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DNA methyltransferases: emerging targets for the discovery of inhibitors as potent anticancer drugs

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DNA methyltransferases (DNMTs) are a conserved family of cytosine methylases with crucial roles in epigenetic regulation. They have been considered as promising therapeutic targets for the epigenetic treatment of cancer. Therefore, DNMT inhibitors (DNMTis) have attracted considerable interest in recent years for the modulation of the aberrant DNA methylation pattern in a reversible way. In this review, we provide a structure-based overview of the therapeutic importance of DNMTs against different cancer types, and then summarize recently investigated DNMTis as well as their inhibitory mechanisms, focusing on recent advances in the development of DNMTis with specificity and/or selectivity using computational approaches.

Introduction

As one of the most-studied epigenetic phenomena, DNA methylation has been widely proven to be associated with cancer initiation and progression [1], which is typically mediated by DNMTs, which catalyze the transfer of a methyl group to the carbon-5 position of cytosine ring from S-adenosyl methionine (SAM), yielding S-adenosyl-L-homocysteine (SAH) as an end product [2]. Three active DNMTs in mammals, namely DNMT1, DNMT3A, and DNMT3B [3], have been investigated for over 30 years. Generally, DNMT1 was widely considered responsible for the maintenance of DNA methylation pattern in DNA replication [4], whereas DNMT3A and DNMT3B were then known as two *de novo* methyltransferases that establish new DNA methylation patterns by catalyzing the

methylation of unmethylated DNA elements with the help of the catalytically inactive DNMT3L [5,6]. It was recently recognized that this functional classification of DNMTs might be oversimplified, and that the multiple roles for DNA methylation in mammalian epigenetics depend on the dynamic regulation and targeting of DNMTs modulated by other proteins or nucleic acids [7]. More recently, a new *de novo* DNMT, named DNMT3C, with specialized activity required for mouse fertility, was identified in murine germ cells [8]. Such new results expand and deepen the scope of investigations on DNMTs and their multiple regulating mechanisms.

Many studies have shown that epigenetic disruptions caused by DNMT abnormalities are associated with various human diseases,

including autoimmune diseases [9], neurological disorders [10], diabetes [11], and, in particular, cancer. Inhibition of DNMTs leads to a reduction in tumor formation in part through the reactivation of tumor suppressor genes (TSGs) [12]. The development of DNMTis has been widely believed to provide opportunities for novel cancer therapy. However, currently only two DNMTis (azacitidine and decitabine) have been approved by the US Food and Drug Administration (FDA); however, such nucleoside analogs function by forming a suicidal covalent complex with DNMTs and demonstrate cytotoxicity [13]. Thus, many efforts have been made to discover non-nucleoside DNMTis using different strategies, although this is a challenge. Most non-nucleoside DNMTis lack adequate activity against DNMTs or sufficient impact on TSG

re-expression [14]. Recent studies have shown emerging interest in the development of selective DNMTs with better specificity and minimal off-target effects, but their mechanisms of inhibition need to be determined. Computational approaches have an indispensable role in the identification and optimization of DNMTs, as well as in understanding the complicated inhibitory mechanisms of DNMTs at the molecular level [15–18]. Here, we review the molecular structures and related biological functions of active DNMTs, and summarize recently investigated DNMTs as well as their inhibitory mechanisms, focusing on recent advances in selective DNMTi development resulting from molecular simulation techniques.

Structure and binding partners of DNMTs

DNMTs share similar domain architecture with two functional components, an N-terminal regulatory domain and a C-terminal catalytic domain (Fig. 1a) [2,8]. For the three active DNMTs, the C-terminal domain has a common core structure involved in cofactor binding (motifs I and X) and substrate catalysis (motifs IV, VI and VIII), which is suggestive of a common mechanism of catalysis. DNMT3L does not have the essential motifs for DNA and cofactor binding (motifs IX and X) and, therefore, is catalytically inactive [6]. DNMT3C, the new member of DNMT family but with specialized activity, also shows characteristics of conserved methyltransferase motifs [8]. The N-terminal regulatory domain of DNMT1 differs from that of DNMT3A/B; it contains several subdomains that have an important role in the recognition of hemi-methylated DNA (Fig. 1b), whereas those of DNMT3A and DNMT3B only have two defined functional domains, for H3K4me0 and nucleosome recognition (Fig. 1c).

It was recently shown that the catalytic activity of DNMTs could be under allosteric control of the N-terminal domain with autoinhibitory function, more precisely the RFTS and CXXC domains in DNMT1 and the ADD domain in DNMT3A [7]. The detailed allosteric mechanism of DNMTs is reviewed elsewhere [7]. Thus, modulation of the various domains of DNMTs might regulate the activity and specificity of the enzyme via allosteric effects, providing a wider perspective for DNMTi development. Moreover, DNMT activity can be modulated by several interaction partners, including PCNA, UHRF1 protein, HDACs, histone-lysine methyltransferases (e.g., G9a, SUV39H1, EZH2, and SETDB1), transcription factors (e.g., c-Myc), and other proteins [7]. These protein–protein interactions (PPIs) are also relevant to the regulation of the

N-terminal domain and to the conformational change of the catalytic domain, which could shed light on the future design of PPI inhibitors.

