

Genome-wide activity of unliganded estrogen receptor- α in breast cancer cells

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Estrogen receptor- α (ER α) has central role in hormone-dependent breast cancer and its ligand-induced functions have been extensively characterized. However, evidence exists that ER α has functions that are independent of ligands. In the present work, we investigated the binding of ER α to chromatin in the absence of ligands and its functions on gene regulation. We demonstrated that in MCF7 breast cancer cells unliganded ER α binds to more than 4,000 chromatin sites. Unexpectedly, although almost entirely comprised in the larger group of estrogen-induced binding sites, we found that unliganded-ER α binding is specifically linked to genes with developmental functions, compared with estrogen-induced binding. Moreover, we found that siRNA-mediated down-regulation of ER α in absence of estrogen is accompanied by changes in the expression levels of hundreds of coding and noncoding RNAs. Down-regulated mRNAs showed enrichment in genes related to epithelial cell growth and development. Stable ER α down-regulation using shRNA, which caused cell growth arrest, was accompanied by increased H3K27me3 at ER α binding sites. Finally, we found that FOXA1 and AP2 γ binding to several sites is decreased upon ER α silencing, suggesting that unliganded ER α participates, together with other factors, in the maintenance of the luminal-specific cistrome in breast cancer cells.

chromatin binding | transcriptome | enhancer | pioneer factors | epigenetics

Estrogen receptor- α (ER α) expression in breast cancer defines the Luminal A phenotype, which represents the subset of tumors that are responsive to endocrine treatments. Spontaneous or experimentally induced (1) loss of ER α elicits growth arrest or epithelial to mesenchymal transition in vitro, whereas estrogen withdrawal from culture media, albeit reducing proliferation rate, has no such effect. These data suggest that loss of ER α does not equal depletion of estrogen. ER α is a DNA-binding, ligand-activated transcription factor, but it can be activated in absence of ligands by diverse mechanisms, especially by phosphorylation through different pathways, including protein kinase A, mitogen-activated protein kinases, and others (ref. 2 and references therein). Ligand-independent activity of ER α was reported by several groups on individual genes (3–5). Genome-wide ER α binding in the absence of estrogen was also described in breast cancer cells acquainted with growing in hormone-depleted media (6–8) and in mouse uterus (9). These data suggest that ER α may have a wide genomic function in breast cancer cells independent of its ligands. Estrogen response in breast cancer cells was extensively characterized in terms of chromatin binding and gene-expression regulation using both cell lines and human tumor biopsies. In vitro models were especially useful because they allowed correlating ER α -binding events, which are rarely located at gene promoters, with gene-expression data (10–13). In these studies, the experimental setting, together with the fact that breast cancer cell lines show a high grade of genomic

rearrangements (14), made it difficult to evaluate ER α binding in cells treated with vehicle alone. As a consequence, most authors have dismissed the question of hormone-independent binding as compromised peak calling or as unspecific background (15, 16). However, especially for the clinical problem concerning the response to aromatase inhibitors, identifying possible ER α genomic actions in the absence of ligands would be very relevant. In this work, we first identified bona fide genomic ER α binding sites in the absence of estrogen in breast cancer cells. We then evaluated the effect of ER α silencing on gene transcription and binding of pioneer factors, demonstrating that ER α controls genomic activity by binding to several chromatin sites independently of estrogen exposure. Thus, unliganded ER α may participate, together with other factors, in the definition of the chromatin landscape of hormone-dependent breast cancer cells.

Results

Unliganded ER α Cistrome in MCF7 Cells. To identify ER α binding in the absence of estrogen, MCF7 cells were maintained in hormone-depleted (HD) medium, transfected with control (siCTR) or ER α -specific (siER α) siRNA and subjected to chromatin immunoprecipitation followed by high-throughput sequencing

Significance

Estrogen receptor- α (ER α) is a key protein in breast cancer and treatments targeting ER α are among the most widely used and effective in clinics. Although the role of estrogen-stimulated ER α in breast cancer has been exhaustively described, the functions of ER α in the absence of estrogen is ill-defined. In this work, we show that ER α binds extensively to the genome of breast cancer cells in the absence of estrogen, where it regulates the expression of hundreds of genes endowed with developmental functions. Our data suggest that ER α has a fundamental role in the homeostasis of luminal epithelial cells also when estrogen is ablated physiologically or pharmacologically.

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(ChIP-seq) using antibodies against ER α or IgG as control. Analysis of ER α enrichment over IgG in siCTR conditions evidenced 4,232 unliganded ER α binding sites (apo-ER α binding sites, aERBS) ($P < 1e-05$). These sites were almost entirely contained in the ER α cistrome reported in MCF7 cells cultured in full medium (FM-ERBS) or after 17 β -estradiol (E2) treatment (E2-ERBS) (Fig. 1A) (15, 17). Accordingly, aERBS showed genomic distribution similar to estrogen-induced events, with increased prevalence of intergenic location (Fig. S1A).

