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Actin dynamics in plant cells: a team effort from multiple proteins orchestrates this very fast-paced game

Laurent Blanchoin¹, Rajaa Boujemaa-Paterski¹, Jessica L Henty², Parul Khurana² and Christopher J Staiger^{2,3}

Gazing at a giant redwood tree in the Pacific Northwest, that has grown to enormous heights over centuries, does little to convince one that plants are built for speed and versatility. Even at the cellular level, a system of polymers - the cell skeleton or cytoskeleton - integrates signals and generates subcellular structures spanning scales of a few nanometers to hundreds of micrometers that coordinate cell growth. The term cytoskeleton itself connotes a stable structure. Clearly, this is not the case. Recent studies using advanced imaging modalities reveal the plant actin cytoskeleton to be a highly dynamic, ever changing assemblage of polymers. These insights along with growing evidence about the biochemical/ biophysical properties of plant cytoskeletal polymers, especially those obtained by single filament imaging and reconstituted systems of purified proteins analyzed by total internal reflection fluorescence microscopy, allow the generation of a unique model for the dynamic turnover of actin filaments, termed stochastic dynamics. Here, we review several significant advances and highlight opportunities that will position plants at the vanguard of research on actin organization and turnover. A challenge for the future will be to apply the power of reverse-genetics in several model organisms to test the molecular details of this new model.

Addresses

¹ Institut de Recherches en Technologies et Sciences pour le Vivant – iRTSV, Laboratoire de Phyiologie Cellulaire et Végétale, Commissariat à l'Energie Atomique /Centre National de la Recherche Scientifique/ Institut National de la Recherche Agronomique/Université Joseph Fourier, CEA Grenoble, F38054, Grenoble, France ² Department of Biological Sciences, Hansen Life Sciences Research Building, Purdue University, West Lafayette, IN 47907-2064, USA ³ The Bindley Bioscience Center, Purdue University, West Lafayette, IN 47907, USA

Corresponding authors: Blanchoin, Laurent (laurent.blanchoin@cea.fr) and Staiger, Christopher J (staiger@purdue.edu)

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Actin dynamics are well understood from *in vitro* analyses

In eukaryotes, the actin cytoskeleton is an essential molecular machine that creates structures and generates forces that support a diverse array of cellular functions, including morphogenesis, establishment of polarity and motility [1,2]. Powering these cellular functions often depends on the ability of the cytoskeleton to autoorganize and modulate its dynamics to create novel and often transient higher-order structures. In plant cells, responses to hormones or to attack by micro-organisms, along with cell morphogenesis pathways, induce signaling cascades that correlate with the rearrangement or turnover of actin-based structures [3,4].

Actin dynamics consist of the assembly and disassembly of a helical polymer, or 'actin filament', with mechanical properties that are tuned for its specific cellular functions [5]. Assembly of actin filaments occurs through two fundamental steps, called nucleation and elongation (Figure 1, green box; [6]). Nucleation is a set of reactions involving the association of actin monomers into dimers, followed by trimer formation (Figure 1, Step 1). These trimers are thermodynamically unstable, but provide the 'seeds' or nuclei necessary for actin filament assembly [7]. Certain accessory proteins, like profilin, potently inhibit spontaneous nucleation of actin ([3,8]; Figure 1, Step 1). Following this nucleation step, the elongation of actin trimers occurs rapidly at a rate that depends on the actin monomer concentration and the particular end of the actin filament at which these monomers are added. Indeed, the two ends of actin filaments are not equivalent; for historical reasons, they are referred to as 'barbed' and 'pointed'. In the absence of regulatory proteins, growth at the barbed ends of actin filaments is up to 10 times faster than at the pointed ends [9]. However, this difference can climb up to 100 times in the presence of proteins that accelerate actin assembly, such as formins (Figure 1, Step 3; [10,11,12[•]]). Following elongation, aging of actin filaments is controlled by the hydrolysis and phosphate release of the nucleotide bound to actin subunits [7]. At steady state in vitro, the concentration of actin monomers reaches a critical concentration that varies from 0.1 µM if barbed ends are free, to 0.7 µM if only pointed ends are available [7]. Under these conditions, the turnover of actin filaments utilizes a mechanism called 'treadmilling' (Figure 1, grey box), where the rate of assembly at the barbed ends is balanced by the rate of depolymerization at the pointed ends with a rate of about

