

# **The Arp2/3 Regulatory System and Its Deregulation in Cancer**

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### **ABSTRACT**

The Arp2/3 complex is an evolutionary conserved molecular machine that generates branched actin networks. When activated, the Arp2/3 complex contributes the actin branched junction and thus cross-links the polymerizing actin filaments in a network that exerts a pushing force. The different activators initiate branched actin networks at the cytosolic surface of different cellular membranes in order to promote their protrusion, movement or scission in cell migration and membrane traffic. Here we review the structure, function and regulation of all the direct regulators of the Arp2/3 complex that induce or inhibit the initiation of a branched actin network and that controls the stability of its branched junctions. Our goal is to present recent findings concerning novel inhibitory proteins or the regulation of the actin branched junction and place these in the context of what was previously known in order to provide a global overview of how the Arp2/3 complex is regulated in human cells. We focus on the human set of Arp2/3 regulators to compare normal Arp2/3 regulation in untransformed cells to the deregulation of the Arp2/3 system observed in patients affected by various cancers. In many cases, these deregulations promote cancer progression and have a direct impact on patient survival.



## 82 I. INTRODUCTION

The Arp2/3 complex is a major actin nucleating molecular machine, which is conserved in eukaryotes. This is the only molecular machine that generates branched actin networks. The Arp2/3 complex was first discovered as a multiprotein complex containing actin-related proteins (160) and rediscovered as an actin nucleating machine (270). Ever since, the Arp2/3 complex has been associated with many functions, which we review here as we describe the regulators of Arp2/3 activity. A flurry of recent papers have reported novel regulators of the Arp2/3 complex, with, for example, several inhibitory proteins or regulators of the actin branched junction. The major goal of this review is to integrate these new findings into established knowledge of Arp2/3 regulation in order to provide a global overview of the Arp2/3 regulatory system.

The reader can directly focus on his or her molecule of interest, which are classified according to the type of regulation they provide to the Arp2/3 complex (Fig.1). The monograph of each regulator is structured to describe, in this order, its molecular structure, its main cellular function, and then how it is regulated in the normal mammalian cell and deregulated in the cancer cell. We believe that this review organization can help the newcomer to enter in this profuse field.

Deregulation of the Arp2/3 regulatory system in cancer has been described over the years. Examination of all these examples highlights the fact that over activation of the Arp2/3 complex generally promotes cancer progression (Table 1). However, we will also describe notable exceptions, and attempt to provide an explanation as to why these anomalies still lead to cancer. The topic of the Arp2/3 complex and cancer has been less frequently covered than the hijacking of the Arp2/3 complex by pathogens, which has been nicely reviewed recently (271), and will not be addressed here. This topic also justifies focusing on the human genes and gene products, and hence to use the consensus human nomenclature to describe their activities.

- 110 II. THE ARP2/3 COMPLEX
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- A. The canonical Arp2/3 complex
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The Arp2/3 complex is a stable multiprotein complex of 7 subunits, with a total mass of about 250 kDa. Two of these subunits are Actin related proteins, Arp2 and Arp3. The crystal structure of the complex has revealed an inactive conformation, where Arp2 and Arp3 are maintained far apart in the architecture provided by the 5 other subunits, named ARPC1 to 5 (Fig.1) (200). The Arp2/3 complex creates branched actin networks (16). In the active conformation, the Arp2/3 complex contributes a branched junction of two actin filaments, whose structure was revealed by electron microscopy (208, 257). This active conformation involves bringing together Arp2 and Arp3 within the complex, so that these two subunits

adopt the conformation of actin molecules within a filament (Fig.1). This conformation, however, can also be detected in a population of soluble Arp2/3 complexes, in the absence of any actin. The population of Arp2/3 complexes displaying the active conformation is greatly increased by Nucleation Promoting Factors (NPFs), such as N-WASP or WAVE (82, 203). The conformationally activated Arp2/3 complex can then interact with a pre-existing actin filament, often referred to as the mother filament, in order to initiate the elongation of a lateral branch, the daughter actin filament (204). The widely used Arp2/3 inhibitory compound, CK-666, binds Arp2 and Arp3 and blocks their conformational rearrangement that is required for Arp2/3 activation (13, 95).

The function of the Arp2/3 complex is to induce an explosive actin polymerization in response to signaling pathways. Because actin filaments are both substrates (mother) and products (daughter) of the branching reaction, the process has been described as autocatalytic and indeed generates an exponential increase of actin filaments (2). The resulting branched actin networks, also referred to as dendritic actin networks, have been demonstrated to generate a pushing force in vitro (153, 292). In the cell, the various NPFs are anchored at the surface of different membranes and the force they generate through the generation of branched actin networks remodel these membranes to perform various cellular functions. For example, the pushing force of branched actin networks allows the plasma membrane to protrude in fan-like migration structures called lamellipodia (241) and to promote scission of clathrin coated pits during endocytosis (42, 61).

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- B. Novel complexities in the Arp2/3 complex
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Further complexity has recently been added to this general scheme. In the human genome, the ARPC1 subunit is encoded by two paralogous genes, ARPC1A and ARPC1B, and the ARPC5 subunit by ARPC5 and ARPC5L. The complexes containing ARPC1B or ARPC5L promote actin polymerization more efficiently than the ones containing the alternative paralogous subunits (1). The Arp2/3 activity is also regulated by phosphorylation of its subunits (140, 169). The phosphorylation of Arp2 by the serine threonine protein kinase NIK is required for the Arp2/3 activity (141). We are probably only starting to decipher this complex Arp2/3 regulation through phosphorylations.

Strikingly, even the most fundamental property of the Arp2/3 complex, i.e. its ability to generate branched actin networks, has recently been found to admit exceptions. SPIN90, a protein of the WISH/Dip1 family with a conserved role in endocytosis (14, 126, 185), has been shown to induce actin polymerization without the need of a pre-existing filament. The SPIN90-Arp2/3 complex is in the active conformation and allows direct actin elongation from the rearranged Arp2-Arp3 template (258). Such a process normally does not take place with regular NPFs, since the NPF needs to dissociate from the rearranged Arp2/3 complex and the activated Arp2/3 needs to bind to a preexisting mother actin filament, in order to elongate an actin filament from the rearranged Arp2/3 (224). Linear actin filaments are also likely nucleated by hybrid complexes containing some, but not all, subunits of the Arp2/3 complex. These hybrid complexes contain Arp2 and Arp3, which template actin filaments, but lack ARPC1, ARPC4 and ARPC5, which mediate many contacts with the mother filament (37).

