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Microtubule lattice plasticity Robert A Cross



In classical microtubule dynamic instability, the dynamics of the built polymer depend only on the nucleotide state of its individual tubulin molecules. Recent work is overturning this view, pointing instead towards lattice plasticity, in which the fine-structure and mechanics of the microtubule lattice are emergent properties that depend not only on the nucleotide state of each tubulin, but also on the nucleotide states of its neighbours, on its and their isotypes, and on interacting proteins, drugs, local mechanical strain, post translational modifications, packing defects and solvent conditions. In lattice plasticity models, the microtubule is an allosteric molecular collective that integrates multiple mechanochemical inputs and responds adaptively by adjusting its conformation, stiffness and dynamics.

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Introduction

The assembly properties of tubulin heterodimers, the building block of microtubules (MTs), are controlled to a large extent by their exchangeable guanosine nucleotide. GTP-tubulin polymerises readily, whilst GDPtubulin does not. Polymerisation of GTP-tubulin catalyses GTP hydrolysis, so that in growing MTs, a stabilising, newly-polymerised GTP-tubulin cap typically overlies a metastable GDP-tubulin core. Stochastic breaches in the stabilising GTP-cap expose the unstable GDP-core, triggering rapid endwise depolymerisation. This overall scheme was discovered some time ago [1], but the detailed molecular mechanisms of MT dynamics remain an important unsolved problem [2]. Can polymerised tubulin in the cap and/or the core change conformation? Does tubulin exchange only at MT tips, or can it exchange into and out of the built lattice? Do lattice dislocations and vacancies occur? And if any of these

things do occur, how do they influence MT function? To address these questions, recent work has sought to visualise large-scale conformational changes, subunit exchange, packing defects and modes of mechanical failure within the lattice of assembled MTs. What is emerging is an increasing body of experimental evidence for structural plasticity models [3], in which the conformation, mechanics and dynamics of the MT lattice are sensitive not just to GTP and GDP, but also to a variety of other factors.

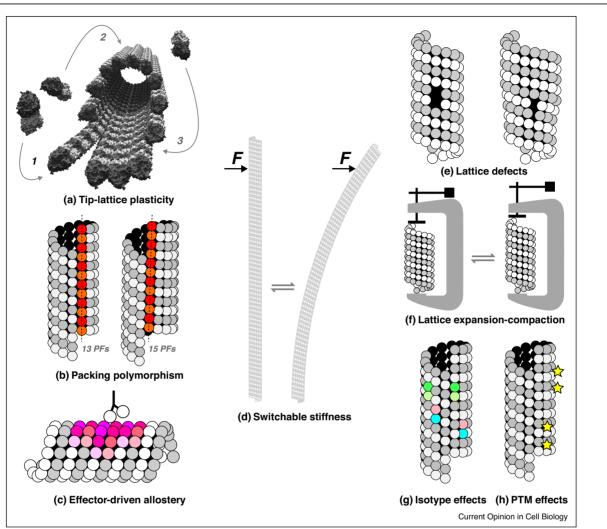
Plasticity of the tip lattice

The potential for lattice plasticity in dynamic microtubules begins at their tips. It remains tantalisingly unclear exactly how GTP-tubulins incorporate into the growing tip-lattice. GTP-tubulins interacting with the ends of exposed single protofilaments (PFs) will form longitudinal contacts but not lateral contacts (Figure 1a). If such single PFs are sufficiently stable, they can go on to zipper into the growing lattice progressively and relatively slowly and the MT growth rate will approximate the rate of PF growth. However there is in vitro evidence suggesting that such single PFs are unstable [4], so that only those that rapidly go on to make lateral contacts will survive. If so, then growth must instead occur predominantly via GTP-tubulins fitting into niches at the exposed leading edge of an already-built sheet or flared split tube of PFs.

Which view is correct? The answer to this question is unlikely to be simple. Nonetheless, recent electron microscopy of growing plus ends adds substantial weight to the view that incoming GTP-tubulins add to short, separate PFs with an appreciable outwards curvature and that these then anneal progressively into the growing lattice [5^{••}], which in turn serves to straighten them and their subunits and propagate tubulation [6,7]. Computational simulation [8[•]] can provide insight into processes that are inaccessible to wet experiments. Recent simulations [9^{••}] argue firmly for a lattice-driven conformational change in GTP-tubulin.

In this picture, the assembled tip-lattice functions as an allosteric effector [10] that remodels GTP-tubulin subunits after they land, whilst the key property that GTP confers on tubulin is to make it more flexible, so allowing it to be readily reshaped by incorporation into the lattice and to store thereby relatively little strain energy. Conversely, GDP-tubulin would store appreciable strainenergy when forced into shape by the lattice, effectively becoming spring-loaded [11*]. What then happens if GTP-tubulins pack alongside GDP-tubulins?





