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Integrin-linked kinase: integrin's mysterious partner

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Integrin-mediated cell adhesion regulates a vast number of biological processes including migration, survival and proliferation of cells. It is therefore not surprising that defects in integrin function are often rate-limiting for development and profoundly affect the progression of several diseases. The functions of integrins are mediated through the recruitment of cytoplasmic plaque proteins. One of these is integrin-linked kinase, which connects integrins to the actin cytoskeleton and transduces signals through integrins to the extracellular matrix and from integrins to various subcellular compartments.

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Abbreviations

αPIX	PAK-interactive exchange factor-α
BM	basement membrane
CH	calponin homology
CPI-17	protein-kinase-C-dependent phosphatase inhibitor of 17 kDa
Dock180	180-kDa protein downstream of CRK
EB	embryoid body
ECM	extracellular matrix
EMT	epithelial-to-mesenchymal transition
FA	focal adhesions
GSK-3	glycogen synthase kinase 3
ILK	integrin-linked kinase
ILKAP	ILK-associated phosphatase
Mig-2	mitogen inducible gene-2
MLC	myosin light chain
PAK	p21-activated serine/threonine kinase
PDK	3-phosphoinositide-dependent kinase
PH	pleckstrin homology
PHI-1	phosphatase holoenzyme inhibitor 1
PI3K	phosphatidylinositol-3-kinase
PINCH	particularly interesting new cysteine-histidine-rich protein
PIP3	phosphoinositol trisphosphate
PTEN	protein tyrosine phosphatase and tensin homolog

Introduction

Cell adhesion is mediated by multiprotein complexes composed of adhesion receptors, extracellular matrix

(ECM) proteins and cytoplasmic plaque proteins. The cell adhesion receptors determine the specificity of the cell–cell or the cell–ECM interaction and recruit cytoplasmic plaque proteins to the cell adhesion site. The cytoplasmic plaque proteins transduce signals initiated by the adhesion receptor, link the adhesion receptors to the cytoskeleton and regulate the functional properties of the adhesion receptors themselves.

Integrins are a large family of adhesion receptors comprising >20 members that mediate highly dynamic cell–cell and cell–ECM interactions. The association and the release of integrin–ligand interactions are achieved by the ability of integrins to adopt different conformations. The active conformation is triggered by intracellular signals and cytoskeleton assembly and results in ligand binding, integrin clustering and recruitment of cytoplasmic plaque proteins into integrin attachment sites called focal adhesions (FAs) [1,2]. One protein that plays a central role in integrin activation and signaling is integrin-linked kinase (ILK) [3]. ILK is composed of three structurally distinct domains: three ankyrin repeats near the N terminus (a fourth ankyrin repeat was identified in human ILK but lacks well-conserved residues), a short linker sequence, and a kinase domain at the C terminus. The linker domain, together with sequences from the N terminus of the kinase domain, shares some similarities with pleckstrin homology (PH) domains (Figure 1).

In the present review we will discuss the functional properties of ILK, which are governed by ILK's interaction partners and kinase activity. The first part of this review summarizes biochemical and cell biological studies of ILK and the second part deals with *in vivo* experiments from invertebrates and mice.

Cell biology and biochemistry of ILK

Overexpression of ILK as well as loss or reduction of ILK expression in cells profoundly affects their morphology and function. The most striking changes are impaired cell spreading, abnormal cell adhesion to and assembly of ECM proteins, delayed formation of FAs and altered cell proliferation [3–6,7**]. How can these defects be explained? Important hints have come from the identification of ILK binding partners (Table 1), from their mode of interaction with ILK and from the identification of substrates for the ILK kinase domain (Table 2).

ILK – a platform for actin regulatory proteins

Almost all adaptor proteins that bind either directly or indirectly to ILK regulate the actin cytoskeleton and

A search for paxillin binding proteins showed that the kinase domain of ILK contains sequences resembling a paxillin binding subdomain (PBS) motif, which firmly binds paxillin [15]. The ILK–paxillin interaction is necessary but not sufficient to recruit ILK into FAs, where the complex may modulate the function of other paxillin binding proteins such as vinculin, α -actinin, talin and FAK.

Several laboratories have simultaneously shown that parvins, a new family of F-actin binding proteins, bind the kinase domain of ILK [16–19]. The parvins comprise three members (α -parvin or actopaxin or CH-ILK binding protein; β -parvin or affixin; and γ -parvin) and are composed of two calponin homology (CH) domains that bind ILK, paxillin and F-actin. β -parvin was shown to interact with the guanine nucleotide exchange factor α -PIX (PAK-interactive exchange factor- α), which may activate Rac1 and Cdc42 [20]. Parvins are found in FAs and apparently do not colocalize to stress fibers [16,17]. An important future task will be to map the binding sites of ILK, paxillin and F-actin on the CH domains and to test whether their binding occurs simultaneously or is mutually exclusive.

