



Emerging insights into bacterial deubiquitinases

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Bacterial pathogens utilize eukaryotic cellular systems in various ways for their own benefits. To counteract host immune responses and survive in cells, bacteria modify host signaling pathways. For this aim, they have evolved virulence secretion systems. Bacteria-encoded effector proteins delivered via these secretion systems are the key players in bacterial pathogenesis. Ubiquitination is a post-translational modification that governs eukaryotic cellular systems. Recent studies have revealed that many bacterial effector proteins target the host ubiquitin system, often acting as ubiquitin-modulating enzymes such as ubiquitin ligases and deubiquitinases. Emerging lines of evidence have unveiled the diversity of bacterial deubiquitinases and have provided insights into the bacterial strategy to exploit the host ubiquitin system.

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Introduction

The vast majority of eukaryotic proteins are ubiquitinated during their lifespan, and their stability and/or activities are regulated via ubiquitination. Therefore, the ubiquitin system impacts many aspects of cellular processes. Ubiquitin is a small polypeptide of 76 amino acids that can be covalently conjugated to target proteins. Ubiquitination can occur as a result of a reaction cascade involving three universally conserved enzymes: E1 (ubiquitin-activating enzyme), E2 (ubiquitin-conjugating enzyme) and E3 (ubiquitin ligase) [1].

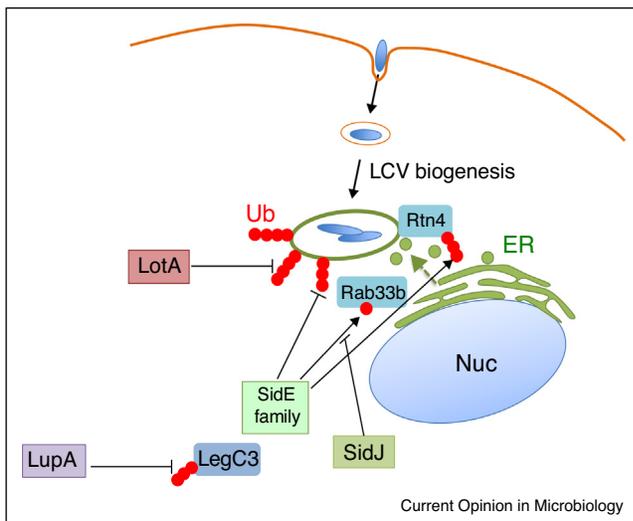
There are many types of ubiquitination. Monoubiquitination is the conjugation of a single molecule of ubiquitin to a substrate protein, and it has been shown to regulate subcellular protein localization, conformation, activity

and protein interactions [2]. Polyubiquitination is the binding of many ubiquitin molecules to the same target protein by the formation of ubiquitin chains. The polyubiquitination linkage type is determined based on the residues that are used to make the ubiquitin chains. Ubiquitin contains seven lysine residues (K6, K11, K27, K29, K33, K48 and K63) and an N-terminal methionine (M1) that can be conjugated to the C-terminus of a subsequent ubiquitin molecule. K48-linked polyubiquitin is known to mediate proteasomal degradation, while K63-linked polyubiquitin plays roles in cellular signaling, intracellular trafficking, DNA repair and so on [3]. With regard to other linkage types, the roles of polyubiquitin in cellular systems have not yet been fully determined.

