MIR phasing		
no. of sites		1
R_{deriv}^d		0.078
R_{cullis}^e		0.92
phasing power: isomorphous (anomalous) ^f		0.73 (0.91)
mean figure of merit	0.23	
figure of merit after solvent flattening (all data)	0.80	
Refinement		
R (R_{free}^g) ^h	0.185 (0.204)	
$\langle B \rangle$ (Å ²)	20	
$N_{\text{reflections}}$ (N_{free})	11 944 (573)	
N_{atoms} (N_{water})	1090 (109)	
r.m.s.d. bond length (Å)	0.013	
r.m.s.d. bond angle (°)	1.3	
no. of Ramachandran violations	0	

^aValues in parentheses apply to the high resolution shell.

^b $R_{\text{merge}} = \sum_i |I_h - I_{hi}| / \sum_i I_h$, where I_h is the mean intensity for reflection hi .

^c $R_{\text{meas}} = \sum \sqrt{(n/n - 1) \sum_i |I_h - I_{hi}| / \sum_i I_h}$, the multiplicity weighted R_{merge} (Diederichs and Karplus, 1997).

^d $R_{\text{deriv}} = \sum |F_{\text{PH}} - F_{\text{pl}}| / \sum F_{\text{P}}$

^e $R_{\text{cullis}} = \sum |F_{\text{PH}} - F_{\text{pl}}| - |F_{\text{Hcalc}}| / \sum |F_{\text{PH}} - F_{\text{pl}}|$

^fPhasing power = $\langle |F_{\text{Hcalc}}| / \text{phase-integrated lack of closure} \rangle$.

^g $R = \sum |F_{\text{P}} - F_{\text{calc}}| / \sum F_{\text{P}}$

$K + 3$ side chain is a glutamate side chain (Glu409). If this were able to form an ionic interaction *in vivo* with the $K + 3$ arginine, it would increase the specificity for an arginine residue at this position. However, in the crystal structure there is a crystal contact at this point, in which the side chain of Asn345 from an adjacent molecule interacts with the $K + 3$ arginine. This would prevent the Glu409 side chain from interacting with the $K + 3$ arginine. Since it cannot form this interaction in the crystal, this glutamic acid residue is relatively mobile and has poor electron density.

The identification of two interaction sites reconciles previous apparently disparate observations. Dhalluin *et al.* (1999) and Jacobson *et al.* (2000) reported that the bromodomain of P/CAF and the dibromodomain of TAF250, respectively, preferentially bound peptides from histones H3 and H4 that contain N-acetylated lysine residues. In contrast, Ornaghi *et al.* (1999) found that the bromodomain of Gcn5p selectively bound certain sequences from the N-terminal region of histone H4 when challenged with sequences in which the lysine residues were unmodified. The most likely explanation for these observations is that both Dhalluin *et al.* (1999) and Jacobson *et al.* (2000) measured the effect of the primary interaction of N-acetyl lysine with its binding cleft, while the results of Ornaghi *et al.* (1999) were dependent only on the secondary interaction. This interpretation is consistent with the observation that the strongest binding sequence

selected by Ornaghi *et al.* (1999) contains H4 residues His18 and Arg19, which interact well with the secondary site. Arginine residues, which as discussed above could interact particularly favourably with the secondary site, were important for this binding. By comparison, the sequences following the other acetylable lysines in histone H4 (Lys5, Lys8, Lys12, as well as Lys9, Lys18 and Lys23 in histone H3; Table II) would be expected to interact less favourably with the secondary site. This suggests that the Gcn5p bromodomain may discriminate between different acetylated lysines, depending on the sequence context in which they are found. Interestingly, the sequences following two of the three preferred substrates for free Gcn5p (Kuo *et al.*, 1996), H4 Lys16 and H3 Lys14, are also those we would predict to interact most strongly with the Gcn5p bromodomain at the $K + 2$ and $K + 3$ positions. The hydrophobic part of the secondary binding site (see Figure 4B) is well conserved in other bromodomains, but the region interacting with Arg19 shows more variation, both in charge and hydrophobicity, raising the possibility that different bromodomains might target different acetylated lysine residues as a result of the interaction of the peptide $K + 3$ residue at this site.

