

# 4-Hydroxytamoxifen binds to and deactivates the estrogen-related receptor $\gamma$

Peter Coward\*, Doris Lee, Mitchell V. Hull, and Jürgen M. Lehmann

Tularik, Inc., 2 Corporate Drive, South San Francisco, CA 94080

Communicated by David V. Goeddel, Tularik, Inc., South San Francisco, CA, May 16, 2001 (received for review March 2, 2001)

The estrogen-related receptors (ERR $\alpha$ , ERR $\beta$ , and ERR $\gamma$ ) form a family of orphan nuclear receptors that share significant amino acid identity with the estrogen receptors, but for which physiologic roles remain largely unknown. By using a peptide sensor assay, we have identified the stilbenes diethylstilbestrol (DES), tamoxifen (TAM), and 4-hydroxytamoxifen (4-OHT) as high-affinity ligands for ERR $\gamma$ . In direct binding assays, 4-OHT had a  $K_d$  value of 35 nM, and both DES and TAM displaced radiolabeled 4-OHT with  $K_i$  values of 870 nM. In cell-based assays, 4-OHT binding caused a dissociation of the complex between ERR $\gamma$  and the steroid receptor coactivator-1, and led to an inhibition of the constitutive transcriptional activity of ERR $\gamma$ . ERR $\alpha$  did not bind 4-OHT, but replacing a single amino acid predicted to be in the ERR $\alpha$  ligand-binding pocket with the corresponding ERR $\gamma$  residue allowed high-affinity 4-OHT binding. These results demonstrate the existence of high-affinity ligands for the ERR family of orphan receptors, and identify 4-OHT as a molecule that can regulate the transcriptional activity of ERR $\gamma$ .

Nuclear receptors are ligand-activated transcription factors that play critical roles in many aspects of development and adult physiology. Common structural features of nuclear receptors include a central, highly conserved DNA-binding domain (DBD) and a carboxyl-terminal ligand-binding domain (LBD) that contains both a hydrophobic ligand-binding pocket and a transcriptional activation function known as AF-2. Ligand binding induces a conformational change in the LBD, which, in turn, allows the binding of coactivator proteins (1). The binding of coactivators depends on the presence of a short leucine-rich domain with the consensus sequence motif LXXLL (2). Indeed, peptides that contain the LXXLL motif and are as short as eight amino acids can bind to nuclear receptors in a ligand-dependent fashion (3). Many issues concerning the formation and function of nuclear receptor-coactivator complexes remain unresolved, but one emerging theme is that coactivator recruitment brings histone acetyltransferase activity to the transcription complex (4). This activity presumably alters chromatin structure and allows for efficient expression of target genes.

The same general concepts of ligand activation and coactivator interaction apply not only to the classical nuclear receptors but also to a growing list of orphan receptors for which natural or synthetic ligands have recently been identified. This list includes the peroxisome proliferator-activated receptors, the liver X receptors, and the farnesoid X receptor, which activate transcription in response to binding fatty acids (5), oxysterols (6, 7), and bile acids (3, 8), respectively. In addition, two other orphan nuclear receptors, the constitutive androstane receptor and the pregnane X receptor, have been shown to regulate the expression of cytochrome-P450 genes in response to a variety of ligands, including the planar hydrocarbon 1,4-bis[2-(3,5-dichloropyridyloxy)]benzene (TCPOBOP), the antimycotic clotrimazole, and the steroid 5 $\beta$ -pregnane-3,20-dione (9, 10).

In contrast, the estrogen-related receptors (ERR $\alpha$ , ERR $\beta$ , and ERR $\gamma$ ) are orphan nuclear receptors for which natural ligands have yet to be identified. These receptors were initially identified because of their high degree of DNA sequence homology to the estrogen receptor (ER) (11), and each of the

three subtypes shows a considerable level of amino acid sequence identity with ER in both the DBD and LBD (11–13). Although the ERRs do not directly respond to  $\beta$ -estradiol (11, 12, 14), they can bind to functional estrogen response elements (EREs) in ER target genes such as lactoferrin (15) and aromatase (16), suggesting a possible overlap between ERR and ER biology. Although natural ligands have not yet been described for the ERRs, two lines of evidence suggest that these receptors may be hormone-regulated. First, Vanacker and colleagues (17) have observed that fetal calf serum contains a factor or factors that can stimulate ERR $\alpha$  basal activity by 12-fold, and second, Yang and Chen (18) have reported that micromolar concentrations of the pesticides toxaphene and chlordane decrease ERR $\alpha$  basal activity.