Recently, a paradigm shift regarding ubiquitination occurred after the discovery of the SidE family of *Legionella pneumophila* effector proteins. These proteins are type IV secretion system (T4SS) substrates. The SidE family of proteins (SidE and its paralogues SdeA, SdeB and SdeC) bypass the requirement for E1 and E2 enzymes by catalyzing a noncanonical form of ubiquitination [4*,5]. The proteins have mono-adenosine diphosphate (ADP)-ribosyltransferase (mART) and phosphodiesterase (PDE) domains in a single polypeptide. Instead of the conventional adenosine triphosphate (ATP)-dependent reaction, the proteins catalyze nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide (NAD)-dependent ubiquitin transfer to substrate proteins such as Rab33b [4*] and reticulon 4 (Rtn4) [5] (Figure 1). The mART activity of the SidE family of proteins mediates the ADP-ribosylation of ubiquitin. The phosphodiester bond in the ADP-ribosylated ubiquitin is cleaved by the PDE activity to release adenosine monophosphate (AMP) and form phosphoribosylated ubiquitin (PR-Ub). The chain of reactions eventually results in unconventional serine ubiquitination of substrate proteins [6].

Deubiquitinases (DUBs) catalyze the removal of ubiquitin from substrate proteins. A DUB can either bind directly to the substrate protein and remove ubiquitin from it or, alternatively, it can recognize the ubiquitin chain and cleave the linkage between the ubiquitin molecules [7]. The linkage-specific cleavage implies that there are various ways of recognizing ubiquitin chains. About 100 DUBs are known to exist in humans [8]. Six structurally distinct DUB families have been described to date: (i) the ubiquitin-specific proteases (USPs), (ii) the ovarian tumor proteases (OTUs), (iii) the ubiquitin C-terminal hydrolases (UCHs), (iv) the Josephin family, (v) the motif interacting with ubiquitin (MIU)-containing novel DUB family (MINDYs) and (vi) JAB1/MPN/

Figure 1



Legionella DUBs.

After internalization into host cells, *L. pneumophila* establishes a replicative compartment, the so-called *Legionella*-containing vacuole (LCV), using endoplasmic reticulum (ER)-derived vesicles. Biogenesis of LCVs relies on ER-associated proteins, including reticulon 4 (Rtn4) and Rab GTPases. SidE family effectors (SidE, SdeA, SdeB and SdeC) can conjugate ubiquitin on Rtn4 and Rab33b by noncanonical ubiquitin ligase activity, facilitating ER membrane rearrangement in the vicinity of the LCV. The ubiquitin conjugates on Rab33b can be removed by the DUB activity of the cognate metaeffector protein SidJ. The DUB activity of the SidE family proteins contributes to remove ubiquitin chains from the LCVs. LotA also removes polyubiquitin chains from the LCVs. The DUB LupA can target another *Legionella* effector protein, LegC3, and remove ubiquitin chains from LegC3.

MOV34 (JAMM) metalloproteases (also known as MPN+) [7]. All but (vi) are cysteine proteases. Among them, OTUs are known to be highly linkage-specific [9]. The cysteine protease DUBs and ubiquitin-like (Ubl) proteases (ULPs) are classified as clan CA and CE peptidases (<http://merops.sanger.ac.uk/index.htm>) [10–12]. Clan CA contains families of peptidases that have structural similarity to papain. The families have the catalytic triad Cys/His/Asn (or Asp), which occur at this order in the primary sequence. Clan CE consists of cysteine peptidases with the catalytic triad His/Glu (or Asp)/Cys at this order.

Bacterial DUBs

There are many examples of bacterial ubiquitin ligases that are employed to modulate host cellular systems for bacterial benefits [13–16]. Similarly, accumulating lines of evidence indicate that DUBs are encoded by many bacterial species and play crucial roles after infection [12,17] (Table 1).

Salmonella and *Escherichia coli*

SseL is a type III secretion system (T3SS) effector protein of *Salmonella enterica* serovar Typhimurium. SseL was

initially characterized as a bacterial protein similar to clan CE proteases [18]. Infection analyses showed that SseL was required for *Salmonella*-induced delayed cytotoxic effects on macrophages. SseL cleaves polyubiquitin chains, with a preference for K63-linked chains. The DUB activity of SseL was shown to contribute to evasion of selective autophagy by deubiquitinating T3SS-dependent ubiquitinated aggregates and aggresome-like induced structures (ALIS) [19]. Similar to SseL, ElaD of pathogenic *E. coli* is a clan CE cysteine protease. This protein was shown to have DUB activity *in vitro* [20] and to have a preference for K63-linked ubiquitin chains [21*].

