

# Differential modulation of transcriptional activity of oestrogen receptors by direct protein–protein interactions with retinoid receptors

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Control of oestradiol-responsive gene regulation by oestrogen receptors (ERs) may involve complex cross-talk with retinoic acid receptors (RARs) and retinoid X receptors (RXRs). Recently, we have shown that ER $\alpha$  directly interacts with RAR $\alpha$  and RXR $\alpha$  through their ligand binding domains (LBDs). In the present work, we extend these results by showing that ER $\beta$  binds similarly to RAR $\alpha$  and RXR $\alpha$  but not to the glucocorticoid receptor, as demonstrated by the yeast two-hybrid tests and glutathione S-transferase pull-down assays. These direct interactions were also demonstrated in gel-shift assays, in which the oestrogen response element (ERE) binding by ER $\alpha$  was enhanced by the RXR $\alpha$  LBD but was abolished by the RAR $\alpha$  LBD. In addition, we showed that RAR $\alpha$  and RXR $\alpha$  bound the ERE as efficiently as ER $\alpha$ , suggesting that competition for DNA binding may affect the transactivation function of the ER. In transient

transfection experiments, co-expression of RAR $\alpha$  or RXR $\alpha$ , along with ER $\alpha$  or ER $\beta$ , revealed differential modulation of the ERE-dependent transactivation, which was distinct from the results when each receptor alone was co-transfected. Importantly, when the LBD of RAR $\alpha$  was co-expressed with ER $\alpha$ , transactivation of ER $\alpha$  on the ERE was repressed as efficiently as when wild-type RAR $\alpha$  was co-expressed. Furthermore, liganded RAR $\alpha$  or unliganded RXR $\alpha$  enhanced the ER $\alpha$  transactivation, suggesting the formation of transcriptionally active heterodimer complexes between the ER and retinoid receptors. Taken together, these results suggest that direct protein–protein interactions may play major roles in the determination of the biological consequences of cross-talk between ERs and RAR $\alpha$  or RXR $\alpha$ .

## INTRODUCTION

Oestrogen plays an important role in a large array of biological processes such as development, reproduction and sexual differentiation [1,2]. Perturbations of oestrogen signal transduction have been suggested to contribute to tumour progression and eventual development of an hormone-independent and more aggressive phenotype in human breast cancer. Retinoids have been shown to effectively restrict oestrogen effects on breast cancer cells *in vitro* and *in vivo* [3,4]. Interestingly, the responses to all-*trans*-retinoic acid (RA) appeared to correlate with the expression of the oestrogen receptor (ER) [5–8], suggesting potential cross-talk between ER and retinoic acid receptors (RARs) and/or retinoid X receptors (RXRs).

The ER, RARs and RXRs belong to the nuclear hormone receptor superfamily, a group of transcriptional regulatory proteins linked by conserved structure and function [9,10]. The receptors are direct regulators of transcription that function by binding to specific DNA sequences in promoters of target genes called hormone response elements. The conventional oestrogen response elements (EREs) consist of inverted repeats of a common half-site [5'-(A/G)GGTCA-3'] spaced by three nucleotides, whereas retinoic acid response elements (RAREs) are comprised of direct repeats of the same half-site spaced by two or five nucleotides [10–12]. Whereas, ER apparently binds EREs only as homodimers, RARs bind RAREs with high affinity as heterodimers with RXRs [11–13]. Based on this high affinity binding, the RAR/RXR heterodimers have been considered to be the functionally active forms of these receptors *in vivo* [13–15].

RXRs also heterodimerize with many other nuclear receptors including thyroid hormone receptors, vitamin D receptor and peroxisome proliferator activated receptor [13–16]. In addition, thyroid hormone receptor, peroxisome proliferator activated receptor, chicken ovalbumin upstream promoter transcription factor (COUP-TF) and small heterodimer partner have been reported to form heterodimers with other receptors [11,16–20]. Although heterodimerization with RXR usually results in enhanced transactivation, COUP-TF and short heterodimer partner seem to function primarily as transcriptional repressors [20–22]. Heterodimer formation could generate an extremely diverse group of receptors, particularly considering the fact that multiple genes and multiple isoforms exist, and their expression depends on cell type and the stage of growth and development. Thus the protein–protein interaction between nuclear receptors could mediate a wide range of cross-talk, so generating a significant diversity in gene regulation.

We have recently discovered that the ER directly interacts with RAR $\alpha$  and RXR $\alpha$  through their ligand-binding domains (LBDs) [23]. In the present study, we extend these results by showing that the recently described ER isotype, ER $\beta$  [24], which resulted in the renaming of the conventional ER as ER $\alpha$ , also shows similar binding to RAR $\alpha$  and RXR $\alpha$ . These interactions were demonstrated in gel-shift assays as well as co-transfection assays, in which expression of RAR $\alpha$  or RXR $\alpha$ , along with ER $\alpha$  or ER $\beta$ , revealed differential modulation of the ERE-dependent transactivation, distinct from the results when each receptor alone was co-transfected. Thus we concluded that direct protein–protein interactions play major roles in the cross-talk between ERs and RAR $\alpha$  or RXR $\alpha$ .

