


Length Regulation Drives Self-Organization in Filament-Motor Mixtures

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Cytoskeletal networks form complex intracellular structures. Here we investigate a minimal model for filament-motor mixtures in which motors act as depolymerases and thereby regulate filament length. Combining agent-based simulations and hydrodynamic equations, we show that resource-limited length regulation drives the formation of filament clusters despite the absence of mechanical interactions between filaments. Even though the orientation of individual remains fixed, collective filament orientation emerges in the clusters, aligned orthogonal to their interfaces.

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The microtubule cytoskeleton plays an important role in numerous cellular functions such as intracellular transport and cell division [1,2]. These complex processes are based on active remodeling of the cytoskeletal structure [3], which is mediated by the interaction of microtubules with a variety of microtubule associated proteins (MAPs) [4–6]. In addition to generating forces between microtubules [7], MAPs play an important role in regulating the length of individual microtubules by affecting the rates of their polymerization kinetics from tubulin subunits [8–11]. How forces affect the large-scale self-organization of microtubules has been studied in detail both theoretically and experimentally [12–18]. In contrast, the role of length regulation has only been investigated in the context of individual filaments [9,19–26], or of a globally accessible pool of constituents (tubulin and MAPs) [27–30]. However, recently the focus of interest is shifting to their role in many filament systems, as there is increasing experimental evidence that this regulatory function, in combination with the local availability of MAPs and tubulin, plays an essential role in the self-organization, scaling and maintenance of microtubule structures [31–37]. It remains an important open question how the interplay and spatial redistribution of these resources through cytosolic diffusion and transport along microtubules affects the self-organization of the microtubule cytoskeleton [38–41].

Here, we approach this question by studying the collective motor-filament dynamics with limited resources of tubulin units and molecular motors. These cytosolic

resources are spatially redistributed by diffusion while filament-bound motors additionally move unidirectionally towards the filament plus end where they act as depolymerases (Fig. 1). We show that the interplay of motor-catalyzed depolymerization and local resource availability leads to self-organization of the filament assembly into asterlike patterns. Those patterns show colocalization of microtubule plus ends and polarity sorting at the interfaces of emerging filament clusters.

Model.—We propose an agent-based model that builds on current *in vitro* experiments and theoretical studies addressing the resource-limited length regulation of a single stabilized microtubule by the kinesin-8 homologue Kip3 from *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* [26]. Specifically, we study filament dynamics containing a finite number of tubulin units (N_T), molecular motors (N_M), and filaments (N_F); see Fig. 1(b). Each individual filament $i \in 1, \dots, N_F$ is represented by a directed rigid rod with fixed minus-end

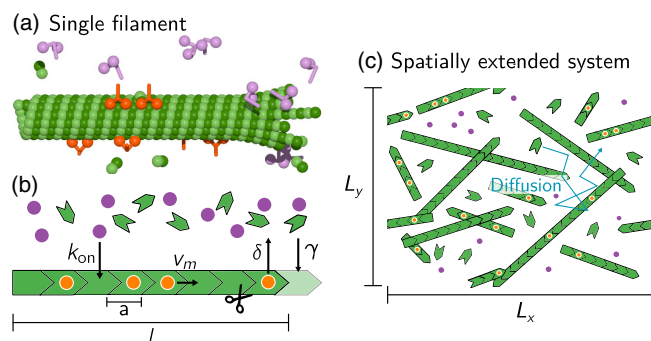


FIG. 1. Agent-based model. (a) Illustration of a filament interacting with a finite amount of tubulin (green) and motor proteins. Motors can be either cytosolic (purple) or filament-bound (orange). (b) Model representation of a single protofilament. (c) Illustration of a filament-motor mixture in a box geometry with periodic boundary conditions.