The asparagine residue corresponding to Asn407 is highly, but not absolutely, conserved in the bromodomain sequences reported so far, but is present in all GCN5 homologues. Where this residue is present we would expect that the interactions in the primary N-acetyl lysine binding site observed in this structure would also be conserved and, therefore, that the specificity for N-acetyl lysine binding should be maintained. So far, there are five examples of sequences homologous to the Gcn5p bromodomain in which the residue corresponding to Asn407 is different: in three of these cases, this residue is a serine, in the other two, a tyrosine. It should be noted that these are both residues that could potentially form H-bonds from their side chains to the N-acetyl lysine carbonyl group. However, the binding of N-acetyl lysine in such a non-asparagine pocket would be of a different strength to that of a pocket containing asparagine. Three of these deviations occur in open reading frames with more than one bromodomain, while the latter two, SP-140 and LYSP-100, are both components of distinct subnuclear structures (Bloch *et al.*, 1996; Dent *et al.*, 1996). These latter two also lack part of the highly hydrophobic lining to the cleft and could thus potentially recognize a different amino acid. We note, however, that neither of these domains has yet been shown functionally or structurally to be a true bromodomain.

In addition to binding to the bromodomain of Gcn5p, the N-terminal regions of the histone tails also bind to the HAT domain. Recent crystal structures of the HAT domain include those of *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* Gcn5p (Trievel *et al.*, 1999), the related Hat1p (Dutnall *et al.*, 1998), and a complex between the *Tetrahymena* Gcn5p HAT domain and a histone H3 peptide (Rojas *et al.*, 1999). In these examples, the proposed (Dutnall *et al.*, 1998) and observed (Rojas *et al.*, 1999) interaction of the peptide is considerably more extensive than that with the bromodomain, involving ~10 amino acids bound in an extended cleft. There are many contacts with the main chain of the peptide, but interestingly, as for the Gcn5p

bromodomain, residues corresponding to $K + 2$ and $K + 3$ in the H4 peptide make important contacts. In particular, in the histone H3 sequence 14-KGPR-17, Pro16 binds to a hydrophobic surface comprising a phenylalanine and an alanine residue, while Arg17 also makes hydrophobic contacts with a proline residue. The primary acetylation target of Gcn5p is nucleosomal histone H3 rather than histone H4 (Grant *et al.*, 1997). The acetylation of Lys14 of H3 is also correlated with phosphorylation of Ser10 (P.Cheung *et al.*, 2000; Clayton *et al.*, 2000; Lo *et al.*, 2000). It is an open question as to whether this additional modification influences or is influenced by the binding of the bromodomain.

The recognition of *N*-acetyl lysine by the Gcn5p bromodomain differs from that of ω -acetyl histamine by the P/CAF bromodomain in two important respects. In the P/CAF- ω -acetyl histamine complex, intermolecular NOEs are observed between the side chain of Ala757 and the methyl group of the acetyl group in the amino acid analogue (Dhalluin *et al.*, 1999), implying that these groups are separated by <6 Å. In contrast, the distances between the methyl groups of the corresponding Val361 in Gcn5p and the methyl group of *N*-acetyl lysine are 7.7 and 8.3 Å, respectively. In addition, the side chain of P/CAF Asn803 is oriented differently from that of the corresponding Asn407 in Gcn5p, such that the amide group of Asn803 is unlikely to form a hydrogen bond with the acetyl group of ω -acetyl histamine. Taken together, these differences suggest that the specificity for *N*-acetyl lysine involves the active recognition of the acetyl group by Asn407, whereas that for ω -acetyl histamine may rely simply on the exclusion of the unacetylated histamine.

