



Novel Drug Treatments for Ewing Sarcoma

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Abstract

Purpose of Review Ewing sarcoma is the second most common bone cancer seen in children and adolescents. Previous reports have demonstrated that the main driver of malignancy in this disease is an aberrant transcription factor that is expressed by gene fusions between the EWSR1 gene and an ETS family transcription factor such as FLI1 or ERG. Here we review recent preclinical and clinical advances in drug development for the treatment of Ewing sarcoma. We also discuss the rationale for promising combination therapies that have been considered in the interest of developing treatments for Ewing sarcoma.

Recent Findings The main driver of malignancy in this disease is EWS-FLI1. There have been valiant efforts to develop targeted therapies targeting EWS-FLI1, epigenetic factors, factors that affect transcription and the repurposing of previously approved drugs has also been of interest.

Summary The underlying mechanisms of how EWS-FLI1 contributes to malignancy in Ewing sarcoma have been extensively studied. Through these observations, EWS-FLI1 targeting and inhibition of aberrant transcription of downstream targets has been proposed as a potential pharmacologic treatment. Improved understanding of how newly developed compounds affect this disease, keeping associated toxicities in mind have led to structure activity relationship studies that have demonstrated improved efficacy and toxicity when treating at the preclinical level. Although there have been many challenges translating these promising results in the clinic, there are further studies ongoing to improve these efforts.

Keywords Ewing sarcoma · Chemotherapy · EWS-FLI1 · Drug development

Introduction

Ewing sarcoma (ES) is an aggressive malignant tumor that occurs in bones and soft tissue and is the second most common bone malignancy after osteosarcoma [1]. Primarily, this disease affects children and adolescents with about 200 patients being diagnosed annually in the USA. For patients with localized and metastatic disease the current standard chemotherapy for ES consists of four to six alternating cycles of VDC/IE (vincristine, doxorubicin, cyclophosphamide/

ifosfamide and etoposide) [2, 3]. The 5-year survival rate for patients with localized disease is about 83%. Unfortunately, patients with metastatic and/or recurrent disease have an overall survival rate of less than 20% [4]. Even those patients who do successfully recover and become long-term survivors often suffer from late effects of their therapy [5, 6, 7, 8–10]. Many of these patients suffer from the development of secondary malignancies including hematopoietic cancers, carcinoma, and other sarcoma like cancers [11]. ES patients also suffer from reduced fertility, renal insufficiency, and cardiomyopathy [8]. Therefore, there is a need to develop treatments that specifically target the underlying biological drivers of this disease. The ES family of tumors (ESFT) is characterized by a unique chromosomal translocation that gives rise to specific gene fusions that involve the EWSR1 gene and ETS transcription factors with the end result being malignant transformation and disease progression. In 85% of ES cases, there is an associated t(11;22) (q24;q12) chromosomal translocation, which leads to the formation of the EWSR1-FLI1 fusion gene [12] whereas in 10–15% of ES cases, there is the EWSR1-ERG fusion gene arising from the t(21;12) (22;12) [12]. The remaining 1–5% of ES cases harbor

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one of several possible translocations resulting in a fusion gene that contains the EWSR1 gene and a member of the ETS family of transcription factors (Table 1) [1].

Structurally, the EWS and FLI1 components of the fusion protein EWS-FLI1 have unique activity. The c-terminus, comprised of a significant portion of the FLI1 protein, acts as the DNA-binding domain, while EWS, at the N terminus, acts as a transcriptional activator. In general, EWS-FLI1 localizes in the nucleus and binds DNA at GGAA microsatellite repeats to promote transcription of its downstream targets [13, 14]. Notably, the DNA-binding domain is conserved among all 28 members of the ETS family. The transcription program mediated by EWS-ETS leads to malignant transformation, allows cells to maintain a de-differentiated state, and affords them to circumvent toxicity associated with DNA damaging agents [15, 16, 17]. Preclinical data aimed at understanding the role of EWS-FLI1 in ESFT viability has shown that silencing of EWS-FLI1 expression markedly impairs ES cell growth [18]. Many different approaches have been followed in efforts to develop therapeutic agents that target the biological drivers or malignant phenotype of ES. Here we highlight six classes of experimental agents: (i) DNA-binding agents targeting EWS-FLI1 and protein partners, (ii) agents that reverse transcriptional signature of EWS-FLI1, (iii) kinase inhibitors, (iv) inhibitors of LSD1 (lysine-specific demethylase 1), (v) inhibitors of poly ADP ribose polymerase-1 (PARP-1), and (vi) microtubule inhibitors.

Targeting EWS-FLI1

YK-4-279 The EWS-FLI1 transcriptional complex includes CREB-binding protein, RNA polymerase II, and RNA helicase A (RHA) [19, 20]. It has been previously reported that RHA increases EWS-FLI1-mediated transcription, suggesting that these protein interactions are important for ES oncogenesis [20]. EWS-FLI1 binds to RHA in a unique position where if inhibited it would not interfere with any other transcriptional or RNA metabolism proteins (Fig. 1a) [20]. Based on these experimental discoveries, RHA inhibition is an attractive target for treating ES. Erkizan et al. developed the small molecule YK-4-279 as an inhibitor of RHA: EWS-FLI1

binding. YK-4-279 binds RHA inhibiting its ability to bind and interact with EWS-FLI1 at low micromolar concentrations [21]. They also demonstrated that YK-4-279 treatment inhibits EWS-FLI1 functionality. Luciferase reporter assays were conducted to demonstrate EWS-FLI1 activity at the NR0B1 promoter upon dose dependent YK-4-279 treatment in COS7 cells [21]. YK-4-279 was also shown to induce apoptosis and inhibit ES cell growth [21]. Efficacy studies in ES xenografts displayed significant decreases in tumor size compared with control showing potential use for YK-4-279 in the clinic [21]. Due to poor clinical activity, YK-4-279 is no longer being evaluated for the treatment of ES its clinical derivative TK216 which, is currently being evaluated in patients with relapsed or refractory ES [22].

