

15-Deoxy- $\Delta^{12,14}$ -Prostaglandin J₂ Inhibits Transcriptional Activity of Estrogen Receptor- α via Covalent Modification of DNA-Binding Domain

Han-Jong Kim,¹ Joon-Young Kim,¹ Zhaojing Meng,² Li Hua Wang,³ Fa Liu,⁴ Thomas P. Conrads,² Terrence R. Burke,⁴ Timothy D. Veenstra,² and William L. Farrar¹

¹Cancer Stem Cell Section, Laboratory of Cancer Prevention, ²Laboratory of Proteomics and Analytical Technologies; and ³Basic Research Program, Science Applications International Corporation-Frederick and ⁴Laboratory of Medicinal Chemistry, Center for Cancer Research, National Cancer Institute, Frederick, Maryland

Abstract

The cyclopentenone 15-deoxy- $\Delta^{12,14}$ -prostaglandin J₂ (15d-PGJ₂) inhibits proliferation of cancer cells, including breast cancers, by peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor- γ (PPAR γ)-dependent and PPAR γ -independent mechanisms. However, little is known about its effect on the transcriptional activity of estrogen receptor- α (ER α) that plays vital roles in the growth of breast cancers. Here, we show that 15d-PGJ₂ inhibits both 17 β -estradiol (E₂)-dependent and E₂-independent ER α transcriptional activity by PPAR γ -independent mechanism. In addition, 15d-PGJ₂ directly modifies ER α protein via its reactive cyclopentenone moiety, evidenced by incorporation of biotinylated 15d-PGJ₂ into ER α , both *in vitro* and *in vivo*. Nanoflow reverse-phase liquid chromatography tandem mass spectrometry analysis identifies two cysteines (Cys²²⁷ and Cys²⁴⁰) within the COOH-terminal zinc finger of ER α DNA-binding domain (DBD) as targets for covalent modification by 15d-PGJ₂. Gel mobility shift and chromatin immunoprecipitation assays show that 15d-PGJ₂ inhibits DNA binding of ER α and subsequent repression of ER α target gene expression, such as *pS2* and *c-Myc*. Therefore, our results suggest that 15d-PGJ₂ can block ER α function by covalent modification of cysteine residues within the vulnerable COOH-terminal zinc finger of ER α DBD, resulting in fundamental inhibition of both hormone-dependent and hormone-independent ER α transcriptional activity. [Cancer Res 2007;67(6):2595–602]

Introduction

15-Deoxy- $\Delta^{12,14}$ -prostaglandin J₂ (15d-PGJ₂), a cyclopentenone PG, is a naturally occurring derivative of PGD₂ and acts as an endogenous ligand for the nuclear receptor peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor- γ (PPAR γ ; refs. 1, 2). Growth-inhibitory effects of endogenous and synthetic PPAR γ agonists have been shown in several tumors and cancer cell lines, including breast, colon, prostate, and lung cancers (3–8). The antitumorigenic

effects of PPAR γ agonists are caused by induction of cell cycle arrest, apoptosis, or differentiation through both PPAR γ -dependent and PPAR γ -independent mechanisms. They can induce cell cycle regulatory genes and inhibit genes involved in cell cycle progression or antiapoptotic proteins (8–11). In addition, 15d-PGJ₂ has been shown to interfere with the intracellular growth-promoting signaling through covalent modification of cysteines of target proteins such as I κ B kinase, nuclear factor- κ B (NF- κ B), and activator protein-1 (AP-1), independently of PPAR γ activation (12–14). J series of PGs, including 15d-PGJ₂, unlike other classes of PGs are characterized by the presence of a reactive α,β -unsaturated carbonyl group in the cyclopentenone ring. This moiety confers 15d-PGJ₂ the capability to form covalent adducts with thiols of cysteine residues in target proteins by Michael's addition, resulting in an alteration of protein function (12–15). Therefore, the growth inhibitory effect of 15d-PGJ₂ on tumor cells can be mediated in part by this highly reactive cyclopentenone moiety, independently of PPAR γ activation.

Estrogen receptors (ER α and ER β) are members of the steroid nuclear receptor superfamily that are hormone-regulated transcription factors and mediate the effects of estrogens and antiestrogens in breast cancers (16–19). ER α consists of several distinct functional domains: DNA-binding domain (DBD), ligand-binding domain (LBD), and transactivation domain. The NH₂-terminal domain of ER α contains a constitutive and ligand-independent transcriptional activation function (AF-1). The activity of AF-1 domain can be regulated by growth factors, such as insulin-like growth factor-I (IGF-1), epidermal growth factor (EGF), and transforming growth factor- α , via signal transduction cascades (20–24). The COOH-terminal LBD is a hydrophobic structure responsible for specific interactions with agonists and antagonists. The middle DBD contains two nonequivalent Cys⁴ zinc fingers critical for binding to short palindromic nucleotide sequences called estrogen response element (ERE) in the target gene promoters. These two zinc fingers in ER α DBD function cooperatively in ER α dimerization and DNA binding (25, 26). In addition, the COOH-terminal zinc finger of ER α is structurally disordered, and the cysteine thiols of this zinc finger have been characterized as particularly susceptible to the attack of electrophilic agents such as 2,2'-dithiobisbenzamide-1 and benzisothiazolone (27–29).

Breast cancer is the most common cancer among western women, and ~70% of breast cancer patients are positive for ER α (30, 31). Current therapeutic strategy to treat ER α -positive breast cancer is based on the blockade of ER α transcriptional activity by selective ER modulators (SERM) such as tamoxifen. SERMs act as receptor-binding competitors of estrogens and block the effects of

Note: Supplementary data for this article are available at Cancer Research Online (<http://cancerres.aacrjournals.org/>).

The content of this publication does not necessarily reflect the views or policies of the Department of Health and Human Services, nor does mention of trade names, commercial products, or organizations imply endorsement by the U.S. government.

Requests for reprints: William L. Farrar, Laboratory of Cancer Prevention, National Cancer Institute-Frederick, Room 21–81, Building 560, 1050 Boyles Street, Frederick, MD 21702. Phone: 310-846-1503; Fax: 301-846-6019; E-mail: farrar@mail.ncifcrf.gov.

©2007 American Association for Cancer Research.
doi:10.1158/0008-5472.CAN-06-3043

estrogens. However, this antiestrogen therapy using tamoxifen is limited due to its partial estrogenic effects in endometrial cancers and resistance to its effects (20–22, 32). Moreover, crosstalk between ER α and growth factor signaling pathways, such as EGF and IGF-I, is postulated to be a critical factor especially in the mechanism of tamoxifen resistance in breast cancer (20–24).

In this study, we show that 15d-PGJ₂ inhibits 17 β -estradiol (E₂)-dependent and E₂-independent ER α transcriptional activity by PPAR γ -independent mechanism. We also show that 15d-PGJ₂ covalently modifies two cysteines in the vulnerable COOH-terminal zinc finger of ER α DBD and disrupts of the ER α zinc finger, resulting in inhibition of ER α DNA binding. In addition to defining the molecular mechanism underlying ER α inhibition by 15d-PGJ₂, our results validate targeting the vulnerable cysteines in the COOH-terminal zinc finger of ER α DBD by covalent modification or electrophilic attack as a means of disrupting hormone- and growth factor-mediated transactivation of ER α .

Materials and Methods

Chemicals and plasmids. 15d-PGJ₂ and 9,10-dihydro-15d-PGJ₂ (CAY10410) were obtained from Cayman Chemical (Ann Arbor, MI), GW9662, E₂, and rhIGF-I were obtained from Calbiochem (La Jolla, CA), Sigma-Aldrich (St. Louis, MO), and R&D Systems (Minneapolis, MN), respectively. The ER α and β -actin antibodies were obtained from Santa Cruz Biotechnology (Santa Cruz, CA). Formic acid and trifluoroacetic acid (TFA) were obtained from Fluka (Milwaukee, WI). High-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC)-grade acetonitrile was from EM Science (Darmstadt, Germany). ERE-tk-Luc, PPRE-tk-Luc, and expression vector for PPAR γ (29) and ER β expression plasmid (33) were described previously.

