Tissue-selective effects of continuous release of 2-hydroxyestrone and 16α -hydroxyestrone on bone, uterus and mammary gland in ovariectomized growing rats

S Lotinun¹, K C Westerlind³ and R T Turner^{1,2}

(Requests for offprints should be addressed to S Lotinun, Department of Orthopedics, Mayo Clinic, 200 First Street SW, Rochester, MN 55905, USA; Email: lotinun.sutada@mayo.edu)

Abstract

2-Hydroxyestrone (2-OHE₁) and 16α -hydroxyestrone $(16\alpha-OHE_1)$ have been reported to be risk factors for negative bone balance and breast cancer, respectively. The roles of these two metabolites of estrone as estrogen agonists or antagonists with respect to estrogen target tissues, or both, are poorly defined. The purpose of this study was to characterize metabolite and tissue-specific differences between the actions of hydroxylated estrones on selected reproductive and non-reproductive estrogen target tissues in growing rats. First, the effects of ovariectomy were determined. Ovariectomy had the expected effects, including increases in all dynamic bone measurements at the proximal tibial epiphysis, without induction of bone loss. Second, ovariectomized growing rats were continuously treated for 3 weeks with 2-OHE₁, 16α-OHE₁, 17β -estradiol (E₂), a combination of E₂ and 2-OHE₁ (E₂+2-OHE₁), or a combination of E₂ and 16α -OHE₁ (E₂+ 16α -OHE₁), using controlled release subcutaneous implanted pellets containing 5 mg 2-OHE₁, 5 mg 16α -OHE₁, 0.05 mg E₂ or placebo. E₂ reduced body weight gain and radial and longitudinal bone growth as well as indices of cancellous bone turnover, and increased serum cholesterol, uterine wet weight and epithelial cell height, and proliferative cell nuclear antigen labeling in mammary gland. The hydroxylated estrones did not alter uterine wet weight and 16α-OHE₁ antagonized the E2-stimulated increase in epithelial cell height. 2-OHE₁ had no effect on cortical bone, whereas 16α-OHE₁ was an estrogen agonist with respect to all cortical bone measurements. 16α-OHE₁ also behaved as an estrogen agonist with respect to serum cholesterol and cancellous bone measurements. 2-OHE₁ had no effect on most E2-regulated indices of cancellous bone growth and turnover, but was a weak estrogen agonist with respect to mineral apposition rate and bone formation rate. Neither estrogen metabolite influenced body weight gain. Third, weanling rats were treated for 1 week with vehicle, E₂ $(200 \,\mu\text{g/kg per day})$ or 16α -OHE₁ (30, 100, 300, 1000 and 3000 µg/kg per day) to confirm uterotropic effects of daily subcutaneous (s.c.) administration of 16α -OHE₁. 16α-OHE₁ increased uterine weight in a dose–response manner to values that did not differ from rats treated with E₂. We conclude that the estrogen metabolites 2-OHE₁ and 16α-OHE₁ have target tissue-specific biological activities which differ from one another as well as from E2. These findings add further support to the concept that there are several classes of estrogens with distinct biological activities. Furthermore, differences in the route of administration could influence the tissue specificity of estrogen metabolites.

Journal of Endocrinology (2001) 170, 165-174

Introduction

Although 17β -estradiol (E₂) exerts diverse biological effects in reproductive and non-reproductive tissues by direct interaction with a nuclear receptor, some actions of estrogen may result from a conversion of parent hormone to its metabolites (Martucci & Fishman 1993, Turner et al. 1994). E₂, in the presence of 17β -dehydrogenase, is metabolized to estrone (E₁), which is primarily

hydroxylated in liver at either C-2 to form 2-hydroxyestrone (2-OHE₁) or C-16 α to form 16 α -hydroxyestrone (16 α -OHE₁) (Vermeulen *et al.* 1976, Schneider *et al.* 1982).

2-OHE₁, which is sometimes referred to as the good estrogen, has been shown to have very weak estrogenic activity, and in some experimental systems it has been shown to have antagonistic activity (Vandewalle & Lefebvre 1989). In contrast, 16α-OHE₁ is considered to

¹Department of Orthopedics, Mayo Clinic, Rochester, Minnesota, USA

²Department of Biochemistry and Molecular Biology, Mayo Clinic, Rochester, Minnesota, USA

³AMC Cancer Research Center, Denver, Colorado, USA

be an estrogen agonist, has low affinity for sex hormone binding globulin (Fishman & Martucci 1980) and binds with moderate affinity to the estrogen receptor (Swaneck & Fishman. 1988).

Estrogenic or antiestrogenic properties of estrogen metabolites may be associated with the development of breast cancer. Fishman and colleagues reported that 16α-OHE₁ covalently bound the estrogen receptor and induced breast cancer, whereas 2-OHE₁ primarily inhibited cell growth (Schneider et al. 1984, Swaneck & Fishman. 1988). Furthermore, 2-OHE₁ partially antagonized the stimulatory effect of E2 on growth (Vandewalle & Lefebvre 1989). However, other experiments suggest that 2-OHE₁ is an estrogen agonist. 2-OHE₁ and 16α-OHE₁ increased cell proliferation in MCF-7 and T47D breast cancer cells and the induced mitogenic activity was inhibited by the estrogen antagonists, tamoxifen and ICI-182780 (Gupta et al. 1998). Thus there is no consensus as to the effects of 2-OHE₁ on the growth of breast cancer cells in culture, and no study has established a direct cause-and-effect relationship between the continuous presence of estrogen metabolites in the circulation and the incidence of breast cancer.

Our understanding of the biological actions of estrogen metabolites is primarily based on a very limited number of studies performed on reproductive tissues. The influence of estrogen metabolites on bone has only recently been investigated. Hodge and coworkers (1995) found that there was an association between 2-hydroxylation of E₁ and bone density in early postmenopausal women. In particular, urinary 2-OHE₁ was negatively correlated with vertebral bone density and had a tendency to increase in women with a family history of osteoporosis. Furthermore, African-American women, who had a greater bone mass and lower risk for developing osteoporosis compared with European-American women, have been reported to have a higher urinary 16α -OHE₁/2-OHE₁ ratio (Cauley *et al.*) 1994, Taioli et al. 1996). More recent data suggested that women in the lowest quartile of urinary 2-OHE₁/ 16α -OHE₁ appeared to be protected from early postmenopausal bone loss (Leelawattana et al. 2000).