Jacobson *et al.* (2000) have recently proposed that the dibromodomain of TAF_{II}250 could bind a diacetylated H4 tail when either Lys5 and Lys12 or Lys8 and Lys16 are acetylated. However, we find that when the structure of the Gcn5p-H4 peptide is superimposed on that of the dibromodomain, the straight-line distance between the α -carbons of the two bound *N*-acetyl lysine residues is 29 Å, rather than the 25 Å estimated by Jacobson *et al.* (2000). Assuming that there is no substantial rearrangement of the relative positions of the two bromodomains, this distance is too long to accommodate either the Lys5/Lys12 or the Lys8/Lys16 diacetylated peptide, with six and seven intervening residues, respectively. Since the path of the backbone between *N*-acetyl lysine binding sites cannot be straight, we estimate that the minimum number of intervening residues compatible with the binding of a diacetylated peptide is 10. The dibromodomain could thus bind a diacetylated peptide in which Lys5 and Lys16 were both acetylated without distortion of the protein, although this particular pattern of acetylation may not be physiologically significant. An alternative possibility would be for the dibromodomain to bind simultaneously to two acetylated lysines located on different histone tails.

The primary specificity of the Gcn5p bromodomain for *N*-acetyl lysine reinforces the argument that a major function of this domain *in vivo* is to facilitate the coupling between histone acetylation and nucleosome remodelling (Syntichaki *et al.*, 2000), possibly by aiding the release of the acetylated histone tails either from folded nucleosomes or from nucleosome core particles. We note that Arg19 of

histone H4 is in close proximity to the bound DNA in the core nucleosome particle (Luger *et al.*, 1997) and binding by the bromodomain could in principle break this contact. An inefficient release of tails from folded oligonucleosomes, and hence incomplete unfolding, could explain the observed reduced levels of acetylation by a SAGA complex containing a Gcn5p component lacking a functional bromodomain (Sternner *et al.*, 1999). It also remains possible that an initial binding of histone tails by the secondary binding site of the bromodomain could facilitate acetylation. Since the bromodomain apparently interacts with a stretch of only four amino acids, it is also conceivable that it could bind proteins other than histones that contain acetylated lysine residues followed by an appropriate sequence.

Materials and methods

Materials

The histone H4 peptide, acetylated at Lys16, used for crystallization was obtained from Peptide Products (Oldham, UK).

Cloning

The DNA sequence containing the bromodomain of *S.cerevisiae* GCN5 was cloned into pET30a immediately downstream of the encoded enterokinase cleavage site. The recombinant Gcn5p bromodomain obtained from this construct was a 121 amino acid polypeptide corresponding to residues 325–439 of Gcn5p, i.e. to the C-terminal sequence; the first six amino acids were derived from the vector (Figure 1).

Purification of the Gcn5p bromodomain

The Gcn5p bromodomain was purified from 8 l of an induced culture of BL21(DE3) containing pET30a-Gcn5pBr grown in 2 \times TY medium. After collection, the bacteria were frozen and resuspended in 5 ml lysis buffer (50 mM NaH₂PO₄ pH 8.0, 300 mM NaCl, 1 mM 2-mercaptoethanol, 10 mM imidazole) per gram of cells. Lysozyme was added to a final concentration of 1 mg/ml and the resuspended cells were incubated on ice for 30 min. Aliquots (30 ml) of the suspended cells were then sonicated for 6 \times 10 s and the lysate centrifuged at 10 000 r.p.m. for 20 min. The supernatant was saved, the pellet resuspended in an equal volume of lysis buffer and again centrifuged. The supernatants were combined and added to a 50% slurry of Ni-NTA-agarose (Qiagen) (1 ml agarose slurry/6 ml lysate). After mixing for 2 h at 4°C, the mixture was centrifuged at 2000 r.p.m. for 2 min at 4°C and resuspended in an equal volume of wash buffer (50 mM Na₂HPO₄ pH 8.0, 300 mM NaCl, 1 mM 2-mercaptoethanol, 20 mM imidazole). The resin was then transferred to a column and washed with wash buffer until the eluate contained no more protein. The column was washed with buffer A (50 mM Na₂HPO₄ pH 7.5, 250 mM NaCl, 1 mM 2-mercaptoethanol) and the resin resuspended in an equal volume of the same buffer. Recombinant enterokinase (Novagen) was added to the resin at a concentration of 1 U/500 μ g of protein and the mixture incubated at room temperature overnight with mixing. The mixture was then transferred to a column and the released protein allowed to flow through. Buffer A (0.5 column volumes) was added and the column voided by increasing the air pressure. The eluate was concentrated initially in a Centriprep 3 and finally in a Centricon 3. At this stage, the protein was ~99% pure and the yield was ~12 mg/l of culture.