The catalytic pockets of DNMTs are highly conserved, which poses a challenge for the direct design of potent substrate and/or cofactor competitors toward a specific DNMT isoform. The structural alignment of the catalytic pockets of the crystal structures of hDNMT1 [Protein Data Bank (PDB) code: 4WXX] [19] and hDNMT3A (PDB code: 4U7T) [20] illustrates that several different residues can form different interactions with the ligands and contribute to the selectivity of certain inhibitors, including Val1580/Trp893, Asn1578/Arg891, Trp1170/Cys666, and Met1169/Val665 (Fig. 1d). A recent study discussed in detail the molecular basis of the binding selectivity of inhibitors towards DNMT1 and DNMT3A through computational approaches, which confirmed several residue pairs as the key factors responsible for the binding selectivity of DNMTs [21].

Therapeutic importance of DNMTs

Accumulated studies have shown that DNA methylation changes in many cancer types. The different contribution of each DNMT in various cancers highlights the potential advantage of selective inhibitors for a certain DNMT isoform depending on the tumor type [22]. For example, numerous functional experiments have shown that *DNMT3A* mutations exert an overwhelming influence in hematological malignancies [23]. These mutations, mainly localized at the Arg882 residue of the C-terminal catalytic domain, are most likely associated with a loss of enzymatic function [24]. In breast cancer, *DNMT3B* has shown significantly higher expression changes compared with *DNMT1* and *DNMT3A* [25]. Thus, DNMT3B was then considered to have a predominant role over DNMT3A and DNMT1 in breast cancer, pointing to the design of selective DNMT3B inhibitors as therapy for breast cancer [26–28].

To date, there remains controversy over which DNMT isoform would be the best target in different diseases [29]. Therefore, it is necessary to develop selective inhibitors toward a specific DNMT isoform, which could identify the most appropriate DNMT isoform to target in cancer cells. For example, in colon cancer, a SAM-competitive compound, SGI-1027, was reported to inhibit the activity of the three active DNMTs, whereas an unexpected observation suggested that treatment of different cancer cell lines with SGI-1027 resulted in selective degradation of DNMT1 with minimal or no effects on DNMT3A and DNMT3B [30]. In hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC), no evident correlation of a specific DNMT

isoform with this type of cancer was observed. Given that DNA methylation is a dynamic process with ongoing methylation and demethylation, in which DNMTs work together to achieve the multiple functions of methylation [7], inhibitors that concomitantly inhibit DNMT1 and DNMT3s might have better efficacy in some cases.

Inhibitors of DNMTs

Several mechanisms can be exploited to inactivate DNMT activity with small molecules, including: (i) DNA incorporation and enzyme trapping; (ii) binding with DNA; (iii) DNA and/or SAM competition; (iv) allosteric inhibition; and (v) targeting the PPIs [31]. The nucleoside inhibitors related to mechanism (i) are mainly derivatives of cytidine, but their clinical development is hindered by this mechanism of action. Therefore, more research is focusing on the design and development of non-nucleoside DNMTs, which would make use of various structure details and mechanisms of action of DNMTs. To date, most non-nucleoside DNMTs have been designed to target the catalytic domain via mechanism (iii), including DNA competitors, SAM competitors, and dual substrate competitors, which combine the structures of two substrate analogs. Other strategies to inhibit DNMT activity also have aroused interest recently, such as targeting the allosteric sites that regulate enzyme activity or the PPIs required for the interactions of DNMTs with their partners; however, more research is still needed.

Over the past 15 years, an increasing number of non-nucleoside inhibitors have been obtained from different sources: (i) drug repurposing (approved for other indications): hydralazine (antihypertensive) [32], procainamide (antiarrhythmic) [33], and procaine (local anesthetic) [34]; (ii) natural products: EGCG [35], nanaomycin A [36], genistein [37], laccic acid A [38], and other natural products [39]; (iii) molecules discovered by virtual screening (VS): RG108 [15], NSC14778, NSC319745, and NSC137546 [17], and DC_05 [16]; (iv) molecules identified by experimental high-throughput screening (HTS): 3-chloro-3-nitroflavanones [40], diclone [41], and SW155246 [42]; and (v) synthesized molecules: SGI-1027 and its derivatives [30,43,44], RG108 analogs [45–47], NSC compound analogs [48,49], and Δ^2 -Isoxazoline derivatives [50]. So far, except for the two FDA-approved nucleoside inhibitors, only another two nucleoside analogs are under assessment in clinical trials (SGI-110 in Phase III and 5-F-CdR in Phase I) [51,52]. In addition, MG98, an oligonucleotide antisense inhibitor of DNMT1, was recently in a Phase I study [51]. For

