

# Cell–cell adhesion and signalling

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Signalling pathways activated by Rho small GTPases have recently been identified that coordinate junction assembly, stability and function, as well as interactions of adhesive complexes with the underlying cortical cytoskeleton. Particularly exciting is the interplay between adherens junctions, activation of Rho proteins and the dynamics of microtubule, actin and intermediate filaments. This interplay has important implications for functional regulation of cell–cell adhesion, and points to a more integrated view of signalling processes.

### Addresses

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### Abbreviations

aPKC	atypical PKC
EGF	epidermal growth factor
EGFR	EGF receptor
GAP	GTPase-activating protein
GEF	guanine nucleotide exchange factor
HGF	hepatocyte growth factor
MDCK	Mardin–Darby canine kidney
MTOC	microtubule organising centre
PI3K	phosphatidylinositol 3-kinase
PKC	protein kinase C
VE	vascular endothelial
ZO-1	zonula occludens 1

### Introduction

Cell–cell adhesion is an essential component of epithelial morphology and function. Epithelial cells adhere tightly to their neighbours, and several specialised adhesive structures ensure the appropriate integrity and tensile strength of epithelial sheets. These adhesive structures are connected either to intermediate filaments (desmosomes) or to microfilaments (adherens junctions and tight junctions). This association with the cytoskeletal network is necessary for stable cell–cell adhesion and for the integration of cell–cell contacts with the changes in morphology that are characteristic of epithelial cells (e.g. cuboidal cell shape, polarised phenotype).

Over the past few years, many different laboratories have addressed the questions of how cell–cell adhesion is regulated and how the epithelial phenotype is generated. Although the regulatory processes are not fully understood, several signalling pathways that are activated by cell–cell adhesion have been identified. Among these signalling pathways, the ones regulated by Rho small GTPases stand out as the most studied and most interesting. Rho proteins are signalling molecules that regulate a

plethora of cellular processes (reviewed in [1,2]). The central core of their activity, however, is directed towards actin filaments and diverse events that require actin reorganisation. In epithelia, small GTPases play a role in the formation and maintenance of adherens and tight junctions (reviewed in [3••]).

Three members of the Rho small GTPase subfamily have been implicated in the regulation of adherens junctions: Rho, Rac and Cdc42. More recently, other related members of the Ras superfamily (to which Rho proteins belong), such as K-Ras, Rap1 and Arf6, have also been associated with the modulation of cell–cell adhesion. In this review, I focus on recent publications that address the role of small GTPases in adherens and tight junction function, and how the signalling pathways activated by these adhesive structures are involved in the generation of the epithelial phenotype. The role of the Rho family in the disassembly of cell–cell adhesion during tumour progression is reviewed elsewhere [4•], as is the participation of several Rho targets in cadherin-dependent adhesion [3••,5]. These topics are not covered in this review.

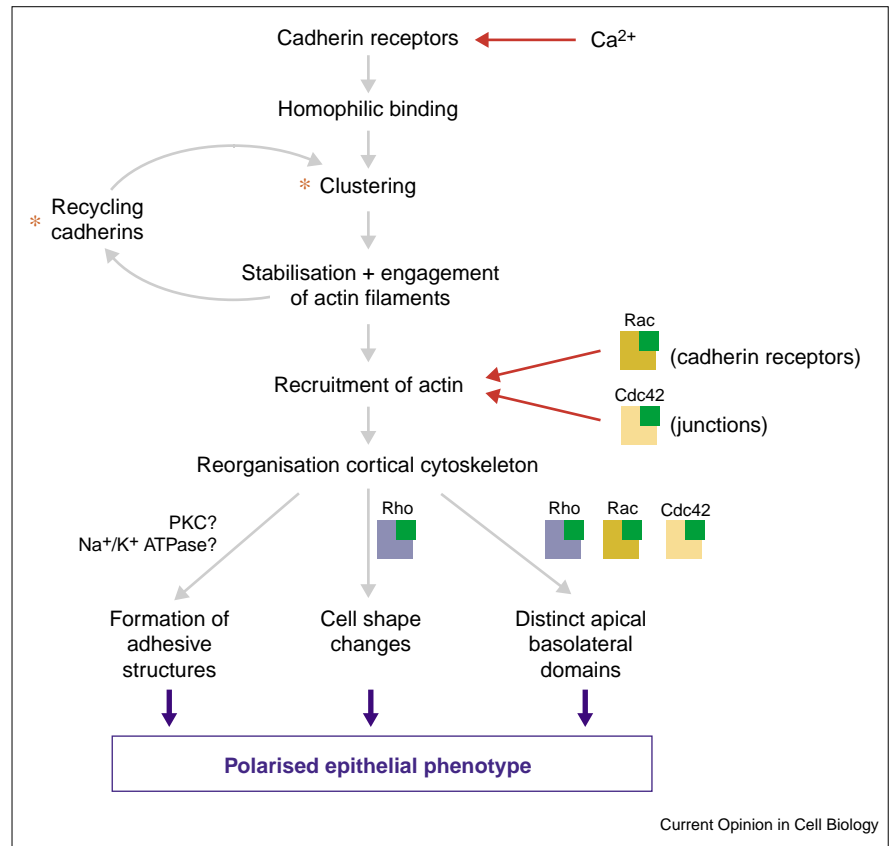
### Adherens junctions and Rho small GTPases

