

Signalling pathways in pollen germination and tube growth

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Summary. Signalling is an integral component in the establishment and maintenance of cellular identity. In plants, tip-growing cells represent an ideal system to investigate signal transduction mechanisms, and among these, pollen tubes (PTs) are one of the favourite models. Many signalling pathways have been identified during germination and tip growth, namely, Ca^{2+} , calmodulin, phosphoinositides, protein kinases, cyclic AMP, and GTPases. These constitute a large and complex web of signalling networks that intersect at various levels such as the control of vesicle targeting and fusion and the physical state of the actin cytoskeleton. Here we discuss some of the most recent advances made in PT signal transduction cascades and their implications for our future research. For reasons of space, emphasis was given to signalling mechanisms that control PT reorientation, so naturally many other relevant works have not been cited.

Keywords: Calcium ion; Calmodulin; D-*myo*-Inositol-1,4,5-trisphosphate; Phosphatidylinositol-4,5-bisphosphate; Phosphatidic acid; Secretion.

Abbreviations: ABP actin-binding protein; AC adenylyl cyclase; $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_c$ cytosolic free calcium; CaM calmodulin; CDPK Ca^{2+} -dependent protein kinase; IP3 D-*myo*-inositol-1,4,5-trisphosphate; MF microfilament; MT microtubule; PA phosphatidic acid; PIP2 phosphatidylinositol-4,5-bisphosphate; PLC phospholipase C; PLD phospholipase D; PKH pollen kinesin homologue; PT pollen tube.

Ca^{2+} , central signalling molecule

Cytosolic free calcium ($[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_c$) is a key element in the regulation of pollen tube (PT) elongation and guidance. A tip-focused $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_c$ gradient has been imaged with a high 1–3 μM Ca^{2+} concentration in the tip region and a low 0.2–0.3 μM Ca^{2+} concentration in the subapical and basal part of the tube (Malhó et al. 1995, Pierson et al. 1996, Messerli and Robinson 1997). This gradient is absent in

nongrowing PTs and its disruption leads to the inhibition of tube growth. Both the intracellular $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_c$ gradient and extracellular Ca^{2+} influx suffer sinusoidal oscillations which are accompanied by oscillations in growth rate (Holdaway-Clarke and Hepler 2003). The phase relationships differ, with the gradient being delayed from growth by about 4 s, while the influx is delayed by about 11–13 s.

A substantial body of evidence reveals that Ca^{2+} controls cytoplasmic streaming. At basal levels (100–200 nM), streaming occurs normally; when the concentration is elevated to 1 μM or higher, streaming is rapidly but reversibly inhibited (Taylor and Hepler 1997). This applies also to PTs, which show a marked inhibition of streaming when the intracellular $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_c$ is elevated and a recovery when the concentration returns to basal levels (Yokota et al. 1999). High Ca^{2+} is known to fragment filamentous actin (F-actin) (Yokota et al. 1998), which explains why thick microfilaments (MFs) are not visible in the tube apex. These inhibitory and fragmentary activities are certainly brought about by specific actin-binding proteins, namely, villin (Vidali et al. 2001). $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_c$ at the tube apex is also sufficiently high to inhibit myosin motor activity and thus to inhibit streaming. Therefore, apical $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_c$ may have an important role in slowing or stopping motion and, as a consequence, in the local regulation of vesicle docking and fusion with the plasma membrane. These events are intimately correlated with PT reorientation. As has been shown (Malhó and Trewavas 1996), modification of $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_c$ at the tube apex induces bending of the growth axis toward the zone of higher $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_c$.

PT growth depends on polarised exocytosis at the growing tip and Ca^{2+} was suggested to be involved in this

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process (Malhó et al. 2000). Measurements of endo- and exocytosis in growing PTs with the fluorescent probe FM 1-43 showed a fluorescence hotspot at the apex (Camacho and Malhó 2003), and when the tube reorients, the side of the dome to which the cell bent became more fluorescent. This suggests vesicle relocation and an asymmetric distribution of the fusion events. The cargo which is released upon vesicle fusion provides the material for the construction of the new cell wall needed for growth (not simply elongation of existing wall). These results strongly resemble those obtained when $[Ca^{2+}]_c$ was mapped during this process (Malhó and Trewavas 1996). This suggests that $[Ca^{2+}]_c$ is a regulator of the coupling between growth and endo- and exocytosis. The results of Camacho and Malhó (2003) also suggest that cell growth is not strictly dependent on a Ca^{2+} -mediated stimulation of exocytosis. This is in agreement with the results of Roy et al. (1999) using the Yariv reagent thus suggesting that a Ca^{2+} -dependent exocytosis serves mainly to secrete cell wall components. This explains why rises in apical Ca^{2+} alone led to augmented secretion and reorientation of the growth axis but not to an increase in growth rates.

