

Dissertation zur Erlangung des Doktorgrades der Fakultät für Chemie und Pharmazie der Ludwig-Maximilians-Universität München

Conserved architecture of the core RNA polymerase II transcription initiation complex and an integrative model of Ctk3

Wolfgang Mühlbacher aus Bad Reichenhall, Deutschland

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Erklärung

Diese Dissertation wurde im Sinne von § 7 der Promotionsordnung vom 28. November 2011 von Herrn Prof. Dr. Patrick Cramer betreut.

Eidesstattliche Versicherung

Diese Dissertation wurde selbstständig und ohne unerlaubte Hilfe erarbeitet.

Göttingen, den 04.08.2015

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Wolfgang Mühlbacher

1. Gutachter **Prof. Dr. Patrick Cramer**

2. Gutachter PD Dr. Dietmar Martin

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Summary

Within this work, insights into the structure of the transcription initiation complex of RNA polymerase (Pol) II as well as into the CTDK-I complex that promotes transcription elongation were gained. During transcription initiation at promoters of protein-coding genes, Pol II assembles with TBP, TFIIB, and TFIIF into a conserved core initiation complex that recruits additional factors. The core complex stabilizes open DNA and initiates RNA synthesis, and it is conserved in the Pol I and Pol III transcription systems.

In the first part of this thesis, a protein-protein crosslinking approach was used to identify side-specific distance restraints by using mass spectrometry (MS). With this method, the domain architecture of the yeast core pol II initiation complex during transcription initiation was derived. The yeast complex resembles the human initiation complex and reveals that the TFIIF Tfg2 winged helix domain shows unexpected movement and swings over promoter DNA. An 'arm' and a 'charged helix' in TFIIF function in transcription start site selection and initial RNA synthesis, respectively, and apparently extend into the active center cleft of Pol II. Our model provides the basis for further structure-function analysis of the entire transcription initiation complex.

The second part of this work focuses on CTDK-I, a yeast kinase complex, that phosphorylates the C-terminal repeat domain (CTD) of RNA polymerase II (Pol II) to promote transcription elongation. CTDK-I consists of the cyclin-dependent kinase Ctk1 (homologous to human CDK12 and to a lower degree CDK9), the cyclin Ctk2 (homologous to human cyclin K), and the yeast-specific subunit Ctk3, which has been shown to be required for CTDK-I stability and activity. Ctk3 consists of a noncanonical CTD-interacting domain (CID) located at the N-terminal end and a predicted three-helix bundle domain at the C-terminal. We determine the X-ray crystal structure of the N-terminal domain of the Ctk3 homologue Lsg1 from the fission yeast *Schizosaccharomyces pombe* at 2.0 Å resolution. The structure reveals eight helices arranged into a right-handed superhelical fold that resembles the CID domain present in the yeast transcription termination factors Pcf11, Nrd1, and Rtt103.

Ctk3 however shows different surface properties and no binding to the CTD, which was determined by fluorescence anisotropy binding assays. Together with the known structure of Ctk1 and Ctk2 homologues, our results lead to a molecular framework for future work to further analyze the structure and function of the CTDK-I complex.

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Publications

Part of this work has been published or is in the process of being published.

Wolfgang Mühlbacher*, Sarah Sainsbury*, Matthias Hemann, Merle Hantsche, Franz Herzog, and Patrick Cramer. Conserved architecture of the core RNA polymerase IIinitiation complex. *Nature comm*. 2014;5:4310.

* equally contributed.

Wolfgang Mühlbacher, Andreas Mayer, Mai Sun, Michael Remmert, Alan C.M. Cheung, Jürgen Niesser, Johannes Soeding and Patrick Cramer. The RNA polymerase II CTD kinase complex subunit Ctk3 contains a non-canonical CTDinteracting domain. *Proteins* 2015; Accepted Article.

Jürgen Niesser, Felix Roman Wagner, Dirk Kostrewa, Wolfgang Mühlbacher, Patrick Cramer. Structure of a GPN-loop GTPase chaperone and RNA polymerase II assembly factor. *EMBO J.* 2015*;* under review.

Contents

1.1 Gene transcription

The transcription of DNA to RNA molecules catalyzed by DNA dependent RNA polymerases (Pol) represents a fundamental biological process found in all living organisms. During gene transcription the generated RNA molecules often serve as templates for protein synthesis¹. Transcription in eukaryotes is carried out by three different nuclear RNA polymerases: RNA polymerase (Pol) I, Pol II, and Pol III². Pol I synthesizes ribosomal RNAs (rRNAs), whereas Pol II produces all protein-coding messenger RNA (mRNA), small nuclear RNAs (snRNAs) and small nucleolar RNAs (snoRNAs). Finally, Pol III synthesizes transfer RNAs (tRNAs), 5S rRNA, and diverse small RNAs^{3,4}. In plants, a fourth (Pol IV) and fifth (Pol V) RNA polymerase synthesize RNAs involved in gene silencing. For genome transcription in chloroplasts and mitochondria, dedicated polymerases are present^{5,6}. All RNA polymerases exhibit homology within their largest subunits, ranging from bacterial over archaeal to eukaryotes.

Pol I, II and III are multi-subunit complexes and share a conserved core of ten subunits and additional subsets of up to seven subunits. Pol II is composed of 12 subunits Rpb1 to Rpb12, of which Rpb1 represents the largest subunit.

Rpb1 has a unique, highly repetitive C-terminal domain (CTD) which plays a key role in the cycle of eukaryotic transcription (see Sections 1.4) 7,8 .

1.2 Transcription cycle and the chromatin environment

The Pol II transcription cycle has been divided into five defined phases: Transcription pre-initiation, initiation, elongation, termination and re-initiation^{9,10}. All transcription cycle events are precisely coordinated and controlled. Specific subsets of accessory proteins are needed to form complex networks which are required of regulation¹¹.

In a higher level of complexity, the genome is organized as chromatin. Various proteins are associated with chromatin, including the histones which are needed for the compact packaging of the genome. Moreover, interactions of diverse factors, such as histone modifying enzymes and chromatin remodelers may facilitate and regulate gene expression (for a more detailed overview see Figure 1B) 12 .

1.2.1 Initiation

Before initiation occurs, Pol II needs to bind the promoter DNA together with the general transcription factors TFIIA, TFIIB, TFIID, TFIIE, TFIIF and TFIIH to form a pre-initiation complex¹³⁻¹⁵. In addition, the pre-initiation complex bind to large coactivator complexes like Mediator or SAGA to facilitate transcription in different gene classes¹⁶. Coactivators link signals from gene-specific activators which bind upstream to the core promoter region (see Figure $1A$)¹⁷. In the complete pre-initiation complex, the double stranded DNA is melted (open complex) and the nascent RNA molecules can be synthesized (initially transcribing complex)^{18,19}. A detailed list of all GTFs and the corresponding functions is depicted in Table 1.

B) Pre-Initiation Complex Assembly

Figure 1 Promoter recognition and assembly of the pre-initiation complex**.**

(A) Binding of the activator to its enhancer sequence leads to the recruitment of the GTFs which bind to the core promoter elements (CPEs): TATA box, upstream and downstream B recognition element (BREu/d), Initiator sequence (Inr) and downstream promoter element (DPE). The TATA box is occupied by the TBP containing TFIID complex and TFIIB binds the BRE elements which play a role in the recruitment of Pol II and TFIIF and further $GTFs^{20}$. Histone modifying enzymes (e.g. acetyltransferases, methyltransferases and nucleosome remodelers) alter the chromatin environment which is required for transcription. **(B)** The assembled PIC consists of the Pol II, GTFs and the mediator 13 . Nucleosomes which are close to the promoter DNA comprise distinct histone modifications like methylation of H3K4 (at the lysine 4 which of histone 3; yellow circles) and acetylation of H3K9/14 (green triangles) for active gene transcription. The repetitive CTD tail of Pol II is hyperphosphorylated at position serine 5 (green circles). Adapted from 12 .

Table 1: Pol II, its corresponding General Transcription Factors and the coactivators. Text in table was adapted from 14

1.2.2 Elongation

To facilitate the transition from transcription initiation to the processive elongation phase, a transcription elongation complex (TEC) needs to be formed, comprising its own set of distinct proteins, the transcription elongation factors $(EFs)^{21,22}$. The EFs can influence the processivity and rate of Pol II as well as the chromatin environment to guarantee and control the productive synthesis of nascent RNA molecules $^{23-25}$. TFIIS is a key player to stimulate the productive transcription state of Pol II, by inhibition of promoter pausing, backtracking events and cleavage of the mRNA 25,26 .

