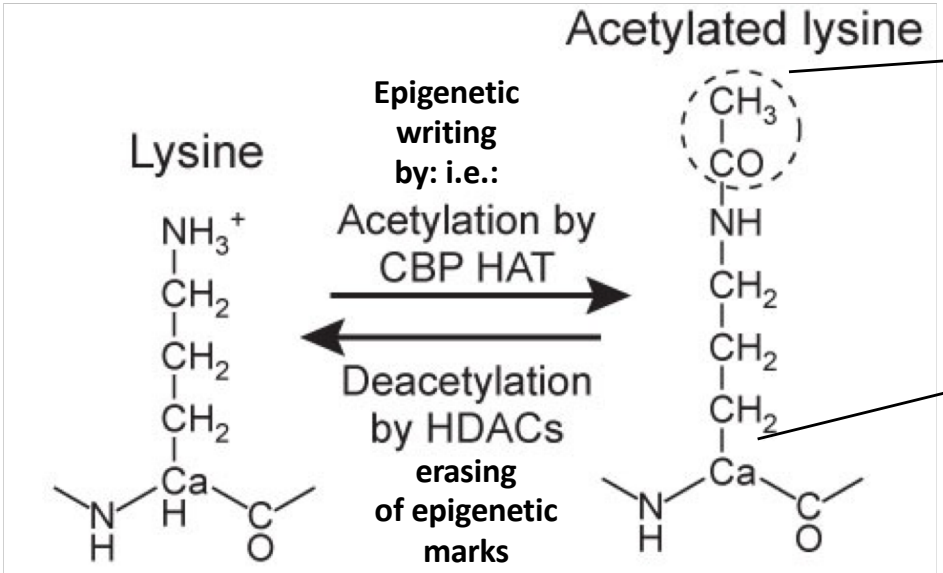
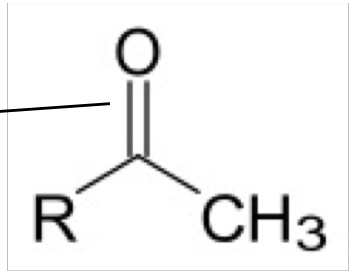
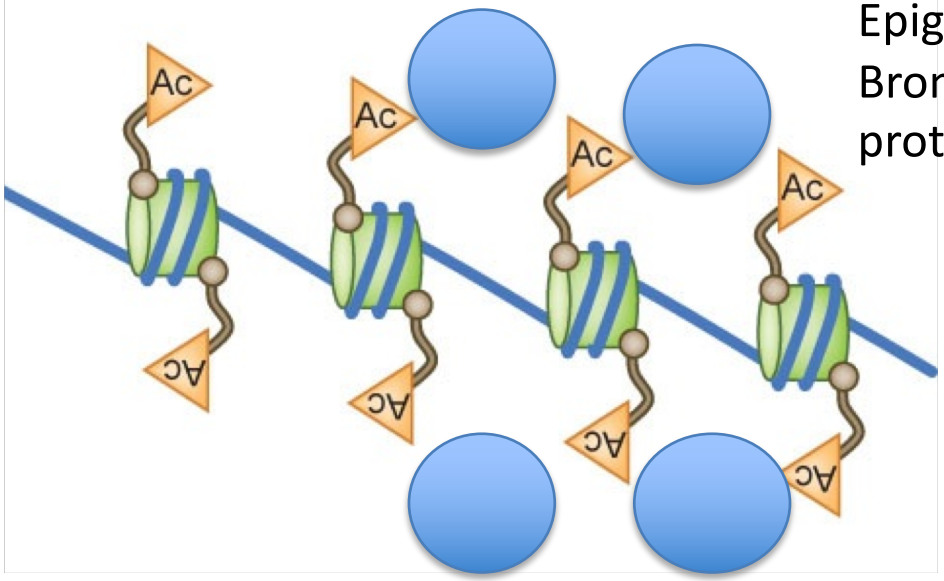
HISTONE ACETYLATION AND DEACETYLATION

Acetylation







Epigenetic reading by Bromo-domain proteins

Transcriptional Activation

Families of Histone acetyltransferases

5 conserved families of histone acetyl transferases (HATs)
also called Lysine acetyltransferases (KATs) → acetylate lysine residues

Table 1. The five major HAT families

Major HAT subfamilies	Prominent members	Key structural and biochemical properties
HAT1	yHat1	Member of the GNAT family Amino- and carboxy-terminal segments used for histone substrate binding Requires the yHat2 regulatory subunit for maximal catalytic activity
Gcn5/PCAF	yGcn5 hGCN5 hPCAF	Member of the GNAT family Uses a ternary complex catalytic mechanism Amino- and carboxy-terminal segments used for histone substrate binding
MYST	yEsa1 ySas2 ySas3 hMOZ dMof hMOF hTIP60 hHBO1	Uses a ping-pong catalytic mechanism Requires autoacetylation of a specific lysine at the active site for cognate histone acetylation
p300/CBP	hp300 hCBP	Metazoan-specific, but shows structural homology with yRtt109 Uses a ternary Theorell–Chance (hit-and-run) catalytic mechanism Contains a substrate-binding loop that participates in AcCoA and lysine binding Contains an autoacetylation loop that requires lysine autoacetylation for maximal catalytic activity
Rtt109	yR11109	Fungal-specific, but shows structural homology with p300 Contains a substrate-binding loop that participates in AcCoA and probably also lysine binding Requires autoacetylation of a lysine residue near the active site for maximal catalytic activity Requires one of two histone chaperone cofactors (Asf1 or Vps75) for maximal catalytic activity and histone substrate specificity

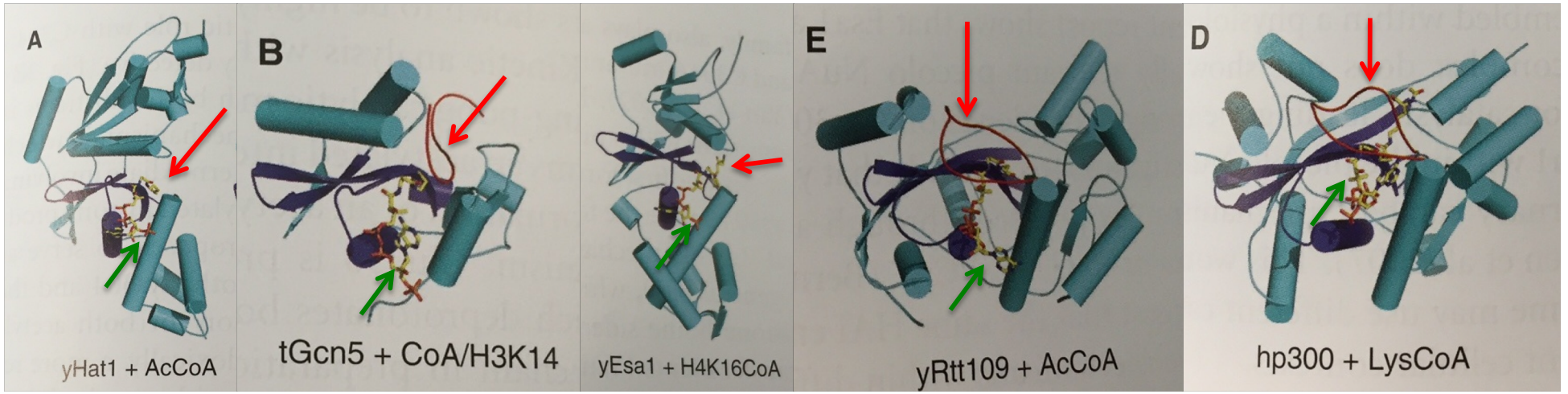
y, yeast; h, human; GNAT, Gcn5-related *N*-acetyltransferase.

Families of Histone acetyltransferases

Coding Gene	Site of Histone Modification
HAT 1	H2AK5, H4K5, H4K12
GCN5	H3K9, H3K14, H3K56, H4K5, H4K8, H4K12, H4K16, H4K91 H3K4
PCAF	H3K9, H3K14
CBP	H3K14, H3K18, H3K27, H3K56, H4K5, H4K8, H4K12, H4K16
P300	H3K14, H3K18, H3K27, H3K56, H4K5, H4K8, H4K12, H4K16
TAF1	H3K14
TIP60	H2AK5, H4K5, H4K8, H4K12, H4K16
MYST3	H3K9, H3K14
MYST4	
MYST2	H3K14, H4K5, H4K8, H4K12
MYST1	H4K16
ELP3	H3K9, H3K18
GTF3C4	H3K14
NCOA1	H3K14
NCOA3	H3K14
CLOCK	H3K14
CDY1	
CDY2	
CDYL	
MGEA5	H4K8, H3K14
NAT10	

Specificity of HATs

Structures of major HAT families



HAT1 Fam.	GCN5/PCAF Fam.	MYST Fam.	P300/CBP Fam.	Rtt109 Fam.