Cell culture and transient transfection assay. The human breast carcinoma cell lines MCF-7 (ER α ⁺, ER β ⁺) and MDA-MB-231 (ER α ⁻, ER β ⁺) were obtained from the American Type Culture Collection (Rockville, MD). MCF-7 and MDA-MB-231 cells were maintained with DMEM, supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS) plus antibiotics. In experiments with E₂ and 15d-PGJ₂, cells were cultured in phenol red-free (PRF) DMEM supplemented with 0.5% charcoal-dextran-stripped FBS (CS-FBS; Hyclone, Logan, UT). Transient transfection assays were done using the FuGENE6 reagent (Roche Applied Science, Indianapolis, IN) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Cells (4–8 \times 10⁴ per well) were split in 24-well plates the day before transfection in PRF DMEM supplemented with 10% CS-FBS. Twenty-four hours after transfection, medium was changed with PRF DMEM containing 0.5% CS-FBS. Cells were treated with DMSO (vehicle) or various concentrations of 15d-PGJ₂, CAY10410, or GW9662 together with or without E₂ for 5 h and harvested for luciferase and β -galactosidase assays. The luciferase activity was normalized by β -galactosidase activity.

Proliferation assay. Cell proliferation was examined by measuring DNA synthesis using tritiated thymidine (³H-TdR) uptake. Cells were grown in PRF DMEM supplemented with 10% CS-FBS for 3 to 5 days. Quiescent cells (1 \times 10⁴ per well) were plated in triplicate in 96-well plates in 200 μ L of growth media, containing 0.5% CS-FBS with or without E₂ together with DMSO or various concentration of 15d-PGJ₂ or CAY10410. After 68 h, cells were pulsed with [³H]thymidine (0.5 μ Ci/100 μ L) for 4 h, and [³H]thymidine incorporation was analyzed by liquid scintillation counting.

Preparation of biotinylated 15d-PGJ₂. The carboxyl group of 15d-PGJ₂ was modified by amidation with EZ-link 5-(biotinamido)pentylamine (Pierce, Rockford, IL) by an alternate mixed anhydride procedure. Briefly, triethylamine and isobutyl chloroformate were added to a solution of 15d-PGJ₂ in anhydrous dichloromethane, and the reaction mixture was stirred at room temperature for 30 min. Solvent was removed *in vacuo*, and a solution of 5-(biotinamido)pentylamine in *N,N*-dimethylformamide was added followed by 4-dimethylaminopyridine in *N,N*-dimethylformamide, and the mixture was stirred overnight at room temperature. Biotinylated 15d-PGJ₂ was purified through a reverse-phase HPLC eluted using a VYDAC Protein and Peptide C₁₈ column with a linear gradient of acetonitrile/water/acetic acid.

Labeling of ER α with biotinylated 15d-PGJ₂ *in vitro* and *in vivo*. For *in vitro* labeling of ER α protein with biotinylated 15d-PGJ₂, purified ER α protein (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA) in 20 mmol/L Tris-HCl (pH 7), 45 mmol/L NaCl, 5 mmol/L MgCl₂, 0.1 mmol/L DTT, and 0.14% glycerol was incubated for 1 h at room temperature together with DMSO or biotinylated 15d-PGJ₂ in the presence or absence of excessive amount of 15d-PGJ₂ or CAY10410, or DTT. Incorporation of biotinylated 15d-PGJ₂ was assessed by Western blot with horseradish peroxidase-conjugated streptavidin (Pierce) and ECL (Pierce). ER α protein was detected in the reactions by Western blot using anti-ER α antibody. For *in vivo* incorporation of 15d-PGJ₂ into ER α in intact cells, MCF-7 cells were incubated with 10 μ mol/L of biotinylated 15d-PGJ₂ for 2 h in PRF DMEM with 0.5% CS-FBS. Cells were lysed, and biotinylated proteins were purified by adsorption onto Neutravidin beads (Pierce). ER α and ER β proteins were detected in the eluates by Western blot using anti-ER α and anti-ER β antibodies.

Preparation of ER α peptides for mass spectrometric analysis. Purified ER α protein was incubated with DMSO or 15d-PGJ₂ (10 μ mol/L) for 1 h at room temperature, lyophilized, and reconstituted in Laemmli gel loading buffer. The samples were resolved on a NuPAGE Bis-Tris gel (Invitrogen) and visualized by staining with SimplyBlue (Invitrogen). The protein bands were excised, destained, reduced, and alkylated before digestion with trypsin overnight at 37°C. Peptides were extracted and desalted using PepClean C-18 spin columns (Pierce) and resuspended in 0.1% TFA before mass spectrometry (MS) analysis.

Nanoflow reverse-phase liquid chromatography tandem MS. Nanoflow reverse-phase liquid chromatography tandem mass spectrometry (RPLC-MS/MS) was done using an Agilent 1100 nanoflow LC system (Agilent Technologies, Palo Alto, CA) coupled online with an linear ion-trap MS (LIT-MS; LTQ, ThermoElectron, San Jose, CA). Nanoflow RPLC columns were slurry-packed in-house with 5 μ m, 300 Å pore size C-18 phase (Jupiter) in a 75 μ m inner diameter \times 10 cm fused silica capillary (Polymicro Technologies, Phoenix, AZ) with a flame pulled tip. After sample injection, the column was washed for 20 min with 98% mobile phase A (0.1% formic acid/water) at 0.5 μ L/min, and peptides were eluted using a linear gradient of 2% to 42% mobile phase B (0.1% formic acid/acetonitrile) in 40 min at 0.25 μ L/min, then to 98% mobile phase B in 10 min. The LIT-MS was operated in a data-dependent mode in which each full MS scan was followed by five MS/MS scans, where the five most abundant molecular ions were dynamically selected for collision-induced dissociation using normalized collision energy of 35%. Tandem mass spectra were searched using SEQUEST against a human proteome database and a mass difference of 57.0 Da (alkylation) or 316.4 Da (15d-PGJ₂ modification) was set as dynamic modification on cysteine residues in the search.

Zinc finger assay. Zinc finger assay was done as described (29). Time-dependent *in vitro* release of zinc from purified ER α protein treated with 15d-PGJ₂ or DMSO was measured using zinc-selective fluorescent probe *N*-(6-methoxy-8-quinolyl)-*p*-toluenesulfonamide (TSQ, Molecular Probes, Eugene, OR).

Gel mobility shift assay. The following end-labeled [³²P]oligonucleotide probes were used: ERE consensus sequence (Santa Cruz Biotechnology), 5'-GGATCTAGGTCCTACTGTGACCCCGGATC-3'. ER α protein was prepared by *in vitro* translation using a coupled transcription and translation system (TNT-coupled reticulocyte lysate system, Promega, Madison, WI). ER α protein (3 μ L) or unprogrammed lysates were mixed with 10,000 cpm of labeled ERE probes in 20 μ L of each reaction. After a 15-min incubation at room temperature, DNA protein complexes were analyzed on 5% polyacrylamide gel in 0.5 \times Tris-borate EDTA (90 mmol/L Tris, 90 mmol/L boric acid, 2 mmol/L EDTA). Gels were dried and analyzed by autoradiography.

Chromatin immunoprecipitation assay. The chromatin immunoprecipitation assay was done as described previously (34). Briefly, MCF-7 cells were treated with 15d-PGJ₂ or DMSO in the presence of E₂. Cells were fixed with 1% formaldehyde and harvested. Soluble chromatin was immunoprecipitated with ER α or ER β antibodies. The final DNA extractions were amplified by 30 cycles of PCR using primers from -519 to -220 bp region of the *pS2* gene promoter. The primers used for PCR are as follows:

pS2 (-519) forward, 5'-CGTGAGCCACTGCGCCAG-3' and pS2 (-220) reverse, 5'-TCAGAAAGTCCCTCTTC-3'. To quantitate relative binding of ER α or ER β to pS2 promoter, densitometric analysis was done using ImageQuant software (Amersham, Arlington Heights, IL). Band density was normalized to 10% input and presented as fold change relative to basal ER α or ER β binding to pS2 promoter in the absence of E₂.

