

Conditions for strand-exchange reaction. We first incubated Rad52 or RPA protein with ϕ X174 viral DNA (final concentration, 20 μ M in nucleotide) for 5 min at 37 °C in 9 μ l buffer (20 mM HEPES, pH 6.5, 1 mM DTT, 6.6 mM MgCl₂, 3 mM ATP, 20 mM creatine phosphate, 0.1 mg ml⁻¹ creatine kinase, 50 μ g ml⁻¹ BSA), then Rad51 protein (0.5 μ l of 123 μ M) was added. After 5 min of further incubation, 0.1 μ g of *Pst*I-linearized ϕ X174 dsDNA in 1 μ l and 100 mM MgCl₂ in 1 μ l were added to start the reaction. After incubation at 37 °C for the indicated times, SDS and proteinase K were added to final concentrations of 0.5% and 0.5 mg ml⁻¹, respectively, followed by a 20-min incubation. Samples were mixed with 1 μ l dye solution (0.01% of bromophenol blue, 20% glycerol) and analysed on a 0.9% agarose gel prepared in 1 \times TAE buffer (40 mM Tris-acetate, pH 7.5, 0.5 mM EDTA). Electrophoresis was for 15 h at 1.2 V cm⁻¹ at 4 °C. The gel was stained with 0.1 μ g ml⁻¹ of Syber green (Molecular Probe). The image of the gel was recorded with a CCD camera (Epi-UV FA1100, Aisin Cosmos); densitometric analysis was carried out using Quantity One software (PDI). Images were processed using Photoshop (Adobe). In the case of the RecA reaction, Rad51 was simply substituted by RecA (6 μ M).

Assay for ssDNA-dependent ATP hydrolysis. ATP hydrolysis was analysed in 10 μ l of buffer containing 20 mM HEPES, pH 6.5, 1 mM DTT, 5 mM MgCl₂, 0.2 mM ³²P- α -ATP, 50 μ g ml⁻¹ BSA, 20 μ M ssDNA at 37 °C. The reaction was started by addition of the indicated amounts of Rad51 protein. At the indicated time, 1- μ l aliquots were removed and directly spotted on a PEI paper. The PEI papers were developed in 0.85 M potassium phosphate (pH 2.8). Radioactive ATP and ADP spots were analysed by using the phosphorimager BAS2,000 (Fuji Film).

Gel shift assay of Rad52-p(dT)₆₀ complexes. 20 μ M (in nucleotide) of p(dT)₆₀ oligonucleotide whose 5' end was labelled with ³²P was incubated with Rad52 or Rad52-327 proteins in 10 μ l buffer (20 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.5, 1 mM DTT, 5 mM MgCl₂, 50 μ g ml⁻¹ BSA) at 37 °C for 10 min. Samples were analysed on a 1.0% of agarose gel in 0.1 \times TAE. Electrophoresis was done at 10 V cm⁻¹ for 90 min.

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Rad52 protein stimulates DNA strand exchange by Rad51 and replication protein A

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The generation of a double-strand break in the *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* genome is a potentially catastrophic event that can induce cell-cycle arrest or ultimately result in loss of cell viability. The repair of such lesions is strongly dependent on proteins encoded by the *RAD52* epistasis group of genes (*RAD50-55*, *RAD57*, *MRE11*, *XRS2*)^{1,2}, as well as the *RFA1*^{3,4} and *RAD59* genes⁵. *rad52* mutants exhibit the most severe phenotypic defects in double-strand break repair², but almost nothing is known about the biochemical role of Rad52 protein. Rad51 protein promotes DNA strand exchange^{6–8} and acts similarly to RecA protein⁹. Yeast Rad52 protein interacts with Rad51 protein^{10,11}, binds single-stranded DNA and stimulates annealing of complementary single-stranded DNA¹². We find that Rad52 protein stimulates DNA strand exchange by targeting Rad51 protein to a complex of replication protein A (RPA) with single-stranded DNA. Rad52 protein affects an early step in the reaction, presynaptic filament formation, by overcoming the inhibitory effects of the competitor, RPA. Furthermore, stimulation is dependent on the concerted action of both Rad51 protein and RPA, implying that specific protein–protein interactions between Rad52 protein, Rad51 protein and RPA are required.

