

Molecular Determinants of Magnolol Targeting Both RXR α and PPAR γ

Haitao Zhang¹, Xing Xu¹, Lili Chen, Jing Chen, Lihong Hu*, Hualiang Jiang, Xu Shen*

State Key Laboratory of Drug Research, Shanghai Institute of Materia Medica, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Shanghai, China

Abstract

Nuclear receptors retinoic X receptor α (RXR α) and peroxisome proliferator activated receptor γ (PPAR γ) function potently in metabolic diseases, and are both important targets for anti-diabetic drugs. Coactivation of RXR α and PPAR γ is believed to synergize their effects on glucose and lipid metabolism. Here we identify the natural product magnolol as a dual agonist targeting both RXR α and PPAR γ . Magnolol was previously reported to enhance adipocyte differentiation and glucose uptake, ameliorate blood glucose level and prevent development of diabetic nephropathy. Although magnolol can bind and activate both of these two nuclear receptors, the transactivation assays indicate that magnolol exhibits biased agonism on the transcription of PPAR-response element (PPRE) mediated by RXR α :PPAR γ heterodimer, instead of RXR-response element (RXRE) mediated by RXR α :RXR α homodimer. To further elucidate the molecular basis for magnolol agonism, we determine both the co-crystal structures of RXR α and PPAR γ ligand-binding domains (LBDs) with magnolol. Structural analyses reveal that magnolol adopts its two 5-allyl-2-hydroxyphenyl moieties occupying the acidic and hydrophobic cavities of RXR α L-shaped ligand-binding pocket, respectively. While two magnolol molecules cooperatively accommodate into PPAR γ Y-shaped ligand-binding pocket. Based on these two complex structures, the key interactions for magnolol activating RXR α and PPAR γ are determined. As the first report on the dual agonist targeting RXR α and PPAR γ with receptor-ligand complex structures, our results are thus expected to help inspect the potential pharmacological mechanism for magnolol functions, and supply useful hits for nuclear receptor multi-target ligand design.

Citation: Zhang H, Xu X, Chen L, Chen J, Hu L, et al. (2011) Molecular Determinants of Magnolol Targeting Both RXR α and PPAR γ . PLoS ONE 6(11): e28253. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0028253

Editor: Peter Csermely, Semmelweis University, Hungary

Received: August 19, 2011; **Accepted:** November 4, 2011; **Published:** November 29, 2011

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Funding: This work was supported by the State Key Program of Basic Research of China (2010CB912501, 2009CB918502), the National Natural Science Foundation of China (90713046, 21021063, 10979072, 30890044, 30801415), and Science Foundation of Shanghai (11XD1406100). The funders had no role in study design, data collection and analysis, decision to publish, or preparation of the manuscript.

Competing Interests: The authors have declared that no competing interests exist.

* E-mail: xshen@mail.shcnc.ac.cn (XS); simmhulh@mail.shcnc.ac.cn (LH)

† These authors contributed equally to this work.

Introduction

Nuclear receptors are ligand-regulated transcription factors, involving multiple signalling pathways, among which RXR α and PPAR γ are in the central positions. RXR α plays its role in diverse physiological processes, including cell development, apoptosis, and homeostasis [1,2]. And it predominantly expresses in liver, kidney, epidermis and intestine [3]. RXR α agonists have been found to exhibit glucose-lowering, insulin-sensitizing, as well as anti-obesity effects [4]. For example, LGD1069, which is approved for the treatment of cutaneous T-cell lymphoma, also shows decreased fasting plasma glucose and insulin in *ob/ob* mice [5]. While another RXR α agonist LG100268 exhibits its efficiency in reducing fasting plasma glucose and improving insulin resistance [6]. Thus, RXR α agonists have great potentials for the treatment of metabolic diseases.

PPAR γ distributes in adipose tissue, regulating adipocyte differentiation, lipid storage, inflammation, hypertension, and atherosclerosis [7]. It has favourable effects on glucose uptake, lipid metabolism and energy expenditure. Moreover, its activation promotes adipogenesis and insulin sensitivity [8]. PPAR γ agonists are reported to exhibit a variety of pharmacological potentials in anti-hyperglycemia, anti-hyperinsulinemia, and lowering triglycerides in adipose, muscle and liver [9]. Thiazolidinediones (TZDs)

targeting PPAR γ , such as Rosiglitazone and Pioglitazone, have been approved to improve insulin sensitivity. Considering the undesirable side effects of TZDs [9], a new type of chemical compounds with therapeutic properties but different from TZDs are in urgent needs.

Once activated by their agonists, RXR α and PPAR γ translocate into the nucleus forming RXR α :RXR α homodimer or RXR α :PPAR γ heterodimer, which subsequently binds to RXRE or PPRE to initial their target genes transcription, respectively [10]. Recently, there are increasing numbers of reports on the synergistic effects of RXR α and PPAR γ agonists. As indicated, coactivation of RXR α and PPAR γ exhibits enhanced efficiencies in the metabolism of glucose and lipid [11], as well as the inhibition of cancer cell migration and invasiveness [12]. Combined treatment with RXR α and PPAR γ agonists also inhibit nitric oxide and tumor necrosis factor- α production in rat Kupffer cells [13], and suppress proliferation of immortalized endometrial stromal cells [14]. All these facts have thus addressed the pharmacological significances of RXR α and PPAR γ coactivation by their agonists. However, the dual agonist that binds and activates both RXR α and PPAR γ has not been reported by far.

