R-Ketorolac Targets Cdc42 and Rac1 and Alters Ovarian Cancer Cell Behaviors Critical for Invasion and Metastasis

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Abstract

Cdc42 (cell division control protein 42) and Rac1 (Ras-related C3 botulinum toxin substrate 1) are attractive therapeutic targets in ovarian cancer based on established importance in tumor cell migration, adhesion, and invasion. Despite a predicted benefit, targeting GTPases has not yet been translated to clinical practice. We previously established that Cdc42 and constitutively active Rac1b are overexpressed in primary ovarian tumor tissues. Through high-throughput screening and computational shape homology approaches, we identified R-ketorolac as a Cdc42 and Rac1 inhibitor, distinct from the anti-inflammatory, cyclooxygenase inhibitory activity of S-ketorolac. In the present study, we establish R-ketorolac as an allosteric inhibitor of Cdc42 and Rac1. Cell-based assays validate R-ketorolac activity against Cdc42 and Rac1. Studies on immortalized human ovarian adenocarcinoma cells (SKOV3ip) and primary patient-derived ovarian cancer cells show that R-ketorolac is a robust inhibitor of growth factor or serum-dependent Cdc42 and Rac1 activation with a potency and cellular efficacy similar to small-molecule inhibitors of Cdc42 (CID2950007/ML141) and Rac1 (NSC23766). Furthermore, GTPase inhibition by R-ketorolac reduces downstream p21-activated kinases (PAK1/PAK2) effector activation by >80%. Multiple assays of cell behavior using SKOV3ip and primary patient-derived ovarian cancer cells show that R-ketorolac significantly inhibits cell adhesion, migration, and invasion. In summary, we provide evidence for R-ketorolac as a direct inhibitor of Cdc42 and Rac1 that is capable of modulating downstream GTPase-dependent, physiologic responses, which are critical to tumor metastasis. Our findings demonstrate the selective inhibition of Cdc42 and Rac1 GTPases by an FDA-approved drug, racemic ketorolac, that can be used in humans. Mol Cancer Ther; 14(10); 1–13. ©2015 AACR.

Introduction

Ovarian cancer is the leading cause of gynecologic cancer deaths in the United States with a 45% 5-year survival rate (1). Often associated with malignant ascites, which facilitates metastasis, most patients are diagnosed at advanced stages with dissemination throughout the intraperitoneal cavity (2). Recent understanding of the etiology of “ovarian cancer” suggests that the majority of serious ovarian cancers originate from dysplastic fallopian tubes (3). Metastatic spread of ovarian cancer beyond the ovary or fallopian tube is mediated by surface shedding of tumor cells and formation of free-floating multicellular aggregates in the ascites fluid. Subsequent mesothelial anchoring and invasion of the submesothelial matrix leads to secondary lesions on peritoneal organs and surfaces (4). Consequently, the first line of treatment involves major debulking surgery to remove as much tumor burden as possible, most often followed by intraperitoneal chemotherapeutic treatment in optimally debulked patients after recovery from surgery. Therefore, targeting tumor cell adhesion, migration, and invasion in the perioperative period, during which tumor dissemination may occur and impact ovarian cancer recurrence, presents an important potential window of opportunity for treatment that has not yet been extensively explored (5, 6).

It is well established that Rho family (Ras homolog) GTPases are central to dynamic actin cytoskeletal assembly and rearrangement that are the underpinnings of normal cell–cell adhesion, cell migration, and even transformation (7). Among the Rho family GTPases, Cdc42 (cell division control protein 42) and Rac1 (Ras-related C3 botulinum toxin substrate 1) are of particular interest on account of their frequent overexpression or hyperactivation in epithelial cancers, including ovarian cancer (8–12). In response to extracellular stimuli, Cdc42 and Rac1 GTPase transition from an inactive GDP-bound status to an active GTP-bound status and interact with downstream effectors to propagate changes in cell behaviors (7). For example, activated Cdc42 and Rac1 phosphor-

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actin reorganization and subsequently regulate cell adhesion, migration, and invasion (13). Furthermore, the Rac1–PAK signaling axis lies immediately downstream of growth factor-activated Ras signaling and in ovarian cancer has been shown to modulate epithelial-to-mesenchymal transition (EMT) and angiogenesis (14, 15). Therefore, it is of interest to investigate the utility of Cdc42 and Rac1 as points of intervention in the intraperitoneal spread of ovarian cancer.

