

1 Dual-mechanism estrogen receptor inhibitors expand the repertoire of anti-
2 hormone therapy for breast cancer

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ABSTRACT

Tamoxifen and fulvestrant are currently two major approved estrogen receptor- α (ER)-targeted therapies for breast cancer, but resistance to their antagonistic actions often develops. Efforts to improve ER-targeted therapies have relied upon a single mechanism, where ligands with a single side chain on the ligand core that extends outward from the ligand binding pocket to directly displace helix (h)12 in the ER ligand-binding domain (LBD), blocking the LBD interaction with transcriptional coactivators that drive proliferation. Here, we describe ER inhibitors that block estrogen-induced proliferation through two distinct structural mechanisms by combining a side chain *for direct antagonism* with a bulky chemical group that causes *indirect antagonism* by distorting structural epitopes inside the ligand binding pocket. These dual-mechanism ER inhibitors (DMERIs) fully antagonize the proliferation of wild type ER-positive breast cancer cells and cells that have become resistant to tamoxifen and fulvestrant through activating ER mutations and de novo mechanisms such as overactive growth factor signaling. Conformational probing studies highlight marked differences that distinguish the dual mechanism inhibitors from current standard of care single-mechanism antiestrogens, and crystallographic analyses reveal that they disrupt the positioning of h11 and h12 in multiple ways. Combining two chemical targeting approaches into a single ligand thus provides a flexible platform for next generation ER-targeted therapies.

56 INTRODUCTION

57 The estrogen receptor- α (ER) plays a critical role in breast cancer where it functions
58 as a major driver of tumor growth in ~70% of breast cancers. While the suppression of ER
59 function with endocrine therapy by inhibiting estrogen production with aromatase inhibitors
60 (AIs) or by blocking ER activity with antiestrogens is initially quite effective (1, 2), many
61 ER-positive breast cancers recur in forms that have become resistant to standard-of-care
62 AIs and/or antiestrogens, while de novo resistance also occurs. In these resistant cases,
63 however, it is possible that antiestrogens of novel design might still prove effective
64 because most of the tumor cells still express ER (3).

65 Currently, there are two types of approved antiestrogens. Tamoxifen (4) and its newer
66 generation analogs, raloxifene, bazedoxifene and lasofoxifene, are called selective
67 estrogen receptor modulators (SERMs) due to their bone-sparing activity (5), and they all
68 contain a similar aromatic ring that we call the E-ring (named with respect to the 4 rings of
69 steroids that are lettered A-D, **Fig. S1A–B**). The E ring is attached to an aminoalkyl side
70 chain via through a two-carbon ether that exits from the ligand binding pocket and interacts
71 on the receptor surface with a single H-bond at Asp351 (**Fig. S1A**); in this stabilized
72 position, the side chain controls the displacement of transcriptional coactivators that drive
73 proliferation (6-10).

74 Fulvestrant, the only approved ER antagonist for treatment of tamoxifen or AI-resistant
75 breast cancer (11), and other full antagonists such as RU 58,668, are termed selective
76 estrogen receptor downregulators (SERDs), because they also reduce ER levels,
77 although this effect may not be required for their antagonist activity (12-14). Both of these
78 SERDs contain an extended terminal fluorine-substituted alkyl sulfinyl or sulfonyl
79 sidechain (**Fig. S1B**). Adequate dosing of fulvestrant is, however, limited by its poor
80 pharmacokinetic properties and requires delivery by large, painful intramuscular injections.

Newer, orally active SERDs under clinical development have acrylate side chains (**Fig. S1C**), again using a 2-carbon linker to the carboxyl group, akin to that of the SERMs (12, 15-20). Both FDA-approved SERMs and potential oral SERD replacements for fulvestrant contain a single, carefully positioned aminoalkyl or acrylate side chain that *directly* repositions helix 12 (h12) in the ER ligand binding domain (LBD), disrupting the surface binding site for transcriptional coactivators that drive proliferative gene expression, thus operating by a *direct antagonism* mechanism of action.

Here, we present dual -mechanism estrogen receptor inhibitors, a new class of ER antagonists that combine a side chain for *direct antagonism* with a bulky chemical group that causes *indirect antagonism* by distorting epitopes inside the ligand binding pocket. Indirect antagonism independently drove full antagonism, enabling the direct antagonist side chain to adopt new structural and functional roles associated with new conformations of the receptor. They were effective against constitutively active mutant ERs, and in a *de novo* resistance model, overexpression of the epidermal growth factor receptor (EGFR), which causes tamoxifen resistance and is associated with a worse clinical outcome (21, 22). The dual targeting approach produced compounds with SERM-like properties and also full antagonists/SERDs. Some of the latter showed efficacy greater than fulvestrant in a new structure-based design model of SERM/SERD agonist activity, highlighting the flexibility of platform for the production of compounds that are effective against endocrine therapy-resistant breast cancer.

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RESULTS

Dual-mechanism inhibitors produce full antagonism of breast cancer cell proliferation irrespective of their side chain structure and site of substitution

Indirect antagonists produce a range of activity profiles by interfering with the docking of h12 across h3 and h5, which is required for formation of the surface binding site for transcriptional coactivator complexes, called Activation Function-2 (AF-2). Starting from a bulky oxabicyclic scaffold that contained aromatic rings corresponding to the A and E rings of other ER ligands (**Fig. S1A–C**), we appended a sulfonamide linker to prepare a 7-oxabicyclo[2.2.1]heptene sulfonamide (OBHS-N) core scaffold, as illustrated by the parental OBHS-N compound **13** (**Fig. 1A**). We previously showed that **13** was a full antagonist SERD, equivalent to fulvestrant in inhibiting proliferation of breast cancer cells with WT ER (23). By shifting the position of h11 by 2.4 Å, **13** blocked the interaction between the N-terminus of h3 and the C-terminus of h11 (**Fig. S1D**), and disrupted the agonist binding site for h12 against h11 (**Fig. S1E**). However, compounds in this parental series were not effective against the constitutively active mutants of ER α that drive treatment resistant disease, including the Y537S-ER mutation that adds an H-bond to Asp351 that stabilizes h12 in the agonist conformer (**Fig. S1E**) (23, 24), counteracting the ligand-dependent destabilization of h12 by tamoxifen as well.

Importantly, the sulfonamide substitution that drives indirect antagonism contains another aromatic ring that we call the F-ring, which provides an alternate position, 4.4 Å away from the E-ring, from which to launch a direct agonist side chain into an unexplored structural space in ER antagonism (**Fig. 1A**). This allowed us to evaluate two novel pharmacophores for ER antagonism: 1) Combining indirect antagonism with the canonical direct antagonism from the E-ring; and 2) combining direct and indirect antagonism through the F-ring.

We prepared OBHS-N compounds with the traditional ether-two carbon-aminoalkyl side chain attached to the E-ring ([E]-OC₂-piperidine (**16**)) or the F-ring ([F]-OC₂-piperidine (**19**)) (**Datasheet S1, Supplemental Methods**). Both of these compounds inhibited the growth of MCF-7 breast cancer cells with greater efficacy than 4OHT (the active 4-hydroxy metabolite of tamoxifen) and equivalent efficacy to fulvestrant (**Fig. 1B**), but **16** was more potent than **19** (with 11 nM and 97 nM IC₅₀s, respectively). We obtained X-ray crystal structures of these compounds in complex with the ER LBD in the antagonist conformer, where h12 was displaced from the agonist position and flipped onto the AF2 surface to block coactivator binding (**Fig. S1F**). As expected, the [E]-OC₂-Pip side chain of **16** displaced h12 and formed a tight H-bond with h3 Asp351, whereas the F-ring shifted h11 2.4 Å away from the position required for optimal agonist activity (**Fig. 1C, Fig. S1F**).

To our surprise, the side chain of [F]-OC₂-Pip (**19**) did not point towards h12, but instead exited between h8 and h11, where it is stabilized by H-bonds with h11 His524 (**Fig. 1D, Fig. S1G**). In this novel orientation, the antagonist side chain position pushed h11 towards the agonist position of h12 by 1.4 Å, which is also expected to prevent formation of the agonist conformer and is consistent with its strong antagonism. This represents a new form of indirect antagonism, which was possible due to the presence of two rotatable bonds in the sulfonamide, allowing the F-ring to adopt multiple positions relative to the core (**Fig. S1H**). Examples of this were observed again in our series of crystal structures described below, and likely contributes to the unusual activity profiles of these ligands.

TO find other novel structural conformations from combining direct and indirect antagonism, we explored a wider range of side chains (**Fig. S2A–H**), including the one found in RU 58,668 ([E]-RU (**14**)) and the acrylate found in orally active SERDs ([E]-Acr (**22**)). We tested side chains attached to the F-ring, including [F]-RU (**15**) and [F]-Acr (**23**), and also explored new side chains outside those historically required for antagonism, including an acrylate-ester ([F]-AcrEster (**21**)), piperidines with 3- or 4-carbon linkers ([E]-

OC₃-Pip (**17**)), ([E]-OC₄-Pip (**18**)), and ([F]-OC₃-Pip (**20**)), and a simple benzyl substitution (([E]-Bn (**24**)) or ([F]-Bn (**25**)). Notably, all of the compounds showed efficacy comparable to fulvestrant, except for the acrylate-substituted compounds (**22** and **23**) that had μ M IC₅₀s and did not saturate the receptor (**Fig. 1E, Fig. S2E**). These broad antagonist efficacies differ markedly from previous work by us (25) and others (12, 26-28) on single-mechanism ER inhibitors, where subtle changes in the single side chain results in widely divergent outcomes in terms of efficacy, highlighting the more restricted chemical and structural requirements needed for effective single-mechanism inhibition of ER α activity. Here, the compounds with non-canonical side chains profiled as full antagonists similar to the parental compound (**13, Fig. 1A**), which was as efficacious as fulvestrant in inhibiting breast cancer cell proliferation.