The protein for NMR studies was purified by essentially the same procedure, but with the following modifications. For ¹⁵N-labelled protein, the culture was grown as described by Churchill *et al.* (1995) and for ¹⁵N,¹³C-labelled protein the initial culture was grown in Martek 9-CN medium. For protein for NMR studies, 2-mercaptoethanol was omitted from the buffers.

Crystallization and structure determination

For crystallization, the protein was purified further by gel filtration on Superdex S200 in buffer B (20 mM HEPES pH 7.5, 250 mM NaCl, 1 mM dithiothreitol). The protein was concentrated to ~20 mg/ml and a peptide corresponding to residues 15–29 of histone H4 [AK(Ac)RHRKILRNISIQGI] was added to a final peptide:protein ratio

of 5:1. Crystallization was carried out by hanging drop vapour diffusion at 16°C against a reservoir containing 2.2 M ammonium sulfate, 20% (v/v) glycerol, 4 mM dithiothreitol and 100 mM HEPES pH 7.5. Crystals (space group $C22_1$ with one molecule in the asymmetric unit, unit cell $43.7 \times 71.9 \times 89.2$ Å) were obtained over a period of 4 days with final dimensions $0.2 \times 0.2 \times 0.05$ mm in the best cases. X-ray diffraction data (native and derivative) to 1.87 Å resolution were collected at 100 K using a CuK α rotating anode source, images recorded on a 345 mm MAR-research image plate, integrated with MOSFLM (Leslie, 1992) and scaled using CCP4 programs (CCP4, 1994). A single mercury derivative was made by soaking a crystal in cryoprotected buffer containing 1 mM ethylmercury thiosalicylate for 30 min. The single mercury site was determined from difference Pattersons, and heavy atom refinement and phasing were performed with SHARP (de la Fortelle and Bricogne, 1997), followed by solvent flipping and flattening with SOLOMON (Abrahams and Leslie, 1996) (solvent content 47%). The phases from the rather weak derivative (one Hg atom with occupancy ~0.25) were not good, and the initial solvent-flattened map was not immediately interpretable, but it was improved and traced using the ARP/wARP procedure (Perrakis *et al.*, 1999), which automatically built the model for 93% of the structure. The model was refined with REFMAC5 (Murshudov *et al.*, 1997), and rebuilding and water addition were performed with O (Jones *et al.*, 1991). The final model contains residues 329–438 of the protein (Figure 1), the first five residues of the peptide [AK(Ac)RHR] and 109 water molecules.

The coordinates and structure factors have been deposited in the Protein Data Bank, accession code 1E6I. Hydrophobic interaction potentials were calculated as in Owen *et al.* (1999) and displayed using Aesop (M.Noble, unpublished).