In the current work, we screen our house in-lab library of natural products for RXR α and PPAR γ agonists. Interestingly, we find that magnolol is a dual agonist of both RXR α and PPAR γ .

Magnolol (5,5'-diallyl-2,2'-dihydroxybiphenyl, **Figure 1A**) is one of the main constituents from the stem bark of *Magnolia officinalis*, which is used in the traditional Chinese medicine to cure cough, diarrhea and allergic rhinitis [15]. Magnolia bark was also suggested to be effective in combating metabolic syndrome [16]. Treatment with magnolol decreased fasting blood glucose and plasma insulin levels, and prevented the pathological complications in type 2 diabetic rats [17]. Remarkably, magnolol was reported to enhance adipocyte differentiation and glucose uptake in 3T3-L1 adipocyte cells [18] and prevent the development of diabetic nephropathy [17]. Moreover, the high glucose-induced TGF β 1 and fibronectin expressions were inhibited by magnolol *via* ERK/MAPK/Akt signalling pathway in human retinal pigment epithelial cells under diabetic conditions [19], while the anti-oxidative and hepatoprotective effects of magnolol were shown on liver damage in rats [20].

Although magnolol can bind and activate both RXR α and PPAR γ , the transactivation results shows biased agonism of magnolol to induce the transcription of PPRE mediated by RXR α :PPAR γ heterodimer, instead of RXRE mediated by RXR α :RXR α homodimer. To reveal the molecular basis for magnolol function, we determine the crystal structures of both RXR α LBD-magnolol and PPAR γ LBD-magnolol. Based on these two complex structures, we find that magnolol adopts surprising binding modes on RXR α and PPAR γ with key interactions for magnolol agonism determined. Therefore, our results are expected to not only shed light on the potential pharmacological application for magnolol, but also supply useful hits for multi-target drug design based on the nuclear receptors.

Results and Discussion

In the discovery of new ligands from the lab in-house natural products library against RXR α and PPAR γ , we construct a screening platform based on in-cell mammalian one hybrid assays. Among the natural products with the activities to activate either RXR α or PPAR γ , magnolol unexpectedly shows its agonistic functions on both of these two nuclear receptors, with EC₅₀ values of 10.4 μ M and 17.7 μ M, respectively (**Figure 1B and C**). Additionally, the magnolol-induced RXR α and PPAR γ activations can be suppressed by the known RXR α and PPAR γ antagonists HX531 and GW9662, respectively (**Figure 1B and C**), implying that magnolol takes its effects by targeting both of these two nuclear receptors. We further perform surface plasmon resonance (SPR) technology based experiments to detect the physical binding of magnolol to the purified RXR α LBD and PPAR γ LBD. As indicated in **Figure 1D and E**, magnolol dose-dependently binds to RXR α LBD and PPAR γ LBD with K_D values of 45.7 μ M and 1.67 μ M, respectively.

As nuclear receptors, RXR α and PPAR γ need to recruit their coactivators to initiate the transcription of target genes [4]. Thus we further investigate whether magnolol can enhance these two nuclear receptors binding to the common coactivator steroid receptor coactivator-1 (SRC1) using SPR based technology. As indicated in **Figure 1F**, magnolol can increase RXR α LBD-SRC1 interactions in a dose-dependent manner. However, this natural product exhibits no effect on SRC1 recruitment to PPAR γ LBD (**Figure 1G**). Considering there are many other coactivators for PPAR γ function [7], magnolol may probably take its effect by recruiting other coactivator instead of SRC1 for PPAR γ involved transcription.

In activation of the downstream genes transcription, RXR α and PPAR γ have to form RXR α :RXR α homodimer and RXR α :PPAR γ heterodimer binding to their response elements. Thus we

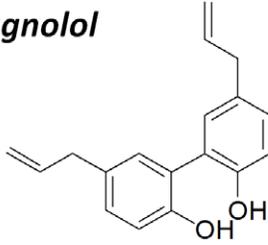
further evaluate the effects of magnolol on the activities of RXR α :RXR α homodimer and RXR α :PPAR γ heterodimer using transactivation analyses on their response elements RXRE and PPRE. As indicated in **Figure 2A and B**, magnolol induces the transcription of PPRE in a dose-dependent manner. However, this compound exhibits no activity on RXRE transcription. Moreover, the magnolol-effect on PPRE transcription can be suppressed by both RXR α and PPAR γ antagonists HX531 and GW9662, respectively (**Figure 2B**), which is in good accordance to our in-cell mammalian one hybrid assays (**Figure 1B and C**). It thus indicates that magnolol binding to both RXR α and PPAR γ is required to activate PPRE transcription. Additionally, magnolol exhibits lower activities in their lower concentrations, compared to PPAR γ agonist Rosiglitazone (**Figure 2C**). However, magnolol surprisingly shows equal activities to Rosiglitazone in their high concentrations, indicating magnolol is a PPAR γ full agonist (**Figure 2C**). In conclusion, we identify magnolol from the natural product library functioning as a dual agonist of both RXR α and PPAR γ , with the biased transcriptional activity on PPRE instead of RXRE.

