Expansion of the phragmoplast during plant cytokinesis: a MAPK pathway may MAP it out

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Plant cytokinesis involves the formation of a cell plate. This is accomplished with the help of the phragmoplast, a plantspecific cytokinetic apparatus that consists of microtubules and microfilaments. During centrifugal growth of the cell plate, the phragmoplast expands to keep its microtubules at the leading edge of the cell plate. Recent studies have revealed potential regulators of phragmoplast microtubule dynamics and the involvement of a mitogen-activated protein kinase cascade in the control of phragmoplast expansion. These studies provide new insights into the molecular mechanisms of plant cytokinesis.

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Abbreviations

Ase1	Anaphase spindle elongation1
AtPAKRP1	Arabidopsis thaliana phragmoplast-associated
	kinesin-related protein 1
BFA	brefeldin A
BY-2	bright yellow-2
CDK	cyclin-dependent kinase
DcKRP120-2	Daucus carota kinesin-related protein of 120 kDa-2
FTN	fusion-tube-generated membrane network
KLP	kinesin-like MT-based motor protein
MAP	MT-associated protein
MAPK	mitogen-activated protein kinase
MAPKK	MAPK kinase
ΜΑΡΚΚΚ	MAPKK kinase
MT	microtubule
NPK1	nucleus- and phragmoplast-localized protein kinase1
Ntf6	Nicotiana tabacum MAPK 6
NtMAP65-1	Nicotiana tabacum MAP65-1
PRC1	Protein Regulator of Cytokinesis1
TKRP125	tobacco kinesin-related polypeptide of 125 kDa
TN	tubular network
TVN	tubulo-vesicular network

Introduction

Cytokinesis is a physical process that distributes genetic information and cytoplasm from a parent cell into two daughter cells. In higher plants, cytokinesis is achieved through the formation of a new cross-wall, called the cell plate, which stretches from the interior to the periphery of the cell [1]. Materials for the construction of the cell plate are supplied from the Golgi complex through the vesicle trafficking system $[2,3^{\circ},4^{\circ}]$. Membrane vesicles that have budded from the Golgi fuse with one another to form an immature cell plate between the two daughter nuclei. The details of cell-plate maturation have been revealed through the observation of cryofixed tobacco cells by Samuels *et al.* [5] (Figure 1a). Vesicles fuse via long thin (i.e. 20 nm in diameter) curving fusion tubes to produce a fusion-tubegenerated membrane network (FTN). This network undergoes a series of morphological and biochemical changes, including the formation of a tubulo-vesicular network (TVN), a tubular network (TN), and a fenestrated membrane sheet. The cell plate grows centrifugally, through the continuous addition of vesicles to its edge, until it reaches the parental cell walls. Therefore, the center of the growing cell plate is the most mature part.

The apparatus responsible for localization and fusion of vesicles is the phragmoplast, whose formation is initiated during late anaphase [1]. A phragmoplast complex is composed of two bundles of anti-parallel microtubules (MTs) and actin filaments. MTs are, in general, orientated and consist of a plus end and a minus end. The MTs overlap at their plus ends in the center of the phragmoplast. The initial shape of the phragmoplast is a cylinder- or barrellike structure. Golgi-derived vesicles are transported to the equator of the phragmoplast by the MTs, whose action is probably assisted by MT motor proteins that have yet to be identified [6]. Once cell-plate formation begins in its equatorial zone, the phragmoplast changes into a ring-like structure and centrifugally expands, maintaining localization of the MTs at the leading edge of the cell plate. This change in phragmoplast shape is crucial for the lateral growth of the cell plate. This review focuses on the mechanism of lateral expansion of the phragmoplast and encompasses recent findings that shed light on the regulation of this process. For aspects of cytokinesis not covered in this review, such as mechanisms of vesicle fusion, roles of actin filaments, and control of the division plane, the reader is referred to other recent review articles [7–10].

