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Clinical significance of estrogen receptor β in breast cancer

Published online: 5 November 2005 © Springer-Verlag 2005

Abstract Ever since the estrogen receptor (ER) β was discovered in 1996, we have been trying to determine its value as a prognostic and/or predictive factor in breast cancer and its potential as a novel target for pharmacological intervention. Recent progress in cellular experiments has shown that $ER\beta$ works as counter partner of ERα through inhibition of the transactivating function of ERa by heterodimerization, distinct regulation on several specific promoters by ER α or ER β , and $ER\beta$ -specific regulated genes which are probably related to its anti-proliferative properties. Accumulated data from protein studies in breast cancer tissues indicate that positive expression of ER β appears to correlate with a favorable prognosis. Although the number of studies is small, a positive response to tamoxifen treatment is observed in both ER α - and ER β -positive populations. The significance of $ER\beta 2/cx$, a splicing variant of $ER\beta$, remains controversial and needs to be analyzed in further studies. We postulate that a combined evaluation of $ER\beta cx$ with progesterone receptor may help the stratification of ERα-positive breast cancer. Epidemiological studies of hormone replacement therapy and isoflavone (genistein) consumption indicate the possible contribution of ER β -specific signaling in breast cancer prevention. A selective estrogen receptor modulator, which works as an antagonist of ER α and an agonist of ER β , may be a promising chemo-preventive treatment.

This work was presented at the 20th Bristol-Myers Squibb Nagoya International Cancer Treatment Symposium, "New Concepts of Treatment Strategies for Hormone-Related Cancer", 11-12 March 2005, Nagoya, Japan.

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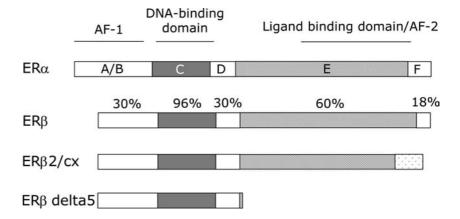
Keywords Estrogen receptor · Breast cancer · Selective estrogen receptor modulator (SERM) · Endocrine therapy

Character and expression of estrogen receptor β in breast tissues

Ever since the discovery of a protein that specifically binds to tritium-labeled estradiol in the uterus during the 1960s [13] and the cloning of the cDNA sequence coding that protein in 1986 [10, 11], it was believed that the action of estrogen signaling is regulated via a single type of estrogen receptor (ER). In 1996, a second estrogen receptor, named ER β , was cloned from a male rat organ prostate [14], and this has raised concerns about the unexpected functions of estrogen in the broader area of biology.

 $ER\beta$ belongs to the nuclear receptor superfamily, members of which share a common structural architecture. It is composed of three independent, but interacting, functional domains (Fig. 1). The N-terminal domain encodes a ligand-independent activation function (AF-1), a region of the receptor involved in protein protein interactions and constitutive transcriptional activation of target-gene expression [reviewed in 22]. Comparison of the AF-1 domains of the two ERs revealed that, in ERα, this domain is relatively active on an estrogen response element (ERE), but the activity of the AF-1 domain of ER β is weak [6]. The DNA binding domain (DBD) possesses a two zinc-finger structure, which plays an important role in receptor dimerization and in binding of receptors to specific DNA sequences. The DBDs of ER α and ER β are highly homologous [7]. Thus ER α and ER β are expected to bind to EREs with similar affinity and specificity. The E/F portion of the ER is called the ligand-binding domain (LBD), and mediates ligand binding, receptor dimerization, and transactivation of target gene upon ligand binding (AF-2). The LBD of ER β is 60% homologous with the LBD of ER α . It is therefore not surprising that estradiol binds

Fig. 1 Schematic representation of estrogen receptor (ER) structures. Percentages indicate the homology of $ER\beta$ amino acid sequences to $ER\alpha$



to ER α and ER β with almost similar affinities (Kd=0.05 nM for ER α ; Kd=0.09 nM for ER β). However, the phytoestrogen genistein has at least a tenfold higher affinity for ER β [15].

