

ER α as ligand-independent activator of CDH-1 regulates determination and maintenance of epithelial morphology in breast cancer cells

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Estrogen receptor α (ER α) and E-cadherin are primary markers of luminal epithelial breast cancer cells with E-cadherin being a main caretaker of the epithelial phenotype. E-cadherin repression is needed for cancer cells to acquire motile and invasive properties, and it is known that in ER-positive breast cancer cells, estrogen down-regulate E-cadherin gene transcription. We report here that ER α is bound to the E-cadherin promoter in both the presence and the complete absence of estrogen, suggesting an unexpected role for unliganded ER α in E-cadherin transcription. Indeed, our data reveal that activation by unliganded ER α and repression by estrogen-activated ER α require direct binding to a half-estrogen response element within the E-cadherin promoter and exchange from associated coactivators to corepressors. Therefore, these results suggest a pivotal role for unliganded ER α in controlling a fundamental caretaker of the epithelial phenotype in breast cancer cells. Here, we show that ER α -positive breast cancer T47D cells transduced with the sFRON kinase undergo a full epithelial-mesenchymal conversion and lose E-cadherin and ER α expression. Our data show that, although the E-cadherin gene becomes hypermethylated and heterochromatic, kinase inhibitors can restore E-cadherin expression, together with an epithelial morphology in an ER α -dependent fashion. Similarly, transfection of ER α , in the absence of ligands, was sufficient to restore E-cadherin transcription in both sFRON-T47D and other ER α -, E-cadherin-negative cells. Therefore, our results suggest a novel role for the ER α that plays the dual role of ligand-independent activator and ligand-dependent repressor of E-cadherin in breast cancer cells.

E-cadherin | epithelial to mesenchymal transition | estrogen | invasion

Estrogen receptor α (ER α) plays a fundamental role in mammary gland development and function and in breast cancer development and progression. The picture emerging from extensive gene expression profiling of human breast tumors tissues and cell lines clearly links ER α to the genetic program specifying the epithelial phenotype of luminal type (1–4). ER+ breast carcinoma cells grow in vitro as organized, polygonal cells that maintain cell-to-cell contacts, whereas ER– cells more often show a mesenchymal morphology. This observation agrees with the older notion that ER+ tumors are generally more differentiated and less invasive.

In carcinoma, the loss of epithelial characteristics is a prerequisite for the acquisition by cancer cells of several properties, including cell motility, invasion, intravasation, and metastasis (5), in a process that mimics the developmental epithelial-to-mesenchymal transition (EMT). EMT is characterized by a wide genetic reprogramming that primarily involves the suppression of E-cadherin, a central caretaker of the epithelial phenotype (6), in addition to activation or repression of several other genes. Transcription of the E-cadherin encoding gene, *CDH1*, in epithelial cells is guaranteed by several positive transcription fac-

tors, primarily Sp1 (7) and AP-2 proteins (8, 9), whereas during EMT the concerted and cell-specific action of a number of repressors (Snail, Slug, Zeb1, Zeb2, Twist) binding to several E-boxes in the E-cadherin promoter is controlled by different signal transduction pathways and leads to hypermethylation and heterochromatization of the gene (8, 10). In development, a number of signaling pathways are involved in E-cadherin silencing, including those activated by FGF, PDGF, EGF, TGF β , BMP, and Wnt. Other signals, including hypoxia, inflammation, and other microenvironmental conditions also play a relevant role in other contexts (6). The loss of E-cadherin expression in invasive cancer is accompanied in some cases by gene mutation, but more often E-cadherin is silenced with no structural alteration and shows promoter CpG island hypermethylation (11), suggesting that mechanisms linked to normal suppressive pathways may operate in cancer cells. Coherently, overexpression of repressors such as Snail, Slug, or Twist is often found in cancer (12, 13) and is possibly linked to the constitutive activation of the signaling pathways described above.