Phragmoplast expansion driven by MT turnovers

How do phragmoplast MTs move centrifugally toward the cortex as the cell plate grows? A clue came from an experiment performed by Yasuhara *et al.* [6] who used taxol, a chemical that blocks depolymerization of MTs, to examine the mechanism of cell-plate expansion. Taxol treatment of tobacco bright yellow-2 (BY-2) cultured cells during telophase inhibits the centrifugal expansion of their phragmoplasts, producing cells with abnormally thick cell plates that apparently result from the increased accumulation of vesicles (Figure 1d). The requirement for MT depolymerization during phragmoplast expansion indicates that neither the pushing force of the cell plate nor the pulling force of the parental cell walls is responsible for the





Diagram of phragmoplast expansion and cell-plate formation in normal, drug-treated, or genetically modified plant cells. (a) In a normal plant cell, a phragmoplast is assembled with anti-parallel MTs overlapping in the center at their plus ends (+). Fusion of Golgi-derived vesicles (open circles), through fusion tubes in the equatorial zone of the phragmoplast, gives rise to a FTN (orange), which successively maturates into a TVN (red), a TN (pink), and a fenestrated sheet/cell plate (blue). In (a), green bars represent MTs that have recently been polymerized, or in (b,c), that are not yet destined for depolymerization, whereas gray bars represent MTs that are destined for depolymerization during the next stage. Note that the shape of the phragmoplast changes during the transition from a cylinder to a ring, which is marked by an asterisk. (b) Brefeldin A blocks the supply of vesicles by disrupting the Golgi, resulting in a lack of cell-plate materials in the phragmoplast equator. (c) Caffeine blocks the maturation of the FTN into the TVN, which eventually results in the collapse of the FTN. (d) Taxol blocks the depolymerization of MTs, which inhibits phragmoplast expansion but allows the formation of an incomplete cell plate. Overexpression of a kinase-negative mutant of the NPK1 MAPKKK results in a similar phenotype. Note that, in (b-d), phragmoplasts are never transformed into ring shapes.

mechanical enlargement of the phragmoplast. Rather, it seems more likely that the supply of free tubulins, which have been depolymerized from preexisting MTs on the inner side of the phragmoplast, forces the lateral expansion of the phragmoplast by constructing new MT arrays at its outer edge. Thus, the phragmoplast appears to possess an activity that can initiate MT polymerization at its outer edge.

The incorporation of free tubulins into the phragmoplast is known to occur at the plus ends of MTs located in the equatorial zone [11,12]. On the basis of the fluorescence redistribution after photobleaching (FRAP) analysis performed by Hush *et al.* [13], phragmoplast MTs seem to exhibit dynamic instability [14]. Following the photobleaching of phragmoplast MTs that had incorporated fluorescein-labeled tubulins, Hush *et al.* [13] observed a rapid and uniform recovery of fluorescence. This observation is more consistent with a mechanism of dynamic instability and exchange of tubulin dimers than with treadmilling. Therefore, depolymerization of MTs might also occur at the plus end of MTs in the phragmoplast. If this were the case, then MTs on the inner side of the phragmoplast would be more unstable than those on the outer side.

Phragmoplast MT-associated proteins (MAPs)

