

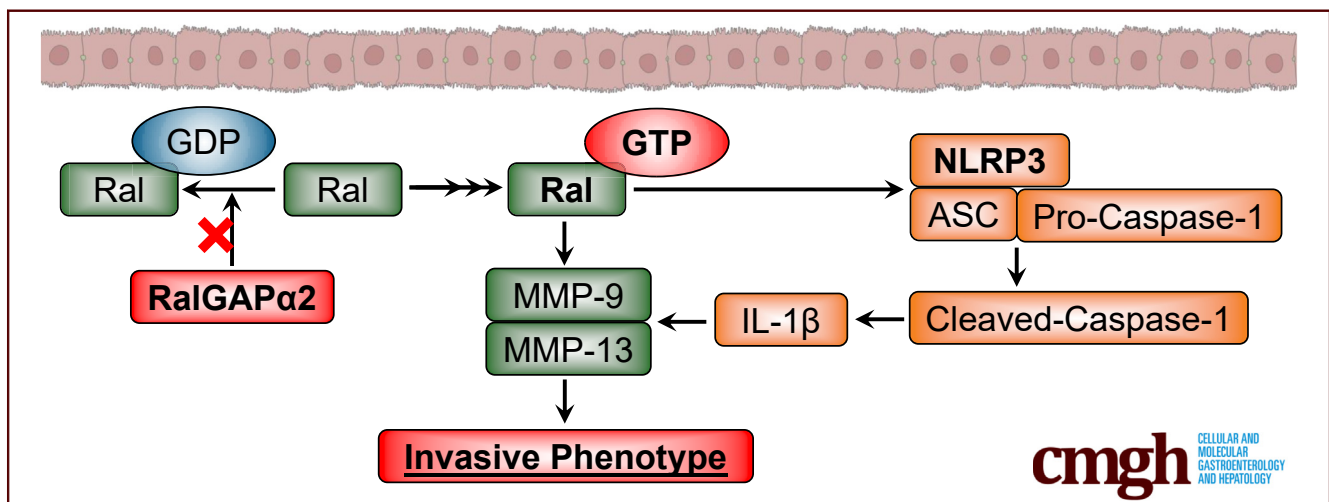
ORIGINAL RESEARCH

Down-regulation of RalGTPase-Activating Protein Promotes Colitis-Associated Cancer via NLRP3 Inflammasome Activation



Tomoya Iida,^{1,*} Daisuke Hirayama,^{1,*} Naoki Minami,² Minoru Matsuura,² Kohei Wagatsuma,¹ Kentaro Kawakami,¹ Kanna Nagaishi,³ Masanori Nojima,⁴ Hiroki Ikeuchi,^{5,6} Seiichi Hirota,⁷ Ryutarō Shirakawa,⁸ Hisanori Horiuchi,⁸ and Hiroshi Nakase¹

¹Department of Gastroenterology and Hepatology, Sapporo Medical University School of Medicine, Sapporo, Japan; ²Department of Gastroenterology and Hepatology, Kyoto University Graduate School of Medicine, Kyoto, Japan; ³Second Department of Anatomy, Sapporo Medical University School of Medicine, Sapporo, Japan; ⁴Center for Translational Research, The Institute of Medical Science Hospital, The University of Tokyo, Tokyo, Japan; ⁵Division of Lower Gastrointestinal, Department of Surgery, ⁶Inflammatory Bowel Disease Center, ⁷Department of Surgical Pathology, Hyogo College of Medicine, Nishinomiya, Japan; ⁸Department of Molecular and Cellular Biology, Institute of Development, Aging and Cancer, Tohoku University, Sendai, Japan



SUMMARY

Ral activation impacts interleukin 1 β production by nucleotide-binding domain, leucine-rich-containing family, pyrin domain-containing-3 inflammasome activation and enhances matrix metalloproteinase-9 and matrix metalloproteinase-13 expression in a newly established mouse colitis-associated cancer model. This study strongly showed that the Ras-like-nucleotide-binding domain, leucine-rich-containing family, pyrin domain-containing-3 inflammasome pathway is involved in the mechanism of colitis-associated cancer invasion.

BACKGROUND & AIMS: Ral guanosine triphosphatase-activating protein $\alpha 2$ (RalGAP $\alpha 2$) is the major catalytic subunit of the negative regulators of the small guanosine triphosphatase Ral, a member of the Ras subfamily. Ral regulates tumorigenesis and invasion/metastasis of some cancers; however, the role of Ral in colitis-associated cancer (CAC) has not been investigated. We aimed to elucidate the role of Ral in the mechanism of CAC.

METHODS: We used wild-type (WT) mice and RalGAP $\alpha 2$ knockout (KO) mice that showed Ral activation, and bone

marrow chimeric mice were generated as follows: WT to WT, WT to RalGAP $\alpha 2$ KO, RalGAP $\alpha 2$ KO to WT, and RalGAP $\alpha 2$ KO to RalGAP $\alpha 2$ KO mice. CAC was induced in these mice by intraperitoneal injection of azoxymethane followed by dextran sulfate sodium intake. Intestinal epithelial cells were isolated from colon tissues, and we performed complementary DNA microarray analysis. Cytokine expression in normal colon tissues and CAC was analyzed by quantitative polymerase chain reaction.

RESULTS: Bone marrow chimeric mice showed that immune cell function between WT mice and RalGAP $\alpha 2$ KO mice was not significantly different in the CAC mechanism. RalGAP $\alpha 2$ KO mice had a significantly larger tumor number and size and a significantly higher proportion of tumors invading the submucosa than WT mice. Higher expression levels of matrix metalloproteinase-9 and matrix metalloproteinase-13 were observed in RalGAP $\alpha 2$ KO mice than in WT mice. The expression levels of interleukin 1 β , NLRP3, apoptosis associated speck-like protein containing a CARD, and caspase-1 were apparently increased in the tumors of RalGAP $\alpha 2$ KO mice compared with WT mice. NLRP3 inhibitor reduced the number of invasive tumors.

CONCLUSIONS: Ral activation participates in the mechanism of CAC development via NLRP3 inflammasome activation. (*Cell*

Mol Gastroenterol Hepatol 2020;9:277–293; <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jcmgh.2019.10.003>

Keywords: Ral; Ral-GTPase Activating Protein (RalGAP); Colitis-Associated Cancer; NLRP3 Inflammasome.

Patients with long-standing inflammatory bowel disease (IBD) are at high risk for developing dysplasia and colitis-associated cancer (CAC). In clinical practice, detecting dysplasia and CAC at endoscopy often is difficult. In addition, CAC has a tendency to easily invade intestinal tissues.¹ Therefore, these clinicopathologic features result in the poor prognosis of IBD patients with CACs. Several studies have indicated that sustained intestinal inflammation plays a substantial role in increasing CAC via telomere shortening, DNA damage, and cellular senescence.² However, the exact molecular mechanism of CAC remains unclear.

The small guanosine triphosphatase (GTPase) Ras-like (Ral), a member of the Ras subfamily, is known to control various cellular functions by mediating multiple effector molecules,^{3,4} and Ral plays an important role in cell survival by acting through the regulation of TRAF (tumor necrosis factor receptor-associated factor) family member associated NF- κ B (nuclear factor-kappa B) activator (TANK)-binding kinase 1, which is the controlling factor of nuclear factor- κ B (NF- κ B).⁵ Thus, Ral also is involved in inflammation. Ral has 2 isoforms: RalA and RalB. RalA and RalB have been shown to play different roles in human cancer: RalA is involved in anchorage-independent growth, and RalB is required for cell survival and migration.^{6–8}

Ral is positively regulated by Ral guanine nucleotide exchange factors, several of which are effector molecules of Ras. Thus, Ral is activated downstream of active Ras. However, Ral is inactivated by RalGTPase-activating proteins (RalGAPs) that we identified previously.⁹ RalGAPs are heterodimers of a common β subunit and a catalytic α subunit (RalGAP α 1 or RalGAP α 2). The heterodimer comprising RalGAP α 1 and the RalGAP β subunit is designated RalGAP1, and the heterodimer comprising RalGAP α 2 and the RalGAP β subunit is designated RalGAP2.¹⁰ Complex formation is essential for RalGAP activity and protein stability, and loss of either subunit leads to the inactivation of its enzyme activity. Each form of RalGAP regulates both RalA and RalB.⁹

The expression of the α subunit varies among different organ types. We previously reported that RalGAP α 2 knockout (KO) mice developed muscle-invasive bladder cancers that were not found in wild-type (WT) mice in chemically induced bladder carcinogenesis models.¹¹ In addition, we reported that loss of RalGAP α 2 promoted local microscopic invasion of prostatic intraepithelial neoplasia in a phosphatase and tensin homolog deleted from chromosome 10-deficient mouse model for prostate tumorigenesis in a recent study.¹² In addition, Kodama et al¹³ reported a significant reduction in RalGAP α 2 expression in hepatocellular carcinoma and a role for RalGAP α 2 in the enlargement of hepatocellular carcinoma. These data suggest that RalGAP α 2 plays an important role in the development or

invasion mechanism in some cancers. However, the precise role of RalGAP α 2 in CAC has not been elucidated.

In the present study, we show that RalGAP α 2 is highly expressed in the normal colon epithelium and in sporadic colorectal cancer compared with CAC in human samples. In addition, Ral activation greatly enhances tumor invasion, with matrix metalloproteinase (MMP)-9 and MMP-13 expression. Furthermore, Ral activation impacts interleukin (IL)1 β production by NLRP3 inflammasome activation. Our data strongly show that the Ral-NLRP3 inflammasome pathway is involved in the mechanism of CAC invasion.

Results

RalGAP α 2 Is Expressed Mainly in Colon Epithelial Cells but Not in Immune Cells

Western blot (WB) analysis showed that mouse colon tissues strongly expressed the RalGAP α 2 subunit but showed little expression of RalGAP α 1 (Figure 1A). In addition, both the human and mouse colon cancer cell lines strongly expressed the RalGAP α 2 subunit but showed little expression of RalGAP α 1 (Figure 1B). Furthermore, WB analysis showed that the expression levels of both RalGAP α 1 and α 2 were weak in monocytes, T cells, and B cells (Figure 1B).

Knockdown (KD) of RalGAP α 2 (Figure 1C) increased the activation of RalA and RalB (Figure 1D and F), and slightly increased the expression levels of total RalA and total RalB (Figure 1E and G) in Colon26 cells. The RalA-GTP/total-RalA and RalB-GTP/total-RalB ratios were significantly higher in the RalGAP α 2 KD Colon26 cells than in the controls (Figure 1H).

RalGAP Does Not Influence T-Helper Cell 1/2/17 or B-Cell Differentiation or Cytokine Production in Macrophages

Under the steady-state condition, flow cytometry analysis showed no significant difference in T-helper cell (Th)1/Th2/Th17 differentiation of CD4-positive T cells and B-cell differentiation of CD19-positive B cells between WT mice and RalGAP α 2 KO mice (Figure 2A and B). In addition, no

*Authors share co-first authorship.

Abbreviations used in this paper: AOM, azoxymethane; ASC, apoptosis associated speck-like protein containing a CARD; CAC, colitis-associated cancer; DSS, dextran sulfate sodium; GTPase, guanosine triphosphatase; IBD, inflammatory bowel disease; IL, interleukin; KD, knockdown; KO, knockout; KO-N, normal colon tissues of RalGAP α 2 knockout mice; KO-T, tumors of RalGAP α 2 knockout mice; MMP, matrix metalloproteinase; mRNA, messenger RNA; NF- κ B, nuclear factor- κ B; qPCR, quantitative polymerase chain reaction; RalGAP, Ral guanosine triphosphatase-activating protein; siRNA, small interfering RNA; SM, submucosal; STAT3, signal transducer and activator of transcription 3; Th, T-helper cell; TNF- α , tumor necrosis factor α ; WB, Western blot; WT, wild-type; WT-N, normal colon tissues of wild-type mice; WT-T, tumors of wild-type mice.



Most current article

© 2020 The Authors. Published by Elsevier Inc. on behalf of the AGA Institute. This is an open access article under the CC BY-NC-ND license (<http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/>).

