

# The Dual ER $\alpha$ Inhibitory Effects of the Tissue-Selective Estrogen Complex for Endometrial and Breast Safety

Sang Jun Han, Khurshida Begum, Charles E Foulds, Ross A Hamilton, Suzanna Bailey, Anna Malovannaya, Doug Chan, Jun Qin, and Bert W. O'Malley.

Department of Molecular and Cellular Biology, Baylor College of Medicine, Houston, TX, USA  
(S.J.H., K.B., C.E.F., R.A.H, S.B., A.M., D.C., J.Q., B.W.O).

Center for Molecular Discovery, Verna and Marrs McLean, Department of Biochemistry and  
Molecular Biology, Baylor College of Medicine, Houston, TX USA (A.M., D.C., J.Q)

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Corresponding Author: Bert W. O'Malley, Department of Molecular and Cellular Biology,

Baylor College of Medicine, One Baylor Plaza, Houston, TX, 77030 USA. E-mail:

[berto@bcm.edu](mailto:berto@bcm.edu), Phone: 713-798-6205, FAX: 713-798-5599.

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Abbreviation:

BAZ, Bazedoxifene; BCOR, BCL-6 Corepressor; ER $\alpha$ , Estrogen Receptor  $\alpha$ ; ERE, Estrogen Response Element; FBXO45, F-Box Protein 45; NCoA, Nuclear Receptor Coactivator; SERMs, selective estrogen-receptor modulators; SRCs, Steroid Receptor Coactivator; CE, Conjugated Estrogens; TSEC, Tissue-Selective Estrogen Complex; MS, Mass Spectroscopy; q-PCR, quantitative-PCR; SDS-PAGE, sodium dodecyl sulfate polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis; S.E.M., standard error of the mean.

## Abstracts

The Conjugated Estrogen/Bazedoxifene Tissue-Selective Estrogen Complex (TSEC) is designed to minimize the undesirable effects of estrogen in the uterus and breast tissues and to allow the beneficial effects of estrogen in other estrogen-target tissues, such as the bone and brain. However, the molecular mechanism underlying endometrial and breast safety during TSEC use is not fully understood. ER $\alpha$ -Estrogen Response Element (ERE)-DNA pull-down assays using HeLa nuclear extracts followed by mass spectrometry-immunoblotting analyses revealed that upon TSEC treatment, ER $\alpha$  interacted with transcriptional repressors rather than coactivators. Therefore, the TSEC-mediated recruitment of transcriptional repressors suppresses ER $\alpha$ -mediated transcription in breast and uterus. In addition, TSEC treatment also degraded ER $\alpha$  protein in uterine tissue and breast cancer cells, but not in bone cells. Interestingly, ER $\alpha$ -ERE-DNA pull-down assays also revealed that upon TSEC treatment, ER $\alpha$  interacted with the F-Box Protein 45 (FBXO45) E3 ubiquitin ligase. The loss-of- and gain-of- FBXO45 function analyses indicated that FBXO45 is involved in TSEC-mediated degradation of the ER $\alpha$  protein in endometrial and breast cells. In preclinical studies, these synergistic effects of TSEC on ER $\alpha$  inhibition also suppressed the estrogen-dependent progression of endometriosis. Therefore, the endometrial and breast safety effects of TSEC are associated with synergy between the selective recruitment of transcriptional repressors to ER $\alpha$  and FBXO45-mediated degradation of the ER $\alpha$  protein.

## **Introduction**

Estrogen Receptors (ERs) are members of the nuclear receptor superfamily of ligand-inducible transcription factors that regulate essential cellular processes, such as development, metabolism, reproduction and behavior, by regulating the transcription of ER target genes (Burns and Korach, 2012). The working model for ER $\alpha$  action is that ligand-bound receptor binds to the enhancers/promoters of target genes that contain the estrogen-response element and sequentially recruits multiple coregulator complexes to these regulatory regions; this results in chromatin remodeling and assembly of the transcriptional pre-initiation complex as well as the downstream processing events involved in mRNA synthesis and maturation (Foulds et al., 2013; Green and Carroll, 2007; McKenna and O'Malley, 2002).

Because of its essential role in estrogen target tissues, aberrant regulation of the ER $\alpha$  level and activity is associated with estrogen-related progression of human disease (Burns and Korach; Deroo and Korach, 2006). Therefore, the development of tissue-specific modulators of ER $\alpha$  activity is a critical step to effectively treat the estrogen-related disease progression in specific tissues while minimizing side effects in certain other tissues. This goal led to the development of selective estrogen-receptor modulators (SERMs) (Levenson and Jordan, 1999). The SERMs act as tissue-specific estrogen-receptor agonists in the bone, brain, cardiovascular system, vagina, and urogenital system and as estrogen-receptor antagonists in the breast, endometrium, pelvic floor and in venous thrombosis (Maximov et al., 2013; Morello et al., 2002). The first generation of SERMs included the drug tamoxifen (Jordan and Koerner, 1975; Ward, 1973). Clinical studies revealed that treatment with tamoxifen significantly reduced the incidence of breast cancer in high-risk patients (Jordan, 1988; Morello et al., 2003). However, chronic tamoxifen treatment has stimulatory effects on endometrial cells, increasing the risk of development and



progression of endometrial cancer (Iqbal et al., 2012; Rutqvist, 1993). To overcome the undesirable side effects of tamoxifen, raloxifene (second-generation SERMs) was developed (Black et al., 1994). Because raloxifene reduced the incidence of invasive breast cancer in postmenopausal women with osteoporosis, raloxifene is the current preferred drug for women at risk for vertebral fracture who have an elevated risk of breast cancer (Gizzo et al., 2013; Ko and Jordan, 2011). Unlike tamoxifen, raloxifene does not increase the risk of uterine cancers (DeMichele et al., 2008; Pinkerton and Goldstein, 2010; Vogel et al., 2006) even when combined with vaginal estrogen (Parsons et al., 2003; Pinkerton et al., 2003). To improve upon the beneficial effects of raloxifene, third-generation SERMs were developed, including Bazedoxifene (BAZ), which prevented and treated postmenopausal osteoporosis without adverse stimulation of the breast and endometrium (Komm and Chines, 2012).

To maximize the tissue-specific effects of SERMs and minimize their side effects, a Tissue-Selective Estrogen Complex (TSEC) has been developed (Archer, 2010; Pickar and Mirkin, 2010). The final goal of TSEC therapy is to combine the desired tissue-selective properties of SERMs with the beneficial effects of estrogen. The TSEC would ideally have estrogen-receptor antagonist activity in the breast and endometrium and have reduced vasomotor symptoms and improved lipid profile and Bone Mineral Density compared with a SERM- or estrogen-alone treatment (Mirkin et al., 2014). The first-generation TSEC was a combination of BAZ and conjugated estrogen (CE), which had unique molecular properties compared to the individual components (Mirkin et al., 2014). For example, the BAZ/CE TSEC combination was associated with less than a 1% rate of endometrial hyperplasia. This rate was not significantly different from a placebo-treated group during a two-year study (Pickar et al., 2009). When the incidence of uterine bleeding in postmenopausal women was studied, the mean number of bleeding or

spotting days in women treated with TSEC was not significantly different from a placebo-treated group during two years of therapy (Archer et al., 2009). Thus, TSEC therapy can be used to treat menopausal symptoms without stimulation of the endometrium. Treatment with TSEC for 24 months also did not affect the mammographic density of postmenopausal women with breast cancer compared with a placebo-treated group (Harvey et al., 2013). Therefore, the endometrial and breast-cell stimulatory effects of the accompanying CE were completely abrogated by BAZ in TSEC treatment (Song et al., 2013). Collectively, the TSEC has an anti-estrogenic effect on the growth of breast cancer cells and prevents the development of endometrial hyperplasia in postmenopausal women. However, the molecular mechanisms underlying endometrial and breast safety during TSEC administration are not understood yet; elucidation of these mechanisms is important for the use of TSEC in future clinical therapy. Here, we analyze the molecular functions of TSEC and suggest dual mechanisms by which TSEC inhibits ER $\alpha$  function in endometrial and breast cells.

## Materials and Methods:

**Experimental animals.** Wild-type (C57BL/6J) mice were used. All experiments involving animals were conducted in accordance with the National Institutes of Health (NIH) standards for the use and care of animals, with protocols approved by Baylor College of Medicine. C57BL/6 mice were purchased from The Jackson Laboratory.

**Cell Culture and Reagents.** The HeLa human cervical carcinoma, MCF7 human breast cancer cell lines and HTB-85 human osteosarcoma cell line were obtained from the American Type Culture Collection (Manassas, VA). HeLa cells were cultured in Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium (DMEM) containing 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS). MCF7 cells were maintained in minimum essential medium (MEM) supplemented with 10% FBS. HTB-85 cells were cultured in Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium (DMEM) containing 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS). 4-hydroxytamoxifen, MG132, and ethanol-soluble estrogen (E2) were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (St. Louis, MO). Bazedoxifene and conjugated estrogen (CE)/Premarin were obtained from Pfizer Inc. (New York, NY). For cell culture, a mixture of the unconjugated forms of the 10 most abundant conjugated estrogen (CE) components of CE/Premarin (Pfizer Inc.) was prepared using the same relative proportions as the previously described CE formulation (Chang et al., 2010), and a 1 mM CE stock solution was prepared using 1 mM solutions of each of the 10 components mixed according to their respective proportions.

