Plakins, a Versatile Family of Cytolinkers: Roles in Skin Integrity and in Human Diseases

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The plakin family consists of giant proteins involved in the cross-linking and organization of the cytoskeleton and adhesion complexes. They further modulate several fundamental biological processes, such as cell adhesion, migration, and polarization or signaling pathways. Inherited and acquired defects of plakins in humans and in animal models potentially lead to dramatic manifestations in the skin, striated muscles, and/or nervous system. These observations unequivocally demonstrate the key role of plakins in the maintenance of tissue integrity. Here we review the characteristics of the mammalian plakin members BPAG1 (bullous pemphigoid antigen 1), desmoplakin, plectin, envoplakin, epiplakin, MACF1 (microtubuleactin cross-linking factor 1), and periplakin, highlighting their role in skin homeostasis and diseases.

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INTRODUCTION

The plakins are a family of cytolinkers characterized by a multimodular structure that enables them to function as versatile cross-linkers of the cytoskeleton. They connect the microfilament, microtubule (MT), and intermediate filament (IF) systems with each other and with junctional complexes in organelle and plasma membranes, thereby contributing to cell shape and polarity. They also act as scaffolds and adaptors for signaling proteins that modulate cytoskeletal dynamics or cell migration, differentiation, and stress responses. First identified as important structural elements in the epidermis, they were subsequently found to exert other complex functions in a variety of tissues, including striated muscles and the central nervous system. Their analogs fulfill equivalent functions in zebrafish and in invertebrate organisms, such as *Caenorhab-ditis elegans* or *Drosophila melanogaster* (previously reviewed

in (Roper *et al.*, 2002; Jefferson *et al.*, 2004; Sonnenberg and Liem, 2007; Boyer *et al.*, 2010; Suozzi *et al.*, 2012).

Mammalian plakins share a similar structural organization and comprise seven members: bullous pemphigoid antigen 1 (BPAG1), desmoplakin, envoplakin, epiplakin, microtubuleactin cross-linking factor 1 (MACF1), periplakin, and plectin (Figure 1) (Choi *et al.*, 2002; Jefferson *et al.*, 2007; Choi and Weis, 2011; Ortega *et al.*, 2011). The existence of developmentally regulated and tissue-specific splice variants of some plakins further increases the diversity and versatility of these proteins (Table 1; Figure 1; Leung *et al.*, 2001; Rezniczek *et al.*, 2003; Lin *et al.*, 2005; Jefferson *et al.*, 2006; Cabral *et al.*, 2010).

PLAKINS IN THE EPIDERMIS

Epithelial BPAG1 (BPAG1e, also called BP230) constitutes the epithelium-specific isoform of BPAG1 and is localized in basal keratinocytes in hemidesmosomes, junctional adhesion complexes that mediate dermo-epidermal cohesion (Sawamura *et al.*, 1991; Leung *et al.*, 2001); reviewed in (Borradori and Sonnenberg, 1999; Litjens *et al.*, 2006). Via its N-terminal domains, BPAG1e interacts with the hemidesmosomal transmembrane proteins $\alpha \beta \beta$ 4 integrin and BP180 (also called BPAG2 or type XVII collagen; Hopkinson and Jones, 2000; Koster *et al.*, 2003). Its C-terminal tail specifically binds to the epidermis-specific IF network formed by the keratins 5 and 14 (K5, K14) and thereby connects the cytokeratin network of basal keratinocytes to the extracellular matrix (Figure 1; Guo *et al.*, 1995; Fontao *et al.*, 2003).

Plectin, similarly to BPAG1e, connects the K5/K14 network to hemidesmosomes (Gache et al., 1996; Nikolic et al., 1996). However, three plectin isoforms are expressed in the epidermis: plectins 1, 1a, and 1c. They exclusively differ from each other in their N extremities, which confer different tethering properties (Rezniczek et al., 2003; Wilhelmsen et al., 2005; Rezniczek et al., 2007; reviewed in Wiche and Winter, 2011). Plectin 1a seems to be the major variant in hemidesmosomes (Walko et al., 2011). However, plectin 1c is also able to localize either in or close to hemidesmosomes (Litjens et al., 2003; Walko et al., 2011). In contrast to BPAG1e, the IF-binding region of plectin is more versatile and binds to several types of IF proteins, such as epidermal keratins, simple epithelial keratins, the muscle-specific IF protein desmin, and IF proteins expressed in the central nervous system (Figure 1; Foisner et al., 1988; Nikolic et al., 1996; Reipert et al., 1999; Favre et al., 2011).