To verify the specificity of the signal, we examined how siER α , which reduced ER α protein level by 80% (Fig. S1B), affected these binding events. ChIP signal was strongly reduced upon ER α knockdown (Fig. 1B and Fig. S1C), confirming that these are bona fide ERBS in the absence of hormone. Comparison of ER α binding enrichment in siCTR over siER α allowed ranking aERBS by significance (Fig. 1B) and this unraveled diversity among aERBS. Analysis of top 25% aERBS revealed a higher average number of reads and a full estrogen-response element (fERE) as the most represented motif at peak center (63% fERE-positive, $P < 6.2e-58$), compared with bottom 25% (27% fERE-positive, $P < 3.9e-07$). Bottom aERBS presented a half-ERE as the most represented motif (Fig. 1C). In addition to this finding, distribution around the peak center of the fERE probability was also different in top and bottom peaks (Fig. 1D). Moreover, the calculated theoretical fERE affinity was significantly higher in top aERBS (Fig. 1E and Fig. S1D).

Given that aERBS overlap extensively with those observed in the presence of E2 (Fig. 1A), an important issue is whether aERBS

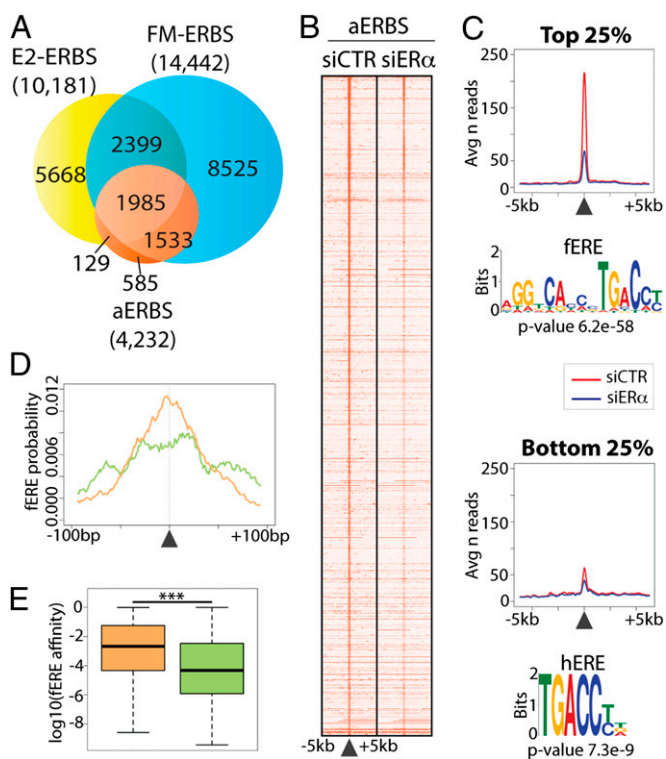


Fig. 1. (A) Venn diagram of aERBS, FM-ERBS (17), and in E2-treated MCF7 cells (E2-ERBS) (15). (B) Peak intensity heat map of aERBS in a \pm 5-Kbp genomic window. The 4,232 aERBS significantly enriched over IgG (siCTR) are ranked on P value versus ER α ChIP-seq in siER α -treated cells. (C) Average read counts for top and bottom quartiles in siCTR and siER α peaks. The S-logo indicates the most enriched motif in this quartile. (D) Localization probability of a fERE within 200 bp around the peak center of top 25% (orange) and bottom 25% (green). (E) Box plot depicting the predicted affinity of fERE as in D of the top (orange) and bottom (green) 25% (***) $P < 0.001$; two-tailed unpaired t -test). Black arrow indicates ER α peak center.

may represent “residual binding” after estrogen deprivation. Using ChIP-quantitative PCR (qPCR), we verified that apo-ER α binding to several sites was stable up to 12 d in HD medium (Fig. S1E), thus excluding simple estrogen carryover when cells were switched to HD medium. Furthermore, using GREAT analysis (18), we found that aERBS lie close to genes associated with development, cell differentiation, and morphogenesis, whereas E2-ERBS and FM-ERBS, not in common with aERBS, showed enrichment in metabolism, lipid metabolism and biosynthesis terms (Datasets S1 and S2). This difference was clearly shown by semantic analysis of the associated Gene Ontology (GO) terms (19), as shown in Fig. 2A. Thus, this result suggests that ER α chromatin binding in absence of hormone has different functions than estrogen-induced binding.