**Western Blot Analysis.** Primary antibodies against the following proteins were used: SRC-1 (ab10308; Abcam), SRC-2 (A300-345A; Bethyl Laboratory), SRC-3 (611105; BD Biosciences), Tubulin (SC-9104; Santa Cruz Biotechnologies), FBXO45 (NBP1-91891; Novus Biologicals), ER $\alpha$  (SC-542; Santa Cruz Biotechnologies) and BCOR (A301-673A; Bethyl Laboratory).

Membranes containing proteins were incubated with secondary HRP-tagged antibodies (Sigma), and the signals were visualized using ECL plus (Amersham).

**Immunohistochemistry.** Immunostaining was performed with 10% neutral-buffered, formalin-fixed and paraffin-embedded sections of mouse tissue. Antibodies against FBXO45 (NBP1-91891; Novus Biologicals), ER $\alpha$  (SC-542; Santa Cruz Biotechnologies), Ki-67 (AB16667; Abcam<sup>®</sup>) were used. The specific antigens were visualized with the DAB substrate kit (Vector). The immunostaining intensity was quantified using the ImageJ program, which was developed by the National Institutes of Health. Scale bar is 20  $\mu$ m.

**Uterotrophic Assay.** Uterotrophic assays were performed to screen for potential estrogenic activity. CE, BAZ and TSEC were administered daily via subcutaneous injection in 6-week-old ovariectomized female mice. Ovariectomy was performed as previously described (Han et al., 2005). The animals were dosed for three consecutive days and necropsied approximately 24 hours after the final dose to determine wet and blotted uterine weights.

**ERE-DNA Pull-Down Assays.** The ERE-DNA pull-down reaction conditions and generation of biotinylated EREs were described previously (Foulds et al., 2013). In brief, 4  $\mu$ g of ERE DNA, 1 mg of HeLa nuclear extract, 0.5  $\mu$ g of recombinant human ER $\alpha$  protein (ab82606, Abcam<sup>®</sup>) and 60ul of Dynabeads<sup>®</sup> M-280 Streptavidin beads were mixed with NETN buffer (20 mM Tris-HCl (pH 7.5), 150 mM NaCl, 1 mM EDTA, 0.5% Igepal CA-630) and then incubated with vehicle, 10 nM CE, 100 nM BAZ and 10 nM CE + 100 nM BAZ (TSEC) at 4°C for 1.5 h with constant shaking. The pellet was washed twice with METN buffer, and 80% of the pellet was used for LC MS analyses, and 20% was used for Western blotting analyses.

**Protein Identification by MS.** For MS analyses, nearly all of the ERE pull-down reaction (80%) was separated using 1-D SDS-PAGE. All ER $\alpha$  interacting proteins were isolated from the gel and their identities were determined by MS as described previously (Foulds et al., 2013).

**TSEC-Mediated ER $\alpha$  Degradation in Breast Cells.** MCF7 breast cancer cells were cultured in 6-well plates in duplicate and maintained in regular medium supplemented with 10% FBS. Prior to the experiment, the cells were deprived of estrogen for 2 days by incubating in stripped serum medium followed by treatment with vehicle, 10 nM CE, 100 nM BAZ, 100 nM 4HT, 10 nM CE plus 100 nM BAZ (TSEC), and 10 nM CE plus 100 nM 4HT for 24 hrs. The cells were then lysed, and the RNA and protein were extracted. For Western blotting analyses, the proteins were separated on a 10% SDS-PAGE gel, transferred into a nitrocellulose membrane and incubated with anti-ER $\alpha$  and anti-tubulin antibodies for overnight incubation at 4°C followed by incubation with HRP-conjugated anti-rabbit (Sigma Aldrich) antibody for 1 hr. Signals were detected using the ECL Plus system (Pierce). Transcript levels were analyzed by q-PCR using an AB system. Complementary DNAs (cDNAs) were synthesized, and Taqman probes for ER $\alpha$ , PR, and 18S rRNA (Applied Biosystems) were used to measure ER $\alpha$ , PR and 18S rRNA levels. The q-PCR results were analyzed using the delta-delta cT method, and the fold-enrichment was calculated relative to the 18S rRNA level.

**Effect of FBXO45 gain-of-function and loss-of-function on ER $\alpha$  stability.** Knockdown experiments were performed in HeLa cells transfected with ER $\alpha$  by treating them with 100 nM of non-targeting siRNA or FBXO45 (Dharmacon, smart pool) siRNA for 48 h. The cells were then incubated with vehicle, 10 nM CE, 100 nM BAZ, and 10 nM CE plus 100 nM BAZ (TSEC) for 24 h. Cell lysates were prepared and used for Western blotting analyses with specific

antibodies against FBX045 (Abcam), ER $\alpha$ , and tubulin. To examine the effect of FBX045 gain-of-function, HeLa cells were transiently transfected with 100 ng each of ER $\alpha$  and FBX045 expression vectors (gift from Hirobumi Tada, Keio University School of Medicine, Shinjuku, Tokyo, Japan) followed by treatment with vehicle, 10 nM CE, 100 nM BAZ, and 10 nM CE plus 100 nM BAZ (TSEC). Samples were collected at 0, 1, 3, 6, and 9 h after treatment and levels of ER $\alpha$  and FBX045 were analyzed by Western blotting as described above.

**Co-immunoprecipitation and Western blotting.** For co-immunoprecipitation assays, HeLa cells were transiently transfected with 100 ng each of ER $\alpha$  and FBX045 expression vectors or empty vectors. After 48 hours later, cells were treated with vehicle, 10 nM CE, 100 nM BAZ, and 10 nM CE plus 100 nM BAZ (TSEC) in the presence or absence of 10  $\mu$ M MG 132 for 6 hr. The lysates were incubated with ER $\alpha$ , Flag, or IgG antibodies under constant rotation. Protein G beads were added 2 h later and incubated for an additional 2 h, followed by extensive washing (20 mM HEPES [pH 7.6], 150 mM KCl, 1 mM DTT, 0.1% NP-40 and 8% glycerol supplemented with protease and phosphatase inhibitors). The Protein G beads were boiled in 1 $\times$  Laemmli buffer, and the co-precipitated proteins were separated by SDS-PAGE. The proteins were transferred onto nitrocellulose membranes, and Western blotting was performed and analyzed with specific antibodies.

**Administration of CE, BAZ and TSEC to mice with surgically induced endometriosis.** The surgical treatments of mice were performed under aseptic conditions with anesthesia. The surgically induced endometriosis in mice was conducted with a modification of a previously described method (Cummings and Metcalf, 1995). In brief, 6-wk-old C57BL/6 mice were ovariectomized. After two weeks, we implanted sterile 60-day release pellets containing 0.36 mg

of 17- $\beta$  estradiol (Innovative Research of America) into ovariectomized mice. Two days later, we isolated one uterine horn of each mouse under anesthesia. In a petri dish containing warmed Dulbecco's modified Eagle medium (DMEM)/F-12 (Invitrogen) supplemented with 100 U/ml, penicillin and 100  $\mu$ g/ml streptomycin, we longitudinally cut the uterine horns with a pair of scissors. We then isolated a tissue sample using a 2-mm dermal biopsy punch (Miltex) and subsequently sutured one endometrial fragment to the mesenteric membrane attached to the intestine in the same mouse through a midline incision (7-0 braided silk suture; Ethicon). We closed the abdominal incision with a 5-0 braided silk suture (Ethicon) in a continuous fashion. Ectopic lesions were developed and established for 21 days after endometriosis induction. Subsequently, the mice were injected with vehicle, CE (2.5 mg/kg), BAZ (2.5 mg/kg) and TSEC (2.5 mg/kg of CE plus 2.5 mg/kg of BAZ) on alternate days for 21 days, and then the ectopic lesions were harvested for analyses. All experiments were repeated at least three times.