HATs contain a HAT domain and structurally divergent ammino- and carboxy-terminal regions

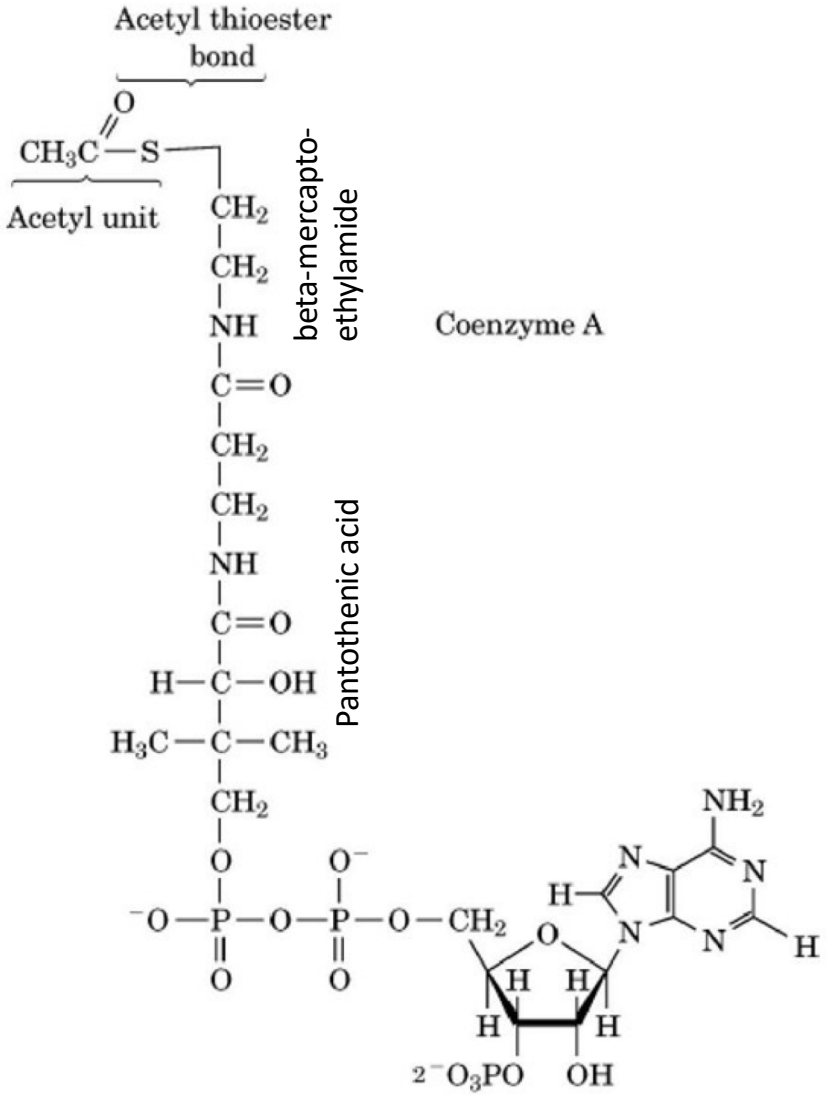
HAT domains are structurally similar and contain: 3 stranded beta-sheet and a long alpha helix
N- and C- terminal domains are divergent between HAT families

HATs contain clefts that allow the histone-substrate to access the central core domain and allow catalysis to occur (red arrow that points on red-line=histone tail)

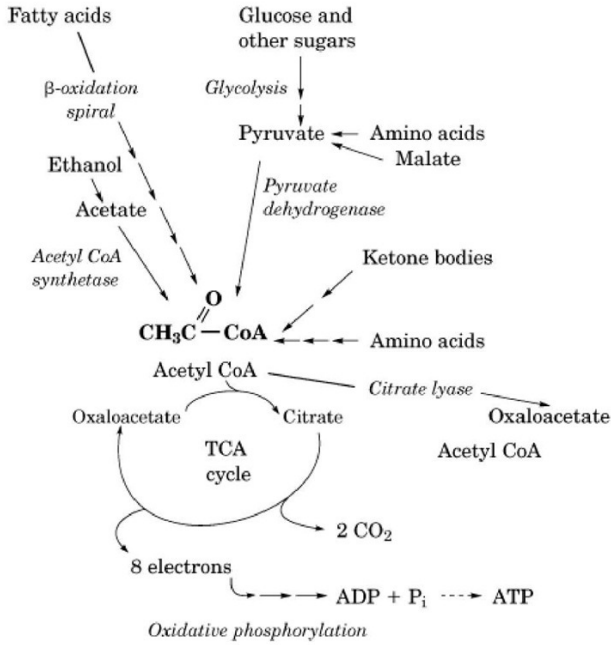
The central core domain makes interaction with the Acetyl-CoenzymeA (AcCoA) co-factor (green arrow).

AcCoA contains an acetyl group that is transferred by the HAT domain to the histone lysine residue located in the N-terminal histone tail

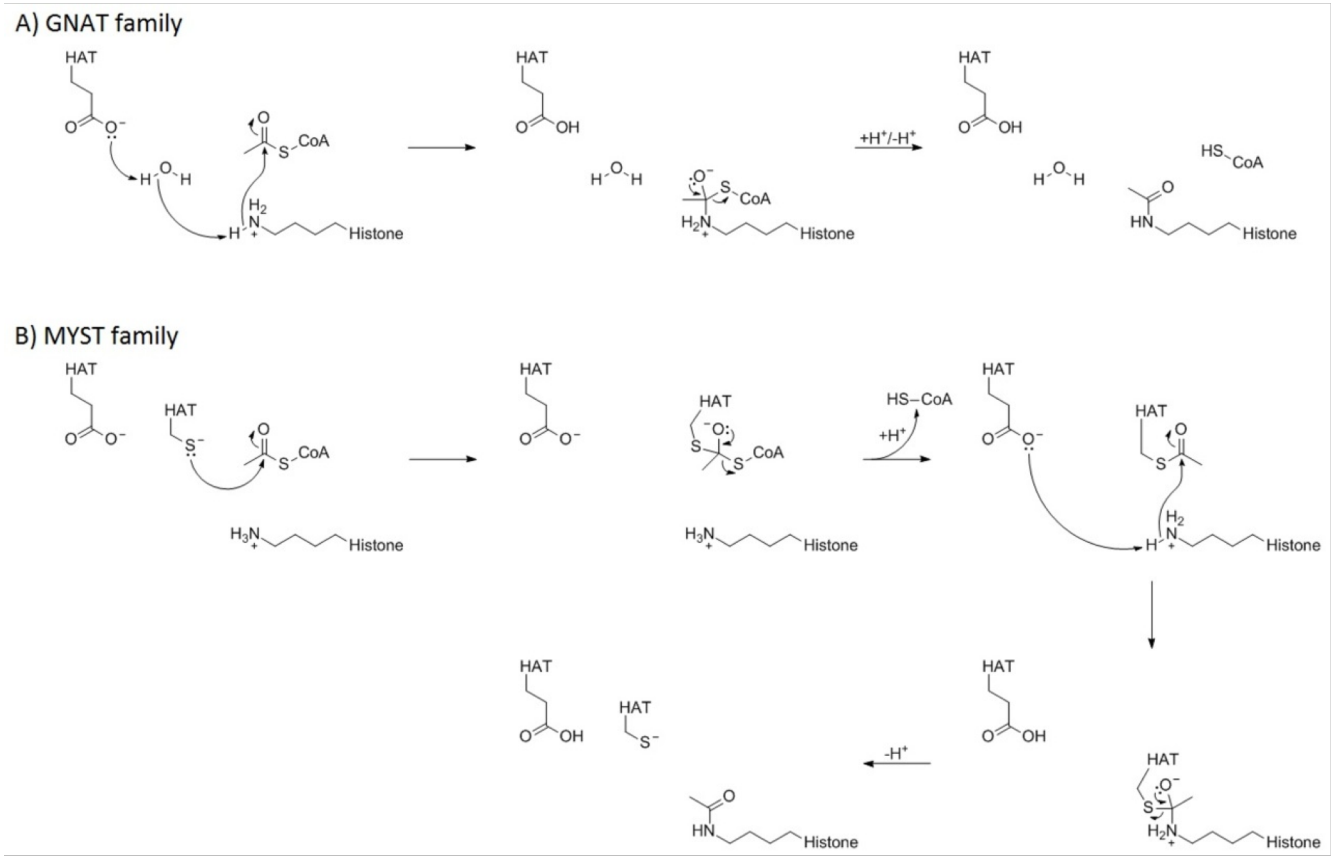
The chemistry of acetyl-transferases



Acetyl coenzyme A (acetylCoA) consists of a two-carbon activated acetyl unit attached to coenzyme A in thioester linkage. AcetylCoA is **central to energy generation from the degradative pathways of oxidative fuel metabolism and to a number of biosynthetic pathways** that utilize the activated two-carbon acetyl unit. In aerobic cells, it is the **product of all the major catabolic pathways of fuel metabolism, including b- oxidation of fatty acids, ketone body degradation, glycolysis and pyruvate oxidation, ethanol oxidation, and the oxidative degradation of many amino acids**. The two-carbon acetyl unit of acetylCoA formed from these pathways can be completely oxidized to CO2 in the **tricarboxylic acid cycle (TCA cycle**), thus providing aerobic cells with energy from the complete oxidation of fuels. The acetyl unit of acetylCoA is also the basic building block of fatty acids, cholesterol, and other compounds, and it can be transferred to other molecules in acetylation reactions (eg, synthesis of N-acetylated sugars).