Mithramycin In efforts to discover an EWS-FLI1 inhibitor a 50,000-compound high-throughput screen was conducted at the National Cancer Institute (NCI) in 2011. Cell-based luciferase reporter screens in TC32 ESFT cells identified mithramycin as a potent inhibitor of EWS-FLI1 (Fig. 1b) [23]. Mithramycin is a tricyclic polyketide that was originally isolated from *Streptomyces argillaceus* for its antibiotic activity but was later found to have potent anti-tumor activity [24]. Mithramycin was characterized based on its ability to inhibit EWS-FLI1 activity in vitro using microarray expression profiling, qRT-PCR, and immunoblot analysis. In vitro assays displayed mithramycin ability to inhibit expression of downstream EWS-FLI1 targets at the mRNA and protein levels. In vivo studies included xenograft studies where mithramycin suppressed tumor growth in two different ESFT models [23].

The success of this preclinical study prompted a phase I/II clinical study of mithramycin in children and adults with refractory ES [25]. Results from the clinical trial showed that mithramycin has a very narrow therapeutic window. At doses relevant to treat and decrease tumor size in these patients, toxicity was prevalent [25]. The average maximal mithramycin plasma concentration in patients was 17.8 ± 4.6 ng/mL. The average plasma concentrations of mithramycin measured were extremely low compared with the sustained mithramycin concentrations required to suppress EWS-FLI1 transcriptional activity in pre-clinical studies at ≥ 50 nmol/L [25]. Patients displayed high levels of alanine aminotransferase (ALT) and aspartate aminotransferase (AST), hallmarks of severe liver damage [25]. It has been reported that mithramycin binds DNA specifically at GC sites, inhibiting the transcription factor Sp1 from binding and regulating expression of thousands of genes [26]. There is evidence that the inhibition of Sp1 by mithramycin is a substantial part of its associated toxicity [27]. This data has helped to guide the development of second generation mithramycin analogues that can confer potent inhibition of EWS-FLI1 while bypassing toxicities associated with mithramycin treatment.

Table 1 Summary of the different fusions between non-ETS and ETS genes and their frequency in Ewing sarcoma tumors

| Non-ETS | ETS | Frequency (%) |
|---------|------|---------------|
| EWS | FLI1 | 85 |
| EWS | ERG | 10 |
| EWS | ETV1 | <1 |
| EWS | ETV4 | <1 |
| EWS | FEV | <1 |
| TLS | ERG | <1 |

Mechanistic studies based on the molecular mode of action of mithramycin have led to the development of novel mithramycin analogues (Fig. 1). MTMSA-Trp and MTMSA-Phe are semi synthetic analogues of mithramycin that have shown in vitro anti-cancer activity similar to mithramycin [28•]. It has also been reported that MTMSA-Trp and MTMSA-Phe bind DNA and physically interact with EWS-FLI1 [29•, 30•]. Further refinement of these mithramycin analogues has led to the development of MTMSA-Phe-Trp and MTMSA-Trp-Trp [31•]. Mitra et al. reported that both MTMSA-Phe-Trp and MTMSA-Trp-Trp have potency similar to mithramycin in ESFT cells [31•]. It was also reported that MTMSA-Phe-Trp and MTMSA-Trp-

Trp are more selective for cell lines that express EWS-FLI1 than mithramycin and previously reported analogues [31•]. Further studies are currently ongoing to determine efficacy and pharmacokinetics of other analogues in xenograft mouse models of ES.

Reversing the Transcriptional Signature of EWS-FLI1

Trabectedin Trabectedin is a natural product that was originally isolated from the sea squirt *Ecteinascidia turbinata* [32]. Trabectedin binds DNA in the minor groove at GC-rich