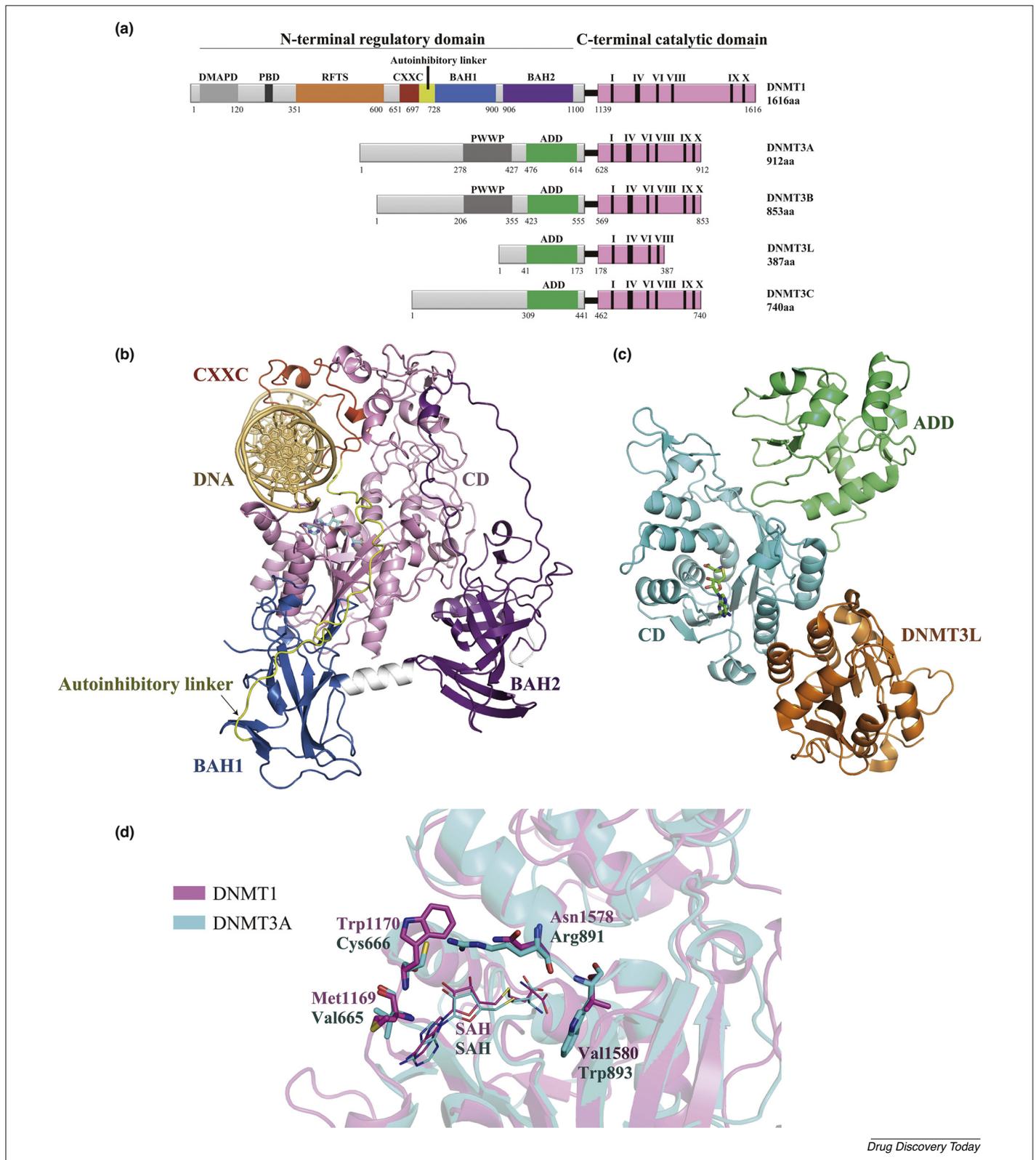


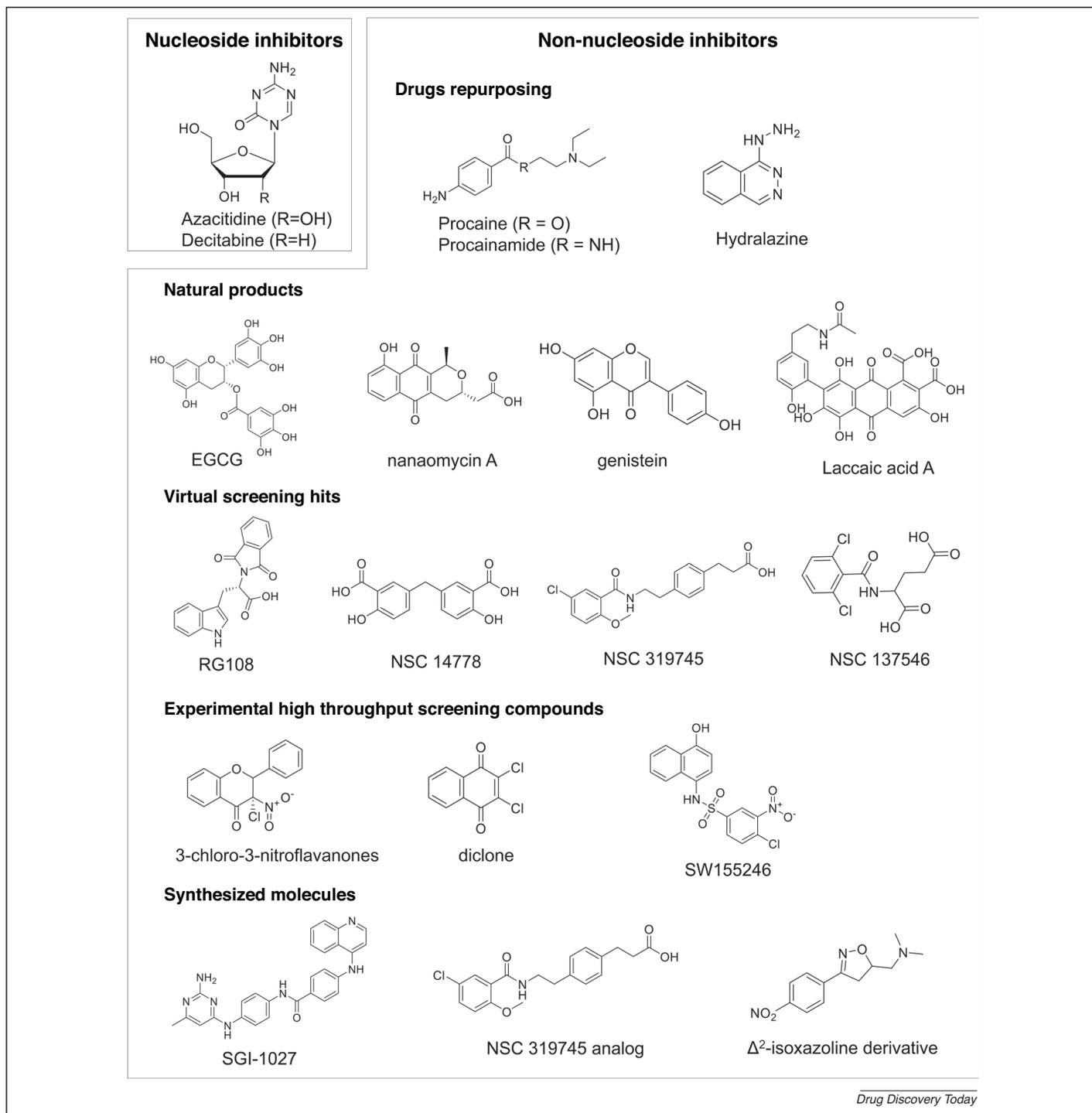
FIGURE 1

Title. **(a)** Domain architecture of the mammalian DNMTs. **(b)** Structural overview of the mDNMT1-DNA complex bound to S-adenosyl-L-homocysteine (SAH) [Protein Data Bank (PDB) code: 3PT6], the SAH is shown as sticks. **(c)** Structural overview of the hDNMT3A-DNMT3L complex bound to SAH (PDB code: 4U7P), the SAH is shown as sticks. **(d)** Structural superposition of the catalytic pockets in the crystal structure of hDNMT1 (PDB code: 4WXX) and hDNMT3A (PDB code: 4U7T). Comparison of the comparatively important pairs of different residues in the binding sites are shown as sticks.

non-nucleoside DNMTis, other than hydralazine, which is currently in a Phase III trial, and EGCG, which is in a Phase II clinical trial as anticancer drugs, other non-nucleoside DNMTis remain in preclinical studies [51,52]. The chemical structures of the most studied DNMTis are summarized in Fig. 2, and the recently reported potent

and/or selective non-nucleoside DNMTis are shown in Fig. 3, along with their inhibitory activities (IC_{50}/EC_{50}), which are further summarized in Table 1. It appears that the potency and selectivity of novel non-nucleoside DNMTis have partly improved, but most still have relatively low bioactivity at micromolar levels and/or weak

