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Loss of ER β expression as a common step in estrogen-dependent tumor progression

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Abbreviations: hER α or β , human estrogen receptor α or β ; E2, 17 β -estradiol; IHC, immunohistochemistry; ISH, *in situ* hybridization; Apc, adenomatosis polyposis coli; ERE, estrogen response element; SFRE, steroid factor response element; AP-1, activator protein-1; wt, wild-type; SAOS-2, human osteoblast-like cells; HOSE, Human Ovarian Surface Epithelium; WHI, Women's Health Initiative; RT-PCR, reverse transcription polymerase chain reaction; mRNA, messenger RNA; PARP, Poly (ADP-ribose) polymerase.

Abstract

The characterization of estrogen receptor beta (ER β) brought new insight into the mechanisms underlying estrogen signaling. Estrogen induction of cell proliferation is a crucial step in carcinogenesis of gynecologic target tissues and the mitogenic effects of estrogen in these tissues (e.g. breast, endometrium and ovary) are well documented both *in vitro* and *in vivo*. There is also an emerging body of evidence that colon and prostate cancer growth is influenced by estrogens. In all of these tissues, most studies have shown decreased ER β expression in cancer as compared to benign tumors or normal tissues, whereas ER α expression persists. The loss of ER β expression in cancer cells could reflect tumor cell dedifferentiation but may also represent a critical stage in estrogen-dependent tumor progression. Modulation of the expression of ER α target genes by ER β , or ER β specific gene induction could indicate that ER β has a differential effect on proliferation as compared to ER α . ER β may exert a protective effect and thus constitute a new target for hormone therapy, e.g. via ligand specific activation. The potential distinct roles of ER α and ER β expression in carcinogenesis, as suggested by experimental and clinical data, are discussed in this review.

Introduction

It is well documented that the mitogenic actions of estrogens are critical in the etiology and progression of human breast and gynecological cancers (Henderson *et al.* 1988, Pike *et al.* 1993). The promoting effect of estrogens was recently highlighted by the results of large prospective studies, showing that estradiol intake during menopause increased the risk of breast cancer (Nelson *et al.* 2002, Rossouw *et al.* 2002, Chlebowski *et al.* 2003, Beral *et al.* 2003). In ovarian cancer, although the question is still debated (Coughlin *et al.* 2000), several recent prospective studies have indicated a risk of ovarian cancer for women undergoing long-term estrogen replacement therapy (Rodriguez *et al.* 2001, Lacey *et al.* 2002, Anderson *et al.* 2003, Folsom *et al.* 2004). In contrast, estrogens appear to exert a protective effect on the risk of colon cancer (Rossouw *et al.* 2002).

The effects of estrogens are mediated by ER α and ER β receptors, which are members of the nuclear steroid receptor superfamily. ER α and ER β classically mediate their action by ligand-dependent binding to the estrogen response element (ERE) of target genes, leading to their transcription regulation (Green *et al.* 1986, Mosselman *et al.* 1996, Kuiper *et al.* 1996, Tremblay *et al.* 1997). Both of these proteins have a high degree of homology in the DNA binding domain (Mosselman *et al.* 1996), but differ considerably in the N-terminal domain and to a lesser extent in the ligand-binding domain (E domain) (Mosselman *et al.* 1996, Kuiper *et al.*

1996). These differences suggest that the two receptors could have distinct functions in terms of gene regulation and biological responses and may contribute to the selective actions of E2 in different target tissues (Gustafsson *et al.* 2000).

Recently, various studies have shown decreased expression of ER β mRNA and protein (or an increased ER α /ER β mRNA ratio) in tumor versus normal tissues in many cancers, including breast, ovary, colon, and prostate (Brandenberger *et al.* 1998, Campbell-Thompson *et al.* 2001, Fixemer *et al.* 2003, Foley *et al.* 2000, Pujol *et al.* 1998, Roger *et al.* 2001, Rutherford *et al.* 2000). The ER α /ER β gene expression ratio thus appears to increase during carcinogenesis, suggesting that ER α and ER β specific pathways may have distinct roles in this process (Leygue *et al.* 1998). The differential expression of ER α and ER β in cancer cells and experimental data on their respective roles on proliferation are reviewed in this report.

Differential ER β expression as a common feature of estrogen-dependent tumor progression in clinical studies

Analysis of ER α and ER β expression in estrogen sensitive cancers (Tables 1 to 4)

In breast tissues, several studies have indicated an increase in ER α /ER β mRNA and protein ratios in cancer as compared to benign tumors and normal tissues. In immunochemical analyses, Roger *et al.* (2001) found a higher percentage of ER β -positive cells in normal mammary glands as compared to non-proliferative benign breast disease (BBD) (85%), proliferative BBD without atypia (18.5%) and carcinoma *in situ* (33.8%). In contrast, an increase in ER α protein expression was noted during progression. Moreover, ER β was inversely correlated with Ki67, a marker of cell proliferation. The authors thus suggest that ER β has a protective role against the mitogenic activity of estrogens in mammary premalignant lesions. This conclusion is also supported by the results of another study (Shaw *et al.* 2002), which revealed lower ER β protein expression in carcinomas and demonstrated that ER α but not ER β protein expression was correlated with tumor grade. Similar findings were obtained at the mRNA level using the RT-PCR method in study of Iwao *et al.* (2000), who also showed that ER α mRNA is increased and ER β mRNA decreased during breast carcinogenesis. Recently, Park *et al.* (2003) compared ER β mRNA levels in various breast tissues using mRNA *in situ* hybridization. ER β expression was decreased in breast cancer (BC) and metastatic lymph node tissues as compared with normal mammary and

benign breast tumor (BBT) tissues. The intensity and extent of ER β expression were significantly higher in normal and BBT tissues than in BC or metastatic lymph node tissues (Park *et al.* 2003).