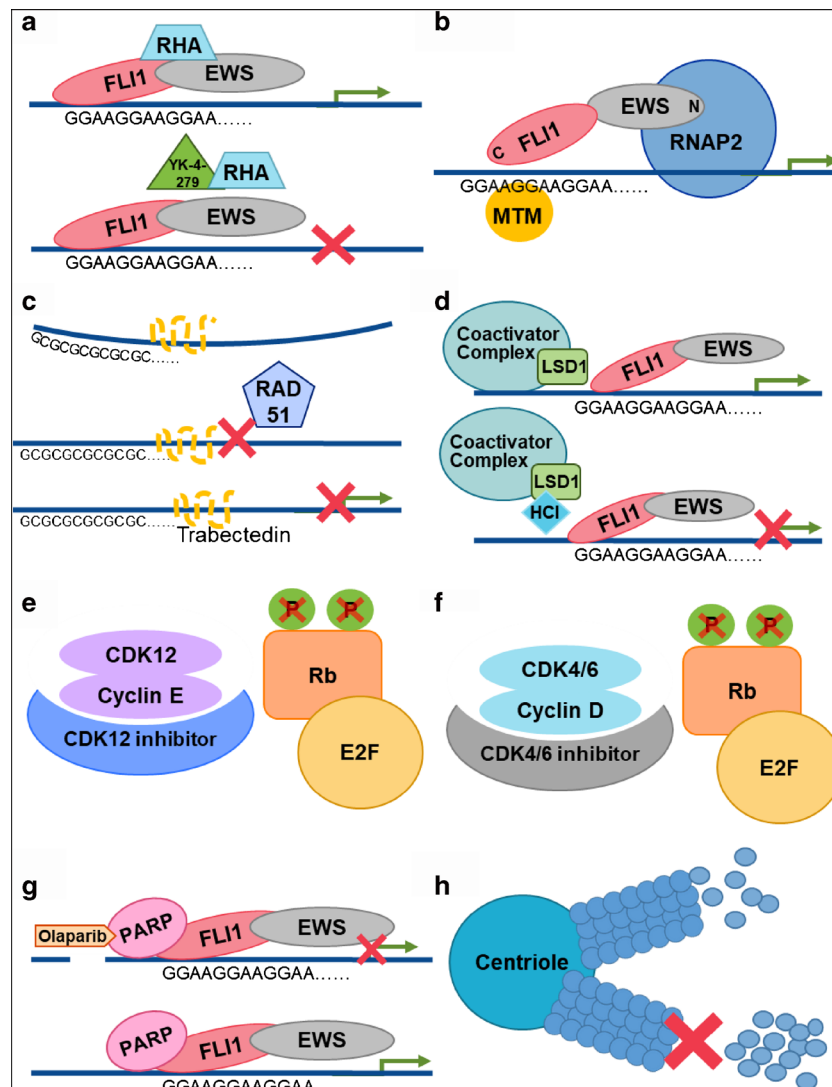


Fig. 1 Depiction of the mechanism of action of novel treatment approaches for Ewing sarcoma. **a** YK-4-279 binds RHA inhibiting its interaction with EWS-FLI1 and transcription of target genes. **b** Mithramycin binds DNA and inhibits EWS-FLI1 mediated transcription. **c** Trabectedin-binding alkylates DNA distorting its structure and inhibits DNA repair protein activity and transcription

factor activity. **d** LSD1 inhibitors bind LSD1 and prevent its interaction with EWS-FLI1. **e, f** CDK inhibitors bind cyclin/CDK complexes preventing phosphorylation. **g** PARP binds DNA and repairs DNA breaks, in the presence of olaparib PARP activity is inhibited rendering the cell vulnerable to consequences of DNA damage. **h** Eribulin inhibits microtubule growth causing nonproductive tubulin aggregates

sequences and alkylates the amino group of guanine at position 2, bending DNA toward the major groove (Fig. 1c) [33]. A potent alkylator, its cytotoxicity comes from its ability to interact with DNA repair pathways. Trabectedin-DNA adducts can trap the transcription-coupled DNA nucleotide excision repair (TC-NER) system as it repairs DNA damage in transcribing cells, this then leads to lethal DNA breaks [34].

Clinically, trabectedin has shown activity in a wide range of malignancies, most notably in leiomyosarcoma and liposarcoma [35]. Previously it has been shown that sarcomas harboring chromosomal translocations are sensitive to trabectedin treatment [36]. Taamma et al. reported a 50% response rate in patients with myxoid liposarcoma which harbors a t(12:16) (q13;p11) chromosomal translocation FUS-CHOP, after treatment with trabectedin [36]. This finding has identified trabectedin as a potential drug of interest for the treatment of ES. Preclinical studies have shown that ES cells are sensitive to trabectedin treatment, and there is mechanistic evidence that trabectedin interferes with EWS-FLI1 activity *in vitro*, reversing the gene signature of the aberrant transcription factor [37, 38, 39]. Trabectedin has not shown success in the clinic in ES patients, but there have been efforts to develop analogues that can better target the EWS-FLI1 translocation [40]. Lurbinectedin, a trabectedin derivative, has shown evidence of activity against EWS-FLI1. This second generation trabectedin analogue causes nuclear redistribution of EWS-FLI1 from the nucleus to the nucleolus, similar to that of the parent compound trabectedin [41]. Lurbinectedin is currently being tested in a phase 2 clinical trial in select advanced solid tumors [42].

Inhibitors of LSD1

HCI-2509 Although there have been multiple efforts to target the transcription factor EWS-FLI1, the main oncogenic driver in ES, there has been little success in identifying a potent yet clinically acceptable small molecule inhibitor of the transcription factor. ES has one of the lowest mutation rates of any cancer, and it has emerged as a model system to investigate epigenetic aberrations resulting in oncogenesis [43, 44, 45]. Lysine specific demethylase 1 (LSD1) is an enzyme that functions as a histone demethylase and as a transcriptional activator and repressor [46]. LSD1 has been implicated in many malignancies including breast, prostate, bladder, lung, liver, neuroblastoma, amyloid leukemia and colorectal tumors [47–52]. In 2011, it was reported that ES expresses unusually high levels of LSD1 [53, 54]. It has also been demonstrated that overexpression of LSD1 can drive transformation in cells [49, 54, 55]. Previous studies have demonstrated that LSD1 is required for chromosome segregation and downregulation of LSD1 can lead to abnormal centrosome duplication. This

significantly impairs nuclear pore complex assembly, leading to an extended telophase [56, 57].