Abbreviations used: RA, retinoic acid; ER, oestrogen receptor; RAR, retinoic acid receptor; RXR, retinoid X receptor; ERE, oestrogen response element; RARE, retinoic acid response element; GR, glucocorticoid receptor; COUP-TF, chicken ovalbumin upstream promoter transcription factor; LBD, ligand binding domain; GST, glutathione S-transferase; CAT, chloramphenicol acetyltransferase;  $\beta$ -gal,  $\beta$ -galactosidase.

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## MATERIALS AND METHODS

### Hormones

All-*trans*-RA, 9-*cis*-RA and oestradiol were purchased from Sigma (St. Louis, MO, U.S.A.). Retinoids (10 mM) and oestradiol (1 mM) stock solutions were made in DMSO/ethanol (1:1, v/v) and ethanol respectively, and were maintained at  $-20^{\circ}\text{C}$ . Further dilutions were made in cell culture medium or in appropriate buffer before use.

### Plasmids

The receptor expression plasmids, pECE-ER $\alpha$ , pECE-RAR $\alpha$ , pECE-RXR $\alpha$  and a C-terminal deletion mutant of RXR $\alpha$  (RXR $\alpha$  $\Delta$ AF2) were as described previously [11,25–27]. To ensure optimal detection of oestradiol-induced ER $\alpha$  activity, an ER $\alpha$ -Val expression vector [28] was used in the experiments. pECE-ER $\beta$  [24] was constructed by inserting *EcoRI* and *SalI* fragments of pCMX-ER $\beta$  into the corresponding restriction sites of pECE. RAR $\alpha$ -LBD was constructed by inserting a *BamHI* and *EcoRI* fragment from pECE-RAR $\alpha$  into the corresponding restriction sites of pECE. The ERE-*tk*-chloramphenicol acetyltransferase (CAT) as well as the RARE reporter constructs (i.e., TREpal-*tk*-CAT, CRBPI-*tk*-CAT, and  $\beta$ RARE-*tk*-CAT) were as described previously [27,29–31].

### Yeast two-hybrid assay

EGY48 cells, the *lexA*- $\beta$ -gal ( $\beta$ -galactosidase) reporter construct, the *LexA*- and B42-parental vectors were as reported previously [23]. B42 fusions to the LBDs of the glucocorticoid receptor (GR), RAR $\alpha$ , RXR $\alpha$ -LBD and ER $\beta$  were as described previously [23]. The mouse ER $\beta$  [24] was subcloned into *EcoRI* and *SalI* sites of the *LexA* vector by PCR using *EcoRI* and *XhoI*-site-bearing primers to construct *LexA/ER* $\beta$ . The co-transformation and  $\beta$ -gal expression assays in yeast were performed as described previously [23]. For each experiment, at least six separate transformants from each transformation were transferred to indicator plates containing X-gal.

### Glutathione S-transferase (GST) pull-down assays

GST fusion proteins were produced in *Escherichia coli* and purified using glutathione-Sepharose affinity chromatography essentially as described previously [23]. GST proteins were bound to glutathione-Sepharose 4B beads (Pharmacia, NJ, U.S.A.) in binding buffer [50 mM KPO $_4$ , pH 6.0/100 mM KCl/10 mM MgCl $_2$ /10% (v/v) glycerol containing 10 mg/ml *E. coli* extract and 0.1% (v/v) Tween 20]. Beads were washed once with binding buffer and incubated for 60 min at  $4^{\circ}\text{C}$  in the same buffer with equivalent amounts of various proteins labelled with [ $^{35}\text{S}$ ]methionine by *in vitro* translation. Non-bound proteins were removed by three washes with binding buffer without *E. coli* extract, and specifically bound proteins were eluted with 50 mM GSH in 0.5 M Tris/HCl, pH 8.0. Eluted proteins were resolved by PAGE and visualized by fluorography.

### Gel-shift assay

Receptor proteins synthesized *in vitro* were incubated with  $^{32}\text{P}$ -labelled oligonucleotides in a reaction mixture (20  $\mu\text{l}$ ) containing 10 mM Hepes, pH 7.9, 50 mM KCl, 1 mM dithiothreitol, 2.5 mM MgCl $_2$ , 10% (v/v) glycerol and 1  $\mu\text{g}$  of poly(dI-dC) at  $25^{\circ}\text{C}$  for 20 min. The reaction mixtures were then applied to a non-denaturing polyacrylamide (5%) gel containing  $0.5 \times \text{TBE}$  ( $1 \times \text{TBE} = 0.089 \text{ M Tris/borate/2 mM EDTA}$ ). The oligo-

nucleotide used as a probe encoding the consensus ERE sequences was: (5'-TCAGGTCAGTGTGACCTGA-3'). The oligonucleotides were labelled by Klenow fragments of DNA polymerase and the labelled oligonucleotides were purified by gel electrophoresis [25].