The side chains did, however, produce compounds covering almost 4 logs of IC₅₀ values, which is important because resistance mechanisms include both a loss of efficacy and also substantial losses in potency. This loss of potency associated with resistance is clinically important as fulvestrant is dose limited by its poor pharmacokinetics, which is associated with its lack of clinical response (29). With the Roussel side chains (**14** and **15**) and the acrylates (**22** and **23**), the F-ring substitutions gave higher potencies, whereas E-ring substitutions with piperidine (**16–20**) or benzyl (**24** and **25**) side chains led to higher potencies. With the F-ring piperidines, the 3-carbon linker **20** had ~1 log higher potency than the 2-carbon linker **19**, while the acrylate ester **21** was almost 2 logs higher potency than the corresponding acrylate **23** (**Fig. 1E**). Because all of the OBHS-N compounds are racemates, we used chiral HPLC to resolve two of the compounds **24** and **15**, and we found that one enantiomer of each (**29** from **24**, and **27** from **15**) accounted for essentially all of their affinity and cellular activity. These preferred enantiomers, **29** and **27**, had antiproliferative IC₅₀s of 3 and 0.3 nM, respectively (**Fig. 1E, Fig. S2G–H**).

To verify on-target mechanism of action, we inhibited cell growth with a subset of the compounds and showed full pharmacological reversal with increasing doses of estradiol (**Fig. S2I**). We also showed that the compounds completely antagonized E2-induced expression of the ER α -target gene, *GREB1* (**Fig. S2J**), demonstrating antagonism comparable to fulvestrant. Notably, the compounds also had no effect on proliferation of MDA-MB-231 cells, a triple-negative breast cancer cell line that lacks ER (**Fig. S2K**), again supporting ER specificity.

Dual mechanism inhibitor side chains determined both SERM and SERD activity profiles

To probe whether the side chains supported SERM or SERD like activities of the ligands, we first tested several compounds for effects on degradation of ER α , and found that direct antagonist side chain determined whether compounds displayed SERM- or SERD-like properties. [E]-Bn (**24**) and the higher affinity enantiomer of [F]-RU, [F]-RU-Ent2 (**27**) were efficient degraders (**Fig. 1F**). These effects were reversed by 4-hydroxytamoxifen (4OHT) or the proteasome inhibitor, MG132, demonstrating on-target mechanism of action through proteasomal degradation (**Fig. S3A**). In contrast, the compounds with piperidine side chains were more SERM-like with either minimal effects on receptor stability (**14**, **17**, and **19**), or some stabilization of the receptor (**16** and **20**, **Fig. 1F**).

To further probe for the cell-type selective activity that define SERMs, we tested the compounds in a reporter assay in HepG2 liver cells, a context in which tamoxifen displays significant agonist activity through the amino-terminal AF-1 domain of ER (30). We found that all the compounds with piperidine containing SERM side chains (**16-20**) showed some cell-type specific agonist activity, while the degraders **24** and **27** were full antagonists (**Fig. 1G**, **Fig. S3B**). Thus, the dual mechanism inhibitor approach can produce compounds

with SERM- or SERD-like properties that are highly efficacious and contain non-canonical side chains.

To test whether the compounds were effective against the constitutively active Y537S-ER, we tested the compounds in a luciferase reporter assay. All compounds displayed less potent IC₅₀ values compared to the MCF-7 cell proliferation data or luciferase reporter assay with WT ER (**Fig. S4** vs **Fig S2A–H** or **Fig. S3B**). Several of the more potent piperidines were efficacious (**16-19, Fig. 1H**), as were the [F]-AcrEster and [F]-RU compounds (**21** and **27, Fig. S4**). It is noteworthy that compounds with lower efficacy did not saturate the receptor at the highest doses tested (**Fig. S4**), suggesting that this loss of efficacy may have been driven by the lower potency of these compounds in this resistance model. Addition of the direct antagonist side chain enabled efficacy in the Y537S resistance model, including the non-traditional F-ring substituted compounds and piperidines with longer linkers.

Compound-specific coregulator peptide interaction profiles reveal that dual-mechanism inhibitors induce unique ER solution structures

We examined the interaction of full-length ER-WT, or the constitutively active ER-Y537S that drives treatment resistant metastatic disease, with a library of 154 peptides using the Microarray Assay for Realtime Coregulator-Nuclear receptor Interaction (MARCoNI) assay as a probe for solution structure (12, 31). Hierarchical clustering of the FRET data from 19 compounds x 154 peptides is shown in **Fig. 2A**, demonstrating a clustering of E2-induced peptide interactions (*Cluster 3*) that were strongly dismissed by 4OHT, fulvestrant, and the full antagonist SERDs, GDC-0810 and AZD9466 (*Cluster 1* vs 3). We found individual peptides that showed some specificity, including PRDM2 (amino acids 948–970), which was recruited by 4OHT, NCOA1 (amino acids 737–759), which was selectively dismissed by the three SERDs compared to 4OHT, and NRIP1 (amino acids

805–831), which was not dismissed by fulvestrant (**Fig. 2B**). While it is possible to identify peptides that are selective for these compounds (16, 32), most of the peptide interactions showed identical responses to the ligands in *Cluster 1*, with Pearson correlations ($r \geq 0.90$) between ligand-dependent peptide interactions (**Fig. 2B**).

Cluster 2 was in the same clade as *Cluster 1* and contained the E-ring piperidine-substituted compounds, as well as the compounds with F-ring Roussel and acrylate side chains, all of which showed less pronounced dismissal of the E2-induced peptide interactions than compounds in *cluster 1* (**Fig. 2A**). *Cluster 2* also has many more unique peptide interactions than *cluster 1*, reflected in lower Pearson correlations ($r = 0.65$ – 0.74 vs 4OHT). These included NCOR2 peptide (amino acids 649-671), which is derived from a protein with context-selective coactivator or corepressor activity (33, 34), and was dismissed by **16** and **20** but not 4OHT (**Fig. 2C**). *Cluster 4* displayed peptide interaction patterns most different from the traditional antagonists, and included the compounds with F-ring piperidines, E-ring Roussel or acrylate side chains, and both the E- and F-ring substituted benzyl compounds. For example, **20** showed very little overlap in peptide interaction patterns with 4OHT and showed many peptides that were selective for **20** compared to 4OHT (**Fig. 2C**). The dual-mechanism inhibitors displayed a variety of different solution structural features that differentiate them from the traditional antagonists all of which displayed highly similar interaction profiles.

The ER-Y537S mutation changed the clustering pattern ligand-dependent peptide interactions. 4OHT, AZD9496, and GDC-0810 still clustered together and dismissed many of the same E2-induced peptide interactions (*Cluster 1*, **Fig. 2D**), while fulvestrant now clustered with [E]-Bn-1S (**29**) and [F]-RU-Ent2 (**27**) in *Cluster 2* from the same clade. Despite this clustering pattern, fulvestrant still displayed a higher Pearson correlation with 4OHT (**Fig. S5A**), as they strongly dismissing many of the peptides (**Fig. S5B–C**). The other major clade includes *Cluster 3*, which contains only [E]-OC₂-piperidine (**16**), and

Cluster 4, which contained all the remaining piperidine-containing compounds, the acrylates, as well as the [E]-RU (**14**) and [F]-Bn (**25**) compounds. The dramatic shift in peptide interaction patterns is underscored by **16**, which with the ER-Y537S displayed no overlapping effect on peptide interaction patterns with 4OHT (**Fig. 2E vs 2C**). These observations highlight the similarities in solution structures of ER-WT or ER-Y537S bound to the traditional direct antagonists, and conversely point to a range of novel solution structures for many of the dual-mechanism inhibitors, some of which are unique to the mutant ER-Y537S. Given that the surface structure controls the recruitment of transcriptional coactivators and corepressors as conveyers of receptor activity, these unique conformations likely contribute to the robust activity profiles of the dual-mechanism inhibitors.

Atypical side chains perturb the ER α LBD helix 12 conformation: Structural and HDX-Mass Spectrometry Studies

To further understand ligand-dependent effects on receptor structure, we compared X-ray crystal structures of ER α LBD complexes with dual-mechanism inhibitors and other antagonists. In the LBD, the [F]-OC₃-Pip (**20**) side chain exited towards h12 and in doing so also shifted h11 by 1.6 Å to induce indirect antagonism (**Fig. 3A**). Here, the piperidine head group made VDW contacts with Trp383 in the same location where Pro535 in the h11-h12 loop typically resides in contact with Trp383 (**Fig. S6A**). The **20-bbound** ER structure differed from that stabilized by SERMs such as raloxifene, as h12 was shifted 2.6 Å towards the C-terminus of h11, allowing Leu539 to directly contact the piperidine group of **20** (**Fig. 3B, Fig. S6A**). Unlike traditional SERM side chains that are stabilized by H-bonding, or the rigid acrylates of SERDs, the side chain of **20** is flexible with many degrees of freedom, suggesting that the shift in h12 is driven by both the shift in h11, which pulls on the h11-h12 loop, and additionally by the position of the atypical side chain. The

structure of the [E]-Bn (**29**)-bound LBD showed even more dramatic effects on h12, with very weak electron density where h12 was expected to be positioned, demonstrating that h12 was disordered (**Fig. 3C**). This is important, as the original two-position model of h12 (7) (**Fig. S1D vs F**) does not account for how certain antagonists recruit transcriptional corepressors. Structural and biochemical data demonstrate that the disordering or displacement of h12 renders a more open or accessible AF2 surface, which is required for binding of a longer 3 helical peptide motif found in corepressors (8-10, 35) to support a more complete antagonism of proliferation.