Initially LSD1 inhibition in ES was tested using tranlycypromine [53]. Tranlycypromine is currently prescribed as an anxiolytic and antidepressant. However, because of severe side effects associated with its treatment, its use is limited to treating patients with major depressive disorders [58]. It was shown that tranlycypromine inhibits LSD1 in a non-reversible manner, which translated to decreased cell proliferation at milli-molar concentrations in ES cells, thus supporting further exploration and development of a more potent and specific LSD1 inhibitor [53]. Sankar et al. have been investigating the therapeutic potential of HCI-2509, a non-competitive reversible small molecule inhibitor of LSD1, for the treatment of ES (Fig. 1d) [59]. Their studies demonstrated that HCI-2509 can reverse the global oncogenic transcriptional program in ES with the use of cell viability assays and RNA-sequencing [59]. They also demonstrated that HCI-2509 impairs tumorigenesis *in vivo*. As a single agent HCI-2509 decreased tumor size in comparison to the vehicle group, which led to improved survival of treated animals over 60 days, but these differences were not statistically significant [59]. Despite this limited efficacy, an analogue of HCI-2509 known as SP-2577 is undergoing phase 1 clinical testing [60].

Kinase Inhibitors

CDK12/13 Inhibitors One approach to treating ESFT is to target the basic transcriptional machinery with small molecule inhibitors such as THZ1, which is a covalent inhibitor of CDK7/12/13 [61]. The control of gene transcription involves a set of cyclin-dependent kinases (CDKs), including CDK7, CDK8, CDK9, CDK11, CDK12, CDK13, and CDK19 these kinases are essential to transcription, initiation and elongation. Specifically, CDKs phosphorylate RNA polymerase II (RNAPII) at its C-terminal domain (CTD) causing recruitment of transcriptional activators to the transcriptional complex [62]. THZ1 was implicated as a potential therapeutic for treating cancers defined by their high dependency on transcriptional programs for initiating transformation [63]. This was further demonstrated when 1081 cancer cell lines were screened, and ES cell lines were shown to be the most sensitive to THZ1 treatment [64]. Iniguez et al. reported that in ES cell lines THZ1 primarily targets CDK12, a kinase that regulates expression of DNA damage repair genes (Fig. 1e) [64, 65]. Because of non-specific targeting, the THZ1 analogue THZ1531 was developed and tested in preclinical studies. These studies showed that THZ1531 was highly active in cells expressing EWS-FLI1, specifically showing an increase in proteins involved in double-stranded DNA damage repair. Considering this discovery, they then hypothesized that cells

expressing EWS-FLI1 are more vulnerable to THZ1531 and other DNA damage repair inhibitors. ES cell lines have been reported to be highly sensitive to PARP inhibitors [66]. Preclinical combination study results showed strong synergy with THZ1531 and the PARP inhibitor olaparib.

Xenograft studies using THZ1 as a single agent did not cure mice of ES, suggesting that the combination of THZ1 and olaparib could be necessary to achieve complete efficacy [64]. Treatment of tumors with the combination of THZ1 and olaparib demonstrated a marked decrease in tumor size compared with control groups [64].

CDK4/6 Inhibitors The ES genome is characterized by one of the lowest mutational rates among cancer types, implicating a possibility for epigenetic deregulation as a component for tumor development [44, 45, 67]. Reports have shown that about 13 to 30% of ES tumors possess deletions in the gene *CDKN2A*, although these deletions do not appear to be associated with clinical outcome there is still some implication that this could be a target for pharmacological drug development [51, 68]. In ES, the tumor suppressors p16INK4a and p14arf arise from variant transcription start points of the *CDKN2A* gene, and p16 has been shown to inhibit CDK4 and CDK6-mediated phosphorylation of the RB protein, preventing cell cycle progression [69]. The alteration of p16INK4a in ES has sparked clinical interest in CDK4/6 inhibition. Cyclin D1, a regulatory subunit of CDK4 and CDK6, has also been shown to be a super enhancer in ES [70] and consequently, in ES cells, the CyclinD1/CDK4 pathway is activated and is required for growth. Kennedy et al. conducted xenograft studies where they demonstrated that CDK4/6 inhibition decreased tumor growth [70]. These results suggest yet another potential pathway to target oncogenic drivers of ES at the molecular level (Fig. 1f).

Currently, the CDK4/6 inhibitor, abemaciclib is being evaluated in a phase I clinical trial in children and adults with recurrent and refractory ES, neuroblastoma, rhabdomyosarcoma, and osteosarcoma [71]. The main toxicity associated with CDK4/6 inhibition is hematologic in nature, and there is growing interest in combining CDK4/6 inhibitors with cytotoxic chemotherapeutics that have non-overlapping toxicities [72]. There is also interest in combining CDK4/6 inhibitors with MEK, mTOR, and IGF-1R inhibitors, exploiting multiple pathways focusing on targets that can influence tumor growth in ES [73–75].