As indicated in the previously reported crystal structures of RXR α ligand-binding domain complex with agonists, the essential activation function-2 (AF-2) motif in RXR α exhibits significant conformational changes. AF-2 motif overturns itself to cover the ligand-binding pocket upon agonist binding, thus exposing the surface for recruiting the coactivator SRC1 and initializing the transcription of target genes [21,22,23]. The typical chemical structure of RXR α agonist consists of the acidic and hydrophobic moieties to adapt the L-shaped ligand-binding pocket of RXR α [5,6]. Different from previously reported RXR α agonists, magnolol possesses two identical 5-allyl-2-hydroxyphenyl moieties. Thus we wonder how magnolol functions as an agonist of RXR α . To reveal the molecular basis for magnolol binding and activating RXR α , we determine the crystal structure of RXR α LBD-magnolol complex with SRC1 coactivator peptide. Magnolol-bound RXR α LBD exhibits a dimeric packing of RXR α . The electron density around magnolol is shown in **Figure 3A**. Magnolol binds into the hydrophobic ligand-binding pocket, and induces conserved conformational changes of AF-2 motif for SRC1 coactivator peptide recruitment. Magnolol is found to adapt itself to an L-shaped conformation, with two 5-allyl-2-hydroxyphenyl moieties occupying each side of the L-shaped pocket, respectively. The typical RXR α agonists always form a hydrogen bond with Arg316 in the C-terminus of helix 5 [5,6]. However, magnolol uses one hydroxyl group to form a hydrogen bond with Asn306 in the N-terminus of helix 5 (**Figure 3B**). Such an interaction induces an overturning of Asn306, compared with the known agonist 9-*cis*-retinoic acid-bound RXR α LBD structure (**Figure 3B**). Moreover, helix 3 is observed to bend towards the ligand-binding pocket from its position in apo RXR α LBD structure, which is consistent with the known agonist-bound RXR α LBD structures [5,6]. Therefore, from our determined crystal structure of RXR α LBD-magnolol-SRC1, the agonist magnolol employs a distinct binding mode for RXR α activation by interacting with Asn306 in the N-terminus of helix 5, instead of Arg316 in the C-terminus of helix 5. And magnolol adapts its two 5-allyl-2-hydroxyphenyl moieties occupying the hydrophobic and acidic sides of the pocket, respectively.

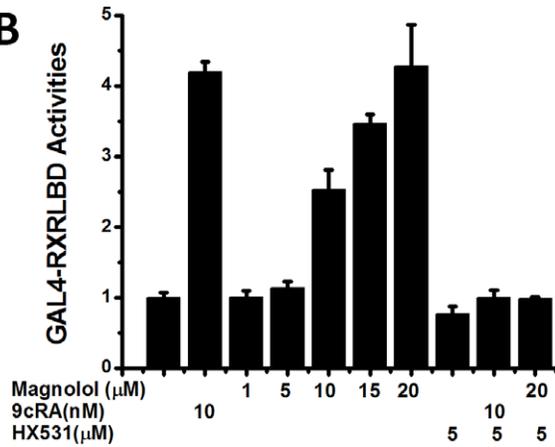
Different from RXR α with the L-shaped ligand-binding pocket, PPAR γ uses a much larger Y-shaped pocket for ligand-binding [24]. And PPAR γ ligand-binding pocket can be divided into two sub-pockets, AF-2 sub-pocket and β -sheet sub-pocket [24]. PPAR γ agonists are categorized as full and partial agonists, depending on their activities in the cell-based reporter assays [25]. It is suggested