Desmoplakin is an obligate component of desmosomes, which are highly specialized complexes that ensure cell–cell adhesion and serve as anchorage sites for the keratin network.

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Figure 1. The mammalian plakin family. The members and structural organization of the plakin family are depicted. Plakins are arranged in a phylogenetic tree (with distances) based on their protein sequences. Plakins can be divided into two groups according to their structures and binding partners. The first group encompasses the epithelial isoform of bullous pemphigoid antigen 1 (BPAG1; BPAG1e), desmoplakin, envoplakin, periplakin, and plectin and bears a central coiled-coil rod (CC-ROD) domain, which mediates their homodimerization or oligomerization, and a variable number of plakin-repeat domains and connecting segments in their C tails that give plakins the ability to interact with intermediate filaments (IFs) with various affinities and specificities. The second group consists of the neuronal and muscular variants of BPAG1 (BPAG1a and BPAG1b, respectively) and all microtubule-actin cross-linking factor 1 (MACF1) isoforms. This group carries additional spectrin repeats forming a rod-like domain in their middle parts. They are also called spectraplakins. GAR, growth arrest specific 2-related; MT, microtubule.

Table 1. Spectraplakin family members, associated diseases, and distribution

| | | | Human diseases | | |
|----------------------|--|---|--|---|---|
| Plakins | Tissue distribution | Major localization and binding partners | Genetic | Autoimmune | Mouse models |
| BPAG1a and BPAG1b | Broad (nervous system, striated muscles) | Microtubules, microfilaments | Lethal form of dysautonomia, psychomotor retardation | Not known | Sensory and motor neuron abnormalities, myopathy |
| BPAG1e | Epidermis and other stratified epithelia | Hemidesmosomes, intermediate filaments | EBS | Bullous pemphigoid, paraneoplastic pemphigus | EBS-like phenotype |
| Plectin | Broad (skin, muscles, nervous system, gastrointestinal tract) | Hemidesmosomes, muscle Z-disks, intermediate filaments, microfilaments, microtubules | EBS, pyloric atresia, myopathy (cerebral atrophy, ophthalmoplegia) | Paraneoplastic pemphigus, bullous pemphigoid | EBS-like phenotype, myopathy, pyloric atresia, CNS manifestations |
| Desmoplakin | Broad (stratified epithelia, heart) | Desmosomes, intercalated discs, intermediate filaments | Palmoplantar keratoderma, woolly hair, cardiomyopathy lethal acantholytic epidermolysis bullosa | Paraneoplastic pemphigus | Early lethality (extraembryonic tissue defects, cardiac and epidermal defects, intestinal abnormalities) |
| Envoplakin | Epidermis and other stratified epithelia | Cornified envelope, intermediate filaments | Not known | Paraneoplastic pemphigus | Abnormalities of the cornified cell envelope |
| Periplakin | Epidermis and other stratified epithelia | Cornified envelope, intermediate filaments | Not known | Paraneoplastic pemphigus | No obvious phenotype |
| Epiplakin | Epidermis and other stratified epithelia | Cornified envelope, intermediate filaments | Not known | Blistering diseases | Accelerated wound healing |
| MACF1 | Broad | Microtubules, microfilaments | Not known | Not known | Developmental defects at gastrulation stage |

Abbreviations: BPGA1, bullous pemphigoid antigen 1; CNS, central nervous system; EBS, epidermolysis bullosa simplex; MACF1, microtubule-actin cross-linking factor 1.

The desmosomes comprise desmogleins and desmocollins, transmembrane glycoproteins of the cadherin family, as well as plakoglobin and plakophilins, members of the armadillo protein family. By means of linear and lateral interactions, they link the IF cytoskeleton to the cell membrane via desmoplakin (Smith and Fuchs, 1998; reviewed in Nekrasova and Green, 2013). Desmosomes' stability is affected by the IF network. In fact, some K5 and K14 keratin mutations in humans lead to a reduction in the expression of desmosomal components (Liovic *et al.*, 2009; Wagner *et al.*, 2012), whereas mouse keratinocytes lacking keratins showed destabilized desmosomes and reduced intercellular adhesion (Kroger *et al.*, 2013). However, the exact mechanisms underlying these observations remain unclear (Hobbs *et al.*, 2011; Kroger *et al.*, 2013).

