



# Proteins That Read DNA Methylation

# 11

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## Abstract

Covalent modification of DNA via deposition of a methyl group at the 5' position on cytosine residues alters the chemical groups available for interaction in the major groove of DNA. This modification, thereby, alters the affinity and specificity of DNA-binding proteins; some of them favor interaction with methylated DNA, and others disfavor it. Molecular recognition of cytosine methylation by proteins often initiates sequential regulatory events that impact gene expression and chromatin structure. The known methyl-DNA-binding proteins have unique domains responsible for DNA methylation recognition: (1) the methyl-CpG-binding domain (MBD), (2) the SET- and RING finger-associated domain (SRA), and (3) some of TF families, such as the C2H2 zinc finger domain, basic helix-loop-helix (bHLH), basic leucine-zipper (bZIP), and homeodomain proteins. Structural analyses have revealed that each domain has

a characteristic methylated DNA-binding pattern, and the difference in the recognition mechanisms renders the DNA methylation mark able to transmit complicated biological information. Recent genetic and genomic studies have revealed novel functions of methyl-DNA-binding proteins. These emerging data have also provided glimpses into how methyl-DNA-binding proteins possess unique features and, presumably, functions. In this chapter, we summarize structural and biochemical analyses elucidating the mechanisms for recognition of DNA methylation and correlate this information with emerging genomic and functional data.

## Keywords

DNA methylation · MBD · Methylcytosine-binding proteins (MBPs) · Epigenetics

## Abbreviations

5caC	5-carboxylcytosine
5fC	5-formylcytosine
5hmC	5-hydroxymethylcytosine
5mC	5-methylcytosine
bHLH	Basic helix-loop-helix
bZIP	Basic leucine-zipper
CTCF	Multidomain CCCTC-binding factor

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DNMT	DNA methyltransferase
GD	Glycosylase domain
MARs/ SARs	Matrix/scaffold attachment regions
MBD	Methyl-CpG-binding domain
NSC	Neural stem cell
NuRD	Nucleosome remodeling deacetylase
PHD	Plant homeodomain
RING	Really interesting new gene domain
SRA	SET- and RING finger-associated domain
TF	Transcriptional factor
TRD	Transcriptional repression domain
TTD	Tandem Tudor domain
UBL	Ubiquitin-like domain
ZF	Zinc finger

## 11.1 Introduction

DNA methylation serves as a fundamental component of epigenetic regulation; dysregulation of DNA methylation impacts multiple biological processes, including tumorigenesis (Schubeler 2015). In mammals, most DNA methylation occurs in the context of the CpG dinucleotide. In general, 70–80% of the CpGs in mammalian genomes are methylated (Bird 2002). Nevertheless, cytosine methylation is also present at CpH (non-CpG methylation, H=A, T, or C) sites (Ramsahoye et al. 2000; Woodcock et al. 1987), which accounts for about 25% of the total cytosine methylation in both neurons and embryonic stem cells (*ESCs*). Similar to mCpG, mCpH mainly contributes to transcriptional repression and imprinting (Guo et al. 2014; Sanchez-Mut et al. 2016). mCpH is mainly located in a region with low CpG density, and is established and maintained by DNMT3A (Guo et al. 2014; Ramsahoye et al. 2000). Non-CpG methylation, although less abundant than CpG methylation, occurs in virtually all human tissues and is involved in the repression of development-related genes during stem cell differentiation (Schultz et al. 2015).

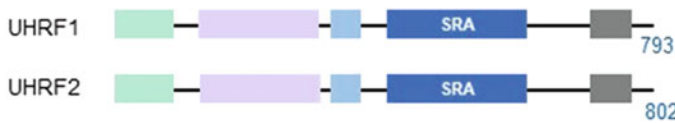
Although DNA methylation has historically been depicted as a relatively static modification, recent studies have revealed that the methyl group on cytosine can be further modified by oxidation; Fe (II)- and  $\alpha$ -ketoglutarate-dependent oxidation mediated by ten-eleven translocation (TET) dioxygenases converts 5-methylcytosine (5mC) into 5-hydroxymethylcytosine (5hmC), 5-formylcytosine (5fC), and 5-carboxylcytosine (5caC) (Kohli and Zhang 2013; Kriaucionis and Tahiliani 2014; Tahiliani et al. 2009).

The “reader proteins,” referred to as methylcytosine-binding proteins (MBPs), specifically recognize DNA methylation marks and initiate signaling pathways. MBPs often interact with other proteins and serve as hubs to recruit effector proteins to particular loci. It is the particular collection of effector proteins associated with each MBP and not the act of binding methylated CpG per se that typically elicits downstream transcriptional effects. The MBPs can be classified using structural information into three major families, each characterized by the presence of a critical recognition domain: the methyl-CpG-binding domain (MBD), the SET- and RING finger-associated domain (SRA), and some of TF families (Fig. 11.1). Although DNA methylation precludes the interaction of many TFs, such as MYC, CREB, NRF1, and members of the E2F family, with their specific DNA recognition sequences (Domcke et al. 2015; Tate and Bird 1993), some TFs, such as the extended homeodomain family, prefer methylated CpG sequences (Kribelbauer et al. 2017; Yin et al. 2017). Each MBP has unique features, including DNA-binding preferences, expression patterns, or protein–protein interaction partners, and has critical roles in various biological contexts. The domain architecture of each protein family is unique, and comparisons between these structures enable insights into the similarities and differences in recognition of methylcytosine, presenting opportunities for a single modification, CpG methylation, to nucleate different effectors (Fig. 11.1).

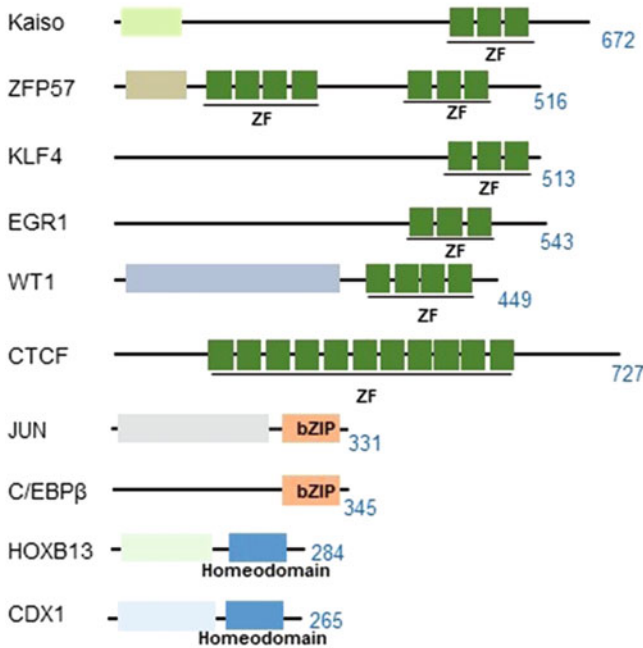
**MBD**



**SRA**



**TFs**



**Fig. 11.1** Domain structures of methylated DNA-binding proteins. MeCP2 (NG\_007107.2), MBD1 (NP\_001191065.1), MBD2 (NP\_003918.1), MBD3 (NP\_001268382.1), MBD4 (NP\_001263199.1), MBD5 (NP\_060798.2), MBD6 (NP\_060798.2), UHRF1 (NP\_001041666.1), UHRF2 (NP\_690856.1), Kaiso (NP\_001171671.1), ZFP57 (Q9NU63-2), KLF4 (NP\_001300981.1), EGR1 (NP\_001955.1), WT1 (P19544.2), CTCF (XP\_016878357.1), JUN (NP\_002219.1), C/EBPβ (NP\_005185.2), HOXB13

