Light-guided actin polymerization drives directed motility in protocells

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Abstract

Motility is a hallmark of life's dynamic processes, enabling cells to actively chase prey, repair
wounds, and shape organs. Recreating these intricate behaviors using well-defined molecules
remains a major challenge at the intersection of biology, physics, and molecular engineering.
Although the polymerization force of the actin cytoskeleton is characterized as a primary driver
of cell motility, recapitulating this process in protocellular systems has proven elusive. The
difficulty lies in the daunting task of distilling key components from motile cells and integrating
them into model membranes in a physiologically relevant manner. To address this, we
developed a method to optically control actin polymerization with high spatiotemporal
precision within cell-mimetic lipid vesicles known as giant unilamellar vesicles (GUVs). Within
these active protocells, the reorganization of actin networks triggered outward membrane
extensions as well as the unidirectional movement of GUVs at speeds of up to 0.43 µm/min,
comparable to typical adherent mammalian cells. Notably, our findings reveal a synergistic
interplay between branched and linear actin forms in promoting membrane protrusions,
highlighting the cooperative nature of these cytoskeletal elements. This approach offers a
powerful platform for unraveling the intricacies of cell migration, designing synthetic cells with
active morphodynamics, and advancing bioengineering applications, such as self-propelled
delivery systems and autonomous tissue-like materials.

Introduction

Motility is a fundamental property of cells across biological systems, from bacteria to large animals (*1–6*). By transcending the randomness and viscosity of the microscopic world, cells move toward their destination by extending membrane protrusions and by clutching onto the extracellular environment. These processes are universally galvanized by actin polymerization (*7–12*). While hundreds of biomolecules are identified to be required for cell motility (*4, 6, 13*), a minimal list of biomolecular components sufficient for cell motility remains elusive. This is primarily due to the self-evident challenge of eliminating all biomolecules but those minimal ones in the context of living cells.

Cell migration is driven by the coordination of forward movement, rear contraction, and adhesion/deadhesion of the cell edges (*4, 6, 14–16*). Among these processes, actin polymerization at the leading edge is a strong candidate for driving overall forward displacement. For instance, *Dictyostelium*, fish keratocyte, and human neutrophil retain their motility even after myosin contractility is compromised genetically (*17, 18*) or pharmacologically (*19, 20*). Cells also manage to migrate even without strong adhesions especially in confined conditions (*21, 22*). Conversely, we and others have shown that synthetic activation of the Rho family GTPase Rac1, an upstream activator of the actin cytoskeleton, induces directional cell movements toward the site of stimulation (*23, 24*). However, it is still unclear if Rac1-mediated actin polymerization alone is sufficient for cell motility in cellular settings, as Rac1 crosstalks to other Rho small GTPases such as RhoA and triggers other cytoskeletal activities including acto-myosin contraction (*25*).

In a different context, molecules necessary for force generation by actin polymerization have been identified based on the motility reconstitution assay (*26–35*). These reports demonstrated that a mixture of purified cytoskeletal proteins, such as actin, Arp2/3, profilin, cofilin, and capping protein, can reconstitute the motility of *Listeria monocytogenes* bacteria using microspheres coated with actin nucleation-promoting factors (NPFs). Furthermore, a number of studies were conducted to reconstitute actin (*36, 37*) and other cytoskeletons (*38–40*) inside cell-sized membrane-bound liposomes. These studies demonstrated that the polymerization force of actin induces membrane deformations (*41–44*), reveals the roles of actin-binding proteins (*45–51*), and explores the regulation of internal reactions by light and external environmental factors (*51–54*). However, unidirectional motion by the cytoskeletal polymerization force has not been achieved. Moreover, non-invasive and non-constitutive— hence physiological—induction of actin polymerization has yet to be achieved, particularly within cell-sized compartments with proper membrane configuration. Collectively, we decided to develop a minimal membrane-bound system where actin molecules can be locally polymerized and to test if such an artificial cytoskeletal activity could induce cell-like motility.