The mechanisms which regulate $[Ca^{2+}]_c$ at the PT apex are still controversial. In a study combining measurements of intracellular free Ca^{2+} and Ca^{2+} fluxes, Holdaway-Clarke et al. (1997) found an apparent discrepancy between internal Ca^{2+} measurements and external Ca^{2+} fluxes, with the fluxes an order of magnitude greater than the amount needed to support the observed intracellular apical Ca^{2+} gradient. On the basis of these findings, it was suggested that the cell wall could act as a buffer for Ca^{2+} . Pectin-methyl-esterases responsible for cross-linking unesterified pectins were proposed to control the availability of cell wall binding sites for Ca^{2+} . However, aequorin measurements of apical $[Ca^{2+}]_c$ (Messerli et al. 2000) suggest that peak values for $[Ca^{2+}]_c$ in the apical region are about one order of magnitude higher than previous estimates using Ca^{2+} -sensitive dyes thus challenging this hypothesis. An alternative explanation is that $[Ca^{2+}]_c$ influx is regulated by capacitative entry. Trewavas and Malhó (1997) suggested that the ion channels in tip-growing cells might have their activity regulated by the degree of emptiness of intracellular Ca^{2+} stores; when these stores are full, plasma membrane channels would close, and vice versa.

Calmodulin, Ca^{2+} sensor and cross-regulator

Calmodulin (CaM) is a Ca^{2+} sensor known to modulate the activity of many proteins. Experiments with fluores-

cently labelled CaM microinjected into living PTs suggested that the protein distributes evenly (Moutinho et al. 1998b). The same authors observed also that the binding capacity of labelled CaM appears to be more intense in the subapical region, suggesting a higher concentration of CaM target molecules, possibly cytoskeletal elements. The MF distribution observed in the subapical region of PTs (Miller et al. 1996) resembles the V-shaped collar reported for CaM binding (Moutinho et al. 1998b) and thus a direct interaction between CaM and actin has been hypothesised. For *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*, it has been shown that CaM controls organisation of the actin cytoskeleton via regulation of phosphatidylinositol 4,5-bisphosphate (PIP_2) synthesis (Desrivières et al. 2002), thus linking CaM to the phosphoinositide signalling pathway.

An even distribution of CaM does not necessarily mean an even functionality. CaM activity is dependent on binding of Ca^{2+} ions, thus, on $[Ca^{2+}]_c$. High levels of $[Ca^{2+}]_c$, such as those found in the PT apex, may result in localised activation of CaM. Rato et al. (2004) showed that CaM activity is higher in the apex of growing PTs and the area of higher activity superimposes to a considerable degree with the tip-focused $[Ca^{2+}]_c$ gradient, suggesting that the latter might be involved in the control of CaM activity. Furthermore, it was found that CaM activity oscillates with a period similar to $[Ca^{2+}]_c$ (40–80 s). We have also shown, as with the manipulation of $[Ca^{2+}]_c$ in the apex (Malhó and Trewavas 1996), that a decrease in CaM levels in one side of the apical dome led to growth axis reorientation to the opposite side. This clearly involves CaM in the molecular events that control PT guidance. CaM might also participate in a feedback regulation of Ca^{2+} stores. In PTs, $[Ca^{2+}]_c$ drops within a few micrometers from about 1–3 μ M in the apex to 200–220 nM in the subapical region (Messerli and Robinson 1997). Thus, a tight control between Ca^{2+} channels and pumps in this latter region must exist. CaM regulation of Ca^{2+} stores and D-myo-inositol-1,4,5-trisphosphate (IP_3) receptors (Ainger et al. 1993, Patel et al. 1997) suggests that CaM may allow both feedback control of membrane receptors and integration of inputs from other signalling pathways.

