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Extranuclear Signaling by Estrogen: Role in Breast Cancer Progression and Metastasis

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Abstract

The estrogen receptor (ER α) is implicated in the progression of breast cancer. Hormonal therapies which block ER functions or local and systemic estrogen production are currently used to treat ER α positive breast cancer. Hormonal therapy shows beneficial effects, however, initial or acquired resistance to endocrine therapies frequently occurs, and tumors recur as metastasis. Emerging evidence suggests in addition to exerting its well-studied nuclear functions, ER α also participates in extranuclear signaling that involve growth factor signaling components, adaptor molecules and stimulation of cytosolic kinases. ER α extranuclear pathways have the potential to activate gene transcription, modulate cytoskeleton, and promote tumor cell proliferation, survival, and metastasis. Cytoplasmic/membrane ER α is detected in a subset of breast tumors and expression of extranuclear components ER α is deregulated in tumors. The extranuclear actions of ER are emerging as important targets for tumorigenic and metastatic control. Inhibition of ER α extranuclear actions has the potential to prevent breast tumor progression and may be useful in preventing ER α positive metastasis. In this review, we summarize the results of recent research into the role of ER α mediated extranuclear actions in breast tumorigenesis and metastasis.

Introduction

Estrogens regulate the expression and activity of key signaling molecules critical in various cellular signaling pathways. The biological effects of estrogen are mediated by its binding to structurally and functionally distinct estrogen receptors, alpha and beta (ER α and ER β)¹. ER functions as a ligand-activated transcription factor, providing a direct link between intra- and extracellular signaling molecules resulting in the regulation of numerous critical cellular processes including growth, development, differentiation and maintenance within a diverse range of mammalian tissues.

ERs consist of a N-terminal region (A/B domain) containing a constitutively active ligand-independent transactivation (AF1) domain whose activity is regulated by phosphorylation via activation of signaling kinases, DNA-binding domain (C domain) responsible for DNA-binding specificity and ER dimerization, and a C-terminal ligand-dependent transactivation (AF2) binding region². Ligand binding to ER results in a conformational change regulating the receptor activity, DNA-binding and interactions with other proteins. The ligand-

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activated ER functions as a transcription factor, translocates to the nucleus, binds to estrogen responsive element (ERE) within target gene promoters, and stimulates gene transcription (extranuclear/nuclear signaling)^{3, 4}. Estrogens play an important role in mammary gland development and in the initiation and progression of breast cancer. ER α is the major ER subtype in the mammary epithelium and its importance in mammary gland biology and development has been confirmed in ER α (*Esr1*) knockout mice, which display grossly impaired ductal epithelial cell proliferation and branching^{5, 6}.

Emerging evidence suggests that ER signaling is complex, involves cofactors, genomic actions, as well as extranuclear (cytoplasmic and membrane-mediated) actions⁷⁻¹⁰. Because of the nature and depth of the information available on estrogen mediated extranuclear actions in different cell types, only representative studies that involve ER α actions in breast cancer cells are included in this review. Here, we focus on summarizing the emerging key evidence for ER α extranuclear signaling in breast cancer progression and discuss the possibility of the targeting ER α extranuclear actions as an additional possible therapeutic target for preventing local and distant progression of estrogen-dependent breast cancer.

