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Estrogen receptor-alpha is a key mediator and therapeutic target for bladder complications of benign prostatic hyperplasia

Tristan M. Nicholson1,2,3, **Michael A. Moses**3, **Kristen S. Uchtmann**1, **Kimberly P. Keil**4, **Dale E. Bjorling**5, **Chad M. Vezina**4, **Ronald W. Wood**6, and **William A. Ricke**1,7,*

¹Department of Urology, University of Wisconsin-Madison, Madison, WI

²Medical Scientist (MD/PhD) Training Program, University of Rochester School of Medicine & Dentistry, Rochester, NY

³Department of Pathology & Laboratory Medicine, University of Rochester School of Medicine & Dentistry, Rochester, NY

⁴Department of Comparative Biosciences, University of Wisconsin-Madison, Madison, WI

⁵Department of Surgical Sciences, University of Wisconsin-Madison, Madison, WI

⁶Departments of Obstetrics & Gynecology and Urology, University of Rochester School of Medicine & Dentistry, Rochester, NY

⁷Carbone Cancer Center, University of Wisconsin-Madison, Madison, WI

Abstract

Purpose—While estrogens are important in prostate growth and play a role in benign prostatic hyperplasia (BPH), no current therapies directly target estrogen action. Estrogens act primarily via estrogen receptor alpha (ERα) and estrogen receptor beta (ERβ). Using a mouse model, we evaluated the relative contribution of these receptors to bladder complications of BPH. We also evaluated prevention of these bladder complications by selective estrogen receptor modulators (SERMs), raloxifene and tamoxifen (ERα selective antagonists) and (R,R)-5,11- Diethyl-5,6,11,12-tetrahydro-2,8-chrysenediol (R,R-THC, ERβ selective antagonist).

Materials and Methods—Adult male C57bl/6 mice received implants of 25 mg testosterone (T) and 2.5 mg 17 β -estradiol (E₂) slow release pellets and untreated controls underwent sham surgery. We used ERα and ERβ knockout (KO) mice compared to their respective wild type (WT) littermates to probe contributions of ER subtypes. WT mice treated with $T+E_2$ were compared to mice treated with $T+E_2$ and 25 mg SERM to evaluate prevention of BPH complications with SERMs.

Results—While ERαWT and ERβWT littermates treated with T+E₂ developed large bladders with urinary retention, ER α KO mice treated with T+E₂ did not. ER β KO mice treated with T+E₂ developed large bladders with urinary retention and increased bladder mass. Co-treatment with the

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^{*}Corresponding Author, Address Reprint Requests: Department of Urology and Carbone Cancer Center, University of Wisconsin, 7107 Wisconsin Institutes for Medical Research (WIMR), 1111 Highland Ave, Madison, WI 53705. Phone (608) 262-0759. Fax: (608) 262-6453. rickew@urology.wisc.edu.

ERα antagonist raloxifene resulted in decreased bladder mass compared to WT mice treated with T+E₂, while bladders from mice treated with the ER β antagonist R,R-THC were similar to T+E₂treated mice.

Conclusions—ERα, but not ERβ, is a key mediator of bladder complications of BPH, and is a potential target for future therapies.

Keywords

mice; testosterone; 17β-estradiol; BPH; LUTS

Introduction

Benign prostatic hyperplasia (BPH) is the most common cause of bothersome lower urinary tract symptoms (LUTS) in older men, which include irritative symptoms (urinary frequency, urge incontinence, nocturia, painful urination, small voided volumes) and obstructive symptoms (hesitancy, straining, weak flow, prolonged voiding, urinary retention, and ultimately, overflow incontinence).¹ It is clear the prostate enlarges in virtually all men as they age, and the prevalence of histologic BPH increases.² LUTs likely result from a complex interaction of prostate pathology, outlet obstruction, and bladder dysfunction.³ Although androgens are necessary for development of BPH, as men age, serum androgens decline as the prevalence of BPH-LUTS increases.⁴ Estrogens are increasingly recognized as important male sex steroids and serum 17β -estradiol (E₂) increases or remains stable as men age, resulting in an increased E_2 to testosterone (T) ratio.⁴ Administration of T+E₂ to dogs and rats leads to prostate enlargement and voiding dysfunction, underscoring the importance of the E_2 to T ratio in BPH-LUTS.⁵ We have recently reported that treatment of male mice with $T+E_2$ to model the increased E_2 to T ratio in older men causes prostatic glandular growth, bladder outlet obstruction, and urinary voiding dysfunction, mimicking many of the clinical aspects of BPH.^{6,7}