1.2.3 Termination and re-initiation

Transcription termination is coupled with the cleavage of the 3'-end of the synthesized mRNA strand. Thereby, the polyadenylation (pA) site of the nascent mRNA serves as a marker to initiate mRNA cleavage²⁷. Downstream of the pA site Pol II dissociates from the DNA template and transcription is terminated 28,29 .

To close the transcription cycle, Pol II and the GTFs can again re-initiate another cycle of gene transcription. Some factors remain bound to the promoter DNA such as: TFIID, TFIIE, TFIIF and the Mediator complex to facilitate a subsequent round of transcription³⁰.

1.3 Architecture of the core RNA polymerase II transcription initiation complex

The following introductory text in Section 1.3 was published.

Wolfgang Mühlbacher*, Sarah Sainsbury*, Matthias Hemann, Merle Hantsche, Franz Herzog, and Patrick Cramer. Conserved architecture of the core RNA polymerase IIinitiation complex. *Nature comm*. 2014;5:4310.

*These authors contributed equally.

1.3.1 From pre-initiation to the initially transcribing complex (ITC)

During assembly of the transcription pre-initiation complex (PIC), the Pol II-TFIIF complex binds to a TFIIB-TBP-DNA promoter assembly, resulting in a core initiation complex $31,32$. The structure and function of the core initiation complex is conserved from yeast to human, and also in the two other eukaryotic transcription systems³³. Pol I and Pol III both contain a TFIIF-like subcomplex, and they also use TBP and a TFIIB-like factor for initiation. The conserved core initiation complex stabilizes open promoter DNA and directs initial RNA synthesis, resulting in the initially transcribing complex (ITC).

In the Pol II system, the core initiation complex additionally binds TFIIE and TFIIH to form a complete pre-initiation complex (PIC). Architectural models of the yeast Pol II PIC were obtained by site-specific protein cleavage mapping $34-36$. The architecture of the human PIC was obtained by electron microscopy (EM) 37 , and generally resembled that of the yeast PIC. Recently, an alternative model of the yeast PIC was derived based on a combination of EM and protein crosslinking coupled to mass spectrometry $(XL\text{-MS})^{38}$, raising the question whether the PIC architecture is indeed conserved between eukaryotic species.

We have previously modelled the architecture of the core Pol II initiation complex³⁹ by structural superposition of our Pol II-TFIIB crystal structures^{40,41} with a Pol II-TFIIF complex model obtained by XL-MS⁴². However, the model awaited experimental confirmation because both TFIIF and TFIIB are modular factors with flexible domains that may be repositioned upon complex assembly.

The N-terminal regions of TFIIF subunits Tfg1 and Tfg2 form a dimerization module, whereas their flexibly linked C-terminal regions each include a winged helix (WH) domain. TFIIB consists of a N-terminal zinc ribbon domain followed by the reader and linker regions and two C-terminal cyclin domains.

1.3.2 Protein crosslinking of the ITC

In the first part of the thesis we used protein-protein crosslinking and mass spectrometric identification to derive a model of the core ITC from yeast. The yeast complex resembles the previously published human counterpart³⁷, indicating that the core initiation complex is conserved between eukaryotic species. The results also reveal a new element, the charged helix in the TFIIF subunit Tfg1, demonstrate that the Tfg2 WH domain can swing over the DNA after it was loaded into the active center cleft, and provide a basis for elucidating the architecture of the entire initiation complex.

1.4 The CTD of Pol II and the CTD kinase I complex (CTDK-I)

Wolfgang Mühlbacher, Andreas Mayer, Mai Sun, Michael Remmert, Alan C.M. Cheung, Jürgen Niesser, Johannes Soeding and Patrick Cramer. The RNA polymerase II CTD kinase complex subunit Ctk3 contains a non-canonical CTDinteracting domain. *Proteins* 2015; Accepted Article.

1.4.1 The Pol II C-terminal repeat domain (CTD)

The CTD of Rpb1 in Pol II consists of 26 (yeast) and 52 (human) heptapeptide repeats with the consensus sequence Tyr1-Ser2-Pro3-Thr4-Ser5-Pro6-Ser7^{8,43}. The CTD serves as a binding platform for various factors during transcription, including pre-mRNA processing factors. During the transcription cycle, the CTD changes its phosphorylation pattern and this alters its binding affinity to factors^{7,21,44,45}. Phosphorylation at position Ser5 is associated with pre-mRNA capping in early transcription elongation complexes⁴⁶. Ser2 phosphorylation has been implicated in both elongation and termination events. The CTD residues Tyr1, Thr4, and Ser7 can also be phosphorylated⁴⁷⁻⁵⁰.

1.4.2 Phosphorylation of the CTD

CTD phosphorylation is accomplished by four different cyclin-dependent kinases (CDKs) in yeast, namely Kin28, Srb10, Bur1, and Ctk1⁷. The Kin28 kinase and its human counterpart CDK7 are subunits of the initiation factor TFIIH and phosphorylate the CTD at position $Ser5⁵¹⁻⁵³$. The Srb10 kinase associates with cyclin Srb11 and resides within the Mediator coactivator complex. The Srb10-Srb11 pair phosphorylates both Ser2 and Ser5 residues and is related to the mammalian pair CDK8-cyclin $C^{54,55}$. The CTD kinases Bur1 and Ctk1 are Ser2 kinases and both share homology with mammalian CDK9, a subunit of positive transcription elongation factor b (P-TEFb), which induces productive elongation⁵⁶⁻⁵⁸. Ctk1 is the main Ser2 kinase in yeast, whereas Bur1 phosphorylates both Ser2 and the elongation factor Spt4/5⁵⁹,^{60,61}. Bur1 also play a role in histone modification⁶². The transition from transcription initiation to elongation requires, in addition to Ser2 phosphorylation, dephosphorylation of Ser5 residues by Rtr1 and $Ssu72^{63,64}$. Bur1 activity is controlled by cyclin Bur2^{58,65}. Yeast Ctk1 and Bur1 kinases appear to be orthologues to metazoan Cdk12 and Cdk9, respectively⁶⁶.

1.4.3 The elongation promoting complex CTDK-I

Ctk1 (also known as Lsk1 in *S. pombe*) associates with its cyclin partner Ctk2 (*S. pombe* Lsc1) and a third subunit, Ctk3 (*S. pombe* Lsg1), to form the CTD kinase I (CTDK-I) complex $67-71$. This trimeric structure is unique amongst CDK complexes $68,72$. *S. cerevisiae* Ctk3 and *S. pombe* Lsg1 share 24% amino acid sequence identity, and associate with Ctk1/Ctk2 and *S. pombe* Lsk1/Lsc1, respectively^{69-71,73,74}. Throughout this work, we refer to *S. pombe* Lsg1 as Ctk3. In *S. cerevisiae*, the activity of Ctk1 and Ctk2 are strongly dependent on the binding to Ctk3 $67,75$. The Ctk3 C-terminal region is involved in the stabilization of the Ctk2-Ctk3 heterodimer and CTDK-I function⁶⁷. Recruitment of Ctk1 *in vivo* relies to some extent on the completion of the pre-mRNA 5'-cap structure⁷⁶, but there are additional, unknown mechanisms of CTDK-I recruitment. Ctk3 may function in CTDK-I recruitment, although Ctk3 does not have counterparts in metazoa^{68,72}.

2 Materials and Methods

2.1 Materials

2.1.1 Bacterial and Yeast strains

Table 2: Bacterial and Yeast strains.

2.1.2 Plasmids and oligonucleotides

Table 3: Plasmids used in this study.

Sc, *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*; *Sm, Saccharomyces mikatae; Sp, Schizozaccharomyces pombe*; *Ca, Candida albicans;* Kan, Kanamycin; Amp, Ampicillin; cloned by Kerstin Kinkelin, KK; Michela Bertero, MB; Sarah Sainsbury, SS. A detailed list of DNA oligonucleotides used for cloning can be obtained from the Cramer group.

Table 4: Oligonucleotides used for Protein crosslinking.