Several studies have reported down-regulation of E-cadherin mRNA and protein expression by estrogen in breast, ovarian, and endometrial cancer cells (14–16). E-cadherin was also found among down-regulated genes in microarray studies (17). Down-regulation of E-cadherin by estrogen is congruent with the common notion that the hormone stimulates progression of breast cancer and, consequently, with the mitogenic and motogenic activity of estrogen (18). However, estrogen induces an easily-reversible and only partial EMT-like response (18) that is very different from the complete EMT, accompanied by E-cadherin silencing, that is seen in ER-, mesenchymal-like breast cells.

Therefore, it is important to ascertain whether a direct link exists between the expression and activity of ER α and the transition to a mesenchymal phenotype mediated by regulation of E-cadherin transcription.

In this work, we set out to understand the functional relationship of ER α and E-cadherin in breast cancer cells. Our results show that unliganded ER α is necessary and sufficient to sustain basal expression of E-cadherin, also when reversal of a silenced heterochromatic status is required, through direct binding to the E-cadherin gene promoter.

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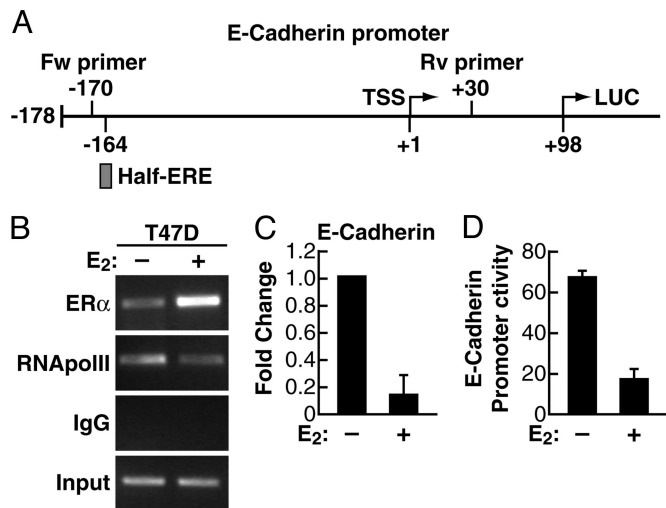


Fig. 1. Association of unliganded and ligand-activated ER α with E-cadherin promoter and effect on E-cadherin expression. (A) Schematic representation of the Luc-reporter construction, showing location of the half-site ERE at position -164/-160 in the E-cadherin promoter. (B) The ER $^+$ T47D cells were grown in estrogen-free medium for 72 h. Then, the cells were treated with either ethanol vehicle (-E2) or E2 for 90 min. ChIP assay was performed with anti-ER α and anti-RNAPolIII antibodies. Input DNA was used to normalize the results. (C) Quantitative real-time PCR was used to evaluate changes in E-cadherin mRNA level in T47D cells similarly grown and treated with either ethanol vehicle (-E2) or E2 for 90 min. (D) T47D cells were grown in estrogen-free medium for 24 h, then were transiently transfected with E-cadherin promoter-Luc vector. After 48 h, cells were treated with either ethanol vehicle (-E2) or E2 for 90 min, and luciferase activity was measured and normalized by using β -gal activity.