To facilitate the discovery of ERR ligands, we have adopted a well-established fluorescence resonance energy transfer (FRET) assay (19) to measure changes in the interaction between the ERR LBD and coactivator peptides in response to ligand binding. By using this assay, we determined that the estrogen diethylstilbestrol (DES) and the antiestrogens tamoxifen (TAM) and 4-hydroxytamoxifen (4-OHT) bind to ERR $\gamma$  with submicromolar affinities. In contrast, DES showed only low-affinity binding to ERR $\alpha$ , whereas TAM and 4-OHT showed no measurable binding. These results were further confirmed in a direct binding assay that uses [<sup>3</sup>H]4-OHT as the radioligand. Consistent with the biochemical assay results, 4-OHT repressed transactivation mediated by ERR $\gamma$ , but not ERR $\alpha$  or ERR $\beta$ . Changing a single amino acid in the ERR $\alpha$  ligand-binding pocket to the corresponding ERR $\gamma$  residue conferred binding of ERR $\gamma$  ligands to the mutant ERR $\alpha$ . These results demonstrate that 4-OHT can bind to and deactivate ERR $\gamma$ .

## Materials and Methods

**Constructs.** Full-length ERR $\alpha$  was amplified from a human kidney cDNA library by PCR using primers opc21 (5'-TTGAATTCGCCATGTCCAGCCAGGTGGTGGGC-3') and ERR $\alpha$ REV (5'-GCCGGATCCTCAGTCCATCATGGCCTC-GAG-3'). Full-length ERR $\beta$  was amplified from a human kidney cDNA library by using nested PCR and primers opc26 (5'-GAGGGCTGCTGAACAGGATGTC-3') and opc23 (5'-GGCTCGAGCTAAGCTGCTCTTGCCAACCTGC-3') for the first reaction, and primers opc22 (5'-TTGAATTCGCCAT-GTCCTCGGACGACAGGCACCTG-3') and opc23 in the second reaction. Full-length ERR $\gamma$  was amplified from a human heart cDNA library by using primers opc6 (5'-TTGAATTCGC-CATGTCAAACAAGATCGACACATT-3') and opc8 (5'-GGCTCGAGTTAGCAGACCTTGGCCTCCAACAT-3'). All full-length cDNAs were cloned into pcDNA3 (Invitrogen). For glutathione S-transferase (GST) fusion protein production,

Abbreviations: ERR, estrogen-related receptor; DES, diethylstilbestrol; TAM, tamoxifen; 4-OHT, 4-hydroxytamoxifen; SRC-1, steroid receptor coactivator-1; LBD, ligand-binding domain; ER, estrogen receptor; FRET, fluorescence resonance energy transfer; ERE, estrogen response element; GST, glutathione S-transferase.

\*To whom reprint requests should be addressed. E-mail: pcoward@tularik.com.

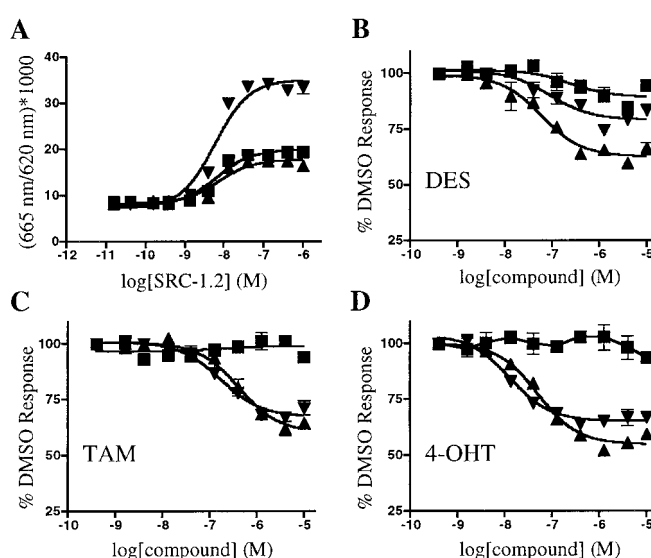
The publication costs of this article were defrayed in part by page charge payment. This article must therefore be hereby marked "advertisement" in accordance with 18 U.S.C. §1734 solely to indicate this fact.