Semiquantitative reverse transcription-PCR analysis. MCF-7 cells were treated with 15d-PGJ₂ or DMSO in the presence or absence of E₂ for 2 h. Cells were harvested for total RNA isolation using the TRIzol reagent (Invitrogen). First-strand cDNA was synthesized from 3 μ g of total RNA using an oligo(dT) primers and reverse transcriptase. The resulting first-strand cDNA was then amplified to measure mRNA levels of pS2, c-Myc, and β -actin by 30, 30, and 25 cycles of PCR, respectively, using specific primers. The primer sequences used for PCR to detect pS2 and c-Myc mRNA are as follows: pS2 forward, 5'-ATGGCCACCATGGAGAACAAG-3' and pS2 reverse, 5'-GGGACGGCACCCTGCGAT-3'; c-Myc forward, 5'-GCAAGGACGC-GACTCTCCCGA-3' and c-Myc reverse, 5'-CTCGAATTCTTCCAGATATC-3; and β -actin forward, 5'-ATATCGCTGCGCTGGTCGTC-3' and β -actin reverse, 5'-GATGGGCACAGTGTGGGTGA-3'. Band density was normalized to β -actin signals and presented as fold change relative to basal mRNA levels of pS2 or c-Myc.

Results

15d-PGJ₂ inhibits both E₂-dependent and E₂-independent ER α transcriptional activity. 15d-PGJ₂ has been shown to inhibit proliferation and induce apoptosis of breast cancer cells,

and ~70% of breast cancer patients are positive for ER α (30, 31). To investigate the effect of 15d-PGJ₂ on the ER α transcriptional activity, MCF-7 (ER α ⁺, ER β ⁺) and MDA-MB-231 (ER α ⁻, ER β ⁺) cells were transiently transfected with ERE-driven luciferase construct. As shown in Fig. 1A, 15d-PGJ₂ dramatically reduced E₂-induced ERE luciferase activity in a dose-dependent manner only in ER α -positive MCF-7 cells. In contrast, 15d-PGJ₂ had little effect on ER β -mediated transactivation in MDA-MB-231 cells transfected with ER β expression vector (Fig. 1B), suggesting that ER α but not ER β is a specific target for inhibition by 15d-PGJ₂. Notably, 15d-PGJ₂ strongly decreased basal luciferase activity of ERE in MCF-7 even in the absence of E₂. This observation raised the possibility that ligand-independent transactivity of ER α could also be repressed by 15d-PGJ₂. To address this hypothesis, we examined the effect of 15d-PGJ₂ on IGF-1-induced transactivation of ER α . As previously reported (35), IGF-1 increased ERE reporter activity possibly through activation of the AF-1 domain of ER α , and 15d-PGJ₂ visibly inhibited IGF-1-induced ER α transactivity (Fig. 1C). These findings suggest that 15d-PGJ₂ inhibits E₂-dependent and E₂-independent ER α transactivity.

Based on the inhibition of ER α transactivity by 15d-PGJ₂, to investigate the effect of 15d-PGJ₂ on ER α -mediated proliferation of breast cancer cells, [³H]thymidine incorporation assay was done in MCF-7 and MDA-MB-231 cells. Cells were treated in the absence or presence of E₂ with 15d-PGJ₂ or 9,10-dihydro-15d-PGJ₂ (CAY10410),

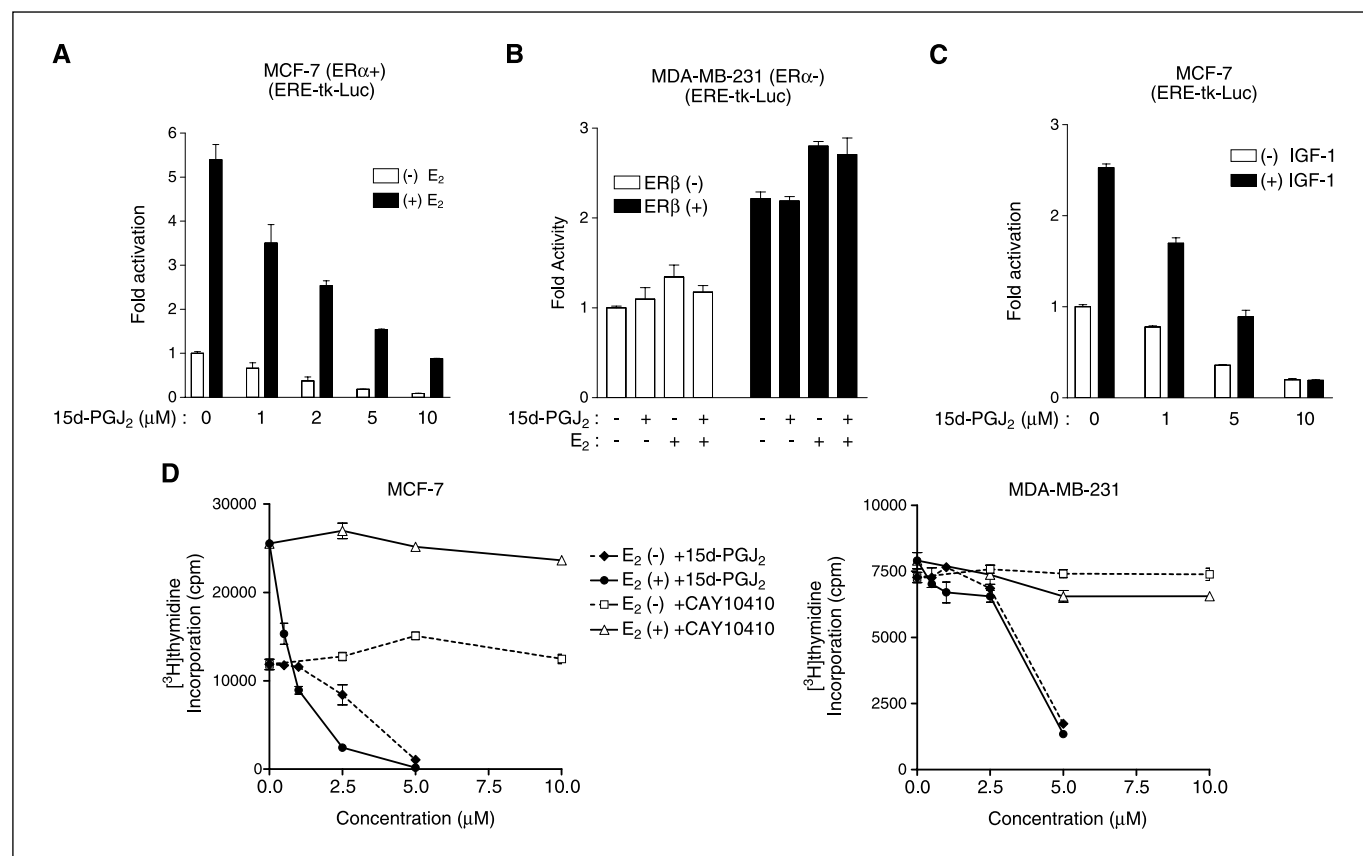


Figure 1. 15d-PGJ₂ inhibits E₂-dependent and E₂-independent ER α transcriptional activity. **A**, inhibition of basal and E₂-induced ER α transcriptional activity by 15d-PGJ₂ in MCF-7 (ER α ⁺) cells. **B**, 15d-PGJ₂ (10 μ M) had little effect on either basal or ER β -mediated transactivation of ERE-tk-Luc in MDA-MB-231 (ER α ⁻) cells. **C**, effect of 15d-PGJ₂ on IGF-1-dependent ER α transactivity in MCF-7 cells. MCF-7 (**A** and **C**) and MDA-MB-231 (**B**) cells were transiently transfected with ERE-tk-Luc together with expression vector for ER β (**B**) and treated with various concentrations of 15d-PGJ₂ with or without E₂ (100 nmol/L) or IGF-1 (50 ng/mL). After 5 h of treatment, cells were lysed and assayed for luciferase activity. **D**, effect of 15d-PGJ₂ on proliferation of MCF-7 and MDA-MB-231 cells. Cells were treated with various concentrations of 15d-PGJ₂, CAY10410, or DMSO (vehicle) with or without E₂ (5 nmol/L) for 72 h as indicated. Cell proliferation was examined by DNA synthesis using [³H]thymidine incorporation.

