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## Epigenetic targets and drug discovery

## Part 1: Histone methylation

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## abstract

Dynamic chromatin structure is modulated by post-translational modifications on histones, such as acetylation, phosphorylation and methylation. Research on histone methylation has become the most flourishing area of epigenetics in the past fourteen years, and a large amount of data has been accumulated regarding its biology and disease implications. Correspondingly, a lot of efforts have been made to develop small molecule compounds that can specifically modulate histone methyltransferases and methylation reader proteins, aiming for potential therapeutic drugs. Here, we summarize recent progress in chemical probe and drug discovery of histone methyltransferases and methylation reader proteins. For each target, we will review their biological/biochemical functions first, and then focus on their disease implications and drug discovery. We can also see that structure-based compound design and optimization plays a critical role in facilitating the development of highly potent and selective chemical probes and inhibitors for these targets.

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Abbreviations: PTM, posttranslational modification; HMTs, histone methyltransferases; SET, Suv39, E(z) and Trithorax; SUV39, Su(var)3-9; SUV420, histone-lysine N-methyltransferase SUV420; G9a, euchromatic histone-lysine N-methyltransferase 2; GLP, G9a-like protein 1; Wiz, widely-interspaced zinc finger-containing protein; CDYL1, chromodomain Y-like protein; ACIN1, apoptotic chromatin condensation inducer in the nucleus; SAH, S-adenosyl-L-homocysteine; SAM, S-adenosylmethionine; Dot1, disruptor of telomeric silencing; Dot1L, DOT1-Like protein; EZH1, Enhancer of zeste homolog 1; EZH2, Enhancer of zeste homolog 2; Hox, homeotic box; Pcg, Polycomb group; PRC1, Polycomb Repressive Complex 1; PRC2, Polycomb Repressive Complex 2; DZNep, 3-Deazan- eplancin A; SMYD2, SET and MYND domain-containing protein 2; PRMT, protein arginine methyltransferases; AMI-1, arginine methyltransferase inhibitor-1; MBT, Malignant Brain Tumor; PEV, position-effect variegation; HSPC, hematopoietic stem and progenitor cells; ChIP, chromatin immunoprecipitation; PK, pharmacokinetic.

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## 1. Introduction

Gene expression is tightly controlled by chromatin structure spatio-temporally, and chromatin structure is dynamically regulated by various chromatin modifications, including DNA methylation, histone modifications, nucleosome positioning and chromatin remodeling. Chromatin modifying activities are recruited to their target regions through various mechanisms, such as DNA binding (for example, CpG islands), histone binding, transcription factors and non-coding RNA (ncRNA) (Nayak, Xu & Min, 2011). Therefore, gene expression is controlled hierarchically by multi-layer regulation systems, and any alterations in these epigenetic control mechanisms will lead to abnormal gene expression patterns and contribute to human diseases including cancers. Without any doubt, proteins involved in chromatin modifications would be attractive therapeutic targets for drug discovery, and tremendous progress has been made in this regard so far, for instance, three epigenetic drugs have been approved for cancer treatment and a few more are in clinical trials in recent years (Baylin & Jones, 2011; Nebbiioso et al., 2012).

In this review series, we will focus on families of proteins involved in covalent chromatin modifications, including “writers”, “readers” and “erasers” of chromatin modifications. The “writers” are enzymes, such as histone methyltransferases (HMTs), which can add different posttranslational modifications (PTMs) on specific substrates; while the “erasers” are comprised of enzymes that can remove these PTMs from specific substrates, such as histone demethylases; “readers” are proteins that can specifically recognize these PTMs, such as MBT proteins. In the first part of this review series, we shall discuss the recent progress regarding histone methyltransferases and histone methyllysine reader proteins in terms of their biological/biochemical functions, disease implications and drug discovery.

## 2. G9a/GLP: a pair of closely homologous histone H3K9me1/2 methyltransferases

In the human genome, there exists at least 60 histone methyltransferases, including histone lysine methyltransferases and arginine methyltransferases, which could also methylate proteins (Fig. 1). Many of these enzymes exist as closely homologous pairs, such as Suv39H1/2, Suv420H1/2 and EZH1/2. G9a (KMT1C, EHMT2, BAT8) and GLP (KMT1D, EHMT1) is also a pair of closely homologous SET-domain histone H3K9 methyltransferases (Fig. 1). They share a 77% sequence identity between their catalytic domains. *In vitro*, they are able to methylate histone H3K9, H3K27 and H1K26, yielding mono-, di- and trimethylation products. However, they are mainly mono- and dimethyltransferases in vivo (Shinkai & Tachibana, 2011). In addition to histones, they are also able to methylate non-histone proteins, including self-methylation. Interestingly, the target lysine on most of those reported non-histone substrates, such as G9a (ARK<sub>185</sub>T), Wiz (ARK<sub>1162</sub>M), CDYL1 (ARK<sub>135</sub>Q), ACIN1 (SRK<sub>654</sub>S), is located in an ARKS-like sequence motif, similar to that of H3K9/27 and H1K26 (Sampath et al., 2007; Rathert et al., 2008). Biochemically, both G9a and GLP could form homodimer via their catalytic domain (Wu et al., 2010), however, G9 and GLP always exist as a stoichiometric G9a–GLP heteromeric complex when purified endogenously from different cells, and knockout of either of them causes severely reduced H3K9me1/2 levels in vivo (Shinkai & Tachibana, 2011). An ANK repeat domain, which precedes the catalytic SET domain in G9a/GLP, was reported to bind to mono- and di-methylated histone H3K9 (Collins et al., 2008). HP1, an H3K9me2/3 binder, is also present in the G9a/GLP complexes and able to bind to self-methylated G9a/GLP via its ARKS motif (Sampath et al., 2007). The ANK repeat domain and HP1 in the G9a–GLP complex have been proposed to facilitate the spreading of H3K9me2 at their target loci (Shinkai & Tachibana, 2011).

The G9a–GLP complex is ubiquitously expressed and functions as the major euchromatic H3K9me1 and H3K9me2 histone methyltransferases, leading to transcriptional repression (Shinkai & Tachibana,

2011). The G9a–GLP complex plays multiple biological roles ranging from germ cell development and meiosis, embryonic development, DNA replication, cell proliferation and tumorigenesis. G9a overexpression is observed in many different cancers, such as prostate, hepatocellular, colon, lung cancers and lymphocytic leukemia. Knockdown of G9a in bladder and lung cancer cell lines inhibits cancer cell growth (Shinkai & Tachibana, 2011). Therefore, it is highly desirable to develop G9a/GLP specific inhibitors.

The first G9a/GLP specific inhibitor BIX-01294 was identified by screening G9a against a library of 125,000 preselected compounds (Kubicek et al., 2007) (Table 1). BIX-01294 is able to modulate the H3K9me2 methylation in cellular assays. Strikingly, the BIX-01294 inhibitor could also compensate for critical transcription factors, such as Sox2 or Oct4 in inducing somatic cells into pluripotent stem cells (iPSCs) (Shi et al., 2008). On the basis of our complex structure of GLP in complex with a histone H3K9 peptide and cofactor SAM (Wu et al., 2010), the cocrystal structure of GLP and BIX-01294 was determined by the group of Dr. Cheng from the Emory University, which confirmed that BIX-01294 is not a SAM-competitive inhibitor (Chang et al., 2009). Instead, it occupies the histone substrate-binding site. However, BIX-01294 was toxic to cells at high concentration, which limits its application in cellular studies. On the basis of the GLP and BIX-01294 complex structure, an early SAR study on the basis of the 2,4-diamino-6,7-dimethoxyquinazoline template of BIX-01294 by the group of Dr. Jin from the University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill and the Structural Genomics Consortium at the University of Toronto led to a potent and selective inhibitor of G9a/GLP, UNC0224 (F. Liu et al., 2009) (Table 1 and Fig. 2). The complex crystal structure of G9a–UNC0224 was further utilized for inhibitor design and optimization, yielding the highly potent compound UNC0321 (Morrison K<sub>i</sub> = 63 pM) (F. Liu et al., 2010) (Table 1). In the meantime, by adding a lysine mimic to the BIX-01294 compound, a potent and less toxic compound E72 was also reported by the group of Dr. Cheng (Chang et al., 2010) (Table 1). Nevertheless, both UNC0321 and E72 are less potent than BIX-01294 in cellular activity (F. Liu et al., 2011). Therefore, further structure-based design and synthesis was carried out, which identified UNC0638 (Table 1 and Fig. 2) as a potent, selective and cell-penetrant chemical probe for G9a and GLP (Fig. 3A). It has significantly improved toxicity/function ratio compared to BIX-01294 (Vedadi et al., 2011). UNC0638 specifically reduced K9me2 levels with little effects on other modifications. This compound was also reported to suppress BON cell proliferation through inhibition of Wnt/β-catenin pathway in an H3K9me2-dependent manner (Kim et al., 2013). After continuously treated with UNC0638, adult human hematopoietic stem and progenitor cells (HSPC) could retain stem cell-like phenotypes better, hence delaying lineage commitment of HSPC cells (Chen et al., 2012). Notably, the group of Dr. Jin also made a biotinylated version of UNC0638 (UNC0965), which facilitates purifying G9a from whole cell lysates by chemiprecipitation (Konze et al., 2014).

Although UNC0638 is a highly potent and selective G9a/GLP cellular chemical probe, this compound has poor pharmacokinetic (PK) properties, making it not suitable for animal studies. To this end, another generation of compounds were synthesized and tested to try to improve the *in vivo* PK properties, which leads to the discovery of UNC0642 (Liu et al., 2013a) (Table 1 and Fig. 2). UNC0642 is highly potent *in vitro* (IC<sub>50</sub>: b2.5 nM), and highly selective over other histone methyltransferases (over 2000-fold selective over PRC2 – EZH2 and over 20000-fold selective over 13 other methyltransferases). It also displayed improved *in vitro* and *in vivo* PK properties.