2.1.3 Growth media and additives

Table 5: Growth media for E. coli and S. cerevisiae cultures.

Table 6: Additives for E. coli cultures.

IPTG = Isopropyl-β-D-1- thiogalactopyranoside.

2.1.4 General buffers, markers and solutions

Name	Description	Application
Electrophoresis buffer	NuPAGE MOPS buffer 10x (Life	SDS-PAGE
	Technologies)	
5x SDS sample buffer	250 mM Tris-HCI (pH 7.0 at 25°C); 50%	SDS-PAGE
	(v/v)	
	glycerol; 0.5% (w/v) bromophenol blue;	
	7.5%	
	(w/v) SDS; 500 mM DTT	
$20 \times MES$ SDS	50 mM MES; 50 mM Tris Base; 0.1%	SDS-PAGE
running buffer	SDS:	
	1 mM EDTA; pH 7.3 at 25°C	
20 x MOPS SDS	50 mM MOPS; 50 mM Tris Base; 0.1%	SDS-PAGE
running buffer	SDS;	
	1 mM EDTA; pH 7.7 at 25°C	
Broad range MW	Bio-Rad	SDS-PAGE
marker		
SDS-PAGE stain	Instantblue (Expedion)	SDS-PAGE
Coomassie gel	50% (v/v) ethanol; 7% (v/v) acetic acid;	SDS-PAGE
staining solution	0.125%	
	(w/v) Coomassie Brilliant Blue R-250	
100x PI	0.028 mg/mL Leupeptin, 0.137 mg/mL	Protease
	Pepstatin A, 0.017 mg/mL PMSF, 0.33	Inhibitor
	mg/mL Benzamidine in Ethanol	
10x TAE	50 mM EDTA pH 8, 2.5 M Tris-acetate	Agarose gel
		electrophoresis
SYBR Safe	Invitrogen	Agarose gel
$(10,000 \times$		electrophoresis
in DMSO)		
Gene Ruler 1 kb DNA	Fermentas	Agarose gel
ladder (0.1 µg/µL)		electrophoresis
$1 \times TE$	10 mM Tris-HCl (pH 8.0 at 25°C); 1 mM EDTA	Oligonucleotides

Table 7: List of general buffers and solutions.

2.2 Common Methods

2.2.1 Molecular cloning

Polymerase Chain Reaction (PCR)

Primers were designed by using an overhang of nucleotides at the 5' end (5' - AGGAGGAGG- 3'), followed by a restriction side and 20 or more nucleotides complementary to the gene sequence of interest. PCR reactions were carried out with Phusion High-Fidelity DNA Polymerase (Finnzymes), in a 50 µL reaction volume. 50 ng Synthesized oligonucleotide plasmids were used as template DNA. 0.5 pmol/µL PCR primers were used in each reaction. Reactions took place in Biometra T3000 Thermocycler with 30 cycles. Primer annealing temperature and synthesis time varied according to the length of DNA template and primer. PCR products were visualized by using 1% agarose gel electrophoresis and Sybr-Safe staining. Purification of the DNA was carried out with QIAquick gel extraction kit (Quiagen).

Enzymatic restriction cleavage

DNA was digested using restriction endonucleases from Fermentas and New England Biolabs (NEB) as recommended in the producers guidelines. Cleaved PCR products and plasmids were purified using the QIAquick-PCR purification and –gel extraction kits (both Quiagen), respectively.

Ligation

Digested DNA was ligated into linearized vectors at room temperature for 1 hour in a volume of 20 µl using T4 DNA ligase and its corresponding buffer (Fermentas). A 5 fold excess of insert, relative to the linearized vector was used.

Transformation and sequencing

Chemically competent *E. coli* XL-1 blue cells (Table 2) were mixed with 50 µL DNA plasmids and transformed by heat shocking on 42 $\,^0$ C for 45 sec. 700 µL LB Medium was added and incubated at 37 ^oC for 1 h. After sedimentation (30 sec, 14000 rpm), the cells were re-suspended in 200 µL LB-Medium and transferred to LB-Agar plates, containing the corresponding antibiotics for selection. The plates were incubatet at 37 $\mathrm{^0C}$ over night. 5 mL LB media was inoculated by a single bacteria colony, representing a single clone, and further incubated at 37 ^oC over night and used for the preparation of plasmid DNA using the QIAquick Miniprep Kit (Qiagen). Isolated plasmids were verified by DNA sequencing (Company: GATC).

2.2.2 Protein expression in *E. coli* and complex formation

Protein expression and purification

E. coli cultures were expressed and purified following the respective sections in 2.3 and 2.4. In general, cultures with volumes from 1-8 L LB were inoculated with 50 mL pre-culture, which was incubated over-night. All cultures contained the antibiotics corresponding to the resistance of the transformed vector. Cell were grown to a target OD $_{600}$ of 0.6-0.9 and induced by the addition of 0.5 mM IPTG to start protein expression. Proteins were expressed at 18°C overnight. Recombinant proteins were purified using affinity purification, ion exchange and subsequent size exclusion chromatography.

Protein concentrating, and storage

Proteins were concentrated by AMICON Ultra spin concentrators (Millipore) with defined molecular weight cutoffs, at least three-fold smaller than the target protein. Protein concentration was determined by using the NanoDrop spectrophotometer (absorption at 280 nm). Absorption coefficients were calculated by the ProtParam tool (http://expasy.org/tools/protparam.html). Purified protein samples were frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at -80 °C.

SDS-PAGE analysis and protein identification

Sodium dodecyl sulphate polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (SDS-PAGE) was used to determine the stoichiometry and the approximate concentration of protein samples. 20 μL protein solution and 5 μl 5x sample buffer were mixed together and boiled at 95 °C for 3 min. 15 μL protein samples were loaded into the gel-pockets. Gel electrophoresis took place at 100 mA for 30 min. Gel staining was accomplished using InstantBlue (Expedeon) for 30 min. Protein samples were identified by massspectrometry analysis from the protein core facility of the Adolf-Butenandt-Institute, LMU.

DNA-RNA Scaffold preparation

DNA and RNA oligonucleotides were separately dissolved in in 1x TE buffer at a concentration of 400 µM. Dissolved oligonucleotides were mixed to reach an equimolar concentration of 100 µM. Annealing took place in a T3000 Thermocycler (Biometra) due to cooling from 95 °C to 10 °C in 1 °C steps occurring every 30 seconds. DNA-RNA scaffold was either directly used in complex formation or stored at -20°C.

2.2.3 Crystallization

Initial crystallization

To determine initial crystallization conditions, protein samples were forwarded to the MPI crystallization facility (Max Planck Institute of Biochemistry in Martinsried). Protein samples were applied to diverse sparse matrix screens (96-well plates with sitting drop vapor diffusion technique). All Screens were performed at both, 4 °C and room temperature. Total size of the hanging drop was 200 nL (100 nL protein and reservoir solution, respectively). Following screens from QIAGEN were used: Classics; Classics Lite; AmSO4; Pegs; pH Clear 1, pH Clear 2. Further screens originated from in house source: Crystal platform Magic 1; Crystal platform Magic 2 and from Hampton Research: Index screen.

Optimization of crystallization

The optimization of initial crystallization was carried out manually in 15-well hanging drop crystallization plates. In general, 1 μL pure protein was mixed with 1 μL reservoir buffer and incubated over a 600 μL reservoir solution at either 20°C or 4°C. The ratio of protein to reservoir solution was 1:1, 1:2, or 2:1.

2.3 Specific methods for section 3.1 with focus on protein crosslinking

The following text in Section 2.3 was published.

Wolfgang Mühlbacher*, Sarah Sainsbury*, Matthias Hemann, Merle Hantsche, Franz Herzog, and Patrick Cramer. Conserved architecture of the core RNA polymerase IIinitiation complex. *Nature comm*. 2014;5:4310.

*These authors contributed equally.