Recently, two classes of MT-associated proteins (MAPs), which are possible regulators of MT dynamics, have been shown to localize to the phragmoplast. One of these classes is comprised of the kinesin-like MT-based motor proteins (KLPs). Plus-end-directed KLPs, including Xenopus kinesin central motor1 (XKCM1) [15] and Xenopus kinesin superfamily2 (XKIF2) [16], and the minus end-directed KLP KAR3 [17] are known to depolymerize MTs at the plus and minus end, respectively (reviewed in [18]). Arabidopsis thaliana phragmoplast-associated kinesinrelated protein1 (AtPAKRP1) is localized to the center of the phragmoplast, and microinjection of anti-AtPAKRP1 antibodies or truncated AtPAKRP1 proteins into tobacco BY-2 cells leads to the disorganization of phragmoplast MTs [19**]. Carrot DcKRP120-2 (Daucus carota kinesinrelated protein of 120 kDa-2) is a KLP homologue of tobacco TKRP125 (tobacco kinesin-related polypeptide of 125 kDa) [20[•]], which possesses an activity that translocates phragmoplast MTs toward their minus ends. TKRP125 is localized to whole arrays of phragmoplast MTs except for their plus ends [21]. Unlike TKRP125, DcKRP120-2 is also localized to the MT-interdigitating zone of the phragmoplast [20[•]]. The minus end-directed KLPs, KCBP (kinesin-like calmodulin-binding protein) [22] and KatA (kinesin-like protein in Arabidopsis thaliana A) [23], localize along the length of phragmoplast MTs. It will be intriguing to test the effects of these KLPs on MT disassembly. The roles of these KLPs in the progression of M phase or the expansion of phragmoplasts remain unknown.

Another MAP family is comprised of the structural MAPs recently identified by Smertenko et al. [24.1]. They identified a member of the tobacco NtMAP65-1 (Nicotiana tabacum MAP65-1) family that is able to bind to taxolstabilized MTs. This MAP promotes polymerization of MTs in vitro but does not promote the bundling of MTs [24^{••}]. This polymerizing activity is sufficient to classify the protein as a MT-dynamics regulator. Antiserum that recognizes multiple members of the NtMAP65-1 family does not stain all MT arrays. At metaphase, the antiserum stains an area of spindle MTs proximal to the metaphase plate but not those at the pole [24**]. The antibody also stains the spindle midzone and the phragmoplast equatorial zone [24**]. These patterns of localization suggest a role for NtMAP65-1 proteins in the regulation of MT dynamics in specific areas of the spindle and the phragmoplast where MTs overlap at their plus ends.

It is intriguing to note that NtMAP65-1 proteins have significant amino-acid-sequence homology to two other MAPs: human PRC1 (Protein Regulator of Cytokinesis1), which is required for cytokinesis [25], and yeast Ase1 (Anaphase spindle elongation1), which is required for spindle assembly, elongation and disassembly [26]. PRC1 and Ase1 share two notable sequence features: a consensus cyclin-dependent kinase (CDK) phosphorylation site and a sequence that is similar to a mitotic cyclin destruction box. It has been proven both *in vivo* and *in vitro* that PRC is phosphorylated at the consensus CDK phosphorylation sites by CDK2 [25]. It has also been proven that Ase1 is a target of proteolysis mediated by the anaphase-promoting complex [27]. NtMAP65-1 proteins also exhibit these characteristic sequences. Our computer-based analysis also predicted that NtMAP65-1 proteins may form a highly α -helical structure similar to that of PRC1 (R Nishihama, Y Machida, unpublished data).

After anaphase, PRC1 is restricted to plus-end MT-overlapping regions [25], a pattern that is reminiscent of NtMAP65-1 localization in plant cells. Remarkably, the microinjection of anti-PRC1 antibodies into HeLa cells blocks the completion of cytokinesis [25]. Although it is still unclear what PRC1 actually does to MTs, this study on PRC1 raises the possibility that NtMAP65-1 proteins also control the progression of cytokinesis in plants by regulating phragmoplast-MT dynamics. Whether PRC1 and Ase1 actively promote MT polymerization is now an open question.

Recent studies have revealed the existence of plant proteins in addition to the NtMAP65-1 family that have homologies to animal MAPs [28°,29°]. Furthermore, our brief search of the complete *Arabidopsis* genome sequence revealed two putative MAPs with similarity to human EB1 protein and MAP1A/B light chain 3 (R Nishihama, Y Machida, unpublished data). Interestingly, EB1 is known to localize to MT plus ends and is involved in the regional control of MT dynamics and capture (see [30,31] for reviews). Further research should be performed to test the involvement of various MAPs in the regulation of phragmoplast MT dynamics.