(NP\_006352.2), CDX1 (NP\_001795.2), CDX2 (NP\_001256.3). TRD transcriptional repression domain, CXXC CXXC type zinc finger domain, UBL ubiquitin-like domain, PHD plant homeodomain, SRA SET- and RING finger-associated domain, PWWP Pro-Trp-Trp-Pro domain, RING really interesting new gene finger domain, TTD tandem tudor domain, BTB BR-C, ttk, and bab domain, C2H2 C2H2 type zinc finger domain, KRAB Kruppel-associated box domain, bZIP basic leucine zipper domain, WT1 Wilms' tumor 1

## 11.2 The Methyl-CpG-Binding Domain Family

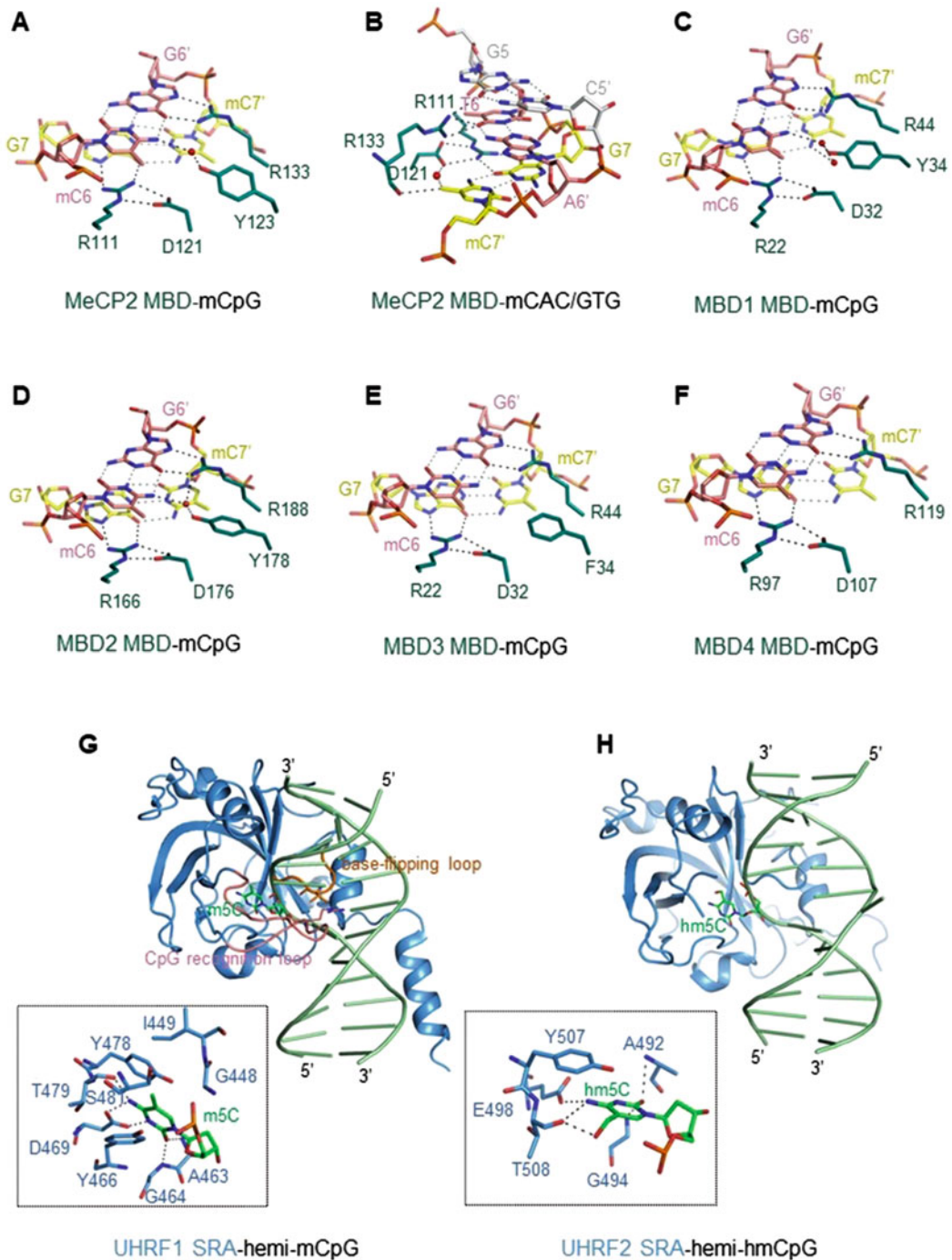
### 11.2.1 MeCP2

MeCP2 was the first MBP to be purified biochemically and its cDNA cloned and sequenced (Lewis et al. 1992; Meehan et al. 1992; Meehan et al. 1989). The cDNA initially cloned by Bird and colleagues codes for a protein of 492 amino acids that contains an N-terminal MBD domain and a transcriptional repression domain in the C-terminal region. Surprisingly, MeCP2 was subsequently found to be homologous to a matrix attachment binding protein from chicken known as ARBP (attachment region binding protein), a protein identified by biochemical assays based on its binding to a sequence motif (5'-GGTGT-3') found in matrix/scaffold attachment regions (MARs/SARs) (von Kries et al. 1991; Weitzel et al. 1997). The functional domain responsible for the binding of methylated CpG sites in MeCP2 was subsequently identified and termed the methyl-CpG-binding domain (MBD) that became the archetypal methyl-CpG-binding domain. Subsequent homology searches using the MBD from MeCP2 led to the identification of the remaining MBD family proteins (Hendrich and Bird 1998; Nan et al. 1993). MeCP2 thus represents the founding member of the MBD protein family.

Structure analysis revealed that MeCP2 recognizes the fully methylated CpG dinucleotide using a 5mC-Arg-Gua triad (Fig. 11.2a). Two arginine residues within the MBD (R111 and R133) each bind to a guanine with bidentate hydrogen bonds and to the 5mC with cation- $\pi$  interactions, where cytosine methylation expands the aromatic ring structure and strengthens the cation- $\pi$  interactions between the methylcytosine and the guanidinium group of the arginine residues (Ho et al. 2008; Lei et al. 2019; Liu et al. 2013, 2018; Zou et al. 2012). In addition, a tyrosine residue forms water-mediated hydrogen bonds with one of the two cytosine methyl groups. Although the SELEX experiments refined the model, stipulating that high-affinity

interaction with methylated DNA was facilitated if the methylated CpG dinucleotide was flanked by A/T base pairs on each side (Ghosh et al. 2010; Klose et al. 2005), structural studies by different laboratories showed that the specific DNA recognition is largely confined to the mCpG dinucleotide, and no base-specific interaction was observed outside the mCpG dinucleotide (Fig. 11.2a) (Ho et al. 2008; Liu et al. 2018; Ohki et al. 2001; Otani et al. 2013). In addition, structural analysis and binding studies also confirmed that MeCP2 recognizes TpG DNA with a preference for GTG DNA (Fig. 11.2b) (Lei et al. 2019; Liu et al. 2018). The MeCP2 MBD binds to mCAC or CAC DNA by recognizing their complementary GTG trinucleotide, which explains why MeCP2 has a comparable binding affinity to both mCAC and hmCAC (hydroxymethylated CAC) DNAs (Fig. 11.2b) (Kinde et al. 2015; Lei et al. 2019). The above findings are also consistent with the original finding that chicken ARBP (or cMeCP2) binds to a conserved GGTGT DNA motif found in the MARs/SARs DNA regions that lacks any methylated CpG dinucleotides (Buhrmester et al. 1995; von Kries et al. 1991; Weitzel et al. 1997). The central GTG trinucleotide of the MARs DNA elements is crucial for its binding to cMeCP2, and mutating either of the guanine bases in this trinucleotide significantly reduced this binding (Buhrmester et al. 1995; Weitzel et al. 1997).

MeCP2 displays relatively high expression in neurons, where this level is approximate to that of histone octamers (Skene et al. 2010). MeCP2 plays important role in the normal chromatin architecture in neurons, and its mutations result in the neurodevelopmental disorder Rett syndrome (RTT) in humans (Amir et al. 1999; Chen et al. 2001; Guy et al. 2001). However, despite the important roles of MeCP2 mutations in development and disease, MeCP2 deletion in mice has only minimal impact on global gene regulation. Thus, detailed mechanistic insights into how disruption of MeCP2 causes developmental failure or Rett syndrome are currently lacking. MeCP2 has been found to bind to methylated DNA at CpG and CpA dinucleotides broadly throughout the genome (Gabel et al.