To validate the destabilizing effects of the ligands on the ER LBD in solution, we examined the dynamics of secondary structural elements through mass spectrometry analysis of the exchange of amide hydrogens for deuterium using mass spectrometry (HDX-MS) (36). These included the high affinity enantiomers of the parental compound **30** (the high affinity enantiomer of **13**, **Fig. 1A**), the F-ring-substituted Roussel side chain compound **27**, and the E-ring substituted benzyl compound **29**. While 4OHT and fulvestrant stabilized the C-terminal half of h11 proximal to the ligands, the parental OBHS-N **30** and the dual-mechanism inhibitors **27** and **29** did not, consistent with indirect antagonism directed at h11 (**Fig. 3D, Fig. S6B**). All of the compounds stabilized helices 3 and h4 in the AF-2 surface, except for **29**, the compound that destabilized h12 in the crystal structure (**Fig. 3E, Fig. S6C**). With **27**, the extended hydrophobic Roussel side chain may directly contact the AF-2 surface to stabilize its secondary structural elements, as was seen with the fulvestrant analog, ICI 164,384 (37) (**Fig. S6D**). With the other compounds, the stabilization of the AF-2 surface is likely through h12 binding to the AF-2 surface in the inactive conformer (**Fig. S1F**) (6, 7), highlighting the ability of **29** to destabilize h12 in solution and in the crystal structure. These studies demonstrate that with indirect antagonism, the shifts in h11 destabilize or reposition h12 of the ER LBD, allowing the side chains to have distinct roles in stabilizing alternate conformers of h12.

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312 **Dual-mechanism inhibitors drive the formation of ER α conformational heterodimers**

313 Helix 11 forms part of the dimer interface for ER, and also for other nuclear receptors that
 314 function as obligate heterodimers with the Retinoid X Receptor (RXR). Many of the dual-
 315 mechanism inhibitor structures were ligand-induced conformational heterodimers, where
 316 genetically identical monomers adopt different conformations in the context of the dimer,
 317 directed by ligand-induced allostery. With [F]-AcrEster (**21**) and [F]-Acr (**23**), the F-ring
 318 faced outward in one monomer and inward in the dimer partner (**Fig. 4A**), in the latter case
 319 hydrogen bonding to the base on h3 (**Fig. S7A**). With the F-ring inward conformation, h11
 320 moves closer to its agonist-bound position where the His524-Leu525 backbone is 1.4 Å
 321 away from the position enforced by the outward F-ring conformer. The structure of GDC-
 322 810 revealed that the ligand formed an H-bond with h11-h12 loop to *pull* on h12 (**Fig. 7B**),
 323 rather than a typical SERM side chain-mediated *pushing* on the loop (31), but in the F-ring
 324 out binding mode the side chains of **21** and **23** were disordered. In fact, most of the
 325 structures showed conformational heterodimers, and many also had disordered side
 326 chains (**Fig. S7C-E**). Superimposing all nine new OBHS-N structures revealed a
 327 remarkable degree of conformational heterogeneity, with a range in the spatial positioning
 328 of the His524 and Leu525 h11 backbone of 3.4 Å (**Fig. 4B**). To quantitate the extent of
 329 conformational heterodimerization, we superimposed the B chains onto the A chains for
 330 each structure and a set of control structures and measured the distance between the
 331 chains for the backbone amides or sidechains of His524 and Leu525. The structures of
 332 tamoxifen and most published SERD-ER structures were crystallized as monomers,
 333 demonstrating that they stabilized identical monomers in the dimer, while raloxifene, E2,
 334 lasofoxifene and bazedoxifene showed almost identical dimers, with distances < 0.5Å (**Fig.**
 335 **4C**). In contrast, most of the OBHS-N structures showed conformational heterogeneity

subunits in the dimer (**Fig. 4C**), with one monomer displaying greater indirect antagonism—shifts in h11 away from the agonist conformation.

To understand the mechanism of action causing conformational heterodimers, we examined the H-bond network bridging the dimer interface in the C-terminal half of h11 (**Fig. 4D**). While Glu521 and Lys520 can form a water-mediated electrostatic network across the dimer interface in the same plane of the ligand, this network was weak and highly variable. However, the Asn519-Asn519' H-bond was very strong and was stabilized by the adjacent His516 residues (**Fig. 4E**). The Asn519-Asn519' H-bond was kept within a very narrow range in our new structures and in a set of 62 published sub-2 Å ER structures (**Fig. 4E, Fig. S7F**). Further, if we generated by modeling conformational homodimers with our structures (A chain/A chain or B chain/B chain), the Asn519-Asn519' H-bonds became asymmetric, with the ~2.2 Å or 3.3 Å distances representing a clash and weak bond. These observations indicate that with these particular ligands this bond is transmitting allosteric information across an interface of two identical monomers that is conformationally heterodimeric. The binding of one ligand, here designed to shift/twist h11, orients h11 in the dimer partner into a unique conformer that guides the binding of the second ligand into a profoundly different binding mode, with its own associated activity profile.

The consequence of conformational heterodimer function is not just an ensemble of indirect antagonist conformers, but induced effects on h12. With [E]-Bn (**29**) bound ER, both sides of the dimer showed the F-ring facing out, but there was a 1 Å shift in h11 that was associated with a rotation of the ligand, placing the benzyl groups in different positions. When the benzyl group was closer to h3, h12 was disordered in Chain A, as we showed in **Fig. 3C**. However, with the rotation of the benzyl towards h11 in the B chain, the h11-h12 loop and h12 were pulled towards the benzyl until Pro535 docked against the benzyl group (**Fig. 3B–C**). Thus, the benzyl provides a docking platform for destabilizing h12

away from the AF2 surface, as we also observed with [F]-OC3-Pip (**20**) (**Fig. 3B**). The conformational heterodimers thus display the structural features of being bound to two "different" ligands that stabilize different conformers of the ligand and the ER LBD, which may drive unique biology, as for example seen with the combination treatment with bazedoxifene and conjugated estrogens (38).

Activity of dual mechanism inhibitors in allele-driven models antiestrogen resistance

A significant fraction of patients with recurrent ER+ breast cancers present with constitutively active ER mutations, including Y537S and D358G (31, 39-41), while de novo EGFR overexpression drives a worse outcome and tamoxifen resistance in a significant subset of newly presenting breast cancer patients (21, 22). We overexpressed EGFR in MCF-7 cells (**Fig. S8**), which we compared to MCF-7 cells engineered to express only ER-Y537S or ER-D538G (40). With these models we observed the expected loss of both potency and efficacy in response to 4OHT or fulvestrant, with the EGFR model showing the greatest loss of response to 4OHT (**Fig. 5A**). We tested our two high potency enantiomers, **27** and **29**, and two ligands with SERM-like properties (**16** and **20**) that showed unusual peptide binding (**Figure 2**) and structural features (**Fig. 3A-C, Fig. 4A-C**) and were highly efficacious in blocking Y537S reporter activity (**Fig 1I**). All of the ligands showed reduced efficacy, but **27** showed better potency in the mutant ER α models, while **20** and **29** showed slightly better potency in the EGFR resistance model (**Fig. 5B**). Despite their diverse side chains for direct antagonism, all of these compounds suppressed proliferation across resistance models, highlighting the important role of the dual mechanism for antagonizing ER α actions.

We developed the first structure-based design model of resistance for both tamoxifen and fulvestrant. We used the tamoxifen-bound ER structure to design L372S/L536S as a set of mutations to stabilize h12 as seen in that structure, docked into the AF2 surface, and showed that this blocked binding of the NCOR1 corepressor to ER and enforced AF1-dependent SERM agonist activity for tamoxifen (23, 42). Here, we demonstrate that this model also renders fulvestrant an agonist and test this model for compound profiling (**Fig. 5C–D**). In this context, all of the ligands were significantly more efficacious than 4OHT, except for the acrylates **23** and **24** and the [E]-OC₃-Pip (**16**) and [E]-OC₄-Pip (**17**) (**Fig. 5C–D**). Most of the compounds were also more efficacious than fulvestrant, including those with SERM like side chains, while the Roussel and benzyl side chain compounds were significantly more efficacious, almost completely blocking the AF1-driven activity that was enhanced by tamoxifen or fulvestrant (**Fig. 5C–D**).

DISCUSSION

In this work, we present dual-mechanism ER inhibitors (DMERI) as a flexible chemical platform for the generation of ligands with tailored SERM or SERD like properties that are broadly efficacious across different anti-estrogen resistance models, including a structure-based design model of tamoxifen and fulvestrant agonist activity (**Fig. 5**). The probe of ER solution structure with a library of interacting peptides and HDX revealed that traditional single mechanism inhibitors—whether SERM or SERD—overall stabilized very similar structures, while the DMERI imposed unique solution structures (**Fig. 2–3**). Our structural analyses demonstrated that these ligands induced unique perturbations to h11 and h12 to support their strong antagonism, including the formation of conformational heterodimers, where the receptor is in effect “reading” the same ligand in two different ways (**Fig. 3–4**). This is similar to how h11 can transmit information across the RXR heterodimer interface,

enabling the ligand on one side of the dimer to control the activity of the heterodimer partner (43), but with genetically identical dimer partners.