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Control of actin dynamics. (Grey box) Actin polymerization in the absence of actin-binding proteins leads to a steady-state regime wherein actin in the filament pool is in equilibrium with actin in the monomer pool at the so-called 'critical concentration'. The ATP-loaded actin monomers (in white) mostly associate with the fast growing, barbed end of filaments. Aging of actin subunits within the filament occurs first through ATP hydrolysis at a time scale of seconds (ADP-Pi subunits, in yellow), secondly with the release of inorganic phosphate at a time scale of minutes (ADP subunits, in green), and finally by dissociation of subunits from the filament pointed end. Recycling of subunits occurs after exchange of the nucleotide. The overall mechanism at steady state represents a dynamic equilibrium referred to as 'treadmilling'. (Green box) Summary of actin dynamics in the presence of a limited set of accessory proteins whose interactions with actin filaments have been studied kinetically. The modulation of actin dynamics depicted in this cartoon is highlighted

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2 µm/h ([13,14]; Figure 1). However, the situation is almost certainly different in vivo since the pool of free actin monomers is at least an order of magnitude larger than the critical concentration at the barbed ends [7]. This is particularly the case for plant cells where the concentration of unpolymerized actin is estimated to be dramatically larger than the concentration of actin in filamentous form [3,15]. Although the critical concentration at both ends of plant actin filaments is significantly higher than that of muscle actin (0.4 and $1.2 \,\mu$ M, respectively; [16]), the monomer pool is up to 500 times higher than the critical concentration at the barbed ends. Assuming that the k_{on} for plant ATP-G-actin is the same as for skeletal muscle α actin, these values support a prediction that actin filament elongation in cells will occur at rates of \sim 3 µm/s whenever barbed ends are available [8]. Support for this hypothesis has recently been obtained from live-cell imaging of single actin filaments [17[•]]. Further questions remain about how the explosive elongation of actin filaments in vivo is balanced by extremely fast disassembly to maintain a large pool of actin monomers, thereby insuring the ability to rapidly and precisely turn over actin-based structures in plant cells. A thorough understanding of the dynamic behavior of actin in plants will require integrating knowledge about the biochemical and biophysical properties of actin and actin-binding proteins with a high resolution kinetic analysis of turnover in living cells.

In this context, our brief review will focus on recent findings about actin dynamics *in vitro*, on new imaging systems and fluorescent probes to study actin dynamics in living plant cells, and on the emergence of model systems other than *Arabidopsis thaliana* to study the structure/ function of actin-binding proteins *in planta*. Our objective is to propose a general overview on how these findings can be integrated to understand similarities and differences between the dynamic organization of the actin cytoskeleton in plants and others organisms.

Methods to study actin dynamics in vitro and in vivo

For decades actin dynamics have been studied *in vitro* with purified muscle actin and bulk assays that follow a change in fluorescence during the polymerization or disassembly of actin filaments (Figure 1a). For this purpose

actin monomers are derivatized with a fluorescent probe to create an analog, pyrene-actin, that increases up to 20fold in emission upon assembly into filaments. This allows the kinetics of actin polymerization to be followed in a fluorimeter, resulting in S-shaped assembly curves that roughly correspond to the nucleation, elongation and dynamic steady-state phases, respectively (Figure 1a). An useful alternative to this approach, that does not require monomer labeling, is 90° light scattering [18,19]. However, both techniques are complicated by several overlapping reactions that occur as soon as actin filaments are decorated or assembled into higher-order structures by actin-binding proteins. Moreover, certain properties like filament severing can only be inferred from these bulk assays, rather than demonstrated directly. Electron microscopy has been a valuable tool for determining the rate constant at the two ends of actin filaments [9]; however, EM studies provide little quantitative information about the different reactions involved during actin dynamics. More recently, individual actin filaments in vitro have been observed with conventional wide-field fluorescence microscopy but only after decoration with fluorescentphalloidin, a drug which perturbs filament dynamics ([20,21]; Figure 1b). A breakthrough in studying actin dynamics, that overcomes these obstacles, was achieved with the application of total internal reflection fluorescence microscopy (TIRFM) to visualize individual filaments that are generated from a mixture of unlabeled actin monomers and actin derivatized with fluorescent dyes [22]. This approach is now the standard method for studying the dynamics of individual actin filaments in the presence of various actin-binding proteins ([23–25]; Figure 1d-f) or to visualize the interaction of molecular motors with actin tracks ([26,27]; Figure 1c). By varying the reaction conditions, all aspects of filament generation and turnover can be quantitatively measured with TIRFM including nucleation, elongation (Figure 1d), depolymerization, capping and severing (Figure 1e) reactions. The combination of this powerful imaging method with photosensitive dyes can even be applied to study the formation of higher-order structures, such as actin bundles, in real time in the presence of a plant actin-binding proteins (Figure 1f; [25]). In addition, the combination of TIRFM of single actin filament dynamics *in vitro* using a minimum set of proteins has allowed the reconstitution of