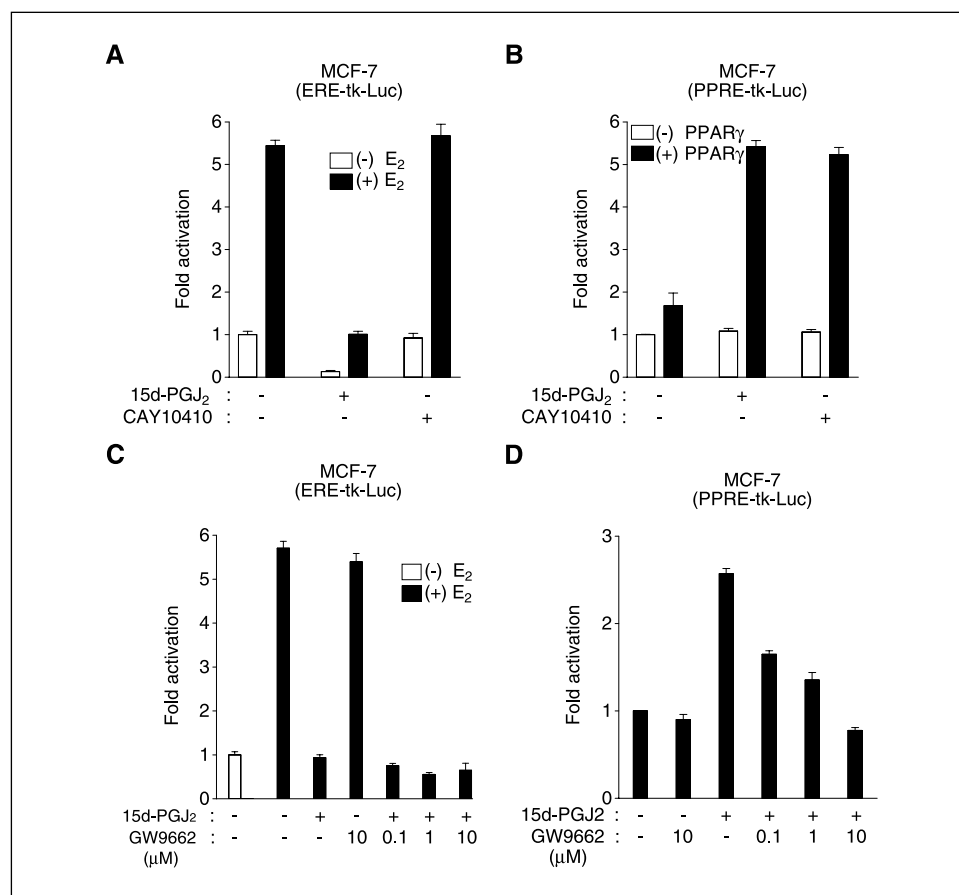


Figure 2. Inhibition of ER α transcriptional activity by 15d-PGJ₂ through PPAR γ -independent mechanism. **A**, transactivity of ER α is inhibited by 15d-PGJ₂ but not by the synthetic PPAR γ ligand CAY10410. **B**, PPAR γ -dependent transactivation is stimulated by both 15d-PGJ₂ and CAY10410. **C**, GW9662, a selective PPAR γ antagonist, does not reverse 15d-PGJ₂-induced repression of ER α transcriptional activity, whereas it strongly reverses the 15d-PGJ₂-induced activation of PPAR γ -dependent transactivation (**D**). MCF-7 cells were transfected with ERE-tk-Luc (**A** and **C**) and PPRE-tk-Luc together with expression vector for PPAR γ (**B** and **D**). After 24 h, cells were treated for 5 h with 10 μ mol/L 15d-PGJ₂ or CAY10410 and indicated concentration of GW9662 together with or without E₂ (100 nmol/L) as indicated.

a natural or a synthetic agonist of PPAR γ , respectively. As shown in Fig. 1D, E₂ significantly stimulated [³H]thymidine incorporation in MCF-7 cells but not in MDA-MB-231 cells. 15d-PGJ₂ at low concentration (0.5–2.5 μ mol/L) drastically decreased the proliferation of MCF-7 cells but not that of MDA-MB-231 cells. This inhibitory effect of 15d-PGJ₂ was much stronger in the presence of E₂ possibly due to repression of ER α -mediated signaling pathway. Furthermore, 15d-PGJ₂ at higher concentration (5 μ mol/L) greatly blocked proliferation of both MCF-7 and MDA-MB231 cells, irrespective of the presence of E₂ possibly due to induction of apoptosis, suggesting ER α -independent mechanism. In contrast, CAY10410 had little effect on proliferation of either cells even at the higher concentration (10 μ mol/L), suggesting that PPAR γ activation may not be required for the inhibitory effect of 15d-PGJ₂. Taken together, these results show that 15d-PGJ₂ inhibits E₂-dependent and E₂-independent ER α transactivity and subsequent ER α -mediated proliferation of breast cancer cells.

15d-PGJ₂ inhibits ER α transcriptional activity through PPAR γ -independent mechanism. To further assess the requirement of PPAR γ for ER α inhibition by 15d-PGJ₂, MCF-7 cells were treated with CAY10410 and GW9662, a synthetic agonist and an antagonist for PPAR γ , respectively. As shown in Fig. 2A, CAY10410 did not have any effect on ER α transactivity, whereas it had similar potency comparable to that of 15d-PGJ₂, to activate PPRE luciferase reporter that contains PPAR γ response elements (Fig. 2B). Moreover, GW9662, a selective PPAR γ antagonist did not reverse the repression of ER α by 15d-PGJ₂, whereas it completely blocked 15d-PGJ₂-induced PPRE-driven luciferase activity (Fig. 2C and D).

A similar result was obtained in PPAR γ -negative HeLa cells (9, 36) transiently transfected with ER α expression vector and ERE luciferase reporter (data not shown). These results reveal that 15d-PGJ₂ inhibits ER α transactivity through PPAR γ -independent mechanism.

Direct modification of ER α protein by 15d-PGJ₂. It has been shown that 15d-PGJ₂ covalently modifies cysteines in several cellular proteins and alter their function (12–15, 36, 37). The cyclopentenone moiety of 15d-PGJ₂ has the capacity to directly react with sulfhydryl group of cysteine residues of the proteins by Michael's addition. The only structural difference of CAY10410 from 15d-PGJ₂ is its lack of cyclopentenone moiety (Fig. 3A). To examine whether 15d-PGJ₂ can directly modify ER α protein via its cyclopentenone moiety independently of PPAR γ , we synthesized biotinylated 15d-PGJ₂ and examined its direct interaction with purified ER α protein. As shown in Fig. 3B, biotinylated 15d-PGJ₂ directly incorporated into ER α protein under the *in vitro* condition. This incorporation was completely blocked by excessive amount of unlabeled 15d-PGJ₂ but not CAY10410 (Fig. 3C), showing the specificity and the involvement of cyclopentenone moiety of 15d-PGJ₂ in the modification of ER α . In addition, this ER α modification by biotinylated 15d-PGJ₂ was significantly diminished in the presence of 10 mmol/L DTT, suggesting the involvement of modification of thiol groups in cysteine residues of ER α (Fig. 3C).

To explore the *in vivo* modification, MCF-7 cells were treated with biotinylated 15d-PGJ₂ or DMSO, and whole-cell lysates were probed with streptavidin. An estimated ER α band was identifiable among several target proteins only in the cell lysates treated with

15d-PGJ₂ but not DMSO (Supplementary Fig. S1). To further verify *in vivo* modification of ER α by 15d-PGJ₂, cell lysates were subjected to pull-down assay using Neutravidin beads and followed by Western blot with anti-ER α or anti-ER β antibody. As shown in Fig. 3D, incorporation of biotinylated 15d-PGJ₂ into ER α *in vivo* was detected in the cells lysates treated with biotinylated 15d-PGJ₂ but not DMSO, whereas ER β was not detected in either cell lysates, suggesting specific modification of ER α by 15d-PGJ₂. These results suggest that 15d-PGJ₂ may directly modify cysteines of ER α both *in vitro* and *in vivo* via its cyclopentenone moiety.