2.3.1 Preparation of the yeast core Pol II ITC

Endogenous *S. cerevisiae* 12-subunit Pol II was prepared as described**⁸⁰**. Full-length TFIIB**⁴¹**, TFIIF (*S. mikatae* Tfg1, *S. cerevisiae* Tfg2)**³⁴** and TBP**⁸¹** (residues 61-240) were prepared as described. Pol II (0.77 mg, 3.5 mg ml⁻¹) was incubated with a fourfold molar excess of TFIIF, TFIIB, and TBP, and a two-fold molar excess of DNA-RNA scaffold (Figure 2a) for 30 min at 298 K and for 5 min at 293K, 288K, and 283K. Size-exclusion chromatography in 250 mM KCl, 20 mM HEPES pH 7.5, 5% glycerol, and 2 mM DTT resulted in a stoichiometric ITC (Figure 2b).

2.3.2 Crosslinking and mass spectrometry

0.9 mg purified ITC (1.2 mg ml⁻¹) was incubated with an eight-fold molar excess of DNA-RNA scaffold and crosslinked with 0.6 mM isotope-labeled disuccimidyl suberate (DSS-d0/d12, Creative Molecules Inc.) as described⁸². Crosslinked protein was digested, and the crosslinked peptides were enriched, analyzed by liquid chromatography coupled to tandem mass spectrometer (Orbitrap EliteTM), and spectra were searched by the xQuest software $83,84$. The resulting cross-link identifications were manually validated and the local false discovery rates for each individual cross-link were estimated as described[.](#page-0-0) The term 'crosslink' describes a peptide-peptide pair linked through two specific lysines. A single peptide-peptide combination of peptides containing more than one lysine each can be identified by distinct cross-links which represent a single unique distance restraint.

Finally, we also detected 11 crosslinks, which linked to serine, threonine and tyrosine with maximum Cα distances of 21.7 Å (Supplementary Table 3). Nevertheless, these crosslinks presented no additional structural information.

2.3.3 Structural modeling

All modeling was done manually. To generate the ITC model, we used PyMOL and crosslinking restraints to place homology models of the yeast TFIIF dimerization module and WH domains and the TFIIB C-terminal cyclin domain onto the Pol II-TFIIB (PDB: 4BBR) open promoter complex model⁴⁰. Models for the yeast TFIIF dimerization module and WH domains and TFIIB C-terminal cyclin domain were generated from known crystal structures (dimerization module, chains A and F in PDB 1F3U; Tfg1 WH domain, PDB 1I27; Tfg2 WH domain, PDB 1BBY; TFIIB Cterminal cyclin domain, chain A in PDB 1VOL) using MODELLER 85 . Residues 92-153 and 324-417 in *S. cerevisiae* Tfg1 correspond to residues 5-62 and 73-168 in human Rap74. Residues 54-138 and 208-227 of *S. cerevisiae* Tfg2 align to residues 2-119 of human Rap30, respectively. Residues 678 – 736 of *S. cerevisiae* Tfg1 WH domain align with residues 454 – 517 in human Rap74 and residues 292 – 350 in *S. cerevisiae* Tfg2 WH domain align to residues 176 – 243 in human Rap30. Residues 125-345 of *S. cerevisiae* TFIIB C-terminal cyclin domain align to residues 113-316 in the human counterpart. The Tfg1 sequence of *S. mikatae* was substituted with the one of *S. cerevisiae* since they only differ in three amino acids in the dimerization module model and in six in its winged helix model.

2.4 Specific methods for section 3.2 with focus on crystallography

Wolfgang Mühlbacher, Andreas Mayer, Mai Sun, Michael Remmert, Alan C.M. Cheung, Jürgen Niesser, Johannes Soeding and Patrick Cramer. The RNA polymerase II CTD kinase complex subunit Ctk3 contains a non-canonical CTDinteracting domain. *Proteins* 2015; Accepted Article.

2.4.1 Sample preparation

DNA constructs of *S. pombe* full-length Ctk3 (residues 1-218) and the Ctk3 Nterminal domain (residues 1-140) were synthesized (Mr. Gene GmbH) and cloned into pET28b+ expression vector (Novagen) resulting in C-terminal hexahistidine tags. Both, Ctk3 (1-218) and Ctk3 (1-140) protein variants were expressed overnight at 18ºC in *Escherichia coli* (*E. coli*) BL21 (DE3) RIL cells (Stratagene). *E. coli* strain B834 (DE3) pLsyS (Novagen) was used for selenomethionine (SeMet) labeling. Cells were harvested and resuspended in 50 mM Tris-HCl pH 8.0, 300 mM NaCl and 2 mM DTT, followed by sonication. The resulting slurry was cleared by centrifugation. The cleared lysate was subjected to affinity chromatography on a Ni-NTA column (Qiagen) before dialyzing against 50 mM Tris-HCl pH 8.0, 50 mM NaCl and 1 mM DTT to reduce the high imidazole concentration. The hexahistidine tag was removed by thrombin cleavage at 4ºC overnight. The protein variants were further purified by anion exchange chromatography (MonoQ column, GE healthcare life science). After size exclusion chromatography (Superpose-12 column, GE healthcare life science) in gelfiltration buffer (50 mM HEPES pH 8.0, 50 mM NaCl, 1 mM DTT), the pure protein was concentrated to 14.5 mg ml⁻¹.

2.4.2 Crystal structure determination

Crystals for the Ctk3 N-terminal domain variant (residues 1-140) were grown at 4ºC using hanging-drop vapour diffusion. The reservoir solution contained 26% PEG 6000, 100 mM citric acid pH 4.0, 0.8 M lithium chloride and 5 mM Tris(2 carboxyethyl)phosphin (TCEP). Grown crystals were transferred to reservoir buffer containing 10% PEG400. Diffraction data were collected at the Swiss Light Source (SLS) in Villigen, Switzerland. Data were processed by XDS and scaled using $XSCALE⁸⁶$. The crystal structure was solved by multiwavelength anomalous diffraction (MAD) from SeMet-labeled crystals using $SOLVE^{87}$. Density modification was carried out with $RESOLVE⁸⁷$. An initial model was automatically built with $ARP/wARP⁸⁸$. Manual model building was carried out in Coot⁸⁹. The model was refined by PHENIX⁹⁰ using individual isotropic B-factors and bulk solvent correction to a free R-factor of 25.4% at 2.0 Å resolution.

2.4.3 Peptide interaction analysis

We measured the protein-peptide interactions by fluorescence anisotropy. The synthetic CTD peptides were labelled by N-terminal aminocaproic-linked fluorescein. Changes in fluorescence anisotropy of the peptide solution were measured by titration of Ctk3 N-terminal domain or full-length Ctk3 (FluoroMaxP, HORIBA). All peptides were dissolved in 20 mM HEPES pH 8.0, 10 mM NaCl and 5 mM DDT, and adjusted to a concentration of 0.4 mM. Ctk3 N-terminal domain and full-length Ctk3 proteins were dissolved in gelfiltration buffer. The FluoroMaxP analyzer was calibrated at 20°C with gelfiltration buffer and 1 µL peptide in a quartz cuvette (0.4 mM). Before analysis, solutions were mixed by magnetic stirring for 1 min and incubated for an additional minute. The protein solution was titrated to the peptide solution in steps of 20 µL, and three measurements were recorded to enable calculation of an arithmetic average. The excitation wavelength was set to 495 nm (slit width $= 2$) and the emission wavelength to 520 nm (slit width $= 1$).

3 Results and Discussion

3.1 Conserved architecture of the core RNA polymerase II initiation complex

The following text in Section 3.1 was published.

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*These authors contributed equally.

3.1.1 Preparation and crosslinking analysis of the core ITC

To experimentally define the domain architecture of the core initiation complex, we reconstituted a defined yeast core ITC. We previously noted that a stable, defined ITC can be formed by including a 6 nt RNA product⁴¹. We therefore incubated purified Pol II, TFIIF, TFIIB, and TBP with a DNA-RNA scaffold (Figure 2a) and obtained a stable core ITC after size exclusion chromatography (Figure 2b) (see Online Methods). We then analysed this complex by XL-MS. The power and reliability of XL-MS was recently exemplified by a high agreement between Pol I models derived from XL-MS 82 and subsequently from X-ray analysis 91 .

We obtained a total of 472 high-confidence lysine-lysine protein crosslinks (332 distance restraints) within the core ITC (Supplementary Table 1 and 2), of which 241 were inter-subunit and 231 were intra-subunit crosslinks (Table 8). A total of 194 crosslinks within Pol II were readily explained with the Pol II crystal structure⁹². Another 33 crosslinks were observed between TFIIF subunits Tfg1 and Tfg2, and could be explained with the TFIIF dimerization module structure⁹³. Only 18 crosslinks showed C α distances above the maximum expected distance of 27 \pm 3 Å⁴² (Figure 2c).