Adherens junctions are adhesive structures formed by cadherin-dependent adhesion. Cadherins belong to a large family of receptors that require  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  for stable cell–cell adhesion (reviewed in [6]). Cadherins associate with the actin cytoskeleton via proteins known as catenins, and this interaction is important for providing strength to cell–cell contacts. The formation of cadherin-dependent cell–cell adhesion and subsequent generation of the epithelial phenotype occurs in a stepwise process with increasing levels of complexity [3••]. Figure 1 highlights the steps in which distinct signalling pathways have been shown to play a role following the establishment of cell–cell adhesion.

It is not clear whether the same regulatory events described in Figure 1 play a role in the maintenance of cell–cell adhesion and epithelial characteristics. For instance, it is known that the maturation of junctions (i.e. how long cells have been in contact) impairs the response of cadherin receptors to inhibition of Rho and Rac [7]. Thus, although perturbation of cadherin-mediated cell–cell adhesion does occur when small GTPases are inhibited in cells containing mature junctions, the mechanisms of junction assembly might be somewhat different. Inhibition of Rac activity in mature junctions results in an increased detergent solubility of cadherin complexes [8]. Interestingly, blocking Rho function in mature junctions affects the composition of cadherin complexes (i.e. the proportion of associated catenins) [9•]. A similar mechanism for junction disassembly has been suggested for IQGAP, a protein that interacts with Rac and Cdc42 [5]. Reduced

Figure 1

A proposed stepwise model for the generation of a polarised, fully differentiated epithelial cell. In the presence of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ , cadherins interact with the same type of molecules on adjacent cells (homophilic binding), and cluster at sites of cell–cell contact. Concomitantly, there is an increased engagement of adhesive receptors with the actin cytoskeleton (via catenins) and recruitment of new actin to the junctions. While reorganisation of the cytoskeleton occurs (involving microfilaments, microtubules and intermediate filaments), three other key cellular processes take place and result in the formation of the epithelial phenotype (cell-shape changes, formation of other adhesive structures and distinct membrane domains). These different steps do not occur in a synchronous manner, and can overlap considerably in time. This working model is based on evidence that allows the dissection of each individual step: the functional dependence of tight junctions and desmosomes on previous cadherin adhesion, genetic evidence, the importance of cadherin interaction with the cytoskeleton (catenin association) and manipulation of distinct signalling pathways. Rho function is important during formation of new cell–cell contacts and for cell compaction and shape changes (generation of tension and contraction; [3•,27,75]). Activated Rac is necessary for actin recruitment to clustered cadherin receptors [7,76], whereas Cdc42 induces actin accumulation at junctions (where many types of other receptors are found) [8,77,78]. All three GTPases are involved in the targeted delivery of membrane proteins to distinct domains [13–15,39,79].  $\text{Na}^+/\text{K}^+$  ATPase and aPKC isoforms may also play a role in the



formation of desmosomes and tight junctions (see Table 2; [30•,38•]). The inhibition of small GTPases does not affect the formation of tight junctions (but it does interfere with function). However, activation of Rho, Rac or Cdc42 has deleterious effects on tight

junction organisation and function (see Table 2). \* denotes a step in which an involvement of small GTPases is predicted from work with other receptors and cell systems, but has not been formally demonstrated with cadherin molecules [3•].

levels of catenins in this complex would result in perturbed cytoskeletal interaction, thereby affecting the stability of the cadherins at junctions. It seems unlikely that the above effects would also occur during the induction of cell–cell adhesion: no differences in cadherin complex composition have been observed in epithelial cells grown in the absence or presence of cell–cell contacts [10,11].

Cadherin recycling is important both during the formation of new contacts and in the maintenance of stable junctions. Adhesive receptors have a lower endocytosis rate and longer half-life when compared with cadherin molecules that are not engaged in adhesion [11,12]. How small GTPase activity interfaces with cadherin recycling, new cell–cell contact formation and cadherin stability is not clear. In epithelia, most studies on the role of Rho GTPases in endocytosis have not addressed cadherin recycling per se, but they have investigated the delivery of other membrane proteins to specific membrane domains [13–15]. The activation of ARF6, a small GTPase involved in membrane trafficking, leads to the perturbation of

cadherin adhesion by increasing cadherin endocytosis [16•]. Interestingly, the ARF6 disruptive effect occurs via a pathway distinct from lamellae formation — another process in which ARF6 is involved [16•]. The participation of small GTPases in the destabilisation of junctions has also been studied during oncogenic transformation, tumour progression and growth-factor-induced scattering [4]. The question here is whether similar mechanisms are important for the homeostasis of junctions; that is, in the absence of a destabilising stimuli. However, this possibility warrants further investigation.