Very recently, a lead compound with a distinct chemotype from BIX-0192 and UNC0638 was discovered by a group of scientists from the Abbvie Inc. and the Structural Genomics Consortium. This compound, spiro [cyclobutane-1, 3'-indol]-2'-amine (IC<sub>50</sub>: 153 nM against G9a), was screened from a chemically distinct library of compounds by means of a peptide-based AlphaLISA screening. Although this compound has a distinct chemotype from BIX-0192 and UNC0638, it is

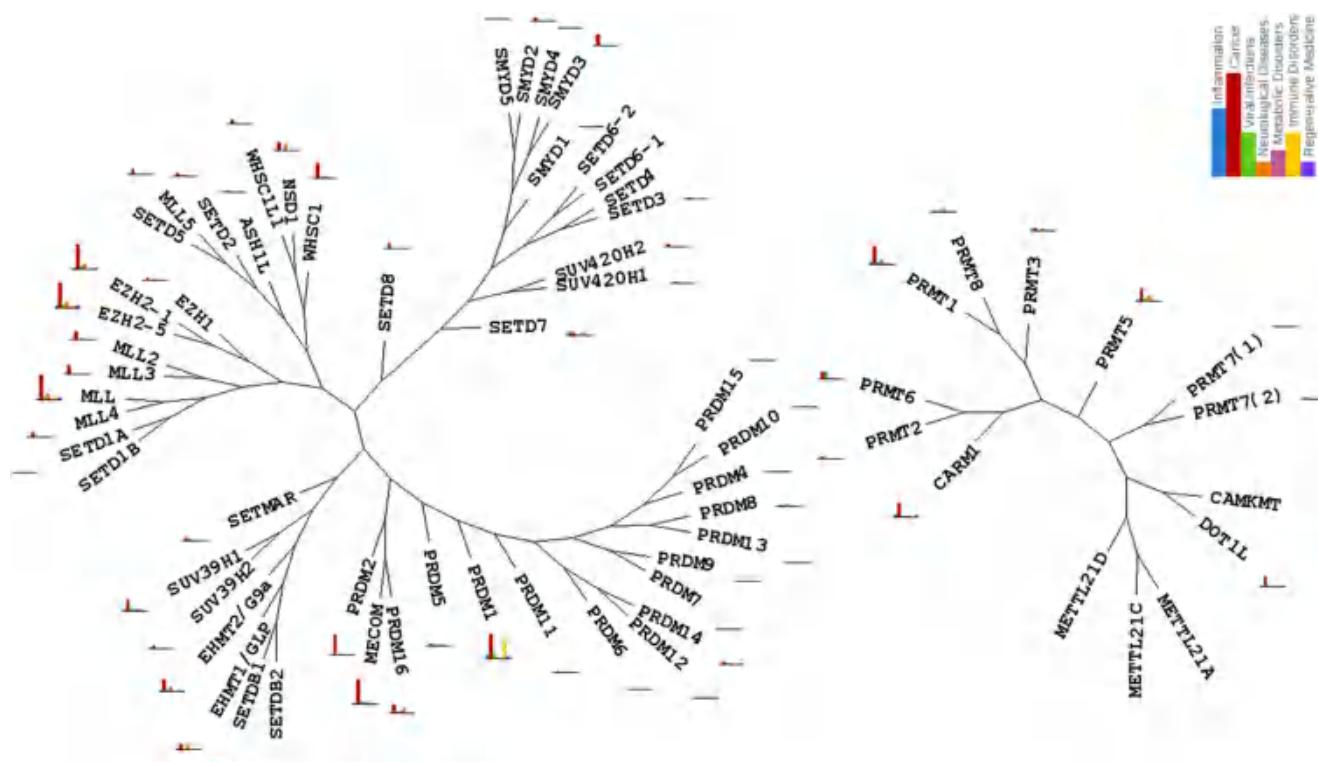


Fig. 1. Phylogenetic tree and disease association of human histone Methyltransferases.

This figure is drawn based on the website server: [http://apps.thescg.org/resources/phlogenetic\\_trees/index.php](http://apps.thescg.org/resources/phlogenetic_trees/index.php).

also peptide-competitive. By iterative medicinal chemistry to incorporate a propyl-pyrrolidine group into the enzyme lysine channel, a potent inhibitor of G9a, A-366 ( $\text{IC}_{50}$ : 3.3 nM), was identified, which displays over 1000-fold selectivity over 21 other methyltransferases (Sweis et al., 2014) (Table 1 and Fig. 3B).

3. Suv39H1/2: a pair of closely homologous histone H3K9me3 methyltransferases

*Drosophila* Su(var)3-9 gene was first discovered through modifier mutations of position-effect variegation (PEV) in 1994, which showed that Su(var)3-9 exhibited a strong suppressor effect in the regulation of PEV (Tschiersch et al., 1994). Later on, its homolog in fission yeast Clr4 was found to be essential for silencing of centromeres and mating-type loci (Ivanova et al., 1998), and its mammalian homolog SUV39H1 played a critical role in heterochromatin organization and transcriptional silencing (Aagaard et al., 1999; Firestein et al., 2000; Melcher et al., 2000). Therefore, the Su(var)3-9 gene has a conserved function from fission yeast to human, which is essential for establishing higher order chromatin structure and transcriptional silencing. Nevertheless, the molecular mechanism of how Su(var)3-9 functioned was unclear until the group of Dr. Jenuwein found that human SUV39H1 and murine Suv39h1 are histone H3K9 methyltransferases (Rea et al., 2000). Sequence analysis revealed that this protein contained an evolutionarily conserved motif of 130 amino acids, i.e., the SET domain (named after Suv39, E(z) and Trithorax), which was later shown to be the catalytic domain responsible for histone lysine methylation (Rea et al., 2000) and attracted enormous attention since then (Martin & Zhang, 2005). In addition to the SET domain, these H3K9 methyltransferases also contain an evolutionarily conserved chromodomain, which could bind to their methylation product H3K9me3 (Zhang et al., 2008; T. Wang et al., 2012). The ability of SUV39H1 and its homologs to both ‘write’ and ‘read’ H3K9me3 facilitates the spreading of the repressive H3K9me3 mark along the chromatin for assembly of heterochromatic domains and heterochromatin maintenance during cell divisions in

*Schizosaccharomyces pombe* and probably other organisms (Zhang et al., 2008).

In 2005, by screening natural products, Chaetocin, a fungal metabolite, was identified as the first inhibitor of histone methyltransferases, and was shown to specifically target the Su(var)3-9 histone H3K9 methyltransferases (Greiner et al., 2005) (Table 4). Kinetic results revealed that it was competitive with the cofactor SAM. However, later studies demonstrated that Chaetocin was a non-specific inhibitor on the basis of the following lines of evidence: 1. Chaetocin could inhibit many totally unrelated enzymes and the disulfide functionality is required for inhibition. 2. Compounds derived from Chaetocin lacking the disulfide functionality lost activity in histone H3K9 methyltransferases inhibition, but other similar natural products retaining the disulfide functionality could still inhibit histone H3K9 methyltransferases (Iwasa et al., 2010; Cherblanc et al., 2013). Because all of the histone H3K9 methyltransferases contain Zinc-binding domains, the inhibition may arise from breaking the Zinc-binding domains by the disulfide functionality of Chaetocin, and this hypothesis requires further validation, particularly structural studies (Greiner et al., 2013).

A pair of synthetic compounds (BIX-01338 and BIX-01337) was identified for SUV39H1 from the same screen in which the G9a specific BIX-01138 compound was identified (Kubicek et al., 2007) (Table 4). These two compounds acted broadly on all enzymes tested, including SUV39H1, G9a and PRMT1 (Kubicek et al., 2007). Consistently, they are SAM-competitive, because all the histone lysine/arginine methyl-transferases use SAM as the methyl group donor. Since the initial report of these inhibitors for the SUV39H1/2 enzymes, no further optimization for these compounds has been reported.

#### 4. DOT1L: a histone H3K79 methyltransferase

The Dot1 (Disruptor of telomeric silencing) gene was first identified in a genetic screen for genes whose overexpression disrupted telomeric silencing in *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* (Singer et al., 1998). Dot1 and its mammalian homolog DOT1L (DOT1-Like protein) were later found to

Table 1  
Inhibitors of G9a/GLP.