In invasive breast cancer, other studies using IHC and ISH methods revealed that ER β expression was associated with indicators of low biological aggressiveness (low tumor grade, low S-fraction, and negative lymph node status), suggesting that ER β might be a good prognostic indicator (Jarvinen *et al.* 2000). In a study of Omoto *et al.* (2001), a survival analysis showed that patients with ER β -positive tumors had increased disease-free survival at 5 years as compared with those with ER β -negative tumors. Fuqua *et al.* (2003) studied ER β expression using IHC in a pilot series of 242 breast cancer patients and showed that ER β expression is not associated with clinical and biological parameters, including PR expression, tumor grade and S-phase fraction. ER β was only found to be correlated with aneuploidy. The findings of this study suggested that ER β could be a useful biomarker on its own in clinical breast tumors. To gain insight into the possible role of ER β in breast carcinogenesis, Skliris *et al.* (2003) performed an IHC analysis of ER β on 512 breast specimens. Moreover, real time PCR was used to investigate the ER β gene methylation status in the ER β -negative breast cancer cell lines SK-BR-3 and MDA-MB-435. The results suggested that the loss of ER β expression is one of the hallmarks of breast carcinogenesis and that it may be a reversible process involving methylation. Zhao *et al.* (2003) also concluded that decreased ER β mRNA expression may be associated with breast tumorigenesis and that DNA methylation is an important mechanism for ER β gene silencing in breast cancer (Table 1). Collectively, ER β expression decreases in the process of breast cancer development.

The ovary (Table 2) contains both ER isoforms but ER β seems to be the predominant species expressed in normal ovary in rats (Byers *et al.* 1997) and humans (Kuiper *et al.* 1996, Enmark *et al.* 1997). Our laboratory (Pujol *et al.* 1998) documented an increase in the ER α /ER β mRNA ratio in ovarian carcinomas as compared with normal ovaries and cysts and our findings suggested that overexpression of ER α relative to ER β mRNA may be a marker of ovarian carcinogenesis. This conclusion was further supported by Brandenberger *et al.* (1998) and Rutherford *et al.* (2000). The latter study revealed that the balance between ER α and ER β receptors might be essential for maintaining normal cellular function, suggesting that, as ER β decreases, uncontrolled cellular proliferation leads to a metastatic state. In a study of Lau *et al.* (1999) no differences in ER β mRNA expression were found between normal and cancer epithelial cells, but these authors only analyzed a few HOSE cell primary cultures (n=4) and ovarian cancer cell lines (n=3) using a non-quantitative PCR method. Decreasing levels of ER β expression seems to be a common denominator between breast and ovarian carcinogenesis.

In prostate, it has been suggested that estrogens and their receptors may be involved in cancer development and progression (Santti *et al.* 1994, Farnsworth *et al.* 1999, Jarred *et al.* 2000). Estrogen exposure during prostate development may initiate cellular processes resulting in future neoplasia (Santti *et al.* 1994). In a study of Latil *et al.* (2001), ER α and ER β mRNA expression were quantified by real-time RT-PCR in both benign and malignant prostate. ER β mRNA level was decreased in most of the tumor samples as compared to normal prostate, suggesting that ER α and ER β expression status could be used to identify advanced prostate tumor patients. This result is in agreement with those obtained at the protein level. Pasquali *et al.* (2001a) investigated ER β expression in benign and malignant prostate tissue specimens using a polyclonal antibody directed against the C-terminal domain of the ER β protein. In contrast to normal tissues, ER β nuclear immunostaining was undetectable in all cancer sections, showing that malignancy seems to be associated with the disappearance of ER β expression in prostate tissue. Horvath *et al.* (2001), using IHC, also found that the ER β protein was progressively lost in hyperplasia and neoplastic lesions. This is in agreement with the results of Fixemer *et al.* (2003) in a study in which a new monoclonal antibody revealed the differential expression of ER β in tissue sections from 132 patients with prostate cancer. Moreover, these authors showed partial loss of ER β in high grade prostatic intraepithelial neoplasia (HGPIN) (Table 3). Once more the change in ER α /ER β ratio seems to be correlated with malignancy.

In colon cancer, the protective effect of estrogen replacement therapy is supported by a number of clinical observations (Calle *et al.* 1995, Newcomb *et al.* 1995, Persson *et al.* 1996, Kampman *et al.* 1997), including the results of recent randomized studies named "WHI" (Nelson *et al.* 2002, Rossouw *et al.* 2002). These studies demonstrated that women with a history of current or past hormone replacement therapy had a significantly decreased risk of colon cancer. These findings have led many investigators to search for the biological mechanisms by which estrogen may influence the pathogenesis of colorectal cancer. Since ER α is reported to be minimally expressed in normal colon mucosa and colon cancer cells (Waliszewski *et al.* 1997, Campbell-Thompson *et al.* 2001), the effects of estrogen on colon cancer susceptibility may be mediated by ER β . Campbell-Thompson *et al.* (2001) showed, using semi-quantitative RT-PCR, that ER β is the predominant ER subtype in the human colon and that decreased ER β 1 (ER β wt) and ER β 2 (ER β cx) mRNA levels were associated with colonic tumorigenesis in women. In a recent study using IHC analysis (Konstantinopoulos *et al.* 2003), it was shown that ER β expression was significantly lower in colon cancer cells than in normal colonic epithelium and that there was a progressive decline in ER β expression, which paralleled the loss of malignant

colon cell dedifferentiation. These findings are in accordance with a previous study of Foley *et al.* (2000) who also detected a selective loss of ER β protein in malignant human colon by Western immunoblotting. Weyant *et al.* (2001) worked with a model of mice bearing germline mutations in murine Apc. These mice develop multiple intestinal tumors that show loss of wild-type Apc protein. In this model, E2-induced prevention of Apc-associated tumor formation was correlated with an increase in ER β protein and a decrease in ER α in target tissues. Altogether, these results strongly suggest that ER β provides protection against colon carcinogenesis (Table 4).