Transcription factor binding sites (TFBS) analysis confirmed that apo-ER α binding is most likely facilitated by cooperating factors, as previously shown for liganded ER α (11, 12, 20). aERBS are frequently accompanied by forkhead box protein A1 (FOXA1/HNF3A), activating enhancer binding protein 2 gamma (AP2 γ /TFAP2C), glucocorticoid receptor, and other motifs (Fig. 2B, Left). Interestingly, predicted TFBS were different in the top 25% vs. bottom 25% aERBS, showing fERE and FOXA1 as the most enriched motifs, respectively (Fig. S1F). We then compared TFBS predictions with available ChIP-seq datasets in MCF7 cells (Fig. 2B, Right). The highest overlap was observed in the case of FOXA1, GATA binding protein 3 (Gata3), nuclear receptor subfamily 2 group F member 2 (NR2F2), and AP2 γ (connecting arcs in Fig. 2B). Noteworthy, FOXA1 and AP2 γ binding in HD medium were among the most overlapped data. As we recently reported for E2-ERBS (21), aERBS overlap significantly with transposable elements of the mammalian interspersed repetitive (MIR) and endogenous retroviral sequence 1 (ERV1) superfamilies (Fig. S1G), which have been proposed as tools to coevolve TFBS modules.

To investigate the relevance of the aERBS identified in our study, we performed comparative analyses with ERBS reported in other available datasets (Fig. S1H and Dataset S3A). First we verified significant overlap with datasets of MCF7 (15, 22), T47D (22), and H3396 cells (23) cultured in HD medium, which was particularly consistent for the top 25% aERBS. We then investigated whether aERBS are conserved in cells adapted to long-term estrogen deprivation (LTED cells). This analysis showed extremely variable overlap, from 84.9% in MCF7:2A (7), to almost none (0.32%) in other MCF7-derived LTED cell line (6), suggesting that alternative pathways contribute to adaptation to hormone deprivation. We also observed significant overlap with ERBS reported in hydroxy-tamoxifen (OH-T)-treated MCF7 cells in two studies (11, 17), as well as in OH-T-resistant MCF7-derived clones (Fig. S1H and I) (11, 24). Semantic analysis of GO terms comparing ERBS described in OH-T-treated MCF7 cells (15), MCF7:2A LTED cells (7), and aERBS, showed again a clear association of aERBS with developmental terms (Fig. S1J). Interestingly, we found that 420 of the aERBS described in our study were present in the set of 484 ERBS identified in human breast tumor samples (24), further emphasizing the role of aERBS in breast tumor cells (Fig. S1H). Noteworthy, among those samples, 264 overlapping peaks were in top 25% aERBS, whereas only 27 were in the bottom 25%.

Taken together, these results demonstrate that ER α is bound to chromatin in absence of hormone to sites that represent a functionally significant subset of estrogen-induced binding sites.

aERBS Are Functional Sites. Individual ChIP-qPCR analysis of selected aERBS not only confirmed ER α binding in the absence of estrogen but showed consistent decrease after siER α transfection (Fig. 3A, blue bars). To rule out residual estrogenic activity in HD medium, we repeated the experiments in serum-free (SF) medium, showing essentially similar results (Fig. 3A, orange bars).

The fact that most aERBS overlap estrogen-stimulated ERBS poses the question of whether these sites are fully occupied by