S	Chemical structure	IC <sub>50</sub> (μM) G9a/GLP	PDB code of Complex structure	PMID
BIX-01294		1.7/38	-/3FPD	17289593 (Kubicek et al., 2007)
UNC0224		0.015/0.05	3K5K/-	19891491 (Liu et al., 2009)
UNC0321		0.009/0.015		20614940 (Liu et al., 2010)
E72		−/0.1	−/3M05	20434463 (Chang et al., 2010)
UNC0638		0.015/0.019	3RIW/-	21743462 (Vedadi et al., 2011)
UNC0925		b0.0025/−		24443078 (Konze et al., 2014)
UNC0642		0.0037/0.0025		24102134 (Liu et al., 2013)
spiro[cyclobutane-1,3'-indol]-2'-amine		0.153/−		(Sweis et al., 2014) (Ramzi F. Sweis & B. Soni, 2014)
A-366		0.0033/0.038	4NVQ/-	Sweis et al., 2014 (Ramzi F. Sweis & B. Soni, 2014)
BIX-01338		4.7/−		17289593 (Kubicek et al., 2007)
BRD9539		6.3/−		22536950 (Yuan et al., 2012)
E67		−/0.273	−/3M02	20434463 (Chang et al., 2010)
E70		−/1.3		20434463 (Chang et al., 2010)
E11		−/0.154 (Kd)	−/3M00	20434463 (Chang et al., 2010)

methylate histone H3K79 on the nucleosome core (Feng et al., 2002; Lacoste et al., 2002; Ng et al., 2002; van Leeuwen et al., 2002), and this activity is essential for telomeric silencing and Sir protein localization at discrete loci in yeast, because, in Dot1 deletion cells, the Sir proteins were redistributed along the genome with compromised telomeric silencing (Lacoste et al., 2002; Ng et al., 2002; van Leeuwen et al., 2002). Dot1-mediated H3K79 methylation is dependent on monoubiquitination of histone H2B catalyzed by the Rad6-Bre1 complex,

and the histone H2B monoubiquitination is facilitated by the Paf1 complex, a complex associated with RNA polymerase II mediated transcription elongation (Briggs et al., 2002; Nishioka et al., 2002; Krogan et al., 2003; Ng et al., 2003; Wood et al., 2003). Dot1/DOT1L is the only known enzyme responsible for H3K79 methylation, and carries out mono-, di- and trimethylation in a non-processive manner (Frederiks et al., 2008). Our high resolution crystal structure of human DOT1L showed that DOT1L contains a non-SET domain catalytic domain, and

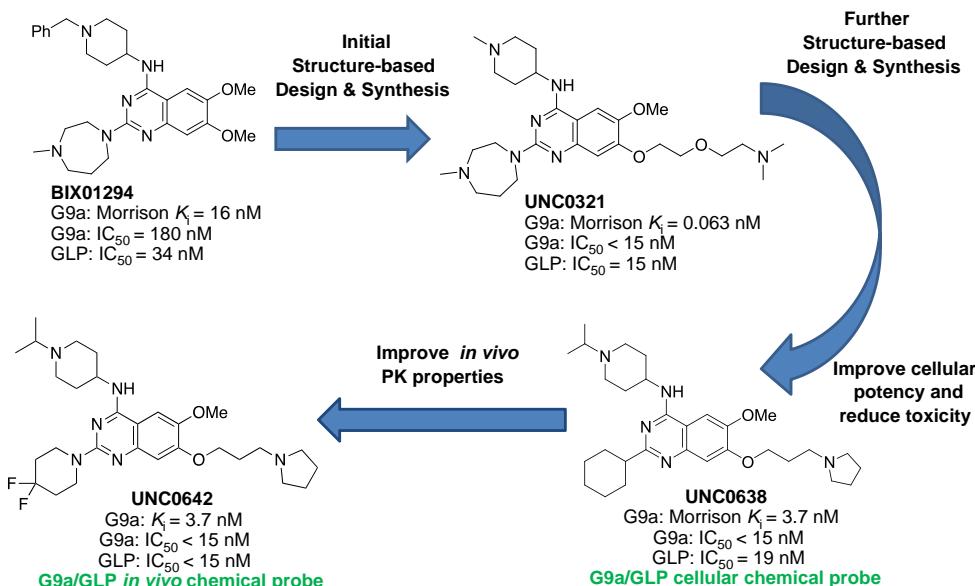


Fig. 2. Structure-based design and synthesis of G9a/GLP inhibitors.

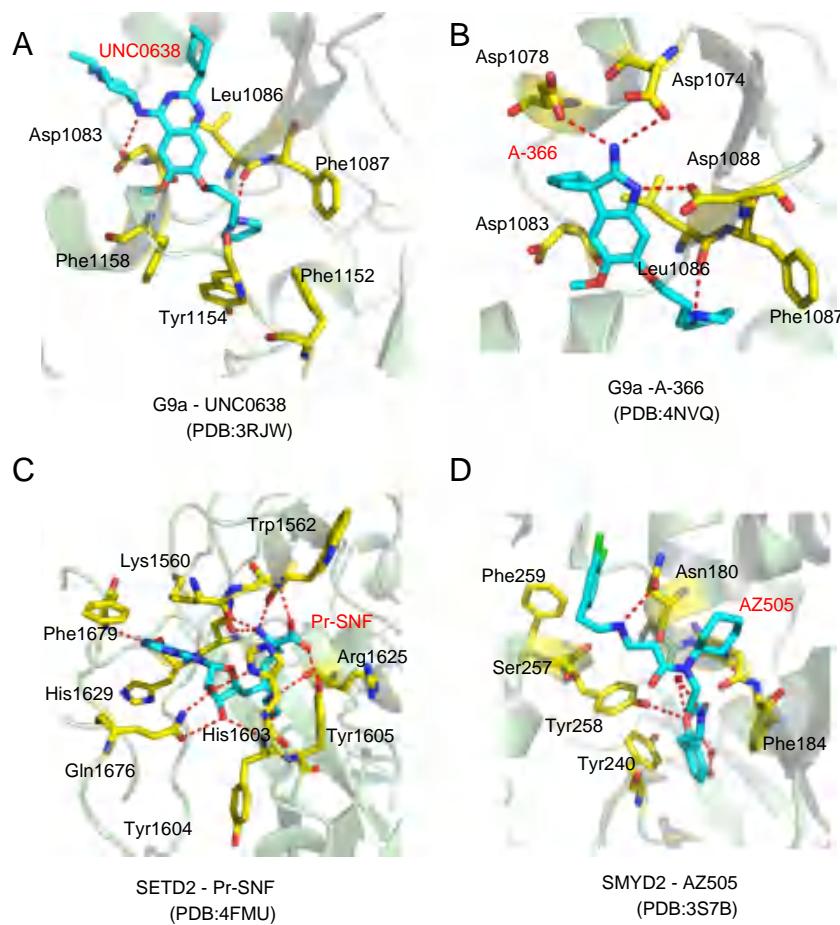


Fig. 3. Inhibitor binding in the G9a, SMYD2 and SETD2 complex structures. (A) UNC0638 in G9a, (B) A-366 in G9a, (C) Pr-SNF in SETD2, (D) AZ505 in SMYD2. Protein residues in contact with inhibitors are depicted by stick models with their carbon atoms colored as yellow. Inhibitors are shown as stick models with their carbon atoms colored as aquamarine. Hydrogen bonds are marked with a red dashed line. (For interpretation of the references to color in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

its catalytic domain adapts a class I SAM-dependent methyltransferase fold (Min et al., 2003a), a fold also observed in histone/protein arginine methyltransferases and DNA methyltransferases (Schubert et al., 2003).

Histone H3K79 methylation is generally associated with transcriptional activation. Dot1/DOT1L-mediated histone H3K79 methylation plays an important role in various biological and cellular processes, such as transcriptional regulation, cell cycle regulation, DNA repair, myocardial genesis, embryonic development and hematopoiesis (Nguyen & Zhang, 2011). Knockout of DOT1L in mice results in cardiovascular defects, including heart enlargement and vasculature (Jones et al., 2008), and the cardiac-specific knockout of mouse DOT1L was believed to suppress the expression of Dystrophin, which is a critical component of the dystrophin-glycoprotein complex (DGC). DGC is involved in signal force transmission and relieving mechanical stress during heart contraction (Nguyen & Zhang, 2011). The DOT1L-mutant mice also displayed anemia and defects in embryonic hematopoiesis (Feng et al., 2010b). Most importantly, DOT1L was shown to interact with a subset of MLL translocation fusion proteins, including AF10, ENL, AF9 and AF4 (Nguyen & Zhang, 2011). MLL fusion proteins, such as AF10, AF9, ENL and AF4 are involved in two-thirds of all MLL-associated leukemias (Ayton & Cleary, 2001). These MLL fusion proteins would interact with DOT1L and recruit the DOT1L-mediated H3K79 methylation to their target genes, including proleukemogenic genes (such as Hoxa9 and Meis1) (Nguyen & Zhang, 2011). Therefore, DOT1L is implicated in various human diseases, leukemia in particular, which raises the possibility of DOT1L as a potential therapeutic target for drug discovery, including inhibiting the enzymatic activity of DOT1L and disrupting its interaction with the MLL fusion proteins.

In 2011, Epizyme Inc., a startup pharmaceutical company, reported a potent and selective DOT1L inhibitor EPZ004777 (Table 2), which could specifically inhibit H3K79 methylation and suppress leukemogenic genes (Daigle et al., 2011). Remarkably, this compound selectively killed leukemic cells bearing the MLL translocation genes, but virtually not non-MLL-translocated cells. An extended survival was also observed in a mouse MLL xenograft model after in vivo administration of EPZ004777 (Daigle et al., 2011). Following this exciting discovery, over 20 DOT1L inhibitors have been reported in the literature and many more are patented in less than 3 years (Yao et al., 2011; Anglin et al., 2012; Basavapathruni et al., 2012; Yu et al., 2012; Copeland, 2013; Daigle et al., 2013; Deng et al., 2013; Yu et al., 2013; Basavapathruni et al., in press). Four routes were followed in design and optimization of the DOT1L inhibitors, i.e., SAH-based, mechanism-based, carbamate-based and urea/benzimidazole-containing inhibitors (Anglin & Song, 2013), but all of these inhibitors are SAM-competitive inhibitors (Fig. 4). The EPZ004777 compound and its optimized version EPZ-5676 belong to the urea/benzimidazole-containing inhibitors (Daigle et al., 2013) (Table 2). EPZ-5676 is a highly potent and selective inhibitor of DOT1L with  $K_i$  of 70 pM, and has over 10,000-fold selectivity against other HMTs. Superposition of the crystal structures of DOT1L in complex with SAM, EPZ-5676 and TT8 (a SAH-based inhibitor) showed that EPZ-5676 forms hydrogen-bonds with residues Asp222, Glu186, Gly163 and Asp161 from DOT1L, and the side chains of Thr139 and Phe239 move away from the SAM binding site, which open up to form a hydrophobic pocket for binding the 4-tert-butylphenyl group of EPZ-5676 and contribute to the superior potency and selectivity (Daigle et al., 2013) (Fig. 4C). Now EPZ-5676 is in phase I clinical trials

for advanced hematologic malignancies, including acute leukemia with rearrangement of the MLL gene, which is a first-in-human study.