Our findings stand in contrast to the traditional view of nuclear receptor allostery, which is based on single, direct-acting mechanisms, and by which the ligand adopts a single pose to control the conformation of the protein (**Fig. 6A-C**)(44). The single-mechanism ligands select or induce lowest energy conformations of the receptor associated with specific activity profiles that can be active, inactive, or tissue selective (**Fig. 6A-D**). The targeting of multiple antagonist sub-states that we can do with DMERIs may provide a therapeutic targeting advantage similar to the effects of targeting multiple growth pathways with combination therapies, or the combined use of bazedoxifene and conjugated estrogens to achieve unique ER-mediated signaling characteristics (38).

A key feature of the OBHS-N scaffold is that the indirect antagonism drives full antagonism comparable to fulvestrant, which we showed with the parental compounds lacking a side chain (23). This then enabled the added side chains to take on different functional roles. Since the development of tamoxifen in the 1970s and fulvestrant in the 1990s, the next generation SERMs and SERDs have directed either an aminoalkyl group to push on the h11-h12 loop or the acrylate unit to pull on it, leading to series of compounds with side chains that were localized around a very tight structural interface with ER. With DMERI, the h11-h12 loop was pulled indirectly via h11 to destabilize h12. This enabled a diversity of side chain activities from either the E-ring or F-ring to dial back in SERM activity (**Fig. 1G**), bind directly to h12 to produce altered antagonist conformers (**Fig. 3B, Fig. 4F**), or produce efficacy significantly greater than fulvestrant by fully destabilizing h12 with full antagonists (**Fig. 3C, Fig. 3E, Fig. 5D**). This advance greatly expands the potential design principals for the ligand side chain that is not being used as the primary driver of antagonism and explains why we observed strong antagonism even when the side chain did not engage in the known modes of antagonism or was completely disordered.

The stabilization of h12 that we observed in the absence of ligand with the Y537S (24) blocks one of the routes for ligands to bind, leading to a general loss of potency across compounds (**Fig 5A**)(45, 46). In this context the role of DMERI side chains is to effectively displace h12, without necessarily interacting with the h11-12 loop, enabling alternative chemistry focused on SERD or SERD activity profiles, potency, side effects, or pharmacokinetic parameters. A critical shortcoming of the parental indirect antagonists was lack of efficacy against the ER-Y537S mutant, which retained the agonist conformer of h12 despite a 2.4 Å shift in h11(23), resulting in constitutive AF-2 activity (**Fig. 6E**). Here we were able to identify four distinct side chains with efficacy comparable to fulvestrant in targeting mutant ERs (**Fig. 5B**), highlighting the robustness of the DMERI platform.

The AF-2 constitutively activating mutations are found in many metastatic and therapy resistant breast cancers, despite ER still being expressed (3). However, next generation SERMs have not replaced tamoxifen for treatment of breast cancer due to decades of safety data on tamoxifen, and we would argue lack of a targeted resistance allele for newly presenting patient stratification. Hence, there is an unmet clinical need for SERM compounds with efficacy against defined resistance alleles. Mutation, overexpression, or amplification of EGFR signaling may be present in up to 1/3 of breast cancers, where it is associated with lower ER expression, clinical tamoxifen resistance and worse patient outcome (21, 22). In this regard, we note that several of our piperidine compounds with some cell-type specific AF-1 activity were as effective as fulvestrant in an EGFR overexpression model that was completely tamoxifen resistant (**Fig. 5A–B**).

Other forms of de novo resistance are associated with increased AF-1 activity, including overexpression of interacting coregulators such as members of the NCOA1–3 genes, but also with phosphorylation of Ser305 by kinases involved in inflammatory, growth factor, and cytoskeletal signaling (30, 47–49). We showed that Ser305 in the hinge domain can H-bond to Arg548 just C-terminal to H12 and stabilize the SERM resistance

conformation with h12 docked in the AF-2 surface, enabling tamoxifen dependent AF-1 activity (30). The fulvestrant resistance model we have developed further stabilizes this SERM agonist conformer by combining h3 L372S, designed from the tamoxifen-bound ER structure (3ERT.pdb) to add an H-bond to h12 Asp545, with L536S, which removes the unfavorable solvent exposed leucine and instead H-bonds to the base of h12 to stabilize its helical structure. Importantly, mutations of L536 to histidine or arginine have appeared in metastatic disease (41), which we predict act similarly to activate AF-1. The ER-L372S/L536S double mutant thus presents the first structure-based design tool to study tamoxifen and fulvestrant agonist activity, enabling the identification of ER ligands with greater antagonism than fulvestrant (**Fig. 5C–D**). Combining two chemical targeting approaches—direct and indirect antagonism—into a single ligand thus provides a flexible platform for next generation ER-directed therapies with different targeted signaling outcomes and broad efficacy across different treatment models.

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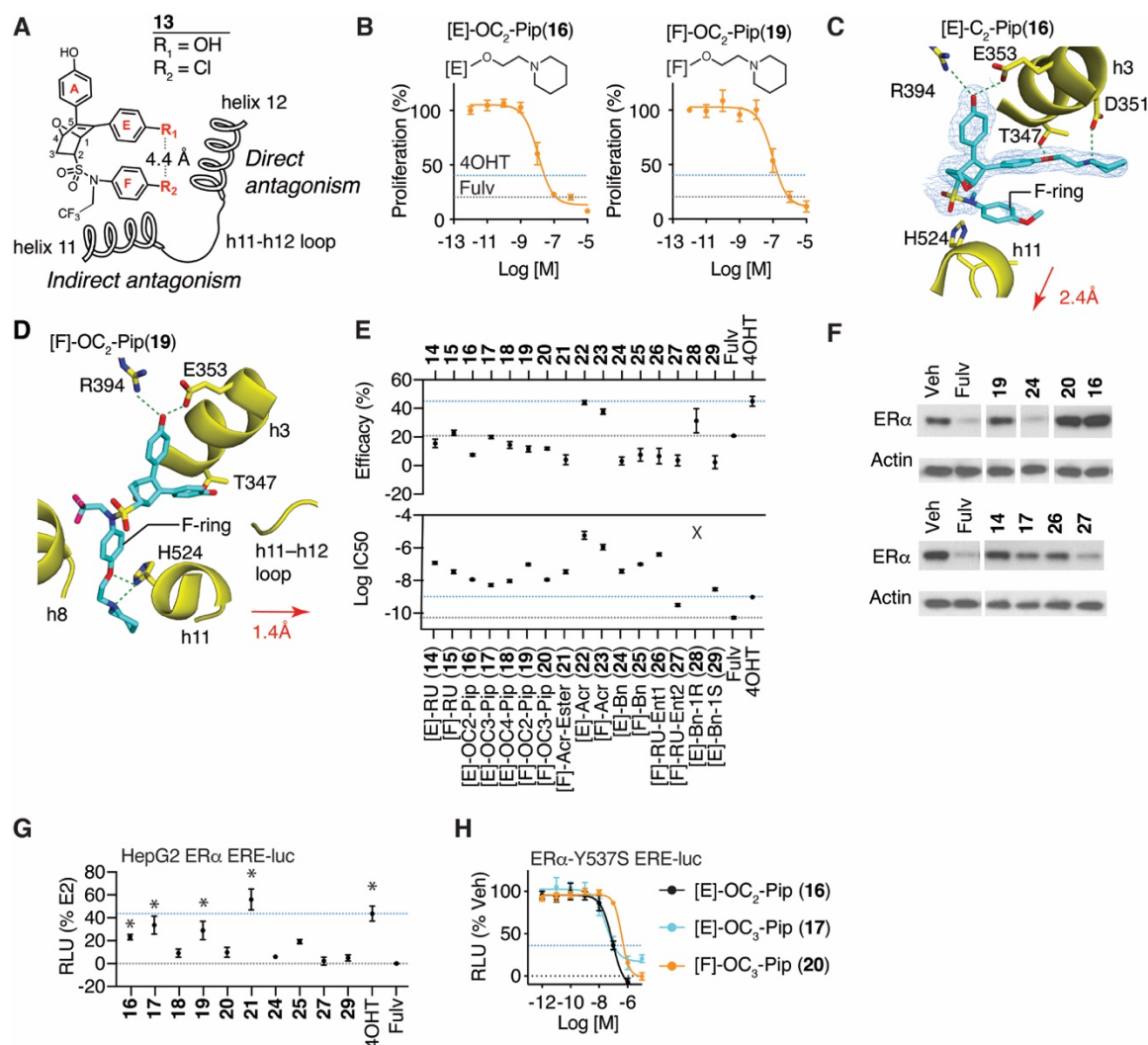


Figure 1. Dual-mechanism ER inhibitors fully suppress breast cancer cell proliferation.

A) Chemical structure of the OBHS-N scaffold and the orientation of substituents R_1 and R_2 , with respect to h11 and h12 in the ER-LBD. (When R_1 has a substituent, R_2 is -OCH₃ group; when R_2 has a substituent, R_1 is -OH.)

B) Proliferation of MCF-7 cells treated for 5 days with 4OHT, fulvestrant (Fulv), or the indicated compounds. Datapoints are mean \pm SEM, N= 6.

C) Structure of [E]-OC₂-Pip (**16**)-bound ER LBD showed the E-ring substituted piperidine H-bonding to Asp351 in helix 3 (h3), while the F-ring shifts helix 11 (h11) by 2.4 Å compared to an agonist bound structure. 2F_o-F_c electron density map contoured to 1 σ.

