The intrinsically disordered cytoplasmic tail of a dendrite branching receptor

uses two distinct mechanisms to regulate the actin cytoskeleton

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Abstract

Dendrite morphogenesis is essential for neural circuit formation, yet the molecular

mechanisms underlying complex dendrite branching remain elusive. Previous studies on the

highly branched *C. elegans* PVD sensory neuron identified a membrane co-receptor complex

that links extracellular signals to intracellular actin remodeling machinery, promoting high-order

dendrite branching. In this complex, the claudin-like transmembrane protein HPO-30 recruits the

WAVE regulatory complex (WRC) to dendrite branching sites, stimulating the Arp2/3 complex

to polymerize actin. We report here our biochemical and structural analysis of this interaction,

revealing that the intracellular domain (ICD) of HPO-30 is intrinsically disordered and employs

two distinct mechanisms to regulate the actin cytoskeleton. First, HPO-30 ICD binding to the

WRC requires dimerization and involves the entire ICD sequence, rather than a short linear

peptide motif. This interaction enhances WRC activation by the GTPase Rac1. Second, HPO-30

ICD directly binds to the sides and barbed end of actin filaments. Binding to the barbed end

requires ICD dimerization and inhibits both actin polymerization and depolymerization,

resembling the actin capping protein CapZ. These dual functions provide an intriguing model of

how membrane proteins can integrate distinct mechanisms to fine-tune local actin dynamics.

Introduction

Neurons exhibit a variety of shapes, but they all share a fundamental architecture

comprising a cell body, a primary axon, and many branching dendrites adorned with numerous

tiny projections called spines (Burianek and Soderling, 2013; Jan and Jan, 2003; Lefebvre et al.,

2015). Dendrite and spine formation is critical for nervous system development, as they establish

the majority of post-synaptic connections in animals and define the intricate wiring of neural

circuits (Hotulainen and Hoogenraad, 2010; Scott and Luo, 2001; Tavosanis, 2012). Actin and

microtubule filaments are essential for initiating and promoting the outgrowth of newly formed

neurites during dendrite development (Cheng and Poo, 2012; Zhao et al., 2017). Disruptions in

actin cytoskeleton regulation can alter dendrite morphology and neural connections, contributing

to various neurodevelopmental disorders such as autism, mental retardation, and schizophrenia

(Yan et al., 2016).

A primary mechanism by which neurons regulate actin polymerization involves the

Arp2/3 complex, a seven-protein assembly that binds to the sides of existing actin filaments and

promotes the formation of branched actin filament networks (Goley and Welch, 2006; Hasegawa

et al., 2022; Machesky et al., 1994; Pollard, 2007). The Arp2/3 complex is intrinsically inactive

and requires activation by nucleation promoting factors (NPFs), which primarily consist of the

Wiskott-Aldrich Syndrome Protein (WASP) family proteins (Alekhina et al., 2017; Kramer et

al., 2022; Pollitt and Insall, 2009; Takenawa and Suetsugu, 2007). These proteins contain a

conserved WCA (WH2-central-acidic) sequence at their C terminus, which can directly bind to

and activate Arp2/3. The N-terminal sequences of these proteins vary greatly and define their

regulatory mechanism and cellular function (Alekhina et al., 2017; Kramer et al., 2022;

Machesky and Insall, 1998).

WAVE (Wiskott-Aldrich Verprolin homology) belongs to the WASP family and is part

of a multi-protein assembly known as the WAVE regulatory complex (WRC). Consisting of five

subunits—Sra1, Nap1, Abi2, HSPC300, and WAVE (or their corresponding orthologs in

vertebrates) (Chen et al., 2010; Eden et al., 2002; Gautreau et al., 2004; Polesskaya et al., 2021;

Rottner et al., 2021)—the WRC facilitates actin polymerization downstream of membrane

signaling in neurons. This activity is crucial for various neuronal processes, including growth

cone formation, axon branching, dendrite branching, synapse formation, and axon guidance and

projection (Chia et al., 2014; Chou and Wang, 2016; Pilpel and Segal, 2005; Racz and Weinberg,

2008; Soderling et al., 2007; Stephan et al., 2011; Tahirovic et al., 2010; Yamazaki et al., 2005;

Yokoyama et al., 2011). Disruption of WRC function can profoundly affect the nervous system

in animals, resulting in altered spine morphology and density, intellectual disability, and

embryonic death (Dahl et al., 2003; Soderling et al., 2003). Mutations in WAVE and other WRC

subunits have been linked to various neurodevelopmental disorders in humans, including

neurodevelopmental disorder with absent language and variable seizures (NEDALVS),

developmental and epileptic encephalopathy-65 (DEE-65), and Alzheimer's disease (Begemann

et al., 2021; Conway et al., 2018; Ito et al., 2018; Kirkpatrick et al., 2017; Kramer et al., 2022;

Kumar et al., 2013; Olive et al., 2020; Rottner et al., 2021; Shimojima Yamamoto et al., 2021;

Sims et al., 2017; Srivastava et al., 2021; Zhao et al., 2021; Zweier et al., 2019).

The WRC inhibits WAVE activity by sequestering its C-terminal WCA to a conserved

surface formed by the Sra1 and WAVE subunits (Chen et al., 2017, 2010; Eden et al., 2002;

Kramer et al., 2022). Various molecules can recruit the WRC to the membrane and/or

simultaneously activate it through direct interactions, releasing the WCA to promote Arp2/3-

mediated actin polymerization. These ligands include small GTPases (e.g., Rac1 and Arf), acidic

phospholipids (e.g., PIP_3), adaptor proteins, and a wide array of membrane proteins containing

the WIRS motif (WRC interacting receptor sequence, defined as Φ-x-T/S-F-x-x, where Φ is a

bulky hydrophobic residue and x is any residue) (Chen et al., 2017, 2014a, 2010; Ding et al.,

2022b; Eden et al., 2002; Kobayashi et al., 1998; Koronakis et al., 2011; Lebensohn and

Kirschner, 2009; Rottner et al., 2021; Yang et al., 2022). Many WIRS-containing membrane

proteins, such as SYG-1, Robo, DCC, Neogenin, TMEM132, neuroligins, and various

protocadherins, are essential neuronal receptors that depend on the WIRS-WRC interaction to

regulate diverse neural development processes (Chaudhari et al., 2022, 2021; Chia et al., 2014;

Fan et al., 2018; Lee et al., 2016; Wang et al., 2021; Xing et al., 2018).

In previous studies, the claudin-like receptor HPO-30 was identified as a novel WRC-

binding protein, which does not contain a WIRS motif. The HPO-30-WRC interaction is

essential for high-order dendrite branching in the PVD sensory neuron in *C. elegans* (Zou et al.,

2016). HPO-30 acts as a co-receptor with the cell adhesion molecule DMA-1. The extracellular

domain of DMA-1 forms a multi-ligand complex with the secreted protein LECT-2 and the

extracellular domains of the epidermal cell receptors SAX-7 and MNR-1, providing spatial cues

for initiating dendrite branching in PVD neurons (Dong et al., 2013; Zou et al., 2018, 2016). The

intracellular domain (ICD) of HPO-30 directly binds to the WRC, while the ICD of DMA-1

binds the Rac guanine nucleotide exchange factor (GEF) TIAM-1, increasing the local

concentration of activated Rac1, the canonical activator of WRC (Tang et al., 2019; Zou et al.,

2018). Together, the HPO-30-DMA-1 co-receptor organizes a multi-protein complex that bridges

extracellular cues to the intracellular actin remodeling machinery to regulate high-order dendrite

branching (Zou et al., 2018).

The interaction mechanism between HPO-30 ICD and the WRC remains elusive, and it is

uncertain if the ICD has additional functions beyond its WRC binding activity. Unlike other

WRC-binding membrane proteins, HPO-30 ICD lacks a WIRS motif and uses a non-WIRS

mechanism for WRC interaction. Prior research has shown that deletion of the C-terminal half of

the HPO-30 ICD strongly affects WRC binding *in vitro* and high-order dendrite branching *in*

vivo. However, it is unclear whether the HPO-30 ICD uses a linear peptide motif analogous to

the WIRS motif for WRC binding (Zou et al., 2018). Although HPO-30 shares homology with

mammalian tight junction claudin proteins, its ICD sequence is conserved only in nematode

worms. Intriguingly, HPO-30 ICD binds to both *C. elegans* and human WRC, suggesting a

conserved interaction mechanism across species (Zou et al., 2018). Thus, understanding the

HPO-30-WRC interaction is critical for identifying other potential membrane proteins that

regulate the WRC in humans through the same interaction surface.

In this study, we conducted biochemical and structural analyses of the HPO-30-WRC

interaction. Our findings reveal that the HPO-30 ICD differs from other WRC-interacting

receptors, as the entire ICD sequence—rather than a short peptide motif like the WIRS—is

involved in the interaction. We also discovered that dimerization is necessary for HPO-30 ICD to

bind to the WRC, which works cooperatively with Rac1 to promote WRC activation.

Surprisingly, we found that the HPO-30 ICD directly interacts with actin filaments in a

dimerization-dependent manner. The dimeric form of HPO-30 ICD binds to both the side and the

barbed end of actin filaments, inhibiting both actin polymerization and depolymerization,

resembling the activity of the actin capping protein CapZ. These dual activities of HPO-30 ICD

present a fascinating example of how a membrane receptor can regulate local actin dynamics by

simultaneously controlling the localization and activity of a central actin nucleation factor and

directly binding to and modulating actin filaments to support an essential biological process.

Results

HPO-30 ICD uses the entire sequence, rather than a short peptide motif, to bind the WRC

The HPO-30 ICD lacks a WIRS motif, which led us to hypothesize that it might use a

different linear motif to bind the WRC. To identify this potential sequence motif, we divided

HPO-30 ICD sequence into continuous segments of five amino acids (a.a.) (Δ1-10 in **Figure 1A**)

and mutated all a.a. in each segment to alanines. We then used GST pull-down assays to assess

the impact of each segment on WRC binding (**Figure 1B**). Interestingly, we found that mutating

nearly any segment reduced the binding to WRC, with the middle region of the ICD showing the

most significant effect (Δ5, 6, 7 in **Figure 1A,B**, lanes 7-9). This finding supports the previous

qualitative data obtained under suboptimal pull-down conditions (Zou et al., 2018). It is worth

noting that while most mutants contained a N-terminal GST-tag, several mutations near the C-

terminus of the ICD used a C-terminal GST-tag to improve the yield of full-length protein (Δ8-

Δ10 in **Figure 1**, lanes 10-13 in **Figure 1B**).

It is interesting that none of the alanine-scan mutations completely abolished the binding

to WRC, unlike WIRS-mediated binding where single amino acid mutations in the WIRS motif

can readily eliminate the interaction (Chen et al., 2014a). In line with this finding, the wild type

(WT) ICD had a dissociation constant (K_D) of ~1.69 µM, as measured by an equilibrium pull-

down (EPD) assay (**Figure 1D,** black and **Figure 1 – figure supplement 1A**), while the alanine-

scan mutant Δ5, which had the strongest effect in the non-equilibrium GST pull-down assay

(**Figure 1A,B,** lane 7), only mildly increased the K_D to ~5.06 µM, still maintaining significant

residual binding (**Figure 1D**, light yellow and **Figure 1 – figure supplement 1B**) (Chen et al.,

2017; Kuzmic, 1996; Pollard, 2010). More extensive mutations in the ICD, either in the N-

terminal, middle, or C-terminal regions, more severely disrupted the binding (**Figure 1A,C** Δ11-

14). These data suggest the entire ICD sequence is involved in interacting with the WRC. This is

distinct from WIRS-containing membrane proteins where the WIRS motif is essential for

binding the WRC, and sequences outside the WIRS motif have only marginal contributions, if

any (Chen et al., 2014a).

HPO-30 ICD contains residual structural elements, but is predominantly disordered in

solution

Two potential models could explain how the entire ICD of HPO-30 binds to the WRC:

either the ICD might fold into a three-dimensional structure to bind, or the ICD might exist as an

extended linear peptide that makes an extensive contact with the WRC. To distinguish between

these two models and understand how the binding occurs, we investigated the structure of the

ICD using various approaches.

First, we submitted the sequence of ICD to multiple *in silico* structural prediction

software. These programs include secondary structure analyses (JPred, PredictProtein, PSIPred,

and SABLE) and *ab initio* tertiary structure predictions (LOMETS, QUACK, RaptorX, Rosetta,

AlphaFold 2.0, and RoseTTAFold) (**Figure 1—figure supplement 2)** (Adamczak et al., 2004;

Bernhofer et al., 2021; Bonneau et al., 2001; Drozdetskiy et al., 2015; Jumper et al., 2021;

Källberg et al., 2012; McGuffin et al., 2000; Minkyung et al., 2021; Wu and Zhang, 2007).

Nearly all programs predicted that the ICD contains a short alpha helix followed by two short

beta strands (**Figure 1A**). This is distinct from WIRS-containing proteins, where the WIRS motif

must reside in unstructured sequences for proper binding. It is noteworthy that the sequences

most critical for binding, such as Δ5, Δ6, and Δ7 in **Figure 1**, are within or close to these

secondary structural elements. In contrast to the consistent secondary structure prediction,

however, tertiary structure predictions yielded varied results, in which the secondary structural

elements are folded differently depending on the program and the context of ICD sequence

(isolated ICD vs. full-length HPO-30) used for the predictions (**Figure 1—figure supplement**

2). The variability observed in the predictions suggests that the ICD may not adopt a well-

defined three-dimensional structure, but rather may exist as a large and heterogeneous

conformational ensemble.

To further assess these structural predictions, we performed a series of all-atom

molecular dynamics (MD) simulations using the AMBER99SB-disp force field, which combines

a new generation of water model with parameters specifically designed to capture the behavior of

partially disordered proteins in solution (Robustelli et al., 2018). The top-ranking conformations

from all eight predictions were subjected to 200-ns simulations to assess the conformational

stability of the predicted structural models. The trajectories showed significant conformational

fluctuations, with large root mean square deviation (RMSD) up to 20 Å from their corresponding

initial models (**Figure 1 – figure supplement 3)**. The snapshots of the simulated molecules

revealed major random reorganization of the structural elements, suggesting that the predicted

tertiary structures were transient or unstable conformations, or may require specific conditions or

contexts to exist. Notably, in almost all simulated structures, the alpha-helical region remained

relatively stable, supporting its presence in the largely disordered ICD **(Figure 1 – figure**

supplement 3). Taken together, these *in silico* analyses suggest that while the ICD may contain

structural elements, it is likely disordered and does not possess a stable conformation in solution.