Types of microtubule lattice plasticity. (a) Plasticity in tip-lattice structure and conformation. Tubulin molecules landing from solution might add to the ends of single PFs (1), or fit into niches in the built lattice (2,3). (b) Two examples of polymorphic protofilament (PF) number and packing. In 13-PF MTs (*left*), PFs lie exactly parallel to the MT axis and there is a single A-lattice seam, in which beta tubulin binds laterally to alpha tubulin. The rest of the tube is built from the B-lattice, in which beta binds laterally to beta and alpha to alpha. Supernumerary A-lattice seams can occur (*not shown*). 15 PF MTs (*right*) are entirely built from the B-lattice, lack seams, and have their PFs skewed relative to the MT long axis [16]. (c) Binding of interactors (motors, MAPS, drugs) can drive the lattice to change conformation. The range of such allosteric effects (purple patch) is so far little-studied. (d) MTs can change their stiffness, for example via lumenal acetylation [30**]. (e) Lattice defects support rapid exchange of tubulin and attract specific interactors. At vacancies (left) one or more subunits is missing. At dislocations (right) the PF number changes at the defect. (f) Reversible shifts in lattice spacing can occur, for example on kinesin binding [39**], raising the possibility of a mechanical work-cycle. (g) MTs containing different tubulin isotypes can have different dynamics [23**]. Isotypes copolymerise and dose-response in copolymers [23**] is of great interest. (h) Post-translational modifications (PTMs), both at C-termini and within the core sequence, can change lattice mechanics and dynamics, but can also have indirect effects, by re-setting the affinity for particular interactors.

Biochemical kinetics shows that GDP-and GTP-tubulin can copolymerise, provided GTP-tubulin is in sufficient excess, and that the resulting MTs show intermediate dynamics [12]. This suggests that GTP and GDP allosterically influence not only the mechanics of the tubulin molecule to which they are bound, but also the mechanics of its neighbours. One consequence is that the spatial extent of the stabilising cap of dynamic microtubules may not map straightforwardly to the GTP-tubulin distribution [13]. Further, there is evidence that GTP and GDP molecules can exchange at the MT tip [14].

Plasticity of the core lattice

Whilst the typical number of PFs per MT (Figure 1b) varies appreciably across the tree of life [15], so far all eukaryotic microtubules appear based on just two packing diagrams, the B-lattice, in which neighbouring PFs are staggered by 0.9 nm, and the A-lattice, with a stagger of

4.9 nm [16]. Within this framework, can the built lattice change conformation? Direct comparison by electron microscopy of the GDP, GMPCPP lattice and GTP_yS lattices of mixed-isoform brain tubulin reveals that it can, with the most obvious hydrolysis-dependent change being a reduction in the longitudinal lattice spacing [17] due to compaction of alpha-tubulin immediately adjacent to its longitudinal intersubunit contact. Remarkably however, hydrolysis-dependent lattice compaction is not seen in MTs built from either Saccharomyces cerevisae or Schizosaccharomyces pombe tubulins, even though these microtubules show canonical dynamic instability [18[•] ,19[•],20]. Clearly lattice compaction, when seen, signals an underlying conformational change that stores strainenergy, but equally clearly, this conformational change only registers as a spacing change in brain MTs. Strain energy is still stored in yeast GDP-MTs, but its effects on the lattice spacing are too slight to detect. This is explicable if the material properties of the lattice (its stiffness) are changing according to its nucleotide state, and differently for different isotypes. Considerable progress has recently been made in isolating single tubulin isotypes in workable quantities [21, 22] and the way is open now for the field to decipher the roles of tubulin isotypes [22], blends of isotypes [23^{••}], isotype-specific post-translational modifications [24] and mutations [25] in the dynamics [26^{••}] and mechanics of the lattice. CryoEM will be central [27].

Mechanical plasticity

MTs with different nucleotides but nominally similar (Blattice) structure have different mechanical stiffnesses [28]. Post-translational modifications (PTMs) can also change stiffness-1acetylation of lysine 40, which projects into the MT lumen, protects mixed isoform brain MTs from mechanical damage [29,30^{••}], and signals to kinesin and dynein motility [31]. Recent optical trapping work shows that MTs that soften under strain show flattening of their cross section [32^{••}] and that their bending stiffness varies depending on the magnitude of the applied force. Length-dependent bending stiffness has previously been noted [33], but this new work [32^{••}] shows that stiffness varies according to load. Complex mechanics is emerging as an important aspect of lattice plasticity [2].

Lattice defects can enhance plasticity

Lattice vacancies and dislocations (Figure 1e) weaken the MT and accelerate tubulin exchange. Microtubules 'soften' in response to repeated bending at the site of a defect, but can self-repair by incorporating fresh tubulin into the damaged site, which in turn can favour rescue [34,35°,36]. Under particular growth conditions, defects are incorporated with a fixed probability, so that the total number of defects increases with age. This effect has been proposed progressively to favour catastrophe as the MT grows longer [13]. Defects are recognised by specific

interactors — for example, katanins, which are enzymes that catalyse subunit exchange and so can either enlarge or repair defects [37]. Defects occur in cells [16] and there is increasing evidence to suggest that they are exploited as control points within the built lattice at which fresh GTP tubulin can be introduced and rescue/regrowth events can nucleate $[35^{\circ\circ}, 36]$.