The chemistry of acetyl-transferases



Members of the GNAT family have a conserved **glutamate residue** that acts as a general base for catalyzing the nucleophilic attack of the lysine amine on the acetyl-CoA thioester bond.[6] These HATs use an ordered sequential bi-bi mechanism wherein both substrates (acetyl-CoA and histone) must **bind to form a ternary complex with the enzyme before catalysis can occur. Acetyl-CoA binds first, followed by the histone substrate.** A conserved glutamate residue (**Glu173 in yeast Gcn5) activates a water molecule for removal of a proton from the amine group on lysine,** which activates it for direct nucleophilic attack on the carbonyl carbon of enzyme-bound acetyl-CoA. After the reaction, the acetylated histone is released first, followed by CoA.

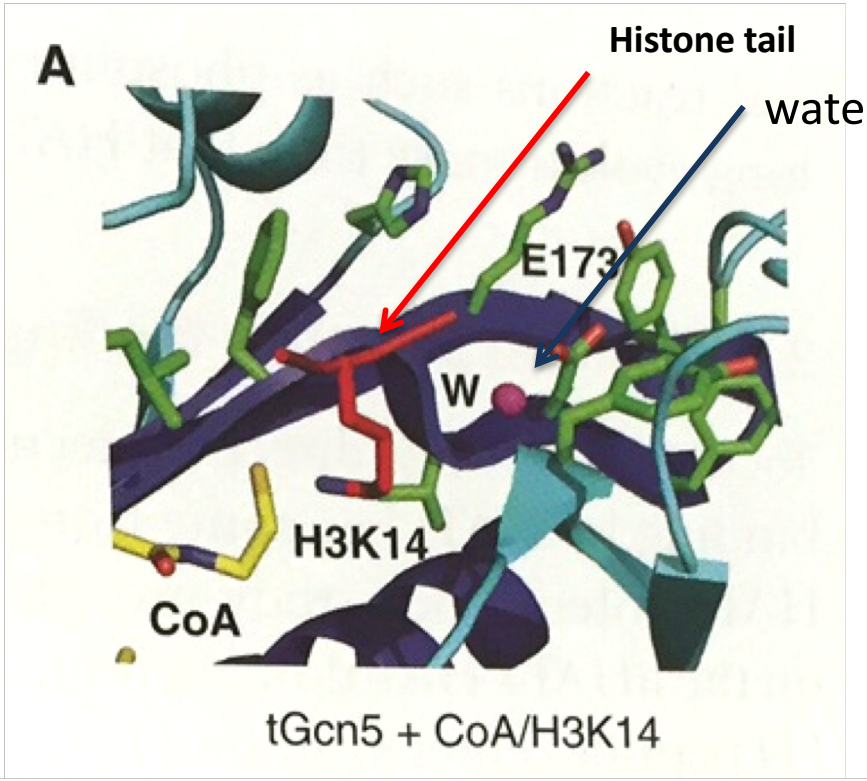
Studies of yeast Esa1 from the **MYST family** of HATs have revealed a **ping-pong mechanism involving conserved glutamate and cysteine residues.[**16] The first part of the reaction involves the formation of **a covalent intermediate in which a cysteine residue becomes acetylated following nucleophilic attack of this residue on the carbonyl carbon of acetyl-CoA.** Then, a **glutamate residue acts as a general base to facilitate transfer of the acetyl group from the cysteine to the histone substrate in a manner analogous to the mechanism used by GNATs**.

HATs have the same biochemical function
But can use slightey different chemical reactions to acetylate histones
Reason: reaction is very simple and Acetyle-CoA is very reactive

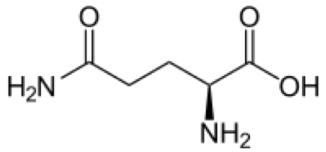
The chemistry of acetyl-transferases – Gcn5/PCAF Family

An example:

GNAT family: Gcn5/PCAF/HAT1 – histone H3K14



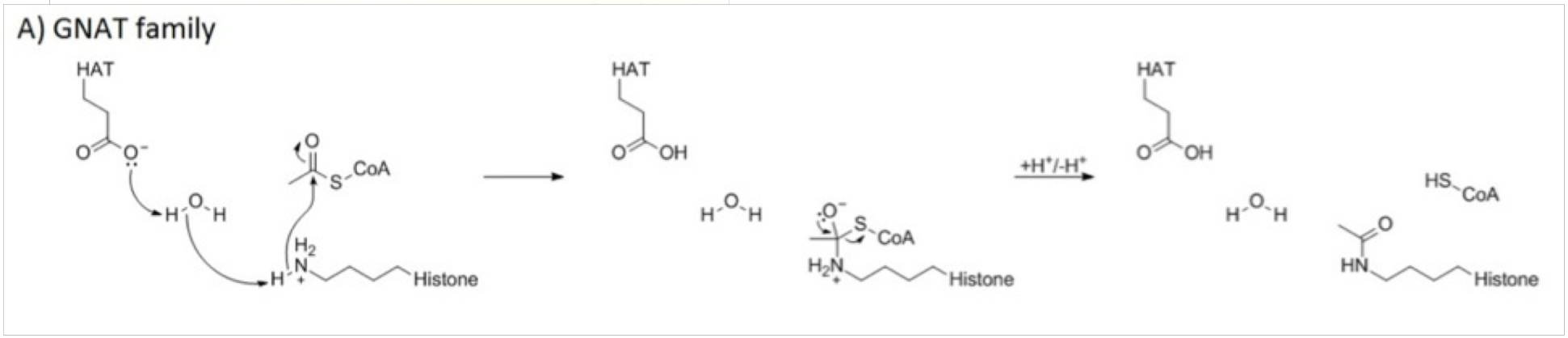
Glu



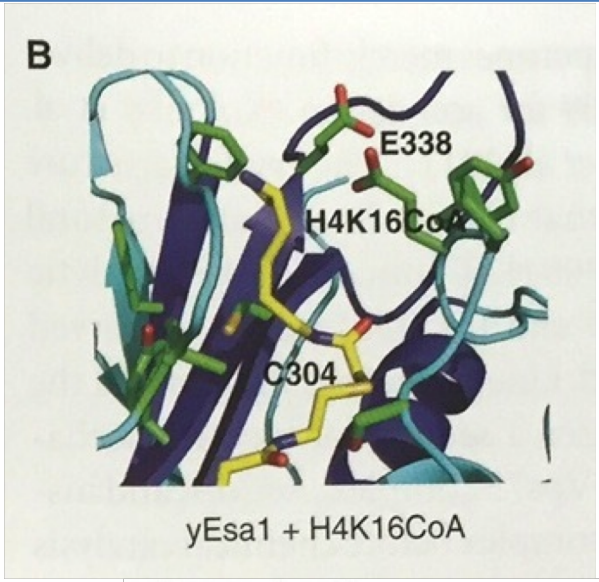
Gcn5: glutamate at position 173 (E173) is central for HAT activity.
Point mutation at E173 → HAT activity is reduced 300-fold
Glutamate acts as general base for catalysis through a well ordered water molecule in the active site.
Glutamate is located in a hydrophobic pocket that supports proton extraction

Gcn5 functions through a ternary complex mechanism in which both substrates (lysines and Acetyle-CoA) must be bound to the enzyme before catalysis can occur.

This involves a de-pronotation of the lysine substrate
By the glutamate (E173) thus facilitating the direct transfer of the acetyl group from AcCoA to the lysine side chain.

