Chemical Genetic Control of Protein Levels: Selective *in vivo* Targeted Degradation

¹John S. Schneekloth, Jr., ²Fabiana Fonseca, ²Michael Koldobskiy, ²Amit Mandal^{*}, ^{3,4}Raymond Deshaies, ^{3,5}Kathleen Sakamoto, and ^{1,2,6}Craig M. Crews*

Departments of ¹Chemistry, ²Molecular, Cellular, and Developmental Biology, and ⁶Pharmacology, Yale University, New Haven, Connecticut 06520-8103. ³Division of Biology and ⁴Howard Hughes Medical Institute, California Institute of Technology, Pasadena, California 91125. Department of ⁵Pediatrics and Pathology, Mattel Children's Hospital, David Geffen School of Medicine at UCLA, Gwynn Hazen Cherry Memorial Laboratories, Molecular Biology Institute, and Jonsson Comprehensive Cancer Center, Los Angeles, California 90095-1752.

E-mail: craig.crews@yale.edu

RECEIVED DATE (to be automatically inserted after your manuscript is accepted if required according to the journal that you are submitting your paper to)

ABSTRACT

Genetic loss of function analysis is a powerful approach for the study of protein function.! However, some cell biological questions are difficult to address using traditional genetic strategies often due to the lack of appropriate genetic model systems.! Here, we present a general strategy for the design and syntheses of molecules capable of inducing the degradation of selected proteins *in vivo* via the ubiquitin-proteasome pathway.! Western blot and fluorometric analyses indicated the loss of two different targets, green fluorescent protein (GFP) fused with FK506 binding protein (FKBP12) and GFP fused with the androgen receptor (AR), after treatment with PROteolysis TArgeting Chimeric molecules (PROTACS) incorporating

a FKBP12 ligand and dihydrotestosterone, respectively.! These are the first *in vivo* examples of direct small molecule-induced recruitment of target proteins to the proteasome for degradation upon addition to cultured cells. Moreover, PROTAC-mediated protein degradation offers a general strategy to create "chemical knockouts," thus, opening new possibilities for the control of protein function.

MANUSCRIPT TEXT

Introduction

The selective loss of critical cellular proteins and subsequent analysis of the resulting phenotypes have proven to be extremely useful in genetic studies of *in vivo* protein function. In recent years, genetically modified knockout cell lines and animals have allowed biological research to advance with unprecedented speed. Chemical genetic approaches, using small molecules to induce changes in cell phenotype, are complimentary to traditional genetics. Many chemical genetic strategies use knowledge gained from natural product mode of action studies^{1,2,3}, while others employ chemical inducers of dimerization to manipulate intracellular processes^{4,5,6,7}. To date, however, there have been few attempts to design small molecules which induce the destruction (rather than inhibition) of a targeted protein in an otherwise healthy cell. Access to such reagents would provide a chemical genetic alternative to the traditional ways of interfering with protein function, resulting in "chemical knockouts." Importantly, a small molecule capable of inducing this process could do so without any genetic manipulation of the organism, thus allowing one to target proteins that are not readily accessible by traditional genetic means (i.e., genes essential for proliferation and early development).

In principle, targeted proteolytic degradation could be an effective way to accomplish the removal of a desired protein. Given the central role of the ubiquitin-proteasome pathway in protein degradation within the cell⁸, reagents capable of redirecting the substrate specificity of this pathway would be useful as experimental tools for modulating cellular phenotype and potentially act as drugs for inducing the elimination of disease-promoting proteins. We present here a general strategy for designing molecules capable of inducing the proteolysis of a targeted protein via the ubiquitin-proteasome pathway, as well as the first evidence that such molecules are effective upon addition to living cells.