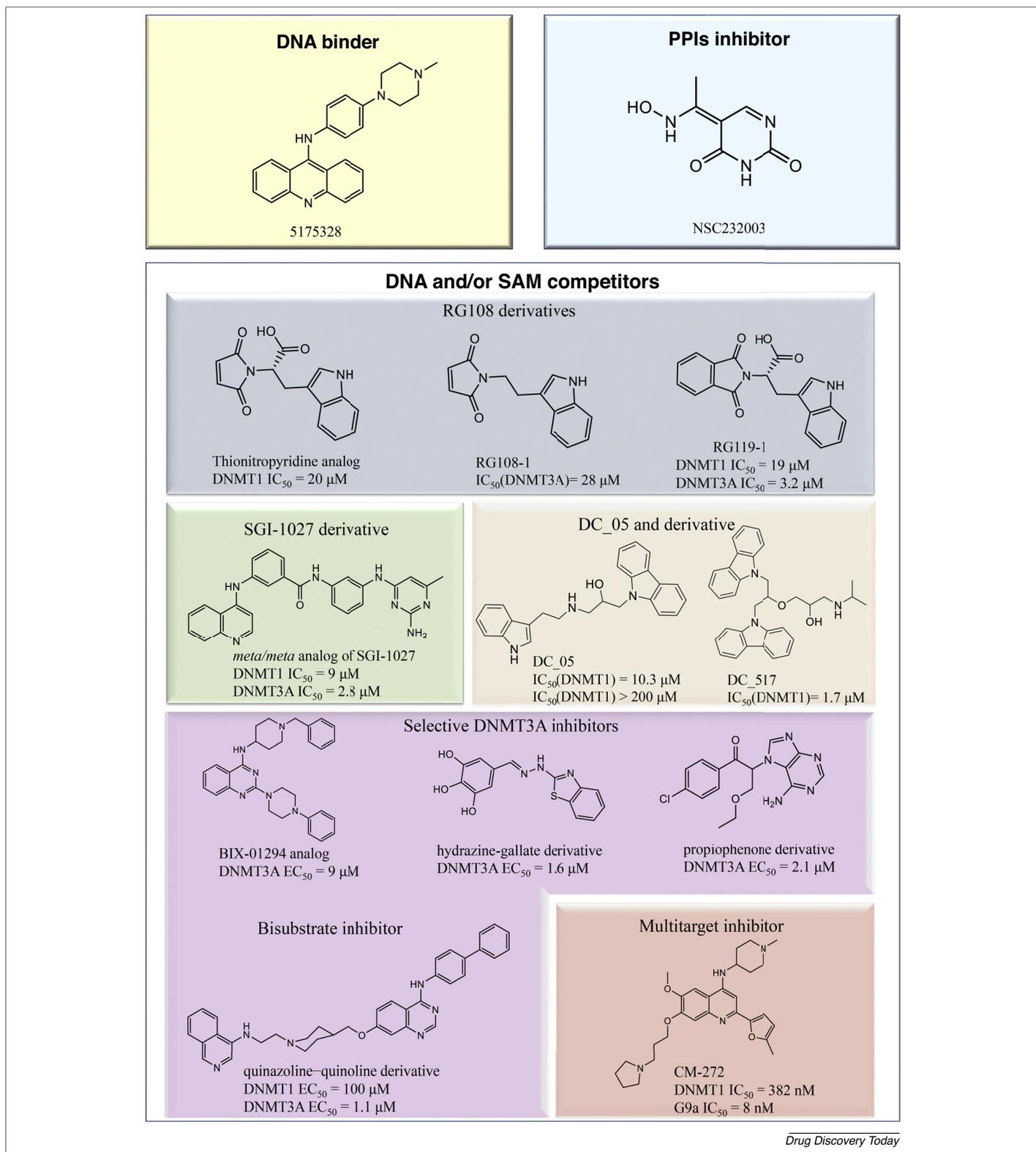
DNA demethylation capability in cells. Thus, the development of novel DNMTis is receiving increasing attention and >100 compounds have been tested as DNMTis [53]. Several earlier discovered DNMTis have been reviewed elsewhere [29,54], encouraging further efforts to design potent and selective DNMTis. Here, we focus



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FIGURE 2

Chemical structures of the most studied DNA methyltransferase inhibitors (DNMTis) classified by the method used to reveal them.

**FIGURE 3**

Chemical structures of the recently reported more potent and/or selective non-nucleoside DNA methyltransferase inhibitors (DNMTis) with their IC₅₀/EC₅₀ values classified based on their action modes: DNA binders, protein-protein interacting (PPI) inhibitors, or DNA and/or S-adenosyl methionine (SAM) competitors. The group of DNA and/or SAM competitors are further listed with different colors for clarity.

TABLE 1

Summary of recently reported potent and/or selective non-nucleoside DNMTis and their biological properties

Compound	Source	Enzymatic inhibition, (IC ₅₀ /EC ₅₀ , μM) ^a	Mechanism	Effect	Refs
Acridine compound (5175328)	High-throughput cell-based screening	Not described	DNA binder	Reactive TSGs in MiaPaCa2 and RKO cells	[55]
NSC232003	VS	Not described	PPIs inhibitor	Disrupts DNMT1/UHRF1 interaction in U251 glioma cells	[56]
RG108	VS	IC ₅₀ (DNMT1) = 390; IC ₅₀ (DNMT3A/3L) = 315	SAM competitor	Reactive TSGs in HCT116 cells	[15]
RG108 thionitropyridine analog	Lead optimization	IC ₅₀ (DNMT1) = 20	DNA and SAM competitor	Cytotoxicity on DU145 cell line	[46]
RG108-1	Lead optimization	IC ₅₀ (DNMT3A) = 28	SAM competitor	Not described	[45]
RG119-1	Lead optimization	IC ₅₀ (DNMT1) = 19; IC ₅₀ (DNMT3A) = 3.2	SAM competitor	Cytotoxicity on mesothelioma cells	[47]
SGL-1027	Synthetic compounds	IC ₅₀ (DNMT1) = 6; IC ₅₀ (DNMT3A) = 8; IC ₅₀ (DNMT3B) = 7.5	DNA competitor	Reactive <i>TIMP3</i> , <i>MLH1</i> , and <i>P16</i> in HCT116 cells	[30]
SGL-1027 meta/meta analog	Lead optimization	IC ₅₀ (DNMT1) = 9; IC ₅₀ (DNMT3A) = 2.8	DNA competitor	Comparable activity as SGL-1027 but with less toxicity	[43]
DC_05	VS	IC ₅₀ (DNMT1) = 10.3; IC ₅₀ (DNMT3A) > 200	DNA and/or SAM competitor	Cytotoxicity on HCT116 and Capan-1 cells	[16]
DC_517	Lead optimization	IC ₅₀ (DNMT1) = 1.7	DNA and/or SAM competitor	High antiproliferative effects in HCT116 and Capan-1 cells	[16]
BIX-01924 analog	Lead optimization	EC ₅₀ (DNMT3A) = 9	DNA and/or SAM competitor	High antiproliferative effects in human lymphoma U-937 and RAJI cells	[57]
Hydralazine-gallate derivative	Enzymatic screening and optimization	EC ₅₀ (DNMT3A) = 1.6	DNA and/or SAM competitor	Reactivates reporter gene in leukemia KG-1 cells	[58]
Propiophenone derivatives	HTS	EC ₅₀ (DNMT3A) = 2.1	Covalent bond with catalytic cysteine	Cytotoxicity on leukemia KG-1 and colon cancer HCT116 cell lines	[59]
Bisubstrate-type inhibitor	Synthetic compounds	EC ₅₀ (DNMT1) = 100; EC ₅₀ (DNMT3A) = 1.1	DNA and SAM competitor	Reactive CDKN2A in HCT116	[60]
CM-272	Lead optimization	IC ₅₀ (DNMT1) = 0.382	DNA competitor (dual inhibitor of G9a/DNMTs)	Prolongs survival in <i>in vivo</i> models of hematological malignancies	[61]

