

Modulators of the structural dynamics of the retinoid X receptor to reveal receptor function

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Retinoid X receptors (RXR α , β , and γ) occupy a central position in the nuclear receptor superfamily, because they form heterodimers with many other family members and hence are involved in the control of a variety of (patho)physiologic processes. Selective RXR ligands, referred to as rexinoids, are already used or are being developed for cancer therapy and have promise for the treatment of metabolic diseases. However, important side effects remain associated with existing rexinoids. Here we describe the rational design and functional characterization of a spectrum of RXR modulators ranging from partial to pure antagonists and demonstrate their utility as tools to probe the implication of RXRs in cell biological phenomena. One of these ligands renders RXR activity particularly sensitive to coactivator levels and has the potential to act as a cell-specific RXR modulator. A combination of crystallographic and fluorescence anisotropy studies reveals the molecular details accounting for the agonist-to-antagonist transition and provides direct experimental evidence for a correlation between the pharmacological activity of a ligand and its impact on the structural dynamics of the activation helix H12. Using RXR and its cognate ligands as a model system, our correlative analysis of 3D structures and dynamic data provides an original view on ligand actions and enables the establishment of mechanistic concepts, which will aid in the development of selective nuclear receptor modulators.

crystal structure | ligand design | nuclear receptor | agonist | antagonist

Nuclear Receptor (NR)-controlled gene expression relies on a mechanism in which NRs recruit coregulators that are part of multiprotein complexes. These complexes correspond to chromatin-modifying and transcription-initiating machineries that act at target gene promoters in a precisely timed and sequential fashion (1). The binding of a ligand to the ligand-binding domain (LBD) of NRs constitutes the initial step of this regulatory process. In this context, the C-terminal helix H12 of LBDs plays a key role, because its position, which depends on the bound ligand, determines the type of coregulator recruited by the receptor (2). Structural studies have shown that in agonist-bound NR LBDs, H12 adopts the so-called “active” or “holo” conformation and provides a binding surface for short NR interaction motifs of coactivators (3). In contrast, antagonists prevent H12 from adopting the holo position (4).

Therapeutically, retinoid X receptor (RXR)-selective ligands, referred to as rexinoids, are used in cancer therapy, and previously uncharacterized rexinoid-based therapeutic paradigms are currently being explored. In addition, rexinoids have promise for use in the therapy of metabolic diseases (5, 6), but important side effects associated with existing compounds limit their use. Improved understanding of the biological role and the structural biology of RXR (7, 8) will allow the synthesis of selective modulators that might overcome the limitations of current drugs. Here, we describe the rational design and functional character-

ization of a spectrum of RXR modulators and discuss the opportunity to use these ligands as pharmacological tools. Moreover, using x-ray crystallography and fluorescence anisotropy, we elucidate the molecular basis of their mechanisms and suggest a structural and dynamic model of partial agonist action.

Results and Discussion

Rational Design of RXR-Selective Modulators. Contrary to the fairly large collection of existing RXR agonists (9–11), only a few antagonists have been reported (12–16). To develop RXR modulators, we selected as a lead compound CD3254 (compound 1), a potent and selective RXR agonist (17) that contains two positions suitable for chemical modification located in ortho position to the biaryl bond (Fig. 1). To guide rational ligand design, we built a model of RXR α LBD bound to compound 1 and identified the methyl group as the most appropriate position for substitution [supporting information (SI) Fig. 6]. Replacement by a side chain of six atoms was predicted to prevent H12 from adopting the active position and hence generate an RXR-selective antagonist. The corresponding synthetic route (SI Fig. 7) provided a series of alkyl ether analogs with chain lengths ranging from C1 to C6 (Fig. 1).

Conversion of CD3254 into Partial and Full RXR Antagonists. Transient transactivation experiments (Fig. 2A) revealed a progressive transition from agonist via mixed agonist/antagonist to full antagonist upon extension of the aliphatic side chain. Indeed, 2a and 2b are progressively weaker agonists that exhibit some antagonist activity relative to CD3254 (compound 1), whereas 2c induces only $\approx 15\%$ of the transactivation seen with the parent compound but acquires strong antagonist activity. Further extension of the side chain reduces the transactivation capacity of

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Abbreviations: RXR, retinoid X receptor; LBD, ligand-binding domain; NR, nuclear receptor; TIF2 NR2, transcriptional intermediary factor 2 NR box 2; ATRA, all-trans retinoic acid; APL, acute promyelocytic leukemia; RAR, retinoic acid receptor.