PARP-1 Inhibitors

Olaparib Mechanistically, poly adenosine diphosphate ribose polymerase (PARP) is an enzyme that has been shown to both drive transcription and to accelerate base excision repair (Fig. 1g) [76–78]. Initial interest in PARP1 inhibitors have shown promising activity particularly in BRCA-mutant cancers

defective in homologous repair (HR), in which they have demonstrated replication fork stalling and subsequent synthetic lethal cell death [79–81]. PARP inhibitors have also recently been of interest for the treatment of ES. It has been reported that ES cells express high levels of PARP mRNA and protein which translates to high PARP activity related to an increase in copy number compared with other cancers [82]. Increased PARP activity has led to the report that inhibition of PARP sensitizes ES cells to ionizing radiation [82]. In more recent studies Brenner et al. showed increased sensitivity of three ES cell lines to the PARP inhibitor olaparib, as opposed to an osteosarcoma and rhabdomyosarcoma cell line [83]. In this study, however, olaparib was not effective as a single agent in xenograft experiments. They subsequently combined olaparib with temozolomide, a DNA alkylating agent, results displayed a marked decrease in tumor size of the xenograft models. These data represent the potential for elucidating synthetic lethality in ES cells in the presence of a PARP inhibitor and a DNA damaging agent [83]. In 2014, a phase II clinical study was conducted evaluating the antitumor activity of olaparib, as a monotherapy in patients with refractory ES following failure of standard chemotherapy [84]. This study concluded that olaparib administration was safe and well tolerated in patients. However, as a monotherapy, there were no significant responses or durable disease control [84]. Currently a phase I study of olaparib and temozolomide for the treatment of ES is ongoing [85].

Microtubule Inhibitors

Eribulin Microtubules help support organelles, transport molecules, and give shape to the cell. The microtubule inhibitor eribulin inhibits polymerization of tubulin subunits by preventing lengthening and shortening of microtubules during cellular division (Fig. 1h) [86, 87]. When these unstable polymers of tubulin aggregate the result is apoptosis [88, 89]. Eribulin is approved by the FDA for treating metastatic breast cancer and may have promising activity in other cancers [90]. In ES, EWS-FLI1 drives expression of proteins that regulate microtubule stability, making this an attractive drug target. In pre-clinical studies, testing of eribulin in ES cell lines demonstrated Bcl-2 induced apoptosis [91]. Additionally, eribulin is FDA-approved for adult patients with liposarcoma who previously received an anthracycline [92]. An ongoing phase 2 trial is evaluating eribulin in patients with relapsed/refractory rhabdomyosarcoma and ES [93]. Another phase 1/2 clinical trial is evaluating the combination of eribulin with irinotecan in children with refractory and recurrent rhabdomyosarcoma and ES as well [94]. Overall, eribulin has shown strong pre-clinical and clinical results in ES, thus giving it great potential as either a monotherapy and in combination with another approved chemotherapeutic.

Conclusion

ES treatment relies on combinations of surgery, radiation, and traditional chemotherapeutic regimens. In many ES patients, these conventional treatment approaches are not enough to remedy this aggressive cancer. Additionally, ES patients in remission must deal with considerable acute and long-term toxicities associated with these therapies. Improving the outcomes for patients with ES will require development of targeted therapies. Therefore, a thorough understanding of the activity, translation, and verification of novel agents is vital in targeting biologically relevant drivers of ES. This is important for clinical development of successful targeted therapies. In this review, we focused on several approaches targeting specific pathways that play a part in ESFT growth in patients. Targeting the EWS–FLI1 transcription factor directly is an approach that has shown promising results but has also been met with many challenges. A major challenge will be to discover a pharmacologic inhibitor that selectively acts to disrupt the function of EWS–FLI1. Alternatively, blocking important pathways, inhibiting the downstream gene signature of EWS–FLI1 and exploiting PARP inhibitor sensitivities have shown promising preclinical results that have yet to be translated in the clinic. Continued efforts toward developing novel therapeutics targeting specific molecular abnormalities in ES are currently ongoing in efforts to improve survival outcomes for these patients.

Compliance with Ethical Standards

Conflict of Interest Both authors declare no conflict of interest.

Human and Animal Rights and Informed Consent This article does not contain any studies with human or animal subjects performed by any of the authors.

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- Of major importance

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 21. Erkizan HV, Kong Y, Merchant M, Schlottmann S, Barber-Rotenberg JS, Yuan L, et al. A small molecule blocking oncogenic protein EWS-FLI1 interaction with RNA helicase A inhibits growth of Ewing's sarcoma. *Nat Med*. 2009;15(7):750–6. <https://doi.org/10.1038/nm.1983>. **Many sarcomas and leukemias carry nonrandom chromosomal translocations encoding tumor specific mutant fusion transcription factors that are essential to their molecular pathogenesis. Ewing's sarcoma family tumors (ESFTs) contain a characteristic t(11;22) translocation leading to expression of the oncogenic fusion protein EWS-FLI1. EWS-FLI1 is a disordered protein that precludes standard structure-based small-molecule inhibitor design. EWS-FLI1 binding to RNA helicase A (RHA) is important for its oncogenic function. We therefore used surface plasmon resonance screening to identify compounds that bind EWS-FLI1 and might block its interaction with RHA. YK-4-279, a derivative of the lead compound from the screen, blocks RHA binding to EWS-FLI1, induces apoptosis in ESFT cells and reduces the growth of ESFT orthotopic xenografts. These findings provide proof of principle that inhibiting the interaction of mutant cancer-specific transcription factors with the normal cellular binding partners required for their oncogenic activity provides a promising strategy for the development of uniquely effective, tumor-specific anticancer agents.**
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 23. Grohar PJ, Woldemichael GM, Griffin LB, Mendoza A, Chen QR, Yeung C, et al. Identification of an inhibitor of the EWS-FLI1 oncogenic transcription factor by high-throughput screening. *J Natl Cancer Inst*. 2011;103(12):962–78. <https://doi.org/10.1093/jnci/djr156>. **BACKGROUND: Chromosomal translocations generating oncogenic transcription factors are the hallmark of a variety of tumors, including many sarcomas. Ewing sarcoma family of tumors (ESFTs) are characterized by the t(11;22)(q24;q12) translocation that generates the Ewing sarcoma breakpoint region 1 and Friend leukemia virus integration 1 (EWS-FLI1) fusion transcription factor responsible for the highly malignant phenotype of this tumor. Although continued expression of EWS-FLI1 is believed to be critical for ESFT cell survival, a clinically effective small-molecule inhibitor remains elusive likely because EWS-FLI1 is a transcription factor and therefore widely felt to be “undruggable.” METHODS: We developed a high throughput screen to evaluate more than 50 000 compounds for inhibition of EWS-FLI1 activity in TC32 ESFT cells. We used a TC32 cell-based luciferase reporter screen using the EWS-FLI1 downstream target NR0B1 promoter and a gene signature secondary screen to sort and prioritize the**