**Statistical analysis.** Statistical analysis used a paired Student t test in GraphPad Prism 5.00 (GraphPad).

## Results

### Corepressor components recruitment to ER $\alpha$ by TSEC.

The physical and functional interactions between ER $\alpha$  and its coregulators are essential for the regulation of ER $\alpha$ -mediated transcription upon estrogenic stimulation (Foulds et al., 2013). In this regard, ER $\alpha$  recruits different coregulators to regulate target gene expression upon various external stimuli (Foulds et al., 2013). Therefore, we hypothesized that the TSEC should generate unique ER $\alpha$ -coregulator combinations to confer endometrial and breast safety. ER $\alpha$  activity determined by PR expression in HeLa cells transfected with human ER $\alpha$  expression vector revealed that 10 nM of CE stimulated ER $\alpha$  activity and 100 nM, but not 10 nM, of BAZ inhibited ER $\alpha$  activity that was stimulated by CE (Supplementary Figure 1). To examine the coregulators bound to ER $\alpha$  upon CE, BAZ and TSEC treatment, ER $\alpha$ - Estrogen Response Element (ERE) pull-down assays were performed using a biotinylated DNA fragment containing the ERE in HeLa cell nuclear extracts (Foulds et al., 2013). Compared to vehicle, 10 nM of CE also actively enhanced interaction of ER $\alpha$  to SRCs and this CE-mediated interaction was strongly inhibited by 100 nM, but not 10 nM, of BAZ (Supplementary Figure 2, A and B). Interestingly, the amount of SRCs recruited to ER $\alpha$  by 10 nM of CE was less than those by 10 nM of E2. Therefore, the reduced amounts of coactivator recruitments to ER $\alpha$  might provide the lesser estrogenic activity of CE compared with estradiol. Based on these observations, 10 nM of CE plus 100 nM of BAZ combination have been applied as TSEC in this study. The proteins that co-precipitated with ER $\alpha$  in response to each hormone were identified by mass spectrometric analyses (Fig. 1A). Compared with other hormone treatments, CE treatment enhanced the recruitment of transcriptional coactivators (such as SRCs, NCoA6, RAD50, and Mediator complex components) to ER $\alpha$  bound to the ERE DNA fragment (Fig. 1A). Consistent with the



mass spectrometry analyses, the ER $\alpha$ -ERE pull-down assays followed by Western blot analyses indicated that SRC-1, SRC-2 and SRC-3 were significantly recruited to ER $\alpha$  upon CE treatment compared to treatment with other agents (Fig. 1B). However, less SRC-1, -2 and -3 were recruited to BAZ- and TSEC-bound ER $\alpha$  compared with CE treatment (Fig. 1, A and B). Notably, the SRC expression levels in HeLa cells were not altered by CE, BAZ and TSEC compared to vehicle treatment (Fig. 1, C, D, E and F).

In contrast, the ER $\alpha$ -ERE pull-down assays coupled with mass spectrometric analyses revealed that TSEC treatment led to increased recruitment of different coregulators, usually transcriptional repressor components, such as BCL-6 Corepressor (BCOR) and Histone Deacetylase3 (Fig. 1A). The TSEC-induced recruitment of BCOR to ER $\alpha$  was confirmed using ER $\alpha$ -ERE pull-down assays followed by Western blotting analyses (Fig. 1B). Collectively, the TSEC-induced recruitment of transcriptional repressors relative to transcriptional activators correlates with inhibition of ER $\alpha$  target gene transcription in endometrial cells upon TSEC treatment.

### **Degradation of the uterine ER $\alpha$ protein by TSEC to prevent endometrial stimulation.**

To analyze the endometrial effects of TSEC in more detail, uterotrophic assays were performed using ovariectomized female mice: on the 14<sup>th</sup> day after ovariectomy, the mice were randomly divided into 4 groups and then administered vehicle, CE (2.5 mg/kg), BAZ (2.5 mg/kg) or TSEC containing both CE (2.5 mg/kg) and BAZ (2.5 mg/kg) daily for 3 days. Six hours after the final hormone injection, uteri were isolated from each group of mice and weighed. Compared to vehicle treatment, CE treatment significantly increased uterine weight, but both BAZ and TSEC did not increase uterine weight (Fig. 2, A and B). Unlike CE, therefore, BAZ and TSEC had no

endometrial stimulatory effect (Fig. 2, A and B). Furthermore, the presence of BAZ in the TSEC suppressed CE-mediated endometrial stimulation.

To elucidate the endometrial safety of TSEC, uterine ER $\alpha$  levels were measured in each hormone-treated group. Compared to vehicle treatment, CE, BAZ and TSEC treatments reduced uterine ER $\alpha$  protein levels (Fig. 2, C and D). To determine whether the reduction in ER $\alpha$  protein level was correlated with downregulation of the ER $\alpha$  mRNA level, uterine ER $\alpha$  mRNA levels were measured in each hormone-treated group. Notably, uterine ER $\alpha$  mRNA levels were not altered by hormone treatment compared to vehicle treatment (Fig. 2E). Therefore, CE-mediated ER $\alpha$  degradation is associated with endometrial stimulation, an effect observed previously (Callige and Richard-Foy, 2006; Nawaz et al., 1999). However, TSEC-mediated ER $\alpha$  degradation occurred in the absence of endometrial stimulation in mice.

### **TSEC-mediated ER $\alpha$ degradation prevents ER $\alpha$ activity in human breast cancer cells.**

To examine the effect of TSEC on breast ER $\alpha$ , MCF7 human breast cancer cells were selected. Consistent with HeLa nuclear extracts, the ER $\alpha$ -ERE pull-down assays followed by Western blot analyses with MCF7 nuclear extracts indicated that coactivators (SRC-1 and SRC-3) were significantly recruited to ER $\alpha$  upon CE treatment compared to treatment with other agents (Fig. 3A). In contrast to coactivators, BCOR (transcriptional repressor) and FBXO45 effectively interact to ER $\alpha$  upon TSEC treatment compared to other hormones in the MCF7 nuclear extracts (Fig. 3A). Therefore, breast ER $\alpha$  has similar responses upon CE and TSEC treatment compared to endometrial ER $\alpha$ .

To investigate the effect of TSEC on breast ER $\alpha$  protein levels, MCF7 human breast cancer cells were treated with CE (10 mM), BAZ (100 mM) or TSEC (containing CE and BAZ) for 1 day. Subsequently, the ER $\alpha$  protein level in each group of cells was determined by Western blot

analysis. Consistent with endometrial ER $\alpha$  expression, the breast ER $\alpha$  levels in MCF7 cells were significantly reduced by CE, BAZ and TSEC treatment compared with vehicle treatment (Fig. 3, B and C). Breast ER $\alpha$  RNA levels in MCF7 cells were not altered by CE, BAZ or TSEC treatment compared to vehicle treatment (Fig. 3D). These data indicate that CE and TSEC also cause degradation of the ER $\alpha$  protein in breast cancer cells.

To explain the functional correlation between ER $\alpha$  degradation and ER $\alpha$  activity in breast cancer cells, we measured levels of progesterone receptor (PR) because PR is the direct ER $\alpha$  target gene (Nagai and Brentani, 2008). Compared to vehicle treatment, CE treatment increased PR mRNA levels in MCF7 cells, whereas BAZ and TSEC treatment did not (Fig. 3E). Therefore, similar to the endometrial data, CE-mediated ER $\alpha$  degradation was associated with induction of ER $\alpha$  activity, whereas BAZ- and TSEC-mediated ER $\alpha$  degradation correlated with suppression of ER $\alpha$  activity in MCF7 cells.

The SERMs, BAZ and tamoxifen inhibit ER $\alpha$  activity in breast cancer cells (Cirillo et al., 2013; Lewis-Wambi et al., 2011). However, these drugs inhibit ER $\alpha$  activity through different mechanisms. For example, the 4-hydroxytamoxifen-mediated inhibition of ER $\alpha$  activity was not associated with a reduction in ER $\alpha$  protein levels in MCF-7 cells compared to vehicle treatment (Fig. 3, F and G). Therefore, these data indicate that a unique ER $\alpha$  destabilization activity of BAZ and TSEC effectively downregulates ER $\alpha$  activity in both endometrial and breast cells.

To determine whether this unique molecular property of TSEC correlates with tissue specificity, ER $\alpha$  levels in bone cells (HTB-85, osteosarcoma) were determined upon each treatment. In contrast to endometrial and breast cells, CE, BAZ and TSEC did not reduce ER $\alpha$  levels in HTB-85 cells compared to vehicle treatment (Fig. 3, H and I). Interestingly, BAZ and TSEC led to a

small increase in ER $\alpha$  levels in bone cells compared vehicle and CE treatment. We conclude that TSEC treatment differentially modulates the ER $\alpha$  protein level in a tissue specific manner.

### **Interaction of ER $\alpha$ to FBXO45 upon TSEC treatment.**

Our data revealed that CE- and TSEC-mediated ER $\alpha$  degradation was associated with differential cellular regulation of ER $\alpha$  activity (Fig. 2 and 3). This observation suggests that distinct proteasome complexes might be involved in CE- versus TSEC-mediated ER $\alpha$  degradation. To test this hypothesis, we analyzed whether the ubiquitination-dependent proteasome might be differentially recruited during CE- versus TSEC-mediated ER $\alpha$  degradation. In the presence of DMSO, CE, BAZ and TSEC treatments, but not vehicle treatment, ER $\alpha$  protein degradation occurred in HeLa cells (Fig. 4A). However, all of these ER $\alpha$  degradations were prevented by addition of the proteasome inhibitor MG132 (Fig. 4B). Therefore, both of CE- and TSEC-induced ER $\alpha$  protein degradations require an ubiquitin-dependent proteasome system.

