DCAF11 Supports Targeted Protein Degradation by Electrophilic Proteolysis-Targeting Chimeras

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proteins from cells by directing these proteins to the ubiquitinproteasome machinery. So far, only a limited number of E3 ligases have been found to support ligand-induced protein degradation, reflecting a dearth of E3-binding compounds for proteolysis-

targeting chimera (PROTAC) design. Here, we describe a functional screening strategy performed with a focused library of candidate electrophilic PROTACs to discover bifunctional compounds that degrade proteins in human cells by covalently engaging E3 ligases. Mechanistic studies revealed that the electrophilic PROTACs act through modifying specific cysteines in DCAF11, a poorly characterized E3 ligase substrate adaptor. We further show that DCAF11-directed electrophilic PROTACs can degrade multiple endogenous proteins, including FBKP12 and the androgen receptor, in human prostate cancer cells. Our findings designate DCAF11 as an E3 ligase capable of supporting ligand-induced protein degradation via electrophilic PROTACs.

ENTRODUCTION

Small molecules are typically thought to produce pharmacological effects through directly impacting the function of proteins, for instance, by inhibiting the catalytic activity of an enzyme or stimulating the activity of a receptor. With increasing frequency, however, chemical probes and drugs are being discovered that act by promoting the degradation of proteins. Ligand-induced protein degradation often involves the formation of ternary complexes where small molecules serve as bridges that bring protein targets into close physical proximity of E3 ubiquitin ligases, which then ubiquitinate the protein targets leading to their proteolytic degradation by the proteasome.¹ Multiple categories of compounds have been found to act in this manner, including monofunctional degraders, or "molecular glues", and bifunctional degraders, or PROTACs (Proteolysis TArgeting Chimeras).⁴ Ligand-induced protein degradation has advantages over more traditional small-molecule antagonism, in particular, for multidomain proteins where antagonists may only block one of several functions (e.g., catalytic, but not scaffolding functions), while degraders instead promote the complete loss of the protein from the cell. Small-molecule degraders also have the potential to act catalytically in cells δ and to confer functional outcomes to "silent" ligand-binding sites.^{[6](#page-7-0)} The latter attribute holds potential for substantially increasing the druggability of the human proteome.

Key to the success of ligand-induced protein degradation is the identification of small molecules that bind to functional sites on E3 ligases.^{[7](#page-7-0)} So far, compounds capable of serving as monoand/or bifunctional degraders have been discovered for only a limited number of E3 ligases, most prominently, cereblon (CRBN) and VHL.^{[5](#page-7-0),[8](#page-7-0)} We and others have more recently identified a distinct category of electrophilic PROTACs that operate by covalently modifying E3 ligases, such as DCAF16, RNF4, and RNF114.^{[9](#page-7-0)−[11](#page-7-0)} In the case of DCAF16, electrophilic PROTACs were found to promote ligand-induced protein degradation in a nuclear-restricted manner and at low stoichiometric engagement of the E3 ligase, 11 reflecting the nuclear localization of DCAF16 and the covalent mechanism of electrophilic PROTACs, respectively.

DCAF16 was discovered to support ligand-induced protein degradation using PROTACs bearing a broadly reactive electrophilic fragment tested in HEK293T cells. Here, we hypothesized that by investigating an expanded library of bifunctional electrophilic compounds across a broader panel of human cancer cell lines, we may identify additional E3 ligases that support ligand-induced protein degradation. Our screen identified multiple electrophilic PROTACs that degraded the test protein FKBP12 in cancer cells, including a subset that were

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Figure 1. A cell-based screen to identify electrophilic PROTACs that degrade FKBP12. (A) Schematic depicting the strategy of screening candidate electrophilic PROTACs targeting the FKBP12 protein (either cytosol- or nuclear-localized) fused to a luciferase reporter (Luc-FKBP12). Cells were exposed to compounds at 2 μ M for 8 h. Luciferase activity was normalized to cell viability measured by CellTiter-Glo assays [\(Table S1](#page-6-0)). (B) Heatmap showing the relative abundance of Luc-FKBP12 in cells treated with candidate electrophilic PROTACs compared to DMSO control. Data represent mean values ($n = 2$ biologically independent experiments). (C) Structures of representative active (10-SLF, 21-SLF) and inactive (18-SLF) compounds from the screen. Bar graph (bottom) represents the screening data in B for 18-SLF and 21-SLF. Data are mean \pm SD ($n = 2$). (D) Confirmation of the activity of 21-SLF (2 μ M, 8 h) by Western blotting of 22Rv1 cells stably expressing cytosolic or nuclear FLAG-tagged FKBP12. The result is representative of three biologically independent experiments. Bar graph (right) represents quantification of the FLAG-FKBP12 protein content. Data are mean values \pm SEM ($n = 3$). Statistical significance was calculated with unpaired two-tailed Student's t tests comparing 21-SLFtreated to DMSO or 18-SLF-treated cells. **P < 0.01.