(Figure 1 Legend Continued) through eight numbered steps, each related to specific experimental data (a–f). (a) Profilin inhibits spontaneous nucleation by binding to actin monomers (bulk pyrene assay, compare light and dark blue curves; Step 1; [24]). This inhibition is overcome in the presence of *nucleation-promoting factors* from the formin family (green curves; Steps 2 and 3; [24]). In addition, the *Arabidopsis thaliana* formin, AFH1, promotes filament bundling (Step 4; [25]). (b) Heterodimeric capping protein from *Arabidopsis*, AtCP, blocks filament barbed ends as demonstrated by the inhibition of annealing between two populations of green- and red-labeled actin filaments (epifluorescence microscopy; Step 6; [20]). It also inhibits filament assembly and disassembly from filament barbed ends [20]. (c) Tobacco myosin XI (arrowhead) moves toward the barbed end of actin filaments a trates of up to 7 μm/s (optical trap nanometry, image reprinted by permission from Macmillan Publishers Ltd, EMBO Journal [26], copyright (2003); Step 7). (d) The moss formin, Pp Formin 1D, catalyzes the processive elongation at actin filament barbed ends (Step 3; [12*]). (e) Severing of pre-assembled actin filaments (solorized) undergo bundling by a 'catch and zipper' mechanism (Step 8; see also Supplemental Movie 2; [70]). Bundlers also stabilize filaments against depolymerization and inhibit the activity of ADF/cofilin [70]. (d–f) Montages of time-lapse TIRFM images where green arrows indicate the pointed end, yellow arrows the barbed end, and red arrows the severing events. Scale bars are 2 μm in c; 4 μm in d; and 10 μm in b, e and f. (Nu., Nucleation).

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chastic dynamics results in bundle formation that, follow-

ing symmetry-breaking events, is capable of propelling

polystyrene beads [28]. These biomimetic systems are an ideal way to model the motility of intracellular pathogens

that hijack the host cytoskeleton as well as organelle or

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actin-based motility systems ([28]; Figure 2b). The molecular insights obtained reveal that rapid actin filament turnover in such a system occurs through a stochastic dynamics mechanism dominated by ADF/cofilinmediated filament severing [28,29]. Dampening of sto-

Figure 2



Stochastic dynamics of single actin filaments. (a) Single actin filaments exhibit stochastic dynamics in the cortical array of epidermal cells from five DAG *Arabidopsis thaliana* hypocotyls expressing GFP-fABD2 [17^{*}]. A montage of time-lapse VAEM images showing every other frame at \sim 3 s intervals is given. The images show a single actin filament elongating rapidly (marked with yellow dots), and then being severed (red arrows) into many small fragments, which disappear rapidly. Green stars denote two large actin filament bundles, which do not disassemble or move during the same time period. See also Supplemental Movie 3. Scale bar is 5 μ m. (b) Single actin filaments show stochastic dynamics in the presence of ADF/cofilin in a reconstituted system, observed by time-lapse TIRFM [28]. A processive formin adsorbed on the surface of a polystyrene bead initiates actin filament position prior to fragmentation events (red arrows). Scale bar is 5 μ m. (c) The cartoon illustrates the mechanism of stochastic dynamics mediated by severing factors like ADF/cofilin or villin/gelsolin. The severing factors act in synergy with barbed-end cappers, like AtCP or villin/gelsolin, to sever the growing filaments in their aged part and block the re-growth from the barbed-end of fragments.