### Tissue culture and transient-transfection assays

CV-1 and MCF-7 cells were maintained in Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium and minimal essential medium respectively, supplemented with 10% (v/v) fetal-calf serum in a CO $_2$  incubator. A modified calcium phosphate precipitation procedure was used for transient transfection [25,26]. Briefly, CV-1 cells (50000 cells/well) were seeded in a 24-well culture plate and reporter plasmid (100 ng),  $\beta$ -gal expression vector (150 ng) and various combinations of receptor expression vectors were mixed with carrier DNA (pBluescript) to a total of 1  $\mu\text{g}$  of DNA/well. MCF-7 cells (125000 cells/well) were seeded in a 12-well culture plate and reporter plasmid (250 ng) and  $\beta$ -gal expression vector (300 ng) were mixed with pBluescript to a total of 2.5  $\mu\text{g}$  of DNA/well. After 24 h of hormone treatment, CAT activity was determined [25,26] (c.p.m., normalized for transfection efficiency by the corresponding  $\beta$ -gal activity, were expressed as relative CAT activity). For statistical analysis, one-way analysis of variance with the Tukey-Kramer multiple comparisons test was performed using GraphPad Instat $^{\text{®}}$  (GraphPad Software, San Diego, CA, U.S.A.). A value of  $P < 0.05$  was considered statistically significant.

## RESULTS

### ER $\beta$ directly interacts with RAR $\alpha$ and RXR $\alpha$

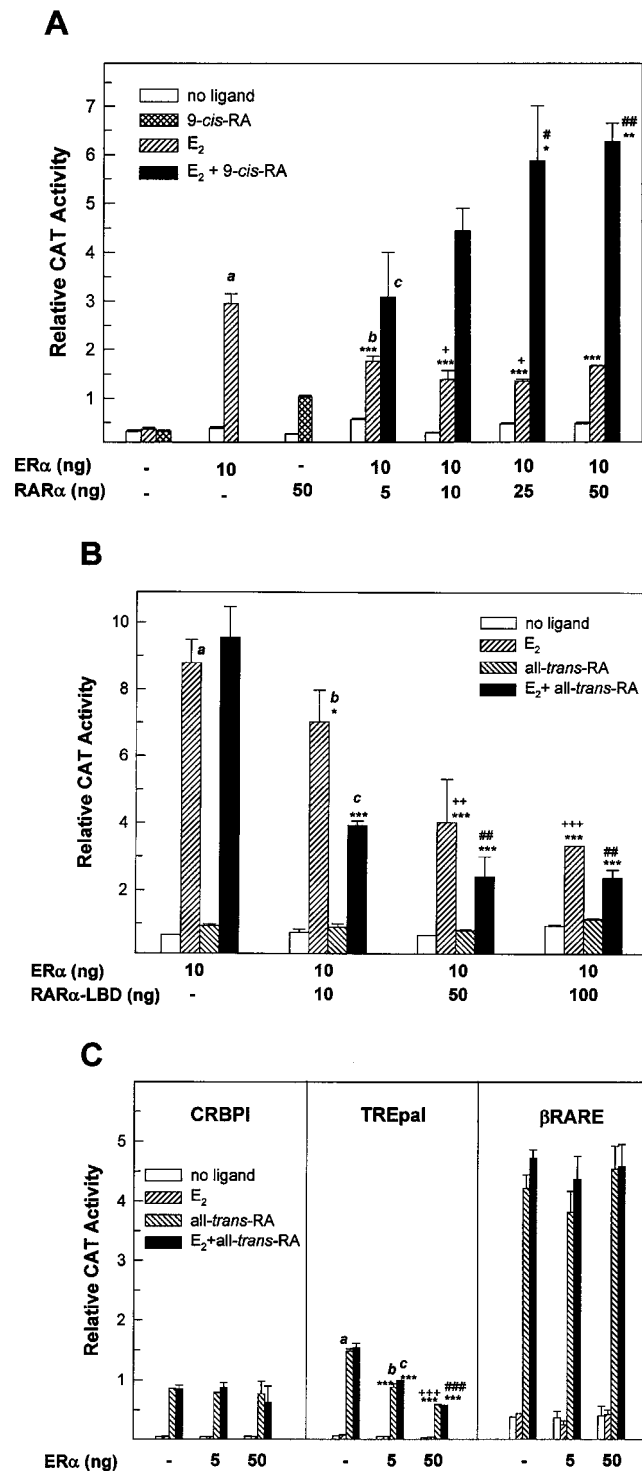
We have shown recently that the ER $\alpha$  interacted with a subset of nuclear receptors including RAR $\alpha$  and RXR $\alpha$  [23]. These results led us to examine whether the recently described isotype of ER, ER $\beta$  [24,32,33], also interacted with these receptors. As shown in Table 1, a *LexA* fusion to ER $\beta$  alone was transcriptionally inert. However, co-expression of B42 fusions to the LBD of RXR $\alpha$  (B42/RXR-LBD) and RAR $\alpha$  (B42/RAR $\alpha$ ), but not to the LBD of GR (B42/GR-LBD), led to significant activation of *LacZ* reporter gene expression, suggesting that ER $\beta$  specifically interacted with RAR $\alpha$  and RXR $\alpha$ . Interestingly, the *LexA/ER* $\beta$ -mediated transactivations with co-expression of B42/RXR-LBD or B42/RAR $\alpha$  were stimulated in the presence of both oestradiol

**Table 1 Interactions between ER $\beta$  and retinoid receptors in yeast**

The indicated B42 and *LexA* plasmids were transformed into a yeast strain containing an appropriate *LacZ* reporter gene. At least six separate transformants from each transformation were transferred to indicator plates containing X-gal, and reproducible results were obtained using colonies from a separate transformation. + + +, intense blue colonies after 2 days of incubation indicating strong interaction; + +, light blue colonies after 2 days of incubation indicating intermediate interaction; +, light blue colonies after more than 2 days of incubation indicating weak interaction; -, white colonies indicating no interaction; n.d., not determined.