found by chemical proteomics to act through the substrate adaptor protein DCAF11. We demonstrate that electrophilic PROTACs acting through DCAF11 can also degrade the androgen receptor in 22Rv1 human prostate cancer cells. Finally, mechanistic studies indicate that electrophilic PRO-TACs engage specific cysteines in DCAF11, including a highly conserved residue C460, to promote ligand-induced protein degradation.

■ RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Cell-Based Screen to Identify Electrophilic PROTACs That Degrade FKBP12. We prepared a focused library of candidate electrophilic PROTACs bearing an SLF (Synthetic Ligand of $EKBP$) ligand for binding to the FKBP12 protein¹² coupled through a polyethylene glycol (PEG) linker to a structurally varied (mostly α -chloroacetamide (α -CA)) electrophilic group. To access structural diversity with facile chemistry, we leveraged the Ugi reaction^{[13,14](#page-7-0)} to produce ∼20 SLF- α -CA bifunctional compounds. We used a variety of aldehydes and isocyanides as reaction partners in the Ugi reaction to yield a library that included aliphatic saturated hydrocarbons (e.g., 7- SLF, 16-SLF), saturated heterocycles (e.g., 11-SLF, 15-SLF), heteroaromatics (e.g., 8-SLF, 18-SLF, 20-SLF), electron poor aromatics (e.g., 10-SLF, 21-SLF), and electron rich aromatics (e.g., 17-SLF) [\(Figure S1\)](#page-6-0). This set of compounds, along with five previously reported compounds^{[11](#page-7-0)} ([Figure S1\)](#page-6-0), were screened in four human cancer cell lines from different tumors of origin (non-small cell lung cancer: H1975, H2122; prostate cancer: 22Rv1; and pancreatic cancer: BxPC-3): an approach that we hoped would increase our probability of discovering active PROTACs by accessing diverse cellular proteomes. These cell lines were engineered to stably express cytosolic or nuclear

Figure 2. 21-SLF promotes proteasomal degradation of cytosolic and nuclear FKBP12 via the action of Cullin-RING ubiquitin ligase(s). (A) 21-SLFmediated Luc-FKBP12 degradation is blocked by the proteasome inhibitor MG132 and the neddylation inhibitor MLN4924. 22Rv1 cells stably expressing cytosolic or nuclear Luc-FKBP12 were cotreated with 21-SLF (2μM) and MG132 (10μM) or MLN4924 (1μM) for 8 h. Relative Luc-FKBP12 abundance was measured by luciferase signals in comparison to DMSO-treated control cells and normalized to cell viability. Data are mean values \pm SEM ($n = 4$ biologically independent experiments). Statistical significance was calculated with unpaired two-tailed Student's t tests comparing 21-SLF-treated to DMSO-treated cells. ***P < 0.001. (B) 21-SLF induces polyubiquitination of cytosolic and nuclear FLAG-FKBP12 in 22Rv1 cells. 22Rv1 cells stably expressing cytosolic or nuclear FLAG-FKBP12 were treated with DMSO or 21-SLF (10 μ M) in the presence of the proteasome inhibitor MG132 (10 μ M) for 2 h. The result is representative of two biologically independent experiments.

localized FKBP12 fused to firefly luciferase (Luc-FKBP12, [Figure 1](#page-1-0)A and [Figure S2\)](#page-6-0). Cells were exposed to compounds at 2 μ M for 8 h and then evaluated for FKBP12 protein content by measuring firefly luciferase activity normalized to cell viability measurements (to account for potential cell toxicity effects of compounds; [Table S1](#page-6-0)). Compounds that produced >50% loss of cytosolic and/or nuclear FKBP12 were considered of potential interest. Lenalidomide-SLF (Len-SLF, [Figure S1\)](#page-6-0), a bifunctional compound that recruits CRBN for FKBP12 degradation, 11 was used as a positive control and induced substantial loss of both cytosolic and nuclear FKBP12 in all four cell lines ([Figure 1B](#page-1-0)). The candidate electrophilic PROTAC library exhibited diverse activity, including compounds that (i) decreased both cytosolic and nuclear FBKP12 predominantly in a single cell line (e.g., 10-SLF, 17-SLF, 21-SLF), (ii) decreased FKBP12 in multiple cell lines (e.g., 3-SLF), (iii) decreased nuclear, but not cytosolic FKBP12 (including 22S, which was previously shown to degrade nuclear proteins in a DCAF16 dependent manner¹¹); and (iv) exhibited negligible effects on FKBP12 (e.g., 1-SLF, 6-SLF, 18-SLF) ([Figure 1B](#page-1-0)).