- compounds. We characterized the lead compound, mithramycin, based on its ability to inhibit EWS-FLI1 activity *in vitro* using microarray expression profiling, quantitative reverse transcription-polymerase chain reaction, and immunoblot analysis, and *in vivo* using immunohistochemistry. We studied the impact of this inhibition on cell viability *in vitro* and on tumor growth in ESFT xenograft models *in vivo* ($n = 15$ – 20 mice per group). All statistical tests were two-sided. **RESULTS:** Mithramycin inhibited expression of EWS-FLI1 downstream targets at the mRNA and protein levels and decreased the growth of ESFT cells at half maximal inhibitory concentrations between 10 (95% confidence interval [CI] = 8 to 13 nM) and 15 nM (95% CI = 13 to 19 nM). Mithramycin suppressed the growth of two different ESFT xenograft tumors and prolonged the survival of ESFT xenograft-bearing mice by causing a decrease in mean tumor volume. For example, in the TC32 xenograft model, on day 15 of treatment, the mean tumor volume for the mithramycin-treated mice was approximately 3% of the tumor volume observed in the control mice (mithramycin vs control: 69 vs 2388 mm³), difference = 2319 mm³, 95% CI = 1766 to 2872 mm³, $P < .001$. **CONCLUSION:** Mithramycin inhibits EWS-FLI1 activity and demonstrates ESFT antitumor activity both *in vitro* and *in vivo*.
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 25. Grohar PJ, Glod J, Peer CJ, Sissung TM, Arnaldez FI, Long L, et al. A phase I/II trial and pharmacokinetic study of mithramycin in children and adults with refractory Ewing sarcoma and EWS-FLI1 fusion transcript. *Cancer Chemother Pharmacol*. 2017;80(3):645–52. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00280-017-3382-x>. **PURPOSE:** In a preclinical drug screen, mithramycin was identified as a potent inhibitor of the Ewing sarcoma EWS-FLI1 transcription factor. We conducted a phase I/II trial to determine the dose-limiting toxicities (DLT), maximum tolerated dose (MTD), and pharmacokinetics (PK) of mithramycin in children with refractory solid tumors, and the activity in children and adults with refractory Ewing sarcoma. **PATIENTS AND METHODS:** Mithramycin was administered intravenously over 6 h once daily for 7 days for 28 day cycles. Adult patients (phase II) initially received mithramycin at the previously determined recommended dose of 25 microg/kg/dose. The planned starting dose for children (phase I) was 17.5 microg/kg/dose. Plasma samples were obtained for mithramycin PK analysis. **RESULTS:** The first two adult patients experienced reversible grade 4 alanine aminotransferase (ALT)/aspartate aminotransferase (AST) elevation exceeding the MTD. Subsequent adult patients received mithramycin at 17.5 microg/kg/dose, and children at 13 microg/kg/dose with dexamethasone pretreatment. None of the four subsequent adult and two pediatric patients experienced cycle 1 DLT. No clinical responses were observed. The average maximal mithramycin plasma concentration in four patients was 17.8 +/- 4.6 ng/mL. This is substantially below the sustained mithramycin concentrations ≥ 50 nmol/L required to suppress EWS-FLI1 transcriptional activity in preclinical studies. Due to inability to safely achieve the desired mithramycin exposure, the trial was closed to enrollment. **CONCLUSIONS:** Hepatotoxicity precluded the administration of a mithramycin at a dose required to inhibit EWS-FLI1. Evaluation of mithramycin in patients selected for decreased susceptibility to elevated transaminases may allow for improved drug exposure.
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 28. Scott D, Chen JM, Bae Y, Rohr J. Semi-synthetic mithramycin SA derivatives with improved anticancer activity. *Chem Biol Drug Des*. 2013;81(5):615–24. **Mithramycin (MTM) is a potent anti-cancer agent that has recently garnered renewed attention. This manuscript describes the design and development of mithramycin derivatives through a combinational approach of biosynthetic analogue generation followed by synthetic manipulation for further derivatization. Mithramycin SA is a previously discovered analogue produced by the M7W1 mutant strain alongside the improved mithramycin analogues mithramycin SK and mithramycin SDK. Mithramycin SA shows decreased anti-cancer activity compared to mithramycin and has a shorter, two carbon aglycon side chain that is terminated in a carboxylic acid. The aglycon side chain is responsible for an interaction with the DNA phosphate backbone as mithramycin interacts with its target DNA. It was therefore decided to further functionalize this side chain through reactions with the terminal carboxylic acid in an effort to enhance the interaction with the DNA phosphate backbone and improve the anticancer activity. This side chain was modified with a variety of molecules increasing the anticancer activity to a comparable level to mithramycin SK. This work shows the ability to transform the previously useless mithramycin SA into a valuable molecule and opens the door to further functionalization and semi-synthetic modification for the development of molecules with increased specificity and/or drug formulation.**