As with the RecA protein¹³, assembly of a presynaptic filament composed of single-stranded (ss)DNA coated with Rad51 protein is a first step in DNA strand exchange. Secondary structure in ssDNA imposes a barrier to nucleoprotein filament continuity which RPA can overcome through its ability to destabilize duplex DNA^{14,15}. Although RPA is required for optimal DNA strand exchange and ATP hydrolysis by Rad51 protein, because of their shared ability to bind ssDNA they are potential competitors: when RPA binds ssDNA first, a long delay in ATP hydrolysis (T.S., unpublished observation) and a substantial decrease in the amount of DNA strand exchange results¹⁶. Thus, displacement of RPA is necessary to form an active presynaptic complex¹⁵. Double-stranded DNA (dsDNA) is a substrate in DNA strand exchange but, as it is readily bound by Rad51 protein, it can also be a competitor of presynaptic filament formation⁷. Because both RPA and dsDNA are present *in vivo*

during Rad51 protein–ssDNA assembly, some mechanism presumably exists to allow filament formation in the presence of these competitors.

To examine the impact of Rad52 protein on Rad51 protein-promoted DNA strand exchange, Rad52 protein was purified from *Escherichia coli*. Figure 1 shows DNA strand exchange reactions in which ssDNA was incubated with RPA for one minute before addition of Rad51 and Rad52 proteins. DNA strand exchange was initiated by addition of dsDNA at 1, 5 or 15 min after the addition of these proteins. Product formation is stimulated significantly by Rad52 protein (Fig. 1a, lanes 3, 5 and 7); at longer times (30 min), stimulation occurs, but the relative magnitude decreases, because Rad51 protein can slowly displace RPA (data not shown). Stimulation is not due to Rad52 protein-mediated DNA strand exchange because the reaction is completely dependent on Rad51 protein (Fig. 1a, lane 1). The Rad52 protein concentration is optimal for these reactions: halving its concentration reduces the yield by approximately half, whereas increasing it by 50% increases it negligibly (data not shown). These results parallel other recent

results¹⁷. Figure 2 shows the reaction time course. Rad52 protein increases the yield of paired products, but it has little impact on the progress of the reaction. These results indicate that Rad52 protein acts by increasing the amount of an essential DNA strand exchange participant, and that it does so by antagonizing the inhibitory effect of prebound RPA on the presynaptic phase of DNA strand exchange: we presume that Rad52 protein either increases dissociation of RPA and/or assembly of Rad51 protein.

To determine whether Rad52 protein moderates sequestration of Rad51 protein by dsDNA, Rad51 protein was incubated with dsDNA either in the simultaneous or subsequent presence of Rad52 protein; these DNA pairing reactions were completely blocked (data not shown), demonstrating that Rad52 protein does not reverse the inhibitory effect of Rad51 protein binding to dsDNA. Taken together, these results suggest that Rad52 protein facilitates the loading of Rad51 protein onto RPA–ssDNA.

The need for interaction between Rad52 protein and RPA, as previously suggested^{4,18}, was evaluated by substituting a ssDNA-binding protein for RPA. *E. coli* SSB protein, when added after Rad51 protein, stimulates its activity¹⁵; but when SSB protein is allowed to bind ssDNA before Rad51 protein is added, no product forms (Fig. 3). However, Rad52 protein cannot overcome this inhibition, even after 15 min of co-incubation, (Fig. 3, lanes 2 and 3) suggesting that a specific interaction between Rad52 protein and RPA is necessary for stimulation.