D) Structure of [F]-OC₂-Pip (**19**)-bound ER LBD shows that its [F]-OC₂-Pip side chain exits the ligand-binding pocket between h8 and h11, H-bonds to His524, and shifts h11 towards h12.

E) Summary of dose response curves for compound inhibition of proliferation of MCF-7 cells, shown in **Figure S2A–H**. Datapoints are mean ± SEM, N= 6.

F) ER and β-actin levels in MCF-7 cells treated with the indicated compounds for 24 h. Whole cell lysates were analyzed by Western blot.

G) Summary of dose response curves for activation of ERα in 3xERE-luc assay in HepG2 cells. Datapoints are mean ± SEM, N= 3. *Significantly different from fulvestrant by 1-way ANOVA, Sidak's test adjusted p-value (p_{adj}) < 0.05. Dose curves are shown in **Figure S3B**.

H) Summary of dose response curves for inhibition of ERα-Y537S in 3xERE-luc assay in HEK293T cells. Datapoints are mean ± SEM, N= 3. Blue and black dashed lines indicate the maximal efficacies of 4OHT and Fulv, respectively.

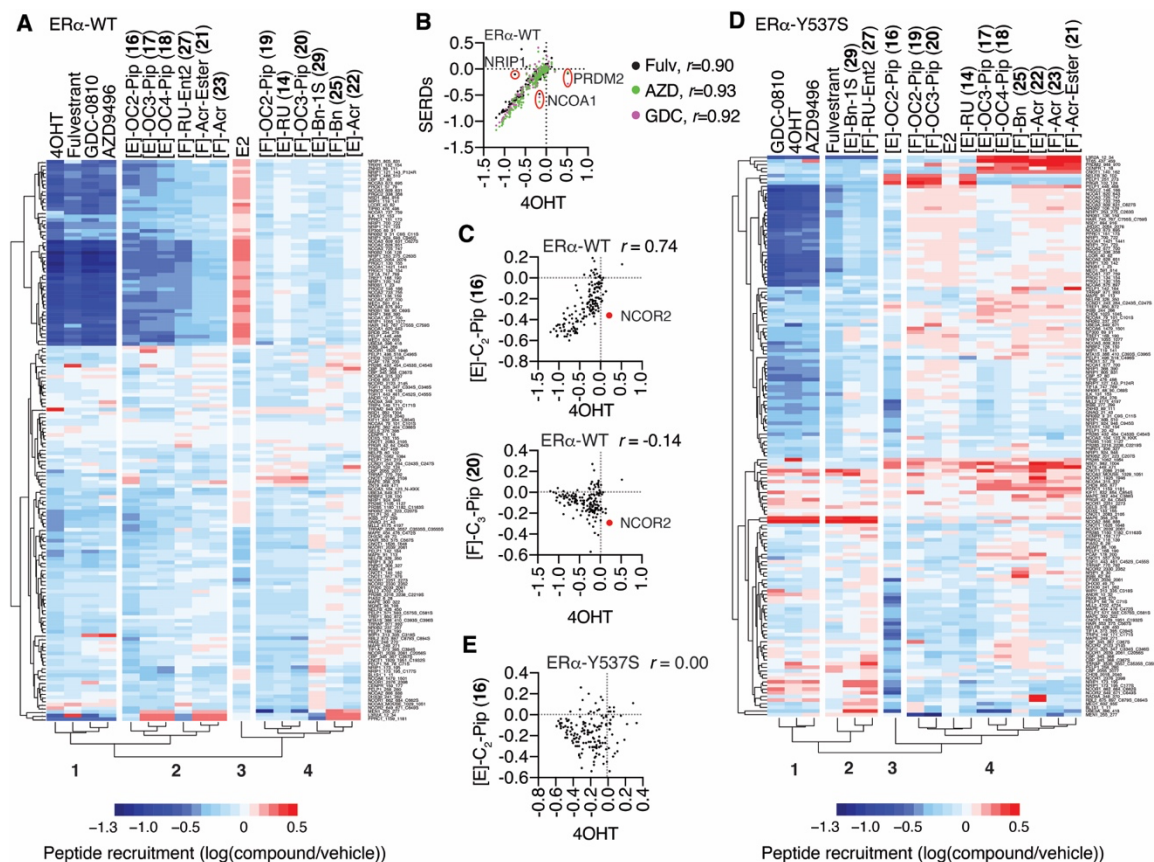


Figure 2. Dual-mechanism inhibitors promote conformations of ER that are distinct from traditional single mechanism inhibitors.

A) Hierarchical clustering of MARCoNI (Realtime Coregulator-Nuclear receptor Interaction) FRET assay for interaction of full-length, wild type (WT) ER with 154 peptides derived from nuclear receptor-interacting proteins and the indicated ligands.

B-C) MARCoNI Pearson correlations for 4OHT vs the indicated ligands. Fulvestrant (Fulv), GDC-0810 (GDC) or AZD9496 (ADZ). r = Pearson correlation ligand vs 4OHT

D) Hierarchical clustering of MARCONI data with ER-Y537S and the indicated ligands.

E) MARCoNI Pearson correlations for 4OHT vs [E]-C2-Pip (**16**) with the ER-Y537S. r = Pearson correlation.

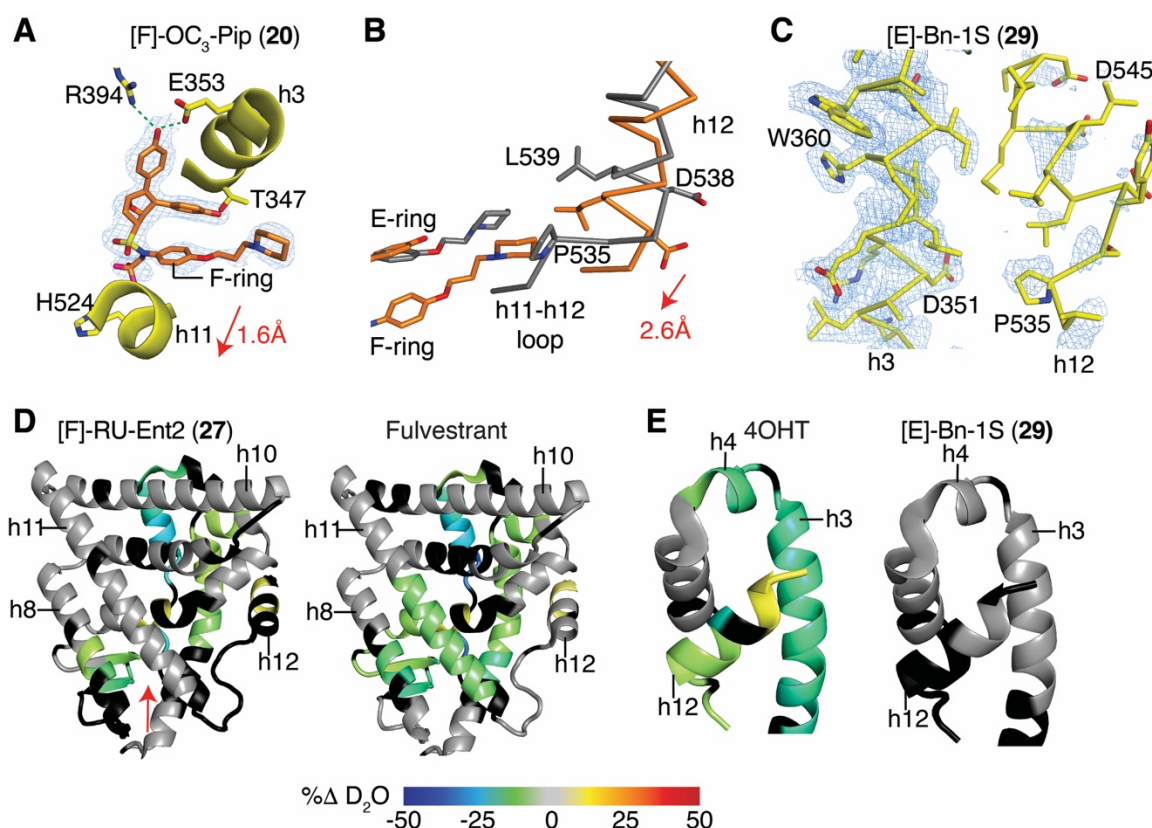


Figure 3. Dual mechanism inhibitors destabilize helix 12

A) Structure of the ER LBD bound to [F]-OC₃-Pip (**20**). 2F_o-F_c electron density map contoured at 1.0 σ shows the **20** F-ring facing outward between h3 and h11 towards h12, shifting h11 1.6 Å compared to an agonist bound structure.

B) The structures of the ER LBD bound to **20** (coral) or raloxifene (gray) were superimposed, showing the 2.6 Å shift of h12 to contact the piperidine ring of **20**.

C) Structure of the ER LBD with [E]-Bn-1S (**29**) shows that h12 could not be modeled in 2 of 4 subunits due to poor electron density. The A chain is shown. The 2F_o-F_c electron density map is contoured at 1.0 σ.

531 **D–E)** Changes in ER-Y537S H/D exchange compared to the apo receptor. ER α -Y537S
532 LBD was incubated with the indicated ligands and then assayed for exchange of amide
533 hydrogens with deuterium over time, as measured by mass spectrometry.