 29. Hou C, Weidenbach S, Cano KE, Wang Z, Mitra P, Ivanov DN, et al. Structures of mithramycin analogues bound to DNA and implications for targeting transcription factor FLI1. *Nucleic Acids Res*. 2016;44(18):8990–9004. <https://doi.org/10.1093/nar/gkw761>. Transcription factors have been considered undruggable, but this paradigm has been recently challenged. DNA binding natural product mithramycin (MTM) is a potent antagonist of oncogenic transcription factor EWS-FLI1. Structural details of MTM recognition of DNA, including the FLI1 binding sequence GGA(A/T), are needed to understand how MTM interferes with EWS-FLI1. We report a crystal structure of an MTM analogue MTM SA-Trp bound to a DNA oligomer containing a site GGCC, and two structures of a novel analogue MTM SA-Phe in complex with DNA. MTM SA-Phe is bound to sites AGGG and GGGT on one DNA, and to AGGG and GGGA(T) (a FLI1 binding site) on the other, revealing how MTM recognizes different DNA sequences. Unexpectedly, at sub-micromolar concentrations MTMs stabilize FLI1-DNA complex on GGAA repeats, which are critical for the oncogenic function of EWS-FLI1. We also directly demonstrate by nuclear magnetic resonance formation of a ternary FLI1-DNA-MTM complex on a single GGAA FLI1/MTM binding site. These biochemical and structural data and a new FLI1-DNA structure suggest that MTM binds the minor groove and perturbs FLI1 bound nearby in the major groove. This ternary complex model may lead to development of novel MTM analogues that selectively target EWS-FLI1 or other oncogenic transcription factors, as anti-cancer therapeutics.
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- c9md00100j. An aureolic acid natural product mithramycin (MTM) has been known for its potent antineoplastic properties. MTM inhibits cell growth by binding in the minor groove of double stranded DNA as a dimer, in which the two molecules of MTM are coordinated to each other through a divalent metal ion. A crystal structure of an MTM analogue, MTM SA-Phe, in the active metal ion-coordinated dimeric form demonstrates how the stereochemical features of MTM define the helicity of the dimeric scaffold for its binding to a right-handed DNA double helix. We also show crystallographically and biochemically that MTM, but not MTM SA-Phe, can be inactivated by boric acid through formation of a large macrocyclic species, in which two molecules of MTM are crosslinked to each other through 3-side chain-boron-sugar intermolecular bonds. We discuss these structural and biochemical properties in the context of MTM biosynthesis and the design of MTM analogues as anticancer therapeutics.
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 39. • Grohar PJ, Griffin LB, Yeung C, Chen QR, Pommier Y, Khanna C, et al. Ecteinascidin 743 interferes with the activity of EWS-FLI1 in Ewing sarcoma cells. *Neoplasia* (New York, NY). 2011;13(2):145–53. **ET-743 (trabectedin; Yondelis) is approved in Europe for the treatment of soft tissue sarcomas. Emerging phase 1 and 2 clinical data have shown high response rates in myxoid liposarcoma in part owing to the inhibition of the FUS-CHOP transcription factor. In this report, we show that modulation of specific oncogenic transcription factors by ET-743 may extend to other tumor types. We demonstrate that, among a panel of pediatric sarcomas, Ewing sarcoma family of tumors (ESFTs) cell lines bearing the EWS-FLI1 transcription factor are the most sensitive to treatment with ET-743 compared with osteosarcoma, rhabdomyosarcoma, and synovial sarcoma. We show that ET-743 reverses a gene signature of induced downstream targets of EWS-FLI1 in two different ESFT cell lines (P = .001). In addition, ET-743 directly suppresses the promoter activity of a known EWS-FLI1 downstream target NR0B1 luciferase reporter construct without changing the activity of a constitutively active control in ESFT cells. Furthermore, the effect is specific to EWS-FLI1, as forced expression of EWS-FLI1 in a cell type that normally lacks this fusion protein, HT1080 cells, induces the same NR0B1 promoter, but this activation is completely blocked by ET-743 treatment. Finally, we used gene set enrichment analysis to confirm that other mechanisms of ET-743 are active in ESFT cells. These results suggest a particular role for ET-743 in the treatment of translocation-positive tumors. In addition, the modulation of EWS-FLI1 makes it a novel targeting agent for ESFT and suggests that further development of this compound for the treatment of ESFT is warranted.**
 40. • Chuk MK, Aikin A, Whitcomb T, Widemann BC, Zannikos P, Bayever E, et al. A phase I trial and pharmacokinetic study of a 24-hour infusion of trabectedin (Yondelis(R), ET-743) in children and adolescents with relapsed or refractory solid tumors. *Pediatr Blood Cancer*. 2012;59(5):865–9. **BACKGROUND: The objectives of this phase I study were to determine the maximum tolerated dose (MTD), toxicity profile, and pharmacokinetics of a 24-hour continuous intravenous infusion of trabectedin administered to children and adolescents with refractory or relapsed solid tumors. PROCEDURE: Patients between the ages of 4 and 16 years old with refractory solid tumors received trabectedin as a 24-hour infusion every 21 days. Dexamethasone and prophylactic growth factor support were administered with each cycle. Pharmacokinetic studies were conducted during cycle 1. RESULTS: Patients (n = 12) median (range) age 14.5 (8–16) years received trabectedin at 1.1 (n = 3), 1.5 (n = 6), or 1.7 (n = 3) mg/m(2). At the 1.5 mg/m(2) dose level, one patient had dose limiting anorexia and fatigue. At 1.7 mg/m(2), two patients experienced dose limiting toxicity, dehydration, and gamma glutamyl transpeptidase elevation. Non-dose limiting toxicities included elevated serum transaminases, myelosuppression, nausea, emesis, and fatigue. Plasma pharmacokinetic parameters were similar to historical data in adults. One partial response was observed in a patient with**