Results

Reversible and asymmetric light control of protein localization inside GUVs

To achieve *in vitro* reconstitution of cell motility, we previously developed active protocells where chemically inducible dimerization (CID) tools were used to polymerize actin based on a bacterial NPF inside giant unilamellar vesicles (GUVs) (*55*). While the previous system efficiently produced actin polymerization, outward membrane extension necessary for driving movement was not observed. We reasoned that this was due to a lack of fast turnover of NPF recruitment to the membranes. To aim for a physiologically relevant generation of protrusive force exerted against membranes, we adopted a light-inducible protein dimerization tool for controlling the localization of proteins of interest. Among optogenetic dimerization tools (*56–58*), we chose iLID-SspB (*59*) due to its favorable characteristics, including molecular size, binding kinetics, and optical requirement, which are well-suited for experimental operations without compromising physiological relevance. More specifically, the second-timescale iLID photo-reaction is ideal for recapitulating the dynamic nature of migratory cells and their front-to-back polarization (Supplementary Text).

We first set out to test light-induced dimerization of purified iLID and SspB in GUVs. In our construct, iLID was membrane-tethered, and blue light exposure triggered the Jα helix to extend, revealing the binding site for SspB. In the dark, iLID returned to its closed state, releasing SspB (Fig. 1A). We monitored SspB localization changes and visualized the light response by fusing iLID with YFP and SspB with mCherry (Fig. S1A). To anchor iLID to the GUV membrane, we tested four different protein-lipid interaction strategies to mediate light-induced translocation, including coordination bonding, electrostatic, strong non-covalent, and covalent interactions (Fig. 1A) (*60, 61*). These strategies were implemented using 6×His-tag/Ni-NTA-conjugated lipids, myristoylated alanine-rich C-kinase substrate-effector domain (MARCKS-ED)/phosphatidylserine (PS), 2×Strep-tag/StrepTactin/biotin-conjugated lipids, and SNAP-tag/benzylguanine (BG)-conjugated lipid, respectively (Fig. S2). While all four strategies successfully localized iLID-YFP to the membrane, MARCKS-ED/PS was less efficient in membrane-anchoring, and the His-tag/Ni-NTA and Strep-tag/StrepTactin/biotin systems showed some non-specific membrane binding of SspB before light illumination (Fig. S2). Thus, we primarily used SNAP/BG for most of the following experiments.

When GUVs were made with 2% BG-conjugated lipid in the inner leaflet, iLID localized on the membrane, while SspB remained in the lumen in the dark (Fig. 1B). Upon blue light illumination of the entire GUV, SspB translocated to the membrane within 4 seconds (Fig. 1B, C). After

switching back to the dark, SspB gradually dissociated from the membrane with a half-time of
61.2 ± 13.7 seconds. The time scale is consistent with AsLOV2 based-optogenetic tools
measured in cells (*57*). These data confirmed that iLID-SspB enables reversible control of
protein localization in GUVs.

Next, we tested the potential for spatially asymmetric control of iLID-SspB interactions. When
light was applied locally to one side of the GUV, SspB accumulated at the illuminated site (Fig.
1D, E). In the dark, dissociation proceeded with a half-time of 41.8 ± 7.1 seconds (Fig S3A).
Despite faster diffusion on artificial lipid membranes compared to cell membranes (*62–64*),
localized light stimulus created an asymmetric pattern of SspB in cell-sized vesicles (Fig. 1E, F,
see supplementary text). Furthermore, SspB precisely and repeatedly responded to the
directional change of blue light illumination (Figs. 1G, S3B, C, and Movie S1). Collectively, these
results demonstrated that the iLID-SspB system can direct polarized protein distribution at
regions of interest on the GUV membranes.