^a The IC₅₀/EC₅₀ values of inhibitors tested under different experimental conditions are not considered to be directly comparable, because these could be influenced by the choice of the C5 DNA methyltransferase, the concentration of the cofactor, the concentration and nature of the DNA duplex, and the method of detection [54].

mainly on the most recent advances in the discovery of novel inhibitors targeting DNMTs through lead optimization, VS, HTS, and computer-aided drug design (CADD). We also emphasize the increasingly important role of computational approaches in discovering DNMTis, guiding lead optimization, and understanding the biological functions of DNMTis.

Chemical synthesis and optimization

Chemistry optimization has contributed to optimize existing inhibitors obtained from VS, HTS, or other approaches, leading to the identification of more potent and/or selective inhibitors. Computational approaches and resolved crystal structures were used to explain the selectivity or potency improvement observed by biological assays, and also help to guide lead optimization [46,47,55,56]. Several typical examples of structure-guided optimization of DNMTis are provided elsewhere [57], and also discussed here. In

2006, Siedlecki *et al.* discovered the first DNMT1 inhibitor RG108 (*N*-phthaloyl-L-tryptophan) by VS based on a homology model of hDNMT1 [15], which is considered to be the starting point for lead optimization of DNMTis. Based on this most investigated inhibitor, several derivatives with improved potency were subsequently designed and synthesized, such as the maleimide derivative (RG108-1) [45] and the constraint analog (thionitropyridine analog) [46]. The putative binding model of the constraint analog was predicted by induced-fit docking, and the simulation results indicated that it is positioned in both the SAM and DNA pockets, thereby explaining its higher inhibition activity compared with RG108 [46]. More recently, Rondelet *et al.* studied the inhibition mechanism of the maleimide analogs of RG108 against DNMTs, which suggested a competitive mode of action with the SAM cofactor. They synthesized RG119-1, a tryptamine derivative that presents better

enzymatic and cellular activities (low micromolar) compared with RG108-1 [47], as shown in Fig. 3 and Table 1. Noncovalent and covalent docking studies provided detailed insights into their binding modes and revealed essential residues for the stabilization of such compounds inside DNMTs [47]. Other VS hits, such as NSC14778, NSC319745, and NSC137546, were also further optimized for more promising derivatives [48,49]. More recently, the resynthesized VS hits, NSC14778 and NSC106084, were found to be inactive against DNMTs [58], which can be explained by the difference of assay conditions used, such as the method of detection, concentration of the cofactor, and the concentration and nature of the DNA duplex [54]. Another representative example is SGL-1027, a quinoline-based compound that was described by Datta *et al.* in 2009. It inhibits the activity of DNMT1, DNMT3A, and DNMT3B and results in the re-expression of

some silenced TSGs in colon cancer cell lines [30]. It was quickly considered as the starting point to design more promising derivatives [43,44]. Among these derivatives, the meta/meta analogs showed substantial improvement in potency (Table 1) [43]. Biophysical studies revealed that SGI-1027 and its derivatives interact with DNA and result in SAM-noncompetitive but DNA-competitive inhibition [59].

Besides optimizing the existing DNMTis, Rotili *et al.* disclosed a series of quinazoline-based DNMTis based on the chemical modification of the G9a/GLP inhibitor BIX-01294 [56]. Interestingly, these compounds inhibited DNMT3A at a relatively low micromolar level ($EC_{50} = 935 \mu\text{M}$) but could not inhibit DNMT1 and G9a effectively [56]. The binding modes of the two most potent compounds in the binding site of DNMT3A were explored by molecular docking studies [56].