Studies in ovariectomized rats suggested that 16α -OHE₁ but not 2-OHE₁ is an estrogen agonist with respect to bone (Westerlind *et al.* 1998). The observed differences in activity of the two metabolites on bone metabolism could explain the reported differences in bone mass in women. Surprisingly, 16α -OHE₁ appeared to be a more potent estrogen agonist with respect to skeletal tissue than with respect to uterus and mammary gland (Westerlind *et al.* 1998). This apparent tissue-selective activity would be a beneficial characteristic for hormone replacement therapy. However, the effects of the metabolites on the response to 17β -estradiol were not investigated. Such competition studies are essential to determine whether the mechanism for the tissue-selective estrogen agonism/antagonism of 16α -OHE₁ is similar to that of tamoxifen

and other selective estrogen receptor modulators (SERMs) (Turner et al. 1987). In addition, previous studies were not designed to determine whether 2-OHE₁ antagonizes the actions of E₂ on bone in a manner analogous to the effects reported in breast cancer cells (Schneider et al. 1984). Therefore, the aim of the present investigation in rats was to evaluate E₂ agonistic and antagonistic activities of 2-OHE₁ and 16α -OHE₁ in bone and other estrogen target organs. The goal was accomplished by continuous administration of the metabolites with implanted pellets in the presence and absence of a submaximal dose of 17β -estradiol. Growing animals were studied to investigate the effects of estrogen metabolites on the cellular processes that establish (growth) and maintain (modeling and remodeling) peak bone mass.

Materials and Methods

Animals

All animal procedures were approved by the institutional animal care and use committee at the Mayo Foundation (Rochester, MN, USA).

Sprague–Dawley rats (sham-operated (sham), ovariectomized (OVX) or wearling) were obtained from Harlan Sprague–Dawley Inc. (Indianapolis, IN, USA). They were maintained on laboratory rat chow and water which were available *ad libitum* under a 12 h light:12 h darkness cycle in a temperature-controlled room.

Study I This experiment was performed to confirm that ovariectomy induced cancellous bone turnover without bone loss at the proximal tibial epiphysis. Female growing rats, weighing 180–200 g, were ovariectomized at 2 months of age. The rats were fluorochrome labeled (20 mg/kg) by juxta-tail vein injection of calcein (Sigma Chemical Co.) and demeclocycline (Sigma Chemical Co.) 9 and 2 days before they were killed, respectively. On day 27 after ovariectomy, all rats were weighed and anesthetized with ketamine HCl (50 mg/kg) and xylazine HCl (5 mg/kg). They were killed by cervical dislocation. Wet weights of uteri were recorded. The tibiae were removed, cleared of adhering tissue and fixed in 70% ethanol before being processed for static and dynamic bone histomorphometry.

Study II This experiment was performed to determine whether 2-OHE_1 or $16\alpha\text{-OHE}_1$ were partial estrogen agonists, antagonists, or both with respect to bone, mammary tissue and uterus. The rats were the same age as in study I. Six days after surgery, OVX rats were weighed and randomly divided into seven groups of animals : (i) baseline (n=10), (ii) vehicle (n=8), (iii) 2-OHE_1 (n=9), (iv) $16\alpha\text{-OHE}_1$ (n=9), (v) E_2 +vehicle (n=9), (vi) E_2 + 2-OHE_1 (n=11), and (vii) E_2 + $16\alpha\text{-OHE}_1$ (n=9). The baseline group was killed on the day treatment was

initiated. The remaining groups were subcutaneously implanted with controlled release pellets (Innovative Research, Inc., Sarasota, FL, USA) containing placebo, 5 mg 2-OHE₁, 5 mg 16α -OHE₁, 0.05 mg E₂ or combination for 3 weeks. We have shown that the E2 pellet implant, which delivers E2 at a rate of approximately 15 μg/kg per day, maintains normal uterine weight and bone volume in OVX rats (Sibonga et al. 1998). Subsequent dose-response studies have shown that the 5 mg pellet delivers a robust but not maximal skeletal response to 16α -OHE₁ (unpublished data). The 5 mg 2-OHE₁ pellet was also chosen on the basis of previous studies demonstrating blood concentrations of the metabolite that greatly exceed physiological values (Westerlind et al. 1998).

The rats were fluorochrome-labeled with tetracycline (Sigma Chemical Co.) 1 day before starting treatment, calcein 9 days before they were killed, and demeclocycline 2 days before they were killed. On treatment day 21 (27 days after ovariectomy), blood was collected from abdominal aorta for measurement of serum cholesterol before death. The tibiae were removed as described in study I.

The uteri were quickly excised, weighed and fixed in 10% neutral buffered formalin for 24 h before being transferred to 70% ethanol until required for processing for conventional paraffin embedding for measurement of epithelial cell height. Left mammary glands were excised for quantitative proliferating cell nuclear antigen (PCNA) immunohistochemistry.

Study III This experiment was performed to verify that pulsatile administration of 16α-OHE₁ exhibited a uterotropic effect. Thirty-five weanling rats (3 weeks old) that were known to have low endogenous estrogen because of immaturity were randomly divided into seven groups with five animals per group. They received daily subcutaneous (s.c.) administration (0.1 ml) of (i) vehicle, (ii) 17β estradiol (200 µg/kg per day) and (iii–vii) 16α -OHE₁ (30, 100, 300, 1000, and 3000 μg/kg per day) for 1 week. E₂ and 16α-OHE₁ were dissolved in 95% ethanol and diluted with water to 50% ethanol. On treatment day 8, the rats were killed as described in study I and the uteri were removed and weighed.

Bone histomorphometry

Bone histomorphometric parameters were measured with the Osteomeasure semi-automatic image analysis system (OsteoMetrics, Atlanta, GA, USA) as described elsewhere (Cavolina et al. 1997, Kidder & Turner 1998).

Cross sections of tibial diaphyses, approximately 150 µm thick, were cut at a site just proximal to the tibiofibular synostosis with a low-speed Isomet saw equipped with a diamond wafer blade (Buehler, Lake Bluff, IL, USA). They were ground on a roughened glass plate to a thickness of 20 µm and mounted on a glass slide with Eukitt mounting reagent (O Kindler, Germany). Two

sections from each animal were examined at 4 × magnification. Cortical bone area (mm²) was calculated by subtracting medullary area from cross section area. Periosteal perimeter (mm) was defined as the entire length surrounding the periosteal bone surface. Double-labeled perimeter (mm) was the periosteal perimeter labeled with double fluorochrome. Periosteal bone formation (mm²/day) was calculated as the area of bone between the tetracycline and demeclocycline label divided by the labeling period of 20 days. Periosteal mineral apposition rate (µm/day) was calculated as the periosteal bone formation rate divided by the double-labeled perimeter.

The proximal metaphyses with attached epiphyses were dehydrated through an ascending series of ethanol, infiltrated, embedded in methylmethacrylate and sectioned at a thickness of 5 µm (Reichert-Jung Supercut 2050 microtome, Heidelberg, Germany). Sections were mounted for unstained static and dynamic determination of cancellous bone (study I and II). The consecutive sections were stained for acid phosphatase to determine osteoclast number (study II).

Parameters determined from unstained sections

Longitudinal growth rate in studies I and II was the mean distance between the calcein labeling front located in the primary spongiosa and the demeclocycline in the mineralizing growth plate cartilage divided by the labeling interval of 7 days.