A recent paper identified an additional ILK binding partner in *Caenorhabditis elegans*, termed UNC-112 [21^{••}]. UNC-112 contains a FERM domain [22] and is important for the recruitment of the ILK orthologue, Pat-4, to muscle attachment sites. The mammalian orthologue of UNC-112, Mig-2/Kindlin-2, was shown to bind the LIM-domain-containing adaptor protein migfilin, which in turn binds filamin [23[•]]. It will be interesting to see whether Mig-2/Kindlin-2 also binds ILK in mammalian cells and whether this interaction modulates the function of filamin, which is mutated in a variety of human diseases.

ILK, Pinch and parvin – a ternary complex required for stability and focal adhesion localization

The association of ILK, Pinch and parvin into a ternary protein complex happens before their recruitment into FAs [24[•]] and serves at least two purposes: it stabilizes the individual proteins and targets the individual components into FAs [24[•],25[•]]. Loss of ILK expression in cells leads to the degradation of Pinch and parvin and, conversely, loss of Pinch expression diminishes ILK and parvin levels [25[•]]. The degradation can be prevented either by inhibiting the proteasome [25[•]] or by expressing short N-terminal fragments of ILK (the ankyrin repeats) in ILK-deficient cells (C Grashoff, R Fässler, unpublished data) or Pinch (the first LIM domain) in Pinch-deficient cells (F Stanchi, R Fässler, unpublished data). Their recruitment into FAs, however, cannot be rescued with these fragments. These results support the notion that ILK and Pinch must have binding partner(s) that facilitate FA targeting. Possible candidates for ILK targeting partners are integrins, paxillin and Mig-2/Kindlin-2. It has been

shown that nematodes lacking β integrin fail to localize ILK to cell attachment sites [21^{••}]. Mammalian cells may have a similar requirement for β integrin to localize ILK, but this has not been shown yet with cell lines lacking either β 1 or β 3 or both integrin subunits. Paxillin binds ILK via its N-terminal leucine-rich motifs and targets to FAs via the C-terminal LIM domains. Mutation in the paxillin binding site of ILK prevents ILK/Pinch/parvin recruitment to FAs [15]. Mig-2/Kindlin-2 could also play a role since the worm orthologue UNC-112 is essential for localization of Pat-4/ILK to integrin-containing attachment sites [21^{••}]. No candidate binding partners are currently known that could promote recruitment of Pinch into FAs.

The dependence of ILK, Pinch and parvin stability on the formation of a ternary complex has implications for the interpretation of overexpression experiments. Accumulation of ILK in the cytoplasm of ILK-overexpressing cells may cause a partial depletion of Pinch and parvin from FAs, resulting in an impaired FA function. This could explain why cells either lacking [7^{••}] or overexpressing ILK [3] have similar phenotypes: they both show a rounded morphology and have decreased adhesive properties.

The kinase activity of ILK

Despite the sequence differences between the ILK kinase domain and other protein kinases (important residues in the activation loop of the kinase are not conserved) the similarity was immediately recognized and investigated [3]. Initial studies showed that GST-tagged ILK purified from bacteria or mammalian cells could phosphorylate serine and threonine residues in peptides representing the β 1 integrin tail, and model substrates such as myelin basic protein [3].

ILK kinase activity took center stage when it was suggested to be directly associated with cell proliferation, tumor growth and metastasis [4,26–29]. On the one hand, overexpression of ILK in cells results in anchorage-independent cell cycle progression [5] and epithelial-to-mesenchymal transition (EMT) of non-tumorigenic as well as tumorigenic epithelial cells [4,29]. Inhibition of ILK kinase activity, on the other hand, suppresses cell growth in culture as well as growth of human colon carcinoma cells in SCID mice [30]. Several lines of experimental evidence suggest that these phenotypes are largely attributed to enhanced ILK kinase activity and phosphorylation of GSK3 β and PKB/Akt [26], two key enzymes involved in a diverse array of cell functions including cell proliferation, survival and insulin responses [31,32]. ILK-dependent phosphorylation of GSK3 β in epithelial cells downregulates GSK3 β kinase activity [26]. This in turn is associated with reduced E-cadherin expression, enhanced AP1 activity and increased β -catenin–Lef/Tcf activity [4,33], which induces the expression

of cell-cycle-promoting genes such as cyclins and c-myc [5,34]. The reduced E-cadherin expression could be due to a direct effect of the β -catenin-Lef/Tcf complex on E-cadherin gene expression [4]. Alternatively, ILK can reduce E-cadherin levels indirectly by triggering snail expression, which in turn represses E-cadherin gene expression [30].