- neuroendocrine carcinoma. Stable disease (≥ 6 cycles) was achieved in three patients (osteosarcoma $n = 2$, desmoplastic small round cell tumor $n = 1$). **CONCLUSIONS:** The MTD of trabectedin in pediatric patients with refractory solid tumors is 1.5 mg/m² IV over 24 hours every 21 days. Dexamethasone to ameliorate hepatic toxicity and prophylactic growth factor support are required.
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 42. Clinical Trial of Lurbinectedin (PM01183) in Selected Advanced Solid Tumors. <https://ClinicalTrials.gov/show/NCT02454972>.
 43. Theisen ER, Pishas KI, Saund RS, Lessnick SL. Therapeutic opportunities in Ewing sarcoma: EWS-FLI1 inhibition via LSD1 targeting. *Oncotarget.* 2016;7(14):17616–30. <https://doi.org/10.18632/oncotarget.7124>. **Ewing sarcoma is an aggressive primary pediatric bone tumor, often diagnosed in adolescents and young adults. A pathognomonic reciprocal chromosomal translocation results in a fusion gene coding for a protein which derives its N-terminus from a FUS/EWS/TAF15 (FET) protein family member, commonly EWS, and C-terminus containing the DNA-binding domain of an ETS transcription factor, commonly FLI1. Nearly 85% of cases express the EWS-FLI1 protein which functions as a transcription factor and drives oncogenesis. As the primary genomic lesion and a protein which is not expressed in normal cells, disrupting EWS-FLI1 function is an attractive therapeutic strategy for Ewing sarcoma. However, transcription factors are notoriously difficult targets for the development of small molecules. Improved understanding of the oncogenic mechanisms employed by EWS-FLI1 to hijack normal cellular programming has uncovered potential novel approaches to pharmacologically block EWS-FLI1 function. In this review we examine targeting the chromatin regulatory enzymes recruited to conspire in oncogenesis with a focus on the histone lysine specific demethylase 1 (LSD1). LSD1 inhibitors are being aggressively investigated in acute myeloid leukemia and the results of early clinical trials will help inform the future use of LSD1 inhibitors in sarcoma. High LSD1 expression is observed in Ewing sarcoma patient samples and mechanistic and preclinical data suggest LSD1 inhibition globally disrupts the function of EWS-ETS proteins.**
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- is expressed and is an epigenetic drug target in chondrosarcoma, Ewing's sarcoma, osteosarcoma, and rhabdomyosarcoma. *Hum Pathol.* 2012;43(8):1300–7. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.humpath.2011.10.010>. Lysine-specific demethylase 1 (GeneID 23028), a flavin-dependent monoamine oxidoreductase and a histone demethylase, serves as an epigenetic coregulator of transcription. Lysine-specific demethylase 1 is up-regulated in neuroblastoma and in bladder, breast, colorectal, gastric, lung, and neuroendocrine cancers, and its overexpression drives the cell cycle of otherwise nontransformed human cells, suggesting oncogenic properties. Lysine-specific demethylase 1 was recently reported to be also overexpressed in several different mesenchymal tumors. We investigated lysine-specific demethylase 1 expression in over 500 sarcomas by gene expression profiling and tissue microarray-coupled immunohistochemical analyses and confirmed lysinespecific demethylase 1 overexpression in rhabdomyosarcoma and synovial sarcoma. We also show for the first time that lysine-specific demethylase 1 is also overexpressed in chondrosarcoma, Ewing's sarcoma, and osteosarcoma wherein it localizes in cell nuclei. We further show that a US Food and Drug Administration-approved drug that inhibits lysine-specific demethylase 1 also inhibits chondrosarcoma, Ewing's sarcoma, osteosarcoma, and rhabdomyosarcoma cell growth in vitro. These data suggest that lysine-specific demethylase 1 plays a role in sarcoma pathology and that lysine-specific demethylase 1 inhibition strategies might represent a novel means to inhibiting growth of lysine-specific demethylase 1-overexpressing sarcomas.
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the DNA damage response genes, including the critical regulators of genomic stability: BRCA1 (breast and ovarian cancer type 1 susceptibility protein 1), ATR (ataxia telangiectasia and Rad3-related), FANCI, and FANCD2. We show that CycK/Cdk12, rather than CycK/Cdk13, is necessary for their expression. Nuclear run-on assays and chromatin immunoprecipitations with RNA polymerase II on the BRCA1 and FANCI genes suggest a transcriptional defect in the absence of CycK/Cdk12. Consistent with these findings, cells without CycK/Cdk12 induce spontaneous DNA damage and are sensitive to a variety of DNA damage agents. We conclude that through regulation of expression of DNA damage response genes, CycK/Cdk12 protects cells from genomic instability. The essential role of CycK for organisms *in vivo* is further supported by the result that genetic inactivation of CycK in mice causes early embryonic lethality.

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