Estrogens primarily mediate their effects via two cognate ligand-activated transcription factors: estrogen receptor alpha (ERα) and beta (ERβ). In mice and men, they are encoded by unique genes from two different chromosomes, but have considerable overlap in tissue distribution and function.⁸ ERs are expressed throughout the male lower urinary tract and reproductive system, including the prostate, $9-11$ urethra, 9 bladder, 12 epididymis, 11 and testes.¹¹ While the central DNA-binding domains of human ERa and ER β are highly conserved (97% homology) the carboxyl terminal ligand-binding domains and aminoterminals differ substantially (60% and 18% homology, respectively).⁸ This likely accounts for differences in ligand affinity and biological function.

There is growing recognition that there are many estrogen responsive tissues in the male urinary tract and that estrogens play an important role in BPH-LUTS, but which ER mediates BPH-associated bladder dysfunction remains unknown. Increased ERα expression has been reported in bladder tissues from men with bladder outlet obstruction¹² and there is increased ERα expression in prostate epithelium from symptomatic BPH patients compared to men without LUTS.^{12,13} ER α mediates prostatic epithelial,¹⁴ urothelial¹⁵ and bladder fibroblast¹² proliferation in response to exogenous estrogens. Based on these observations,

we hypothesized that ERα, but not ERβ, mediates bladder enlargement in male mice treated with $T+E_2$.

Understanding the relative roles of ERa and $ER\beta$ is critical to the development of estrogendirected therapies for BPH-LUTS. Selective estrogen receptor modulators (SERMs) interact directly with ERs to either promote or inhibit transcription of target genes. Several SERMs are in clinical use, including raloxifene, tamoxifen, toremifene and clomiphene. These compounds act as relatively selective ERα antagonists and could readily be tested for clinical efficacy in BPH-LUTS patients. Therefore, we used raloxifene and tamoxifen to test the hypothesis that bladder enlargement in response to $T+E_2$ is prevented by co-treatment with ERα antagonist SERMs, but not by co-treatment with an experimental ERβ selective antagonist 5,11-Diethyl-5,6,11,12-tetrahydro-2,8-chrysenediol (R,R-THC).

Materials and Methods

Hormone and Drug Implantation

All animal experiments and procedures were conducted under protocols approved by the University of Wisconsin Animal Care and Use Committee and the University of Rochester's University Committee on Animal Resources. Mice heterozygous for ERα (Esr1) and ERβ (Esr2) on a C57bl/6 background were obtained from The Jackson Laboratory (Bar Harbor, ME) and bred to generate knockout mice (ERαKO and ERβKO) for comparison with respective wild type littermates (ERαWT and ERβWT). Genotypes of offspring were determined by polymerase chain reaction as previously described.¹⁰ For uroflow, urine spot assay and SERMs experiments, adult male wild type C57BL/6 mice were obtained from Charles River Laboratories (Wilmington, MA) and Harlan Laboratories (Madison, WI). Mice were reared under standard laboratory conditions (12:12 light/dark cycle) and provided with food and water *ad libitum*. T, E₂, raloxifene and tamoxifen were obtained from Sigma Chemical Co. (St. Louis, MO) and (R,R)-5,11-Diethyl-5,6,11,12-tetrahydro-2,8 chrysenediol (R,R-THC) was obtained from Tocris Bioscience (Minneapolis, MN). Compressed hormone pellets containing 25 mg T and 2.5 mg E_2 were surgically implanted in adult $(6–8$ weeks old) male mice for four months as previously described.^{16,17} Untreated (UNT) mice underwent the surgical procedure but no pellet was implanted. To evaluate prevention of bladder complications, mice were simultaneously implanted with T , E_2 and 25 mg SERM for one month. Mice were euthanized with carbon dioxide followed by cardiac puncture, and intact urogenital tracts, including seminal vesicles, bladder, prostate lobes and urethra, were carefully dissected and photographed. Bladders were emptied of urine, carefully dissected from the urogenital tract and bladder and prostate lobe masses were determined with a precision balance.