**Fig. 11.2** Structures of human MBDs and SRA domains bound to methylated DNA. (a) and (b) Structures of MeCP2-MBD bound to mCpG (PDB: 6C1Y) and mCAC DNA (PDB: 60GK), respectively. (c–f) Structures of MBDs from MBD1–4 in complex, respectively, with mCpG DNA (PDB: 6D1T, 6CNQ, 6CC8, and 4LG7). The protein residues are shown as green sticks, while

nucleotides involved in base interactions are shown in sticks and colored in gray (G5–C5'), red (mC6–G6' or T6–A6'), and yellow (G7–mC7' or G7–C7'). The hydrogen bonds formed between residues and DNA bases are marked as black dashed lines; the DNA base pair interactions are shown as gray dashed lines. (g) Structure of UHRF1 SRA domain bound to the flipping-out 5mC of



2015; Kinde et al. 2016; Skene et al. 2010), which also complicates the connection between the MeCP2 binding and specific genes repression. In addition, studies in human neuronal SH-SY5Y cells (Yasui et al. 2007) or mouse hypothalamus (Chahrour et al. 2008) revealed that most genes bound by MeCP2 at their sparsely methylated promoters are actively expressed. In addition to the N-terminal MBD, the transcriptional repression domain of MeCP2 interacts with DNMT3A and inhibits its activity in vitro (Rajavelu et al. 2018). Moreover, recent structural revelation of the MeCP2 MBD bound to methylated and unmethylated CAC-containing DNA in a similar binding pattern might imply that MeCP2 also functions as a transcription activator and its binding to GTG DNA could provide disease implications in RTT syndrome (Lei et al. 2019; Liu et al. 2018).

### 11.2.2 MBD1

MBD1, like other MBD proteins, was initially discovered in homology screens using the MeCP2 MBD as a template. MBD1 is distinctive among the MBD proteins in that, in addition to the MBD, the protein has either two or three CXXC zinc finger domains resulting from alternative splicing (Fujita et al. 1999). Like MeCP2, MBD1 also contains a transcriptional repression domain (TRD) near its C-terminus (Fig. 11.1). The structures of MBD1 MBD in complex with methylated DNA revealed a conserved mCpG binding mode with that of MeCP2 (Fig. 11.2c) (Liu et al. 2018; Ohki et al. 2001). Although biochemical analysis previously indicated that nucleotides flanking the methylated CpG

dinucleotide exert an influence on binding affinity of the MBD1 MBD (Clouaire et al. 2010), the complex structure of the MBD1 MBD with mCpG DNA does not support DNA base selectivity outside the mCpG dinucleotide (Liu et al. 2018).

In addition to the MBD, the CXXC domains of MBD1 add an additional DNA-binding interface. The CXXC domain selectively recognizes unmethylated DNA sites (Lee and Skalnik 2005; Liu and Min 2019; Xu et al. 2011, 2018). MBD1 isoform with all three CXXC domains can repress genes regardless of their promoter methylation status, while the MBD1 lacking the third CXXC domain (CXXC3) can only suppress gene expression when the promoter is methylated, suggesting that CXXC3 is essential for binding to unmethylated templates (Fujita et al. 2000; Jorgensen et al. 2004). Consistently, structure analysis and binding assays revealed that the CXXC3 domain of MBD1 specifically recognizes unmethylated CpG sites and cytosine methylation abrogates this binding; however, the first two CXXC domains of MBD1 (CXXC1 and CXXC2) do not bind CpG DNA (Jorgensen et al. 2004; Xu et al. 2018). This finding also explains why the increase of heterochromatin localization of TET1 and oxidation of 5mC require the CXXC3 domain-containing MBD1 (Zhang et al. 2017). In ESCs, biotin-tagged MBD1 is enriched at highly methylated regions, and this enrichment was lost after the depletion of DNA methylation. In addition, targeting of MBD1 to unmethylated DNA was observed only when the MBD was deleted, suggesting that the recruiting mechanism of MBD1 is dominated by the MBD–methyl-CpG interaction (Baubec et al. 2013).

**Fig. 11.2** (continued) the hemi-methylated DNA (PDB: 3CLZ). The two DNA binding loops are colored in pink and orange, respectively. The interaction details of 5mC recognized by the unique binding pocket of UHRF1 are shown in the left illustration. **(h)** Structure of UHRF2 SRA domain in complex with flipping-out 5-hydroxymethyl-cytosine of DNA (PDB: 4PW6). The interaction details

of 5hmC recognized by the unique binding pocket of UHRF2 are shown in the left illustration. The protein residues and modified cytosines are shown as sticks and colored in blue and green, respectively. The black dashed lines represent the hydrogen bonds between protein residues and base pairs

MBD1 is involved in neurodevelopment. MBD1 maintains the multipotency of neural stem cells (NSCs) by repressing neural cell differentiation-related genes (Jobe et al. 2017). Mutations or polymorphisms of MBD1 are associated with autism spectrum disorder (ASD), and also result in the accumulation of undifferentiated NSCs, impaired neurogenesis, and learning deficits in mice (Cukier et al. 2010; Jobe et al. 2017; Li et al. 2005).

### 11.2.3 MBD2

MBD2 is a member of the chromatin remodeling complex, nucleosome remodeling deacetylase (NuRD), which functions as a repressor connecting DNA methylation with histone deacetylation (Feng and Zhang 2001). Like MeCP2 and MBD1, MBD2 contains a TRD in addition to an MBD. MBD2 also has a glycine-arginine repeat and a coiled-coil domain (Fig. 11.1), which is essential for binding to the Mi-2/NuRD complex (Gnanapragasam et al. 2011). MBD2 was also reported to be an integral component of the MeCP1 complex, which was subsequently shown to have biochemical similarities to NuRD (Ng et al. 1999; Zhang et al. 1999). Single-molecule fluorescence techniques revealed that MBD2 spreads more quickly in the regions of CpG-rich sequences than that of CpG-free DNA, while MBD2 binding is static or with a slow exchange when interacting with DNA regions enriched for mCpG. It was thought that MBD2 facilitates the rapid movement and nucleosome remodeling of the NuRD complex in the CpG-rich regions, and this movement is limited when those loci are methylated, which further contributes to gene silencing (Pan et al. 2017).

The interaction of the MBD2 MBD with mCpG DNA was first defined for chicken MBD2 (which is >95% identical to human MBD2) by Williams and colleagues (Scarsdale et al. 2011). Subsequently, two human MBD2–mCpG complex structures were determined (Liu et al. 2018). Similar to MeCP2 and MBD1, base-specific contacts with the methylated CpG

palindrome are mediated by a pair of arginine residues (R166 and R188), as well as a tyrosine residue (Y176) in MBD2 (Fig. 11.2d). Although MeCP2 and MBD2 MBDs exhibit a conserved binding mode, knock-in mice expressing a chimeric protein (MM2) by swapping the MBDs of MeCP2 and MBD2 exhibit severe phenotypic features that are largely similar to those seen in mouse models of RTT, suggesting that the conserved MBD of MBD2 could not functionally replace that of MeCP2 (Tillotson et al. 2021).

MBD2 is expressed in most somatic cells and is particularly abundant in ESCs in mice (Hendrich and Bird 1998). Despite this intriguing expression pattern, MBD2 knockout mice are viable and fertile (Hendrich et al. 2001). MBD2 has two predominant isoforms, MBD2a and MBD2c; MBD2c lacks the carboxyl-terminal region including the coiled-coil domain integral to the interaction with the NuRD complex (Hendrich and Bird 1998). Differential expression of MBD2a and MBD2c was shown in human pluripotent stem cells (hPSCs); MBD2c is dominant in hPSCs, while MBD2a is dominant in fibroblasts (Lu et al. 2014). Interestingly, MBD2a, but not MBD2c, can interact with the NuRD complex and promote differentiation, while MBD2c enhances reprogramming efficiency when overexpressed in fibroblasts.