Full activation of PKB/Akt requires PIP3-dependent phosphorylation of two residues: Thr308 and Ser473 [32]. Whereas PDK-1 (3-phosphoinositide-dependent kinase 1) phosphorylates Thr308, ILK has been identified as 'PDK-2', which phosphorylates Ser473 via a direct interaction at the plasma membrane [26,35]. Besides possessing a kinase activity, ILK fulfils other requirements of a PDK2, including PIP3 binding and regulation of its activity by PI3K (phosphatidylinositol-3-kinase) or PTEN (protein tyrosine phosphatase and tensin homolog) [26,27]. However, some doubts about ILK's kinase activity arose when it was reported that it has no Ser473 phosphorylation activity [36,37^{*}]. These doubts were reinforced by genetic studies in invertebrates and mice that demonstrated normal Ser473 phosphorylation in the absence of ILK [7^{**},21^{**},38]. Loss-of-function mutations of ILK in worms and flies show no defects that can be explained by impaired PKB/Akt activity, but develop severe muscle defects that are fully rescued when different kinase-dead versions of ILK are expressed [21^{**},38]. Similarly, fibroblasts with or without the ILK gene phosphorylate Ser473 to a similar extent following insulin or PDGF stimulation [7^{**}], and neither chondrocytes nor keratinocytes change their steady-state Ser473 phosphorylation after ILK gene ablation *in vivo* [39] (T Sakai and R Fässler, unpublished). These findings convincingly demonstrate that ILK — even if it has Ser473 phosphorylation activity — is not the only PDK2. These findings, however, do not exclude the possibility that ILK mediates the phosphorylation of PKB/Akt and other target proteins in an indirect manner, for example by recruiting a kinase or inhibiting a phosphatase [37^{*},40]. Support for such a notion also comes from gene ablation experiments. Monocytes lacking ILK expression show reduced Ser473 phosphorylation [41^{*}]. Similarly, ILK-null fibroblasts, which respond normally to insulin treatment, fail to maintain Ser473 phosphorylation levels to the same extent as normal cells upon PDGF treatment [7^{**}]. Furthermore, they display a slightly reduced steady state level of Ser473 phosphorylation under normal culture conditions (T Sakai and R Fässler, unpublished).

Other targets of the ILK kinase activity (Table 2) are β -parvin [19], the regulatory myosin light chain (MLC) [42], and MLC phosphatase [43,44] and its regulators CPI-17 (protein-kinase-C-dependent phosphatase inhibitor of 17 kDa) and PHI-1 (phosphatase holoenzyme inhibitor 1) [45]. The significance of their phosphorylation, however, is not clear.

Since ILK regulates so many essential cellular functions it is important to settle the debate on ILK's kinase activity. Solving the structure of the ILK kinase domain will be very informative, as will the analysis of mice carrying 'kinase-dead' versions of the ILK gene and the identification of PDK2(s). In addition to these new experimental approaches, new reagents to probe ILK's function will be useful. The E359K mutation in ILK, for example, was originally found to lack kinase activity and was therefore used in many studies as a 'kinase-dead' version of ILK. It turns out, however, that the mutation does not affect kinase activity but rather impairs paxillin binding and FA targeting [46^{*}]. Furthermore, a polyclonal anti-ILK antiserum that recognizes a 59 kDa band of unknown origin instead of the 52 kDa sized ILK has been used in a large number of studies and could potentially have given misleading results [3,6,47].

Studies of ILK/Pinch/parvin in invertebrates and mice

The attachment sites of the body wall muscle to the hypodermis of *C. elegans* are called dense bodies and resemble FA-like structures. They contain β -pat-3 integrin (the only β integrin subunit in *C. elegans*), pat-4/ILK, UNC-97/Pinch, pat-6/parvin and UNC-112/Mig-2 and loss-of-function alleles of these proteins lead to severe adhesion defects manifesting as muscle detachment and embryonic lethality [21^{**},22,48,49^{*}]. The loss-of-function studies also reveal that β -pat-3 integrin is required to recruit ILK to the plasma membrane [21^{**}] and that integrins are partially mislocalized in the absence of pat-4/ILK [21^{**}] or UNC-112/Mig-2/Kindlin-2 [22]. A recent report showed that the Zn²⁺-finger-containing transcription factor UNC-98 can bind UNC-97/Pinch and is also required for muscle attachment to the body wall [50^{*}]. UNC-98 shuttles between dense bodies and the nucleus where it binds DNA and probably regulates gene transcription. So far an ortholog of the UNC-98 gene has not been identified in flies or mammals.