Data deposition: The atomic coordinates and structure factors have been deposited in the Protein Data Bank, www.pdb.org (PDB ID codes 2P1T, 2P1U, and 2P1V).

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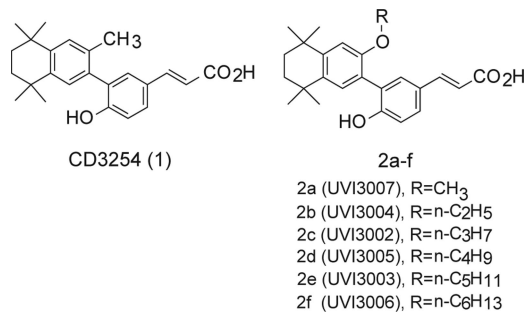


Fig. 1. Structures of the agonist CD3254 (compound **1**) and of the series of alkyl ether analogs **2a–f**.

the retinoid such that **2e** is transcriptionally inactive. However, **2e** and **2f** retain RXR interaction capacity and consequently act as RXR antagonists. Coregulator recruitment assays confirm this transition from agonist to antagonist (Fig. 2B). Although agonist **1** induces TIF2 coactivator association, **2c** does so only weakly, and **2e** is inactive. The antagonist **2e** does not acquire inverse agonist activity, because there is no gain in SMRT corepressor binding. The **2e**-induced RXR antagonist conformation is insensitive to changes in coactivator expression levels, whereas the agonist activity of CD3254 (compound **1**) and the weak agonist activity of the partial agonist **2c** can be largely enhanced when the coactivator RAC3 is present at high levels (Fig. 2C). These results suggest that **2c** may act as a cell-specific RXR agonist or antagonist, depending on the cellular coactivator expression levels. “Sandwich” two-hybrid experiments show that, in the context of the retinoic acid receptor (RAR)-RXR heterodimer, **2e** does not affect the corepressor interaction capacity of the RAR α subunit as, for example, does the RAR inverse agonist BMS493 or the RAR agonist TTNPB (Fig. 2D).

Impact of Ligand Binding on RXR Structural Dynamics. Because recent reports suggest that the functional consequences of ligand binding to NRs are mediated largely through modulation of the structural dynamics of their C-terminal region (2), we studied the impact of ligands **2a–f** on RXR helix H12 mobility. Attaching a fluorescein moiety to the C terminus of RXR α through intein chemistry (18, 19) allowed analysis of the dynamic properties of RXR in RAR α -RXR α heterodimers. Steady-state fluorescence anisotropy measurements showed that addition of agonist **1** slightly increases anisotropy, indicating stabilization of H12, presumably in the active conformation (Fig. 3A). In contrast, binding of ligands **2a–f** decreases anisotropy, revealing a higher mobility of H12 in the presence of these compounds. Moreover, addition of coactivator transcriptional intermediary factor 2 NR box 2 (TIF2 NR2) peptide (20) causes a slight dose-dependent increase of the anisotropy of the heterodimer bound to CD3254 (compound **1**), indicating that peptide binding further stabilizes the active conformation (Fig. 3B). With the mixed agonists/antagonists **2a–d**, addition of peptide strongly increases anisotropy, suggesting that TIF2 NR2 reduces helix H12 mobility by shifting the equilibrium toward the holo form. Remarkably, at the highest peptide concentrations, the dynamics of H12 is comparable to that observed with the agonist-bound protein. In the presence of antagonists **2e–f**, even high doses of TIF2 peptide fail to stabilize H12. Time-resolved fluorescence anisotropy studies confirm the steady-state observations and reveal that both the fraction of RXR molecules with a stabilized holo-H12 and the time scale of H12 dynamics depend on the nature of the bound ligand (SI Table 1). Together, these data provide direct experimental evidence for the differential effects of various classes of NR ligands on H12 dynamics. Moreover, they reveal