The ubiquitin-dependent proteasome systems consist of several components that are involved in specific cellular processes (Devoy et al., 2005; Konstantinova et al., 2008). Therefore, we analyzed whether different components of the ubiquitin proteasome complex might be involved in CE- versus TSEC-mediated ER $\alpha$  degradation. ERE-DNA pull-down assays coupled with mass spectrometry analyses revealed that the F-Box Protein 45 (FBXO45), a component of an E3 ubiquitin ligase complex (Saiga et al., 2009; Tada et al., 2010), was significantly recruited to the ER $\alpha$ /ERE complex in the presence of TSEC compared to vehicle (Fig. 4, C and D). However, less FBXO45 protein was recruited to the ER $\alpha$ /ERE complex upon E2 or CE treatment compared to TSEC treatment (Fig. 4D and Supplementary Figure 2C). BAZ did not stimulate FBXO45 recruitment to ER $\alpha$ /ERE complex compared to vehicle (Fig. 4D). Immunoprecipitation with

HeLa cells transfected with ER $\alpha$  and/or Flag tagged FBOX45 cDNA using Flag antibody also revealed the interaction of FBOX45 with ER $\alpha$  in the presence of MG132 (Fig. 4E). To test whether this interaction was enhanced by TSEC treatment, HeLa cells were transiently transfected with expression vectors for ER $\alpha$  and Flag-tagged FBOX45 and then treated with vehicle, CE, BAZ or TSEC. Flag-tagged FBOX45 then was immunoprecipitated using the Flag-antibody and ER $\alpha$  levels in the precipitated pellets were determined using Western Blot analyses. Consistent with the results of the ERE-DNA pull-down assay (Fig. 4C), the interaction of ER $\alpha$  with FBOX45 was enhanced by TSEC treatment compared to vehicle and CE treatment (Fig. 4F). In addition, BAZ treatment also enhanced the interaction of ER $\alpha$  with FBOX45 compared to vehicle and CE in HeLa cells (Fig. 4F). This BAZ-mediated interaction of ER $\alpha$  with FBOX45 was not detected using the ERE-DNA pull-down assay (Fig. 4D). Therefore, these data indicate that the FBOX45/ubiquitin proteasome complex interacts with ER $\alpha$  only upon TSEC treatment on ERE-DNA.

#### **Degradation of the ER $\alpha$ protein by the FBOX45/ubiquitination by TSEC.**

TSEC induced an interaction of ER $\alpha$  with FBOX45. Next, we analyzed whether this interaction is directly correlated with TSEC-induced ER $\alpha$  degradation. HeLa cells were transiently transfected with ER $\alpha$  and different amounts of FBOX45 expression vectors, and the ER $\alpha$  protein levels were determined by Western blot analyses. The ER $\alpha$  protein levels gradually decreased in the presence of increased FBOX45 levels compared to cells transfected with the empty expression vector (Fig. 5A). However, Progesterone Receptor (PR) protein levels were not reduced in the presence of higher FBOX45 levels (Fig. 5A). Therefore, elevation of the FBOX45 level caused the specific degradation of ER $\alpha$  but not PR in HeLa cells.

The effects of FBXO45 gain-of-function and loss-of-function in TSEC-induced ER $\alpha$  degradation were examined with HeLa cells transfected with ER $\alpha$ . To reduce FBXO45 protein levels in HeLa cells, the cells were treated with siRNA targeting FBXO45. As a control, HeLa cells were treated with non-targeting siRNA (NT-siRNA). Subsequently, both groups of cells were treated with vehicle, CE, BAZ or TSEC to test their effects on ER $\alpha$  degradation. After hormone treatment, the ER $\alpha$  and FBXO45 protein levels in both groups of HeLa cells were determined by Western blotting analyses. FBXO45 levels were significantly reduced by FBXO45 siRNA compared with NT-siRNA in HeLa cells (Fig. 5B). In the NT-siRNA-treated HeLa cells, ER $\alpha$  protein levels were reduced by CE, BAZ and TSEC treatments compared with the vehicle (Fig. 5B). However, BAZ and TSEC treatment did not reduce ER $\alpha$  protein levels in FBXO45 siRNA-treated cells compared to the vehicle (Fig. 5B). Notably, CE treatment reduced the ER $\alpha$  protein level in FBXO45 siRNA-treated HeLa cells compared to vehicle treatment (Fig. 5B). Therefore, FBXO45 is required for TSEC-mediated degradation, whereas it is not involved in CE-mediated ER $\alpha$  degradation in HeLa cells.

To examine whether increased FBXO45 expression degrades ER $\alpha$  protein in a TSEC-dependent manner, HeLa cells were transiently transfected with expression vectors for ER $\alpha$  and FBXO45. Subsequently, the cells were stimulated with vehicle, CE, BAZ or TSEC and then the ER $\alpha$  protein levels in these cells were determined by Western analysis. The ER $\alpha$  protein levels were not significantly reduced 9 hours after CE treatment compared to vehicle treatment (Fig. 5, C and D). BAZ treatment does not reduce ER $\alpha$  protein levels compared to vehicle treatment at 9 hours after treatment (Fig. 5, C and D). However, ER $\alpha$  protein levels were rapidly and significantly reduced by TSEC treatment compared to vehicle treatment (Fig. 5, C and D).

Therefore, overexpressing FBXO45 effectively caused ER $\alpha$  protein degradation upon treatment with TSEC but not other agents.

### **Suppression of ectopic lesion growth in mice with endometriosis by TSEC.**

Endometriosis is an estrogen-dependent disease because estrogen signaling plays an essential role in the pathogenesis of endometriosis (Bulun, 2009). Studies using ER $\alpha$  knock-out mice with surgically induced endometriosis revealed that ER $\alpha$  has an essential role in the growth of ectopic lesions (Burns et al., 2012). Since the TSEC/FBXO45 axis is involved in ER $\alpha$  degradation in endometrial tissues (Fig. 5), TSEC might be applied for an alternative endometriosis treatment because TSEC minimizes the side effects of systemic estrogen-deficiency therapy in other estrogen target tissues, such as brain and bone, during treatment. To test this hypothesis, mice with surgically induced endometriosis were administered CE, BAZ and TSEC. CE treatment increased the volume of the ectopic lesion in mice with endometriosis compared with vehicle treatment most likely due to its endometrial stimulatory effect (Fig. 6, A and B). However, compared to vehicle treatment, BAZ and TSEC did not stimulate ectopic lesion growth in mice with endometriosis (Fig. 6, A and B). The presence of BAZ in TSEC suppressed the CE-mediated ectopic lesion growth during endometriosis. In addition, histological analyses revealed that CE treated ectopic lesions had well-developed cyst formation (Fig. 6C). This endometriotic cyst formation was not well developed in ectopic lesions treated with BAZ and TSEC as compared to CE-treated ectopic lesions (Fig. 6C). In addition to the cyst formation, IHC analyses with KI-67 antibody revealed that proliferative activities in epithelial and stromal compartments of ectopic lesions treated with BAZ and TSEC were significantly reduced compared with ectopic lesions treated with CE (Fig. 6D). Collectively, TSEC treatment

inhibited proliferative activity of ectopic lesions to prevent their progression, whereas CE promoted proliferative activity of ectopic lesions for the establishment of ectopic lesions.

Since TSEC degrades ER $\alpha$  protein to suppress ER $\alpha$ -mediated signaling in endometrial tissues (Fig. 2), we analyzed whether TSEC caused the degradation of ER $\alpha$  in ectopic lesions to inhibit the estrogen-dependent growth of these lesions. ER $\alpha$  levels in ectopic lesions were determined by immunohistochemistry (IHC) analyses using an ER $\alpha$  antibody. TSEC-treated ectopic lesions had lower ER $\alpha$  protein levels in both epithelial and stromal compartments of ectopic lesions compared to CE-treated ectopic lesions (Fig. 6E). Notably, IHC and Western blot analyses using a FBXO45 antibody revealed that FBXO45 levels were elevated in BAZ- and TSEC-treated ectopic lesions compared with CE-treated lesions (Fig. 6, F and G) and TSEC-mediated elevation of FBXO45 levels appears to enhance TSEC-induced ER $\alpha$  degradation to suppress the growth of ectopic lesions. Together, our data suggest that TSEC-induced ER $\alpha$  degradation in the endometrium might be employed as an alternative endometriosis treatment to minimize the side effects of estrogen deprivation in other estrogen target tissues that are associated with certain current endometriosis treatments.



## Discussion

Hormone replacement therapy (HRT) has been used for the treatment of postmenopausal symptoms. To maximize the benefits of HRT, TSEC has been developed, which is a new menopausal therapy that combines a SERM with one or more estrogens. The goal of TSEC therapy would be to reduce menopausal symptoms (e.g., hot flashes and vulvar/vaginal atrophy), prevent osteoporosis, and improve lipid parameters while it inhibits estrogenic stimulation of the breast and endometrium.

Although TSEC is known to inhibit estrogenic stimulation in the breast and endometrium, the molecular mechanisms underlying this function of TSEC was not understood. Here, we observed two new molecular mechanisms by which TSEC confers endometrial and breast safety effects. First, TSEC recruited corepressors rather than coactivators to ER $\alpha$ . In contrast with TSEC, however, CE actively recruited coactivators to ER $\alpha$  compared to vehicle treatment, leading to enhanced ER $\alpha$  activity. The differential recruitment of ER $\alpha$  coregulators by CE versus TSEC is likely associated with distinct ER $\alpha$  conformational changes induced by these agents. For example, in the presence of a single hormone (such as CE and BAZ), each hormone bound-ER $\alpha$  generates homodimer binding to EREs to regulate ER $\alpha$  target genes. In the presence of TSEC, however, one agonist (CE)-bound ER $\alpha$  monomer binds to an antagonist (BAZ)-bound ER $\alpha$  to generate a distinct heterodimeric ER $\alpha$  conformation, which then binds to ER $\alpha$  target genes (Liu et al., 2013). This unique heterodimeric ER $\alpha$  conformation generated by TSEC appears to induce an interaction of ER $\alpha$  to certain corepressors, leading to inhibition of ER $\alpha$  activity.