Figure 1. HPO-30 ICD binds to the WRC using its entire sequence. (A) Left: cartoon representation of HPO-30 as a four-pass transmembrane protein, with the ICD binding to the WRC. Right: annotation of HPO-30 ICD sequence and mutants used in this study. In each mutant, the corresponding amino acids were replaced with alanines (for Δ1-10) or (GGS)n (for Δ11-14). The regions are color coded according to the alanine mutations, and the consensus secondary structural elements from multiple secondary structure predictions are indicated above. **(B)** Representative Coomassie blue-stained SDS PAGE gel (left) and quantification (right) of three independent experiments showing GST-ICD (lane 2-9, 200 pmol) and ICD-GST (lane 10-13, 200 pmol) pulling down WRC$^{230\Delta WCA}$ (150 pmol). Sra1/Nap1 band intensity was used to quantify the pull-down signals of WRC. Signals from GST-ICD or ICD-GST pull-downs were normalized to the corresponding WT ICD (lane 2 and 13, respectively). Error bars represent standard error, * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.005$, *** $p < 0.001$ from ANOVA with Tukey test. **(C)** Coomassie blue-stained SDS PAGE gel showing GST-ICD Δ11-14 mutants (200 pmol) pulling down WRC$^{217\Delta WCA}$ (300 pmol). **(D)** Fitted curves of the dissociation constant (K_D) of the interaction between ICD-GST and WRC. Data were pooled from three independent repeats and globally fitted to a one-site binding model using DynaFit.

Figure 1 – figure supplement 1. Equilibrium pull-down assay of ICD-GST and WRC. (A-B) Representative
Coomassie blue-stained SDS-PAGE EPD gels used to quantify the dissociation constants shown in Figure 1D for
ICD WT (A) and Δ5 (B).

Figure 1—figure supplement 2. *Ab initio* **structure prediction of HPO-30 ICD.** Top five ranked structures of

HPO-30 ICD predicted by the indicated programs are shown.

Figure 1—figure supplement 3. MD simulations of predicted ICD structures. All-atom molecular dynamics simulations were conducted for the top ranked structural models generated by indicated programs. Left, the

initial structure prediction fed into the MD simulations. Middle, the final structure after the MD simulations

ended. Right, RMSD of the backbone of the HPO-30 ICD over the course of the MD simulation, relative to the

starting structure.

To experimentally validate the above computational analyses, we used circular dichroism

(CD) spectroscopy to evaluate HPO-30 ICD secondary structure composition in solution. In

agreement with the MD simulations, the CD spectrum of ICD did not display major peaks at the

wavelengths characteristic of either alpha helices (positive at 193 nm and negative at 218 and

222 nm) or beta sheets (positive at 195 nm and negative at 217 nm), clearly distinct from the CD

spectrum of bovine serum albumin (BSA) obtained under the same conditions (**Figure 2A**).

Adding an osmolyte, trimethylamine N-oxide (TMAO), which is commonly used to promote

protein folding, did not significantly alter the CD spectrum or enhance the ICD-WRC interaction

(**Figure 2—figure supplement 1A,B**) (Baskakov et al., 1999). Yet careful examination of the

CD spectrum revealed that the ICD is different from unstructured proteins, which typically

exhibit a positive peak at 222 nm (Hwang and Waite, 2012). This suggests that the HPO-30 ICD

might contain some structural elements, possibly a helical region, as reflected by the negative

peak at 222 nm.

Being unable to grow crystals of the ICD (either by itself, attached to solubility tags, or

together with the WRC), we used solution nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) spectroscopy to

further investigate the structural features of the ICD. The ^{1}H-^{15}N heteronuclear single quantum

coherence (HSQC) spectra of untagged ^{15}N-labeled ICD were well resolved, from which we

identified 50 distinct amide crosspeaks, out of the 51 expected (**Figure 2B**). The narrow ^{1}H

chemical shift dispersion was consistent with our CD spectroscopy analysis and suggested that

the ICD is predominantly disordered in solution. Fusing the ICD to two different solubility tags,

including the monomeric 56-a.a. tag GB1 (B1 domain of Streptococcal protein G, commonly

used in NMR) (Zhou and Wagner, 2010) and the dimeric GST-tag, did not cause any significant

chemical shift changes to the ICD crosspeaks (**Figure 2C**, **Figure 2 – figure supplement 1D,E)**,

suggesting that solubility tags and dimerization do not promote ICD folding. Moreover, the

NMR spectra were nearly identical at different protein concentrations (50 – 700 μM) and

temperatures (283 K – 298 K), suggesting that the ICD alone does not undergo concentration-

dependent structural changes (data not shown).

While the 2D ^{1}H-^{15}N NMR spectroscopy can provide an overall assessment of the degree

of structural disorder based on the magnitude of the ^{1}H chemical shift dispersion, a precise

characterization of secondary structure content requires measuring the chemical shifts values of

individual backbone nuclei. ^{13}C chemical shift values measured for carbons alpha are particularly

strong indicators of secondary structure motifs. We therefore collected a set of conventional 3D

triple resonance experiments [HNCA, HNCO, and HN(CO)CA] and were able to assign the

backbone chemical shifts (^{1}H, ^{15}N, and ^{13}C) of 41 out of 51 amino acids of the ICD (**Figure 2 –**

figure supplement 1F). The overall measured ^{13}Cα chemical shifts show little deviation (<1

ppm) from idealized random coil chemical shifts (**Figure 2D**) (Kjaergaard et al., 2011;

Kjaergaard and Poulsen, 2011), indicating that the ICD is predominantly disordered in solution,

consistent with the MD simulations, the CD data, and the initial assessment based on the 2D

NMR spectra. However, we observed small but consistent positive secondary Cα chemical shifts,

suggesting the presence of a transient (~25-30%) alpha-helical motif in the same region that was

predicted to form an alpha helix in many of the *ab initio* predictions **(Figure 2D)**. Although we

could not obtain adequate signals for Cß atoms, the chemical shift of CO was consistent with the

Cα chemical shift data, further confirming that the same region of the ICD contained ~25-30%

helical motif **(Figure 2 – figure supplement 1G)**.

Together, our data suggest that the HPO-30 ICD is predominantly disordered in solution,

although it does contain some local secondary structures that could potentially fold into different

conformations. The exact nature of these conformations is unclear, and it remains challenging to

determine whether the entire ICD binds to the WRC as an extended linear peptide or as a

compact folded structure.

Figure 2. HPO-30 ICD is largely disordered but may contain secondary structural elements. (**A**) CD spectrum

of 2 mg/mL untagged HPO-30 ICD or BSA in identical buffer conditions (see Methods and Materials). (**B-C**) 2D

TROSY spectra of untagged HPO-30 ICD (B) and GB1-ICD (C) in the same buffer condition (100 mM NaCl, 10

mM HEPES pH 7.0, and 5% glycerol). (**D**) Secondary Cα chemical shift showing the deviation from idealized

random coils of Cα chemical shifts measured for HPO-30 ICD.

Figure 2—figure supplement 1. HPO-30 ICD is largely disordered. (A) CD spectrum of 2 mg/mL HPO-30 ICD in the absence or presence of 0.1 M TMAO. **(B-C)** Coomassie blue-stained SDS PAGE gels showing GST-ICD (200 pmol) pulling down WRC$^{230\Delta WCA}$ (150 pmol) (B) or WRC:Abi2-(MBP)$_2$ (60 pmol) pulling down GST-ICD (600 pmol) (C), with and without TMAO. **(D-E)** 2D TROSY spectra of the GB1 tag compared to the HPO-30 ICD (D) and GST-ICD (E) in the same buffer condition (100 mM NaCl, 10 mM HEPES pH 7.0, and 5% glycerol). **(F)** Representative strip plots generated in SPARKYNMR showing an overlay of the 3D HNCA and HN(CO)CA spectra (in black and red respectively). The straight lines indicate the sequential connection between the ^{13}Cα crosspeaks of residues (i) and (i-1). **(G)** Secondary CO chemical shift showing the deviation from idealized random coils of CO chemical shifts measured for HPO-30 ICD.

HPO-30 ICD requires dimerization to bind WRC

During our investigation of the interaction between the HPO-30 ICD and the WRC, we

noticed that GST-tagged ICD exhibited robust binding to WRC, whereas MBP (maltose binding

protein)-tagged ICD showed much weaker binding (**Figure 3A**). Note that both constructs

contained extensive flexible linkers of at least 16 a.a. between the tag and the ICD to prevent

steric hindrance from the tag. Given that GST is a constitutive dimer while MBP is a monomer,

we hypothesized that efficient binding of the HPO-30 ICD to WRC may require dimerization.

We explored a variety of strategies to test this hypothesis. We first developed a new

WRC construct in which a dual MBP-tag, $(MBP)_2$, was tethered to the WRC. This $(MBP)_2$-WRC

would allow us to immobilize the WRC on amylose beads to pull down different monomeric vs.

dimeric forms of HPO-30 ICD. Out of three different designs of $(MBP)_2$-WRC, only the one

with an $(MBP)_2$ tag tethered to the C-terminus of Abi2 through sortase-mediated protein ligation

(Chen et al., 2011) effectively pulled down GST-HPO-30 ICD [herein referred to as WRC:Abi2-

$(MBP)_2$, **Figure 3—figure supplement 1B**], while the other two versions substantially interfered

with the interaction. One construct, WRC:$(MBP)_2$-HSPC300, has an $(MBP)_2$ tag fused to the N-

terminus of HSPC300 [which was previously used to immobilize the WRC and pull down

WIRS-containing proteins (Chen et al., 2014a)] (**Figure 3—figure supplement 1B**, lane 6 vs. 8),

and the other, WRC:$(MBP)_2$-Abi2, has $(MBP)_2$ fused to the N-terminus of Abi2 (**Figure 3—**

figure supplement 1A). Thus, it is possible the regions near the N-terminus of HSPC300 or

Abi2 are close to the HPO-30 ICD binding surface (but not the WIRS binding surface).

Using WRC:Abi2-$(MBP)_2$, we compared the binding of ICDs that carry various

monomeric vs. dimeric tags. We observed that the dimeric form of GB1-ICD [referred to as

GB1-CC-ICD, in which we inserted a homo-dimeric coiled-coil sequence between GB1 and the

ICD (O'Shea et al., 1999)] exhibited much stronger binding than the monomeric GB1-ICD

(**Figure 3B**). To rule out the possibility that the tag sequences, rather than dimerization,

influenced protein binding, we introduced chemically inducible dimerization (CID) tags, FKBP

and FRB, to the ICD (with the GB1 tag at the N-terminus) (Banaszynski et al., 2005) (**Figure**

3C). In the presence of the dimerizing agent rapamycin, GB1-FKBP-ICD and GB1-FRB-ICD

could form a tight heterodimer, as confirmed by size exclusion chromatography in the presence

and absence of rapamycin (**Figure 3—figure supplement 1C-E**). Consistent with results from

the constitutive dimeric tags, the addition of rapamycin to dimerize GB1-FKBP/FRB-ICD (F/F-

ICD for short hereafter) clearly promoted the binding of HPO-30 ICD (**Figure 3C**, lanes 2 vs. 3).

In fact, we observed robust binding of all dimeric constructs we tested, including GST-ICD,

ICD-GST, and DLC8-ICD (DLC8 is a constitutive dimer from the dynein light chain) (Wang et

al., 2003). In contrast, all monomeric constructs, including GB1-ICD, sumo-ICD, and mEGFP-

ICD exhibited very weak, if any, binding (**Figure 3 – figure supplement 2A, B**).

ICD binding relies on the dimerization tags to bring two copies of ICD in close

proximity, because a heterodimer containing only one copy of ICD (formed by mixing GB1-

FKBP-ICD with GB1-FRB tag) was unable to support binding (**Figure 3D**, lane 5-6). Similarly,

a heterodimer containing one WT ICD and one mutant ICD (alanine $\Delta 5$ mutation in Figure 1)

had weakened binding (**Figure 3—figure supplement 2F**). It is important to note that when

using the heterodimeric ICDs, we maintained the same total monomeric concentration of the WT

ICD between heterodimers and homodimers. Thus, the lack of binding from heterodimers was

due to the absence of the WT ICD dimer rather than a reduction in WT ICD concentration.

Various competition assays further support the observation that only dimeric form of the

ICD can effectively bind to WRC. For example, even when added in 5000-fold excess, the

chemically synthesized HPO-30 ICD peptide could not compete off GST-ICD binding (**Figure**

3—figure supplement 2C). In contrast, both F/F-ICD and DLC8-ICD binding to the WRC

could be effectively competed off by GST-ICD in a dose-dependent manner (**Figure 3—figure**

supplement 2D). Moreover, F/F-ICD was able to compete off GST-ICD binding to WRC only

in the presence of rapamycin, but not in its absence (**Figure 3—figure supplement 2E**, lanes 4

and 5). Taken together, our data strongly suggest that dimerization of the HPO-30 ICD is critical

for its binding to the WRC.