Most of these could be explained by the known structural flexibility and higher crystallographic B-factors of the involved lysine residues, leaving only three crosslinks unexplained. Within TFIIB and TBP, 23 and six intramolecular crosslinks were observed, respectively, and could be explained with crystal structures^{40,41,94,95}. These multiple internal controls demonstrate the high reliability of the observed crosslinking data.

3.1.2 Positions of TFIIB and TFIIF

We also observed 111 intermolecular crosslinks between transcription factors and Pol II (Table 8) that allowed us to model the core yeast ITC (Figure 3a). Of these crosslinks, 21 were observed between the TFIIF dimerization module and the Pol II lobe and protrusion domains, showing that the module remains at its location observed in the binary Pol II-TFIIF complex**35,42**. Further, 16 crosslinks were obtained between the TFIIB linker and the Pol II domains clamp core, protrusion, and wall. Another six crosslinks were detected between the N-terminal TFIIB cyclin domain and the clamp core, protrusion and wall. The C-terminal cyclin domain did not crosslink to Pol II, consistent with its mobility⁴⁰. All TFIIB-Pol II crosslinks were explained with our crystal structures of the Pol II-TFIIB complex^{40,41}, demonstrating that TFIIB binds Pol II as observed in the binary structure. These results were corroborated by crosslinks between the TFIIF subunit Tfg2 to TBP (one crosslink) and to the N-terminal cyclin domain of TFIIB (six crosslinks).

3.1.3 The Tfg2 WH domain swings over DNA in the cleft

The crosslinking data also revealed that in the reconstituted core ITC the WH domain in Tfg2 can reside at a position near upstream DNA on the outside of Pol II^{42} , but also at a position above the DNA in the active center cleft (Figure 3a, d). Thus, in the core ITC, the WH domain remains flexible and adopts both alternative positions. The original WH position near upstream DNA^{42} gives rise to 13 crosslinks to the Pol II subunits Rpb2, Rpb3, and Rpb10. The new position above the Pol II cleft was defined by four crosslinks of the WH domain to the clamp, TBP, and the TFIIB Nterminal cyclin domain. These restrains can be satisfied when one assumes a position of the WH domain with respect to promoter DNA that resembles that in a known X-ray structure of a WH domain bound to DNA^{96} . This position is also consistent with a recent mapping of the DNA-binding face of the Tfg2 WH domain 97 .

These results indicate that the Tfg2 WH domain can swing over promoter DNA after its loading into the Pol II cleft, and indicate a role of this domain in DNA melting and/or stabilization of the open complex and the ITC. Indeed, this domain binds DNA and is required for initiation 98 , and TFIIF suppresses abortive initial transcription 99 . The proximity of the Tfg2 WH domain to TFIIB indicates how TFIIF could stabilize TFIIB on Pol II during initial transcription¹⁰⁰. The position of the Tfg2 WH domain above the cleft apparently represents its position in a complete ITC. This position is near TFIIE and TFIIA in the $PIC^{37,38}$, and is likely stabilized upon TFIIE and/or TFIIA binding. The other WH domain in TFIIF subunit Tfg1 only gave rise to a single crosslink at the Pol II jaw, and does not adopt a defined location 42 .

3.1.4 Model of the yeast core ITC

Based on the large number of protein crosslinks we built a reliable three-dimensional model of the yeast Pol II core ITC. First, we derived a homology model of the yeast TFIIF dimerization module based on the human crystal structure**⁹³**. Second, we positioned the resulting yeast TFIIF dimerization module model onto the Pol II-TFIIB-DNA-RNA crystal structure**⁴¹** assuming the location of the human module detected by EM**³⁷**. Third, we extended DNA both upstream and downstream using standard Bform duplexes.
Results and Discussion

Figure 2: Preparation and XL-MS analysis of the yeast core ITC.

(A) DNA-RNA scaffold based on a *HIS4* DNA promoter with a mismatched bubble region containing a 6 nt RNA transcript formi ng a hybrid duplex with the DNA template strand⁴¹. (B) SDS-PAGE analysis of the purified Pol II ITC revealing its 16 polypeptide subunits. **(C)** Cα distance distribution for observed lysine-lysine crosslink pairs (unique distance restraints). Crosslinks with distances of 30-39 Å are explainable due to protein mobility (four crosslinks) or because of lysine location in mobile protein loops with high crystallographic B-factors (14 crosslinks). Only three crosslinks cannot be explained and are classified as outliers. **(D)** Crosslink map of the ITC. Crosslinks within Pol II were excluded for clarity. TFIIB and Pol II subunits are colour-coded as before⁴¹ and TBP and TFIIF were coloured as in Figure 3. The map was generated with a MATLAB[®] script by coauthor Simon Neyer (see Supplementary Material 1).

3.1.5 TFIIF arm and charged helix

In the resulting model, the Tfg1 'arm' (a b-hairpin comprising yeast residues 146-153 and 319-338) extends from the TFIIF dimerization module, traversing between the Pol II protrusion and lobe domains into the active center cleft (Figure 3c). The arm forms 19 crosslinks in the cleft, consistent with detection of the arm in the human PIC by EM^{37} . A mutation at the point where the arm extends from the dimerization module leads to shifts in the transcription start site 101 .

A second extension from the TFIIF dimerization module, a negatively charged, flexible**⁹³** α-helix at the beginning of the 'charged region' in Tfg1 (named here the 'charged helix', yeast residues 406-417) clashed with the Pol II lobe. A reorientation of the charged helix towards the jaws released this clash and explained 6 crosslinks of the charged helix to the Pol II cleft. The location of the charged helix explained a distinct EM difference density that was hypothesized to stem from the corresponding human TFIIF region**³⁷** .

Published mutational and kinetic data revealed important roles of the charged helix in transcription initiation and elongation^{102,103}. These roles can now be rationalized due to the location near downstream DNA (Figure 3c). The charged helix apparently repels the downstream DNA from the lobe, positioning it along the clamp head on the opposite side of the cleft. This may help to stabilize melted DNA and to align the DNA template in the active site and account for the known role of the charged helix in stimulating initial RNA synthesis¹⁰⁴.

3.1.6 Conclusion

Our crosslinking data and detailed architectural model of the core yeast ITC agree with previous site-specific protein cleavage mapping of the yeast $PIC^{34,35,105}$. Our model further agrees with structural analysis of human Pol II PIC intermediates by EM³⁷. Thus the architecture of the core ITC is highly conserved between yeast and human. Domains in TFIIF and TFIIB adopt very similar locations on the Pol II surface in both species, although the position of the Tfg2 WH domain above the cleft may change slightly upon binding TFIIA and/or TFIIE or different DNA template sequences. Furthermore, two TFIIF motifs extending from the dimerization module, the arm and charged helix, adopt the same locations in the downstream cleft. Our results also indicate that the overall domain architecture of the initiation complex is generally maintained during the transition from a PIC to an ITC.

Finally, our core ITC model can explain the XL-MS data obtained recently with a complete yeast PIC³⁸. In the latter study, 117 distance restraints were obtained for Pol II, TFIIB, TFIIF and TBP. Of these, only one crosslink disagrees with our model, which was derived from 472 crosslinks with 332 distance restraints. Apparently the published study³⁸ contains correct crosslink information, but conflicting electron microscopic results, which have apparently led to an alternative initiation complex model. With respect to the core ITC, the discrepancies are now resolved. Our results lead to a unified, highly conserved architecture of the core transcription initiation complex. The location of the remaining general transcription factors TFIIE and TFIIH differs to some extent in three published studies $36-38$ and may be analyzed in the future.

Table 8: Observed lysine-lysine crosslinks in the yeast core Pol II ITC.

Provided is the number of crosslinks between certain parts of the ITC, referring to unique distance restraints.

¹Numbers in brackets include crosslinks that involve amino acids located no more than three residues away from residues within known structures.