While Cdc42 and Rac1 are potential high value, therapeutic targets in ovarian and other cancers, key gaps remain in translating known GTPase inhibitors into clinical application. Statins are HMG–CoA reductase inhibitors that indirectly act as broad spectrum GTPase inhibitors by interfering with the prenylation required for functionally essential membrane association (16). Cancer risk reductions associated with statin use are reported for breast, colorectal, and pancreatic cancers (17–19). The benefit in ovarian cancer is mixed and subtype specific (20), motivating the identification and testing of more selective GTPase inhibitors. Several GTPase-targeted inhibitors have been identified with various modes of action. Yet, irrespective of whether they affect signaling (e.g., NSC23766, secramine; refs. 21, 22), nucleotide-binding ability [e.g., CID2950007 (PubChem compound identification for Cdc42 GTPase inhibitor); ref. 23], or effector-binding activity (e.g., Y27632; ref. 24), none have as yet been translated to human use.

Using a combination of high-throughput screening and computational simulation, the R- enantiomer of ketorolac was identified as a selective Cdc42 and Rac1 inhibitor, without effect on RhoA (25). K etorolac is clinically administered as a racemic mixture for pain relief, based on the activity of S-ketorolac as a cyclooxygenase inhibitors or other analgesics and anesthetics, which has been selectively ascribed to ketorolac and not a general property of its Cdc42 and Rac1 inhibitory activity (25). Published literature on breast, lung, and kidney cancer patients and our own data on ovarian cancer patients demonstrates that besides its analgesic function, ketorolac has significant benefit for patient survival (6,12,29,30). The mechanism of anticancer action is not clear, yet appears to be selectively ascribed to ketorolac and not a general property of cyclooxygenase inhibitors or other analogues and anesthetics (6, 31, 32). This suggests that ketorolac possesses an additional property. In the current study, a human patient immortalized ovarian cancer cell line (SKOV3ip) and primary ascites-derived ovarian cancer cells were used to demonstrate that R-ketorolac acts as an allosteric inhibitor of Cdc42 and Rac1 nucleotide binding activities in vitro and blocks their activation and downstream activation of the PAK signaling axis. As a consequence of the inhibition, there is a reduction in ovarian cancer cell adhesion, migration, and invasion. Taken together, the data demonstrate the potential for repurposing R-ketorolac, an FDA-approved drug in the racemic form, for improved patient benefit in progression-free and overall survival.

Materials and Methods

Cell and reagents

The human ovarian adenocarcinoma epithelial cell line SKOV3ip was derived from SKOV3 cell line by selecting for a peritoneal metastatic phenotype in the mice and was obtained under a Material Transfer Agreement with MD Anderson Cancer Center (Houston, TX) in June 24, 2009. The ascites derived ovarian cancer cells were obtained from nine patients from 2012 to 2015. SKOV3ip cell line was authenticated using short tandem repeat analysis (performed by Promega). SKOV3ip cells and primary ovarian cancer cells were cultured in RPMI1640 media containing 5% FBS (Atlanta Biologicals). All cell culture media and reagents were purchased from Gibco (Life Technologies). R- and S-ketorolac were from Toronto Research Chemical Inc. BODIPY-GTP ((4,4-difluoro-4-bora-3a,4a-diaza-s-indacene or dipyromethene boron difluoride) nucleotide analogue) was from Invitrogen Molecular Probes. Rat tail type I collagen was obtained from BD Biosciences. NSC23766 was from Sigma-Aldrich. Glutathione S-transferase (GST)-tagged GTPases were purified as described previously (33). GST-PAK1 protein was from Millipore. A polyclonal antibody directed against Tks5 (Src tyrosine kinase substrate 5) was prepared as described previously (34). The following commercial antibodies were used: mouse monoclonal antibody (mAb) directed against Rac1 from BD Transduction Laboratories, mouse mAb directed against Cdc42 from Santa Cruz Biotechnology, fluorescein isothiocyanate (FITC)-conjugated mouse mAb directed against epithelial cell adhesion molecule (Epcam; clone Ber-Ep4) from Dako; rabbit polyclonal Cy5-conjugated anti-CA125 (cancer antigen 125) from Bios Inc., mouse mAb phycocerythrin (PE)-conjugated anti-CD45 (lymphocyte common antigen 45) from eBioscience, rabbit polyclonal antibodies directed against phospho-PAK1 (Ser144)/PAK2 (Ser141), phospho-PAK1 (Ser199/204)/PAK2 (Ser192/197), phospho-PAK1 (Thr423)/PAK2 (Thr402), and PAK1 from Cell Signaling Technology, Alexa 488 goat anti-mouse antibody, and Alexa 647 goat anti-rabbit antibody from Life Technology, all used as per the manufacturer's instructions.