Drosophila melanogaster has a similar requirement for β PS integrins, ILK and Pinch in muscle cell attachment [38,51^{**}]. Interestingly, loss of β PS integrin function in flies leads to detachment of ECM from the cell membrane, while loss of ILK function leads to detachment of F-actin from the plasma membrane, indicating an important role for ILK in actin stabilization at integrin attachment sites [38]. The severe muscle defect in worms or flies lacking ILK can be fully rescued by the expression of different kinase-dead ILK transgenes, supporting the idea that ILK functions as an important adaptor protein, independent of its kinase activity [21^{**},38].

The loss of ILK expression in mice leads to peri-implantation lethality similar to what is seen upon loss of β 1 integrin expression [7^{**},52]. The cause of the developmental arrest was studied in embryoid bodies (EBs)

[7^{••},53,54]; these studies showed that β 1-integrin-mutant EBs are unable to deposit a basement membrane (BM), while ILK-null EBs produce a BM but fail to polarize the epiblast (a primitive tissue that will give rise to all three germ layers). Since addition of laminin to β 1-integrin-null EBs rescues the BM assembly phenotype and allows epiblast development it is likely that β 1 integrin and ILK function independently during the peri-implantation period [54].

Conditional loss of ILK in chondrocytes leads to skeletal growth retardations characterized by abnormal chondrocyte shape and decreased proliferation *in vivo* [39,55], and diminished chondrocyte spreading on ECM and reduced stress fiber formation *in vitro* [39]. Similar, albeit more severe, defects are also observed in mice with a chondrocyte-specific deletion of the β 1 integrin gene [56], indicating that β 1 integrins and ILK are both required for normal chondrocyte function. The mechanism leading to reduced chondrocyte proliferation in the absence of ILK expression is not understood; altered phosphorylation of PKB/Akt or GSK-3 β was excluded [39]. A conditional deletion or reduction of ILK gene expression in macrophages, on the other hand, results in a strong inhibition of the PKB/Akt-Ser473 phosphorylation associated with apoptosis [41[•]], indicating that ILK kinase activity might differ depending on the cell type.

Overexpression of ILK in mammary glands of transgenic mice leads to tumor formation [29]. Similarly, pharmacological inhibition of ILK in prostate carcinoma cells causes them to proliferate much less rapidly *in vivo* [57^{••}]. These findings can principally be explained by the oncogenic activities of ILK (activation of PKB/Akt, inhibition of GSK-3 β , and stimulation of AP-1, NF- κ B and β -catenin–Lef/Tcf transcription factors) and its ability to promote tumor angiogenesis. ILK promotes blood vessel invasion into tumors in two ways: ILK induces HIF1 α -dependent VEGF expression in tumor cells, which in turn regulates endothelial cell migration and proliferation in an ILK kinase-dependent manner [57^{••}]. The importance of ILK for tumor pathology is underscored by the fact that a large number of malignant tumors display increased ILK levels and kinase activity [58], and in some tumor types ILK levels correlate with tumor grade [59,60].

Outlook

ILK has many interesting functional facets and work in both invertebrates and mice has revealed an essential role for ILK in development. There is a general consensus that ILK plays a central role in the reorganization of the F-actin cytoskeleton and its attachment to FAs. The role of ILK as a kinase is more controversial. Since a large number of ILK functions rely on kinase activity, including EMT, proliferation and VEGF expression, this controversy should urgently be settled. This can be assisted

by solving the structure of the ILK kinase domain, using continued genetic approaches or the well-defined antibodies that have become available over the past few years. As has already been done in flies and worms, it should be tested in mice whether point mutations in the kinase domain of ILK impair the function of the molecule.

An important future task will be to identify the signals that trigger assembly of the ILK/Pinch/parvin complex, to identify the proteins that recruit the core complex into FAs, and to establish how the core complex modulates integrin functions and regulates actin dynamics. The availability of cell lines and mice that lack ILK and the progress in proteomics and live cell imaging should together help to dissect these mechanisms and to clarify ILK's role in integrin-mediated cell adhesion.

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