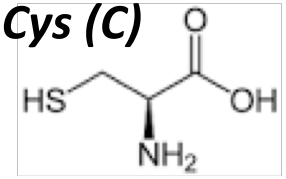


The chemistry of acetyl-transferases – MYST Family

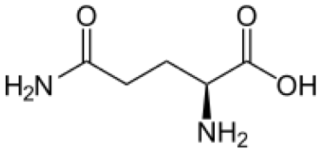


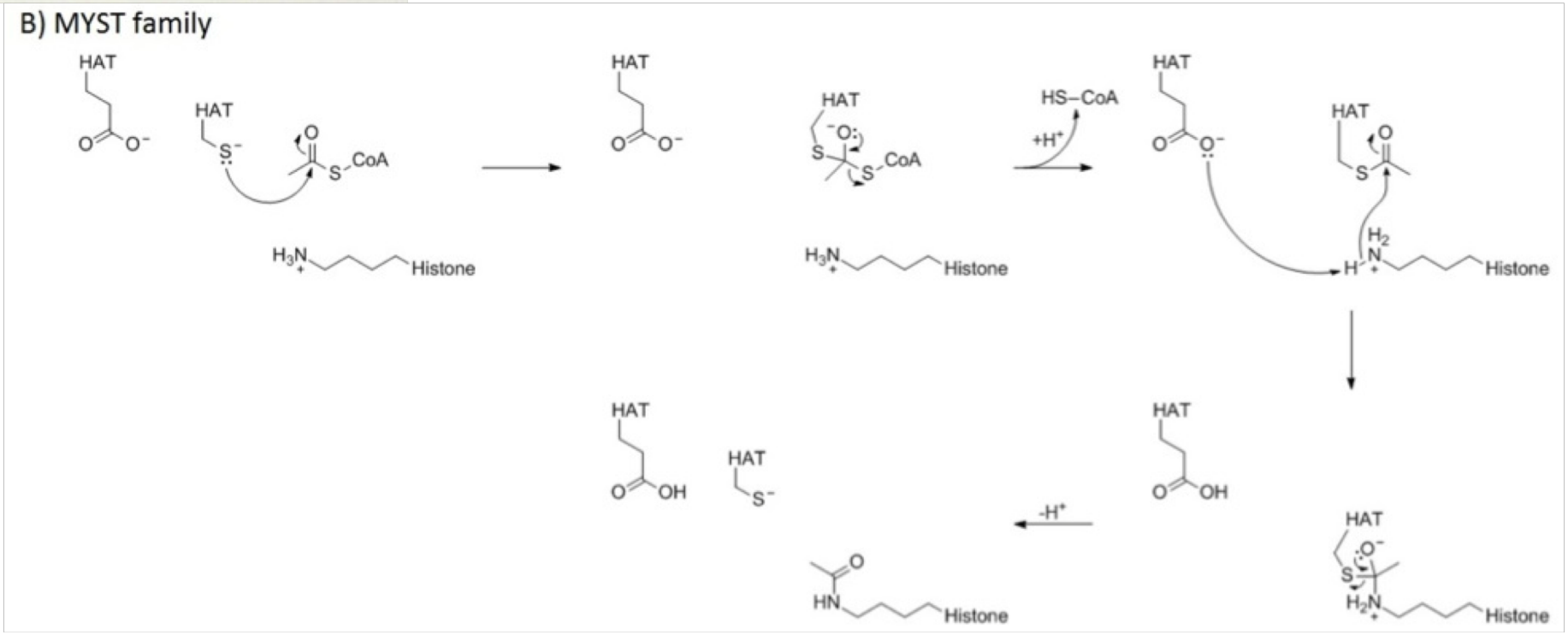
MYST family: Important residues: Glu338 and Cys304. Mutations at these residue disrupt HAT activity. Studies of yeast **Esa1 from the MYST family of HATs** have revealed a ping-pong mechanism involving conserved glutamate and cysteine residues. **Glu338 serves as a general base to that protonates Cys304** and the histone lysine residue in preparation for both acetylation events. The first part of the reaction involves **the formation of a covalent intermediate in which a cysteine residue becomes acetylated** following nucleophilic attack of this residue on the carbonyl carbon of acetyl-CoA. Then, a glutamate residue acts as a **general base to facilitate transfer of the acetyl group from the cysteine to the histone substrat**e in a manner analogous to the mechanism used by GNATs.

Cys (C)



Glu (E)





Lecture 3: ACETYLTRANSFERASES AND DEACETYLASES

The chemistry of acetyl-transferases – p300/CBP; Rtt109; HAT1 Family

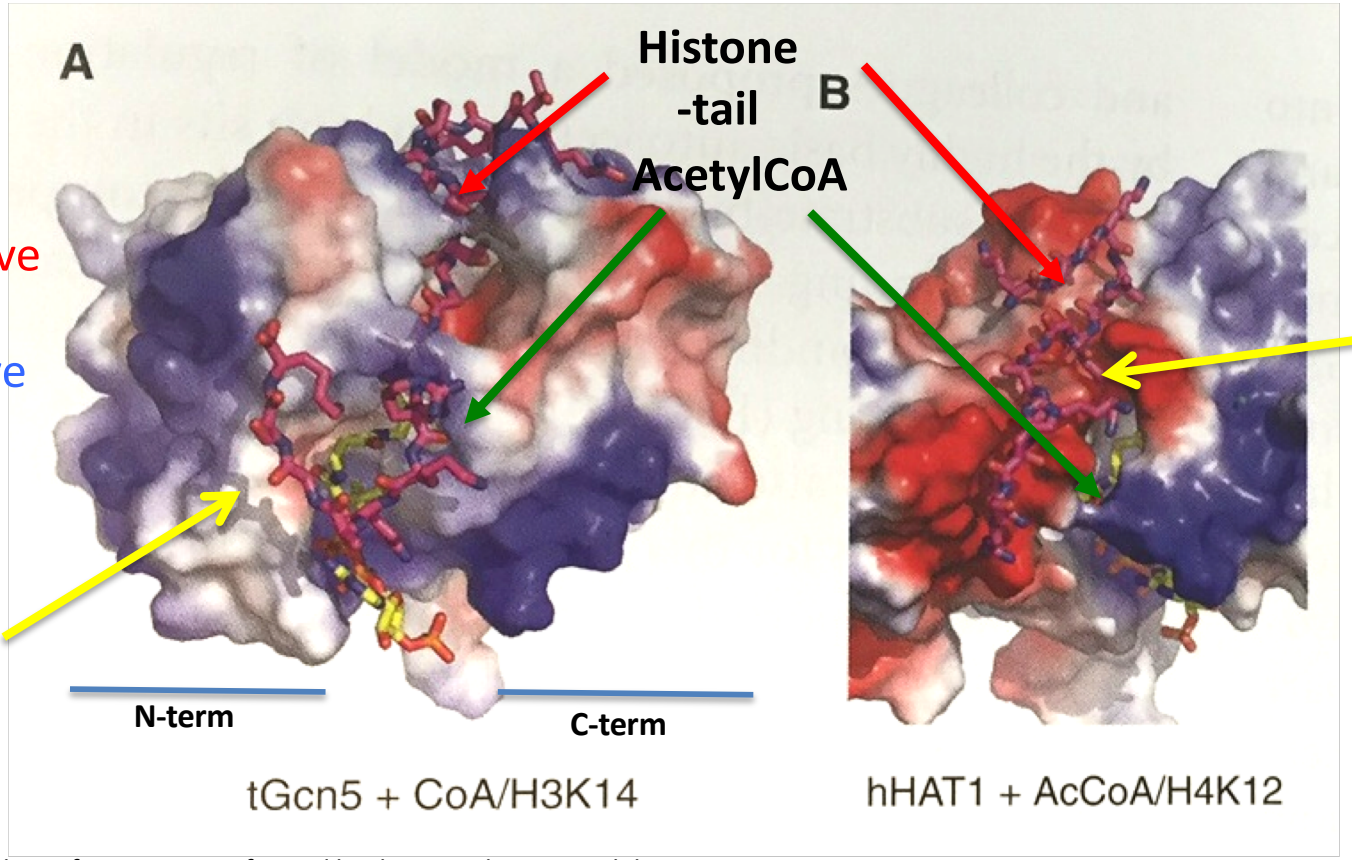
1. **p300/CBP:** not glutamate residue for driving acetylation reaction; one Tyrosine (Tyr) and one Tryptophane (Trp) residues have impact on acetylation
Tyr1467 mutation: 400 fold reduction in catalytic activity: Trp1436 mutation: 50 fold reduction
→ Tyr1467: proposed role in as general acid for acetylation; Trp1436: orientates the target lysine to the active site

2. **Rtt109;HAT1:** less characterized

HATs have the same biochemical function
But can use slightly different chemical reactions to acetylates histones
Reason: reaction is very simple and requires "low chemical input"and Acetyle-CoA is very reactive
Long evolution time allowed to form diverse modes of acetylation