2352-345X

<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jcmgh.2019.10.003>

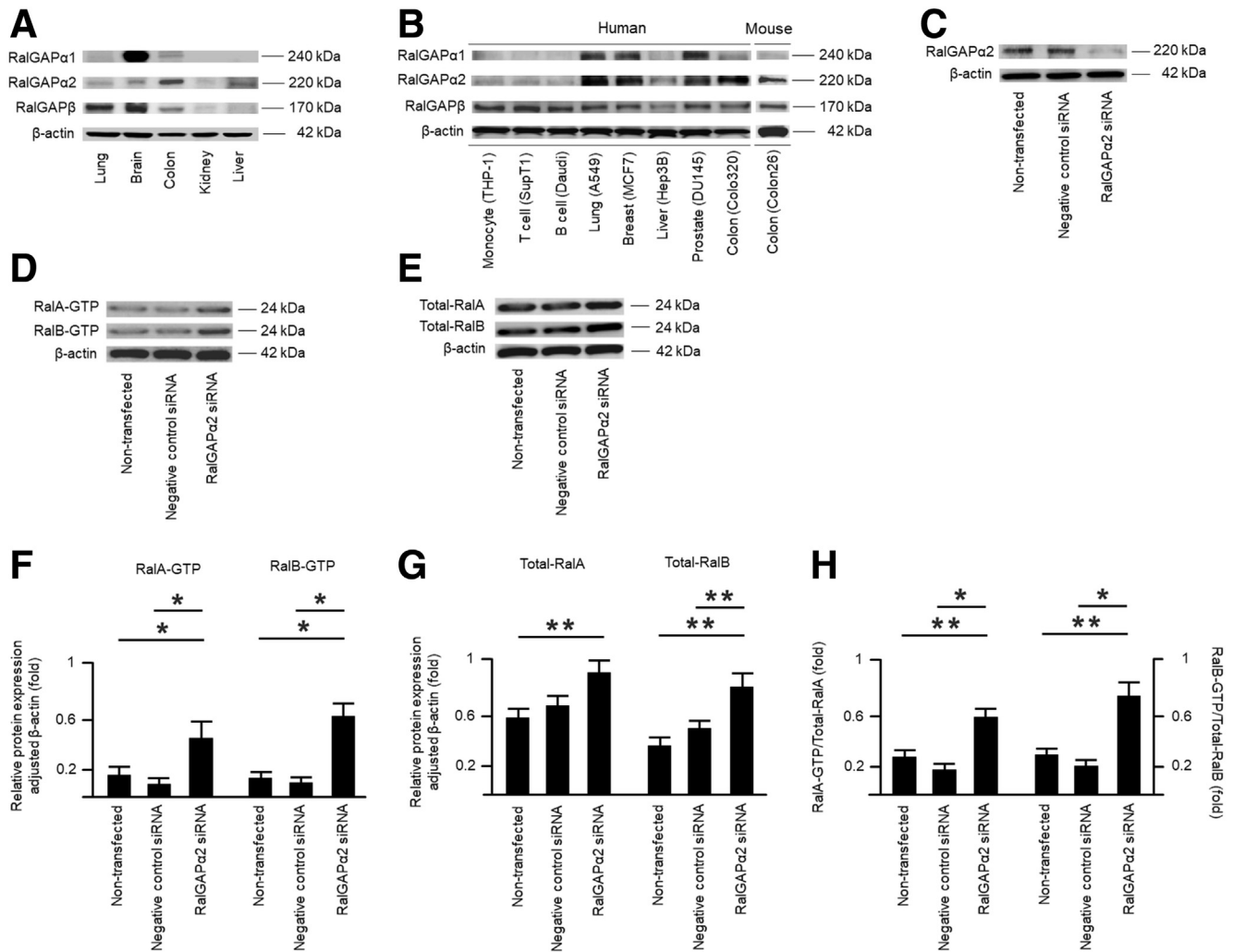


Figure 1. (A and B) The difference in RalGAP expression was analyzed by Western blot. (C) RalGAP α 2 knockdown was evaluated by Western blot. (D and E) The differences in the expression levels of RalA, RalB, total RalA, and total RalB in controls and RalGAP α 2 knockdown Colon26 cells were analyzed by Western blot. (F and G) Densitometric analysis of the expression levels of RalA-GTP, RalB-GTP, total RalA, and total RalB in controls and RalGAP α 2 knockdown Colon26 cells by Western blot. * $P < .01$, ** $P < .05$, repeated-measures analysis of variance with the Holm correction. (H) The ratios of the expression of RalA-GTP/total RalA and RalB-GTP/total RalB in the RalGAP α 2 knockdown Colon26 cells. * $P < .01$, ** $P < .05$, repeated-measures analysis of variance with the Holm correction. Data are either representative or shown as the means \pm SEM (error bars) of 3 independent experiments.

significant differences were observed in the cytokines (IL1 β , IL12A, or tumor necrosis factor- α [TNF- α]) released from intraperitoneal macrophages collected after intraperitoneal administration of thioglycolate between the WT mice and RalGAP α 2 KO mice (Figure 2C). These results did not change under the dextran sulfate sodium (DSS) condition (Figure 2D–F). These findings showed that RalGAP did not influence T-cell or B-cell differentiation or cytokine production of macrophages regardless of the administration of DSS.

RalGAP α 2 Expression Is Decreased in CAC

We compared the expression levels of RalGAP α 2 in human normal colon tissue, sporadic colorectal cancer, and CAC samples by immunohistochemical staining (Figure 3A). The ratios showing strong RalGAP α 2 staining in the normal

colon tissue, sporadic colorectal cancer, and CAC samples were 85.7% (30 of 35), 80.0% (12 of 15), and 25% (5 of 20), respectively. Thus, the expression of RalGAP α 2 in CAC was significantly lower than that in normal colon tissue or sporadic colorectal cancer (Figure 3B). When CAC is divided into 2 groups as noninvasive and invasive, the ratios showing strong RalGAP α 2 staining in noninvasive and invasive CAC samples were 80.0% (4 of 5) and 6.7% (1 of 15), respectively (Figure 3C). Therefore, the expression of RalGAP α 2 decreased, that is, activation of Ral was observed at a more advanced stage in CAC. In addition, patient information from the human cohort is shown in Figure 3D. There were no significant differences in patients' backgrounds between patients with sporadic colorectal cancer and those with CAC.

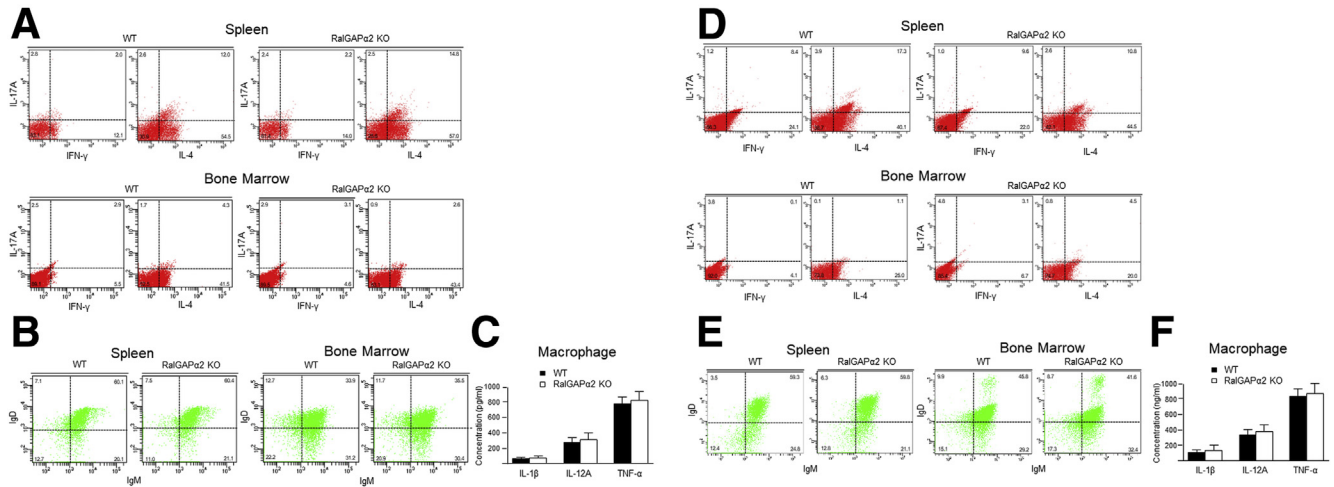


Figure 2. (A–C) The differences in the contributions of immune cells in steady state between WT mice and *RalGAP α 2* KO mice were analyzed by flow cytometry or enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay. (A) T-cell differentiation. (B) B-cell differentiation. (C) Cytokine expression of macrophages (1-way analysis of variance with the Holm correction). (D–F) The differences in the contributions of the immune cells after dextran sulfate sodium treatment between WT mice and *RalGAP α 2* KO mice were analyzed by flow cytometry or enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay. (D) T-cell differentiation. (E) B-cell differentiation. (F) Cytokine expression of macrophages (1-way analysis of variance with the Holm correction). Data are either representative or shown as means \pm SEM (error bars) of 3 independent experiments. IFN, interferon.

RalGAP α 2 KO Mice Treated With Azoxymethane/DSS Develop Invasive Tumors

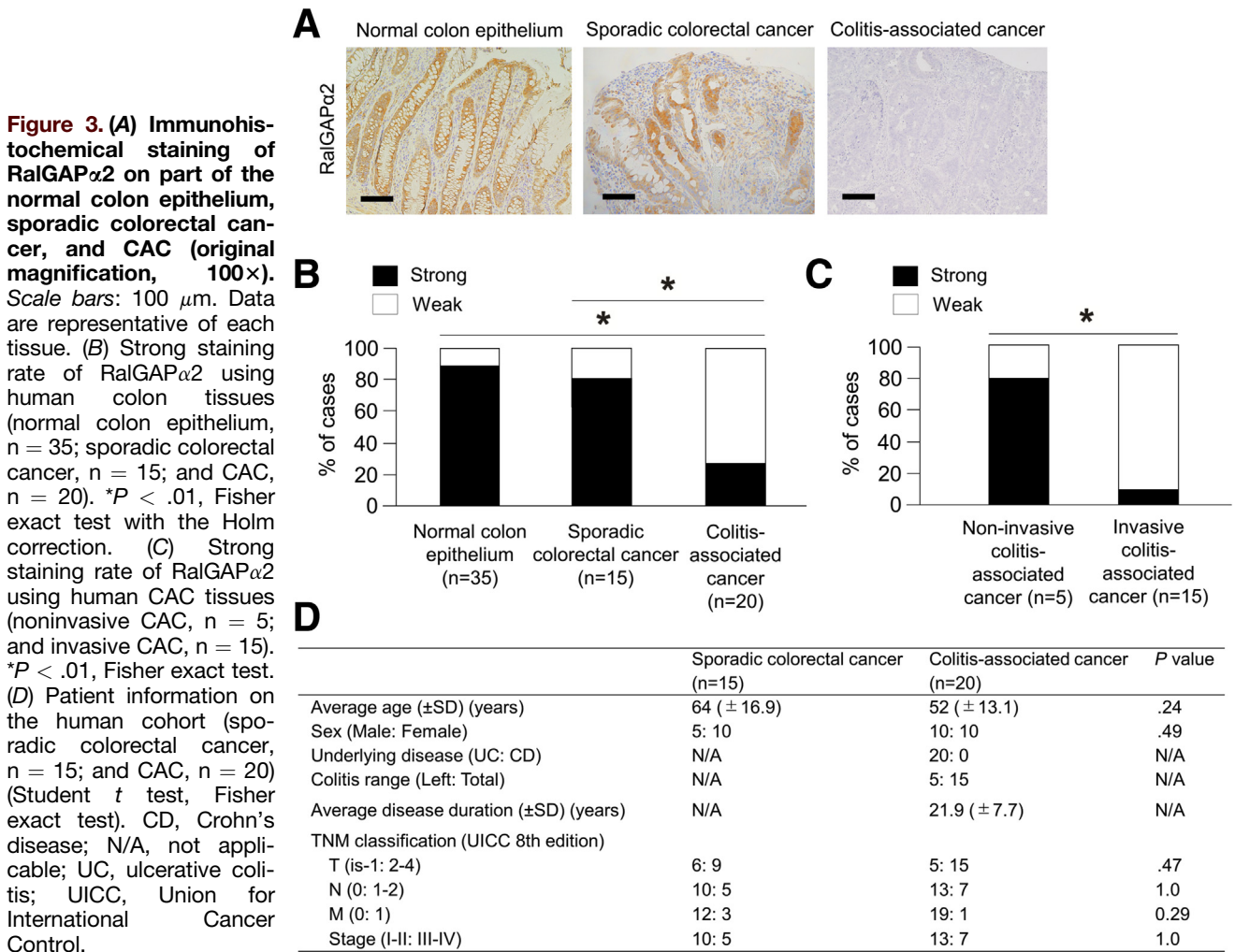
The azoxymethane (AOM)/DSS administration protocol is shown in Figure 4A. Tumor occurrence was examined at the distal end of the colon tissue by endoscopy (Figure 4B), macroscopic images (Figure 4C), and histopathologic findings (Figure 4D). The *RalGAP α 2* KO mice developed more tumor growth in terms of number (WT vs *RalGAP α 2* KO, 4.5 ± 2.3 vs 7.6 ± 2.4) (Figure 4E) and larger tumor sizes (WT vs *RalGAP α 2* KO, 3.3 ± 1.6 vs 5.7 ± 2.0 mm) (Figure 4F) than the WT mice. The ratio of mice having submucosal (SM) invasive tumors in the *RalGAP α 2* KO group was higher than that in the WT group (WT vs *RalGAP α 2* KO, 5.0% [1 of 20] vs 45.0% [9 of 20]) (Figure 4G). In addition, the number of SM invasive tumors in the cancer specimens from the *RalGAP α 2* KO mice was higher than that in the specimens from the WT mice (WT vs *RalGAP α 2* KO, 2.9% [2 of 70] vs 20.0% [24 of 120]) (Figure 4H). Taken together, these observations strongly indicate that Ral activation promoted tumor development or CAC progression.