Urinary Voiding Assays

Uroflow studies utilized wild type mice (UNT $n = 2$, T+E₂ $n = 5$). One month prior to pellet implantation, we began noninvasive assessment of uroflow as previously described⁶ and continued until one month after steroid hormone implantation. For each urinary void, peak uroflow (g/sec), mass (g) and duration (sec) were determined. Voids were classified as droplet (mass < 0.1 g and duration < 3 sec) or sustained (mass ~ 0.1 g and duration ~ 3 sec)

and the median proportion of droplet voids was expressed for each mouse at baseline and after 1 month of $T+E_2$ treatment or sham surgeries. We then conducted a urine void spot assay at the same time points with an independent cohort of wild type mice (UNT $n = 11$, T $+E_2$ n = 13) using a previously described method.¹⁸ Briefly, mice were placed into an empty cage lined with grade 540 filter paper (Healthcare Life Sciences, #1540–320 GE) for four hours without water. Filter papers were photographed under UV light and the size of each void spot was quantified using Image J particle analysis (Image J version 1.37a). Each void was classified as droplet (< 6.7 cm², equivalent to urine mass < 0.1 g in uroflow assay) or sustained (-6.7 cm^2) and the proportion of droplet voids was calculated. Normal mice typically void in the corners¹⁹ and spatially distributed patterns have been associated with voiding dysfunction; we therefore quantified the percentage of voided urine in the corners.

Data Analysis

To compare continuous variables, t-tests and one-way ANOVA with Bonferroni *post hoc* comparisons were used. Repeated measures two-way ANOVA was used for within-subjects experiments (uroflow and urine spot assay). Graphs show means ±SEM. GraphPad Prism (La Jolla, CA) was used for statistical analysis and $P < 0.05$ was considered statistically significant in all analyses.

Results

ER α **is required for bladder complications in male mice treated with T+E²**

Bladder enlargement with urinary retention was observed in ERαWT littermates treated with T+E₂ for four months at the time of euthanasia (Figure 1A). ER α KO mice treated with T+E₂ did not exhibit bladder enlargement (Figure 1A). Bladder mass increased in ERαWT littermates treated with $T+E_2$ relative to UNT ER α WT littermates, but there was not change in bladder mass in ER α KO mice treated with T+E₂ (Figure 1B). Bladders from ER β WT littermates were enlarged with urinary retention after four months of treatment with $T+E_2$ (Figure 2A). ER α KO mice treated with T+E₂ also developed urinary retention (Figure 2A), and bladder mass increased significantly in ER β KO mice treated with T+E₂ compared to UNT ERβKO mice (Figure 2B).

Early manifestations of bladder dysfunction are present in male mice treated with T+E²

We have previously shown that detrusor hypertrophy and urinary voiding dysfunction in male mice treated with $T+E_2$ manifests after 2–4 months of hormone treatment.⁶ We evaluated bladder dysfunction after one month of treatment to determine an optimal time point for prevention of these complications. Bladder enlargement with urinary retention and increased bladder mass were present after one month of $T+E_2$ treatment in WT mice (Figure 3A). A metabolic cage system was used to assess uroflow (Figure 3B, image). We found a significant decrease in peak uroflow in these animals (Figure 3B, left graph, $P < 0.0001$). The change in peak uroflow we observed in $T+E_2$ treated mice was accounted for by a predominance of droplet voiding (defined as < 3 sec and < 0.10 g; Figure 3B, right graph, P < 0.0001). There was no change in peak uroflow or the proportion of droplet voids in untreated mice from baseline to 1 month after sham surgery (Figure 3B). Using the urine spot assay, we found a differences in the proportion of droplet voids (defined as < 6.7 cm²

which corresponded to droplet voids from the uroflow assay) in mice treated with $T+E_2$ for one month (Interaction of time point by treatment, $P = 0.0358$, Figure 3C, left graph) as well as a change in the percentage of voided urine in the corners (Interaction of time point by treatment, $P = 0.0347$, Figure 3C, right graph). The proportion of droplet voids and the percentage of voided urine in the corners did not change from baseline to 1 month after sham surgeries in untreated mice (Figure 3C).

ER α **antagonist SERMs prevent bladder complications of BPH**

Based on early bladder dysfunction observed in our mouse model (after 1 month of treatment), we then evaluated prevention of bladder complications with ERα antagonists (raloxifene and tamoxifen) vs. $ER\beta$ antagonist $(R, R, -THC)$ SERMs at this time point. Cotreatment of mice with T+E₂+raloxifene, but not T+E₂+tamoxifen or ER β antagonist SERM R,R-THC, prevented bladder enlargement when compared to mice treated with $T+E_2$ only (Figure 4A). Bladder mass was significantly decreased among mice treated with T $+E_2$ +raloxifene compared to mice treated with T+E₂ only (P < 0.01, Figure 4B, left graph). There was no difference in mice treated with $T+E_2+$ tamoxifen or $T+E_2+R$,R-THC compared to T+E₂ only (Figure 4B, left graph). Raloxifene ($P < 0.0001$) and tamoxifen ($P < 0.01$) prevented the increased prostate mass observed in mice treated with $T+E_2$, but R,R-THC did not affect prostate mass relative to mice treated with T+E₂. (Figure 4B, right graph).