NMR spectroscopy

Samples of the free protein for NMR spectroscopy contained 0.5–2.0 mM ^{15}N -labelled protein or ^{15}N , ^{13}C -labelled protein, 250 mM NaCl, 50 mM sodium phosphate pH 7.5 in 10% $^2\text{H}_2\text{O}$. Samples of the complex were prepared by adding peptide and following the relative intensity of the ^1H signals from the protein and the peptide until a ratio of ~5:1 peptide:protein was reached.

NMR spectra were recorded on Bruker DMX 600, DRX 500 and Avance 800 spectrometers, equipped with 5 mm triple resonance ($^1\text{H}/^{15}\text{N}/^{13}\text{C}$) probes (600 and 800 MHz). Data were processed using the program XWIN-NMR (Bruker GmbH, Karlsruhe, Germany) and analysed using the programs XWIN-NMR and Felix (Molecular Simulations, San Diego, CA). Heteronuclear experiments included 2D ^{15}N -HSQC (generally acquired with spectral widths of 4000 Hz for ^{15}N and 8012.82 Hz for ^1H), 3D HNCA, 3D CBCA(CO)NH, 3D CBCANH, 3D HBHA(CO)NH, 3D ^{15}N NOESY-HSQC and 3D ^{13}C NOESY-HSQC. All spectra were acquired in phase-sensitive mode and frequency discrimination in indirect dimensions was achieved using either TPPI, States-TPPI or echo-antiecho (^{15}N or ^{13}C dimensions with gradient selection). Water suppression was achieved by selective irradiation during the relaxation delay and during the mixing time in NOESY and HSQC-NOESY experiments. Backbone assignments were made using the spectra from both ^{15}N and ^{13}C , ^{15}N -labelled protein. ^1H , ^{13}C and ^{15}N chemical shifts were referenced following the method described by Wishart *et al.* (1995), using sodium 3,3,3-trimethylsilylpropionate as internal ^1H reference.

Acknowledgements

This work was partially supported by the Fondazione Cenci-Bolognetti and by MURST-Cofin University 'La Sapienza' 1999. P.O. thanks EMBO for a short-term fellowship. We thank Dr M.E.M.Noble for the hydrophobic potential calculation and Dr J.O.Thomas for careful reading of the manuscript. This project was initiated during the tenure of an EMBO short-term fellowship by A.A.T.

References

Abrahams, J.P. and Leslie, A.G.W. (1996) Methods used in the structure determination of bovine mitochondrial F1 ATPase. *Acta Crystallogr. D*, **52**, 30–42.
 Bannister, A.J. and Kouzarides, T. (1996) The CBP co-activator is a histone acetyltransferase. *Nature*, **384**, 641–643.
 Bloch, D.B., de la Monte, S.M., Guigaouri, P., Filippov, A. and Bloch, K.D. (1996) Identification and characterization of a leukocyte-specific component of the nuclear body. *J. Biol. Chem.*, **271**, 29198–29204.
 Brownell, J.E., Zhou, J., Ranalli, T., Kobayashi, R., Edmonson, D.G.,