Results

ER α Recruitment at the E-Cadherin Promoter Is Independent of Ligand. The concept that ER α can repress transcription of many genes by direct interaction has emerged clearly from ChIP on chip (ChIP-chip) studies (19, 20). Interestingly in one report E-cadherin transcriptional repression by estrogen in MCF7 cells was shown to be associated to ER α binding to a transfected, but not to the endogenous, E-cadherin promoter sequence (14). By screening the 5' flanking sequence of E-cadherin at low stringency with a matrix obtained by examining several ER α promoter binding sites (20) we identified several putative estrogen response element (ERE) sequences, including a perfect half-ERE at -164 (Fig. 1A). Therefore, we investigated whether the proximal portion of the endogenous E-cadherin promoter may bind ER α during estrogen treatment. ChIP analysis of ER $^+$ T47D breast carcinoma cells showed that indeed ER α is bound to the region containing this half-ERE (Fig. 1B) during estrogen down-regulation of E-cadherin transcription (Fig. 1C). In keeping with published results (14), 17 β -estradiol (E2) also repressed the activity of a transfected reporter vector carrying the proximal E-cadherin promoter (-178/+92) and driving luciferase transcription (Fig. 1D), further supporting the notion that this fragment is necessary for mediating estrogen activity on E-cadherin transcription. Moreover, in these experiments, we noticed that ER α was also bound to E-cadherin in anaestrogenic conditions, though to a lesser extent (Fig. 1B), suggesting that unliganded ER α may play a role in basal E-cadherin transcription, in keeping with the fact that ER α and E-cadherin are consistently coexpressed in cells with epithelial phenotype and both are lost during EMT.

EMT Transition is Accompanied by Silencing of E-Cadherin Together with ER α in T47D Cells Transduced with sfRON. To examine this hypothesis, we looked for a cell model system where silencing of

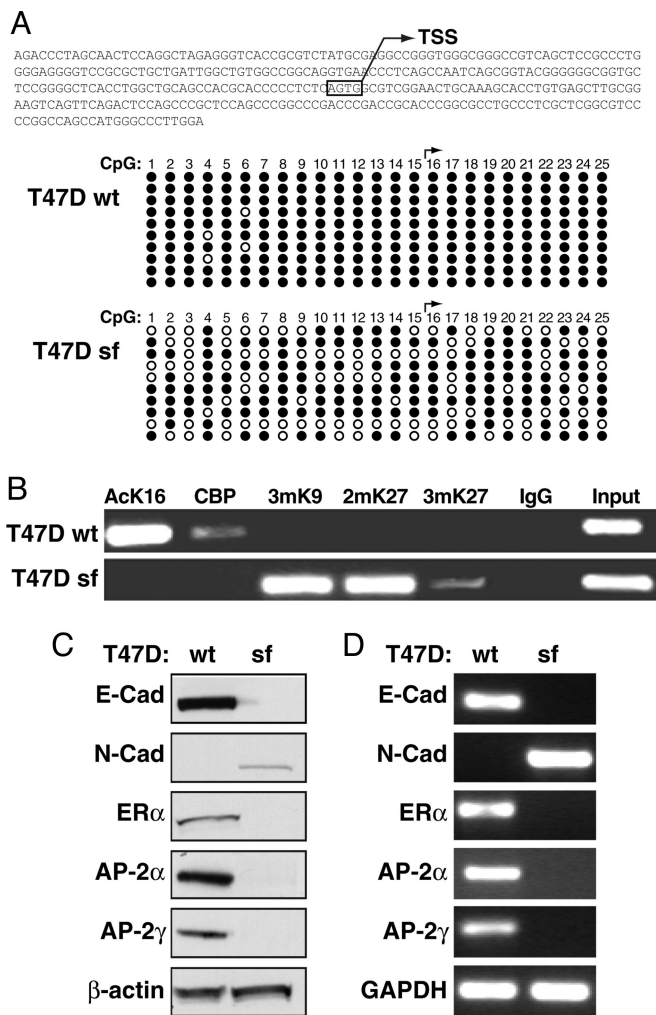


Fig. 2. Effect of a constitutively-active tyrosine kinase (sfRON) on chromatin organization at the E-cadherin gene promoter and change of ER α status in sfRON-T47D cells. (A) CpG methylation analysis of the *CDH-1* promoter. The scheme shows the region analyzed. For each CpG (numbered from 5' to 3') black dots are unmethylated and open dots are methylated CpG. (B) Heterochromatin markers are enriched at the E-cadherin promoter in sfRON-T47D. ChIP assay was performed by using antibodies against acetyl-lysine 16 histone H4 (AcK16), trimethyl-lysine 9 of histone H3 (3mK9), dimethyl-lysine 27 of histone H3 (2mK27), trimethyl-lysine 27 of histone H3 (3mK27), and CBP. (C) Whole-cell protein extracts were subjected to immunoblotting for E-cadherin (E-Cad), N-cadherin (N-Cad), ER α , AP-2 α , AP-2 γ , and β -actin, showing equal protein loading. (D) End-point PCR was used to evaluate changes in E-cadherin (E-Cad), N-cadherin (N-Cad), ER α , AP-2 α , and AP-2 γ mRNA level as compared with GAPDH control.