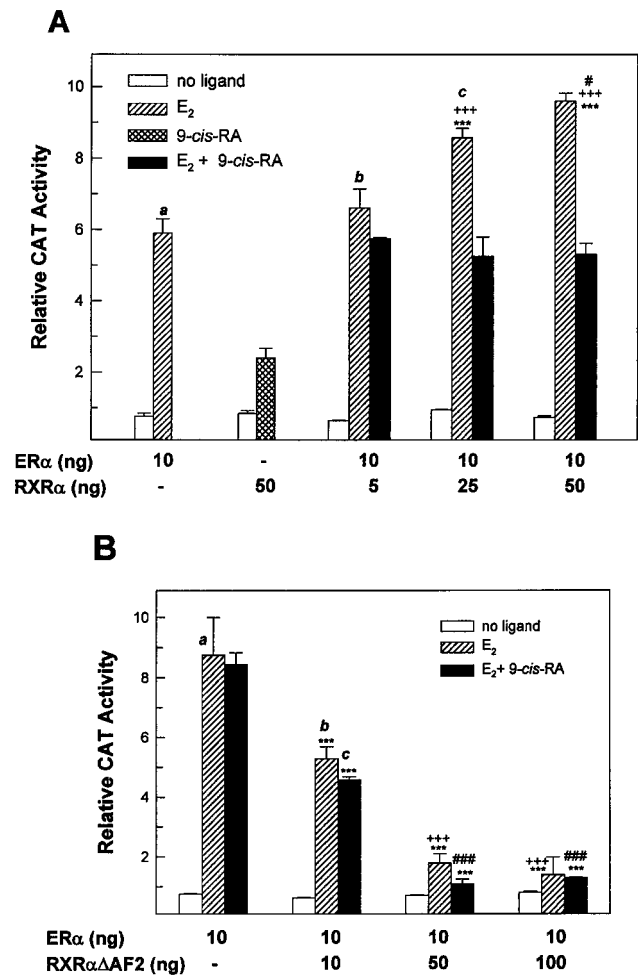
Ligand ...	LexA/-		LexA/ER $\beta$		
	None	None	Oestradiol	9- <i>cis</i> -RA	Oestradiol + 9- <i>cis</i> -RA
B42/-	-	-	-	-	-
B42/GR-LBD	-	-	-	n.d.	n.d.
B42/RXR $\alpha$ -LBD	-	+	+	+	++
B42/RAR $\alpha$	-	+	+	+	++
B42/ER $\beta$	-	++	+++	n.d.	n.d.





**Figure 3** RAR $\alpha$  and all-*trans*-RA modulated transcriptional activity of ER $\alpha$  in CV-1 cells

ERE-*tk*-CAT (0.1  $\mu$ g), TRE-*tk*-CAT (0.1  $\mu$ g), CRBP1-*tk*-CAT (0.1  $\mu$ g) and  $\beta$ RARE-*tk*-CAT (0.1  $\mu$ g), were co-transfected with the indicated combinations of receptor expression vectors into CV-1 cells as described in the Materials and methods section. **(A)** ERE-*tk*-CAT with pECE-ER $\alpha$  and/or pECE-RAR $\alpha$ . Transfected cells were treated with oestradiol ( $10^{-8}$  M) (E<sub>2</sub>), 9-*cis*-RA ( $10^{-7}$  M) or both, as indicated, and assayed 24 h later for CAT activity. Co-transfection of RAR $\alpha$  inhibited ER $\alpha$  activity on the ERE. \*\*\*,  $P < 0.001$ ; +,  $P < 0.05$ ; \*,  $P < 0.05$  compared with *a*. +,  $P < 0.05$  compared with *b*. ##,  $P < 0.01$ ; #,  $P < 0.05$  compared with *c*. **(B)** ERE-*tk*-CAT with pECE-ER $\alpha$  and/or pECE-RAR $\alpha$ -LBD. Transfected cells were treated with oestradiol ( $10^{-8}$  M) (E<sub>2</sub>), all-*trans*-RA ( $10^{-7}$  M) or both, as indicated, and assayed 24 h later for CAT activity. Co-transfection of RAR $\alpha$ -LBD inhibited ER $\alpha$  activity on the ERE. \*\*\*,  $P <$