In addition, TSEC induced ER $\alpha$  degradation via the FBXO45/ubiquitin proteasome, leading to suppression of ER $\alpha$  activity in endometrial and breast cells. CE also induced the degradation

of ER $\alpha$  in endometrial and breast cancer cells by the ubiquitin-dependent proteasome. However, each hormone-induced ER $\alpha$  degradation was accompanied by an opposite effect on ER $\alpha$  activity: TSEC-induced ER $\alpha$  degradation was associated with inhibition of ER $\alpha$  activity, whereas CE-mediated ER $\alpha$  destabilization was correlated with enhancement of ER $\alpha$  activity. Previous studies also revealed that enhanced estradiol-induced ER $\alpha$  activation is associated with ER $\alpha$  degradation (Callige and Richard-Foy, 2006; Wijayaratne and McDonnell, 2001), and a specific E3 ubiquitin ligase such as E6-AP might be involved in this process (Li et al., 2006; Sun et al., 2012).

However, the molecular mechanism underlying the functional correlation between estrogen-induced ER $\alpha$  degradation and ER $\alpha$  activation has not been fully elucidated. BAZ also causes ER $\alpha$  protein degradation like CE. However, BAZ-mediated ER $\alpha$  degradation is linked to the prevention of expression of ER $\alpha$  target genes, such as cyclin D1, in MCF-7:5C cells (Lewis-Wambi et al., 2011). The mechanism underlying BAZ-induced ER $\alpha$  degradation has not been investigated.

TSEC significantly reduced CE-mediated enhancement of ER $\alpha$  activity in endometrial and breast cancer cells by degrading ER $\alpha$  protein, in contrast with the E2-induced interaction of ER $\alpha$  with E6-AP for the ER $\alpha$  activation (Sun et al., 2012). However, TSEC caused a differential interaction of ER $\alpha$  with FBXO45 for the suppression of ER $\alpha$  activity. FBXO45 modulates the stability of key factors that are involved in the regulation of cell-cycle arrest and apoptosis in response to DNA damage-induced cellular stress by its ubiquitin ligase activity (Melino, 2003). For example, FBXO45 promotes the proteasome-dependent degradation of p73 to promote cell survival (Peschiaroli et al., 2009; Tada et al., 2010). In the case of TSEC treatment, FBXO45/ubiquitin proteasome promoted ER $\alpha$  degradation to suppress ER $\alpha$  activity leading to suppression of endometrial stimulation effects. The unique heterodimeric ER $\alpha$  conformation

induced by TSEC appears to generate a specific interaction with FBXO45 (Liu et al., 2013). Collectively, TSEC treatment effectively prevents ER $\alpha$  activity by dual synergistic effects: recruitment of corepressors to ER $\alpha$  at target gene promoters and degradation of the ER $\alpha$  protein by a FBXO45/ubiquitin proteasome system in endometrial and breast cells.

Current endometriosis treatments induce systemic estrogen deficiency caused by the gonadotropin-releasing hormone agonists, depot medroxyprogesterone acetate and Danazol; aromatase inhibitors also are employed (Fedele et al., 2000; Haney and Weinberg, 1988; Selak et al., 2007; Telimaa, 1988; Telimaa et al., 1987; Vigano et al., 2003). However, these estrogen deficiency therapies can have harmful side effects in other estrogen target tissues, such as the brain and bone in young reproductive-aged women (Compston et al., 1995; Hughes et al., 2007; Vanderschueren et al., 1997). Therefore, alternative endometriosis therapies that have fewer side effects in estrogen target tissues are needed. In this context, TSEC is an appropriate candidate for the next generation of endometriosis therapy because it effectively degrades ER $\alpha$  in endometriotic tissues but not in other estrogen target tissues, such as bone. Consistent with our study, other murine endometriosis models also revealed that TSEC effectively suppresses mouse endometriotic lesion growth compared to controls (Naqvi et al., 2014). Collectively, TSEC treatment should have selective therapeutic effects in endometrial tissues by virtue of its synergistic dual ER $\alpha$  inhibitory effects.

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## **Authorship Contributions**

Participated in research design: Han, Begum, O'Malley.

Conducted experiments: Han, Begum.

Contributed new reagents or analytic tools: Foulds, Hamilton, Baily, Malovannaya, Chan, Qin

Performed data analysis: Han, Begum, O'Malley.

Wrote or contributed to the writing of the manuscript: Han, Begum, O'Malley.

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## Figure Legends

### **Fig. 1. Differential recruitment of coregulators to ER $\alpha$ upon CE, BAZ and TSEC treatment.**

(A) ER $\alpha$ /ERE-DNA pull-down analyses were performed using HeLa nuclear extracts in the presence of vehicle, CE (10 nM), BAZ (100 nM) and TSEC (10 nM of CE plus 100 nM of BAZ) as described in “Materials and Methods”. Proteins associated with ER $\alpha$  after different hormone treatments were identified by MS analyses, and the peptide numbers were listed. (B) After ER $\alpha$ /ERE DNA pull-down, the levels of SRC-1, SRC-2, SRC-3, BCOR and ER $\alpha$  in the precipitates were determined by Western blotting analyses. (C to F) SRC-1 (C), SRC-2 (D) and SRC-3 (E) protein levels in HeLa cells treated with hormone for 24 hrs were determined by Western blotting analyses (n=3/group). The tubulin level in each group was used as a protein loading control. (F) The ratios of SRCs to tubulin levels in panel C, D and E were shown in graph. NS, Non Specific, Student’s *t* test. Values represent the average  $\pm$  S.E.M. of three independent experiments.

### **Fig. 2. TSEC causes ER $\alpha$ protein degradation in murine uteri to prevent ER $\alpha$ -mediated endometrial stimulation.**

(A) Uteri were isolated from ovariectomized mice treated daily with vehicle, CE (2.5 mg/kg), BAZ (2.5 mg/kg) and TSEC (2.5 mg/kg of CE plus 2.5 mg/kg of BAZ) for 3 days, and then uterine morphology was examined. (B) The uterine wet weights in each group described in panel A were shown in graph (n=4/group). (C) ER $\alpha$  and Tubulin (loading control) protein levels in the uteri in panel A were determined by Western blotting analyses (n=3/group). (D) The ratios of ER $\alpha$  to tubulin levels in panel C were shown in graph (n=3/group). (E) ER $\alpha$  mRNA and 18S rRNA levels in the uteri in panel A were measured. The relative ER $\alpha$  mRNA levels in each hormone-treated uterus were determined as compared to its RNA levels in vehicle treated group after normalization with 18S rRNA levels. \*\*, P<0.01. \*\*\*, P<0.001. NS,

None Specific versus control, Student's *t* test. Values represent the average  $\pm$  S.E.M. of three independent experiments.

**Fig. 3. TSEC causes ER $\alpha$  protein degradation in human breast cancer cells to inhibit ER $\alpha$  activity.** (A) ER $\alpha$ /ERE-DNA pull-down analyses were performed using MCF7 nuclear extracts in the presence of vehicle, CE (10 nM), BAZ (100 nM) and TSEC (10 nM of CE plus 100 nM of BAZ). After ER $\alpha$ /ERE DNA pull-downs, the levels of SRC-1, SRC-3, FBXO45, BCOR and ER $\alpha$  in the precipitates were determined by Western blotting analyses. (B) MCF7 cells were treated with vehicle, CE (10 nM), BAZ (100 nM) and TSEC (10 nM of CE and 100 nM of BAZ) for 24 h. Subsequently, the ER $\alpha$  and tubulin protein levels in MCF7 cells were determined by Western blotting analyses (n=3/group). (C) The ratios of ER $\alpha$  to tubulin in the MCF7 cells in panel B were shown in graph (n=3/group). (D) The total RNA was isolated from the MCF7 cells in panel B, and the levels of ER $\alpha$  mRNA and 18S rRNA were determined by real-time RT PCR analyses. The ER $\alpha$  mRNA levels in each group were normalized to the 18S rRNA levels. The normalized ER $\alpha$  mRNA levels in hormone-treated MCF7 cells relative to vehicle-treated MCF7 cells were shown in graph (n=3/group). (E) Progesterone Receptor (PR) mRNA levels were determined in the MCF7 cells described in panel B and normalized to the 18S rRNA levels. The normalized PR mRNA level in hormone-treated MCF7 cells relative to vehicle-treated MCF7 cells were shown in graph (n=3/group). (F) MCF7 cells were treated with vehicle, CE (10 nM), 4-hydroxytamoxifen (4HT; 100 nM), and CE (10 nM) plus 4-HT (100 nM) for 24 hr. Subsequently, the ER $\alpha$  and tubulin protein levels were determined by Western blotting analyses (n=3/group). (G) The ratio of ER $\alpha$  to tubulin in panel F was shown in graph. (H) HTB-85 cells were treated with vehicle, CE (10 nM), BAZ (100 nM) and TSEC (10 nM of CE plus 100 nM of BAZ) for 24 h. Subsequently, the ER $\alpha$  and tubulin protein levels in HTB-85 cells were

determined by Western blotting analyses (n=2/group). (I) The ratios of ER $\alpha$  to tubulin in the HTB-85 cells were shown in graph (n=3/group). \*, P<0.05; \*\*, P<0.01; \*\*\*, P<0.001; NS, not significantly different versus vehicle, Student's *t* test. Values represent the average  $\pm$  S.E.M. of three independent experiments.