Multitarget approaches are also promising strategies to develop inhibitors with enhanced anticancer activity because of the crosstalk between DNA and histone methylation [31]. In 2017, San José-Enériz *et al.* postulated that inhibitors simultaneously targeting G9a and DNMTs might be an improved strategy because of the crosstalk between DNA and H3K9 methylation. They reported the discovery of a quinoline-based compound CM-272 as the inhibitor of G9a ($IC_{50} = 8 \text{ nM}$) and DNMT1 ($IC_{50} = 382 \text{ nM}$) with *in vivo* efficacy in acute myeloid leukemia (AML), acute lymphoblastic leukaemia (ALL), and diffuse large B cell lymphoma xenogeneic models [55]. Molecular docking studies were used to guide the rational design of inhibitors. In addition, enzymatic competition assays confirmed that the compound is a DNA-competitive inhibitor but not a SAM competitor of DNMT1. This study of a multitarget inhibitor might represent a novel strategy in cancer therapeutics.

In 2017, Halby *et al.* designed a group of quinazoline-quinoline derivatives as potent inhibitors of DNMT3A and DNMT1 [60]. These novel bisubstrate-type inhibitors targeted both the cytidine and AdoMet binding pockets by mimicking SAH and deoxycytidine, and linking them together, with some showing certain isoform selectivity. In addition, a new scaffold (a quinazoline-quinoline conjugate scaffold) could be used as a promising starting point for the development of selective inhibitors of DNMTs.

Another recent example also showed the development of DNMT is with isoform selectivity. In 2016, Erdmann *et al.* found a novel hydrazine-gallate derivative through chemical optimization based on enzymatic screening and structure-activity relationship (SAR) studies

(Table 1) [61]. This compound was able to inhibit DNMT3A with micromolar potency ($EC_{50} = 1.6 \mu\text{M}$), but did not inhibit DNMT1; moreover was able to reactivate the expression of the luciferase gene in leukemia KG-1 cells but without substantial cytotoxicity. DNMT3A selectivity was supported by a docking study revealing that the compound is stabilized in the catalytic pocket by interacting with Trp893 and Arg891, which is consistent with the observation of the structural alignment we proposed earlier (Fig. 1d).

High-throughput screening

Advances in HTS and development of DNMTis have been reviewed previously [62]. Here, we focus on the most recent examples of the application of HTS to the discovery of novel DNMTis. In 2013, Hossain *et al.* reported four acridine compounds previously identified by high-throughput cell-based screening. These were able to inhibit DNMT1 *in vitro* and rapidly reactivated methylated TSGs through binding the DNA [63]. Given that acridine compounds would not require covalent incorporation into DNA for their activity, demethylation could be observed after only one round of cell division, whereas nucleoside analogs inhibit DNMTs after at least two rounds of cell division. However, as DNA binders, these compounds would be at risk of interfering with other DNA enzymes. In 2015, Erdmann *et al.* identified a family of propiophenone derivatives by HTS based on an enzymatic assay against the catalytic DNMT3A [64], in which a new inhibitor with an EC_{50} of $2.1 \mu\text{M}$ was obtained after chemical optimization. The new propiophenone derivative containing a highly reactive Michael acceptor was able to inhibit DNMT3A by forming a covalent bond with the catalytic cysteine of the enzyme. Covalent non-nucleoside inhibitors can be considered as the most powerful type of compounds because they could form a covalent bond with the azanucleoside inhibitors, without the drawbacks of incorporation into DNA.

Computer-aided drug design

Over the past 15 years, CADD techniques have been widely used to discover novel non-nucleoside DNMTis. Many DNMTis have been found by docking-based or pharmacophore-based VS. Furthermore, molecular modeling techniques have become efficient tools to use to study the functions of DNMTs and the interactions between DNMTs and DNMTis. Early applications of computational approaches to develop DNMTis have been reviewed by Medina-Franco *et al.* [62], where the authors surveyed the applica-

tions of several *in silico* approaches such as molecular docking, VS, pharmacophore modeling, molecular dynamics (MD) simulations, and similarity searching to advance the development of DNMTis. Most recently, efforts through CADD techniques have been devoted to systematically screen natural products as DNMTis [39]. For example, DC_05 was identified by VS as a selective DNMT1 inhibitor, and was further optimized to a more potent inhibitor (DC_517, Table 1). Another interesting example is a natural product, nanaomycin A, which was initially identified by VS against DNMT1 and then revealed as a selective inhibitor toward DNMT3B by bioassays [36]. Here, we provide a detailed summary of the latest development of the *in silico* design of targeting DNMTs.

In 2015, Maldonado-Rojas *et al.* developed an innovative computational strategy to identify DNMTis [65]. First, they built a quantitative (Q) SAR model with linear discriminant analysis (LDA) based on 47 compounds with known activities against DNMTs, and then identified six natural products as potential DNMTis through a multistep computational screening strategy by combining the ligand-binding domain (LBD)-QSAR model and molecular docking using AutoDock Vina and Surflex-Dock. Unfortunately, the *in vitro* DNMT activities of these six compounds were not tested in the study.