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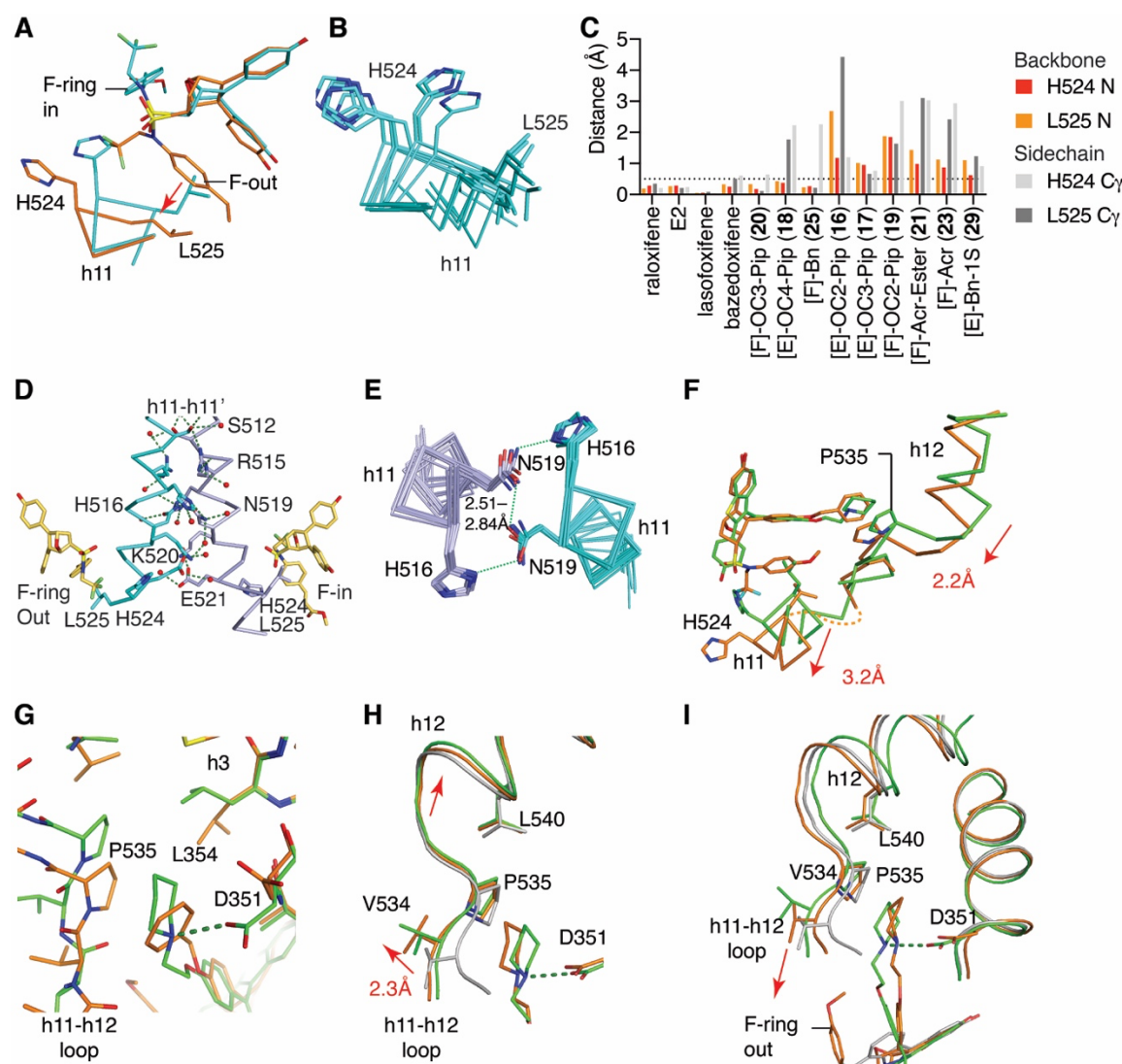


Figure 4. Dynamic ligands that bind in more than one orientation drive multiple antagonist conformers and the formation of conformational heterodimers

A) Structure of [F]-AcrEster (21)-bound ER showing different ligand binding positions in the dimeric subunits. The A and B chains were superimposed and colored blue or coral.

B) Nine structures of ERα bound to OBHS-N ligands were superimposed. Helix 11 residues 522-527 are shown as Cα trace. H524 Cα show a spatial range of 2.6 Å.

C) The B chains were superimposed on the A chains of ER structures with the indicated ligands. Distances between the indicated backbone amine (N) or sidechain Cy were measured between the A and B chains for each structure.

D) A hydrogen bond network forms contacts across the C-terminal half of helices 11 in the dimer interface. From structure of ER α bound to **21**.

E) Nine structures of ER with OBHS-N ligands were superimposed and h11 rendered as C α traces. The N519-N519' H-bond is shown and is stabilized by adjacent His516 residues.

F) Structures of ER LBD subunits (B chains) bound to [E]-Bn-1S (**29**) (coral) or raloxifene (green) were superimposed, showing the C-terminus of h11, the h11-h12 loop, and h12 as C- α traces. The 3.2 Å shift in h11 pulled the h11-h12 loop and shifted h12 by 2.2 Å.

G) ER LBD subunits (B chains) bound to **29** (coral) or raloxifene (green) illustrates how the positioning of the benzyl supports the altered position of h12 through VDW contacts with Pro535 in the h11-h12 loop, as well as L354 and Asp351 in h3.

H–I) Structures of [E]-OC₂-Pip (**16**) (coral) and raloxifene (green)-bound ER were superimposed with another structure lacking an extended side chain (gray, A chain of 3OS8.pdb), showing the piperidine side chains and part of the h11-h12 loop and h12.

H) The A chains are shown. **I)** The B chains are shown.

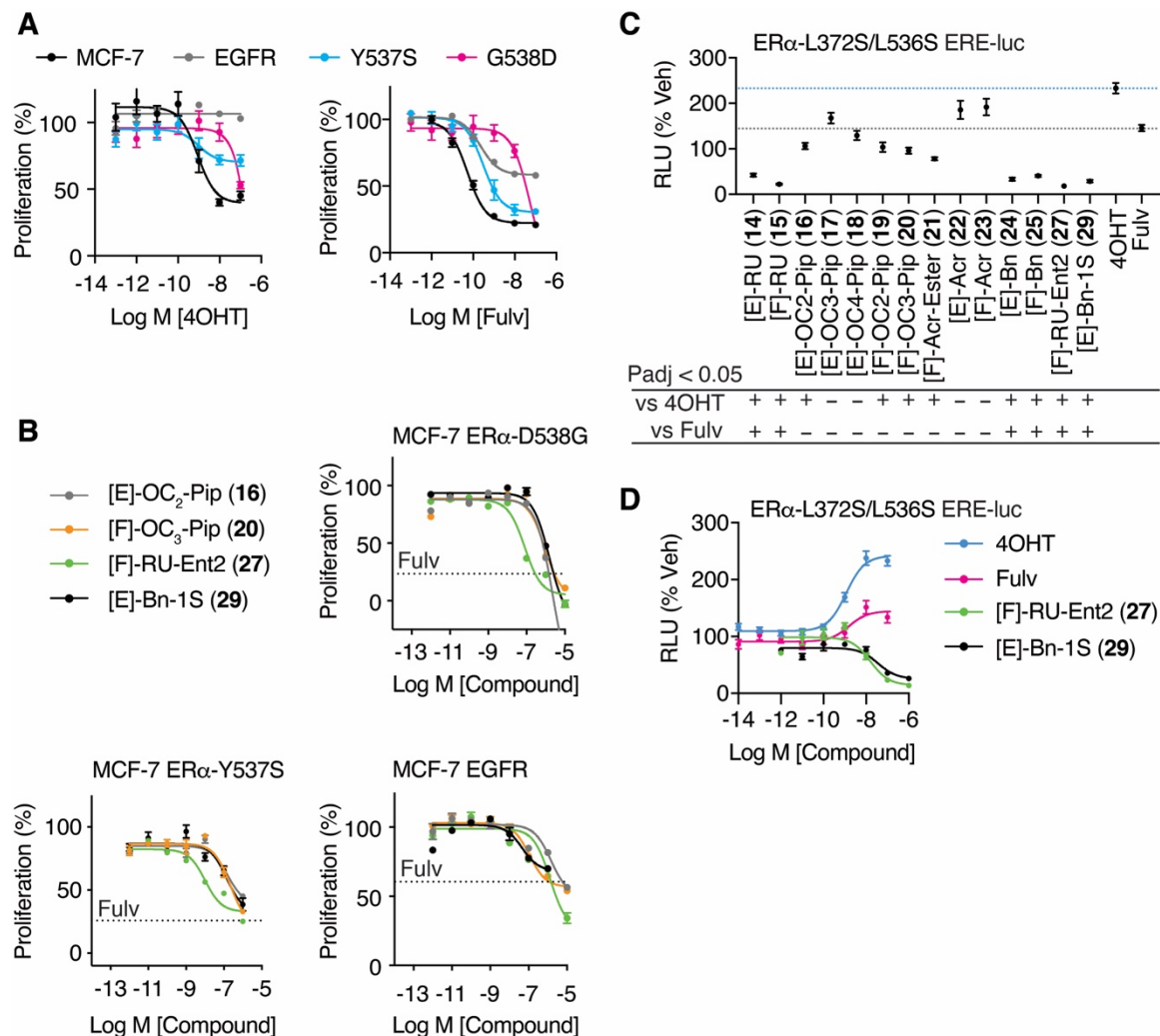


Figure 5. Activity of ligands in allele-specific models of tamoxifen resistance.