## 5. EZH2 and the PRC2 complex: a histone H3K27 methyltransferase

The Drosophila E(z) (Enhancer of zeste) gene belongs to a group of genes called Polycomb group genes, which were originally identified to be responsible for maintaining the spatial expression pattern of homeotic box (Hox) genes during development in Drosophila. Mutation of any of them would cause homeotic transformation. Polycomb group proteins are transcriptional repressors, antagonistic to Trithorax group proteins, a group of transcriptional activators. This cellular memory system is conserved in nearly all multicellular eukaryotes (Pirrotta & Gross, 2005). Pcg proteins often function as complexes, and the two best-characterized complexes are the Polycomb Repressive Complex 1 (PRC1) and 2 (PRC2). PRC2 exhibits histone methyltransferase activity on H3K27 via its catalytic subunit E(z) or mammalian homologs EZH1/EZH2 (Enhancer of zeste homolog 1 or 2) (Cao et al., 2002; Czernin et al., 2002; Muller et al., 2002; Cao & Zhang, 2004). PRC1 contains a chromodomain protein, Polycomb, which preferentially recognizes the histone H3K27me3 mark (Fischle et al., 2003; Min et al., 2003b). One hypothesis is that H3K27 methylation by PRC2 creates a binding site for the chromodomain of Polycomb, which in turn maintains transcriptional silencing through an unknown mechanism (Wang et al., 2004).

The PRC2 complex consists of four core components: EZH2/EZH1, EED, SUZ12 and RbAp46/48 (Czernin et al., 2002; Kuzmichev et al., 2002; Muller et al., 2002). EZH2/EZH1 has virtually no histone methylation activity on its own, but exhibits robust methylation activity as a complex (Czernin et al., 2002; Muller et al., 2002). The N-terminal domain of EED is also essential for histone H3K27 trimethylation of H3K27 because an N-terminally truncated EED can still form a complex with EZH2, but this complex is not active any more (Tie et al., 2007). In addition to binding to EZH2, others and we have also shown that EED is able to bind to histone H3K27me3, suggesting a mechanism for PRC2 to

propagate and spread the H3K27me3 mark to daughter strands during cell division (Margueron et al., 2009; Xu et al., 2010; Nayak et al., 2011). In addition to silencing Hox genes, EZH2-mediated H3K27 methylation is also involved in X-inactivation, germline development, stem cell pluripotency and differentiation, and cancer metastasis (Cao & Zhang, 2004).

EZH2 is linked to various human cancers through distinct mechanisms, including overexpression, activating mutations and inactivating mutations. Overexpression of EZH2 was first linked to prostate cancer and breast cancer by microarray analysis over a decade ago (Varambally et al., 2002; Kleer et al., 2003). EZH2 overexpression was also observed in other cancers and could serve as a prognostic marker (Chase & Cross, 2011; Takawa et al., 2011). Point mutations at Tyr641, a residue located in the catalytic SET domain of EZH2, was recently found to exist in 8–24% of non-Hodgkin lymphomas, and this EZH2 mutant is always heterozygous (Morin et al., 2010; Sneeringer et al., 2010; Morin et al., 2011; Yap et al., 2011; Lohr et al., 2012). Hence, tumor cells with this mutation would have one copy of wild type EZH2 and one copy of mutated EZH2. Interestingly, enzymatic assays showed that the wild-type EZH2 is more efficiently in generating monomethylation than di or tri-methylation of histone H3K27, whereas the mutant EZH2 is inactive with unmodified H3K27 as a substrate, but very efficient in generating H3K27me2 and especially H3K27me3 marks (Sneeringer et al., 2010; Yap et al., 2011). Therefore, the wild type and Tyr641 mutant EZH2 would cooperatively generate and maintain hypertrimethylation of H3K27, which contributes to lymphomagenic proliferation by abnormal silencing of the PRC2 target genes (McCabe et al., 2012). On the other hand, homozygous inactivating mutations of EZH2, including missense, nonsense and premature stop codons, would lead to various myeloid neoplasms with poor prognosis (Ernst et al., 2010; Nikoloski et al., 2010). Therefore, both activating/overexpressing and inactivating EZH2 lead to abnormal PRC2 functions and carcinogenesis.

In 2012, three groups reported potent and selective small molecule inhibitors for EZH2 independently, which could diminish histone

Table 2  
Inhibitors of Dot1L.

Compound Name	Chemical structure	IC <sub>50</sub> (μM)	PDB code of complex structure	PMID
EPZ004777		0.0004 0.3 (Ki) 0.0001 (Kd)	4EKI 4ER34ER5	21741596 (Daigle et al., 2011) 22978415 (Basavapathruni et al., 2012)
EPZ-5676		8.00E-05	4HRA	23801631 (Daigle et al., 2013)
SGC0946		0.0003	4ER6	23250418 (Yu et al., 2012)
yao11_cmpd_4		0.038		21936531 (Yao et al., 2011)
yao11_cmpd_2		1.1		21936531 (Yao et al., 2011)
EPZ003696		0.0017 (Kd)	4EKG	22978415 (Basavapathruni et al., 2012)
EPZ000004			4EK9	22978415 (Basavapathruni et al., 2012)
FED2			4EQZ	
SGC0947			4ER7	
FED1		0.066–0.55 0.00046 (Ki)	4ERO	
TT8		0.29 (Ki)	3SR4	21936531 (Yao et al., 2011)
5ID		18.2	3UWP	

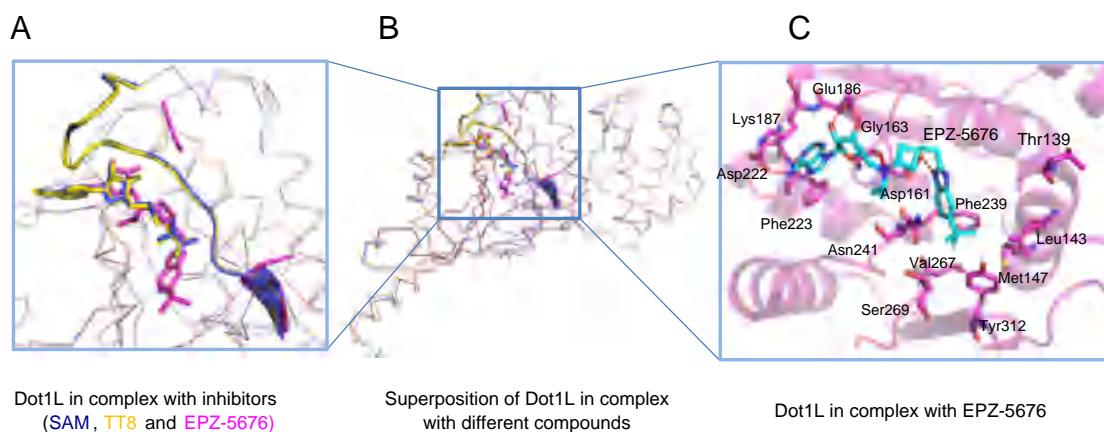


Fig. 4. Distinct binding mode of EPZ-5676 by DOT1L. (A) A large conformational change of a loop near SAM (depicted in cartoon) is introduced by the 4-tert-butylphenyl group of EPZ-5676. SAM (blue, PDB: 1NW3), TT8 (yellow, PDB: 3SR4) and EPZ-5676 (pink, PDB: 4HRA) are shown as stick models. (B) Superposition of crystal structures of SAM, TT8 and EPZ-5676 in complex with DOT1L. SAM, TT8 and EPZ-5676 are shown as stick models. (C) Detailed interactions between EPZ-5676 and DOT1L. EPZ-5676 is shown as stick model in aquamarine, and binding residues from DOT1L are shown as stick models in pink. Hydrogen bonds are marked with a red dashed line. (For interpretation of the references to color in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

H3K37 methylation and inhibit diffuse large B-cell lymphoma with EZH2-activating mutations (Knutson et al., 2012; McCabe et al., 2012; Qi et al., 2012). These three inhibitors, EPZ005687, GSK126 and EI1 are all SAM-competitive (Table 3), and share the same chemotype pyridines. They exhibited about 500-fold to 10,000 fold selectivity over other histone methyltransferases and about 100-fold selectivity for EZH2 over its closely homologous EZH1. Based on sequence alignment and structural modeling, a stretch of 4 residues difference between EZH2 and EZH1, which is located in the post-SET domain, may contribute to the decreased potency for EZH1 (McCabe et al., 2012). On the basis of the first series of EZH2 inhibitors, the group of Dr. Jin from the UNC developed an inhibitor UNC1999 (Konze et al., 2013) (Table 3). UNC1999 retains the key structural features of

EPZ005687 and GSK126, especially the pyridone indazole scaffold, but has the morpholinomethyl region modified to obtain improved physicochemical properties. UNC1999 has low selectivity for EZH2 over EZH1 (about 10 fold) (Table 3), but keeps the high selectivity over other histone methyltransferases (N10,000-fold). More importantly, UNC1999 has better oral bioavailability than the previously reported inhibitors (Konze et al., 2013). Simultaneously, a group of scientists from the Constellation Pharmaceuticals, Inc. reported another series of compounds that bear a benzamide core (Table 3). These inhibitors are also SAM-competitive (Garapati-Rao et al., 2013), and compound 3 reported in the paper exhibited submicromolar in vitro inhibition for EZH2 (wild type and mutant) and EZH1, and selectively suppress H3K27 methylation globally in cells (Konze et al., 2013).