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vesicle motility, and they fill the gap between fundamental biochemical assays and cell biological analyses.

Following on from this pioneering work that uses advanced imaging to evaluate the biochemical and biophysical mechanisms of actin dynamics, the next step will be to compare the behavior of actin and actin-binding proteins in vivo and in vitro. To assess the many layers of regulation that organize actin filaments into the dynamic higher-order structures necessary for cellular function will require detailed analysis of the plant actin cytoskeleton at high spatial and temporal resolutions. However, visualization of actin dynamics in live materials has been somewhat challenging [3,8,30]. One major limitation is that directly tagging actin, either by protein derivatization or generation of fluorescent fusion proteins, leads to formation of anomalous structures or fails to decorate actin filament arrays in vivo. Recently, marked improvements in studying the actin cytoskeleton have come from the engineering of new probes such as the fusion of an Actin-Binding Domain from Arabidopsis Fimbrin1 (fABD2) to single or multiple GFP [31-34] or Lifeact, a 17-aminoacid peptide from yeast Abp140 [35], both of which stain filamentous actin in patterns that resemble the best fixation protocols and do not cause growth or morphological defects in plants when expressed at low levels [17[•],31,34,36[•],37[•],38[•],39[•]]. Another notable advance in the field is the application of new imaging methods, such as variable-angle epifluorescence microscopy (VAEM) and spinning disk confocal microscopy, which in combination with these actin reporters allow high resolution visualization of protein and vesicle dynamics in the plant cell cortex [17,36,37,38,40]. The plant community is now in an excellent position to propose a mechanistic description of actin dynamics in live plant cells and to build a bridge between this analysis and the molecules involved in controlling such dynamics.

What advantages do plant systems offer over animal and microbial cell models — a new view of actin dynamics

Most differences between a crawling animal cell and the typical walled plant cell are quite obvious. Locomotion of migrating animal cells is coordinated by the regulated polymerization of a dense actin filament array near the plasma membrane of the leading edge or lamellipodium [2,41]. Sensing of the environment and invasive growth depend on short protrusions from the leading edge, or filopodia, that are generated and stabilized by the assembly of actin filament bundles [2,42]. Even the non-motile animal cell can take on various morphologies and these shapes, in turn, depend on a dynamic cortical network of actin filaments [5]. These dense arrays of short actin filaments, which are below the limits of resolution for light microscopy, are largely recalcitrant to single filament imaging, but fluorescent speckle microscopy (FSM) has been used to infer that actin nucleation and elongation of filaments, with their barbed ends near the plasma membrane, drives membrane protrusion at rates of $1-2 \mu m/$ min [43,44]. Monomers are recycled from these arrays at sites distal to the plasma membrane by the action of actin depolymerizing factor (ADF)/cofilin, leading to a polarized flux of actin through the network in a process that superficially resembles treadmilling.

Because plant cells do not crawl and do not have lamellipodia or filopodia, one might speculate that actin dynamics will be less prominent and/or play little role in cell physiology and behavior. On the other hand, plant cells exhibit constant or inducible motions of many organelles, including Golgi [45-47], ER [48,49], mitochondria and plastids [50]. Moreover, the myosin motors isolated from plants are among the fastest mechanochemical enzymes on the planet, capable of processive movement at rates of $7.7 \pm 0.5 \,\mu$ m/s ([26]; Figure 1c and Step 7), compared to rates of $0.6 \pm 0.1 \,\mu$ m/s for Saccharomyces cerevisiae class II myosin (myo1p; [51]), 0.5 µm/s for Schizosaccharomyces pombe class II myosin (myo2p; [52]), $0.29 \pm 0.02 \,\mu$ m/s for mammalian class V myosin [53], and $0.31 \pm 0.02 \,\mu$ m/s for mammalian class VI myosin [54]. Elegant genetic studies demonstrate a role for class XI myosins in these organelle movements [45-47,49], and even hint that myosins are important for actin dynamics [48,55]. On the other hand, work in the moss *Physcomi*trella patens, suggests that actin dynamics are not altered when two myosin XI isovariants are silenced [38[•]]. Although plants do not have contractile actomyosin stress fibers, much of their actin is organized into prominent bundles that serve as tracks or molecular highways for these organelle movements. Similarly, although the Arp2/ 3 complex does not appear to generate dendritic networks responsible for plasma membrane protrusions, the distorted morphology of trichomes and the modest perturbation of epidermal pavement cell shape in mutant Arabidopsis plants hints at a function for actin nucleation in regulating cellular morphogenesis [56]. The recent demonstration of Arp2/3 and SCAR complex components on membrane fractions [57,58] suggests that regulated actin polymerization on endomembranes or at the plasma membrane somehow underpins this process. A goal for the future will be to identify the nature of these compartments and to understand what role actin polymerization plays in organelle function or trafficking. As pointed out earlier, the high concentration of available monomers, and the corresponding inhibition of spontaneous nucleation by the equally abundant monomer-binding protein profilin, will support explosive rates of actin elongation when new barbed ends are created, indicating that regulated actin polymerization near membranes may also be used to do work within plant cells. Finally, plant cells have several classes of novel actin-binding proteins, including CHUP1 [50,59,60] and actin-binding kinesins [61,62], whose precise activity on actin needs to be further explored. Nevertheless, these players and others may be