165 The hybrid complexes contain vinculin or vinculin and  $\alpha$ -actinin, which target these hybrid Arp2/3 complexes to focal adhesions (37). A previously reported interaction between vinculin and the Arp2/3 complex probably reflects these hybrid complexes rather than vinculin transiently interacting with the whole Arp2/3 complex (49). It is likely that these hybrid complexes contribute to actin polymerization at focal adhesions. However, understanding the role of hybrid Arp2/3 complexes awaits specific ways to inhibit their assembly in the cell, given that their constituent subunits are either subunits of the Arp2/3 complex or structural components of focal adhesions. Similarly, studying the molecular mechanism, by which these hybrid complexes generate linear actin filaments, awaits their purification, which is likely to be challenging given their low abundance. Moreover, reconstitution of the activity of hybrid Arp2/3 complexes may require elaborate in vitro systems, to reproduce the mechanosensitive behavior of vinculin in focal adhesions (38, 78).

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## C. The Arp2/3 complex in cancer

Arp2/3 subunits have been found by immunohistochemistry to be overexpressed in a variety of cancers, including lung (216), breast (109), gliomas (152), gastric (303) and colorectal cancers (110, 189). Since the Arp2/3 subunits assemble into a complex, the presence of one subunit is likely indicative of the whole complex. For example, similar staining were obtained with Arp2 and Arp3 antibodies in serial sections (189). However, a free pool of ARPC1B with a role in centrosomal homeostasis has also been reported (177). Three publications reported simultaneous overexpression of Arp2 and of one of its NPFs, WAVE2, in the same discrete cells of lung carcinomas (216), of breast carcinomas (109) and of colorectal carcinomas (110), indicating that, within tumors, which are often heterogeneous, overexpression of both the Arp2/3 complex and of WAVE2 corresponds to a coordinated program. Double positive cells were frequent at the invading front of breast and colorectal carcinomas (109, 110).

In breast cancer cell lines and in mammary tumors obtained in a mouse model, the invasive carcinoma cells were found to overexpress genes encoding Arp2/3 subunits (261, 262). In physiological 3D migrations of cancer cells, either reconstituted in vitro, or through intravital imaging in the grafted animal, protrusions along extracellular matrix fibers are more elongated than the typical fan-shaped lamellipodia observed in 2D cultures, but they nevertheless require the Arp2/3 complex (80, 261, 262, 286). Arp2/3 overexpression is tightly associated with cancer progression and tumor cell invasion. In patient biopsies, the overexpression of the Arp2/3 complex was more pronounced in high grade invasive colorectal carcinomas and was predictive of liver metastasis (110, 189). Arp2/3 mediated migration of colorectal carcinoma cells is not only important to seed metastases, but also to ensure their tumor growth through the co-optation of pre-existing blood vessels (67). Arp2/3 overexpression was associated with poor patient survival in lung (216) and breast cancers (109). Arp2/3 overexpression in breast cancer is associated with HER2 overexpression, and,

in breast carcinoma cell lines that overexpress HER2, the therapeutic monoclonal antibody trastuzumab, which inhibits HER2 signaling, blocks lamellipodia formation and tumor cell invasion (294).

Other very invasive cancers exhibit Arp2/3 overexpression. Arp2/3 overexpression is a marker, out of a set of only 5, used to distinguish malignant melanomas from benign nevi (119). In pancreatic cancer, the two genes encoding the two paralogous ARPC1 subunits are overexpressed (138). These two genes are localized in the 7q21-q22 region, which is frequently amplified in this cancer (138). As in other cell models, it was verified in pancreatic cancer cell lines that RNAi mediated depletion of the Arp2/3 complex decreases migration and invasion (199).

For a stable multiprotein complex like the Arp2/3 complex, overexpression of one subunit at the mRNA level may not be sufficient to produce more complex. Levels of expression of most subunits are not limiting and subunits that are not assembled are thought to be degraded (51). In breast cancer, however, Arp2 protein, and thus the Arp2/3 complex, is correlated to the Arp2 mRNA level (110), indicating either that the level of Arp2 is limiting or that all subunits are up-regulated in a coordinated manner in order to assemble more Arp2/3 complexes. Levels of mRNA measured by quantitative PCR should systematically be complemented by immunohistochemistry, since carcinoma cells of the tumor are not always the cell type that displays the overexpression. For example, the Arp2/3 complex is also overexpressed in cancer-associated fibroblasts in colorectal cancer (189). Interestingly, overexpression in stromal cells is also associated with cancer progression toward the invasive stage of the carcinoma cells, in a cross-talk between stromal and carcinoma cells.

## **III.** THE NUCLEATION PROMOTING FACTORS

Arp2/3 activators are called Nucleation Promoting Factors, or NPFs in short. They are characterized by their C-terminal domain that contains three short peptide motifs, a WH2, a Connector motif, and an Acidic end, in this order (Fig.2). This characteristic C-terminus is referred to as the WCA, or sometimes VCA for historical reasons. The CA binds to the Arp2/3 complex and induces its conformational activation. The WH2 motif binds to one globular actin molecule and delivers it to the rearranged Arp2/3. Both events are required to initiate an actin branch (193). In NPFs, there are sometimes more than one WH2 motif. The N-terminus vary considerably between NPFs. The N-terminus has a regulatory role. It determines how the WCA, the Arp2/3 activatory region, is masked in an inactive conformation at resting state, and how, in response to activatory signals, the WCA is going to be exposed to activate the Arp2/3 complex.

The domains present in the N-terminus define the different families of NPFs (Fig.2), which activate the Arp2/3 complex at various subcellular functions to perform different functions. There are 4 families of NPFs in the human genome, WAVE, N-WASP, WASH and WHAMM families.

## A. The WAVE family

The WAVE family of NPFs consists of 3 WAVE proteins, sometimes also referred to as Scar proteins. WAVE2 is the ubiquitous one, WAVE1 and 3 being more restricted in their tissue expression (234). All WAVE proteins are embedded into a stable multiprotein complex, also containing ABI, CYFIP, NAP1 and BRK1 for a total of 5 subunits (58, 76, 107, 230, 231). All of them, except BRK1, are encoded by paralogous genes yielding to a combinatorial complexity in the assembly of WAVE complexes (51). Moreover, some subunits, like ABI1, are alternatively spliced. Functional specializations of isoforms have been demonstrated in a couple of cases (57, 236). The WAVE1 complex has been crystallized (36). The output WCA domain is masked by its interaction with other subunits of the complex. The small GTPase Rac, the most established activator of the WAVE complex, interacts with the CYFIP1 subunit 258 and releases the masked WCA (36, 51).

The WAVE complex localizes at the edge of lamellipodia, where new actin molecules incorporate into dense branched actin networks beneath the plasma membrane (88, 136, 232). The WAVE complex localizes to the plasma membrane through its interaction with the phospholipid PIP3 or with membrane receptors (35, 186). Knock-down and knock-out experiments have established that the WAVE complex is a critical Rac effector for lamellipodium formation (171, 229, 230, 289, 290) (Fig.3). In addition to Rac, many phosphorylations are important to control WAVE complex activity (132). The major function of the WAVE complex, downstream of the small GTPase Rac, is to control cell migration, and especially persistent directional migration (132).