Molecular mechanisms of ER extranuclear signaling

Kinase cascades

Emerging evidence suggests that ER α participates in extranuclear signaling via formation of a multiprotein complex collectively called a “*signalsome*”¹¹. Even though the complete repertoire of proteins present in the signalosome are not known, evidence suggests that ER α extranuclear signaling utilizes multiple cytosolic kinases. ER α -extranuclear signaling has been linked to rapid responses to E2 through stimulation of the Src kinase, mitogen-activated protein kinase (MAPK), protein kinase B (AKT), phosphatidylinositol-3-kinase (PI3K), PKA and PKC pathways in the cytosol^{12, 13}. The proto-oncogene c-Src is a multifunctional intracellular tyrosine kinase implicated in the regulation of a variety of processes including proliferation, differentiation, survival, and motility¹⁴. Src interacts with ER α and is overexpressed in breast tumors¹⁵. ER α extranuclear actions also involve PKA signaling pathways and functional PKA signaling is needed for optimal activation of MAPK by E2¹⁶. Further, E2-induced MAPK activation is shown to be mediated by PKC-delta/Ras pathway, that could be crucial for E2-dependent growth-promoting effects in the early stages of tumor progression¹⁷. Integrin linked kinase (ILK1) is another ER α interacting kinase; estrogen treatment enhances ILK activity and regulation of ER-ILK1 interaction is dependent on the PI3K pathway¹⁸.

Growth factor signaling

Growth factor receptors EGFR, ErbB2 and IGFR tether ER α to the plasma membrane and are involved in E2 biological actions by interacting with ER signalosome¹⁹. Growth factors promote the formation of a multi-protein complex leading to the initiation of MAPK and PI3K signaling pathways in breast cancer cells²⁰. Activation of the PI3K-AKT pathway has been shown to be an essential step in the estrogenic action of growth factors²¹. Signal transducer and activator of transcription (STAT) family of transcription factors play an important role in oncogenesis and signaling crosstalk occurs between ER α , c-Src, EGFR, and STAT5 in ER α positive breast cancer cells and STAT5 plays an integral role in E2-stimulated proliferation²². ER α also interacts with STAT3 and cross-talk between ER α and STAT3 play an important role in leptin-induced STAT3 activation²³. The ILK1 axis is the major signaling node linking integrins and growth factor signaling to a variety of cellular responses regulated by estrogens. ER α interacts with ILK1 enzyme²⁴ and ILK1 was identified as a novel interacting protein of ER α -coregulator PELP1²⁵ and ILK functions as

a downstream effector of ER α extranuclear signaling, leading to cytoskeleton reorganization.

ER α modifications

ER α undergoes several post-translational modifications including methylation, acetylation, phosphorylation, palmitoylation and S-nitrosylation affecting receptor subcellular localization, stability and ER extranuclear actions. Protein arginine N-methyltransferase 1 (PRMT1) transiently methylates arginine 260 located in the DNA-binding domain of ER α facilitating the interaction of ER α with p85 subunit of PI3K and Src, resulting in ER α extranuclear actions both in normal and malignant epithelial breast cells²⁶. S-Palmitoylation, a reversible addition of palmitate on non-N-terminal Cys residues is catalyzed by palmitoyl acyl transferase (PAT), facilitates ER α localization to the plasma membrane. Thus enhancing the ER α interaction with adaptor proteins and kinases and activation of the AKT and MAPK pathways²⁷. ER α and its coregulator's phosphorylation occurs on tyrosine and serine/threonine residues and such phosphorylation facilitating ER α extranuclear action leading to activation of the AKT pathway²⁸. mTor and MAPK contribute to ER α activation via Serine 167 phosphorylation which has been associated with the development of therapeutic resistance.²⁹ Serine305 phosphorylation of ER by protein kinase A associates with tamoxifen sensitivity³⁰. Nitroxide (NO) can modify ER α via S-nitrosylation at cysteine residue resulting in selective inhibition of DNA-binding of ER α to ERE within target gene promoters. Suggesting, the interaction between NO and ER α favors activation of extranuclear actions and signaling pathways of ER α ³¹. ER α forms a complex with histone deacetylase (HDAC) 6 and tubulin at the plasma membrane in ligand dependent manner and promotes rapid deacetylation of tubulin of breast cancer cells. Estrogen-dependent tubulin deacetylation is another mechanism of ER extranuclear actions, and may potentially contribute to the aggressiveness of ER α -positive breast cancer cells³².