Patient information

A phase 0 trial investigating the use of postoperative ketorolac was reviewed and approved by the University of New Mexico Health Sciences Center Human Research Review Committee (NCT01670799 clinicaltrials.gov; ref. 35). Informed patient consent was obtained prior to surgery. Eligible patients having suspected advanced stage ovarian, fallopian tube, or primary peritoneal cancer underwent planned optimal cytoreductive surgery. Upon surgical entry into the abdomen, ascites fluid was retrieved and residual material was recovered and sent fresh to the investigators for processing. Ascites material used for this study was from patients confirmed to have stage III or IV at final pathologic diagnosis. Nine patient samples were included in the study (Supplementary Table S1).

Isolation and cell culture of ascites-derived primary ovarian cancer cells

Peritoneal ascites were obtained at the time of debulking surgery with an average volume of 200 mL. Cells were collected by centrifugation at 300 × g for 5 minutes. The Ficoll–Paque (1.073 ± 0.001 g/mL) PREMIUM density gradient media (GE Healthcare) was used to pellet and remove erythrocytes and polymorphonuclear cells. The mononuclear white cells and tumor cells found at the top of the ficoll interface were transferred to a sterile tube and washed with RPMI1640 media with 5% FBS. To deplete leukocytes and further enrich tumor cells, samples were incubated with CD45-coated Dynabeads (Life Technologies) for 1.5 hours at 4°C, washed, and collected by centrifugation according to the manufacturer’s protocol. Isolated tumor cells were cultured as described by Shepherd and colleagues (36). Briefly,
enriched ovarian cancer cells were cultured on collagen-coated (20 µg/cm²) tissue culture dishes. After 3 to 4 days, when most of the tumor cells had adhered, the media were replaced and continued to be changed every 2 to 3 days until cells grew to confluence. The expanded cells were used for filopodia formation, cell adhesion, migration, and extracellular matrix degradation assays.

Synthesis of GSH beads for flow cytometry assay

High-density GSH-conjugated beads were synthesized for flow cytometry assays by loading Superdex peptide beads with GSH as previously reported (37).

Flow cytometric BODIPY-GTP–binding assay

The assay was carried out according to the protocols described previously (37). Briefly, individual GST-GTPases were attached to their respective GSH beads and combined. In the equilibrium assay, 2 × 10⁶ GSH beads loaded with GST-GTPase were preincubated with either dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO) or a fixed compound concentration for 15 minutes followed by the incubation with varying concentrations of BODIPY-GTP for 30 minutes at room temperature. In the dose–response assay, 2 × 10⁵ GSH beads loaded with GST-GTPase were preincubated with DMSO or increasing concentration of the compound for 15 minutes followed by the incubation with a fixed concentration of BODIPY-GTP for 30 minutes at room temperature. For measurement, samples were diluted at least 10-fold and delivered and analyzed by the BD FACScan flow cytometer.

Flow cytometric GTPase effector–binding assay for quantification of active, cellular GTPase levels

The assay was carried out according to the protocols described previously (38). Ketorolac-treated and vehicle control cells were lysed in RIPA (high stringency cell lysis buffer) buffer (50 mmol/L Tris–HCl, 150 mmol/L NaCl, 1 mmol/L EDTA, 0.25% (w/v) Na deoxycholate, 1 mmol/L Na₃VO₄, 1 mmol/L NaF, 1% (v/v) NP-40 (nonyl phenoxypolyethoxylethanol), 1 mmol/L phenylmethyl-sulfonyl fluoride and protease inhibitors consisting 10 µg/mL each of chymostatin, leupeptin, pepstatin, and antipain). Insoluble debris was removed by centrifugation, and the supernatants were incubated with GTPase effector–coated beads (PAK1–PBD for Cdc42 and Rac1) for 1 hour. Primary antibodies directed against Cdc42 or Rac1 and secondary antibody Alexa 488 were incubated with the beads for 1 hour. Fluorescence intensity mean channel fluorescence (MCF) was used to measure the amount of active intracellular GTPase. MCF was measured by flow cytometry (Accuri C6, BD Biosciences). GTPase activity was calculated as [(MCFsample group – MCFunstimulated negative control)/MCFstimulated positive control].

Quantification of filopodia formation

The assay was conducted as described previously (23). Cells were cultured on coverslips to 50% confluence and serum-starved for 2 hours, treated with individual drugs and stimulated with 10 ng/mL EGF for 20 minutes. Cells were gently rinsed three times with ice-cold PBS and fixed with 3% paraformaldehyde. Rhodamine phalloidin was used to label the actin. Images were collected using a Zeiss laser scanning microscope (LSM) 510 confocal microscope equipped with a 63× oil immersion lens. For each experiment, a battlement pattern was used to select 30 images at random. Length and number of filopodia per cell were quantified using Slidebook 5.5 software.