In 2016, Joshi *et al.* developed inhibitors targeting the 5-methylcytosine (5-mC) binding site of hDNMT1 because of its crucial role in the recognition of hemi-methylated DNA [66]. They generated a structural model of hDNMT1 in active form, and performed multiple nanosecond-timescale MD simulations followed by ensemble-based VS. Two compounds (ASINEX ID: BAS 12771472 and BAS 00872020) were discovered to inhibit hDNMT1 *in vitro*, one of which also showed *in vivo* activity [66]. This study was an innovative attempt to validate a unique site of hDNMT1 that could be harnessed for rational design of highly selective and potent hypomethylating agents.

In 2017, Krishna *et al.* designed a workflow by integrating various ligand-based and structure-based approaches to discover new DNMT1 inhibitors. First, they established a pharmacophore model based on 85 DNMT1 inhibitors by using the Hypogen module of Discovery Studio 4.1, and then virtually screened the Maybridge chemical library based on the pharmacophore model, a Naïve Bayesian classification model, and ensemble docking. Three out of the ten tested compounds showed DNMT1 inhibitory activity at a compound concentration of $20 \mu\text{M}$ [67]. Hassanzadeh *et al.* developed a

ligand-based pharmacophore model based on known nucleoside-derived DNMTs and virtually screened a database containing 500 small non-nucleoside molecules [68]. The interactions between the selected molecules and the substrate binding site of DNMT1 were then investigated by molecular docking [68]. After *in vitro* DNA inhibition assays, one novel compound was identified to selectively inhibit DNMT1 with IC₅₀ of 4.1 μM, whereas its inhibition towards DNMT3 was at least 50-fold weaker. Miletić *et al.* designed an adenosyl-1-methyl-pyrimidin-2-one derivative as the lead compound [18], and a quantum mechanics/molecular mechanics (QM/MM) analysis showed that the lead compound was able to form a covalent adduct with the active site of DNMT1 upon binding. The authors then analyzed 69 modifications in the lead compound structure to create a family of mechanism-based inhibitors toward DNMT1. Finally, 18 out of the presented 69 modifications were used to prepare a family of highly specific DNMT1 inhibitors over DNMT3A [18].

With the better understanding of the molecular basis of PPIs in DNMT-involving complexes, disruption of such PPIs represents an attractive strategy for cancer treatment. Recently, an uracil derivative, NSC232003, was found through VS to inhibit *in vitro* DNA methylation by disrupting the DNMT1/UHRF1 interaction at a cellular level (Table 1) [69]. More such inhibitors could be expected in the near future.

Other related molecular modeling studies

Molecular modeling techniques are also used to study conformational changes of DNMTs. In 2018, Ye *et al.* conducted a mechanistic investigation of the dynamic transition of DNMT1 [70]. They performed long-term MD simulations and found that two mutations allosterically reduced enzymatic activities *in vitro* by decreasing kcat/Km for SAM by disturbing the proper structural transition of DNMT1 between the two conformation states.

Another conformational dynamics study of DNMT3A was performed with the application of elastic network models coupled with information theory, the Protein Structure Network, and sequence evolution analysis [71]. The authors suggested that the DNMT3A homo-dimer acts as the basic functional unit and the dimer interface of DNMT3A provides essential features for the functionality of the enzyme, which mediates important allosteric regulation in both the autoinhibitory and active states of the DNMT3A/3L complex. These studies shed new

light on the design of allosteric DNMTs, and more allosteric sites are expected to be investigated in the near future.

Concluding remarks and future perspectives

DNMTs have been identified as promising therapeutic targets for the treatment of epigenetic-related cancer and other diseases. Several crystal structures of human and murine DNMTs with different domains in complex with DNA, cofactors, and its analogs have been solved over the past decade, in which only one with small-molecule reversible inhibitor is currently available (sinefungin, PDB code: 3SWR). On the one hand, it reflects the challenge of identifying characteristics of more SAM-binding site inhibitors, and the corresponding structure-based mechanism of the (non)selective DNMTs-mediated DNA methylation. On the other hand, many crystallographic studies have provided important information for understanding the autoinhibitory mechanism regulated by certain key residues on the N-terminal parts, which offers new thoughts on ways to regulate DNMT activity via allosteric controls.

Currently, although the shortcomings of the nucleoside DNMTs have been widely recognized, they remain the main DNMTs used in the clinic for the treatment of epigenetics-related cancer. In recent years, the design of novel non-nucleoside small molecule DNMTs has aroused continuous interest, but none have been pushed into clinical trials. The major focus of non-nucleoside DNMTs discovery remains the highly conserved SAM-binding pocket, an approach that does not appear particularly successful, given the low level of activity obtained in cells and the failure of compounds in clinical trials. It is necessary to design and develop novel DNMTs based on our deeper understanding of the structure-based function of active DNMTs. Furthermore, given that the various DNMT isoforms have different roles in different cancers, designing selective inhibitors towards DNMT1 or DNMT3s would become more crucial for the identification of DNMT isoforms as the 'best' therapeutic targets for certain diseases. Although controversy remains about whether targeting certain DNMT isoforms or working against all DNMTs would have better efficacy, especially for different cancers or other diseases, attention has been paid to the investigation of DNMTi selectivity and specificity, perhaps the most important issues that need to be addressed currently. A combination of multiple molecular modeling and CADD techniques is believed to be an indispensable way to improve

the success rate of structure-based mechanism investigations and rational DNMTi design.

Acknowledgments

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