Chlamydia

Cdu1 and Cdu2 (formerly termed ChlaDub1 and ChlaDub2, respectively) from *Chlamydia trachomatis* have domains with similarity to the catalytic domains of the clan CE proteases. NEDD8 (neural precursor cells developmental downregulated 8) is a Ubl modifier [22,23]. Both Cdu1 and Cdu2 were shown to have DUB activities *in vitro*, and they have dual specificity for ubiquitin and NEDD8 [21*,24]. The DUB activity of Cdu1 was shown to target I κ B α (inhibitor of NF κ B (nuclear factor κ B)), resulting in inhibition of NF κ B signaling and immune responses in order for the bacteria to survive in host cells [25]. Recently, it was reported that Cdu1 localizes on *Chlamydia*-containing vacuoles and stabilizes the apoptosis regulator, Mcl-1, using its DUB activity [26]. Another *Chlamydia* T3SS effector protein is the *Chlamydia pneumoniae* protein ChlaOTU, an OTU-like cysteine protease with DUB activity [27]. It was shown that this protein cleaves K48- and K63-linked polyubiquitin chains. Ubiquitin accumulation at *Chlamydia* entry sites was reduced by the catalytic activity of ChlaOTU. Interestingly, ChlaOTU possesses a domain that can interact with NDP52 (nuclear dot protein 52 kDa), an autophagy adaptor protein, but the implication of the interaction has not been fully clarified.

Burkholderia

Burkholderia mallei encodes a clan CA cysteine protease, TssM, the expression of which is transcriptionally co-regulated with a type VI secretion system (T6SS) gene cluster [28,29]. *In vitro* analysis showed that TssM has DUB activity and cleaves K48- and K63-linked ubiquitin chains [29]. TssM is implicated in the modulation of the host immune response upon *Burkholderia* infection [30]. TssM inhibits NF κ B activation by interfering with TRAF6 (TNF (tumor necrosis factor) receptor-associated factor 6) and I κ B α ubiquitination. Interestingly, the T6SS important for the invasion of macrophage was found to be dispensable for *B. pseudomallei* TssM secretion and expression in infected cells, while a T3SS was required for the expression of TssM in the cells [30]. Interplay between the two secretion systems might be involved in regulation of TssM function in infected cells.

Table 1

Bacterial DUBs					
Bacteria	Protein	Cystein protease clan	Targets	Function	Reference(s)
<i>Salmonella Typhimurium</i>	SseL	Clan CE, Family C79	Unknown	Cytotoxicity	[18]
				Inhibition of selective autophagy	[19]
<i>Escherichia coli</i>	ElaD	Clan CE, Family C79	Unknown	Unknown	[20,21*]
<i>Chlamydia trachomatis</i>	Cdu1	Clan CE, Family C48	Mcl-1	Prevention of NFkB signaling	[24,25,21*]
				Stabilization of the apoptosis regulator Mcl-1	[26]
				Unknown	[24,21*]
<i>Chlamydia pneumonia</i>	ChlaOTU	Clan CA	Unknown	Reduction of ubiquitin accumulation at <i>Chlamydia</i> entry site	[27]
<i>Burkholderia mallei</i>	TssM	Clan CA, Family C19	TRAF6, IκBα	Inhibition of NFkB activation	[29,30]
<i>Xanthomonas campestris</i>	XopD	Clan CE, Family C48	Unknown	SUMO and ubiquitin isopeptidase	[32,33,21*]
<i>Legionella pneumophila</i>	SidE (Lpg0234)	Unknown	Unknown	Unknown	[34]
	SdeA (Lpg2157)	Unknown	Unknown	Regulation of ubiquitin associated with LCVs	
	SdeB (Lpg2156)	Unknown	Unknown	Unknown	[34]
	SdeC (Lpg2153)	Unknown	Unknown	Unknown	[34]
	SidJ (Lpg2155)	Unknown	Rab33b	Phosphodiesterase to remove RP-Ub from substrates	[39**]
	SdjA (Lpg2508)	Unknown	Unknown	Unknown	[39**]
	LupA (Lpg1148)	Unknown	LegC3 (Lpg1701)	Rescue of yeast growth defect caused by LegC3 expression	[38**]
	LotA (Lpg2248)	Clan CA	Unknown	Regulation of ubiquitin associated with LCVs	[40*]