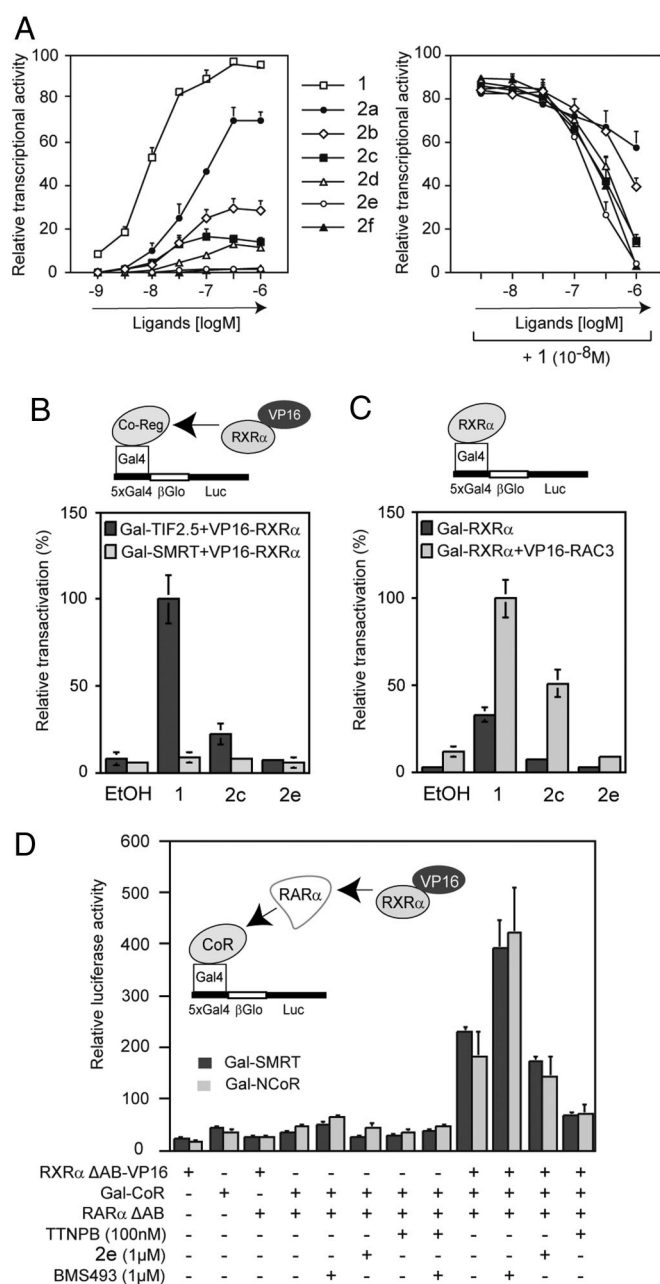


Fig. 2. RXR agonist/antagonist potential of new compounds. (A) HeLa cells stably transfected with the reporter recombinant 5xGal4- β Glo-Luc and Gal4-RXR β were incubated with increasing concentrations of compounds to assess their RXR agonist potential (Left) or with 10 nM CD3254 (compound **1**) and increasing concentrations of the compounds to assess their RXR antagonist potential (Right). (B) Mammalian two-hybrid assays were performed in HeLa cells to assess the influence of both **2c** and **2e** at 1 μ M on interaction between RXR and both coregulators TIF2 (coactivator) and SMRT (corepressor) in a cellular context. (C) Mammalian two-hybrid assays were performed in COS cells to reveal the partial agonist activity of **2c**. Compounds were used at 1 μ M. (D) Mammalian “sandwich” two-hybrid assays in HeLa cells to assess the influence of ligands on corepressor interaction in the context of the RXR-RAR heterodimer. Note that BMS493 acts as an RAR inverse agonist by stabilizing corepressor interaction, whereas the RAR agonist TTNPB destabilizes the corepressor complex.

a mechanism according to which mixed agonists/antagonists can “sense” intracellular coregulator levels and act as cell-selective modulators with agonist or antagonist properties depending on the cellular context (21).