Estrogen deficiency stimulates both bone modeling and remodeling in growing rats. An alteration in longitudinal bone growth during the first month after ovariectomy would affect trabecular bone at the metaphysis (Wronski et al. 1988, Sibonga et al. 1998). To exclude an effect of longitudinal growth on bone turnover, a standard sampling site with an area of 2.5 mm² was established within the epiphysis, 0.25 mm distal to cortical bone. Bone volume was defined as the percentage of tissue volume consisting of cancellous bone. Double-labeled surface, expressed as percent of bone surface, was the trabecular surface covered with calcein and demeclocycline labels. Mineral apposition rate (µm/day) was the mean distance between the calcein and demeclocycline label divided by the interval of 7 days. Bone formation rate was the product of the double-labeled surface and mineral apposition rate. It was normalized per bone surface referent (BFR/BS, expressed as $\mu m^3/\mu m^2$ per day), bone volume referent (BFR/BV, expressed as %/day) or tissue referent (BFR/TV, expressed as %/day)

Parameters determined from stained sections

Osteoclasts, expressed as the percent tissue area in the zone of vascular invasion, were identified as large multinucleated cells with an acid phosphatase-positive cytoplasm lying adjacent to cartilage matrix.

	Sham (<i>n</i> =8)	OVX (n=12)
Parameters		
Bone volume/tissue volume (%)	37.31 ± 1.17	37.47 ± 1.29
Double-labeled surface/bone surface (%)	13.98 ± 1.21	$19.84 \pm 1.90*$
Mineral apposition rate (µm/day)	0.86 ± 0.04	1.03 ± 0.05 *
Bone formation rate (BFR)		
BFR/BS (μm ³ /μm ² per day)	0.12 ± 0.01	0.21 ± 0.03 *
BFR/BV (%/day)	0.23 ± 0.02	0.43 ± 0.06 *
BFR/TV (%/day)	0.09 ± 0.01	0.16 ± 0.03 *

Table 1 Effect of ovariectomy on cancellous bone histomorphometric measurements. Values are means \pm S.E.M.

Serum cholesterol

Blood samples were allowed to clot at room temperature for 2 h and centrifuged at 2500 r.p.m. for 15 min to obtain serum. Serum cholesterol was measured by the Immunochemical Laboratory Core Facility at the Mayo Clinic using an automated procedure (Roche Diagnostic System, Los Angeles, CA, USA). Cholesterol esters were hydrolyzed into cholesterol and free fatty acids by a cholesterol esterase. The cholesterol was then oxidized by cholesterol oxidase, producing hydrogen peroxide. The hydrogen peroxide was reacted with 4-amino-antipyrine and phenol, in the presence of peroxidase, to form a chromophore in an amount that was directly proportional to the cholesterol concentration and was read spectrophotometrically at 500 nm.

Histology of uterus

Five micron thick, paraffin embedded, hematoxylin- and eosin-stained uterine sections were used to determine epithelial cell height (µm) by light microscopy. The measurements reflected the mean height of the epithelial cell layer at numerous sites totaling a minimum perimeter length of 1.5 mm using Osteomeasure software.

Mammary gland sections and proliferation assay

PCNA was used to measure cells in S-phase as an index of proliferation. Five micron methacarn-fixed tissue sections were deparaffinized in xylene and rehydrated through a descending series of alcohol to water. Endogenous peroxidase activity was blocked using 3% hydrogen peroxide. The primary antibody, PCNA (Dako, Carpenteria, CA, USA), was applied to the tissue at a dilution of 1:50 for 60 min. The secondary antibody, a biotinylated rabbit anti-mouse antibody, was diluted 1:200 in 10% normal rabbit serum and incubated for 30 min. Finally, streptavidin-HRP (Dako, Carpenteria, CA, USA) at a dilution of 1:1000 was applied to the sections and incubated for 30 min. The PCNA signal was visualized using 3,3' diaminobenzidine. All washes were performed in

modified PBS (0.04 M K2HPO4, 0.01 M NaH2PO4, 0.13 M NaCl). Sections were lightly counterstained in modified Harris hematoxylin (diluted 1:10), followed by an ascending series of alcohol and xylene, and mounted with Permount. Computer-generated random numbers provided coordinates for measurement of PCNA incorporation. Forty high-powered fields (40 ×) were identified for each animal. Cells that incorporated PCNA, as identified by brown pigment over the nuclei and along the nuclear membrane, were counted and expressed as a percentage of the total nuclear area measured using a Cell Systems Analysis System (Chicago, IL, USA).

Statistical analyses

All data are presented as means \pm s.E.M. Unpaired *t*-test was used to determine the different between sham and OVX animals (study I). One-way ANOVA with Fisher's protected least significant difference post-hoc multiple comparison tests were used to compare the differences between multiple pairs of groups (studies II and III). Two-way ANOVA was performed to established the respective effects of E_2 and 2-OHE₁ or E_2 and 16α -OHE₁ (study II). A P value less than 0.05 was considered to be statistically significant.

Results

Study I

Twenty-seven days after surgery, body weight gain in OVX rats was significantly greater than that in sham controls (279 \pm 3 compared with 232 \pm 3 g). Ovariectomy had no effect on cancellous bone volume at the epiphysis, but increased dynamic indices of bone formation (doublelabeled surface/bone surface, mineral apposition rate and bone formation rate expressed per bone surface (BS), bone volume (BV) or tissue volume (TV)) as shown in Table 1. It also resulted in the expected increase in longitudinal bone growth and decrease in uterine wet weight (data not shown).

^{*}P<0.05 compared with sham group.

Table 2 Effects of continuous release of 2-OHE₁, 16α -OHE₁, E_2 +vehicle, and combinations of E_2 and 2-OHE₁, and E_2 and 16α -OHE₁ on body weight and serum cholesterol in OVX rats. Values are means \pm s.E.M. in baseline (n=10), vehicle (n=8), 2-OHE₁ (n=9), 16α -OHE₁ (n=9), E_2 +vehicle (n=9, or 6 as indicated), E_2 +2-OHE₁ (n=11, or 9 as indicated) and E_2 +16 α -OHE₁ (n=9) groups

	Body weig	ght	Serum concentration	
	Initial (g)		Cholesterol (mg/dl)	
Group				
Baseline	182 ± 3		92 ± 4	
Vehicle	184 ± 3	288 ± 4^{a}	102 ± 4^{a}	
2-OHE ₁	186 ± 2	285 ± 6^{a}	119 ± 3^{ab}	
16α-OHE ₁	184 ± 3	283 ± 3^{a}	112 ± 2^{ab}	
E ₂ +vehicle	182 ± 3	224 ± 3^{abcd}	117 ± 2^{ab} (6)	
E ₂ +2-OHE ₁	184 ± 2	224 ± 3^{abcd}	$134 \pm 4^{\text{abcde}}$ (9)	
$E_2 + 16\alpha - OHE_1$	184 ± 3	219 ± 3^{abcd}	123 ± 4^{abdf}	
Two-way ANOVA				
(i) E ₂	NS	0.0001	0.0002	
2-OHE₁	NS	NS	0.0001	
Interaction	NS	NS	NS	
(ii) E ₂	NS	0.0001	0.0005	
16α-OHE ₁	NS	NS	0.0181	
Interaction	NS	NS	NS	

P<0.05 compared with: ^abaseline group; ^bvehicle group; ^c2-OHE₁ group; ^d16α-OHE₁ group; ^eE₂+vehicle group; ^fE₂+2-OHE₁ group.