Periplakin and envoplakin are highly abundant in the granular cell layer of the epidermis and are subject to protein cross-linking mediated by transglutaminases (Ruhrberg *et al.*, 1996, 1997; Aho, 2004; reviewed in Kalinin *et al.*, 2002). These two proteins can form heterodimers and provide a scaffold onto which the cornified cell envelope can be formed (DiColandrea *et al.*, 2000). They are associated with the plasma membrane and desmosomes via the interaction of the N terminus of periplakin with kazrin (Groot *et al.*, 2004).

The spectraplakin MACF1, also named ACF7, is expressed in the epidermis and particularly in hair follicles (Karakesisoglou *et al.*, 2000). Despite the similar structural organization of MACF1a and MACF1b to BPAG1a and BPAG1b, their function and expression are different (Guo *et al.*, 1995; Leung *et al.*, 2001; Chen *et al.*, 2006).

PLAKIN-ASSOCIATED FUNCTIONS

Lessons from mouse models and genetic diseases

The key role of BPAG1e in the maintenance of epidermis integrity was first disclosed by gene-targeting experiments. Null-mutant mice for the BPAG1-encoding gene dystonin (DST) showed discrete signs of skin blistering as a result of impaired attachment of keratin filaments to hemidesmosomes. Unexpectedly, these mice also developed severe neurodegeneration with dystonia, ataxia, and myopathy (Guo et al., 1995). This phenotype originates from the concomitant inactivation of the other isoforms of BPAG1: a and b (Leung et al., 2001), which were found to be essential for the maintenance of the cytoarchitecture of neurons and skeletal muscles, respectively (Brown et al., 1995; Yang et al., 1996; Dalpe et al., 1998, 1999; De Repentigny et al., 2011). Evidence for an implication of BPAG1 in human inherited diseases was found only a decade later. Disruption of DST due to a 6;15 translocation, resulting in the loss of BPAG1a and BPAG1b, was first described in a child suffering from encephalopathy and severe motor and mental retardation (Giorda et al., 2004). Subsequently, a DST mutation was found to cause a lethal form of dysautonomia with progressive limb contractures and psychomotor retardation (Edvardson et al., 2012). Recently, the first cases of autosomal recessive epidermolysis bullosa simplex (EBS), due to a homozygous nonsense mutation in DST specifically affecting BPAG1e, were described, providing the unequivocal proof for the

critical role of BPAG1e in the tethering of the epidermal K5/ K14 keratin network to hemidesmosomes and in the maintenance of the integrity of the basal cell layer (Groves *et al.*, 2010; Liu *et al.*, 2012).

Mutations of the human plectin gene (PLEC) also result in EBS but not exclusively, as plectin is ubiquitously expressed in mammalian tissues. Muscular dystrophy, pyloric atresia, as well as central nervous system manifestations, including cerebral atrophy and myasthenic syndrome, have also been linked to PLEC mutations (Gache et al., 1996; McLean et al., 1996; Smith et al., 1996; Banwell et al., 1999; Schroder et al., 2002; Charlesworth et al., 2003; Pfendner and Uitto, 2005; McMillan et al., 2007; Bolling et al., 2010a; reviewed in Winter and Wiche, 2013). Loss of the full-length plectin isoforms often leads to EBS in association with late-onset muscular dystrophy. In contrast, when mutations affect both the full-length and rodless plectins (Table 1), the resulting phenotypes are more severe, with EBS and pyloric atresia causing early postnatal death (Charlesworth et al., 2003; Natsuga et al., 2010a, b; Charlesworth et al., 2013). The observation that both BPAG1e and plectin defects lead to cytoskeletal disorganization and increased cell fragility in EBS clearly proves the importance of hemidesmosomes as keratin IF-anchoring sites important for skin resilience. In analogy to what is observed in humans with inherited plectin defects, inactivation of the plectin gene in mice leads to skin blistering and myopathy with necrotic muscle fibers, streaming of Z-discs, focal rupture of the sarcolemma, and accumulation of mitochondria (Andrä et al., 1997; Konieczny et al., 2008). Isoform-specific knockout mice have further disclosed other unexpected functions of plectin, such as for the motility of immune cells or for conduction velocity in motor nerves (Winter and Wiche, 2013). The conclusions, derived from knockout mouse models, that the various plectin variants exert important tissue-specific functions are further substantiated by some clinical observations. For example, a mutation affecting the muscle-specific plectin 1f isoform causes isolated limbgirdle muscular dystrophy (Gundesli et al., 2010). Furthermore, a dominant missense mutation, which was found to lead to the selective proteolysis of the hemidesmosomal plectin 1a isoform in a mouse model, causes the so-called Ogna variant of EBS that only affects the skin (Koss-Harnes et al., 2002; Walko et al., 2011).