In addition to a role for Ca^{2+} in the control of CaM activation, Rato et al. (2004) provided evidence that a cyclic AMP (cAMP) signalling pathway is involved. A cAMP-dependent signalling pathway in pollen was recently shown (Moutinho et al. 2001) and cAMP levels were found to be approximately uniform in the pollen tube cytosol but showing transient increases in the apical region upon reorientation and apical perturbations. CaM thus emerges as a strong candidate to integrate signals between

Ca²⁺ and cAMP signalling pathways. Rato et al. (2004) found that treatment with forskolin (which increases cAMP levels [Moutinho et al. 2001]) and with a cAMP analog, 8-Br-cAMP, results also in a transient increase in CaM activity. Similarly, treatment with 2',5'-dideoxyadenosine, an inhibitor of adenylyl cyclase, induced a transient decrease in CaM activity suggesting that the activation of downstream targets of cAMP is involved in the regulation of CaM activity, possibly through [Ca²⁺]_c.

The actin cytoskeleton and the secretory apparatus are putative candidates for a cross-regulation between CaM and cAMP signalling pathways. A growing body of evidence implicates CaM as an important receptor linking changes in Ca²⁺ with cytoskeletal function (Zielinski 1998), for example, villin (P-135-ABP) (Yokota et al. 2000) and myosin (Yokota 2000). Also, Ca²⁺-CaM is known to play a key role in the control of secretory activity in plant cells (Schuurink et al. 1996), and Rato et al. (2004) found that a decrease in CaM levels on one side of the apical dome results in a decrease of secretory activity and reorientation. Diminishing cAMP levels mimicked this effect, while an increase of cAMP (which augments CaM activity) promoted secretion. These data further support our claim for a close relationship between Ca²⁺-CaM and intracellular cAMP in the control of pollen tube secretion.

Phosphoinositides and phospholipids – intersecting signalling pathways

Phosphoinositides are a vast family of molecules playing a major role in signalling, but their contribution for polar growth is still largely unknown (Malhó and Camacho 2004). PIP₂ has been shown to act in a common pathway with Rac GTPases (Kost et al. 1999) and IP₃ is known to modulate Ca²⁺ levels (Franklin-Tong et al. 1996, Malhó 1998). Inositol 3,4,5,6-tetrakisphosphate [Ins(3,4,5,6)P₄] was found to disrupt Cl⁻ efflux (Zonia et al. 2002) and Potocký et al. (2003) showed that apical growth depends on phospholipase D (PLD) activity. Therefore, it seems possible that phosphoinositides intersect multiple signalling pathways and are key regulators of polarity.

The intact PIP₂ molecule is a central player in actin dynamics, vesicle trafficking, and ion transport (Cremona et al. 1999, Stevenson et al. 2000) due to its ability to bind and regulate many proteins containing PIP₂ recognition domains, such as pleckstrin homology domains, basic patches, and epsin N-terminal homology domains (Martin 1998, Cockcroft and De Matteis 2001). Through phospholipase C (PLC), PIP₂ generates IP₃ and diacylglycerol,

which can be converted to phosphatidic acid (PA) through diacylglycerol kinase (Munnik 2001). PIP₂ is also known to govern PLD activity leading to elevated PA formation (Powner et al. 2002). Multiple PLD genes have been identified in plants and the proteins they code for seem to be regulated by Ca²⁺ and G proteins (Zheng et al. 2000, Munnik 2001). Activation of plant PLDs is triggered by various cues, namely, pathogen elicitation (Young et al. 1996), and we recently described a pollen signalling protein (PsiP) involved in cAMP production sharing great homology with defense proteins (Moutinho et al. 2001).

IP₃ is possibly the most studied signalling phosphoinositide and is a potent mobilizer of Ca²⁺ from intracellular stores (Martin 1998). In pollen tubes, an IP₃-induced Ca²⁺ release seems to be required for transduction of signals from the apex to further regions of the cell (Malhó 1998). It was further suggested that IP₃ receptors may have an asymmetric activity depending on their spatial localisation: in the apex, where Ca²⁺ is elevated, the receptor undergoes an intrinsic inactivation when IP₃ is bound; in subapical regions, where Ca²⁺ is in the nanomolar range, increasing [Ca²⁺]_c potentiates Ca²⁺ release by IP₃ to the extent that Ca²⁺ and IP₃ can be regarded as coagonists for Ca²⁺ release (Dawson 1997). In animal cells, IP₃ receptor-like proteins were shown to be linked to actin filaments (Fujimoto et al. 1995), thus linking phosphoinositides to the cytoskeleton organisation.