Adaptor molecules

Estrogen is shown to utilize several adaptor molecules to couple ER α with the growth factor signaling axis. Hormonal signaling promotes association of ER α with adaptor protein Shc, which couples additional needed signaling molecules such as Src and growth factor receptors¹⁹. Cytoskeletal associate protein p130Cas, another adaptor protein that associates with ER α signalosome, in a hormonal dependent manner. Over-expression of p130Cas increases estrogen mediated c-Src and MAPK activities³³. Recent studies identified ER α coregulator PELP1, a scaffolding protein coupling ER α with Src kinase leading to activation of the cytosolic kinase pathways including MAPK and AKT. While all the components of the ER α signalosome have yet to be identified, emerging studies suggest that ER α , PELP1 and Src kinase represent key components that facilitating ER α extranuclear signaling³⁴. Using transgenic mouse model that uniquely express PELP1 in the cytoplasm (MMTV_PELP1cyto mice), it was demonstrated that cytoplasmic localization of ER α coregulator has potential to enhance ER α extranuclear signaling³⁵. Metastatic tumor antigen 1 (MTA1), an ER coregulator protein and the naturally occurring short form of MTA1 (MTAx) is reported to localize in the cytoplasm, sequesters ER α in the cytoplasm, and thus enhance ER extranuclear responses³⁶.

Biological functions of ER extranuclear actions

ER α extranuclear actions in gene transcription

Several elegant studies investigated the impact of estrogen mediated extranuclear initiated pathways on global gene expression by using estrogen-dendrimer conjugates (EDCs)³⁷⁻⁴⁰. EDCs are nanoparticles, coated with estradiol (E₂) through a 17 α -phenylethynyl unit, have a binding affinity similar to estrogen, uniquely localize in the membrane/cytoplasm, and

preferably activate ER α extranuclear signaling^{41, 42}. Genome-wide cDNA microarray analysis revealed approximately 25% E2 target genes as EDC responsive. These studies using various assays and pharmacological inhibitors demonstrated that extranuclear signaling cascades have the potential to elicit gene stimulation³⁹. Aromatase plays a critical role in breast cancer development by converting androgen to estrogen. Estrogen induces aromatase expression without direct binding of ER α to the aromatase promoter and E2 induction could be suppressed by the MAPK inhibitor or growth factor signaling inhibitor. The results from this study suggested that E2 up-regulates aromatase expression by ER α extranuclear actions via crosstalk with growth factor-mediated pathways⁴³. Estrogen mediated extranuclear actions also promote phosphorylation of several key ER α transcriptional coregulators such as SRC3 and PELP1, thus enhancing their recruitment to target gene promoters and such actions implicate that ER extranuclear signaling may have downstream genomic roles via coactivator signaling^{44, 45}. Estrogen induced transactivation of a STAT-regulated promoter requires MAPK, Src, and PI3K activity. These results implicate ER mediated extranuclear actions in nuclear transcriptional activation of STAT target genes⁴⁶. E2 induces rapid nuclear translocation of MAPK together with cAMP response element binding protein leading to transcriptional activation of gene responsive to cAMP response element binding protein⁴⁷. Estrogen mediated extranuclear actions crosstalk with prolactin signaling results in enhanced activity of activating protein 1 and induction of c-fos gene in breast cancer cells⁴⁸. Collectively, evolving evidence implicates that inputs from ER α extranuclear pathways in regulating the gene expression of breast cancer cells.