Table 3  
Inhibitors of EZH2/EZH1.

Compound Name	Chemical structure	IC <sub>50</sub> (μM) EZH2/EZH1	PDB code of complex structure	PMID
EPZ005687		0.054/1		23023262 (Knutson et al., 2012)
GSK126		0.0005/0.089		23051747 (McCabe et al., 2012)
EI1		0.0094/1.34		23236167 (Qi et al., 2012)
UNC1999		0.0046/0.045		23614352 (Konze et al., 2013)
garapatyrao13_cmpd3		0.032/0.21		24183969 (Garapati-Rao et al., 2013)
EPZ-6438		0.011/0.4		23620515 (Knutson et al., 2013)
copeland12_75				Patent US 20120071418A1
1346702-70-2		0.004/-		WO2011140325
GSK343		0.004/0.24		DOI: 10.1021/ml3003346
BRD9539		10/-		22536950 (Yuan et al., 2012)

By means of iterative medicinal chemistry, Epizyme Inc. developed a second-generation compound EPZ-6438 (Table 3), which has superior potency and pharmacokinetic properties over EPZ005687. Specifically, EPZ-6438 displayed a 35-fold selectivity versus EZH1 and N4500-fold selectivity over 14 other HMTs (Knutson et al., 2013). In June 2013, Epizyme initiated a Phase 1/2 clinical trial of EPZ-6438 in patients with advanced solid tumors or with relapsed or refractory B-cell lymphoma.

## 6. Other histone/protein methyltransferases and inhibitors

### 6.1. General SAM-dependent methyltransferase inhibitors: SAH, SNF and DZNep

SAM-dependent methyltransferases transfer the methyl group from the methyl donor SAM to substrates, producing SAH (S-adenosyl-L-homocysteine) and methylated substrates. Therefore, SAH can act as a general inhibitor of SAM-dependent methyltransferases. Sinefungin, which is an antifungal antibiotics isolated from *Streptomyces griseolus* and was first identified as a potent inhibitor of virion mRNA methyltransferases in 1978 (Pugh et al., 1978), is also potent to all SAM-dependent methyltransferases. DZNep (3-Deazan-eplanocin A) is a potent inhibitor of SAH hydrolase (Glazer et al., 1986), which hydrolyzed SAH to homocysteine and adenosine. Inhibition of the SAH hydrolase will cause accumulation of SAH, inhibiting SAM-dependent methyltransferases indirectly. Although these three compounds and their analogs have been used as general SAM-dependent methyltransferase inhibitors, recent studies show that they also exhibit strong selectivity among histone lysine methyltransferases. By profiling against a panel of histone methyltransferases, Sinefungin shows over 3- to 400-fold selectivity for SMYD2 over other methyltransferases tested (Qi et al., 2012). So far, over half of human histone methyltransferases have been determined structurally by us and others (Shah et al., 2014), which would aid us in designing target-specific SAM-competitive inhibitors on the basis of structural differences around the SAM binding pocket. Indeed, recently, we reported a series of N-alkyl sinefungin analogs, which selectively inhibits SETD2 over other histone methyltransferases tested, and our cocrystal structure shows that the N-propyl Sinefungin (Pr-SNF) compound interacts preferentially with SETD2 by matching the distinct transition-state features of SETD2 in its catalytically active conformation (Zheng et al., 2012) (Table 4 and Fig. 3C).

In 2007, the group of Dr. Yu from the Genome Institute of Singapore found that DZNep could inhibit histone H3K27 methylation and reactivate a set of genes selectively repressed by PRC2 in breast cancer. Reactivation of these genes induces apoptosis in breast cancer cells, but not in normal cells (Tan et al., 2007). Although DZNep could also inhibit other histone methylation marks (Miranda et al., 2009; Lee & Kim, 2013), it seems to have much more profound effect on the PRC2 complex and histone H3K27 methylation. Distinct from other HMT inhibitors, DZNep inhibits the PRC2 complex-mediated histone H3K27 methylation through increased degradation of the PRC2 complex. In addition to killing breast cancer cells, DZNep has also been shown to promote apoptosis in other types of cancers, such as, tumor-initiating hepatocellular carcinoma (Chiba et al., 2012), acute myeloid leukemia (Zhou et al., 2011), non-small cell lung cancer (Kikuchi et al., 2012), Head and neck squamous cell carcinoma (HNSCC) (Gannon et al., 2013), Colon Cancer (Benoit et al., 2013), tongue cancer (Li et al., 2013), pancreatic cancer (Hung et al., 2013) and ovarian cancer (Shen et al., 2013) in a PRC2 and H3K27 methylation-dependent manner.

### 6.2. SMYD2: a histone and protein lysine methyltransferase

SMYD2 (SET and MYND domain-containing protein 2) is a histone and protein lysine methyltransferase (Fig. 1). It has been reported to methylate both histone (H2B, H3, and H4) and nonhistone proteins, such as tumor suppressors p53 and Rb (Brown et al., 2006; J. Huang

et al., 2006; Abu-Farha et al., 2008; J. Wu et al., 2011). Enzymatic analysis shows that SMYD2 is a monomethyltransferase that prefers nonmethylated p53 peptide as a substrate among different histone and protein substrates tested in vitro (J. Wu et al., 2011). SMYD2 plays a critical role during early development and in human ES cell differentiation (Sese et al., 2013). Overexpression of SMYD2 was frequently detected in esophageal squamous cell carcinoma (ESCC) patients with a worse survival rate than those with non-expressing tumors (Komatsu et al., 2009). By means of the high throughput AlphaScreen technology to screen against a 1.23 million compound library, a potent and selective inhibitor of SMYD2, AZ505 ( $K_d$  of 0.5  $\mu$ M) (Table 4), was discovered. It is noteworthy that it also exhibited strong selectivity over its close homologue SMYD3 and presumably other members in the subfamily (Ferguson et al., 2011). AZ505 is a substrate-competitive inhibitor, occupying a similar location in the substrate-binding groove of SMYD2 like G9a/GLP inhibitors do in the G9a/GLP complex structures (Ferguson et al., 2011) (Fig. 3D).

## 6.3. Arginine methyltransferases

Arginine methylation is a very abundant covalent post-translational modification in cells, which regulates diverse cellular processes, including transcriptional regulation, RNA processing, signal transduction and DNA repair (Bedford & Richard, 2005). Nine protein arginine methyltransferases (PRMT) have been identified in the human genome, which can be grouped into three classes. Type I PRMTs (PRMT1, 2, 3, 4, 6, and 8) generate both monomethylarginine and asymmetric dimethylarginine marks. PRMT5 is the only confirmed Type II arginine methyltransferase generating monomethylarginine and symmetric dimethylarginine marks. PRMT7 is a type III arginine methyltransferase generating only monomethylarginine mark. The enzymatic activity of PRMT9 is not characterized yet (Bedford & Richard, 2005). Protein arginine methyltransferases can methylate a variety of targets, including histones, Sm proteins and transcription factors (Bedford & Richard, 2005; Di Lorenzo & Bedford, 2011). Many of these target proteins contain glycine and arginine-rich (GAR) motifs, such as SmD1/3 and MIWI/PIWI proteins (Friesen et al., 2001; Siomi et al., 2010). Some target proteins harbor PGM motifs (Cheng et al., 2007). Overexpression, aberrant splicing or mutations of these different PRMTs have been implicated in various types of cancer, which have been nicely reviewed recently (Yang & Bedford, 2013), so here we will just focus on the advances in developing PRMT inhibitors as chemical probes and therapeutic reagents.

The first series of arginine methyltransferase inhibitors were reported by the group of Dr. Bedford from the University of Texas M.D. Anderson Cancer Center in 2004. One of these inhibitors, AMI-1 (arginine methyltransferase inhibitor-1) (Table 4), was shown to be non-SAM-competitive and specifically inhibit arginine methylation, not lysine methylation. Since then, many groups have devoted a great deal of effort to developing arginine methyltransferase inhibitors, which can be classified as AMI-1-like (Castellano et al., 2010; Dowden et al., 2010), substrate-competitive inhibitors (Purandare et al., 2008; Huynh et al., 2009; Wan et al., 2009; Sack et al., 2011), bisubstrate inhibitors (Dowden et al., 2010; Lakowski et al., 2010; t Hart et al., 2011), substrate-targeting inhibitors (inhibitors targeting substrates directly, such as histone H3 or H4 other than PRMTs) (Feng et al., 2010a; Selvi et al., 2010; J. Wang, et al., 2012) and allosteric inhibitors of PRMT3 (Siarheyeva et al., 2012; Liu et al., 2013b) (Table 4). Most of these inhibitors have modest inhibition activity and poor cell permeability with no selectivity among the PRMT members. It is worth noting that the indole and pyrazole inhibitors of CARM1, which occupy the substrate-binding groove, have decent selectivity over PRMT1/3 (over 300 folds) (Sack et al., 2011) (Table 4). Structural analysis revealed that the specificity arises from structural/sequence differences from the putative substrate binding groove, particularly from the N-domain among these members (Sack et al., 2011). Allosteric inhibitors are another interesting set of

Table 4  
Inhibitors of SUV39H1 and other methyltransferases.