Protein degradation, like protein synthesis, is an essential part of normal cellular homeostasis. As the major protein degradation pathway, the ATP-dependent ubiquitin-proteasome pathway has been implicated in the regulation of cellular processes as diverse as cell cycle progression⁹, antigen presentation¹⁰, the inflammatory response¹¹, transcription¹², and signal transduction¹³. The pathway involves two discrete steps: (i) the specific tagging of the protein to be degraded with a polyubiquitin chain and (ii) the subsequent degradation of the tagged substrate by the 26S proteasome, a multicatalytic protease complex. Ubiquitin, a highly conserved 76 amino acid protein¹⁴, is conjugated to the target protein by a three part process. First, the C-terminal carboxyl group of ubiquitin is activated by a ubiquitin-activating enzyme (E1). The thioester formed by attachment of ubiquitin to the E1 enzyme is then transferred via a transacylation reaction to an ubiquitin-conjugating enzyme (E2). Finally, ubiquitin is transferred to a lysine (or, less commonly, the amino terminus) of the protein substrate that is specifically bound by an ubiquitin ligase (E3)¹⁵. Successive conjugation of ubiquitin to internal lysines of previously added ubiquitin molecules leads to the formation of polyubiquitin chains¹⁶. The resulting polyubiquitinated target protein is then recognized by the 26S proteasome, whereupon ubiquitin is cleaved off and the substrate protein threaded into the proteolytic chamber of the proteasome. Importantly, substrate specificity of the ubiquitinproteasome pathway is conferred by the E3 ligases. Each E3 ligase or recognition subunit of a multiprotein E3 ligase complex binds specifically to a limited number of protein targets sharing a particular destruction sequence. The destruction sequence may require chemical or conformational modification (e.g. phosphorylation) for recognition by E3 $enzymes^{17,18}$.

Recently, we demonstrated a strategy for inducing the ubiquitination and ensuing proteolytic degradation of a targeted protein *in vitro*. This approach uses heterobifunctional molecules known as PROteolysis TArgeting Chimeric moleculeS (PROTACS), which are comprised of a ligand for the target protein, a linker moiety, and a ligand for an E3 ubiquitin ligase¹⁹. In that proof of principle experiment the degradation of a stable protein, methionine aminopeptidase 2 (MetAP-2), was induced in a cellular lysate upon the addition of a PROTAC (referred to as PROTAC-1) consisting of the known MetAP-2 ligand, ovalicin, joined to a peptide ligand for the ubiquitination and proteasome-mediated degradation of MetAP-2 and an E3 ligase, PROTAC-1 initiated the ubiquitination and proteasome-mediated degradation of MetAP-2 (Figure 1). We have also recently shown that an estradiol-based PROTAC (PROTAC-2) could promote the ubiquitination of the human estrogen receptor (hER α) *in vitro*. Furthermore, a dihydrotestosterone (DHT)-based PROTAC (PROTAC-3), when microinjected into cells, was capable of inducing the degradation of the androgen receptor²⁰. Encouraged by our success with PROTACS-1, -2, and -3, we next

directed our efforts toward the design of molecules capable of accomplishing the inducing proteolysis simply upon addition to cells.

Results

Development of a Cell Permeable PROTAC: PROTAC-4

For the design of PROTAC-4, we used a protein target/ligand pair developed by ARIAD Pharmaceuticals. The F36V mutation of FK506 Binding Protein (FKBP12) generates a 'hole' into which the artificial ligand AP21998 (1) fits via a hydrophobic "bump," thus conferring specificity of this particular ligand to the mutant FKBP over the wild type protein^{21,22}. Inclusion of AP21998 as one domain of PROTAC-4 thus allows it to target (F36V)FKBP12 proteins orthogonally, without disrupting endogenous FKBP12 function. Given the lack of small molecule E3 ubiquitin ligase ligands, we chose the seven amino acid sequence ALAPYIP for the E3 recognition domain. This sequence has been shown to be the minimum recognition domain for the von Hippel-Lindau tumor suppressor protein (VHL)²³, part of the VBC-Cul2 E3 ubiquitin ligase complex. Under normoxic conditions, a proline hydroxylase catalyzes the hydroxylation of hypoxia inducible factor 1α (HIF1 α) at P564²⁴ (the central proline in our sequence), resulting in recognition and polyubiquitination by VHL. HIF1 α is thus constitutively ubiquitinated and degraded under normoxic conditions^{25,26}. Finally, we included a poly-D-arginine tag on the carboxy terminus of our peptide sequence to confer cell permeability and resist nonspecific proteolysis. Polyarginine sequences fused to proteins have been shown to facilitate translocation into cells^{27,28} via a mechanism that mimics that of the Antennapedia²⁹ and HIV Tat proteins³⁰. Because a molecule fused to the polyarginine sequence should in principle be cell permeable, the necessity of PROTAC microinjection is circumvented. This design element also allows greater flexibility in the types of ligands that could be used in future PROTACs, since polarity of the compound is no longer an issue for membrane permeability. We hypothesized that the PROTAC-4 would enter the cell, be recognized and hydroxylated by a prolyl hydroxylase, and subsequently bound by both VHL E3 ligase and the mutant FKBP12 target protein. PROTAC-mediated recruitment of FKBP12 to the VBC-Cul2 E3 ligase complex would be predicted to induce FKBP12 ubiquitination and degradation as in Figure 1.