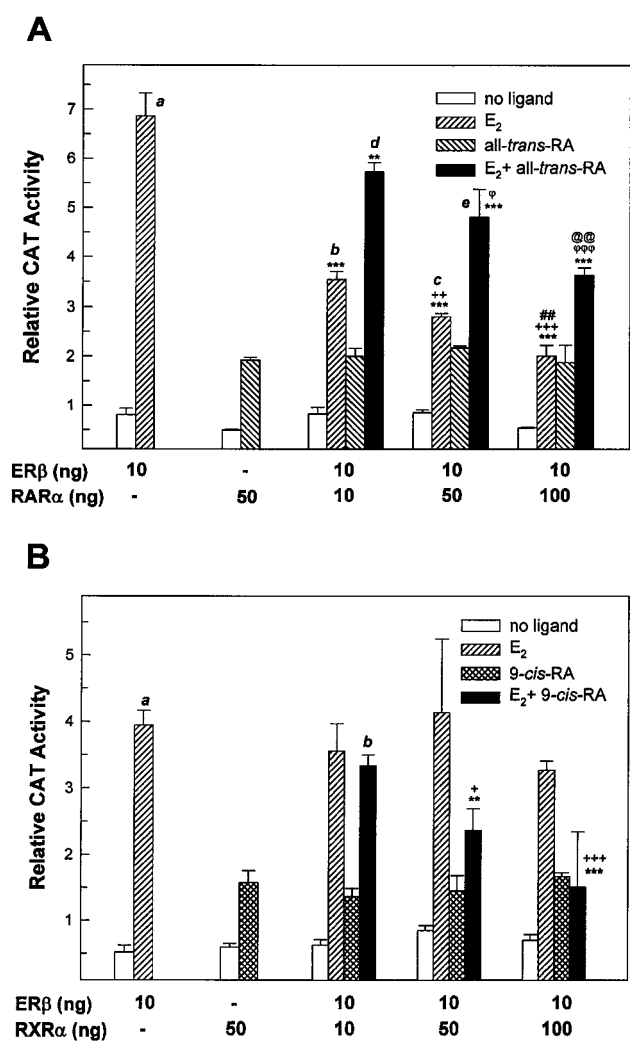


**Figure 4** RXR $\alpha$  and 9-*cis*-RA modulated transcriptional activity of ER $\alpha$  in CV-1 cells

**(A)** ERE-*tk*-CAT (0.1  $\mu$ g) was co-transfected with pECE-ER $\alpha$  (10 ng) in the presence of the indicated amounts of RXR $\alpha$  expression vector (pECE-RXR $\alpha$ ) into CV-1 cells as described in the Materials and methods section. Transfected cells were treated with oestradiol ( $10^{-8}$  M) (E<sub>2</sub>), 9-*cis*-RA ( $10^{-7}$  M) or both and assayed 24 h later for CAT activity. Co-transfection of RXR $\alpha$  enhanced ER $\alpha$  activity on ERE. \*\*\*,  $P < 0.001$ , + + +,  $P < 0.001$ , and #,  $P < 0.05$  compared with *a*, *b* and *c* respectively. **(B)** ERE-*tk*-CAT (0.1  $\mu$ g) was co-transfected with pECE-ER $\alpha$  (10 ng) in the presence of the indicated amounts of pCMX-RXR $\alpha$ ΔAF2 into CV-1 cells as described in the Materials and methods section. Transfected cells were treated with oestradiol ( $10^{-8}$  M) (E<sub>2</sub>), 9-*cis*-RA ( $10^{-7}$  M) or both and assayed 24 h later for CAT activity. Co-transfection of RXR $\alpha$ ΔAF2 inhibited ER $\alpha$  activity on ERE. \*\*\*,  $P < 0.001$ , + + +,  $P < 0.001$ , and ###,  $P < 0.001$  compared with *a*, *b* and *c* respectively. The results are the means  $\pm$  S.E.M. ( $n = 4$ ).

ERE, without ER $\alpha$  co-transfected. Interestingly, co-expression of the RAR $\alpha$ -LBD that contains the protein-protein-interaction domain with other nuclear receptors did not show this synergy with ER $\alpha$  but repressed the reporter activity as efficiently as the wild-type RAR $\alpha$  (Figure 3B). These results indicate that RAR $\alpha$ -

0.001 and \*,  $P < 0.05$  compared with *a*. + + +,  $P < 0.001$  and + +,  $P < 0.01$  compared with *b*. ##,  $P < 0.01$  compared with *c*. **(C)** CRBP1, TREpal,  $\beta$ RARE with ER $\alpha$ . Transfected cells were treated with oestradiol ( $10^{-8}$  M) (E<sub>2</sub>), all-*trans*-RA ( $10^{-7}$  M) or both, as indicated, and assayed 24 h later for CAT activity. ER $\alpha$  differentially modulated transcriptional activity of RAR $\alpha$  on RAREs. \*\*\*,  $P < 0.001$ , + + +,  $P < 0.001$ , and ###,  $P < 0.001$  compared with *a*, *b* and *c* respectively. The results, in each case, are the means  $\pm$  S.E.M. ( $n = 4$ ).