Cell adhesion assay

The adhesion assay was modified from the method described by M.J. Humphrie (39). Cells were cultured at least for 48 hours and disassociated with 0.05% trypsin/EDTA. Suspended cells were rested in 0% FBS media for 1 hour and treated with individual drugs. Cells stimulated with 5% serum were seeded on a 96-well plate (5 × 10⁴ cells/well) coated with 0.5 µg/cm² fibronectin or collagen and permitted to attach for 1 hour. The 96-well plate was gently washed with PBS and cells were fixed with 3% paraformaldehyde. Samples were stained with crystal violet and lysed with 10% acetic acid and absorbance (λ = 595 nm) quantified using a plate reader.

Cell migration assay

SKOV3ip cells were plated at 1 × 10⁵ cells/well in 24-well Boyden chambers and allowed to attach for 4 hours. Ketorolac enantiomers were added to growth media at final concentrations ranging from 1 to 300 µmol/L. After 48 hours, inserts were removed and stained with 4′,6-diamidino-2-phenylindole. Membrane filters were imaged on a Zeiss inverted microscope using a 20× objective. Three representative fields were counted from each treatment group.

Gelatin degradation assay

The commercial gelatin degradation kit (Millipore) was used per the manufacturer’s instructions and modified to incorporate drug treatment and EGF stimulation as follows. Fluorescent gelatin was coated on coverslips as described previously (25). Cells were seeded on fluorescent coverslip and allowed to adhere for 6 hours and then treated with individual drugs for 24 hours. Cells were fixed with 3% paraformaldehyde, permeabilized with 0.1% Triton X-100, and immunostained for Tks5. Actin was visualized with FITC-phalloidin. Fifteen fields per coverslip were imaged on a Zeiss LSM 510 META with a 63× oil immersion objective. Gelatin degradation by invadopodia was analyzed using Slidebook 5.5 software. Percent degradation was quantified as: (degradation area)/(total cell area) for each image.

Western blot analysis

SKOV3ip cells were serum-starved for 2 hours and treated with individual drugs for 1 hour. After stimulation with 10 ng/mL EGF for 20 minutes, cells were washed with ice-cold PBS and lysed with RIPA buffer. Cell lysates were processed for SDS-PAGE, transferred to polyvinylidene fluoride membranes, and individual proteins were detected with specific antibodies directed against PAK and phosphor-PAK.

Statistical analyses

Prism 5 software (GraphPad) was used to analyze all data to determine statistical significance. One-way ANOVA with the Dunnett test for multiple comparisons was performed to compare differences between the means of each group relative to the control group for all assays. P values less than 0.05 were considered statistically significant. For some assays conducted on primary ovarian patient samples (GTPase activity measurements and gelatin degradation assays), standard z-scores of the values were calculated for each patient to minimize large ranges of values and
to compare across groups on a uniform scale. ANOVA was performed on these standardized values.

**Results**

**R-ketorolac acts as an allosteric inhibitor of guanine nucleotide binding to Cdc42 and Rac1**

The enantiomeric selectivity of ketorolac (Fig. 1A) against Cdc42 and Rac1 was predicted by virtual screening and modeled in docking studies (25). To verify ketorolac inhibition of nucleotide binding activity and determine the mechanism of inhibition, a bead-based flow cytometry assay, which measures the in vitro GTPase nucleotide binding activity, was used. First, equilibrium nucleotide binding assays were performed under conditions where the tested compound concentration was held fixed against increasing concentrations of fluorescent nucleotide. In the presence of R-ketorolac, both the maximum fluorescence ($B_{\text{max}}$) and the apparent dissociation constant ($K_d$) of BODIPY-GTP for Cdc42 and Rac1 changed, which suggests a noncompetitive mechanism of action (Fig. 1B and D and Supplementary Table S2). S-ketorolac did not change the $B_{\text{max}}$ and the $K_d$ for Cdc42 (Fig. 1C and Supplementary Table S2) and exhibited a minor inhibition of Rac1 only at the maximum concentration of 100 $\mu$mol/L (Fig. 1E). Single-plex dose–response measurements were used to verify the enantiomer selectivity of ketorolac for inhibiting nucleotide binding by Cdc42 and Rac1. The nucleotide concentrations in the assay were fixed at the determined dissociation constants ($K_d \approx 300$ $\text{nmol/L}$). Increasing R-ketorolac concentrations reduced BODIPY-GTP binding, with respective EC$_{50}$ (half-maximal effective concentration) values of $1.887 \times 10^{-5}$ for Cdc42 and $2.308 \times 10^{-5}$ for Rac1 (Fig. 1F and G). The maximal inhibitory response was approximately 20% for both GTPases. S-ketorolac did not exhibit an inhibitory activity against either GTPase under the tested conditions. Together, these findings suggest an enantiomer-selective, inhibitory activity of R-ketorolac against the nucleotide binding activity of Cdc42 and Rac1. Mechanistically, R-ketorolac action is consistent with an allosteric inhibition of GTPase nucleotide binding.