Next, we examined Ral activation in mouse colon tissues. The pull-down analysis showed that the tissues from the *RalGAP α 2* KO mice (normal colon tissues of *RalGAP α 2* KO mice [KO-N] and tumors of *RalGAP α 2* KO mice [KO-T]) showed increased activation of RalA and RalB (Figure 4I and K) and slightly increased expression levels of total RalA and total RalB (Figure 4J and L). The RalA-GTP/total-RalA and RalB-GTP/total-RalB ratios in the tissues from the *RalGAP α 2* KO mice were significantly higher than those in the tissues from the WT mice. These ratios were increased markedly in the KO-T mice (Figure 4M). These findings suggest that the down-regulation of *RalGAP α 2* induced Ral activation, especially in colon tumors.

Bone Marrow Chimeric Mice Showed RalGAP α 2 Did Not Affect Immune Cell Function

To confirm the contribution of *RalGAP α 2* in immune cells to CAC in vivo, we generated bone marrow chimeric mice and divided them into 4 groups, as follows: (1) WT to WT, (2) WT to *RalGAP α 2* KO, (3) *RalGAP α 2* KO to WT, and (4) *RalGAP α 2* KO to *RalGAP α 2* KO mice, and CAC was induced in these mice by the AOM/DSS protocol shown in Figure 5A. Tumor occurrence was examined at the distal end of the colon tissues by macroscopic images (Figure 5B) and histopathologic findings (Figure 5C). Compared with the totally WT mice (group 1), the totally *RalGAP α 2* KO mice (group 4) developed significantly more tumor growth in terms of number (group 1 vs group 4, 3.6 ± 1.6 vs 6.1 ± 2.1) (Figure 5D) and larger tumor sizes (group 1 vs group 4, 2.9 ± 1.4 vs 7.4 ± 2.6 mm) (Figure 5E). Although it was not significant ($P = .07$), the ratio of mice with SM invasive tumors in group 4 was higher than that in group 1 (group 1 vs group 4, 0% [0 of 10] vs 37.5% [3 of 8]) (Figure 5F). In addition, the number of SM invasive tumors in the cancer specimens in group 4 was significantly higher than that in the specimens in group 1 (group 1 vs group 4, 0% [0 of 20] vs 28.6% [8 of 28]) (Figure 5G). These results were consistent with the results in the mouse CAC model described earlier (Figure 4A–H).

In addition, there were no differences between group 1 and group 2, or between group 3 and group 4, in the number of tumors (Figure 5D), the tumor maximum diameter (Figure 5E), the ratio of mice with SM invasive tumors (Figure 5F), and the number of SM invasive tumors in the cancer specimens (Figure 5G). Taken together, these observations strongly indicate that *RalGAP α 2* did not affect immune cell function in the mouse CAC model.



RalGAP α 2 KD Colon26 Cells Show Increased Migratory and Invasive Capacities

The in vitro wound healing (Figure 6A) and cell invasion assays (Figure 6B) showed that significantly more RalGAP α 2 KD Colon26 cells than control cells migrated and invaded. In addition, Ral activation correlated with an increase in the cell migratory and invasive capacities.

MMP-9 and MMP-13 Expression Levels Are Up-Regulated in Colon Tumors From RalGAP α 2 KO Mice

Phenotypic differences in colonic epithelial cells from both WT mice and RalGAP α 2 KO mice were examined. Colonic epithelial cells were isolated from colon tissues, and flow cytometry was performed to determine whether more than 90% of the isolated cells were CD326-positive/CD45-negative epithelial cells (Figure 6C). Then, microarray analysis showed that the gene expression levels of MMP-9 and MMP-13 in colon epithelial cells from the RalGAP α 2 KO mice increased to more than twice those of the WT mice. On the other hand, the MMP-2, -3, -7, and -12 gene expression

levels in the RalGAP α 2 KO mice did not increase compared with those in the WT mice (Figure 6D).

Quantitative polymerase chain reaction (qPCR) showed that MMP-9 and MMP-13 messenger RNA (mRNA) expression in the KO-T significantly increased compared with that in the tumors of WT mice (WT-T) (Figure 6E). Gelatin zymography analysis showed that activated MMP-9 was increased drastically in the KO-T (Figure 6F). WB analysis showed that MMP-13 expression apparently increased in the KO-T (Figure 6G). In addition, immunohistochemical staining showed an increased number of cells that were positive for MMP-9 (Figure 6H) and MMP-13 (Figure 6I) at the invasive fronts of the tumors in the RalGAP α 2 KO group compared with the WT group. These results suggest that MMP-9 and MMP-13 are involved in colon tumor invasion in RalGAP α 2 KO mice.

IL1 β Expression Is Up-Regulated Significantly in Colon Tumors From RalGAP α 2 KO Mice

Next, we examined cytokine levels in mouse tissues by qPCR. IL1 β expression in KO-N was significantly

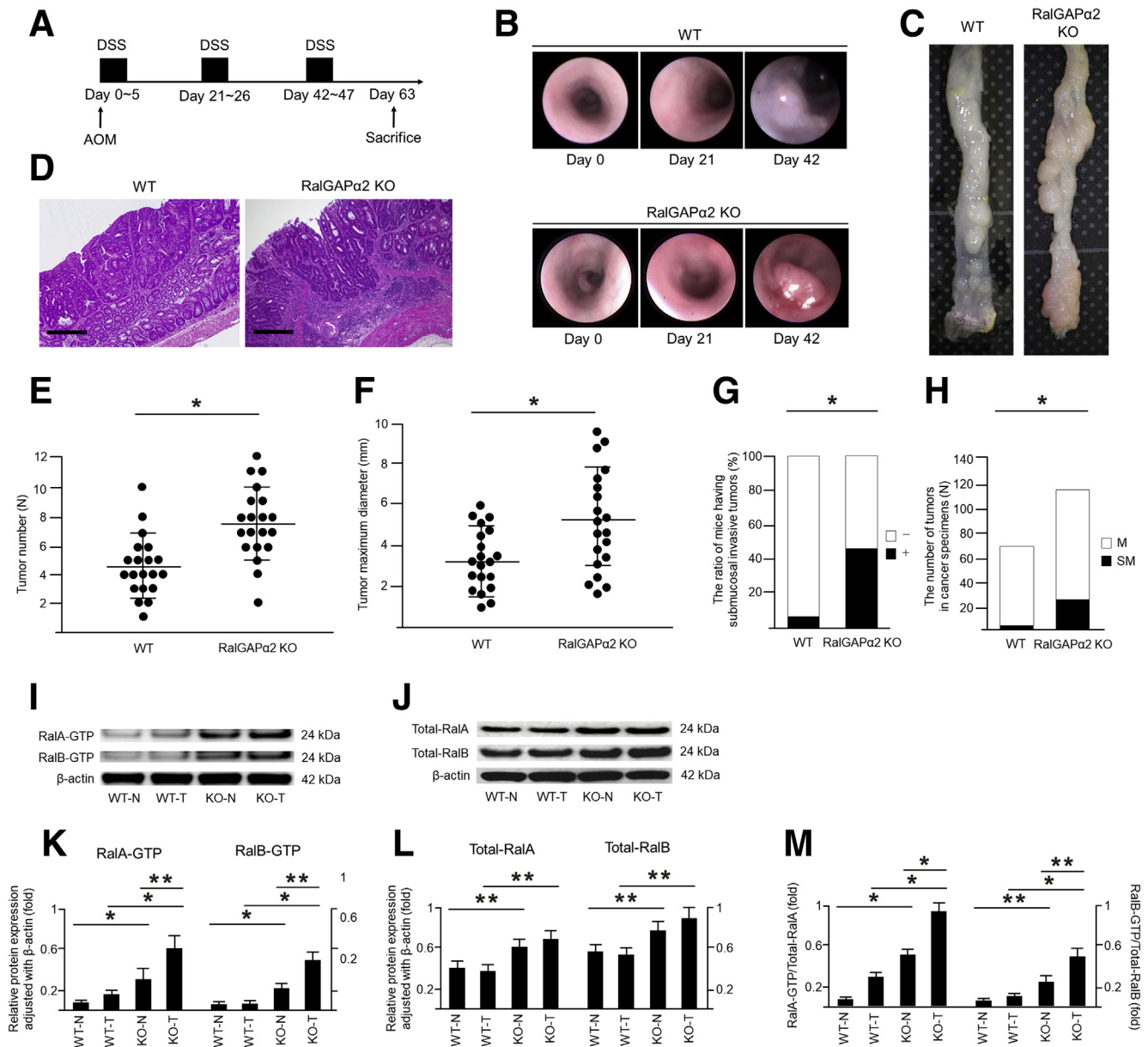


Figure 4. (A) The AOM/DSS administration protocol. We performed this protocol in both WT mice ($n = 20$) and RalGAP α 2 KO mice ($n = 20$). (B) The endoscopic findings of colon tumors in WT mice and RalGAP α 2 KO mice. (C) The macroscopic findings of colon tumors in WT mice and RalGAP α 2 KO mice. (D) H&E staining of colon sections of WT mice and RalGAP α 2 KO mice on day 63 (original magnification, 100 \times). Scale bars: 100 μ m. (E) Tumor number in the WT mice and RalGAP α 2 KO mice. * $P < .01$, Student t test. (F) Tumor maximum diameter in the WT mice and RalGAP α 2 KO mice. * $P < .01$, Student t test. (G) The ratio of mice with submucosal invasive tumors in the WT mice and RalGAP α 2 KO groups. * $P < .01$, Fisher exact test. (H) The number of submucosal invasive tumors in the cancer specimens of WT mice and RalGAP α 2 KO mice. * $P < .01$, Fisher exact test. (I and J) The expression of RalA-GTP, RalB-GTP, total RalA, and total RalB in the colonic mucosa and CAC of both WT mice and RalGAP α 2 KO mice was analyzed by the glutathione-S-transferase–Sec5 pull-down assay. (K and L) Densitometric analysis of the expression levels of RalA-GTP, RalB-GTP, total RalA, and total RalB in the colonic mucosa and CAC of both WT mice and RalGAP α 2 KO mice by Western blot. (M) The ratios of the expression of RalA-GTP/total RalA and RalB-GTP/total RalB in the colonic mucosa and CAC of both WT mice and RalGAP α 2 KO mice. Data are either representative or shown as the means \pm SEM (error bars) of 3 independent experiments. (K–M) * $P < .01$, ** $P < .05$ by repeated-measures analysis of variance with the Holm correction.

higher than that in normal colon tissues of WT mice (WT-N). In addition, *IL1 β* expression in the KO-T was significantly higher than that in the WT-T or KO-N. The expression levels of *IL4* and *IL13* were significantly lower in the KO-T than in WT-T. There were no

differences in the expression levels of *TNF- α* , *interferon- γ* , *IL6*, *IL10*, *IL12A*, *IL17*, or *IL18* (Figure 7A). These data suggest a strong association between *IL1 β* expression and a CAC-promoting inflammatory environment in RalGAP α 2 KO mice.

