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# A functional drug re-purposing screening identifies carfilzomib as a drug preventing $17\beta$ -estradiol: ER $\alpha$ signaling and cell proliferation in breast cancer cells

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#### ABSTRACT

Most cases of breast cancer (BC) are estrogen receptor  $\alpha$ -positive (ER $\alpha$ +) at diagnosis. The presence of ERα drives the therapeutic approach for this disease, which often consists of endocrine therapy (ET). 40H-Tamoxifen and faslodex (i.e., fulvestrant - ICI182,780) are two ETs that render tumor cells insensitive to 17β-estradiol (E2)-dependent proliferative stimuli and prevent BC progression. However, ET has limitations and serious failures in different tissues and organs. Thus, there is an urgent need to identify novel drugs to fight BC in the clinic. Re-positioning of old drugs for new clinical purposes is an attractive alternative for drug discovery. For this analysis, we focused on the modulation of intracellular ERα levels in BC cells as target for the screening of about 900 Food and Drug Administration (FDA) approved compounds that would hinder E2:ERa signaling and inhibit BC cell proliferation. We found that carfilzomib induces ER $\alpha$  degradation and prevents E2 signaling and cell proliferation in two ER $\alpha$ + BC cell lines. Remarkably, the analysis of carfilzomib effects on a cell model system with an acquired resistance to 40H-tamoxifen revealed that this drug has an antiproliferative effect superior to faslodex in BC cells. Therefore, our results identify carfilzomib as a drug preventing E2:ERα signaling and cell proliferation in BC cells and suggest its possible re-position for the treatment of ER $\alpha$ + BC as well as for those diseases that have acquired resistance to 40H-tamoxifen.

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#### 1. Introduction

17β-estradiol (E2) regulates the physiology of reproductive and non-reproductive organs both in males and in females by binding to the estrogen receptors (i.e., ER $\alpha$  and ER $\beta$ ) and thus it is a general regulator of body homeostasis (Acconcia et al., 2016). The E2 pleiotropic nature resides in its ability to elicit diverse intracellular effects (including cell proliferation) through multifaceted signaling mechanisms. As nuclear receptors, ER $\alpha$  and ER $\beta$  localize into the nucleus where they mediate changes in gene transcription profiles in response to E2 (i.e., nuclear effects). ER $\alpha$  and ER $\beta$  also localize at the cell plasma membrane where they activate E2 extra-nuclear signals. Nuclear and extra-nuclear events cross-talk and are both required for cell and organ physiology (Acconcia et al., 2016;

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Ascenzi et al., 2006; Levin and Hammes, 2016). Many E2 physiological effects occur while E2 finely tunes  $ER\alpha$  and  $ER\beta$  intracellular levels. This modulation is specific for each receptor subtype with E2 reducing ERα intracellular levels and inducing ERβ intracellular accumulation. Therefore, E2 signaling and its resulting physiological functions further depend on the dynamic temporal variations in ERs cell content (Acconcia et al., 2016; Leclercq et al., 2006; Thomas and Gustafsson, 2011). In turn, deregulation of both E2 intracellular signaling and control of ERs intracellular levels contributes to the development of diverse endocrine-related diseases including breast cancer (BC) (Acconcia et al., 2016; Ascenzi et al., 2006; Levin and Hammes, 2016; Leclercq et al., 2006; Thomas and Gustafsson, 2011).

In 70% of all cases, BC growth depends on E2 signaling through  $ER\alpha$  (i.e.,  $ER\alpha$ + tumors) as E2 is a mitogen for BC cells, works as a survival and anti-apoptotic factor and induces cell invasion and migration (Acconcia and Marino, 2011). The clinical approach for ERα+ tumors targets different aspects of oncogenic E2:ERα signaling: aromatase inhibitors (AIs) are used to inhibit E2

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synthesis thus reducing systemic E2 availability; 4OH-tamoxifen (*i.e.*, the actual mainstay for treatment of  $ER\alpha$ + tumors) is the prototype of the selective ER modulators (SERMs), it binds  $ER\alpha$  and inhibits receptor to work as a transcription factor, thus blocking E2-dependent gene expression; and faslodex (*i.e.*, fulvestrant or ICI182,780) is the prototype of the selective ER down-regulators (SERDs), physically engages with  $ER\alpha$  and induces its 26S proteasome-dependent degradation (Ferlay et al., 2013; Lumachi et al., 2011), thus eliminating  $ER\alpha$  from BC cells.

However, the use of such drugs has limitations: Als are typically reserved for postmenopausal women with BC and produce musculoskeletal failures, and 40H-tamoxifen and faslodex possess serious side effects (e.g., endometrial cancer for 40H-tamoxifen) and often determine the development of BC cells resistant to such anti-cancer ET (Angus et al., 2017; Tryfonidis et al., 2016). Consequently, considerable drug discovery research efforts aimed to identify novel SERMs and SERDs but 40H-tamoxifen and faslodex stand still as the unique ER $\alpha$  ligands available for BC treatment (Ferlay et al., 2013; Lumachi et al., 2011). Thus, additional drugs to treat BC are required. Novel compounds that inhibit ER $\alpha$ + BC progression can be identified either by searching for natural or synthetic compounds that bind to and/or inhibit ER $\alpha$  or by defining and targeting a critical parameter required for E2:ER $\alpha$  signaling-induced cell proliferation.