**Fig. 4. ER $\alpha$  interacts with FBXO45 upon TSEC treatment.** (A and B) HeLa cells in six well plate were transfected with 100 ng of ER $\alpha$  expression vector. After 48 hours later, cells were treated with vehicle, CE (10 nM), BAZ (100 nM) and TSEC (10 nM of CE plus 100 nM of BAZ) for 24 h in the absence (A) or presence (B) of MG132 (10  $\mu$ M). Subsequently, the ER $\alpha$  and tubulin protein levels in HeLa cells were determined by Western blotting analyses (n=2/group). The ratios of ER $\alpha$  to tubulin in HeLa cells are shown graphically (n=4/group). (C) Peptide numbers of the ubiquitin ligases that were specifically associated with TSEC-bound ER $\alpha$  after ER $\alpha$ /ERE-DNA pull-down analyses. (D) ER $\alpha$ /ERE-DNA pull-down was performed in the presence of hormone, and the FBXO45 levels in the precipitant were determined by Western blotting analyses. (E) HeLa cells were transiently transfected with expression vectors for ER $\alpha$  and/or Flag-tagged FBXO45. After 48 hours later, anti-Flag antibodies were used to immunoprecipitate Flag-tagged FBXO45 from each cell lysate in the absence or presence of MG132 (10  $\mu$ M). The levels of ER $\alpha$  and FBXO45 in the immunoprecipitates were determined by Western blotting analyses. (F) HeLa cells were transiently transfected with expression vectors for ER $\alpha$  and Flag-FBXO45. After 48 hours later, cells were then treated with vehicle, CE (10 nM), BAZ (100 nM) and TSEC (10 nM of CE plus 100 nM of BAZ) for 6 h. Using anti-Flag antibodies, Flag-FBXO45 was immunoprecipitated from each group, and the ER $\alpha$  levels in the immunoprecipitates were determined by Western blotting analyses. IP, Immunoprecipitation.

WB, Western Blot analyses. \*\*\*,  $P < 0.001$ ; NS, not significantly different versus vehicle, Student's *t* test. Values represent the average  $\pm$  S.E.M. of three independent experiments.

**Fig. 5. FBXO45 involves in TSEC-mediated ER $\alpha$  degradation.** (A) HeLa cells were transfected with an ER $\alpha$  expression vector and different amounts of expression vectors for Flag-tagged FBXO45. The ER $\alpha$ , FBXO45, PR and tubulin protein levels in each group were determined by Western blotting analyses. (B) HeLa cells transfected with ER $\alpha$  were treated with 100 nM of non-targeting siRNA or FBXO45 siRNA for 3 days followed by vehicle, CE (10 nM), BAZ (100 nM) and TSEC (10 nM of CE and 100 nM of BAZ) treatment for 24 h. Subsequently, the ER $\alpha$ , FBXO45 and tubulin protein levels in each group were determined by Western blotting analyses. (C) HeLa cells were transfected with expression vectors for ER $\alpha$  and FBXO45. The cells were then treated with vehicle, 10 nM of CE, 100 nM of BAZ or TSEC (10 nM of CE plus 100 nM of BAZ) for 0, 1, 3, 6, and 9 hrs. Subsequently, the ER $\alpha$ , FBXO45 and tubulin protein levels in each group were determined by Western blotting analyses. RF, Relative Fold compared to control.

**Fig. 6. TSEC treatment inhibited the progression of ectopic lesions in mice with surgically induced endometriosis.** (A and B) Ectopic lesions were isolated from each group of mice treated with different hormones (A), and then the lesion volumes were calculated and presented graphically (n=5/group) (B). (C) Hematoxylin and eosin analyses of ectopic lesions treated with each of ligand in panel A. (D to F) Expression levels of Ki-67 (D), ER $\alpha$  (E) and FBXO45 (F) in each type of ectopic lesion described in panel A were determined using immunohistochemistry and shown in the graph (n=9/group). (G) Expression levels of FBXO45 in eutopic endometrium

**MOL #100925**

treated with each hormone were determined using Western blot analyses and shown in the graph.

\*,  $P < 0.05$ , \*\*,  $P < 0.01$ . \*\*\*,  $P < 0.001$ . NS, None Specific versus control, Student's *t* test.

**A**

Protein ID	V	CE	BAZ	TSEC
NCOA6	1	9	1	1
TTK		6		
SRC-3	2	6	2	2
SRC-1	1	6		2
CHD6	2	5	1	2
MED12	1	5	2	2
SRC-2	2	5	1	1
MPRIIP	2	5		
SNRPN		4		
TMOD3	1	4		
AGFG1	2	4	2	2
EIF6	1	4	1	2
GCN1L1		4		
CORO1C	1	4		
RAD50	1	3		1
APITD1-CORT	1	3	1	1
PRPF8		3	1	1
CCT2	1	3		
CAT	1	3	1	
AP2A2	1	3		
STOM	1	3		
GNB1	1	3		
GNB2	1	3		
GNB4	1	3		
SYNCRIP	1	3	1	1
NAT10		3	1	1
MED9		3	1	1
FBXO45	2	2	2	8
PRR12		2	2	7
BCOR	2			6
YTHDF1	1	2	3	6
HOXD9	1	1	2	5
HOXC10		1	2	5
NFYA		1	2	4
E2F6			2	4
RPL8	2	1	2	4
HNRNP2		1	2	4
THOC4	1	2		4
HDAC3	1		1	4
CBR1			1	3
FIP1L1	1	1		3
TIA1		1	1	3