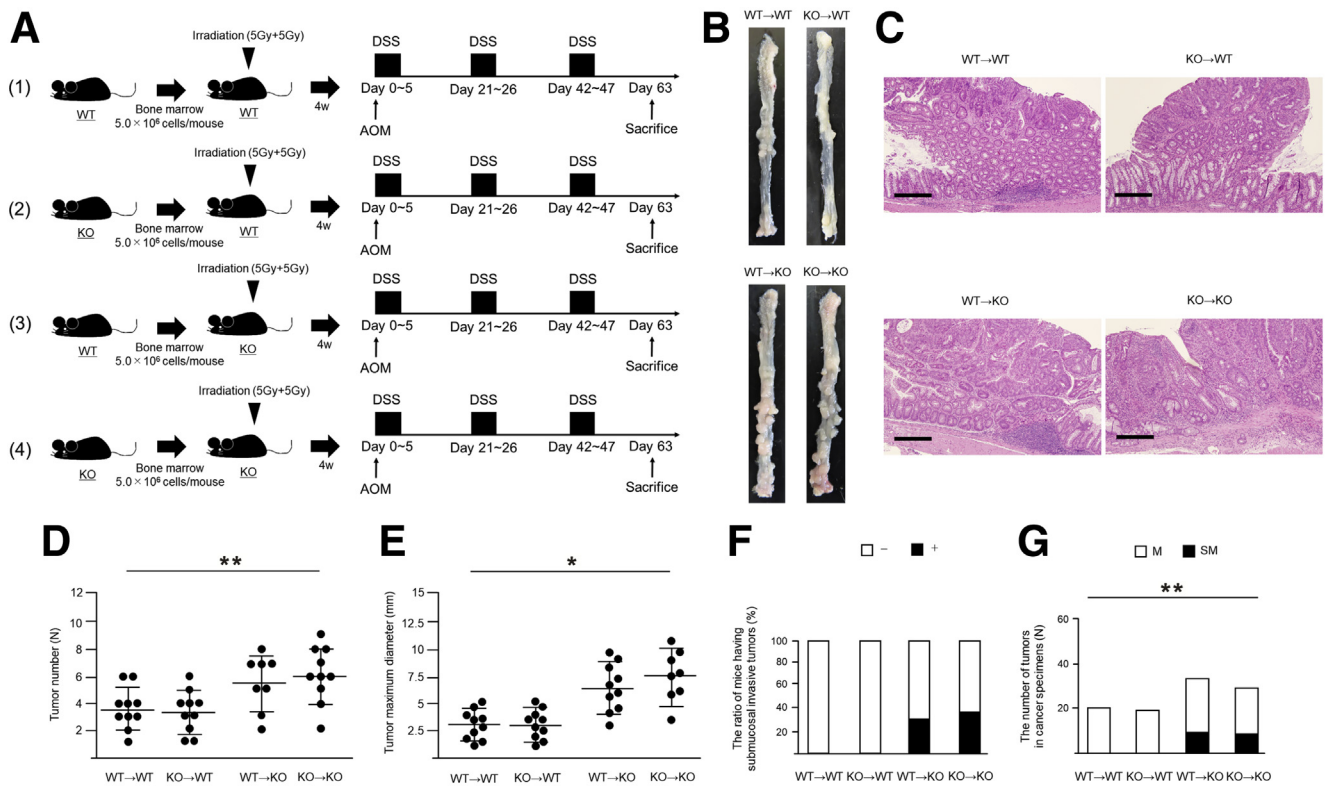


Figure 5. (A) Bone marrow chimeric mice were generated as follows: (1) WT to WT ($n = 10$), (2) WT to RalGAP $\alpha 2$ KO ($n = 10$), (3) RalGAP $\alpha 2$ KO to WT ($n = 10$), and (4) RalGAP $\alpha 2$ KO to RalGAP $\alpha 2$ KO mice ($n = 8$). Four weeks after irradiation (5 Gy + 5 Gy) and bone marrow transfusion (5.0×10^6 cells/mouse), CAC was induced in these mice by intra-peritoneal injection of azoxymethane followed by 3 cycles of dextran sulfate sodium intake. (B) The macroscopic findings of colon tumors in the chimeric mice. (C) H&E staining of colon sections of the chimeric mice on day 63 (original magnification, 100 \times). Scale bars: 100 μ m. (D) Tumor number in the chimeric mice. $**P < .05$, 1-way analysis of variance with the Holm correction. (E) Tumor maximum diameter in the chimeric mice. $*P < .01$, 1-way analysis of variance with the Holm correction. (F) The ratio of mice with submucosal invasive tumors in the chimeric mice (Fisher exact test with the Holm correction). (G) The number of submucosal invasive tumors in the cancer specimens of the chimeric mice. $**P < .05$, Fisher exact test with the Holm correction.

Down-Regulation of RalGAP $\alpha 2$ Induces Activation of the NLRP3 Inflammasome

Next, we focused on the association between Ral activation and the NLRP3 inflammasome as a main inducer of IL1 β . WB analysis showed that RalGAP $\alpha 2$ KD increased the expression levels of NLRP3, apoptosis associated speck-like protein containing a CARD (ASC), pro/cleaved caspase-1, and pro/cleaved caspase-11 in Colon26 cells (Figure 7B). In vivo data showed that the expression of NLRP3, ASC, and pro/cleaved caspase-1 tended to be increased in both WT-T and KO-T. These proteins were expressed more strongly in KO-T than in WT-T. Moreover, pro/cleaved caspase-11, NF- κ B p65, phosphorylated NF- κ B p65 (NF- κ B p-p65), signal transducer and activator of transcription 3 (STAT3), and phosphorylated STAT3 tended to be increased in KO-N than in WT-N. However, these high expressions were not observed in KO-T (Figure 7C). These data indicate that down-regulation of RalGAP $\alpha 2$ did not intensify the non-canonical NLRP3 inflammasome activation or NF- κ B-STAT3 signaling, but intensified the canonical NLRP3 inflammasome activation in CAC.

NLRP3 Inhibitor Administration Suppresses the Invasive Potential of Colon26 Cells and of Tumors in RalGAP $\alpha 2$ KO Mice

To evaluate the role of the inflammasome in CAC development in RalGAP $\alpha 2$ KO mice, we examined the in vitro and in vivo effects of NLRP3 inhibitors on cell invasion. The number of invading Colon26 cells transfected with RalGAP $\alpha 2$ small interfering RNA (siRNA) decreased significantly after administration of the NLRP3 inhibitor (Figure 8).

Next, we investigated the effect of NLRP3 inhibitor on the AOM/DSS mouse model of the following 4 groups: WT + AOM/DSS, WT + AOM/DSS/NLRP3 inhibitor, RalGAP $\alpha 2$ KO + AOM/DSS, and RalGAP $\alpha 2$ KO + AOM/DSS/NLRP3 inhibitor (Figure 9A). Tumor occurrence was examined at the distal end of the colon tissue by endoscopy, macroscopic images, and histopathologic findings, and the representative images of the group of WT + AOM/DSS/NLRP3 inhibitor and RalGAP $\alpha 2$ KO + AOM/DSS/NLRP3 inhibitor are shown in Figure 9B-D. The NLRP3 inhibitor did not affect the number of tumors

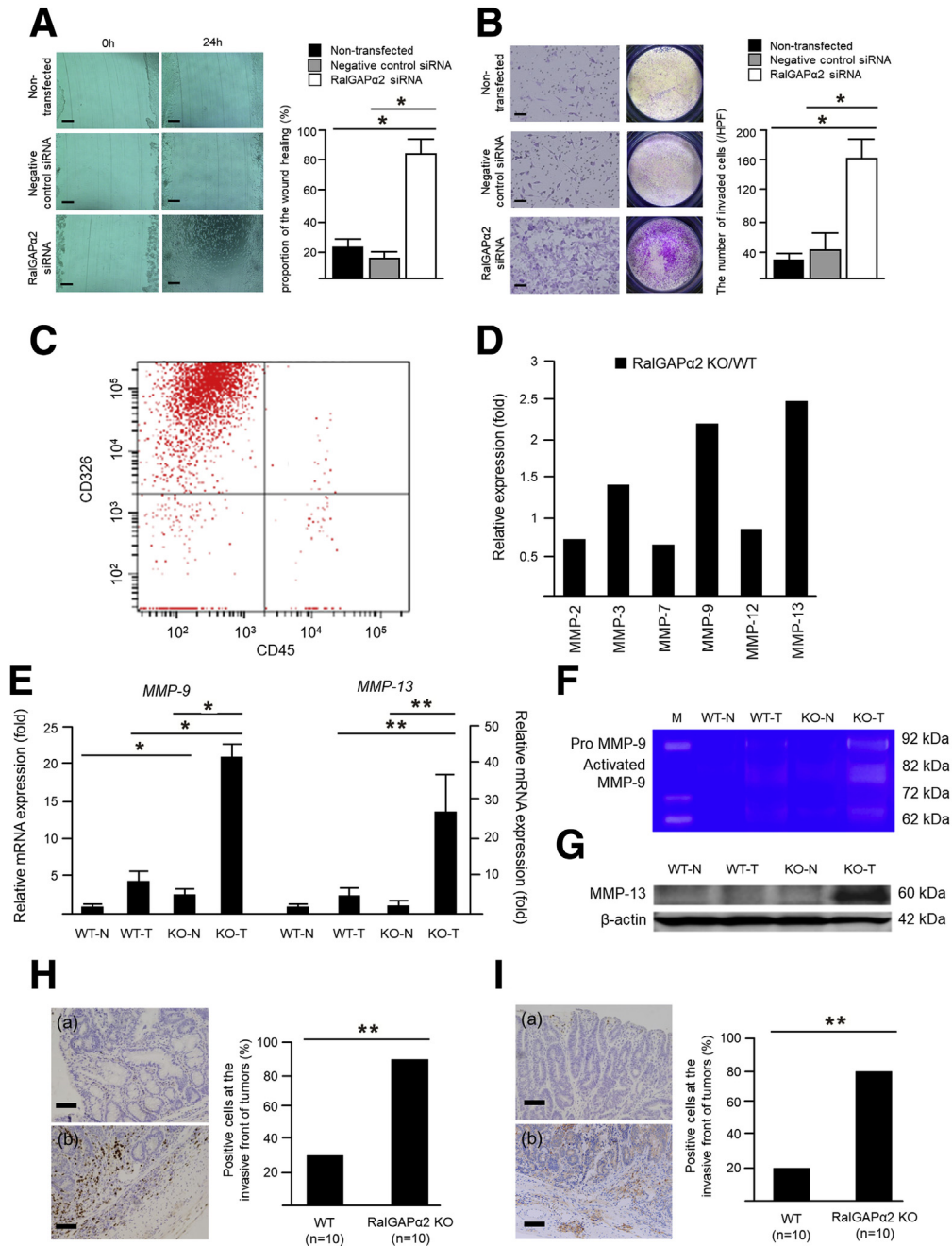


Figure 6. (A) In vitro effect of Ral activation on the migration of RalGAP α 2 knockdown Colon26 cells. Scale bars: 200 μ m. * P < .01, repeated-measures analysis of variance with the Holm correction. (B) In vitro effect of Ral activation on the invasion of RalGAP α 2 knockdown Colon26 cells. Scale bars: 200 μ m. * P < .01, 1-way analysis of variance with the Holm correction. (C) Flow cytometry findings for the isolated colon epithelial cells that were CD326-positive/CD45-negative. (D) The ratio of the gene expression levels of colon epithelial cells in RalGAP α 2 KO mice/WT mice. (E) The mRNA expression levels of MMP-9 and MMP-13 were analyzed by quantitative polymerase chain reaction. The average expression levels in WT-N were defined as 1. * P < .01, ** P < .05, repeated-measures analysis of variance with the Holm correction. (F) Gelatin zymography of activated MMP-9 in colon mucosa and CAC. (G) Western blot of MMP-13 in colon mucosa and CAC. (H and I) Immunohistochemical staining for MMP-9 and MMP-13 in the CAC of WT mice (a) and the CAC of RalGAP α 2 KO mice (b). Scale bars: 100 μ m. The proportion of cells that are positive for MMP-9 and MMP-13 at the invasive fronts of tumors from WT mice and RalGAP α 2 KO mice (n = 10 per group). ** P < .05, Fisher exact test. Data are either representative or shown as the means \pm SEM (error bars) of 3 independent experiments.