The F36V FKBP12 ligand AP21998 (1) was synthesized as previously described,^{21,22} as a 1:1 mixture of diastereomers at C9. Treatment of **1** with the benzyl ester of aminocaproic acid followed by removal of the benzyl group afforded 2 in 85% crude yield after 2 steps. It is important to note that although this material was carried through as a mixture of two diastereomers at C9, each diastereomer has previously been shown to bind to the target²². Standard peptide coupling conditions were used to label the peptide sequence. HPLC purification yielded 3 (PROTAC-4) with 17% recovery from 1 (Scheme 1).

In order to monitor the abundance of the targeted protein, we generated a vector capable of expressing the mutant FKBP12 fused to enhanced green fluorescent protein (EGFP). In this way, proteolysis of FKBP12 could be monitored by loss of intracellular fluorescence. This vector was then used to generate a HeLa cell line stably expressing the EGFP-(F36V)FKBP12. Bright field (not shown) and fluorescent photographs of the cells were taken before and 2.5 hours after treatment with PROTAC-4 (3). As shown in Figure 2 A-D, EGFP-FKBP12 was retained in those cells treated with DMSO, but lost in cells treated with 25µM PROTAC-4 for 2.5h. Western blot analysis of cells treated with PROTAC-4 also indicated loss of EGFP-FKBP12 relative to an equal number of cells treated with DMSO (Figure 2I). As a control, cells were treated with uncoupled 1 and the HIF-polyarginine peptide fragment (Figure 2E, F). These cells retained fluorescence, indicating that the two domains require a chemical bond to each other in order to exert a biological effect. In order to investigate whether VHL was required for PROTAC-4mediated EGFP-FKBP12 degradation, the renal carcinoma cell line 786-O³¹ was used. 786-O cells fail to produce VHL protein and thus lacks a functional VBC-Cul2 E3 ligase complex. 786-O cells stably expressing the degradation substrate EGFP-FKBP12 retained fluorescence despite treatment with 25 µM PROTAC-2 for 2.5 hours (Figure 2 G, H), confirming that the E3 ligase is required for PROTAC-4 activity.

Implementation of a DHT-Based PROTAC: PROTAC-5

To test the robustness of this approach for the induction of intracellular protein degradation, we next targeted a protein which, although still modified, is closer to being clinically relevant. It has been shown that the androgen receptor (AR) can promote the growth of prostate tumor cells, even in some androgen independent cell lines³². We hypothesized that a PROTAC could be utilized to degrade AR, potentially yielding a novel strategy to repress tumor growth. With this in mind, we designed PROTAC-5,