Intrigued by the activity of the structurally related compounds 10-SLF and 21-SLF ([Figure 1](#page-1-0)C and [Figure S1\)](#page-6-0), which caused the loss of Luc-FKBP12 in 22Rv1 cells, but not other tested cell lines ([Figure 1](#page-1-0)B), we selected 21-SLF for further investigation. We first confirmed 21-SLF-induced loss of FKBP12 in 22Rv1 cells by Western blot analysis ([Figure 1D](#page-1-0)), using the structurally related inactive compound 18-SLF as a control ([Figure 1C](#page-1-0),D). The reduction in FKBP12 caused by 21-SLF was blocked by cotreating with free SLF, as well as by the proteasome inhibitor MG132 or the neddylation inhibitor MLN4924 (Figure 2A), indicating the involvement of a Cullin-RING E3 ligase in the ligand-induced degradation mechanism.[15](#page-7-0) Also supportive of this conclusion, 21-SLF induced the polyubiquitination of cytosolic and nuclear FKBP12 (Figure 2B). Degradation of FKBP12 was not observed with an analogue of 21-SLF where

the electrophilic α -CA group was replaced with an unreactive propanamide (C-21-SLF, [Figure S3\)](#page-6-0), supporting that the mechanism of action of 21-SLF involves covalent modification of one or more proteins. We next pursued the identification of the E3 ligase that mediated 21-SLF-induced degradation of FBKP12.

21-SLF-Induced Degradation of FKBP12 Is Mediated by DCAF11. We next employed a previously described proteomic approach^{[11](#page-7-0)} to identify proteins that coimmunoprecipitated with FLAG-tagged FKBP12 from 22Rv1 cells treated with 21-SLF (10 μ M, 2 h). Among the proteins that were substantially enriched (>4-fold) in immunoprecipitations of both cytosolic and nuclear FKBP12 from 21-SLF-treated vs DMSO-treated control cells, were a single substrate receptor component of Cullin-RING E3 ligases, DCAF11, and an additional Cullin-RING E3 component, DDB1 ([Figure 3](#page-3-0)A and [Table S2](#page-6-0)).

DCAF11 (or WDR23) has been implicated in the degradation of several proteins, including the transcription factor NRF2 (UniProt: $Q16236$ $Q16236$ $Q16236$),¹⁶ the stem-loop binding protein SLBP (UniProt: Q14493) and p21 (UniProt: P38936) during the cell cycle, $17,18$ and KAP1 (UniProt: Q13263) to regulate telomere length.[19](#page-8-0) To our knowledge, small molecule ligands have not been described for DCAF11. To test whether DCAF11 was responsible for mediating 21-SLF-induced degradation of FKBP12, we used CRISPR/Cas9 methods to create DCAF11 knockout (KO) 22Rv1 cells ([Figure S4A](#page-6-0)). These KO cells were generated as populations to minimize the potential for clonal effects on subsequent studies. Mass spectrometry (MS)-based proteomic experiments confirmed substantial loss of the targeted E3 ligase in the respective KO populations (>70% loss of DCAF11 in DCAF11-KO cells) ([Figure S4B,C](#page-6-0) and [Table](#page-6-0) [S3](#page-6-0)). 21-SLF caused the concentration-dependent [\(Figure 3B](#page-3-0)) and time-dependent ([Figure S4D](#page-6-0)) degradation of both cytosolic and nuclear FKBP12 in DCAF11-WT, but not in DCAF11-KO