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partially responsible for the formation or stabilization of actin filament arrays at the leading edge of motile chloroplasts and between the plastid and the plasma membrane [50,61], and are therefore good candidates for bluelight regulation of actin dynamics that contributes to chloroplast movements or anchoring.

Another advantage of plant systems is that they are one of the few examples where imaging of single actin filaments and quantitative analyses of dynamic parameters have been reported ([8,17[•],39[•]]; Figure 2a; Supplemental Movie 3). Using VAEM imaging to examine the cortical cytoskeletal array in elongating hypocotyl epidermal cells from dark-grown Arabidopsis seedlings, our view of actin turnover as being potentially docile and unimportant has been shattered [17[•]]. Actin filaments in the cortical array exist in two populations: individual actin filaments arranged in random orientations and with short lifetimes (10s of seconds), and larger, stiffer and brighter actin filament cables that exist for many minutes and are mostly longitudinally oriented with respect to the cell long axis (Figure 2a; Supplemental Movie 3). Qualitatively similar views have been obtained recently by imaging the tipgrowing cells from *Physcomitrella* [38[•]], the surface of plastids in mesophyll protoplasts [50], and other Arabidopsis epidermal cells as well as the liverwort, Marchantia polymorpha [36[•]]. The dynamic behavior of these two populations of actin filaments are described in more detail below and the candidate actin-binding proteins necessary to support each parameter of turnover are discussed. Suffice to say, individual actin filament turnover is oneto two-orders of magnitude faster than observed at the leading edge of crawling animal cells and the behavior does not resemble treadmilling. Instead, actin filaments undergo rapid elongation balanced by prolific severing or fragmentation, in a process termed 'stochastic dynamics' that can be mimicked by a simple reconstituted system in vitro ([17[•],28]; Figure 2).

Molecular players responsible for plant actin specific behaviors

Despite the methods to probe actin cytoskeleton organization and dynamics in fixed or live plant cells, actin filaments organized into longitudinal bundles or cables are the most obvious organized structures within plant cells [63[•],64]. Bundles are easier to visualize because they are brighter and less motile compared to the fine actin filament structures or individual actin filaments ([17[•],36[•],37[•],65]; Figure 2a, green stars; Supplemental Movie 3). Nevertheless, the geometrical organization, the localization and the lifetime of these structures need to be tightly controlled to assure their physiological functions. In addition to supporting myosin-driven organelle movements, bundle formation and turnover are also implicated in guard cell opening/closing events [66], cytoarchitecture and transvacuolar strand dynamics [67,68], and auxin transport mechanisms [69]. Based on

their relative resistance to latrunculin B (LatB) treatments [15,17[•]], a drug which preferentially disassembles dynamic actin filaments by binding monomers and inhibiting their polymerization, it can be inferred that bundles are more stable than single filaments. It is logical to assume that bundle stability is conferred by the association of filaments with side-binding and bundling proteins [3,8,63[•],64]. At least four different families of actin-binding proteins, fimbrins, formins, LIMs and villins have been characterized for the ability to generate actin filaments bundles (Figure 1, Steps 4 and 8; [3,8,63[•],64]). However, the dynamic formation of actin bundles at single filament resolution in vitro has been studied only for formins and villins ([25,70]; Figure 1f; Supplemental Movie 2). Cooperation of these two families of protein in bundle initiation and stabilization is an interesting hypothesis and is supported by demonstrated roles for the formins, AtFH1 and AtFH3, in the formation of actin cables in pollen tubes [71,72[•]].