If Rad51 protein simply occupies a ssDNA site that is vacated by RPA, then RecA protein might act similarly; in contrast, if a Rad52–Rad51 protein interaction were essential, then RecA protein should not be stimulated by Rad52 protein. When RecA protein is substituted for Rad51 protein (Fig. 4), DNA strand exchange is efficient, even when RPA is allowed to prebind the ssDNA (Fig. 4, lane 2). However, when Rad52 protein is added (Fig. 4, lane 3), product formation is inhibited. Additionally, Rad52 protein completely blocks DNA strand exchange in an otherwise identical RecA protein reaction that used SSB protein instead of RPA (data not shown). From these experiments we conclude that the Rad52 protein–RPA interaction is not sufficient to stimulate RecA protein, and that the Rad51–Rad52 protein interaction is necessary for stimulation by Rad52 protein.

The potential of ssDNA-binding proteins to inhibit as well as to stimulate the activity of DNA strand exchange proteins underscores the need for proper coordination of the recombination machinery for efficient function. In this regard, the Rad51–Rad52–RPA system is like that of the bacteriophage T4 UvsX–UvsY–gene 32 protein recombination proteins, in which UvsY will stimulate DNA strand

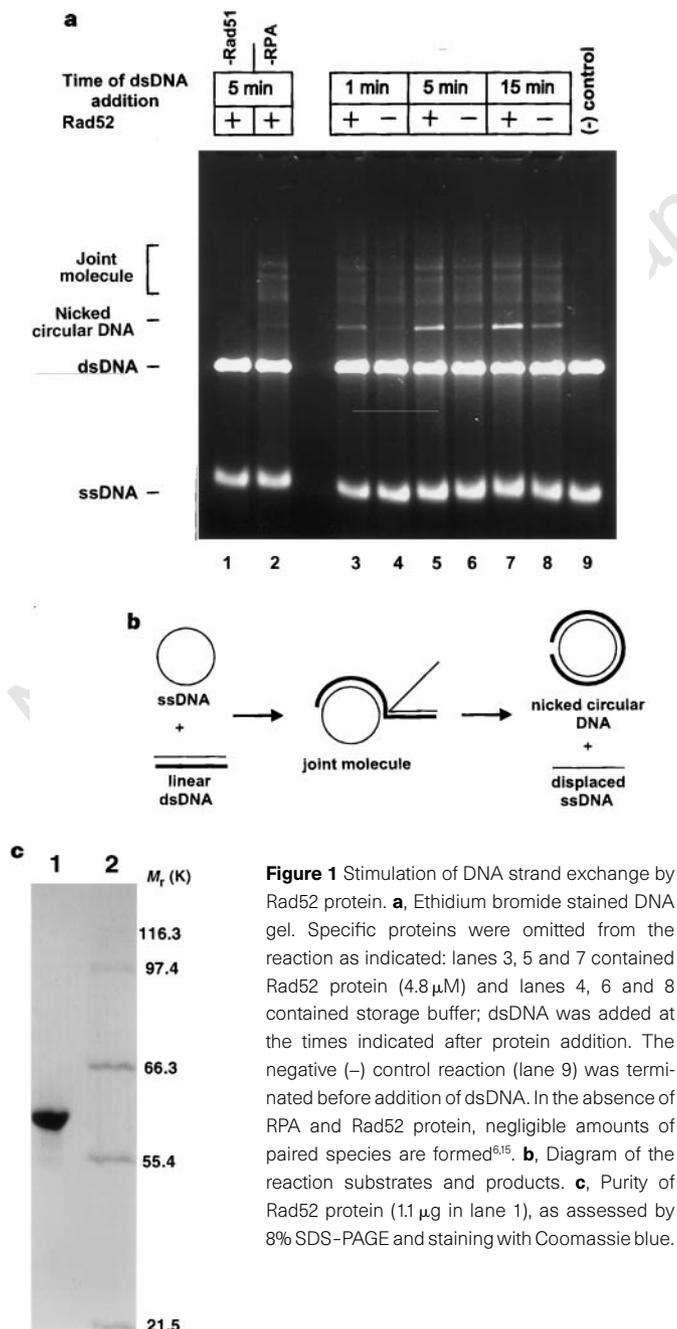


Figure 1 Stimulation of DNA strand exchange by Rad52 protein. **a**, Ethidium bromide stained DNA gel. Specific proteins were omitted from the reaction as indicated: lanes 3, 5 and 7 contained Rad52 protein (4.8 μ M) and lanes 4, 6 and 8 contained storage buffer; dsDNA was added at the times indicated after protein addition. The negative (-) control reaction (lane 9) was terminated before addition of dsDNA. In the absence of RPA and Rad52 protein, negligible amounts of paired species are formed^{6,15}. **b**, Diagram of the reaction substrates and products. **c**, Purity of Rad52 protein (1.1 μ g in lane 1), as assessed by 8% SDS-PAGE and staining with Coomassie blue.