Identification of Cys²⁷⁷ and Cys²⁴⁰ within the COOH-terminal zinc finger of ER α DBD as targets for covalent modification by 15d-PGJ₂. To determine target cysteine residues in ER α for modification by 15d-PGJ₂, purified ER α protein was treated with 15d-PGJ₂ or DMSO followed by digestion with trypsin and analyzed by Nanoflow RPLC-MS/MS. The peptide sequences were identified by searching the tandem mass spectra against a

human database with dynamic modifications on cysteine residues including 15d-PGJ₂ modification (316.4 Da). Among a total of 13 cysteines in ER α , 10 were not modified in the reaction condition (data not shown), and the Cys³⁸¹-containing peptide was not detected in either the control or the 15d-PGJ₂-treated sample; thus, the possibility of modification of Cys³⁸¹ cannot be excluded. As shown in Fig. 4A and B, two peptides containing cysteines modified by 15d-PGJ₂ were detected. The tandem mass spectrum of a triply charged precursor ion at *m/z* 877.2 of the ER α peptide SIQGHNDYMC²²¹PATNQC²²⁷TIDK is shown in Fig. 4A. The singly (*b*₂-*b*₁₄) and doubly (*b*₁₄, *b*₁₄-NH₃, and *b*₁₅-NH₃) charged NH₂-terminal product ions and the singly charged COOH-terminal fragment ion (*y*₂) were observed. The singly (**y*₆ and **y*₁₀) and doubly (**y*₆⁺²) charged COOH-terminal fragment ions were observed to increase 316.4 Da. These observations reveal that the 15d-PGJ₂ covalently modifies Cys²²⁷ but not Cys²²¹. Figure 4B shows the tandem mass spectrum of the doubly charged ion at *m/z* 521.0 of 15d-PGJ₂-modified peptide SC²³⁷QAC²⁴⁰R. The singly charged NH₂-terminal fragments (*b*₂-*b*₅) and COOH-terminal fragment (*y*₁) were observed. In addition, the singly charged NH₂-terminal fragment (**b*₅) and the singly (**y*₂-**y*₅) and doubly (**y*₅⁺²) charged COOH-terminal fragments were observed to increase 316.4 Da, suggesting that Cys²⁴⁰ but not Cys²³⁷ is the target for 15d-PGJ₂ modification. Consistent with the previous studies (27–29), these results show that 15d-PGJ₂ modifies two cysteines (Cys²²⁷ and Cys²⁴⁰) located in the COOH-terminal zinc finger of ER α DBD that is structurally disordered and susceptible to electrophilic attack (Fig. 4C).

Based on the observation that 15d-PGJ₂ modifies two cysteines in the COOH-terminal zinc finger of ER α DBD, the effect of 15d-PGJ₂ on the zinc finger function of ER α was investigated by performing *in vitro* zinc finger assay. As shown in Fig. 4D, zinc was released from recombinant ER α protein treated with 15d-PGJ₂ but not with DMSO control in a time-dependent manner, showing that 15d-PGJ₂ disrupts the zinc finger of ER α DBD. Taken together, these results suggest that 15d-PGJ₂ covalently modifies two cysteines in the COOH-terminal zinc finger of ER α DBD, resulting in disruption of zinc finger function of ER α .

Inhibition of DNA binding of ER α by 15d-PGJ₂. The COOH-terminal zinc finger of ER α is structurally disordered and labile; thus, cysteine thiols in this zinc finger are more susceptible to electrophilic attack, resulting in loss of ER α dimerization and DNA binding function (27–29). In good agreement with these reports, our results showed 15d-PGJ₂ disrupts ER α zinc finger function by covalent modification of cysteines in the vulnerable COOH-terminal zinc finger of ER α DBD. Based on these observations, the possibility that 15d-PGJ₂ can alter the DNA binding function of ER α was investigated by gel mobility shift assay. As shown in Fig. 5A, *in vitro* translated ER α protein bound to ³²P-labeled ERE probes, as shown by ER α -specific antibody supershift. The formation of ER α -ERE complex was exclusively blocked by 15d-PGJ₂ but not by CAY10410 (Fig. 5B). This result shows that 15d-PGJ₂ directly inhibits DNA binding of ER α through covalent modification of cysteines in the zinc finger of ER α DBD and disruption of zinc finger function of ER α .

To further confirm the inhibition of DNA binding of ER α by 15d-PGJ₂ *in vivo*, chromatin immunoprecipitation assay was carried out using ER α or ER β antibody after treatment of 15d-PGJ₂ in MCF-7 cells. As shown in Fig. 5C, densitometric analysis revealed that E₂ enhanced up to 7-fold ER α binding to the *pS2* gene promoter that contains an ER-binding site, whereas E₂ had little effect on ER β binding to the promoter. Consistent with the result from gel

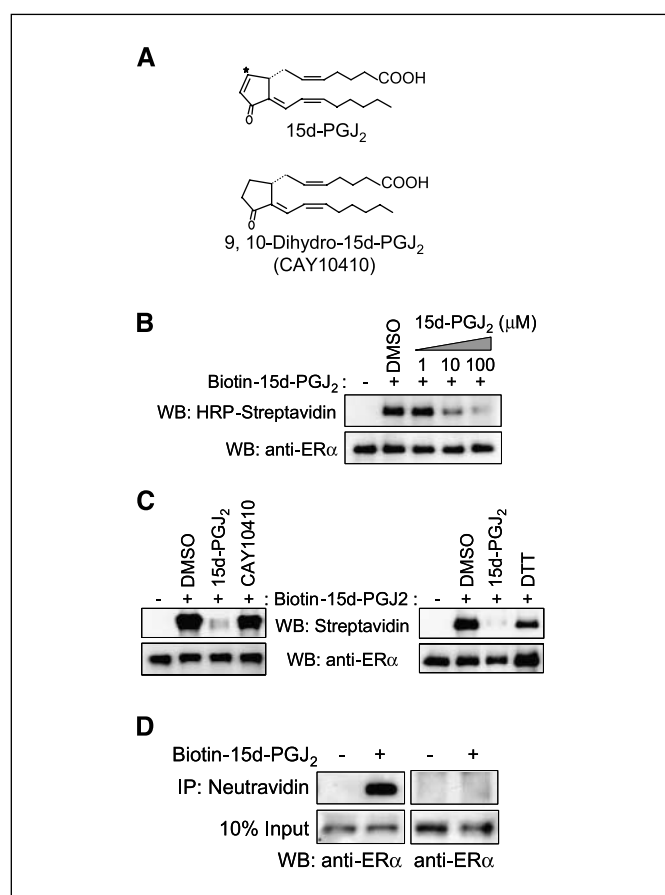


Figure 3. 15d-PGJ₂ directly binds to ER α *in vitro* and *in vivo*. **A**, structures of 15d-PGJ₂ and CAY10410. *, reactive α,β -unsaturated carbonyl group. **B** and **C**, *in vitro* labeling of ER α with 15d-PGJ₂. Purified human ER α protein (100 ng) was incubated with biotinylated 15d-PGJ₂ (1 μ M) in the absence or presence of 15d-PGJ₂ (100 μ M/L), CAY10410 (100 μ M/L), or DTT (10 mmol/L) at room temperature for 1 h as indicated. Incubation mixtures were subjected to SDS-PAGE and Western blot (WB) with horseradish peroxidase (HRP)-conjugated streptavidin or anti-ER α antibody. **D**, incorporation of 15d-PGJ₂ into ER α but not ER β *in vivo*. MCF-7 cells were treated with biotinylated 15d-PGJ₂ (10 μ M/L) for 2 h. Cell lysates were subjected to pull-down assay with Neutravidin beads. Incorporation of biotinylated 15d-PGJ₂ into endogenous ER α and 10% of total lysates used for the reaction as input were assessed by Western blot with anti-ER α or ER β antibody as indicated. *IP*, immunoprecipitation.