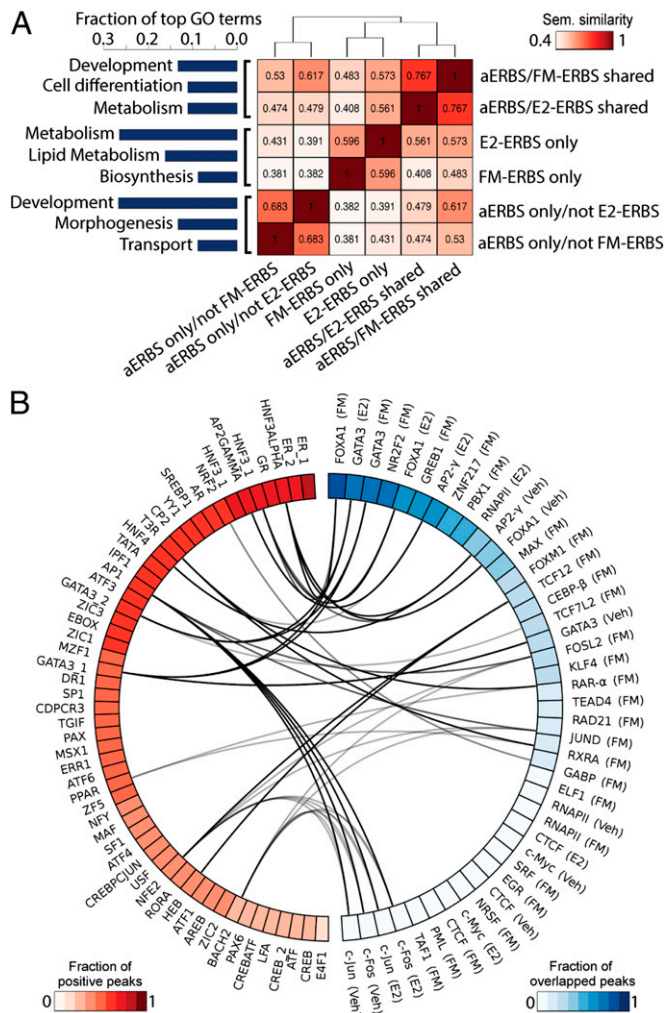


Fig. 2. (A) Semantic similarity of GO Biological Process terms enriched by GREAT (18) in aERBS, FM-ERBS (17), or in E2-treated cells (E2-ERBS) (15). The heat map (Right) reports the semantic similarity computed between the following subsets: aERBS in common with FM or E2-treated conditions (aERBS/FM-ERBS shared; aERBS/E2-ERBS shared); ERBS detected in FM or E2 only (FM-ERBS only; E2-ERBS only); aERBS not present in FM or E2 (aERBS only/not E2-ERBS and aERBS only/not FM-ERBS). The three most represented GO categories for each cluster are indicated on the left. (B) Circos plot of TFBS predictions versus ChIP-seq datasets overlap relative to aERBS. Left heat map (red scale): predicted TFBS matrix frequency. Right heat map (blue scale): fraction of aERBS overlapped to TFBS reported by ChIP-seq. TFBS and ChIP-seq datasets characterized by the highest similarity are connected by lines of increasing color intensity, proportional to matrix similarity. Veh, untreated; E2, estrogen-treated; FM, full medium.

ER α in the absence of hormone. As shown in Fig. 3B, treatment of cells with E2 for 45 min induced a significant increase of ER α binding, confirming that these sites presented a low occupancy in absence of ligands, yet maintained E2-inducibility. We also noted that induction was less pronounced for peaks having a higher basal level (see for example *FKBP4* and *RARA*), as previously reported for the intronic *RARA* binding site (25).

Next, we asked whether ER α down-regulation affects transcription even in the absence of estrogen. Using qRT-PCR, we verified that mRNA expression of five of seven genes containing aERBS was indeed significantly decreased 48 h after siER α transfection. This down-regulation was also reproduced in SF medium (Fig. 3C). As expected, E2 treatment caused an increase in mRNA levels up to ninefold (Fig. 3D and Fig. S24). However,

we observed no correlation between the level of repression after siER α and the induction by E2.

We also examined the effects of silencing ER α to a greater extent by transducing MCF7 cells with an shRNA-expressing vector in different growth conditions: in the absence of hormone (HD) versus serum-containing medium (FM) or versus E2 treatment (E2) (Fig. 3D and Fig. S24). The results obtained indicate that ER α shRNA significantly impaired the response to E2 treatment. Of note, the mRNA level obtained in ER α -knockdown cells upon E2 treatment is below the level observed in control cells in HD medium. Taken together, these data indicate that in the absence of hormone ER α binds to regulatory sites, where it maintains basal transcription of its target genes, which can be either stimulated after ligand administration or repressed upon ER α depletion.

To evaluate the genome-wide effects of ER α depletion on the transcriptome of MCF7 cells, we performed polyA⁺ RNA-seq from cells cultured in absence of estrogen. RNAs were extracted 48 h after transfection of siCTR or siER α . To detect a broad range of variations in RNA levels we combined two complementary strategies (SI Materials and Methods). This analysis led to the identification of 912 differentially expressed (DE) genes with at least 1.5-fold change ($P < 0.05$). ER α knockdown in the absence of hormone elicited both decrease (504 genes) and increase (408 genes) of coding and noncoding transcripts (Fig. 4A and B). Even though most DE genes were protein coding (727), we found evidence of regulation of lincRNA expression, in particular of lincRNAs (57 genes), antisense transcripts (48 genes), and pseudogenes (54 genes).

To understand whether transcriptional changes observed upon ER α knockdown overlap E2-stimulated genes, we compared our data to seven different public expression datasets from MCF7 cells treated with E2 for 4, 6, and 24 h (Dataset S3B). We found that 27.6% of the deregulated genes upon ER α knockdown were E2-regulated genes. Additional comparison with two time-course expression datasets (12, 26) did not increase this ratio (Fig. S2B). This analysis showed that ER α silencing causes, on average, a transcriptional effect with an opposite trend compared to E2-induction (Fig. 4C), confirming that genes controlled by unliganded ER α are a subset of estrogen-responsive genes. Finally, we examined two public MCF7 datasets measuring the effect of hormone withdrawal for 48–72 h (Dataset S3B) and we observed small overlap, though of coherent sign (Fig. 4C). In our experimental design, the time required for ER α down-regulation (48 h) accounts for the occurrence of indirect effects, in addition to primary ER α -mediated regulation. Nevertheless, we cannot exclude that some DE genes may represent, in part, an estrogen-independent gene expression response to ER α depletion.