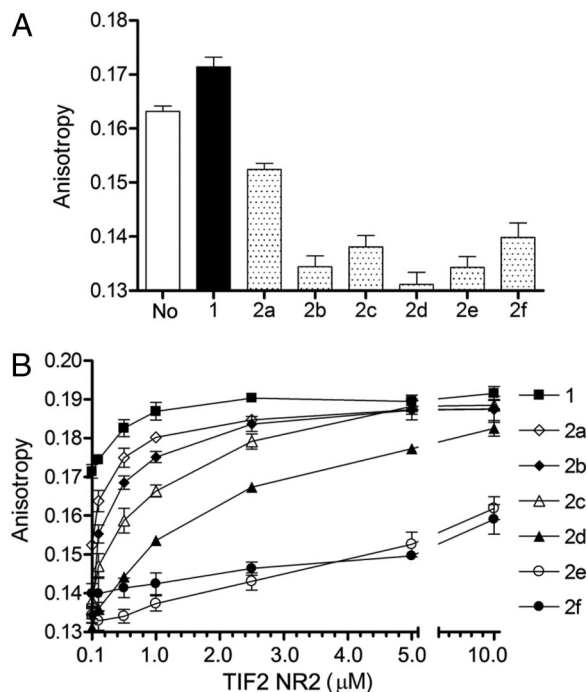


Fig. 3. RXR α structural dynamics monitored by steady-state fluorescence anisotropy. (A) Using an RAR α -RXR α LBD heterodimer in which a fluorescent dye is specifically attached to the C terminus of RXR α , we measured anisotropy values in absence of added ligand (No) and in the presence of saturating concentrations of the RXR agonist CD3254 (compound **1**), mixed agonists/antagonists **2a–d** or antagonists **2e–f**. Of note, it is very likely that the heterodimer used as a reference (No) is not truly unliganded, because it has been previously reported that bacterially expressed RXR is able to bind endogenous fatty acids. (B) Similar experiments were carried out in the presence of increasing concentrations of the NR interaction motif 2 peptide of the coactivator TIF2 (TIF2 NR2).

Structural Basis for Agonist to Antagonist Transition. To gain structure-based insight into the mechanism of action of these modulators, we solved the structures of RXR α LBD in complex with **2a**, **2b**, **2c**, and TIF2 NR2 (SI Table 2). The structures display the canonical agonist conformation with H12 capping the ligand-binding pocket (LBP) and TIF2 NR2 bound to the so-called AF-2 surface (Fig. 4A). A particular feature of compounds **2a–f** is the presence of two oxygen atoms attached to the tetrahydronaphthyl and cinnamic acid aromatic rings (Fig. 1). In the structures with **2a** and **2b**, these oxygen atoms are involved in a network of hydrogen bonds that stabilizes a water molecule in a predominantly hydrophobic environment (Fig. 4C). In both structures, the water molecule occupies a well defined position, as indicated by the clear electron density (Fig. 4B) and the B-factor values of 11.77 Å² and 24.15 Å² (mean B values for all atoms 15.44 Å² and 25.18 Å² in the **2a** and **2b** complexes). In contrast, no electron density is observed for the corresponding water molecule in the **2c** complex. The reason for this absence is that, to maintain favorable interactions with LBP residues, the longer side chain of **2c** rotates around the oxygen atom by an angle of 42° and adopts a conformation in which the oxygen electron lone pairs are unfavorably positioned to be engaged in a hydrogen bond (Fig. 4D). Comparison of these LBP structures with that of the previously reported (22) RXR α LBD bound to the agonist SR11237 reveals some residue reorientations, the most significant one affecting L436 in H11 (Fig. 4E). To accommodate the water molecule present in the **2a** and **2b** complexes and/or the side chains of **2b** and **2c**, L436 rotates toward H12. However, in this conformation, the interaction

distance between the C δ atoms of L436 and L455 in H12 (3.38 Å, 3.46 Å, and 3.68 Å in the **2c**, **2b**, and **2a** complexes) is significantly shorter than the sum of the van der Waals radii for two interacting methyl groups (3.84 Å) (23), thereby generating repulsive forces accounting for the destabilization of the holo conformation in solution. Interestingly, the differences observed for these interaction distances in the various complexes suggest that the steric constraints exerted by **2c** on H12 are stronger than those imposed by **2b** and **2a**. Indeed, functional analyses show that **2c** displays weaker agonist activity than **2b**, which is itself less efficient than **2a** (Fig. 2A). Together, these data reveal that the mixed activity of **2a** relies on a water-mediated mechanism involving the repositioning L436 (H11), which, through a steric clash with L455 (H12), lowers the association strength between holo-H12 and the LBD surface. With **2b**, **2c**, and most likely **2d**, a direct interaction with L436 accounts for the destabilization of H12, the effect being proportional to the chain length. Thus, L436 and more generally all residues that are in contact with holo-H12 and whose conformation can be affected by the bound ligand (i.e., L436 and W305 in RXR α) should be considered as target residues for the design of new NR modulators. With **2e–f**, for which no crystals could be obtained, modeling studies indicate that their inhibitory effect results from an interference of their long side chains with L451 of H12 (SI Fig. 8).