A

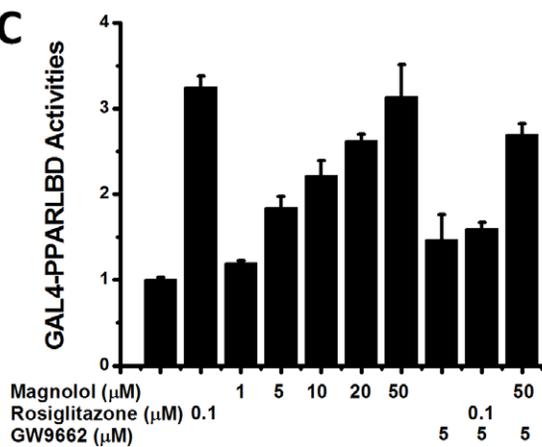
Magnolol



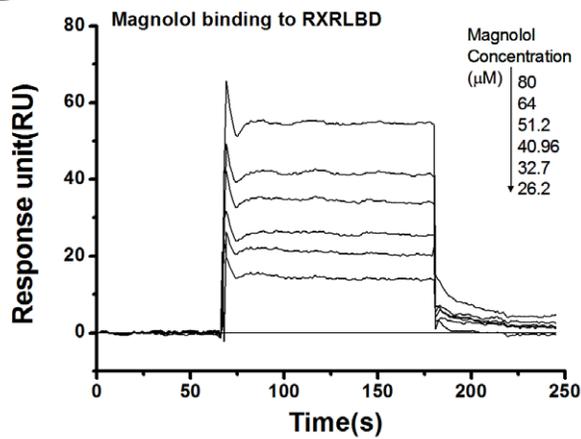
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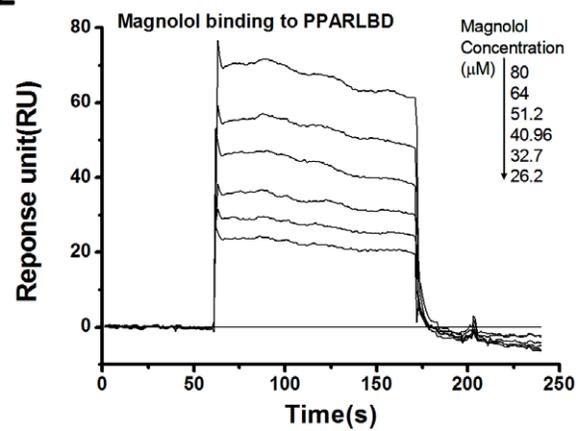
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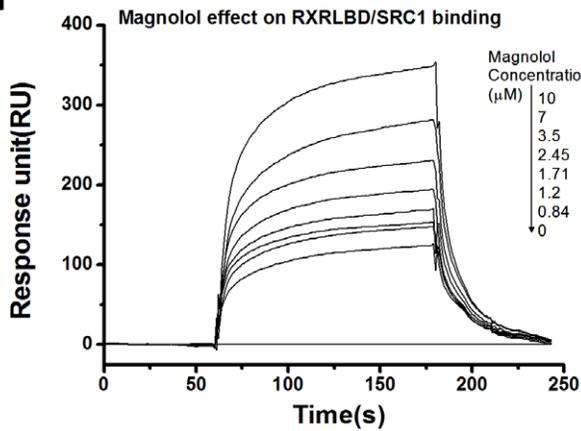
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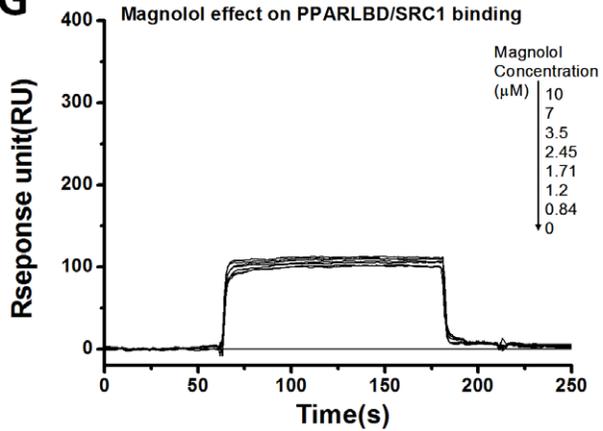


Figure 1. Magnolol as a dual agonist of RXR α and PPAR γ . (A) Chemical structure of magnolol. (B–C) Magnolol dose-dependently activated the transcription of GAL4DBD-RXR α LBD (B) and GAL4DBD-PPAR γ LBD (C) in HEK-293T cells, which could be suppressed by RXR α antagonist HX531 and PPAR γ antagonist GW9662, respectively. RXR α agonist 9-*cis*-retinoic acid (9cRA) and PPAR γ agonist Rosiglitazone were used as positive controls. (D–E) Magnolol dose-dependently bound to RXR α LBD (D) and PPAR γ LBD (E) in SPR technology based assays. (F–G) Magnolol dose-dependently enhanced SRC1 recruitment to RXR α LBD (F), instead of PPAR γ LBD (G) in SPR technology based assays.
doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0028253.g001

that PPAR γ partial agonists bind only β -sheet sub-pocket, while full agonists always occupy both AF-2 and β -sheet sub-pockets to activate PPAR γ [26]. Magnolol is determined to be a full agonist of PPAR γ in the current work (Figure 2C). Thus we wonder how magnolol binds such a Y-shaped pocket for PPAR γ activation. In our determined crystal structure of PPAR γ LBD-magnolol, the electron density map around magnolol is shown in Figure 3C. Interestingly, two magnolol molecules are found in PPAR γ ligand-binding pocket, one in AF-2 sub-pocket and the other in β -sheet sub-pocket. The hydroxyl group of magnolol in AF-2 sub-pocket forms a hydrogen bond with Ser289 in helix 3, as well as water-mediated hydrogen bonds with Tyr473 in AF-2 motif (Figure 3D). Direct interactions between agonist and AF-2 motif are believed to play a crucial role in the conformational changes of PPAR γ AF-2 motif, and surface formation for coactivator recruitment [26]. On the other side, the hydroxyl group of magnolol in β -sheet sub-pocket interacts with Ser342 in β -sheet with a hydrogen bond (Figure 3D). Moreover, there is also a water-mediated hydrogen bond with magnolol in β -sheet sub-pocket to further stabilize the ligand binding (Figure 3D). Our findings have thus revealed an unexpected binding mode of magnolol on PPAR γ , with two identical chemical compounds binding two different sub-pockets, which probably lead for new PPAR γ agonists design.