ER β as a predictive factor for antiestrogen therapy?

Although many reports suggest the protective role of ER β against tumor progression, controversies have arisen regarding the clinical value of ER β expression in terms of predicting the adjuvant hormonal therapy response in breast cancer. Some studies suggest that the ER β status in breast cancer is a predictor of the response to tamoxifen (Leygue *et al.* 1998, Jarvinen *et al.* 2000, Mann *et al.* 2001) whereas others suggest that ER β is significantly upregulated in tamoxifen resistant breast cells and could be involved in tamoxifen resistance (Speirs *et al.* 1999).

The type of analysis, patient selection criteria, the type of splicing variants detected in RNA analyses or the small number of patients analysed to date could ultimately explain these controversial results. The first findings were obtained in studies involving RT-PCR based techniques, but the quantification of gene expression at the mRNA level may not be directly linked qualitatively or quantitatively to the protein expression. There have been very few studies in which ERs were measured by Western immunoblotting or IHC because of the lack of reliable antibodies. Finally, the choice of statistical analysis and different parameters selected for analysis could also influence the results.

ER β as a potential tumor suppressor gene?

The results of these different studies, showing a loss of ER β expression in cancer as compared to normal cells, are in line with the hypothesis that the ER β gene may act as a tumor suppressor (Iwao *et al.* 2000). This concept needs to be confirmed but could make sense in view of the location of ER β on chromosome 14q (Enmark *et al.* 1997). A loss of 14q has been detected by comparative genomic hybridization in some breast cancers (Loveday *et al.* 2000, Burki *et al.* 2000). Interestingly, in ovarian cancer, two potential tumor suppressor

gene loci have been mapped to 14q (Bandera *et al.* 1997). 14q deletions are also observed in colon carcinoma (Young *et al.* 1993) and prostate cancer (Kasahara *et al.* 2002). These overall findings suggest a potential tumor suppressive function for ER β . However, further studies are required before definitive conclusions on the tumor suppressive function of ER β can be drawn.

What are the potential molecular mechanisms underlying ER α and ER β differential actions?

Several *in vitro* studies have focused on the molecular mechanisms underlying the differential roles of ER α and ER β . Differences in ligand affinity, transcriptional activation, interactions with cofactors or putative heterodimerisation have been proposed.

Structural properties of ER α and ER β and consequences on their transcriptional activities

Estrogen receptors α and β belong to the large nuclear steroid/thyroid hormone receptor family. Like most other members of the family, ERs have a modular architecture of four interacting domains: the N-terminal A/B domain, the C or DNA binding domain (DBD), the D or hinge domain and the C-terminal E/F or ligand binding domain (LBD) (Fig. 1). There is only 56% amino-acid identity between the two receptors in the LBD whereas the homology in the DBD is 97%. This suggests that ER β would recognize and bind to the same EREs as ER α but that each receptor might have a distinct spectrum of ligands (Kuiper *et al.* 1997a). A number of novel selective ER subtype ligands have now been developed. The propyl pyrazole triol (PPT) compound was found to be an ER α -specific agonist, activating gene transcription only through ER α (Sun *et al.* 1999, Stauffer *et al.* 2000). A number of other known ligands are also somewhat ER β selective. Some phytoestrogens, such as genistein and coumestrol, show a higher affinity toward ER β than ER α (Kuiper *et al.* 1997b). The diaryl-propionitrile (DPN) compound is a potency-selective agonist for ER β with a more than 70-fold higher binding affinity for ER β than ER α (Meyers *et al.* 2001). Recently, Ghosh *et al.* (2003) have investigated a novel series of heterocycle ligands for the ERs based on a diazene core motif. In this process, they have found diazenes that have high binding affinity for the ERs and some of these show preferential affinity for ER α or for ER β .

The N-terminal domain of nuclear receptors encodes a ligand-independent activation function (AF-1) (Berry *et al.* 1990, McInerney *et al.* 1996a, Tora *et al.* 1989), a region of the receptor involved in protein-protein interactions (Onate *et al.* 1998), and transcriptional stimulation of target gene expression. The activation function-2 (AF-2) domain, located in the ligand-binding domain (Tora *et al.* 1989), is responsible for hormone-dependent activation through recruitment of coactivator proteins (Tremblay *et al.* 1997, White *et al.* 1997). There is very little conservation in the N-terminal AF-1 domain, which could explain why different sets of proteins in the transcription complexes may interact with ER α and ER β and direct them to specific targets. Dissimilarity in the NH₂-terminal extremity of ER α and ER β is one possible explanation for the difference in the response of the two receptors to various ligands. In fact, the two receptors are distinct in their responses to the synthetic antiestrogens tamoxifen, raloxifen and ICI-164, 384. On an ERE-based reporter gene assay, tamoxifen, 4-OH-tamoxifen, raloxifen, and ICI-164, 384 have an ER α -selective partial agonist/antagonist function but pure E2 antagonist effect through ER β (Barkem *et al.* 1998, McDonnell *et al.* 1995, McInerney *et al.* 1998). Watanabe *et al.* (1997) showed that the agonistic effect of tamoxifen depends on the cell type, ERE-promoter context, and ER subtypes, and that this action is ER α specific. Tamoxifen is an ER α antagonist in breast (Jordan *et al.* 1992) but an agonist in bone (Love *et al.* 1992) and uterine tissues (Kedar *et al.* 1994). Raloxifene is also an ER α antagonist in breast tissue, but it exerts agonistic activity in bone but not in uterine tissue (Black *et al.* 1994).