Next, we sought to correlate aERBS with gene regulation. Nineteen percent of down-regulated and 5% of up-regulated genes had an aERBS within 20 kb from the transcription start site (TSS) and this ratio increased to 75% and 25%, respectively, extending the range up to 100 kb. In addition, we compared the distance from the TSS to the nearest aERBS in down-regulated vs. up-regulated genes. This analysis showed that aERBS accumulated significantly closer to down-regulated genes compared to random, whereas up-regulated genes did not (Fig. 4D and Fig. S2C). Taken together, these observations suggest that down-regulated genes are directly regulated by apo-ER α binding, whereas the up-regulated set may contain secondary responders.

Looking for functions of DE genes, pathway analysis (IngenuitySystems) showed “cell death and survival,” “cellular growth and proliferation,” and “cellular movement” as the most significant terms (Fig. S2D). However, unexpectedly, “interferon signaling” was indicated as the top canonical pathway and several interferon (IFN)-related molecules were predicted as activated upstream regulators (Dataset S4). This double-faced functional aspect became clear when we considered DE genes separately. In fact, all of the immune and IFN-related terms and upstream

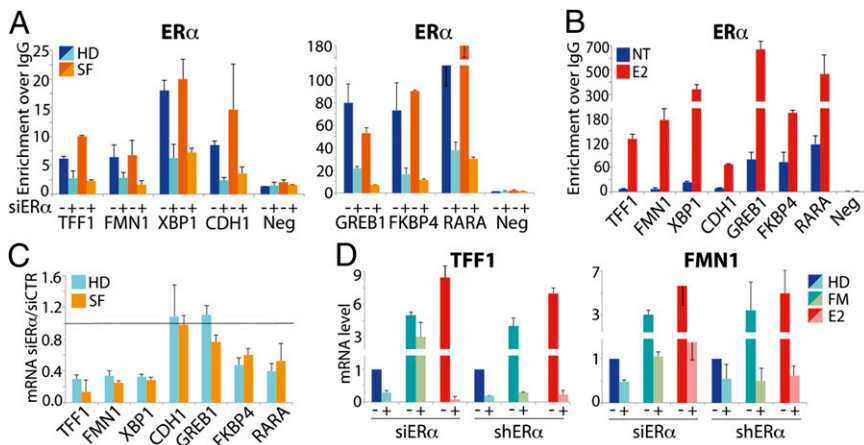


Fig. 3. ChIP-qPCR analysis of ER α target genes (A) following siCTR or siER α transfection, in HD and in SF medium; (B) after treatment with vehicle (NT) or 10 nM E2 for 45 min (E2). *GAPDH* promoter was used as a negative control region (Neg). (C) qRT-PCR mRNA analysis of target genes in HD and SF medium. Values are shown as ratios of relative mRNA level in siER α versus siCTR treated cells. (D) qRT-PCR mRNA analysis of *TFF1* and *FMN1* after siER α transfection or shER α transduction in HD, FM, and 10 nM E2 treatment in HD (E2). Error bars represent the SD of three independent biological replicates.

regulators were confined to up-regulated genes. Conversely, down-regulated genes showed cellular growth, survival, proliferation, development, and cell-cycle functions, together with the expected “tamoxifen,” “estradiol,” and “ESR1,” as most scored upstream regulators (Fig. S2 E–G and Dataset S4). This function was clear-cut among down- and up-regulated genes and was confirmed by gene-set enrichment analysis (27) (Dataset S5A).

Taken together, these results suggest that unliganded ER α controls directly a set of genes related to cell growth and

survival and to the maintenance of the epithelial phenotype. Conversely, depletion of apo-ER α induces a stress-like response in the cell that is underpinned by the activation of immune and inflammatory-related genes. This idea was further confirmed by isolating DE genes possessing an aERBS within 100 kbp from the TSS. Noteworthy, functions associated with cell proliferation, death, migration, and invasion were segregated specifically to aERBS proximal genes (Fig. S2 H and I and Datasets S4 and S5A).