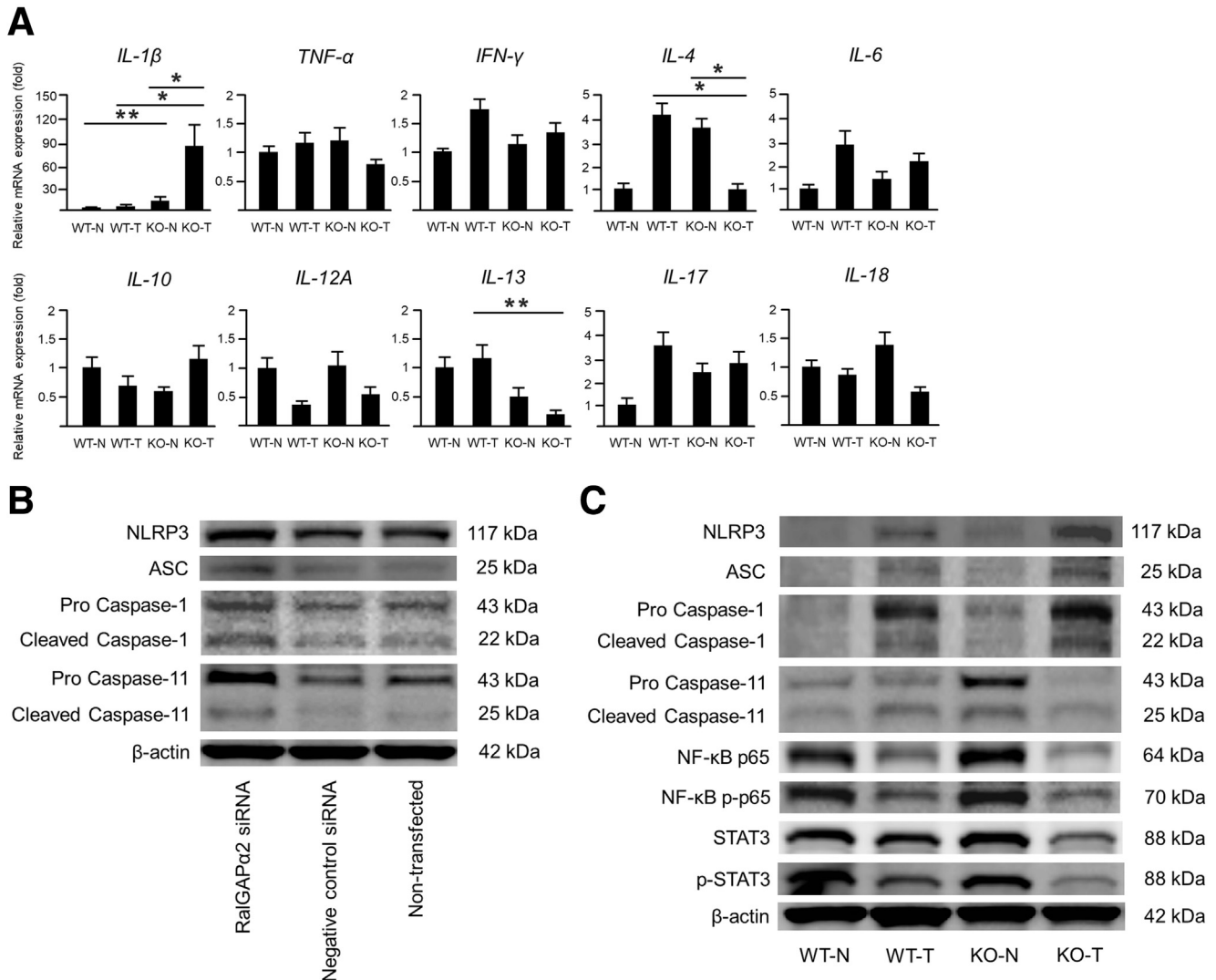


Figure 7. (A) The gene expression levels of *IL1β*, *TNF-α*, *IFN-γ*, *IL4*, *IL6*, *IL10*, *IL12A*, *IL13*, *IL17*, and *IL18* were examined in the colon tissues of WT mice and *RalGAPα2* KO mice by quantitative polymerase chain reaction. The average expression level in the WT-N was defined as 1. * $P < .01$, ** $P < .05$, repeated-measures analysis of variance with the Holm correction. **(B)** The differences in the expression levels of NLRP3, ASC, pro/cleaved caspase-1, and pro/cleaved caspase-11 in the controls and *RalGAPα2* knockdown Colon26 cells were analyzed by Western blot. **(C)** The differences in the expression levels of NLRP3, ASC, pro/cleaved caspase-1, pro/cleaved caspase-11, NF- κ B p65, NF- κ B p-p65, STAT3, and phosphorylated STAT3 in colon mucosa and CAC were analyzed by Western blot. Data are either representative or shown as the means \pm SEM (error bars) of 3 independent experiments.

in either the AOM/DSS-treated WT group or the *RalGAPα2* KO group (Figure 9E). However, the mean size of the tumors in the *RalGAPα2* KO group treated with NLRP3 inhibitor was decreased significantly in comparison with that in the group without NLRP3 inhibitor treatment (*RalGAPα2* KO with NLRP3 inhibitor vs *RalGAPα2* KO without NLRP3 inhibitor, 7.0 ± 2.1 vs 5.1 ± 2.0 mm) (Figure 9F). With regard to the tendency toward tumor invasion, the ratio of mice with SM invasive tumors in the *RalGAPα2* KO group treated with NLRP3 inhibitor was decreased significantly compared with that in the group without NLRP3 inhibitor treatment (*RalGAPα2* KO with NLRP3 inhibitor vs *RalGAPα2* KO

without NLRP3 inhibitor, 45% [9 of 20] vs 10.0% [2 of 20]) (Figure 9G). In addition, the number of SM invasive tumors in the *RalGAPα2* KO group treated with NLRP3 inhibitor was decreased significantly compared with that in the group without NLRP3 inhibitor treatment (*RalGAPα2* KO with NLRP3 inhibitor vs *RalGAPα2* KO without NLRP3 inhibitor, 20% [24 of 120] vs 8.8% [6 of 68]) (Figure 9H). In addition, the expression of NLRP3, ASC, pro/cleaved caspase-1, MMP-9, and MMP-13 in KO-T were decreased when they were treated with NLRP3 inhibitor (Figure 9I-K). These results suggest that the Ral-NLRP3 inflammasome pathway with up-regulation of MMPs is involved in the cell invasion phenotype of CAC.

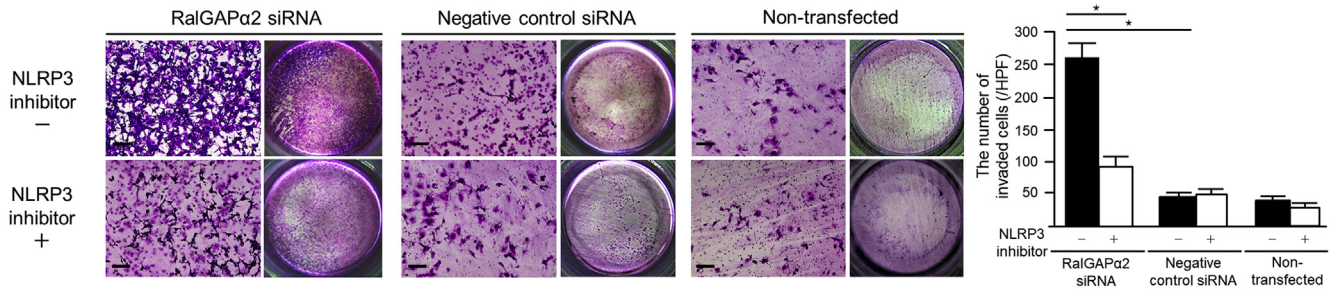


Figure 8. The effect of NLRP3 inhibitor on the invasion of RalGAP α 2 knockdown Colon26 cells and the controls. * $P < .01$, 1-way analysis of variance with the Holm correction). Data are either representative or shown as the means \pm SEM (error bars) of 3 independent experiments. HPF, high-power field.

RalGAP α 2 KD Leads to NLRP3 Transcription via AP-1

The luciferase reporter analysis showed that RalGAP α 2 KD Colon26 cells led to mouse NLRP3 transcription when the plasmids did not extend 1.0 kb upstream from exon 1, but when the plasmids extended 1.6 kb (Figure 10A and B). We focused on some transcriptional factors (Nfatc2, Sox6, AP-1, and Gata1) between this 0.6-kb sequence. The results did not change with the 1.6-kb plasmid except for the sequences of Sox6, Nfatc2, and Gata1. However, the expression of NLRP3 was reduced with the plasmid except for the sequence of AP-1 (Figure 10C). These results show that RalGAP α 2 KD leads to NLRP3 transcription via AP-1.

Discussion

This study showed a critical role for the down-regulation of RalGAP α 2, the major inhibitory regulator of the small GTPase Ral in the colon, in the invasive tumorigenesis of CAC with up-regulation of MMP-9 and MMP-13. In addition, we showed that RalGAP α 2 down-regulation induced IL1 β expression via NLRP3 inflammasome. Notably, the NLRP3 inhibitor significantly suppressed tumor growth with an invasive phenotype during CAC tumorigenesis, indicating the involvement of decreased RalGAP α 2 expression in the progression of CAC via NLRP3 activation with up-regulation of MMPs.

First, we found that RalGAP α 2 expression in human CAC decreased significantly compared with that in human sporadic colorectal cancer. Ral activation has been reported to be related to tumor development in some cancers.¹¹⁻¹³ In gastrointestinal cancers, some reports have been found on the association with sporadic colorectal cancer.^{14,15} Martin et al¹⁴ reported that activation of RalA is necessary for the anchorage-independent growth of sporadic colorectal cancer. Furthermore, Singhal et al¹⁵ reported that Ral guanine nucleotide exchange factor activation plays an important role as an effector in sporadic colorectal cancer cell lines. Ohta et al¹⁶ reported that the decreased expression of the RasGTPase activating protein is associated with colorectal tumor progression. However, the roles of RalGAP in sporadic colorectal cancer and CAC have not been investigated. In the present study, immunohistochemical analysis indicated that the mechanism of Ral activation in CAC might be

different from that in sporadic colorectal cancer. In addition, down-regulation of RalGAP α 2 was observed at a more advanced stage in CAC. Therefore, we used RalGAP α 2 KO mice with the AOM/DSS model to investigate the role of Ral activation in the development of CAC and compared the histopathologic features of CAC in RalGAP α 2 KO mice with those in WT mice. Our data showed that the RalGAP α 2 KO mice with the AOM/DSS model showed significantly larger CAC sizes and more invasive phenotypes than the WT mice. We showed significant increases in the RalA/B-GTP and total Ral A/B ratios of CACs in the colon tumor tissue of RalGAP α 2 KO mice compared with those in the colon tumor tissues of the WT mice in the AOM/DSS CAC model. Taken together, these data show that Ral activation contributes to the development and invasion mechanism of CAC.

Second, we focused on the contribution of RalGAP α 2 on immune cells. WB analysis showed that the expression levels of RalGAP α 2 were weak in monocytes, T cells, and B cells (Figure 1B). Flow cytometry showed that RalGAP α 2 did not influence T-cell or B-cell differentiation or cytokine production of macrophages regardless of the administration of DSS (Figure 2). Furthermore, data on bone marrow chimeric mice showed that RalGAP α 2 did not affect immune cell function in the CAC mechanism (Figure 5).

Third, we focused on the mechanism of tumor invasion in RalGAP α 2 KO mice. In the AOM/DSS CAC model, colon tumors in RalGAP α 2 KO mice showed an invasive phenotype compared with those in WT mice, similar to our previous report with bladder cancer and prostate cancer, which indicated that tumors harboring down-regulated RalGAP α 2 were predisposed to tumor invasion.^{11,12} However, in those studies, we did not address the molecular mechanism underlying the invasive and metastatic phenotypes.

Here, we attempted to elucidate the mechanism underlying the acquisition of the invasive phenotype in Ral-mediated CACs. First, we performed microarray analysis with colon epithelial cells isolated from both WT and RalGAP α 2 KO mice. We found that the gene expression levels of MMP-9 (gelatinase B) and MMP-13 (collagenase 3) in the colon epithelial cells of the RalGAP α 2 KO mice were more than twice the levels of those in WT mice. Strikingly, we found that the expression levels of MMP-9 and MMP-13 were increased drastically in the CAC tissues of the RalGAP α 2 mice. There have been many reports regarding the