5, which contains dihydrotestosterone (DHT) as the ligand for AR as well as the HIF-polyarginine peptide sequence which was successful with PROTAC-4. Using standard peptide coupling conditions, we were able to couple known DHT derivative 4^{33} to the HIF-polyarginine peptide (Scheme 2). In order to monitor protein degradation by fluorescence analysis, HEK293 cells stably expressing GFP-AR (293^{GFP-AR}) were treated with increasing concentrations of PROTAC-5. Within one hour, a significant decrease in GFP-AR signal was observed in cells treated with 100, 50, and 25 µM PROTAC-5, but not in the DMSO control (Figure 3 A-F). Western blot analysis with anti-AR antisera verified the downregulation of GFP-AR in cells treated with 25µM PROTAC-5 compared to DMSO control or non-treated cells (Figure 3 G). PROTAC-5 concentrations lower than 25 µM did not result in GFP-AR degradation (data not shown). Pretreatment of cells with epoxomicin, a specific proteasome inhibitor³⁴, prevented degradation of GFP-AR (Figure 3 H), indicating that the observed degradation was proteasome-dependent. Competition experiments with testosterone also inhibited PROTAC-5 from inducing GFP-AR degradation (Figure 4 A-D). In addition, cells treated only with testosterone retained all fluorescence, as did cells treated with the HIF-polyarginine peptide (Figure 4 G, H). Finally, cells treated with both testosterone and the HIFpolyarginine peptide together also retained fluorescence, indicating again that both domains needed to be chemically linked in order to observe degradation (Figure 4 F). It is important to note that the cells survived treatment with PROTAC-5, indicating that the strategy of utilizing the ubiquitin-proteasome pathway for targeted degradation does not necessarily cause a toxic effect.

Discussion

These experiments highlight the general applicability of our strategy to target and degrade proteins *in vivo*. Moreover, the modularity of the PROTAC design offers the possibility to synthesize similar PROTAC molecules targeting different intracellular targets. We have shown that the ligand for the target protein can be varied using both natural and synthetic ligands. Although the linker length has not been fully explored, we have demonstrated that a spacer consisting of two aminocaproic acids (12 atoms) is flexible enough to accommodate some structural variation in the target and E3 ligase proteins yet bring the proteins within close proximity. Since ubiquitination occurs most commonly on an exposed lysine, different spacer lengths may be required to accommodate the structures of different target proteins.

Small molecules have previously been implicated in inducing ubiquitination and degradation of proteins, most notably geldanamycin derivatives act by controlling target interaction with molecular chaperones^{35,36,37,38}. However, there are often specificity issues with these approaches, and the exact mechanism of induced degradation is not clear. In addition, no unified strategy has been presented to confront these issues. Our strategy represents the first attempt to develop a general method for small molecule-induced targeted proteolysis via the ubiquitin-proteasome pathway in intact cells.

PROTACS could in principle be used to target almost any protein within a cell and selectively initiate its degradation, resulting in a "chemical knockout" of protein function. A notable advantage to our strategy is that proteolysis is not dependent on the active site inhibition of the target-any unique site of a protein may be targeted, provided that there are exposed lysines within proximity for the attachment of ubiquitin. Because some E3 ligases are expressed in a tissue specific manner, this also raises the possibility that PROTACS could be used as tissue specific drugs.

Several applications for this technology can be envisioned. First, PROTACS could be used to control a desired cellular phenotype, for example via the induced degradation of a crucial regulatory transcription factor which is difficult to target pharmaceutically. "Chemical knockout" of a protein could prove viable as an alternative for a genetic knockout, which would be extremely valuable in the study of This strategy could also provide significantly more temporal control than gene protein function. inactivation at the DNA or RNA level. Second, diversified libraries of PROTACS could be used to screen for phenotypic effects in a chemical genetic fashion. This strategy could be used either to identify novel ligands for a target by monitoring degradation of the target or to identify new therapeutically vulnerable protein targets by studying phenotypic change as a result of selective protein degradation (Figure 5). This chemical genetic strategy would employ a library of PROTAC molecules with identical E3 ubiquitin ligase domains but chemically diverse target ligands. After PROTAC library incubation with cultured cells and detection of the desired cellular phenotype (e.g., inhibition of pro-inflammatory signaling), one could identify the protein that was degraded by incubation with the PROTAC. A number of approaches could be used to identify the PROTAC-targeted protein, including affinity chromatography and differential proteomic technologies such as ICAT³⁹. In a modification of this strategy, a library of PROTACS could be screened to identify a ligand for a particular target by monitoring degradation of the target protein (e.g., loss of GFP fusion protein). Finally, PROTACS could be used as drugs to remove toxic or diseasecausing proteins. This strategy is particularly appealing since many diseases, including several cancers, are

dependent on the presence or overexpression of a small number of proteins. The large number of potential uses for this technology coupled with the success of these experiments suggests that PROTACS could find broad use in the fields of cell biology, biochemistry, and potentially medicine.