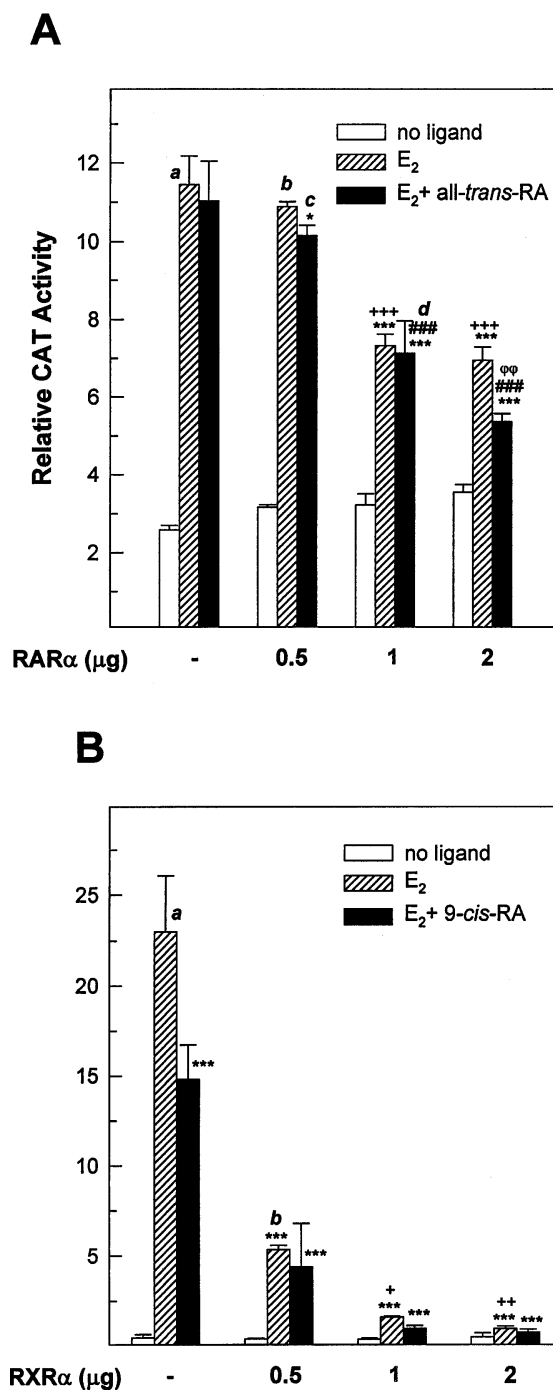


**Figure 5** Modulation of transcriptional activity of ER $\beta$  induced by RAR $\alpha$  (A) or RXR $\alpha$  (B)

ERE-*tk*-CAT (0.1  $\mu$ g) was co-transfected with the ER $\beta$  expression vector (pECE-ER $\beta$ , 10 ng), in the presence of the indicated amounts of (A) pECE-RAR $\alpha$  or (B) pECE-RXR $\alpha$ , into CV-1 cells as described in the Materials and methods section. Transfected cells were treated with (A) oestradiol ( $10^{-8}$  M) (E<sub>2</sub>), all-*trans*-RA ( $10^{-7}$  M) or both or (B) oestradiol ( $10^{-8}$  M) (E<sub>2</sub>), 9-*cis*-RA or both, and assayed 24 h later for CAT activity. In (A), \*\*\*,  $P < 0.001$  and \*\*,  $P < 0.01$  compared with *a*. + + +,  $P < 0.001$  and + +,  $P < 0.01$  compared with *b*. ##,  $P < 0.01$  compared with *c*.  $\phi\phi\phi$ ,  $P < 0.001$  and  $\phi$ ,  $P < 0.05$  compared with *d*. @@@,  $P < 0.01$  compared with *e*. In (B), \*\*\*,  $P < 0.001$  and \*\*,  $P < 0.01$  compared with *a*. + + +,  $P < 0.001$  and +,  $P < 0.05$  compared with *b*. The results are the means  $\pm$  S.E.M. ( $n = 4$ ).

LBD may be sufficient to exert the negative effects on the ER activity, whereas the synergy obtained with liganded RAR $\alpha$  may require non-LBD domains of RAR $\alpha$ . Overall, these results suggest that the direct protein-protein interactions described above (Table 1, Figures 1 and 2) appear to play major roles in the modulation of ER $\alpha$  activity by RAR $\alpha$ .

If the inhibition of ER $\alpha$  activity by unliganded-RAR $\alpha$  was through direct physical interactions, inhibition of the RAR-mediated transactivation by ER $\alpha$  could also be expected. As shown in Figure 3(C), ER $\alpha$  itself did not affect the RARE reporter gene activities in the absence or presence of oestradiol. Co-transfection of increasing amounts of ER $\alpha$ , however, significantly inhibited the all-*trans*-RA-dependent activation of the



**Figure 6** RAR $\alpha$  (A) and RXR $\alpha$  (B) repressed transcriptional activity of endogenous ER $\alpha$  present in MCF-7 cells

ERE-*tk*-CAT (0.25  $\mu$ g) was co-transfected with pECE-RAR $\alpha$  or (B) pECE-RXR $\alpha$  into MCF-7 cells as described in the Materials and methods section. Transfected cells were treated with oestradiol ( $10^{-8}$  M) (E<sub>2</sub>) alone or with (A) all-*trans*-RA ( $10^{-7}$  M) or (B) 9-*cis*-RA and assayed 24 h later for CAT activity. In (A), \*\*\*,  $P < 0.001$  and \*,  $P < 0.05$  compared with *a*. + + +,  $P < 0.001$ ; ###,  $P < 0.001$ ;  $\phi\phi$ ,  $P < 0.01$  compared with *b*, *c* and *d* respectively. In (B), \*\*\*,  $P < 0.001$  compared with *a*. + +,  $P < 0.01$  and +,  $P < 0.05$  compared with *b*. The results are the means  $\pm$  S.E.M. ( $n = 4$ ).