Figure 3. DCAF11 mediates 21-SLF-induced degradation of FKBP12. (A) Quantitative MS-based proteomics showing 21-SLF/DMSO ratio values of proteins identified in anti-FLAG affinity enrichment experiments, where a high ratio indicates proteins preferentially enriched from cells treated with 21-SLF (10 μ M). The maximum 21-SLF/DMSO value was set as 10. 22Rv1 cells stably expressing cytosolic or nuclear FLAG-FKBP12 were treated with DMSO or 21-SLF (10 μ M) in the presence of the proteasome inhibitor MG132 (10 μ M) for 2 h. The y-axis and x-axis correspond to the average 21-SLF/DMSO ratio and protein number, respectively, from four biologically independent experiments. (B) Concentration-dependent degradation of stably expressed cytosolic or nuclear FLAG-FKBP12 in DCAF11-WT and DCAF11-KO 22Rv1 cells following treatment with 21-SLF (1, 2, and 5 μ M) for 8 h. The result is representative of three biologically independent experiments. Bar graph (right) represents quantification of the FLAG-FKBP12 protein content. Data are mean \pm SEM ($n = 3$). Statistical significance was calculated with unpaired two-tailed Student's t tests comparing 21-SLFtreated to DMSO-treated cells. *P < 0.05, **P < 0.01, ***P < 0.001. (C) Expression of HA-DCAF11 in DCAF11-KO 22Rv1 cells restored 21-SLFmediated degradation of cytosolic and nuclear FLAG-FKBP12. 22Rv1 DCAF11-KO cells were transiently transfected with HA-DCAF11 or empty pRK5 vector and cytosolic or nuclear FLAG-FKBP12 for 24 h and then treated with 21-SLF (2 μ M, 8 h). The result is a representative of three biologically independent experiments. Bar graph (right) represents quantification of the FLAG-FKBP12 protein content. Data are mean \pm SEM ($n =$ 3). Statistical significance was calculated with unpaired two-tailed Student's t tests comparing 21-SLF-treated HA-DCAF11-expressing cells to 21-SLFtreated DCAF11-KO cells. **P < 0.01. (D) DCAF11 interacted with and mediated polyubiquitination of cytosolic and nuclear FKBP12 in the presence of 21-SLF. HEK293T cells were transiently transfected with HA-DCAF11 and cytosolic or nuclear FLAG-FKBP12 for 24 h and then treated with DMSO or 21-SLF (10 μ M, 2 h) in the presence of MG132 (10 μ M). The result is representative of two experiments (n = 2 biologically independent experiments). (E) Quantitative MS-based proteomics comparing protein abundance profiles of DCAF11-WT and DCAF11-KO 22Rv1 cells treated with DMSO or 21-SLF (10 μ M) for 8 h. The y-axis and x-axis correspond to the average relative abundance (21-SLF/DMSO) and coefficient of variation, respectively, from two biologically independent experiments. (F) Degradation of stably expressed nuclear FLAG-FKBP12 in DCAF11-WT and DCAF11-KO 22Rv1 cells following treatment with the indicated compounds (2 μM for KB02-SLF and 10 μM for the others, 8 h). The result is a representative of two biologically independent experiments. Bar graph (right) represents quantification of the FLAG-FKBP12 protein content. Data are mean \pm SD ($n = 4$ for DMSO treatment, $n = 2$ for others). Statistical significance was calculated with unpaired two-tailed Student's t tests comparing DMSO-treated to compound-treated cells. *P < 0.05, **P < 0.01. KB02-SLF is a previously reported PROTAC that degrades FKBP12 in an DCAF16-dependent manner.

22Rv1 cells. Additionally, recombinant expression of HA-tagged DCAF11 restored 21-SLF-induced FKBP12 degradation in DCAF11-KO cells (Figure 3C). We furthermore found that HAtagged DCAF11 coimmunoprecipitated with and mediated polyubiquitination of both cytosolic and nuclear FLAG-FKBP12 in the presence of 21-SLF and MG132 (Figure 3D), supporting the formation of a ternary complex involving 21-SLF, DCAF11, and FKBP12 in HEK293T cells. We finally analyzed 21-SLFtreated WT and DCAF11-KO 22Rv1 cells by MS-based proteomics, which confirmed selective degradation of endoge-