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position \mathbf{b}_i and fixed orientation $\theta_i \in [0, 2\pi)$, which are drawn randomly from uniform distributions. We have checked that diffusive motion of filaments does not affect the mechanism described here (see Supplemental Material Sec. IV [42] and movies 3–5) [42]. The lengths $l_i(t)$ of the individual filaments are dynamic variables that change by polymerization kinetics at the plus end. When filaments shrink to zero length, they are assumed to regrow from the same minus-end position and with the same orientation; filament shrinkage to zero length, though, rarely occurs. In the cytosol, both motors and tubulin units diffuse freely with diffusion constants D_M and D_T , respectively. Cytosolic motors can bind with rate k_{on} to any point that is within the binding radius r_M along a filament; for details see Supplemental Material Sec. SII [42]. Filament-bound motors move towards the filament plus end at speed v_m , where they catalyze filament depolymerization at rate δ [see Fig. 1(b)]. Upon depolymerization, the filament length is reduced by one tubulin unit (of length a) and both the plus-end-bound motor and the associated tubulin unit are released into the cytosol. As we consider stabilized microtubules no rapid depolymerization events upon microtubule catastrophes are considered here. Cytosolic tubulin within a distance r_T of a filament plus end, binds to it at the rate γ , increasing filament length by a [Fig. 1(d)]. We implicitly assume fast tubulin nucleotide exchange by allowing for immediate reattachment of tubulin. Finite nucleotide exchange does not qualitatively change the results (see Supplemental Material Sec. V) [42].

Single-filament dynamics.—Consider a cytosolic volume V_0 , containing a single filament and a finite number of tubulin units $\rho_T V_0$ and motor proteins $\rho_M V_0$. For now, we assume for simplicity that the cytosolic concentrations c_M and c_T are spatially uniform; this assumption is relaxed when we discuss a spatially extended system with many filaments. The length change of the filament is determined by the antagonism between polymerization and depolymerization kinetics $\partial_t l(t) = v_g - v_s$ with the growth and shrinkage velocity given by $v_g = a c_T \gamma$ and $v_s = a m^+(t) \delta$, respectively, where $m^+(t)$ denotes the density of motors bound to the plus end [22,25].

For biologically relevant parameter ranges, the motor dynamics are fast compared to filament growth and shrinkage [10,26]. This separation of timescales implies that for a given filament length, the motor density can be assumed to be in a quasisteady state, where the total attachment flux of motors onto the filament, $j_{\text{on}} = k_{\text{on}} \tilde{c}_M l$, and the off-flux due to depolymerization events at the plus end, $j_{\text{off}} = \tilde{v}_s/a$, are in balance; quasisteady states are indicated by a tilde. Thus, the depolymerization velocity $\tilde{v}_s = a k_{\text{on}} l \tilde{c}_M$ is determined by the cytosolic density \tilde{c}_M , which in turn is related to the filament-bound motor number \tilde{M} via mass conservation $\rho_M V_0 = \tilde{c}_M V_0 + \tilde{M}$. In steady state, the filament-bound motor density exhibits an antenna profile $\tilde{m}(s) = (k_{\text{on}} \tilde{c}_M / v_m) s$ [60], which is inferred from the transport

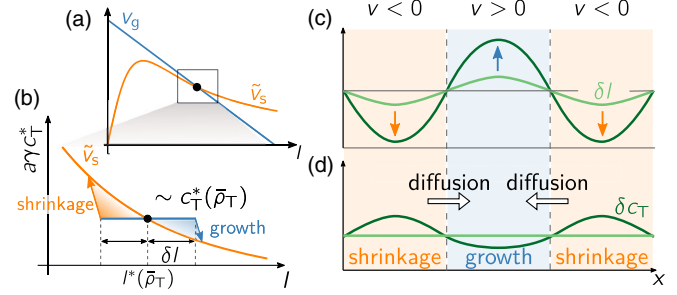


FIG. 2. (a) Shrinkage velocity \tilde{v}_s and growth velocity v_g as a function of the filament length l with the steady state length l^* determined by the intersection point(s) of v_g and \tilde{v}_s . (b)–(d) Graphical analysis of the lateral instability.

equation $\partial_t m(s, t) = -v_m \partial_s m(s, t) + k_{\text{on}} c_M(t)$ [43,44], implying $\tilde{M} = (k_{\text{on}} \tilde{c}_M / 2v_m) l^2$. Combining the expression for the number of bound motors \tilde{M} with mass conservation allows to express the shrinkage velocity in terms of the filament length and the total motor concentration ρ_M .

$$\tilde{v}_s(l, \rho_M) = a k_{\text{on}} l \tilde{c}_M = a k_{\text{on}} l \frac{\rho_M}{1 + l^2/l_c^2}, \quad (1)$$

where we have defined the characteristic length scale $l_c := \sqrt{2v_m V_0 / k_{\text{on}}}$. For filament lengths $l < l_c$, the shrinkage velocity increases with the filament length, as would be expected with unlimited motor resources and has been observed experimentally [10,19]. At $l = l_c$ the number of cytosolic motors $c_M V_0$ equals the number of filament-bound motors $\tilde{M} = (k_{\text{on}} \tilde{c}_M / 2v_m) l^2$. Increasing the filament length beyond l_c leads to a depletion of the cytosolic motor pool and thereby a decreased on-flux $k_{\text{on}} \tilde{c}_M l$. According to the flux balance condition, this reduces the off-flux \tilde{v}_s/a and thus the shrinkage velocity, so that $\tilde{v}_s \sim 1/l$ for $l \gg l_c$ [see Fig. 2(a)].