ER α and ER β are capable of regulating gene transcription through a classical mechanism involving the consensus estrogen response element (ERE) but ER β seems to be a weaker transactivator (Cowley *et al.* 1999). Cowley and Parker (1999) have shown that the AF-1 activity of ER β is weak compared with that of ER α on estrogen-responsive reporters, whereas their AF-2 activities are similar. In turn, when both AF-1 and AF-2 functions are active in a particular cell and/or on a particular promoter, the activity of ER α greatly exceeds that of ER β , whereas ER α and ER β activities are similar when only AF-2 is required (Cowley *et al.* 1999, McInerney *et al.* 1998). ER α and ER β have similar but also different effects on gene transcription mediated via the ERE. To date only a limited number of genes have been shown to be regulated by one of the two E2-liganded ER subtypes in this classical mode of action. In this way, gene encoding the catalytic subunit of human telomerase hTERT is regulated by ER α and not by ER β in human ovary epithelium cells (Misiti *et al.* 2000) and in human prostate cancer (Nanni *et al.* 2002). In the same way, Lazennec *et al.* (2001) reported that, ER α , but not ER β was able to regulate c-myc proto-oncogene expression. The metallothionein gene is known to be specifically upregulated by E2 via ER β in SAOS-2 cells (Harris *et al.* 2001). However, recently, Stossi *et al.*

(2004) have compared the gene regulatory activities of ER α and ER β in bone and showed a highly similarity but also significant differences in gene targets for these two ERs. Thus, genes encoding for cystatin D, autotaxin or stromal antigen 2 appear to be E2-regulated specifically by ER β in human osteosarcoma cells.

Estrogens (and antiestrogens) also transcriptionally regulate target genes via ERs through a non-ERE mode of action. These effects are mediated through promoter elements that bind various transcription factors, including AP-1-binding sites (Webb *et al.* 1995), Sp1 binding sites (Porter *et al.* 1997), the SF1 response element (SFRE) (Vanacker *et al.* 1999), electrophilic/antioxidant response element (EpRE/ARE) (Montano *et al.* 1997) and cyclic AMP response element (CRE) (Sabbah *et al.* 1999). At AP-1 sites, ER α and ER β could have opposite transcriptional effects in some circumstances (Paech *et al.* 1997). In fact, ER β is able to potentiate an AP-1 containing reporter in the presence of the anti-estrogen tamoxifen but not in the presence of estrogens in a tissue-specific manner. ER α stimulates AP-1 activity in the presence of antiestrogens in endometrial cells (Webb *et al.* 1995, Paech *et al.* 1997), but antiestrogens decrease or have no effect on AP-1 activity in breast cancer cells (Philips *et al.* 1993, Webb *et al.* 1995). Of particular note, ER β is more potent overall than ER α on AP-1 sites, whereas the contrary occurs on EREs (Paech *et al.* 1997, Cowley *et al.* 1999, Hall *et al.* 1999). Similar to AP-1, E2 binding to ER α induces transcriptional activation when associated with SP1 in GC-rich regions. However, E2 interaction with ER β does not result in the formation of a transcriptionally active complex at a promoter containing Sp1 elements (Saville *et al.* 2000). Vanacker *et al.* (1999) described that the osteopontin gene promoter is stimulated through SFRE sequences by ER α but not by ER β .

Consequently, these differences in ligand interaction or transcriptional activity between the two ER subtypes may account for the major differences in their tissue-specific biological actions. This complexity is further enhanced by ER β isoforms, the ability of ERs to form homodimers and heterodimers, and their capacity to interact with various coregulators.

ER isoforms

Several groups have reported and cloned different ER β isoforms with exon deletions (Lu *et al.* 1998), insertions (Hanstein *et al.* 1999), or C-terminal splice variants (Ogawa *et al.* 1998, Moore *et al.* 1998). These isoforms can also bind ligands, mediate estrogen signalling (Kuiper *et al.* 1997b, Paech *et al.* 1997, Cowley *et al.* 1999, Bollig *et al.* 2000) and exhibit different properties, thus further enhancing the complexity in the spectrum of potential cellular responses to estrogen. The key element lies perhaps in the balance between the expression of

these different variants and their relative quantities. It has been shown that ER β splice variants have dramatically different localization patterns in living cells and this localization can be altered by estrogen agonists and antagonists (Price *et al.* 2000). Interestingly, Poola *et al.* (2002) recently showed that estrogen receptor β splice variant mRNAs were differentially altered during breast carcinogenesis. ER β cx, which utilizes an alternative exon 8, is the most extensively studied splice variant. Ogawa *et al.* (1998) showed that this isoform may act as a potential inhibitor of ER α transactivation, possibly due to ER α /ER β cx heterodimer formation. Using IHC, it has been shown that differential expression of ER β wt and ER β cx may be used as a prognostic marker in human prostate (Fujirama *et al.* 2001). Peng *et al.* (2003) showed that all ER β isoforms inhibited ER α transcriptional activity on an ERE, while only ER β wt had transcriptional activity of its own. It has been shown, using cDNA microarrays in MCF-7 cells stably transfected with ER β wt and ER β cx MCF-7, that these two isoforms inhibit ER α function differently (Omoto *et al.* 2003). Consequently, it can be hypothesized that the differential expression of ER β isoforms may have a role in the modulation of estrogen action.