Mutations in the desmoplakin gene (*DSP*) have been linked to devastating inherited diseases that variably affect the skin, hair, nails, and teeth, as well as the heart (Table 1) (Carvajal-Huerta, 1998; Chalabreysse *et al.*, 2011; Boule *et al.*, 2012; reviewed in Lai Cheong *et al.*, 2005). Specifically, palmoplantar keratoderma, woolly hair, and cardiomyopathy have been described with both recessive and dominant mutations (Armstrong *et al.*, 1999; Norgett *et al.*, 2000). Severe phenotypes with early postnatal death and acantholytic epidermolysis bullosa have been observed in cases of complete loss of desmoplakin or with homozygous truncations of its C-terminal tail encompassing the IF-binding domain (Figure 1; Table 1; Jonkman *et al.*, 2005; Bolling *et al.*, 2010b). In the affected skin, the connection of the keratin network to desmosomes is variably lost. Similar deleterious consequences may be observed in cases of genetic defects of other desmosomal components, as well as of keratins 1 and 10, an observation implying functional synergy of these molecules (reviewed in Lai Cheong et al., 2005; Simpson et al., 2011; Petrof et al., 2012). In cardiomyocytes, desmoplakin defects critically impair the tethering of the desmin-IF network and its attachment to the intercalated disc junctions, resulting in sarcomeric disorganization and loss of tissue integrity (Kartenbeck et al., 1983; Meng et al., 1997; Lapouge et al., 2006). These alterations contribute to the development of right-sided or left-sided dilated arrythmogenic cardiomyopathies and sudden death. Although desmoplakinnull mutant mice show early embryonic lethality before E6.5, with defects of the extra-embryonic tissue (Gallicano et al., 1998), chimeric morulae expressing desmoplakin in extraembryonic tissues do not survive beyond E9.5. In the latter case, defects of the developing epidermis, neuroepithelium, and heart are observed with perturbation of desmosome assembly and loss of the IF-cell membrane attachment (Gallicano et al., 2001). Epidermis-specific desmoplakin knockout mice die early after birth owing to intercellular epidermal separation and defective epidermal sheet formation. Desmosomes seem morphologically normal but completely lack IF attachments (Vasioukhin et al., 2001). Together, these findings confirm the key role of desmoplakin for the assembly of functional desmosomes, the maintenance of cytoskeletal architecture, and stable intercellular adhesion.

Other plakins, such as envoplakin, periplakin, and epiplakin, appear to have less critical functions in the skin. Nevertheless, they regulate terminal differentiation or wound healing, as inferred from various knockout animal studies (Maatta *et al.*, 2001; Goto *et al.*, 2006; Spazierer *et al.*, 2006; Sevilla *et al.*, 2007).

PLAKINS IN AUTOIMMUNE DISEASES

BPAG1e was first identified as the target autoantigen in the most frequent autoimmune subepidermal blistering disease of the skin—bullous pemphigoid (Stanley *et al.*, 1988; Sawamura *et al.*, 1991). Affected patients are typically elderly and have an increased risk to concomitantly suffer from neurological diseases, such as dementia, Parkinson disease, epilepsy, and multiple sclerosis (reviewed in Di Zenzo *et al.*, 2012). These observations raise the intriguing question of the involvement of the neuronal variants of BPAG1a as additional autoantigens and their contribution to these neurological manifestations. Despite the intracellular location of BPAG1, some evidence suggests that autoantibodies to BPAG1e participate in tissue damage (Hall *et al.*, 1993). For instance, in a passive transfer animal model, injection of antibodies to BPAG1e was reported to induce subepidermal blistering (Kiss *et al.*, 2005).