Xanthomonas

SUMO (small ubiquitin-like modifier) is another Ubl modifier [31]. The *Xanthomonas campestris* T3SS effector XopD was characterized as a cysteine protease that targets plant-specific sumoylated proteins [32,33]. This protein also belongs to the clan CE cysteine proteases [32]. Recent re-evaluation of XopD revealed that this protein is the first isopeptidase that has been found to be cross-reactive to ubiquitin and SUMO [21*]. Moreover, it was shown that XopD has a preference for K11-, K29- and K48-linked ubiquitin. Crystal structures showed that the unexpected cross-reactivity of XopD to ubiquitin and SUMO is attributable to an unstructured ubiquitin binding-region in this protein [21*].

Legionella

The noncanonical ubiquitin ligases, the SidE family of proteins in *L. pneumophila* described above, also possess DUB activity [34]. SdeA has structural similarity to Den1, a member of the ULP family of cysteine proteases. The

DUB activity of SdeA has a preference for K63-linked ubiquitin chains. SdeA is able to recognize NEDD8 but not SUMO. The DUB activity of SdeA was found to be important for ubiquitin dynamics on *Legionella*-containing vacuoles (LCVs) (Figure 1).

Legionella encodes extraordinary number of effector proteins that are delivered via the T4SS [35]. Among the effector proteins, there is a class of effector proteins known as metaeffectors, which directly and/or functionally interacts with cognate effectors and regulate effector-modulated processes. The firstly identified metaeffector is *L. pneumophila* LubX which functions as an E3 ubiquitin ligase to mediate proteasomal degradation of another effector SidH [36]. Recently, genetic approaches taking advantage of yeast growth defects caused by ectopic expression of *L. pneumophila* effector proteins have been used to identify metaeffectors [37,38**]. For example, the ectopic expression of metaeffector SidJ suppressed the toxicity caused by expression of SdeA in yeast and mammalian cells [37]. Consistently with this observation, SidJ was discovered as a DUB having a

novel activity to cleave the phosphodiester bond between PR-Ub and substrates which ligation was mediated by the unprecedented SdeA ubiquitin ligase [39^{••}]. SidJ is encoded at the same gene locus as the SidE family of proteins *sdeA*, *sdeB* and *sdeC* in *L. pneumophila*. The phosphodiesterase activity of SidJ was shown to be important for optimal intracellular growth of *L. pneumophila* and for efficient recruitment of endoplasmic reticulum (ER)-resident proteins to LCVs [39^{••}]. SidJ also has canonical DUB activity, with a preference for K63-linkage, but it does not require catalytic cysteine residues [39^{••}]. SdjA, a homolog of SidJ, did not exhibit detectable activity for proteins ubiquitinated by SdeA [39^{••}]. However, the genetic interaction analysis utilizing yeast suggested that SdjA suppresses the activity of SidE, SdeB and SdeC more efficiently than SidJ [38^{••}]. This raises the possibility that, similarly with SidJ, SdjA also has DUB activity for proteins ubiquitinated by the SidE family ubiquitin ligases. In this context, SidJ and presumably SdjA are metaeffectors for the SidE family of proteins.