ER homo- and hetero-dimers

The functional formation of ER α and ER β heterodimers has been demonstrated (Pettersson *et al.* 1997, Cowley *et al.* 1997). They are able to bind to DNA with an affinity similar to that of ER α and greater than that of ER β homodimers, to interact with coactivators, and to stimulate the transcription of reporter gene in transfected cells (Pettersson *et al.* 1997, Cowley *et al.* 1997). The possible involvement of ER α and ER β dimerization would increase the complexity of transcription activation in response to E2 and suggests the existence of two previously unrecognized estrogen signaling pathways, i.e. via ER β homodimers and ER α /ER β heterodimers. Moreover, it has been reported that various ER α and ER β ratios in different cells, resulting in different homodimer and heterodimer compositions, may constitute a key for gaining insight into the tissue-specific effects of estrogen and antiestrogens (Kuiper *et al.* 1997a). Homodimers and heterodimers could bind to distinct response elements and consequently activate specific gene expression patterns in given target tissues. For such interactions, ER α and ER β must be coexpressed in cells, as noted in breast, ovarian and endometrium tissues. However, future studies will be required to determine the physiological roles of ER α and ER β homo- and heterodimers *in vivo*.

Interactions with coactivators and corepressors

There is one further confounding factor in the ER-mediated estrogen action equation. The ER-mediated transcriptional activity of estrogen is influenced by several regulatory factors, known as coactivators and corepressors, which activate or repress the transcription of ER-responsive genes (Klinge *et al.* 2000). The p160/SRC (steroid receptor coactivator) family is one of the most studied classes of coactivators, and includes SRC1, SRC2 (GRIP1/TIF-2) (McKenna *et al.* 1999) and other more recently described coactivators such as ACTR (Chen *et al.* 1997), RAC3 (Li *et al.* 1997), AIB1 (Anzick *et al.* 1997) and TRAM-1 (Takeshita *et al.* 1997). Most of interactions of these coregulators with the ER is ligand-dependent but some coactivators have also been shown to be recruited in a ligand-independent manner by the AF-1 domain of ERs (Mc Inerney *et al.* 1996b; Tremblay *et al.* 1999). SRC-1 activated ER β AF-1 upon MAPK-induced phosphorylation of serine residues (Tremblay *et al.* 1999). Deblois *et al.* (2003) studied the steroid receptor RNA activator (SRA) and showed that SRA potentiated the estrogen-induced transcriptional activity of both ER α and ER β . They demonstrated that the transcriptional activity of ER α can be enhanced by SRA in a ligand-independent manner through the AF-1 domain. However, this AF-1 dependent effect of SRA is not observed on ER β . Very few receptor-specific ER β cofactors have been identified so far. Warnmark *et al.* (2001) showed that TRAP220 displays a preference for ER β and suggested that the coregulator selectivity of ER subtypes is an additional layer of specificity that influences the transcriptional response in estrogen target cells. Kurebayashi *et al.* (2000) also showed, using multiplex RT-PCR, that ER β expression levels were correlated with some activators such as AIB1, CBP, P/CAF, and a corepressor, N-CoR, but the significance of this correlation is unclear. Nuclear receptors usually bind the corepressors N-CoR and SMRT in the absence of ligand or in the presence of antagonists. Agonist binding leads to corepressor release and coactivator recruitment. A recent study (Webb *et al.* 2003) demonstrated that, *in vitro* and *in vivo*, ER β binds to N-CoR and SMRT in the presence of ER agonists such as estradiol and phytoestrogens like genistein, but not in the presence of antagonists. ER α and ER β present completely distinct modes of action with coregulators, which could be of major importance in terms of potential effects on physiological behaviour (Webb *et al.* 2003).

What do we know about the role of ER β in cell proliferation and death?

ER β and cell proliferation

Although the specific functions of ER β in cancer are not known, there is some evidence that ER β could have inhibitory effects on cellular proliferation. First, as indicated previously, the levels of ER β are highest in normal tissue (breast, ovary, prostate) as well as in benign disease and it decreases during carcinogenesis (Table 1-3). Our laboratory obtained the first evidence that ER β is an important modulator of proliferation and invasion of breast cancer cells, thus supporting the hypothesis that the loss of ER β expression could be one of the events leading to breast cancer development (Lazennec *et al.* 2001). Whereas ER α was able to regulate reporter genes and endogenous genes in a ligand-dependent manner, ER β inhibited MDA-MB231 cell proliferation in a ligand-independent manner. This suggests that the two ERs inhibit cancer cell proliferation via different mechanisms (Lazennec *et al.* 2001).

Omoto *et al.* (2003) recently developed cell lines expressing ER β wt and ER β cx by stable transfection of each expression plasmid in MCF7 cells and demonstrated that this constitutive expression significantly reduced the percentage of cell population in S-phase and the number of colonies in an anchorage-independent assay. Recently, two studies showed that the induced expression of ER β in ER α -positive breast cancer cells inhibits their growth (Paruthiyil *et al.* 2004, Strom *et al.* 2004). These reports also suggest that ER β might reduce cell proliferation by inhibiting cyclin D1 gene, a key factor controlling the G1-S transition of the cell cycle, and thus cell proliferation. Strom *et al.* (2004) also indicated that numerous other components of the cell cycle associated with proliferation such as cyclin E or Cdc25A were decreased. These results are in accordance with the study of Bièche *et al.* (2001), showing a negative correlation between ER β and CCND1 (cyclin D1) expression. *In vitro* studies are in agreement with the hypothesis of Liu *et al.* (2002) who showed that E2 activates cyclin D1 gene transcription through ER α , but inhibits cyclin D1 gene transcription through ER β in HeLa cells.

