Intrinsic Disorder and Autonomous Domain Function in the Multifunctional Nuclear Protein, MeCP2*‌

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To probe the tertiary structure and domain organization of native methyl CpG-binding protein 2 (MeCP2), the recombinant human e2 isoform was purified to homogeneity and characterized by analytical ultracentrifugation, CD, and protease digestion. The location of intrinsic disorder in the MeCP2 sequence was predicted using the FoldIndex algorithm. MeCP2 was found to be monomeric in low and high salt and over a nearly 1000-fold concentration range. CD indicated that the MeCP2 monomer was nearly 60% unstructured under conditions where it could preferentially recognize CpG dinucleotides and condense chromatin. Protease digestion experiments demonstrate that MeCP2 is composed of at least six structurally distinct domains, two of which correspond to the well characterized methyl DNA binding domain and transcriptional repression domain. These domains collectively are organized into a tertiary structure with coil-like hydrodynamic properties, reflecting the extensive disorder in the MeCP2 sequence. When expressed as individual fragments, the methyl DNA binding domain and transcriptional repression domain both function as nonspecific DNA binding domains. The unusual structural features of MeCP2 provide a basis for understanding MeCP2 multifunctionality in vitro and in vivo. These studies also establish an experimental paradigm for characterizing the tertiary structures of other highly disordered proteins.

Methyl CpG-binding protein 2 (MeCP2)² is a 53-kDa nuclear protein named for its methylated DNA-binding capacity (1, 2). Accordingly, MeCP2 can preferentially recognize methylated DNA and act as a methylation-dependent transcriptional repressor in vitro and in vivo (3, 4). MeCP2 is also involved in the maintenance of condensed chromosomal superstructures in vivo (5, 6) and in vitro (7, 8) and regulates mRNA splicing in vivo (9). MeCP2 is able to interact with many different macromolecules and macromolecular complexes, including unmethylated and methylated DNA (10–12), nucleosomes and chromatin (7, 8, 13), transcriptional co-repressors (14), a histone H3 methyltransferase (15), Dnmt1 DNA methyltransferase (16), PU.1 (17), and Y box-binding protein 1 and other splicing factors (18). MeCP2 has two well defined functional domains. Residues 78–162 are required to specifically recognize methylated CpG dinucleotides and have been termed the methyl DNA binding domain (MBD) (19). The minimal sequence needed to repress transfected DNA has been called the transcriptional repression domain (TRD) and consists of residues 207–310 (20). Despite the extensive interest in MeCP2 function, very little is known beyond the tertiary structure of the protein outside of the MBD, and even this domain is not well understood at the biochemical level. For example, fully one-half of the residues required to recognize a single methylated CpG are disordered in the NMR structure of the MBD (21–23). The importance of deciphering the structural basis of MeCP2 function is further underscored by its central role in the neurological disorder, Rett Syndrome, which is caused by a number of different nonsense, missense, and frameshift mutations scattered throughout the MeCP2 gene (24–26).

Intrinsically disordered proteins have one or more long regions that do not on their own fold into α-helices or β-sheets/sheets/turns (27–31). Structural genomics studies indicate that many eukaryotic proteins contain one or more intrinsically disordered regions, including a large number involved in genome regulation (32, 33). Proteins such as the core and linker histones have unstructured terminal regions that serve as combinatorial interaction domains (31). Others such as yeast SIR3p have long internal intrinsically disordered regions (34). The HMGA family of high mobility group proteins are examples of intrinsically disordered proteins that mostly lack secondary and tertiary structure (35). The MeCP2 monomer has been reported to be asymmetric and yields an anomalous molecular mass when characterized by gel filtration and SDS-PAGE (36), each of which can be characteristic of an intrinsically disordered protein (27, 28). To better understand MeCP2 tertiary structure and determine how MeCP2 structure and function may be influenced by intrinsic disorder, we have purified the recombinant human protein and characterized it by analytical ultracentrifugation, circular dichroism, and protease mapping. The

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‡ The abbreviations used are: MeCP2, methyl CpG-binding protein 2; MBD, methyl DNA binding domain; TRD, transcriptional repression domain; HMGA, high mobility group A; MALDI/TOF-MS, matrix-assisted laser desorption/ionization/time of flight mass spectrometry; CTD, C-terminal domain.
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location of order and disorder was predicted using the FoldIndex program. We find that the MeCP2 monomer is composed of at least six biochemically distinct domains, which are organized into a tertiary structure that is 60% unstructured and has coil-like hydrodynamic properties. When expressed as individual fragments, the MBD and TRD function as autonomous DNA binding domains in vitro. These results demonstrate that the MeCP2 tertiary structure is characteristic of an intrinsically disordered protein and provide a structural basis for understanding the multifunctionality of MeCP2 in vitro and in vivo.

EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES

Expression and Purification of MeCP2—Recombinant human MeCP2 isoform e2 (486 residues) was purified as described (37), with the exceptions that the expression host BL21RP+ was used and the clarified supernatant was allowed to rock overnight in the presence of the chitin agarose. Purified proteins contained the vector-derived sequence, EFLEGSSC, linked to their C-terminal ends. Full-length MeCP2 and the TRD and MBD fragments were eluted with a 300–1000 mM NaCl step gradient (in 100 mM steps), dialyzed into storage buffer (25 mM Tris, pH 7.5, 5% glycerol, 10 mM NaCl, 2 mM β-mercaptoethanol), and stored at 4 °C. Mass spectroscopy analysis (Bruker Ultraflex MALDI/TOF) was performed at the Colorado State University (CSU) Macromolecular Resources core facility. The full-length MeCP2/pTYB1 plasmid was used as the template for generating the MBD and TRD fragments. Primers were designed to amplify DNA fragments corresponding to amino acids 74–172 (MBD) MBD5’, 5’-GAC ATA TGG TGC CGG AAG CTT CTG CC; MBD3’, 5’-CAG AAT TCT TCT TGC TCT CG CGG GGA; 198–305 (TRD) TRD5’, 5’-GA CAT ATG CCC AAG GCC GCC ACG TCA GAG GGT; and TRD3’, 5’-CAG AAT TGG GGG AGT ACG GTC TCC TGC ACA TACGG ATAG. Polymerase chain reaction was used to generate the fragments. The corresponding products were digested with NdeI and EcoRI, gel-purified, and ligated into pTYB1 vectors. The pTYB1 digested with NdeI and EcoR1, gel-purified, and ligated into generate the fragments. The corresponding products were

DNA and Chromatin Binding Assays—The preparation of the DNA and nucleosomal arrays for electrophoretic mobility shift assay have been previously described (7). Methylated 198 DNA was generated by incubating 208-12 DNA in the presence of SsII and verified by digesting the DNA with the methylation-sensitive enzyme Aval. The methylated DNA was then digested with EcoRI, which released two fragments: a 198-bp fragment that contains 10 methylated CG sites and a 10-bp fragment (all enzymes from New England Biolabs). The methylated 198 DNA fragment was purified using a PCR cleanup column (Qiagen) to remove the 10-bp fragments.

Analytical Ultracentrifugation—Sedimentation velocity experiments were performed with either a Beckman XL-I or a Beckman XL-A analytical ultracentrifuge using the absorbance optical system as described (38). Boundaries were analyzed using the method of Demeler et al. (39, 40) using Ultrascan (version 7.3). This analysis yields an integral distribution of sedimentation coefficients, g(s). Sedimentation coefficients (s) were corrected to that in water at 20 °C (s20,w). The solvent densities (ρ) were calculated in Ultrascan. The partial specific volume of full-length MeCP2 (0.731 cm3/g at 20 °C) was calculated from the primary amino acid sequence within Ultrascan. Modeling of hydrodynamic parameters was performed within Ultrascan. Sedimentation equilibrium experiments were performed at 5 °C using charcoal-filled Epon 6-sector centripeteces. Scans were collected with the absorbance optical system at 229 and 280 nm by using an average of 20 scans collected at a radial step resolution of 0.001 cm. Overlays of successive scans taken 4 h apart at each speed confirmed that the samples had reached equilibrium. The equilibrium concentration gradients were edited and globally fitted within Ultrascan. The frictional ratio (ffo) was calculated from the known molecular mass and measured sedimentation coefficient using Ultrascan.