Discussion

We have previously shown that treatment of male mice with a combination of $T+E_2$, to mimic the dynamic hormonal environment of aging men, recreates many aspects of BPH, including the bladder complications of urinary retention and bladder hypertrophy.^{6,10} In the present study, we determined the relative contribution of ERα and ERβ to bladder complications in this mouse model. While ERβKO mice developed large bladders in response to $T+E_2$ treatment, ER α KO mice treated did not. This indicates that hormoneinduced bladder enlargement and bladder mass depends on intact ERα, but not on ERβ. We also sought to prevent bladder complications of prostate changes in the mouse model and demonstrated that male mice display urinary retention, increased bladder mass and urinary voiding dysfunction one month after treatment with T+E₂. Co-treatment with the ER α antagonist SERM raloxifene prevented bladder enlargement and prostate growth in male mice treated with T+E₂ for one month, while the ER β antagonist SERM R,R-THC did not. Thus we conclude that ERα is a potential target for medication development focused on preventing the bladder complications of BPH.

Diversity in ERα and ERβ function depends both on the organ and cell type, as well as the capacity to bind different co-activators and co-repressors. 17β-estradiol interacts with both receptors, primarily activating transcription of estrogen responsive genes by binding ERα, but also when binding $ERβ²⁰$ While both $ERα$ and $ERβ$ act as ligand-activated transcription factors, estrogens also induce rapid, so-called non-genomic effects by activation of ERs or other signaling pathways, such as mitogen-activated protein kinases outside of the nucleus. Importantly, extranuclear and intranuclear estrogen receptor signaling cascades are tightly linked and relevant to many human disease processes.²¹ While the present results

demonstrate a key role of ERα in the bladder enlargement in the male mouse treated with T $+E₂$, we do not yet know whether ER α in this context is acting as classic ligand-activated transcription factor or via extranuclear signaling.

When we compared untreated ERαKO or ERβKO mice with their respective WT littermates, we did not observe any differences in bladder mass. This is in agreement with other investigations that did not find bladder hypertrophy or histologic changes in untreated ERαKO or ERβKO mice.^{22,23} We did not observe bladder enlargement in ERαKO male mice treated with $T+E_2$, indicating that ER α is necessary for hormone-induced bladder enlargement. While the specific cell types and target tissues mediating this effect remain unknown, bladder outlet obstruction is related to prostatic enlargement in male mice treated with $T+E_2$, and the bladder responds with hypertrophy and eventually decompensates. In the untreated wild type mouse prostate, stromal cells primarily express ERα while ERβ is expressed in luminal epithelial cells.¹⁰ We have previously shown that $T+E_2$ treatment increases ERα expression in prostate epithelium while decreasing ERβ expression.¹⁰ Moreover, ER α KO mice treated with T+E₂ have fewer hyperplastic prostate cells.¹⁰ Therefore, when is ERα is not present there is likely a protective effect on prostate growth and resulting bladder outlet obstruction due to $T+E₂$ treatment, and bladder complications are also prevented.

Based on our finding that ERαKO mice did not develop hormone-induced bladder enlargement, we sought to prevent bladder complications of hormone treatment in the male mouse with SERMs. We chose raloxifene and tamoxifen as they act as relatively selective ERα antagonists, are approved for other indications, and could be readily translated to clinical use. Raloxifene prevented increased bladder mass due to hormone treatment, but there was no difference in bladder mass in mice co-treated with tamoxifen compared to T $+E_2$ alone. Tamoxifen did appear to prevent urinary retention similarly to raloxifene. Moreover, both ERα antagonist SERMs partially prevented the increased prostate mass caused by treatment with $T+E_2$. This observation is consistent with earlier work that showed raloxifene-induced regression of the ventral prostate in intact male rats.²⁴ Supportive of the concept that ERα inhibition is key to prevention, the ER03B2 antagonist SERM R,R-THC did not prevent increased bladder or prostate mass. This is consistent with genetic experiments utilizing ERβKO mice, in which mice did develop bladder enlargement with hormone treatment. While antagonism of ERα is promising for therapeutic application in BPH-LUTS, another strategy could be activation of ERβ, perhaps in combination with ERα inhibition.