Experimental Section

A. Materials (F36V)FKBP12 expression vector was generously provided by ARIAD Pharmaceuticals (Cambridge, MA), and GFP-AR expression plasmid was a gift from Dr. Charles Sawyers (HHMI, UCLA). Epoxomicin⁴⁰ and AP21998^{21,22} were synthesized as previously described. Dihydrotestosterone and testosterone were obtained from Sigma-Aldrich (St. Louis, MO). Monoclonal antibody recognizing VHL was purchased from Oncogene (San Diego, CA); antibodies recognizing GFP and _-Tubulin were obtained from Santa Cruz Biotech (Santa Cruz, CA); and polyclonal antibody against the androgen receptor was from United Biomedical, Inc. (Hauppauge, NY). HEK293, 786-O, and HeLa cells were purchased from the American Type Culture Collection (Manassas, VA). Tissue culture medium and reagents were obtained from GIBCO-Invitrogen (Carlsbad, CA).

B Tissue culture HeLa cells, 786-O cells, and HEK 293 cells were separately cultured in D-MEM supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum, 100 units/mL penicillin, 100 mg/mL streptomycin and 2 mM L-glutamine. All cell lines were maintained at temperature of 37° C in a humidified atmosphere of 5% CO₂. To generate cells stably expressing a particular fluorescent target protein, the parent cell line was grown to 70% confluency and transfected using calcium phosphate precipitation of the designated cDNA. Following transfection, cells were split 1:10 into culture medium supplemented with 600 g/mL G418 (GIBCO-Invitrogen). Individual clones which optimally expressed fluorescent target protein were identified and expanded under selection for further experimentation.

C. Detection of PROTAC-induced degradation by fluorescence microscopy Cells stably expressing fluorescent target protein were plated into 96 well plates (HeLa^{EGFP-FKBP} cells plated at 4000 cells/well; HEK293^{GFP-AR} cells plated at 60,000-100,000 cells/well). Synthesized PROTACS were

dissolved in DMSO vehicle at a final concentration of 1%. Disappearance of target protein *in vivo* was monitored by fluorescence microscopy at an excitation wavelength of 488 nm.

D. Detection of PROTAC-induced degradation by western blot Whole cell lysates were prepared from HeLaEGFP-FKBP cells treated with PROTAC-4 and with HEK293GFP-AR cells treated with PRTOAC-5 by lysing the cells in hot Laemmli buffer. Lysates were subjected to 8% polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis and the proteins transferred to nitrocellulose membrane. Membranes were blocked in 3% nonfat milk in TBS supplemented with 0.1% Triton X-100 and 0.02% sodium azide. Lysates from HeLa^{EGFP-FKBP} cells treated with PROTAC-4 were probed with anti-GFP (1:1000) and anti-VHL (1:1000) antibodies; HEK293GFP-AR cells treated with PROTAC-5 were probed with anti-androgen receptor (1:1000) and anti-β-tubulin (1:200) antibodies. Blots were developed using chemiluminescent detection.

Acknowledgement J.S.S. thanks the American Chemical Society, Division of Medicinal Chemistry and Aventis Pharmaceuticals for a predoctoral fellowship. We would like to thank Charles Sawyers (UCLA) for providing the GFP-AR expression plasmid. The authors would like to thank John Hines for helpful discussions. This work was supported by the NIH (R21 DK63404 to C.M.C.) UCLA SPORE in Prostate Cancer Research (P50 CA92131 to K.M.S.), CaPCURE (R.J.D., C.M.C., and K.M.S.), Department of Defense (DAMD17-03-1-0220 to K.M.S.), UC BioSTAR Project (01-10232 to K.M.S.), Stein-Oppenheimer Award (K.M.S.), and the Susan G. Komen Breast Cancer Foundation (DISS0201703 to R.J.D.). RJD is an Assistant Investigator of the HHMI.