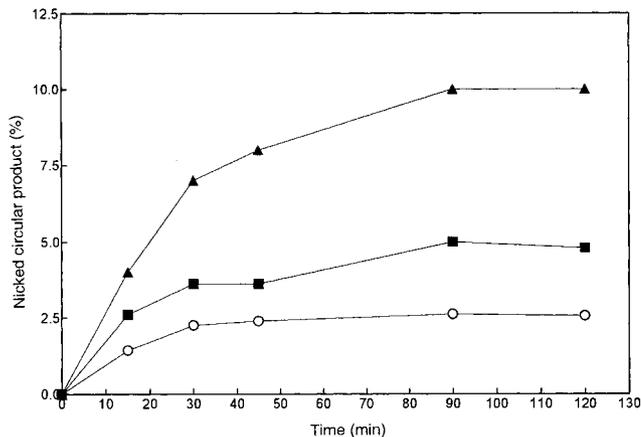


Figure 2 Time course for DNA strand exchange initiated at various times after addition of Rad52 protein. RPA was allowed to pre-bind ssDNA for 5 min before addition of Rad51 and Rad52 proteins, and DNA strand exchange was initiated by addition of dsDNA 1, 5 or 15 min after protein addition: Circles, 1 min; squares, 5 min; triangles, 15 min.

exchange by UvsX using a preformed gene 32 protein-ssDNA complex¹⁹. Like Rad51 protein, UvsX binds both dsDNA and ssDNA⁹, and, like Rad52 protein, UvsY interacts with the strand exchange protein UvsX and the ssDNA-binding protein gene 32 protein²⁰. Although the activities of Rad52 protein described here are important in double-strand DNA break repair and homologous recombination, they cannot completely account for all of the roles of *RAD52* in these processes. Other studies have suggested additional *RAD51*-independent functions for *RAD52* (refs 21, 22): whether or not these are dependent on the intrinsic ability of Rad52 protein to renature complementary ssDNA, on other as-yet

undefined biochemical activities, or on additional protein factors remains to be investigated. □

Methods

Strains and plasmids. BL21(DE3) $\Delta recA$ was constructed by E. Zaitsev of this laboratory, and BLR containing pLysS was from Novagen. PEZRad51 (Rad51 protein overexpression) and pEZRad52/3 (Rad52 protein overexpression) were constructed by cloning of the *RAD51* and *RAD52* (from the third ATG codon) ORFs into pET3a and pET21a (Novagen), respectively. Constructs were confirmed by sequence analysis.