ER extranuclear actions in cytoskeletal remodeling and metastasis

Clinically, estrogen has long been recognized to enhance the development and progression of ER α positive breast cancers. Several studies report a positive effect of ER α signaling on motility^{49, 50} as many metastatic tumors retain ER α ⁵¹; >80% of lymph node metastases and 65–70% of distant metastases maintain ER α expression^{52, 53}. A correlation between ER α -positive tumors and development of bone metastasis has been observed clinically^{54, 55}. Similarly, ER α -mediated signaling enhances lung metastasis by promoting host-compartment response⁵⁶. Metastases spawned by malignant tumors that have acquired increased invasiveness are responsible for almost all breast cancer-related morbidity and mortality. Cancer cell metastasis is a multi-stage process involving invasion into surrounding tissue, intravasation, transit in the blood or lymph, extravasation, and growth at a new site; many of these steps require cell motility. This invasive phenotype, characterized by both the loss of cell-cell interactions and increased cellular motility, is driven by cycles of actin polymerization, cell adhesion and acto-myosin contraction.

Tumor cell motility is an essential step in metastasis allowing cancer cells to spread through tissues and migrate to distant organs. Endocrine therapy has also been shown to have a positive effect on the treatment of advanced metastatic disease⁵⁷. Recent mechanistic studies have increased our understanding and highlight a role of estrogen-induced rapid ER extra-nuclear signaling in facilitating the metastatic process in breast cancer patients and may provide new targets for therapeutic interventions. ER α activation, by estrogen, induces key features of motile cells including rapid cytoskeletal reorganization and the development of specialized structures. Estrogen triggers rapid and dynamic actin cytoskeleton remodeling leading to increased breast cancer cell horizontal migration and invasion of three-dimensional matrices via the G α_{13} /RhoA/ROCK/moesin cascade⁵⁸. Estrogen-induced effects depend on the rapid recruitment and activation of the actin-binding protein, moesin, and the interaction of ER α with the G protein G α_{13} , which results in the recruitment of the small GTPase RhoA, subsequent activation of its downstream effector Rho-associated kinase-2 (ROCK-2) and moesin phosphorylation⁵⁸.

Recent studies also showed that estrogen-mediated extranuclear signaling promotes formation of signaling complexes containing PELP1, ER α , Src, and ILK1; signaling from this axis plays important roles in promoting cytoskeletal rearrangements, motility and metastasis²⁵. Extranuclear actions of estrogen facilitate the activation of ILK via the PI3K pathway and inhibition of ILK functions significantly affected the estrogen-mediated migratory potential of breast cancer cells. The proposed signaling pathway, ER α \rightarrow PELP1 \rightarrow PI3K \rightarrow ILK \rightarrow CDC42, contributes to estrogen-mediated cytoskeleton rearrangements²⁵. Emerging data regarding the impact of extranuclear signaling of estrogen on cytoskeletal organization suggests, ER-mediated control over cellular movement and invasion related to the catastrophic metastatic events in patients. Collectively, these results may in part explain carcinogenic actions and enhanced metastatic behavior of estrogen-dependent, ER-positive breast cancer seen clinically.

ER α extranuclear actions in cell survival and proliferation

The use of novel ligands with the ability to uniquely activate extranuclear signals demonstrated the distinct biological outcomes of the extranuclear pathway⁴². Estrogen-dendrimer conjugate (EDC) which are excluded from the nucleus, verified ER α mediated extranuclear actions stimulates endothelial cell proliferation and migration via ER α direct interaction with G α i and endothelial NOS (eNOS) activation⁵⁹. Estrogen promotes ternary complex formation of ER with Src- and PI3K and the resulting pathways converge on cell cycle progression leading to estrogen induced S-phase entry²⁵. Estrogen triggers cellular proliferation and survival through the activation of MAPK and AKT pathways respectively. Estrogen stimulation of cyclin D1 gene through ERK or PI3K activation promotes G1/S cell cycle progression in breast cancer cells⁶⁰. Estrogen-induced growth of breast and lung cancer cells *in vitro* correlated closely with acute hormonal activation of MAPK signaling⁶¹. Ligand stimulation causes ER α to dissociate from caveolin-1 allowing the activation of signals to promote cellular proliferation⁶²⁻⁶⁴. A recent study demonstrated that ER α promotes transcription of Bcl-2 via PI3K-AKT crosstalk leading to enhanced cell survival⁶⁵.