Supporting Information Available

Preparation and characterization information for compounds 3 and 5 and the HIF-polyarginine peptide.

¹ Harding, M. W.; Galat, A.; Uehling, D. E.; Schreiber, S. L. Nature. 1989 341, 758-60.

² Sin, N.; Meng, L.; Wang, M. Q. W.; Wen, J. J.; Bornmann W. G.; Crews C. M. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A.* **1997**, 94, 6099-6103.

³ Kwok, B. H. B.; Koh, B.; Ndubuisi, M. I.; Elofsson, M.; Crews, C. M. Chem. Biol., 2001, 14, 1-8.

⁴ Spencer, D. M.; Wandless, T. J.; Schreiber, S. L.; Crabtree, G. R. Science 1993, 262, 1019-1024.

⁵ Belshaw, P. J.; Ho, S. N.; Crabtree, G. R.; Schreiber, S.L. Proc. Nat. Acad. Sci. U.S.A., **1996**, 93, 4604-4607.

⁶ Lin, H.; Abdia, W. M.; Sauer, R. T.; Cornish, V. W. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 2000, 122, 4247-4248.

⁷ Lin, H.; Cornish, V. W. Angew. Chem., Int. Ed. 2001, 40, 871-875.

⁸ Myung, J.; Kim, K.; Crews, C. M. Med. Res. Rev. 2001, 21, 245-273.

⁹ Koepp, D. M.; Harper, J. W.; Elledge, S. J. Cell 1999, 97, 431-434.

¹⁰ Rock, K. L.; Goldberg, A. L. Annu. Rev Immunol. 1995, 17, 739-779.

¹¹ Ben-Neriah, Y. Nat. Immunol. 2002, 3, 20-26.

¹² Muratani, M.; Tansey, W. P. Nat. Rev. Mol. Cell. Biol. 4, 192-201 (2003).

¹³ Hershko, A.; Ciechanover, A. Annu. Rev. Biochem. 67, 425-479 (1998).

¹⁴ Vijay-Kumar, S.; Bugg, C. E.; Wilkinson, K. D.; Vierstra, R. D.; Hatfield, P. M.; Cook, W. J. *J. Biol. Chem.* **1987**, 262, 6396-6399.

¹⁵ Breitschopf, K.; Bengal, E.; Ziv, T.; Admon, A.; Ciechanover, A. *EMBO J.* **1998,** 17, 5964-5973.

¹⁶ Pickart, C. M. Annu. Rev. Biochem. 2001, 3, 503-533.

¹⁷ Yaron, A.; Hatzubal, A.; Davis, M.; Lavon, I.; Amit, S.; Manning, A. M.; Andersen, J. S.; Mann, M.; Mercurio, F.; Ben-Neriah, Y. *Nature* **1998**, 396, 590-594.

¹⁸ Crews, C. M. Curr. Opin. Chem. Biol. (in press) 2003.

¹⁹ Sakamoto, K. M.; Kim, K. B.; Kumagai, A.; Mercurio, F.; Crews, C. M.; Deshaies, R. J. *Proc. Nat. Acad. Sci. U.S.A.* **2001**, 98, 8554-8559.

²⁰ Sakamoto, K.; Kim, K. B.; Verma, R.; Rasnick, A.; Stein, B.; Crews, C. M.; Deshaies, R. J. *Mol. Cell. Prot.*, accepted.

²¹ Yang, W.; Roxamus, L. W.; Narula, S.; Rollins, C. T.; Yuan, R.; Andrade, L. J.; Ram, M. K.; Phillips, T. B.; van Schravendijk, M. R.; Dalgarno, D.; Clackson, T.; Holt, D. *J. Med. Chem.* 2000, 43, 1135-1142.