The general principle of actin bundle formation appears to follow a 'catch and zipper' mechanism whereby the actin-bundling protein(s) first binds to the side of an actin filament, then catches a neighbor filament and zippers the two filaments together to form a bundle ([25,70]; Figure 1f; Supplemental Movie 2). Iteratively repeating this process generates actin bundles of different sizes and thickness ([25,70]; Figure 1f). This mechanism seems relevant for the formation of cortical actin bundles in Arabidopsis epidermal cells [39,70] and liverwort cells [36[•]]. An open question is how this mechanism is related to or dictates the polarity of filaments within the bundle [3,63[•],64]. Assuming that all plant myosins move in the same direction, the polarity of filaments within a bundle will determine transport directionality for various cargos, with antiparallel actin filament bundles supporting bidirectional movements and parallel bundles allowing unidirectional movements [8]. A related question is whether all actin filament bundles are equivalent for transport of cargo by myosins or whether the quality of the bundle and the presence of unique suites of bundling proteins impacts on myosin activity. In this regard, the observation that different classes of mammalian myosin move selectively and at unique velocities on different actin filament arrays is perhaps significant [27]. Similarly, the biochemical composition of the actin tracks may regulate the spatial distribution of myosin motors in fission yeast [73]. Testing this hypothesis in plants will require genetic studies as well as reconstitution of the various types of possible actin filament bundles along with in vitro motility assays and single-molecule imaging.

Bundling proteins on their own also stabilize the actin filaments from depolymerization by dilution or LatB *in vitro* [19,74–76] and *in vivo* [75,77], and their binding can prevent the activity of ADF [19,70,78]. A similar mechanism has been implicated in generation of bundles on

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polystyrene beads in a biomimetic motility system where lateral contact between actin filaments modulates their stability against severing by ADF [28]. These observations may explain why bundles are not as dynamic as individual actin filaments in vivo [17] but raise the question of how actin filament bundles stabilized against severing by ADF are disassembled. An interesting hypothesis is that members of the villin family of bundling proteins, such as VLN3 or VLN5 which also have severing activity that is regulated by calcium [70,77], may facilitate destabilization or fragmentation of actin bundles as a function of local or cellular calcium fluxes [70]. Alternatively, members of the gelsolin family represent another calcium-regulated protein [79] and may assist in the fragmentation of these structures. Further analysis of bundles generated in the presence of fimbrins or LIMs using time-lapse TIRFM will be required to understand the molecular mechanisms that underpin their formation, stabilization and turnover [63[•]]. Finally, how bundling proteins from different classes work synergistically or antagonistically, as occurs in animals, yeasts and flies, needs to be studied.