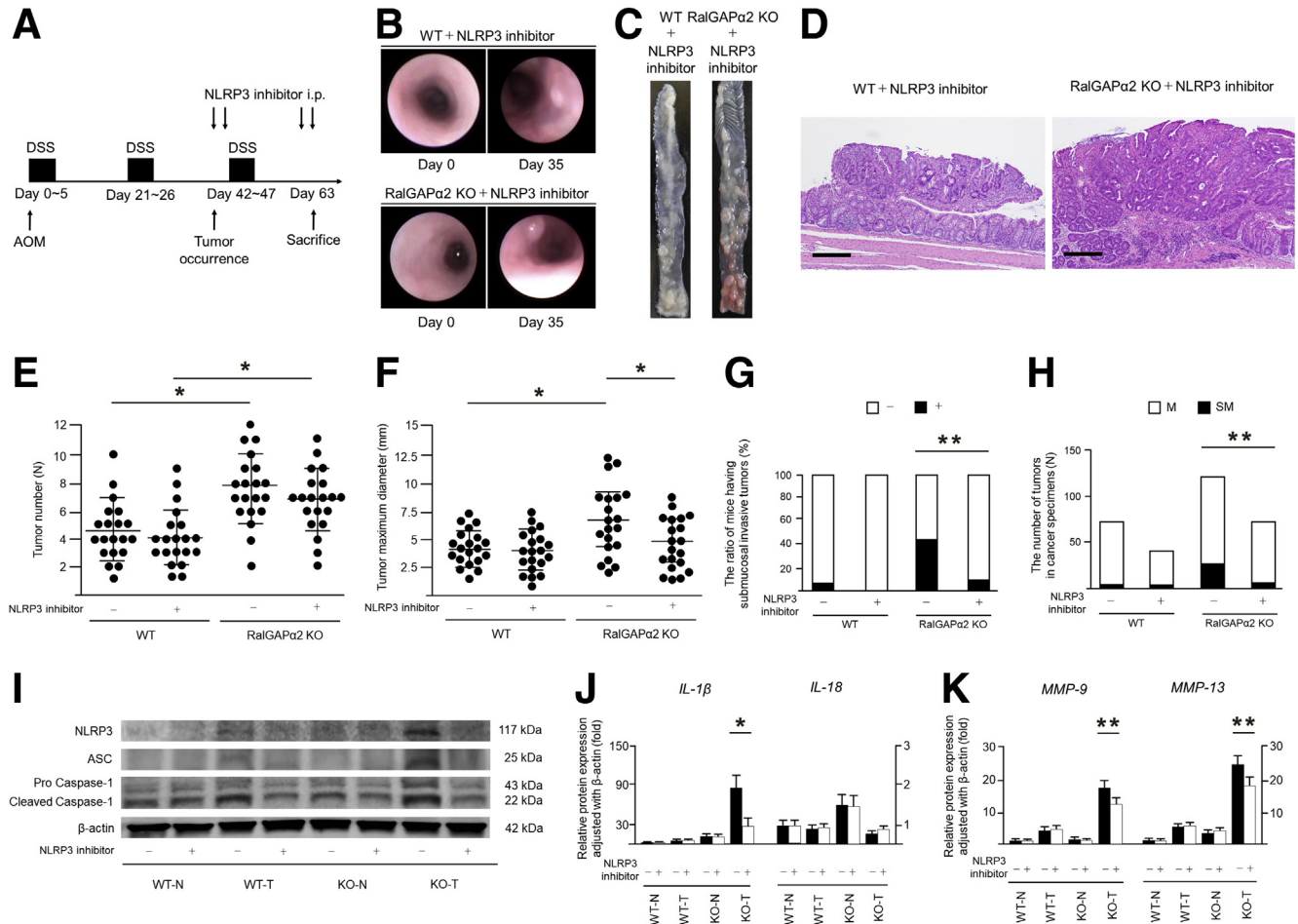


Figure 9. (A) The protocol for AOM/DSS/NLRP3 inhibitor administration. (B) Endoscopic findings of CAC occurrence with NLRP3 inhibitor administration in WT mice and RalGAP α 2 KO mice. (C) Macroscopic findings of CAC occurrence with NLRP3 inhibitor administration in WT mice and RalGAP α 2 KO mice. (D) Histopathologic findings of CAC occurrence with NLRP3 inhibitor administration in WT mice and RalGAP α 2 KO mice. (E–H) Groups were categorized as follows: WT mice + AOM/DSS, WT mice + AOM/DSS/NLRP3 inhibitor, RalGAP α 2 KO mice + AOM/DSS, and RalGAP α 2 KO mice + AOM/DSS/NLRP3 inhibitor. (E–H) These 4 groups were compared for (E) tumor number ($*P < .01$, 1-way analysis of variance with the Holm correction), (F) tumor maximum diameter ($*P < .01$, 1-way analysis of variance with the Holm correction), (G) the ratio of mice with submucosal invasive tumors ($P < .05$, Fisher exact test with the Holm correction), and (H) the number of submucosal invasive tumors in the cancer specimens ($**P < .05$, Fisher exact test with the Holm correction). M, mucosal tumors. (I) The expression of NLRP3, ASC, and pro/cleaved caspase-1 in colon mucosa and CAC with or without NLRP3 inhibitor administration were analyzed by Western blot. (J and K) The mRNA expression of *IL1 β* , *IL18*, *MMP-9*, and *MMP-13* in colon mucosa and CAC with or without NLRP3 inhibitor administration were analyzed by quantitative polymerase chain reaction. Data are either representative or shown as the means \pm SEM (error bars) of 3 independent experiments. The average expression level in the WT-N without NLRP3 inhibitor was defined as 1. $*P < .01$, $**P < .05$, repeated-measures analysis of variance with the Holm correction.**

critical role of MMPs in cancer invasion and metastasis.^{17,18} Our in vitro and in vivo analyses suggested that aberrant Ral activation could contribute to the invasive phenotype of CACs via the induction of MMPs.

Next, we focused on the role of inflammation in CAC. Although various types of cytokines, such as TNF- α , IL1 β , IL6, IL10, and IL12/23, are involved in the pathophysiology of IBD,¹⁹ our study yielded the unexpected findings of extremely high IL1 β expression in the colon tumors of RalGAP α 2 KO mice in comparison with other cytokines, such as Th1, Th2, and Th17 cytokines. Several reports have addressed the association between IL1 β and CAC. Neutrophils were found to produce IL1 in experimentally induced

colitis and in patients with CAC.²⁰ Blockade of IL1 β activity was shown to reduce tumorigenesis in mice by impairing macrophage-dependent IL6 secretion.²¹ Moreover, it was reported that IL1 β up-regulates MMP gene expression.^{22–24} Taken together, the data in our study indicate that the levels of IL1 β produced by cancer cells with down-regulated RalGAP α 2 contributed to tumor invasion through MMPs.

When considering IL1 β expression in the tumors of RalGAP α 2 KO mice, we focused on the association between Ral and the NLRP3 inflammasome. To assess how Ral was involved in NLRP3 inflammasome complex activation, we examined NLRP3 complex activation in Ral-activated colon cancer cell lines and the Ral-activated mouse CAC model.

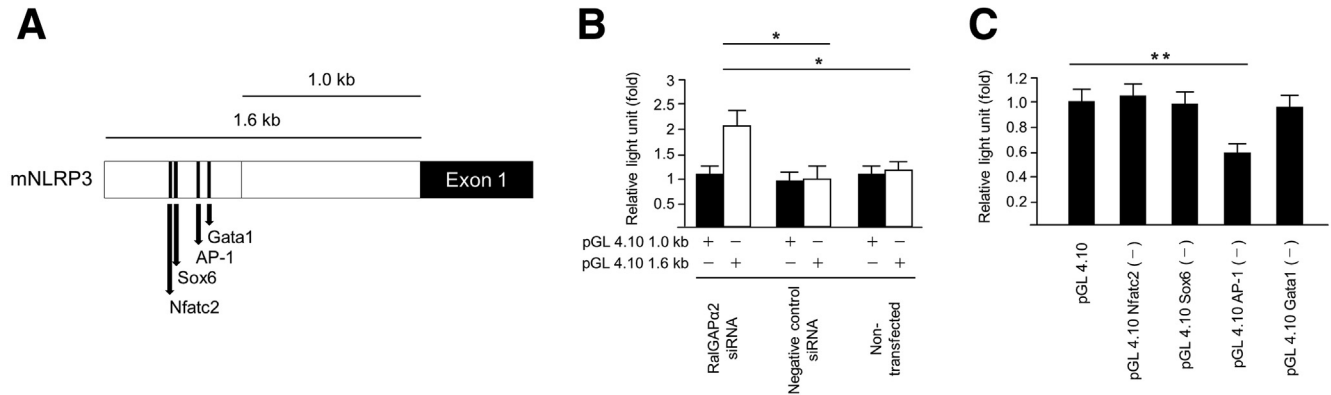


Figure 10. (A) The promoter region of mouse NLRP3. (B) The expression of NLRP3 was investigated by luciferase reporter assay with pGL 4.10 1.0-kb plasmids or 1.6-kb plasmids on RalGAP α 2 knockdown Colon26 cells and controls. * $P < .01$, repeated analysis of variance with the Holm correction. The average expression of Colon26 cells transfected with negative control siRNA and pGL 4.10 1.6-kb plasmids was defined as 1. (C) The expression of NLRP3 was investigated by luciferase reporter assay with pGL 4.10 1.6-kb plasmids or pGL 4.10 1.6-kb plasmids without the sequence of Nfatc2, Sox6, AP-1, or Gata1 on RalGAP α 2 knockdown Colon26 cells. ** $P < .05$, repeated analysis of variance with the Holm correction. The average expression of Colon26 cells transfected with pGL 4.10 1.6-kb plasmids was defined as 1. Data are shown as the means \pm SEM (error bars) of 3 independent experiments.

Intriguingly, we found that down-regulation of RalGAP α 2 led to NLRP3 inflammasome activation and that NLRP3 inhibition led to decreasing invasive phenotype. However, NLRP3 inhibition did not affect the tumor number but affected its invasive phenotype in vivo. Although a relatively small sample size may have been affected, it was considered that NLRP3 inhibition affected the Ral-NLRP3-MMP pathway and reduced tumor invasion in comparison with tumor enlargement.

Our study showed a significant role for the Ral-activated NLRP3 inflammasome with up-regulation of MMPs in CAC. To date, the role of the inflammasome in CAC progression remains controversial. Several studies have indicated that inflammasome components provide protection against tumorigenesis in CAC.^{25,26} In contrast, recent studies have shown that inflammasomes can promote tumor development in CAC.^{27,28} In addition, we identified the NLRP3-AP-1 axis under a Ral-activated state. There have been a few reports on the relationship between Ral and AP-1,²⁹ and between NLRP3 and AP-1.^{30,31} However, no reports on the association among Ral, NLRP3, and AP-1 in CAC have been reported. Given our in vitro and in vivo results, the Ral-NLRP3 inflammasome interaction provides new insight into the elucidation of the CAC mechanism.

In this study, IL18 expression in the colon tissues of RalGAP α 2 KO mice was not increased in comparison with that in the colon tissues of WT mice, suggesting that RalGAP α 2 down-regulation is not involved in IL18 transcription but is deeply involved in IL1 β transcription. During the onset or initiation of intestinal inflammation, IL18 plays a protective role.³² In addition, the administration of exogenous IL18 was reported to alleviate the severity of colitis and colitis-induced tumorigenesis in caspase-1/11 and NLRP3 KO mice.³³ Therefore, a lack of increased IL18 expression might contribute to colitis and colitis-induced tumorigenesis in RalGAP α 2 KO mice.

In conclusion, our study showed that RalGAP α 2 down-regulation was involved in the mechanism of inflammation-induced colon tumor development. In addition, we identified a possible link between Ral and the NLRP3 inflammasome. Hence, the Ral-NLRP3 pathway can be a potential future therapeutic target for limiting CAC progression.

Materials and Methods

Ethics

This study was performed in accordance with the relevant guidelines and regulations of the animal experiment committee of Sapporo Medical University (Sapporo, Japan). The protocol was approved by the Institutional Committee for Animal Research and the Gene Recombination Experiment Safety Committee at Sapporo Medical University. With regard to human tissues, we used human sporadic colorectal cancer and CAC samples that were obtained surgically at Sapporo Medical University and Hyogo College of Medicine (Nishinomiya, Japan) between 2005 and 2015 under a protocol approved by the institutional review board.

Cell Culture and Chemicals

Human cancer cell lines (lung, A549; breast, MCF7; colon, Colo320; prostate, DU145; and liver, Hep3B), human immune cell lines (monocyte, THP-1; T cell, SupT1; and B cell, Daudi), and a mouse cancer cell line (colon, Colon26) were kindly provided by the laboratory of the National Institutes of Biomedical Innovation, Health and Nutrition, Japanese Collection of Research Bioresources Cell Bank (Osaka, Japan). Cells were maintained in RPMI-1640 medium (cat. R8758; Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO) containing 10% fetal bovine serum (cat. 26140079; Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA) and penicillin plus streptomycin (100 U/mL + 100 μ g/mL, respectively).

Table 1. TaqMan Primer-Probe Sets

Gene	Assay ID
<i>MMP-9</i>	Mm00442991_m1
<i>MMP-13</i>	Mm00439491_m1
β -actin	Mm02619580_g1

With regard to RNA interference, we used silencer siRNA targeting mouse RalGAP α 2 (cat. 4390771, ID: s109604; Thermo Fisher Scientific). A universal control sequence was used as a negative control (cat. 4390843, silencer negative control no. 1 siRNA; Thermo Fisher Scientific). Colon26 cells were transfected with siRNA at 10 nmol/L using RNAiMAX transfection reagent (cat. 13778075; Thermo Fisher Scientific). Cells were analyzed at 60 hours after transfection.

Murine Care

Male C57BL/6J mice (age, 7 wk) were purchased from Sankyo Labo Service Co (Tokyo, Japan). RalGAP α 2 KO mice (C57BL/6J strain) were originally generated as described previously.¹¹ They were housed in plastic cages (4–6 mice/cage) under controlled conditions of humidity (50% \pm 10%), light (12/12-hour light/dark cycle), and temperature (24°C \pm 2°C) in specific pathogen-free conditions. Drinking water and a pelleted basal diet were available ad libitum.

Generation of Bone Marrow Chimeric Mice

Cell suspensions from WT or RalGAP α 2 KO mice bone marrow were prepared from femurs and tibias, filtered, and counted. Eight- to 12-week-old male WT or RalGAP α 2 KO mice received a single intravenous injection of 5.0×10^6 bone marrow cells after total body irradiation using a gamma-ray unit (Gammacell 40; Marubeni Utility Service, Tokyo, Japan). Total body irradiation was administered to recipients in 2 doses (5 Gy + 5 Gy) with a 3-hour interval between the 2 procedures to reduce intestinal damage. Mice then were followed up clinically for 4 weeks. The following groups of chimeric mice were generated: (1) WT to WT, (2) WT to RalGAP α 2 KO, (3) RalGAP α 2 KO to WT, and (4) RalGAP α 2 KO to RalGAP α 2 KO mice (Figure 5A).

Mouse CAC Model

With regard to the induction of CAC, we injected male mice intraperitoneally (age, 8 wk), and after bone marrow transfusion male mice (ages, 12–16 wk) were given 12 μ g/g/body weight AOM (cat. A5486; Sigma-Aldrich) on day 0. Mice were given 2.0% DSS (cat. MFCD00081551, molecular weight 36–50 kilodaltons; MP Biomedicals, Irvine, CA) in water ad libitum for 5 days followed by 16 days of regular drinking water. Then, mice were subjected to an additional 2 DSS cycles.