Protrusion of the plasma membrane appears coordinated with intracellular traffic. The clathrin heavy chain has been demonstrated to interact with the WAVE complex and to promote its activation at the lamellipodium tip in an endocytosis-independent manner (75). Clathrin-mediated endocytosis is indeed not detected in lamellipodia. In contrast, the exocyst component Exo70 favors membrane protrusion by promoting the WAVE-Arp2/3 interaction (150, 307). A shut-down in endocytosis and an activation of exocytosis contribute an excess of membrane, and thus a release of membrane tension. Such a drop in membrane tension rapidly induces actin polymerization, formation of a lamellipodium and restoration of membrane tension (101, 146, 147, 198).

In fibroblasts, the Rac—WAVE—Arp2/3 pathway is critical for haptotaxis, i.e. migration up a gradient of immobilized fibronectin, in line with the fact that lamellipodia are adherent membrane protrusions (127, 273). Whether this pathway is also involved in chemotaxis is controversial (240, 273). In epithelial cells, the Rac—WAVE—Arp2/3 pathway has also been involved in the formation and maintenance of cell-cell junctions (256, 288). Branched actin networks are prerequisites for the development of junctional tension through myosin contractility (255). Neogenin is a transmembrane protein of the junction that directly recruits the WAVE complex and promotes its activation by Rac at the junction (142). Through the interplay between lamellipodia and cell-cell junctions, the WAVE complex regulates collective migration of epithelial cells (181).

In transformed cells of human origin, lamellipodia are usually less prominent than in untransformed cells (Fig.4). Nonetheless, many reports indicate an important role of the WAVE complex in cell migration and tumor cell invasion. In breast invasive cell lines, for example, WAVE3 is required for lamellipodium formation and cell invasion through transwell filters (227). These in vitro results were however challenged (228). It is most of the time unclear where discrepancies come from. The extreme plasticity of tumor cell migration, where the Rac—WAVE—Arp2/3 contributes only the so-called mesenchymal migration is probably part of the explanation (6, 210). HER2 overexpression induces WAVE2 and WAVE3 expression (248, 294). WAVE3 is stabilized within the WAVE complex and destabilizing the complex with peptides forming interfaces between subunits results in reduced invasion of carcinoma cell lines in vitro (247, 249). WAVE3 depletion reduced the ability of breast carcinoma cell lines to generate lung metastasis in experiments, where genetically modified cell lines were grafted into immunocompromised mice (243, 248).

In cancer, components of the WAVE complex are overexpressed and this overexpression is associated with poor patient prognosis (Table 1). All 3 WAVE proteins were found to be overexpressed in carcinomas of various origins, of the breast (62, 109, 135), of the colon (110, 302), of the liver (111, 291), of the lung (216), of the ovary (299), of the prostate (63, 64). In all these cases, but one, the overexpression of WAVE proteins is associated with reduced survival and prognosis markers of poor survival, such as high grade, lymph node invasion and metastases. The only exception is a study, which reports that WAVE3 overexpression is associated with better prognosis and better markers in colorectal carcinomas (302). This is in stark contrast to the overexpression of WAVE3 in breast and liver carcinomas, which is a predictor of poor outcome (111, 135).

Similarly, for the other WAVE complex subunits, the general trend is an overexpression associated with decreased survival. This was reported for NAP1 in breast carcinomas (154), for its hematopoietic homologue HEM1 in leukemia (115), for ABI1 in breast and ovary carcinomas (259, 298). In lung carcinomas, the overexpression of the small subunit BRK1 is also associated with markers of poor prognosis, such as lymph node invasion and high grade (27). The BRK1 gene is located next to the tumor suppressor gene VHL. Large deletions that affect BRK1 at the same time as the VHL tumor suppressor protect patients from developing renal cell carcinomas, emphasizing the importance of the WAVE complex for cancer progression (60).

However, two studies contradict this trend. The first one is the report of loss-of-function mutations of ABI1 in prostate cancer (283). This observation is supported by the appearance of prostate neoplasia in conditional ABI1 knock-out mice in the same study. The second study at odds with the general trend is the report of CYFIP1 downregulation in multiple carcinomas including breast, lung and colon cancers (221). Using mice engraftments with genetically modified cell lines, this study shows that CYFIP1 suppresses tumor invasion, rather than promotes it, as one could expect from the majority of cancer studies. Despite the causal relationships that these mouse models provide, it must be stressed that the importance of these two studies have not yet been confirmed with retrospective cohorts of patients.

There are 36 ways to assemble pentameric WAVE complexes with the 11 genes that encode subunits. It is likely that all paralogous genes do not encode equivalent subunits in terms of activity or regulation. It is also likely that functional specializations are only manifest in some, but not all, tissues. What remains to be established, however, is whether the few studies at odd with all the others reveal that a few specific compositions of WAVE complexes inhibit, rather than activate, actin polymerization and cell migration.

B. The N-WASP family

The WASP family is composed of two paralogous proteins in the human genome, the ubiquitous N-WASP and the hematopoietic WASP. N-WASP is auto-inhibited, since its WCA domain is masked by its own N-terminal WH1 domain (124). Even though this autoinhibition can be observed with N-WASP alone, N-WASP is normally complexed to one of the WIP family proteins and this heterodimeric complex is more tightly autoinhibited than N-WASP in isolation (51, 96, 97). The WIP family contains WICH and CR16 in addition to WIP. The small GTPase Cdc42 is the best characterized activator of N-WASP in vitro (51). To activate the N-WASP/WIP complex, however, the Cdc42 signal must be transduced through proteins of the (TOCA1, FBP17, CIP4) family, which contain a F-BAR domain (96) and a binding site for active Cdc42. N-WASP binds to both Cdc42 and these F-BAR containing proteins.

The major functions of N-WASP are at the plasma membrane, like the WAVE complex. However, in untransformed cells, the contribution of N-WASP to membrane protrusions appears limited, despite clear Cdc42 activation at the leading edge (182). The N-WASP knock-out fibroblasts generate normal lamellipodia and filopodia (155, 225). When N-WASP was directly compared to WAVE2, both proteins were found enriched at the leading edge protrusions, but RNAi mediated depletion of WAVE2 yielded a more severe migration defect than N-WASP depletion (122). In fact, the role of N-WASP might be restricted to early adhesions to the extracellular matrix, as it is best revealed in cell spreading assays. N-WASP is important for adhesion to fibronectin and to the development of vinculin positive focal adhesions (173). Upon cell spreading, N-WASP enters in a complex with the Focal Adhesion Kinase, FAK (300). FAK also directly binds to the Arp2/3 complex through its FERM domain (217). In vitro, the FERM domain of FAK potentiates the actin polymerization induced by the Arp2/3 complex and the WCA domain of N-WASP. N-WASP stability requires both the formation of its native complex with WIP and β1 integrin (128). Indeed, upon β1 integrin depletion, N-WASP is destabilized and its proteasomal degradation can be rescued by WIP overexpression. However, after an early involvement of the Cdc42—N-WASP pathway, lamellipodia seem rather to depend on the Rac—WAVE pathway.