TREpal-*tk*-CAT reporter constructs. In contrast, the CRBPI-*tk*-CAT and  $\beta$ RARE-*tk*-CAT gene expressions were not significantly affected. The inhibition may not be due to competitive

DNA binding, since ER $\alpha$  did not bind or transactivate the response element ([11], and results not shown). These results suggest that the direct interactions between ER $\alpha$  and RAR $\alpha$  are also capable of modulating the RAR $\alpha$  activities, with a subset of RAREs at least.

#### Co-expression of RXR $\alpha$ modulates ER $\alpha$ -mediated transactivation

Co-transfection of CV-1 cells with RXR $\alpha$  alone led to approx. 3-fold activation of the reporter gene expression by 9-*cis*-RA, consistent with the ERE binding of RXR $\alpha$  in gel-shift assays. This 9-*cis*-RA-induced level of transcription with RXR $\alpha$  on ERE was equal to approx. 40% of the oestradiol-induced transcription of ER $\alpha$  on ERE. When increasing amounts of unliganded RXR $\alpha$  was co-expressed, the oestradiol-dependent transactivation of ER $\alpha$  was enhanced in a dose-dependent manner (Figure 4A), consistent with the direct protein-protein interactions described above (Table 1, Figures 1 and 2). To test whether the AF2 transactivation function of RXR $\alpha$  was required for this synergy between liganded ER $\alpha$  and unliganded RXR $\alpha$ , we used a mutant RXR specifically impaired for the AF2 domain, RXR $\Delta$ AF2, described previously [32]. RXR $\Delta$ AF2 significantly reduced the transcriptional activity of ER $\alpha$  in either the presence or absence of 9-*cis*-RA (Figure 4B), indicating that the AF2 domain of RXR is required for the synergistic activation of liganded ER $\alpha$  and unliganded RXR $\alpha$ .

#### Modulations of the ER $\beta$ -mediated transactivation by RAR $\alpha$ and RXR $\alpha$

ER $\beta$  has similarities to the ER $\alpha$  in its structure and function [24,32,33]. However, tissue distribution of the receptors is not identical, although in some tissues it appears to overlap [33]. We tested whether the transactivation function of ER $\beta$  was similarly regulated by co-transfected RAR $\alpha$  or RXR $\alpha$ . As shown in Figures 5(A) and 5(B), co-expression of RAR $\alpha$  or RXR $\alpha$  repressed the transcriptional activity of ER $\beta$  in a ligand-independent manner. The transcriptional synergies observed between liganded ER $\alpha$  and liganded RAR $\alpha$  or unliganded RXR $\alpha$  were not observed with ER $\beta$ , suggesting that transcriptional properties of the potential heterocomplexes of ER $\beta$  with RAR $\alpha$  or RXR $\alpha$  are different from those of the ER $\alpha$  heterocomplexes.

#### Co-transfection of RAR $\alpha$ and RXR $\alpha$ inhibited transactivations of endogenous ER in MCF-7 cells

We examined whether the retinoid receptors modulate transactivation of endogenous ER $\alpha$  in a hormone-dependent and ER-positive human breast carcinoma cell line, MCF-7. Both RAR $\alpha$  and RXR $\alpha$  inhibited the endogenous ER-activity ligand independently (Figures 6A and 6B), which was primarily in agreement with other observations [5,34]. However these results were in marked contrast with the results that were obtained in CV-1 cells (see Figures 3 and 4), suggesting that the interaction of the retinoid receptors and ER $\alpha$  may involve other cellular factor(s), such as co-activators and co-repressors distributed among different cell types. Such factors are at present unknown but may be important cellular determinants that mediate cross-talk between retinoids and oestrogen in a cell-type-specific manner. These findings are in agreement with the anti-proliferative effects of retinoids on ER-positive, hormone-dependent breast cancer cells.

#### DISCUSSION

Recently, it has become apparent that a complex network of interaction exists among nuclear receptor superfamily members.

In particular, complexities of the regulation of oestrogen-responsive gene expression implicate not only ER and ERE but also other transcriptional factors and DNA binding motifs [35–37]. The potential cross-talk between ER and RAR–RXR had been suspected, since retinoids effectively restricted oestrogen effects on human breast cancer cells *in vitro* and *in vivo* [3,4] and the responses to all-*trans*-RA appeared to correlate with expression of ER [5–8].