Histone substrate binding

To date information only on the binding of Gcn5 to the H3K14 region and hHAT1 to the H4K12 region



Gcn5: Histone tails are fit into a grove formed by the N- and C-terminal domains. Conserved ammino-acids form **hydrogen bonds and van der Waals interaction with H3 histone tails**. H3 tail adopts an ordered structure; H4 tails cannot → specificity of Gcn5 family for histone H3 tail

hHAT1: Histone H4 tail is fit into a grove and forms a turn structure that normally remains extended.
Two conserved hHAT1 residues (Trp199, Tyr225) interact with Gly9 and Lys8 of the turned
Conserved amminoacids accommodate the H4 tail into the groove and Bring the K12 residue in vicinity to the active center. Other histone-tails have other peptide sequence context and to not form specific interactions with hHAT1 → specificity for H3 tails

Regulation by auto-acetylation and protein cofactors

HATs are regulated by AUTOACETYLATION and INTERACTION WITH REGUALTORY PROTEINS

REGULATORY PROTEINS

→Purified HATs such as GCN5 or PCAF act efficiently on free histone and histone-tail peptides but are less efficient on prepared nucleosomes

→In vivo HATs function in *multiprotein complexes* to acetylate histone tails on nucleosomes. Complexes can Contain 10-20 subunits that can also be shared amongst different HAT complexes

EXAMPLES: Gcn5 → SAGA complex (yeast); SLIK complex (human)
PCAF → TCTC complex (yeast); STAGA complex (human)

The role of most complex components in controlling HAT specificity and activity

→HATs interact with *cofactors* in HAT complexes to increase processivity

EXAMPLE: Sas2 (MYST family) has to interact with Sas2 and Sas4 to have HAT activity
Rtt109 has no or little HAT activity – interaction with Vps75 or Asf1 increases HAT acitivity (100x) and mediates H3K9/H3K27 Aacetylation (Vps75) or H3K56 acetylation (Asf1)

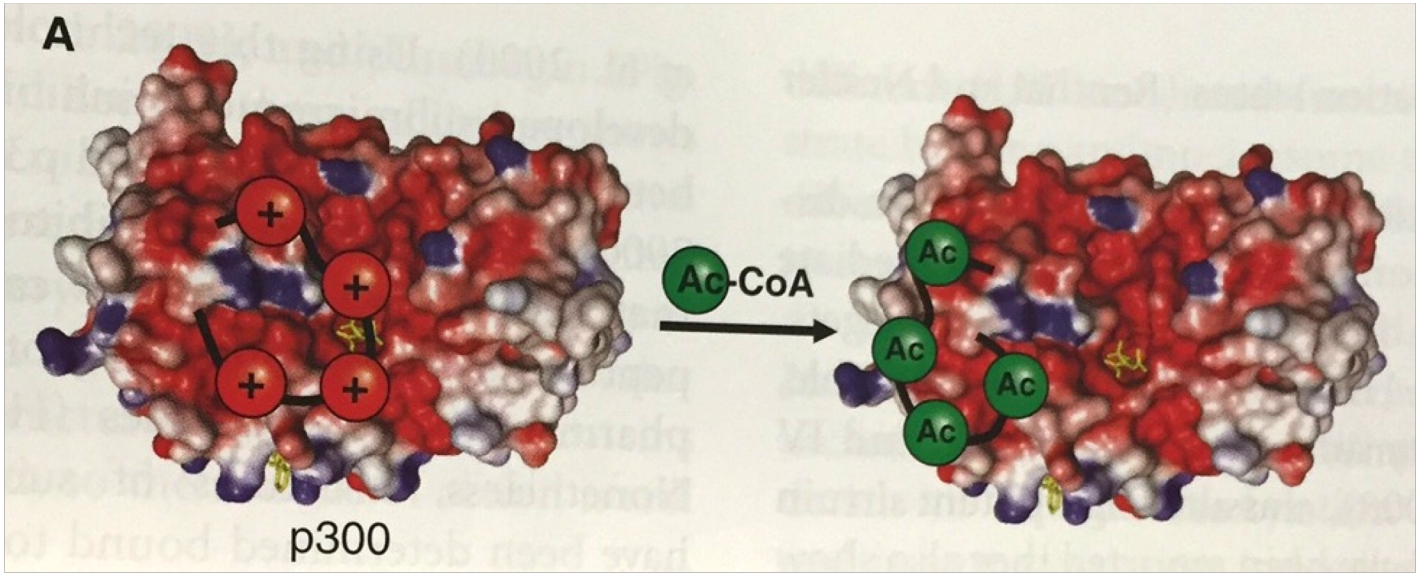
Regulation by autoacetylation and protein cofactors

HATs are regulated by AUTOACETULATION and INTERACTION WITH REGUALTORY PROTEINS

AUTOACETYLATION

→Rtt109, p300/CBP and MYST HAT family members are controlled by auto-acetylation
HYPOACETYLATED HAT: INACTIVE
HYPERACETYLATED HAT: ACTIVE

EXAMPLE: p300 activity is controlled by acetylation of a 40 aa basic loop = autoacetylation loop



Under-acetylated "autoacetylation loop"
blocks substrate (histone tail) binding site of p300

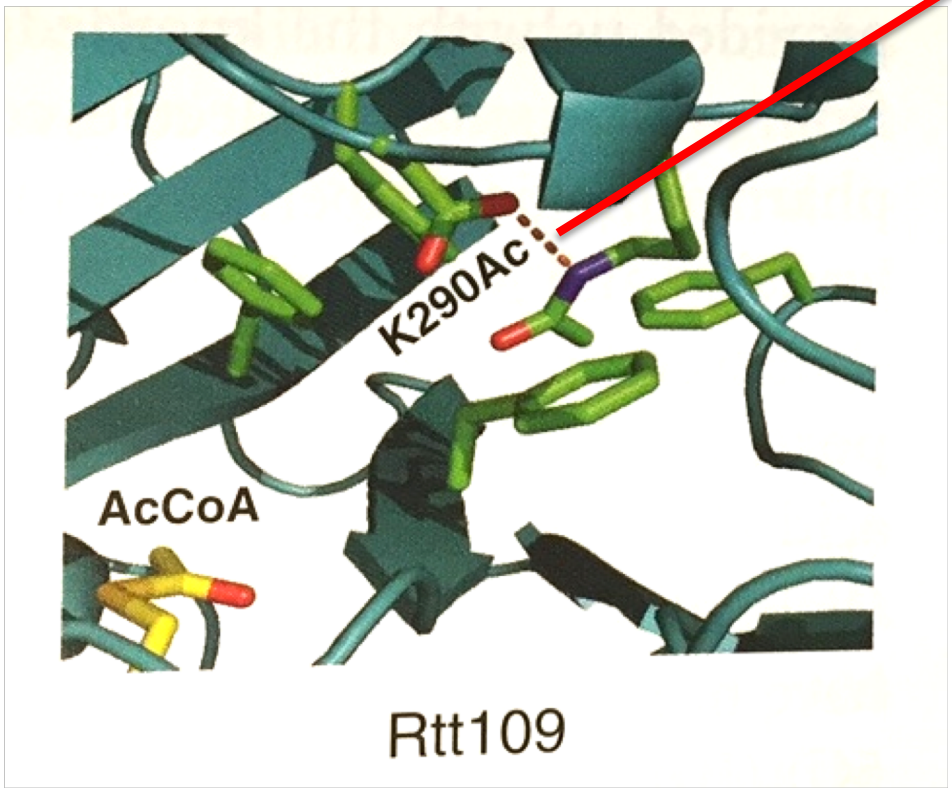
hyper-acetylated "autoacetylation loop"
enhances substrate (histone tail binding site of p300

Regulation by autoacetylation and protein cofactors

HATs are regulated by AUTOACETYLATION and INTERACTION WITH REGUALTORY PROTEINS

AUTOACETYLATION

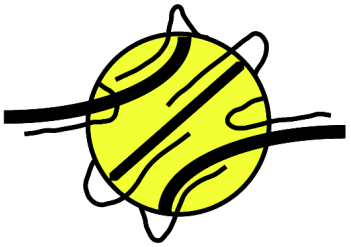
→Rtt109, p300/CBP and MYST HAT family members are controlled by auto-acetylation
→HYPOACETYLATED HAT: INACTIVE
HYPERACETYLATED HAT: ACTIVE



Rtt109:
Acetylation of Lys290 is required
For full HAT activity.
WHY?
Acetylation of Lys290 disrupts
Hydrogen bonds between Lys290
and Asp288. This improves incorporation of
Acetyl-CoA
Note: mutations in Asp288 increase
HAT activity → presumably
improved AcetylCoA binding