The most conserved role of N-WASP at the plasma membrane is during endocytosis (246, 268). N-WASP, but not WAVE, is specifically detected at the clathrin coated pit (15, 167). N-WASP recruitment at this location relies on BAR domain containing proteins, which

induce and/or sense membrane curvature (108, 253). BAR domain containing proteins couple direct membrane remodeling with Arp2/3-mediated actin polymerization (233, 277). The force generated by branched actin networks appears to elongate the pit into a pronounced invagination and to compress the collar of the invagination (42, 61). This sequence of events promotes membrane scission, which eventually involves the GTPase dynamin. Actin polymerization and dynamin-mediated scission are intimately coupled (61, 245). Nevertheless, the role of actin polymerization in endocytosis is important, but dispensable in standard conditions (15). Actin polymerization becomes critical, when high membrane tension must be counteracted (18, 121).

In transformed cells, in contrast, N-WASP becomes important to generate protrusions. In addition to lamellipodia, transformed cells generate invadopodia that degrade the extracellular matrix by localized delivery of the MT1-MMP metalloprotease (192). Invadopodia are easily recognizable ventral protrusions on 2D substrates that coexist with peripheral lamellipodia (Fig.4). They cannot be distinguished, however, from leading edge protrusions in 3D substrates. N-WASP is present and activated in invadopodia (156). Invadopodia depend on the N-WASP/WIP complex (72, 73, 176, 287). In grafted animals, breast invasive cells required N-WASP to invade, intravasate into blood circulation and to generate lung metastasis (81). Two N-WASP activators, Cdc42 and the F-BAR containing protein CIP4, are present in invadopodia and are required for tumor cell invasion (12, 191, 206). This is in contrast with clathrin coated pits, which depend on F-BAR containing proteins, but not on Cdc42, and with lamellipodia, which depend on Cdc42, but not on the F-BAR containing proteins. Specific upstream signaling is thus responsible for N-WASP recruitment and activation in different subcellular structures. In vitro, in 3D collagen gels, RNAi mediated depletion of the WAVE complex induces N-WASP dependent cell invasion (242), indicating a modified interplay between the two major NPFs of the plasma membrane in cancer cells compared to normal cells.

In patients, N-WASP is not systematically overexpressed during cancer progression. In fact, N-WASP is overexpressed in pancreatic ductal adenocarcinomas (87), in lung cancer (68) and in hepatocellular carcinomas (114). But N-WASP displays overall normal levels in esophageal squamous cell carcinomas (263) and even down-regulation in breast carcinomas (165). In pancreatic ductal adenocarcinomas and in hepatocellular carcinomas, high N-WASP levels are associated with risk factors and decrease overall survival. In esophageal squamous cell carcinomas, despite the overall normal levels, high N-WASP, within its natural fluctuations of expression, is also associated with high grade carcinomas and lymph node invasion. Overall, as expected from its important role in invadopodia formation, N-WASP promotes cancer progression, but breast cancer appears as an exception. In breast cancer, N-WASP is down regulated, instead of up regulated, and this down-regulation is associated with poor prognosis (165). Consistent with the exception of breast cancer, the N-WASP activator CIP4 is overexpressed in mammary carcinomas and associated with poor prognosis, but this effect is independent from N-WASP (206). In gliomas, the N-WASP partner WIP promotes cancer progression by stabilizing the YAP/TAZ transcription factors (74).

## C. The WASH family

The WASH family in the human genome displays a variable number of genes, from 15 to 20 depending on individuals (149). This is due to the fact that the WASH gene is located in a subtelomeric region, which is prone to recombination. The genes were so recently duplicated, however, that, in practice, one can deplete all WASH proteins with single siRNA sequences, like any other gene product. In mice and rats, there is a single WASH gene. The WASH protein is embedded into a stable multiprotein complex (54, 83). This stable multiprotein complex is distantly related to the WAVE complex, with a one-to-one correspondence of the 5 subunits (113). Most subunits are encoded by single genes, and so the WASH complex is less diverse than the WAVE complex (52). Strikingly, however, the WASH complex recruits a pre-existing complex, which also exists on its own in the cytosol, the so-called capping protein (CP) (54). CP is in fact a heterodimer, which blocks the elongation of actin filaments. CP interaction has been shown to be important for WASH function in the amoeba *Dictyostelium discoideum* (190), but this is not yet understood why these two activities of actin nucleation and actin capping have to be coordinated in the same multiprotein complex.

The WASH complex activates the Arp2/3 complex at the surface of endosomes (54, 83). It is recruited to endosomes through its subunit FAM21, which contains multiple binding sites for the retromer (90, 93, 112). Importantly, the WASH complex and the retromer do not cover the whole surface area of endosomes, but rather define a microdomain, whose area is controlled by actin polymerization itself (53). The polymerization of branched actin is thought to promote membrane scission of transport intermediates that contain sorted receptors, in a manner similar to N-WASP during clathrin mediated endocytosis (77). The retromer performs sorting of endosomal cargoes that are either destined to follow the retrograde route to the trans-Golgi network or which are recycled to the plasma membrane (215). The WASH complex is activated through interaction with the phospholipid PI4P (56) and through ubiquitination of WASH using a K63 linkage, a modification which does not target conjugated proteins to the proteasome (89).

In transformed cells, WASH promotes tumor cell invasion function through the sorting 441 of endosomal cargoes it provides. The WASH dependent recycling of  $\alpha$ 5 $\beta$ 1 integrins to the plasma membrane drives invasion of ovarian carcinoma cells in fibronectin containing 3D matrix (296). In breast carcinoma cells, the WASH complex interacts with the exocyst and contributes to the focal delivery of the metalloprotease MT1-MMP to invadopodia (178). This event requires transient tubular connexions between late endosomes and the plasma membrane. In cancer patient biopsies, there has been little examination of the WASH complex so far. The WASH complex subunit Strumpellin is overexpressed in high grade prostatic carcinomas, due to genetic amplification (194).

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- D. The WHAMM family
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WHAMM and JMY are two homologous proteins, which share a common modular 453 organization (131, 254). They are composed of an amino-terminal domain, a long central  $\alpha$ -helical domain and the carboxy-terminal WCA that activates the Arp2/3 complex (120). JMY has the particularity to have 3 WH2 motifs, which bind actin. These 3 motifs were shown to be sufficient to nucleate actin in vitro in a WH2-only mechanism (305). WHAMM seems to be more expressed in epithelial tissues, such as colon, kidney and lung (29), whereas JMY is enriched in the brain, testis and lymphoid organs (3, 66).

They are both localized at the Golgi, cis-Golgi for WHAMM (29), trans-Golgi for JMY (212), and they are both involved in anterograde transport, from ER to cis-Golgi and then from cis- to trans-Golgi cisternae. The role of WHAMM in trafficking involves binding of the 462 N-terminal domain to Rab1 (209) and binding of the central  $\alpha$ -helical domain to microtubules (219). Regulations by Rab1 and microtubules allow WHAMM to control the formation of membrane tubules, which are thought to mediate intracellular transport of anterograde cargoes (29, 209, 219).