each LBD was amplified and cloned into pGEX4T-1 (Amersham Pharmacia). The primers used were: ERRC (5'-TATG-AGCCGGGAAGCAGCAGCCTCGAGGCCATGATGG-ACTAAA-3') and ERRAREV for ERR $\alpha$ , opc30 (5'-CCATATGCTGAGCTTACAAATTTCTCCACC-3') and opc37 (5'-TTCTCGAGCTAGGCCTTGGCCTCCAGCA-TCTC-3') for ERR $\beta$ , and opc34 (5'-TTCATATGCTGAAC-CCTCAGCTGGTTCAGCCA-3') and opc8 for ERR $\gamma$ . In the case of ERR $\beta$ , the F domain was eliminated to achieve better recombinant protein expression. For mammalian two-hybrid experiments, each LBD was amplified and cloned downstream of the herpesvirus VP16 transactivation domain. The primers used were: ERA241 (5'-GCCGGATCCATGCTCAAGGAGG-GAGTGC GC-3') and ERRAREV for ERR $\alpha$ , opc29 (5'-GGGATCCATGCTGAAGGAAGGTGTGCGCC-3') and opc23 for ERR $\beta$  (includes the F domain), and opc28 (5'-GGGATTCATGCTGAAAGAAGGGGTGCGTC-3') and opc8 for ERR $\gamma$ . To generate the 3 $\times$  ERE-luciferase construct, oligonucleotides opc31 (5'-GATCTAGGTCACAGTGACCT-GCG-3'), and opc32 (5'-GATCCGCAGGTCAGTGTGAC-CTA-3') were annealed, ligated, and digested with *Bam*HI, and then ligated into *Bgl*II-digested pGL3TK-Luc. Sequencing confirmed the presence of three copies of the ERE. The ERR $\alpha$ F232A mutant was generated from pGST-ERR $\alpha$  by using the Quickchange mutagenesis kit (Stratagene) and primers opc64 (5'-GGCTACCCTCTGTGACCTCGCTGACCGA-GAGATTGTGGTC-3') and opc65 (5'-GACCACAAT-CTCTCGGTCAGCGAGGTCACAGAGGGTAGCC-3'). The sequences of all PCR products were verified before use.

**FRET Assays.** Reactions contained europium-labeled anti-GST antibody and streptavidin-conjugated allophycocyanin (both from Perkin-Elmer), ERR GST-LBD fusion proteins (2 nM), and biotinylated SRC1.2 sensor peptide. The sequence of SRC-1.2 is SLTERHKILHRLLOEGSPSDI. Reactions were incubated at room temperature for 1 h in FRET buffer (10 mM Hepes, pH 7.9/150 mM NaCl/2 mM MgCl<sub>2</sub>/1 mM EDTA/0.1 mg/ml BSA). FRET was measured on a Victor 1420 multilabel counter (Wallac, Gaithersburg, MD).

**Radioligand Binding Assays.** Binding assays were performed in the presence of 0.1 mg per well glutathione-coated scintillation proximity assay (SPA) beads (Amersham Pharmacia) and 1  $\mu$ g per well GST-ERR $\gamma$  or GST-ERR $\alpha$ F232A LBD in SPA buffer [10 mM Hepes (pH 7.5)/50 mM NaCl/2 mM MgCl<sub>2</sub>/1 mM EDTA/2 mM CHAPS/0.1 mg/ml BSA/1 mM DTT]. For competition binding assays, [<sup>3</sup>H]4-OHT (70 Ci/mmol, Amersham Pharmacia; 1 Ci = 37 GBq) was diluted in SPA buffer and added to the wells at a final concentration of 1 nM. Reactions were incubated for 3 h at room temperature and measured on a Packard Topcount. Saturation binding experiments were performed in the presence or absence of 30  $\mu$ M unlabeled 4-OHT.

**Reporter Gene Assays.** All transfection experiments were performed in CV-1 cells in 24 well plates, by using Lipofectamine (Life Technologies, Rockville, MD) according to the manufacturer's protocol. In each case, 500 ng of DNA and 5  $\mu$ l of Lipofectamine were used per well, and pCMV $\beta$ Gal (CLONTECH) was included as a control for transfection efficiency. The total amount of DNA added was kept constant by adding the appropriate amount of pBluescript (Stratagene) to the transfection reaction. For mammalian two-hybrid experiments, 100 ng ERR LBD-VP16 construct, 10 ng of GAL4 DBD-SRC fusion construct, 100 ng of pG5-Luc (3), and 50 ng of pCMV $\beta$ gal were added per well. For transfections with full-length receptors, 50 ng of receptor, 100 ng of 3 $\times$  ERE, and 50 ng of pCMV $\beta$ gal were added to each well. Cells were transfected for 5 to 16 h. Compound treatment lasted for 20 h.

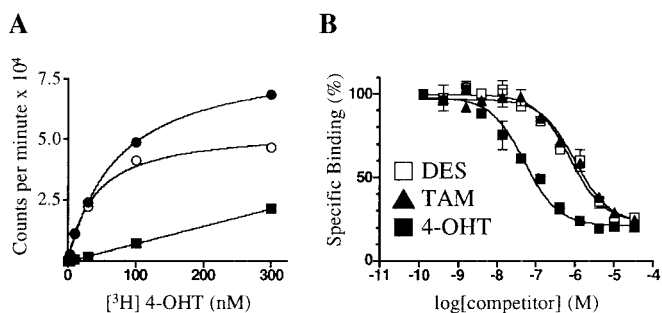


**Fig. 1.** Development of a FRET assay for ERR family members. (A) Coactivator peptide interacts with ERR LBDs in the FRET assay. SRC-1.2 peptide shows a dose-dependent, constitutive interaction with ERR $\alpha$  (■), ERR $\beta$  (▲), and ERR $\gamma$  (▼) LBDs. (B–D) DES, TAM, and 4-OHT disrupt the interaction between SRC-1.2 and ERR LBDs in the FRET assay. Various concentrations of DES (B), TAM (C), or 4-OHT (D) were added to 2 nM of ERR $\alpha$  (■), ERR $\beta$  (▲), and ERR $\gamma$  (▼) and 300 nM SRC-1.2. EC<sub>50</sub> values for each compound are listed in the text. For each panel, the data are from a single experiment performed in duplicate. At least two additional experiments gave similar results.