Rad52 protein purification. A 12-litre culture of BL21(DE3) $\Delta recA$ containing pEZRad52/3 was grown at 30 °C in LB broth (Ap; 100 g ml⁻¹) and induced at $A_{600} = 1$ (IPTG, 0.1 mM final concentration) for 1 h. Cells were resuspended in 5 volumes of lysis buffer (450 mM NaCl in M₂₀DEG buffer (50 mM MES (pH 6.5), 1 mM DTT, 1 mM EDTA, 10% glycerol)); lysed by passage through a French press at 4 °C; and PMSF (1 mM), benzamide (10 mM), and pepstatin A (1 µg ml⁻¹) added. After a low-speed spin (6,000 r.p.m., 10 min), the supernatant was loaded onto Q-Sepharose (35 ml). Ammonium sulphate (0.29 g ml⁻¹) was added to the flow-through fraction and, following dialysis of the pellet against lysis buffer, the solution was diluted 3-fold with M₂₀DEG buffer and applied to a P-11 phosphocellulose column (35 ml). Peak fractions (eluting at 400 mM NaCl in M₂₀DEG buffer) were diluted 2-fold with M₂₀DEG buffer and loaded onto ssDNA-cellulose (50 ml) which was washed with steps of 0.3 M and 0.6 M NaCl in M₂₀DEG buffer. The last wash was applied to a hydroxyapatite column (4 ml) and fractionated with a 10–200 mM potassium phosphate gradient in 0.2 M NaCl in M₂₀DG buffer. Rad52 protein eluted at 90 mM potassium phosphate, was made 1 M in NaCl, dialysed against 1 M NaCl in T₂₀DEG buffer (20 mM Tris-HCl (pH 7.5), 1 mM DTT, 1 mM EDTA, 10% glycerol) and loaded onto Superose-12 (25 ml). Rad52 protein, which eluted in the void volume, was dialysed against storage buffer (175 mM NaCl in T₂₀DEG buffer) and stored at -80 °C. Protein concentration was determined using an extinction coefficient of 2.43×10^4 at 280 nm. Approximately 1–2 mg purified protein was recovered from 10 g of cells. The identity of the protein was confirmed by immunoblotting.

Rad51 protein and RPA. Rad51 protein was purified as described⁶, but with addition of a Cibacron-blue chromatography step (Rad51 protein eluted at 1 M KCl) and omission of gel filtration. RPA was purified as described¹⁵.

DNA strand exchange. Reactions (12.5 µl) contained 42 mM MOPS (pH 7.4), 3 mM magnesium acetate, 1 mM DTT, 25 µg ml⁻¹ BSA, 2.5 mM ATP, and 33 µM (nucleotides) Φ X174 ssDNA (New England Biolabs). RPA (1 µM) or SSB protein (18 µM) was added and incubated at 37 °C for 1 min, at which time Rad51 (13 µM) and Rad52 (3.2 µM) proteins were added. After further incubation for the indicated times, *Pst*I-linearized Φ X174 dsDNA (33 µM nucleotides) and spermidine acetate (4 mM) were added. Reactions were terminated after 90 min, or as indicated otherwise, and analysed¹⁵.

RecA protein reactions were similar, except that the ATP concentration was 1 mM, an ATP regeneration system was included²³, dsDNA was added 1 min after addition of the last protein, and spermidine acetate was omitted.

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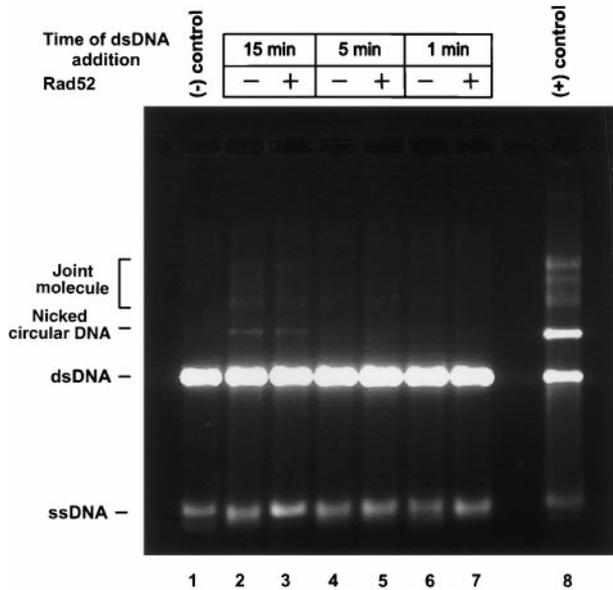