In addition, WHAMM and JMY were both recently involved in autophagy (43, 120). Their N-terminal domain dictate their localization to the ER, from which autophagosomal membranes originate. During autophagosome biogenesis, actin polymerization in a so-called 'comet tail' is required to elongate membrane tubules from the ER, independently of microtubules (120). Branched actin networks also shape the autophagosome from the inside (168) and are likely involved in autophagosome closure as well. Indeed, topologically, autophagosome closure is a membrane scission event (130), and NPFs promote membrane scission, as described above for N-WASP and WASH. Connexions between Arp2/3 and autophagy appear numerous. WASH inactivation leads to massive autophagy through elucidated molecular pathways implicating the major regulators Beclin1, RNF2 and AMBRA1 (281, 282). However, the meaning of why WASH should suppress autophagy is not yet clear.

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## E. An emerging function of NPFs in gene transcription

JMY was originally identified as a cofactor for the p300/CBP transcription coactivator (220). JMY translocates to the nucleus, when actin concentration decreases in the cytoplasm and that actin does no longer bind to its cluster of WH2 motifs (304). In the nucleus, the 484 JMY-p300 co-activator complex engages with transcription factors, such as p53 or HIF1 $\alpha$  to induce the transcription of target genes involved in apoptosis or in cell motility (44, 45). The Arp2/3 complex and the other NPFs were also described moonlighting in the nucleus to regulate transcription.

N-WASP has a marked effect on gene transcription (279). Actin, the Arp2/3 complex and N-WASP coimmunoprecipitate with the RNA polymerase II, which transcribes most protein encoding genes (279, 295). Nuclar Arp2/3 generates branched actin networks like its cytoplasmic counterpart (295). N-WASP might exert this transcription role through its interaction with the nuclear PSF/NonO complex (279). The tyrosine phosphorylation of N-

WASP by Src family kinases (235) and FAK (278) favors its cytoplasmic localization at the expense of its nuclear localization and can thus downregulate its transcriptional role. The extent of the requirement of N-WASP for general gene transcription is, however, questioned by the apparent mild phenotype associated with N-WASP knock-out (155, 225).

FAM21, a subunit of the WASH complex, has also been recently implicated in gene transcription (50). FAM21 shuttles back and forth in the nucleus. FAM21 regulate NF-κB transcription by binding to the p65 subunit of NF-κB and to the inhibitor of NF-κB kinases, IKKα, β and γ. This function of FAM21, however, appears relatively independent of the WASH NPF.

The generation of nuclear branched actin can also derepress gene transcription through chromatin remodeling. Toca-1, one of the BAR containing activators of N-WASP, is critical to reactivate the pluripotency gene, *Oct4*, in nuclear reprograming experiments, where somatic nuclei are injected into Xenopus oocytes (174). The Rac—WAVE pathway is similarly required (175). In T lymphocytes, the hematopoietic WASP controls the lymphocytic Th1 differentiation program, because Th1 differentiation genes are occluded through methylation of histone H3 in patients affected by Wiskott-Aldrich syndrome, where WASP is defective (244). All together, these various experiments established that nuclear Arp2/3 and NPFs may control gene transcription through both chromatin remodeling and recruitment of the RNA polymerase II.

## 514 IV. ARP2/3 INHIBITORY PROTEINS

Three Arp2/3 inhibitory proteins have recently been reported. The general assumption is that an inhibitor should be diffuse in the cytosol, in order to maintain globally silent a signaling pathway that is locally activated. The surprise is that these Arp2/3 inhibitory proteins are specifically localized at the surface of specific membranes, just like the activators. There is mounting evidence that they counteract specific NPFs.

A. Arpin

In a bioinformatics screen for potential Arp2/3 regulators, our group identified an uncharacterized protein, which contained a typical C-terminal acidic A motif, but lacked the required WH2 motif for Arp2/3 activation. In vitro this protein binds to the Arp2/3 complex, but cannot activate it. It thus acts as a competitive inhibitor of NPFs (47) and was called Arpin as a mnemonic for Arp2/3 inhibition. There is a single Arpin gene in the human genome. In vitro Arpin constitutively exposes its C-terminal acidic tail, which inhibits the Arp2/3 complex (65). When bound to Arpin, the Arp2/3 complex is in the inactive conformation, where Arp2 and Arp3 are far apart (226).

In the cell, Arpin localizes at the lamellipodial edge, i.e. where branched actin is nucleated by the WAVE complex. Arpin's ability to interact with the Arp2/3 complex depends on Rac activity, which induces lamellipodia (47). Indeed, by single molecule imaging, Arp2/3 complexes from the lamellipodial edge were not all activated and incorporated into the branched actin network that undergoes retrograde flow. Some Arp2/3 complexes were seen to move laterally in the plane of the plasma membrane (172) (Fig.3). The Arp2/3 complexes are likely maintained inactive by Arpin at this location. Arpin is an inhibitor of cell migration (84). Without Arpin, lamellipodia protrude for longer, and, as a consequence, sustain active directional migration.

Consistent with an inhibitory role on cell migration, Arpin was found to be down-regulated during breast cancer progression. In two independent retrospective cohorts of breast cancer patients, Arpin down-regulation, documented at both mRNA and protein levels, was associated with lymph node invasion and decreased survival (151, 154). The most powerful prognosis factor, however, is obtained when patients having tumors displaying Arpin down-regulation are combined with patients having tumors displaying up-regulation of the WAVE complex (154). Patient analyses thus confirm the specific antagonism between Arpin and the WAVE complex deduced from the analyses of cell migration in vitro.

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- B. Gadkin
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Gadkin, also known as γ-BAR, is another protein that interacts with the Arp2/3 complex through an acidic motif (163). The AP1AR gene, which encodes Gadkin, has no paralog in the human genome. Gadkin localizes at steady state at the surface of endosomes (213). Gadkin regulates the trans Golgi network—endosomal traffic by entering in a complex with the kinesin KIF5 and the clathrin adaptor AP-1 (213). Its function and localization are thus most similar to the ones of the WASH complex among the different NPFs. In Gadkin knock-out cells, the Arp2/3 complex associated with endosomes appear to polymerize more F-actin (211). It is thus logical to assume that Gadkin maintains the Arp2/3 complex in an inhibited conformation, like Arpin. However, in in vitro assays of Arp2/3 activity, purified Gadkin does not inhibit actin nucleation (163), suggesting that Gadkin's activity is not yet properly reconstituted in such in vitro assays. It is tempting to speculate that Gadkin might antagonize the WASH complex at the surface of endosomes, but this hypothesis awaits the demonstration that they both regulate the endosomal sorting of the same receptors.

Gadkin has been shown to be overexpressed in breast cancer, but this overexpression is not associated with patient prognosis (154).