Impact of HATs on gene expression:ACTIVATORS OF GENE EXPRESSION

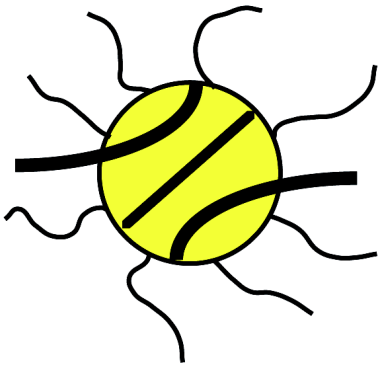
Acetylation induces a conformational change in the core histones



REPRESSED

EXAMPLE

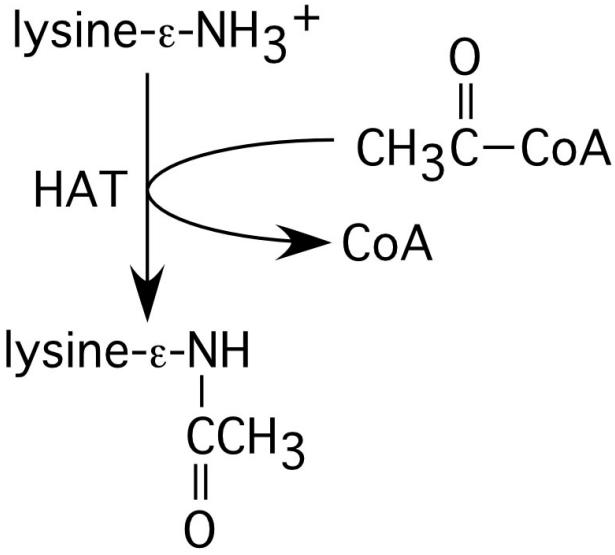
Lysine-rich tails bind tightly to DNA and repress transcription by blocking access of factors to the DNA template.



ACTIVE/COMPETENT

Acetylation of lysine residues alters chromatin structure and allows binding of transcription factors.

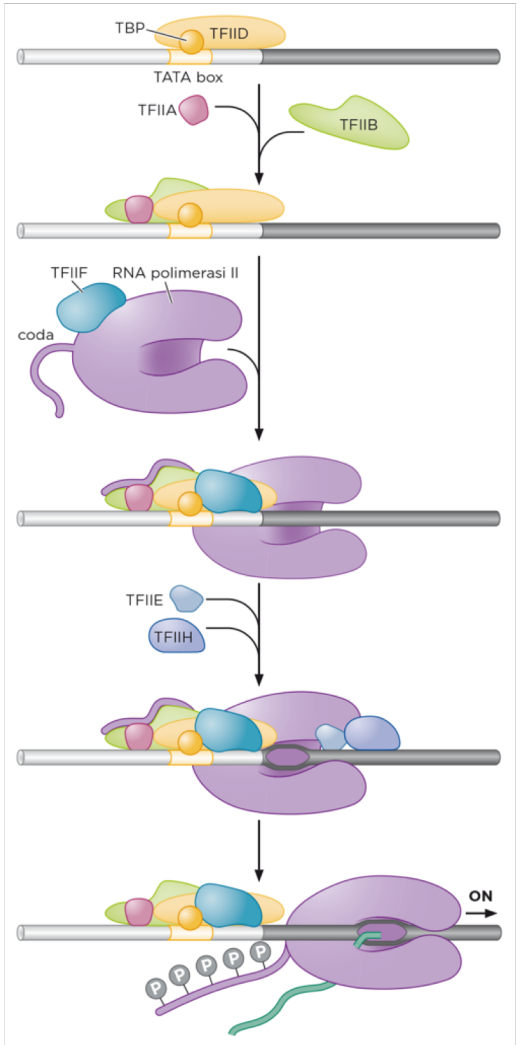
Note: acetylation neutralizes the positive charge of lysine

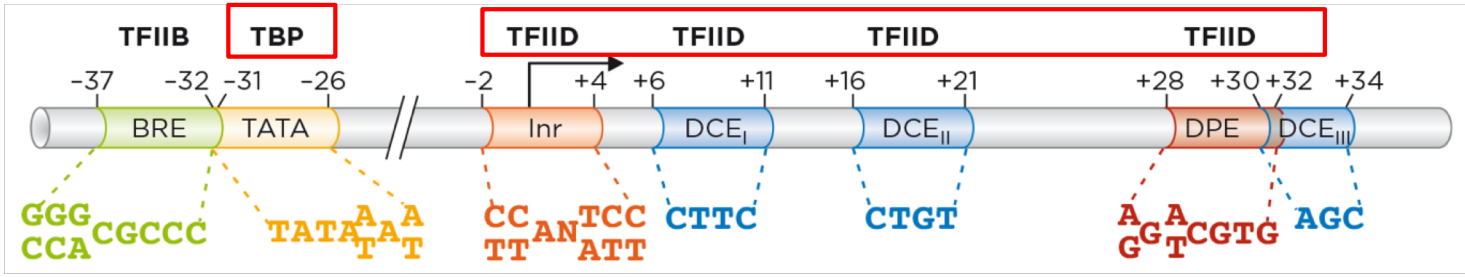


HAT: Histone Acetyltransferase

Transcription by RNA Polymerase II (RNAPII)
The RNAP II core promoter

CENTRAL PROMOTER ELEMNETS + GENERAL TRASNCRIPTION FACTORS
ca 60 nt





BRE	**TATA-box**	**Inr**	**DCE**	**DPE**
TFIIB recognition element	Bound by the TATA-box binding protein (TBP)	Initiator (l'iniziatore)	downstream core element	downstream promoter element

GTFs:

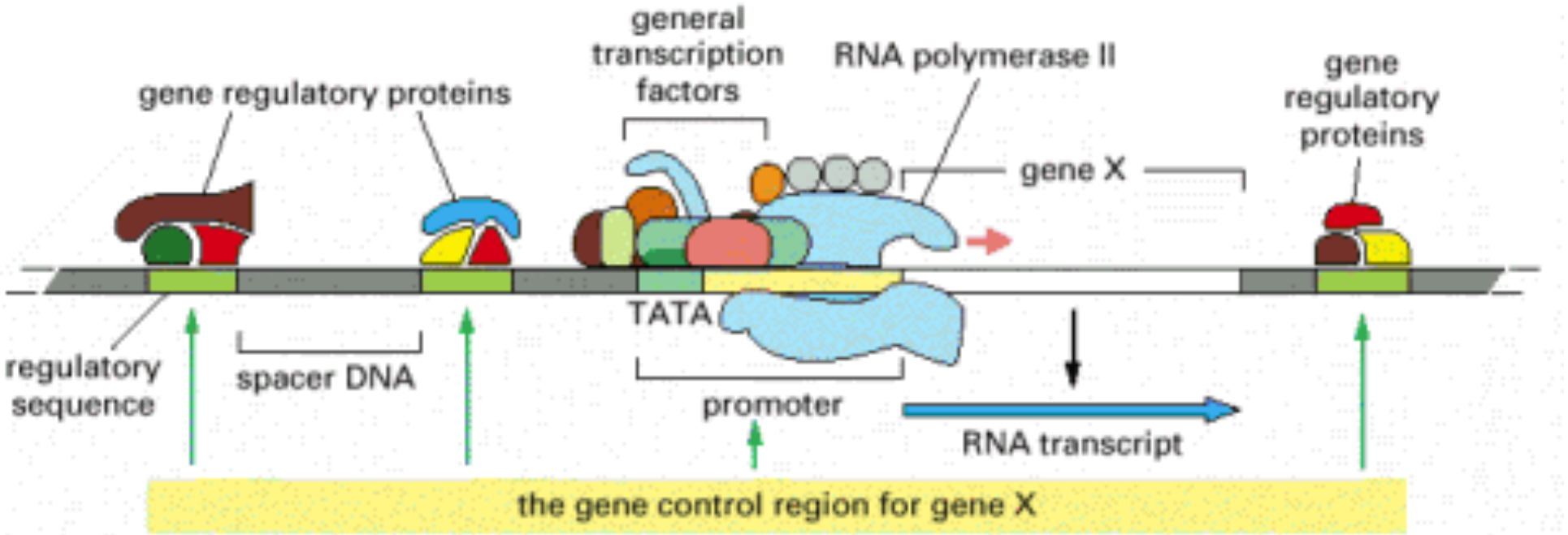
→Aiutano alla polimerasi di allegarsi al promotore

→Promoter melting

(→→→ stessa funzione come di sigma nella trascrizione batterica)