Circular Dichroism and Prediction Algorithms—CD spectroscopy was performed on a Jasco-720 spectropolarimeter at 20 °C. Proteins were dialyzed extensively against 10 mM K2HPO4, pH 7.9, 20 mM NaCl prior to obtaining measurements. A total of 15 spectra from full-length MeCP2 and the TRD and MBD fragments (all at 5 μM) were collected and averaged to obtain the final spectra. The spectra were baseline-subtracted versus the dialysis buffer. The molar ellipticity [θ] was obtained by normalization of the measured ellipticity (θ, millidegree), where [θ] = (θ × 100)/(ncl), n is the number of residues, c is the total concentration (mM), and l is the cell path length (cm). The percentages of secondary structure types were determined from the spectra using the CONTINLL, SELCON3, and CDSSTR methods within CDPro analytical software (41). The SDP48 basis set was used to deconvolute the CD spectrum. The full-length MeCP2 protein sequence (National Center for Biotechnology Information [NCBI] accession number AAH11612) was analyzed by the following algorithms: DPM, DSC, GOR3, HNNC, MLRC, PHD, Predator, and SOPM) (42). The results are reported as the mean ± standard deviation of the values returned by each algorithm. The FoldIndex program (43) was accessed through the Bioinformatics & Biological Computing site. The window and step parameters were set at 6 and 2, respectively.

Trypsin Digestion and N-terminal Sequencing—MeCP2 was dialyzed into 25 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.5, 10% glycerol, and 150 mM NaCl (digestion buffer). Trypsin (Roche Applied Science) was dissolved in 1 mM HCl, and serial dilutions were prepared (5.0–0.3125 μg/ml into digestion buffer). 10 μl of each trypsin dilution was incubated with 10 μl of MeCP2 (0.8 mg/ml) for 30 min on ice. The reactions were quenched with 5× SDS sample buffer, and the samples were boiled for 3 min and loaded onto a 12.5% SDS-PAGE gel and electrophoresed. Protein bands were visualized by staining the gel with Coomassie Brilliant Blue. Images were visualized by white light epi-illumination and digitized in a GelLogic 200 (Eastman Kodak Co.). For N-terminal sequencing, 8 μg of MeCP2 was digested with either 5 or 2.5 μg/ml trypsin as described. Following electrophoresis, the proteins were electroeluted onto a polyvinylidene difluoride membrane and visualized with RAPIIDstain (Calbiochem). Protein bands 1–7 (see Fig. 3B) were excised and submitted to the CSU core facility for
N-terminal sequencing (Applied Biosystems Procise Sequencer) and analyzed using Smooth Degree 3 software.

RESULTS

Recombinant human MeCP2 isoform e2 was purified to greater than 95% homogeneity on the large scale (see Fig. 3B, lane 7) using the Intein system and heparin chromatography (37). MeCP2e2 subsequently will be referred to as MeCP2. MALDI/TOF-MS yielded a MeCP2 molecular mass of 53,541 Da, within 1% of the mass calculated from the amino acid sequence. To assay for methylated DNA binding, purified MeCP2 was bound to unmethylated 208-12 DNA, the complexes were incubated with identical amounts of methylated or unmethylated 198-1 DNA, and the products were analyzed on a native PAGE gel (8). The results indicated that purified MeCP2 preferentially bound to the methylated 198-1 DNA (Fig. 1, compare lanes 3–5 and 7–9). The pronounced shifts of the 208-12 complexes were incubated with identical amounts of methylated or unmethylated 198-1 DNA, and the products were analyzed on a native PAGE gel (8). The results indicated that purified MeCP2 preferentially bound to the methylated 198-1 DNA (Fig. 1, compare lanes 3–5 and 7–9). The pronounced shifts of the 208-12 competitor further demonstrated that MeCP2 also bound well to unmethylated DNA under the same conditions. The addition of increasing amounts of purified MeCP2 led to a progressive decrease in the mobility of nucleosomal arrays, as observed previously (supplemental Fig. 1) (7, 8). Together, these data show that the purified recombinant human MeCP2 characterized below was able to preferentially recognize methylated DNA, bind to unmethylated DNA, and condense unmethylated nucleosomal arrays into higher order secondary and tertiary chromatin structures.