Some studies have investigated the interface between endocytosis and cadherins in the disassembly of junctions during tumour progression. More recently, other Ras family members in addition to ARF6 have been implicated in cadherin adhesion. In hepatocytes, K-Ras (but not H-Ras or N-Ras) appears to be important for establishing new cadherin contacts during liver development [17•]. In support of this data is the finding that in keratinocytes, H-Ras activity is not necessary for the formation of cadherin-dependent

Table 1

**Activation of specific signalling pathways by Ca<sup>2+</sup>-induced cell–cell adhesion in different epithelial cells.**

Activation of	Assessed by	Observations	Cell type	Time course	Cadherin function		Refs
					Necessary	Sufficient	
Rac	Pull down assay	PI3K-dependent EGFR-dependent	MDCK Keratinocytes	30 min	Y	N/D	[23*]
				5 min	Y	Y	M Betson <i>et al.</i> , unpublished data
			MDCK	5 min	Y	N/D	[22*]
			CHO (C-cadherin)*	90 min	N/A	N/A	[22*]
Cdc42	Pull down assay	PI3K-dependent No effect	Breast	15 min	Y	N/D	[24*]
			CHO (C-cadherin)*	N/D	N/D	N/D	[22*]
Rho	Pull down assay	Activation	MDCK	5 min	N/D	N/D	[22*]
		Activation	Keratinocytes	1 h	N/D	N/D	[28]
		No activation	MDCK II	N/D	N/D	N/D	[23*]
		Inhibition	CHO (C-cadherin)*	N/D	N/A	N/A	[22*]
PRK2, PNK	Phosphorylation	Rho targets	Keratinocytes	1 h	N/D	N/D	[28]
MAPK	Phosphorylation	p42/p44	HaCat	5 min	Y	Y	[82]
PI3K	PIP3 production		MDCK	30 min	Y	N/D	[83]
Akt/PKB	Phosphorylation	PI3K target	MDCK	30 min	Y	N/D	[83]
			CaCo2	15 min	Y	N/D	[84]
p38	Phosphorylation		CaCo2	5 min	Y	N/D	[84]
EGF receptor	Phosphorylation		HaCat	5 min	Y	N/D	[82*]
Shc	Phosphorylation		HaCat	5 min	N/D	N/D	[82*]
Fyn	Phosphorylation	Rho dependent	Keratinocytes	6 h	N/D	N/D	[28]
Gab1	Phosphorylation	Interacts with HGF receptor	MDCK	2 h	Y	N/D	[85]

Rho and Rac activity play a role in the regulation of cadherin-dependent adhesion; Cdc42 has partial effects on cadherin localisation at junctions. No evidence is available for the participation of the other signalling pathways in the formation of new cadherin contacts. \*, CHO-C-cadherin adhesion was performed by cell spreading onto C-cadherin extracellular domains as substratum. Under these conditions, the observed activation of small GTPases may result from both cadherin engagement and spreading of CHO-C-cadherin cells. The time course of Fyn activation correlates more with keratinocyte differentiation and stratification (movement towards

the skin surface) than with cell–cell adhesion formation, which occurs within minutes [49,74]. It is possible that Fyn might participate in the cell–cell adhesion remodelling that occurs during stratification. 'Time course', the earliest time point at which activation was reported; 'Cadherin function': 'Necessary', activation is blocked by incubation with inhibitory anti-cadherin antibodies before and during calcium stimulation; 'Sufficient', clustering of cadherin receptors in low calcium medium can activate the signalling pathway. N/A, not applicable; N/D, not determined; Y, activation observed.

adhesion [18]. An interesting recent observation is that Rap proteins may participate in epithelial morphogenesis [19,20\*]. In *Drosophila*, analysis of Rap1 mutants during wing development shows adherens junction misplacement and the dispersal of clonal cells that would otherwise stay in a coherent group. However, the effects of Rap1 on cell–cell adhesion seem specific for the differentiation process during wing development, as it is not essential for the appropriate apical localisation of junctional proteins [20\*]. In light of recent publications implicating Rap in integrin activation and function [21], it will be exciting to investigate whether Rap1 is activated following junction assembly and if it is also required for cadherin-mediated adhesion in mammalian cells.