²Residues from the charged region of Tfg1⁴² (400-417) and N-terminal region (92-98) are also part of the dimerization model based on the human X-ray structure. 93

Figure 3: Crosslinking-derived model of the yeast core ITC**.**

(A) Top view of the ITC, highlighting the locations of TBP (red), TFIIB (green), and TFIIF subunits Tfg1 (light blue) and Tfg2 (pink) on the Pol II surface. The TFIIF arm and charged helix elements are indicated as an antiparallel β-hairpin and α-helix, respectively. Alternative positions of the Tfg2 WH domain are indicated with black circled numbers (1, outside the cleft near upstream DNA as in the Pol II-TFIIF binary complex; 2, at the DNA bubble above the cleft). Mobile linkers are shown as dashed lines. **(B)** Pol II-TFIIB crosslinks (blue lines) viewed from the top as in (a) can be explained with the previously derived crystallographic TFIIB (B) core and ribbon domain locations^{40,41}. (C) Location of the Pol II-TFIIF dimerization module (pink and yellow lines depict inter- and intra crosslinks, respectively). **(D)** The Tfg2 WH domain adopts two distinct locations. At position 1, the Tfg2 WH domain crosslinks to Pol II (pink lines), and at position 2, it crosslinks additionally to TFIIB and TBP (orange and red lines, respectively). **(E)** Domain organization of TFIIF subunit Tfg1 and location and conservation of the arm and charged helix elements. The charged helix was partially resolved in the X-ray structure⁹³ and is predicted to be longer¹⁰⁶. Residues required for normal transcription initiation and elongation¹⁰² are indicated as grey asterisks.

3.2 The RNA polymerase II CTD kinase complex subunit Ctk3 contains a non-canonical CTD-interacting domain

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3.2.1 Architecture of Ctk3

In the final part of the thesis we investigate the structure of Ctk3. We predict a possible CTD-binding domain (CID) in the N-terminal region of Ctk3. The CID fold consists of eight α-helices in a right-handed superhelical arrangement and was thus far discovered in the three yeast proteins Pcf11, Nrd1, and Rtt103 $^{77-79}$. We use X-ray crystallography to show that Ctk3 indeed contains a CID fold. However, unlike other CID domains, this domain does not bind the Pol II CTD. We therefore refer to this domain as 'CID-like domain'. In addition, we predict a three-helix bundle in the Cterminal region of Ctk3.

3.2.2 Prediction of a CID domain in Ctk3

We tried to predict a possible structure and function of Ctk3 by using $HHblits^{107}$, an iterative sequence search tool that represents both query and database sequences by profile hidden Markov models (HMMs). Such alignment methods are the most sensitive class of sequence search methods and the best choice for structure prediction and 3D homology modelling. We started with the protein sequence of Ctk3 and generated a profile HMM by performing two iterations of HHblits against the UniProt20 database, a clustered profile HMM database with 20% maximum pairwise sequence identity based on the UniProt sequence database (www.uniprot.org). The resulting profile HMM was then used for a final search against the PDB70 database, a clustered version of the protein data bank (PDB) filtered to 70% maximum pairwise sequence identity.

In this search, the best matches to Ctk3 were the three known CIDs present in the yeast genome. These reside in the transcription termination factors Rtt103, Pcf11, and Nrd1, and gave rise to predicted probabilities of 98%, 94%, and 93%, respectively. The matched alignment covered the entire CID, except for a weakly conserved C-terminal helix where the confidence values were lower. Based on these three alignments we generated a structural model of Ctk3 with the use of the MODELLER software⁸⁵. The Ctk3 model showed a high conservation in the Nterminal five helices of the CID with an insertion between the first and second helix of approximately 20 amino acid residues in length.

The detected similarities strongly suggested that Ctk3 contains a CID, thus apparently representing a forth CID-containing protein in the yeast genome.

3.2.3 Crystal structure analysis of Ctk3 N-terminal domain

To clarify whether Ctk3 indeed contains the predicted CID fold, we prepared the putative CID-containing region of Ctk3 from *S. pombe* (Ctk3 (1-140), Figure 4) in recombinant form after overexpression in *E. coli* (Materials and Methods). The Ctk3 N-terminal domain was purified and crystallized by vapour diffusion (Materials and Methods). X-ray diffraction data were collected at the Swiss Light Source to a resolution of 2.0 Å (Table 9). The structure was determined by selenomethionine (SeMet) incorporation and multiwavelength anomalous diffraction (MAD) phasing, and the resulting model was refined to a free R-factor of 25.4% and showed very good stereochemistry (Materials and Methods). The overall fold of the Ctk3 Nterminal domain consists of eight α-helices in a right-handed superhelical arrangement (Figure 5A). As predicted, the fold closely resembles the known CID domains in the *S. cerevisiae* proteins Rtt103, Pcf11, and Nrd1, and in the human protein SCAF8 (Figure 5B). Superposition of the known CID structures revealed a difference in helix α2 of Ctk3 (residue 19-21), which is bent at its residue Pro27 towards helix α4 that flanks the proposed CTD-binding region of Ctk3 (Figure 5B).

^aValues in parentheses refer to the highest resolution shell.
^b4-(2-hydroxyethyl)-1-piperazineethanesulfonic acid.

^cAs calculated using MolProbity¹⁰⁸.

Figure 4: CTDK-I domains and conservation of Ctk3 N-terminal domain.

(**A**) Domain architecture of the three *S. pombe* CTDK-I subunits Ctk1 (Lsk1), Ctk2 (Lsc1), Ctk3 (Lsg1). (**B**) Structural alignment of *S. pombe* Ctk3 (Lsg1) N-terminal domain (1-140) to known CID domains. Conserved residues are colored yellow, invariant residues green. Sequences were ordered from highest (top) to lowest conservation, relative to *S. pombe* (*Sp, Schizosaccharomyces pombe; Sc, Saccharomyces. cerevisiae; Hs, Homo sapiens*). α-Helices are indicated above the alignment. Residues forming the hydrophobic core are depicted with black triangles.

(**C**) Alignment of Ctk3 N-terminal domains in different yeast species (*Pb, Paracoccidioides brasiliensis; Kp, Komagataella pastoris; Ca, Candida albicans*). Alignments were performed by ClustalW2 and the results were visualized by ESPript 3.0, using default values and "%Equivalent" as similarities depiction parameters 109,110 .

Figure 5: Crystal structure of the Ctk3 N-terminal domain at 2.0 Å resolution.

(**A**) Two views of a ribbon representation of the Ctk3 N-terminal domain, related by a 90 degree rotation around a horizontal axis. Residues that partially occupy the space of the surface region corresponding to the CTD-binding groove in canonical CID domains are depicted in red. The CTD-binding groove is indicated with black dashed lines and is corresponding to the CID in *Sc* Pcf11 ⁷⁷. (**B**) Superposition of known CID structures onto the Ctk3 N-terminal domain reveals its similarity to the CID fold. The key structural difference between the Ctk3 CID-like domain and the canonical CIDs is shown in red (part of helix α2 in Ctk3). The N- and C-termini of the protein domains are indicated.

3.2.4 The Ctk3 N-terminal domain has a non-canonical surface

To analyze whether the CID fold in Ctk3 also shares surface properties with canonical CID domains, we analyzed the conservation and electrostatic properties of the domain surface. We first colored the molecular surface of our structure according to conservation of amino acid residues over species (Figure 6A, alignment Figure 4C). Comparison with the surface of CID domains in Rtt103, Pcf11, and Nrd1 revealed that the Ctk3 N-terminal domain has a distinct surface conservation. Whereas canonical CID domains show a very high conservation of the CTD-binding groove between helices α2, α4 and α7, Ctk3 only shows weak and partial conservation in this region (Figure 6A). Moreover, Ctk3 residues Q21 and K111 partially obstruct the region corresponding to the CTD-binding groove in CID domains (Fig 2A).

The Ctk3 N-terminal domain also differs from canonical CID domains with respect to its surface charge distribution. To determine the charge distribution on the surface of the structure we used the APBS Tool via PvMOL (Figure $6B$)¹¹¹. For the canonical CID structures in Rtt103, Pcf11 and Nrd1, the conserved CTD-binding groove is positively charged, as required for binding to the negatively charged, phopshorylated CTD. In contrast, the corresponding region of the Ctk3 N-terminal domain is mainly positively charged. Taken together, analysis of the surface properties of the Ctk3 domain revealed that the putative CTD-binding groove was not conserved and differently charged, arguing against a CTD-binding function.