Figure 3. Dimerization tags enhance HPO-30 ICD binding to the WRC. (A-C) Top, schematic of monomeric

and dimeric HPO-30 ICD constructs used in pull-downs. Bottom, Coomassie blue-stained SDS-PAGE gels showing

(A) MBP-ICD or GST-ICD (200 pmol) pulling down WRC$^{230\Delta WCA}$ (200 pmol), (B) WRC:Abi2-(MBP)$_2$ (60 pmol)

pulling down GB1-ICD or GB1-CC-ICD (600 pmol), and (C) WRC:Abi2-(MBP)$_2$ (60 pmol) pulling down

FKBP/FRB-ICD in the absence or presence of rapamycin. Where it is noted, 5 μM rapamycin (or equal volume of

DMSO as a negative control) was used to induce dimerization. For clarity, GB1-FKBP-ICD and GB1-FRB-ICD

were referred to as FKBP-ICD and FRB-ICD, respectively. **(D)** Schematic of the assembly of homo- and

heterodimers of HPO-30 ICD (left) and Coomassie blue-stained SDS PAGE gels (right) showing WRC:Abi2-

(MBP)$_2$ (60 pmol) pulling down indicated homo- and heterodimers. In homo- and heterodimers, 1200 pmol of WT

ICD monomeric unit was included to ensure the total number of WT ICD molecules remained the same.

Figure 3—figure supplement 1. Protein quality control for dimerization experiments. (A) Schematic of removing (MBP)$_2$ tag from WRC:(MBP)$_2$-Abi2 by thrombin cleavage (left) and Coomassie blue-stained SDS PAGE gels (right) comparing GST-ICD (200 pmol) pulling down WRC:(MBP)$_2$-Abi2 (150 pmol) before or after removal of the (MBP)$_2$ tag. **(B)** Schematic of (MBP)$_2$-tagged WRC constructs (left) and Coomassie blue-stained SDS PAGE gels showing indicated (MBP)$_2$-tagged WRC (60 pmol) pulling down GST-ICD (600 pmol). Open arrowheads indicated pull-down signals. **(C)** Gel filtration chromatograms of equimolar GB1-FKBP-ICD and GB1-FRB-ICD in the presence or absence of 5 µM rapamycin (or equal volume of DMSO). Molecular weights determined from a

369   standard curve (see Materials and Methods) are indicated above the chromatogram. **(D)** Coomassie blue-stained

370   SDS-PAGE gels of the indicated gel filtration fractions from (C). **(E)** Gel filtration chromatograms of individual

371   GB1-FKBP-ICD and GB1-FRB-ICD proteins.

Figure 3—figure supplement 2. HPO-30 ICD binding to WRC requires dimerization tags. (A) Schematic of monomeric and dimeric HPO-30 ICD constructs used in pull-downs. **(B)** Coomassie blue-stained SDS PAGE gels showing WRC:Abi2-(MBP)$_2$ or (MBP)$_2$ (60 pmol) pulling down various monomeric and dimeric HPO-30 ICD (600 pmol) constructs indicated in (A). Where it is noted, 5 µM rapamycin (vs. equal volume of DMSO as a negative control) was used to induce dimerization. Open arrowheads indicate pull-down signals. For clarity, GB1-FKBP-ICD and GB1-FRB-ICD were referred to as FKBP-ICD and FRB-ICD, respectively. **(C)** Coomassie blue-stained SDS PAGE gel showing GST-ICD (200 pmol) pulling down WRC$^{230\Delta WCA}$ (150 pmol) in the presence of a chemically synthesized HPO-30 ICD peptide as a competitor (18-100 nmol). **(D)** Coomassie blue-stained SDS PAGE gels

showing WRC-(MBP)$_2$ (60 pmol) pulling down different dimeric HPO-30 ICD (600 pmol) in the presence of GST-

ICD as a competitor (600 to 6000 pmol). **(E)** Coomassie blue-stained SDS PAGE gel showing WRC-(MBP)$_2$ (60

pmol) pulling down ICD-GST (600 pmol) in the presence of FKBP/FRB-ICD as a competitor (600 – 6000 pmol).

(F) Coomassie blue-stained SDS PAGE gels showing WRC:Abi2-(MBP)$_2$ (60 pmol) pulling down different

combinations of homo- and heterodimers of WT and Δ5 HPO-30 ICD. In homo- and heterodimers, 1200 pmol of

WT ICD monomeric unit was included to ensure the total number of WT ICD molecules remained the same.

HPO-30 ICD can self-associate

How do dimeric tags promote ICD binding to WRC? We hypothesized that dimeric tags

facilitate ICD dimerization, and only dimerized ICD can bind to WRC. To test this hypothesis,

we first examined whether the ICD could interact with another copy of ICD, which would

indicate the potential for ICD dimerization. Indeed, we found GST-ICD effectively pulled down

MBP-ICD, indicating self-interaction **(Figure 4A)**. This is consistent with our co-

immunoprecipitation assay, which showed that HA-tagged full-length HPO-30 retained Myc-

tagged full-length HPO-30 when co-expressed in *Drosophila* S2 cells (**Figure 4—figure**

supplement 1B). The ICD-ICD interaction was readily disrupted by increased salt concentration

(not shown) or higher pH **(Figure 4—figure supplement 1A)**, suggesting that the interaction

likely involves electrostatic interactions. We further asked which region in the HPO-30 ICD was

important for the ICD-ICD interaction. Using the same alanine scan mutants as in Figure 1A, we

found that mutations in various regions impaired the ICD-ICD interaction, especially the N-

terminal (Δ1 and Δ2) and the central regions (Δ5, Δ6, and Δ7) of the ICD **(Figure 4B)**. It is

remarkable that Δ5, Δ6, and Δ7 sequences are also crucial for binding to WRC **(Figure 1B)**,

suggesting that ICD dimerization is closely linked to the WRC interaction.

Due to technical challenges, we were unable to measure the binding affinity of the ICD-

ICD interaction using intrinsic tryptophan fluorescence **(Figure 4—figure supplement 2A)**. Our

structural predictions using AlphaFold Multimer (AFM) generated several different models,

depending on the context of the ICD sequence used (**Figure 4—figure supplement 3A,B**)

(Evans et al., 2022; Jumper et al., 2021). The isolated ICD was consistently predicted to form a

homodimer (**Figure 3—figure supplement 3A**). In contrast, the full-length HPO-30 was

predicted to form two distinct dimers, one mediated by the transmembrane helix 2 (H2) and the

beta strand 4 (b4) in the extracellular domain, and the other mediated by the transmembrane

helix 3 (H3) and the first helix of the ICD (**Figure 4—figure supplement 3B**). In both

conformations, the ICD was predicted to form a long helix, without the two beta strands

predicted for the monomeric ICD (**Figure 1A**; **Figure 1—figure supplement 2**; **Figure 4—**

figure supplement 3A). All-atom MD simulations conducted on the dimeric structural models

indicate that the dimer conformations are not stable over the course of 200 ns, suggesting that the

limited helical interface between the two ICDs is not sufficient to form a stable complex **(Figure**

4—figure supplement 3C).

In summary, our data suggest that HPO-30 ICD requires dimerization to interact with the

WRC. However, before to binding the WRC, the dimerized ICD may not have a stable

quaternary structure.

Figure 4. HPO-30 ICD can self-associate. (A) Coomassie blue-stained SDS-PAGE gels showing GST-ICD (300 pmol) pulling down MBP-ICD (6000 pmol). **(B)** Representative Coomassie blue-stained SDS-PAGE gels of three independent experiments showing GST-ICD alanine mutations (shown in Figure 1A) (300 pmol) pulling down MBP-ICD (6000 pmol). **(C)** Quantification of (B). The MBP-ICD band intensity was used to quantify the pull-down signal. Signals from GST-ICD or ICD-GST pull-downs were normalized to corresponding WT ICD (lane 4 and 26, respectively). Error bars represent standard error, * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.005$, *** $p < 0.001$ from ANOVA on ranks.

Figure 4 – figure supplement 1. HPO-30 ICD can interact with itself. (A) Coomassie blue-stained SDS-PAGE gels showing GST-ICD (300 pmol) pulling down MBP-ICD (6000 pmol) at pH 6.0 (left), pH 7.0 (middle), and pH 8.0 (right). **(B)** Schematic of full-length HPO-30 constructs co-expressed in *Drosophila* S2 cells (left) and Western blot images (right) showing co-immunoprecipitation of 3xHA-tagged HPO-30 (pink arrowhead) with 6xMyc-tagged HPO-30 (orange arrowhead). Asterisks indicate light and heavy chain of antibody.

Figure 4 – figure supplement 2. Tryptophan fluorescence cannot be used to monitor the self-association of HPO-30 ICD. (A) Normalized intrinsic tryptophan fluorescence of free tryptophan (black), BSA (gray), and ICD (blue) at different concentrations. **(B)** Normalized intrinsic tryptophan fluorescence of GB1 tag (gray) and ICD (blue) at different concentrations. Note that the ICD curve is identical for both (A) and (B). ICD Trp fluorescence increases in the same manner as GB1, suggesting that the increase is not due to dimerization. **(C)** Coomassie blue-stained SDS-PAGE gels showing GST-ICD WT and various tryptophan mutants (W22X) (200 pmol) pulling down WRC[178] (200 pmol). **(D-E)** Raw intrinsic tryptophan fluorescence curves of ICD WT (solid line) and ICD WT + 250 µM ICD "black" (dashed lines) at 50 mM NaCl (D) and 200 mM NaCl (E). The increase in Trp fluorescence seen after addition of HPO-30 "black" ICD is not abolished in high salt conditions, suggesting it is non-specific to ICD-ICD dimerization.

Figure 4—figure supplement 3. Structural predictions of HPO-30 ICD self-association. (A) AlphaFold

Multimer predictions of the isolated HPO-30 ICD dimer. Protomer A secondary structure is colored using the same

scheme shown on the top right, while protomer B is shown in lighter colors. **(B)** Two distinct dimer conformations

of the full-length HPO-30 predicted by AlphaFold Multimer. **(C)** Molecular dynamics simulations of the

predicted ICD dimers using an amber-99sb-ILDN forcefield. Left, the initial structure prediction fed into the

MD simulations. Middle, the final structure after the MD simulations ended. Right, RMSD of the backbone of

the HPO-30 ICD over the course of the MD simulation, relative to the starting structure.

HPO-30 ICD inhibits actin polymerization, but promotes Rac1-mediated WRC activation

Rac1 GTPase is the canonical activator of the WRC, and various WIRS-containing receptors can further fine-tune WRC activation by Rac1 (Chen et al., 2014a), either positively or negatively. We wondered how HPO-30 ICD binding could influence WRC activity in promoting Arp2/3-mediated actin polymerization (Cooper et al., 1983; Doolittle et al., 2013a; Kouyama and Mihashi, 1981). For this, we compared the effect of monomeric and dimeric ICD on WRC activity using an optimized buffer in the pyrene-actin polymerization assay (**Figure 5—figure supplement 1A**). The chemically inducible dimerization FKBP/FRB-ICD constructs (shown in **Figure 3C**) allowed us to directly compare the monomeric vs. dimeric ICD by switching between DMSO and rapamycin, instead of using different tags (**Figure 3—supplement figure 1C, D**). Importantly, rapamycin alone did not have any effect on actin polymerization (**Figure 5—figure supplement 1B**), allowing us to focus on the effect of dimerizing HPO-30 ICD. Unexpectedly, we observed that HPO-30 ICD strongly inhibits Rac1-WRC-mediated actin polymerization (**Figure 5A**, blue vs. purple curves), with the dimerized ICD exhibiting a more potent effect (**Figure 5A**, solid vs. dashed curves). This effect was dose-dependent, with 10 µM ICD having a stronger effect than 5 µM ICD **(Figure 5—figure supplement 1D)**. In contrast, the dimerized FKBP/FRB tag at the highest concentration only had a mild effect (**Figure 5— figure supplement 1D**, grey curve). Importantly, the presence of ICD did not nonspecifically quench pyrene fluorescence from either G-actin or F-actin **(Figure 5—figure supplement 1C)**. Therefore, the observed inhibition was due to HPO-30 ICD preventing actin polymerization.

Interestingly, we noticed that the ICD inhibited actin polymerization to a level lower than the basal level of actin polymerization from Arp2/3 alone, indicating that the inhibitory effect was likely not through WRC. This is supported by our observation that the ICD similarly inhibited actin polymerization induced by the isolated, constitutively active WCA peptide, with the dimerized ICD again showing more potent inhibition (**Figure 5B**). In fact, the HPO-30 ICD was able to inhibit spontaneous actin polymerization in the absence of any activator, including the Arp2/3 complex **(Figure 5C**, **Figure 5—figure supplement 1E)**. Therefore, our data suggest that the inhibitory effect of the ICD is likely a direct effect on actin, rather than through WRC, Rac1, WCA, or Arp2/3.

The strong, WRC-independent inhibitory effect of the ICD on actin polymerization made it difficult to directly examine how ICD binding influences WRC activity. To overcome this

challenge, we reduced the ICD concentration to 1 µM to minimize its inhibitory effect. At this

concentration, we did not observe HPO-30 ICD activating WRC alone **(Figure 5D)**. Previous

studies on the WIRS-containing ICD from the cell adhesion membrane protein protocadherin 10

(PCDH10) found that the PCDH10 ICD itself could not activate WRC but could enhance WRC

activation induced by low concentrations of Rac1 (Chen et al., 2014a). We tested if HPO-30 ICD

might act similarly to PCDH10, enhancing activity when WRC is mildly activated by Rac1.

Interestingly, in this condition, we found that 1 µM monomeric ICD slightly, but robustly,

increased Rac1-WRC-mediated actin polymerization (**Figure 5E**, dashed blue vs. solid light pink

curves). Since only dimerized ICD can readily bind WRC, we speculated that the enhanced

activity was due to a small fraction of dimeric ICD existing in equilibrium with the monomeric

form (**Figure 4**, **Figure 4—figure supplement 1**). To test this hypothesis (while avoiding the

dominant inhibitory effect of rapamycin-dimerized ICD observed even at 1 µM, **Figure 5E**, solid

blue curve), we reduced the dimerized ICD concentration to 0.1 µM. Consistent with our

hypothesis, at this low concentration, the dimerized ICD similarly promoted Rac1-WRC-

medicated actin polymerization (**Figure 5E**, solid green curve). This activating effect was

specific to Rac1-activated WRC, as free WCA could not be further activated by dimerized ICD

(**Figure 5F**). Although we could not test higher concentrations of ICD due to its strong inhibitory

effect on actin polymerization, low concentrations of dimeric ICD could enhance Rac1-WRC

activity, suggesting ICD binding cooperates with Rac1 to promote WRC activation.