## Results and Discussion

In an effort to identify ERR ligands, we adopted a biochemical FRET assay used by others to characterize nuclear receptor-ligand interactions (3, 8, 19). GST ERR-LBD fusion proteins were labeled with anti-GST antibody coupled to europium chelate and incubated with allophycocyanin coupled to streptavidin and biotinylated peptides of 23 amino acids containing an LXXLL motif. An optimal signal was obtained with a peptide that matched the sequence of the second nuclear receptor-box of the steroid receptor coactivator-1 (SRC-1), and this peptide, SRC-1.2, was used in all subsequent FRET experiments. Consistent with previous findings (13, 20), all three ERR LBDs interacted constitutively with the SRC-1.2 peptide, although ERR $\gamma$  showed a higher level of FRET than ERR $\alpha$  or ERR $\beta$  (Fig. 1A). In comparison, significant interaction between the ER LBD and the SRC-1.2 peptide was seen only in the presence of  $\beta$ -estradiol (data not shown). Dose–response analysis showed that the SRC-1.2 peptide bound to all three ERR LBDs with similar EC<sub>50</sub> values of  $\approx$ 10 nM. None of the receptors interacted with SRC-1.2m, a mutant peptide where the sequence LHRLL had been changed to LHRAA (data not shown).

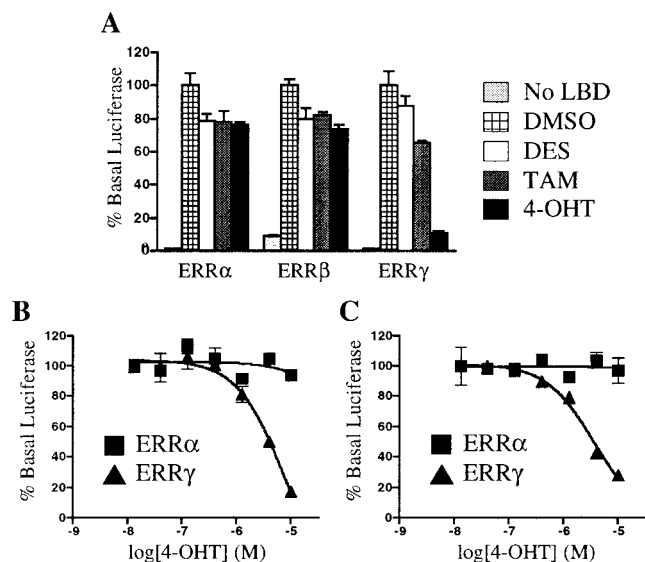
By using the ERR $\gamma$  LBD fusion protein and 300 nM SRC-1.2 peptide (an amount that produced maximal interaction with the unliganded receptor; see Fig. 1A), we screened a large panel of known nuclear receptor ligands and structurally related compounds at a concentration of 10  $\mu$ M. We found that DES, TAM, and 4-OHT disrupted the ERR $\gamma$ –SRC-1.2 interaction, whereas none of the other compounds, including glucocorticoids, retinoids, androstanes, and bile acids, showed any significant effect (data not shown). In dose–response experiments (Fig. 1), the EC<sub>50</sub> values for DES, TAM, and 4-OHT were 700 nM, 400 nM, and 50 nM, respectively. When tested on ERR $\beta$ , the EC<sub>50</sub> values for DES, TAM, and 4-OHT were 700 nM, 950 nM, and 150 nM, respectively. In contrast, on ERR $\alpha$  the EC<sub>50</sub> value for DES was 10  $\mu$ M, and TAM and 4-OHT showed no activity. Similar results were also obtained with a biotinylated SRC-1 peptide fragment



**Fig. 2.** A radioligand binding assay for  $ERR\gamma$ . (A) Saturation binding curve of  $[^3H]4-OHT$  and GST- $ERR\gamma$ . The graph shows total ( $\bullet$ ), specific ( $\circ$ ), and nonspecific ( $\blacksquare$ ) binding. Excess unlabeled 4-OHT ( $30 \mu M$ ) was used to determine nonspecific binding. The  $K_d$  of 4-OHT was 35 nM. (B) Nonradioactive DES, TAM, and 4-OHT compete with  $[^3H]4-OHT$  for binding to  $ERR\gamma$ . The  $K_i$  value for DES and TAM was 870 nM; for 4-OHT the  $K_i$  was 75 nM. These data are from a single experiment performed in duplicate. Two additional experiments gave similar results.