Protein name	Compound name	Chemical structure	IC <sub>50</sub> (μM)	PDB code of complex structure	PMID
SUV39H1	Chaetocin				16408017 (Greiner et al., 2005)
	BIX-01338		1.1		17289593 (Kubicek et al., 2007)
SETD2	BIX-01337		3.7		17289593 (Kubicek et al., 2007)
	zheng12_cmp3d		0.48		23043551 (Zheng et al., 2012)
	OUM		8.2 0.36 (Kd)	4FMU	23043551 (Zheng et al., 2012)
SETD7	compound 4		63.6		17458842 (Mai et al., 2007) 18348515 (Mai et al., 2008)
	compound 8		37.1		17458842 (Mai et al., 2007)
	compound 9		34.6		17458842 (Mai et al., 2007) 18348515 (Mai et al., 2008)
	compound 10		19.1		17458842 (Mai et al., 2007) 18348515 (Mai et al., 2008)
	ciproheptadine		20		Norikazu et al. (2012) Kyushu Institute of Technology. Patent JP 2011-224604 20111012. Priority: JP 2010-230916 20101013. AN 2012:768019
	CCT021895		20		22772057 (Francis et al., 2012)
	ON6			4E47	
	IL4			4IDS	
	IL8			4JLG	
	K15			3VUZ	23519668 (Niwa et al., 2013)
	KH3		10	3VV0	23519668 (Niwa et al., 2013)
SETD8	EBI-435				Kodoma et al. WO 2011010715
	EBI-455				Kodoma et al. WO 2011010715
	EBI-099		4.7		Kodoma et al. WO 2011010715
SMYD2	AZ505		0.12	3S7B	21782458 (Ferguson et al., 2011)
PRMT1	AMI-1		8.81		15056663 (Cheng et al., 2004) 17323938 (Ragno et al., 2007) 17432842 (Spannhoff et al., 2007)

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Table 4 (continued)

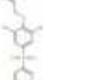
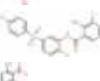
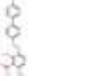
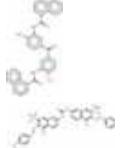
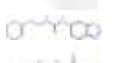
Protein name	Compound name	Chemical structure	IC <sub>50</sub> (μM)	PDB code of complex structure	PMID
AMI-2			11.18		15056663 (Cheng et al., 2004)
AMI-3			16.29		15056663 (Cheng et al., 2004)
AMI-4			0.19		15056663 (Cheng, et al., 2004)
AMI-5			1.41		15056663 (Cheng et al., 2004) 17323938 (Ragno et al., 2007) 17432842 (Spannhoff et al., 2007)
AMI-6			5.11		15056663 (Cheng et al., 2004) 17323938 (Ragno et al., 2007)
AMI-7			1.61		15056663 (Cheng et al., 2004)
AMI-8			1.8		15056663 (Cheng et al., 2004)
AMI-9			0.28		15056663 (Cheng et al., 2004)
sinefungin			1.63		15056663 (Cheng et al., 2004)
Bissinger_2e			1.5		21440447 (Bissinger et al., 2011)
allantodapsone			1.7		17432842 (Spannhoff et al., 2007)
dowden2010_16			2.9		20219369 (Dowden et al., 2010)
compound 4			11.8		17458842 (Mai et al., 2007)
compound 8			3.4		17458842 (Mai et al., 2007)
compound 9			3		17458842 (Mai et al., 2007)
compound 10			9.9		17458842 (Mai et al., 2007)
Bonham10_C4			4.2		20345902 (Bonham et al., 2010)
BIX-01338			6		17289593 (Kubicek et al., 2007)

Table 4 (continued)

Protein name	Compound name	Chemical structure	IC <sub>50</sub> (μM)	PDB code of complex structure	PMID
	A36		12		22928876 (J. Wang et al., 2012; T. Wang et al., 2012)
	NS-1		12.7		20666457 (Feng et al., 2010a, 2010b)
	NS-2		43.1		20666457 (Feng et al., 2010a, 2010b)
PRMT3	TDU		2.5	3SMQ	22795084 (Siarheyeva et al., 2012)
	KTD			4HSG	
PRMT5	1313207-04-3				
	A9145C		0.035		23071334 (Antonyasamy et al., 2012)
	EPZ004777		0.5		21741596 (Daigle et al., 2011)
CARM1					
	therrien09_2b		0.06		19836951 (Therrien et al., 2009)
	therrien09_12		0.2		19836951 (Therrien et al., 2009)
	therrien09_23d		0.9		19836951 (Therrien et al., 2009)
	therrien09_23m		0.32		19836951 (Therrien et al., 2009)
	wan09_1		0.04		19632837 (Wan et al., 2009)
	wan09_17b		0.07		19632837 (Wan et al., 2009)
	benzo[d]imidazole related analog_17a		0.41		19632837 (Wan et al., 2009)
	benzo[d]imidazole related analog_17b		0.07		19632837 (Wan et al., 2009)
	benzo[d]imidazole related analog_17c		0.26		19632837 (Wan et al., 2009)
	benzo[d]imidazole related analog_17d		0.12		19632837 (Wan et al., 2009)
	Benzo[d]imidazole related analog_17e		4.6		19632837 (Wan et al., 2009)
	Benzo[d]imidazole related analog_2		0.84		19632837 (Wan et al., 2009)

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Table 4 (continued)

Protein name	Compound name	Chemical structure	IC <sub>50</sub> (μM)	PDB code of complex structure	PMID
	benzo[d]imidazole related analog_5		17		19632837 (Wan et al., 2009)
	benzo[d]imidazole related analog_8		1.2		19632837 (Wan et al., 2009)
	Benzo[d]imidazole related analog_9		2.9		19632837 (Wan et al., 2009)
	benzo[d]imidazole related analog_14		0.7		19632837 (Wan et al., 2009)
	Bonham10_C4		2.7		20345902 (Bonham et al.)
	cheng_cmpd_7g		8.6		21612300 (Cheng et al., 2011)
	TBDD		25		20022955 (Selvi et al., 2010)
	compound 4		52.7		17458842 (Mai et al., 2007)
	compound 8		35.7		17458842 (Mai et al., 2007)
	compound 9		100.1		17458842 (Mai et al., 2007)
	compound 10		40.8		17458842 (Mai et al., 2007)
	845		0.027	2Y1X	21410432 (Sack et al., 2011)
	849		0.465 (Kd)	2Y1W	21410432 (Sack et al., 2011)

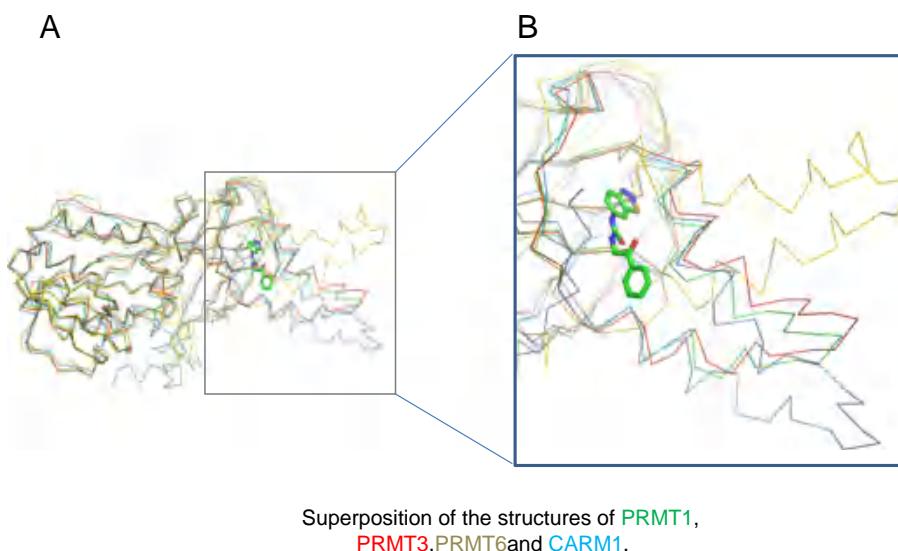
inhibitors for PRMTs (Siarheyeva et al., 2012; Liu et al., 2013b) (Table 4). Structural analyses showed that these allosteric inhibitors reside in a pocket formed mainly by the dimerization arm (Fig. 5A and B). The dimerization arm is a common and essential structure element among the type I PRMTs, which is required for their enzymatic activity. On the other hand, the dimerization arm is also very diverse among the PRMT members in sequence and structure (Fig. 5A and B). Therefore, it provides another venue in developing potent and selective inhibitors for the PRMT enzymes.

#### 7. MBT repeat domain proteins: mono- and di-methyl lysine binding proteins

The MBT (Malignant Brain Tumor) repeat is a structural motif of ~100 amino acids, which often exists as tandem repeats (Wismar et al., 1995). It was originally identified in the Drosophila tumor-suppressor protein L(3)mbt, a putative tumor-suppressor gene. Mutations of L(3)MBT affect synchronous mitotic divisions and nuclear migration of early embryos (Yohn et al., 2003). Based on sequence analysis, the MBT repeat shows structural similarity with the chromo-domain, Tudor and PWWP domains, which are jointly referred to as

the Tudor domain 'Royal Family' (Maurer-Stroh et al., 2003). The MBT domain is conserved across metazoa. There are 9 MBT domain containing proteins in the human genome. Like other members in the Tudor Royal superfamily, MBT domains in different proteins have been shown to bind to methylated histones, specifically mono and di-methylated histones by us and others (Kim et al., 2006; Li et al., 2007; Min et al., 2007; Trojer et al., 2007; Adams-Cioaba & Min, 2009; Eryilmaz et al., 2009; Guo et al., 2009). Functional studies of human L3MBTL1 have suggested that L3MBTL1 could compact nucleosomal arrays with mono- and di-methylated H4K20, but not trimethylated H4K20 (Trojer et al., 2007). The association of L3MBTL1 with chromatin is abolished by the knockdown of the H4K20 monomethyltransferase SETD8 (Trojer et al., 2007; Kalakonda et al., 2008). L3MBTL2 plays an essential role in pluripotent stem cells and early development (Qin et al., 2012). In Drosophila, Scm of two MBT repeats is a core component in the PRC1 complex, which is essential for the repression of Hox genes. Embryos lacking Scm protein show widespread misexpression of Hox genes and die at the end of embryogenesis (Breen & Duncan, 1986; Bornemann et al., 1998; Grimm et al., 2007).