Study II

Table 2 shows the effects of 2-OHE₁, 16α -OHE₁, E_2 , and combination of E_2 and 2-OHE₁, and E_2 and 16α -OHE₁ pellets on body weight, and serum cholesterol. All groups

of animals gained weight during the 3-week treatment interval. Also, serum cholesterol increased in all groups compared with baseline. E_2 antagonized weight gain and increased serum cholesterol. Neither estrogen metabolite affected body weight. Both 2-OHE₁ and 16α -OHE₁ increased serum cholesterol. No interactions between E_2 and the estrogen metabolites were observed for body weight or serum cholesterol.

The cortical bone histomorphometry is summarized in Table 3. There was an age-related change due to radial bone growth as seen by increases in cross sectional and cortical bone area of all six treatment groups compared with the baseline group. No changes in static measurements were observed after one-way ANOVA among treatment groups, except for a reduced increase in cross sectional and marrow areas in rats treated with E_2+2 -OHE₁. Two-way ANOVA revealed that E₂ rather than 2-OHE₁ exerted those effects. For dynamic measurements, E₂ and 16α-OHE₁ but not 2-OHE₁ resulted in decreases in mineral apposition rate and periosteal bone formation compared with vehicle. Two-way ANOVA indicated 16α-OHE₁ and E₂ decreased double-labeled perimeter in addition to mineral apposition rate and periosteal bone formation. There was no interaction between E2 and the two metabolites for cortical bone measurements.

Longitudinal growth rate at the tibial metaphysis was significantly suppressed in animals treated with E_2 and 16α -OHE $_1$ but not 2-OHE $_1$ (Fig. 1). There was no interaction between E_2 and the metabolites, but E_2 +16 α -OHE $_1$ induced an additive effect.

The changes in cancellous histomorphometry are summarized in Table 4. Estrogen metabolites had no effect on

Table 3 Effects of continuous release of 2-OHE₁, 16α -OHE₁, E_2 +vehicle, and combinations of E_2 and 2-OHE₁, and E_2 and 16α -OHE₁ on cortical bone in OVX rats. Values are means \pm s.e.m.

	Cross section area (mm²)	Cortical bone area (mm²)	Medullary area (mm²)	Double-labeled perimeter (mm)	Mineral apposition rate (μm/day)	Periosteal bone formation (×10 ⁻³ mm ² /day)
Group						
Baseline $(n=10)$	4.00 ± 0.05	3.09 ± 0.04	0.91 ± 0.04			
Vehicle $(n=8)$	4.45 ± 0.07^{a}	3.47 ± 0.05^{a}	0.99 ± 0.04	7.51 ± 0.12	2.89 ± 0.12	21.81 ± 1.17
$2-OHE_1 (n=9)$	4.36 ± 0.08^{a}	3.38 ± 0.04^{a}	0.98 ± 0.06	6.98 ± 0.20	2.62 ± 0.19	18.37 ± 1.48
$16\alpha - OHE_1 (n=9)$	4.37 ± 0.10^{a}	3.41 ± 0.08^{a}	0.97 ± 0.05	6.88 ± 0.17	2.33 ± 0.12^{b}	16.18 ± 1.19^{b}
E_2 +vehicle (n =9)	4.28 ± 0.07^{a}	3.38 ± 0.07^{a}	0.91 ± 0.04	5.53 ± 0.34^{bcd}	2.15 ± 0.10^{bc}	11.96 ± 1.04^{bcd}
$E_2 + 2 - OHE_1 (n = 11)$	4.21 ± 0.08^{ab}	3.36 ± 0.05^{a}	0.85 ± 0.04^{bc}	5.38 ± 0.40^{bcd}	2.11 ± 0.15^{bc}	11.83 ± 1.65^{bcd}
$E_2 + 16\alpha - OHE_1 (n=9)$	4.28 ± 0.08^{a}	3.34 ± 0.06^{a}	0.94 ± 0.04	$4.59 \pm 0.44^{\text{bcde}}$	$1.72 \pm 0.11^{\text{bcdef}}$	$8.06 \pm 1.07^{\text{bcdef}}$
Two-way ANOVA						
(i) E ₂	0.0407	NS	0.0349	0.0001	0.0002	0.0001
2-OHE ₁	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS
Interaction	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS
(ii) E ₂	NS	NS	NS	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001
16α-OHE ₁	NS	NS	NS	0.0149	0.0001	0.0002
Interaction	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS

P<0.05 compared with: ^abaseline group; ^bvehicle group; ^c2-OHE₁ group; ^d16 α -OHE₁ group; ^eE₂+vehicle group; ^fE₂+2-OHE₁ group.

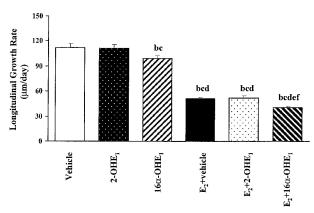


Figure 1 Tibial longitudinal growth rates in OVX rats receiving continuous release of vehicle, 2-OHE₁, 16α -OHE₁, E_2 +vehicle, E_2 + 2-OHE₁ and E_2 + 16α -OHE₁. The values are means+s.E.M. Significant differences (P<0·05) compared with: ^bvehicle; ^c2-OHE₁; ^d16α-OHE₁; ^eE₂+vehicle; ^fE₂+2-OHE₁. Two-way ANOVA revealed significant effects of E_2 and 16α -OHE₁, no effect of 2-OHE₁ and no interaction between the estrogen metabolites and E_2 .