Roth, S.Y. and Allis, C.D. (1996) *Tetrahymena* histone acetyltransferase A: a homolog to yeast Gcn5p linking histone acetylation to gene activation. *Cell*, **84**, 843–851.
 Cheung, P., Tanner, K.G., Cheung, W.L., Sassone-Corsi, P., Denu, J.M. and Allis, C.D. (2000) Synergistic coupling of histone H3 phosphorylation and acetylation in response to epidermal growth factor stimulation. *Mol. Cell*, **5**, 905–915.
 Cheung, W.L., Briggs, S.D. and Allis, C.D. (2000) Acetylation and chromosomal functions. *Curr. Opin. Cell Biol.*, **12**, 326–333.
 Churchill, M.E.A., Jones, D.N.M., Glaser, T., Hefner, H., Searles, M.A. and Travers, A.A. (1995) HMG-D is an architecture-specific protein that binds to DNA containing the dinucleotide TG. *EMBO J.*, **14**, 1264–1275.
 Clayton, A.L., Rose, S., Barratt, M.J. and Mahadevan, L.C. (2000) Phosphoacetylation of histone H3 on c-fos- and c-jun-associated nucleosomes upon gene activation. *EMBO J.*, **19**, 3714–3726.
 CCP4 (1994) The CCP4 suite: programs for protein crystallography. *Acta Crystallogr. D*, **50**, 760–763.
 Cosma, M.P., Tanaka, T. and Nasmyth, K. (1999) Ordered recruitment of transcription and chromatin remodeling factors to a cell cycle- and developmentally regulated promoter. *Cell*, **97**, 299–311.
 de la Fortelle, E. and Bricogne, G. (1997) Maximum-likelihood heavy-atom parameter refinement for multiple isomorphous replacement and multiwavelength anomalous diffraction methods. *Methods Enzymol.*, **277**, 472–494.
 Dent, A.L., Yewdell, J., Puvion-Dutilleul, F., Koken, M.H., de The, H. and Staudt, L.M. (1996) LYSP100-associated nuclear domains (LANDs): description of a new class of subnuclear structures and their relationship to PML nuclear bodies. *Blood*, **88**, 1423–1426.
 Dhalluin, C., Carlson, J.E., Zeng, L., He, C., Aggarwal, A.K. and Zhou, M.M. (1999) Structure and ligand of a histone acetyltransferase bromodomain. *Nature*, **399**, 491–496.
 Diederichs, K. and Karplus, P.A. (1997) Improved R-factors for diffraction data analysis in macromolecular crystallography. *Nature Struct. Biol.*, **4**, 269–275.
 Doyle, D.A., Lee, A., Lewis, J., Kim, E., Sheng, M. and Mackinnon, R. (1996) Crystal structures of a complexed and peptide-free membrane protein-binding domain: molecular basis of peptide recognition by PDZ. *Cell*, **85**, 1067–1076.
 Dutnall, R.N., Tafrov, S.T., Sternglanz, R. and Ramakrishnan, V. (1998) Structure of the histone acetyltransferase Hat1: a paradigm for the GCN5-related N-acetyltransferase superfamily. *Cell*, **94**, 427–438.
 Eck, M.J., Shoelson, S.E. and Harrison, S.C. (1993) Structure of the regulatory domains of the Src-family tyrosine kinase Lck. *Nature*, **362**, 87–91.
 Eck, M.J., Pluskey, S., Trub, T. and Harrison, S.C. (1996) Spatial constraints on the recognition of phosphoproteins by the tandem SH2 domains of the phosphatase SH-PTP2. *Nature*, **379**, 277–280.
 Filetici, P., Aranda, C., Gonzalez, A. and Ballario, P. (1998) GCN5, a yeast transcriptional co-activator, induces chromatin reconfiguration of HIS3 promoter *in vivo*. *Biochem. Biophys. Res. Commun.*, **242**, 84–87.
 Grant, P.A. *et al.* (1997) Yeast Gcn5p functions in two multisubunit complexes to acetylate nucleosomal histones: characterization of an Ada complex and the SAGA (Spt/Ada) complex. *Genes Dev.*, **11**, 1640–1650.
 Gregory, P.D., Schmid, A., Zavari, M., Lui, L., Berger, S.L. and Hörz, W. (1998) Absence of Gcn5p HAT activity defines a novel state in the opening of chromatin at the *PHO5* promoter in yeast. *Mol. Cell*, **1**, 495–505.
 Gregory, P.D., Schmid, A., Zavari, M., Munsterkotter, M. and Hörz, W. (1999) Chromatin remodelling at the *PHO8* promoter requires SWI-SNF and SAGA at a step subsequent to activator binding. *EMBO J.*, **18**, 6407–6414.
 Grunstein, M. (1997) Histone acetylation in chromatin structure and transcription. *Nature*, **389**, 349–352.
 Haynes, S.R., Dollard, C., Winston, F., Beck, S., Trowsdale, J. and Dawid, I.B. (1992) The bromodomain: a conserved sequence found in human, *Drosophila* and yeast proteins. *Nucleic Acids Res.*, **20**, 2603.
 Jacobson, R.H., Ladurner, A.G., King, D.S. and Tjian, R. (2000) Structure and function of a human TAFII250 double bromodomain module. *Science*, **288**, 1422–1425.
 Jeanmougin, F., Wurtz, J.M., Le Douarin, B., Chambon, P. and Losson, R. (1997) The bromodomain revisited. *Trends Biochem. Sci.*, **22**, 151–153.
 Jones, T.A., Zou, J.Y., Cowan, S.W. and Kjeldgaard, M. (1991) Improved