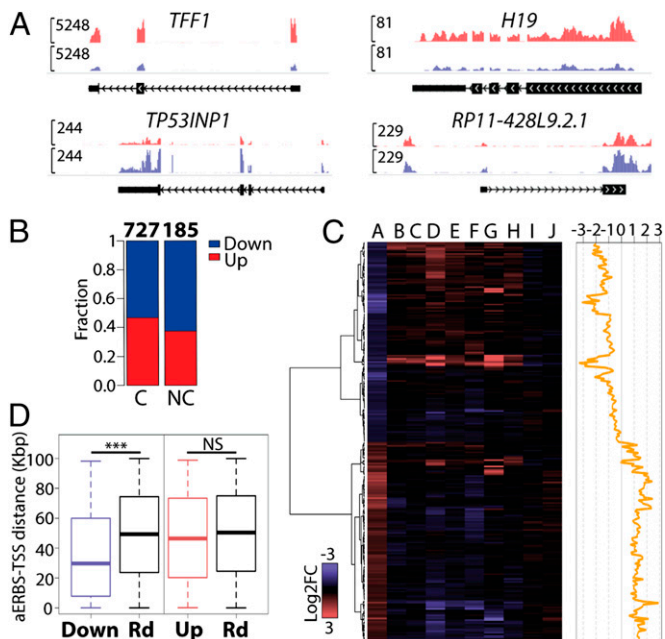


Fig. 4. (A) Genome-browser view of examples of DE protein coding (*TFF1* and *TP53INP1*) and noncoding genes (*H19* and *RP11-428L9.2.1*) after siCTR or siER α transfection. Only the main gene isoform is shown. (B) Fraction of up-regulated and down-regulated genes upon ER α silencing. C, coding genes; NC, noncoding genes. (C) Heat map representation of the overlap between DE genes (column A) and seven microarray gene expression datasets in E2-treated MCF7 cells (columns B–H) and two datasets in MCF7 switched to HD medium for 48 (column I) and 72 h (column J). Details of each dataset are reported in Dataset S3B. (Right) Relative effect of siER α vs. E2-effect, calculated as siER α Log₂FC minus median Log₂FC of E2-treated datasets. (D) Box plot distribution of the distance between the TSS of the DE genes and the closest aERBS center, compared with 1,000 random gene sets. (***) $P < 0.001$; two-tailed unpaired *t* test). Down, down-regulated; Up, up-regulated; Rd, random genes.

Unliganded ER α Binding Sites Function in Breast Cancer Cells. To appreciate phenotypic and epigenetic changes induced by ER α depletion, we used MCF7 cells cultured in HD medium and transduced with an shRNA-expressing vector, leading to a stable ER α down-regulation (Fig. S3A). Depletion of ER α completely stopped cell growth in HD medium (Fig. 5A) and triggered a mesenchymal-like morphology (Fig. 5B), as previously reported (1, 5). Decreased apo-ER α binding and mRNA expression of target genes (Fig. 3D and Figs. S2A and S3B) was accompanied by increased level of the Polycomb-dependent histone modification H3K27me₃ at ER α binding sites (Fig. 5C and Fig. S3C), although we were not able to detect the occupancy of Polycomb components by ChIP at these sites. As described above, several TFBS accompany the ERE in aERBS, in particular AP2 γ and FOXA1, which are considered pioneer factors and whose binding is a necessary prerequisite for ER α function (11, 20). As expected, we observed that down-regulation of either AP2 γ or FOXA1 reduced apo-ER α binding to aERBS, as reported for E2-induced binding (20) (Fig. S3D). In contrast to previous reports (11), FOXA1 siRNA, as well as AP2 γ siRNA, reduced in part ER α protein level (Fig. S3E and F). Contrary to expectations, though, we observed that ER α silencing resulted in marked decrease of FOXA1 and dramatic decrease of AP2 γ occupancy in HD medium (Fig. 5D and E). AP2 γ is an ER α -dependent gene (28) and it is able to stabilize the binding of FOXA1 at colocalized ERBS (20). AP2 γ expression decreases as a consequence of ER α silencing (Fig. 5F). To exclude the possibility that the decrease of FOXA1 occupancy reflected AP2 γ down-regulation, we investigated additional aERBS not possessing AP2 γ binding sites. We observed that in this case as well, markedly decreased apo-ER α binding (Fig. 5G) was followed by a decrease in FOXA1 occupancy (Fig. 5H), despite the absence of AP2 γ binding at these sites (Fig. 5I).

Taken together, these data demonstrate that unliganded ER α is an essential factor for the maintenance of the luminal epithelial cistrome in unstimulated MCF7 breast cancer cells.