### Adhesion-dependent activation of small GTPases and other signalling pathways

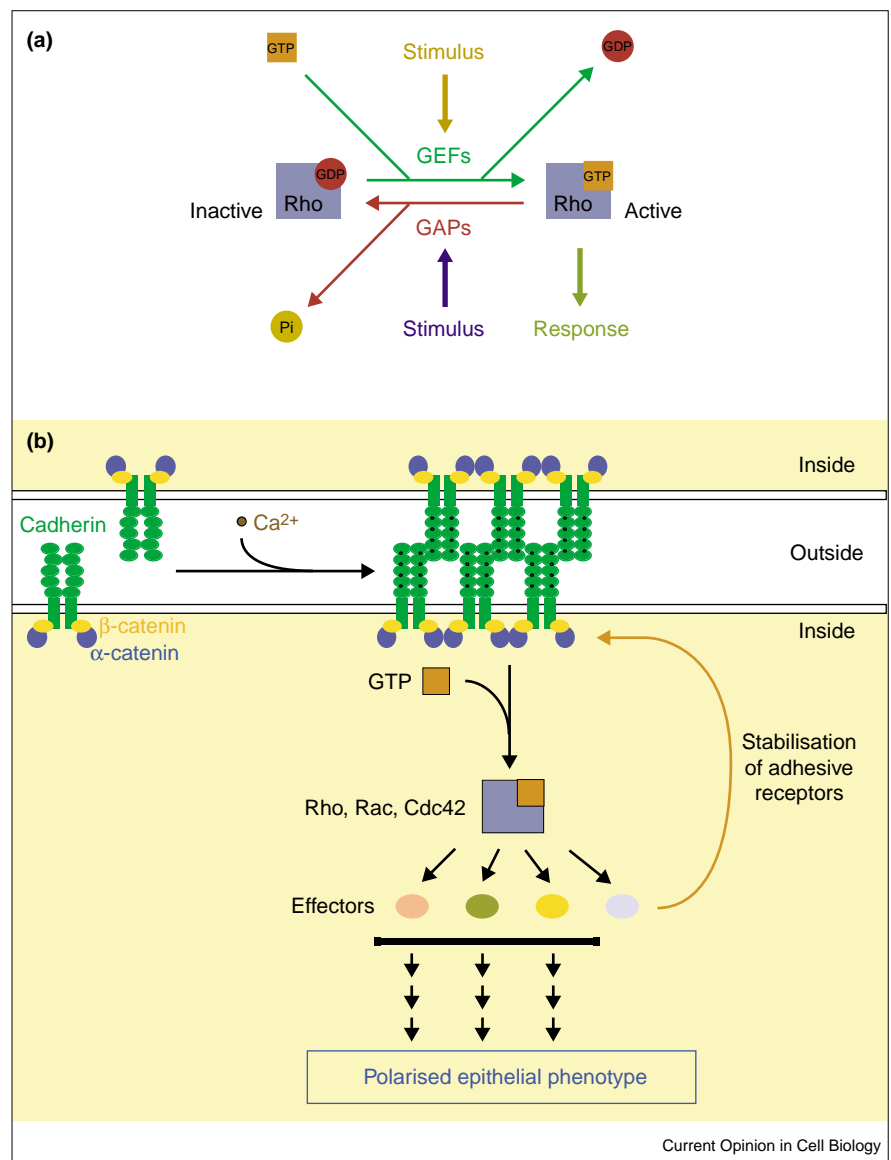
The ability of cadherins to participate in different signalling processes such as cell fate, growth control, survival and differentiation is well known. Table 1 summarises the

activation of distinct signalling pathways in a cadherin-specific manner following the initiation of new contacts. The activation of these pathways by cadherin-dependent adhesion is clear, as addition of calcium ions per se is not able to induce their activation. However, an important question needs to be addressed. In which cellular process downstream of cell–cell adhesion do these pathways play a role? With the exception of Rho small GTPases, the importance of other signalling pathways for the formation of cadherin-dependent adhesion has not been demonstrated.

The formation of cadherin-mediated cell–cell contacts can activate Rho, Rac and Cdc42 (Table 1; Figure 2b). Confluence of Mardin–Darby canine kidney (MDCK) cells appears to increase the activation of Rac and Cdc42, but inactivates Rho [22\*]. Different reports show that Rac and Cdc42 activation occurs very quickly in a cadherin-dependent manner ([23\*,24\*]; M Betson *et al.*, unpublished data [see Update]). In keratinocytes, the clustering of cadherin receptors is sufficient to activate Rac (M Betson *et al.*,