Hydrodynamic Properties and Oligomeric State—A wide range of sizes has been reported for MeCP2. For example, in the same study, an apparent molecular mass of ~500 kDa was obtained from gel filtration and an apparent molecular mass of ~57 kDa was estimated from sucrose density gradient centrifugation (36). To rigorously assess the oligomeric state of MeCP2 over a large range of protein concentrations and in the presence and absence of salt, the purified protein was characterized by analytical ultracentrifugation. We initially performed sedimentation velocity experiments in low salt buffer covering a 10-fold protein concentration range. g(s) plots of the diffusion-corrected sedimentation coefficient distributions are shown in Fig. 2A. The vertical distributions indicate that MeCP2 sedimented as a single homogeneous 2.2 s species at all concentrations examined. The same result was obtained when the sedimentation velocity experiments were performed at 2.9 μM MeCP2, and the NaCl concentration was varied from 2 to 500 mM (Fig. 2B). The 2.2 s sedimentation coefficient observed in our studies is the same as that obtained using sucrose gradient centrifugation at a single MeCP2 and salt concentration (36).

Purified MeCP2 was next sedimented to equilibrium at six different protein loading concentrations (1.6–47 μM) and at three different rotor speeds. The buffer contained 50 mM NaCl. The subsequent concentration gradients obtained at equilib-
The MeCP2 Tertiary Structure Is Extensively Disordered—To better understand the tertiary structure of MeCP2, the purified protein was characterized by CD spectroscopy and protease digestion. The experimental results were then compared with FoldIndex disorder predictions (43). This same approach has been used to identify extensive disorder in the yeast SIR3p tertiary structure (34). The CD spectrum of purified MeCP2 in low ionic strength buffer is shown in Fig. 3A. The most prominent feature of the spectrum was a strong negative peak at 198 nm that arises from the disordered region(s) of a polypeptide chain (44). In contrast, the minimal negative shoulder at ~225 nm indicated that only a small fraction of the polypeptide chain was in an α-helical conformation. The CD spectrum was deconvoluted using CDPro software (41) and a 48-protein reference set that included denatured and/or unfolded proteins (see “Experimental Pro-

rium spanned approximately 3 orders of magnitude of protein concentrations, ranging from mid-nanomolar to high micromolar (Fig. 2C). 36 different scans were globally fit to a single, ideal species model. The residuals using this model were randomly distributed and showed no systematic deviations (Fig. 2D). A molecular mass of 54,970 Da was obtained from the sedimentation equilibrium analysis, within 3% of the mass calculated from the MeCP2 sequence. The frictional coefficient ratio, f/f₀, calculated from the molecular mass and the 2.2 s sedimentation coefficient was 2.4. This large frictional coefficient ratio could result from either a rod-like structure with a high axial ratio or a coil-like structure such as that of a denatured protein (34). Together, the data in Fig. 2 demonstrate that MeCP2 is monomeric in the presence of 2–500 mM NaCl and over a nearly 1000-fold range in protein concentration and indicate that MeCP2 is not a well packed, globular protein.
The MeCP2 amino acid sequence was next analyzed using the FoldIndex prediction program. This algorithm uses the hydrophobicity and charge properties of the amino acids to calculate an averaged FoldIndex value for each residue in a protein (43). Residues with positive FoldIndex values are predicted to lie in a classically structured region (i.e. helix, sheet, or turn), whereas residues with negative values are predicted to be in a disordered region. Consequently, a plot of FoldIndex value versus residue number predicts the location of order and disorder in a protein sequence (43). The MeCP2 FoldIndex plot generated at a window of 6 residues is shown in Fig. 3E (and in more detail in supplemental Fig. 2). MeCP2 was predicted to have an unusual structure in which short (5–15 residues) ordered regions punctuated an otherwise highly unstructured sequence. Residues 8–68, 75–120, 160–200, 247–272, and 327–377 were predicted to be almost entirely disordered. Extensive disorder also was predicted in the C-terminal 100 residues. The known and predicted structures of the MBD matched well. The only significant difference was near residues 104–109, which are in a β-strand in the NMR structures (23, 45) and were predicted to be disordered (albeit with small negative FoldIndex values). The FoldIndex predictions closely complement the empirical CD and protease digestion data and further support the conclusion that MeCP2 is an intrinsically disordered protein with an unusual tertiary structure.