To evaluate the degree of cooperativity of the two magnolol molecules binding to PPAR γ , Hill coefficient is determined. The value of approximately 2 indicates that magnolol binding is positively cooperative, and both the binding sites can bind magnolol simultaneously. Thus two magnolol molecules cooperatively induce PPAR γ activation by interacting with both AF-2 motif and β -sheet, respectively. Furthermore, the fact that two magnolol molecules cooperatively bind to PPAR γ also explains the reason why magnolol exhibits lower activities on PPRE transcription, compared to PPAR γ agonist Rosiglitazone (Figure 2C). Although magnolol and Rosiglitazone are both PPAR γ full agonists, their transactivation curves indicate their different mechanisms (Figure 2C). Only one molecule of Rosiglitazone is necessary for PPAR γ activation, while two magnolol molecules are required to bind PPAR γ . Considering that the magnolol-effect on PPRE transcription can also be suppressed by RXR α antagonist HX531, and HX531 can inhibit RXR α agonist 9cRA activity on PPRE, it thus suggests that magnolol binding to RXR α is also necessary for PPRE transcription. Therefore, totally three magnolol molecules are required for PPRE transcription, with one molecule binding to RXR α and two molecules binding to PPAR γ .

Magnolol was once characterized as a PPAR γ agonist with the computer aided modelling [27]. However, our co-crystal structure of PPAR γ LBD-magnolol reveals a distinct ligand binding mode. As indicated in Figure 3D, magnolol in AF-2 sub-pocket is found to form not only a hydrogen bond with Ser289 in helix 3, but also water-mediated hydrogen bonds with Tyr473 in AF-2 motif. On the other side, in β -sheet sub-pocket of PPAR γ , magnolol interacts with Ser342 in β -sheet (Figure 3D), instead of Gly284 that was determined by the computer aided modelling. Moreover, we also find a water-mediated hydrogen bond with magnolol in β -sheet sub-pocket to further stabilize the ligand binding (Figure 3D). Considering that the water-mediated interactions within

PPAR γ LBD-magnolol is still delicate to be determined by the computer based modelling, our co-crystal structure is expected to supply further insights into the future computer based modelling.

Honokiol, an analogue of magnolol, shares some certain biological properties with magnolol [28]. And honokiol was reported to have anti-angiogenic, anti-inflammatory and antitumor functions, but the mechanisms of honokiol actions are still elusive. Here we find that magnolol targets both RXR α LBD and PPAR γ LBD, thus how honokiol interacts with these two nuclear receptors will be of potentially important and interesting. Moreover, knowledge of mechanisms of magnolol and honokiol actions may assist novel synthetic analogues development in the future.

From the RXR α LBD-magnolol and PPAR γ LBD-magnolol structures, it is suggested that the hydroxyl groups of magnolol play essential roles in the receptor-ligand interactions. In RXR α LBD-magnolol structure, the hydroxyl group of magnolol contacts with Asn306 in helix 5 of RXR α . While, in PPAR γ LBD-magnolol structure, the hydroxyl groups from the two bound ligands interact with Ser342 in β -sheet, Tyr473 in AF-2 motif, and Ser289 in helix 3 of PPAR γ , respectively. Additionally, magnolol adopts surprising binding modes on these two nuclear receptors. Although magnolol is big enough to accommodate mostly the L-shaped RXR α ligand-binding pocket, two magnolol molecules have to cooperatively occupy the much larger Y-shaped PPAR γ ligand-binding pocket. Furthermore, the single bond connecting the two 5-allyl-2-hydroxyphenyl moieties of magnolol endows this chemical compound flexibility to fit the different pocket sizes of RXR α and PPAR γ . As shown in Figure 4A, magnolol molecules exhibit three different conformations when it binds to RXR α and PPAR γ . Figure 4B and C show the key secondary structures of RXR α and PPAR γ , with which magnolol makes direct interactions. Our findings are in good accordance with that the homo-/heterodimeric interface and coactivator binding surface of RXR α and PPAR γ are critical for both of these two nuclear receptors activation. And all of these secondary structures of RXR α and PPAR γ are conserved in the agonist binding and interactions. Considering the large differences between RXR α L-shaped pocket and PPAR γ Y-shaped pocket, future dual agonist design may focus on PPAR γ sub-pockets, since each PPAR γ sub-pocket has a similar size to the whole pocket of RXR α . The agonist which can accommodate to RXR α ligand-binding pocket and the two PPAR γ sub-pockets with preferred activities will probably have potentials to activate both of these two nuclear receptors.