**Figure 2**

Rho small GTPases: activation and functional interaction with cadherins. **(a)** Regulation of Rho small GTPase activity. When these proteins associate with GTP, they are activated and competent for binding to distinct effectors that participate in distinct cellular processes. Inactivation occurs following the intrinsic hydrolysis of GTP, liberating phosphate. Regulatory proteins tightly modulate this cycle: they can facilitate the exchange of nucleotides and thereby activation (e.g. GEF), or accelerate the hydrolysis of GTP, thereby inactivating the GTPase (e.g. GAP). **(b)** Current working model for the functional interaction between cadherin receptors and small GTPases. Dimers of cadherin molecules are found at the cell surface, associated with cytoplasmic proteins known as catenins. Cadherin homophilic binding and clustering at sites of cell-cell adhesion somehow triggers the activation of Rho proteins. The small GTPases then bind to specific targets and activate distinct signalling pathways. These targets participate in processes that either feed back to stabilise cadherin adhesion (e.g. actin polymerisation and cytoskeletal remodelling) or play a role in the development of epithelial phenotype (i.e. the assembly of other adhesive structures, compaction, polarisation, expression of epithelia-specific genes, etc.). It is predicted that each small GTPase activates more than one target, and a cooperation between their different activities is likely to occur during establishment and maintenance of epithelial characteristics. Important questions that are not yet fully understood include the mechanism by which small GTPases are activated, and the steps (Figure 1) in which the different targets play a role.



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unpublished data). Interestingly, the initial Rac activation occurs independently of actin polymerisation (M Betson *et al.*, unpublished data). In MDCK cells, adhesion-dependent Rac activation requires phosphatidylinositol 3-kinase (PI3K) function, whereas in keratinocytes it requires epidermal growth factor (EGF) receptor (EGFR) signalling ([23<sup>•</sup>,24<sup>•</sup>]; M Betson *et al.*, unpublished data). Unexpectedly, inhibition of either PI3K or EGFR does not block junction assembly, despite preventing Rac activation, as assessed by biochemical pull-down assays ([23<sup>•</sup>,24<sup>•</sup>]; M Betson *et al.*, unpublished data [see Update]). Pull-down measures Rac activation using a fusion protein that specifically interacts with and precipitates Rac•GTP present in cell lysates. Perhaps localised Rac activation is still able to occur in the presence of these inhibitors to mediate cell-cell contact formation, and this discrete

activation is beyond the sensitivity of pull-down methods. It is also conceivable that alternative Rac-independent pathways exist for actin recruitment to clustered receptors [7,25]. This might compensate for the inhibition of Rac activation and allow stable cadherin adhesion formation. Alternatively, PI3K-dependent and EGFR-dependent Rac activation might be involved in downstream events following induction of new contacts.

It is possible that Cdc42 may act upstream of Rac activation during establishment of adhesive contact in some cell types, as both Rac and Cdc42 activation requires PI3K activity in MDCK cells [23<sup>•</sup>,24<sup>•</sup>]. Further experiments are necessary to confirm the hierarchy of these small GTPases during epithelial-junction formation. By contrast, Rho does not appear to be downstream of Rac in the generation

**Table 2****Effects of different signalling molecules on tight junction assembly and function.**

Activity	Gate function		Fence function: diffusion of		Altered morphology	Perturbed localisation (ZO-1/occludin)	Refs
	Transepithelial resistance	Paracellular flow	Lipids	Proteins			
Activated							
Rho	↓	↑	↑	–	+	+	[45]
Rac	↓	↑	↑	–	+	+	[45]
Cdc42	↓	↑	↑	↑	+	+	[15]
Dominant negative							
Rho	↓	↑	–	–	–	–	[45]
Rac	↓	↑	↑	–	–	–	[45]
Cdc42	↓	↑	–	↑	–	+	[15]
						–	[8,39',79]
Activated							
PAR6	↓	↑	–	–	+	+	[39']
Dominant negative							
aPKCλ	↓	↑	↑	↑	+	+	[38"]
Activated							
aPKCζ	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	+	[39']
Gate function is evaluated by two different methods: transepithelial resistance (TER, impermeability to ions) and paracellular flow (impermeability to solutes). Fence function is assessed by diffusion of lipids or proteins along the basolateral membrane. Altered tight junction morphology is observed by electron microscopy and the localisation of ZO-1 and occludin by confocal analysis. Arrows (up or down) indicate that there is a change in the parameter after				expression of the different molecules. +, altered morphology / staining pattern is observed; –, no alterations seen. ND, not determined. The effects of inhibiting Cdc42 function on ZO-1 and occludin localisation is still unclear. The reasons for these conflicting results are unknown, as the same cell line was used in two of the studies [15,39].			