BV/TV. Compared with vehicle group, E_2 treatment resulted in decreases in double-labeled surface, mineral apposition rate and bone formation rate. In contrast to cortical bone, not only 16α -OHE $_1$ but also 2-OHE $_1$ decreased bone formation rate whether expressed as BS, BV or TV. Two-way ANOVA revealed that the effects of 16α -OHE $_1$ and E_2 were largely additive. The one exception was bone formation rate (BFR/BV), for which a significant interaction term was noted, indicating similar but non-additive actions. Likewise, the actions of 2-OHE $_1$ and E_2 on BFR/BV and BFR/TV were similar but

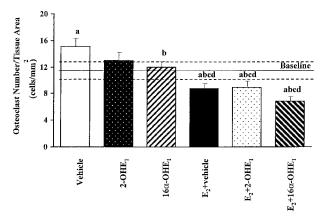


Figure 2 Osteoclast number/tissue area in OVX rats receiving continuous release of vehicle, 2-OHE₁, 16α -OHE₁, E_2 +vehicle, E_2 + 2-OHE₁ and E_2 + 16α -OHE₁. The values are means+s.ε.м. Significant differences (P<0·05) compared with: ^abaseline; ^bvehicle; ^c2-OHE₁; ^d16 α -OHE₁. Two-way ANOVA revealed significant effects of E_2 and 16α -OHE₁, no effect of 2-OHE₁ and no interaction between the estrogen metabolites and E_2 .

non-additive. The inhibitory effect of 2-OHE₁ on BFR/BS noted by one-way ANOVA was not significant by two-way ANOVA.

The effects of E_2 , 2-OHE₁ and 16α -OHE₁ pellets on osteoclast number are presented in Fig. 2. Compared with baseline, cancellous bone architecture measured at the epiphysis was unchanged in the vehicle-treated group (data not shown) but osteoclast number increased in the zone of vascular invasion. One-way and two-way ANOVA revealed decreases in osteoclast number in E_2 - and 16α -OHE₁-treated animals, and no effect of 2-OHE₁.

Table 4 Histomorphometric measurement of cancellous bone in OVX rats receiving continuous release of vehicle, 2-OHE₁, 16α -OHE₁, E_2 +vehicle, E_2 +2-OHE₁, and E_2 +16α-OHE₁. Values are means \pm s.e.m.

	Dono volumo/	Double-labeled	Mineral apposition rate (μm/day)	Bone formation rate (BFR)		
	Bone volume/ tissue volume (%)	surface (%)		BFR/BS (μm³/μm² per day)	BFR/BV (%/day)	BFR/TV (%/day)
Group						
Vehicle (n=8)	36.47 ± 1.58	23.02 ± 2.01	1.42 ± 0.09	0.33 ± 0.03	0.68 ± 0.08	0.24 ± 0.03
$2-OHE_1 (n=9)$	38.41 ± 1.28	19.53 ± 1.47	1.21 ± 0.05^{b}	0.24 ± 0.02^{b}	0.45 ± 0.05^{b}	0.17 ± 0.01^{b}
$16\alpha - OHE_1 (n=9)$	40.15 ± 1.62	17.00 ± 1.18^{b}	1.17 ± 0.04^{b}	0.20 ± 0.02^{b}	0.36 ± 0.04^{b}	0.14 ± 0.02^{b}
E_2 +vehicle (n=9)	39.99 ± 1.38	13.53 ± 0.78^{bc}	1.25 ± 0.05^{b}	0.17 ± 0.01^{bc}	0.28 ± 0.02^{bc}	0.11 ± 0.01^{bc}
$E_2 + 2 - OHE_1 (n = 11)$	38.56 ± 1.28	14.11 ± 1.81^{bc}	1.11 ± 0.05^{b}	0.16 ± 0.02^{bc}	0.29 ± 0.04^{bc}	0.11 ± 0.02^{bc}
$E_2 + 16\alpha - OHE_1 (n=9)$	37.70 ± 0.92	$8.20 \pm 0.70^{\text{bcdef}}$	$1.02 \pm 0.06^{\text{bce}}$	$0.08 \pm 0.01^{\text{bcdef}}$	$0.15 \pm 0.02^{\text{bcdef}}$	$0.06 \pm 0.01^{\text{bcdef}}$
Two-way ANOVA						
(i) E ₂	NS	0.0001	0.0271	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001
2-OHE ₁	NS	NS	0.0045	NS	0.0284	0.0331
Interaction	NS	NS	NS	NS	0.0168	0.0384
(ii) E ₂	NS	0.0001	0.0128	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001
16α-OHE ₁	NS	0.0001	0.0005	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001
Interaction	0.0398	NS	NS	NS	0.0234	NS

P<0.05 compared with: ^bvehicle group; ^c2-OHE₁ group; ^d16α-OHE₁ group; ^eE₂+vehicle group; ^fE₂+2-OHE₁ group.

Table 5 Effects of continuous release of 2-OHE₁, 16α-OHE₁, E₂+vehicle, and combinations of E₂ and 2-OHE₁, and E₂ and 16α-OHE₁ on uterine weight, epithelial cell height, and PCNA labeling. Values are means \pm S.E.M. in baseline $(n=10, \text{ or } 9 \text{ as indicated}), \text{ vehicle } (n=8), 2\text{-OHE}_1 (n=9), 16\alpha\text{-OHE}_1 (n=9),$ E_2 +vehicle (n=9), E_2 +2-OHE₁ (n=10, or 9 as indicated) and E_2 +16 α -OHE₁ group (n=9)

	Uterus	Mammary gland	
	Weight (g)	Epithelial cell height (μm)	PCNA labeling (% cells)
Group			
Baseline	0.180 ± 0.005	14.54 ± 0.41 (9)	
Vehicle	0.103 ± 0.005^{a}	12.20 ± 0.43	1.18 ± 0.30
2-OHE ₁	0.106 ± 0.004^{a}	14.69 ± 0.40	0.88 ± 0.36
16α-OHE ₁	0.101 ± 0.003^{a}	11.99 ± 0.30	1.10 ± 0.28
E ₂ +vehicle	0.408 ± 0.016^{abcd}	37.14 ± 1.27^{abcd}	5.77 ± 1.28^{bcd}
$E_2 + 2 - OHE_1$	0.363 ± 0.041^{abcd}	33.92 ± 3.52^{abcd}	$7.00 \pm 1.96^{\text{bcd}}$ (9)
$E_2 + 16\alpha - OHE_1$	0.416 ± 0.031^{abcd}	$32.09 \pm 1.34^{\text{abcde}}$	$6.01 \pm 1.97^{\text{bcd}}$
Two-way ANOVA			
(i) E ₂	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001
2-OHE ₁	NS	NS	NS
Interaction	NS	NS	NS
(ii) E ₂	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001
16α -OHE ₁	NS	0.0119	NS
Interaction	NS	0.0199	NS

P<0.05 compared with: ^abaseline group; ^bvehicle group; ^c2-OHE₁ group; ^d16α-OHE₁ group; eE2+vehicle group.