Figure 3 Inhibition of DNA strand exchange by SSB protein is not overcome by Rad52 protein. Standard reactions were performed, except that RPA was replaced by SSB protein (18 µM). Rad52 protein was added to reactions as indicated (lanes 3, 5 and 7), and dsDNA was added after Rad52 protein or buffer at indicated times. The negative (-) control reaction (lane 1) was the same as for Fig. 1. In the positive (+) control reaction (lane 8), the reaction was staged so that Rad51 protein was assembled on ssDNA first and, after a 15-min incubation at 37 °C, SSB protein was added; 15 min later, dsDNA was added to initiate the reaction.

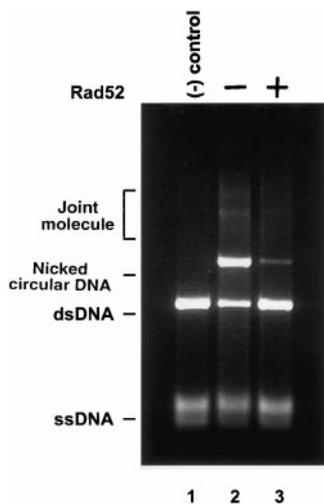


Figure 4 Rad52 protein does not stimulate *RecA* protein-promoted DNA strand exchange. Standard reactions containing RPA were supplemented with an ATP regeneration system, and Rad51 protein was replaced by *RecA* protein (10 µM). Rad52 protein or buffer was added (lanes 3 and 2, respectively) in the standard manner.

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Crystal structure of p50/p65 heterodimer of transcription factor NF- κ B bound to DNA

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The NF- κ B p50/p65 heterodimer is the classical member of the Rel family of transcription factors which regulate diverse cellular functions such as immune response, cell growth, and development^{1–3}. Other mammalian Rel family members, including the proteins p52, proto-oncoprotein c-Rel, and RelB, all have amino-terminal Rel-homology regions (RHRs)^{4–7}. The RHR is responsible for the dimerization, DNA binding and cytosolic localization of these proteins by virtue of complex formation with inhibitor κ B proteins⁸. Signal-induced removal of κ B inhibitors allows translocation of dimers to the cell nucleus and transcriptional regulation of κ B DNA-containing genes⁹. NF- κ B specifically recognizes κ B DNA elements^{10,11} with a consensus sequence of 5'-GGGRNYYCC-3' (R is an unspecified purine; Y is an unspecified pyrimidine; and N is any nucleotide). Here we report the crystal structure at 2.9 Å resolution of the p50/p65 heterodimer bound to the κ B DNA of the intronic enhancer of the immunoglobulin light-chain gene. Our structure reveals a 5-base-pair 5' subsite for p50, and a 4-base-pair 3' subsite for p65. This structure indicates why the p50/p65 heterodimer interface is stronger than that of either homodimer. A comparison of this structure with those of other Rel dimers reveals that both subunits adopt variable conformations in a DNA-sequence-dependent manner. Our results explain the different behaviour of the p50/p65 heterodimer with heterologous promoters.

The overall structure of the p50/p65 heterodimer is consistent with that of other Rel family proteins (Fig. 1a)^{12,13,31}. Each subunit

consists of two immunoglobulin-like domains connected by a 10-amino-acid flexible linker. Dimers form through a β -sheet sandwich of the carboxy-terminal dimerization domains. Unlike most DNA-binding proteins, which use α -helices for base-pair recognition, Rel family dimers use loops from the edges of the N- and C-terminal domains to mediate DNA contacts (Fig. 2a). Secondary structures of the subunits are equivalent, apart from a 32-amino-acid insert in the N-terminal domain of p50 that adds a second α -helix (Fig. 1b) (to simplify description, p50 residues will be written in normal type and p65 residues will be written in italics).