Figure 6: Surface properties of the Ctk3 N-terminal domain structure**.**

(**A**) Lack of a conserved CTD-binding groove in the Ctk3 N-terminal domain. The area corresponding to the CTD-binding groove in the CID domain of Pcf11 is indicated by a black dashed line 77 . Surface model generated by ESPript 3.0¹¹⁰ and colored according to conservation as in Figure 4C. The alignment in Figure 1C was used as an input for ESPript. Residues that partially occupy the space of the surface region corresponding to the CTDbinding groove in CID domains are labeled in red. (**B**) Electrostatic surface potentials of Ctk3 N-terminal domain. Positive and negative charges are in blue and red, respectively. Surface potentials were calculated with APBS ¹¹¹.

3.2.5 The Ctk3 N-terminal domain does not bind CTD-derived petides

Structural analysis of Ctk3 revealed the fold of a CID domain, but also surface features that clearly differ from canonical CID domains and therefore question whether Ctk3 binds directly the CTD. To test CTD binding, we used a fluorescencebased phosphopeptide interaction assay in solution. We monitored changes in fluorescence anisotropy of fluorescently labeled CTD peptides upon addition of increasing amounts of purified Ctk3 N-terminal domain. The peptides were based on a di-heptad sequence (Figure 7A), which represents the functional unit of the Pol II CTD¹¹² and comprise different phosphorylation sites, mimicking various phosphorylation states of the CTD that are adopted during the transcription cycle.

We tested binding of CTD peptides phosphorylated at positions Tyr1, Ser2, Ser5, or Ser7, or phosphorylated at both Ser2 and Ser5, and also used a nonphosphorylated di-heptad peptide as a control (Figure 7A). We did not observe any binding of the Ctk3 N-terminal domain to any of the CTD-based peptides under the conditions tested (Figure 7B). As a positive control we reproduced binding of purified *S. pombe* Pcf11-CID to one of the Ser2-phosphorylated peptide, which demonstrated that the assay was working very well under our conditions. The data obtained from the positive control titration could be fit to the Hill equation as expected (Figure 7B). Taken together, we were unable to detect any binding of the Ctk3 N-terminal domain to any of the CTD-based peptides, strongly indicating that the domain does not directly bind the CTD *in vitro*.

(A) CTD-derived diheptad repeat peptides with phosphorylation positions indicated. From top to bottom, sequences of Tyr1-, Ser2-, Ser5-, Ser2,5- and Ser7-phosphorylated peptides are given. **(B)** Fluorescence anisotropy titration curves, using purified Ctk3 N-terminal domain (residues 1-140) and fluorescently labeled peptides shown in panel A. All measurements based on technical triplicate data. Plotted are the mean and standard deviation. As a positive control, we monitored binding of purified Pcf11-CID to Ser2-phosphorylated CTD peptide (green¹¹³). Ser2-phosphorylated binding was additionally measured with full-length Ctk3 (residues 1-218).

3.2.6 Ctk3 contains a highly conserved C-terminal bundle domain

In order to gain structural insights also into the C-terminal region of Ctk3, we returned to bioinformatic analysis. *S. pombe* Ctk3 residues 153-215 were annotated as a possible conserved domain in the PFAM database (http://pfam.xfam.org/). This region shows even higher sequence conservation than the N-terminal domain of Ctk3 (Figure 8A). We used the prediction algorithm $PSIPRED¹¹⁴$ to assign potential secondary structure to this region. This revealed three helical stretches in this region that we named putative helices $α1$, $α2$, and $α3$ (Figure 8A). Throughout different yeast species, helices α2 and α3 were only weakly conserved, whereas helix α1 was highly conserved, showing 163 yeast species comprising helix α1 (Ctk3 residues 153-183) in a BLAST search (conservative expect threshold of 1e-6)¹¹⁵. We generated a three-dimensional model for the Ctk3 C-terminal region with the I-TASSER software¹¹⁶, which uses structural templates from the Protein Data Bank. The model with the highest score was a three-helix bundle (Figure 8B). Analysis of the model revealed a conserved putative hydrophobic core, supporting the accuracy of the prediction, and a conserved surface patch on helix α1 that may be involved in interactions with other regions of CTDK-I.

B

Figure 8: The Ctk3 C-terminal region contains a predicted helical bundle domain.

(**A**) Sequence alignment and secondary structure prediction of Ctk3 C-terminal region comparing different yeast species. Conserved and invariant residues colored yellow and red, respectively. Sequences ordered from highest conservation (on top) to lowest, relative to *S. pombe* Ctk3 C-terminal domain (153-215). (*Sp*, *Schizosaccharomyces pombe*; *Pb*, *Paracoccidioides brasiliensis*; *Sc*, *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*; *Ca*, *Candida albicans*; *Kp*, *Komagataella pastoris*). α-Helices are indicated above the alignment. Residues forming the hydrophobic core are depicted with black triangles. (**B**) Two views of the predicted Ctk3 Cterminal domain model obtained with I-TASSER¹¹⁶. The N- and C-termini of the protein domain are indicated.

3.2.7 Conclusion

Here we predicted that Ctk3 consists of an N-terminal CTD-interacting domain (CID) and a C-terminal helical bundle domain. X-ray crystallography confirmed the Nterminal CID fold despite the low sequence conservation, consistent with the general observation that the three-dimensional structure of proteins is more conserved than their sequence. The Ctk3 N-terminal domain however differs from canonical CID domains in its surface conservation and charge distribution. In particular, the putative CTD-binding groove between helices α 2, α 4, and α 7 is not conserved and lacks positively charged residues. Consistent with this, the N-terminal domain of Ctk3 failed to bind CTD phosphopeptides in solution. The CID fold resembles the fold of VHS (Vsp27p/Hrs/STAM) domains¹¹⁷, as detected by DALI¹¹⁸. Thus the N-terminal domain in Ctk3 could have arisen from a CID domain that lost its CTD-binding surface groove, or from a VHS domain of unknown function.

The C-terminal domain of Ctk3 is more conserved than its N-terminal domain, especially at its putative α1 helix. It remains unclear whether the C-terminal domain of Ctk3 associates stably with the N-terminal domain or whether it forms a distinct domain connected with a short linker. Consistent with a two-domain, flexible structure, our attempts to crystallize full-length Ctk3 failed. The predicted C-terminal domain is essential for cell growth in *S. cerevisiae,* and a truncation that removes most of the C-terminal domain destabilizes the interaction of Ctk3 with Ctk2 *in vitro*, whereas interaction with Ctk1 was maintained⁶⁷. From these results and considerations, a topological model of CTDK-I emerges with Ctk1 and Ctk2 forming a canonical kinase-cyclin pair, as observed for $pTEF-b^{119}$ and Ctk3 being anchored to Ctk2 via its C-terminal helical bundle domain (Figure 9). In this model, the newly found N-terminal domain in Ctk3 remains available for other, currently unknown functions.

Relative size of the structure of mammalian Ctk1-Ctk2 counterpart CDK12–Cyclin K (PDBcode 4UN0) and *S. pombe* Ctk3 N-terminal domain structure (this work) and predicted Cterminal domain (this work). Arrow indicate putative interaction of the C-terminal domains with Ctk2 (compare text). The active center of the CDK12 kinase structure is indicated with a black dashed circle. The N- and C-termini of the proteins are labeled.

4 Outlook

4.1 The architecture of Pol II initiation complexes

Most of the fundamental mechanisms of transcriptional regulation are conserved from yeast to human, assigning the *S. cerevisiae* model system a central role in understanding how gene expression is controlled in all eukaryotes¹³. Protein crosslinking of the core Pol II initiation complex underlines this statement even more as it shows the conserved architecture. Our proposed model of the conserved architecture of the ITC was further validated by a later study that combined crosslinking with single-particle cryo-EM¹²⁰. Still, many questions regarding the topology of the core initiation complex remain: Where do the Tfg1 insertion and the WH domains of TFIIF reside, and does the insertion domain get structured due to binding to Pol II? Are the Tfg1 arm and the charged helix contacting the DNA strand, and what function does the negative charge of the charged helix have? Do both positions of the Tfg2 WH also exist *in vivo*, and does the Tfg2 WH bind upstream promoter DNA? Further experiments comprising both structural and biochemical methods are needed to address these questions. On a structural level, the highest potential for success will be the combination of X-ray crystallography, single-particle cryo-EM, mass spectrometric approaches (protein/DNA crosslinking-MS, native-MS, and hydrogen-deuterium exchange) and computational based methods. Combining diverse structural restrains deriving from different methods is challenging, but will be rewarding, as new insights can be gained and misinterpretations can be minimized.