**R-ketorolac inhibits Cdc42 and Rac1 activation in immortalized and primary human ovarian cancer cells**

We have developed a flow cytometry–based assay for quantitatively assessing the levels of active GTPases in cell lysates (38). The assay was used to test the cellular impact of ketorolac and exhibited limited inhibition and was not statistically significant (Fig. 2C and D). Taken together, the results demonstrate that R-ketorolac is a potent, enantiomer-selective inhibitor of Cdc42 and Rac1 in primary human ovarian cancer cells.

Inhibition of Cdc42 and Rac1 by R-ketorolac decreases activation of downstream p21 activated kinases (PAK1/PAK2)

The impact of R-ketorolac on PAK1/PAK2 effector signaling directly downstream of the Cdc42 and Rac1 GTPases was examined (Supplementary Fig. S3A). Cells stimulated with 10 ng/mL EGF exhibited robust phosphorylation of the Ser144/141 residues compared with unstimulated control cells. In contrast, there was a dose-dependent suppression of p-PAK1/PAK2 following R-ketorolac treatment that was similar to positive controls treated with Cdc42- or Rac1-specific inhibitors. S-ketorolac on the other hand had limited effect on p-PAK1/PAK2 levels at either 1 $\mu$mol/L or 10 $\mu$mol/L (Fig. 3A–C). The expression of total PAK1 was not affected by either R- or S-ketorolac treatment (Fig. 3A). These results demonstrate the suppression of p-PAK1/PAK2 activity paralleled the inhibition of Cdc42 and Rac1 in a dose-dependent manner following R-ketorolac treatment; and S-ketorolac exhibited no significant inhibition of p-PAK1/PAK2.

Phosphorylation of PAK1/PAK2 on two further residues (Thr423/402 or Ser199/204/Ser192/197) that are downstream of other signaling pathways were also examined. Interestingly, p-PAK1(Thr423)/PAK2(Thr402) and p-PAK1(Ser199/204)/PAK2 (Ser192/197) were reduced by R- and S-ketorolac with greater variability and less pronounced enantiomeric selectivity (Supplementary Fig. S3A–S3E). For example, R-ketorolac consistently inhibited the phosphorylation at pPAK1/PAK2 (Thr423) with statistical significance at 1 $\mu$mol/L though more variably at 10 $\mu$mol/L. S-ketorolac exhibited statistically significant inhibitory effects at 10 $\mu$mol/L against Thr432/402, but not against Ser199/204/Ser192/197. Inhibition of phosphorylation by the Rac1 inhibitor NSC23766 and the Cdc42 inhibitor CID2950007 was
also more modest and failed to reach statistical significance in some instances. The explanation for the differences in responsiveness of individual phosphorylation sites is likely due to the fact that Ser144/141 is localized in an N-terminal regulatory domain and directly interacts with Cdc42 and Rac1 (Supplementary Fig. S3A). While Thr423/402 residues in the catalytic kinase...
domain and Ser199/204/Ser192/197 adjacent to autoinhibitory domain are targeted by other regulatory molecules in a GTPase-independent manner (42, 43). For example, S-ketorolac may inhibit phosphorylation on these sites by affecting lipid-dependent stimulation of PAK1/PAK2 (e.g., sphingosine) or through crosstalk between COX1/COX2 and PI3K signaling and the GTPase-PAK1/PAK2 pathway (44, 45).

R-ketorolac inhibits Cdc42-dependent filopodia formation in SKOV3ip cells and primary human ovarian cancer cells. Filopodia are membrane protrusions that are constructed of bundled actin filaments and directly regulated by Cdc42 (46). Therefore, we tested filopodia formation, including numbers and length of filopodia to evaluate the effect of ketorolac on cell behaviors. When resting cells were stimulated with 10 ng/mL EGF, both numbers and length of filopodia increased with the most striking activation seen 20 minutes poststimulation. Two concentrations of R-, and S-ketorolac were tested to take into consideration differential sensitivities of Cdc42 to the two enantiomers. In comparison with the vehicle treatment group, R-ketorolac (at both 1 μmol/L and 10 μmol/L concentrations) decreased numbers length of filopodia to basal levels and similar to CID2950007; while S-ketorolac only showed a significant inhibition on filopodia length at 10 μmol/L and did not significantly inhibit filopodia numbers at either 1 μmol/L or 10 μmol/L (Fig. 4A–C). These results demonstrate that R-ketorolac impedes filopodia formation, which depends on the upstream activation of Cdc42.

Filopodia formation assays performed using primary ovarian cancer cells yielded similar results and reinforced the finding of the enantiomer-selective effect. R-ketorolac–treated primary ovarian cancer cells exhibited significantly decreased filopodia numbers and length; while S-ketorolac exerted no inhibitory effect (Fig. 4D–F).