The growth velocity v_g can be written in terms of filament length l and total tubulin density ρ_T using tubulin mass conservation ($\rho_T V_0 = c_T V_0 + l/a$) as $v_g(l, \rho_T) = \gamma(\rho_T a - l/V_0)$. At steady state the filament growth and shrinkage velocity are balanced, $v_g(l, \rho_T) = \tilde{v}_s(l, \rho_M)$, which determines the steady state length $l^*(\rho_T, \rho_M)$ [Fig. 2(a)] [61].

Self-organization in a spatially extended system.—How does the length regulation of individual filaments play out in a spatially extended system where resources are shared by cytosolic diffusion between many filaments? In the limiting case where the cytosolic concentration is slowly varying on the scale of the (typical) filament length, the filaments can be treated as pointlike objects carrying a tubulin mass proportional to their length $l(\mathbf{x}, t)$. The single filament dynamics can then immediately be generalized to a local length regulation dynamics

$$\partial_t l(\mathbf{x}, t) = a\gamma c_T(\mathbf{x}, t) - \tilde{v}_s(\mathbf{x}, t), \quad (2)$$

with the local shrinkage speed given in terms of the local quasisteady state approximation for the cytosolic motor density, $\tilde{v}_s(\mathbf{x}, t) = ak_{\text{on}}l(\mathbf{x}, t)\tilde{c}_M[l(\mathbf{x}, t), \rho_M(\mathbf{x}, t)]$ [cf. Eq. (1)]. The dynamics of the cytosolic tubulin concentration is governed by a reaction-diffusion equation

$$\partial_t c_T(\mathbf{x}, t) = D_T \nabla^2 c_T(\mathbf{x}, t) - \frac{\gamma c_T(\mathbf{x}, t) - \tilde{v}_s(\mathbf{x}, t)/a}{V_0}, \quad (3)$$

where the local polymerization kinetics induces sinks and sources of cytosolic tubulin; here $V_0 = V/N_F$ denotes the cytosolic volume associated with a single filament. The total motor density is redistributed by cytosolic diffusion

$$\partial_t \rho_M(\mathbf{x}, t) = D_M \nabla^2 \tilde{c}_M[l(\mathbf{x}, t), \rho_M(\mathbf{x}, t)], \quad (4)$$

where we again used the local quasi-steady state approximation for the cytosolic motor density $\tilde{c}_M(\mathbf{x}, t)$. Taken together, Eqs. (2)–(4) form a closed set governing the system's dynamics in the long-wavelength limit.

The stability of a spatially uniform state $(l^*, c_T^*, \bar{\rho}_M)$ against spatial perturbations can be studied using a linear stability analysis (see Supplemental Material Sec. SIV for details [42]). Figure 3 shows a typical dispersion relation $\sigma(q)$ for the eigenvalue with the largest real part and the ensuing stability diagram as a function of $\bar{\rho}_M$ and $\bar{\rho}_T$. For $\bar{\rho}_T > \bar{\rho}_T^{\text{crit}}(\bar{\rho}_M)$ there is a band of unstable Fourier modes $q \in (0, q_{\text{max}})$ extending to long wavelengths ($q \rightarrow 0$). It is instructive to first consider the particular limit of well-mixed cytosolic tubulin. Then, the marginal mode q_{max} reduces to $q_{\text{max}}^2 = -\rho_M \partial_l \tilde{v}_s|_{l^*} / (D_M \tilde{c}_M)$. This implies that there is an instability against spatial perturbations (lateral instability) only if $\partial_l \tilde{v}_s|_{l^*} < 0$. Moreover, the band of unstable modes narrows with increasing D_M , showing that cytosolic motor diffusion attenuates the lateral instability. Relaxing the assumption of well-mixed cytosolic tubulin, i.e., explicitly accounting for tubulin diffusion, yields the critical ratio of diffusion constants $D_T^{\text{crit}}/D_M \approx \gamma / (ak_{\text{on}}V_0\bar{\rho}_M)$ in the limit $l^* \gg l_c$. For physiological parameters, we find that there is a lateral instability if the average number of motors per

filament satisfies $\bar{\rho}_M^{\text{crit}}V_0 > 0.57 D_M/D_T$. This condition is well met for biologically relevant motor concentrations as $D_M/D_T \sim 1/6$ (see Supplemental Material Sec. SI [42]).