E-cadherin and ER α and consequent EMT were obtained starting from an ER $^+$ epithelial background. We reported previously that transduction of a constitutively-active truncated form of the RON tyrosine kinase (*MSTIR*) into breast carcinoma T47D cells led to morphological changes, increased growth, motility, and invasion, and suppression of E-cadherin expression, compatible with an EMT, apparently caused by increased expression of the zinc-finger repressor Slug (21). Thus, we first characterized sfRON-T47D cells to evaluate the extent of their mesenchymal conversion. The chromatin status of E-cadherin was addressed by CpG methylation analysis, revealing that the E-cadherin promoter is hypermethylated in sfRON-T47D cells, as compared with wild-type (wt) T47D cells (Fig. 2A). ChIP analysis of the same E-cadherin region also demon-

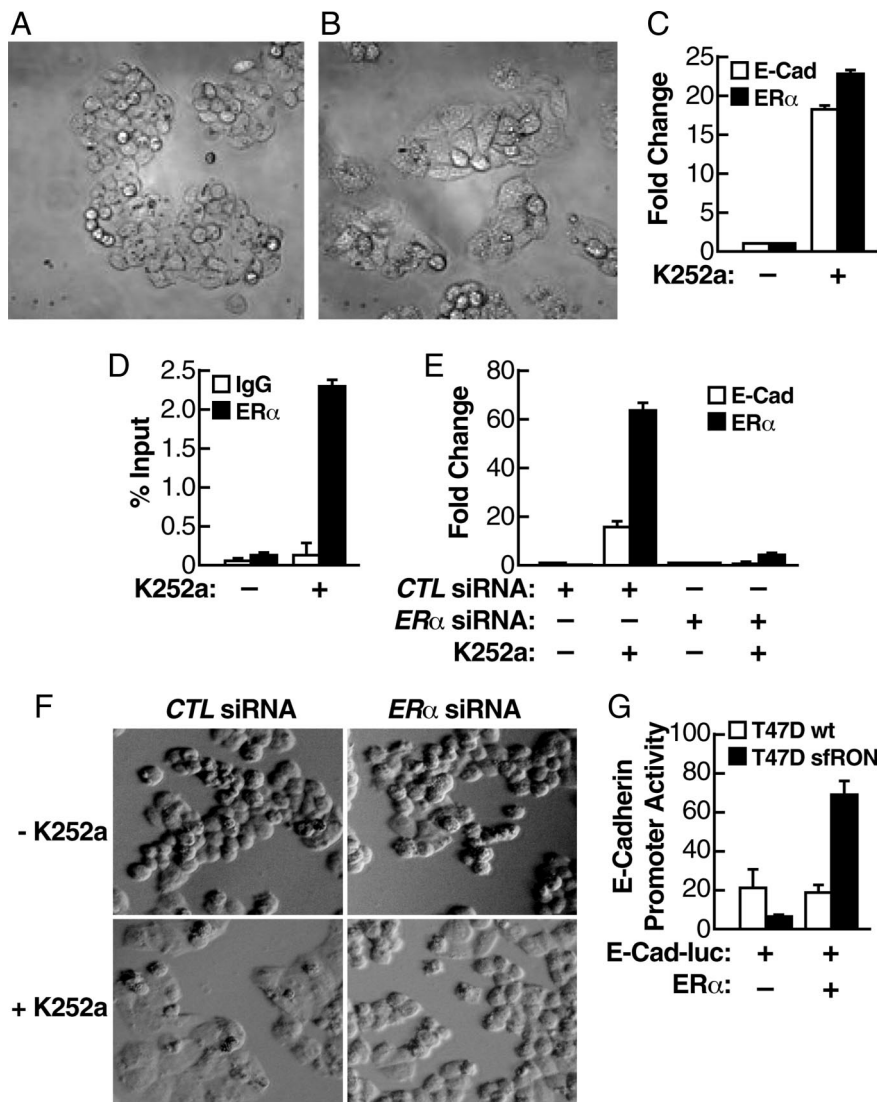


Fig. 3. Unliganded ER α is sufficient to activate the basal expression of E-cadherin in sfRON-T47D. (A and B) Reversion of the morphological phenotype in sfRON-T47D cells by a kinase inhibitor. Cells were grown in estrogen-free medium for 72 h and then treated with K252a (B) or control vehicle (A) for 48 h. Images were taken at 40 \times magnification. (C) Quantitative real-time PCR was used to evaluate changes in E-cadherin and ER α mRNA level in sfRON-T47D cells in the presence of K252a or control vehicle. (D) K252a treatment induces ER α recruitment at the E-cadherin promoter. ChIP with quantitative real-time PCR was performed by using antibodies against ER α . (E) Induction of E-cadherin mRNA by K252a depends on ER α . sfRON-T47D cells were transfected with a control siRNA or a siRNA against ER α , grown in estrogen-free medium for 72 h, and treated with K252a or control vehicle. (F) The same experiment as in E demonstrates that ER α is required for morphological reversal in the presence of K252a. The images