### 11.2.4 MBD3

As predicted from its high sequence similarity with MBD2 (Fig. 11.1), MBD3 is also a member of the NuRD complex (Le Guezennec et al. 2006). MBD3 from mammals has been reported to lack the capacity for high-affinity interaction with methylated DNA in conventional biochemical assays (Fraga et al. 2003; Hendrich and Bird 1998). In contrast, the amphibian protein displays a strong preference for methylated substrates (Wade et al. 1999). Close inspection of the amino acid sequence of MBD3 MBDs from multiple species reveals that mammals differ from Amphibia, fish, reptiles, and birds at a critical position encoding the conserved tyrosine residue involved in specific contacts with the methylated

cytosine (changed to phenylalanine in mammals). Recently, crystal structures of human MBD3 MBD bound to mCpG DNA were determined (Liu et al. 2019). Similar to MBD2, the MBD3 MBD binds to mCpG via two conserved arginine fingers (Fig. 11.2e). By structural comparison to that of MBD2, the replacement of tyrosine by phenylalanine at F34 of MBD3 results in weaker mCpG DNA binding compared to MBD2, due to the loss of a solvent-mediated interaction of the hydroxyl group in tyrosine with the N4-amino group of the methylcytosine (Liu et al. 2019). The complex structure of the MBD3 MBD bound to a non-palindromic DNA also revealed that the MBDS recognize the mCpG DNA without orientation preference (Liu et al. 2019), consistent with the observations that the sequences flanking the mCpG dinucleotide do not influence the mCpG DNA binding significantly. Therefore, MBD3 is able to bind to methylated CpG DNA, albeit with a reduced binding affinity (Gunther et al. 2013; Liu et al. 2019).

MBD2 and MBD3 form mutually exclusive complexes (Le Guezennec et al. 2006). In contrast to the mild phenotypes of the MBD2 knockout mice, MBD3 deletion causes early embryonic lethality. Furthermore, MBD3-null ES cells can maintain stemness, even in the absence of leukemia inhibitory factor (LIF) (Hendrich et al. 2001; Kaji et al. 2006). These striking phenotypes suggest that MBD2 and MBD3 have nonredundant roles. Importantly, deletion of MBD3 can significantly enhance reprogramming efficiency, suggesting that MBD3 functions as a barrier to reprogramming (Luo et al. 2013; Rais et al. 2013). However, the field is not in complete agreement with the role of MBD3 in reprogramming, suggesting a possibility that the role of MBD3 is highly context-dependent (Dos Santos et al. 2014). Moreover, in uterine serous carcinoma patients, a small segment of chromosome 19 containing MBD3 is frequently deleted, suggesting a critical role of MBD3 in tumorigenesis or tumor progression (Zhao et al. 2013). Despite the accumulation of evidence on the critical function of MBD3 in biology, the detailed molecular mechanism of how MBD3, or MBD3/NuRD, regulates gene expression and

chromatin structure is still unclear. Most cells express a splice variant of MBD3 that disrupts the canonical MBD sequence (Hendrich and Tweedie 2003). Genomic localization analyses revealed that MBD3 preferentially localizes at unmethylated CpG-rich regions, including CpG islands, while MBD2 distributes across the genome in a methylation-dependent manner (Baubec et al. 2013).

### 11.2.5 MBD4

MBD4 contains two functional domains, an N-terminal MBD and a C-terminal glycosylase domain (GD), separated by a long link of unknown function (Fig. 11.1). The presence of a glycosylase domain makes MBD4 a unique member of the MBD family. The MBD4 MBD has high affinity for methylated CpG-containing substrates. It has a similar affinity for the deamination product of that substrate, i.e., methylated CpG base-paired (mismatch) with TpG (Hendrich et al. 1999; Otani et al. 2013). Not surprisingly, MBD4 possesses enzymatic activity that can repair mCpG/TpG or mCpG/hmUpG double-stranded mismatches generated by spontaneous deamination of 5mC (Hendrich and Bird 1998; Hendrich et al. 1999). MBD4 knockout mice are viable and fertile with minor phenotypes, including a slight increase in C to T mutations at CpG sites (Millar et al. 2002; Wong et al. 2002). Although the deletion of MBD4 itself does not impact tumorigenesis, it increases tumor incidence in a susceptible genetic background (mutation in the adenomatous polyposis coli (APC) gene). In addition, mutations in MBD4 have been observed in human colorectal tumors with microsatellite instability (Ricci et al. 1999). Taken together, these observations suggest that MBD4 plays an important role in tumor progression by regulating DNA mismatch repair.

Similar to MeCP2 and other MBD family members, the crystal structures of the MBD4 MBD with different DNA sequences revealed that MBD4 recognizes mCpG or mismatched DNA by the 5mC (or T)-Arg-Gua triad interactions (Fig. 11.2f) (Liu et al. 2018; Otani



et al. 2013; Wu et al. 2021). While there are some minor alterations, the overall structure of the MBD4 MBD bound to a mismatched DNA is highly similar to that of the MBD4 MBD bound to symmetric methylated CpG DNA. In contrast to the MBD, the glycosylase domain of MBD4 binds to DNA containing a G:X mismatch in a very different manner (Hashimoto et al. 2012). The target nucleotide is flipped out from the DNA strand and an arginine residue from the MBD fills that space. The flipped base is associated with the active-site cleft. Importantly, the crystal structure of the full-length MBD4 containing both the MBD and GD is yet to be solved, so it is unclear to what level the two domains communicate. This question has been partially approached via analysis of solution structures; although MBD4 shows a slow exchange rate between different DNA molecules (intermolecular exchange), it has rapid exchange rate between the two binding sites on the same dsDNA molecule (intramolecular exchange) (Walavalkar et al. 2014). These data support a local hopping model in which the MBD of MBD4 rapidly scans multiple methylated CpG sites and supports the mismatch repair conducted by the GD (Walavalkar et al. 2014).

### 11.2.6 MBD5 and MBD6

MBD5 and MBD6 are characterized to be associated with neurodevelopmental disorders (Cukier et al. 2012; Talkowski et al. 2012). MBD5-null mice develop growth defects and preweaning lethality, exhibiting several phenotypic features seen in patients with 2q23.1 microdeletion (Du et al. 2012). Like other MBD proteins, MBD5 and MBD6 contain an MBD that is required for their heterochromatin localization (Laget et al. 2010). However, electrophoretic mobility shift assay (EMSA) experiments using purified MBDs from MBD5 and MBD6 indicated that these domains display no methylcytosine-binding capacity. This property may be explained by the loss of a characteristic loop structure and the conserved arginine fingers that contribute to DNA base-specific binding, which is critical for

methylated mCpG DNA contacts in the MBDs (Hendrich and Tweedie 2003; Liu et al. 2018). Interestingly, although the incomplete MBDs of these proteins have lost the methylcytosine-binding affinity, they can interact with mammalian PR-DUB polycomb protein complex, which is known as a histone H2A deubiquitinase (Baymaz et al. 2014). These distinct differences from other MBD proteins may assign a specialized function to MBD5 and MBD6.