To gain further knowledge on how initiation is regulated, the architecture of more complete initiation complexes need to be addressed. Therefore, the addition of GTFs (transcription factor-IIA, -IID, -IIE, IIH) and the Mediator complex to the core initiation complex are the next logical steps. As crystallization of such big and potentially flexible complexes can be difficult, single-particle cryo-EM starts to play an increasingly important role, especially with recent improvements such as the (introduction of the direct detector¹²¹, marking a milestone in generating high resolution data.

Based on these high resolution restrains, target sites could be identified for mutational analysis, addressing central questions, like: What are the functions of the GTFs modulated; how initiation complexes can form on TATA-less promotors; which additional, unknown factors bind to the initiation complex or how are coactivators placed within pre-initiation complexes.

4.2 The transcription elongation promoting CTDK-I complex

For future work, the arrangement of the CTDK-I complex needs to be further investigated to reveal the interplay of the three subunits, which is unique among CDK complexes. The heterodimer Ctk2-Ctk3 represents a promising target for structural determination by X-ray crystallography, as it was shown to form a stable complex in gel filtration chromatography⁶⁷.

A high resolution structure of Ctk2-Ctk3 could provide insights which address serval central questions: 1) how does the CTDK-I complex approach the Pol II CTD? 2) Which mechanism does allow Ctk3 to act as a co-cyclin and why can't Ctk2 fulfill the cyclin functions on its own? 3) Does the non-canonical CID fold of Ctk3 fulfill an unknown purpose? and 4) Does the highly conserved C-terminal domain of Ctk3 interact with Ctk2 as proposed 67 .

One general biological question regarding the CTDK-I complex is its role in connecting gene transcription with cell cycle events. In contrast to most CDKs which bind different cyclins throughout the cell cycle¹²², the binding of Ctk1 is specific to cyclin Ctk2 and the co-cyclin Ctk3 67 . This unique difference compared with other CDKs could lead to the discovery of a new mechanism in the regulation of CTKs.

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Appendix

Supplementary Material 1

Text and figures of the section Supplementary Material 1 were adapted from Simon Neyer, who programmed the MATLAB based script which was used as a basis to generate Figure 2.

BiClAn

BiClAn is a MATLAB® based tool to visualize Bivalent Crosslinking Analysis. It simplifies cross-link interpretation by converting a list of cross-links to a vector based diagram. Additionally, it is possible to export a list without redundant distance restraints.

Supplementary Figure 1: Example of a crosslink map.

In the following, BiClAn is explained by the trimeric complex proteinA/B/C. Intra and inter cross-links are shown as green and blue lines, respectively, while possible candidates are colored in red. For proteinA, domains are highlighted. Magenta and yellow lines represent α-helices and β-strands, respectively.

Data preparation and input files

As input files, tab delimited *.txt files have to be placed in the folder 'input'. The names of these files should reflect what is contained in the variable file within the main script (BiClAn). The input files are formatted in the way that the third and fourth column state the position of the cross-links of the subunits given in column one and two, respectively. The fifth column allows one to mark a cross-link, e.g. as a candidate and allows to draw it in a different manner (Supplementary Figure 3). Please note, that inter and intra cross-links have to be provided in separate input files. The protein names may not include spaces. This is true for all input files.

The variable default loads a tab delimited file which sets the name of the proteins and allows the subunits to be treated separately (Supplementary Figure 3). Please note that you have to give the name of the proteins in descending alphabetical order (as they are called in file). Two additional rows are needed at the end of the document. The easiest way to generate this file is to use a spreadsheet program and save as tab delimited *.txt.

The number of amino acids is given in the second column. Although no axes are displayed, the diagram is an x-y-coordinate system (Supplementary Figure 2). The value in column eight and nine sets the x- and y-value, respectively. Whether an operation has ('1') or has not ('0') to be executed for a specific subunit this can be set in the residual columns.

Before drawing distance restraints, the user has to choose which input files to use. As shown in Supplementary Figure 4, this is done by handing over the index of the input file to variable 'i'. By executing these functions one by one, cross-links from different experiments can be drawn in different colors to make them distinguishable.

Supplementary Figure 2: x-/y- position of protein boxes.

To determine the position of the boxes representing complex subunits, x- and yvalues have to be provided in the default file. They correspond to the middle left edge of the box. It is recommended to set these values randomly in the first place. For a second round, optimized positions can be determined by moving the boxes in a vector based graphics suite.

Supplementary Figure 3: Input files.

All files required to generate the demo diagram are displayed. As with the others, default.txt is a tab delimited file. In this figure a screenshot from a spreadsheet program is shown to highlight the meaning of each column. However, it was saved as *.txt later on.

```
8%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%
%%% input files %%%
8%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%
file = \{\text{'demo\_inter1'} \quad \text{* 1} \quad \text{'demo inter2'} \quad \text{* 2}'demo_inter2'
    'demo_intra' % 3
     }
%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%
%%% intra cross-links %%%
%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%
i=[3]<br>param.loop='g';
                       %color of intra cross links
BiClIntra(param,sorted,file,intra,x,y,i)
%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%
%%% inter cross links from selected subunits to selected subunits only %%%
%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%
i=[]param.candidate='r'; % color and style of candidates
param.valid='b'; % color of valid cross links
param.width=1;
BiClInter1(param,sorted,file,inter,x,y,i,conc)
%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%
%%% inter cross links from selected subunits to all subunits %%%
%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%
i=[1 2]param.candidate='r'; % color and style of candidates
param.valid='b'; % color of valid cross links
param.width=1;BiClInter2(param,sorted,file,inter,x,y,i,conc)
```
Supplementary Figure 4: Script excerpt.

Parts of the BiClAn script are shown to demonstrate how to choose which dataset (loaded in file) has to be drawn. The variable 'i' sets the index of the respective input file. In this example intra cross-links of 'demo_intra' are drawn. Inter cross-links from selected subunits to all subunits are drawn in case of 'demo_inter1' and 'demo_inter1'.

Domains and secondary structure

As optional features, BiClAn offers to display the domain architecture and secondary structure information of subunits. In this case input files have to follow a specific nomenclature. Starting with the name as given in default, sec or dom is used as suffix for a tab-delimited *.txt file. H, E and C represent helices, strands and regions neither forming helices nor strands, respectively. Domain information is given in four columns. Column one will be neglected by BiClAn, but may not contain spaces. The second column states the name of the domain, whose boundaries are set in column three and four.

Output files

The generated MATLAB figure can be saved as a pixel based image (e.g. *.png or *.jpg) as well as a vector based graphic (e.g. *.eps or *.ai). By changing the size of the window displaying your diagram you also change the size of the saved image. If the figures are saved as a graphic, clipping masks might be added. It is possible to remove those in a vector graphic program.

The variable sorted contains (for each input file individually) a table of unique cross-links. The name of the involved subunits is represented in column one and two by the indices as indicated in default (Supplementary Figure 3). The respective amino acid number is given in column three and four. Whether a cross-link was labeled as a candidate is displayed in column three.

Support

We are more than happy to help, if you encounter problems while executing this script. Please, feel free to contact us in this case: simon.neyer@mpibpc.mpg.de

Supplementary Material 2

Supplementary Table 1: Inter protein-protein crosslinks.

Supplementary Table 2: Intra protein-protein crosslinks.

Supplementary Table 3: Protein crosslinks, originating from the cross-reactivity.

(formation of N-hydroxyl succinimide ester).

List of abbreviations

- pTEF-b positive transcription elongation factor
- RMSD Root-mean-square deviation
- RNA Ribonuecleic acid
- Sc Saccharomyces cerevisiae
- SDS Sodium dedocyl sulfate
- SeMet selenomethionine
- Sm Saccharomyces mikatae
- Sp Schizosaccharomyces pombe
- TBP Tata-box binding protein
- TCEP Tris(2-carboxyethyl)phosphin
- TEC Transcription elongation complex
- TFII Transcription factor II
- WH winged helix
- XL-MS Crosslinking coupled to mass spectrometry

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