The cooperativity between Rac1 and the HPO-30 ICD in activating WRC suggests that

the ICD has a preference for binding to activated WRC. Supporting this hypothesis, our

equilibrium pull-down (EPD) assay showed that GST-ICD pulled down more WRC in the

presence of saturating concentrations of Rac1 (which was manifested by less WRC remaining in

the pull-down supernatant, **Figure 5— figure supplement 1G**, lane 2 vs. 4) (Yang et al., 2022).

Taken together, our data demonstrate that, while the HPO-30 ICD cannot activate the WRC by

itself, it can synergistically cooperate with Rac1 to promote WRC activation, similar to the

WIRS receptor PCDH10 (Chen et al., 2014a). Our unexpected finding that the HPO-30 ICD

strongly inhibits actin polymerization suggests that the ICD directly interacts with actin.

Figure 5. HPO-30 ICD inhibits actin polymerization but promotes Rac1-WRC activation. (A-F) Pyrene-actin polymerization assays of indicated conditions. Reactions contain 2 µM actin (10% pyrene-labeled) (A-B, D-F), 10 nM Arp2/3 complex, 100 nM WRC^{230WCA} or isolated WCA, Rac1^{QP}, indicated concentrations of equimolar GB1-FKBP-ICD and GB1-FRB-ICD, and 5 µM rapamycin or equal volume of DMSO. (C) contains 4 µM actin (5% pyrene-labeled), indicated concentration of equimolar GB1-FKBP-ICD and GB1-FRB-ICD, and 5 µM rapamycin.

Figure 5—figure supplement 1. HPO-30 ICD inhibits actin polymerization. (A) Coomassie blue-stained SDS

PAGE gels showing GST-ICD (200 pmol) pulling down WRC$^{230\Delta WCA}$ (150 pmol) in indicated buffer conditions,

with 50PDB being the buffer used in the majority of pull-down reactions herein and 50KMEI20G being the buffer

commonly used in pyrene-actin polymerization assays in previous studies of the WRC. All buffers contained 1 mM

DTT and 0.05% Triton X-100. **(B)** Pyrene-actin polymerization assays showing rapamycin and DMSO did not affect

WRC activity. Reactions contain 4 μM actin (5% pyrene-labeled), 10 nM Arp2/3 complex, 100 nM WRC^{230WCA},

Rac1^{QP}, and 5 μM rapamycin or equal volume of DMSO. **(C)** Fluorescence profiles of 4 μM actin (5% pyrene-

labeled) in the monomeric or polymerized state, with and without dimerized GB1-FKBP-ICD/GB1-FRB-ICD.

Reactions include 5 µM rapamycin. **(D)** Pyrene-actin polymerization assays of indicated conditions. Reactions

contain 2 µM actin (10% pyrene-labeled), 10 nM Arp2/3 complex, 100 nM WRC^{230WCA}, Rac1^{QP}, indicated

concentrations of equimolar GB1-FKBP-ICD and GB1-FRB-ICD, and 5 µM rapamycin or equal volume of DMSO.

Note that part of these data are also shown Figure 5A. **(E)** Left, long-term pyrene-actin polymerization assays,

containing 4 µM actin (5% pyrene-labeled), indicated concentration of equimolar GB1-FKBP-ICD and GB1-FRB-

ICD, and 5 µM rapamycin. Solid lines represent the actual data and dashed lines represent a fitted curve, using a

sixth-order polynomial fit from Excel, in order to derive reaction rate. **Right,** quantification of the actin

polymerization rate from (E) at $t_{1/2}$. **(F)** Coomassie blue-stained SDS PAGE gels (left) and quantification from three

independent repeats (right) showing the equilibrium pull-down of WRC^{230WCA} by two concentrations of ICD-GST in

the presence or absence of 40 µM Rac1^{QP}. Error bars represent standard error, * $p < 0.05$, from Student's paired t-

test.

HPO-30 ICD binds to F-actin and inhibits actin depolymerization similar to CapZ

The strong inhibitory effect of the HPO-30 ICD on actin polymerization suggests the ICD could directly bind and sequester monomeric G-actin. However, we could not detect binding between GST-ICD or dimerized F/F-ICD and G-actin (**Figure 6—figure supplement 1A, B**). We next wondered if the ICD inhibited actin polymerization by binding to F-actin. In our F-actin co-pelleting assay (Heier et al., 2017), we found that, compared to BSA, F/F tag, or the capping protein CapZ (which only binds to the barbed ends of F-actin), F/F-ICD more robustly bound to F-actin (**Figure 6A,B**). Interestingly, both the monomeric and dimeric F/F-ICD showed significant binding to F-actin (**Figure 6A,B**, blue, +DMSO vs. +Rap), although the dimeric ICD showed significantly stronger binding. This suggests that the monomeric ICD, while not as effective in inhibiting actin polymerization as the dimeric form, is also capable of binding to actin filaments. An equilibrium actin pelleting assay suggested a K_D of ~1.69 μM for the binding between the dimerized ICD and F-actin **(Figure 6—figure supplement 1C)** (Avery et al., 2017).

To identify the critical region(s) of the ICD required for its interaction with actin filaments, we introduced the same alanine scan mutations used in Figure 1 into both SNAP-tagged FKBP-ICD and FRB-ICD constructs, which we used for all subsequent actin-related experiments. Interestingly, we found that the same regions crucial for ICD's interaction with the WRC **(Figure 1B)** and with itself **(Figure 4B,C)**, including Δ1, Δ5, Δ6, and Δ7, were also the most essential for binding to F-actin **(Figure 6— figure supplement 1D,E)**.

The above data strongly suggest that the HPO-30 ICD inhibits actin polymerization by directly binding to F-actin. Proteins with similar activity include capping proteins, such as CapZ. Capping proteins bind to the barbed end of actin filaments to impede both actin polymerization and depolymerization from the barbed end (Caldwell et al., 1989; Weeds and Maciver, 1993). To test whether the HPO-30 ICD may function as a capping protein, we used a depolymerization assay that is commonly utilized to measure CapZ activity (Caldwell et al., 1989; Cooper and Pollard, 1985). We found that the ICD, like CapZ, inhibited actin depolymerization (**Figure 6C,D**). This inhibitory activity was both concentration- and dimerization-dependent, suggesting that dimerization is critical for this capping-like activity. This aligns with our observation that dimeric ICD more potently inhibited actin polymerization than monomeric ICD (**Figure 5**, **Figure 5 – figure supplement 1E**). To determine which region(s) of the ICD are important for this capping-like activity, we tested the same alanine scan mutations used in Figure 1 and Figure

583   6 – figure supplement 1D,E. As anticipated, the regions most critical for the depolymerization

584   activity of the ICD were the same as those crucial for binding to actin filaments **(Figure 6 –**

585   **figure supplement 1F-G)**. Collectively, our results suggest that the HPO-30 ICD behaves

586   analogously to capping proteins in obstructing both depolymerization and polymerization of F-

587   actin **(Figure 5**, **Figure 6)**.

Figure 6. HPO-30 ICD binds to F-actin and inhibits actin depolymerization. (A) Representative Coomassie
blue-stained SDS PAGE gels showing F-actin co-pelleting assays of indicated F/F-ICD and CapZ in the presence or
absence of 5 µM rapamycin (or equal volume of DMSO). S: supernatant, P: pellet. **(B)** Quantification of (A) from
three independent repeats, showing percentage of proteins in the pellet. Bars represent standard error, ** $p < .005$,
*** $p < 0.001$, ANOVA with Tukey test. **(C)** Representative F-actin depolymerization assay fluorescence curves of
indicated conditions. Each reaction contained 5 µM pre-polymerized actin (70% pyrene labeled), diluted 20-fold
into depolymerization buffer containing indicated proteins in the presence or absence of 5 µM rapamycin (or equal
volume of DMSO). **(D)** Quantification of the initial velocity of fluorescence curves shown in (C). Initial velocity
was normalized to F-actin alone in the presence of DMSO. Error bars represent standard error, n = 3 independent
repeats, *** $p < 0.001$, ANOVA with Tukey test.

Figure 6—figure supplement 1. HPO-30 ICD binds to F-actin, but not G-actin, and inhibits F-actin depolymerization. (A-B) Coomassie blue-stained SDS PAGE gels showing GST-ICD (200 pmol) (A) or His6-F/F-ICD (300 pmol) (B) pulling down actin or pyrene labeled actin (500 pmol) in G buffer (2 mM Tris-HCl pH 8, 0.5 mM DTT, 0.2 mM ATP, 0.1 mM CaCl$_2$, 1 mM NaN$_3$), in the presence of 5 µM rapamycin (or equal volume of DMSO). **(C)** Representative Coomassie blue-stained SDS-PAGE gel (left) and quantification (right) of three independent actin pelleting assays to determine the dissociation constant of actin binding. Data were pooled from three independent repeats and fitted to a one-site binding model using DynaFit. **(D)** Representative Coomassie blue-stained SDS-PAGE gels of actin pelleting assays using SNAP-FKBP-ICD and SNAP-FRB-ICD alanine scan mutants (as shown in Figure 1A) from three independent experiments. Both FKBP and FRB contained the same

alanine scan mutation. **(E)** Quantification of (D) from three independent repeats, showing percentage of protein in

the pellet. Bars represent standard error, *** $p < 0.001$, ANOVA with Tukey test. **(F)** Representative F-actin

depolymerization assay fluorescence curves of indicated conditions from three independent experiments. Each

reaction contained 5 μM pre-polymerized actin (70% pyrene labeled), diluted 20-fold into depolymerization buffer

containing 200 nM of the indicated proteins in the presence of 5 μM rapamycin. Assays were performed using all

ten SNAP-FKBP-ICD and SNAP-FRB-ICD alanine scan mutants (as shown in Figure 1A). Only several selected

curves are shown here for clarity. Both FKBP and FRB contained the same alanine scan mutation. **(G)**

Quantification of the initial velocity of F-actin depolymerization assays. Initial velocity was normalized to F-actin

alone in the presence of rapamycin. Error bars represent standard error, n = 3 independent repeats, * $p < 0.05$, ** $p <$

0.005, *** $p < 0.001$, ANOVA with Tukey test.

HPO-30 ICD binds to both the side and barbed end of actin filaments

In the above bulk solution assays, the binding of the ICD to F-actin was not dependent on

dimerization (**Figure 6A,B**), but its inhibition of F-actin polymerization and depolymerization

was dependent on dimerization (**Figure 5A-C, 6C,D**). This suggests that the HPO-30 ICD may

have two distinct activities on actin filaments, with only the dimerization-dependent activity

resembling that of CapZ. This hypothesis could explain why more ICD co-pelleted with F-actin

than CapZ did (**Figure 6A,B**), as CapZ only binds to the barbed end of actin filaments (albeit

with high affinity) (Caldwell et al., 1989), while the ICD may bind to both the barbed end (in a

dimerization-dependent manner) and other surfaces of the actin filaments (in a dimerization-

independent manner).

To understand how the HPO-30 ICD binds F-actin, we used single-molecule total internal

reflection fluorescence (smTIRF) microscopy to directly visualize the interaction. For this assay,

we first attached a SNAP tag to the N-terminus of various FKBP/FRB constructs or the CapZ β-

subunit, and then labeled the SNAP tag using different SNAP-Surface® AlexaFluor® dyes

(hereafter referred to as AF followed by the corresponding excitation wavelength). Actin was

directly labeled with AF647 using previously established methods (Hansen et al., 2013). We

verified that the SNAP-tagged F/F-ICDs bound to the WRC in a rapamycin-dependent manner

and to a level similar to the GB1-tagged F/F-ICD, suggesting that the SNAP tag did not affect

ICD function (**Figure 7—figure supplement 1A**, lane 1-4). The labeled CapZ and F/F-ICD

proteins exhibited capping activity comparable to their counterparts used in bulk solution assays

(except for the AF647-labeled F/F-ICD, which was subsequently excluded from smTIRF assays

described below) (**Figure 7—figure supplement 1B,C**).

In the smTIRF experiments, SNAP^{AF488}-CapZ (at 5 nM) was found to stably bind to the

barbed end of filaments, and the binding stopped filament growth (**Figure 7A** top; **7C** green;

Video 1,2), consistent with the high affinity and very slow off-rate of CapZ at the barbed end

shown in previous studies (Caldwell et al., 1989). In contrast, SNAP^{AF546}-F/F-ICD (15 nM, with

8-fold molar excess of rapamycin) mainly bound to the side of actin filaments, instead of the

barbed end (**Figure 7A** bottom; **7B**; **Video 3-4**) (see below). While we occasionally observed an

ICD appearing to bind to the barbed end of a filament (see **Figure 7A** bottom for an example, at

time 39.0 s), the filament continued to grow beyond the bound ICD, leaving the ICD bound to

the same location on the filament. We could conclude that the ICD molecule bound to the

filament and not the PEG-coated surface, because it moved together with the filament (**Video**

3,4). By using stringent criteria to prevent misidentification of nonspecific background signals as

binding events, we found that 33% of filaments had at least one binding event for SNAP-F/F-

ICD over the 15-minute duration of the experiment, which was significantly higher than the

number of events for the SNAP-F/F tag under identical conditions (**Figure 6B**).

We found it difficult to increase the concentration of fluorescently labeled ICD to

observe more barbed end binding events, as this resulted in high background in smTIRF

experiments. Therefore, we used higher concentrations of unlabeled ICD to see if it could inhibit

actin filament growth as shown in the bulk solution assays in Figure 6C,D (**Figure 7C**; **Video 5)**.