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## 11.3 SET- and RING-Associated (SRA) Domain

### 11.3.1 UHRF1

UHRF1 (ubiquitin-like, containing PHD and RING finger domains 1, also known as ICBP90 or Np95) contains a ubiquitin-like domain (UBL), tandem Tudor domain (TTD), plant homeodomain (PHD), SET- and RING-associated (SRA) domain, and really interesting new gene (RING) domain, which interdependently coordinate epigenetic functions of UHRF1 (Fig. 11.1). UHRF1 was originally identified as a potential regulator of topoisomerase II $\alpha$  (Hopfner et al. 2000). UHRF1 is essential for the maintenance of proper DNA methylation levels by recruiting DNA methyltransferase 1 (DNMT1) to replication foci (Fang et al. 2016; Li et al. 2018). Deletion of UHRF1 in mice causes genome-wide DNA hypomethylation and results in embryonic lethality, presumably due to the dysfunction of DNMT1. UHRF1 was also observed to contribute to DNA damage repair by binding directly to interstrand crosslink (ICL)-containing DNA and facilitating the recruitment of other DNA repair factors (Liang et al. 2015; Mancini et al. 2021; Tian et al. 2015).

UHRF1 recognizes hemi-methylated DNA with its SRA domain employing the same base-flipping mechanism, which is commonly found in DNA methyltransferases (Arita et al. 2008; Avvakumov et al. 2008; Hashimoto et al. 2008; Song et al. 2012). The SRA domain uses the CpG recognition loop and the base-flipping loop approach the major groove and minor groove of

DNA, respectively. The flipped-out methylcytosine of the duplex DNA is stabilized in a binding pocket with van der Waals interactions, planar stacking contacts, and Watson–Crick polar hydrogen bonds (Fig. 11.2g). The UHRF1 SRA-DNA complex structure showed that cytosine methylation from the complementary strand interferes with the conformation of a conserved asparagine, e.g., human N489, which explains why UHRF1 SRA prefers binding to hemi-methylated DNA rather than symmetric mCpG DNA (Arita et al. 2008; Avvakumov et al. 2008; Hashimoto et al. 2008). The use of this base-flipping mechanism uniquely positions UHRF proteins in the MBP family; the SRA domain was the first domain that conducts base flipping without enzymatic activity (Song et al. 2012).

In addition to hemi-methylated DNA, UHRF1 also recognizes histone modifications, such as H3K9me3, unmodified H3K9, and H3R2 through its histone reader domains (Hu et al. 2011; Nady et al. 2011; Rajakumara et al. 2011). This interaction is allosterically regulated by phosphatidylinositol 5-phosphate (PI5P), which alters the local structure around the Tudor and PHD domains (Gelato et al. 2014). Interestingly, it has been demonstrated that the interaction between UHRF1 and H3K9me3 is essential for the maintenance of DNA methylation (Rothbart et al. 2012). Furthermore, UHRF1 binding to hemi-methylated CpGs activates the ubiquitylation activity of the UHRF1 RING domain toward H3K18 and/or K23 adjacent to the H3 binding site of UHRF1, suggesting a role for UHRF1 as a molecular hub connecting DNA methylation and histone modifications (Harrison et al. 2016).

### 11.3.2 UHRF2

UHRF2 (also known as NIRF) has the same domain structure and high sequence similarity as its paralog UHRF1 (Fig. 11.1). They are the only two proteins with an SRA domain in humans (Mori et al. 2002). Based on their sequence similarity, UHRF2 and UHRF1 appear to share the

same functions; UHRF2 also recognizes hemi-methylated DNA and interacts with DNMT1 (Zhang et al. 2011). However, there are critical differences between UHRF1 and UHRF2. Most importantly, unlike UHRF1, the SRA domain of UHRF2 creates a larger pocket to specifically bind to 5hmC by base flipping (Fig. 11.2h) (Zhou et al. 2014). In addition, UHRF2 and UHRF1 are differentially expressed; UHRF2 is downregulated in ESCs and gradually upregulated upon differentiation, whereas UHRF1 shows an opposite pattern (Pichler et al. 2011). Moreover, the introduction of UHRF2 into UHRF1-null ESCs cannot rescue the hypomethylation phenotype, suggesting a differential functionality of UHRF2, at least in ESCs (Zhang et al. 2011). The 5hmC binding can stimulate the E3 ligase activity of the UHRF2 RING domain to regulate the K33-linked polyubiquitination of the BER component XRCC1 (Liu et al. 2021). However, unlike UHRF1, UHRF2 could not ubiquitinate histones in the context of nucleosomes, implying that fragments outside the chromatin binding region also contribute to UHRF1 location in a productive conformation for nucleosomal histone ubiquitination (Vaughan et al. 2018). With these similarities and differences, it is yet unclear how UHRF1 and UHRF2 cooperatively (or distinctively) function in cells; analysis with UHRF2 knockout mice would provide more information. UHRF2 knockout mice exhibit frequent spontaneous seizures and abnormal electrical activities during adulthood. In addition, UHRF2 knockout mice only display a decreased 5mC level at certain genomic loci in brains. Therefore, UHRF2 might play a unique role differing from that of its paralog UHRF1 in the maintenance of 5mC levels (Liu et al. 2017).

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## 11.4 Transcription Factors

In addition to the canonical MBD and SRA domains, an increasing number of transcriptional regulators have been identified to instruct downstream events depending on the recognition of different cytosine modification states, including

the members of C2H2 zinc finger (ZF) proteins, basic helix-loop-helix (bHLH), basic leucine-zipper (bZIP), and homeodomain transcriptional factor families.

### 11.4.1 Kaiso and ZBTB38

The C2H2 zinc finger is one of the most abundant DNA binding motifs. Each C2H2 zinc finger contains a  $\beta\beta\alpha$ -fold core comprised of two  $\beta$ -strands packing against an  $\alpha$ -helix, and this core is stabilized by a tetrahedrally coordinated  $Zn^{2+}$  with two cysteines and two histidine residues (Klug 2010). Being a member of the BTB/POZ (broad complex, Tramtrack, and bric-a-brac/poxvirus and zinc finger) family, Kaiso (also known as ZBTB33) contains three C2H2 zinc fingers and was originally identified as a binding partner of p120 catenin (Daniel and Reynolds 1999). In addition to p120 catenin, Kaiso also interacts with a repression complex, N-CoR (nuclear receptor corepressor), and suppresses the expression of MTA2, a member of the NuRD complex, in a methylation-dependent manner (Yoon et al. 2003). As the N-CoR complex contains histone deacetylases, the recruitment of the N-CoR complex mediated by Kaiso is proposed as a potential mechanism of DNA methylation-dependent gene repression. However, Kaiso is also known to associate with p53 and upregulate apoptosis-related genes, suggesting pleiotropic roles of Kaiso in different biological contexts (Koh et al. 2015; Koh et al. 2014). Moreover, Kaiso showed both pro- and antitumorigenic activities, which also implies that Kaiso is a context-dependent regulator (Koh et al. 2014; Prokhortchouk et al. 2006; Soubry et al. 2010).