Light-guided control of ActA
Next, we sought to manipulate the actin cytoskeleton with the iLID-SspB system. Previous
studies have established that the rate of actin polymerization depends on the surface density of
NPFs (*26*, *30*, *35*) and that clustering of NPFs accelerates actin polymerization (*65*, *66*). We have
recently shown that chemically-induced membrane recruitment of ActA, an N-WASP homolog
NPF derived from *L. monocytogenes*, induces actin polymerization on the membrane of GUVs,
leading to symmetry breaking (*55*). Thus, we first tested ActA with the iLID-SspB system. By
testing two SspB variants with different affinities (SspB micro and SspB nano) and two fusion
orders (resulting in four ActA-SspB variants in total), we found that ActA-SspB$_{nano}$-mCherry
activates Arp2/3-dependent actin polymerization in bulk pyrene actin assays (Fig. S1, S4A, B)
and exhibits the best light-dependent membrane translocation without non-specific membrane
binding in the dark (Fig. S4C, D). When supplemented with actin and Arp2/3, light-induced
global membrane recruitment of ActA-SspB led to the emergence of actin patches on the
membrane, consistent with our previous findings with a chemical input (*55*) (Fig. S5). With local
light, ActA distribution became asymmetric, yet the directionality of actin polymerization could
not be maintained. In most cases, polymerized actin was randomly diffused out from the
illuminated region and the GUV lost actin directionality over time (Fig. S6 and Movie S2).

Reversible control of pVCA and light-guided actin polymerization
For robust maintenance of actin asymmetry, we set out to rapidly depolymerize actin filaments
in the non-illuminated area, providing precursor G-actin for new polymerization events. We
thus incorporated factors that facilitate the actin turnover process, namely profilin, cofilin, and
capping protein. Moreover, ActA could not induce membrane actin polymerization in GUVs in

the presence of cofilin and capping proteins (Fig. S7). We evaluated common NPFs to identify a
more potent alternative to ActA. Among those tested, GST-tagged N-WASP pVCA (proline-rich
region + VCA domain) showed the fastest actin polymerization in a bulk pyrene assay, which
monitors actin polymerization through the florescence increase of pyrene-labeled actin.
Notably, GST-pVCA maintained its activity when fused to SspB-mCherry fusion (Fig. 2A, S1, S8).
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We then encapsulated this light-inducible pVCA-SspB-mCherry with actin (10% Alexa-647
labeled), Arp2/3, profilin, cofilin, and capping protein in GUVs (Fig. 2B). Upon illumination,
pVCA-SspB-mCherry rapidly translocated to the membrane, followed by the increase of
membrane actin signal, suggesting light-induced actin polymerization (Fig. 2C–E, Movie S3). In
contrast, in the absence of either pVCA or light stimuli, no significant change in membrane actin
intensity was observed (Fig. 2D, E, Fig. S9). When Arp2/3 was omitted, the membrane actin
signal showed a slight increase over time. This suggested that the G-actin binding property of
pVCA (*67*, *68*) increased local concentration of the G-actin at the periphery of membrane and
facilitated spontaneous polymerization, which was not as intense as Arp2/3-dependent actin
polymerization (Fig. 2D, E, Fig. S9). Taken together, these data suggested that light-dependent
membrane accumulation of pVCA induces Arp2/3-dependent actin polymerization on the GUV
membrane.
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Next, we tested the reversibility of the actin polymerization. As shown in Fig. 2F and G, both
pVCA-SspB-mCherry and actin reversibly and repetitively changed their intensity on the
membrane depending on blue light switching (Movie S4). Notably, once switched to the dark,
pVCA-SspB-mCherry quickly dissociated from the membrane, whereas actin decreased its
membrane intensity at a relatively slower rate (Fig. S10). This delay in actin response suggested
that actin was not simply sequestered by pVCA dissociation, but was rather gradually
depolymerizing. Furthermore, when the system responded to the next round of blue light
illumination, actin signal increased slightly slower than pVCA-SspB, supporting that a substantial
fraction of actin filaments disassembled in the dark and re-polymerized upon new stimulus (Fig.
S10). Together, these results suggested that the polymerization state is reversible in our system
and that the balance between polymerization and depolymerization can be controlled by light.
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Asymmetric and spatially controlled actin polymerization
The polarity of NPFs and actin polymerization are fundamental features of directed cell
migration (*9*, *69*, *70*). Thus, we next tested whether locally targeted pVCA could establish
asymmetric actin polymerization (Fig. 3A). As shown in Fig. 3B, C, and Fig. S11A, pVCA showed
asymmetric patterning toward the localized light stimulus (Movie S5). About 5 minutes after
pVCA translocation, the actin signal also increased from the illuminated region and created an
asymmetric pattern. Furthermore, with continuously applied local light, both pVCA and actin