We previously hypothesized that such parameter can be the modulation of ERα intracellular levels (Acconcia et al., 2016; Totta et al., 2016b) as i) it is known since many years that both artificial ER $\alpha$  down-modulation in ER $\alpha$ + cell lines and its over-expression in ERα-negative cells cause E2 insensitivity or cell death (Oesterreich et al., 2001; Jiang and Jordan, 1992); ii) ERa ligands influence receptor intracellular concentration: E2 reduces ERa intracellular levels and fuels cell proliferation (Leclercq et al., 2006; La Rosa et al., 2012; Totta et al., 2014), 40H-tamoxifen and faslodex alter ERα content, with the former stabilizing it, the latter de-stabilizing it and either drugs blocking E2-induced BC cell proliferation (Leclercq et al., 2006); iii) molecules (e.g., chloroquine) that do not bind to ER $\alpha$  influence ER $\alpha$  levels by affecting specific cellular pathways and prevent E2-induced BC cell proliferation (Totta et al., 2014; Cook et al., 2014); and iv) reduction in the intracellular content of proteins with functions unrelated to E2 signaling (e.g., endocytic proteins) can change ERa content and inhibit E2-induced BC cell proliferation (Totta et al., 2015, 2016a). In turn, all this evidence suggests that molecules that directly or indirectly deregulate the control mechanisms for ERa intracellular abundance could have in principle the potential to inhibit E2-dependent proliferation in BC

Herein, we challenged this hypothesis by screening a compound library with the aim to identify molecules that modify ER $\alpha$  intracellular levels. We report the discovery of carfilzomib (Kyprolis<sup>®</sup>) as an ER $\alpha$ -degrading drug that prevents the basal and E2-induced BC cell proliferation.

#### 2. Materials and methods

#### 2.1. Cell culture and reagents

17β-estradiol, DMEM (with and without phenol red) and fetal calf serum were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (St. Louis, MO). Bradford protein assay kit as well as anti-mouse and anti-rabbit secondary antibodies were obtained from Bio-Rad (Hercules, CA). Antibodies against ER $\alpha$  (F-10 mouse), cyclin D1 (H-295 rabbit), cathepsin D (H75 rabbit), pS2 (FL-84 rabbit), p53 (DO-1 mouse) were obtained from Santa Cruz Biotechnology (Santa Cruz, CA); anti-vinculin antibody was from Sigma-Aldrich (St. Louis, MO). MG-132 was purchased by Calbiochem (San Diego, CA).

Chemiluminescence reagent for Western blotting was obtained from BioRad Laboratories (Hercules, CA, USA). Faslodex (*i.e.*, fulvestrant or IC1182,780) and 40H-tamoxifen were purchased by Tocris (USA). FDA-approved drug library was purchased by Selleck Chemicals (USA). All the other products were from Sigma-Aldrich. Analytical- or reagent-grade products were used without further purification. The identities of all of the used cell lines [*i.e.*, human breast carcinoma cells (MCF-7; ZR-75-1)] were verified by STR analysis (BMR Genomics, Italy).

#### 2.2. Cellular and biochemical assays

Cells were grown in 1% charcoal-stripped fetal calf serum medium for 24 h and then stimulated with E2 at the indicated time points. Where indicated, cells were treated with E2 (1 nM), carfilzomib (100 nM) or Faslodex (i.e., fulvestrant or ICI182,780) (ICI) (100 nM). Protein extraction and biochemical assays were performed as described previously (Totta et al., 2016b). For cell number analysis, the CyQUANT® Cell Proliferation Assay (Life Technologies) was used according to the manufacturer's instructions. Specifically, MCF-7, ZR-75-1 and 40H-Tamoxifen resistant MCF-7 cells (Tam-Res) were treated as described below. After counting 3000 cells were plated in 96-well plates in triplicate. After 4 h, the CyQUANT® Assay was performed at time 0 (i.e., plated cells). In other 96-well plates, drugs were administered to cells in 1% charcoal-stripped fetal calf serum medium, and the CyQUANT® assay was performed after 48 h. For growth curves analysis, parental and Tam-Res MCF-7 cells were plated in growing medium and counted at the indicated time points after drug administration. Western blotting analyses were performed by loading 20-30 µg of protein on SDS-gels. Gels were run and transferred to nitrocellulose membranes with Biorad Turbo-Blot semidry transfer apparatus. Immunoblotting was carried out by incubating membranes with 5% milk (60 min), followed by incubation o.n. with the indicated antibodies. Secondary antibody incubation was continued for an additional 60 min. Bands were detected using a Biorad Chemidoc apparatus.

#### 2.3. Cell cycle analysis

After treatments, cells were grown in 1% FBS for 24 h, harvested with trypsin, and counted to obtain  $10^6$  cells per condition. Then, the cells were centrifuged at 1500 rpm for 5 min at 4 °C, fixed with 1 ml ice-cold 70% ethanol and subsequently stained with PI buffer (500  $\mu$ g/ml Propidium Iodide, 320  $\mu$ g/ml RNaseA, in 0.1% Triton X in PBS). DNA fluorescence was measured using a CytoFlex flow cytometer and the cell cycle analysis was performed by CytExpert v1.2 software (Beckman Coulter).

#### 2.4. Statistical analysis

A statistical analysis was performed using the ANOVA (One-way analysis of variance and Tukey's as post-test) test with the InStat version 3 software system (GraphPad Software Inc., San Diego, CA). Densitometric analyses were performed using the freeware software Image J by quantifying the band intensity of the protein of interest respect to the relative loading control band (*i.e.*, vinculin or tubulin) intensity. In all analyses, p values < 0.01 were considered significant, except of the densitometric analyses with a choosen threshold of p < 0.05. Z' factor and robust Z scores calculation was performed according to (Zhang et al., 1999) and (Zhang, 2011), respectively.

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