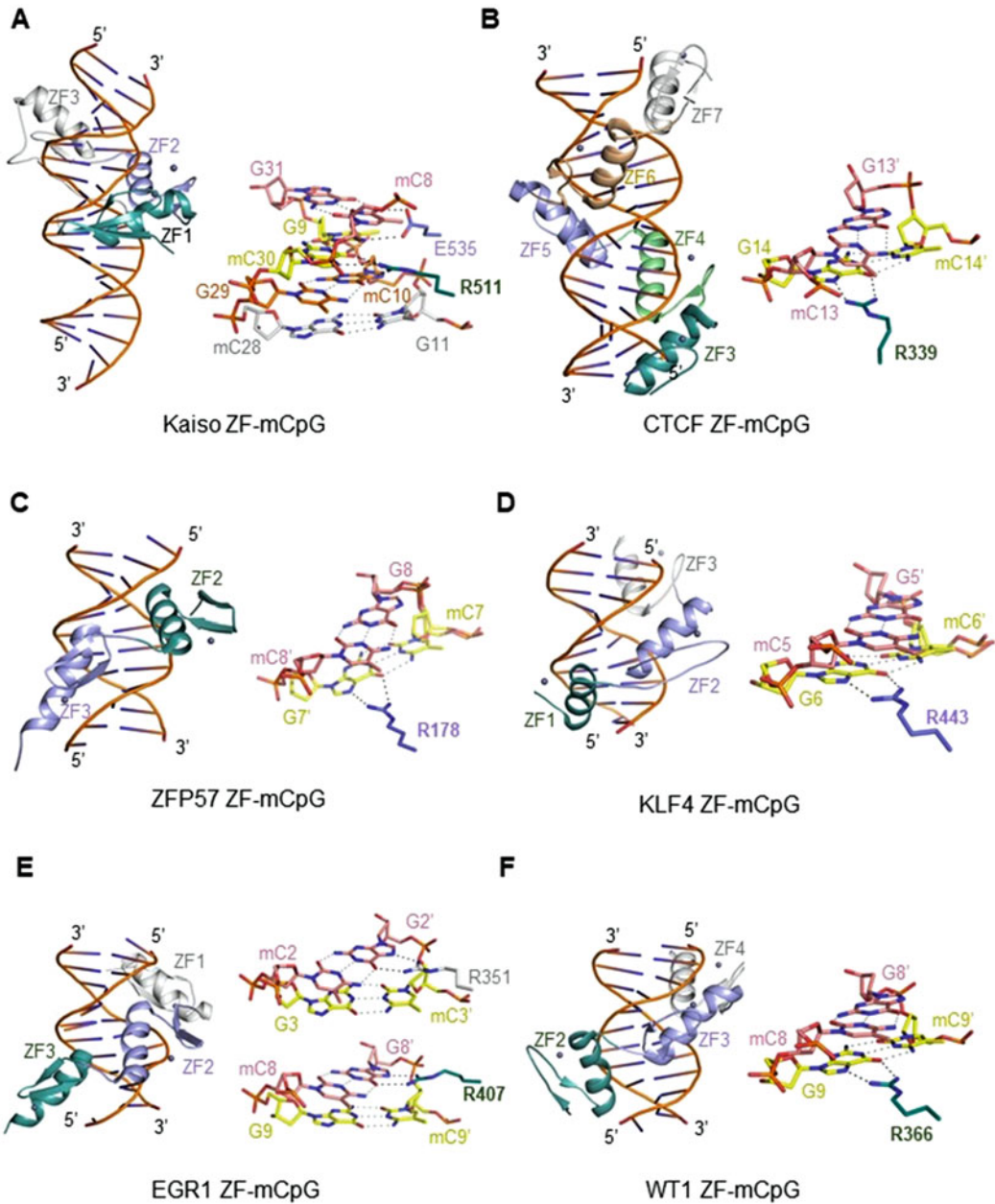
Kaiso preferentially binds to two consecutively methylated CpG dinucleotides or to a chemically similar, albeit unmethylated, TpG-containing sites, TCCTGCCA (also called the Kaiso binding sequence, KBS) (Daniel et al. 2002; Prokhortchouk et al. 2001). The crystal structures of Kaiso have been solved in complex with two different DNA templates: a methylated template, MeECad (promoter region of

E-cadherin) containing two methylated CpG dinucleotides, and an unmethylated sequence TCCTGCCA (Buck-Koehntop et al. 2012; Daniel et al. 2002). The two structures are almost identical; Kaiso recognizes the methyl group, either of mCpG or TpG dinucleotides, using the 5mC-Arg-Gua triad structure (Fig. 11.3a) (Daniel et al. 2002). The first two zinc fingers hold the major groove of DNA, and the third zinc finger (together with the C-terminal extension) enables high-affinity binding (Fig. 11.3a) (Buck-Koehntop et al. 2012). A recent study suggests that E535 of Kaiso adopts different conformations to determine the distinct recognition of methylated and KBS motifs by Kaiso (Fig. 11.3a) (Nikolova et al. 2020). Recently, Kaiso was found to immunoprecipitate with the de novo DNA methyltransferases DNMT3A/3B, suggesting that Kaiso may recruit the DNA methyltransferases to modulate genome methylation apart from being a methyl-DNA-binding protein (Kaplan et al. 2021).

In addition to Kaiso, ZBTB4 and ZBTB38 were also found to bind methylated DNA in vitro and in vivo. ZBTB4 and ZBTB38 specifically bind to the methylated allele of imprinting gene H19/Igf2 and become delocalized with loss of DNA methylation (Filion et al. 2006). ZBTB38 is involved in cellular proliferation, apoptosis, and genomic stability through modulating transcriptional activity (Miotto et al. 2014; Nishii et al. 2012; Oikawa et al. 2008; Pozner et al. 2018). ZBTB38 specifically binds to a DNA sequence ((A/G)TmCG(G/A)(mC/T)(G/A)) through its C-terminal ZF6-10 (Pozner et al. 2018). The crystal structure of ZBTB38 in complex with a DNA sequence of ATmCGmCG revealed that ZF7 and ZF8 contribute to base-specific DNA interactions using a 5mC-Arg-Gua triad, while ZF6 and ZF9 mainly stabilize ZF7 and ZF8 to form base-specific interactions (Hudson et al. 2018).

### 11.4.2 CTCF

The multidomain CCCTC-binding factor (CTCF) is crucial for chromatin architecture organization



**Fig. 11.3** Structural basis of C2H2 ZFs binding to methylated CpG DNA. (a) Structure of Kaiso ZF1-3 in complex with DNA containing two consecutively methylated CpG sites (PDB: 4F6N). (b) Structure of CTCF ZF3-7 in complex with methylated CpG DNA (PDB: 5T00). (c) Structure of ZFP57 ZF2-3 in complex with methylated CpG DNA (PDB: 4GZN). (d) Structure of KLF4 ZF1-3 in complex with methylated CpG DNA

(PDB: 4M9E). (e) Structure of EGR1 ZF1-3 in complex with methylated CpG DNA (PDB: 4X9J). (f) Structure of WT1 ZF2-4 in complex with methylated CpG DNA (PDB: 4R2E). The zinc ions are shown as gray balls. The hydrogen bonds formed between protein residues and DNA bases are marked as black dashed lines, while the DNA base pair interactions are shown as gray dashed lines

and gene expression regulation. CTCF contains 11 tandem C2H2 zinc fingers and binds to a 15-base pair consensus sequence NCANNAG (G/A)NGGC(G/A)(C/G)(T/C) (N=A, C, G or T) that can be methylated on cytosines at positions 2 and 12 (C2 and C12) (Nakahashi et al. 2013; Rhee and Pugh 2011; Wang et al. 2012). The crystal structures of CTCF bound to unmethylated and methylated CpG DNA have been determined (Hashimoto et al. 2017), which showed that ZF3-7 recognize the major groove of DNA, and each ZF interacts with three adjacent DNA base pairs (also called the “triplet” element) (Fig. 11.3b) (Choo and Klug 1997). ZF8 and ZF9 span along the DNA phosphate backbone of the 15-base pair core sequence, and no contact is found for ZF1 and ZF10-11. In the complex structure with the methylated CpG DNA, ZF3 and ZF4 contribute to mCpG binding at position 12 using a 5mC-Arg-G triad (Fig. 11.3b). In contrast, methylation at position 2 cytosine forms a steric clash with D451 of CTCF (Hashimoto et al. 2017), explaining why methylation at C2 significantly abolishes DNA binding, whereas methylation at C12 increases DNA binding of CTCF. Thus, CTCF binds to methylated DNA and recognizes 5mC in a position-dependent manner (Hashimoto et al. 2017).

#### 11.4.3 ZFP57

ZFP57, as a member of the KRAB-ZFP (Kruppel-associated box zinc finger) family, is a maternal-zygotic effect gene for maintaining DNA methylation memory in early mouse embryos and embryonic stem cells. ZFP57, together with its binding cofactor KAP1, binds to methylated hexanucleotides within CpG-rich sequences located in imprinting control regions (ICRs) and regulates imprinted genes (Li et al. 2008; Quenneville et al. 2011). In addition, ZFP57 and KAP1 coimmunoprecipitate with UHRF1 and DNA methyltransferases DNMT1, DNMT 3A, and DNMT 3B to maintain the DNA methylation at ICRs (Quenneville et al. 2011; Zuo et al. 2012). Loss-of-function mutations in human ZFP57 are associated with a global imprinting disorder

(ID) and transient neonatal diabetes (TND) (Mackay et al. 2008).