Several types of splicing variants of ER β have been reported to date [reviewed in 22, 29, 37]. Among them, $ER\beta 2/cx$ is an important target in breast cancer biology (Fig. 1). ER β cx is identical to wild-type ER β (530 a.a. form) in exons 1–7, but exon 8 is replaced by 26 unique amino acid residues [18, 23]. Due to the difference in the last exon, ER β cx lacks the amino acid residues important for ligand binding and those that constitute the core of the AF-2 domain. Therefore, ER β cx does not bind estradiol and lacks the ability to activate transcription of an estrogen-sensitive reporter gene [23]. Moreover, ER β cx prefers to heterodimerize with ER α rather than with $ER\beta$, inhibiting $ER\alpha$ DNA binding. Functionally, the heterodimerization of ER β cx with ER α has a dominant negative effect on the ligand-dependent transactivation function of ER α [23].

Although expression of $ER\beta$ in the mammary gland and breast cancer tissues was controversial until specific antibodies for $ER\beta$ became available, recent studies with certain antibodies reported almost similar results [37]. In the mature mammary gland, $ER\beta$ is more broadly expressed in epithelial cells and stromal cells including fibroblast and endothelial cells, whereas $ER\alpha$ is spontaneously observed in epithelial cells [36]. In breast cancer archives, $ER\beta$ positivity was reported to be approximately 50–70% by immunohistochemistry [37]. Data from sucrose gradient profiling also indicated that the protein concentration of $ER\beta$ in breast cancer tissues appeared to be comparable with that of $ER\alpha$; i.e., range of $ER\alpha$ protein was 13–3,700 fmol/mg, and that of $ER\beta$ was 20–475 fmol/mg protein [29].

The function of $ER\beta$ in breast cancer

It is generally thought that the function of $ER\beta$ is to counter that of $ER\alpha$ (Fig. 2). Introduction of the $ER\beta$ expression vector into representative $ER\alpha$ -positive breast cancer cell lines MCF-7 and T47D led to a reduction in estrogen-stimulated proliferation [26, 39].

When ER α works as a transcriptional activator on ERE, the function of ER α is suppressed by dimerization with ER β . Lindberg et al. [16] using microarray analysis, observed that compared with wild-type mice, ERα-regulated genes were significantly enhanced in ER β knockout mice. The other mechanism of ERs is found on the AP-1 response element; ER α exerts positive transcriptional activation for a downstream target, whereas ER β shows null or reduced activity for transcription from this promoter [28]. Microarray analysis has demonstrated the presence of estrogen-regulated genes that are only enhanced by ER α or ER β . Stossi et al. [38] established U2OS osteosarcoma cells, which stably express ER α or ER β . In their study, 52 genes were identified as common estrogen-regulated genes by ER α and ER β . However, beside these genes, 24 were enhanced only by ER α and 9 were induced only by ER β . Among the nine genes induced by ER β , the functions of six were unknown. It would be interesting to define the ER β -specific regulated genes, because we speculate that these genes might be related to anti-proliferative or pro-apoptotic properties.

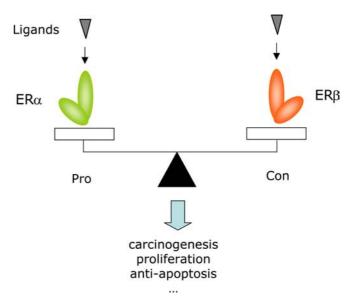


Fig. 2 Schematic representation of the function of estrogen receptor (ER) α and β

Table 1 Summary of estrogen receptor (ER) α and ER β expression pattern in primary breast cancer evaluated by immunohistochemical staining

Author (Reference)	n	α+ β+ (%)	α+ β- (%)	α- β+ (%)	α- β- (%)
Skliris et al. [34] Fuqua et al. [9]	319 234	62 62	13 14	18	8
Mann et al. [17] Saji (2005, unpublished data)	47 108	53 45	11 15	17 12	19 28

Table 2 Summary of recent studies evaluating the possibility of estrogen receptor $(ER)\beta$ expression as a prognostic indicator (*IHC* immunohistochemical analysis, TAM tamoxifen)