(A) WT MCF-7 cells and **(B)** MCF-7 cells engineered to express the mutant ERα-Y537S or ERα-D538G, or overexpress EGFR, were treated with the indicated ligands for 5 days and analyzed for inhibition of cell proliferation. N = 3

C–D) Structure-based model of tamoxifen and fulvestrant resistance. HepG2 cells were transfected with a 3xERE-luciferase reporter and ERα-L372S/L536S. The next day cells were treated for 24 hr with the indicated ligands and processed for luciferase activity. N = 6, except for 4OHT and Fulv where N=18. Data were analyzed by 1-way ANOVA

Data are mean \pm s.e.m.

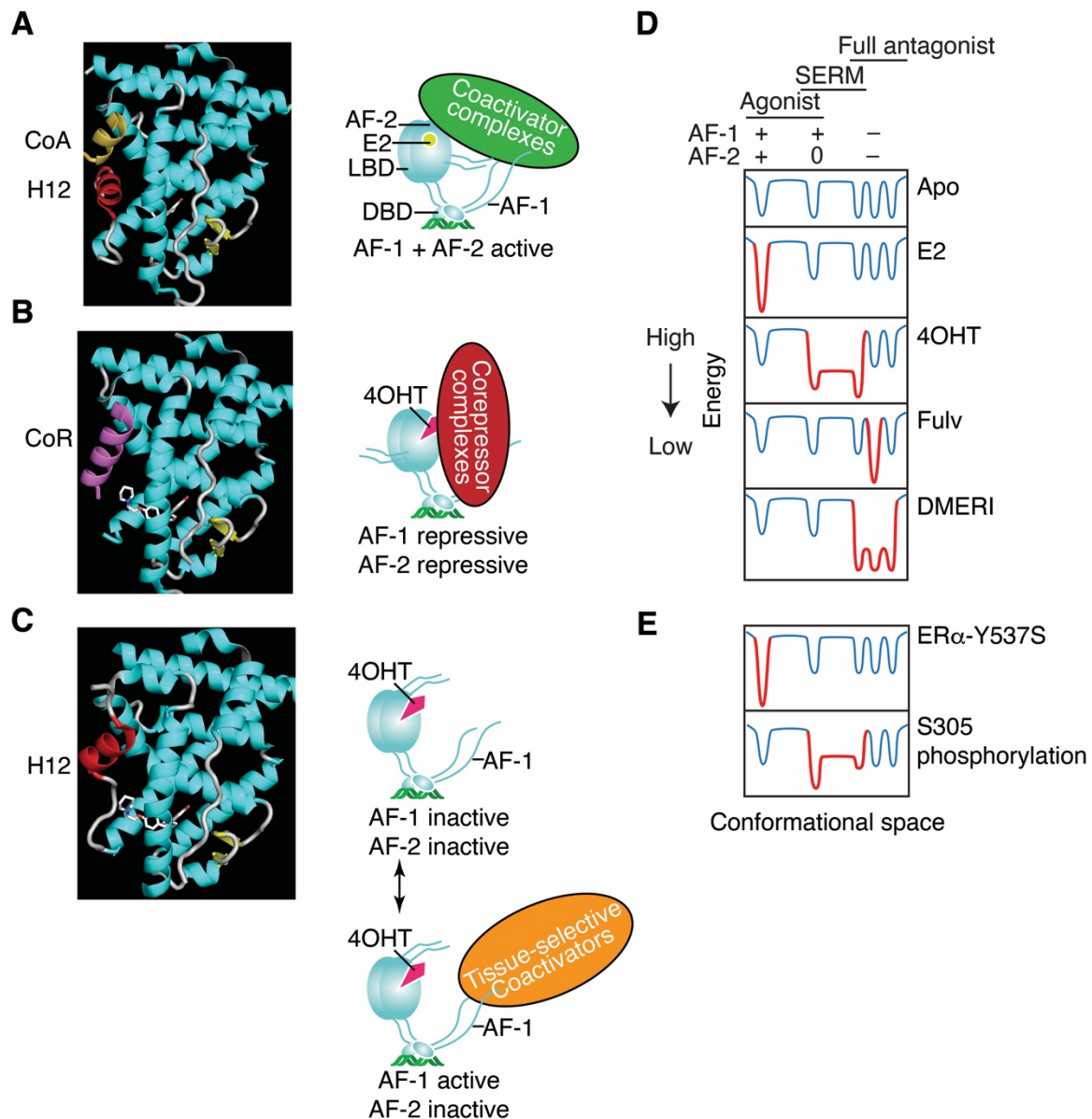


Figure 6. Ligand-dependent control of ERα-LBD conformation, and of ER coregulator recruitment and selection of activity states.

582

583 **A-C)** three main conformers of the ER LBD are: an active conformer where agonists
584 stabilize helix 12 (h12) to form one side of a binding site for transcriptional coregulators
585 (7), called Activation Function-2 (AF-2); a repressive conformer where h12 is destabilized
586 enabling recruitment of transcriptional corepressors that mediate chromatin condensation
587 (9, 12, 37, 50); and an inactive conformer where h12 blocks both coactivators and
588 corepressors(7, 30).

589 **A)** The active LBD conformation. *Left*, ribbon diagram of the ER LBD bound to estradiol.
590 Helix 12 (h12, colored red) forms one side of the coactivator binding site, shown here
591 binding to a peptide from Steroid Receptor Coactivator-2 (CoA colored yellow) 3UUD.pdb.
592 *Right*, Schematic of ER α bound to estradiol (E2), DNA, and a coactivator complex. With
593 full agonists, the coactivator recruitment to the LBD surface, AF-2 (Activation Function-2)
594 nucleates binding of multi-protein coactivator complexes to other domains including AF-1
595 (Activation Function-1). DBD, DNA binding domain. Steroid Receptor Coactivators (SRCs)
596 1–3 bind to both AF-1 and AF-2 through separate interactions.

597 **B)** The transcriptionally repressive LBD conformation. *Left*, ribbon diagram of the ER LBD
598 bound to a corepressor peptide, colored violet. When h12 is disordered by an antagonist,
599 the LBD can bind an extended peptide motif found in transcriptional corepressors(8).
600 2JFA.pdb. *Right*, Cartoon of ER α bound to 4-hydroxytamoxifen (4OHT) and a corepressor
601 complex, repressing both AF-1 and AF-2 activity and mediating mediate chromatin
602 compaction and inhibition of proliferative gene expression.

603 **C)** The inactive LBD conformer. *Left*, Ribbon diagram of the ER LBD bound to an
604 antagonist. Antagonists can flip h12 (colored red) into the coactivator/corepressor binding
605 site, rendering the LBD inactive by blocking both coactivator and corepressor binding to

AF-2. 2QXS.pdb. *Right*, when h12 blocks both coactivators and corepressors from binding the LBD, the activity of AF-1 is cell-type specific.

D) Energy diagram illustrating how ER ligands differ in stabilizing specific low energy receptor conformations associated with transcriptional activity (+), inactivity (0), or repression (–) that are being driven by the activity state of AF-2 or AF-1. The dips in the curves represent different LBD conformations associated with the three AF-1/AF-2 activity states shown at the top, *leftmost* being the active state (**a**), the *rightmost* representing sub-states of the repressive state (**b**), and the *middle* the inactive state (**c**). When a state is stabilized by a particular type of ligand, the curves become deeper, with gray changed to red; the barrier heights between states indicate the ease of dynamic interchange among the states or sub-states. The DMERI showed multiple mechanisms of antagonism, represented by the multiple favored repressor sub-states with reduced exchange barriers.

E) ER-dependent tamoxifen resistance. Constitutively activating mutations such as ER-Y537S stabilize the active conformer of AF-2(24). Phosphorylation of Ser305 in the hinge domain enables an H-bond that stabilizes h12 in the inactive conformer, blocking corepressors and enabling AF-1 activity (30).

METHODS

Cell Culture

MCF7, MCF7-ER α -Y537S, MCF7-ER α -D538G, HepG2, and MDA-MB231 cells were maintained in Dulbecco's modified eagle medium (DMEM) supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS). MCF7-ER α -WT, MCF7-ER α -Y537S, MCF7-ER α -D538G were a gift from Steffi Oesterreich. The cells lines above were cultured with 1% penicillin/streptomycin/ neomycin (PSN) antibiotics, 1% MEM non-essential amino acids, and 1% GlutaMAX (all from Gibco™ by Thermo Fisher Scientific), maintained at 37°C in a 5% CO₂ incubator. Cells were tested regularly for mycoplasma contamination.

Luciferase co-transfection assay

HepG2 cells were seeded in 10 cm plates containing 10 ml of DMEM (Gibco™ by Thermo Fisher Scientific, cat. no. 11995) supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS), 1x GlutaMAX (Gibco™ by Thermo Fisher Scientific, cat. no. 35050061), 1x MEM nonessential amino acids (Corning,cat. no. 25-025-CI), 1x penicillin-streptomycin-neomycin (PSN) antibiotic mixture (Thermo Fisher Scientific, cat. no.15640055), and 2.5 µg/ml Plasmocin™ (Invivogen, cat. no. ant-mp).

The next day, the cells were rinsed with 1x PBS and the medium was replaced with 10 ml of phenol red-free DMEM (Corning, cat. no. 17205CV) supplemented with 10% charcoal-stripped FBS (cs-FBS) (Thermo Fisher Scientific; cat no. A3382101). The cells were then co-transfected with 5.0 µg of 3xERE-Luc reporter plasmid and 0.5 µg of ER α (WT/mutant) expression plasmid using Fugene HD reagent (Promega, cat no. E2311).