²² Rollins, C. T.; Rivera, V. M.; Woolfson, D. N.; Keenan, T.; Hatada, M.; Adams, S. E.; Andrade, L. J.; Yaeger, D.; van Schravendijk, M. R.; Holt, D. A.; Gilman, M.; Clackson, T. *Proc. Nat. Acad. Sci. U.S.A.* **2000**, 97, 7096-7101.

²³ Hon, W.; Wilson, M. I.; Harlos, K.; Claridge, T. D. W.; Schofield, C. J.; Pugh, C. W.; Mazwell, P. H.; Ratcliffe, P. J.; Stuart, D. I.; Jones, E. Y. *Nature* 2002, 417, 975-978.

²⁴ Epstein, A. C.; Gleadle, J. M.; McNeill, L. A.; Heritson, K. S.; O'Rourke, J.; Mole, D. R.; Mukherji, M.; Metzen, E.; Wilson, M. I.; Dhanda, A.; Tian, Y. M.; Masson, M.; Hamilton, D. L.; Jaakkola, P.; Barstead, R.; Hodgkin, J.; Mazwell, P. H.; Pugh, C. W.; Schofield, C. J.; Ratcliffe, P. J. *Cell* **2001**, 107, 43-54.

²⁵ Ohh, M.; Park, C. W.; Ivan, M..; Hoffmann, M. A.; Kim, T. Y.; Huang, L. E.; Pavletich, N.; Chau, V.; Kaelin, W. G. *Nat. Cell. Biol.* **2000**, 2, 423-427.

²⁶ Tanimoto, K.; Makino, Y.; Pereira, T.; Poellinger, L. *EMBO J.* **2000**, 19, 4298-4309.

²⁷ Wender, P. A.; Mitchell, D. J.; Pattabiraman K.; Pelkey, E. T.; Steinman L.; Rothbard, J. B. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A.* **2000**, 97, 13003-13008.

²⁸ Kirschberg, T. A.; VanDeusen, C. L.; Rothbard, J. B.; Yang, M.; Wender, P. A. *Org. Lett.* **2003**, 5, 3459-3462.

²⁹ Derossi, D.; Joliot, A. H.; Chassaing, G.; Prochiants, A. J. Biol. Chem. **1994**, 269, 10444-10450.

³⁰ Fawell, S.; Seery, J.; Daikh, Y.; Moore, C.; Chen. L. L.; Pepinsky, B.; Barsoum, J. *Proc. Nat. Acad. Sci. U.S.A.* **1994**, 91, 664-668.

³¹ Baba, M.; Hirai, S.; Yamada-Okabe, H.; Hamada, K.; Tabuchi, H.; Kobayashi, K.; Kondo, K.; Yoshida, M.; Yamashita, A.; Kishada, T.; Nakaigawa, N.; Nagashima, Y.; Kubota, Y.; Yao, M.; Ohno, S. *Oncogene* **2003**, 22, 2728-2738.

³² Debes, J. D., Schmidt, L. J., Huang, H. & Tindall, D. J. Cancer Res. 2002, 62, 5632-5636.

³³ Stobaugh, M. E.; Blickenstaff, R. Steroids 1990, 55, 259-262.

³⁴ Meng, L., Mohan, R., Kwok, B. H. K., Elofsson, M.; Sin, N.; Crews, C. M. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A.* **1999**, 96, 10403-10408.

³⁵ Kuduk, S. D.; Zheng, F. F.; Sepp-Lorenzino, L.; Rosen, N.; Danishefsky, S. J. *Bioorg. Med. Chem. Lett.* **1999**, 9, 1233-1238.

³⁶ Kuduk, S. D.; Harris, C. R.; Zheng, F. F.; Sepp-Lorenzino, L.; Ouerfelli, Q.; Rosen, N.; Danishefsky, S. J.; *Bioorg. Med. Chem. Lett.*, **2000**, 10, 1303-1306.