The feedback mechanism underlying the lateral instability can be explained in terms of a mass-redistribution instability [45,46,62]. To simplify the argument, we set $D_M = 0$ for the moment so that the total motor density remains invariant under the dynamics and therefore spatially uniform $\rho_M = \bar{\rho}_M$, cf. Eq. (4). Consider now a small perturbation $\delta l(\mathbf{x})$ added to the homogeneous state l^* , while keeping the cytosolic tubulin concentration $c_T(\mathbf{x}) = c_T^*$ initially constant [Figs. 2(b) and 2(c)]. Since then $v_g = \alpha \gamma c_T$ initially remains uniform, the effect of $\delta l(\mathbf{x})$ on the net growth velocity $v = v_g - \tilde{v}_s$ depends on the slope of the shrinkage velocity at l^* . For $\partial_l \tilde{v}_s|_{l^*} < 0$, filaments grow (shrink) when they are long (short). This leads to an decrease (increase) of the cytosolic tubulin concentration [arrows in Figs. 2(b) and 2(c)] creating gradients in the cytosolic tubulin concentration that drive diffusive transport of tubulin mass towards regions of increased filament length. Since this tubulin mass redistribution leads to an increase of v_g in regions where $\delta l > 0$, it promotes further filament growth there, i.e., the initial spatial perturbation $\delta l(\mathbf{x})$ is amplified [Fig. 2(b)]. In contrast, if the regulatory kinetics is such that the shrinkage velocity increases with filament length ($\partial_l \tilde{v}_s|_{l^*} > 0$), the effect is opposite. Cytosolic tubulin diffusion then redistributes the tubulin mass to regions with shorter filaments, counteracting the original disruption. Taken together, one finds the condition $\partial_l \tilde{v}_s|_{l^*} < 0$ for a spatial instability that is driven by free tubulin diffusion, in accordance with the result of the linear stability analysis.

The above reasoning also explains why cytosolic diffusion of motor proteins mitigates the lateral instability. Regions with short filaments contain fewer binding sites for motors and thus the cytosolic motor concentration is high there. The opposite holds for regions with long filaments. This creates gradients, and thereby diffusive fluxes, of motors towards regions of long filaments. The resulting diffusive influx of motors increases the rate of filament depolymerization there and thus counteracts the instability driven by tubulin diffusion.

Agent-based simulations.—To study the spatiotemporal dynamics above the critical tubulin concentration $\bar{\rho}_T^{\text{crit}}(\bar{\rho}_M)$ we perform agent-based simulations. While Eqs. (2)–(4) capture well the initial dynamics at the long-wavelength instability, they fail to give the correct dynamics once gradients begin to emerge at the small length scales (see Supplemental Material Sec. SIV [42]). What this continuum theory lacks are effects due the spatial extent of the filaments which includes motor binding along the length of filaments as well as motion of each filament plus end due to polymerization kinetics.

Figure 4 shows a time sequence obtained from the simulations (see also movie 1 [42]). First, regions with

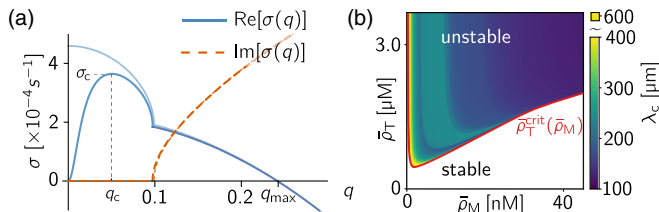


FIG. 3. (a) Leading eigenvalue in the dispersion relation $\sigma(q)$ for $\bar{\rho}_M = 50$ nM, $\bar{\rho}_T = 2.75$ μM , $D_M = 0.5$ $\mu\text{m}^2 \text{s}^{-1}$, and $D_T = 6$ $\mu\text{m}^2 \text{s}^{-1}$; other parameters are specified in the Supplemental Material Sec. SI [42]. The dispersion relation in the limit of well-mixed cytosolic tubulin is shown in light blue. (b) Stability diagram and wavelength of the fastest growing mode q_c in the $(\bar{\rho}_M, \bar{\rho}_T)$ -parameter space. The boundary of the laterally stable parameter regime, $\bar{\rho}_T^{\text{crit}}(\bar{\rho}_M)$, is shown in red.