Autoantibodies to plectin, epiplakin, and desmoplakin have also been detected in few cases of autoimmune blistering diseases and of severe drug eruptions, but their effects remain to be established (Table 1; Fujiwara *et al.*, 1996; Ohnishi *et al.*, 2000; Fujiwara *et al.*, 2001; Laffitte *et al.*, 2005).

Finally, there is a rare but devastating autoimmune multiorgan syndrome, paraneoplastic pemphigus, in which an autoantibody response to several plakins is a striking finding. This disease is characterized by severe mucocutaneous lesions in association with underlying malignancy. Patients' autoantibodies almost systematically recognize periplakin and envoplakin and often also desmoplakin, plectin, and BPAG1e (Table 1) (Anhalt et al., 1990; Borradori et al., 1998; Mahoney et al., 1998; Nguyen et al., 2001). Autoantibodies react with unique and shared epitopes within their C tails, including the common linker domain involved in IF binding (Figure 1; Table 1; Mahoney et al., 1998). The development of an autoimmune response to plakins is thought to occur secondarily after initial tissue damage. Although autoantibodies to desmogleins and the broad-spectrum protease inhibitor A2ML1 may be involved as initial triggers for damage, the mechanisms responsible for the distinct reactivity with several plakins remain unclear (Schepens et al., 2010; Saleh et al., 2012; Numata et al., 2013).

PLAKINS REGULATE CYTOSKELETON SHAPE AND DYNAMICS

Plakins critically orchestrate the organization of various cytoskeletal networks and their linkage to the plasma and nuclear membranes, as well as to various organelles (Table 1; Figure 2; Koster *et al.*, 2003; Lin *et al.*, 2005; Wilhelmsen *et al.*, 2005; Wu *et al.*, 2008; Ryan *et al.*, 2012b). Besides cross-linking MTs and microfilaments, spectraplakins (see Figures 1 and 2 and Table 1) are involved in MT dynamics and stabilization (Yang *et al.*, 1999; Karakesisoglou *et al.*, 2006; Gupta *et al.*, 2010; Ryan *et al.*, 2012a), as well as in the vesicular transport (Figure 2; Guo *et al.*, 1995; Yang *et al.*, 1999; Liu *et al.*, 2003; Kakinuma *et al.*, 2004; Liu *et al.*, 2007; Wu *et al.*, 2008; Burgo *et al.*, 2012).

Specifically, plectin binds to microfilaments and modulates their rearrangement in response to various stimuli, leading to the activation of Rho, Rac, and Cdc42 pathways (Andrä et al., 1998; Rezniczek et al., 2003). Plectin also regulates in a complex manner the vimentin network assembly and disassembly (Spurny et al., 2008). Similar effects are observed with different IF types, indicating a regulatory role of plectin in precursor formation and dynamics of various IF networks, which may also apply to desmoplakin and BPAG1e (Osmanagic-Myers et al., 2006; Tian et al., 2006; Konieczny et al., 2008; Burgstaller et al., 2010). By attaching the IFs to organelles and plasma membrane sites, plectin contributes to the positioning and stabilization of the nucleus, centrosomes, and mitochondria (Rezniczek et al., 2003; Wilhelmsen et al., 2005; Winter et al., 2008; Niwa et al., 2009; reviewed in Wiche and Winter, 2011). The plectin 1c isoform cross-links MTs to IFs (Svitkina et al., 1996; Valencia et al., 2013). Binding of plectin to MTs seems to occur directly via its actinbinding domain (Valencia et al., 2013). Plectin-knockout keratinocytes exhibit more stable MTs and defects of the mitotic spindle during cell division, indicating that plectin 1c acts as an MT destabilizer via its interaction with microtubuleassociated proteins (Valencia et al., 2013).