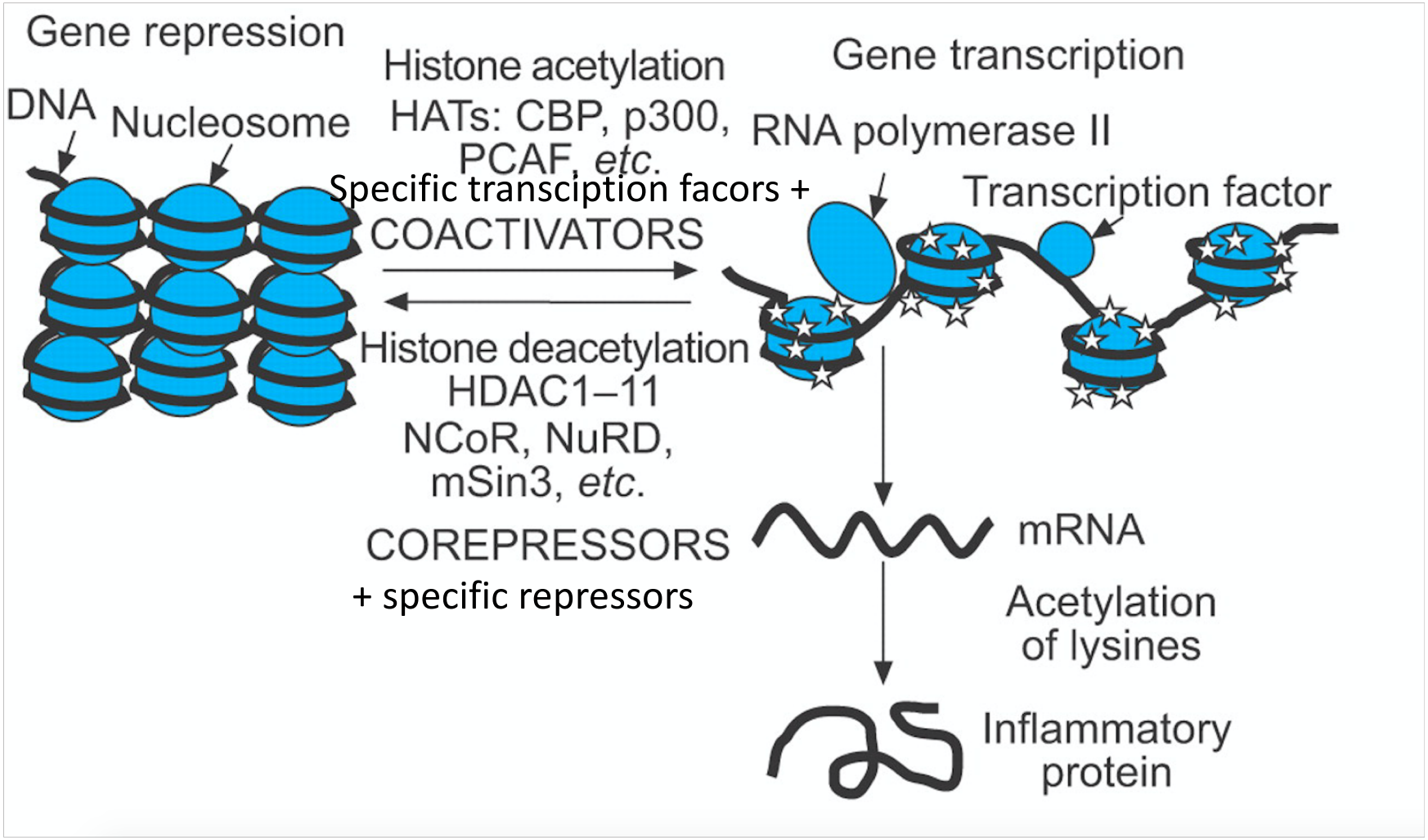
→ Passare alla fase di allungamento

A complex interplay of regualtory sequences and transcription factors control the basal transcription complex



The gene control region of a typical eucaryotic gene. The ***promoter*** is the DNA sequence where the general transcription factors and the polymerase assemble. The ***regulatory sequences*** serve as **binding sites** for **gene regulatory proteins**, whose presence on the DNA affects the rate of transcription initiation. These sequences can be located **adjacent** to the promoter, far **upstream** of it, or even **within introns** or **downstream** of the gene. **DNA looping** is thought to allow gene regulatory proteins bound at any of these positions to interact with the proteins that assemble at the promoter. Whereas the **general transcription factors** that assemble at the promoter are **similar for all** polymerase II transcribed **genes**, the **gene regulatory proteins** and the **locations** of their binding sites relative to the promoter are **different for each gene**.

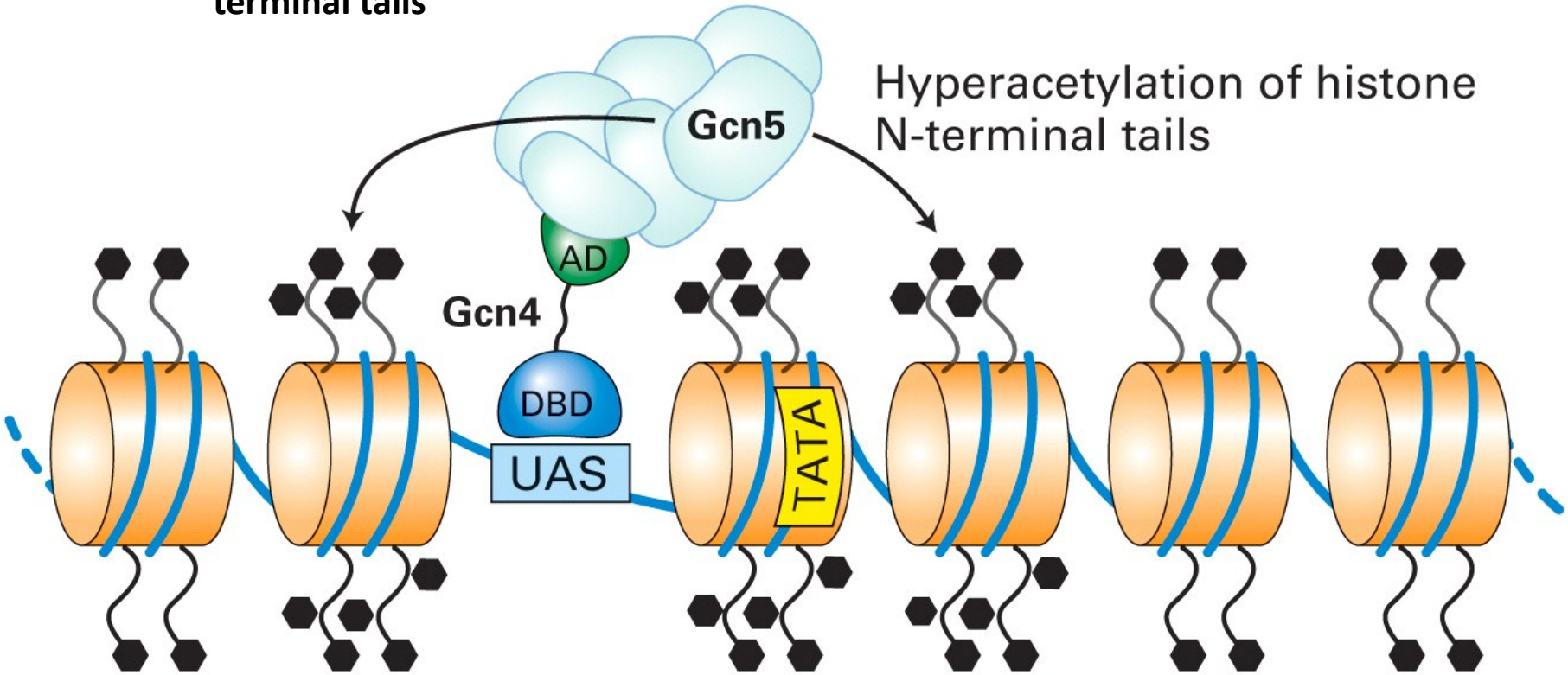
Impact of HATs on gene expression:ACTIVATORS OF GENE EXPRESSION



Specific transcription factors bind TF binding sites outside the core-promoter. Can be in vicinity to the core-promoter, but may be also localized at large disctance from core pomoter (enhancer)