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of epithelial morphology in MDCK cells and keratinocytes [26,27]. The activation of Rho following cell–cell contact formation is somewhat controversial. It has been observed in some studies [22',28] but not in others [22',23']. As no investigations using inhibitory antibodies against cadherin have been carried out, it is difficult to distinguish whether cadherin adhesion or  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  signalling is necessary for Rho activation. The use of cell lines such as Chinese hamster ovary (CHO) cells and fibroblasts expressing different cadherins [22'] does not address this issue, because the outcome of Rho signalling on junctions differs in distinct cell types [7]. Furthermore, it is not known whether Rho GTPases regulate different cadherin molecules in a similar way. Thus, it is still an open question whether cadherin-mediated adhesion can specifically activate Rho.

How does cadherin-mediated adhesion induce the activation of small GTPases? Experiments performed with different cadherin receptors (vascular endothelial [VE]-cadherin and C-cadherin) suggest that the cadherin cytoplasmic tail is necessary for activation of Rho proteins [22',29']. However, no specific domain within the cadherin tail has yet been identified. The function of small GTPases is tightly controlled in a temporal and spatial manner by cytoplasmic proteins (guanine nucleotide exchange factors

[GEFs] and GTPase-activating proteins [GAPs]; Figure 2a). After the homophilic binding of cadherins, two possibilities can be envisaged: either the activation of GEFs, or the downregulation of GAPs. Both mechanisms would result in a net increase of GTP-bound proteins (Figure 2a). Alternatively, the two possibilities may occur after cell–cell contact formation. However, the available data are insufficient to support any of these possibilities at the present time.

### Cadherin receptors and other adhesive structures

The role of cadherin adhesion is discussed below in relation to the assembly of other junctions and the generation of the epithelial phenotype (Figures 1 and 2b). Early evidence suggests that cadherin-dependent adhesion is essential and a prerequisite for the formation of desmosomes, tight junctions and gap junctions [6]. Three mechanisms have been proposed to explain these observations. First, that the close apposition of membranes when stable cadherin adhesion is induced facilitates the assembly of other junctions. Second, cadherin adhesion provides spatial cues for the correct delivery of junctional components to the membranes. Third, formation of cadherin contacts triggers signalling pathways necessary to promote the assembly of desmosomes and tight junctions. It is likely that all three mechanisms are relevant during formation of epithelial junctions.

**Table 3****Effects of cadherin-dependent adhesion and the small GTPases Rho, Rac and Cdc42 on the different cytoskeletal networks.\***

Protein / activity	Microfilaments	Refs	Microtubules	Refs	Intermediate filaments	Refs
Cadherin receptors	Reorganisation, actin polymerisation and recruitment to junctions	[6]	Reorganisation, stabilisation of microtubule ends, alteration of microtubule dynamics, localisation and orientation of mitotic spindle	[55",86–90]	Reorganisation (desmosomes)	[49,50]
Rho	Stress fibres, contraction	[1,2]	Stabilisation, polymerisation orientation	[61',91]	Collapse (Rho kinase)	[92]
Rac	Lamellae, ruffles, actin polymerisation	[1,2]	?		Collapse	[93]
Cdc42	Filopodia, actin polymerisation	[1,2]	Reorientation of MTOC and mitotic spindle	[41,42,44, 94, 95]	Collapse	[93]

\*Please note that not all listed effects were observed in epithelial cells.

The signals that link cadherin adhesion to these cellular processes are not well understood (Figure 2b). It is tempting to speculate that following junction formation, the activation of small GTPases and other signalling pathways plays a role in the targeted delivery of membrane proteins to junctions and also in the polarisation process. In MDCK cells, the Na<sup>+</sup>/K<sup>+</sup>ATPase pump appears to synergise with cadherin receptors to induce the formation of tight junctions and desmosomes [30",31]. Interestingly, inhibition of Na<sup>+</sup>/K<sup>+</sup>ATPase leads to a reduction in Rho•GTP levels. Moreover, Rho activation can rescue the phenotype induced by blocking Na<sup>+</sup>/K<sup>+</sup>ATPase activity [30]. Published results also suggest the involvement of protein kinase C (PKC) in the assembly of desmosomes and tight junctions, sometimes in the absence of cadherin-dependent adhesion [32–37]. In these studies, however, broad-spectrum PKC inhibitors/activators were used and therefore no specific signalling pathway was identified. Recent data provides supportive evidence, implicating atypical PKC (aPKC) isoforms in the assembly of tight junctions [38",39"]. Yet, the emerging picture suggests that the coordination between the assembly of adherens junctions, tight junctions and desmosomes may be a more complex system than previously envisaged (see below).