The crystal structure of the *L. pneumophila* T4SS effector protein LupA revealed a eukaryotic ubiquitin protease (UBP)-like domain with a canonical cysteine protease triad [38^{••}]. *In vitro* analysis confirmed that this protein is a DUB. A co-transfection experiment using human cells showed that the target of the DUB activity is another *L. pneumophila* effector, LegC3 [38^{••}] (Figure 1). This finding provided another new insight into the existence of co-evolved effector pairs ‘metaeffector and effector’.

Most recently, another *Legionella* DUB, LotA, was identified [40[•]]. LotA is distantly homologous to the OTU cysteine proteases and has two distinct catalytic cysteine residues. An *in vitro* analysis showed that LotA has DUB activity toward multiple ubiquitin linkage types. Upon infection, LotA functions to reduce ubiquitin decoration on LCVs in a catalytic cysteine-dependent manner. LotA possesses a phosphatidylinositol 3-phosphate (PI[3]P)-binding domain at its C-terminus. Its lipid-binding ability mediates LotA localization on the LCVs and is crucial for ubiquitin removal from LCVs (Figure 1). Interestingly, LotA preferentially cleaves polyubiquitin chains, rather than diubiquitins. The biological significance of DUB was demonstrated by a phenotypic analysis. When all the *side* family genes were disrupted, the intracellular growth of *L. pneumophila* was significantly reduced [34,37,41]. The growth defect was dependent on mART activity [4[•],5] but not on DUB activity [34]. Disruption of *lotA*, in conjunction with the disruption of all *side* family genes, resulted in further reduction of intracellular growth [40[•]]. This suggests that the LotA DUB and the SidE family ubiquitin ligases functionally interact to optimize bacterial intracellular proliferation.

Another *Legionella* T4SS effector protein, RavZ, was shown to be a crucial player for preventing autophagy

[42]. RavZ irreversibly deconjugated Atg8, a ubiquitin-like autophagy protein, from the lipid phosphatidylethanolamine (PE) on the early autophagosome. A *Legionella* and *Salmonella* co-infection experiment revealed that *Legionella* RavZ could reduce ubiquitin accumulated on *Salmonella*-containing vacuoles (SCVs) [43]. This finding raises the possibility that RavZ possesses DUB-like activity to deconjugate ubiquitin from unknown substrates on SCVs. Interestingly RavZ did not have a significant impact on the ubiquitin on LCVs. This implies that *Legionella* has a strategy to antagonize the potential RavZ activity toward LCVs.

Conclusions

Accumulating lines of evidence indicate that many pathogenic bacteria possess proteins with DUB activity. In fact, there are several other uncharacterized bacterial DUBs that were not covered in this opinion, including *Shigella flexneri* ShiCE and *Rickettsia bellii* RickCE [21[•]]. The known bacterial DUBs are likely to be just the tip of the iceberg, and a large array of unidentified DUBs may be present in pathogenic bacteria. One important role of the bacterial DUBs is antagonizing ubiquitin-mediated host cellular signaling pathways. This includes stabilization of cellular proteins that are destined for degradation by the ubiquitin-proteasome system. Recent studies on bacterial ubiquitin ligases and DUBs have been drastically expanding our understanding of how bacterial pathogens manipulate the host ubiquitin system. Studies of *Legionella* effectors have provided good examples of the functional interplay between bacterial effector proteins, known as metaeffector-effector relationships [36,38^{••},44,45]. Regarding deubiquitination effectors, the following relationships can be involved: First a bacterial ubiquitin ligase and a bacterial DUB that have the same cellular target (e.g. the target of SdeA and SidJ is Rab33b) and second a bacterial DUB that targets another bacterial protein (e.g. LupA targets LegC3). It is anticipated that some bacterial ubiquitin ligases have cognate bacterial DUBs. Future analyses of bacterial strategies to exploit the host ubiquitin system will provide insight into the orchestrated functional network of effector and host proteins.

Conflict of interest statement

Nothing declared.

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