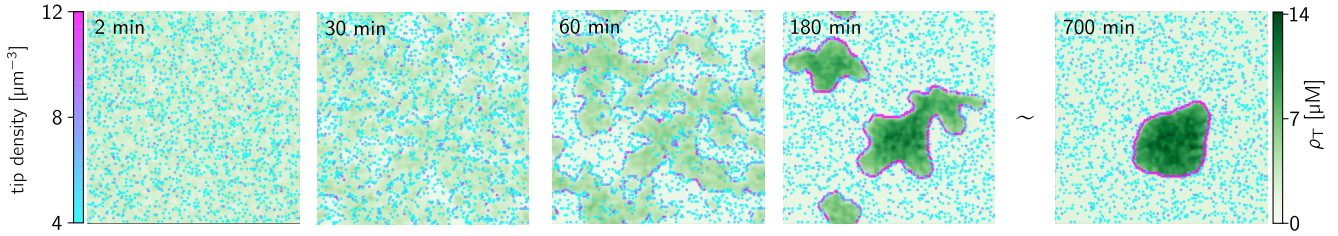


FIG. 4. Snapshots of the total tubulin density $\rho_T(\mathbf{x}, t)$ and the tip density. Parameters are as in Fig. 3(a); $L_x = L_y = 150 \mu\text{m}$.

short (depletion zones) and long (clusters) filaments are formed, which corresponds to the initial dynamics described by the mass redistribution instability (Fig. 4, $t = 30 \text{ min}$). Moreover, filament plus ends start to accumulate at the interface between these zones. As the dynamics progresses, the depletion zones grow in size and the interfaces sharpen (Fig. 4, $t = 60 \text{ min}$). At this time point, the filament-length distributions match on a qualitative level with experimental measurements [26] (see Supplemental Material Sec. SIII [42]). Subsequently, the high density regions segregate into individual large scale filament clusters, which are characterized by sharp boundaries and strong colocalization of filament plus ends at their periphery (Fig. 4, $t = 180 \text{ min}$). This colocalization is caused by the movement of the filaments' plus end due to polymerization dynamics that is directed to zones where the net growth rate changes sign, namely, cluster interfaces. In the long run, the large filament clusters grow at the expense of the smaller ones, until eventually only a single cluster remains, which then develops into an asterlike structure (Fig. 4, $t = 700 \text{ min}$).

Inside the clusters, the filaments exhibit net polar order that is aligned along tubulin-density gradients, i.e., orthogonal to the cluster boundaries. This is because the plus ends localized there belong predominantly to filaments whose minus end lies within the cluster's interior, implying an orientation orthogonal to the boundary on average (see Fig. 5, and movie 2 [42]).

To quantify this effect, we monitor the density gradient $\nabla\rho_T$, the local net polarity \mathbf{p} , and the angle θ enclosed between these vectors. Figure 5(d) shows the time evolution of the histogram $\mathcal{P}(\theta)$ of the angle θ weighted by the product of the magnitudes of $\nabla\rho_T$ and \mathbf{p} to highlight the alignment of filaments near the cluster boundaries. The initially uniform distribution $\mathcal{P}(\theta)$ evolves quickly into a peaked distribution centered around zero—indicating the onset of polar order—and subsequently sharpens slowly; see also snapshots in insets of Fig. 5(a). The onset of this polar order occurs simultaneously with the mass-redistribution instability, as can be seen from the comparison of the spatial averages $\langle \mathbf{p} \cdot \nabla\rho_T \rangle$ and $\langle |\nabla\rho_T|^2 \rangle$, which are coarse-grained measures of filament orientation and density gradients, respectively; Fig. 5(e).