Significance of ER extranuclear signaling axis in breast cancer progression

Although much is known about ER α genomic actions, the pathobiology of ER extranuclear actions remains unknown. Some evidence suggests that the extranuclear effects of estrogen can regulate different cellular processes, such as proliferation, survival, apoptosis and differentiation functions in diverse cell-types, including breast cancer cells⁶⁶. *In situ* estrogen production by aromatase conversion from androgens plays an important role in breast tumor progression. ER α mediated extranuclear signaling enhances aromatase enzymatic activity via activation of the Src enzyme. These results suggested a possible autocrine loop between E₂ and aromatase activity in breast cancer cells and implicate ER α actions in tumor progression⁶⁷. Molecular adaptors such as PELP1 which couple ER α to cytosolic signaling axis may play a role in breast tumorigenesis via activation of ER α extranuclear signaling pathways⁶⁸. Since breast tumors overexpress Src kinase, deregulation of PELP1 seen in breast tumors can contribute to activation of Src, leading to the progression to metastasis. ER α coregulator PELP1 acts as a scaffolding protein coupling the ER α with Src kinase leading to activation of the ER-Src-MAPK pathway⁶⁹. Extranuclear expression of ER/PR occurs frequently in ER α -positive/PR-negative and ER-negative/PR-positive tumors, and in these cases evidence implicates nuclear receptor crosstalk with the PI3K/AKT signaling pathway whose activation by ErbB2 overexpression contributes to the growth of some breast cancers⁷⁰. Dysregulation of ErbB2 in breast cancer cells enhances the expression of MTA1s, promotes the cytoplasmic sequestration of ER α and stimulates malignant phenotypes. These study findings implicate that the regulation of the cellular localization of ER α by MTA1s represents a mechanism for enhancing ER α

extranuclear actions by nuclear exclusion³⁶. Methylated ER α is only present in the cytoplasm and arginine methylation is reversed by the demethylase JMJD6, suggesting deregulation of arginine methylation and demethylation will have consequences in activation of ER α extranuclear actions. In addition, arginine methylation also regulates the balance between coactivator complex assembly and disassembly. Since methylation enzymes such PRMT1 and CARM1 are dysregulated in estrogen-dependent cancers, they are implicated in promoting ER extranuclear signaling⁷¹.

ER α extranuclear actions and hormonal therapy resistance

ER α crosstalk with growth factor signaling play an important role in enhancing ER extranuclear signaling. ErbB2 is an oncogene that has been shown to be over expressed, amplified, or both, in breast tumors. ER expression occurs in ~50% ErbB2 positive breast cancers and crosstalk between the ER α and ErbB2 pathways promotes endocrine therapy resistance^{72,73}. ER α -coregulator PELP1 plays an essential role in ER α extranuclear actions by coupling ER α with Src and PI3K pathways^{69,74}. PELP1 interacts with growth factor signaling components and participates in ligand independent activation of ER α ^{75,76}. In our previous studies, we found that in a subset of breast tumors PELP1 is predominantly localized in the cytoplasm, breast cancer model cells mimicking PELP1 cytoplasmic expression showed resistance to tamoxifen via excessive activation of c-Src signaling axis⁴⁵. ER α extranuclear pathways have been shown to modify ER α or its coactivators by phosphorylation, resulting in the altered topology of ER α and its coregulator proteins and eventually leading to ligand-independent activation or differential responses to selective estrogen receptor modulators (9, 12). Forced expression of constitutively active AKT in MCF-7 cells promotes estrogen-independent growth as well as tamoxifen response⁷⁷. Overexpression of the ER α coactivator SRC3 promoted high tumor incidence, which is associated with the activation of the PI3K-AKT pathway⁷⁸. Extranuclear expression of ER α -coregulators such as PELP1 correlates with increases in extranuclear signaling and has the potential to be used as a determinant of hormone sensitivity or vulnerability³⁵. Recent findings suggest that ILK1 interacts with PELP1²⁵ and that such interactions enhance ILK1-kinase activity. Since PELP1 expression is commonly deregulated in many hormone-responsive tissues⁷⁹, the PELP1-ILK1 interaction is likely to have significant implications in tumor cell survival and therapy resistance. In cells developing resistance to estrogen deprivation by anti-estrogens/aromatase inhibitors, an increased association of ER α with c-Src and EGFR occurs. Further, these conditions promote translocation of ER α out of the nucleus and into the cytoplasm and cell membrane. This study suggested that secondary resistance to hormonal therapy results in usage of both IGFR and EGFR for ER α extranuclear signaling⁸⁰.