L3MBTL1 downregulates the expression of a subset of genes controlled by E2F (Trojer et al., 2007), and is essential for genome stability



**Fig. 5.** Superposition of the complex structures of CARM1 (PDB: 2Y1W), PRMT1 (PDB: 1ORI), PRMT3 (PDB: 4HSG) and PRMT6 (PDB: 4HC4). (A) The inhibitor KTD in complex with PRMT3 is shown as stick models with carbon atoms colored as green. Proteins are shown as ribbon models and colored in blue for CARM1, green for PRMT1, red for PRMT3 and yellow for PRMT6, respectively. (B) Zoomed view of the dimerization arm in different PRMT structures. (For interpretation of the references to color in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

(Gurvich et al., 2010). L3MBTL suppresses erythroid differentiation and is implicated in the pathogenesis of myeloid malignancies associated with 20q deletions (Aziz et al., 2013). In order to facilitate the biological studies of L3MBTL1 and related proteins, the group of Dr. Frye from the University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill launched a small molecule inhibitor screening effort to antagonize the L3MBTL1-histone peptide interactions in collaboration with the Structural Genomics Consortium, University of Toronto. After unsuccessful attempts of virtual screening and diverse compound library screening, they switched to a ligand- and structure-based design approach, starting from a peptide mimics (Herold et al., 2011). Initial successful discovery that only the pyrrolidine mimics of the methyl-lysine side chain contribute to binding affinity persuaded them to focus on non-peptidic small molecules of the pyrrolidine scaffold, which yielded a compound UNC669 (Table 5 and Fig. 6A). UNC669 exhibited a binding affinity of ~5 μM to L3MBTL1, which is a few times stronger than the native histone peptides. In addition, this compound has modest selectivity over some other MBT members (Herold et al., 2011).

Based on structure-guided sequence alignment, we have predicted previously that some MBT members might have more than one MBT repeat capable of binding methylated histones, such as L3MBTL3 (Guo et al., 2009). The potential multivalent binding feature of these MBT proteins could be utilized to develop potent chemical probes. Based on the compound UNC669, a symmetrical compound UNC1215 was synthesized in the hope that this compound was able to bind to the aromatic cages of two different MBT repeats of a MBT protein of two potential methyllysine binding MBT repeats, such as L3MBTL3 (James et al., 2013) (Table 5). Indeed, UNC1215 shows a strong binding affinity of 120 nM to L3MBTL3, which is 40 times more potent than UNC669 to L3MBTL1. It also shows over 50-fold selectivity over other MBT proteins and over 200-fold selectivity over other histone reader domains. As expected, the cocrystal structure shows that UNC1215 binds to L3MBTL3 in a 2:2 bivalent binding mode (James et al., 2013) (Fig. 6B).

#### 8. WDR5: a binder of histone H3R2 and the Win motif conserved in SETD1A/B and MLL1-4

WDR5 is a core component of the SET1/MLL complexes and mediates ES cell self-renewal and somatic cell reprogramming (Ang et al., 2011). The SET1/MLL family of methyltransferases has

virtually no histone methylation activity on its own but becomes active as multi-component complexes (Dou et al., 2006). The non-catalytic components in these complexes play important roles in activation, regulation and recruitment of the SET1/MLL family of methyltransferase complexes. Therefore, it is of fundamental importance to study the composition and function of the SET1/MLL complexes, and how those complexes are recruited to their target genes through specific recruiting elements. In 2005, the group of Dr. Allis from Rockefeller University showed that WDR5 directly associates with histone H3K4me2 in vitro and in vivo, and it is required for targeting the H3K4 methyltransferase complexes to carry out the di- to tri-methylation conversion of histone H3K4 (Wysocka et al., 2005). Structural studies by my group – and other groups show that WDR5 is able to recognize both unmodified and methylated histone H3K4 peptides mainly through an arginine residue (H3R2) (Couture et al., 2006; Han et al., 2006; Rutherford et al., 2006; Schuetz et al., 2006). In addition, we also found that WDR5 is able to bind to other arginine containing peptides, such as its own arginine containing N-terminal tail, and the His-tag fused to WDR5 (Schuetz et al., 2006).

Recently, WDR5 was also found to bind a stretch of arginine containing motif, the Win motif (WDR5 interaction motif) conserved in the SETD1A/B and MLL1-4 catalytic subunits, and the binding of WDR5 to the Win motif is critical for assembly and enzymatic activity of the SET1/MLL complexes (Patel et al., 2008a, 2008b; Xu & Min, 2011; Dharmarajan et al., 2012; Zhang et al., 2012). The essential arginine residue in the different peptides inserts into the central channel of the WD40 β-propeller of WDR5 from the top surface and forms extensive interactions with WDR5 through a network of hydrogen bonds and cation-π interactions, whereas the residues surrounding the invariant residue arginine make very few interactions with WDR5. Therefore, WDR5 is able to recognize either histone H3 or its catalytic partner SETD1A/B or MLL1-4.

Genetic aberrations of the SET1/MLL family of histone H3K4 methyltransferases, such as translocation fusion and mutations, cause various genetic diseases and cancers. For instance, MLL1 is involved in chromosomal rearrangements with over 60 different translocation partners, generating MLL1 fusion proteins that account for up to 80% of infant acute leukemia and approximately 5–10% of adult acute myeloid leukemia (AML) and acute lymphoid leukemia (ALL) cases (Muntean et al., 2010). In most MLL-rearranged leukemia, one MLL1 allele loses the C-

Table 5  
Inhibitors of L3MBTL1/L3MBTL3.

Compound name	Chemical structure	$IC_{50}$ ( $\mu M$ )	PDB code of complex structure	PMID
UNC669		6/35	3P8H/-	21417280 (Herold et al., 2011)
UNC280		46/28		21417280 (Herold et al., 2011)
UNC1215		8.9/0.024	3UWN/4FL6	23292653 (James, Barsyte-Lovejoy, et al., 2013) 24466405 (Camerino et al., 2013)
UNC1021		3/0.04		23292653 (James, Barsyte-Lovejoy, et al., 2013) 24466405 (Camerino et al.)
UNC1079		170/8		23292653 (James, Barsyte-Lovejoy, et al., 2013) 24466405 (Camerino et al.)
UNC2533		14/0.062	-/4L59	24466405 (Camerino et al.)
UNC928		2.8/0.36		24040942 (James, Korboukh, et al.)