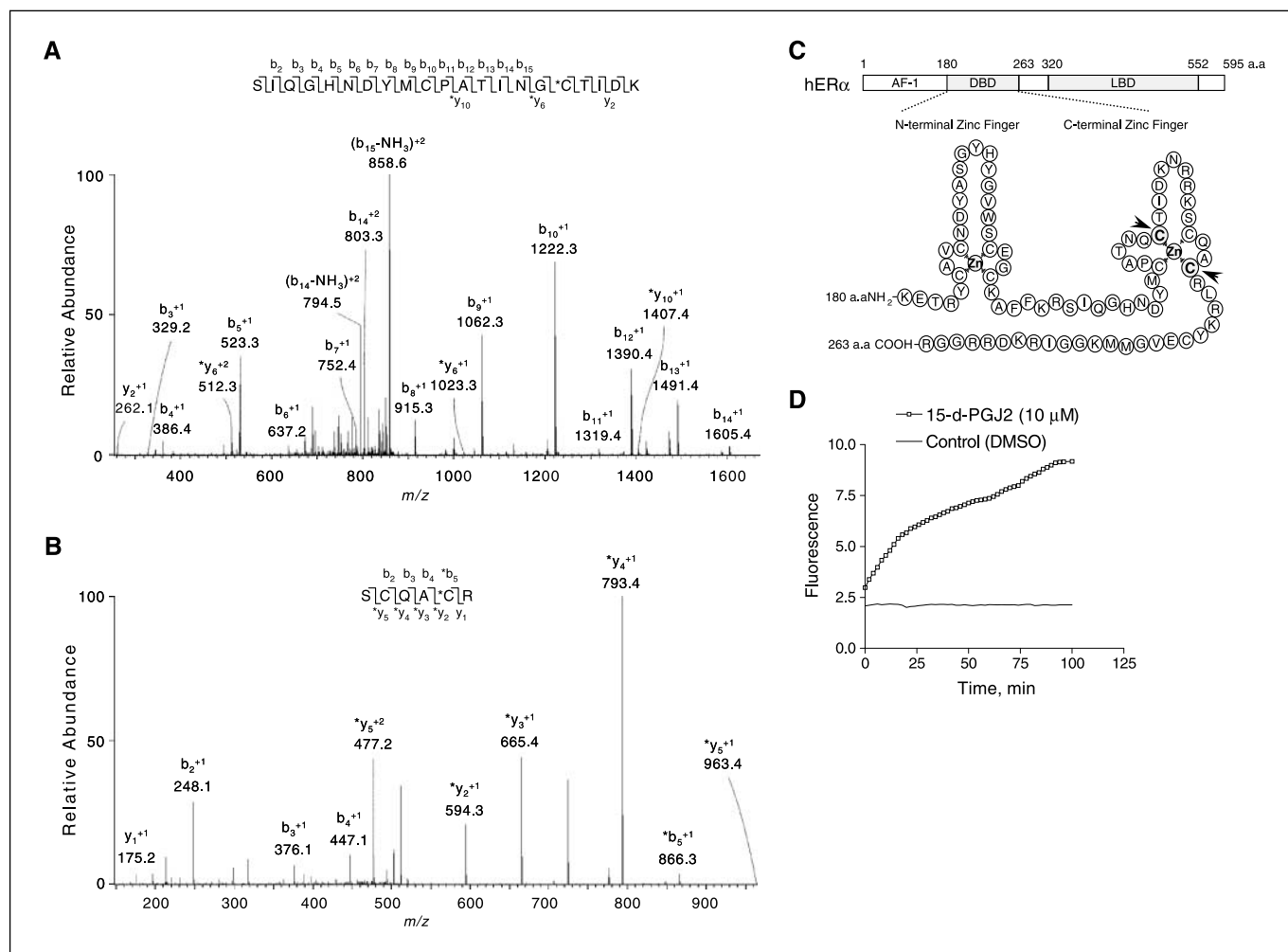


Figure 4. Cys²²⁷ and Cys²⁴⁰ within the COOH-terminal zinc finger of ER α DBD are identified as targets for covalent modification by 15d-PGJ₂. **A** and **B**, tandem mass spectra of the 15d-PGJ₂-modified ER α peptides SIQGHNDYMC²²¹PATING⁺C²²⁷TIDK (**A**) and SC²³⁷QA⁺C²⁴⁰R (**B**). **C**, 15d-PGJ₂-modified cysteine residues. **C**, schematic representation of two zinc fingers of ER α DBD (180–263 amino acids). **Arrowheaded Cs in bold**, Cys²²⁷ and Cys²⁴⁰ within the COOH-terminal zinc finger of ER α DBD modified by 15d-PGJ₂. **D**, disruption of ER α zinc finger function by 15d-PGJ₂. Time-dependent release of zinc ion from the purified ER α protein treated with 15d-PGJ₂ or DMSO was measured by zinc finger assay using zinc selective fluorescent probe (TSQ).

mobility shift assay, E₂-enhanced binding of ER α to the *pS2* promoter was completely abrogated by 15d-PGJ₂ but not by CAY10410. In contrast, 15d-PGJ₂ had little effect on ER β binding to *pS2* promoter, supported by the results from transient transfection assay (Fig. 1B) and *in vivo* labeling of ER proteins by biotin-15d-PGJ₂ (Fig. 3D). Consistent with the results from chromatin immunoprecipitation assay, 15d-PGJ₂ notably reduced both basal and E₂-enhanced mRNA levels of *pS2* and *c-Myc*, which are well-characterized ER α target genes (38), as verified by semiquantitative reverse transcription-PCR (Fig. 5D). This finding indicates that 15d-PGJ₂ represses the transcription of ER α target genes *pS2* and *c-Myc* by inhibition of ER α binding to target gene promoters. Taken together, these results suggest that 15d-PGJ₂ suppresses ER α -mediated transcription by inhibition of ER α DNA binding function.

Discussion

PPAR γ agonists, including 15d-PGJ₂, have been shown to inhibit proliferation of breast cancer cells (4, 5, 9, 10, 39). Our result shows that 15d-PGJ₂ at low concentration (0.5–2.5 μ mol/L) strongly

decreases proliferation of ER α -positive MCF-7 cells in the absence or presence of E₂ but not that of ER α -negative MDA-MB-231 cells (Fig. 1D). This observation proposes that inhibitory effect of 15d-PGJ₂ on the proliferation of MCF-7 cells can be in part due to the repression of ER α -mediated signaling pathway. In addition, 15d-PGJ₂ potently suppresses the proliferation of MDA-MB-231 cells as well as MCF-7 cells at high concentration (≥ 5 μ mol/L). Constitutive activation of NF- κ B and AP-1 has been linked to the development of hormone-independent, ER α -negative human breast cancer cells such as MDA-MB-231 cells (29, 40). Therefore, it is assumed that 15d-PGJ₂ at high concentration can inhibit cell proliferation of MDA-MB-231 cells possibly by affecting multiple signaling pathways, including NF- κ B and AP-1, as well as unknown targets, independently of ER α .

Previous study has shown that 15d-PGJ₂ and a synthetic PPAR γ ligand (ciglitazone) induce proteasome-dependent degradation of cyclin D1 and ER α , in a PPAR γ -dependent manner, resulting in PPAR γ -mediated growth arrest in breast cancer cells (39). We also observed that ER α protein was ubiquitinated after treatment of 15d-PGJ₂ (Supplementary Fig. S2) as previously reported (39).

However, our results also showed that 15d-PGJ₂ inhibits ER α transactivity through blocking of ER α DNA binding via direct modification of ER α , independently of PPAR γ . Therefore, these findings suggest that 15d-PGJ₂-adducted ER α , which is not able to bind to and transactivate the target gene promoters, should be a target for proteasome-dependent degradation through PPAR γ -dependent mechanism.

Growth factors, including IGF-1, have been shown to stimulate proliferation of breast cancer cells through crosstalk with ER α (20–24). Phosphorylation of the AF-1 domain of ER α by mitogen-activated protein kinase or AKT, which are downstream signaling molecules activated by growth factors, plays important roles in E₂-independent ER α transactivation and growth of ER α -positive breast cancer cells. The activated AF-1 domain of ER α can recruit coactivators, such as amplified in breast cancer 1 or SRC-1, even in the presence of antiestrogens such as tamoxifen. This is considered as one of the mechanisms of resistance to antiestrogen therapy. In addition to antiestrogen, therapy using aromatase inhibitors aims also to obstruct ER α transactivity by deprivation of ER ligand E₂.