(amino acids 215–442) that contains all three nuclear receptor boxes (data not shown). In comparison, DES increased, and TAM and 4-OHT decreased, the interaction between  $ER\beta$  and the SRC-1.2 peptide, each with an  $EC_{50}$  value of  $\approx 1$  nM, the limit of sensitivity of this assay (data not shown). These values are in good agreement with previously determined binding constants for these compounds (21, 22). Together, these data demonstrate that the stilbenes DES, TAM, and 4-OHT function as  $ERR\beta$  and  $ERR\gamma$  inverse agonists, and indicate a close relationship between the ligand binding properties of ERs and ERRs.

To confirm the results of the FRET experiments and to measure ligand binding directly, we established a scintillation proximity assay (23) for  $ERR\gamma$  that uses  $[^3H]4-OHT$  as the radioligand. As shown in Fig. 2, the binding affinity, or  $K_d$  value, of  $[^3H]4-OHT$  for  $ERR\gamma$  was 35 nM. In competition binding

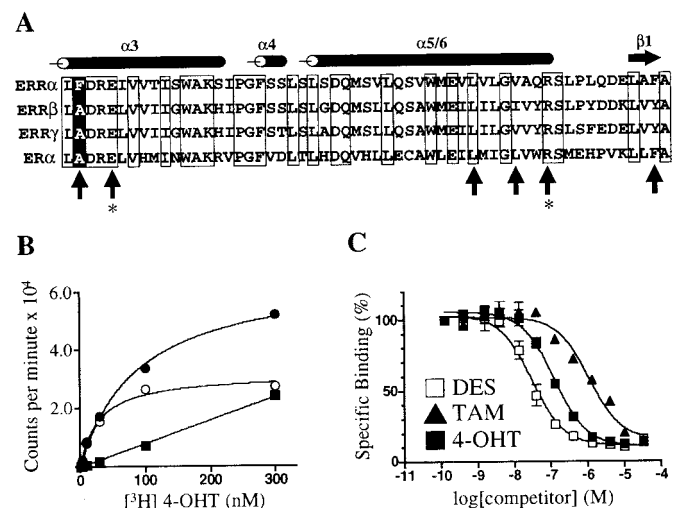


**Fig. 3.** Cell-based activity of DES, TAM, and 4-OHT on ERR family members. CV1 cells were transfected as described in *Materials and Methods*. (A) Mammalian two-hybrid assay. Compounds were added at  $10 \mu M$ . (B) Dose-response curves of 4-OHT on  $ERR\alpha$  and  $ERR\gamma$  in the mammalian two-hybrid assay. (C) Dose-response curve of 4-OHT on full-length  $ERR\alpha$  and  $ERR\gamma$  when a  $3 \times$  ERE promoter-driven reporter gene was used. In all cases, luciferase activity was normalized to  $\beta$ -galactosidase activity. These data are from a single experiment performed in triplicate. Two additional experiments gave similar results.

experiments, both DES and TAM displaced the radioligand with  $K_i$  values of 870 nM, whereas 4-OHT had a  $K_i$  of 75 nM. These binding data are in good agreement with the results of the FRET experiments. We then tested the ability of several endogenous and synthetic estrogens, including  $\beta$ -estradiol, 2- and 4-hydroxyestradiol, estriol, genistein, resveratrol, and raloxifene to bind  $ERR\gamma$ , but none showed any significant radioligand displacement at concentrations up to  $30 \mu M$ , the highest tested (data not shown). Consistent with the results of the FRET experiments,  $[^3H]4-OHT$  showed no specific binding to  $ERR\alpha$  at concentrations up to  $1 \mu M$ , the highest concentration tested (data not shown).

Next we wanted to determine whether DES, TAM, and 4-OHT also disrupt  $ERR\gamma$ -coactivator interaction in the context of a whole cell. For this experiment, we used the mammalian two-hybrid system, in which the coactivator SRC-1 is fused to the DNA-binding domain of the yeast transcription factor GAL4, and the herpes simplex virus VP16 transactivation domain is fused to the  $ERR\gamma$  LBD. As expected, the  $ERR\gamma$  LBD showed strong constitutive interaction with the GAL4-SRC fusion protein (Fig. 3A). Although DES and TAM showed a modest activity (35% inhibition at  $10 \mu M$ ), 4-OHT caused a significant (75%) disruption of the receptor-coactivator complex, with half-maximal inhibition achieved at a concentration of  $2 \mu M$  (Fig. 4). These compounds did not reproducibly disrupt the interaction of coactivator with  $ERR\alpha$  or  $ERR\beta$  at concentrations up to  $10 \mu M$  (Fig. 3 and data not shown). Thus, although all three stilbenes bind to  $ERR\gamma$ , only the most potent ligand, 4-OHT, showed significant disruption of the constitutive interaction between  $ERR\gamma$  and SRC-1.