R-ketorolac inhibits Cdc42- and Rac1-mediated cell adhesion, migration, and invasion

Cell adhesion. Cdc42 and Rac1 are involved in cellular signaling pathways that transduce extracellular signals to the assembly of integrin-mediated focal adhesion complexes (47). The process of cell-substrate adhesion plays critical roles during cancer metastasis which is required for the anchoring of malignant spheroids to
the extracellular matrix of target abdominal organs (4). A cell attachment assay was used to test the effect of ketorolac on cell adhesion. Stimulated cells were allowed to adhere to matrix-coated substrates. R-ketorolac reduced SKOV3ip cells adherence to both fibronectin and collagen and S-ketorolac had no significant effect (Fig. 5A and B). R-ketorolac also inhibited human primary ovarian cancer cell adhesion to collagen, while S-ketorolac had no significant effect (Fig. 5C). This observation suggests that the R-enantiomer of ketorolac inhibits cell-substrate adhesion likely as a biologic consequence of its inhibitory effect on upstream Cdc42 and Rac1 activation.

Cell migration. Activated by extracellular stimuli and dependent on GTPase activation, cell migration is initiated by the formation of membrane protrusions, including Cdc42-dependent filopodia and Rac1-mediated lamellipodia (7). SKOV3ip cell migration in the presence of R- or S-ketorolac was tested in a Boyden chamber assay. Migration was inhibited in a dose-dependent manner with R-ketorolac beginning to impinge on cell migration at 1 μmol/L. The inhibitory effect increased in a dose-dependent manner with maximum inhibition of approximately 80% at 300 μmol/L R-ketorolac (Fig. 5D). Modest inhibition by S-ketorolac was detected at about 50 μmol/L with a maximum inhibition less than 50% at 300 μmol/L. The results demonstrate that cell migration was inhibited as a direct biological consequence mediated by Cdc42 and Rac1 inhibition by R-ketorolac, whereas S-ketorolac was 50-fold less potent.

Invasion. Invadopodia are membrane protrusions that are dependent on activated Cdc42 and Src kinase. Invadopodia concentrate matrix metalloproteinases at their tips and based on their matrix degradative properties serve as surrogates for cell invasive behaviors (48). To study the effect of ketorolac on invadopodia formation, the invadopodia-dependent degradation of gelatin matrices was quantified. In Skov3ip cells, invadopodia were observed as puncta of F-actin and Tks5-positive structures, which colocalized with the degradation sites on the gelatin matrix (Fig. 6A). R-ketorolac treatment also resulted in reduced gelatin degradation in a dose-dependent manner with 70% to 80% inhibition at 1 and 10 μmol/L. However, S-ketorolac did not exert any obvious inhibition of gelatin degradation at 1 μmol/L and the reduction of gelatin degradation with 10 μmol/L S-ketorolac treatment was approximately 50% but failed to reach the statistical significance (Fig. 6B and D). Tks5 is an early marker of...
invadopodia formation that precedes matrix metalloprotease localization to the tips of mature structures. To distinguish whether R-ketorolac had a direct inhibitory effect on metalloprotease activity or whether the observed effect on gelatin degradation was primarily due to inhibition of invadopodia formation, the impact on metalloprotease activity secreted into the culture medium was also measured and found to be similar to ketorolac. Therefore, we conclude that the primary effect of R-ketorolac is to prevent Cdc42-dependent invadopodia formation. When the gelatin degradation assay was conducted in primary ovarian cancer cells, the standardized z-scores showed the degradation of matrix by tumor cells was also significantly decreased in a dose-dependent manner by R-ketorolac treatment, while the inhibition by S-ketorolac was less and reached significance only at the highest dose (Fig. 6C and E). Z-scores were used to account for large differences in absolute GTPase activity levels observed for individual patient samples (Fig. 2C and D), likely related to known differences in GTPase overexpression seen in ovarian cancer (11, 12). The inhibitory effect of R-ketorolac in primary ovarian cancer cells is consistent with the observations in SKOV3ip cells.