The assembled lattice can split

MTs sliding across a kinesin surface can split [38], perhaps at a defect site. However, splitting of the GDP lattice can also be induced purely by binding of a GDP-MT to a kinesin-coated surface [39^{••}], because the kinesin-bound lower part of the MT expands its lattice spacing, generating shear force (see below). Alattice seams (Figure 1b) have been suggested to be more susceptible to splitting than the rest of the lattice, albeit this remains controversial. Seams have been proposed to be a control point for dynamics — for example, a triggerpoint for catastrophes [40,41]. Rapid changes in PF number can occur in MTs *in vitro*, at rates too fast to correspond to disassembly/reassembly [20]. Perhaps splitting and reannealing might be involved here also.

Allosteric effectors can shift lattice conformation

Allostery within individual tubulin heterodimers is required for, but distinct from, lattice allostery - most obviously, the allosteric effectors GTP and GDP influence not just the stability of the intersubunit interface surrounding the E-site, but also the stability of lateral contacts and the bending stiffness of the MT. A point mutant in helix H7 of beta tubulin has been described that suppresses the allosteric response to the $\text{GTP} \rightarrow$ GDP transition [42]. Several drugs that influence polymer stability bind well away from the longitudinal and lateral intersubunit interfaces [43]. How far can the actions of allosteric effectors be transmitted? Polymer allostery [44] can allow information to be transmitted over substantial distances. An important outstanding problem is to map the range and mechanisms of larger-scale allosteric effects in the MT.

MAPs can shift lattice conformation

The potentially complex effects of MAPs can be illustrated by considering EB proteins. EBs bind tightly to both straight and curved regions [45] of growing MT tips, and more weakly to the core lattice. At growing tips, they diminish their own high-affinity binding site, by driving GTP processing [46]. Different EB isotypes bind differently e.g. Bim1 binds *S. cerevisae* MTs at double the stoichiometry that it binds brain MTs [18[•]]; Mal3 tiptracks on both brain and *S. pombe* MT tips, but under different conditions [19[•]]. EBs focus the PF number to 13, de-skew the PF axes [18[•],19[•],20], stabilise A-lattice seams, and generate ectopic seams [18[•],41]. In mixed isoform brain MTs, EBs drive lattice compaction [17], but again, not in yeast MTs [18[•],19[•],20].

Motors can shift lattice conformation

My own lab recently showed that kinesin binding expands the lattice spacing of mixed isoform GDP-brain MTs by about 1.6%, and simultaneously inhibits their depolymerisation [39^{••}]. Releasing the kinesin, by adding ADP, causes the lattice to recoil rapidly to its original length. Much-earlier work already showed that kinesin can prefer and propagate particular lattice states [47]. A preference for GMPCPP MTs has also been seen [48]. Recent evidence hints at the corollary, whereby different tip-lattice conformations can switch a kinesin-8 between two different functional modes [49^{••}]. Thus, the MT lattice can sense kinesin engagement and respond by altering its conformation and dynamics, raising the possibility of a feedback loop linking motor activity to lattice dynamics. Aside from the forces developed by kinesins, measurements of strain energy in depolymerising tips [11[•]] emphasise that shifts in lattice conformation can also in principle do work (Figure 1c).

Drugs can shift lattice conformation

Tubulin binds MTAs (microtubule targeting agents) at five different sites [43], and all can have allosteric as well as local effects. The classic example is taxol, which binds at a luminal site adjacent to the M-loop and stabilises lateral contacts, but also acts as a remote lever [50] to influence the GTP-site and thereby longitudinal contacts. Taxol expands the lattice spacing (the more so if added after MT assembly) and can straighten isolated PFs [51,52]. It also influences lattice stiffness [32^{••}], and tends to restrict the PF number to 12–13 [52]. Recent simulations [53[•]] suggest that taxol nearly eliminates the energy difference between GTP- and GDP-tubulin.

Prospects

The study of lattice plasticity is in its infancy. For example, we are only just beginning to explore the influence of different tubulin isotypes, and isotype mixtures [23^{••}], on lattice dynamics. But it is already clear that microtubules can, in principle, serve the cell not just as structural-mechanical scaffolding poles and rails and springs, but as sensory antennas that accept multiple chemical and mechanical inputs, store, integrate and transmit their effects, and respond by adjusting their own conformation, mechanics, assembly dynamics and interactor-affinities. In this emerging new picture, the MT lattice is an allosteric collective that continually responds to its environment. One consequence is that the structure and dynamics of particular MTs at particular times will be history-dependent, extending lattice plasticity into the time domain.

Very interesting new work delineates the residue-level mechanisms by which kinesin can drive the GDP MT

lattice into a more GTP-like conformation, merging results from an array of different biophysical and cell biological experiments [54].

Conflict of interest statement

Nothing declared.

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