C. PICK1

PICK1 is a protein containing a PDZ and a BAR domain. PICK1 is encoded by a single gene, which is ubiquitously expressed with an enrichment in the brain (144). The PDZ domain of PICK1 connects it to numerous membrane receptors and transporters, the most studied of which is the AMPA receptor of the glutamate neurotransmitter. The BAR domain dimerizes and induces or senses curved membranes through its banana-shaped membrane binding interface (161, 233). The C-terminal part of the molecule contains an acidic motif that binds and inhibits the Arp2/3 complex (202). This inhibitory activity was reported to be regulated by the GTPase Arf1 (201).

PICK1 regulates AMPA receptor trafficking, and in particular its clathrin-dependent endocytosis (9, 202). The role of PICK1 is thus most consistent with an antagonism with N-WASP at the clathrin coated pits. However, the situation is more complex than previously thought, since the BAR domain of PICK1 recognize mostly vesicles derived from the trans Golgi network and inhibition of the Arp2/3 complex in vitro was not reproduced in a recent study (161). PICK1 regulates long-term depression and long-term potentiation of synapses (125, 201, 250). These effects are mediated by expansion or contraction of post-synaptic structures called dendritic spines. Dendritic spines are actin-rich membrane structures, perhaps equivalent to a mini-lamellipodium except that filaments emanating from a central branched actin network are laterally elongated, thus allowing the expansion of the spine (33). Like in the lamellipodium, the central branched actin network is nucleated by the Rac— WAVE—Arp2/3 pathway (34). PICK1 controls the activity-regulated size of dendritic spines (8). Consistent with an inhibitory role, PICK1 depletion expand spines, whereas its overexpression induce spine shrinkage (180). In glial cells, PICK1 might antagonize WAVE rather than N-WASP, because PICK1 depletion increases branching complexity of astrocytes, whereas WAVE2 depletion decreases it, unlike N-WASP depletion (179).

In cancer as well, the role of PICK1 is complex. In gliomas, PICK1 expression is down-regulated in aggressive astrocytic tumors (41). In contrast, in the breast, PICK1 was reported to be overexpressed in tumors of poor prognosis (297). PICK1 overexpression in breast cancer was, however, not observed in a second independent cohort (154).

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- V. BRANCH REGULATORS
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- A. Cortactin
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The cortactin family is composed of two members, the ubiquitous cortactin protein and HS1, which is hematopoietic-specific and thus less studied. Cortactin interacts with actin filaments through its specific cortactin repeats and with the Arp2/3 complex through an acidic motif, which has the particularity to be located in the N-terminus of the protein (Fig.5). Cortactin was previously proposed to be a NPF, because it does activate the Arp2/3 complex in vitro at high concentration. However, cortactin strongly synergizes with NPFs, because it acts after WCA induced branching nucleation by inhibiting debranching (265, 266). Cortactin thus competes for Arp2/3 binding with the NPF and by doing so favors NPF detachment (223). NPF detachment is a prerequisite for the elongation of a daughter filament from an

Arp2/3 complex that has landed onto a mother filament (59, 94, 224). Cortactin then remains 613 bound to the Arp2/3 at the actin branch and prevents it from debranching  $(25)$  (Fig.6).

In cells, cortactin is a good marker of branched actin networks, because it labels them all along their length and independently of their subcellular location (116, 267). In contrast, NPFs are specific for each organelle and are only localized at the interface between the organelle and the branched actin structure. By FRAP, cortactin was seen to undergo continuous exchange along the length of lamellipodial actin network (136). Further in vivo evidence that cortactin associates with Arp2/3 at the branch include double immunogold labeling of lamellipodial actin networks by electron microscopy (25). Elongation of actin filaments induces the retrograde movement of Arp2/3 complexes that have landed on a mother filament. This movement extracts the NPF from the membrane displaying it. Inactivating the Arp2/3 complex or blocking actin dynamics indeed freezes the turnover of NPFs and induces a striking accumulation of WAVE, WASP or WASH at the surface of their respective membrane (53, 172, 269). It remains to be tested, however, if cortactin overexpression prevents NPF extraction that ensures the turnover measured by FRAP.

Cortactin has been discovered as a tyrosine-phosphorylated protein in cells transformed by the Src oncogene (274, 275). It has since been demonstrated to be a substrate of numerous tyrosine kinases, of both receptor and non-receptor types (19, 46, 71, 102, 118). Cortactin is also phosphorylated on serine residues by MAP kinases (28) and PAK1, the well-known effector of Rac and Cdc42 pathway (86, 92). It is not known if these modifications specifically regulate the branch regulatory function of cortactin, but it does signal to cytoskeleton regulatory proteins. Tyrosine phosphorylation controls cortactin association with cofilin and its activation (162, 188). Cortactin phosphorylation also regulates its ability to bind and activate N-WASP, through its C-terminal SH3 domain (166). Cortactin is subjected to other types of post-translational modifications, such as acetylation, which prevents its binding to actin filaments and decreases cell migration (301).

Cortactin was found to promote lamellipodial persistence and cell motility in transformed cells (21, 123). However, this is likely not a direct effect of its branch stabilizing activity, but rather a signaling role of cortactin, since cortactin knock-out fibroblasts have no visible defects in lamellipodial ultrastructure and only modest alterations of migration parameters (137). Strikingly, the defects of cortactin depleted cells can be rescued by adhesion to the matrix deposited by control cells, suggesting that cortactin have defects in depositing extracellular matrix (239). Invadopodia, the major protrusions of cancer invasive cells, depend on cortactin, in addition to their specific NPF, N-WASP. Cortactin is a structural component of the branched actin networks that induce invadopodial protrusions and its activation by phosphorylation is critical for this process (10, 11, 40, 55). Intracellular traffic controls the focal secretion of the metalloproteases of the invadopodia and cortactin favors secretion, in addition to its role in creating the protrusion (10, 40, 99, 129). Exosome secretion, which is important for communication between cancer cells and between cancer cells and cancer-associated cells from their microenvironnement, critically depends on cortactin (222).

Cortactin is overexpressed in many cancers (Table 2). The CTTN gene encoding cortactin is located on the 11q13 genomic region, which is frequently amplified during cancer progression, especially in head and neck squamous cell carcinoma (HNSCC) and in breast cancer (214). In HSNCC, cortactin overexpression, due to CTTN amplification, is associated with cancer progression, invasion of lymph nodes, and recurrence (98, 205, 207). In HNSCC cell lines, cortactin overexpression promotes cell growth in vitro and tumor growth in xenografts (39, 252). Cortactin overexpression favors cell growth independent of growth factors, of anchorage and mediates resistance to contact inhibition, which are three major hallmarks of transformation. In patients, cortactin overexpression is associated with high grade tumors, metastases and poor survival in squamous cell carcinomas from the larynx, from the esophagus and from the oral cavity (7, 79, 157, 237, 285). In breast cancers, cortactin is also overexpressed, but this overexpression was consistently found not to be associated with patient prognosis (48, 104, 218). Nevertheless, in xenografts, cortactin expression enhances the ability of a breast carcinoma cell line to metastasize to the bones (143). These results are not as paradoxical as it might seem: Cortactin can be involved in the transformation process and in cancer progression, and not be associated with a poor prognosis, if the overexpression occurs most frequently in breast cancer subtypes, which are not as aggressive, as the one associated with the poorest patient survival. Cortactin overexpression has been associated with high grade tumors, but not yet with poor survival, in ovarian carcinomas (148), in non small cell carcinomas of the lung (184), in gliomas (260). Cortactin has been associated with both high grade tumors and poor survival in colorectal cancer (22, 183), in gastric cancer (264), in prostate cancer (100), in melanoma (284) and in hepatocellular carcinoma (103).