Uterine wet weight and epithelial cell height were measured (Table 5) to evaluate uterotropic estrogenic activity of the metabolite pellets. Compared with the baseline values obtained 6 days after ovariectomy, uterine wet weight in the vehicle group was decreased, but there was no change in epithelial cell height. Neither 2-OHE₁ nor 16α -OHE₁ had any additional effect on uterus. In contrast, E2 increased both uterine wet weight and epithelial cell height. 2-OHE₁ did not have any effect on E_2 -induced uterine hypertrophy. Interestingly, $E_2 + 16\alpha$ -OHE₁ decreased epithelial cell height, with no change in uterine wet weight. This antagonistic effect of 16α-OHE₁ on E2-stimulated increase in epithelial cell height was supported by a significant interaction of \boldsymbol{E}_2 and $16\alpha\text{-}OH\boldsymbol{E}_1$ by two-way ANOVA.

Mammary gland data are shown in Table 5. 2-OHE₁ and 16α-OHE₁ did not change PCNA labeling compared with that in vehicle-treated animals, but PCNA labeling was increased in the mammary glands excised from animals receiving E2 or combinations of E2 and the metabolites.

Study III

Figure 3 shows the dose-response effects of daily s.c. administration of 16α-OHE₁ on uterine wet weight. Similar to the effects in mature OVX rats, E2 exhibited a pronounced uterotropic effect in weanling rats. In contrast to continuous administration with pellets, daily injection of 16α -OHE₁ at a dose rate as low as 300 µg/kg per day increased uterine wet weight, and the uterine weight

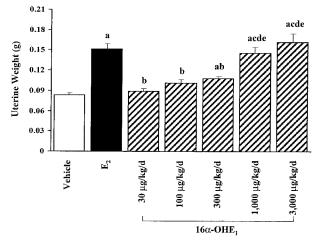


Figure 3 Uterine weight in weanling rats receiving daily injection of vehicle, E₂, and 30, 100, 300, 1000 and 3000 μg/kg per day (d) 16α-OHE₁. The values are means+s.E.M. Significant differences (P<0.05) compared with: avehicle; ${}^{b}E_{2}$; ${}^{c}30 \mu g/kg$ per day $16\alpha\text{-OHE}_1$; $^d100~\mu\text{g/kg}$ per day $16\alpha\text{-OHE}_1$; $^e300~\mu\text{g/kg}$ per day 16α-OHE₁.

induced by the 1000 and 3000 μ g/kg per day dose rates was similar to that in E₂-treated group.

Discussion

The present investigation highlights the differential biological responses of bone and reproductive tissues to continuous exposure to E_2 , 2-OHE $_1$ and 16α -OHE $_1$. This experiment was also designed to detect interactions between E_2 and the estrogen metabolites by choosing a dose of E_2 known to elicit submaximal estrogenic activity on target tissues (Sibonga *et al.* 1998). The results demonstrated that 16α -OHE $_1$ was an estrogen agonist with respect to serum cholesterol, longitudinal bone growth and cortical and cancellous bone measurements and a weak estrogen antagonist with respect to E_2 -induced uterine hypertrophy, whereas 2-OHE $_1$ was an estrogen agonist with respect to serum cholesterol and selected indices of cancellous bone turnover and without effect on reproductive tissues.

The estrogen agonistic effects elicited by either 2-OHE_1 or $16\alpha\text{-OHE}_1$ in this study appeared not to be the result of their biotransformation to E_2 , because serum concentrations of E_2 in 2-OHE_1 - and $16\alpha\text{-OHE}_1$ -treated animals were similar to those in the vehicle-treated group and less than that in E_2 -treated group (data not shown). We cannot rule out that some of the observed negative effects resulted from tissue specific O-methylation of 2-OHE_1 to 2-methoxyestrone. This estrogen metabolite has a much reduced affinity for estrogen receptors and is likely to be inactive. Similarly, at peripheral sites $16\alpha\text{-OHE}_1$ can be metabolized to estriol, which has a greater affinity for sex hormone binding globulin.

Previous studies using s.c. injection showed no effect of 2-OHE₁ on any of the estrogen target tissues evaluated (Westerlind et al. 1998). 2-OHE₁, which is known to bind to the classical estrogen receptor with a markedly reduced binding affinity compared with that of the parent hormone (Ball & Knuppen 1980, MacLusky et al. 1983, Van Aswegen et al. 1989, Feigelson & Henderson 1996), is unlikely to cause the long-term receptor occupancy in the nucleus of target cells necessary to produce estrogenic activity after brief exposure. In contrast, continuous infusion has been shown to have effects on some estrogen target tissues (Fishman & Martucci 1980). This is, however, the first study showing any activity of 2-OHE₁ on either the skeleton or serum cholesterol. We cannot rule out the possibility that greater dose rates of 2-OHE₁ would have had greater activity. However, the previous study (Westerlind et al. 1998) resulted in greatly increased concentrations of the metabolite and larger amounts were given in the present study. Thus it is unlikely that physiological circulating levels of 2-OHE₁ have activity on bone and other E2 target tissues.

Ovariectomy has been reported to increase serum cholesterol and this change can be prevented by treatment

with either E_2 (Black et al. 1994) or 16α -OHE₁ (Westerlind et al. 1998). E₂ was reported to decrease serum cholesterol by up-regulation of hepatic low-density lipoprotein receptor (Staels et al. 1989). The failure to decrease serum cholesterol with E2 and its metabolites observed in this study is not unique. Earlier findings of normocholesterolemia or mild hypercholesterolemia have been reported in animals receiving E2 (Ke et al. 1995, Westerlind et al. 1998). The effect of E₂ may depend in part upon the method of hormone administration: subcutaneous administration of E₂ results in hypercholesterolemia, whereas oral administration results in hypocholesterolemia, suggesting that first-pass metabolism in the liver is essential for cholesterol decreasing. This conclusion is supported by the failure to detect cholesterol decreasing by E2 in some transdermal studies in women (Hanggi et al. 1993).

The tibial shaft and proximal epiphysis are estrogen target sites (Westerlind et al. 1997, 1998). Estrogen deficiency induced by ovariectomy results in an increase in periosteal bone growth in the shaft, in addition to increased bone turnover at the epiphysis. The magnitude of change in cancellous bone turnover at the epiphysis is comparable to or greater than that observed at the more commonly measured metaphysis (Wronski et al. 1985, Turner et al. 1987, Westerlind et al. 1994). Dynamic bone measurements in the epiphysis, unlike those in the metaphysis, are not influenced by growth in the young sexually mature rat. In addition, even prolonged estrogen deficiency has no effect on cancellous bone volume of the epiphysis, whereas the metaphysis becomes severely osteopenic (Westerlind et al. 1997). Our data demonstrated that E2 decreased periosteal bone formation rate by 45%, whereas it reduced cancellous bone formation rate by 48%, 59% and 54%, when normalized to BS, BV and TV respectively. Similar results were obtained in 16α -OHE₁-treated ovariectomized rats. Thus, 16α -OHE₁ influenced both bone growth and bone turnover. 2-OHE₁, in contrast, had limited effects on cancellous bone.