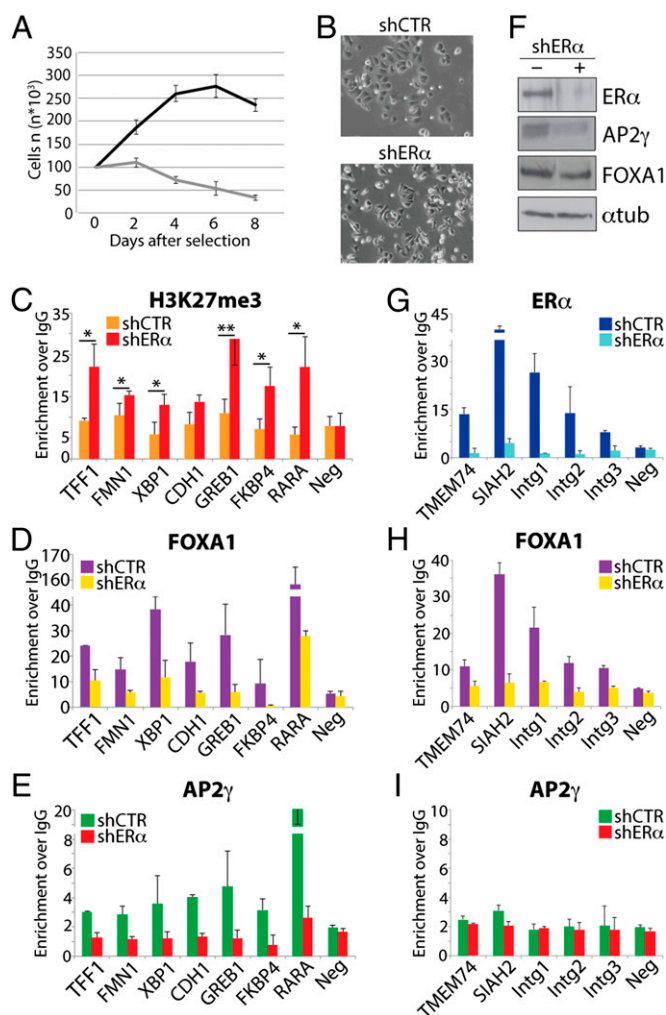


Fig. 5. (A) Growth curves of MCF7 cells transduced with control shRNA (black line) or ER α shRNA (gray line) maintained in HD medium. (B) Morphological changes occurring in MCF7 cells after ER α silencing. (C) ChIP analysis of H3K27me3 at selected aERBS (* $P < 0.05$, ** $P < 0.01$; one-tailed paired t test). (D and E) ChIP analysis of FOXA1 (D) and AP2 γ (E) as above. (F) Western blot analysis of ER α , FOXA1 and AP2 γ proteins. α tub, α -tubulin: loading control. (G–I) ChIP analysis of ER α (G), FOXA1 (H), and AP2 γ (I) at selected aERBS predicted to contain FOXA1 binding but not AP2 γ binding sites. Intg1, -2, -3: anonymous intergenic aERBS. For ChIP experiments, *GAPDH* promoter was used as negative control (Neg). For all of the experiments shown (B–I), MCF7 cells transduced with shCTR or shER α were cultured for three days in HD medium before analysis. Error bars are SD of three independent biological replicates. (Magnification: B, 10 \times .)

Discussion

Previous work has exhaustively described chromatin binding of ER α in the presence of ligands and its effects on gene regulation (10–13, 15). Here, we report an unexpected role of ER α in breast cancer cells in the absence of estrogen. Unliganded ER α binding sites represent a nonrandom subset of the estrogen-induced cistrome, which is connected with developmental functions. Moreover, unliganded ER α contributes to transcriptional activity, because its down-regulation causes changes in gene expression and chromatin modifications. Finally, we show that depletion of ER α in the absence of estrogen leads to a reduced binding of pioneer factors, such as FOXA1 and AP2 γ , to shared enhancers. This is an unexpected feature of ER α , whose binding to chromatin is thought to depend hierarchically from pioneer factors binding (29–31).

Genome-wide binding of ER α in the absence of hormones was observed previously in breast cancer (15, 22, 23) and recently in mouse uterus (9). Interestingly, we found that these sites, mostly located at enhancer regions, do not represent a random selection of high-affinity sites. In fact, the functions connected with aERBS neighboring genes are fundamentally related to cell development and differentiation that is strongly reminiscent of the primary action of ER α during development (32). In contrast, the analysis of ERBS specific for the estrogen treatment highlights the role of ER α in metabolic regulation, which is in agreement with the physiological action of estrogen on many tissues. To our knowledge, there was no previous support to differential functions of ER α in breast cancer cells, depending on the presence or absence of hormones.

The analysis of the transcriptome upon depletion of ER α allowed us to unveil the unexpected function of unliganded-ER α as modulator of specific loci. Indeed, we found that siER α down-regulated genes often present an aERBS, whereas those that are up-regulated do not, thus suggesting that the latter might be affected through an indirect mechanism. Our data suggest that unliganded-ER α contribute to enhancer activity, granting basal transcription of neighboring genes that are functionally related to cellular proliferation and development. In contrast, up-regulated genes are linked to different functions, in particular to the IFN/inflammatory response, most likely representing an indirect response to ER α ablation, in line with the protective role of ER α in several tissues (2). Interestingly, a similar signature can be observed also in data obtained during long-term hormone deprivation (8) (Dataset S5B). Almost 30% of the siER α -regulated genes in HD medium was present among E2-responsive genes, further supporting the observation that aERBS represent a subset of the ER α -regulated cistrome.