Dimerization in the heterodimer is localized to the C-terminal domains and consists of a hydrophobic core stapled by various polar interactions (Fig. 2b). The backbones of the dimerization domains are highly similar and superimpose with a root-mean-square deviation (r.m.s.d.) of 1.10 Å. The buried surface area upon dimerization is 1,442 Å². Of particular interest is the hydrogen bond between homologous residues Asp 254 of p50 and Asn 200 of p65, which is unique in the heterodimer. In the homodimers, an interaction between homologous residues is energetically unfavourable because this juxtaposes two like charges. Also of interest are nine polar contacts, most of which occur between the backbones of hydrophobic core residues and the side chains of hydrogen-bonding residues. These results are consistent with the observation that the affinity between homodimers of p50 and p65 is weaker than for the heterodimers¹⁴.

The co-crystallized DNA consists of 11 base pairs with a complementary overhanging base on each end (Fig. 1c). The 3' ten base pairs of the target DNA define the immunoglobulin(Ig) κ B element. Analysis of the central 11 base pairs with the program CURVES¹⁵ revealed a 14-degree bend. The bases T₀ and G₋₁ are also twisted out of plane owing to this DNA bending. This DNA bending agrees with biochemical experiments indicating that the p50/p65 heterodimer induces a 17-degree bend in H2- κ B DNA¹⁶.

Previous experiments have indicated that the p50 subunit preferentially occupies the 5' end of an Ig- κ B target DNA^{2,10,14}. The heterodimer crystal structure not only confirms this orientation, but also demonstrates the exact positioning (Fig. 3a). The observed base-specific contacts support the idea that the Ig- κ B site consists of a 5-base-pair 5'-GGGAC-3' subsite contacted by p50, and a 4-base-pair 5'-TTCC-3' subsite contacted by p65. Upon binding to DNA, the heterodimer buries 3,754 Å² of the total solvent-accessible surface area, of which 58% is derived from interaction with p50. Overall, the DNA contacts mediated by p50 and p65 in the heterodimer structure are similar to those in the homodimer structures^{12,13}.

Base-specific binding by p50 to the subsite occurs through the residues Arg 54, Arg 56, Tyr 57, Glu 60, His 64 and Lys 241 (Fig. 3b, top). The strict conservation of the first three guanines in the p50 subsite is determined by the hydrogen bonds made by His 64 with the N7 group of G₋₅, and by Arg 56 and Arg 54 with both the N7 and O6 groups of G₋₄ and G₋₃. This interaction is strengthened by Glu 60, which hydrogen-bonds with these arginines and makes base-specific contacts to the N4 groups of C₋₅ and C₋₄. Tyr 57 makes van der Waals contacts with C₋₃ and T₋₂ and is itself strongly

Table 1 Data collection and structure refinement statistics

Data collection					
Resolution	Total reflections	Unique data	R_{merge}	I/σ (last shell)	Completeness (last shell)
2.9 Å	88,449	26,430	0.082	15.8 (3.1)	97.2 (88.6)
Refinement					
Resolution (Å)	Reflections ($F_o > 2\sigma$)	Atoms protein/DNA	R factor (%) [*] R_{work} R_{free}	Bonds (Å)	R.m.s.d. Angles (°)
8.0–2.9	19562	4629/486	21.0 32.1	0.014	1.97

^{*} $R_{\text{work}} = \sum ||F_o| - |F_c|| / \sum F_o$, $R_{\text{free}} = \sum ||F_o| - |F_c|| / \sum F_o$, where T is a test set containing a randomly selected 5% of the observations omitted from the refinement.