Figure 4. Evaluation of DCAF11 cysteines involved in 21-SLF-induced degradation of FKBP12. (A) 21-SLF-mediated degradation of cytosolic and nuclear Luc-FKBP12 in HEK293T cells coexpressing HA-DCAF11. HEK293T cells were transfected with HA-DCAF11 and cytosolic or nuclear Luc-FKBP12 for 24 h and then cotreated with 21-SLF (10 μ M) and DMSO or MLN4924 (1 μ M) for 8 h. Luc-FKBP12 abundance was measured by luciferase signals in comparison to DMSO-treated control cells and normalized to cell viability. Data are mean \pm SEM ($n=3$ biologically independent experiments). Statistical significance was calculated with unpaired two-tailed Student's t tests comparing 21-SLF-treated and DMSO-treated HA-DCAF11/Luc-FKBP12-co-expressing cells. ***P < 0.001. (B) Concentration-dependent degradation of cytosolic or nuclear Luc-FKBP12 in HEK293T cells coexpressing Luc-FKBP12 and HA-DCAF11. HEK293T cells were transfected with HA-DCAF11 or pRK5 empty vector and cytosolic or nuclear Luc-FKBP12 for 24 h and then treated with 21-SLF (0.2, 0.5, 2, 5, and 10 μM) for 8 h. Luc-FKBP12 abundance was measured as in panel A. Data are mean \pm SEM ($n = 3$ biologically independent experiments). (C) Evaluation of DCAF11 cysteines that support 21-SLF-mediated Luc-FKBP12 degradation. HEK293T cells were transfected with the indicated C-to-A mutants of HA-DCAF11 and nuclear Luc-FKBP12 for 24 h and then treated with 21-SLF (10 μ M, 8 h). Luc-FKBP12 abundance was measured as in panel A. Data are mean \pm SEM ($n = 3$ biologically independent experiments). Statistical significance was calculated with unpaired two-tailed Student's t tests comparing DCAF11-WT and DCAF11-C460A. ***P < 0.001. (D) Cryo-electron microscopy structure of SNRNP40, the U5 subunit of human spliceosome (pdb: 3JCR). C291, S304, and S329 in SNRNP40 correspond to C443, C460, and C485 in DCAF11 based on sequence alignment [\(Figure S5](#page-6-0)). Blue highlighted amino acids correspond to the predicted locations of other cysteines in DCAF11. (E) Evaluation of DCAF11 cysteines that support 21-SLF-mediated Luc-FKBP12 degradation. HEK293T cells were transfected with the indicated C-to-A mutants of HA-DCAF11 and nuclear Luc-FKBP12 for 24 h and then treated with 21-SLF (10 μM, 8 h). Luc-FKBP12 abundance was measured as in panel A. Data are mean \pm SEM ($n = 3$ biologically independent experiments).

nous FKBP12 in WT, but not DCAF11-KO cells [\(Figure 3](#page-3-0)E and [Table S4](#page-6-0)). One additional protein, GSTO1 was decreased by 21-SLF in both WT and DCAF11-KO 22Rv1 cells [\(Figure 3](#page-3-0)D). GSTO1 harbors a highly reactive catalytic cysteine $(C_{\text{VS}}32)^{20,21}$ $(C_{\text{VS}}32)^{20,21}$ $(C_{\text{VS}}32)^{20,21}$ which has been previously shown to be liganded by diverse α -CA compounds. $20,22$ $20,22$ $20,22$ We therefore speculate that 21-SLF may directly modify C32 in GSTO1, leading to destabilization of the protein.

Having identified DCAF11 as an E3 ligase responsible for mediating the degradation of FKBP12 by 21-SLF, we wondered whether other screening hits from the electrophilic PROTAC library might also act through DCAF11. A representative subset of active and inactive compounds ([Figure 1B](#page-1-0)) was evaluated for inducing FKBP12 degradation in DCAF11-WT and DCAF11- KO 22Rv1 cells. Interestingly, while several of the screening hits, including compounds with structural similarity to 21-SLF (e.g., 10-SLF), also degraded FKBP12 in a DCAF11-dependent manner, one candidate electrophilic PROTAC 3-SLF maintained activity in DCAF11-KO cells, pointing to a different mechanism of action ([Figure 3](#page-3-0)F).