The basis for any responses to estrogen metabolites is believed to be mediated by their direct interaction with $\rm E_2$ receptor. The importance of the $\rm E_2$ receptor is supported by cell culture studies using the human fetal osteoblastic cell line, hFOB/ER9, in which the effects of 16α -OHE $_1$ were abolished by the estrogen receptor antagonist ICI 182780 (Robinson *et al.* 2000).

Estrogen is required for proliferation and differentiation of mammary tissue. 16α -OHE₁ binds to E₂ receptor and has been implicated in developing mammary tumors (Schneider *et al.* 1982, Bradlow *et al.* 1985, 1986). However, the lack of 16α -OHE₁ effect on PCNA labeling in this study is similar to a previous finding (Westerlind *et al.* 1998). Furthermore, more recent studies question the role of 16α -hydroxylation of estrogen in tumor development (Gupta *et al.* 1998).

It was reported that 2-OHE₁ exhibited partial estrogen receptor antagonism in MCF-7 breast cancer cells, as a result of the production of free radicals during metabolic redox cycling, to induce DNA damage (Schneider et al. 1984, Vandewalle & Lefebvre 1989). However, we observed no effect of continuous release 2-OHE₁ pellets on mammary gland. Stimulation may not occur in mammary tissue in vivo because the product of local O-methylation of the 2-hydroxylated estrogen metabolite undergoes a rapid clearance (Lipsett et al. 1983, Emons et al. 1987).

Uterine wet weight in the vehicle group was less than that of the baseline group. In contrast, the epithelial cell height did not differ between the two groups, suggesting that some but not all of the effects of OVX on the uterus were fully established at the start of the experiment. Uterine epithelial cell height in age-matched ovary-intact rats from a parallel study was $19.32 \pm 1.07 \mu m$, confirming that OVX resulted in a decrease in the thickness of the epithelium (unpublished data). Continuous infusion of 2-OHE₁ did not increase uterine wet weight or increase epithelial cell height when administered to OVX animals, nor did it antagonize the stimulatory actions of estrogen. Although 2-OHE₁ has been shown to act as a weak estrogen antagonist in some cell culture models (Schneider et al. 1984, Vandewalle & Lefebvre 1989), our results demonstrate that this estrogen metabolite is unlikely to function as an anti-estrogen in reproductive tissues in vivo.

The observed dose-response effects of daily s.c. administration of 16α-OHE₁ on uterine weight in weanling rats confirmed previous findings in 3-month-old rats (Westerlind et al. 1998). These findings contrast with those from continuous infusion of 16α -OHE₁ which was not an estrogen agonist with respect to either uterine wet weight or epithelial cell height and was a weak estrogen antagonist with respect to epithelial cell height. Thus the tissue-selective actions of this estrogen metabolite are most pronounced when it is continuously present in the circulation.

SERMs, such as tamoxifen and raloxifene, exhibit tissue-selective estrogen agonism which is superficially similar to that of 16α-OHE₁. However, the respective mechanisms of action of these two classes of estrogen appear to differ. SERMs compete effectively with E2 for ligand binding sites on estrogen receptors. As a consequence, the tissue-selective agonistic/antagonistic profile of SERMs is inherent to how these compounds bind to the ligand binding site (Evans & Turner 1995). In contrast, neither estrogen metabolite was very effective in antagonizing the stimulatory actions of a submaximal dose of E₂ on reproductive tissues. This observation, combined with their inactivity in the reproductive tract in the absence of E₂, strongly suggests that the tissue-selective actions of estrogen metabolites are related to local metabolism.

Uterine growth requires retention of the estrogen receptor-ligand complex in the nucleus of target cells (Anderson et al. 1975). 16α -OHE₁ and 2-OHE₁ have much lower affinities for the estrogen receptor than E2 and thus must be present at greater concentrations to be effective. A greater rate of clearance in reproductive tissues compared with that in bone could contribute to the observed tissue selective actions of the metabolites. This speculation is supported by the observation that the method of delivery of 16α-OHE₁ has a dramatic influence upon the uterotropic response to 16α -OHE₁.

In summary, our data confirm that two important estrogen metabolites in postmenopausal women, 2-OHE₁ and 16α-OHE₁, have distinctly different activities on bone metabolism in growing female rats. 16α-OHE₁ is an estrogen agonist, whereas 2-OHE₁ had minimal activity. These findings may be relevant to determining individual differences in the rates of bone loss after the menopause. In addition, the estrogen metabolites exhibited target-tissue specificity, which was more probably due to differences in their local metabolism than to SERM-like activity. This latter conclusion, if confirmed, reveals a novel strategy for optimizing hormone replacement therapy.

Acknowledgements

The authors gratefully acknowledge Dr Jean Sibonga, Ms Glenda Evans and Ms Donna Jewison for technical guidance and assistance. We also thank Ms Heidi McCarty for measuring PCNA labeling in mammary tissue. These studies were supported by the National Institutes of Health grant No. AR45233, the National Aeronautics and Space Administration through the NASA Cooperative Agreement NCC 9-58 with the National Space Biomedical Research Institute and the Mayo Foundation.

References

Anderson JN, Peck EJ Jr & Clark JH 1975 Estrogen-induced uterine responses and growth: relationship to receptor estrogen binding by uterine nuclei. Endocrinology 96 160-167.

Ball P & Knuppen R 1980 Catecholestrogens (2- and 4-hydroxyestrogens): chemistry, biogenesis, metabolism, occurrence and physiological significance. Acta Endocrinologica Supplementum 232 1-127.

Black LJ, Sato M, Rowley ER, Magee DE, Bekele A, Williams DC, Cullinan GJ, Bendele R, Kauffman RF, Bensch WR, Frolik CA, Termine JD & Bryant HU 1994 Raloxifene (LY139481 HCI) prevents bone loss and reduces serum cholesterol without causing uterine hypertrophy in ovariectomized rats. Journal of Clinical Investigation 93 63-69.

Bradlow HL, Hershcopf RJ, Martucci CP & Fishman J 1985 Estradiol 16α-hydroxylation in the mouse correlates with mammary tumor incidence and presence of murine mammary tumor virus: a possible model for the hormonal etiology of breast cancer in humans. PNAS 82 6295-6299.

Bradlow HL, Hershcopf RJ, Martucci C & Fishman J 1986 16α-Hydroxylation of estradiol: a possible risk marker for breast cancer. Annals of the New York Academy of Sciences 464 138-151.