In a recent work (Monteiro et al. 2005), we found that changes in the intracellular concentration of both PIP₂ and IP₃ (induced by photolysis of caged probes) modified tube growth and caused reorientation of the growth axis. However, measurements of [Ca²⁺]_c and the apical secretion revealed significant differences between the photorelease of PIP₂ and IP₃. When released within the first 50 µm of the pollen tube, PIP₂ led to transient growth perturbation, increase of [Ca²⁺]_c, and inhibition of apical secretion. In contrast, a concentration of IP₃ which caused a transient [Ca²⁺]_c of similar magnitude, stimulated apical secretion and caused severe growth perturbation. Furthermore, the transient [Ca²⁺]_c induced by IP₃ was spatially different, causing a pronounced elevation in the subapical region. These observations suggest the existence of different targets for the two phosphoinositides. One of the targets was suggested to be PA, since this phospholipid is an end-product of PIP₂ hydrolysis via PLC or promotion of PLD activity. This phospholipid promotes membrane curvature and formation of secretory vesicles along with a crucial role in the structural integrity of the Golgi apparatus (Sweeny et al. 2002). It has been further demonstrated that continual production of PA is essential for cytoskeleton reorganisation (O'Luanigh et al.

2002). As part of a feedback loop, PA can promote PIP₂ formation by phosphatidylinositol 4-phosphate 5-kinase (Anderson et al. 1999).

We found that antagonists of PA accumulation (e.g., butan-1-ol) and inhibitors of PLC and PLD reversibly halted polarity (Monteiro et al. 2005). Reduction of PA levels caused dissipation of the [Ca²⁺]_c gradient and inhibited apical plasma membrane recycling. Also, it was found to cause an extensive bundling of actin and abolition of the apical zonation. These data suggest that phosphoinositides and phospholipids regulate tip growth through a multiple-pathway system involving regulation of [Ca²⁺]_c levels, endo- and exocytosis, and MFs rearrangement.

Protein kinases and phosphorylation cascades

Phosphorylation cascades regulated by protein kinases and phosphatases represent primary, downstream transduction routes so it is tempting to speculate that their presence is associated with intensely signalling cells such as PTs. Many protein kinases have been identified in pollen but mainly associated with plasma membrane receptors or to cell cycle regulation. These will not be discussed here and we refer to other references (Rudd and Franklin-Tong 2001, Kachroo et al. 2002).

In plants, many of the kinases identified belong to the Ca²⁺-dependent protein kinase or CaM-like domain protein kinase (CDPK) superfamily (Harmon et al. 2000). Among other targets, CDPKs have been suggested to be involved in the regulation of tension. Myosin and/or actin cross-linking proteins are likely to be the principal regulator(s) of tension within the actin network, and thus the principal targets of CDPKs. Results from experiments utilising CaM inhibitors suggest that the effect of Ca²⁺ on the tension within the actin network is CaM-dependent and involves the coordinate regulation of a CDPK and/or CaMK and a CaM-dependent phosphatase (Grabski et al. 1998). In PTs, a CDPK antibody was found to colocalise with F-actin (Putnam-Evans et al. 1989), while Moutinho et al. (1998a) reported the presence of a CDPK with a higher activity in the apical region of growing cells. When apical Ca²⁺ values were modulated (using caged probes), the activity of this CDPK changed accordingly and induced reorientation of the growth axis. This suggests that the protein kinase activity measured by Moutinho and co-workers and the one reported by Putnam-Evans et al. (1989) correspond to different members of this family. However, Putnam-Evans et al. (1989) did not show data of how the antibody distributes in the apical region and, therefore, a

direct comparison between the different results cannot be established. More definitive conclusions require further results.

The role of cyclic nucleotides – an open question

The role of cyclic nucleotides in plant cell signalling has been clouded by many uncertainties and much controversy. In pollen, cloning of a putative adenylyl cyclase (AC) revealed motifs common with its fungal counterpart (Moutinho et al. 2001) but also with proteins involved in disease responses. cAMP is believed to be involved in such responses (Cooke et al. 1994) and parallels between PT growth in the style and fungal hyphal infection are frequently drawn. The transformation with antisense oligos directed against the pollen AC cDNA or treatment with antagonists of AC caused disruption of PT growth, suggesting a requirement for continued cAMP synthesis. This was supported by the imaging of cAMP in growing PTs, by which it was observed that forskolin, an AC activator, transiently increased cAMP, whilst dideoxyadenosine, an inhibitor of ACs, caused a temporary decline (Moutinho et al. 2001).