B. Coronin

There are 7 coronins in human, which are characterized by a so-called β-propeller structure made of WD40 repeats (31). Here we will discuss only the type I coronins, among which Coro1B and Coro1C are ubiquitous and Coro1A hematopoietic-specific. At the C-terminus, a coiled-coil domain mediates homo and hetero-trimerization of coronins (117). Coronins are binding to both the Arp2/3 complex and actin filaments. In all type I coronins, a binding site for actin filaments is in the β-propeller, but Coro1C possesses a second filament binding site in a unique region (31, 32). The site binding to the Arp2/3 complex is in the N-terminus of coronins. Arp2/3 binding is regulated by the phosphorylation of two serines in the N-terminus and C-terminus. Phosphomimetic mutations of these sites strongly decrease Arp2/3 binding (23, 280).

In vitro, coronin enhances Arp2/3 debranching and both binding sites are required for this effect (24, 25). An antagonism between cortactin and coronin has thus been proposed to control the debranching rate of branched actin networks (25). Coronin does not stain the branched actin structures to their top where new branches are formed, indicating that coronin acts at a later stage than cortactin (25). However, one has to understand why in vivo coronin is a good marker of branched actin networks at lamellipodia, as well as at the surface of endosomes (26, 197). If the only role of coronin was to debranch, coronin should not stay in the branched actin network. Recent data explain the conundrum that coronin remains associated with the branched actin structure that it remodels: Coronin would not have the same effect on the Arp2/3 complexes depending on their precise composition in paralogous subunits (1). The Arp2/3 complexes containing ARPC1A and/or ARPC5 would indeed be debranched by coronin, whereas the most efficient Arp2/3 complexes containing ARPC1B and/or ARPC5L would be immune to coronin-induced debranching (Fig.6). Coronin could thus mediate partial debranching of the branched actin networks and at the same time be a good marker of the branched actin structures.

The serine 2 of Coronin 1B has been shown to be phosphorylated by PKCs in response to factors that induce actin polymerization and cell motility, such as platelet-derived growth factor (PDGF) or phorbol myristate acetate (PMA) (23, 272). These observations are consistent with a shut-down of Arp2/3 debranching, when branched actin networks are triggered. Depletion of coronin, however, alters lamellipodial dynamics and impairs cell migration as a consequence (26). These effects might only be partially due to Arp2/3 debranching. Indeed, coronin recruits to branched actin networks the phosphatase slingshot that activates cofilin by dephosphorylation (26). Coronin, together with cofilin, promotes the disassembly of branched actin structures, when the actin filaments age (20, 69, 134). Through its activities of Arp2/3 debranching and actin disassembly, coronin appears to down-regulate, rather than promote, branched actin networks.

Coronin 1C is overexpressed in gliomas (251), in hepatocellular carcinomas (276), gastric cancers (238), lymphomas (159). When it has been examined, coronin overexpression is associated with high grade tumors and poor survival for patients. It might seem at odds that a type I coronin, which globally down-regulates branched actin networks, might be overexpressed in cancers, while the Arp2/3 complex is also overexpressed. However, coronin activities in favoring debranching and actin depolymerization might be important to replenish available pools of actin molecules and Arp2/3 complexes for continuous actin polymerization and sustained cell movements (26, 272).

C. GMF

There are two Glia-Maturation Factors (GMF) proteins encoded in humans, GMFβ encoded by the GMFB gene and GMFγ encoded by GMFG. GMFB is expressed ubiquitously with an enrichment in the brain (91), whereas GMFG is mostly expressed in hematopoietic cells and endothelial cells (105). These two homologous proteins belong to the same superfamily as cofilin, but define a subfamily of their own (85, 196). GMFs are cofilins, which have evolved to bind to Arp2, instead of actin. GMF uses this Arp2 binding site to insert intself in between Arp2 and the actin molecule and thus severs the branch in a way similar to cofilin severing actin filaments (70, 158, 293). GMF preferentially recognizes Arp2, when it is bound to ADP (17). ATP hydrolysis by Arp2 is not required for branched actin nucleation, since it occurs after branched actin nucleation (106, 139, 164). As a consequence ATP hydrolysis by Arp2 acts as a timer, indicating that the actin branch has aged, the same

way ATP hydrolysis by the actin molecules in a filament indicates the older portion of the filament. Cofilin also severs ADP-actin filaments more efficiently than younger ATP-actin filaments (30, 170, 187). GMF binding to Arp2 is regulated by phosphorylation of its serine at position 2 (105), just like cofilin (5).

It is not yet established whether coronin and GMF provide two independent means of debranching branched actin networks for increased robustness or whether they collaborate to perform efficient debranching together. GMF and coronin may play sequential roles in the molecular reaction of Arp2/3 debranching. Indeed, once GMF has severed the connexion between the Arp2/3 complex and the daughter filament, the Arp2/3 complex is still interacting with the mother actin filament and coronin has been shown to detach such landed Arp2/3 complexes from filaments (25).

In the cell, GMF depletion alters lamellipodial dynamics by decreasing disassembly of branched actin networks (91, 195). The consequence on cell migration is not dramatic, but can be seen in instances, where migration is finely regulated. Depletion of GMFγ from neutrophils impairs their chemotaxis towards inflammatory cytokines (4), whereas depletion of GMFβ from fibroblasts impairs their haptotaxis towards immobilized extracellular matrix (91).

GMFβ is overexpressed in gliomas, because it is expressed by tumor cells and endothelial cells of new capillaries feeding the tumor (133). Endothelial cells within the glioma thus express GMFβ, instead of GMFγ for normal vessels. GMFβ overexpression in glioma-associated endothelial cells has been reported to be a better prognosis factor than GMFβ overexpression in tumor cells (133). Both GMFβ and GMFγ are overexpressed in ovarian cancers (145, 306). As we have seen for coronin, the overexpression of a branch destabilizer might promote the turnover of branched actin networks.