Therapeutic potential of targeting ER extranuclear actions

ER α extranuclear pathways promote hormone-mediated proliferation and survival of breast tumors making them a promising target for anti-tumor therapy via the combination of anti-estrogens and ER extranuclear signaling blockers⁶¹. ER α extranuclear actions involve kinase cascades and post-translational modifications which can be reversed by pharmacological inhibitors currently in clinical trials. Inhibitors of EGFR, ERBB2, MAPK and AKT pathways could be used to block ER extranuclear signaling in ER α positive tumors that exhibit deregulation of these pathways^{72,81}. Pharmacological inhibition of Src using dasatinib inhibits estrogen-mediated extranuclear actions and reduces estrogen-mediated migratory potential suggestive of the therapeutic value of dasatinib in blocking ER-positive metastases²⁵. ER extranuclear signaling utilizes the ILK axis and ILK inhibitor (QLT-0267) in combination with docetaxel exhibited synergistic effects on reducing the viability of breast cancer cells⁸². ILK inhibitors also have the potential to down regulate the ILK-mediated EMT phenotype and tumorigenesis. ER extranuclear actions mediate

activation of STAT3/5, and ER α -STAT crosstalk is implicated in breast tumorigenesis and therapy resistance⁴⁶. STAT inhibitors currently in clinical trials could be used to block ER extranuclear actions. Since arginine methylation is involved in ER α extranuclear signaling, this modification is a possible therapeutic target by using guanidine nitrogen-substituted peptides or the thioglycolic amide, RM65^{83, 84}. As both ER α genomic and extranuclear signaling are involved in breast tumorigenesis and therapy resistance, a therapeutic approach to inhibit ER extranuclear actions along with current endocrine therapies could have better therapeutic efficacy and delay the on-set of hormonal resistance in advanced breast tumors.

Conclusions/significance

Emerging evidence suggests, in addition to genomic functions, ER participates in extranuclear rapid signaling via the formation of signaling complexes in the cytoplasm with both physiological and pathological consequences. The ability of ER α to participate in extranuclear actions, cytoplasmic localization of ER α and ER α co-activators in breast tumors and ER α -growth factor signaling crosstalk, strongly suggests that ER α extranuclear actions play a key role in breast tumor pathogenesis and development of therapy resistance. Future studies identifying molecular mechanisms of ER α extranuclear signaling and components of the signalosome contributing to ER α extranuclear signaling as well as to examining the prognostic/diagnostic significance of ER α extranuclear signaling using a larger tumor sample size are warranted. Further, elucidation of the normal and pathological roles of ER α extranuclear signaling will have important implications for breast cancer treatment and in the development of next generation estrogen receptor modulators.