were taken at 40 \times magnification. (G) ER α expression induces E-cadherin-Luc reporter activity. Cells were grown in estrogen-free medium for 24 h then were transiently transfected with E-cadherin promoter-Luc vector, ER α -expressing vector, or empty vector. After 48 h luciferase activity was measured and normalized to β -gal activity.

strated that H3K9 is trimethylated, and H3K27 is dimethylated and trimethylated, while general histone acetylation is lost (Fig. 2B), clearly showing that the E-cadherin gene is heterochromatic in sfRON-T47D cells. In addition to E-cadherin, these cells have lost other features of breast epithelial cells such as the expression of AP-2 α and AP-2 γ factors, which are positive regulators of E-cadherin (8, 9), while they express the nonepithelial N-cadherin gene. As expected, sfRON-T47D have also completely lost ER α expression at both the RNA and protein level (Fig. 2C and D).

ER α Is Sufficient to Activate Basal Expression of E-Cadherin in sfRON-T47D.

Next, we attempted to reverse the mesenchymal phenotype by interfering with the Ron transduction pathway. We have used several reagents to extinguish the Ron-activated signaling pathway, and the most effective molecule turned out to be the kinase inhibitor K252a that inhibits several receptor and non-receptor kinases in this pathway (22). All of the experiments were run in estrogen-free media to avoid potential repression of E-cadherin by estrogen-activated ER α , as shown before. As shown in Fig. 3C, treatment of sfRON-T47D cells with K252a led to reexpression of both E-cadherin and ER α mRNA, together with an evident morphological reversion to a polygonal cell type (Fig. 3B, cells treated with K252a, compared with Fig. 3A, cells

treated with vehicle alone). Interestingly, as demonstrated by ChIP analysis, unliganded ER α was recruited to the E-cadherin promoter after K252a treatment (Fig. 3D).