Although it does not directly interact with MTs and microfilaments, desmoplakin affects their tethering and organization. In fact, desmoplakin loss leads to MT aggregation



Figure 2. Schematic representation of spectraplakin localization. (a) In the epidermis, (b) in a virtual cell. Plectin and bullous pemphigoid antigen 1e (BPAG1e) anchor intermediate filaments (IFs) to hemidesmosomes, junctional adhesion complexes promoting strong cell-substrate cohesion in squamous epithelia. Desmoplakin attaches the IF network to desmosomes, cell-cell adhesion complexes. Some plectin variants are also present in focal contacts and at the nucleus surface, recruiting IFs to the perinuclear region. Plectin cross-links microfilament or microtubules (MTs) with IFs. In analogy to desmoplakin, envoplakin, periplakin, and epiplakin attach keratins to the cell membrane in the epidermis. Spectraplakins attach microfilaments to MTs. They are also involved in vesicular transport, such as in neuronal cells. MACF1, microtubule-actin cross-linking factor 1.

(Lechler and Fuchs, 2007; Sumigray *et al.*, 2011) and to an aberrant microfilament reorganization in the epidermis (Vasioukhin *et al.*, 2001). These effects reflect the role of desmosomes in the modulation of the cytoskeleton (Waschke *et al.*, 2006; reviewed in Green *et al.*, 2010). In intestinal epithelium, desmoplakin is important for the control of the size and shape of actin-rich microvilli (Sumigray and Lechler, 2012).

Epiplakin silencing causes IF disruption in keratinocytes (Jang *et al.*, 2005). Gene-targeting studies have revealed the role of epiplakin in lateral bundling of keratins in migrating keratinocytes during wound healing (Ishikawa *et al.*, 2010).

PLAKINS' EFFECTS ON CELL MIGRATION AND POLARIZATION

BPAG1e was shown to regulate cell polarity and migration through the integrin- β 4 subunit–mediated modulation of Rac1 and cofilin activities. The latter are required for microfilamentdependent formation of lamellipodia (Hamill *et al.*, 2009). Interestingly, human keratinocytes, carrying homozygous nonsense mutations in the *DST* gene, exhibited reduced adhesion but increased spreading and migration, as well as abnormal protein levels of keratin 14, integrins β 1, and β 4 (Michael *et al.*, 2013). These alterations were not mimicked by the knockdown of BPAG1e expression in normal keratinocytes, suggesting that either the complete absence of BPAG1e or the expression of a truncated protein is responsible for this phenotype.

The effects of plectin on migration and polarization depend on the cell types and are most likely variant-specific. Ablation of plectin results in the acceleration of migration of keratinocytes or pancreatic cancer cells, whereas fibroblast or lymphocyte migration is reduced (Andrä *et al.*, 1998; Abrahamsberg *et al.*, 2005; Osmanagic-Myers *et al.*, 2006; Yu *et al.*, 2012). In fact, cells slowed down by plectin ablation do not form hemidesmosomes. On the other hand, plectin loss in cells able to form hemidesmosomes significantly increases their migration potential as their adhesion is reduced. Moreover, plectin-deficient keratinocytes show loss of directionality in migration and cell shape changes (Valencia *et al.*, 2013).

Finally, the spectraplakin MACF1 participates in the polarization of stem cells in the epidermis by interacting with the + tip of MTs and their associated proteins (Wu *et al.*, 2011). In the absence of MACF1, loss of MT–microfilament cross-linking activity leads to a stabilization of the focal contacts and thereby reduces cell migration of hair follicle stem cells (Wu *et al.*, 2008, 2011). Neuronal migration also depends on MACF1 (Goryunov *et al.*, 2010).

PLAKINS AND CELL SIGNALING

Phosphorylation sites have been identified in all plakins (Hornbeck *et al.*, 2012). They are particularly abundant in the C-terminal region of desmoplakin, plectin, and spectraplakins. Nevertheless, only a few plakin phosphorylation pathways have been identified so far. Phosphorylation events are thought to be important for the dynamic regulation of the association of plakins with their binding partners in processes, such as cell mitosis, migration, and differentiation.