Materials and Methods

Luciferase assays

Mammalian one hybrid and transactivation experiments were performed using luciferase assays in HEK293T (human embryonic kidney) cells (obtained from ATCC). Transient transfection was conducted using Lipofectamine 2000 (Invitrogen) according to the manufacturer's guideline. For the mammalian one hybrid tests for RXR α or PPAR γ , UAS-TK-Luc reporter plasmid was co-transfected with GAL4DBD-RXR α LBD or GAL4DBD-PPAR γ LBD. For the transactivation assays of RXRE or PPRE, pGL3-RXRE-Luc was co-transfected with pcDNA3.1-RXR α , or

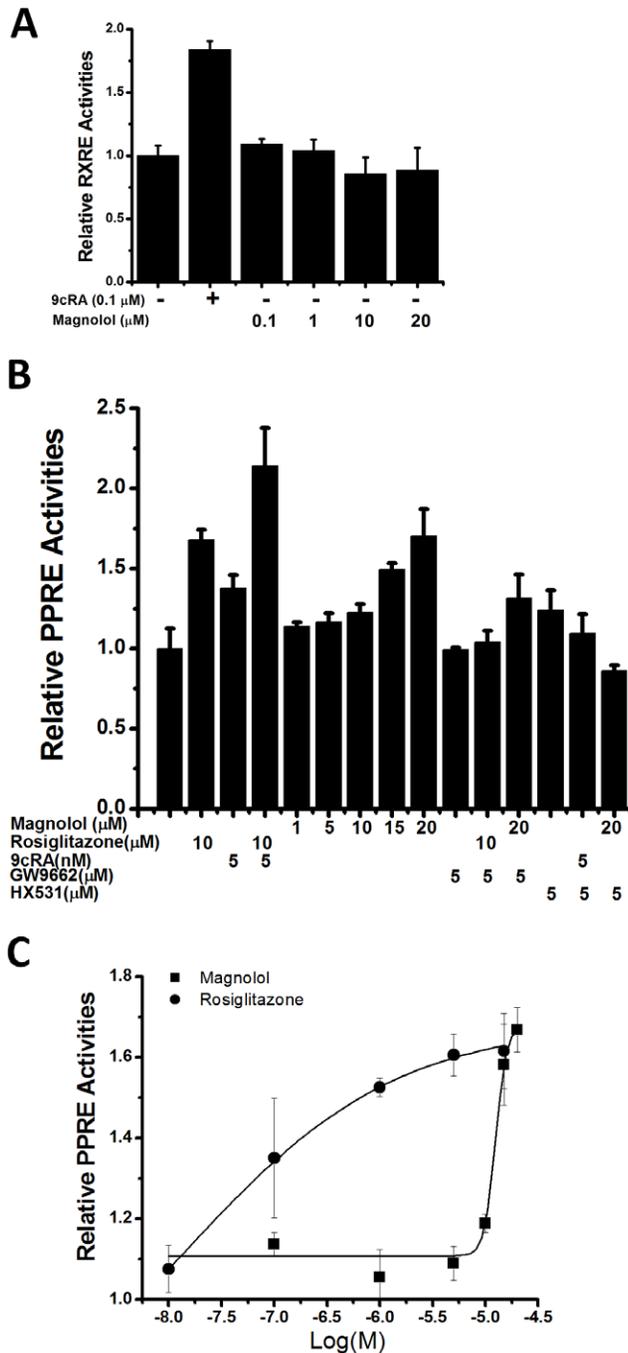


Figure 2. Magnolol as a biased agonist on PPRE transcription. (A–B) Magnolol could not activate the transcription of RXRE mediated by RXR α :RXR α homodimer (A), while activating the transcription of PPRE mediated by RXR α :PPAR γ heterodimer in a dose-dependent manner (B). RXR α agonist 9cRA, RXR α antagonist HX531, PPAR γ agonist Rosiglitazone, and PPAR γ antagonist GW9662 were used as controls. (C) Activating curves of magnolol and Rosiglitazone on PPRE transcription indicated that magnolol was a PPAR γ full agonist, although magnolol exhibited lower activities in their lower concentrations. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0028253.g002

pGL3-PPRE-Luc was co-transfected with both pcDNA3.1-RXR α and pcDNA3.1-PPAR γ . Cells were incubated with varied concentrations of compounds for 24 h. The known RXR α agonist 9-*cis*-retinoic acid (9cRA), RXR α antagonist HX531, PPAR γ