We found that 1 µM dimerized F/F-ICD significantly decreased the actin elongation rate from

2.3 ± 0.5 subunits/sec to 1.5 ± 0.3 subunits/sec (Kuhn and Pollard, 2005) (**Figure 7C**, black vs.

solid blue). The same concentration of monomeric F/F-ICD also slowed down actin elongation,

but to a lesser extent (2.0 ± 0.4 subunits/sec) (**Figure 7C**, open blue). This could be due to either

the side-binding activity of ICD or the presence of dimeric ICD in equilibrium with monomeric

ICD, which could bind to the barbed end. Importantly, dimerized F/F tag did not significantly

affect actin polymerization (2.1 ± 0.4 subunits/sec) (**Figure 7C**, grey). Unfortunately, we could

not increase the unlabeled ICD concentration further to observe stronger inhibitory effects due to

limitations in the volume of high-concentration protein stock that we could add to the microfluid

chamber. In contrast, CapZ strongly inhibited actin polymerization, even at 5 nM (0.3 ± 0.1

subunits/sec). Further examination of the kymographs of individual actin filaments revealed that

in the absence of ICD or CapZ, filaments typically grew at a uniform rate. In the presence of

dimeric F/F-ICD, filaments grew more slowly and with occasional pausing (**Figure 7E**; **Figure 7**

– figure supplement 2A,B). In the presence of CapZ, filaments exhibited almost no growth most

of the time over the course of the video (**Figure 7E**; **Figure 7 – figure supplement 2C).** Taken

together, our data suggest that HPO-30 ICD and CapZ have similar inhibitory effects on actin

filament elongation, although at the same concentration, the ICD exhibits less potent activity.

In the above smTIRF experiments, we encountered several technical challenges that

prevented us from observing stable binding of the ICD to the barbed end, in contrast to the stable

binding observed with CapZ. These challenges include: limited concentrations of fluorophore-

labeled ICD (nM, instead of µM that we could use in bulk solution assays), potential low affinity

and fast off-rate of the ICD binding to the barbed end, difficulty in distinguishing barbed end

binding from side binding due to light diffraction limit, lower than expected concentration of

dimeric ICD [the dissociation constant of FKBP-rapamycin binding to FRB is ~12 nM

(Banaszynski et al., 2005)], and fast binding/dissociation events potentially beyond the data

acquisition speed (50 or 100 ms exposure time). To further investigate whether the ICD binds to

the barbed end, we used a competition co-pelleting assay to determine if dimeric F/F-ICD could

compete with CapZ for binding to the barbed end of F-actin (**Figure 7D**). Our results showed

that the dimerized F/F-ICD, when applied at about ten times the concentration of CapZ,

significantly decreased CapZ binding by ~ 60%. In contrast, neither the monomeric F/F-ICD nor

the dimerized F/F tag had an impact on CapZ binding (**Figure 7D**). This result suggests that

dimeric ICD binds to the barbed end and can block CapZ binding, consistent with our findings

that dimeric ICD is more effective in inhibiting actin polymerization (**Figure 5A,B**) and

depolymerization (**Figure 6C,D**).

Combining our single molecule and bulk solution results, we conclude that HPO-30 ICD

monomers preferentially bind to the side of actin filaments, while dimers can bind to both the

sides and the barbed end of filaments. Only the barbed end binding by dimeric ICD can inhibit

actin filament growth in a manner similar to CapZ. These findings reveal a surprising function of

the HPO-30 ICD in directly regulating actin cytoskeletal remodeling.

Figure 7. HPO-30 ICD binds both the side and barbed end of actin filaments and slows polymerization.

(A) Examples of time lapse images from smTIRF experiments. Top: a capping event of SNAP[AF488]-CapZ (green, 5 nM) and actin[AF647] (red). Bottom: a side-binding event of SNAP[AF546]-F/F-ICD (cyan, 15 nM) and actin[AF647] (red). Note that in smTIRF time-lapses, sometimes a lag was observed between signals at the two channels. For example, in the top row, the filament and SNAP[AF488]-CapZ puncta were displaced at 69.5 s, but aligned again at 70.5 s. The lagging was due to image acquisition conditions, where, to prevent photobleaching of AF647, images in the 640 nm-channel for actin[AF647] were taken every 20 acquisitions of the 488 nm-channel for SNAP[AF488]-CapZ (see Materials and Methods). **(B)** Quantification of the frequency of side binding events from smTIRF imaging. Left: comparison of overall side binding events. Right: comparison of the percentage of filaments with 0, 1, and 2 events. Data were from three independent repeats, at least 15 filaments per video. Bars represent standard error. * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, Student's paired t-test. **(C)** Violin plot of the elongation rate of actin filaments measured by smTIRF imaging. Total number of filaments pooled from the number of independent repeats for each sample are indicated in the paratheses on top of each column, respectively. *** $p < 0.001$, ANOVA with Tukey test. **(D)** Representative Coomassie blue-stained SDS PAGE gel (left) and quantification of pelleted CapZ from three independent repeats (right) showing F-actin (2 µM) co-pelleting

with CapZ (0.6 µM), with the indicated F/F-ICD or F/F tag as a competitor (5 µM) in the presence or absence

of 5 µM rapamycin (or equivalent volume DMSO). S: supernatant, P: pellet. Bars represent standard error, **

$p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$, ANOVA with Tukey test. **(E)** Left, representative traces of actin filament length

determined manually from individual frames. Filaments were chosen that were the closest to the average rate

of elongation, with one additional filament for the ICD reactions with a reduced elongation rate. Right,

kymographs of the filaments displayed on the left.

Figure 7—figure supplement 1. SNAP tag and fluorophore-labeling did not affect HPO-30 ICD function.

(A) Coomassie blue-stained SDS PAGE gel showing WRC:Abi2-(MBP)$_2$ (60 pmol) pulling down GB1-tagged vs. SNAP-tagged HPO-30 ICD (600 pmol) in the presence or absence of 5 μM rapamycin. **(B)** SDS PAGE gels of SNAP-tag labeling of CapZ, FKBP-ICD, and FKBP tag with indicated SNAP-Surface© AlexaFluor© dyes. Left: UV light with Alexa-488 filter. Right: Coomassie blue stain. **(C)** Relative initial velocities from actin depolymerization assays of SNAP-Alexa labeled proteins, in conditions identical to Figure 6C,D.

734 **Figure 7—figure supplement 2. HPO-30 ICD affects actin polymerization rate. (A-C)** Left, representative

735 traces of actin filament length determined manually from individual frames. Displayed are filaments that were

736 the closest to the average rate of elongation. Right, kymographs of the filaments displayed on the left.

Discussion

HPO-30 is a claudin-like membrane protein with a crucial role in higher order dendrite branching in *C. elegans* PVD neurons (Smith et al., 2013; Tang et al., 2019; Zou et al., 2018, 2015). At branching sites, HPO-30 forms a co-receptor with the cell-adhesion transmembrane protein DMA-1, which together transduce extracellular signals (from the epidermal proteins SAX-7, MNR-1, and muscle secreted LECT-2) to the intracellular actin cytoskeleton (**Figure 8**, left). Previous studies showed that this process required the HPO-30 intracellular domain (ICD) to bind to the WRC, which in turn could activate Arp2/3 to generate branched actin networks to deform the membrane and promote new dendrite formation (Zou et al., 2018). In this study, our multifaceted analyses reveal two novel mechanisms employed by the HPO-30 ICD to regulate local actin dynamics. First, the ICD undergoes dimerization to bind the WRC, which, in addition to recruiting the WRC to local dendrite branching sites, can cooperate with Rac1 to enhance WRC activation (**Figure 8**, step 2). This mechanism can work synergistically with DMA-1, as the cytoplasmic tail of DMA-1 directly recruits the Rac-GEF, TIAM1, which would increase the local concentration of active GTP-Rac1 (Zou et al., 2018). Second, the HPO-30 ICD directly binds to actin filaments to modulate actin dynamics, with monomeric and dimeric forms binding to the side of filaments, and the dimeric ICD alone binding to the barbed end to inhibit both actin polymerization and depolymerization, similar to CapZ activity (**Figure 8**, step 1 and 2). These seemingly contradictory actin regulatory mechanisms may enable exquisite control of local actin dynamics necessary for dendrite branching (**Figure 8**, right, and see discussion below).

HPO-30 presents a unique example of a transmembrane protein capable of interacting with the WRC, distinct from the previously identified WIRS peptide-containing receptors such as SYG-1, Robo, DCC, Neogenin, TMEM132, neuroligins, and various protocadherins (Chaudhari et al., 2021; Chia et al., 2014; Fan et al., 2018; Lee et al., 2016; Wang et al., 2021; Xing et al., 2018). Unlike these receptors, the HPO-30 ICD does not use a WIRS motif or a similar short peptide motif to bind WRC. Instead, our structure-function analyses show that the entire ICD sequence is necessary for binding to the WRC, and dimerization of the ICD is crucial for this interaction. This novel WRC-binding mechanism should be conserved across animals, as the HPO-30 ICD is present only in nematodes but can bind to both *C. elegans* and human WRCs (Zou et al., 2018). Thus, HPO-30 represents a new class of transmembrane proteins that interact

with the WRC using a distinct mechanism from the WIRS-containing receptors identified

previously (Chen et al., 2014a).

Without a high-resolution structure of the ICD complexed with WRC, the exact

conformation that the ICD adopts and how dimerization mediates WRC binding remain to be

determined. Our computational and biophysical analyses consistently indicate that the

monomeric ICD contains transient helical structure, but it is overall predominantly disordered in

solution. Two possible mechanisms could explain how the ICD binds to WRC and why

dimerization appears important for the interaction. In the first mechanism, the ICD may have one

binding surface on the WRC. The dimerized ICD acts as one structural entity, which undergoes

induced folding and adopts a stable conformation to bind the WRC. Induced folding has been

proposed for many DNA-binding proteins and cell-signaling molecules, such as the interaction

between E-cadherin and ß-catenin or between *Tg*IST and STAT1 (Dyson and Wright, 2002;

Huang et al., 2022; Huber et al., 2001; Huber and Weis, 2001; Turjanski et al., 2008). In the

second mechanism, the ICD may have two separate binding surfaces on the WRC. Dimerization

tags attached to the ICD provide an avidity effect that promotes simultaneous binding of two

copies of ICD to the two surfaces on the same WRC. Because ICD can directly bind to another

ICD, we favor the first mechanism, but our data cannot rule out the second mechanism. The

above two mechanisms can also explain how the ICD binds to the barbed end of actin filaments

in a dimerization-dependent manner. Regardless of which mechanism is used, it is likely the ICD

adopts two distinct conformations when binding to WRC vs. binding to the barbed end of F-

actin. Such structural plasticity has been observed for signaling molecules with versatile

functions (Bürgi et al., 2016; Dishman and Volkman, 2018; Okuda et al., 2022). Resolving the

high-resolution structures and identifying the key residues responsible for each binding event

would allow us to differentiate the two functions of HPO-30 ICD more precisely.

The requirement of ICD dimerization for both WRC-binding and F-actin capping

suggests an intriguing mechanism of how HPO-30 regulates actin remodeling at dendrite

branching sites. Clustering of membrane receptors is a common mechanism to increase local

signaling molecule concentration (Johannes et al., 2018). The enrichment of HPO-30 at

developing PVD neuron dendrites correlates with the high level of F-actin in these branches (Zou

et al., 2018). In addition to increasing its local membrane density, clustering of HPO-30 may

facilitate dimerization of its ICD, which can in turn activate its ability to recruit the WRC and

cap actin filaments. This dimerization-mediated functional switch can help the cell to distinguish

signal from noise and achieve sharp spatiotemporal control of actin polymerization in response

to upstream stimuli. It is worth noting that the regions of the ICD that most dramatically affect its

ability to interact with another ICD are the same regions that are most important for binding to

WRC and binding/capping F-actin. This again support the idea that dimerization (or

oligomerization) is key to ICD function.

Our study indicates that the HPO-30 ICD has two functions upon binding to the WRC: 1)

recruiting the WRC to dendrite branching site membranes and 2) enhancing WRC activation by

Rac1. This dual action of binding and sensitizing the WRC has been observed in several WIRS-

containing receptors, such as PCDH10 and PCDH19, where WIRS peptide binding recruits the

receptor to the membrane while weak interactions from the flanking ICD sequences promote

WRC activation by Rac1 (Chen et al., 2014a). Since the HPO-30 ICD strongly inhibits actin

polymerization, it will be important to develop new assays to directly measure WRC activation,

such as tracking WCA release, to understand how HPO-30 ICD binding enhances WRC

activation by Rac1. As Rac1 activates the WRC by binding to two distinct sites located on the

Sra1 subunit (Chen et al., 2017; Ding et al., 2022a), it is possible that HPO-30 ICD promotes

Rac1-WRC activation by directly stabilizing Rac1 binding to either site or by destabilizing WCA

sequestration.

To our knowledge, HPO-30 represents the first transmembrane protein that possesses

actin capping (or capping-like) activity. The precise structural mechanism of how the dimeric

HPO-30 ICD binds to the barbed end of actin filaments remains to be determined. It is possible

that it binds to the same surface as CapZ. Alternatively, it might bind to a nearby surface that

could either sterically clash with or allosterically destabilize CapZ binding. Regardless, the dual

abilities of HPO-30 to promote WRC membrane recruitment and activation while also capping

actin filaments and inhibiting actin polymerization may seem contradictory at first glance.

However, capping activity, which is usually provided by cytosolic capping proteins like CapZ, is

known to be critical for Arp2/3-based actin dynamics in both bead motility assays *in vitro* and

many processes *in vivo* (Akin and Mullins, 2008; Miyoshi et al., 2006). Capping proteins can

stop long actin filament growth and simultaneously reserve G-actin by blocking its access to

barbed ends (Carlier and Pantaloni, 1997). In parallel, capping protein can also prevent the

barbed end from sequestering the WH2 sequence of WCA, which would otherwise deplete the

activity of WASP-family proteins (Co et al., 2007; Higgs et al., 1999). Together, by blocking the

barbed end, the capping activity stimulates the formation of new branches through Arp2/3 and

thus plays a crucial role in dynamically modulating the actin architecture to generate force

against the surface where actin is localized (Akin and Mullins, 2008; Funk et al., 2021) (**Figure**

8, step 2). In principle, the capping activity of the HPO-30 ICD should act similarly to stimulate

the formation of a highly branched actin network. Although the isolated ICD has apparently

lower capping activity compared to the canonical capping protein CapZ, it has the advantage of

concentrating the capping activity in the area immediately next to membranes, which can provide

a more focused control of actin dynamics.