- Cauley JA, Gutai JP, Kuller LH, Scott J & Nevitt MC 1994 Blackwhite differences in serum sex hormones and bone mineral density. American Journal of Epidemiology 139 1035–1046.
- Cavolina JM, Evans GL, Harris SA, Zhang M, Westerlind KC & Turner RT 1997 The effects of orbital spaceflight on bone histomorphometry and messenger ribonucleic acid levels for bone matrix proteins and skeletal signaling peptides in ovariectomized growing rats. Endocrinology 138 1567-1576.
- Emons G, Merriam R, Pfeiffer D, Loriaux DL, Ball P & Knuppen R 1987 Metabolism of exogenous 4- and 2-hydroxyestradiol in human male. Journal of Steroid Biochemistry 28 499-504.
- Evans GL & Turner RT 1995 Tissue-selective actions of estrogen analogs. Bone 17 181S-190S.
- Feigelson HS & Henderson BE 1996 Estrogens and breast cancer. Carcinogenesis 17 2279-2284.
- Fishman J & Martucci C 1980 Biological properties of 16αhydroxyestrone: implications in estrogen physiology and pathophysiology. Journal of Clinical Endocrinology and Metabolism 51 611-615.
- Gupta M, McDougal A & Safe S 1998 Estrogenic and antiestrogenic activities of 16α- and 2-hydroxy metabolites of 17β-estradiol in MCF-7 and T47D human breast cancer cells. Journal of Steroid Biochemistry and Molecular Biology 67 413-419.
- Hanggi W, Birkhauser MH, Malek A, Peheim E & von Hospenthal JU 1993 Cyclical gestagen (MPA) supplement for continuous transdermal or oral estrogen substitution in postmenopause: modification of serum lipids. Geburtshilfe und Frauenheikunde 53
- Hodge J, Roodman-Weiss J, Lyss C, Wagner D, Klug T & Civitelli R 1995 Increased inactive estrogen metabolites in urine of early postmenopausal women with low bone density. Seventeenth Annual Meeting of the American Society for Bone and Mineral Research, Maryland. Abstract S444
- Ke HZ, Simmons HA, Pirie CM, Crawford DT & Thompson DD 1995 Droloxifene, a new estrogen antagonist/agonist, prevents bone loss in ovariectomized rats. Endocrinology 136 2435-2441.
- Kidder LS & Turner RT 1998 Dietary ethanol does not accelerate bone loss in ovariectomized rats. Alcoholism: Clinical and Experimental Research 22 2159-2164.
- Leelawattana R, Ziambaras K, Roodman-Weiss J, Lyss C, Wagner D, Klug T, Armamento-Villareal R & Civitelli R 2000 The oxidative metabolism of estradiol conditions postmenopausal bone density and bone loss. Journal of Bone and Mineral Research 15 2513-2520
- Lipsett MB, Merriam GR, Kono S, Brandon DD, Pfeiffer DG & Loriaux DL 1983 Metabolic clearance of catechol estrogens. In Catechol Estrogen, pp 105-114. Eds GR Merriam & MB Lipsett. New York: Raven Press.
- MacLusky NJ, Barnea ER, Clark CR & Naftolin F 1983 Catechol estrogens and estrogen receptors. In Catechol Estrogens, pp 151-165. Eds GR Merriam & MB Lipsett. New York: Raven Press.
- Martucci CP & Fishman J 1993 P450 enzymes of estrogen metabolism. Pharmacology and Therapeutics 57 237-257.
- Robinson JA, Water KM, Turner RT & Spelsberg TC 2000 Direct action of naturally occurring estrogen metabolites on human osteoblastic cells. Journal of Bone and Mineral Research 15 499-506.
- Schneider J, Kinne D, Fracchia A, Pierce V, Anderson KE, Bradlow HL & Fishman J 1982 Abnormal oxidative metabolism of estradiol in women with breast cancer. PNAS 79 3047-3051.
- Schneider J, Huh MM, Bradlow HL & Fishman J 1984 Antiestrogen action of 2-hydroxyestrone on MCF-7 human breast cancer cells. Journal of Biological Chemistry 259 4840-4845.

- Sibonga ID, Bell NH & Turner RT 1998 Evidence that ibuprofen antagonizes selective actions of estrogen and tamoxifen on rat bone. Journal of Bone and Mineral Research 13 863-870.
- Staels B, Auwerx J, Chan L, van Tol A, Rosseneu M & Verhoeven G 1989 Influence of development, estrogens and food intake on apolipoproteins AI, AII and E mRNA in rat liver and intestine. Journal of Lipid Research 30 1137-1145.
- Swaneck GE & Fishman J 1988 Covalent binding of the endogenous estrogen 16α-hydroxyestrone to estradiol receptor in human breast cancer cells: characterization and intranuclear localization. PNAS 85 7831-7835.
- Taioli E, Garte SJ, Trachman J, Garbers S, Sepkovic DW, Osborne MP, Mehl S & Bradlow HL 1996 Ethnic differences in estrogen metabolism in healthy women (letter). Journal of the National Cancer
- Turner RT, Vandersteenhoven JJ & Bell NH 1987 The effects of ovariectomy and 17 beta-estradiol on cortical bone histomorphometry in growing rats. Journal of Bone and Mineral Research 2 115-122.
- Turner RT, Wakley GK, Hannon KS & Bell NH 1987 Tamoxifen prevents the skeletal effects of ovarian hormone deficiency in rats. Journal of Bone and Mineral Research 2 449-456.
- Turner RT, Riggs BL & Spelsberg TC 1994 Skeletal effects of estrogen. Endocrine Reviews 15 275-300.
- Van Aswegen CH, Purdy RH & Wittliff JL 1989 Binding of 2-hydroxyestradiol and 4-hydroxyestradiol to estrogen receptor from human breast cancers. Journal of Steroid Biochemistry 32 485-492.
- Vandewalle B & Lefebvre J 1989 Opposite effects of estrogen and catecholestrogen on hormone-sensitive breast cancer cell growth and differentiation. Molecular and Cellular Endocrinology 61 239-246.
- Vermeulen A 1976 The hormonal activity of the postmenopausal ovary. Journal of Clinical Endocrinology and Metabolism 42 247-253.
- Westerlind KC, Wronski TJ, Evans GL & Turner RT 1994 The effect of long-term ovarian hormone deficiency on transforming growth factor-beta and bone matrix protein mRNA expression in rat femora. Biochemical and Biophysical Research Communications 200 283-289.
- Westerlind KC, Wronski TJ, Ritman EL, Luo Z, An KN, Bell NH & Turner RT 1997 Estrogen regulates the rate of bone turnover but bone balance in ovariectomized rats is modulated by prevailing mechanical strain. PNAS 94 4199-4204.
- Westerlind KC, Gibson KJ, Malone P, Evans GL & Turner RT 1998 Differential effects of estrogen metabolites on bone and reproductive tissues of ovariectomized rats. Journal of Bone and Mineral Research 13 1023-1031.
- Wronski TJ, Lowry PL, Walsh CC & Ignaszewski LA 1985 Skeletal alterations in ovariectomized rats. Calcified Tissue International 37 324-328.
- Wronski TJ, Cintron M & Dann LM 1988 Temporal relationship between bone loss and increased bone turnover in ovariectomized rats. Calcified Tissue International 43 179-183.

Received 24 February 2001 Accepted 7 March 2001