DCAF11 Cysteines Involved in 21-SLF-Induced Degradation of FKBP12. The α -CA electrophile found in 21-SLF mainly reacts with cysteine among the proteinaceous amino acids.^{[23](#page-8-0)} We initially searched our internal and published

chemical proteomic data sets of α -CA-sensitive cysteines,^{20,[21,24](#page-8-0)} in the hopes of identifying candidate cysteines in DCAF11 that might be liganded by this electrophilic group. However, the coverage of DCAF11 cysteines in these data sets was limited and did not reveal obvious sites of α -CA-sensitivity. We therefore pursued an alternative approach of expressing WT and individual C-to-A mutants of DCAF11 alongside Luc-FKBP12 in HEK293T cells and monitoring 21-SLF-induced loss of FKBP12. We first confirmed that both cytosolic and nuclear Luc-FKBP12 were degraded by 21-SLF in a concentrationdependent and MLN4924-sensitive manner in WT-DCAF11 expressing HEK293T cells, but not in HEK293T cells expressing only Luc-FKBP12 (Figure 4A,B). The expression of C-to-A mutants of DCAF11 in HEK293T cells ([Figure S5](#page-6-0)) revealed that none of the individual cysteine mutations completely abolished FKBP12 degradation by 21-SLF; however, the C460A-DCAF11 mutant showed a partial impairment in FKBP12 degradation (Figure 4C). We next combined the C460A mutation with other C-to-A mutations to create double mutant DCAF11 variants, but none of these double mutants showed further impairment in 21-SLF-induced degradation of FKBP12 (Figure 4C and [Figure S5](#page-6-0)).

Our mutational analysis suggested that 21-SLF may promote FKBP12 degradation through engaging multiple cysteines.

Figure 5. An electrophilic PROTAC that degrades the androgen receptor (AR) in a DCAF11-dependent manner. (A) Structure of 21-ARL, a candidate AR-directed electrophilic PROTAC. (B) Concentration-dependent degradation of AR in DCAF11-WT and DCAF11-KO 22Rv1 cells following treatment with 21-ARL (1-10 μ M) for 8 h. The result is representative of three biologically independent experiments. Bar graph (right) represents quantification of the AR content. Data are mean \pm SEM ($n = 3$). Statistical significance was calculated with unpaired two-tailed Student's t tests comparing 21-ARL-treated DCAF11-WT to DCAF11-KO cells at each concentration. *P < 0.05, **P < 0.01.

Although the three-dimensional structure of DCAF11 has not yet been determined, a structure is available for the U5 subunit of human spliceosome (SNRNP40, pdb: 3JCR, [Figure 4](#page-4-0)D), which shares a similar WDR domain to DCAF11. Sequence alignment between DCAF11 and SNRNP40 identified three cysteines in DCAF11 (C443, C460, and C485) that may be in close spatial proximity within the WDR domain [\(Figure 4](#page-4-0)D and [Figure S6](#page-6-0)). Mutation of all three cysteines to alanine (C443A/ C460A/C485A triple mutant; or DCAF11−3CA) completely blocked 21-SLF-induced degradation of FKBP12 ([Figure 4E](#page-4-0)). We confirmed that DCAF11-WT and the DCAF11−3CA triple mutant bound to similar extents to DDB1 in cells ([Figure S7](#page-6-0)), suggesting that the triple mutant protein retains a native conformation capable of engaging in Cullin-RING E3 complexes. We then used recombinant His-tagged FKBP12 protein and an anti-His antibody to visualize SLF-modified proteins in a far-Western blot assay. This experiment demonstrated that FKBP12 bound to DCAF11-WT, but not the DCAF11−3CA triple mutant in 21-SLF treated cells [\(Figure](#page-6-0) [S8](#page-6-0)), supporting that DCAF11 is covalently modified by 21-SLF on one or more of the three cysteines in DCAF11 (C443, C460, and C485). Interestingly, the C443A/C485A double mutant showed equivalent degradation activity to DCAF11-WT [\(Figure](#page-4-0) [4](#page-4-0)E). We interpret these data to indicate that C460 of DCAF11 is sufficient to mediate the full degradation activity of 21-SLF, but, in the absence of this cysteine, C443 and C485 can serve as additional engagement sites that support 21-SLF-induced protein degradation.

We next performed chemical proteomic experiments using an iodoacetamide-desthiobiotin (IA-DTB) probe to map cysteines that were substantially engaged by 21-SLF (10 μ M, 2 h) in HA-DCAF11-transfected HEK293T cells. The results revealed that 21-SLF only engaged DCAF11_C460 to a limited extent ([Table](#page-6-0) [S5](#page-6-0)), which is consistent with a model where the compound supports targeted protein degradation at low fractional occupancy of DCAF[11](#page-7-0).¹¹ The chemical proteomic experiments also provided insights into the broader reactivity of 21-SLF, showing that, across >12,000 quantified cysteines, the compound only substantially engaged (>50%) a handful of cysteines − GSTO1_C32, PTGES2_C110, VSNL1_C187, MGST3 C62, HMOX2 C265 and HMOX2 C282 [\(Figure](#page-6-0) [S9](#page-6-0) and [Table S5\)](#page-6-0). Considering that 21-SLF promoted reductions in GSTO1 protein content by a DCAF11 independent mechanism in cells ([Figure 3](#page-3-0)E), these data suggest that direct engagement of C32 by electrophilic compounds may destabilize GSTO1.