Besides creating actin bundles, actin-binding proteins maintain a second cellular population comprising extremely dynamic cortical actin filaments [17,36]. These individual filaments are unique in their ability to appear, grow and disappear very rapidly ([17[•]]; Figure 2a, yellow dots; Supplemental Movie 3). The origin or nucleation of new filament growth occurs at roughly equal frequency from three locations in plants: *de novo* in the cytoplasm; from the side of pre-existing bundles or filaments; and from short fragments or recently severed ends [17[•]]. Formin-mediated actin-filament nucleation, in coordination with profilin-mediated elongation, is an obvious mechanism to initiate and elongate these filaments (Figure 1, Steps 2 and 3; and [11]) and may even link the actin and microtubule cytoskeletons [80[•],81]. However, to reach rates of actin filament elongation as fast as 550 subunits/s or 1.7 μ m/s [8,17[•]], three mechanisms should be considered. As pointed out above, a huge pool of polymerizationcompetent actin monomers [15] could drive explosive elongation from available filament barbed-ends. Estimation of the size of this pool from the measured elongation rates of single actin filaments in vivo indicates that a pool of just 50 µM actin monomer would be sufficient for barbed-end growth at 580 subunits/s [8]. Decreasing the size of the monomer pool with LatB, leads to a dose-dependent reduction in barbed-end elongation rates and provides evidence in support of this mechanism. The complementary experiment, increasing the monomer pool by overexpression of actin isovariants [82,83], is now possible and would provide additional support for the direct dependence of filament growth rates on the size of the monomer pool. Second, processive elongating factors such as the formins could work in concert with the large pool of unpolymerized actin to elevate rates of growth even further than supported by the monomer concentration alone. Formins are conserved proteins capable of both nucleating filament formation and processively elongating actin filaments by binding to filament barbed ends (Figure 1, Step 3). In the formin family, a class II formin (For2A) from the moss *Physcomitrella patens* is the fastest actin-elongating machine characterized to date and this activity is critical for driving the formation of apical filamentous actin necessary for polarized growth [12[•]]. Finally, a 'bursting' mechanism can be envisioned whereby small filament fragments or oligomers add on or anneal to filament ends, resulting in quantum jumps in filament length. Convincing examples of this mechanism have been reported recently for yeast at cortical endocytic sites in an $aip1\Delta$ mutant background [84], as well as in the cortical actin array of plant cells [39[•]].

To balance this fast rate of elongation and maintain the large pool of actin bound to profilin [15], the cortical actin filaments must be disassembled at high rates. Disassembly of long, individual filaments does not occur appreciably through depolymerization or loss of subunits from filament ends. Instead, prolific severing destroys single actin filaments, resulting in the production of numerous small fragments (Figure 2a, red arrows; Supplemental Movie 3). Indeed, a typical 10 µm long filament will suffer on average six breaks every minute, resulting in rather short filament lifetimes [17[•]]. The similarities between this actin filament turnover in vivo and the 'stochastic dynamics' described in a reconstituted system in vitro are quite obvious (Figure 2b; [28]). The fact that after severing the majority of fragments or filament ends do not resume fast growth in vivo, suggests coordination between severing and capping during actin filament disassembly. Several proteins may play a role in these severing and capping activities, including ADF/cofilin (Figure 1, Step 5; Figure 1e; Supplemental Movie 1), heterodimeric capping protein (Figure 1, Step 6; Figure 1b), villin/gelsolin or Aip1 [8,34]. How the small fragments are depolymerized to return subunits to the monomer pool remains unclear, because most are visible for only a frame or two before disappearing from the field of view (Figure 2a; Supplemental Movie 3). One possibility is that actin-binding proteins like ADF/cofilin and cyclase-associated protein function synergistically to disassemble these fragments [8,16,85]. As proposed above for growth mechanisms, the fragments may not disassemble completely, but instead could add on to filament ends through annealing reactions ([39,84]; Figure 1b). Addressing this will require imaging single actin filaments at even higher temporal resolutions and perhaps making use of the Aip1 inducible-RNAi lines [34]. In addition to the actin dynamics caused by assembly/disassembly, single actin filaments or bundles can be mechanically deformed by tension generated by molecular motors [8,17,64]. Importantly, recent data suggest that part of the turnover of actin structures involves actomyosin contractility [86].

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This is an intriguing hypothesis that needs to be investigated further considering the effect of a putative myosin inhibitor on cortical actin dynamics [17[•]] and hints that myosin XI mutants alter actin organization [48,55].

Conclusions perspectives for the field

The future holds great promise to further dissect the above mechanisms for regulation of actin dynamics and the roles of individual actin-binding proteins in plants. Reverse-genetics in both Arabidopsis and Physcomitrella will allow facile and unparalled opportunities to provide unambiguous evidence for the role of each molecular player in actin dynamics in vivo. The moss system has indeed emerged as a powerful model organism for testing the function of actin-binding proteins and actin dynamics in plants [12°,37°,38°,87,88]. By combining knock-out and knock-down strategies in both systems with advanced imaging technologies, like VAEM and spinning disk confocal microscopy, it should be possible to quickly test each protein family for its proposed function. We look forward to many such advances in coming years, which will further propel plants into a premier position as a leading system in cytoskeletal research.

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data associated with this article can be found, in the online version, at doi:10.1016/j.pbi.2010. 09.013.

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