762 VI. CONCLUSION

In about 20 years, the Arp2/3 complex has been implicated in a variety of processes. It is now clear that the branched actin networks and the pushing force that they generate are major means that cells use to remodel their plasma membrane in cell migration as well as their internal membranes in membrane traffic. In many instances, the in vivo role of Arp2/3 regulators has been reconstituted in vitro and these endeavors gave rise to in depth understanding of molecular and cellular functions of Arp2/3 regulation. To go back and forth from the molecular level in appropriate reconstitutions to the cellular level, where molecular dynamics can also be addressed using techniques such as FRAP, has allowed to identify and rule out artifactual molecular behaviors sometimes observed in vitro in conditions far from the cell physiology.

Here we have attempted to organize the various Arp2/3 regulators in systems. The NPFs divide the labor of generating the diverse branched actin structures of the cell. The combinatorial complexity in assembling NPF complexes imposes to study the repertoire of paralogous subunits expressed in each cell system. Similar complexity emerged at the level of the different Arp2/3 complexes, which might themselves be differentially regulated by the different NPF complexes. Similarly, the identification of different Arp2/3 inhibitors revealed that Arp2/3 inhibition is not global, as a means to maintain the system silent in the cytosol, but the inhibitory proteins rather balance Arp2/3 activation at the surface of different cell membranes. Similarly, regulators of the Arp2/3 branched junction fine-tune the ultrastructure of branched actin networks and their role appear mostly in highly regulated physiological processes. We begin to unravel the exquisite regulations of the Arp2/3 complex in these various situations.

Deregulation of the Arp2/3 regulatory system in cancer offers an opportunity to understand its logic. If one sets aside a couple of reports at odds with the majority of publications, one can see that the Arp2/3, the WAVE and the N-WASP complexes are overall overexpressed in many cancers. These overexpressions are usually associated with poor prognosis for patients. The other NPFs more specifically involved in intracellular trafficking like WASH, WHAMM or JMY, are not, or not yet, involved in cancer progression. Down-regulation of Arpin is consistent with its inhibitory role. The situation is not yet clear for Gadkin and PICK1. As for the branch regulators, the stabilizer cortactin and destabilizers, coronin and GMF, are all clearly overexpressed with an overall association with high grade of tumors and poor prognosis for the patients. These simple observations emphasize the notion that branched actin networks have to turnover fast to perform their function. The deregulation of the Arp2/3 regulatory system in cancer suggests that small molecule inhibitors of branched actin dynamics might provide a therapeutic benefit to control cancer progression.

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### **Figure legends**

**Figure 1:** Conformations of the Arp2/3 complex and regulators of the equilibria between them. On the left, the fully inactive Arp2/3 complex displays a conformation, where Arp2 and Arp3 are far apart. On the right, the fully activated Arp2/3 complex has nucleated an actin filament from the side of a pre-existing filament. The middle conformation corresponds to a rearranged Arp2/3 complex, where Arp2 and Arp3 have been brought into proximity and mimics the end of an actin filament. This conformation allows side binding to an actin 811 filament. Regulatory factors are represented above and below the equilibrium arrows. CK-666 and CK-869 are two small molecule inhibitors of Arp2/3 activation (95), which are widely used in cell biology experiments.

**Figure 2:** Modular organization of Arp2/3 activatory and inhibitory proteins. Their division of labor at different subcellular localizations is indicated. All activators contain a C-terminal WCA domain, which binds and activates the Arp2/3 complex, whereas all inhibitors contain an acidic motif (A), which binds to the Arp2/3 complex and competes with WCA-containing activators. When the activators were described to form a stable complex, partner subunits are depicted. An inhibitory protein that would antagonize WHAMM activatory proteins remains to be identified. SHD: Scar/WAVE homology domain; B: Basic domain; P : Proline-rich 822 region; WH1: WASP homology 1; CRIB: CDC42 and Rac1 Interactive Binding region; AI: Auto-Inhibition domain; WAHD1: WASH homology Domain 1; WMD: WHAMM Membrane-interacting Domain; CC : Coiled coiled; PDZ : PSD95–Dlg1–ZO1 domain; BAR: Bin–Amphiphysin–Rvs domain.

**Figure 3:** WAVE and Arpin control the duration of branched actin polymerization at the cortex. Polymerization is triggered by Rac activation, i.e. its exchange of the bound GDP nucleotide for a GTP nucleotide. GTP-bound Rac then directly recruits the WAVE complex at the plasma membrane. Activated WAVE binds and activates several Arp2/3 complexes, which are represented with different blue intensities. Each activated Arp2/3 complex nucleates an actin branch that undergoes a retrograde movement due to actin filament elongation (white arrows). This scheme represents molecular processes in the referential of the cell membrane and not of the substratum: either the membrane is fixed and the branched actin undergoes a retrograde flow, or the branched actin structure is fixed, due to a coupling with cell adhesion structures, and the plasma membrane protrudes. Rac controls the recruitment of Arpin with a delay, after the recruitment of the WAVE complex. Arpin molecules locally bind Arp2/3 complexes and block their activation of Arp2/3 complexes. The Arp2/3 complexes, which move laterally in the plane of the plasma membrane (white arrows), are probably the ones bound to Arpin molecules.

**Figure 4:** Deregulation of the Arp2/3 regulatory system in cell transformation. In normal cells, N-WASP, WASH, WHAMM and WAVE nucleate branched actin network at the clathrin-coated pit, at the surface of endosomes, of the ER/Golgi and at the lamellipodial edge, respectively. The Arp2/3 inhibitory proteins, Arpin, Gadkin and PICK1, locally antagonize WAVE, WASH and N-WASP at their respective locations. During cell transformation, N-WASP is overexpressed and forms invadopodia. In invadopodia, WASH promotes focalized delivery of metalloproteases that degrade the extracellular matrix. In cancer cells, WAVE is overexpressed and Arpin down-regulated, despite frequent abnormal lamellipodia. Font size indicate the level of expression.

**Figure 5:** Modular organization of proteins that regulate Arp2/3 branches. Cortactin stabilizes 853 the Arp2/3 branches, whereas GMF and coronin destabilize them. R: cortactin Repeats;  $P =$ 854 Proline-rich region; SH3: Src Homology 3 domain; CC = Coiled Coil ; ADF-H = ADF/cofilin Homology domain.

**Figure 6:** Regulation of the actin junctions branched by the Arp2/3 complex. Cortactin binds the Arp2/3 complex at the branch and blocks actin debranching. GMF recognizes the Arp2/3 complex in the context of the branch and severs the branch. Coronin destabilizes the actin branches formed by ArpC1A/ArpC5 containing Arp2/3 complexes. In contrast, the actin branches formed by ArpC1B/ArpC5L containing Arp2/3 complexes resist coronin's effect, thus explaining why coronin is a good marker of branched actin networks, like cortactin.

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## **DISCLOSURES**

The authors have no conflict of interest to declare.

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## **Figure 1**



### **Figure 2**









**Figure 5**

**Branch regulators**







nd: not determined; LOF: loss of function



Table I: Deregulation of the Arp2/3 system in association with cancer stage and patient prognosis.

#### Table II: Deregulation of the Arp2/3 branch regulators in association with cancer stage and patient prognosis.



nd: not determined