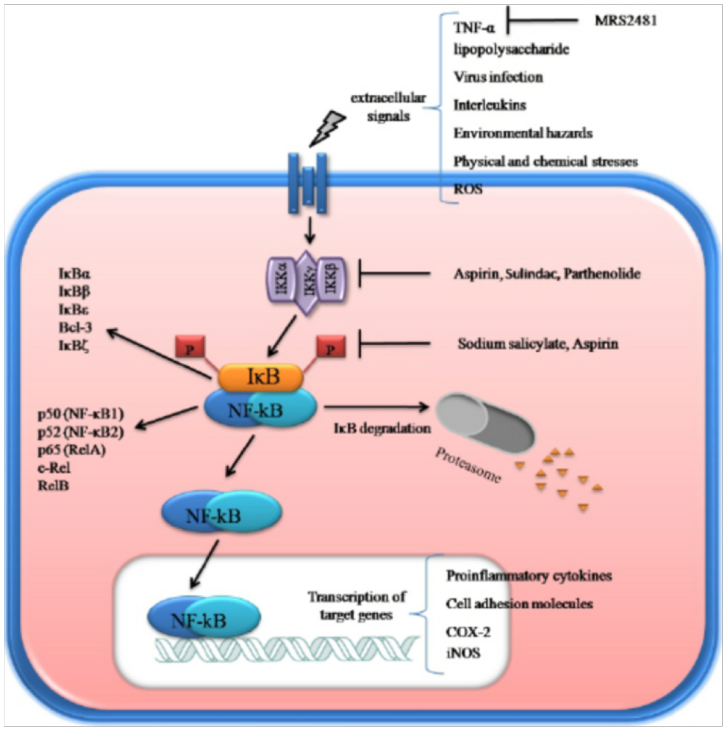
Impact of HATs on gene expression:ACTIVATORS OF GENE EXPRESSION

Activator-directed hyperacetylation of histone N-terminal tails

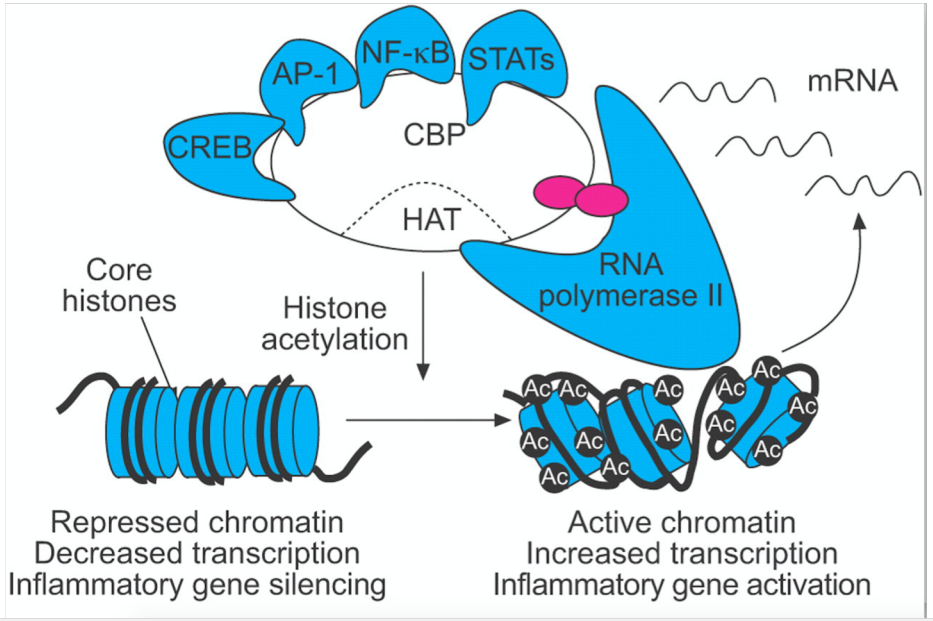


UAS Upstream activator site is located upstream of core-promoter
UAS is bound by transcriptional co-activator that recruits Gcn5. Gcn5 acetylated Histone tails. This opens chromatin and facilitates the access of general transcription factors required for initiation of transcription.

Impact of HATs on gene expression:ACTIVATORS OF GENE EXPRESSION

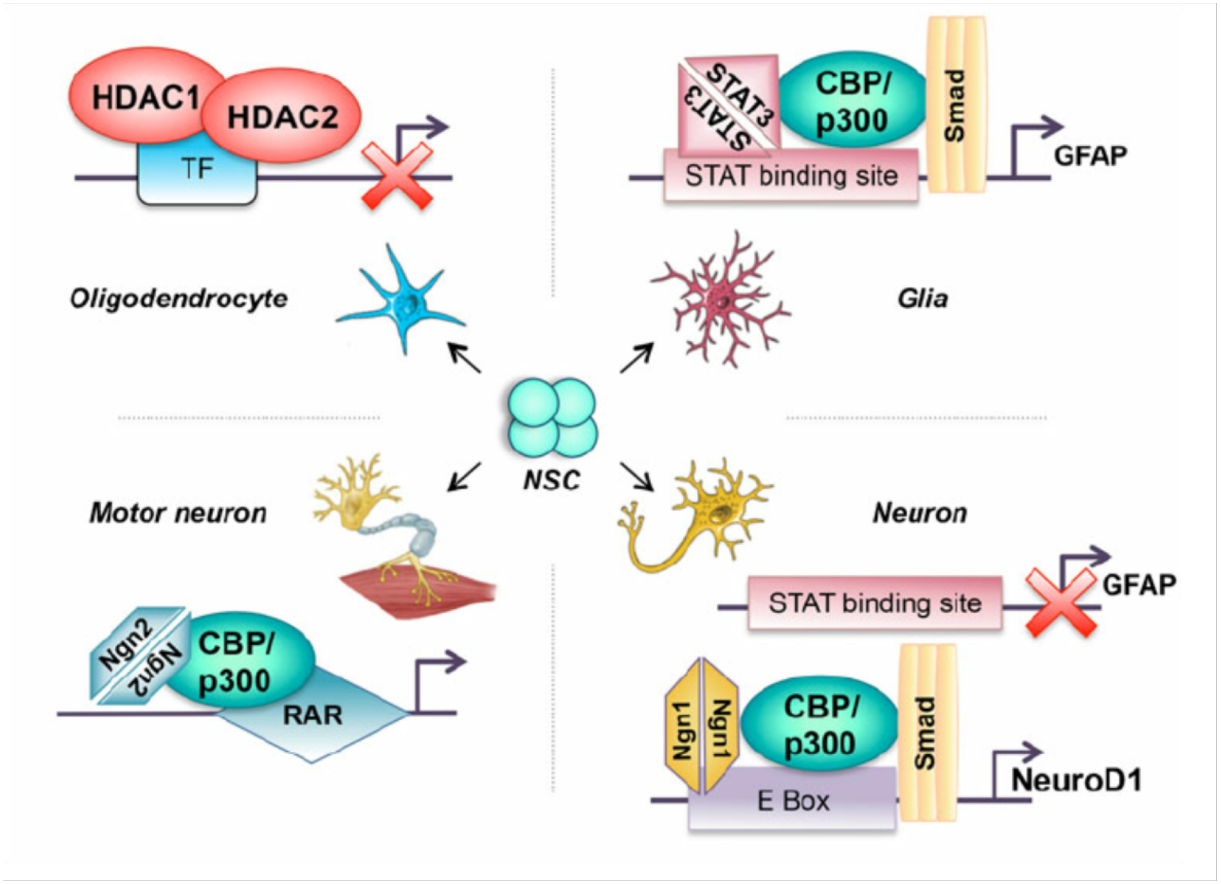


NFkappaB is a central regualtor of inflammatin that activates pro-inflammatory genes



Coactivators, such as CREB-binding protein (CBP), have intrinsic histone acetyltransferase (HAT) activity, resulting in opening up to the chromatin structure, which allows binding of RNA polymerase II and initiation of gene transcription. Several transcription factors interact with CBP, including cyclic AMP response element binding protein (CREB), nuclear factor (NF)-κB, activator protein (AP)-1 and signal transduction activated transcription factors (STATs).

Impact of HATs on gene expression:ACTIVATORS OF GENE EXPRESSION



Specific transciription factors recruit HATs to "open" chromatin and to open the promoter

Fig. 2 Role of acetylation in different lineage determination. The neural stem cells (NSCs) exist in a niche, which can be differentially modulated to specific neuronal lineages. A differential recruitment of specific transcription factors (TF) to the same acetyltransferases determine specific neural cell fates from the NSCs. Cyclic adenomonophosphate response element-binding (CREB) binding protein (CBP)/p300 histone acetyletransferases (HATs) interact with STAT and SMAD activating glial fibrillary acidic protein (GFAP) expression, thus specifying the glial lineage. Increased expression of neurogenin (Ngn1) titrates this complex, thus leading to the release of STAT, blocking GFAP expression. The new Ngn1–CBP/p300–SMAD complex subsequently binds to the E box elements, which results in a neuron cell type due to the activation of NeuroD1 expression [53]. CBP/p300 when bound to retinoic acid receptor (RAR) and neurogenin 2 (Ngn2) leads to a differentiation of the motor neuron cells. The deacetylases histone deacetylases (HDACs) HDAC1 and HDAC2 act as a general repressor, blocking the transcription factor and thereby resulting in oligodendrocyte specification