The targets of the cAMP signalling pathway are still largely unknown. cAMP may be involved in the regulation of Ca²⁺ levels (Volotovskii et al. 1998). PTs submitted to different treatments that putatively affect the levels of cAMP (photolysis of caged cAMP, external addition of membrane-permeant cAMP, external addition of forskolin), experienced [Ca²⁺]_c transients. After caged release of cAMP at a concentration estimated to be about 1–2 μM, growth rates temporally declined and reorientation of the tube growth axis occurred. This was accompanied by a transient [Ca²⁺]_c elevation in the apex but not in the subapical region. In contrast, the addition of external cAMP led to a complete growth arrest and a [Ca²⁺]_c increase in the apical and subapical regions. When compared to the release of a small concentration of cAMP after flash photolysis, this suggests a toxic effect and a drastic perturbation of ion fluxes. Thus, a cAMP pathway might be involved in PT reorientation which most likely acts together with Ca²⁺ to control tube reorientation. Interestingly, experiments with a membrane-permeant version of cGMP diffusing from a microneedle placed near the tip of growing PTs failed to cause a visible response (Moutinho et al. 2001). Prado et al. (2004) suggested that cGMP could participate in the signaling cascade that affects growth regulation. However, the authors acknowledged that the drugs used in this work clearly disrupted growth regulation, so the

pleiotropic responses made it difficult to isolate or test its specificity. Further experimentation is required to evaluate the role of other cyclic nucleotides in PT growth and reorientation.

GTPases, the signaling switches

Small GTP-binding proteins (GTPases) are versatile signalling switches responsible for an extensive communication and cooperation between signal transduction pathways (Bar-Sagi and Hall 2000). They all belong to the Ras superfamily which includes 5 families: Ras, Rab, Arf, Ran, and Rho. Rab is the largest family of small GTPases that control the transport and docking of specific vesicles. A Rab2 homologue, necessary for membrane traffic between endoplasmic reticulum and Golgi apparatus in mammalian cells, is present in *Arabidopsis thaliana* pollen grains (Moore et al. 1997) and was recently shown to be important for PT growth (Cheung et al. 2002). The authors found that a pollen-predominant Rab2 functions in the secretory pathway between the endoplasmic reticulum and the Golgi apparatus in elongating PTs. Green-fluorescent protein (GFP)–NtRab2 fusion protein localised to Golgi bodies and dominant-negative mutations in NtRab2 proteins inhibited this localisation, blocked the delivery of Golgi-resident as well as plasmalemma and secreted proteins to their normal locations, and inhibited PT growth. These observations indicate that NtRab2 is important for trafficking between the endoplasmic reticulum and the Golgi bodies in PTs and may be specialised to optimally support the high secretory demands in these tip growth cells.

Rho GTPases regulate the actin cytoskeleton organisation and cell polarity development, control also gene expression, cell wall synthesis, H_2O_2 production, endocytosis, exocytosis, cytokinesis, cell cycle progression, and cell differentiation in various eukaryotic organisms (Yang 2002). In plants, these GTPases are named ROP (for Rho-related GTPase from plants) (Yang 2002) and they have been shown to play a significant role in PT elongation in *A. thaliana*, pea, and tobacco (Yang and Watson 1993, Lin and Yang 1997, Kost et al. 1999). In both *A. thaliana* and tobacco, ROPs were found to accumulate at the tube tip and similar observations were made in root hairs (Molendjik et al. 2001). In pollen, the constitutively active, GTP-bound form led to swollen tip growth, whereas the dominant-negative, GDP-bound form led to cessation of tube growth, which proves that the molecule has a central role in the regulation of tube extension. At the PT tip, ROPs seem to activate phosphatidylinositol kinase leading to the formation of PIP_2 , which could function in release of Ca^{2+} . Transient expression of the mutant GTP-

and GDP-bound proteins in tobacco PTs led to the formation of extensive and reduced actin cables, respectively, which shows that ROPs play a role in PT actin dynamics (Kost et al. 1999).