After 24 h, the cells were resuspended in phenol red-free DMEM plus 10% cs-FBS, and transferred to a 384-well plate (Greiner Bio-One, cat. no. 781080) at a density of ~17,000 cells/well containing 25 µl of phenol red-free DMEM plus 10% cs-FBS. The next day, the test compounds were added using a Biomek NXP 100-nl pintool (Beckman Coulter, Inc.). The plates were sealed with Breathe-Easy permeable membranes (Diversified Biotech, cat. no. BEM-1), covered with stainless steel specimen plate lids (U.S. Patent 6,534,014), and incubated at 37°C overnight. Luciferase activity was measured 24 h later, using the britelite plus reporter gene assay system (PerkinElmer, cat no. 6066761) or the Bright-Glo™ Luciferase Assay System (Promega, cat no. E2620) and an Envision plate reader (PerkinElmer).

Cell Proliferation Assay

Cells were suspended in steroid-free media supplemented with 10% charcoal-stripped FBS and passed through a 30-micron strainer (Miltenyl Biotec, cat. no. 130-110-915). 25 µl of the cell suspension (i.e. 1,000 or 2,000 cells) was dispensed into each well of 384-well white, flat-bottom microplates (Greiner Bio-One CellStar, cat no. 781080), using a Martix WellMate Microplate Reagent Dispenser (Thermo Fisher Scientific). The next day, test compounds were added to the wells using a Biomek NXP 100-nl pintool (Beckman Coulter). The plates were sealed with Breathe-Easy permeable membranes (Diversified Biotech, Cat no. BEM-1), covered with a stainless steel specimen plate lid (U.S. Patent 6,534,014), and incubated at 37°C and 5% CO₂. “Start plates” with replica wells were stored at -80°C to record the initial number of cells. After 5 days, the start plates were thawed for 15 min at 37°C, and the number of cells/well in all plates were compared. To this end, 25 µl of CellTiter-Glo® assay reagent (Promega, cat no. G7573) was added to each well using the Wellmate reagent dispenser. The plates were shaken gently at room

temperature for 5 min on an orbital shaker, and then allowed to sit for 5 min. Luminescence was measured using an Envision plate reader (PerkinElmer). Proliferation data was normalized using the initial number of cells as 0%, and the final number of cells in vehicle (DMSO)-treated wells as 100%.

Quantitative RT-PCR (qPCR)

Total RNA was isolated using the RNeasy kit with on-column DNase I digest (QIAGEN). 4 µg total RNA samples were reverse-transcribed in 40 µl reactions using the High-Capacity RNA-to-cDNA™ Kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific, cat. no. 4387406). cDNA samples were analyzed by real-time PCR in triplicate 10 µl reactions using the 2X TaqMan® gene expression master mix (Applied Biosystems™ by Thermo Fisher Scientific, cat. no. 4369016) with human *GREB1* (Hs00536409_m1) and *GAPDH* (Hs02758991_g1) expression assays. Relative mRNA levels were compared using the $\Delta\Delta C_t$ method.

Western Blot

Cells were lysed in ice-cold RIPA buffer (20 mM Tris pH 7.5, 150 mM NaCl, 1% NP40, 0.5% Sodium deoxycholate, 1 mM EDTA and 0.1% SDS). Protein samples were loaded on Any kD™ Mini-PROTEAN® TGX™ Precast Protein Gels (Bio-rad, Hercules, CA) and transferred onto PVDF membranes (Thermo Scientific, Rockford, IL). The membranes were blocked with PBS-T + 5% nonfat dry milk and probed with primary antibodies overnight. The next day, the membranes were washed with TBS-T, and incubated with HRP-conjugated probes (Santa Cruz Biotechnology) and developed using an ECL detection system (GE Healthcare Bio-Sciences, Pittsburg, PA).

695

696 *Antibodies and Probes*

697 ER α (F-10) mouse mAb (1:1000, cat. no. sc-8002), ER α (H222) rat mAb (1:1000 dilution,
698 cat. no. sc-53492), β -Actin (C4) mouse mAb (1:10,000 dilution, cat. no., sc-47778), HRP-
699 conjugated mouse IgG kappa binding protein (cat. no., sc-516102), and HRP-conjugated
700 goat anti-rat IgG antibody (cat no. sc-2006), were purchased from Santa Cruz
701 Biotechnology, Inc.

702

703 *Macromolecular X-ray Crystallography*

704 The ER α -L372S/L536S double-mutant ligand-binding domain (LBD, amino acid residues
705 298–554) was expressed in BL21 (DE3) E. coli cells, purified by IMAC using a Ni²⁺
706 column, dialysis, TEV digest, ion exchange, and size exclusion chromatography to remove
707 the HA tag, as previously described(24). The purified LBD was co-crystallized with various
708 ligands through sitting drop vapor diffusion method using trial gradients of 20% –25% (w/v)
709 PEG 3350, 200 mM MgCl₂, and pH 6.5–8.0, as previously described (42, 51). Data was
710 collected at the Stanford Synchrotron Radiation Lightsource (Beamline: 12-2) and
711 Advanced Photon Source (Beamlines: SER-CAT BM22, ID-22), both at temperature of
712 100 K and wavelength of 1.0 Å and scaled using AutoPROC (52) with the application of
713 STARANISO (Globalphasing) to accommodate anisotropic diffraction. The structures
714 were solved by molecular replacement of the starting model, 2QXS.pdb, and then rebuilt
715 and refined using the PHENIX software suite version 1.16 (53, 54). Ligand restraints were
716 built on the PHENIX electronic Ligand Builder and Optimisation Workbench (55). Ligand
717 docking was automated with LigandFit in Phenix and visually inspected using COOT
718 version 0.8.9.2, as previously described (56, 57). New structures were further refined on

the PDB-REDO server (58), before final refinement and validation in the PHENIX environment. Structures were analyzed using COOT and imaged using PyMOL (Schrodinger).

MARCoNI coregulator interaction profiling

Microarray assay for real-time nuclear receptor coregulator interaction (MARCoNI) was performed as previously described (59). In short, a PamChip peptide micro array with 154 unique coregulator-derived NR interaction motifs (#88101, PamGene International) was incubated with his-tagged ER α LBD in the presence of 10 μ M compound or solvent only (2% DMSO, apo). Receptor binding to each peptide on the array was detected using fluorescently labeled his-antibody, recorded by CCD and quantified. Per compound, three technical replicates (arrays) were analyzed to calculate the log-fold change (modulation index, MI) of each receptor-peptide interaction versus apo. Significance of this modulation was assessed by Student's t-Test.

Hydrogen-Deuterium Exchange (HDX) detected by mass spectrometry (MS)

Differential HDX-MS experiments were conducted as previously described with a few modifications(60).

Peptide Identification: Peptides were identified using tandem MS (MS/MS) with an Orbitrap mass spectrometer (Q Exactive, ThermoFisher). Product ion spectra were acquired in data-dependent mode with the top five most abundant ions selected for the product ion analysis per scan event. The MS/MS data files were submitted to Mascot (Matrix Science) for peptide identification. Peptides included in the HDX analysis peptide set had a MASCOT score greater than 20 and the MS/MS spectra were verified by manual

inspection. The MASCOT search was repeated against a decoy (reverse) sequence and ambiguous identifications were ruled out and not included in the HDX peptide set.

HDX-MS analysis: Protein (10 μ M) was incubated with the respective ligands at a 1:10 protein-to-ligand molar ratio for 1 h at room temperature. Next, 5 μ l of sample was diluted into 20 μ l D₂O buffer (20 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.4; 150 mM NaCl; 2 mM DTT) and incubated for various time points (0, 10, 60, 300, and 900 s) at 4°C. The deuterium exchange was then slowed by mixing with 25 μ l of cold (4°C) 3 M urea and 1% trifluoroacetic acid. Quenched samples were immediately injected into the HDX platform. Upon injection, samples were passed through an immobilized pepsin column (2mm \times 2cm) at 200 μ l min⁻¹ and the digested peptides were captured on a 2mm \times 1cm C₈ trap column (Agilent) and desalted. Peptides were separated across a 2.1mm \times 5cm C₁₈ column (1.9 μ l Hypersil Gold, ThermoFisher) with a linear gradient of 4% - 40% CH₃CN and 0.3% formic acid, over 5 min. Sample handling, protein digestion and peptide separation were conducted at 4°C. Mass spectrometric data were acquired using an Orbitrap mass spectrometer (Exactive, ThermoFisher). HDX analyses were performed in triplicate, with single preparations of each protein ligand complex. The intensity weighted mean m/z centroid value of each peptide envelope was calculated and subsequently converted into a percentage of deuterium incorporation. This is accomplished determining the observed averages of the undeuterated and fully deuterated spectra and using the conventional formula described elsewhere(61). Statistical significance for the differential HDX data is determined by an unpaired t-test for each time point, a procedure that is integrated into the HDX Workbench software(62). Corrections for back-exchange were made on the basis of an estimated 70% deuterium recovery, and accounting for the known 80% deuterium content of the deuterium exchange buffer.

Data Rendering: The HDX data from all overlapping peptides were consolidated to individual amino acid values using a residue averaging approach. Briefly, for each residue, the deuterium incorporation values and peptide lengths from all overlapping peptides were assembled. A weighting function was applied in which shorter peptides were weighted more heavily and longer peptides were weighted less. Each of the weighted deuterium incorporation values were then averaged to produce a single value for each amino acid. The initial two residues of each peptide, as well as prolines, were omitted from the calculations. This approach is similar to that previously described (63). HDX analyses were performed in triplicate, with single preparations of each purified protein/complex. Statistical significance for the differential HDX data is determined by t test for each time point, and is integrated into the HDX Workbench software (62).

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