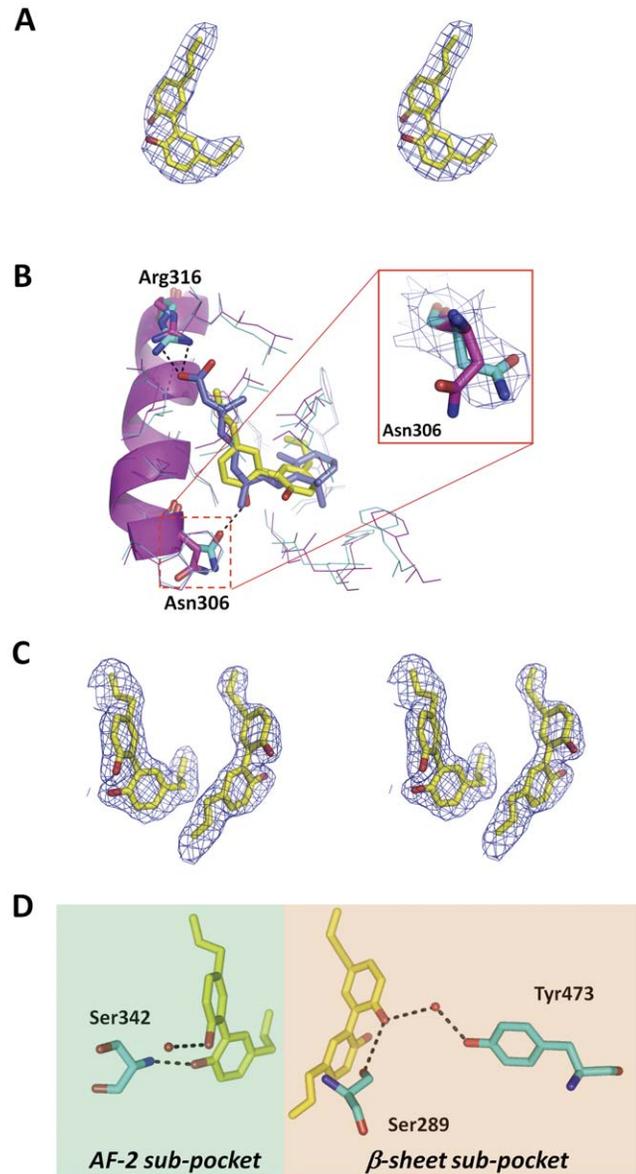


Figure 3. Crystal structures of RXR α LBD-magnolol-SRC1 and PPAR γ LBD-magnolol. (A) Electron density of magnolol bound into RXR α ligand-binding pocket in stereo view (contoured at 1.0 σ level). (B) Comparison of receptor-ligand interactions between 9cRA-bound and magnolol-bound RXR α LBDs. 9cRA (in blue sticks) formed hydrogen bonds with Arg316 (in magenta sticks) in the C-terminus of helix 5 (in magenta ribbon), while magnolol (in yellow sticks) formed hydrogen bonds with Asn306 (in cyan sticks) in the N-terminus of helix 5. Density map around Asn306 was shown in the right to indicate its conformational changes. All other hydrophobic residues involving 9cRA (in magenta lines) or magnolol interactions were the same (shown in cyan lines). (C) Electron density map of magnolol bound into PPAR γ ligand-binding pocket in stereo view (contoured at 1.0 σ level). (D) The two magnolol molecules formed hydrogen bonds with Ser342 in β -sheet, Tyr473 in AF-2 motif, and Ser289 in helix 3 of PPAR γ , as well as water-mediated hydrogen bonds. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0028253.g003

agonist Rosiglitazone, and PPAR γ antagonist GW9662 were used as controls. All compounds were purchased from Sigma, dissolved in DMSO, and prepared to different concentrations. Luciferase activities were then measured using Dual Luciferase Assay System kit (Promega).

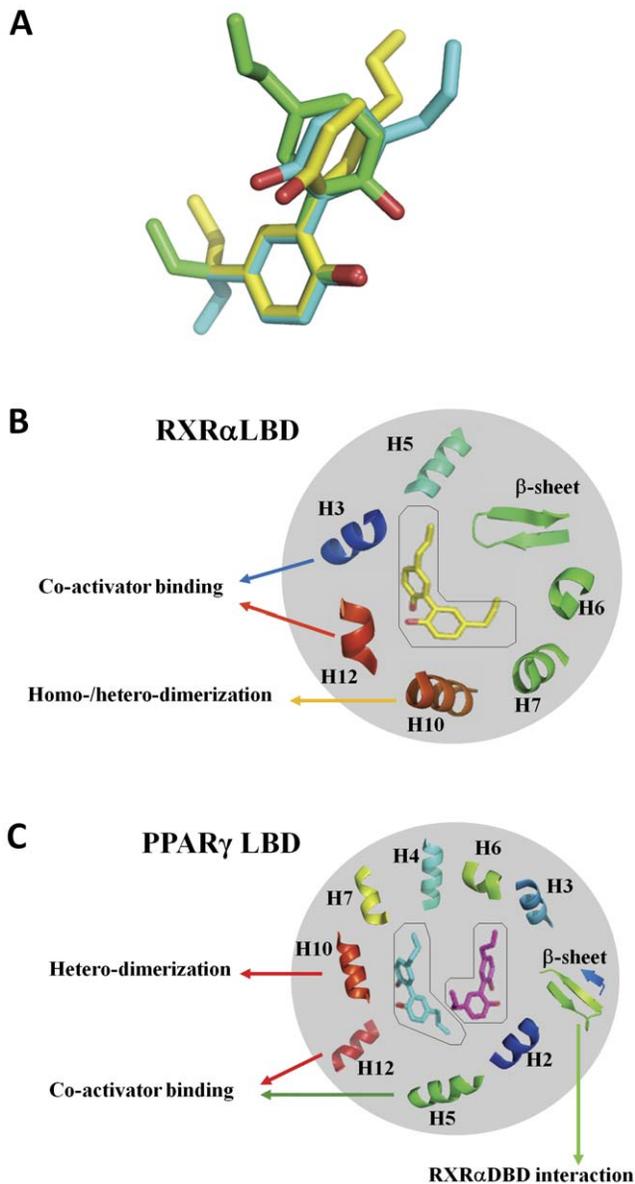


Figure 4. Key interactions for magnolol function on RXR α and PPAR γ . (A) Magnolol exhibited three different conformations upon binding into RXR α and PPAR γ ligand-binding pockets. Magnolol in RXR α ligand-binding pocket was shown in yellow, while the two magnolol molecules in PPAR γ ligand-binding pocket were shown in green and cyan, respectively. (B–C) Secondary structures with which magnolol interacted were shown in both RXR α (B) and PPAR γ (C) ligand-binding pockets. The functions of these secondary structures in the coactivator recruitment, homo-/heterodimerization and DNA-binding domain (DBD) interactions were indicated. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0028253.g004