Consistently with these results, we clearly demonstrated that ER $\beta$  directly interacted with retinoid receptors using the yeast two-hybrid and GST pull-down assays (Table 1 and Figure 2). These results extend those of other reports in which ER $\alpha$  was shown to act as a common interaction partner for a subset of nuclear receptors including oestrogen receptor-related receptor 1, COUP-TF, RAR $\alpha$  and RXR $\alpha$  [23,38–40]. However, we were not able to find any intermediate heterodimer binding to ERE between ER $\alpha$  and retinoid receptors in gel-shift assays. Similarly, heterodimers of COUP-TF–ER [41], oestrogen receptor-related receptor 1–ER [42] and short heterodimer partner-ER [42a], readily detected in solution, were not observed to bind EREs in gel-shift assays. In parallel, two recent reports showed interaction of COUP-TF with orphan receptors nur77 [17] and HNF4 [18] only in solution but not when bound to DNA. These results are consistent with the possibility that the ER–retinoid receptors may bind EREs as a heterodimer or a higher-order complex, which are not stable enough to sustain in gel-shift assays. In addition, we showed that RAR $\alpha$  and RXR $\alpha$  bound ERE as efficiently as ER $\alpha$  in the conditions employed, suggesting that competitive DNA binding of retinoid receptors to ERE may participate in the modulation of transactivation of ER $\alpha$ .

Our transient transfection data clearly demonstrate that the direct protein–protein interactions of ER with retinoid receptors play major roles in the cross-talk between ER and retinoid receptors. As shown in Figures 3 and 4, co-transfection of RAR $\alpha$  or RXR $\alpha$  modulated the transactivation potential of ER $\alpha$  in a negative or positive manner. The negative effects of unliganded RAR $\alpha$  on the transcriptional activation of ER $\alpha$  may reflect either competitive binding of the retinoid receptors to ERE (Figure 2) or the intrinsically lower transactivation potential of the putative heterocomplex of ER $\alpha$ –RAR $\alpha$ . However, the latter possibility is strongly suggested by the results in which co-transfection of only the LBD of RAR $\alpha$  was as efficient as wild-type RAR $\alpha$  in repressing ER $\alpha$  activity (Figure 1C), and an excess of RAR $\alpha$ -LBD partially abolished the binding of ER $\alpha$  in gel-shift assays (Figure 3). In addition, 9-*cis*-RA has been reported to induce squelching of RXR from transcriptionally active heterodimers, such as RAR–RXR and thyroid hormone receptor–RXR, into RXR homodimers, thus repressing the transcriptional activity of such heterodimers [43]. Therefore, the repression of transcriptional activity of the putative ER $\alpha$ –RXR $\alpha$  heterocomplex by 9-*cis*-RA may have resulted from this 9-*cis*-RA-induced homodimerization of RXR $\alpha$ . Importantly, either liganded RAR $\alpha$  or unliganded RXR $\alpha$  enhanced the ER $\alpha$  transactivation by oestradiol (Figures 3 and 4). These synergistic effects are an excellent demonstration of the formation of transcriptionally active heterodimer complexes between ER and retinoid receptors on ERE.

Recent studies suggested that transcriptional regulation by nuclear receptors is controlled by selective recruitment of co-activators in response to ligand [44–47], whereas the co-repressors, such as the silencing mediator for retinoid and thyroid receptors (SMRT) and the nuclear receptor co-repressor (N-CoR), selectively interact with unliganded receptors [48,49]. Selective recruitment of either co-activators or co-repressors, depending on the status of ligand binding, may determine the

transactivation potential of each of the putative ER–RAR $\alpha$  or ER–RXR $\alpha$  heterocomplexes. For instance, while unliganded RXR $\alpha$  enhanced ER $\alpha$  activity on ERE reporter gene activity, RXR $\alpha$  $\Delta$ AF2, a mutant lacking the AF2 function, significantly repressed the ER $\alpha$  activity (Figure 2C), suggesting that transcriptional co-activators that act through the AF2 domain could be involved in the transcriptional activation of the ER $\alpha$ –RXR $\alpha$  heterocomplex. Furthermore, many of the known transcription cofactors are expressed with tissue- and cell-type specificity *in vivo*. Thus such factors may act as a major determinant in the differential control of cross-talk between ER and retinoid receptors in different cell types. Consistently with this, amplification and overexpression of AIB1, a member of the SRC-1 family, has been observed recently in ER-positive breast and ovarian cancer cells [50]. In addition, unliganded RXR $\alpha$  enhanced ER $\alpha$  activity in CV-1 cells, whereas it was inhibitory in MCF-7 cells (Figures 3, 4 and 6), suggesting the presence of putative intracellular factors which are expressed differentially in these two cell types.

In conclusion, we have shown that direct protein–protein interactions between ER and RAR $\alpha$ –RXR $\alpha$  may play major roles in the cross-talk between these receptors. Our results have provided a potential mechanism by which retinoids contribute to the normal physiological modulation of oestrogen function, and by which the alteration of molecular interactions leads to changes in biological responses to oestrogen and retinoids. The physiological and pharmacological implications of the cross-talk between ER and RAR $\alpha$ –RXR $\alpha$  described in this work may provide a potential target for development of therapeutics and/or preventive agents against breast cancer.

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