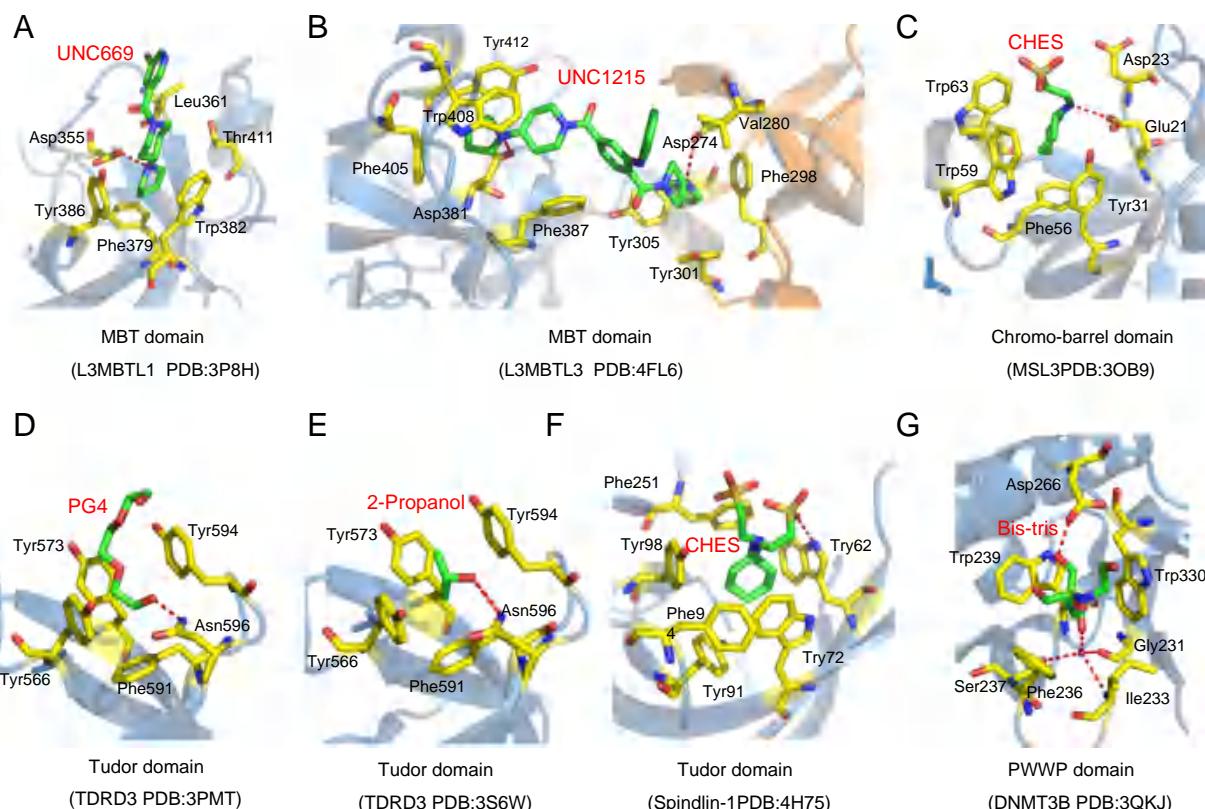


Fig. 6. Proteins of the MBT domain, Chromo-barrel domain, Tudor domain and PWWP domains bind inhibitors or other small molecules in their respective aromatic cages. (A) L3MBTL1 and inhibitor UNC669. (B) L3MBTL3 and UNC1215. (C) MSL3 and a CHES buffer molecule (N-Cyclohexyl-2-aminoethanesulfonic acid). (D) TDRD3 and a PG4 molecule. (E) TDRD3 and a 2-isopropanol molecule. (F) Spindlin1 and a CHES buffer molecule. The CHES molecule binds to the aromatic cage in the first Tudor domain while the K4me3 of histone H3 resides in the aromatic cage located in the second Tudor domain. (G) DNMT3B and a Bis-tris molecule. Protein residues in contact with small molecules are depicted by stick models with their carbon atoms colored as yellow, small molecules are shown as stick models with their carbon atoms colored as green. Hydrogen bonds and salt bridges are marked with a red dashed line. (For interpretation of the references to color in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

terminal half, which contains the catalytic SET domain, and fused with one of its translocation partners, and the other MLL1 allele is still intact. In MLL-AF9-induced leukemogenesis, both the wild type MLL1 and oncogenic MLL1-AF9 fusion proteins are required for MLL-AF9-induced leukemogenesis (Thiel et al., 2010). Because the WDR5-MLL1 interaction is critical for the assembly and enzymatic activity of the MLL1 complexes (Dou et al., 2006; Patel et al., 2008a, 2008b; Xu & Min, 2011; Dharmarajan et al., 2012; Zhang et al., 2012), it is tempting to design inhibitors to disrupt the WDR5-MLL1 interaction for the therapy of MLL-rearranged leukemia. Markedly, much progress has been made in developing antagonists disrupting the WDR5-MLL1 interaction.

The first small molecule inhibitor was discovered by the group of Dr. Vedadi from the Structural Genomics Consortium at the University of Toronto by screening a diverse library of 16,000 compounds, which yielded just one promising hit WDR5-0101 ( $K_{d\text{is}}$ : 12  $\mu\text{M}$ ) (Senisterra et al., 2013) (Table 6). 119 compounds from the library of 6 million commercially available compounds have similar chemical structures to WDR5-0101, and WDR5-0102 and WDR5-0103 were confirmed to bind to WDR5 by ITC (Table 6). Of these 3 compounds, WDR5-0103 has the highest binding affinity with  $K_d$  of 0.45  $\mu\text{M}$  (Senisterra et al., 2013). Following crystallographic analysis showed that the compounds

occupy the central pore in a similar pocket to the arginine-binding pocket in the WDR5-peptide complexes, and the enzymatic assays showed that WDR5-0103 could inhibit the catalytic activity of the MLL1 complex *in vitro* (Senisterra et al., 2013).

At the same time, another group of scientists from the University of Michigan developed a series of peptidomimetic inhibitors based on the available WDR5 complex structures and the fact that the arginine residue is the major binding affinity contributor in the WDR5-peptide interactions (Cao et al., 2014; Karatas et al., 2013). They started from a minimum binding motif of WDR5: –CO-ARA-NH–, and identified three potent peptidomimetics (MM-101, -102 and -103) (Table 6), which bind to WDR5 with  $K_i$  b 1 nM (Karatas et al., 2013). Guided by the complex structures of MM-101 and MM-102 with WDR5, they synthesized a cyclic compound, MM-401 based on the linear peptidomimetic MM-101 (Table 6). MM-401 is over 3-fold more potent than MM-101, and 700-fold more potent than the Win motif. Enzymatic assays showed that MM-401 is able to specifically inhibit MLL1, but not other members of the SET1/MLL family of H3K4 methyltransferase complexes, implying that the MLL1 complex has a distinct regulatory mechanism via the WDR5-MLL1 interaction than other members. Furthermore, MM-401 specifically kills MLL-associated leukemic cells

Table 6  
Inhibitors of WD40 domain of WDR5.

Compound Name	Chemical structure	$IC_{50}$ ( $\mu\text{M}$ )	PDB code of complex structure	PMID
WDR5-0101		5.5 ( $K_d$ )		22989411 (Senisterra et al., 2013)
WDR5-0102		4.0 ( $K_d$ )		22989411 (Senisterra et al., 2013)
WDR5-0103		0.45 ( $K_d$ )	3UR4	22989411 (Senisterra et al., 2013)
MM-101		0.0029	4GM3	
MM-102		0.0024	4GM8	23210835 (Karatas et al., 2013)
MM-103		0.0045		
MM-401		0.0009	4GM9	24389101 (Cao et al., 2014)
MM-402 bolshan13_47		0.3	4GMB	(Bolshan et al., 2013)
IA9			4IA9	
NP7			3SMR	

by inducing cell-cycle arrest, apoptosis, and myeloid differentiation, but not normal cells in a MLL1-mediated H3K4 methylation-dependent manner (Cao et al., 2014).

### 9. Other methyl-lysine/arginine binding proteins

In the human genome, there are about 150 potential methyl-lysine or methyl-arginine binding proteins and this list is still growing. A common feature of these proteins is that they all utilize an aromatic cage to recognize the methyl-lysine or methyl-arginine residue. These proteins have diverse methylation state and sequence selectivity. For example, the MBT domains specifically recognize mono- or dimethylated lysine without much selectivity over its surrounding sequence (Adams-Cioaba & Min, 2009). Different members of the Chromodomain subfamily have been shown to preferentially recognize H3K4me2/3 (Flanagan et al., 2005), H3K9me2/3 (Jacobs & Khorasanizadeh, 2002; Nielsen et al., 2002; Li et al., 2011; Kaustov et al., 2011; Ruan et al., 2012; T. Wang et al., 2012), H3K27me2/3 (Fischle et al., 2003; Min et al., 2003b; Kaustov et al., 2011), H3K36me3 (Sun et al., 2008; Xu et al., 2008) and H4K20me1/2 (Kim et al., 2010; Moore et al., 2010; Gong et al., 2012), respectively. The PWWP domain has been shown to bind to H4K20me3 (H. Wu et al., 2011; Qiu et al., 2012b), H3K36me3 (Vezzoli et al., 2010; H. Wu et al., 2011; Eidahl et al., 2013) and H3K79me3 (H. Wu et al., 2011). The Tudor domain is very diverse in both structures and binding activities. It exists in single (Tripsianes et al., 2011; Liu et al., 2012; Musselman et al., 2012; Cai et al., 2013; Qin et al., 2013), double (Adams-Cioaba et al., 2010; Bian et al., 2011; Botuyan et al., 2006; Huang et al., 2006a; K. Liu et al., 2010; Nady et al., 2011) and triple (N. Yang et al., 2012) Tudor repeats, and could bind both methyl-arginine (H. Liu et al., 2010; K. Liu et al., 2010; Liu et al., 2012; Tripsianes et al., 2011) and methyl-lysine proteins (Adams-Cioaba & Min, 2009). The PHD domain has been shown to bind both histone H3K4me0 and H3K4me3 (Adams-Cioaba & Min, 2009). In addition, a small subset of double PHD domains can also bind unmodified H3R2 (Zeng et al., 2010; Rajakumara et al., 2011; Qiu et al., 2012a). Recently, the Ankyrin repeat domains of G9a/GLP (Collins et al., 2008), WD40 repeat protein EED (Margueron et al., 2009; Xu et al., 2010), the BAH domain of ORC1 (Kuo et al., 2012) have also been shown to specifically recognize methylated histones. Over the past 10 years, many human methyl-lysine/arginine binding proteins have been characterized by others and us in terms of both binding specificity and three-dimensional structures. It provides a rich source of information and reagents in developing target-selective antagonists. It is worth noting that some of these methyl-lysine/arginine binding proteins have been crystallized in complex with small molecules, which could provide some clues in drug design in the future as well (Fig. 6C–G).

### 10. Conclusion

Since the first histone lysine methyltransferases (Rea et al., 2000), the first protein/histone arginine methyltransferases (Lin et al., 1996) and the first histone code reader HP1 (Lachner et al., 2001) were identified, a large amount of data has been amassed for these protein families in regards to their biological functions and disease implications. Growing evidence over the past two decades supports the concept that epigenetic abnormalities play an important role in the pathogenesis of cancers and other genetic diseases. Therefore, proteins involved in chromatin modifications are attractive therapeutic targets for drug design. A lot of ongoing clinical trials regarding inhibitors of histone methyltransferases, such as E7438 and EPZ-5676, inhibitors of EZH2 and DOT1L respectively, are ongoing (please refer to [www.clinicaltrials.gov](http://www.clinicaltrials.gov)). In this article, we systematically review the progresses in the discovery of chemical probes and therapeutic reagents for histone methyltransferases and methyllysine readers. These compounds could in turn be used to further study the biological functions and pathogenesis of these epigenetic targets. It is noteworthy that a

large number of crystal structures of these protein targets and their co-crystals have been made available, and this rich source of information has been extensively utilized and will facilitate the lead generation and compound optimization for these epigenetic targets.

### Conflict of interest statement

The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

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