In summary, our study establishes HPO-30 as a novel membrane receptor that, upon

dimerization, can directly integrate the activities of WRC-Arp2/3-mediated actin polymerization

and actin filament capping, distinguishing it from other WIRS-containing receptors and

canonical barbed end cappers like CapZ. These two distinct functions of HPO-30 provide an

intriguing model to explain how it regulates local actin dynamics to facilitate dendrite branching

in PVD neurons (**Figure 8**). The synergistic action of both functions would promote the

formation of highly branched actin networks, which help generate dendritic "swellings" observed

in PVD neurons immediately before dendrite branch outgrowth (**Figure 8**, step 3) (Shi et al.,

2021). This mechanism likely works in conjunction with other actin machinery in the cell to

achieve highly spatiotemporally controlled actin dynamics and neuronal cell branching.

Figure 8. HPO-30 ICD integrates two distinct mechanisms to regulate actin dynamics during dendrite branching. Left, in *C. elegans* PVD neurons, a variety of molecules work together with the HPO-30/DMA-1 co-receptor to link extracellular signals to the intracellular actin network critical for driving dendrite branching. Right, model of how HPO-30 ICD modulates actin dynamics. In (1), HPO-30 on the dendrite membrane undergoes dimerization (or oligomerization). Both monomeric and dimeric forms of HPO-30 ICD can bind to the side of actin filaments, but only the dimeric ICD can bind to the fast-growing barbed end. In (2), dimeric ICD binding to the barbed end acts as a capping protein, which stops long filament growth and helps reserve G-actin for the Arp2/3 complex to produce short, branched actin filaments. In (2), dimeric ICD can also interact with the WRC. This recruits the WRC to the membrane and simultaneously promotes WRC activation by Rac1, which in turn stimulates Arp2/3 to produce branched actin filaments. In (3), the dual actions of HPO-30 ICD facilitate the formation of branched actin networks, which can help generate the "swelling" of dendrite observed in previous studies (Shi et al., 2021), an important indicator of the outgrowth of a new dendrite branch.

Materials and Methods

Protein expression and purification

See Supplementary File 1 for amino acid sequences of recombinant proteins used in this

study. HPO-30 ICD proteins (and their associated alanine-scan mutants), including GST-ICD,

ICD-GST, DLC8-ICD-His6, GB1-ICD-His6, His9-sumo-ICD, MBP-ICD, GST-ICD-mEGFP,

GB1-FKBP-ICD-His6, GB1-FRB-ICD-His6, GB1-FKBP-His6, GB1-FRB-His6, SNAP-FKBP-

ICD-His6, SNAP-FRB-ICD-His6, SNAP-FKBP-His6, and SNAP-FRB-His6, as well as other

related proteins, including MBP-WAVE1 (1-230), MBP-WAVE1 (1-230)-WCA, MBP-WAVE1

(1-178), MBP-Abi2 (1-158), MBP-HSPC300, (MBP)$_2$-Abi2 (1-158), (MBP)$_2$-HSPC300, and

Rac1$^{Q61L/P29S}$ Δ4 (herein referred to as Rac1^{QP}), were individually expressed in Arctic Express

(DE3) RIL (Agilent) or BL21 (DE3) T1^R (Sigma) cells after induction with 0.5-1 mM IPTG at

10 °C or 18 °C for 16 hours. His10-SNAP-CapZ β and CapZ α were expressed together from the

pCDFDuet vector (Novagen) in Arctic Express (DE3) RIL (Agilent) cells after induction with

0.75 mM IPTG at 10 °C for 16 hours. GST-ICD or ICD-GST (and alanine-scan mutants) and

GST-mEGFP were purified through Glutathione Sepharose beads (GE Healthcare), followed by

cation exchange chromatography using a Source 15S column (GE Healthcare) at pH 7.0. The

GST-ICD tryptophan mutations ("black" W22X) were purified through Glutathione Sepharose

beads (GE Healthcare), followed by dialysis into pull-down buffer containing 100 mM NaCl.

MBP-ICD (and associated W22R "black" mutant) was purified through amylose resin (New

England Biolabs), followed by cation exchange chromatography using a Source 15S column (GE

Healthcare) at pH 7.0. The GST tag from GST-ICD-mEGFP and the MBP tag from MBP-ICD

were removed using TEV cleavage at 4 °C overnight, followed by cation exchange

chromatography using a Source 15S column (GE Healthcare) at pH 7.0. DLC8-ICD-His6, GB1-

ICD-His6, His9-sumo-ICD, GB1-FKBP-ICD-His6 (and associated alanine mutants), GB1-FRB-

ICD-His6 (and associated alanine mutants), GB1-FKBP-His6, GB1-FRB-His6, GB1-His6, GB1-

homoCC-ICD-His6, SNAP-FKBP-ICD-His6, SNAP-FRB-ICD-His6, SNAP-FKBP-His6, and

SNAP-FRB-His6 were purified through Ni-NTA Agarose resin (Qiagen), followed by cation

exchange chromatography using a Source 15S column (GE Healthcare) at pH 7.0. The SNAP-

FKBP-ICD-His6 and SNAP-FRB-ICD-His6 alanine mutants were purified through Ni-NTA

Agarose resin (Qiagen), followed by dialysis into 50KMEH5Gd. GST-ICD, ICD-GST, DLC8-

ICD-His6, GB1-ICD-His6, His6-sumo-ICD, ICD-mEGFP, untagged ICD, untagged ICD W22R,

GB1-FKBP-ICD-His6 (and associated alanine mutants), GB1-FRB-ICD-His6 (and associated

alanine mutants), GB1-FKBP-His6, GB1-FRB-His6, GB1-His6, GB1-homoCC-ICD-His6,

SNAP-FKBP-ICD-His6, SNAP-FRB-ICD-His6, SNAP-FKBP-His6, SNAP-FRB-His6 were

further purified through a Superdex 75 column (GE Healthcare). His10-SNAP-CapZ β and CapZ

α were purified through Ni-NTA Agarose resin (Qiagen), followed by anion exchange

chromatography using a Source 15Q column (GE Healthcare) at pH 8.0 and size exclusion

chromatography on a Superdex 200 column (GE Healthcare). Rac1$^{QP}\Delta$4 was purified by an SP-

Sepharose Fast Flow column (GE Healthcare) at pH 7.0 followed by size exclusion

chromatography through a Superdex 75 column.

MBP-WAVE1, MBP-Abi2, MBP-HSPC300, (MBP)$_2$-Abi2, and (MBP)$_2$-HSPC300

proteins were purified through amylose beads (New England Biolabs). The Sra1/Nap1 dimer was

obtained by co-expressing His6-Sra1 and untagged Nap1 in Tni insect cells (Expression

Systems), followed by purification through Ni-NTA agarose resin (Qiagen) and anion exchange

chromatography using a Source 15Q column at pH 8.0. Pentameric WRC was assembled and

purified following previously described protocols (Chen et al., 2014b, 2010). Briefly,

individually purified WAVE1, Abi2, and HSPC300 subunits were mixed at equimolar ratio in

the presence of 1% (w/v) NP40 and incubated on ice for 48 hours. The assembled trimer was

then purified by anion exchange chromatography through a Source 15Q column at pH 8.0 and

cation exchange chromatography by a Source 15S column at pH 6.0. Dimer and trimer were

mixed at equimolar ratio and incubated on ice for 30 min. The assembled pentamer was purified

on amylose beads (NEB), after which the MBP and His6 tags were cleaved using TEV protease

incubation overnight. The pentamer was further purified using anion exchange chromatography

through a Source 15Q column at pH 8.0 and size exclusion chromatography using a Superdex

200 column.

Actin was purified as previously described from rabbit muscle acetone powder from Pel-

Freeze (Spudich and Watt, 1971). Actin was labeled by pyrene or Alexa Fluor® 647 after

polymerization at 4 °C, using a 10-fold or 2-fold excess dye, respectively. Actin and pyrene-

labeled actin used in actin polymerization and depolymerization assays were kept in continuous

dialysis at 4 °C, with buffer changes twice a week. Actin and Alexa Fluor® 647-labeled actin

used in smTIRF experiments were kept at 4 °C away from light for up to two weeks.

Generation of WRC-(MBP)$_2$

To create WRC:Abi2-(MBP)$_2$, the sortase ligation sequence, LPGTG, was genetically

fused to the C-terminus of MBP-Abi2 (1-158). Meanwhile, a TEV site was added to the N-

terminus of an (MBP)$_2$ tag, which after Tev cleavage would expose a Gly required for sortase

ligation. MBP-Abi2 (1-158)-LPGTG was expressed, purified, and incorporated into the WRC as

described above to create WRC-LPGTG. GG-2MBP was expressed in Arctic Express (DE3) RIL

(Agilent) cells after induction with 0.75 mM IPTG at 10 °C for 16 hours, purified on amylose

resin, and subjected to TEV cleavage overnight, followed by anion exchange chromatography

using a Source 15Q column (GE Healthcare). Sortase5M (sortase A pentamutant) was a gift from

David Liu (Addgene plasmid # 75144), expressed in Arctic Express (DE3) RIL (Agilent) cells,

purified over Ni-NTA agarose resin, followed by cation exchange using a Source 15S column

(GE Healthcare) and size exclusion chromatography using a Superdex 75 column (GE

Healthcare) (Chen et al., 2011). WRC-LPGTG (1 µM) was mixed with GG-MBP (25 µM) and

sortase (10 µM) in 50 mM Tris pH 7.5, 150 mM NaCl, and 10 mM CaCl$_2$ and left at room

temperature for two hours. The reaction was quenched by adding 25 mM EGTA, and the WRC-

(MBP)$_2$ was purified over a Superdex 200 column to separate the WRC-(MBP)$_2$ from unligated

molecules and sortase.

Regular pull-down assay

GST pull-down assays were performed as previously described (Shi et al., 2021). Briefly,

20 µL of GSH-Sepharose beads were mixed with bait protein and prey protein in 1 mL of pull-

down buffer (50 mM NaCl, 10 mM HEPES pH 7.0, 5% (w/v) glycerol, 5 mM 2-

mercaptoethanol, and 0.05% Triton X-100). For reactions at alternative pH values, either 10 mM

MES pH 6.0 or 20 mM Tris pH 8.0 was used in place of HEPES. The samples were mixed at 4

°C for 30 minutes, washed three times with 1 mL of pull-down buffer, and eluted with 40 µL of

elution buffer containing 30 mM reduced glutathione and 100 mM Tris pH 8.5. MBP pull-down

assays were performed like GST pull-down assays, except that 20 µL of amylose resin was used,

and elution buffer included 2% (w/v) maltose. His-tagged pull-down assays were performed as

above, used 20 µL of Ni-NTA agarose resin, G-Buffer (2 mM Tris HCl pH 8.0, 200 µM ATP,

0.5 mM DTT, 0.1 mM CalCl$_2$, and 1mM NaN$_3$) as the wash buffer. The elution buffer contained

500 mM imidazole pH 7.0. In all pull-down assays, the eluate was examined by SDS-PAGE and

Coomassie blue staining. In all pull-down assays using FKBP and FRB, rapamycin was added to

5 µM final concentration in all buffers. In control reactions, the same volume of DMSO was

added in place of rapamycin.

For the WRC alanine scan pull-down quantification (**Figure 1B**), the intensity of the Sra1

and Nap1 bands were quantified using ImageJ. The intensity from the GST control lane was

subtracted from the alanine protein lane, and the corrected intensity was divided by the intensity

of the GST-ICD band. This ratio was then divided by the ratio of the wild type HPO-30 lane. For

the MBP-ICD alanine scan pull-down quantification (**Figure 4A**), the intensity of the MBP-ICD

band was quantified using ImageJ and divided by the intensity of the GST-ICD band. The ratio

of the GST control was then subtracted from the ICD ratio. The corrected ratio was then set

relative to the WT ICD lane. For both the WRC and MBP-ICD alanine scan pulldowns, ANOVA

on Ranks and Dunn-Tukey tests were performed to determine significance.

Equilibrium pull-down (EPD) assay

Equilibrium pull-down assays were performed as previously described (Chen et al.,

2017). Briefly, 60 µL of GSH-Sepharose beads (50% slurry equilibrated in pull-down buffer)

were mixed with 0.1 µM WRC and various amounts of GST-tagged protein (from 0.01 µM to 30

µM) and brought to 100 µL final reaction volume using pull-down buffer (composition the same

as in GST pull-down assays, above). The reactions were allowed to mix for 30 min at 4 °C, and

four reactions at a time were spun at 15 krpm for 15 seconds. The supernatant was removed and

examined by SDS-PAGE and Coomassie blue staining. Each assay was repeated 3 times. The

Sra1/Nap1 intensity was quantified using ImageJ to calculate the fractional occupancy. The data

from all repeats were pooled and globally fitted in DynaFit using a single binding site model

(Kuzmic, 1996).

Size exclusion chromatography analysis

GB1-FKBP-ICD and GB1-FRB-ICD were mixed at equimolar ratio and loaded onto a

24-mL Superdex 200 column (GE healthcare) equilibrated in 100 mM NaCl, 10 mM HEPES pH

7.0, 5% (w/v) glycerol, and 1 mM DTT, with or without 5 µM rapamycin. Molecular weight was

determined by running molecular weight standards (Sigma Cat # MWGF200-1KT) in identical

buffer as the ICD proteins and generating a standard curve from the elution volumes.

Pyrene-actin polymerization assay

Pyrene-actin polymerization assays were performed as previously described (Doolittle et

al., 2013a). Actin was purified and pyrene-labeled as described above and kept in continuous

dialysis in G-Buffer (2 mM Tris-HCl pH 8, 0.5 mM DTT, 0.2 mM ATP, 0.1 mM $CaCl_2$, 1 mM

NaN_3) that was changed twice a week. Arp2/3 was purified following existing protocols and kept

aliquoted at -80°C (Doolittle et al., 2013b). All proteins except for the WRC and Arp2/3 were

purified into 50KMEH5Gd (50 mM KCl, 1 mM $MgCl_2$, 1 mM EGTA, 10 mM HEPES pH 7.0,

5% [w/v] glycerol, 1 mM DTT) and stored at -80°C. WRC230VCA was purified into

100KMEI20Gd (100 mM KCl, 10 mM Imidazole pH 7.0, 20% [w/v] glycerol) and kept at -80°C.