The MBD and TRD Can Function as Autonomous Nonspecific DNA Binding Domains—Given the extensive disorder in the MeCP2 structure, we were curious whether the MBD and TRD could function as isolated fragments. Residues 74–172 and 198–305 (encompassing the MBD and TRD, respectively) were cloned, expressed, and purified to >95% homogeneity as judged by SDS-PAGE (Fig. 4A). Analysis of the CD spectrum of the MBD (Fig. 4B) returned 10% α-helix, 30% β-strand, 21% β-turn, and 38% unstructured, similar to the secondary structure content of the MBD as determined by NMR (23, 45). The isolated MBD retained a small preference for methylated DNA (data not shown) and also bound nonspecifically to unmethylated DNA (Fig. 4C, lanes 10–13). The isolated TRD fragment was estimated by CD to be 85% unstructured, 3% α-helix, 7% β-strand, 5% β-turn (Fig. 4B). Based on electron microscopy analysis of MeCP2-DNA interactions, we have recently suggested that MeCP2 has a second DNA binding domain that lies within residues 1–295 (8). We therefore characterized the isolated TRD by the same DNA binding assay used to study the wild type protein and isolated MBD. The results indicated that the TRD fragment decreased DNA band mobilities comparably with the MBD (Fig. 4C, lanes 6–9), and that neither domain alone led to the supershifts seen with full-length MeCP2 (Fig.
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DISCUSSION

The 53-kDa MeCP2 monomer has a low sedimentation coefficient (2.2 s) and high frictional coefficient ratio ($f/f_o = 2.4$). These hydrodynamic properties are indicative of a rod-like shape if MeCP2 is a rigid, well packed protein. Alternatively, the high $f/f_o$ value could reflect a coil-like conformation, such as that of a denatured protein (see Ref. [34]). CD studies indicate that 60% of full-length MeCP2 is unstructured; likewise, ~40% of the isolated MBD and 85% of the isolated TRD is unstructured. Numerous sites throughout the MeCP2 sequence are trypsin-accessible in the purified protein. The FoldIndex algorithm predicts that the MeCP2 sequence has small regions of secondary structure separated by large regions of disorder. Taken together, the physicochemical data indicate that the tertiary structure of MeCP2 has coil-like hydrodynamic properties and is dominated by many disordered regions. Consistent with this conclusion, individual MeCP2 molecules in electromagnetic images appear as dumbbell-like oblate ellipsoids with no single well defined shape (8). CD experiments suggest that ~35% of the MeCP2 sequence is $\beta$-strand/turn. Thus, we speculate that MeCP2 tertiary structure consists of multiple disordered regions that emanate from, and connect, $\beta$-sheet secondary structures.

Our studies demonstrate that native MeCP2 is composed of at least six biochemically distinct domains (Fig. 5). In two cases (the MBD and TRD), the regions mapped by protease digestion closely overlap with domains defined previously based on function. Residue 85 is a prominent trypsin cleavage site (Fig. 3B, band 4), suggesting that N-terminal residues 2–84 define a discrete structural unit within MeCP2. Residues 8–68 are very disordered and have an amino acid composition almost identical to that of the HMGB1 and HMGN1 families of intrinsically disordered proteins (supplemental Fig. 3). Amino acid composition is one of the defining characteristics of intrinsically disordered protein regions (43). We therefore have termed residues 2–77 the HMGD1. Through alternative splicing, residues 2–9 of the e2 isoform are exchanged for an entirely different, 21-residue sequence in the e1 isoform (Fig. 5) (46).

The MBD has been defined as the minimum sequence needed to recognize methylated CpG dinucleotide pairs and encompasses residues 78–162 (19, 23). In our experiments, a fragment with an N terminus at residue 85 recognized methylated DNA (Fig. 3B). The structured portion of the MBD consists of a four-stranded $\beta$-sheet (residues 93–133) and a three-turn $\alpha$-helix (residues 135–144). Residues 78–102 are largely disordered (23) and appear to mediate specific interactions with a histone H3 methyltransferase (15). Residues 145–162 are unstructured and pack against one side of the $\beta$-sheet in the isolated fragment. The NMR structure of the MBD demonstrates that this protease-resistant domain is more disordered than one would expect for a well packed globular protein, consistent with our CD results. In our studies, an engineered MBD-containing fragment folded independently and bound to both methylated and unmethylated DNA, indicating the potential for autonomous function within the native protein.