- methods for building protein models in electron density maps and the location of errors in these models. *Acta Crystallogr. A*, **47**, 110–119.
- Kouzarides, T. (2000) Acetylation: a regulatory modification to rival phosphorylation? *EMBO J.*, **19**, 1176–1179.
- Krebs, J.E., Kuo, M.H., Allis, C.D. and Peterson, C.L. (1999) Cell cycle-regulated histone acetylation required for expression of the yeast *HO* gene. *Genes Dev.*, **13**, 1412–1421.
- Kuo, M.B., Brownell, J.B., Sobel, R.E., Ranalli, T.A., Cook, R.G., Edmondson, D.G., Roth, S.Y. and Allis, C.D. (1996) Transcription-linked acetylation by Gcn5p of histones H3 and H4 at specific lysines. *Nature*, **383**, 269–272.
- Leslie, A.G.W. (1992) Recent changes to the MOSFLM package for processing film and image plate data. In *Joint CCP4 and ESF-EACMB Newsletter on Protein Crystallography*, No. 26. Daresbury Laboratory, Warrington, UK.
- Lo, W.S., Trievel, R.C., Rojas, J.R., Duggan, L., Hsu, J.Y., Allis, C.D., Marmorstein, R. and Berger, S.L. (2000) Phosphorylation of serine 10 in histone H3 is functionally linked *in vitro* and *in vivo* to Gcn5-mediated acetylation at lysine 14. *Mol. Cell*, **5**, 917–926.
- Luger, K., Mader, A.W., Richmond, R.K., Sargent, D.F. and Richmond, T.J. (1997) Crystal structure of the nucleosome core particle at 2.8 Å resolution. *Nature*, **389**, 251–260.
- Marcus, G.A., Silverman, N., Berger, S.L., Horiuchi, J. and Guarente, L. (1994) Functional similarity and physical association between GCN5 and ADA2: putative transcriptional adaptors. *EMBO J.*, **13**, 4807–4815.
- Mizzen, C.A. *et al.* (1996) The TAF_{II}250 subunit of TFIID has histone acetyltransferase activity. *Cell*, **87**, 1261–1270.
- Murshudov, G.N., Vagin, A.A. and Dodson, E.J. (1997) Refinement of macromolecular structures by the maximum-likelihood method. *Acta Crystallogr. D*, **53**, 240–255.
- Ogryzko, V.V., Schiltz, R.L., Russanova, V., Howard, B.H. and Nakatani, Y. (1996) The transcriptional co-activators p300 and CBP are histone acetyltransferases. *Cell*, **87**, 953–959.
- Ornaghi, P., Ballario, P., Lena, A.M., Gonzalez, A. and Filetici, P. (1999) The bromodomain of Gcn5p interacts *in vitro* with specific residues in the N-terminus of histone H4. *J. Mol. Biol.*, **287**, 1–7.
- Owen, D.J. and Evans, P.R. (1998) A structural explanation for the recognition of tyrosine-based endocytotic signals. *Science*, **282**, 1327–1332.
- Owen, D.J., Vallis, Y., Noble, M.E., Hunter, J.B., Dafforn, T.R., Evans, P.R. and McMahon, H.T. (1999) A structural explanation for the binding of multiple ligands by the α -adaptin appendage domain. *Cell*, **97**, 805–815.
- Perrakis, A., Morris, R. and Lamzin, V.S. (1999) Automated protein model building combined with iterative structure refinement. *Nature Struct. Biol.*, **6**, 458–463.