DCAF11-Dependent Degradation of the Androgen **Receptor.** We finally investigated whether electrophilic PROTACs acting through DCAF11 could degrade an additional endogenous protein beyond FKBP12. The 22Rv1 cells in which DCAF11-dependent ligand-induced degradation activity was discovered express the androgen receptor (AR), which is an oncogenic transcription factor important for prostate cancer growth and a target of interest in several previous PROTAC studies.[25](#page-8-0)−[27](#page-8-0) We synthesized a candidate electrophilic PRO-TAC 21-ARL bearing the α -CA group found in 21-SLF coupled through a PEG linker to a previously defined AR ligand 26,27 26,27 26,27 (Figure 5A). 21-ARL treatment for 8 h caused the concentration-dependent degradation of AR in WT cells, but not DCAF11-KO 22Rv1 cells (Figure 5B). At 10 μ M, 21-ARL led to 90% loss of AR (Figure 5B). 22Rv1 cells also express a splice variant of AR, AR-V7, that lacks the ligand-binding δ omain, 28,29 and the abundance of this variant was not affected by 21-ARL treatment (Figure 5B and [Figure S10\)](#page-6-0), consistent with its lack of response to other AR-directed PROTACs. $30,31$ $30,31$

These data indicate that electrophilic PROTACs engaging DCAF11 can promote the degradation of multiple endogenous proteins (FKBP12, AR) in human cells.

■ CONCLUSION

As interest in ligand-induced protein degradation has intensified, so has the pursuit of E3 ligases that can be targeted by small

molecules to mediate this event-driven pharmacology.^{[7,](#page-7-0)[32](#page-8-0)} Examples of E3 ligases that have recently been shown to support ligand-induced protein degradation include DCAF16, RNF4, RNF[11](#page-7-0)4, and KEAP1. $9-11,33$ $9-11,33$ Here, we used a cell-based screening approach combined with chemical proteomics to identify DCAF11 as an E3 ligase that mediates ligand-induced protein degradation when engaged by electrophilic PROTACs. While we discovered DCAF11 using electrophilic PROTACs that showed activity in 22Rv1 cells, but not other tested cell lines, we are unsure of the mechanistic basis for this cell typerestricted profile. DCAF11 itself appears to be expressed in all of the tested cell lines, albeit at higher abundance in 22Rv1 cells^{[34](#page-8-0)} (Figure S11), which could point to a threshold quantity of the E3 ligase required to observe protein degradation effects. Potentially consistent with this hypothesis, recombinant expression of DCAF11 conferred strong ligand-induced protein degradation activity to HEK293T cells ([Figure 4](#page-4-0)A,B). We observed a higher hit rate in 22Rv1 cells compared to other cells. Besides the possibility that DCAF11 is expressed at higher abundance in 22Rv1 cells, which might contribute to the higher hit rate, 22Rv1 cells may also have a higher overall capacity to support ligand-induced protein degradation due to higher cell permeability or lower cellular glutathione (GSH) concentration/reactivity, which are hypotheses we hope to explore in the future.

Mechanistic studies suggest that multiple cysteines in DCAF11, possibly colocalized on the same surface of the protein, can mediate protein degradation by electrophilic PROTACs. The apparent sufficiency of C460, however, suggests future efforts could focus on creating more potent and selective covalent ligands for this cysteine in DCAF11. We also note that C460, unlike C443 and C485, is highly conserved across DCAF11 orthologues from other species, including mammals, flies, worms, and fish (Figure S12). We therefore wonder if C460 might be a site for endogenous electrophile action to shape the substrate scope of DCAF11-mediated protein degradation in response to, for instance, oxidative stress in cells.