We observed that stable ER α silencing by shRNA transduction induced complete growth arrest. This finding is consistent with the transcriptional program controlled by unliganded ER α . In similar conditions, establishment of cells with a complete epithelial to mesenchymal transition has been reported (1), mirroring the invasive phenotype of breast tumor cells escaping ER α control in vivo. Genes controlled by unliganded ER α are not only related to cell growth, but several functional terms linked to the maintenance of the epithelial phenotype were also present. For example, the *MIST1* transcription factor-encoding gene (*BHLHA15*), which is repressed 2.1-fold by siER α , is required to maintain mammary gland differentiation in transgenic mice (33). One important point in the context of antiestrogen treatments in breast cancer is whether aERBS are conserved in cells acquainted with estrogen deprivation (LTED). When we compared our aERBS dataset with those reported in two previous studies using LTED cell lines, we found that the overlap was almost complete in MCF7:2A (7) but null in the LTED cells reported by Miller et al. (6). Noteworthy, this latter case maintains a proliferative response to estrogen, whereas the former does not. It is conceivable that in the latter case the unliganded ER α cistrome has been widely reprogrammed (6), but ER α activity is maintained on (some) genes linked to the proliferative response. In contrast, in the former case, unliganded ER α is possibly fully activated by other endogenous factors (e.g., coactivator amplification) as a main growth-sustaining axis. Noteworthy, GO terms analysis demonstrated that in LTED ER α is connected to metabolic functions, similarly to E2- or OH-T-induced sites but in contrast to aERBS.

Most aERBS colocalize with other TFBS. Extensive overlap with public ChIP-seq datasets confirmed that these sites are indeed composite enhancers, possibly evolved from extensive spread of transposable elements in mammals (21). Significantly, top factors comprise FOXA1 and AP2 γ , known as “pioneer factors” for sex-steroid receptors (i.e., factors that open the chromatin allowing the landing of nuclear receptors on DNA) (29–31). We confirmed that silencing of these factors also reduces unliganded ER α

occupancy. Unexpectedly, we observed that ER α silencing brought about a reduction of either AP2 γ or FOXA1 binding at several loci, although not completely. The full interpretation of these results is complicated by the observation that AP2 γ transcription is directly controlled by ER α (28) and its level is reduced in shRNA-transduced cells. However, we detected a reduction of FOXA1 binding also at enhancers that do not contain AP2 γ , in contrast to previous data (34). A possible reason for this discrepancy is the use of stable, rather than transient, ER α silencing used in our study.

The data presented here may in part argue against the concept of pioneer factors as primary drivers of nucleosome remodeling, leading to ER α binding. Indeed, the elegant demonstration of progesterone receptor binding to nucleosome PRE, recently published (35), further challenges this view. Our results are consistent with a model where ER α , in the absence of estrogen stimulation, collaborates with other transcription factors to maintain the luminal epithelial enhancer landscape. When one of these factors is suppressed, enhancers progressively collapse, also because of the coordinated decrease of expression of other transcription factors. It is important to note, in this scenario, that a feed-forward loop exists involving AP2 γ and ER α , which sustain each other's expression in breast cancer cells (28, 36).

Ligand-independent functions of ER α have been described in several tissues in addition to breast cancer cells (2–5). Results reported here provide a frame to understand why ER α is required to respond to aromatase inhibitors in breast cancer. Luminal epithelial cancer cells are stable and survive until ER α is present. The absence of estrogen keeps these cells growing at a very low rate that is presumably controlled by the host. Loss of ER α exposes the cells to immune control, removes a brake on reprogramming, which results, *in vivo*, in the emergence of other growth-sustaining pathways.

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Materials and Methods

Detailed protocols are provided in *SI Materials and Methods*.

siRNA and shRNA Interference. Cells were transfected with siER α (Stealth RNAi Invitrogen), siAP2 γ (Qiagen), siFOXA1 (Santa Cruz), and siCTR (Invitrogen). Transfection was performed using Lipofectamine 2000 (Invitrogen). MCF7 cells were infected with control shRNA (MISSION shRNA; Sigma-Aldrich) or shRNA against ER α (MISSION shRNA; Sigma-Aldrich) and selected with 2 μ g/mL puromycin for 3 d.

ChIP and ChIP-Seq. ChIP was performed as previously described (37, 38). Antibodies and PCR primers used in this assay are reported in *SI Materials and Methods*. For ChIP-seq, library preparation for sequencing was performed starting with 10 ng of immunoprecipitated DNA (GAIIX, Illumina).

RNA-Seq. RNA-seq libraries were prepared from poly(A)⁺ selected, gel-purified > 200 bp RNA. Sequencing was performed on Illumina HiSeq2000.

Bioinformatic Analysis. Published algorithms were used to analyze ChIP-seq and gene expression datasets. Ingenuity pathway analysis (IngenuitySystems) was used for gene ontological analysis. ChIP-seq and RNA-seq data are accessible in the Gene Expression Omnibus database (accession no. GSE53533).

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