Furthermore, we intraperitoneally injected glyburide (NLRP3 inhibitor) (cat. NBP2-30141; Novus Biologicals, Littleton, CO) at 50 mg/kg into some male mice daily from tumor occurrence to death according to the AOM/DSS

protocol described earlier. The occurrence of CAC was evaluated by endoscopy once a week.

Endoscopic Procedure and Sample Collection

A colonoscopic examination was performed using a microscope system (AVS, Tokyo, Japan), which included a video system (AVS) and a video monitor (Sony, Tokyo, Japan). Mice were anesthetized with isoflurane (cat. 4548995008299; Fujifilm Wako Pure Chemical Cooperation, Osaka, Japan) before endoscopy without preparations, such as fasting or laxatives. Mice were examined endoscopically with respect to inflammation and tumor development in the colon. Colonoscopic examination was performed once a week from day 7 to the end of the study, namely, the 63rd day. Mice were killed on the 63rd day of the experiment.

WT-N, WT-T, KO-N, and KO-T were collected. With regard to histopathologic analysis for colon cancer, the tumor number, tumor maximum diameter, percentage of mice with SM invasion, and percentage of colon cancers with SM invasion among all colon cancers were investigated in our experiments. Tumor number and size were evaluated by visual inspection. In addition, histopathologic examinations of the tumor depth were performed using H&E staining.

Differentiation of T Cells

After the spleen and leg bones were extracted from each mouse at age 8 weeks, the spleen was treated, and CD4⁺ CD62⁺ T cells were isolated using a magnetic cell sorting (MACS) system (cat. 130-106-643; Miltenyi Biotec, Bergisch Gladbach, Germany) according to the manufacturer's instructions. These cells were incubated in a 96-well T-cell activation plate (anti-mouse CD3 antibody) (cat. 354720; Corning, Inc, Bedford, MA) for 48 hours, and T-cell differentiation was analyzed by flow cytometry (BD FACSAria II; BD Biosciences, San Jose, CA) using 7-amino-actinomycin D (cat. 420403; BioLegend, San Diego, CA) and a Mouse Th1/Th2/Th17 Phenotyping Kit (cat. 560758; BD Biosciences), including rabbit anti-mouse fluorescein isothiocyanate–interferon- γ , rabbit anti-mouse allophycocyanin–IL4, and rabbit anti-mouse phycoerythrin–IL17A, according to the manufacturer's instructions. These experiments also were performed after 5 days of DSS administration and after 5 days of water drinking.

Differentiation of B Cells

After spleens and leg bones were extracted from each mouse at age 8 weeks, they were treated and CD19⁺ B cells were isolated using a magnetic cell sorting system (cat. 130-121-301; Miltenyi Biotec) according to the manufacturer's instructions. The differentiation of these cells was investigated by flow cytometry (BD FACSAria II) by using 7-amino-actinomycin D (cat. 420403; BioLegend) and antibodies as follows: rat anti-mouse fluorescein isothiocyanate–IgM (cat. 11-4011-85; Thermo Fisher Scientific) and rat anti-mouse allophycocyanin–IgD (cat. 17-5993-82; Thermo Fisher

Table 2. Primer Sequences

Gene	Forward	Reverse
<i>IL1β</i>	5'-CAACCAACAAGTGATATTCTCCATG-3'	5'-GATCCACACTCTCCAGCTGCA-3'
<i>IL4</i>	5'-CAACCCCCAGCTAGTTGTCA-3'	5'-TGTGGTGTCTTCCGTTGCTG-3'
<i>IL6</i>	5'-TCTGCAAGAGACTTCCATCCA-3'	5'-TCCACGATTTCCAGAGAACA-3'
<i>IL10</i>	5'-CTATGCTGCCTGCTCTTACTG-3'	5'-AGCAGTATGTTGTCCAGCTG-3'
<i>IL12A</i>	5'-TGAGCTGATGCAGTCTCTGA-3'	5'-CCTTGAGCCTTTCAGGCAGA-3'
<i>IL13</i>	5'-CACTACGGTCTCCAGCCTCC-3'	5'-CCAGGGATGGTCTCTCCTCA-3'
<i>IL17</i>	5'-TCTCTGATGCTGTTGCTGCT-3'	5'-CGTGGAAACGGTTGAGGTAGT-3'
<i>IL18</i>	5'-GACAGCCTGTGTTGAGGAT-3'	5'-GGTCACAGCCAGTCTCTTA-3'
<i>TNF-α</i>	5'-CATGCACCACCATCAAGGAC-3'	5'-GGCCTGAGATCTTATCCAGCC-3'
<i>IFN-γ</i>	5'-AGCTCTTCTCATGGCTGTT-3'	5'-ATCTGGCTCTGCAGGATTTT-3'
<i>β-actin</i>	5'-GACCCTGAAGTACCCATTGAA-3'	5'-AAGGTGTGGTGCCAGATCTTCT-3'

Scientific). These experiments also were performed after 5 days of DSS administration and after 5 days of water drinking.

Cytokines Released From Intraperitoneal Macrophages

Macrophages were collected from both WT and RalGAP α 2 KO mice on day 4 after intraperitoneal administration of 5.0% thioglycolate (cat. T0632; Sigma-Aldrich). The macrophages were prepared after removing erythrocytes with red blood cell lysis solution (cat. 158902; Qiagen, Germantown, MD). They were seeded at 1.0×10^6 cells/well in a 6-well culture plate and incubated overnight in medium containing 40 ng/mL recombinant murine macrophage colony-stimulating factor (cat. 315-02; Peprotech, Rocky Hill, NJ). We compared the cytokine levels of the WT mice and RalGAP α 2 KO mice by enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay after collecting the culture supernatants of macrophages. These experiments also were performed after 5 days of DSS administration and after 5 days of water drinking.

qPCR, WB, Gelatin Zymography, and Enzyme-Linked Immunosorbent Assay

Total RNA was prepared and reverse-transcribed using a SuperScript VILO complementary DNA Synthesis Kit (cat. 11754050; Thermo Fisher Scientific). The mRNA expression of *MMP-9* and *MMP-13* was analyzed using TaqMan Gene Expression Assays (Thermo Fisher Scientific). Furthermore, the mRNA expression of cytokines derived from mouse colon tissues was analyzed using Power SYBR Green PCR Master Mix (cat. 4367659; Thermo Fisher Scientific). The probes and primer sequences used in this study are shown in Tables 1 and 2, respectively. The gene expression levels of target molecules were normalized to β -actin expression.

For the WB analyses, cells and tissues were lysed in RIPA buffer (cat. R0278; Sigma-Aldrich) with protease inhibitor (cat. S8820; Sigma-Aldrich). Protein concentrations were determined with the Bradford method using bovine serum albumin as the standard. The supernatants were

boiled in sample buffer (0.05 mol/L Tris-HCl, 2% sodium dodecyl sulfate, 6% β -mercaptoethanol, 10% glycerol, and 1.25% bromophenol blue), subjected to sodium dodecyl sulfate-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (10% polyacrylamide gels), and transferred onto polyvinylidene fluoride membranes (cat. SNY0720; Pall Corporation, Pensacola, FL). The membranes were blocked with blocking buffer (Tris-buffered saline with 0.5% Tween-20) containing 5% milk powder and then incubated with primary antibodies overnight at 4°C. Rabbit anti-RalGAP α 1- α 2 and - β polyclonal antibodies were generated and provided by the author (H.H.). Other primary antibodies that we used were as follows: rabbit anti-RalA (cat. ab96759; Abcam, Cambridge, MA), rabbit anti-RalB (cat. ab129077; Abcam), rabbit anti-MMP-13 (cat. ab39012; Abcam), rabbit anti-NLRP3 (cat. ab214185; Abcam), rabbit anti-ASC (cat. sc-22514-R; Santa Cruz Biotechnology, Dallas, TX), rabbit anti-caspase-1 (cat. ab138483; Abcam), rabbit anti-caspase-11 (cat. ab180673; Abcam), rabbit anti-NF- κ B p65 (cat. ab16502; Abcam), rabbit anti-NF- κ B p65 (phospho S536) (cat. ab86299; Abcam), rabbit anti-STAT3 (cat. ab68153; Abcam), rabbit anti-STAT3 (phospho S727) (cat. ab30647; Abcam), and mouse anti- β -actin conjugate (cat. 017-24573; Fujifilm Wako Pure Chemical Cooperation). We used horseradish-peroxidase-labeled anti-rabbit IgG as a secondary antibody (cat. 7074P2; Cell Signaling Technology, Inc, Danvers, MA). The membranes were incubated with luminescence detection reagent (cat. 32106; Thermo Fisher Scientific), and we visualized luminescence using an analyzer (LAS-3000; Fujifilm Co, Tokyo, Japan). Densitometric analysis was performed using ImageJ software version 1.52h (National Institutes of Health, Bethesda, MD, available: <http://rsbweb.nih.gov/ij/>).

In addition, MMP-9 expression was analyzed by gelatin zymography, which was performed using a gelatin zymography kit (cat. PMC-AK47-COS; Cosmo Bio Co, Tokyo, Japan) according to the manufacturer's instructions. The gel was imaged with the detector system (AE-9000 E-graph; ATTO Co, Tokyo, Japan).

An enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay was performed using the IL1 β Assay kit (cat. MLB00C; R&D Systems,

Minneapolis, MN), IL12A Assay Kit (cat. M1270; R&D Systems), TNF- α Assay Kit (cat. MTA00B; R&D Systems), MMP-9 Assay Kit (cat. MMPT90; R&D Systems), and MMP-13 Assay Kit (cat. CSB-E07413m; Cusabio, Houston, TX), according to the manufacturers' instructions. Sample absorbance was measured at 450/570 nm using a microplate reader (Thermo Fisher Scientific).

Glutathione-S-Transferase–Sec5 Pull-Down Assay

Lysates of Colon26 cells or mouse tissues were centrifuged at $20,900 \times g$ for 10 minutes. Supernatants containing 200 μg of proteins were incubated at 4°C for 30 minutes with glutathione beads (cat. 17075601, Glutathione Sepharose 4B; GE Healthcare, Uppsala, Sweden) coated with 20 μg of glutathione-S-transferase–Sec5 Ral-binding domain.⁴ After washing the beads, the bead-associated GTP-RalA and GTP-RalB were analyzed by WB as described earlier.

Wound Healing Assay

For wound healing assays, Colon26 cells transfected with RalGAP α 2 siRNA in 6-well culture dishes were scratched with a plastic pipette tip and cultured for 24 hours. The widths of the wounds (scratched areas) were measured with ImageJ software (<http://rsbweb.nih.gov/ij/>), and the proportion of wound healing was calculated with the following formula: $100\% - (\text{width after 24 hours}/\text{width at the beginning}) \times 100\%$. The same procedure also was applied to nontransfected Colon26 cells and Colon26 cells transfected with negative control siRNA.

Cell Invasion Assay

Cell invasion assays were performed using Colon26 cells. In addition, the group was divided into 2 groups according to the presence or absence of 5 μg glyburide (NLRP3 inhibitor) (cat. NBP2-30141; Novus Biologicals) administration. Cell invasion through the Matrigel membrane was quantified using a commercially available cell invasion kit (cat. 354481; Corning, Inc). Colon26 cells (5×10^4 cells/mL) were added to the upper compartments of the chambers and incubated for 22 hours with serum-free RPMI-1640 medium (cat. R8758; Sigma-Aldrich). The cells in the upper chambers were removed, and the cells that had invaded through the Matrigel matrix were stained with May-Giemsa for 2 hours. The extent of infiltration was measured by counting cells.

Microarray Analysis

Phenotypic differences in colonic epithelial cells from both WT mice and RalGAP α 2 KO mice were examined. Colonic epithelial cells were isolated from colon tissues, and after flow cytometry using BD FACSAria II (BD Biosciences) was performed to determine whether more than 90% of the isolated cells were CD326-positive/CD45-negative epithelial cells, microarray analysis was performed using a 3D-Gene Human Oligo chip 25k (Toray Industries, Inc, Tokyo, Japan). Microarray slides were scanned using a 3D-Gene Scanner

(Toray Industries, Inc) and processed with 3D-Gene Extraction software (Toray Industries, Inc).

Luciferase Reporter Assay

The NLRP3 promoter was inserted into pGL4.10 plasmids containing luciferase sequences (cat. E6651; Promega, Madison, WI) downstream of the promoter, and the plasmids whose concentrations were adjusted to 1 $\mu\text{g}/\text{well}$ were transfected into RalGAP α 2 KD Colon26 cells using Screen Fect A (cat. 299-73203; Fujifilm Wako Pure Chemical Cooperation). Luciferase activity was measured using the Dual-Luciferase Reporter Assay System (cat. E1910; Promega) with a microplate reader (Infinite M1000 Pro; Tecan, Männedorf, Switzerland), and Renilla luciferase activity was used as the internal control. These experiments were performed with plasmids, except for the Nfatc2, Sox6, AP-1, and Gata1 sequences.