Co-ordination of phragmoplast expansion with cell-plate formation

As described above, expansion of the phragmoplast is essential for the lateral growth of the cell plate. Cell-plate formation and phragmoplast expansion are co-dependent: without formation of the cell plate the phragmoplast never expands. For example, the use of brefeldin A (BFA), a chemical that disrupts the Golgi apparatus, to block the supply of vesicles carrying cell-plate materials prevents the formation of the cell plate and results in the generation of binucleate cells [2], but does not disturb phragmoplast formation [32]. Interestingly, under appropriate conditions, BFA treatment completely arrests the lateral expansion of phragmoplasts at the cylindrical stage after only an initial slight enlargement [32] (Figure 1b). These phragmoplasts no longer become ring-shaped and no MT disassembly takes place in their central region. Thus, the process of phragmoplast expansion is tightly linked to cell-plate formation. This finding suggests that there may be a mechanism that induces MT depolymerization in response to cell-plate formation.

What is the cue for MT depolymerization? Caffeine is known to disrupt cell-plate formation in plants ([33] and references therein). In *Tradescantia* stamen-hair cells treated with caffeine, cell-plate formation is initiated but the immature cell plate ceases to grow and is ultimately degraded after it has expanded to about three-quarters of the cell's width [34]. Although the initiation of the phragmoplast is not inhibited in this system, the phragmoplast fails to adopt a ring structure and remains fixed as a cylindrical structure (Figure 1c). Electron microscopy of cryofixed BY-2 cells shows that caffeine disrupts the conversion of the FTN into the TVN during the development of the cell plate [33,35]. This implies that a minimal level of TVN formation is required for the induction of MT disassembly. Consistent with this finding, it has been observed that phragmoplast MTs are associated with the TVN but not with the TN [5] (Figure 1a). Taken together, these results suggest that MT depolymerization is induced during the TVN \rightarrow TN transition. An ultrastructural study has also revealed several features of the TVN, such as assembly of the fuzzy membrane coat, widening of the connecting tubules, formation of clathrin-coated buds, and initiation of callose synthesis [5]. These features are good candidates for events that constitute 'MT-disassembly signals'. In conclusion, cell-plate expansion is driven by successive rounds of the following events: vesicle transport to the phragmoplast equator, formation of the FTN by vesicle fusion, maturation of the FTN into the TVN, and MT disassembly on the inside and its reassembly on the outside of phragmoplast.

A mitogen-activated protein kinase (MAPK) cascade as a regulator of phragmoplast expansion

A coupling mechanism should exist between the events involved in cell-plate formation and the disassembly of phragmoplast MTs. Recent studies have suggested the involvement of a mitogen-activated protein kinase (MAPK) cascade in the regulation of such a coupling mechanism [36–38,39^{••}]. The MAPK cascade is a signaling pathway that is conserved in all eukaryotes and that consists of members of three protein kinase families. In their respective order in the signaling cascade, they are the MAPK kinase kinase (MAPKKK) family, the MAPK kinase (MAPKK) family and the MAPK family [40].

On the basis of the sites of its transcript accumulation, a tobacco MAPKKK, Nucleus- and Phragmoplast-localized Protein kinase1 (NPK1) [41], has been suggested to play a role in cell division [42]. The accumulation of NPK1 protein is cell-cycle dependent; proteins are present in the cell from S to M phase, with a peak in accumulation during M phase, after which NPK1 is degraded [39..]. NPK1 is confined to the nucleus from S phase to prophase [39**]. NPK1 kinase activity is transiently increased late in M phase [39..]. Upon nuclear envelope breakdown, NPK1 proteins are dispersed into the cytoplasm and localize in patches until early anaphase. By late anaphase, NPK1 begins to concentrate at the spindle midzone before becoming localized to the equatorial zone of the cylindrical phragmoplast. During cytokinesis, NPK1 is consistently found at the equator of the ring-shaped phragmoplast, but not at the cell plate. Some NPK1 proteins relocate back to the reforming daughter nuclei.