The contrasting phenotypes observed in individual lines of ER knockout mice, i.e. ER α KO and ER β KO, which exhibit phenotypes that generally mirror the respective ER expression patterns, provides further evidence that the two ERs have distinct biological functions. Weihua *et al.* (2000) observed that, in immature uterus, ER α and ER β are expressed at comparable levels in the epithelium and stroma, and E2 treatment decreases ER β in the stroma. Increased cell proliferation and the exaggerated response to E2 in ER β KO mice suggested that ER β plays a role in the modulation of the effects of ER α and also (or consequently) has an

antiproliferative function in immature uterus. A second study in ER β ^{-/-} mice showed that ER β is implicated in the regulation of epithelial growth, and its absence results in hyperplasia of the prostatic epithelium (Weihua *et al.* 2001). The inhibition of ER α transcriptional activity could be a molecular mechanism by which ER β has antiproliferative effects. Previous *in vitro* data indicate that ER β could act as a dominant negative regulator of ER α activity. Hall *et al.* (1999) have provided direct proof that ER β modulates/represses ER α transcriptional activity in transient transfection cells. In bone, it has been shown that ER β inactivation by gene targeting results in increased cortical bone formation. Windalh *et al.* (2001) showed that, when present, ER β acts in a repressive manner on trabecular bone, possibly by inhibiting the stimulatory action of ER α . Finally, Lindberg *et al.* (2003) showed that in some mouse tissues, ER β reduces ER α -regulated gene transcription, thus indicating that there is a balanced relationship between ER α and ER β (Fig. 2).

ER β and apoptotic pathways?

A decrease in the human cancer cell population *in vitro* or tumor regression *in vivo* reflects a change in the balance of cellular growth events and could involve arrested cell proliferation or an enhanced cell death or both. Several studies have suggested that estrogen may regulate apoptotic pathways in cancers (Kyprianou *et al.* 1991, Perillo *et al.* 2000, Choi *et al.* 2001). We could assume that E2 effects involve both proliferation induction and apoptosis inhibition. Choi *et al.* (2001) showed that E2 may be associated with upregulation of the anti-apoptotic bcl-2 gene at the mRNA level. It has been suggested that ER α may play a role in ovarian tumorigenesis by preventing apoptosis whereas the ER β -induced inhibition of proliferation could be explained by the inhibition of the bcl-2 gene, as supported by a recent report of Nilsen *et al.* (2000). They showed that estradiol can function as a neuroprotective agent or an inducer of apoptosis, depending on the estrogen receptor-subtype present in the cell. ER α is thus associated with a neuroprotective effect, while ER β mediates the induction of apoptosis in neuronal cells. Similarly, Sapi *et al.* (2002) demonstrated estrogen-induced upregulation of FasL, an apoptotic protein ligand, in ovary. This could seem paradoxical since estrogen is known to be anti-apoptotic in different cells. The authors proposed that in normal ovary the apoptotic protein ligand FasL is probably upregulated by ER β , the predominant form of ER in this tissue (Fig. 3). Recently, we have demonstrated (Cheng *et al.* in press) that the expression of ER β in prostate carcinoma cells triggers apoptosis, notably by increasing bax α levels as well as cleavage of PARP and caspase-3 expression.

Conclusions

Numerous clinical and *in vitro* studies suggest that imbalanced ER α /ER β expression is a common feature and could be a critical step of estrogen dependent tumor progression. ER β seems to play a key role in the mitogenic action of estrogen by providing protection against ER α -induced hyperproliferation. A role in apoptosis might also be possible.

ER α and ER β have some overlapping tissue distribution but also display high relative tissue-specific expression. Moreover, a number of molecular mechanisms could be proposed to explain the differential roles of ER α and ER β , including differences in ligand affinity and transactivation, distinct cofactor interactions and putative heterodimerisation. Splicing variant ERs isoforms may also be important in modulating the cellular response.

In conclusion, the imbalance in ER α /ER β expression in estrogen dependent cancer opens a new field in hormone therapy of cancer. Targeted ER β therapies, including the development of ER β specific ligands, may constitute a new therapeutic approach particularly for pre-invasive or proliferative lesions. The clinical value of ER β in cancer prognosis and its possible usefulness for prediction of the hormone response should be assessed in large-scale and prospective clinical studies.

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Table 1: Relative expression of ER α and ER β in breast tumor progression.

