



SnapShot: Functions of Tubulin Posttranslational Modifications

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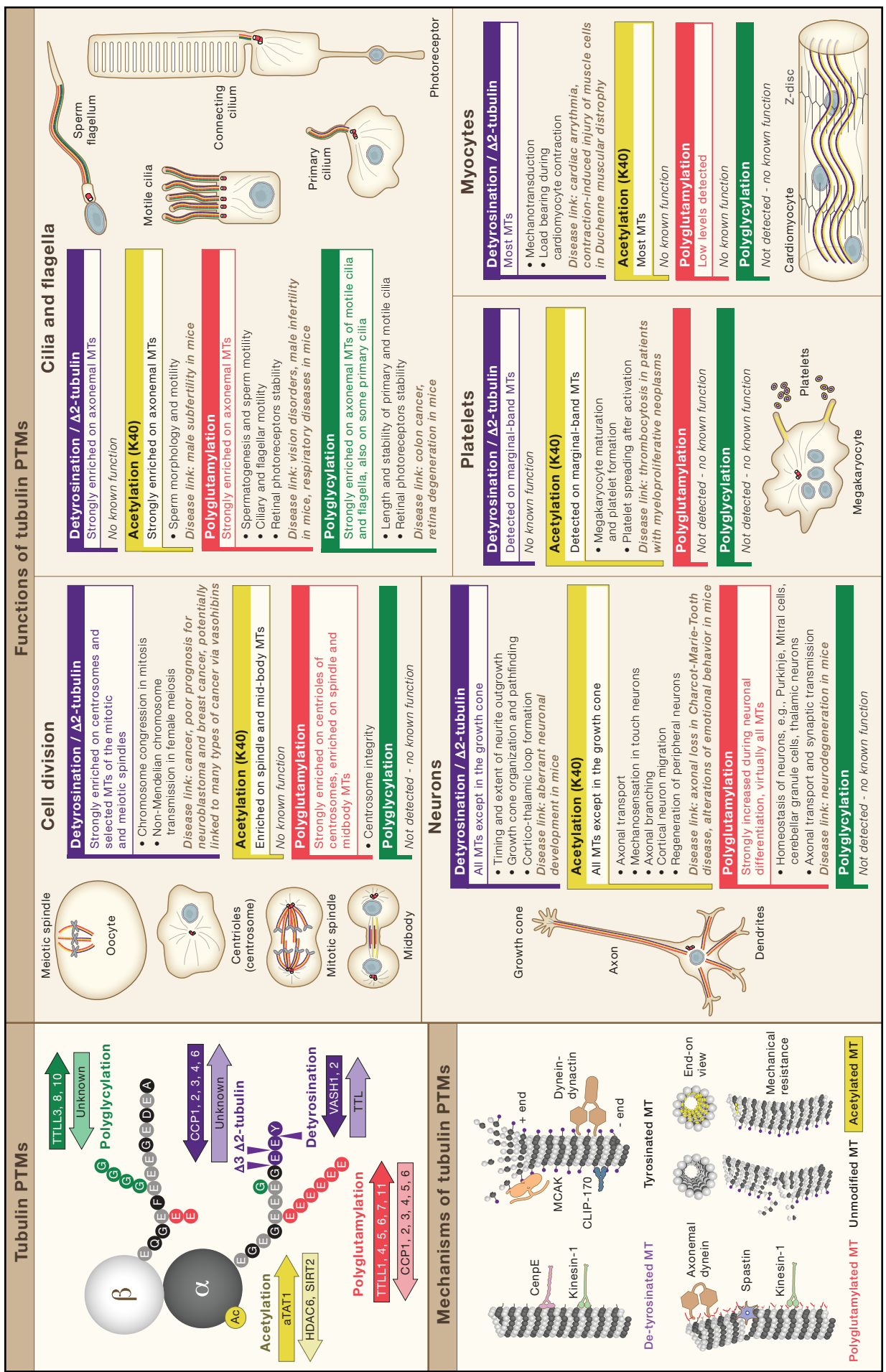
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Cell



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Introduction

Microtubules (MTs) are essential components of the eukaryotic cytoskeleton. Both MTs and their molecular building blocks, the α - β -tubulin dimers, are highly conserved throughout evolution, which stands in strong contrast to the myriad of functions to which MTs can adapt. The tubulin code provides a mechanism whereby modulating MT properties allows them to adapt to specific functions in cells. The tubulin code functions by incorporating different tubulin gene products, or isoforms, into the MT lattice or by installing posttranslational modifications (PTMs) on the tubulin units. Here, we present a view of the current understanding of tubulin PTMs and their biological functions.