Protein expression and purification

The coding sequence of human RXR α LBD (residues 221–458) was cloned to the vector pET15b, and *E. coli* strain BL21 (DE3) was used for protein expression. The culture was induced with 0.5 mM IPTG and incubated at 25°C for 6 hours. His-tagged RXR α LBD was purified with Ni-NTA resin (Qiagen) and the tag was then removed by Thrombin (Novagen). The protein was further purified with Superdex 200 (Amersham Pharmacia Biotech).

The coding sequence of human PPAR γ LBD (residues 204–477) was cloned to the vector pGEX6P-1. GST-PPAR γ LBD was expressed with 0.2 mM IPTG at 18°C for 6 hours. GST-tag was removed by PreScission protease (GE Healthcare). The protein was further purified with Superdex 200 (Amersham Pharmacia Biotech).

The SRC-1 coactivator peptide was commercially synthesized with the sequence KHKILHRLLDSS.

Surface plasmon resonance (SPR) technology based assays

Binding affinities of magnolol towards purified RXR α LBD and PPAR γ LBD were analyzed using Biacore 3000 instrument (GE Healthcare). Proteins were covalently immobilized to CM5 chip using a standard amine-coupling procedure in 10 mM sodium acetate buffer (pH 4.2). The chip was equilibrated with a continuous flow of running buffer (10 mM HEPES, pH 7.4, 150 mM NaCl, 3 mM EDTA, 0.005% (v/v) surfactant P20) for 2 hours. Subsequently, magnolol in a gradient of concentrations were injected into the channels at a flow rate of 20 μ L/min for 60 seconds, followed by disassociation for 120 seconds. For the coactivator SRC1 recruitment assays, biotin-labelled SRC1 was immobilized to SA chip. Different concentrations of magnolol were incubated with 5 μ M RXR α LBD or PPAR γ LBD for 1 hour, and then injected to the channel at a flow rate of 20 μ L/min for 60 s, followed by disassociation for 120 s.

Crystallization

All crystallization experiments were performed by hanging-drop method at 20°C. RXR α LBD was mixed with SRC-1 coactivator

Table 1. Data collection and refinement statistics.

	RXR α LBD-magnolol-SRC1	PPAR γ LBD-magnolol
Data collection		
Space group	$P2_1 2_1 2_1$	$P4_3 2_1 2$
Cell dimensions		
<i>a</i> , <i>b</i> , <i>c</i> (Å)	65.95, 65.83, 110.29	66.04, 66.04, 155.26
α , β , γ (°)	90, 90, 90	90, 90, 90
Resolution (Å)	32.9–2.8 (2.85–2.80) ^[a]	40.0–2.0 (2.07–2.00)
R_{sym} or R_{merge}	0.056 (0.381)	0.053 (0.398)
<i>I</i> / σ <i>I</i>	11.8 (2.7)	51.8 (7.2)
Completeness (%)	98.8 (99.7)	94.2 (90.7)
Redundancy	3.6 (3.6)	5.9 (6.3)
Refinement		
Resolution (Å)	32.9–2.8	40.0–2.0
No. reflections	11 863	20 400
$R_{\text{work}}/R_{\text{free}}$	0.249/0.292	0.188/0.213
No. atoms	3 678	2 194
<i>B</i> -factors	47.1	41.0
R.m.s. deviations		
Bond lengths (Å)	0.008	0.006
Bond angles (°)	1.103	0.968
Ramachandran plot (%)		
Most favored regions	95.5	98.0
Allowed regions	4.5	2.0

^[a]Values in parenthesis are for highest resolution shell. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0028253.t001

peptide and magnolol in a ratio of 1:3:5. Crystals grew in the condition of 100 mM Tris, pH 7.5, 20% PEG3350. For the PPAR γ LBD-magnolol complex, the ratio of PPAR γ LBD:magnolol was 1:5. Crystals grew in the condition of 4 M sodium formate.

Data collection and structure determination

Diffraction data was collected at BL17U of Shanghai Synchrotron Radiation Facility in China, and integrated with HKL2000 [29]. Phasing and refinement were carried out with Refmac5 [30]. Model building was manually performed with COOT [31]. The statistics of the data collection and structure refinement were summarized in Table 1. Atomic coordinates and structure factors of RXR α LBD-magnolol-SRC1 and PPAR γ LBD-magnolol have

been deposited to Protein Data Bank under accession codes 3R5M and 3R5N.

Acknowledgments

We thank BL17U of Shanghai Synchrotron Radiation Facility (SSRF) in China for data collection.

Author Contributions

Conceived and designed the experiments: HZ LC JC LH HJ XS. Performed the experiments: HZ XX. Analyzed the data: HZ XX LC JC LH HJ XS. Contributed reagents/materials/analysis tools: LH. Wrote the paper: HZ XS.

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