References	Tissues	Number	Methods	ER α	ER β	Comments
				SQ Ov.	SQ Ov.	
Roger <i>et al.</i> (2001)	Normal	118	IHC	+	+++	ER β + cells decrease during pre-invasive tumor progression
	NP-BBD	18		+	++	
	P-BBD	37		++	++	
	P-BBDWA	13		++	+	
	CIS	25		++	+	
	High grade CIS	35	++	-		
Iwao <i>et al.</i> (2000)	Normal	11	Real Time-PCR	++	+++	Changes in ER β 1 and ER β 2 mRNA levels in breast cancer.
	Cancer	112		+++	++	
Park <i>et al.</i> (2003)	Normal	89	ISH	/	+++	ER β mRNA level decreases during tumor progression. High ER β level associated with poor differentiation.
	BBT	11			+++	
	Breast Cancer	85			+	
	Met. lymph node	10			+	
Skliris <i>et al.</i> (2003)	Normal	138	IHC	/	++++	Reduced expression of ER β in invasive breast cancer. Loss of ER β may be a reversible process involving methylation.
	PDCIS	16			+++	
	Invasive cancers	319			++	
	Met. lymph node	31			+	
	Recurrences	8			+	
Speirs <i>et al.</i> (1999)	Normal	23	RT-PCR	+	+++	22% of normal breast expressing exclusively ER β mRNA. 50% of breast tumors coexpressing ER α and ER β .
	Cancer	60		+++	+	
Leygue <i>et al.</i> (1998)	Normal	18	Multiplex RT-PCR	+	++	Increase in ER α and decrease in ER β during tumor progression.
	(adjacent tissues) Cancer	18		++/+++	+	

Gustafsson <i>et al.</i> (2000)	Normal BBD Cancer	Total of 30 samples	RT-PCR Western- Blot, IHC	↓	ERβ is the predominant form in normal mammary gland.
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The number of + indicates the ERs relative expression. The arrows indicate a decrease (↓), an increase (↑) or no variations in expression (↔) between normal and cancer tissues. SQ= semiquantitative, Ov= overall trends, BBD= Benign Breast Disease, NP-BBD= Non Proliferative BBD, P-BBD= Proliferative BBD, P-BBDWA= Proliferative BBD with atypia, BBT= Benign Breast Tumors, CIS= carcinoma *in situ*, HGPIN= High grade prostatic intraepithelial neoplasia, IHS= *in situ* hybridization, IHC= immunohistochemistry, Met= metastatic, RT-PCR= reverse transcription polymerase chain reaction

Table 2: Relative expression of ERα and ERβ in ovarian tumor progression

References	Tissues	Number	Methods	ERα SQ Ov.	ERβ SQ Ov.	Comments
Pujol <i>et al.</i> (1998)	Normal Cysts Borderline tumors Cancers	6 24 3 10	Competitive RT-PCR	+ + ++ ++	+++ +++ ++ +	ERα/ERβ mRNA ratio increases during tumor progression
Brandenberger <i>et al.</i> (1998)	Normal Cancer	10 10	Northern Blot RT-PCR	++ +++	++ +	ERβ mRNA level decreases in cancer
Rutherford <i>et al.</i> (2000)	Normal Primary cancer Met cancer	9 8 8	RT-PCR Western Blot	++ ++ +++	++ + -	ERβ mRNA and protein levels decrease in ovarian cancer and metastases

Table 3: Relative expression of ERα and ERβ in prostate tumor progression

References	Tissues	Number	Methods	ERα SQ Ov.	ERβ SQ Ov.	Comments
Latil <i>et al.</i> (2001)	Normal Cancer	4 23	Real-time PCR	++ + to ++	+++ +	Decreased expression of ERβ mRNA in the hormone-resistant group
Pasquali <i>et al.</i> (2001a)	Normal Cancer	5 10	IHC	/	+++ +	ERβ protein expression decreases in cancer
Pasquali <i>et al.</i> (2001b)	Normal Cancer	6 5	RT-PCR Western blot	++ ++	++ +	ERβ mRNA expression decreases in cancer

Horvath <i>et al.</i> (2001)	Normal Hyperplasia Cancer	5 157 159	IHC	/	+++ - or + - or +	Loss of ERβ protein expression during tumor progression
Leav <i>et al.</i> (2001)	Dysplasia - moderate grade - high grade Carcinoma - grade III - grade IV/V Metastasis	Total of 50 samples	IHC RT-PCR	- -/+ -/+ -	+ - + -/+ +	Decrease in ERβ protein and mRNA expression in high grade dysplasia and carcinoma.
Fixemer <i>et al.</i> (2003)	HGPIN Adenocarcinoma Gleason grade: III IV V Metastatic	47 17 29 14 12	IHC mono- clonal antibody	/	+++ + ++ + +	ERβ protein expression decreases during tumor progression. ERβ expression higher in Gleason grade IV than in grade III and V

Table 4: Relative expression of ERα and ERβ in colon tumor progression

References	Tissues	Number	Methods	ERα SQ Ov.	ERβ SQ Ov.	Comments
Campbell- Thompson <i>et al.</i> (2001)	Normal cancer	26 26	RT-PCR Southern	+ +	+++ +	ERβ1 and ERβ2 mRNA expressions decrease in cancer
Foley <i>et al.</i> (2000)	Normal Cancer	11 11	RT-PCR Western	+ +	+++ +	Decrease ERβ protein but not mRNA expression in cancer. Post-transcriptional mechanism?