Author (Reference)	n	Sample	Adjuvant treatment	Prognosis in ER β +
Myers et al. [20] Fuqua et al. [9] Omoto et al. [25] Omoto et al. [24] Hopp et al. [12] O'Neill et al. [27] Nakopoulou et al. [21]	150 242 57 88 305 167 181	Protein (IHC) Protein (IHC) Protein (IHC) Protein (IHC) Protein (Western) Protein (IHC) Protein (IHC)	Not specified Not specified Not specified Not specified TAM TAM	Favorable No correlation Favorable Favorable No correlation Favorable
Mann et al. [17] Mann et al. [17]	118 47	Protein (IHC) Protein (IHC)	TAM Without TAM	Favorable No correlation

When ER β cx was expressed in ER α -positive breast cancer MCF-7 cells, the ER α /ER β cx complex did not bind to ERE, although the ER α /ER β did [26]. This may indicate that although both ER β and ER β cx inhibit ER α function by heterodimerization, the site of this action is not the same. It is interesting to speculate that ER β cx preferably inhibits DNA-unbound ER α , which works through other transcriptional factors such as jus and fos, or membrane-related ER α .

Expression of $ER\beta$ and its role as a prognostic and predictive factor

While there is strong expression of $ER\beta$ in normal mammary gland, its expression appears to be reduced during carcinogenesis [31, 33, 34]. For instance, Shaaban et al. [33] carried out an immunohistochemical analysis of 283 samples of breast tissue. They found that the median proportion of cells expressing $ER\beta$ was 94.3% in normal breast lobules, 76.7% in ductal hyperplasia, 70.0% in ductal carcinoma in situ and 60.0% in invasive cancer.

Table 1 summarizes the reported population of ER α and/or ER β -positive tumors in human breast cancer specimens [9, 17, 34]. Although it is not fair to compare these results directly due to the difference in patient populations tested and in the antibodies used, it is

noteworthy that about 50% of breast cancer patients express both ER α and ER β .

To date, many investigators have tried to define the significance of $ER\beta$ expression as a prognostic indicator because, in general, $ER\alpha$ -positive patients have a favorable prognosis compared to those who do not express $ER\alpha$. Table 2 summarizes recent publications evaluating $ER\beta$ protein expression and its correlation to prognosis [9, 12, 17, 20, 21, 24, 25, 27]. There is no paper showing a correlation with poor prognosis in $ER\beta$ -positive patients. It would not be surprising to find a favorable prognosis in $ER\beta$ -positive patients, considering the biological function of $ER\beta$ against $ER\alpha$.

In terms of predictive factors for treatment, there are studies evaluating $ER\beta$ mRNA and immunohistochemical staining (Table 3) [4, 5, 8, 19, 35]. In these reports, relapse rates in adjuvant treatment and response rates of metastatic or primary tumors to antiestrogen treatment were used as markers for defining the predictive value of $ER\beta$. It is interesting to note the discrepancy in mRNA and protein studies. Expression of $ER\beta$ mRNA appears to indicate a poor response to treatment [4, 5, 19, 35], whereas positive $ER\beta$ protein staining is thought to indicate a favorable response to antiestrogen treatment [8, 19]. Although there is no clear explanation for these differences, we should be careful when extrapolating the results of these studies to microarray or proteomics analysis. Balfe et al. [2] re-

Table 3 Summary of recent studies evaluating the possibility of estrogen receptor $(ER)\beta$ expression as a predictive factor for endocrine therapy (IHC) immunohistochemical analysis, n-, node negative, Adj adjuvant treatment, TAM tamoxifen, TOR toremifen, Rec recurrence)

Author (Reference)	n	Sample	Target	Drug setting	Response in $ER\beta$ +
Speirs et al. [35] Murphy et al. [19] Chang et al. [5] Cappelletti et al. [4] Esslimani-Sahla et al. [8] Murphy et al. [19]	17 27 102 47 50 27	mRNA mRNA mRNA Protein (IHC) Protein (IHC)	$ER\alpha+, n ER\alpha+$ $ER\alpha+$ $ER\alpha+$ $ER\alpha+$	Adj, TAM Adj, TAM Rec, TAM Neo-adj, TOR Adj, TAM Adj, TAM	Poor No correlation Poor No correlation Favorable Favorable

Table 4 Summary of studies evaluating the possibility of ER β cx expression as a predictive factor for endocrine therapy (*IHC* immunohistochemical analysis, *Adj* adjuvant treatment, *TAM* tamoxifen, *Meta-LABC* metastatic or local advanced breast cancer)