Tubulin Posttranslational Modifications

Tubulin can be subjected to a large number of PTMs. Most of them can take place on both α - and β -tubulin, although some are restricted to α -tubulin (e.g., detyrosination). Over the past decade, enzymes catalyzing many PTMs of tubulin have been discovered (reviewed in Janke, 2014).

Tubulin detyrosination, a modification that, counterintuitively, consists of the enzymatic removal of a functional moiety—the C-terminal tyrosine of α -tubulin—is catalyzed by enzymes from the vasohibin family (Aillaud et al., 2017; Nieuwenhuis et al., 2017). The reverse reaction—re-addition of the tyrosine or re-tyrosination—is catalyzed by tubulin tyrosine ligase (TTL). After detyrosination, cytosolic carboxypeptidases (CCPs) can further remove glutamate residues to generate $\Delta 2$ - and $\Delta 3$ -tubulin. Acetylation of α -tubulin takes place on lysine 40, is catalyzed by α TAT1, and is removed by HDAC6 or SIRT2. Polyglutamylation and polyglycylation are catalyzed by enzymes from the tubulin tyrosine ligase-like (TTLL) enzyme family. Polyglutamylases, as well as polyglycylation, show preferences to either α - or β -tubulin, as well as catalytic specificities, to generate either short or long chains of glutamate or glycine residues, respectively. Deglutamylation is catalyzed by enzymes from the CCP family, whereas no deglycylation has been identified so far (reviewed in Janke, 2014).

Mechanisms of Tubulin Posttranslational Modifications

The location of a modification site on tubulin likely determines the impact of a particular PTM on MT functions. Modifications of the conserved and highly structured tubulin core are expected to alter biophysical properties of the MTs. Indeed, acetylation of lysine 40 has been shown to render MTs more flexible and thus resistant to mechanical stress (Portran et al., 2017). By contrast, modifications localized at the unstructured extreme C-terminal tails of tubulin (gray amino acid chains), which decorate the outer surface of MTs, are likely to differentially regulate the interactions between MTs and specific MAPs. Initial studies have proven this to be the case. Detyrosination, for example, regulates the interaction of a number of motor proteins (e.g., kinesin-1, kinesin-2, CENP-E, kinesin-13, Kif2A) and some plus-end binding (e.g., CLIP170, p150^{glued}) proteins with MTs (Peris et al., 2006). No specific mechanism has been so far proposed for $\Delta 2$ - and $\Delta 3$ -tubulin variants. Tubulin polyglutamylation, which adds side chains of negatively charged glutamic acid residues, has also been shown to modulate the behavior of kinesin-1 (Sirajuddin et al., 2014) and the flagellar dynein motor (Kubo et al., 2010) on MTs; however, the most striking effect of this modification is the regulation of the MT-severing enzyme spastin (Valenstein and Roll-Mecak, 2016). No molecular mechanism controlled by polyglycylation has been uncovered thus far.

Biological Roles of Tubulin Posttranslational Modifications

In the recent years, an increasing number of functional studies have strongly advanced the understanding of the biological roles of tubulin PTMs. Strikingly, it appears that modifications of tubulin are involved in almost every specialized MT function, either as essential determinants or as subtle regulators. Most of the known tubulin modifications play important roles for cilia and flagella, as they specifically modify the MT-based axoneme (reviewed in Wloga et al., 2017). In neurons, polyglutamylation is important for neuronal survival and the maintenance of synaptic transmission, while detyrosination has been demonstrated to be essential for neuronal development. More subtle functions have been found for detyrosination in the regulation of cell division, where it is important for faithful chromosome segregation in mitosis and generates asymmetry in the meiotic spindles of oocytes. Detyrosination was further implicated in mechanotransduction and load bearing during contractions of cardiomyocytes. Less is known on the physiological role of acetylation (reviewed in Janke and Montagnac, 2017). α TAT1-knockout mice show altered sperm morphology and motility, and some defects in neuronal migration, development, and regeneration, as well as in mechanosensation in touch neurons. Acetylation is so far the only tubulin PTM that has been demonstrated to play a role in blood platelet formation and function.

Implications for Human Health and Disease

Considering that MTs are essential for virtually every mammalian cell, deregulation of tubulin PTMs could result in a range of pathologies. Most potential disease links identified so far stem from observations in mouse models; however, rapidly developing genomic-profiling data have recently provided first direct links between tubulin-modifying enzymes and human pathologies. The emerging links to pathologies are discussed in the accompanying minireview (Magiera et al., 2018).

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