To further investigate the effect of 4-OHT on  $ERR\gamma$  activity, we transiently transfected CV-1 cells with an expression plasmid



**Fig. 4.**  $ERR\alpha F232A$  has binding characteristics similar to those of  $ERR\gamma$ . (A) Alignment of the ERR and ER LBDs. The sequence begins with amino acid 231 for  $ERR\alpha$ , 246 for  $ERR\beta$ , 248 for  $ERR\gamma$ , and 349 for  $ER\alpha$ . The positions of the  $\alpha$ -helices and  $\beta$ -sheet are noted above the alignment. Conserved residues are boxed. Upright arrows indicate ER residues involved in recognition of DES and 4-OHT (26). The positions of glutamic acid-353 and arginine-394 in  $ER\alpha$ , responsible for hydrogen bonding to the phenolic hydroxyl of the A ring of 4-OHT, are indicated by asterisks. The position of phenylalanine-232 in  $ERR\alpha$  is indicated by a white letter on a black background. (B) Saturation binding curve of  $[^3H]4-OHT$  and GST- $ERR\alpha F232A$ . The graph shows total ( $\bullet$ ), specific ( $\circ$ ), and nonspecific ( $\blacksquare$ ) binding. Excess unlabeled 4-OHT ( $30 \mu M$ ) was used to determine nonspecific binding. The  $K_d$  of 4-OHT was 40 nM. (C) Nonradioactive DES, TAM, and 4-OHT compete with  $[^3H]4-OHT$  for binding to  $ERR\alpha F232A$ .  $K_i$  values were 30 nM, 750 nM, and 110 nM, respectively. These data are from a single experiment performed in duplicate. Two additional experiments gave similar results.

encoding full-length ERR $\gamma$  together with a reporter plasmid containing three copies of the vitellogenin A2 ERE (24). Consistent with the results obtained in the mammalian two-hybrid experiment, 4-OHT decreased the transcriptional activity of ERR $\gamma$  by more than 75%, with an EC<sub>50</sub> value of 2  $\mu$ M (Fig. 3C). Similar decreases in ERR $\gamma$  basal activity in response to 4-OHT were also seen when a different reporter plasmid containing three copies of the SF-1 response element was used (25) (data not shown). No significant repression of reporter gene activity was seen in cells transfected either with full-length ERR $\alpha$  (Fig. 3C) or with a cytomegalovirus-luciferase reporter plasmid (data not shown), indicating that the repression was not the result of a nonspecific decrease in luciferase activity.

The LBDs of ERR $\alpha$  and ERR $\gamma$  share about 60% amino acid identity, yet ERR $\alpha$  did not bind to 4-OHT. Sequence alignment of the ERR and ER $\alpha$  LBDs (Fig. 4A) pointed to one residue as potentially playing a significant role in this difference in binding affinity. This residue, located at the bottom of helix 3, is an alanine in ER $\alpha$ , ERR $\beta$ , and ERR $\gamma$ , each of which bound 4-OHT, but is a phenylalanine in ERR $\alpha$ , which did not bind 4-OHT. A homology model of the ERR $\alpha$  LBD derived from the crystal structure of ER $\alpha$  bound to 4-OHT (26) provided a possible explanation for the lack of binding of 4-OHT to ERR $\alpha$ . Replacing the alanine at ER position 350 with phenylalanine would be predicted to effectively block the phenolic hydroxyl of the A ring of 4-OHT from hydrogen bonding to the arginine at position 394 and glutamic acid at position 353. Conversely, replacing the phenylalanine at ERR $\alpha$  position 232 with alanine would presumably open that part of the pocket and allow 4-OHT to bind to ERR $\alpha$ . To test this model, we established a [<sup>3</sup>H]4-OHT radioligand binding assay with recombinant ERR $\alpha$ F232A protein, under the same conditions used previously for ERR $\gamma$  (see Fig. 2). As shown in Fig. 4, ERR $\alpha$ F232A bound to [<sup>3</sup>H]4-OHT with a K<sub>d</sub> of 40 nM, similar to the affinity shown for ERR $\gamma$ . The K<sub>i</sub> value for TAM was 750 nM, again similar to ERR $\gamma$ . For DES, however, the K<sub>i</sub> value was 30 nM,  $\approx$ 25 $\times$  lower than observed with ERR $\gamma$ , indicating that the ligand binding properties of these two receptors are similar but not identical. These results are consistent with the model presented above, and provide further evidence that 4-OHT is binding in the ligand-binding pocket.