The region between the MBD and TRD (residues 163–206) is also predicted to be extensively disordered. The amino acid composition of residues 163–206 closely matches that of the
HMGA1 protein (supplemental Fig. 3). Moreover, residues 188–194 in MeCP2 are identical to those found within the AT hook DNA binding domains of HMGA1 (47). Thus, we refer to this region as the high mobility group-like domain 2, or HMGD2 (Fig. 5). The HMGD2 binds to the Xenopus p20 protein (48), and residues 174–190 are the site of a predicted nuclear localization signal.4 Thus, the HMGD2 appears to be a disordered domain that participates in several different macro-molecular interactions.

The minimal TRD sequence needed to repress transiently transfected DNA is residues 207–310 (20) (Fig. 5). The TRD has been shown to interact with histone deacetylase complexes (49–51), the proto-oncogene, c-ski (14), and Dnmt1 DNA methyltransferase (16). Residues 253–269 define a predicted nuclear localization sequence.4 We have previously speculated that residues 1–294 may have additional DNA binding domains besides the MBD (8). In our experiments, an isolated TRD fragment (residues 198–305) was able to bind nonspecifically to DNA with a relative affinity comparable with the MBD (Fig. 4C). The presence of this additional DNA domain may explain how MeCP2 is able to “bridge” or cross-link long unmethylated DNA and nucleosomal arrays into oligomeric suprastructures despite being monomeric (Fig. 1) (7, 8). The isolated TRD fragment was estimated by CD to be 85% unstructured. The FoldIndex plot suggests that the TRD can be subdivided into three distinct regions (residues 200–245, residues 250–275, and residues 276–310).

C-terminal residues 310–486 (Fig. 3B, band 7), which we term the CTD, appear very early and are detectable late in tryptic digestion (Fig. 3B). This indicates that the TRD-CTD border is hypersensitive to protease digestion and that cleavage at this position releases the CTD as a relatively protease-resistant fragment. Once released from the native protein, the CTD is cleaved at position 354 to generate the protease-resistant 355–486 fragment (Fig. 3B, band 2). Based on this biochemical distinction, we refer to residues 310–354 as CTDα and 355–486 as CTDβ. The CTDα may contribute to recognition of methylated DNA in chromatin (8). The CTDβ has several noteworthy features. Residues 366–372 make up a run of 7 disordered histidines. Residues 384–387 define the consensus sequence (PPLP) recognized by group 2 WW motif-containing proteins (18, 52). Truncation at residue 404 significantly reduces the intensity of the MeCP2 footprint on mononucleosomes (13). In vitro studies have shown that the CTD is required for chromatin-specific interactions and MeCP2-mediated assembly of secondary and tertiary chromatin structures (8). Thus, the CTD appears to contain histone binding sites, a chromatin-condensing function, and binding sites for other proteins.

Several important ramifications follow from our studies of MeCP2 tertiary structure and domain organization. Despite historical focus on its methylation-dependent actions, MeCP2 should be viewed as a complex, multifunctional protein. In our in vitro biochemical experiments, MeCP2 was able to recognize CpG dinucleotides, bind nonspecifically to DNA, and potently condense unmethylated nucleosomal arrays (Fig. 1 and supplemental Fig. 1). In vivo, MeCP2 has key roles in transcriptional repression (3, 4), chromatin architecture (5, 6), and RNA splicing (9). As discussed above, all MeCP2 domains have the potential to mediate protein-DNA and/or protein-protein interactions. We speculate that the structural autonomy of these domains is related to MeCP2 multifunctionality and arises from the extensive disorder that permeates the MeCP2 sequence. Each MeCP2 domain not only can potentially function alone, but the disordered tertiary structure may allow different combinations of domains to act together for specific functional purposes. For example, the MBD-HMGD2 combination acts as a matrix attachment region binding fragment (8), whereas the HMGD2-TRD is a general co-repressor-interacting domain (5). Because of the widespread prevalence of intrinsic disorder in the protein world (27–33), the experimental dissection of the MeCP2 structure reported here may serve as a tractable experimental paradigm for characterizing other proteins with highly disordered tertiary structures.

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*Identified using PSORTII via the PSORT WWW Server.*
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