**Discussion**

In the current study, we establish R-ketorolac as an allosteric, noncompetitive inhibitor of guanine nucleotide binding to Cdc42 and Rac1. In its clinical application, ketorolac is given for its potent analgesic activity. It is administered as a racemic mixture via diverse routes (intravenous, injectable, oral, intranasal) and is known as Toradol. The pain relieving activity is ascribed primarily to the S-enantiomer, which is a known nonselective COX1/COX2 inhibitor (27, 28). The R-enantiomer lacks significant activity against cyclooxynegenases (e.g., IC_{50} > 100 μmol/L against COX1 and COX2 and approximately 3 orders of magnitude greater than the IC_{50} of S-ketorolac) and has until now been considered inert (27, 28). The previously unrecognized and novel mechanism of action for the R-enantiomer is important ramifications when considering the efficacy and novel activities of clinically administered ketorolac. For example, breast cancer patients treated with ketorolac perioperatively had a decreased rate of early breast cancer relapse (6). Our own studies demonstrate ovarian cancer patients receiving ketorolac exhibit an enrichment of R-ketorolac in the peritoneum, a reduction in GTPases activation of residual tumor cells and improved 5-year survival (12). The cell-based studies using human immortalized and primary human ovarian cancer cells presented here demonstrate that R-ketorolac treatment alters tumor cell adhesion, migration, and invasion—all behaviors that are central to ovarian cancer metastasis. The findings offer unprecedented mechanistic insights regarding the R-ketorolac activity against GTPases, which may explain the clinically observed survival benefit in patients treated perioperatively with racemic ketorolac.

The biochemical basis for GTPase inhibition by R-ketorolac is provided by computational and experimental approaches. A model of R-ketorolac docked near the GTPase nucleotide binding pocket was generated on the basis of DOCK9 GEF facilitated nucleotide exchange on Cdc42 (25, 49) and is consistent with the observed allosteric, noncompetitive inhibition mechanism in the present studies. We suggest that the activity of R-ketorolac against Cdc42 and Rac1 GTPases may result from a similar magnesium exclusion mechanism, except with magnesium exclusion being induced by the carboxyl moiety at the chiral center of R-ketorolac instead of by Val1931 on DOCK9 GEF. The consequent reduced stabilization of bound nucleotide by such magnesium exclusion could reduce nucleotide-binding affinity and promote release when R-ketorolac is present. The model is enantiomer-selective, with S-ketorolac being poorly positioned to exert the same magnesium exclusion and therefore could explain the observed differences in EC_{50} values measured for R- and S-ketorolac in the in vitro nucleotide-binding assay. The model is further supported by X-ray crystallography data, which identified the preferential binding of S-naproxen to COX2 (50). R-naproxen, like R-ketorolac, exhibits Cdc42 and Rac1 inhibitory activity, albeit with less potency and naproxen, like ketorolac, has a constrained alpha methyl carbonyl that may account for the stereoselective activities of the R- and S-enantiomers (25).

In ovarian cancer, cyclooxygenases are upregulated and have been considered as potential targets; however, clinical trials have been mixed and do not support significant benefit in combinatoirial treatment with chemotherapy and a cyclooxygenase inhibitor versus treatment with chemotherapy alone (31). Although the survival benefit of ketorolac use in breast cancer was postulated to be due to possible inhibitory roles in angiogenesis, inhibition of prostaglandin synthesis, and decreased immune suppression as compared with opioids and other analgesics (51), there was previously no precedence for other pharmacologic activities associated with R- or S-ketorolac. We speculate that the slight inhibitory effects of S-ketorolac on GTPase activation and actin-dependent cell behaviors may arise from crosstalk between COX2 and PI3K and integrin-regulated pathways. COX2-dependent crosstalk has been shown through knockout and pharmacologic means to regulate Cdc42 and Rac1 activation, and adhesion and migration of macrophages and endothelia (45, 52). Because R-ketorolac is a much less potent COX inhibitor than S-ketorolac, its more pronounced effect on GTPase activity and downstream cell behaviors may arise from crosstalk between COX2 and PI3K and integrin-regulated pathways. COX2-dependent crosstalk has been shown through knockout and pharmacologic means to regulate Cdc42 and Rac1 activation, and adhesion and migration of macrophages and endothelia (45, 52).

![Figure 4](www.aacrjournals.org) R-ketorolac decreases Cdc42-dependent filopodia formation in SKOV3ip cells and primary human ovarian cancer cells following EGF stimulation. A, representative confocal images of filopodia formation for each treatment group in SKOV3ip cells are shown. Bottom panels are magnified images of the boxed regions. B and C, quantification of numbers and length of filopodia on each cell. D, representative confocal images of filopodia formation for each treatment group of primary human ovarian cancer cells are shown. Bottom panels are magnified images of the boxed regions. E and F, quantification of numbers and length of filopodia per cell in primary human ovarian cancer cells. For all experiments, cells were plated on coverslips and cultured overnight, then starved in 0% FBS media for 2 hours and pretreated with drug or 0.1% DMSO vehicle for 2 hours, followed by EGF (10 ng/mL) stimulation for 20 minutes. Cells were permeabilized and stained with rhodamine-phalloidin. Confocal images were taken on a Zeiss LSM 510 META confocal microscope. All quantification is based on three independent trials with 30 cells imaged in a battlement pattern and analyzed using Slidebook 5.5 software. Mean lengths or numbers of filopodia are plotted ±SEM. Statistically significant differences are indicated: *, P < 0.05; **, P < 0.01; ***, P < 0.001.
increased prevalence of R-ketorolac in vivo (12, 27, 28). Taken together, our identification of R-ketorolac as a GTPase inhibitor helps to explain the significant benefits of racemic ketorolac in human breast and ovarian cancer patient survival, and why other NSAIDs that preferentially target COX have not yielded similar benefit (6, 12, 32).