The polar order leads to advective flow of filament-bound motors out of clusters, which is balanced against

diffusive influx caused by gradients in cytosolic motor concentration [see Fig. 5(c)]. Fast binding of motors inside clusters together with advective motor transport leads to the depletion of motors in the cluster interior and the formation of sharp gradients in cytosolic motor concentration. Those gradients help to maintain the filament plus-end localization at the interfaces: Plus ends that protrude beyond the interface are subjected to an increased on-flux of motors, causing the filaments to shrink back. Conversely, plus ends within the cluster are subjected to a reduced motor on-flux, causing them to grow towards the interface. Finally, the sharp cytosolic gradient leads to a shrinkage velocity \tilde{v}_s that is independent of filament length because motor attachment occurs only in a narrow band at the interface. This is a collective effect and in contrast to the length regulation of a single filament, which is strongly length dependent [cf. Eq. (1)]. The size regulation of clusters and a quantitative analysis of the final, asterlike, stationary state will be presented in a forthcoming publication [63].

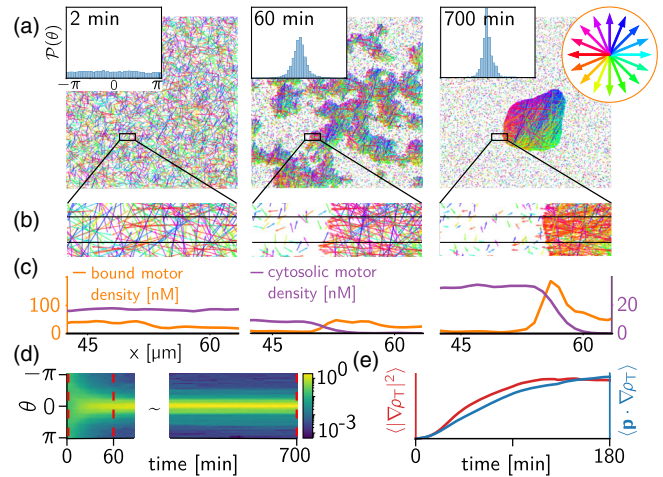


FIG. 5. (a) Snapshots of filament arrangement in Fig. 4. Filaments are color coded according to their orientation (color wheel); insets show the weighted distribution $\mathcal{P}(\theta)$. (b) Zoom into a structure interface. (c) Filament-bound (orange) and cytosolic (purple) motor concentration averaged along the vertical direction for the area enclosed by the black windows in (b). (d) Kymograph of $\mathcal{P}(\theta)$ with the (logarithmic) color scale showing the normalized (by area) frequency of the measured angles; the dashed, red lines correspond to the insets in (a). (e) Time trace of $\langle \mathbf{p} \cdot \nabla\rho_T \rangle$ and $\langle |\nabla\rho_T|^2 \rangle$ (ordinate in a.u.).

Discussion.—Commonly, the spatial self-organization of cytoskeletal filaments is attributed to motor proteins that reorient and move filaments by mechanical forces, such as dynein or kinesin-5 [7,18,64,65]. Here, we have shown that microtubule length regulation (through kinesin-8) in combination with resource limitation can lead to asterlike spatial patterns. The underlying instability is driven by diffusive redistribution of cytosolic tubulin mass. While we studied a minimal model for stabilized microtubules in an *in vitro* setting here, we expect that this instability mechanism could also operate in living cells or cell extracts. It has been estimated that up to 60% of the available tubulin heterodimers are used up during the formation of the mitotic spindle [66,67]. Moreover, length-dependent polymerization kinetics has been observed for nonstabilized microtubules [68]. Those observations—resource limitation and a length-dependent feedback mechanism—are the general requirements for the mass-redistribution instability discussed here. In general, we expect that the mechanism described here can play a role when tubulin as well as MAPs are limited. The pattern-forming instability we have discovered is also a potential candidate to explain the emergent self-organization observed in cell extracts [69]. Notably, this self-organization is heralded by spatial patterns that emerge in the tubulin density, which have comparable morphology and wavelength ($\sim 100\ \mu\text{m}$) as those we observe in our simulations (cf. Fig. 4). We also expect that our theory for resource-limited filament length regulation can be used to investigate heterogeneous growth dynamics in systems where spatial heterogeneities in filament length and/or density are imposed, e.g., by experimental design [39] or by upstream gradients [70,71]. From a broader perspective, the conceptual model investigated here is in itself an interesting active matter system exhibiting self-organized patterns, polarity sorting, and coarsening. Such collective filament organization is usually attributed to the mechanical interaction of filaments [17,72–75]. Investigating how mechanical interaction and length regulation work together will be an important starting point for further research.

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