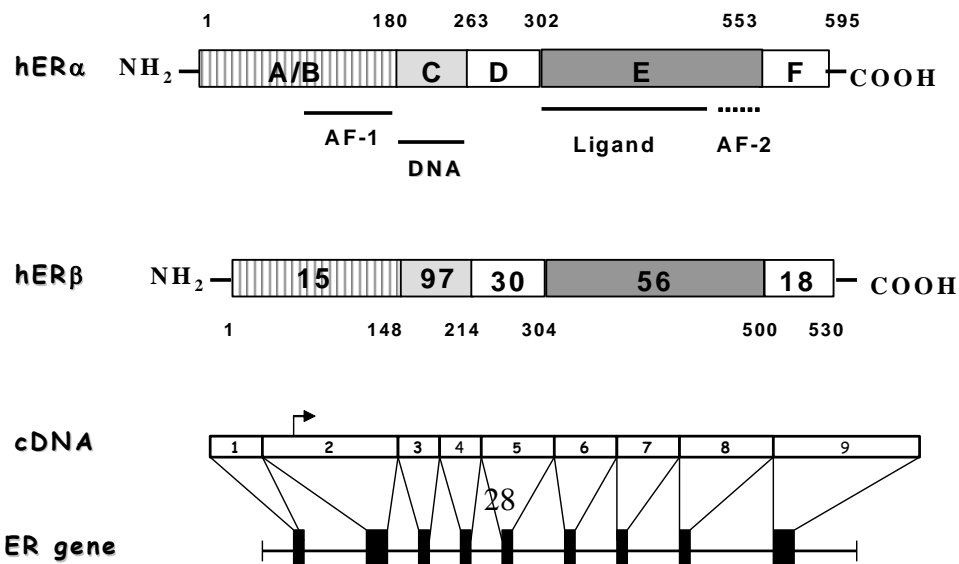


Figure 1 Schematic representation of the structure of human ER α and ER β nuclear receptors. The A/B domain at the NH-2 terminal contains the ligand independent transcriptional-activation function AF-1, the C domain represents the DNA-binding-domain, D corresponds to the hinge region, E domain contains the hormone binding domain and the hormone-dependent transcriptional-activation function AF-2. Numbers outside each box refer to amino acid number whereas the number inside each box of ER β refers to the percentage of amino acid identity. The arrow indicates the translation starting site in ER cDNA.

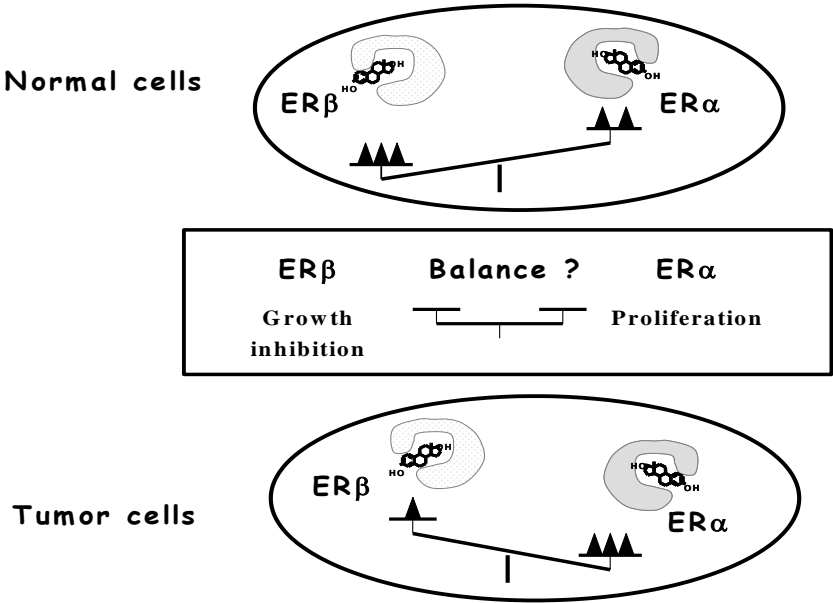


Figure 2 Schematic representation of ER α and ER β imbalance in estrogen-dependent tumor progression

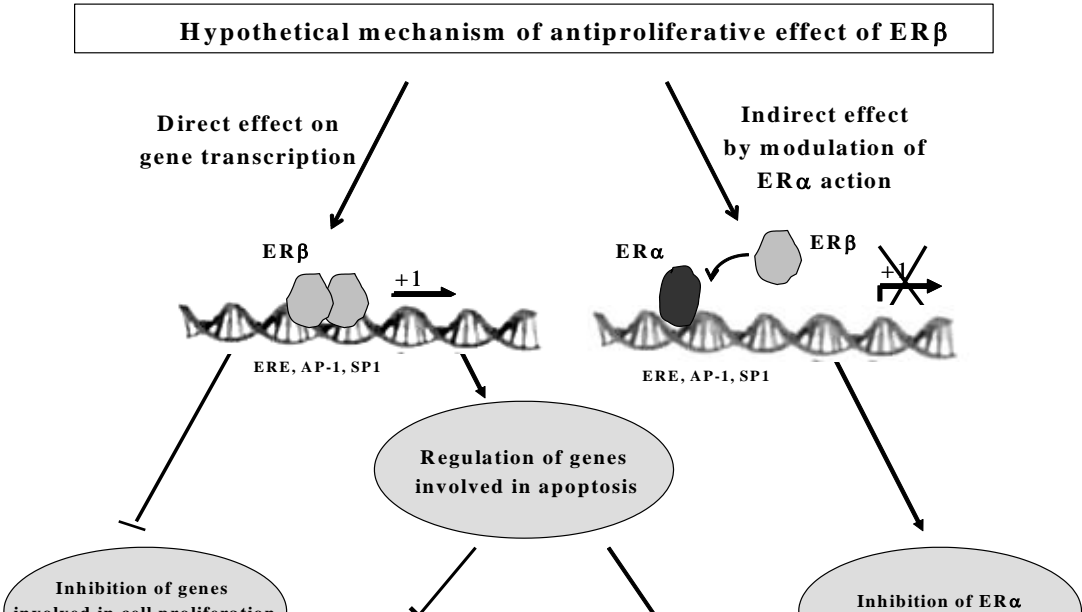


Figure 3 Hypothetical mode of ER β action on cell proliferation pathways.