Peptide Number

0 >80

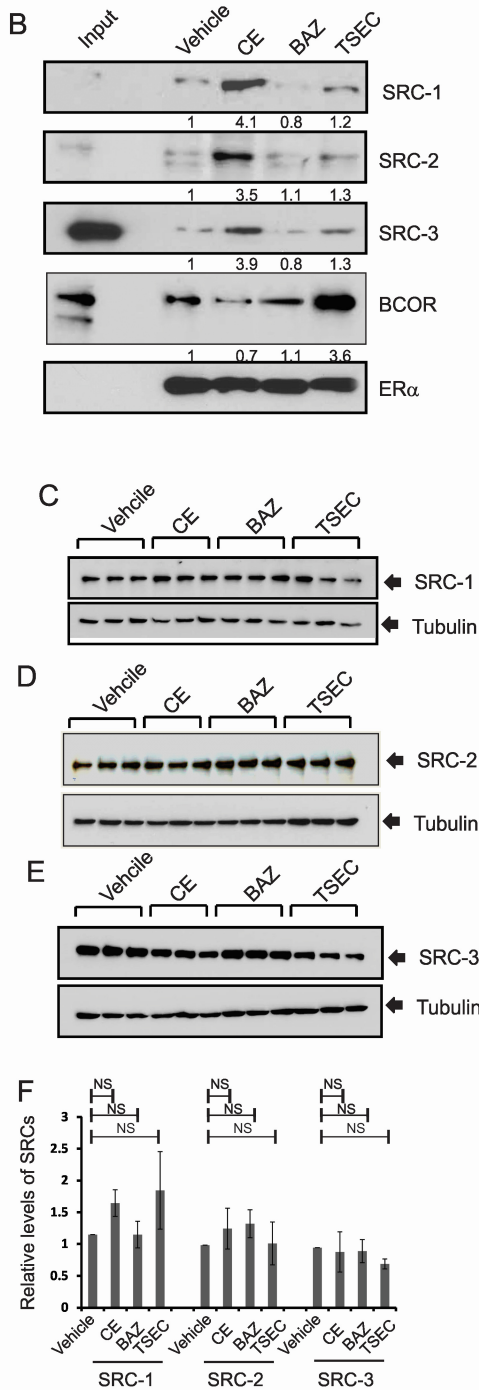


Figure 1



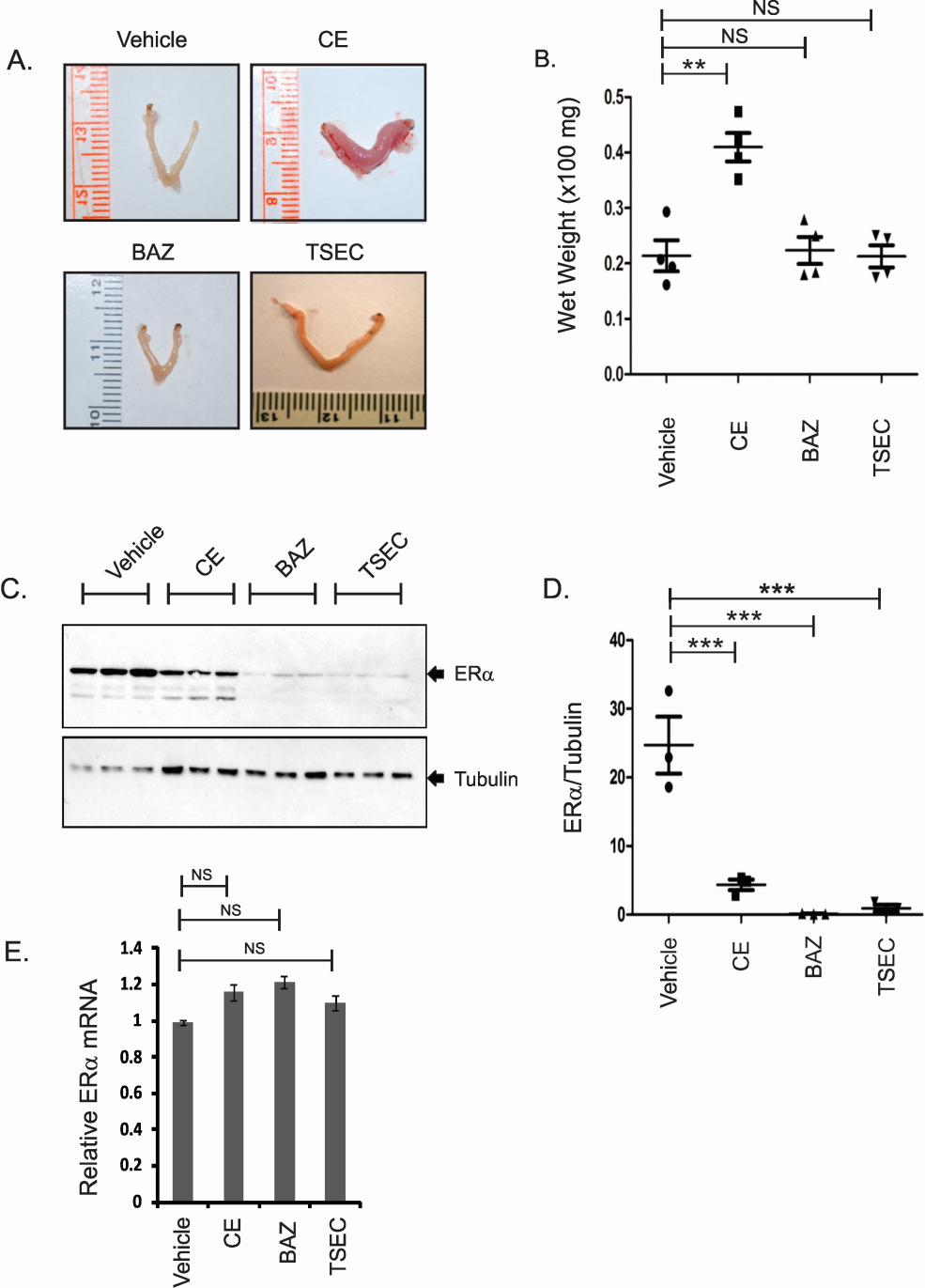


Figure 2

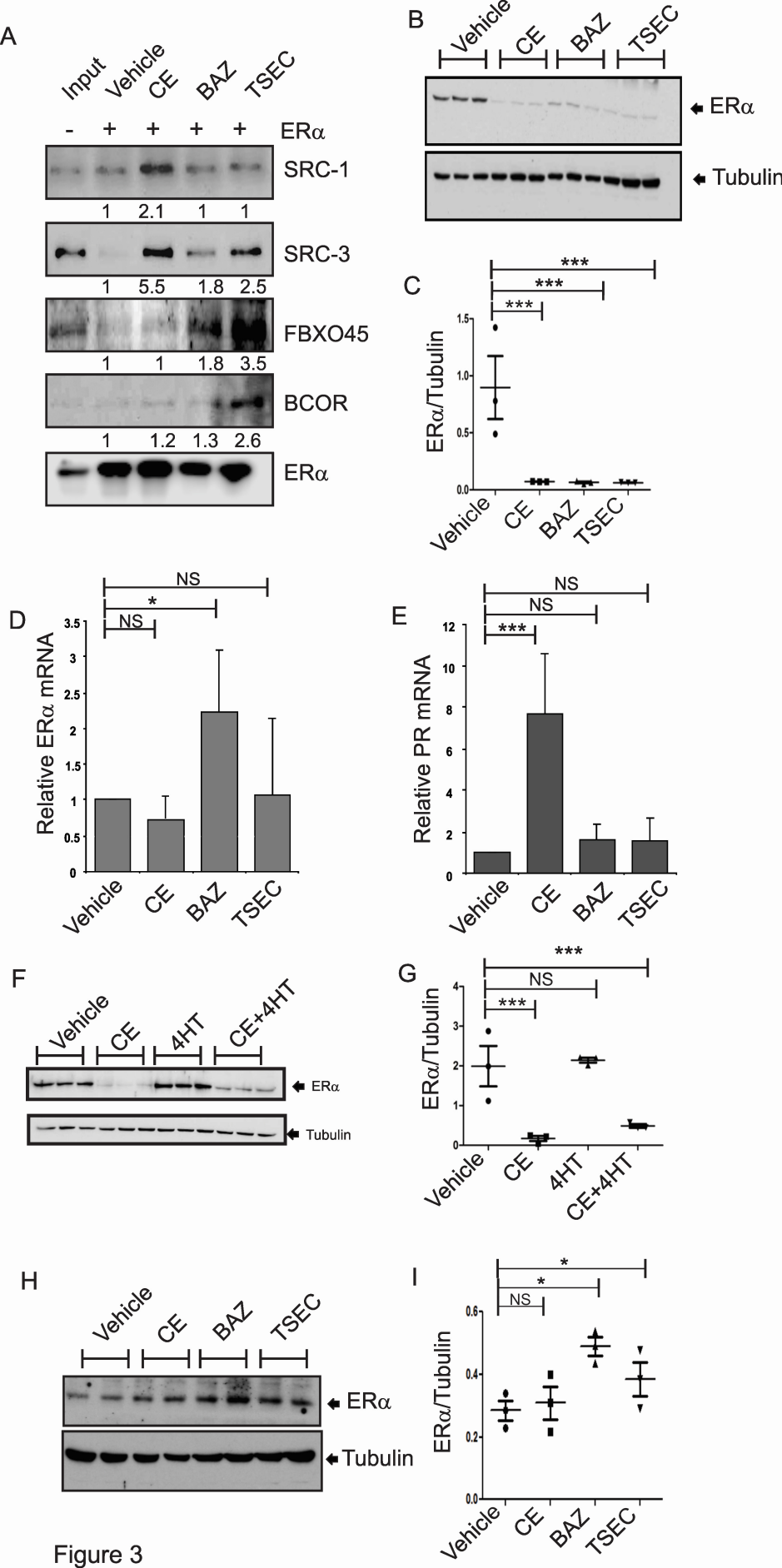