Immunohistochemistry

Immunohistochemistry was performed on 5- μm , formalin-fixed, paraffin-embedded sections. Endogenous peroxidase activity was blocked using 3% hydrogen peroxide, and the sections were incubated overnight at 4°C with primary antibody. The primary antibodies used were as follows: rabbit anti-RalGAP α 2, rabbit anti-MMP-9 (cat. ab38898; Abcam), and rabbit anti-MMP-13 (cat. ab39012; Abcam). A subsequent reaction was performed using a horseradish-peroxidase, enzyme-labeled polymer of the Real EnVision detection system (cat. K5007; Agilent, Santa Clara, CA). When a positive reaction was visualized using a diaminobenzidine solution, counterstaining was performed using Mayer's hematoxylin.

For the human samples, normal colon tissues were defined as the distal healthy part with sporadic colorectal cancers. Moreover, CACs were divided into 2 groups: noninvasive (in situ or T1) or invasive (T2-4). The RalGAP α 2 expression level of each human sample was graded as strong staining or weak staining. For the mouse samples, the MMP-9 and MMP-13 expression levels of each mouse tissue were graded as strong staining or weak staining at the invasive front of the tumors. These classifications were conducted independently by 2 observers in a blind fashion. Although 80% of the judgments coincided, 20% did not. When the results of the evaluations differed between the 2 observers, the discrepancies were resolved by discussion.

Patient Cohort

We examined patient information regarding age, sex, underlying disease (ulcerative colitis or Crohn's disease), colitis range (left or total), disease duration, and TNM classification in patients with sporadic colorectal cancer or CAC.

Statistical Analysis

To compare groups, categorical variables were compared using the Fisher exact test. Two-group comparisons of mean

values, multigroup comparisons of repeatedly measured samples using ratios relative to the control samples, and multigroup comparisons of repeatedly measured samples using measured values relative to control values were analyzed using the Student *t* test, repeated-measures analysis of variance, and 1-way analysis of variance, respectively. Multiple comparisons were corrected with the Holm method. A difference was considered significant when $P < .05$. All tests were 2-tailed.

References

1. Terzić J, Grivennikov S, Karin E, Karin M. Inflammation and colon cancer. *Gastroenterology* 2010;138:2101–2114.e5.
2. Ullman TA, Itzkowitz SH. Intestinal inflammation and cancer. *Gastroenterology* 2011;140:1807–1816.
3. Chen XW, Leto D, Chiang SH, Wang Q, Saltiel AR. Activation of RalA is required for insulin-stimulated Glut4 trafficking to the plasma membrane via the exocyst and the motor protein Myo1c. *Dev Cell* 2007;13:391–404.
4. Kawato M, Shirakawa R, Kondo H, Higashi T, Ikeda T, Okawa K, Fukai S, Nureki O, Kita T, Horiuchi H. Regulation of platelet dense granule secretion by the Ral GTPase-exocyst pathway. *J Biol Chem* 2008;283:166–174.
5. Henry DO, Moskalenko SA, Kaur KJ, Fu M, Pestell RG, Camonis JH, White MA. Ral GTPases contribute to regulation of cyclin D1 through activation of NF- κ B. *Mol Cell Biol* 2000;20:8084–8092.
6. Feig LA. Ral-GTPases: approaching their 15 minutes of fame. *Trends Cell Biol* 2003;13:419–425.
7. Bodemann BO, White MA. Ral GTPases and cancer: linchpin support of the tumorigenic platform. *Nat Rev Cancer* 2008;8:133–140.
8. Chien Y, White MA. RAL GTPases are linchpin modulators of human tumour-cell proliferation and survival. *EMBO Rep* 2003;4:800–806.
9. Shirakawa R, Fukai S, Kawato M, Higashi T, Kondo H, Ikeda T, Nakayama E, Okawa K, Nureki O, Kimura T, Kita T, Horiuchi H. Tuberosclerosis tumor suppressor complex-like complexes act as GTPase-activating proteins for Ral GTPases. *J Biol Chem* 2009;284:21580–21588.
10. Shirakawa R, Horiuchi H. Ral GTPases: crucial mediators of exocytosis and tumorigenesis. *J Biochem* 2015;157:285–299.
11. Saito R, Shirakawa R, Nishiyama H, Kobayashi T, Kawato M, Kanno T, Nishizawa K, Matsui Y, Ohbayashi T, Horiguchi M, Nakamura T, Ikeda T, Yamane K, Nakayama E, Nakamura E, Toda Y, Kimura T, Kita T, Ogawa O, Horiuchi H. Downregulation of Ral GTPase-activating protein promotes tumor invasion and metastasis of bladder cancer. *Oncogene* 2013;32:894–902.
12. Uegaki M, Kita Y, Shirakawa R, Teramoto Y, Kamiyama Y, Saito R, Yoshikawa T, Sakamoto H, Goto T, Akamatsu S, Yamasaki T, Inoue T, Suzuki A, Horiuchi H, Ogawa O, Kobayashi T. Downregulation of RalGTPase-activating protein promotes invasion of prostatic epithelial cells and progression from intraepithelial neoplasia to cancer during prostate carcinogenesis. *Carcinogenesis* 2019 May 6. pii: bgz082.
13. Kodama T, Bard-Chapeau EA, Newberg JY, Kodama M, Rangel R, Yoshihara K, Ward JM, Jenkins NA, Copeland NG. Two-step forward genetic screen in mice identifies Ral GTPase-activating proteins as suppressors of hepatocellular carcinoma. *Gastroenterology* 2016;151:324–337.e12.
14. Martin TD, Samuel JC, Routh ED, Der CJ, Yeh JJ. Activation and involvement of Ral GTPases in colorectal cancer. *Cancer Res* 2011;71:206–215.
15. Singhal SS, Singhal J, Yadav S, Dwivedi S, Boor PJ, Awasthi YC, Awasthi S. Regression of lung and colon cancer xenografts by depleting or inhibiting RLIP76 (Ral-binding protein 1). *Cancer Res* 2007;67:4382–4389.
16. Ohta M, Seto M, Ijichi H, Miyabayashi K, Kudo Y, Mohri D, Asaoka Y, Tada M, Tanaka Y, Ikenoue T, Kanai F, Kawabe T, Omata M. Decreased expression of the RAS-GTPase activating protein RASAL1 is associated with colorectal tumor progression. *Gastroenterology* 2009;136:206–216.
17. Brown GT, Murray GI. Current mechanistic insights into the roles of matrix metalloproteinases in tumour invasion and metastasis. *J Pathol* 2015;237:273–281.
18. Shuman Moss LA, Jensen-Taubman S, Stetler-Stevenson WG. Matrix metalloproteinases: changing roles in tumor progression and metastasis. *Am J Pathol* 2012;181:1895–1899.
19. Neurath MF. Cytokines in inflammatory bowel disease. *Nat Rev Immunol* 2014;14:329–342.
20. Casini-Raggi V, Kam L, Chong YJ, Fiocchi C, Pizarro TT, Cominelli F. Mucosal imbalance of IL-1 and IL-1 receptor antagonist in inflammatory bowel disease. A novel mechanism of chronic intestinal inflammation. *J Immunol* 1995;154:2434–2440.
21. Wang Y, Wang K, Han GC, Wang RX, Xiao H, Hou CM, Guo RF, Dou Y, Shen BF, Li Y, Chen GJ. Neutrophil infiltration favors colitis-associated tumorigenesis by activating the interleukin-1 (IL-1)/IL-6 axis. *Mucosal Immunol* 2014;7:1106–1115.
22. Lim H, Kim HP. Matrix metalloproteinase-13 expression in IL-1 β -treated chondrocytes by activation of the p38 MAPK/c-Fos/AP-1 and JAK/STAT pathways. *Arch Pharm Res* 2011;34:109–117.
23. Tang N, Zhang YP, Ying W, Yao XX. Interleukin-1 β upregulates matrix metalloproteinase-13 gene expression via c-Jun N-terminal kinase and p38 MAPK pathways in rat hepatic stellate cells. *Mol Med Rep* 2013;8:1861–1865.
24. Gu H, Jiao Y, Yu X, Li X, Wang W, Ding L, Liu L. Resveratrol inhibits the IL-1 β -induced expression of MMP-13 and IL-6 in human articular chondrocytes via TLR4/MyD88-dependent and -independent signaling cascades. *Int J Mol Med* 2017;39:734–740.
25. Allen IC, TeKippe EM, Woodford RM, Uronis JM, Holl EK, Rogers AB, Herfarth HH, Jobin C, Ting JP. The NLRP3 inflammasome functions as a negative regulator of tumorigenesis during colitis-associated cancer. *J Exp Med* 2010;207:1045–1056.
26. Chen GY, Núñez G. Inflammasomes in intestinal inflammation and cancer. *Gastroenterology* 2011;141:1986–1999.

27. Guo W, Sun Y, Liu W, Wu X, Guo L, Cai P, Wu X, Wu X, Shen Y, Shu Y, Gu Y, Xu Q. Small molecule-driven mitophagy-mediated NLRP3 inflammasome inhibition is responsible for the prevention of colitis-associated cancer. *Autophagy* 2014;10:972–985.
28. Zhao Y, Guo Q, Zhao K, Zhou Y, Li W, Pan C, Qiang L, Li Z, Lu N. Small molecule GL-V9 protects against colitis-associated colorectal cancer by limiting NLRP3 inflammasome through autophagy. *Oncoimmunology* 2017;7:e1375640.
29. Okan E, Drewett V, Shaw PE, Jones P. The small-GTPase RalA activates transcription of the urokinase plasminogen activator receptor (uPAR) gene via an AP1-dependent mechanism. *Oncogene* 2001;20:1816–1824.
30. Chen XX, Guo Z, Jin Q, Qiao S, Li R, Li X, Deng R, Feng WH, Zhang GP. Porcine reproductive and respiratory syndrome virus induces interleukin-1 β through MyD88/ERK/AP-1 and NLRP3 inflammasome in microglia. *Vet Microbiol* 2018;227:82–89.
31. Jin X, Wang C, Wu W, Liu T, Ji B, Zhou F. Cyanidin-3-glucoside alleviates 4-hydroxyhexenal-induced NLRP3 inflammasome activation via JNK-c-Jun/AP-1 pathway in human retinal pigment epithelial cells. *J Immunol Res* 2018;2018:5604610.
32. Takagi H, Kanai T, Okazawa A, Kishi Y, Sato T, Takaishi H, Inoue N, Ogata H, Iwao Y, Hoshino K, Takeda K, Akira S, Watanabe M, Ishii H, Hibi T. Contrasting action of IL-12 and IL-18 in the development of dextran sodium sulphate colitis in mice. *Scand J Gastroenterol* 2003;38:837–844.
33. Zaki MH, Vogel P, Body-Malapel M, Lamkanfi M, Kanneganti TD. IL-18 production downstream of the

Nlrp3 inflammasome confers protection against colorectal tumor formation. *J Immunol* 2010;185:4912–4920.

Received October 23, 2018. Accepted October 3, 2019.

Correspondence

Address correspondence to: Hiroshi Nakase, MD, PhD, Department of Gastroenterology and Hepatology, Sapporo Medical University School of Medicine, Minami 1-jo Nishi 16-Chome, Chuo-ku, Sapporo, Hokkaido, 060-8543, Japan. e-mail: hiropynakase@gmail.com; fax: (81) 11-611-2282.

Acknowledgments

The authors would like to thank Dr Motoya, Dr Igarashi, and the technical staff Hideyuki Koide and Junko Tanba for assistance with experiments. The authors also thank Springer Nature Group (<http://authorservices.springernature.com/>) for editing a draft of this manuscript.

Author contributions

Tomoya Iida, Daisuke Hirayama, Naoki Minami, and Hiroshi Nakase designed the study; Hiroki Ikeuchi and Seiichi Hirota provided human samples; Ryutaro Shirakawa and Hisanori Horiuchi provided knockout mice; Tomoya Iida, Daisuke Hirayama, Naoki Minami, Minoru Matsuura, Kohei Wagatsuma, Kentaro Kawakami, and Kanna Nagaishi performed the research; Tomoya Iida and Masanori Nojima analyzed the data; Tomoya Iida, Hisanori Horiuchi, and Hiroshi Nakase wrote the manuscript; and Hiroshi Nakase directed the research. All authors helped to perform the research and approved the final draft of the manuscript.

Conflicts of interest

The authors disclose no conflicts.

Funding

This work was supported in part by Health and Labour Sciences Research Grants for research on intractable diseases from the Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare of Japan (Investigation and Research for Intractable Inflammatory Bowel Disease) (H.N.); the Cooperative Research Project Program of Joint Usage/Research Center at the Institute of Development, Aging and Cancer, Tohoku University (H.H.); and Japan Society for the Promotion of Science Grants-in-Aid for Scientific Research grants JP17J02428 (T.I.), JP18H02799 (H.N.), JP16H05148 (R.S.), and JP16K08574 (H.H.). The funders of the study had no role in the study design, data collection, data analysis, data interpretation, or writing of the report.