These observations strongly suggest that unliganded ER α has a functional role in the reexpression of E-cadherin. To address this question directly, we transfected sfRON-T47D cells with a siRNA specific for ER α or a control siRNA, then we treated the cells with K252a for 48 h in estrogen-free medium. As shown in Fig. 3E, ER α is down-regulated by specific siRNA and its down-regulation prevents reexpression of E-cadherin mRNA after K252a treatment. In agreement, cells treated with control siRNA showed an evident morphological change in response to K252a treatment with most of the cells flattened and contiguous (Fig. 3F Left), whereas cells treated with ER α siRNA did not change morphology under K252a treatment (Fig. 3F Right). To obtain direct proof of the action of ER α on reactivation of E-cadherin transcription, we transfected ER α in sfRON-T47D cells, together with the E-cadherin-Luc reporter, in estrogen-free medium. ER α induced transcription from the E-cadherin promoter in transfected cells, but had no effect on ER α wt T47D cells (Fig. 3G).

Unliganded ER α Restores E-Cadherin Expression in Other E-Cadherin Negative Cells. These data strongly suggest that ER α has a pivotal role for E-cadherin gene transcription in sfRON-T47D cells,

shown in Fig. 5B Center, Sp1 is bound to E-cadherin promoter in the absence of estrogen and is progressively dismissed after E2 treatment, indicating that when ligand-activated ER α is present the E-cadherin promoter loses an important transactivator. To examine possible corepressor complex recruitment by ligand-activated ER α at the E-cadherin promoter, we tested the presence of N-CoR, one of the major corepressor complexes for ER α , and the CtBP complex, whose function in E-cadherin silencing was associated to the action of zinc-finger repressors. As shown in Fig. 5B Right, N-CoR was recruited at the E-cadherin promoter 30 min after E2 treatment, whereas Slug and CtBP were recruited after 90 min.

Taken together, our results provide evidence of a novel role for ER α in allowing basal transcription of E-cadherin in epithelial cells, by direct binding, in conjunction with Sp1 factors, to the E-cadherin promoter. Ligand activation of ER α leads to Sp1 dismissal, recruitment of N-CoR, and consequent function of zinc-finger repressor to silence E-cadherin expression (Fig. 5C).

Discussion

Results presented here demonstrate that unliganded ER α is needed for basal transcription of the E-cadherin gene and that it is sufficient to induce reexpression of E-cadherin, even when the E-cadherin gene is heterochromatic. This effect depends on ER α binding to a half-ERE present in the E-cadherin gene promoter; surprisingly, from the same site ER α directs E-cadherin transcriptional repression when E2 is present. We can exclude the possibility that the repression effect is caused by ER β because our cell models do not express ER β (Fig. S1). We have demonstrated a direct role of ER α in controlling E-cadherin expression, with elimination of ER α from an ER-positive cell line or its reintroduction in a ER-negative context, respectively triggering repression or transcription of E-cadherin. Thus, ER α may represent the prime factor controlling the expression of this gene in breast cancer cells, an idea previously suggested only by indirect evidence. In addition to a number of relational observations, the absence of ER α had been mechanistically linked to E-cadherin suppression and EMT by other studies (26, 27); indirect evidence that reexpression of endogenous ER α is linked to reversion of the invasive phenotype in breast cancer cells was recently reported (28). However, interpretation of these results was confounding, because the activation of ER α by estrogen would lead to results similar to those elicited by the absence of ER α , i.e., reversible EMT (18) and E-cadherin down-regulation (14). Results presented here reconcile these data, because they have revealed that unliganded and liganded ER α exert opposite effects on E-cadherin gene transcription.

The occupancy of the E-cadherin promoter by ER α in both estrogenic and anaestrogenic medium was suggested by Oesterreich et al. (14) who used a transfected E-cadherin promoter to show ER α binding. Here, we demonstrate ER α binding to the endogenous E-cadherin locus in T47D and MCF7 cells. In addition, we provide evidence of direct interaction of ER α with a half-ERE in E-cadherin promoter by using both an E-cadherin-luciferase reporter with deleted half-ERE and a DNA binding domain-dead ER α version. In a different context, represented by endometrial carcinoma cells, ER α binding to E-cadherin was also confirmed (16).