Unless otherwise noted, a typical reaction contained 2 μM actin with 10% pyrene labeled, 10 nM

Arp2/3, 100 nM WRC^{230WCA} or free WCA, and /or 0.4 μM $Rac1^{QP}\Delta4$, and/or additional ICD

ligands to be analyzed, with or without 5 μM rapamycin or an equivalent volume of DMSO. For

reactions in Figure 5C, reactions contained 4 μM actin with 5% pyrene labeling, with 5 μM

rapamycin. The excitation and emission wavelengths were set to 365 nm and 407 nm,

respectively, and data was collected every 2 seconds for 30 minutes. Pyrene quenching assays

(Figure 5 – figure supplement 1C) were performed by mixing 4 μM actin with 5% pyrene

labeling, either in the monomeric state or pre-polymerized by the addition of 50KMEH5Gd, with

ICD and monitoring fluorescence over time. The long-term actin assays (Figure 5 – figure

supplement 1 E) were assembled the same as for Figure 5C, but data was collected every two

minutes over the course of 16 hours. The polymerization rate at $t_{1/2}$ was obtained by programs at

https://biochempy.bb.iastate.edu/, which uses the same algorithm as described in (Padrick et al.,

2008). Data were collected on a TECAN SPARK plate reader.

1010

Actin depolymerization assay

1011

Actin depolymerization assays were performed as previously described, with some

modifications (Heiss and Cooper, 1991). Actin at ~20 μM and 70% pyrene-labeling was pre-

polymerized at room temperature overnight by addition of 1 mM $MgCl_2$ and 50 mM KCl. For

each depolymerization reaction, actin was diluted to 5 μM in one pooled mixture, either alone or

with proteins to be tested, and left for 3 minutes at room temperature to allow for protein

binding. Protein at the same concentration was prepared in a second, separate mixture. After 3

minutes, the actin was further diluted 20-fold by the addition of the second mixture. All proteins

were diluted into depolymerization buffer, which is 3 parts G-Buffer and 1 part 50KMEH5Gd

(see above for buffer composition). The excitation and emission wavelengths were set to 365 nm

and 407 nm, respectively. Data were collected on a TECAN SPARK plate reader. To calculate

the relative initial velocity, the slope for the first 30 seconds of the reaction was calculated and

divided by the slope of the actin control. ANOVA on Ranks and Dunn-Tukey tests were

performed to determine significance.

1025

Circular dichroism (CD) measurement

Untagged HPO-30 ICD was purified into 100 mM NaCl, 10 mM HEPES pH 7.0, 5%

(w/v) glycerol, and 1 mM DTT. The same buffer was used to dissolve BSA powder (Fisher Cat #

BP1600-100) and to blank the CD spectrometer. The blank buffer was degassed by sonication

for 3 minutes at 30% power. Data were collected on a MOS-500 circular dichroism spectrometer

using an ALX250 lamp. Data were collected for wavelengths between 190 nm and 260 nm, with

a 1 nm step, 0.5 s acquisition period, and averaged over three repeats. Mean residue ellipticity

was calculated as described previously (Greenfield, 2006). Data for BSA and HPO-30 were

collected at the same concentration of protein. TMAO was dissolved to 3 M in the same buffer as

HPO-30 and was added to the appropriate concentration before measurement. Separate buffer

blanks containing the same concentration of TMAO were measured to ensure TMAO alone did

not contribute to the spectrum.

1038

Nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) spectroscopy

Isotopically labeled proteins were expressed and purified as described for non-labeled

proteins, using minimal media containing either N^{15} NH_4Cl or N^{15} NH_4Cl and C^{13} glucose

instead of traditional media. Proteins were purified into 100 mM NaCl, 10 mM HEPES pH 7.0,

5% (w/v) glycerol, 1 mM DTT and were supplemented with 10% D_2O. Protein concentration

ranged from 70 µM (GB1 tag) to 850 µM (GB1-ICD). GB1 tag was produced by thrombin

cleavage of GB1-ICD and removal of ICD using nickel-NTA resin (Qiagen). NMR spectra were

collected on a Bruker 700 MHz spectrometer at Iowa State University equipped with z-shielded

gradient triple resonance 5 mm TCI cryoprobe. 2D ^1H-^{15}N TROSY-HSQC and ^1H-^{15}N HSQC

experiments were recorded with a time domain matrix consisting of 100* (t_1, ^{15}N) × 1024* (t_2,

[1]H) complex points with acquisition time of 50 ms (t_1) and 91.8 ms (t_2) using 16 scans per FID

and 1.5 s interscan delay. Spectral widths for ^{1}H and ^{15}N dimensions were set to 15.9 and 28.2

ppm, respectively, with carriers set at 4.821 ppm (^{1}H) and 119.138 ppm (^{15}N). Sequential

[1]H/^{15}N/^{13}C backbone assignments of the ICD were achieved using conventional 3D triple

resonance correlation experiments [HNCO, HNCA, and HN(CO)CA] at 700 MHz. Secondary

[13]Cα chemical shifts were calculated using Poulsen's random coil database with corrections for

pH, temperature, and neighbor amino acid correction (Kjaergaard et al., 2011; Kjaergaard and

Poulsen, 2011). All spectra were processed using NMRPipe (Delaglio et al., 1995) and displayed

with SPARKY (Lee et al., 2015).

1058

Fluorophore labeling of proteins

SNAP-tagged proteins were labeled with SNAP-Surface® Alexa Fluor® 488, SNAP-

Surface® Alexa Fluor® 546, and SNAP-Surface® Alexa Fluor® 647 (New England Biolabs).

Protein (5 µM) and dye (10 µM) were mixed and allowed to react in 50KMEH5Gd at room

temperature for 2 hours. Labeled proteins were desalted into 50KMEH5Gd buffer and

concentrated. Extinction coefficients of fluorophores were calculated from a standard curve and

are as follows: Alexa 488 at 495 nm, 95000 $M^{-1}*cm^{-1}$; Alexa 546 at 556 nm, 120000 $M^{-1}*cm^{-1}$;

Alexa 647 at 650 nm, 255000 $M^{-1}*cm^{-1}$. Protein labeling efficiency was calculated by dividing

protein concentration by dye concentration—for Alexa Fluor® 488 the labeling efficiency was

estimated at ~100%, for Alexa Fluor® 546 the labeling efficiency was estimated at ~60%.

1069

smTIRF data collection

All time lapses were collected on a Nikon TE2000-E inverted microscope equipped with

a 100x 1.49 NA TIRF objective and a TIRF Quad filter cube (Chroma C141789), using an Andor

iXon3 EM-CCD (DU-897-CS0) camera, with a GATACA iLas system to prevent uneven

illumination. Coverslips were prepared as described previously with slight modifications

(Narvaez-Ortiz and Nolen, 2022). Briefly, glass coverslips (VWR Cat # 48393-241) were

cleaned with 2% (w/v) Hellmanex, acetone, and 1 M KOH solutions with sonication, and rinsed

extensively with DI water before each step and after the KOH treatment. Coverslips were rinsed

with methanol and dried using a N_2 gas stream. GOPTES (Fisher Cat # G0210100G) was added

to the coverslips, which were then baked at 75°C for 30 minutes. Coverslips were rinsed with

microscope-grade acetone and dried with N_2 gas stream. A 2% (w/w) Biotin-PEG3000/NH2-

PEG3000 mixture of powder (Rapp Polymere GmbH) was prepared, placed on top of the

coverslips, and the coverslips baked overnight at 75°C. After overnight baking, the coverslips

were washed with water and dried with N_2 gas. Individual wells were made by placing

functionalized coverslips on Ibidi® sticky-Slide IV 0.4 slides (Ibidi Cat # 80608). Individual

lanes were prepared for microscopy by incubating with 5% (w/v) Pluronic F-127 for 10 min at

RT, followed by either 100 nM (for elongation rate analysis) or 35 nM (for side binding analysis)

neutravidin incubation (in 50 mM Tris pH 7.5, 200 mM NaCl, referred to as LS TBS for short)

for 10 min at RT, and either 10 nM (for elongation rate analysis) or 3.5 nM (for side binding

analysis) biotinylated myosin (in LS TBS) incubation for 10 min at RT. The chambers were

washed with 20 mg/mL BSA in 50 mM Tris pH 7.5, 600 mM NaCl, and incubated with 20

mg/mL BSA in LS TBS for 10 min at RT. Actin was diluted to a final concentration of 2.1 μM

with 20% Alexa-647 labeling in 1X TIRF buffer (final concentrations: 50 mM KCl, 2 mM

$MgCl_2$, 2 mM EGTA pH 8.0, 10 mM Imidazole pH 7.0, 25 mM glucose, 1 mM Trolox, 0.5%

methylcellulose (400 cP), 20 mM 2-mercaptoethanol, 0.4 mM ATP, 20 mg/mL BSA, 0.02

mg/mL catalase, 0.1 mg/mL glucose oxidase, 1 mM 4-nitrobenzyl alcohol, and 0.5 mM propyl

gallate) and allowed to polymerize on the slide for 5 minutes at room temperature. Excess actin

was removed by two washes, each time using 40 μL of 1X TIRF buffer. A separate mixture of 1

μM actin with 20% Alexa-647 labeling containing desired proteins in 1X TIRF buffer was then

added to the wells to start data acquisition. Time lapse images were acquired using the following

setups. Experiments involving unlabeled HPO-30 ICD and CapZ for elongation rate analysis of

actin[AF647]: 640-nm laser, 5% power, 50 ms exposure time, and a 5-s interval between exposures;

experiments involving CapZ[AF488]: 488-nm laser (15% power, 50 ms exposure time) and 640-nm

laser (5% power, 50 ms exposure time), alternating between 20 consecutive exposures in the

488-nm channel for CapZ[AF488] and one exposure in the 640-nm channel for actin[AF647], with a

500-ms interval between exposures; experiments involving HPO-30 ICD[AF546]: 561-nm laser

(10% power, 50 or 100 ms exposure time) and 640-nm laser (5% power, 50 ms exposure time),

alternating between 20 consecutive exposures in the 561-nm channel for ICD[AF546] and one

exposure in the 640-nm channel for actin[AF647], with a 500-ms interval between exposures.

1109

smTIRF data processing - actin elongation rate measurement

Time lapses were opened in ImageJ and the background removed using a rolling ball radius of 10

pixels. The length of actin filaments was calculated using the Filament Length ImageJ plugin,

kindly provided by Jeff Kuhn, using a Gaussian-Radius of 1.5-2, determined for each individual

movie (Kuhn and Pollard, 2005). The length (in microns) was converted to subunits using the

established value of 370 actin subunits / µm (Huxley and Brown, 1967). Time points were taken

from the NIS Elements software. Filaments were only selected if they were present within the

first 10 frames of the movie and did not leave the frame during the course of the video. 10 time

points were selected and the length at each point was calculated, and the average slope was used

for the actin elongation rate. ANOVA with Dunn-Tukey tests were used to determine

significance.

1121

smTIRF data processing - side-binding/capping analysis

Time lapses were opened in ImageJ and the background removed using a rolling ball radius

of 10 pixels. Only filaments present at the beginning of the videos and those that did not leave

the frame during the duration of the video were selected. Analysis was performed in a single-

blinded manner. Side binding events were determined if they met the following criteria: 1) the

ICD/empty tag puncta must be present for more than one frame; 2) the ICD/empty tag puncta

must move with the filament at least once; 3) the filament must not move away from the

ICD/empty tag puncta; 4) the HPO-30/vector puncta must be smaller than a circle with a radius

of 4 pixels. Capping events were confirmed by the absence of growth with puncta present and, if

available, growth from the end capped after the puncta leaves the filament. A Student's t-test was

used to determine significance between ICD and tag reactions.

1133

Actin pelleting assay

Actin pelleting assays were performed based on previous protocols (Heier et al., 2017)

with slight modifications. Actin was pre-polymerized at room temperature overnight by addition

of 1X 50KMEH5Gd. Reactions (60 µL) were assembled by mixing 2 µM actin and 1 µM protein

(in the same 50KMEH5Gd buffer), which were then allowed to bind at room temperature for 30

minutes. Reactions were centrifuged at 100,000 g at 4 °C for 30 min in a Type 42.2 Ti rotor in a

Beckman ultracentrifuge. 40 µL of the supernatant was removed and mixed with SDS PAGE

loading buffer, and the remaining ~15 µL was removed and discarded. The pellet was dissolved

by the addition of 40 µL of G-buffer, followed by brief pipetting and vortexing, and allowed to

sit at room temperature for 5 min before the liquid was removed and mixed with SDS PAGE

loading buffer. The intensity of the supernatant and pellet bands on SDS PAGE gels were

measured using ImageJ. The total intensity of the supernatant and pellet bands, and the

percentage of intensity from the pellet and the supernatant were calculated. The percentage of

pelleted protein was calculated by subtracting the percentage of intensity from the pelleted

protein in the absence of actin from the percentage of intensity from the pelleted protein in the

presence of actin. For example, in Figure 6A, the intensity of BSA from lanes 1 and 2 was

summed and the percentage of intensity from 1 and from 2 were calculated. This was repeated

for lanes 3 and 4, then the percentage intensity of lane 2 was subtracted from lane 4. ANOVA

with Dunn-Tukey tests were used to determine significance.

To quantify the dissociation constant of F-actin binding, 0.2 µM F/F-ICD was mixed with

increasing concentrations of polymerized actin and pelleted as described above. The

concentration of F-actin was estimated to be the same as the concentration of G-actin. 40 µL of

the supernatant was removed and mixed with SDS for visualization on a gel. The intensity of

both F/F-ICD bands was quantified using ImageJ to calculate the fractional occupancy. The data

was fitted in DynaFit using a single binding site model (Kuzmic, 1996).