UVI3003 as a Tool to Reveal RXR Function. The availability of a high-affinity RXR-selective full antagonist provided the possibility to assess the contribution of RXR transactivation in the context of RXR heterodimers by pharmacological means. Comparing the responsiveness of promyelocytic NB4 cells expressing the PML-RAR α oncofusion protein (24, 25) with that of the HL60 subclone PLB985 (26) revealed major differences in the growth and differentiative and apoptogenic response toward RAR and RXR-selective ligands. Indeed, NB4 cells cease proliferation (Fig. 5A), differentiate (not shown) and undergo apoptosis (Fig. 5B) in the presence of an RAR α agonist (BMS753) alone, whereas PLB985 cells require in addition the presence of an RXR agonist (SR11237) (Fig. 5A and B). The RXR antagonist **2e** (UVI3003) fully confirmed these results, because its addition derepressed PLB985 growth inhibition by the combined action of RAR and RXR agonists but did not significantly affect growth inhibition or apoptosis in NB4 cells exposed to RAR agonists (not shown) or RAR and RXR agonists (Fig. 5A and B). No similar critical effect of the RXR antagonist was seen when F9 embryo carcinoma cells were differentiated to primitive or parietal endodermal cells using all-trans retinoic acid (ATRA) or ATRA plus cAMP, respectively, or when 3T3L1 preadipocyte cells were differentiated by troglitazone (Fig. 5C and D). Together, these data reveal UVI3003 (**2e**) as a tool to test the contribution of RXR to transactivation by a given RXR heterodimer. This is particularly important in cases where endogenous rexinoids (27) may contribute to a cell biological or physiological phenomenon, or when RXR is actively engaged in signaling (28, 29). The comparison of RXR responsiveness of PLB985 and NB4 cells suggests the challenging possibility that the PML-RAR α fusion protein may have obliterated the RXR requirement for apoptosis, even though the leukemogenic species corresponds to higher-order heterooligomers composed of acute promyelocytic leukemia (APL) oncofusion proteins and RXR (30, 31). Indeed, that RAR α ligands alone are sufficient to induce NB4 apoptosis may explain the efficiency of the retinoic acid therapy in APL patients. Moreover, the results obtained with PLB985 cells suggest that certain non-APL leukemias may benefit from the combined treatment with RAR and RXR agonists.

Concluding Remarks. Despite the fact that RXR plays a major role as a promiscuous heterodimerization partner (7, 8), and in

structures were modeled with O (37) and refined with REFMAC5 (36) by using rigid-body, least-squares, and individual B-factor refinements. The final models exhibit very good geometry with 94.9% (2a), 95.4% (2b), and 94.9% (2c) of the residues in the most-favored regions of the Ramachandran plot and no residue in the disallowed regions. Experimental electron density $F_o - F_c$ maps of all ligands, calculated by using the refined model with the ligands omitted, are shown in SI Fig. 9.

Cell Culture and Analysis of Apoptosis. F9 cells, grown in tissue culture plates coated with 0.1% gelatin, and preadipogenic 3T3L1 cells were maintained in DMEM supplemented with 10% FCS and 1 mg·liter⁻¹ gentamicin and 2 mM glutamine. For F9 cells, collagen IV expression was monitored by semiquantitative RT-PCR (SI Fig. 10 and SI Text). PLB 985 and NB4 leukemia cell lines were cultured in RPMI medium 1640 supplemented with 10% FCS/2 mM glutamine/25 mM Hepes buffer/40 μg·ml⁻¹ gentamicin in a humidified incubator at 37°C and 5% CO₂. Apoptosis of leukemia cells was quantified by propidium iodide-

annexin V double staining on a FACScan (Becton Dickinson, Franklin Lakes, NJ) flow cytometer.

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