GTP-binding proteins have also been claimed to regulate endo- and exocytosis (Li et al. 1999, Lin et al. 1996) and the relationships between exocytosis, endocytosis, and the actin cytoskeleton in the growing PT tip make an interesting question to which no clear answer can yet be provided. The nonhydrolysable analogues of guanine nucleotide interfere in biological processes and it was found that $GDP\beta S$ decreases growth rate, while $GTP\gamma S$ has the opposite effect (Ma et al. 1999, Camacho and Malhó 2003), thus confirming the importance of GTPases for apical growth. The release of $GTP\gamma S$ was also found to promote exocytosis, a process which seems to be more dependent on the active state of GTPases rather than on the cycling between the GTP- and the GDP-bound state (Zheng and Yang 2000). Selective exposure to elevated Ca^{2+} alone is not sufficient to explain the selectivity of membrane retrieval (Smith et al. 2000). It is therefore possible that GTPases play an active role in endo- and exocytosis by coupling the actin cytoskeleton to the sequential steps underlying membrane trafficking at the site of exocytosis.

Which signals activate the ROP signalling pathway and confine its activity to the tube apex is not clear. Li et al. (1999) previously reported an interaction between Ca^{2+} and the expression of a ROP protein. These authors demonstrated that inhibition of AtRop1 proteins modifies Ca^{2+} influx but could not determine the inhibition of the Ca^{2+} influx altogether. It was actually found that growth inhibition was reversed by higher extracellular Ca^{2+} , which means that influx was still possible. Camacho and Malhó (2003) made similar observations supporting a model in which Ca^{2+} and Rop GTPases act differentially, but in a concerted form, in the sequential regulation of PT secretion and membrane retrieval. However, inhibition (or knockout) of any protein crucial for tip growth will certainly affect the Ca^{2+} gradient either directly or through a signalling loop. Although there may be several different interpretations to these data, we suggest that Ca^{2+} plays a major role in the secretion of cell wall components, while Rop GTPases play a key role in the fusion of docked vesicles and endocytosis. This hypothesis is supported by the recent identification of two structurally distinct putative ROP1 targets in the control of polar growth in PTs, RIC3 and RIC4 (Wu et al. 2001). It is clear, though, that the exact position of these elements in the signalling cascade controlling PT growth and orientation is still dubious and requires further investigation.

Signalling pathways converge in the actin cytoskeleton

The actin cytoskeleton, along with the secretory apparatus, is a structural component in which most PT signalling pathways seem to converge. In the shank of the PT, thick bundles of MFs are seen axially or sometimes helically oriented throughout the cortical and central cytoplasm of the tube cell (Miller et al. 1996). Towards the apex, these bundles of MFs branch into thinner bundles, and in the subapical region, a dense network of fine, labile actin filaments is formed. The latter often appears diffuse but in some PTs it was reported to form a cortical ring (Kost et al. 1998) or a funnel-shaped structure (Vidali et al. 2001). In growing PTs expressing GFP-talin (Kost et al. 1998) the labelling at the tube apex revealed little or no MFs. Fu et al. (2001) demonstrated that very dynamic short actin bundles, correlating with the oscillatory growth rate, transiently penetrate into the extreme tip of tobacco pollen tubes. The scarcity of MFs and/or the lesser degree of MFs organisation at the tip of the growing tube was suggested to be due to the tip-focused Ca^{2+} gradient indispensable for the growth of the PT (Malhó et al. 1995, Pierson et al. 1996).

MFs have been reported to act as the main tracks along which organelles are transported by means of myosin molecules (Taylor and Hepler 1997). This hypothesis is based on motility assays with isolated organelles and treatment with pharmacological agents (e.g., cytochalasin and latrunculin) (Vidali et al. 2001). These data demonstrate that MFs, together with myosins, are essential for cytoplasmic streaming and the polarised growth of the PT. However, we cannot exclude the possibility of some organelle movement through an actin-polymerisation-based mechanism, as was demonstrated for peroxisomes and mitochondria (Mathur et al. 2002). In this model, the movement is independent of the motor protein and is probably generated by an asymmetric actin polymerisation at the surface of the organelle (Vantard and Blanchoin 2002). Recently, Wasteneys and Galaway (2003) suggested that, while the subcortical MFs bundles function in cytoplasmic streaming, the cortical actin could play a role both in biomechanical sensing during growth and in anchoring the subcortical MF bundles. It is noteworthy that wall membrane adhesions involving cortical F-actin were reported to occur along the length of pollen tubes grown in vivo (Lord and Sanders 1992). The role of these adhesions is still unknown, but in animal cells, adhesions to the extracellular matrix are known to be involved in signal transduction (Palanivelu and Preuss 2000). Recent data from plants also support the concept whereby the dynamic actin

cytoskeleton is closely linked to the signalling cascades initiated at the plasma membrane (Baluška et al. 2003). Thus, it is likely that in in vivo grown PTs specific arrangements of the cortical F-actin may be induced in response to stimuli from the transmitting tissue.