Ligand-independent activity of ER α has been reported by other studies (29, 30). Also, several papers reported activation of unliganded ER α by phosphorylation, phosphatases, or cAMP (31) as activated by growth factor pathways (32, 33). Moreover, ER α is known to interact with other transcription factors, such as Sp1, NF- κ B, and AP-1, and may use the constitutive transactivation function of these factors in certain contexts.

One distinctive character of the present study is that, in our model system, ER α binds to, and reactivates, the silenced

E-cadherin gene in sfRON-T47D cells, where it was shown to be clearly hypermethylated and heterochromatic. This result means that unliganded ER α finds access to the heterochromatic promoter and initiate events leading to chromatin remodeling and transcription initiation. We excluded the presence of very low doses of estrogen coming from cell metabolism because we observe the same effect on E-cadherin expression treating the cells with Letrozole, a common aromatase inhibitor (Fig. S2).

Other authors have attempted reexpression of ER α in a context of ER-, fibroblastoid cells such as the MDA.MB.231 cells, by adenoviral transduction. However, estrogen treatment of ER α reexpressing cells resulted in growth inhibition, rather than stimulation, either because of receptor overloading or these cells may have embryological derivation different from epithelium-like cells such as commonly used ER+ cell lines (34, 35). However, we see here reactivation of E-cadherin by ER α also in HeLa cells that are of cervical carcinoma origin.

Our results also confirm that estrogen inhibits transcription of E-cadherin. This was clearly shown by previous studies reporting down-regulation of E-cadherin protein, mRNA and reporter activity by estrogen in MCF7 cells (14) and in cells of other origins (15). While studying the activity of the Mi-Nurd component MTA3, Fujita et al. (26) reached a different conclusion, i.e., that estrogen may activate, rather than repress, E-cadherin expression. However, results reported in this study may be caused mostly by ER α *per se*, rather than by estrogen, because they were obtained by overexpressing ER α and evaluating the effects of tamoxifen, which is known to exert both agonistic and antagonistic context-dependent actions (17, 36). Indirect support to a suppressive effect of estrogen on E-cadherin expression is also given by several observations that estrogen treatment results in EMT-like phenotypic changes (18).

Repression by estrogen-activated ER α depends on direct interaction with the half-ERE in E-cadherin promoter. Our finding of a sequential recruitment of N-CoR and CtBP complexes after E2 treatment suggests a temporal checkpoint regulation of E-cadherin repression. Our proposed model is that E2-ER α interaction induces first the recruitment of N-CoR at the E-cadherin promoter. Formation of this first complex leads to hypoacetylation of histones (37) and, after that, the recruitment of Slug/CtBP complexes induces hypermethylation of histones (38), such as histone H3 lysine 9, which causes stabilization of the nucleosome structure, limiting accessibility to the basal transcriptional machinery and thus repressing E-cadherin gene expression. Assuming several possibilities, because Sp1 is required to promote E-cadherin expression (7), ER α might bind the half-ERE by interacting with Sp1 or ligand-activated ER α binding might lead to a conformational change that allows the increase of ER α recruitment and of corepressors assembling (Fig. 5C). This behavior in repression has been observed for other genes also containing ERE-like sequence in their promoters (39). Another possibility, not necessarily an alternative, is that nongenomic action of estrogen, perhaps acting on coactivator/corepressor distribution, may influence the response.

Factors like Slug and Snail are involved in the control of E-cadherin transcription and may also be implicated in the effects of unliganded and liganded ER α (27). Estrogen up-regulates Snail and Slug (15) that can mediate, in part, the repressive effect on E-cadherin transcription. However, half-ERE deletion experiments clearly show that ER α binding to the promoter is required for repression. Together, assembled data permit a model where ER α play a master function in a circuit that regulates transition from epithelial to mesenchymal phenotypes and reverse. Unliganded ER α binds to and activates the E-cadherin promoter and down-regulates Snail expression, further relieving repression on E-cadherin. Conversely, estrogen treatment directly represses E-cadherin transcription and stimulates Snail expression, resulting in more robust repression of

E-cadherin. Overexpression of Snail is known to repress E-cadherin, but also represses the ER α encoding *ESR1* gene (27).