ZFP57 preferentially binds to a methylated hexanucleotide sequence (TGCmCGC) using two classical C2H2 domains (Liu et al. 2012; Quenneville et al. 2011). Like MBD proteins and Kaiso, ZFP57 uses a 5mC-Arg-Gua triad to recognize the methylated cytosine (Fig. 11.3c). In addition to TGCmCGC, the ZFP57 DNA binding domain interacts with the oligonucleotide containing the sequence GGCmCGC in vivo and in vitro, albeit weaker than that of TGCmCGC sequence (Anvar et al. 2016).

#### 11.4.4 KLF4

KLF4 is a member of the Kruppel-like protein family and contains three standard Kruppel-like zinc fingers. KLF4 is well known as one of the Yamanaka factors for reprogramming somatic cells to induce pluripotency (Takahashi and Yamanaka 2006). KLF4 recruits the histone H3K27me3 demethylase JMJD3 to reduce H3K27me3 levels at both enhancers and promoters of epithelial and pluripotency genes, facilitating reprogramming somatic cells to pluripotency (Huang et al. 2020). In addition, KLF4 also promotes somatic cell reprogramming by cooperating with transcription factors OCT4 and SOX2 (Chronis et al. 2017; Takahashi and Yamanaka 2006). OCT4 acts as a pioneer factor that opens heterochromatin and facilitates the binding of KLF4 (Chen et al. 2020). In addition to reprogramming, KLF4 is required for normal skin and colon development, and KLF4 knockout mice die soon after birth (Katz et al. 2002; Segre et al. 1999). The transcriptional activities of KLF4 have also been implicated in regulating genomic stability (El-Karim et al. 2013), cellular proliferation (Chen et al. 2003), DNA damage response, and apoptosis (Yoon et al. 2005).

KLF4 exhibits comparable binding activity to CpG, mCpG, or TpG containing DNA in vitro (Hashimoto et al. 2016; Liu et al. 2014). Interestingly, genome-wide studies showed that about half of the KLF4-binding sites in vivo are highly methylated (Hu et al. 2013). KLF4 binds to a



consensus sequence of GG(T/C)G with a preference for the methylated status (Sharma et al. 2021; Wan et al. 2017). Structural analysis revealed that the tandem C2H2 zinc fingers of KLF4 recognize the major groove of the DNA using a 5mC-Arg-Gua triad (Fig. 11.3d) (Liu et al. 2014; Schuetz et al. 2011). KLF4 progressively loses binding affinity as 5mC is oxidized into 5hmC, 5fC, and 5caC (Liu et al. 2014).

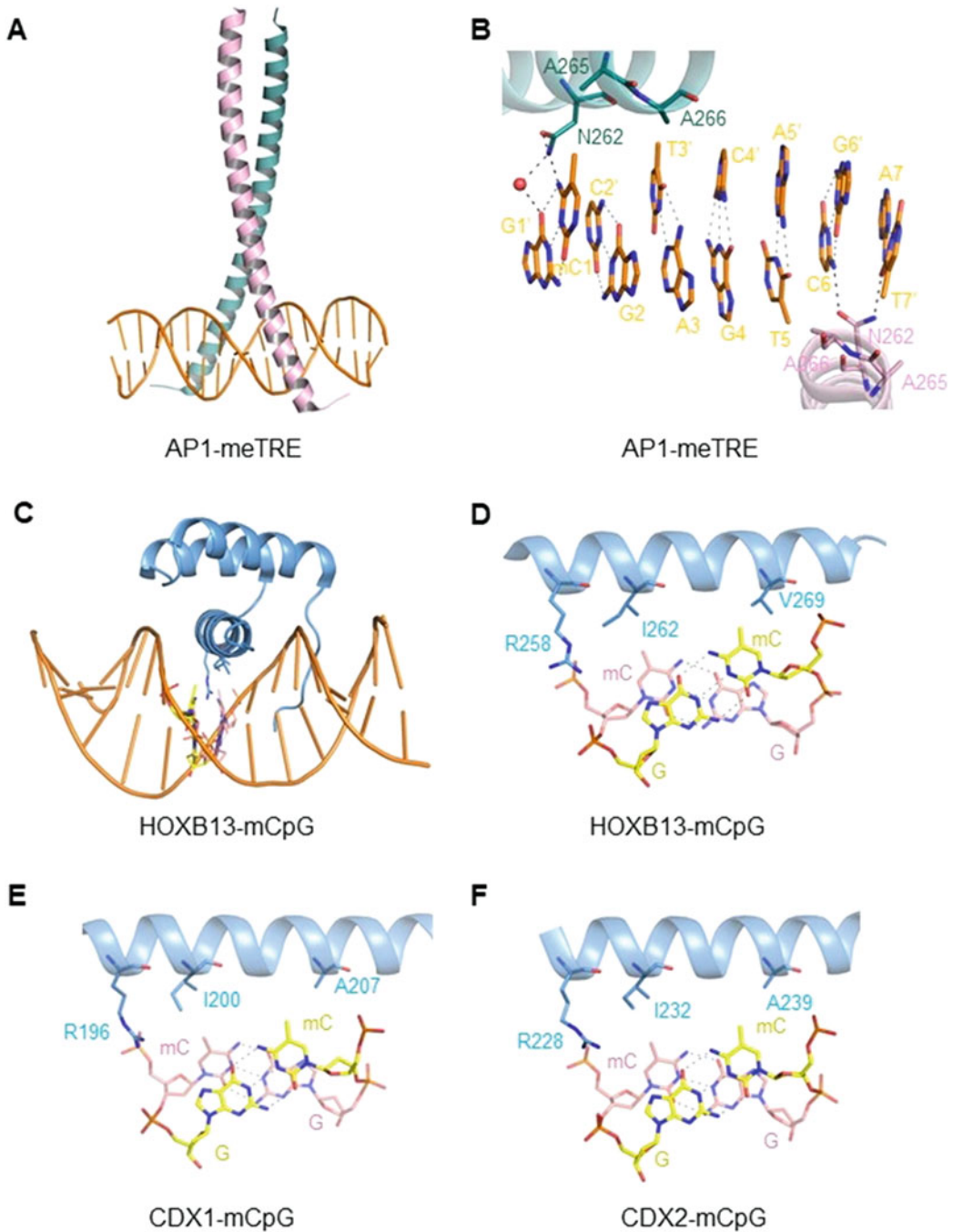
### 11.4.5 EGR1 and WT1

EGR1 (early growth response protein 1), also called ZIF-268, NGFI-A, KROX 24, or ZENK, is a member of the EGR protein family. EGR1 is involved in several biological processes, including cell proliferation, differentiation, inflammation, and apoptosis (Beckmann and Wilce 1997; Bozon et al. 2003; Duclot and Kabbaj 2017; Lee et al. 2004; Sanchez-Guerrero et al. 2013; Veyrac et al. 2014). EGR1 specifically recognizes and binds target genes using three C2H2 zinc fingers, which either promotes or inhibits the expression of target genes (Kim et al. 2011). The WT1 (Wilms' tumor 1) is a predisposition gene for Wilms' tumor, a pediatric kidney cancer (Call et al. 1990; Charlton and Pritchard-Jones 2016; Gessler et al. 1990). WT1 is involved in the regulation of BMP/pSMAD and FGF pathways in the early kidney anlagen (Motamedi et al. 2014), and also plays critical roles in tissue homeostasis, development, and disease (Hastie 2017). Although there are more than 35 potential mammalian WT1 isoforms generated by splicing or alternative translation start sites, all isoforms contain four C2H2 zinc fingers (Hastie 2017). Like EGR1, WT1 can either repress or activate specific target genes depending on its binding partners (Hastie 2017). EGR1 and WT1 have highly divergent cellular functions, but both TFs recognize the same consensus sequence, GCG (T/G)GGGCG (Hartwig et al. 2010; Pavletich and Pabo 1991; Rauscher et al. 1990; Stoll et al. 2007; Zandarashvili et al. 2015). Consistent with other MBPs, these two proteins interact with a methylated DNA template using a 5mC-Arg-Gua triad (Fig. 11.3e, f) (Hashimoto et al. 2014).