³⁷ Zheng, F. F.; Kuduk, S. D.; Chiosis, G.; M_nster, P. N.; Sepp-Lorenzino, L.; Danishefsky, S. J.; Rosen, N. *Cancer Res.* **2000**, 60, 2090-2094.

³⁸ Citri, A.; Alroy, I.; Lavi, S.; Rubin, C.; Xu, W.; Grammatikakis, N.; Patterson, C.; Neckers, L.; Fry, D.
W.; Yarden, Y. *EMBO J.* 2002, 2407-2417.

³⁹ Han D. K.; Eng J.; Zhou, H.; Aebersold, R. Nat Biotechnol. 2001, 19, 946-951.

⁴⁰ Sin, N.; Kim, K. B.; Elofsson, M.; Meng, L.; Auth, H.; Kwok, B. H. B.; Crews, C. M. *Bioorg. Med. Chem. Lett.* **1999**, 9, 2283-2288.



Figure 1. Targeted proteolysis using a PROTAC molecule. Ub = ubiquitin, Target = target protein, E3 = E3 ubiquitin ligase complex, E2 = E2 ubiquitin transfer enzyme.



Scheme 1. Synthesis of the AP21998/HIF1-based PROTAC. i. H₂N(CH₂)₅CO₂Bn, EDCI, DMAP. ii. H₂, Pd/C. iii. H₂N(CH₂)₅CONH-ALAPYIP-(*D*-Arg)₈-NH₂., PyBrOP, DIPEA, DMF.



Figure 2. PROTAC-4 (3) mediates EGFP-FKBP degradation in a VHL-dependent manner. No change in fluorescence is observed before (A) and 2.5 h after (B) treatment in DMSO control, while a significant change is observed between before (C) and 2.5h after (D) treatment with 25 μ M 3. Cells treated with 25 μ M 1 and 25 μ M HIF-(D-Arg)₈ peptide show no difference before (E) and 2.5 h after (F) treatment. 786-O^{EGFP-FKBP} cells do not lose fluorescence before (G) or 2.5 h after (H) treatment with 25 μ M 3. Western blot analysis (I) with monoclonal anti-GFP antibodies confirms loss of EGFP-FKBP in cells treated with 25 μ M 3 (PROTAC-4) for 2.5 h compared to an equal load from vehicle (DMSO) treated cells.



Scheme 2. Synthesis of a DHT/HIF1 α -based PROTAC (PROTAC-3). i. H₂N(CH₂)₅CONH-ALAPYIP-(D-Arg)₈-NH₂., EDCI, DMAP, DMF.



Figure 3. DHT-HIF PROTAC-5 (5) mediates GFP-AR degradation in a proteasome-dependent manner. One hour after treatment, 293^{GFP-AR} cells treated with a 100 µM (B) or 50 µM (C) concentration of 5 lose fluorescence, while the DMSO control (A) retains fluorescence. Cells treated with 10 µM epoxomicin (D), and pretreated with 10 µM epoxomicin for four hours followed by treatment with 25 µM 5 for one hour (E) retain fluorescence, while cells treated only with 25 µM 5 lose fluorescence after one hour (F). Western blot analysis confirms loss of GFP-AR after treatment with PROTAC 5 (+PT) relative to a loading control (G), while inhibition of the proteasome with epoxomicin (Epox) inhibits degradation (H).



Figure 4. A chemical bond between the HIF-(D-Arg)₈ peptide and DHT is required for PROTAC-5induced degradation of GFP-AR. Cells were treated with (A) no treatment, (B) DMSO (equal volume), (C) 25 μ M PROTAC-3, (D) 25 μ M PROTAC-5 + 10-fold molar excess testosterone, (E) 25 μ M PROTAC-5 + 10-fold molar excess (250 μ M) HIF-D-Arg peptide, (F) 25 μ M HIF-D-Arg peptide + 25 μ M testosterone added separately, (G) 25 μ M DHT, and (H) 25 μ M HIF-D-Arg peptide.



Figure 5. Potential use of PROTACS in a Chemical Genetic screen.