In conclusion, our results unravel a role for the ER α that plays the dual role of ligand-independent activator and ligand-dependent repressor of E-cadherin in breast cancer cells. To understand the full genetic program that is similarly regulated by unliganded ER α and fully determine the identity of genomic locations that recruit ER α in the absence of estrogen in breast cancer cells will be of great interest.

Materials and Methods

Detailed protocols for cell culture, pharmacological treatment of cells, transient cell transfection, site-directed mutagenesis, RNA preparation, RT-PCR, and real-time quantitative PCR analysis are described in *SI Text*.

ChIP Assay. Protein-DNA cross-linking was performed by adding 1% (wt/vol) formaldehyde and soluble chromatin extract, immunoprecipitation was performed as described (14), and the DNA was purified on Qiaquick spin columns (Qiagen) and eluted in 50 μ L of water. Specific sequences from immunoprecipitated and input DNA were detected by end-point PCR (forward, 5'-tagagggtaccgctctat-3' and reverse, 5'-tcacaggtcttgcagttc-3') or quantitative real-time PCR and SYBR Green-detection (Stratagene) (forward, 5'-cccatctccaaaacgaaca-3' and reverse, 5'-ccggtgctcactaagacctg-3'). Antibodies used were: anti-ER α (MC-20 and H-184); anti-CBP (C-20 and A22); anti hSlug (H-140 and H-19); anti-CtBP (C-1 and H-440); anti-Sp1 (H-225); and anti-RNA polymerase II (N-20) (Santa Cruz Biotechnology). Antibodies against histone 3 (H3) trimethyl-lysine 9, H3 dimethyl-lysine 27, H3 trimethyl-lysine 27, H3 acetyl-lysine 16 were from Upstate Biotech.

Immunoblot Analysis. Total protein extracts were prepared with boiling 2.5% SDS and 0.125 M Tris-HCl, pH 6.8. Proteins were separated by SDS/PAGE and

blotted to PVDF membranes (Bio-Rad). Blots were probed with primary antibodies [ER α (H-184), ER β (H-150) E-cadherin (H-108), N-cadherin (H-163), AP-2 α (C18), AP-2 γ (6E4), β -actin (C-2) (Santa Cruz)] and visualized by enhanced chemiluminescence (ECL; Amersham Biosciences).

CpG Methylation Assay. DNA was extracted by using the QIAmp DNAMini Kit (Qiagen), then 10 μ g of DNA was digested with HindIII and denatured with 0.2 M NaOH for 10 min at 37 $^{\circ}$ C. Thirty microliters of freshly prepared 10 mM hydroquinone (Sigma) and 520 μ L of 3 M sodium bisulfite (Sigma), pH 5.0 were added and mixed. The samples were overlaid with mineral oil to prevent evaporation and incubated at 50 $^{\circ}$ C for 16 h. The bisulfite-treated DNA was isolated by using the Wizard DNA Clean-Up System (Promega). The DNA was eluted by 50 μ L of warm water, and 5.5 μ L of 3 M NaOH was added for 5 min. The DNA was ethanol-precipitated with glycogen as a carrier and resuspended in 20 μ L of water. A 50- μ L PCR was carried by using specific PCR primer (forward 1, 5'-atttagtggaatagatagtgtagtttt-3' and reverse 1, 5'-ctacaactccaaaacccataactaac-3') as described (40). A seminested PCR was then performed by using primers forward 2, 5'-gatttagtaatttaggttagaggg-3' and reverse, 1 5'-ctacaactccaaaacccataactaac-3' as described (40). The final PCR products were purified and cloned with the TOPO-TA cloning kit (Stratagene) per the manufacturer's protocol. Minipreps were prepared with a QIAprep Spin Miniprep Kit (Qiagen) and sequenced.

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