In our previous studies of DCAF16, we found that only a minor fraction (10−40%) of the protein needed to be engaged by electrophilic PROTACs to produce robust targeted protein degradation outcomes.^{[11](#page-7-0)} Technically speaking, our stoichiometry estimates for DCAF16 engagement by electrophilic PROTACs could be conveniently measured by shifts in the migration of this protein by SDS-PAGE. DCAF11, being a much larger protein than DCAF16 (62 vs 24 kDa), did not show a clear gel-shift following electrophilic PROTAC treatment, and we also found that C460, as well as C443 and C485, of endogenous DCAF11 have been rarely quantified in past chemical proteomic experiments of cysteine reactivity. Here, we did observe that 21- SLF only showed modest (∼10%) engagement of DCFA11_C460 at pharmacologically relevant concentrations (10 μ M) in cells recombinantly expressing DCAF11 (Table S5), although whether this low stoichiometry reflects the degree of engagement of endogenous DCAF11 by 21-SLF remains unknown. Going forward, the stoichiometry of DCAF11 cysteine engagement by electrophilic PROTACs may be measurable using targeted proteomic methods, which should have enhanced sensitivity.^{[35](#page-8-0)} Understanding DCAF11 cysteine engagement would help to clarify whether electrophilic PROTACs can act through this protein with minimal perturbations to its endogenous functions, as might be possible at substoichiometric interactions. We did observe two previously described endogenous substrates of DCAF11 in our

proteomic experiments, SLBP and KAP1, and neither were altered in abundance in 21-SLF-treated cells (Table S3).

Projecting forward, we are generally interested in the potential of the screening approach described herein to discover additional E3 ligases that can be targeted by electrophilic PROTACs. We note that other tested compounds showed cell type-related degradation profiles that differed from 21-SLF (e.g., 3-SLF; [Figure 1B](#page-1-0)) and retained activity in DCAF11-KO cells ([Figure 3](#page-3-0)F). An understanding of the E3 ligase interactions for such compounds is an important future objective. We also only screened a modest number of candidate electrophilic PROTACs, and increasing the content and structural diversity of this compound library may facilitate discovery of additional E3 ligases amenable to electrophilic PROTAC action. We should, however, qualify that further optimization of the potency and selectivity of electrophilic PROTACs acting through DCAF11 is needed to furnish more advanced chemical probes. In this regard, the electrophilic component of the PROTACs possesses a chiral center, and since these compounds were tested herein as epimeric mixtures, it will be important in future studies to determine if they show stereoselective degradation activity. Also, while α -CAs can serve as valuable initial tool compounds for probing the functions of proteins in cells, the identification of more tempered electrophiles (e.g., acrylamides, butynamides) capable of targeting DCAF11 would enable investigation of the broader potential for this E3 ligase to contribute to the field of ligand-induced protein degradation. It is nonetheless encouraging that first-generation electrophilic PROTACs acting through DCAF11 were capable of promoting the degradation of multiple endogenous proteins, including AR, an important prostate cancer drug target. Our findings, combined with other recent studies,^{[9](#page-7-0)-[11,](#page-7-0)[33](#page-8-0)} underscore the value of incorporating covalent chemistry into PROTAC design to expand the scope of E3 ligases that mediate ligand-induced protein degradation.

■ ASSOCIATED CONTENT

6 Supporting Information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge at [https://pubs.acs.org/doi/10.1021/jacs.1c00990.](https://pubs.acs.org/doi/10.1021/jacs.1c00990?goto=supporting-info)

Materials and Methods, Synthetic Chemistry [\(PDF](http://pubs.acs.org/doi/suppl/10.1021/jacs.1c00990/suppl_file/ja1c00990_si_001.pdf))

([XLSX](http://pubs.acs.org/doi/suppl/10.1021/jacs.1c00990/suppl_file/ja1c00990_si_002.xlsx)) ([XLSX](http://pubs.acs.org/doi/suppl/10.1021/jacs.1c00990/suppl_file/ja1c00990_si_003.xlsx)) ([XLSX](http://pubs.acs.org/doi/suppl/10.1021/jacs.1c00990/suppl_file/ja1c00990_si_004.xlsx)) ([XLSX](http://pubs.acs.org/doi/suppl/10.1021/jacs.1c00990/suppl_file/ja1c00990_si_005.xlsx)) ([XLSX](http://pubs.acs.org/doi/suppl/10.1021/jacs.1c00990/suppl_file/ja1c00990_si_006.xlsx))

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Notes

The authors declare the following competing financial interest(s): Dr. Cravatt is a founder and scientific advisor to Vividion Therapeutics. Several co-authors are scientists at Vividion Therapeutics. Vividion Therapeutics is interested in developing small-molecule medicines.

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Example 5 and Second Property
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