1159

Actin pelleting competition assays

Actin pelleting competition assays were performed nearly identically to the actin

pelleting assay described above, except that after 30 minutes of incubation of 5 µM HPO-30 ICD

proteins with 2 µM actin, 600 nM CapZ was added and incubated for 5 minutes before

ultracentrifugation. The intensity of the top bands for CapZ in the pellet were calculated for all

reactions and corrected for the intensity of CapZ pelleted without actin. The relative intensity

was calculated by dividing the intensity of the lane by the intensity of the lane containing CapZ

with actin alone. For example, in Figure 7D, the intensity of lane 2 was subtracted from lanes 4,

6, 8, and 10. Then, the corrected intensity of lane 6, 8, and 10 was divided by the corrected

intensity of lane 4. ANOVA with Dunn-Tukey tests were used to determine significance.

1170

Tryptophan fluorescence assays

Untagged ICD and GB1 tag were purified into 50 mM NaCl, 10 mM HEPES pH 7.0, 5%

(w/v) glycerol, 5 mM 2-mercaptoethanol (called 50 PDB, for pull-down buffer). Tryptophan

powder (Sigma Cat # 73-22-3) and BSA (Fisher Cat # BP1600-100) were dissolved in the same

buffer. Solutions were made at the correct concentrations (ranging from 0 to 50 μM) and an

emission scan was measured from 320nm to 400nm. The absorption wavelength was set to

243nm to minimize the fluorescence value and prevent the inner-filter effect from non-

specifically reducing the emission values (Weitner et al., 2022). The excitation and emission slit

widths were set to 3 nm. All measurements were performed on a Horiba Scientific FluoroMax

spectrofluorometer in 3 mm quartz cuvettes (Starna Cells, Inc. Cat # 3-3.45-Q-3). Normalized

peak fluorescent values were calculated by dividing the fluorescence value of the peak by the

concentration of that sample.

Untagged ICD "black" W22R was purified into 50 PDB. To measure the concentration,

samples of a known concentration of WT ICD were run on a gel and used to make a standard

curve. Experiments were performed as described above for ICD WT. To calculate the

fluorescence of ICD WT + ICD "black" W22R, the fluorescence of ICD "black" W22R alone

was subtracted from the fluorescence of ICD "black" W22R + ICD WT. Extra NaCl was added

to the 200PDB samples to bring the final salt concentration to 200 mM NaCl.

1189

Molecular dynamics simulations

All-atom MD simulations were performed for each structural model using the Condo

cluster at the High-Performance Computing facility at Iowa State University. These simulations

were conducted with GROMACS (Abraham et al., 2015) using the AMBER99SP-disp forcefield

(Robustelli et al., 2018). The system was solvated in a triclinic simulation box with TIP4P water

molecules. Bonds to hydrogen were constrained via the LINCS algorithm (Hess et al., 1997).

Short-range electrostatic and Lennard-Jones interactions were calculated with a plain coulomb

cutoff of 1.0 nm. The Particle Mesh Ewald (PME) scheme with grid spacing of 0.16 nm was

utilized for long range electrostatic interactions (Essmann et al., 1995). Solvent and solute were

separately coupled to a modified Berendsen thermostat (Velocity Rescale) with a reference

temperature of 300 K and Parinello-Rahman barostat with a reference pressure of 1 bar.

Minimization and equilibration were performed for 1 ns coupled to a Berendsen thermostat

(Velocity-rescale) with a reference temperature of 300K and a reference pressure of 1 bar

coupled to. After energy minimization and a 1 ns equilibration, the molecular dynamics

simulations were carried out over 200 ns with 2 femtoseconds timesteps and leap-frog integrator.

1205

S2 cell culture and transfection

Drosophila S2 cells were grown in Schneider's media (Thermo Fisher) supplemented with 10%

heat-inactivated FBS (Life Technologies) and 50 U/mL penicillin-streptomycin (Thermo Fisher).

Cells were transfected with Effectene (Qiagen) and 1ug of total plasmid (either Pactin>HPO-

30:6xMyc (pXD384) or both Pactin>HPO-30:6xMyc (pXD384) and Pactin>HPO-30:HA

(pXD226)).

1212

Co-immunoprecipitation

S2 cells were harvested 72 hours after transfection. Cells were lysed in RIPA buffer (Thermo

Fisher) with 1x Halt Protease Inhibitor Cocktail (Thermofisher) for 30 minutes on ice. Cell

lysates were incubated with anti-HA affinity gel beads (Sigma E6779-1ML) for 1 hour at 4°C

with rotation. Proteins were eluted at 80°C in NuPAGE LDS Sample Buffer (Life Technologies)

supplemented with DTT (GoldBio) and detected using Western blot with mouse antibody to HA

(1:1000, Sigma H3663), rabbit antibody to Myc (1:1000, Santa Cruz Biotechnology sc-789), and

HRP-conjugated goat antibodies to mouse (1:20,000, Jackson Immuno Research).

1221

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1236

Author contributions

B.C. conceived and oversaw the project. J.R. oversaw NMR experiments and MD simulations.

B.N. oversaw single molecule experiments. D.A.K. purified proteins and performed biochemical

experiments. D.A.K. performed AlphaFold predictions. D.A.K. and J.R. performed NMR

measurements. D.A.K. and H.Y.N-O. performed single molecule TIRF experiments. R.S.

performed co-immunoprecipitation experiments under the supervision of K.S. U.P. performed MD

simulations under the guidance of J.R. D.A.K. and B.C. drafted the manuscript with assistance

from all the authors.

1245

Competing interests

1247 The authors declare no competing interests.

1248

Additional Information

1250 All data generated in this study are available to the public. Additional correspondence and request

1251 for materials should be addressed to stone@iastate.edu.

1252

Supplementary materials

Figure 1—figure supplement 1. Equilibrium pull-down assay of ICD-GST and WRC.

Figure 1—figure supplement 2. *Ab initio* structure prediction of HPO-30 ICD.

Figure 1—figure supplement 3. MD simulations of predicted ICD structures.

Figure 1—source data 1. The file contains the following folders:

1) unedited Figure 1 and raw gel images used in Figure 1.

2) raw data and statistical analysis shown in Figure 1B,D.

3) unedited Figure 1—figure supplement 1 and raw gel images used in Figure 1—figure

supplement 1.

4) Pymol scene file containing all predicted structural models shown in Figure 1 and Figure 1—

figure supplement 1.

5) Pymol scenes of the individual starting and final conformations for all models used in MD

simulations and RMSD values for each simulation.

1266

Figure 2—figure supplement 1. HPO-30 ICD is largely disordered.

Figure 2—source data 1. The file contains the following folders:

1) raw 2D NMR spectra data shown in Figure 2B/C, which can be opened by commonly used

NMR software, including NMRpipe (for processing) and Sparky (for visualization).

2) raw CD spectra data shown in Figure 2E and Figure 2—supplement 1A.

3) raw 3D NMR spectra data, including HNCO, HNCA, and HNCOCA experiments, used to

generate the deviation plots in Figure 2D and Figure 2 – figure supplement 1F/G. These files can

be opened using common NMR software, including NMRpipe (for processing) and Sparky (for

visualization); an Excel sheet containing picked peak values and the assignments.

4) unedited Figure 2—figure supplement 1 and raw gel images used in Figure 2—figure

supplement 1.

5) raw 2D NMR spectra data shown in Figure 2 – figure supplement 1D/E, which can be opened

by commonly used NMR software, including NMRpipe (for processing) and Sparky (for

visualization).

1281

Figure 3—figure supplement 1. Protein quality control for dimerization experiments.

Figure 3—figure supplement 2. HPO-30 ICD binding to WRC requires dimerization tags.

Figure 3—source data 1. The file contains the following folders:

1) unedited Figure 3 and raw gel images used in Figure 3.

2) unedited Figure 3—figure supplement 1 and raw gel images used in Figure 3—figure

supplement 1.

3) raw gel filtration data shown in Figure 3—figure supplement 1C/E.

4) unedited Figure 3—figure supplement 2 and raw gel images used in Figure 3—figure

supplement 2.

1291

Figure 4 – figure supplement 1. HPO-30 ICD can interact with itself.

Figure 4 – figure supplement 2. Tryptophan fluorescence cannot be used to monitor the self-

association of HPO-30 ICD.

Figure 4—figure supplement 3. Structural predictions of HPO-30 ICD self-association.

Figure 4 – source data 1. The file contains the following folders:

1) unedited Figure 4 and raw gel images used in Figure 4.

2) raw data and statistical analysis shown in Figure 4C.

3) unedited Figure 4 – figure supplement 1 and raw gel images used in Figure 4 – figure

supplement 1.

4) unedited Figure 4 – figure supplement 2 and raw gel images used in Figure 4 – figure

supplement 2.

5) raw data used in Figure 4 – figure supplement 2A,B,D,E.

6) Pymol scene file containing all predicted structural models shown in Figure 4—figure

supplement 2.

7) Pymol scenes of the individual starting and final conformations for all models used in MD

simulations and RMSD values for each simulation.

1308

Figure 5—figure supplement 1. HPO-30 ICD inhibits actin polymerization.

Figure 5—source data 1. The file contains the following folders:

1) raw pyrene-actin polymerization data shown in Figure 5A-F.

2) unedited Figure 5—figure supplement 1 and raw gel images used in Figure 5—figure

supplement 1.

3) raw pyrene-actin polymerization data shown in Figure 5 – figure supplement 1 B-F

4) gel quantification data shown in Figure 5G.

1316

Figure 6—figure supplement 1. HPO-30 ICD binds to F-actin, but not G-actin, and inhibits F-

actin depolymerization.

Figure 6—source data 1. The file contains the following folders:

1) unedited Figure 6 and raw gel images used in Figure 6.

2) raw data and statistical analysis shown in Figure 6B-D.

3) unedited Figure 6—figure supplement 1 and raw gel images used in Figure 6—figure

supplement 1.

4) raw data and statistical analysis shown in Figure 6B-D.

1325

Figure 7—figure supplement 1. SNAP tag and fluorophore-labeling did not affect HPO-30 ICD

function.

Figure 7 – figure supplement 2. HPO-30 ICD affects actin polymerization rate.

Figure 7—source data 1. The file contains the following folders:

1) unedited Figure 7 and raw gel images used in Figure 7.

2) raw data and statistical analysis shown in Figure 7B-D.

3) raw data and kymographs for Figure7E.

4) unedited Figure 7—figure supplement 1 and raw gel images used in Figure 7—figure

supplement 1.

5) raw data shown in Figure 7—figure supplement 1C.

6) raw data and kymographs for Figure7 – figure supplement 2.

1337

1338 **Video 1. CapZ capping event example 1.** Related to Figure 6A, top. Time lapse of SNAP^{AF488}-

1339 CapZ (green) bound to the end of actin filaments (red) obtained by smTIRF microscopy. Video

1340 length of 1200 frames at 120 frames per second. The filament in the top left corner is the one

1341 showcased in Figure 6A, top.

1342

1343 **Video 2. CapZ capping event example 2.** Related to Figure 6A, top. Time lapse of SNAP^{AF488}-

1344 CapZ (green) bound to the end of an actin filament (red) obtained by smTIRF microscopy. Video

1345 length of 1800 frames at 120 frames per second.

1346

1347 **Video 3. HPO-30 ICD side binding event example 1.** Related to Figure 6A, bottom.

1348 SNAP^{AF546}-F/F-ICD (cyan) bound to the side of an actin filament (red) obtained by smTIRF

1349 microscopy. Video length of 1000 frames at 100 frames per second.

1350

1351 **Video 4. HPO-30 ICD side binding event example 2.** Related to Figure 6A, bottom.

1352 SNAP^{AF546}-F/F-ICD (cyan) bound to the side of an actin filament (red) obtained by smTIRF

1353 microscopy. Video length of 350 frames at 35 frames per second.

1354

1355 **Video 5. Actin elongation rate comparison.** Related to Figure 6C. Representative smTIRF time

1356 lapses used to quantify the elongation rate of actin filaments. Video shows a random selection of

1357   actin filaments from each condition tested. Video length of 15 minutes and 181 frames was

1358   compressed to 9 seconds.

1359

1360   **Supplementary File 1.** Amino acid sequences of recombinant proteins used in this study.

1361

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1856
1857

A

HPO-30

ICD

WRC

ICD: T S K H A H D V C C T S R K E Y R E Q T K W K N N G L I L K T G R V N H Q S H R P F V V I D D D S S M

Δ1 Δ2 Δ3 Δ4 Δ5 Δ6 Δ7 Δ8 Δ9 Δ10

Δ14

Δ11

Δ12

Δ13

B

kDa GST WT Δ1 Δ2 Δ3 Δ4 Δ5 Δ6 Δ7 Δ8 Δ9 Δ10 WT

150
100

◄ Sra1
◄ Nap1

◄ impurity

◄ GST-ICD
◄ ICD-GST
◄ GST

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13

WRC intensity relative to WT

0.062
*
0.096
0.584
***
***
**
0.253
0.235
1.000

WT Δ1 Δ2 Δ3 Δ4 Δ5 Δ6 Δ7 Δ8 Δ9 Δ10 WT

C

WT Δ11 Δ12 Δ13 Δ14

kDa

150
100

◄ Sra1
◄ Nap1

◄ GST-ICD
◄ WAVE1 (1-217)

1 2 3 4 5

D

	K_D (μM)
WT	1.63 ± 0.19
Δ5	5.06 ± 0.66

Fractional occupancy

ICD-GST (μM)

ICD: **TSKHAHDVCCT****SRKEYREQTK****WKNNG****LILK****TGRVNHQSHR****PFVVI****DDDSSM**

A

5 representative models top ranked model

protomer A
protomer B

TSKHAHDVCCTSRKEYREQTKWKNNGLILKTGRVNHQSHRPFVVIDDDSSM

ICD:

Δ1 Δ2 Δ3 Δ4 Δ5 Δ6 Δ7 Δ8 Δ9 Δ10

B

Conformation #1

5 representative models top ranked model

protomer A protomer B

membrane
cytosol

β4

H2

Conformation #2

5 representative models top ranked model

protomer A protomer B

H3

C

Initial model Final model RMSD through MD simulations

Alphafold Multimer
ICD-ICD Dimer

RMSD (Å)

Time (ns)

Alphafold Multimer
FL-FL Dimer

RMSD (Å)

Time (ns)