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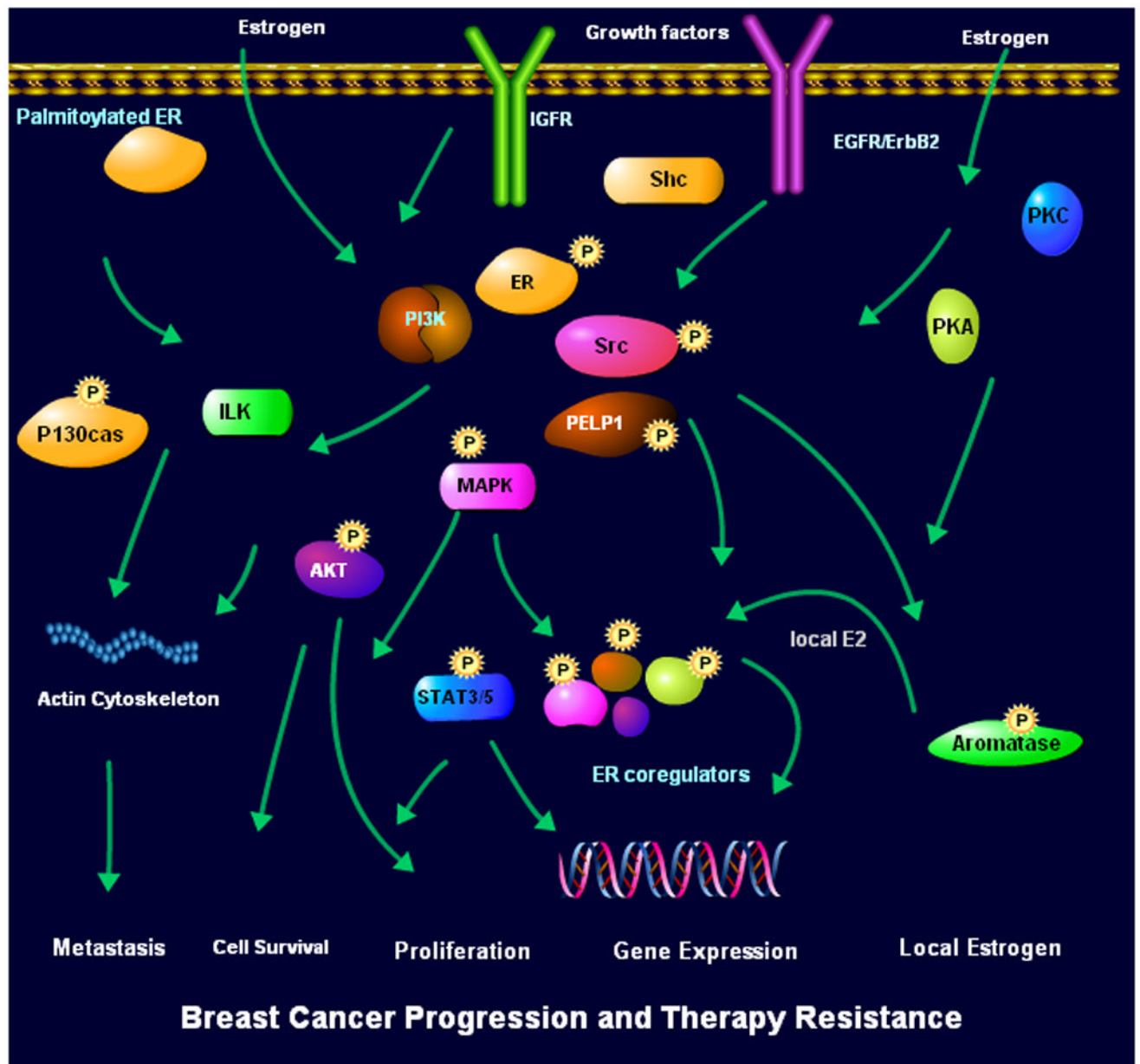


Figure 1. Schematic representation of the current understanding of ER extranuclear signaling. Estrogen and growth factors promote ER complex formation with growth factors signaling components and cytosolic kinases that lead to activation of a number of pathways including MAPK, PI3K and AKT. Extranuclear pathways influence several biological functions including cell survival, proliferation and motility. Deregulation of ER extranuclear signaling will have implications in tumor cell metastasis and tumor progression.