These findings suggest a role for NPK1 in cytokinesis. Indeed, inhibition of NPK1 signaling has been shown to result in a defect in cytokinesis [39^{••}]. Overexpression of a kinase-negative mutant of NPK1 (NPK1KW) induces the formation of multinucleate cells that contain incomplete disc-shaped cell plates. This mutant protein still localizes to the equator of the phragmoplast. The phragmoplast does not expand, however, in NPK1KW-overexpressing plants (Figure 1d). Thus, NPK1 regulates the expansion of both the cell plate and the phragmoplast.

It should be noted that NPK1KW-induced incomplete cell plates that are formed in NPK1KW-expressing cells contain callose [39^{••}], a polysaccharide whose synthesis is initiated at the TVN stage [5] (see above). Thus, it would appear that NPK1 is primarily involved in a step that takes place after the formation of the TVN, that is, in the outward redistribution of phragmoplast MTs. Consistent with this, the effect provoked by blocking NPK1 signaling is similar to that of taxol treatment (see above; Figure 1d). NPK1 might regulate MT depolymerization at plus ends in response to MT-disassembly signals generated in the TVN/TN. There is, however, still a possibility that NPK1 might be involved in some of the earlier steps if inhibition by the dominant-negative mutant were not complete.

The identification of downstream targets of NPK1 will be decisive in completing our understanding of the molecular mechanism of phragmoplast expansion. It will be intriguing to examine whether NPK1 regulates the MAPs that are mentioned above and, if so, whether this regulation is mediated directly by NPK1 or indirectly through a putative MAPK cascade initiated by NPK1. In light of this, it should be noted that the p43Ntf6 MAPK from tobacco [36] and alfalfa MMK3 (Medicago MAPK3) [37] are activated during cytokinesis. Both of these proteins are localized to the equatorial zone of the phragmoplast, and MMK3 is also localized to the cell plate. Most recently, a tobacco MAPKK, Nicotiana tabacum MAPK/extracellular signalregulated protein kinase kinase (NtMEK1), that activates p43Ntf6 has been identified as a possible component of a MAPK cascade involved in phragmoplast expansion [38], although its sub-cellular localization remains to be determined. Thus, phragmoplast expansion in tobacco may be regulated by a MAPK cascade, involving NPK1 MAPKKK, NtMEK1 MAPKK and p43^{Ntf6} MAPK, although evidence for the involvement of NtMEK1 and p43Ntf6 remains to be found.

In animal cells, active MAPKs have been shown to be localized to the spindle midzone and midbody, a cytokinetic bridge composed of MTs [43,44]. Although direct evidence for the involvement of MAPKs in cytokinesis is still lacking, we speculate that animal MAPKs might also regulate MT dynamics. In animal cells, cytokinesis proceeds in an outside-in mode by the constriction of the cortex. Therefore, spindle MTs must change their positions to move inwardly during cortex constriction because the width of the spindle is limited by the cortex. This redistribution may involve MT turnovers. In addition, midbody MTs should disassemble upon cell separation. Thus, the mechanism that regulates MT dynamics during cytokinesis may be conserved in plants and animals.

Conclusions

In this review, we highlight the molecular mechanism for the expansion of the phragmoplast during plant cytokinesis. Phragmoplast expansion is a process of repeated depolymerization and repolymerization, during which MT disassembly is linked to the progression of cell-plate formation. Changes in MT stability may be mediated by MAPs, such as various KLPs and NtMAP65-1 proteins that localize to the equator of the phragmoplast. The NPK1 MAPKKK, and probably a MAPK cascade initiated by NPK1, is involved in phragmoplast expansion. One of the possible functions of this pathway would be to regulate MT depolymerization in response to signals generated by the forming cell plate. Further research in this field will aim to elucidate the MT-disassembly signals, identify the target proteins of the MAPK pathway, and examine whether MAP activities are spatially regulated at the inner and outer edges of the phragmoplast.

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