### Tight junctions

Tight junctions are formed by the assembly of multi-molecular complexes that form specialised membrane microdomains (reviewed by [40]). Tight junctions have two main functions in epithelial sheets: to render the epithelial sheet impermeable to ions and solutes; and to prevent the mixing between apical and basolateral membrane components (lipids and proteins). Recently, it has been recognised that tight junctions are a hot spot for signalling, with the concerted localisation of Rab small GTPases (which regulate endocytic traffic), PDZ-containing proteins and the Par3–Par6 complex [40]. The latter complex is important as it associates with and recruits to junction signalling molecules, such as aPKC (which binds to Par3) and the small GTPase Cdc42 (which binds to Par6) [40]. The relevance of the Par3–Par6 complex has been shown in single-cell polarisation, apical/basolateral polarity in epithelia and polarity of movement in different organisms [41–44].

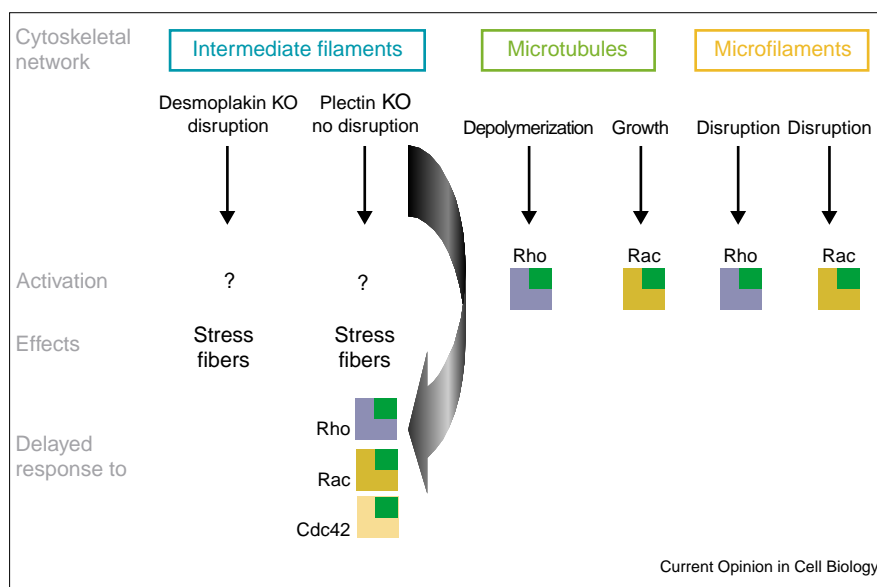
Table 2 summarises the effects of different activities on tight junction assembly and function. Interestingly, these reports suggest that the interference of different signalling pathways with tight junction function occurs primarily during the assembly of tight junctions. One mechanism that regulates tight junction assembly may involve the recruitment of tight junction components to cell–cell adhesive sites. Disruption of the cytoskeleton by activated small GTPases might misplace the spatial cues and perturb correct delivery of the different components. Alternatively, the association of tight junction proteins with the actin cytoskeleton might be regulated; for instance, an increased solubility of ZO-1 is observed after expression of activated RhoA [45]. One interesting possibility is that transient and localised activation of Rho small GTPases, or inactivation of aPKC $\lambda$ , might regulate the ‘leakiness’ of tight junctions.

It seems clear that the activation of small GTPases is much more disruptive to tight junction assembly and function than to their inhibition (Table 2). In particular, Cdc42 and Par6 activation appear to negatively regulate tight junction formation and function, although the relevant mechanism is unknown [39]. Thus, it seems contradictory that cadherin-dependent activation of Rho GTPases may play a role in the assembly of tight junctions. However, a detailed analysis of the localised activation of small GTPases following cadherin adhesion, desmosomes and tight junction formation has not yet been performed. The use of different techniques may help to identify the temporal and spatial control of the function of Rho proteins during junction assembly (e.g. fluorescence resonance energy transfer [FRET] and fluorescence recovery after photobleaching [FRAP] [46]). These results may clarify the signalling events that link the formation of the different adhesive structures.

### Crosstalk between cytoskeletal networks

Crosstalk between cytoskeletal networks is important for many different cellular processes [47,48"]. Interestingly, the presence of cell–cell contacts induces profound changes in the organisation and dynamics of actin, microtubule and keratin filaments (Table 3). Projections of microtubules and keratin filaments are seen in nascent cell–cell contacts [49–51"],

Figure 3



Crosstalk between small GTPase activity and the organisation of intermediate filaments, microtubules and microfilaments. Disruption of intermediate filaments is observed in desmoplakin knockout cells, but not in plectin knockout cells [52\*,59]. In both knockout cells, activation of specific GTPases has not been evaluated, but increased production of stress fibres is observed [52\*,59]. In plectin<sup>-/-</sup> cells, a delayed response to small GTPases is also observed following treatment with growth factors and other stimuli [60]. Disruption of the microfilaments and depolymerisation and growth of the microtubules by specific drugs leads to the activation of Rho and Rac, as assessed by pull-down assays ([80,81]; M Betson *et al.* unpublished data). Activation of Cdc42 has not been assessed following disruption of the different filaments.

and new desmosomes are found interspersed between newly formed adherens junctions [52\*,53]. In addition, in polarised MDCK cells, some microtubule filaments are not focused on the centrosome, but run in parallel to junctions, with important consequences for microtubule-dynamics regulation [47,54,55].