- Rojas, J.R., Trievel, R.C., Zhou, J., Mo, Y., Li, X., Berger, S.L., Allis, C.D. and Marmorstein, R. (1999) Structure of *Tetrahymena* GCN5 bound to coenzyme A and a histone H3 peptide. *Nature*, **401**, 93–98.
- Sterner, D.E. and Berger, S.L. (2000) Acetylation of histones and transcription-related factors. *Microbiol. Mol. Biol. Rev.*, **64**, 435–459.
- Sterner, D.E., Grant, P.A., Roberts, S.M., Duggan, L.J., Belotserkovskaya, R., Pacella, L.A., Winston, F., Workman, J.L. and Berger, S.L. (1999) Functional organization of the yeast SAGA complex: distinct components involved in structural integrity, nucleosome acetylation and TATA-binding protein interaction. *Mol. Cell. Biol.*, **19**, 86–98.
- Strahl, B.D. and Allis, C.D. (2000) The language of covalent histone modifications. *Nature*, **403**, 41–45.
- Syntichaki, P., Topalidou, I. and Thireos, G. (2000) The Gcn5p bromodomain co-ordinates nucleosome remodelling. *Nature*, **404**, 414–417.
- Tamkun, J.W., Deuring, R., Scott, M.P., Kissinger, M., Pattatucci, A.M., Kaufman, T.C. and Kennison, J.A. (1992) *brahma*: a regulator of *Drosophila* homeotic genes structurally related to the yeast transcriptional activator SNF2/SWI2. *Cell*, **68**, 561–572.
- ter Haar, E., Harrison, S.C. and Kirchhausen, T.K. (2000) Peptide-in-groove interactions link target proteins to the β -propeller of clathrin. *Proc. Natl Acad. Sci. USA*, **97**, 1096–1100.
- Trievel, R.C., Rojas, J.R., Sterner, D.E., Venkataramani, R.N., Wang, L., Zhou, J., Allis, C.D., Berger, S.L. and Marmorstein, R. (1999) Crystal structure and mechanism of histone acetylation of the yeast GCN5 transcriptional co-activator. *Proc. Natl Acad. Sci. USA*, **96**, 8931–8936.
- Turner, B.M. (1991) Histone acetylation and control of gene expression. *J. Cell Sci.*, **99**, 13–20.
- Waksman, G., Shoelson, S.E., Pant, N., Cowburn, D. and Kuriyan, J. (1993) Binding of a high affinity phosphotyrosyl peptide to the Src SH2 domain: crystal structures of the complexed and peptide-free forms. *Cell*, **72**, 779–790.
- Winston, F. and Allis, C.D. (1999) The bromodomain: a chromatin-targeting module? *Nature Struct. Biol.*, **6**, 601–604.
- Wishart, D.S., Bigam, C.G., Yao, J., Abildgaard, F., Dyson, H.J., Oldfield, E., Markley, J.L. and Sykes, B.D. (1995) ¹H, ¹³C and ¹⁵N chemical shift referencing in biomolecular NMR. *J. Biomol. NMR*, **6**, 135–141.
- Yang, X.J., Ogryzko, V.V., Nishikawa, J., Howard, B.H. and Nakatani, Y.A. (1996) p300/CBP-associated factor that competes with the adenoviral oncoprotein E1A. *Nature*, **382**, 319–324.
- Zhou, M.-M. *et al.* (1995) Structure and ligand recognition of the phosphotyrosine binding domain of Shc. *Nature*, **378**, 584–592.

Received August 21, 2000; revised and accepted September 28, 2000