Figure 3

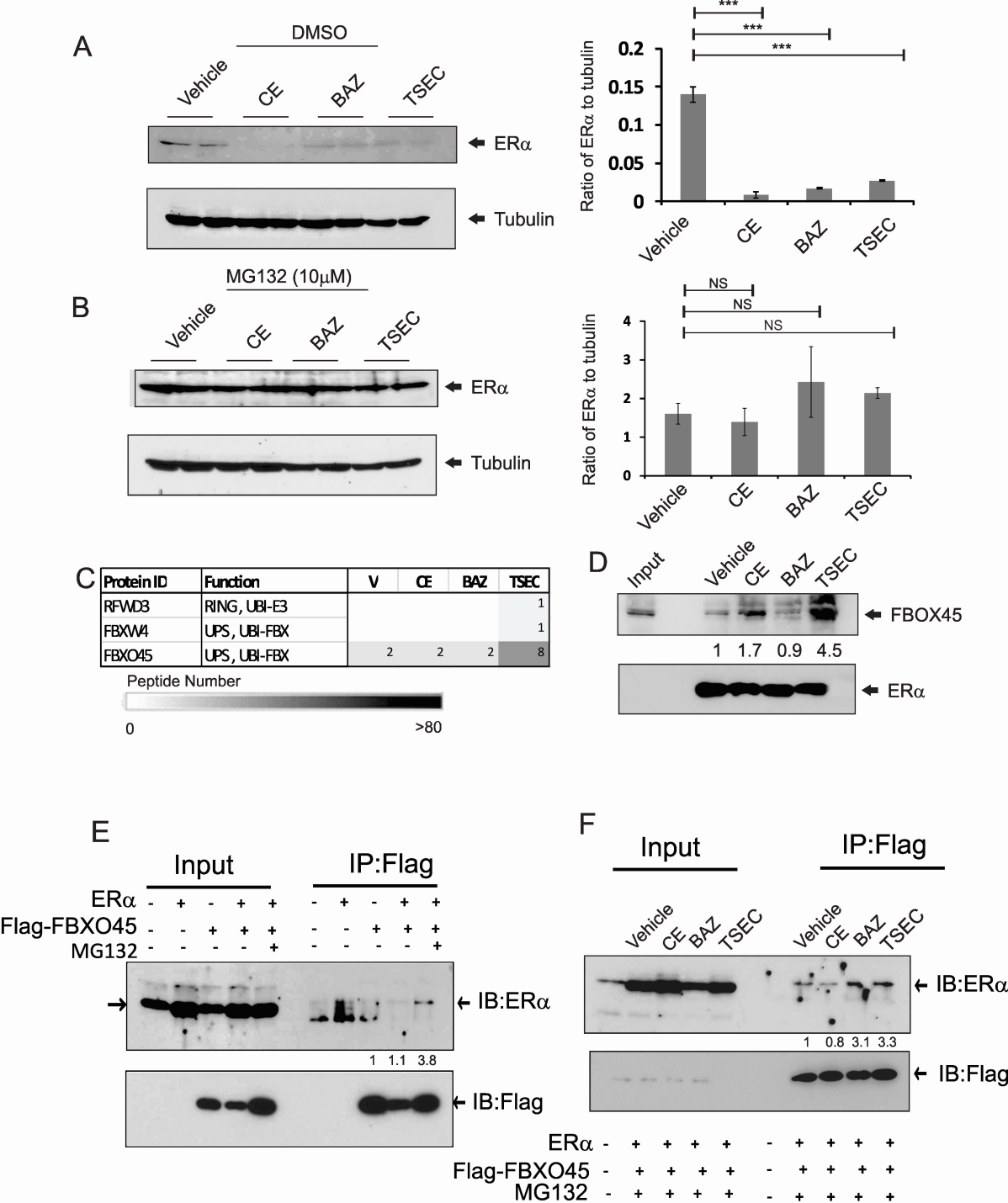


Figure 4

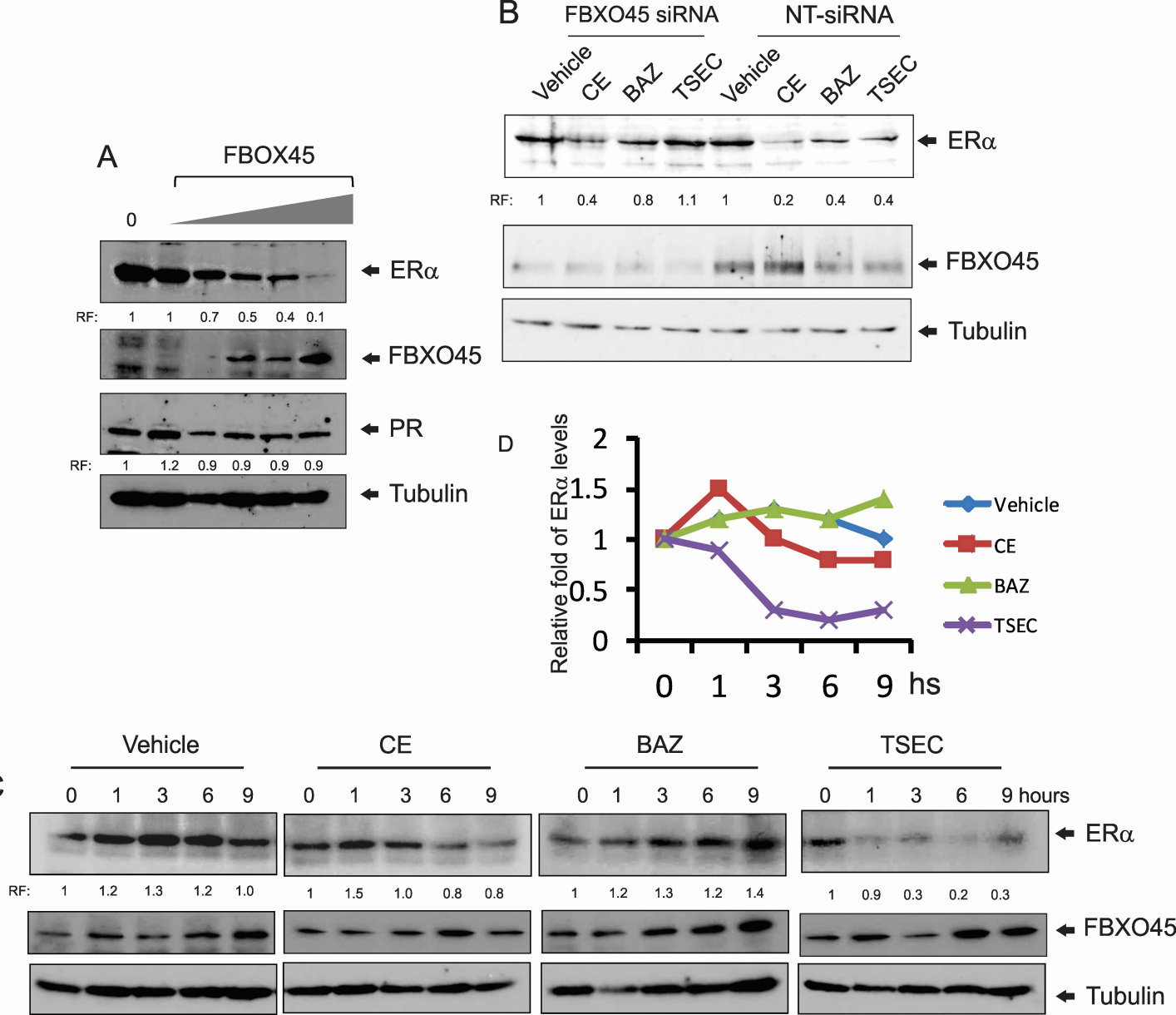


Figure 5

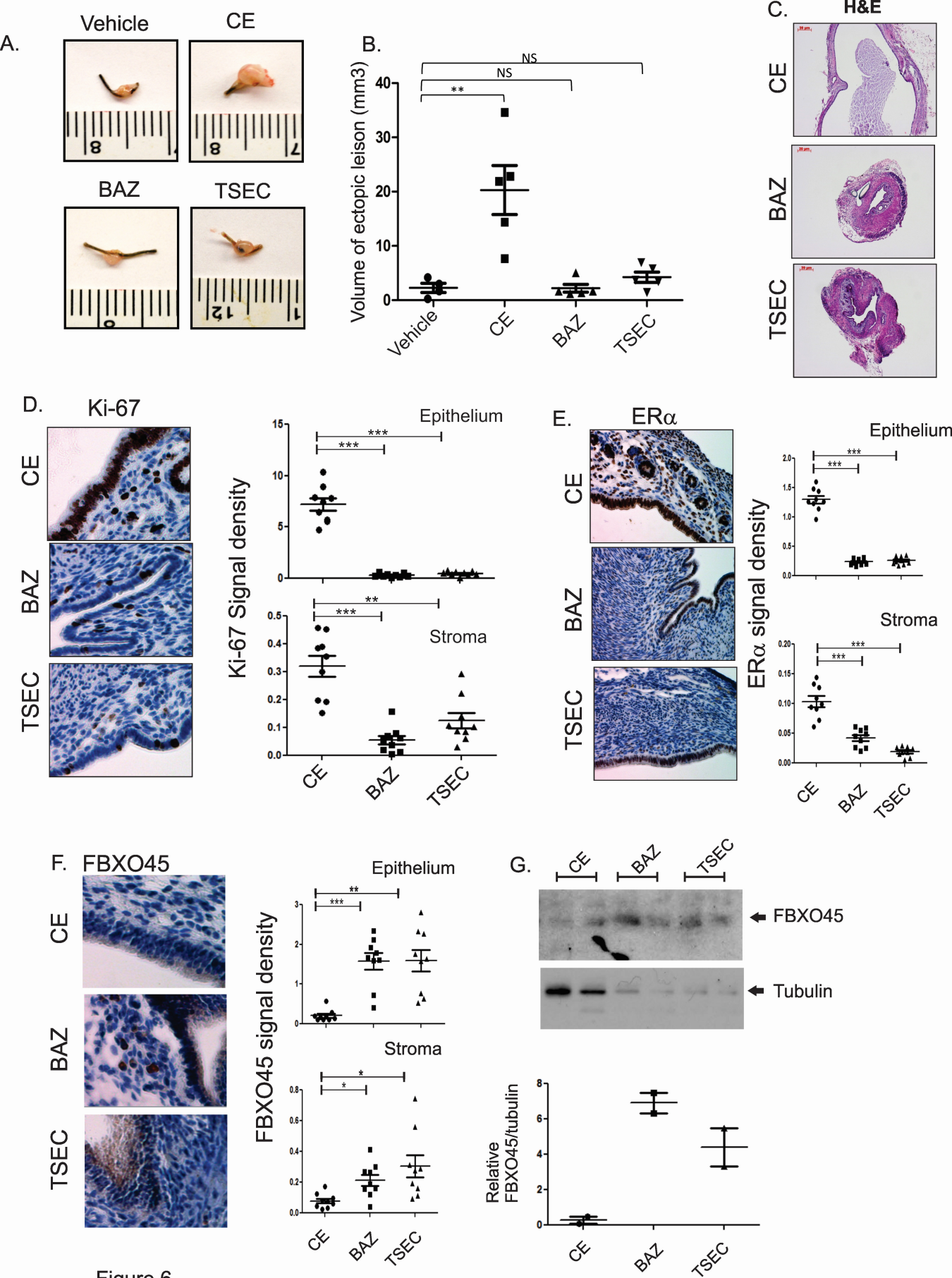


Figure 6