The typical F-actin array in the subapical region was hypothesised to serve as a buffer to retain vesicles in this area and to deliver the vesicles onwards to the apical dome. In addition, it may also play a role in the positioning of the endocytotic machinery to a precise microdomain of the PT plasma membrane and to define the tip region by restricting the exit of calcium channels, secretory vesicles, and other components necessary for regulated exocytosis (Staiger 2000). A recent study comparing the cytomechanical properties of growing PTs with the precise configuration of the actin cytoskeleton suggest that the actin in the subapex may also have a role in the control of tube diameter (Geitmann and Parre 2004). According to Vidali et al. (2001), it is in this subapical region that the rapidly formed MFs are presumably incorporated into bundles extending through the shank of the PT. Vantard and Blanchoin (2002) suggest that the elongation of actin filaments near the tip may create part of the force necessary to push forward the apical region and generate PT growth.

Proteins homologous to those that regulate the structure and function of the actin cytoskeleton in animal and yeast cells have been identified in PTs (Vidali and Hepler 2001). In *Lilium longiflorum*, antibodies raised against myosin I, II, and VII labelled different structures (Miller et al. 1995) but analysis of the myosins in the *A. thaliana* genome sequence has revealed that plant myosins fall into two groups – class VIII and class XI (Reddy and Day 2001). Myosins XII are closely related to class V. Studies on the localisation and function of the pollen myosins are thus in demand. Several genes encoding small actin-binding proteins have also been characterised from pollen (Staiger et al. 1993, Mittermann et al. 1995, Lopez et al. 1996, Gibbon et al. 1998). These proteins are potent sensors of the pollen tube ionic and signalling environment and they may contribute to the regulation of actin dynamics. For example, cofilin and profilin are small polypeptides that have been suggested to have similar and opposite effects on MF dynamics (Bamburg 1999). Cofilin belongs to the ADF (actin depolymerising factor) protein family, whose members interact with actin monomers and filaments in a pH-sensitive manner. The properties of plant cofilin have been analysed with recombinant proteins from the maize pollen-specific cofilin gene *ZmADF1* (Hussey et al. 1998) and from *ZmADF3*, which is suppressed in pollen but expressed in all other maize tissues.

ZmADF3 has the ability to bind both the monomeric (globular) actin and F-actin and to decrease the viscosity of polymerised actin solutions, indicating an ability to depolymerise actin filaments (Lopez et al. 1996). ZmADF3 is phosphorylated on Ser6 by a CDPK in plant extracts (Smertenko et al. 1998), which suggests that phosphorylation and dephosphorylation could regulate the actin-binding ability of cofilin and thus affect actin cytoskeleton stability. ADF has also been shown to mediate Rop GTPase-regulated PT growth (Chen et al. 2003). Profilin is a globular-actin binding protein that is known to interact with proline-rich motifs of other proteins and with phosphoinositides. Pollen profilins act as actin-sequestering proteins that promote actin depolymerisation (Staiger et al. 1994). It has been shown that one of the profilins expressed in PTs shows higher proline-rich-motif binding capacity than others (Gibbon et al. 1998), and that the actin-sequestering activity of profilins is dependent on Ca^{2+} concentration (Staiger 2000). More recently, Cheung and Wu (2004) reported the presence of formins, which are actin-nucleating proteins that stimulate actin cable formation. A pollen villin was also isolated from *L. longiflorum* PTs as a 135 kDa actin-bundling protein (Yokota and Shimmen 1999) which colocalises to MFs bundles (Vidali et al. 1999). Ca^{2+} and CaM together inhibit the actin-bundling activity of this PT villin (Yokota et al. 2000), adding villin to the group of Ca^{2+} -regulated actin-binding proteins. The pollen villin also includes a phosphoinositide-binding domain (Vidali et al. 1999) thus making this protein a putative target of the phosphoinositide signalling pathway.

Microtubules – just a structural role?