Author (Reference)	n	Sample	Target	Drug setting	Response in ER β cx +
Esslimani-Sahla et al. [8]	50	Protein (IHC)	$ER\alpha + ER\alpha +$	Adj, TAM	No correlation
Saji (2005, unpublished data)	67	Protein (IHC)		Adj, TAM	No correlation
Palmieri et al. [30]	23	Protein (Western)		Meta-LABC, TAM	Favorable

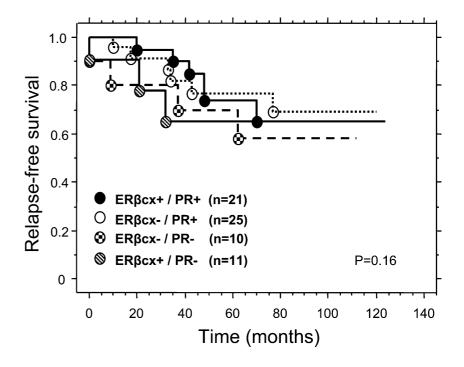
ported that ER α mRNA had a positive correlation with its protein expression; however, only 54% of ER β mRNA-positive cases showed concordance with ER β protein evaluation. In addition to regulation at a transcription level, it is possible that the ER β protein is more dominantly regulated by a degradation process.

Prediction of response to endocrine therapy by ER β cx expression is also a challenging subject. Results of our unpublished data and two other papers with a specific antibody for ER β cx developed by Dr. Jan-Ake Gustafsson's group at the Karolinska Institute, Sweden, are summarized in Table 4 [8, 30]. Due to the limitation of sample number and differences in patient settings, the answer remains controversial. We have already reported the data in neo-adjuvant tamoxifen treatment for primary breast cancer [32]. In this study, we were not able to demonstrate the predictive power of ER β cx expression itself. However, evaluation with progesterone receptor (PgR) helped to discriminate poor responders to tamoxifen treatment from others. Our idea is that in ER α -positive tumors, ER β cx-positivity and PgR-negativity indicates the presence of dominant negative-regulation by $ER\beta cx$, whereas $ER\beta cx$ -positivity and PgR-positivity indicate higher activity of ER α in overcoming ER β cx inhibition. Former tumors may not respond to endocrine therapy, but should have sensitivity at a later time. To date, our preliminary data in 67 breast cancer specimens could not prove this idea in the adjuvant setting (Fig. 3), and it needs to be evaluated using a larger number of specimens with uniform background.

Future perspectives

We postulate that selective estrogen receptor modulators (SERMs), which work as complete antagonists for ERα and agonists for ER β , may be useful in cancer treatment, especially in chemoprevention strategies. Metaanalysis of randomized trials of hormone replacement therapy shows a statistically significant increased risk of breast cancer (HR = 1.27) and decreased risk of colon cancer (0.64) by administering estrogen with or without progesterone [3]. In epidemiological studies, several reports have suggested that isoflavone consumption (especially genistein) may reduce the risk of breast cancer and colon cancer [1, 41]. In the ductal cells of mammary glands, both ER α and ER β are expressed; however, ER β is the only receptor expressed in the tubular cells of the colon [40]. When merging these with the fact that genistein has a higher affinity for ER β , it is not difficult to suppose that agonists for ER β may work

Fig. 3 Kaplan-Maier analysis of relapse-free survival in 67 estrogen receptor $(ER)\alpha$ -positive patients treated with adjuvant tamoxifen treatment. $ER\beta cx + indicates 2-8 points in Allred scoring. Patients with 5-8 points are considered PR +$



preventively for breast cancer and colon cancer. Of course, this is speculation and we need further data before proceeding with this strategy. TAS-108, a SERM showing antagonistic property toward ER α signaling accompanied with a partial agonistic effect for ER β , is currently undergoing phase II trials for metastatic breast cancer treatment [42]. In order to utilize this characteristic, it will be important to include ER β expression in tumor tissues and molecular analysis of estrogen signaling in other organs as subjects to be evaluated in clinical trials. Since the clinical application of aromatase inhibitors for breast cancer treatment has spread rapidly, SERMs will need to show benefits in a broader range of estrogen biology throughout the whole body.

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