Estrogen action has long been considered an attractive therapeutic target in BPH-LUTS. Aromatase inhibitors were shown to be effective at inhibiting estrogen-induced hyperplastic changes in dog and monkey BPH models.25 However, a randomized clinical trial did not demonstrate clinical efficacy superior to placebo in BPH patients.²⁶ While the aromatase inhibitor atamestane reduced serum 17β-estradiol by about 30%, it also caused substantial increases in serum T and dihydrotestosterone²⁶ which may have counteracted the beneficial reduction in 17β-estradiol. Moreover, while 17β-estradiol is the predominant endogenous estrogen found in men (in men 40–80 years old, means range from $30.3-54.5$ pg/mL)⁴ there are clinically relevant levels of other non-aromatizable estrogens, such as bisphenol-A,

found in the ng/mL range in men.²⁷ The role of other estrogens in BPH-LUTS remains to be explored and warrants further study.

While aromatase inhibition has been abandoned as a treatment strategy, there has been renewed interest in SERMs as BPH-LUTS therapies. SERMs such as tamoxifen are commonly used to treat male breast cancer and are well tolerated.²⁸ The SERM clomiphene citrate stimulates endogenous serum T and E_2 and improves symptoms in hypogonadal men.29 Taneja et al. tested the SERM toremifene for prevention of prostate cancer progression after biopsy detection of high-grade prostatic intraepithelial neoplasia in a recent trial.³⁰ Toremifene affected neither the primary endpoint of prostate cancer free survival nor detection of prostate cancer after a three year follow up, but this study reported a low prevalence of adverse events related to BPH (3.7% in placebo arm and 4.1% in toremifene). In addition, there was no increased risk of thromboembolic events with toremifene, a potential concern with SERM therapy.30 While 62% of the study population had a history of BPH, this trial did not address whether toremifene affected LUTS or prostate volume. Taken together, these studies show that SERMs are well tolerated in men. While it is unknown whether SERM therapy targeting ER α will result in an improvement in lower urinary tract symptoms in men, this is an enticing area for future study.

Conclusions

The T+E2-treated male mouse mirrors many clinical features of BPH-LUTS and is useful for genetic approaches to uncover key mediators of the BPH phenotype. The present results suggest that ERα may play a key role bladder enlargement accompanying BPH, and highlight the potential of ERα antagonist SERMs for future therapies targeting bladder complications in BPH-LUTS.

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Abbreviations

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Figure 1.

Bladder enlargement in male mice treated $T+E_2$ is mediated by ERa. (A) Urogenital tracts from UNT and T+E₂-treated ERa WT and ERaKO mice treated for four months. (B) Bladder masses for UNT and T+E₂-treated ER α WT and ER α KO mice. SV = seminal vesicles, $Bl = bladder$, $Ur = urethra. *P < 0.05$.

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Figure 2.

Bladder enlargement in male mice treated with T+E₂ is not mediated by ER β . α . (A) Urogenital tracts from UNT and T+E₂-treated ER β WT and ER β KO mice treated for four months. (B) Bladder masses for UNT and T+E₂-treated ERβWT and ERβKO mice. SV = seminal vesicles, $Bl = bladder$, $Ur = urethra. **P < 0.001$

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Figure 3.

Bladder enlargement and urinary voiding dysfunction is present after one month of treatment with T+E2. (A) Urogenital tracts and bladder masses (graph) from UNT and T +E2-treated wild type mice for one month. (B) Image shows mouse placed in metabolic cage suspended over a precision balance to assess uroflow. Graphs show peak uroflow (left) and proportion of droplet voids (right) at baseline in $T+E_2$ and UNT. (C) Representative urination patterns from urine void spot assay, observed on filter paper viewed with ultraviolet light (image). Proportion of droplet voids (left) and percentage of voided urine in corners (right) of the cage at baseline and one month after $T+E_2$ implant or UNT. SV = seminal vesicles, $Bl = bladder$, $Ur = urethra$, $1 MO = one month$. *** $P < 0.001$, * $P < 0.05$.

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Figure 4.

ERα antagonist but not ERβ antagonist SERM prevents bladder enlargement and prostate growth in male mice treated with T+E₂. (A) Urogenital tracts from UNT, T+E₂, T $+E_2+RALOX$, T+E₂+TAMOX, T+E₂+R,R-THC wild type mice treated for one month. (B) Graphs show bladder masses (left) and hemiprostate masses (right). $SV =$ seminal vesicles, Bl = bladder, Ur = urethra, 1 MO = one month. *** $P < 0.001$, ** $P < 0.01$.