### 11.4.6 bZIP

Activator protein 1 (AP-1) is a transcription factor family with basic leucine zipper (bZIP), including c-Fos, c-Jun, CREB, C/EBP, and ATF (activating transcription factor), and is involved in multiple biological processes, such as development, metabolism, cell proliferation, and apoptosis (Angel and Karin 1991; Eferl and Wagner 2003; Hess et al. 2004; Karin et al. 1997). The AP-1 transcription factors usually form either heterodimers or homodimers depending on the sequences of their leucine zipper motifs (Miller 2009), and dimerization is considered a prerequisite for DNA binding (Landschulz et al. 1989). c-Fos and c-Jun form homo- or heterodimers to recognize three types of 7-bp 12-*O*-tetradecanoylphorbol-13-acetate (TPA)-response elements: TGAGTCA, mCGAGTCA, and TGAGmCCA (Bhende et al. 2004; Eferl and Wagner 2003; Gustems et al. 2014; Tulchinsky et al. 1996). C-Jun forms a clamp-like structure through its C-terminal leucine zipper, while its N-terminal basic region interacts with the major groove of the target DNA sequence (Fig. 11.4a). In contrast to the other MBPs, which use a 5mC-Arg-G triad to recognize mC or T, AP-1 binds to mCpG and TpG through van der Waals contacts between a conserved di-alanine (Ala265 and Ala266) and the methyl groups of 5mC or thymine (Fig. 11.4b) (Hong et al. 2017).

Another bZIP TF member, CCAAT/enhancer binding protein  $\beta$  (C/EBP $\beta$ ), is associated with cytokine-mediated macrophage activation and rapid granulopoiesis (Hirai et al. 2006), and regulates gene expression at different developmental stages (Sun et al. 2017; Tsukada et al. 2011). C/EBP $\beta$  recognizes a DNA sequence TTGmCGCAA. Instead of the di-alanine, C/EBP $\beta$  bZIP has a unique Ala-Val dipeptide (A284-V285) that contributes to van der Waals interactions with the 5-position methyl group of methylated CpG and thymine, and the methylated CpG dinucleotide forms a classic 5mC-Arg-Gua triad with R289 (Yang et al. 2019). Oxidation of 5mC to 5hmC introduces a hydroxyl group and



**Fig. 11.4** Structures of other TFs binding to methylated DNA. (a) AP-1 bZIP domain forms dimer for binding to methylated cytosine DNA (PDB: 5T01). (b) AP-1 bZIP protein recognizes the DNA by the van der Waals contacts with the methyl groups of methylated cytosine and thymine. The protein residues are shown as green and pink sticks, respectively, while nucleotides are shown as sticks and colored orange. (c) Overall structure of HOXB13 homeodomain in complex with mCpG DNA (PDB: 5EF6). (d) HOXB13 homeodomain recognizes the DNA by the van der Waals contacts with the methyl groups of

methylated cytosine. The protein residues are shown as blue sticks, while nucleotides are shown in sticks and colored in red and yellow, respectively. (e, f) CDX1 (PDB: 5LUX) and CDX2 (PDB: 5LTY) homeodomains recognize the DNA by the van der Waals contacts with the methyl groups of methylated cytosine, respectively. The protein residues and nucleotides are shown in the same way as in d. The hydrogen bonds formed between protein residues and DNA are marked as black dashed lines, while the DNA base pair interactions are shown as gray dashed lines

reduces its interaction with C/EBP $\beta$  (Yang et al. 2019).

### 11.4.7 Homeodomain Proteins

Homeodomain transcription factors bind to DNA and regulate the expression of morphogenesis-related target genes in eukaryotes (Burglin and Affolter 2016). Some homeodomain transcription factors have been reported to preferentially bind to methylated DNA (Yin et al. 2017). To illustrate the molecular basis for the methylated DNA binding preference, the structures of several homeodomain proteins, such as HOXB13, CDX1, and CDX2, bound to their cognate DNA sequences have been reported (Fig. 11.4c–f) (Yin et al. 2017). It was found that the homeodomain recognizes mCpG by direct hydrophobic interactions with the methyl groups of both 5mCs from the CpG dinucleotide. For example, the complex structure of HOXB13 bound to the DNA sequence CTmCGTAAA showed that its DNA binding domain consists of three  $\alpha$ -helices, and the C-terminal  $\alpha$ -helix ( $\alpha$ 3) lies in the major groove of the DNA and the N-terminal tail interacts with the minor groove (Fig. 11.4c) (Yin et al. 2017). Specifically, I262 has a direct hydrophobic interaction with the methyl group of the methylcytosine, while V269 forms another hydrophobic contact with the methyl group of methylcytosine from the complementary strand. Besides, the aliphatic chain of R258 interacts with I262 to enhance the hydrophobic environment (Fig. 11.4d) (Yin et al. 2017). This interaction is also conserved in the binding of CDX1 or CDX2 to GTmCGTAAAA (Fig. 11.4e, f) (Yin et al. 2017). In contrast to CDX1 and CDX2, homeodomain protein LHX4 displays a slightly weaker binding to TmCGTTA site and no significant binding to the unmethylated TCGTTA (Yin et al. 2017). The complex structure of LHX4 bound to the TAATA site showed that R127, V131, and A138 adopt a similar conformation to the corresponding residues in HOXB13, CDX1, and CDX2, which also engage in hydrophobic interaction with TmCGTTA (Yin et al. 2017).

## 11.5 Conclusion

In this chapter, we reviewed the research on proteins that recognize methylated DNA. Several themes have emerged from recent biochemical, structural, and genomic studies of MBPs. Among them, MBD and C2H2 ZFs DNA binding proteins use the same classic 5mC-Arg-Gua triad to recognize the methylated CpG and unmethylated TpG, while the bZIP proteins AP-1 and homeodomain proteins characterized in this chapter use van der Waals contacts to recognize the methyl groups of 5mC and thymine (Hong et al. 2017; Yin et al. 2017). The SRA proteins utilize specialized pockets to recognize 5mC or 5hmC. Although the POU and PAX proteins, NFAT proteins, SMAD proteins, and FOX proteins have also been reported to interact with mCpG sites (Yin et al. 2017), their methylcytosine recognition mechanism remains to be characterized. Thymine can replace mC for DNA binding due to their similar chemical structure; thus, the TpG recognition by POU and NFAT can also provide insights into their mC binding (Remenyi et al. 2001; Stroud et al. 2002).

Detailed analyses of structural and biochemical data have also indicated that the MBDs recognize DNA without sequence selectivity outside the methylated CpG sequence. However, it seems that individual MBD family members display some level of functional specificity as revealed by genomic mapping experiments in living cells, so how does a methylated CpG motif specify recruitment of a unique MBD has been puzzling, as a dinucleotide sequence like mCpG lacks the chemical information inherent in the longer binding sites typical for most transcription factors. The structural and biochemical work of some other MBPs reviewed here places this issue in an even wider context: MBD and most C2H2 ZF proteins utilize a common protein feature (arginine) to recognize chemical features of the methylated CpG dinucleotide. One possible explanation would be that additional functional domains of these MBPs recognize flanking sequence information, and the true consensus recognition sequence for these proteins is not a

simple methylated CpG, but the methylated CpG with its flanking sequence context that differs for each MBP. This feature endows the MBP proteins with considerable flexibility to respond to DNA methylation with different outputs at unique loci within the genome. Unraveling how cells utilize this surprising flexibility to resolve epigenetic regulation remains a principal challenge of current genetic and genomic experiments.

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