Compared with MFs, the role and dynamics of microtubules (MTs) in PTs have received less attention. MTs were shown to be present within both the vegetative and the generative cells and sperm cells of PTs (Lancelle and Hepler 1991). The reports dealing with the cytoskeleton in the generative and sperm cells of angiosperms agree in showing a prominent system of MT bundles aligned helically or longitudinally to the long axis of the cell (Palevitz and Tiezzi 1992, Raudaskoski et al. 2001). These MT bundles, in which single MTs are often interconnected by abundant cross-bridges, are organised as a slightly twisted basket or cage under the plasma membrane and often prolong into the proximal end of the cell forming a tail-like structure. Their presence within the generative and sperm cells has been correlated to the establishment and/or maintenance of the typical shape of these cells and to the

reshaping process that occurs during generative and sperm cell movements along the PT. This is probably mediated by intermicrotubule sliding (Palevitz and Tiezzi 1992). In the tube cell, MTs are largely absent from the apical region, while in the subapical region they are short and randomly oriented. In the shank of the tube, MTs are relatively long and thick and are localised primarily in the cell cortex, forming either net-axial or helical arrays (Del Casino et al. 1993, Cai et al. 2000, Derksen et al. 2002). Normally, the uniformity, number, and bundling of MTs increase around and behind the vegetative nucleus-generative cell complex (Raudaskoski et al. 2001). On the basis of data on the MTs distribution it was hypothesised that in long pollen tubes MTs could be nucleated by putative MT-organising centers at the apex and subsequently translocated to the subapical regions of the tube, where they appeared more organized (Moscatelli et al. 1999). The stability of the MT cytoskeleton is also dependent on Ca^{2+} concentration in a CaM-dependent manner (Fisher et al. 1996). The regulation by Ca^{2+} could explain the absence of MTs from the apex, the appearance of short MTs in the subapical region, and prominent MT tracks and spirals in the basal region of the tube behind the nuclei.

The role of MTs in PT growth is still a matter of debate, mainly because the studies to elucidate this role are mostly based on the disruption of the MTs. We now have indications that MTs play a role in controlling the apical transport of secretory vesicles (Cai et al. 1993), in the positioning of nuclei and organelles (Joos et al. 1994), and in pulsed growth (Geitmann et al. 1995). Furthermore, evidence that MTs and actin filaments cooperate functionally to move vesicles and organelles in different types of cells (Goode et al. 2000) suggests that the role of PT MTs in organelle transport could be complementary to actin-based transport. However, the only evidence of interactions between MFs and MTs in the PT is coalignment (Pierson et al. 1986, Lancelle and Hepler 1991); there is no indication that the two systems cooperate functionally during vesicle and organelle transport. A recent study examining the effects of the reversible hyperphosphorylation on the cytoskeleton of *L. longiflorum* tube cells (Foissner et al. 2002) provided evidence that the organisation of MTs may be regulated by MFs.

The involvement of MTs in the translocation of organelles along the tube remains obscure. A recent study based on in vitro motility assays using video-enhanced techniques provided evidence that membrane-bound organelles of pollen tubes move along MTs using kinesin-related motor proteins (Romagnoli et al. 2003). This in vitro organelle movement occurred in the absence of cytosol indicating that

the motor proteins are attached firmly to the surface of the isolated organelles and that no cytosolic factors are required. Noteworthy, MT-based motors of both the kinesin and dynein families have been identified in the PT in association with membrane-bound organelles, which suggests that these proteins could translocate organelles or vesicles along MTs under in vivo conditions as well. A pollen kinesin homolog (Tiezzi et al. 1992) and dynein-related polypeptides (Moscatelli et al. 1995) have been identified in the cytoplasm of PTs and localised in association with membrane structures (Liu et al. 1994, Moscatelli et al. 1998). The pollen kinesin homolog label occurred mainly in the apex and flanks of the tube (Tiezzi et al. 1992, Cai et al. 1993), whereas the 90 kDa ATP-MAP-labelled organelles follow the MT tracks in the basal part of the tube (Cai et al. 2000). The two 400 kDa dynein-related polypeptides localised to membrane structures throughout the PT (Moscatelli et al. 1998). In tobacco, two cDNAs for kinesin-like proteins have been isolated (Wang et al. 1996) and the product of one of these cDNAs, TCK1, binds CaM in a Ca²⁺-dependent manner. Kinesins with comparable structure are known in *A. thaliana* (Reddy and Day 2001). This indicates a possible communication between microtubular-based movement and the Ca²⁺-CaM signalling pathway.

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