What are the mechanisms by which cell–cell adhesion can coordinate all three cytoskeletal networks? Two possibilities can be envisaged. First, there is a growing number of proteins that act as bridges between microtubules and intermediate filaments [56], microtubule and microfilaments [51,57,58], or actin and intermediate filaments [59,60]. The majority of these proteins localise at junctions in epithelia. Second, there is evidence to suggest an involvement of Rho small GTPases and their targets with microtubules and intermediate filaments.

The functional connection between small GTPases and microtubules occurs at two levels that are intrinsically related to each other: binding, and regulation of their activity. Several Rac and Rho targets can associate with microtubules [61–64], as can different GEFs [65–70]. Three mechanisms have been proposed for the regulation of the availability of signalling molecules by microtubules [47]: sequestration and release (direct interaction), delivery via a motor protein, and interaction via a scaffolding protein. In all three scenarios, the release of the associated signalling molecules from the microtubule network would involve modification of the microtubules or the signalling protein. Alternatively, enhanced microtubule depolymerisation [47] may also release associated molecules.

The regulation of small GTPase activity by microtubules occurs in a dual way: Rho GTPase activation interferes

with microtubule dynamics and *vice versa* (Table 3, Figure 3). Indeed, the binding of a Rac target to microtubules can stabilise the filaments [63], and the interaction of GEF-H1 (a Rac exchange factor) with microtubules results in its inactivation [70]. Conversely, disruption of either microtubule or microfilament network results in the activation of Rac and Rho ([80,81]; M Betson *et al.*, unpublished data [see Update]). Given these results, one interesting question is whether the cadherin-dependent activation of Rho proteins requires changes in microtubule dynamics. Two possibilities can be envisaged. The formation of new cadherin contacts may lead to the activation of small GTPases, which would then induce changes in microtubule reorganisation and dynamics. Alternatively, cadherin-dependent adhesion could induce changes in the microtubule network, which in turn may release and/or modify associated GEFs, facilitating the activation of small GTPases. Although these two possibilities are not mutually exclusive, future experiments are needed to address the mechanism of interplay between cadherin adhesion, microtubules and Rho GTPases.

So far, circumstantial data suggest that the involvement of small GTPases in the reorganisation of intermediate filaments is likely. In addition to the evidence listed in Table 3 and illustrated in Figure 3, keratins can be phosphorylated by the stress-activated kinase p38 [71,72], which is activated by Rac-dependent signalling pathways. Similarly, Rho kinase, a Rho target, can phosphorylate intermediate filaments in fibroblasts [73]. A functional consequence of the phosphorylation of the intermediate filaments keratin and vimentin is their stabilisation. Thus, small GTPase signalling can potentially influence the organisation and dynamics of this cytoskeletal network. Together, these results suggest that a reciprocal and fine

balance exists between the organisation of cytoskeletal networks and the regulation of Rho GTPase activity. Further experiments will shed light upon the mechanisms of this interesting relationship.

## Conclusions

Desmosomes, adherens and tight junctions are now considered highly dynamic macromolecular complexes that integrate signalling processes with the cytoskeletal network. Specific signalling pathways have been identified that coordinate the assembly of the different adhesive structures and regulate their stability and function. The activation of small GTPases by cadherin adhesion and the identification of specific targets of the signalling cascade will open up important avenues for future investigation. Most importantly, further insights into the mechanistic details of how Rho proteins and other signalling molecules cooperate to generate the epithelial phenotype will be welcomed (Figure 1). Particularly exciting is the discovery that small GTPases and cadherin-mediated adhesion can influence the dynamics and organisation of actin, microtubule and intermediate filaments. A considerable amount of crosstalk exists among the different types of filaments, and small GTPases are situated on the crossroads between them. Taken together, these results shift our perception to a more global view, in which the function of adhesive structures and the outcome of specific signalling pathways are integrated with the overall cellular organisation.

## Update

In addition to references 22 and 23 and the work by M Betson *et al.* (unpublished data [now in press, see below]), Kovacs *et al.* [96] demonstrated that Rac is activated when E-cadherin-expressing CHO cells spread onto E-cadherin extracellular domains. Interestingly, at early time points, Rac activation occurs independently of PI3K. Expression of PI3K was necessary for Rac activation at later time points, suggesting that different mechanisms might exist to enhance Rac•GTP levels following cadherin homophilic binding. The work by M. Betson *et al.* is now in press [97].

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## References and recommended reading

Papers of particular interest, published within the annual period of review, have been highlighted as:

- of special interest
- of outstanding interest

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