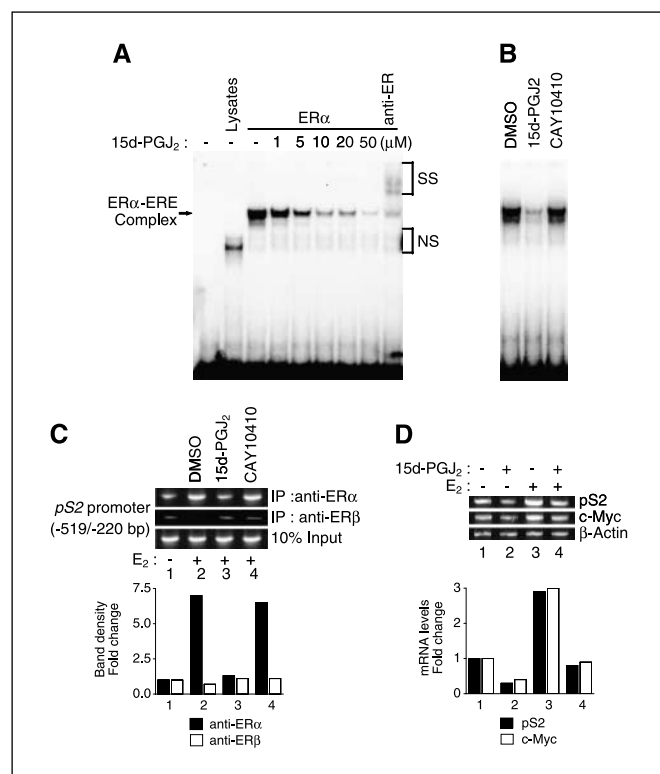


Figure 5. 15d-PGJ₂ directly inhibits the DNA-binding activity of ER α . **A** and **B**, gel mobility shift assay. DNA binding of ER α is inhibited by 15d-PGJ₂ but not by CAY10410 (**B**). ³²P-labeled ERE probes were incubated with *in vitro* translated ER α (3 μ L) protein or unprogrammed lysates. Anti-ER α antibody was used for supershift (SS). NS, nonspecific. **C**, chromatin immunoprecipitation assay. MCF-7 cells were treated with 10 μ mol/L 15d-PGJ₂ or CAY10410 in the presence of E₂ (100 nmol/L) for 2 h. Soluble chromatin from these cells was prepared and immunoprecipitated with an ER α - or ER β -specific antibody. The PCR fragment from –519 to –220 bp (300 bp) on the pS2 gene promoter contains an ERE, and 10% of the soluble chromatin used in the reaction was used as inputs. **D**, semiquantitative reverse transcription-PCR analysis. mRNA expression levels of ER α target genes pS2 and c-Myc were reduced by 15d-PGJ₂. MCF-7 cells were incubated with 15d-PGJ₂ (10 μ mol/L) in the presence or absence of E₂ (100 nmol/L) for 6 h. Total RNA was isolated from cells and analyzed by reverse transcription-PCR. **C** and **D**, bottom, graphic presentation of densitometric analyses of chromatin immunoprecipitation and semiquantitative reverse transcription-PCR.

However, these therapeutic approaches have limitation due to the fact that ER α still binds to its target gene promoters and mediates growth-promoting signaling by growth factors or partial estrogenic antiestrogens. Our results showed that 15d-PGJ₂ represses both basal and IGF-1-induced ER α transcriptional activity as well as E₂-dependent ER α activation (Fig. 1A and C). In addition, 15d-PGJ₂ directly blocks the DNA binding of ER α to ERE *in vitro* and to its binding sites on the target gene promoters *in vivo* (Fig. 5) through disruption of zinc finger function of ER α DBD (Fig. 4). Thus, our findings suggest that 15d-PGJ₂ can block the ER α -mediated transcription induced by growth factors and antiestrogens as well as E₂, resulting in growth inhibition of ER α -positive breast cancer cells. This is very important because DNA binding inhibition of ER α can be a more fundamental approach to block the ER α transcriptional activity than antagonism or deprivation of E₂. Because the physiologic concentration of 15d-PGJ₂ is in the picomolar to nanomolar range (41, 42), the micromolar concentrations of 15d-PGJ₂ typically used in our and other studies may not be physiologically relevant. However, our study provides a new approach for development of drugs derived from 15d-PGJ₂ that contains the reactive cyclopentenone moiety to treat ER α -positive breast cancers.

The ER α DBD contains two functionally and structurally nonequivalent Cys⁴ zinc finger motifs that are crucial to ER α -mediated transcription. The COOH-terminal zinc finger of ER α DBD is structurally disordered and susceptible to electrophilic attack as a monomer but is stabilized by dimerization (27–29). Our previous study showed that electrophilic agents, such as 2,2'-dithiobisbenzamide-1 and benzisothiazolone, preferentially disrupt the vulnerable COOH-terminal zinc finger of ER α DBD, resulting in inhibition of dimerization and DNA binding of ER α (29). In the present study, we identified Cys²²⁷ and Cys²⁴⁰ within the COOH-terminal zinc finger of ER α DBD as targets for covalent modification by 15d-PGJ₂ (Fig. 4). In addition, our zinc ejection experiment showed that 15d-PGJ₂ disrupts zinc finger function of ER α (Fig. 4), resulting in inhibition of ER α DNA binding and thus suppression of target gene transcription, such as the proto-oncogene c-Myc (Fig. 5). Therefore, the growth-inhibitory effect of 15d-PGJ₂ on ER α -positive breast cancers can be mediated by direct modification and disruption of zinc finger function of ER α DBD.

In summary, we have identified 15d-PGJ₂ as a potent inhibitor of ER α transactivity through direct covalent modification of ER α , independently of PPAR γ . 15d-PGJ₂ directly adducts with Cys²²⁷ and Cys²⁴⁰ within the COOH-terminal zinc finger of ER α DBD, resulting in inhibition of both hormone-dependent and hormone-independent ER α -mediated transcription and growth in breast cancer cells. Therefore, our finding presents a novel approach to the design of new drugs to treat ER α -positive breast cancers based on covalent modification of cysteines within the vulnerable COOH-terminal zinc finger of ER α DBD and subsequent DNA binding inhibition of ER α rather than conventional antagonism of estrogen.

Acknowledgments

Received 8/16/2006; revised 12/14/2006; accepted 1/10/2007.

Grant support: Intramural Research Program of the National Cancer Institute, NIH and Federal funds from the National Cancer Institute, NIH under contract N01-CO-12400 (H-J. Kim, J-Y. Kim, and W.L. Farrar).

The costs of publication of this article were defrayed in part by the payment of page charges. This article must therefore be hereby marked *advertisement* in accordance with 18 U.S.C. Section 1734 solely to indicate this fact.