Ketorolac is an FDA-approved drug for human use and is in active clinical use as the racemic mix. Therefore, R-ketorolac has significant potential for rapid repurposing. Implementation of R-ketorolac in human clinical trials would offer the first opportunity to directly test the predicted benefit of a Cdc42- and Rac1-selective inhibitor for cancer patients. Such an application could circumvent current renal and hematologic toxicities that limit racemic ketorolac use to a maximum of 5 days. Analyses of Rac1 inhibition in cancer cell lines and animal models with NSC23766 treatment suggests benefit for inhibiting metastasis and angiogenesis (53). In addition, Rac1 inhibition may mitigate trastuzumab resistance in breast cancer cell lines, thus suggesting that the availability of a
clinically accessible selective Cdc42 and Rac1 inhibitors could offer new paradigms for combinatorial therapies (53). We envision that the use of R-ketorolac in the perioperative window and thereafter presents a unique opportunity to block tumor reseeding and spread, as well as angiogenesis, which may enhance the efficacy of combined chemotherapies or targeted therapies.

Figure 6. R-ketorolac inhibits invadopodia formation and gelatin degradation in SKOV3ip and primary human ovarian cancer cells. A, colocalization of gelatin degradation, actin, and Tks5 in SKOV3ip cells. Insets are magnified images of the boxed regions. Arrowheads are points of invadopodia formation that are coincident with gelatin degradation. B, representative confocal images of gelatin degradation for each treatment group in SKOV3ip cells are shown. Bottom panels are magnified images of the boxed regions. Arrowheads denote the gelatin degradation sites. C, representative confocal images of gelatin degradation for each treatment group in primary ovarian cancer cells are shown. Bottom panels are magnified images of the boxed regions. Arrowheads denote the gelatin degradation sites. D, quantification of the gelatin degradation area in SKOV3ip cells. E, quantification of the gelatin degradation area in primary ovarian cancer cells. Because of the variability of the extent of gelatin degradation observed with primary human ovarian cancer cells, z-scores are plotted. For all experiments, SKOV3ip cells or primary ovarian cancer cells were seeded on Cy3-gelatin-labeled coverslips for 24 hours in the presence of different drugs, including two enantiomers of ketorolac, and Cdc42- and Rac1-specific inhibitors (CID2950007 and NSC23766, respectively) as positive controls. DMSO (0.1%) served as the vehicle control treatment. All quantification is based on three independent trials with 15 representative fields counted for each treatment. Statistically significant differences are indicated: \( * \), \( P < 0.05 \); \( ** \), \( P < 0.01 \); \( *** \), \( P < 0.001 \).
Disclosure of Potential Conflicts of Interest

L.A. Sklar has ownership interest in STC.unm GTPase patent. L.G. Hudson has ownership interest in a patent (allowance pending). A. Wandinger-Ness has ownership interest in a pending US patent. No potential conflicts of interests were disclosed by the other authors.

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Grant Support

This work was supported by grants NCI R21 CA170375, DOD O110514 W81XWH-11-1-OCRP-TEA, UNM Science and Technology Corporation Gap Fund (to A. Wandinger-Ness and L.G. Hudson). Core Facility support (Flow Cytometry Shared Resource, Fluorescence Microscopy Shared Resource, Clinical Trials Office) from the University of New Mexico Cancer Research and Treatment Center (P30 CA118100; to C. Willman). Focus Interactive Group grants from UNM Cancer Center (0990MD; 0990Q8 to A. Wandinger-Ness and L.G. Hudson). MH074425 and MH084690 (to L.A. Sklar), NCI R25CA153825 (predoctoral fellowship) and the George D. Montoya Scholarship (to Y. Guo), and INBRE NCRR SP20RR016480 (predoctoral fellowship to S.R. Kenney).

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Received May 26, 2015; revised July 1, 2015; accepted July 6, 2015; published OnlineFirst August 24, 2015.

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Received May 26, 2015; revised July 1, 2015; accepted July 6, 2015; published OnlineFirst August 24, 2015.

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Molecular Cancer Therapeutics

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Mol Cancer Ther  Published OnlineFirst July 23, 2015.

Updated version  Access the most recent version of this article at: doi:10.1158/1535-7163.MCT-15-0419

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