It is not clear what physiologic effects would be expected of a compound that regulates ERR $\gamma$  activity, as there have been no reports of specific ERR $\gamma$  target genes. Several target genes have been proposed for ERR $\alpha$ , however, including lactoferrin (15), aromatase (16), osteopontin (27, 28), medium chain acyl-CoA dehydrogenase (29, 30), and thyroid hormone receptor  $\alpha$  (31). Because of the  $\approx$ 90% amino acid identity in the ERR $\alpha$ , ERR $\beta$ , and ERR $\gamma$  DBDs, these genes are also potential ERR $\gamma$  and/or ERR $\beta$  target genes. The tissue expression patterns of ERR $\gamma$  and ERR $\alpha$  are widespread and, at least in part, overlapping, with high levels of expression seen in heart, brain, kidney, and

placenta (11–13, 29). ERR $\beta$  is predominately expressed during embryonic development in the extra-embryonic ectoderm and chorion, and in the adult in the heart, brain, and kidney, but at levels 10–100 $\times$  lower than ERR $\alpha$  (11, 32). The overlap seen in the tissue expression patterns and in the DNA and ligand-binding characteristics of the ERRs highlights the need for potent and selective compounds to determine the roles of the individual receptors in ERR and, possibly, ER biology. The identification of 4-OHT as a potent ERR $\gamma$  ligand with cell-based activity represents an important first step toward meeting this need.

Surprisingly, 4-OHT was the only compound tested that showed significant activity in cell-based assays, and this activity was seen only with ERR $\gamma$ . It is not clear why this should be the case, but a simple explanation is that 4-OHT was the most potent compound tested, and its affinity for ERR $\gamma$  (35 nM) represents the minimum needed for activity in these assays. It is also possible that the cell-based assays we have used, although well established for studying the ligand regulation of other nuclear receptors, are not optimized for the ERRs. This possibility may explain the  $\approx$ 50-fold difference we see in the K<sub>d</sub> of 4-OHT in the radioligand binding assay and the EC<sub>50</sub> in the cell-based assays. Development of new assays, perhaps by using reporter genes driven by physiologically relevant promoter elements, reporter genes stably integrated into the host chromosome, or measuring the transcriptional regulation of endogenous genes, may result in more potent cell-based activities. Developments of this sort may also result in the identification of additional compounds that regulate ERR activity in tissue culture cells or in animals.

In the clinic, TAM is indicated for the treatment of breast cancer, and patients taking the recommended dose of 20 mg per day achieve steady-state plasma levels that average 320 nM (33), within 3-fold of the 870 nM K<sub>i</sub> for ERR $\gamma$ . For DES, indicated for the treatment of certain breast and prostate cancers, the recommended dose ranges from 1 to 15 mg per day. At these levels of exposure, TAM and DES may be physiologically relevant ERR ligands, and some changes in gene expression in response to TAM or DES treatment could be mediated by ERR $\gamma$  and/or ERR $\beta$ , adding an additional level of complexity to the pharmacology of ER ligands.

**Note.** While this paper was in review, Tremblay *et al.* (34) reported that DES functions as an inverse agonist on all three ERRs, and that pregnant wild-type mice treated with DES, but not estrogen, exhibit placental abnormalities similar to those seen in ERR $\beta$ -null mice. These results provide additional evidence for the ability of stilbene compounds to regulate the activity of the ERRs.

We thank Miki Rich for DNA sequencing, and Drs. Tim Hoey, Andy Shiau, and Hui Tian for helpful discussions and critical review of the manuscript. The member who communicated this paper is Chief Executive Officer and major stockholder of Tularik, Inc.