In the C-terminal region of plectin, a cell cycle–dependent phosphorylation of a threonine by Cdk1 is implicated in the dissociation of plectin from the cytoskeleton (Skalli *et al.*, 1992; Foisner *et al.*, 1996; Malecz *et al.*, 1996). It was recently found that phosphorylation of a serine residue in plectin C extremity by protein kinase A or the mitogen-activated kinase-interacting kinase 2 weakens its interaction with IFs (Bouameur et al., 2013). This serine residue is highly conserved across species and is also found in desmoplakin. In the latter, its phosphorylation modulates its binding to IFs and its incorporation into desmosomes (Stappenbeck et al., 1994; Fontao et al., 2003; Godsel et al., 2005; Hobbs and Green, 2012). The interaction of plectin with vimentin is also affected by the nitrosylation state of its plakin-repeat domains (Spurny et al., 2007). In analogy to what was observed with α -actinin, phosphomimetic substitution of a tyrosine residue in the actin-binding domain of plectin inhibits its interaction with microfilaments (Izaguirre et al., 2001; Burgstaller et al., 2010). MACF1-MT interaction is inhibited by a glycogen synthase kinase 3β-mediated polyphosphorylation of glycine-serine-arginine motifs in MACF1 (Wu et al., 2011). BPAG1a, BPAG1b, desmoplakin, and plectin also bear such motifs, suggesting similar regulatory mechanisms.

Plakins are not only substrates for post-translational modifications but they also modulate several signaling pathways. Plectin directly or indirectly interacts with several kinases and signaling molecules. Specifically, plectin associates with and modulates the activities of the nonreceptor tyrosine kinase Fer, energy-controlling AMP-activated protein kinase, the protein kinase C receptor RACK1, and β-dystroglycan (Lunter and Wiche, 2002; Osmanagic-Myers and Wiche, 2004; Gregor et al., 2006; Osmanagic-Myers et al., 2006; Rezniczek et al., 2007; Takawira et al., 2011). Thus, plectin affects a variety of processes, such as control of cell adhesion, regulation of protein kinase C signaling, or cellular stress responses. Plectin is not only involved in the activation of extracellular signal-regulated kinases 1/2 (ERK1/2) after β-dystroglycan-mediated mechanical stress but also in its basal activity in distinct squamous carcinoma-derived cell lines (Takawira et al., 2011; Katada et al., 2012). In contrast, plectin inactivation in keratinocytes increases basal ERK1/2 activity, suggesting that it has opposite effects depending on the isoforms and the cellular context (Osmanagic-Myers et al., 2006).

PLAKINS AS CANCER MARKERS

On the basis of their role in cell signaling, coordination of the cytoskeletal networks, cell adhesion, and migration, the available evidence pointing to a role of plakins in cancer development and as tumor markers is not unexpected. For example, the expression level of desmoplakin is reduced in metastatic oropharyngeal tumors (Depondt et al., 1999; Papagerakis et al., 2004, 2009). In analogy to other desmosomal proteins that are downregulated in invasive cancers. plectin and epiplakin are upregulated in pancreatic ductal adenocarcinoma or precursor lesions (Kelly et al., 2008; Yoshida et al., 2008). Plectin is also more expressed in a colon carcinoma cell line (SW480), in which its deletion by small interfering RNA reduced migration, invasion, and adhesion of these tumor cells (McInroy and Maatta, 2011). Finally, plectin is also more abundant in head and neck squamous cell carcinoma cells where its expression level inversely correlates with survival rate. Knockdown of plectin suppresses proliferation, migration, and invasion of tumor cells

(Katada *et al.*, 2012). Together, these observations position plakins not only as useful severity markers but also as potential therapeutic targets.

CONCLUSION

In the past two decades, our understanding of the plakin protein family has significantly evolved. These proteins are not mere structural cytoskeletal elements, but they act as dynamic regulators of numerous cellular processes. Congenital defects of plakins lead to devastating diseases affecting particularly organs exposed to mechanical stress, such as the skin and muscles, as well as to more complex and subtle phenotypes, such as encephalopathy, autonomic neuropathy, and myastenic syndrome. These clinical manifestations reflect the function of plakins as scaffolds for a variety of cytoskeletal elements and signaling molecules. Abnormal expression of plakins also represents a characteristic of different cancers. It is anticipated that future studies will unravel novel insights into the biological roles of these giant multidomain proteins in a variety of processes ranging from tissue morphogenesis and homeostasis to tissue regeneration.

CONFLICT OF INTEREST

The authors state no conflict of interest.

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