References

1. Forman BM, Tontonoz P, Chen J, Brun RP, Spiegelman BM, Evans RM. 15-Deoxy- $\Delta^{12,14}$ -prostaglandin J_2 is a ligand for the adipocyte determination factor PPAR γ . *Cell* 1995;83:803–12.
2. Kliewer SA, Lenhard JM, Willson TM, Patel I, Morris DC, Lehmann JM. A prostaglandin J_2 metabolite binds peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor γ and promotes adipocyte differentiation. *Cell* 1995;83:813–9.
3. Lehrke M, Lazar MA. The many faces of PPAR γ . *Cell* 2005;123:993–9.
4. Grommes C, Landreth GE, Heneka MT. Antineoplastic effects of peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor γ agonists. *Lancet Oncol* 2004;5:419–29.
5. Clay CE, Atsumi GI, High KP, Chilton FH. Early *de novo* gene expression is required for 15-deoxy- $\Delta^{12,14}$ -prostaglandin J_2 -induced apoptosis in breast cancer cells. *J Biol Chem* 2001;276:47131–5.
6. Sarraf P, Mueller E, Jones D, et al. Differentiation and reversal of malignant changes in colon cancer through PPAR γ . *Nat Med* 1998;4:1046–52.
7. Chaffer CL, Thomas DM, Thompson EW, Williams ED. PPAR γ -independent induction of growth arrest and apoptosis in prostate and bladder carcinoma. *BMC Cancer* 2006;6:53.
8. Han S, Sidell N, Fisher PB, Roman J. Up-regulation of p21 gene expression by peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor γ in human lung carcinoma cells. *Clin Cancer Res* 2004;10:1911–9.
9. Patel L, Pass I, Coxon P, Downes CP, Smith SA, Macphee CH. Tumor suppressor and anti-inflammatory actions of PPAR γ agonists are mediated via upregulation of PTEN. *Curr Biol* 2001;11:764–8.
10. Wang C, Fu M, D'Amico M, et al. Inhibition of cellular proliferation through I κ B kinase-independent and peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor γ -dependent repression of cyclin D1. *Mol Cell Biol* 2001;21:3057–70.
11. Chen GG, Lee JF, Wang SH, Chan UP, Ip PC, Lau WY. Apoptosis induced by activation of peroxisome-proliferator activated receptor- γ is associated with Bcl-2 and NF- κ B in human colon cancer. *Life Sci* 2002;70:2631–46.
12. Rossi A, Kapahi P, Natoli G, et al. Anti-inflammatory cyclopentenone prostaglandins are direct inhibitors of I κ B kinase. *Nature* 2000;403:103–8.
13. Cernuda-Morollon E, Pineda-Molina E, Canada FJ, Perez-Sala D. 15-Deoxy- $\Delta^{12,14}$ -prostaglandin J_2 inhibition of NF- κ B-DNA binding through covalent modification of the p50 subunit. *J Biol Chem* 2001;276:35530–6.
14. Perez-Sala D, Cernuda-Morollon E, Canada FJ. Molecular basis for the direct inhibition of AP-1 DNA binding by 15-deoxy- $\Delta^{12,14}$ -prostaglandin J_2 . *J Biol Chem* 2003;278:51251–60.
15. Shibata T, Yamada T, Ishii T, et al. Thioredoxin as a molecular target of cyclopentenone prostaglandins. *J Biol Chem* 2003;278:26046–54.
16. Mangelsdorf DJ, Thummel C, Beato M, et al. The nuclear receptor superfamily: the second decade. *Cell* 1995;83:835–9.
17. Tsai MJ, O'Malley BW. Molecular mechanisms of action of steroid/thyroid receptor superfamily members. *Annu Rev Biochem* 1994;63:451–86.
18. Hall JM, Couse JE, Korach KS. The multifaceted mechanisms of estradiol and estrogen receptor signaling. *J Biol Chem* 2001;276:36869–72.
19. Shang Y, Brown M. Molecular determinants for the tissue specificity of SERMs. *Science* 2002;295:2465–8.
20. Lewis JS, Jordan VC. Selective estrogen receptor modulators (SERMs): mechanisms of anticarcinogenesis and drug resistance. *Mutat Res* 2005;591:247–63.
21. Gururaj AE, Rayala SK, Vadlamudi RK, Kumar R. Novel mechanisms of resistance to endocrine therapy: genomic and nongenomic considerations. *Clin Cancer Res* 2006;12:1001–7s.
22. Schiff R, Massarweh SA, Shou J, Bharwani L, Mohsin SK, Osborne CK. Cross-talk between estrogen receptor and growth factor pathways as a molecular target for overcoming endocrine resistance. *Clin Cancer Res* 2004;10:331–65.
23. Font de Mora J, Brown M. AIB1 is a conduit for kinase-mediated growth factor signaling to the estrogen receptor. *Mol Cell Biol* 2000;20:5041–7.
24. Kato S, Endoh H, Masuhiro Y, et al. Activation of the estrogen receptor through phosphorylation by mitogen-activated protein kinase. *Science* 1995;270:1491–4.
25. Schwabe JW, Chapman L, Finch JT, Rhodes D. The crystal structure of the estrogen receptor DNA-binding domain bound to DNA: how receptors discriminate between their response elements. *Cell* 1993;75:567–78.
26. Schwabe JW, Neuhaus D, Rhodes D. Solution structure of the DNA-binding domain of the oestrogen receptor. *Nature* 1990;348:458–61.
27. Maynard AT, Covell DG. Reactivity of zinc finger cores: analysis of protein packing and electrostatic screening. *J Am Chem Soc* 2001;123:1047–58.
28. Whittall RM, Benz CC, Scott G, Semyonov J, Burlingame AL, Baldwin MA. Preferential oxidation of zinc finger 2 in estrogen receptor DNA-binding domain prevents dimerization and, hence, DNA binding. *Biochemistry* 2000;39:8406–17.
29. Wang LH, Yang XY, Zhang X, et al. Suppression of breast cancer by chemical modulation of vulnerable zinc fingers in estrogen receptor. *Nat Med* 2004;10:40–7.
30. Leclercq G, Lacroix M, Laios I, Laurent G. Estrogen receptor α : impact of ligands on intracellular shuttling and turnover rate in breast cancer cells. *Curr Cancer Drug Targets* 2006;6:39–64.
31. Ariazi EA, Ariazi JL, Cordera F, Jordan VC. Estrogen receptors as therapeutic targets in breast cancer. *Curr Top Med Chem* 2006;6:181–202.
32. Shang Y. Molecular mechanisms of oestrogen and SERMs in endometrial carcinogenesis. *Nat Rev Cancer* 2006;6:360–8.
33. Monroe DG, Johnsen SA, Subramaniam M, et al. Mutual antagonism of estrogen receptors α and β and their preferred interactions with steroid receptor coactivators in human osteoblastic cell lines. *J Endocrinol* 2003;176:349–37.
34. Kim HJ, Kim JY, Kim JY, et al. Differential regulation of human and mouse orphan nuclear receptor small heterodimer partner promoter by sterol regulatory element binding protein-1. *J Biol Chem* 2004;279:28122–31.
35. Lee AV, Weng CN, Jackson JG, Yee D. Activation of estrogen receptor-mediated gene transcription by IGF-1 in human breast cancer cells. *J Endocrinol* 1997;152:39–47.
36. Straus DS, Pascual G, Li M, et al. 15-deoxy- $\Delta^{12,14}$ -prostaglandin J_2 inhibits multiple steps in the NF- κ B signaling pathway. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 2000;97:4844–9.
37. Oliva JL, Perez-Sala D, Castrillo A, et al. The cyclopentenone 15-deoxy- $\Delta^{12,14}$ -prostaglandin J_2 binds to and activates H-Ras. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 2003;100:4772–7.
38. Liu XF, Bagchi MK. Recruitment of distinct chromatin-modifying complexes by tamoxifen-complexed estrogen receptor at natural target gene promoters *in vivo*. *J Biol Chem* 2004;279:15050–8.
39. Qin C, Burghardt R, Smith R, Wormke M, Stewart J, Safe S. Peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor γ agonists induce proteasome-dependent degradation of cyclin D1 and estrogen receptor α in MCF-7 breast cancer cells. *Cancer Res* 2003;63:958–64.
40. Valachovicova T, Slivova V, Bergman H, Shuherk J, Sliva D. Soy isoflavones suppress invasiveness of breast cancer cells by the inhibition of NF- κ B/AP-1-dependent and -independent pathways. *Int J Oncol* 2004;25:1389–95.
41. Bell-Parikh LC, Ide T, Lawson JA, McNamara P, Reilly M, FitzGerald GA. Biosynthesis of 15-deoxy- $\Delta^{12,14}$ -PGJ $_2$ and the ligation of PPAR γ . *J Clin Invest* 2003;112:945–55.
42. Shibata T, Kondo M, Osawa T, Shibata N, Kobayashi M, Uchida K. 15-deoxy- $\Delta^{12,14}$ -prostaglandin J_2 . A prostaglandin D_2 metabolite generated during inflammatory processes. *J Biol Chem* 2002;277:10459–66.