- Freedman, L. P. (1999) *Cell* **97**, 5–8.
- Heery, D. M., Kalkhoven, E., Hoare, S. & Parker, M. G. (1997) *Nature (London)* **387**, 733–736.
- Makishima, M., Okamoto, A. Y., Repa, J. J., Tu, H., Learned, R. M., Luk, A., Hull, M. V., Lustig, K. D., Mangelsdorf, D. J. & Shan, B. (1999) *Science* **284**, 1362–1365.
- Xu, L., Glass, C. K. & Rosenfeld, M. G. (1999) *Curr. Opin. Genet. Dev.* **9**, 140–147.
- Willson, T. M., Brown, P. J., Sternbach, D. D. & Henke, B. R. (2000) *J. Med. Chem.* **43**, 527–550.
- Lehmann, J. M., Kliewer, S. A., Moore, L. B., Smith-Oliver, T. A., Oliver, B. B., Su, J. L., Sundseth, S. S., Winegar, D. A., Blanchard, D. E., Spencer, T. A. & Willson, T. M. (1997) *J. Biol. Chem.* **272**, 3137–3140.
- Janowski, B. A., Willy, P. J., Devi, T. R., Falck, J. R. & Mangelsdorf, D. J. (1996) *Nature (London)* **383**, 728–731.
- Parks, D. J., Blanchard, S. G., Bledsoe, R. K., Chandra, G., Consler, T. G., Kliewer, S. A., Stimmel, J. B., Willson, T. M., Zavacki, A. M., Moore, D. D. & Lehmann, J. M. (1999) *Science* **284**, 1365–1368.
- Moore, L. B., Parks, D. J., Jones, S. A., Bledsoe, R. K., Consler, T. G., Stimmel, J. B., Goodwin, B., Liddle, C., Blanchard, S. G., Willson, T. M., *et al.* (2000) *J. Biol. Chem.* **275**, 15122–15127.
- Waxman, D. J. (1999) *Arch. Biochem. Biophys.* **369**, 11–23.
- Giguere, V., Yang, N., Segui, P. & Evans, R. M. (1988) *Nature (London)* **331**, 91–94.
- Heard, D. J., Norby, P. L., Holloway, J. & Vissing, H. (2000) *Mol. Endocrinol.* **14**, 382–392.
- Hong, H., Yang, L. & Stallcup, M. R. (1999) *J. Biol. Chem.* **274**, 22618–22626.
- Vanacker, J. M., Pettersson, K., Gustafsson, J. A. & Laudet, V. (1999) *EMBO J.* **18**, 4270–4279.
- Yang, N., Shigeta, H., Shi, H. & Teng, C. T. (1996) *J. Biol. Chem.* **271**, 5795–5804.
- Yang, C., Zhou, D. & Chen, S. (1998) *Cancer Res.* **58**, 5695–5700.
- Vanacker, J. M., Bonnelye, E., Chopin-Delannoy, S., Delmarre, C., Cavailles, V. & Laudet, V. (1999) *Mol. Endocrinol.* **13**, 764–773.
- Yang, C. & Chen, S. (1999) *Cancer Res.* **59**, 4519–4524.

19. Zhou, G., Cummings, R., Li, Y., Mitra, S., Wilkinson, H. A., Elbrecht, A., Hermes, J. D., Schaeffer, J. M., Smith, R. G. & Moller, D. E. (1998) *Mol. Endocrinol.* **12**, 1594–1604.
20. Xie, W., Hong, H., Yang, N. N., Lin, R. J., Simon, C. M., Stallcup, M. R. & Evans, R. M. (1999) *Mol. Endocrinol.* **13**, 2151–2162.
21. Kuiper, G. G., Carlsson, B., Grandien, K., Enmark, E., Haggblad, J., Nilsson, S. & Gustafsson, J. A. (1997) *Endocrinology* **138**, 863–870.
22. Zhang, Z. & Teng, C. T. (2000) *J. Biol. Chem.* **275**, 20837–20846.
23. Nichols, J. S., Parks, D. J., Consler, T. G. & Blanchard, S. G. (1998) *Anal. Biochem.* **257**, 112–119.
24. Klein-Hitpass, L., Schorpp, M., Wagner, U. & Ryffel, G. U. (1986) *Cell* **46**, 1053–1061.
25. Wilson, T. E., Fahrner, T. J. & Milbrandt, J. (1993) *Mol. Cell. Biol.* **13**, 5794–5804.
26. Shiau, A. K., Barstad, D., Loria, P. M., Cheng, L., Kushner, P. J., Agard, D. A. & Greene, G. L. (1998) *Cell* **95**, 927–937.
27. Bonnelye, E., Vanacker, J. M., Dittmar, T., Begue, A., Desbiens, X., Denhardt, D. T., Aubin, J. E., Laudet, V. & Fournier, B. (1997) *Mol. Endocrinol.* **11**, 905–916.
28. Vanacker, J. M., Delmarre, C., Guo, X. & Laudet, V. (1998) *Cell Growth Differ.* **9**, 1007–1014.
29. Sladek, R., Bader, J. A. & Giguere, V. (1997) *Mol. Cell. Biol.* **17**, 5400–5409.
30. Vega, R. B. & Kelly, D. P. (1997) *J. Biol. Chem.* **272**, 31693–31699.
31. Vanacker, J. M., Bonnelye, E., Delmarre, C. & Laudet, V. (1998) *Oncogene* **17**, 2429–2435.
32. Luo, J., Sladek, R., Bader, J. A., Matthyssen, A., Rossant, J. & Giguere, V. (1997) *Nature (London)* **388**, 778–782.
33. Anonymous (1998) in *Physician's Desk Reference* (Medical Economics Company, Inc., Montvale, NJ), 52nd Ed., pp. 3175–3177.
34. Tremblay, G. B., Kunath, T., Bergeron, D., Lapointe, L., Champigny, C., Bader, J. A., Rossant, J. & Giguere, V. (2001) *Genes Dev.* **15**, 833–838.