maintained their polarity for more than 100 minutes (Fig. 3B, C, S11A, Movie S5). We note that
the actin signal appeared as two lines in the latter time points in the kymograph. This is possibly
because actin filaments are less diffusive on the membrane, and so Alexa-647 labeled on actin
molecules was gradually photo-bleached by blue light excitation. Next, we tested if the system
reversibly changed the direction of actin polymerization. After establishing an asymmetric actin
pattern with a local light on the right side of the vesicle, we reversed it back to the dark mode
and subsequently shed new light on the left. pVCA and actin responded accordingly to re-
polarize toward the new signal site (Fig. 3D, E, and Movie S6). These data demonstrated that
the light-inducible pVCA system can establish polarized actin patterns in a reversible manner.
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199 Importantly, when locally illuminated, the front membrane of some GUVs moved toward the
200 light direction (Fig. S11B), albeit occasionally (2 out of 7 instances). We speculate that
201 characteristics inherent to the GUV system such as surface-to-volume ratio of individual GUVs,
202 surface density of pVCA, and the ratio between Arp2/3 and capping protein (*33*, *71*), as well as
203 any combination of these factors might be critical in determining a functional output.
204
mDia1-driven actin polymerization drives efficient membrane protrusions in cells
To enhance forward membrane protrusion, we next sought to reinforce actin polymerization.
At the leading edge of migrating cells, two major actin nucleators, namely Arp2/3 and formin,
coordinate the forward extension of the plasma membrane (*72–74*). While Arp2/3 stays at the
branch points of the actin filaments and does not engage in the incorporation of monomeric
actin into the growing ends, formin continuously binds to the growing ends and actively recruits
profilin-actin complexes to the elongating tips. Consequently, one subtype of formin, mDia1,
accelerates actin polymerization 4–5 times faster (*75*, *76*) and drives motility 6–23 times faster
than Arp2/3 in *in vitro* motility assays using functionalized beads (*30*, *28*, *31*). Furthermore, a
theoretical study suggests that actin polymerization perpendicular to the membrane,
characteristic of formin-driven filopodia formation, more efficiently transduces the
polymerization force to advance the membrane (*77*). Therefore, we reasoned that the
integration of mDia1 could enhance protrusive activity.
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In line with our previous actin-actuation tool development (*78*), first, we used living cells to test
if membrane recruitment of mDia1 could induce actin polymerization and membrane
protrusions in a three-dimensional lipid bounded context (Fig. S12A) (*79–81*). More specifically,
we took FH1-FH2-DAD domains from mDia1 as a constitutively active form (*82*) and recruited it
to the plasma membrane by the CID system. As shown in Fig. S12B–H, rapamycin-dependent
plasma membrane translocation of YF-mDia1 induced filopodia-like protrusions (Fig. S12B–H).
These protrusions were positive for Lifeact signal and showed coiling motions with their

elongating tips labeled with YF-mDia1 (Fig. S12D), replicating the previously reported
phenotypes of formin-dependent filopodia elongation (*83–86*). These data supported that
membrane translocation of mDia1 generates an actin-dependent protrusive force on the
membrane.
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231 mDia1-driven actin polymerization drives forward movement of GUVs
We then constructed the light-inducible version of mDia1 (mCherry-SspB-mDia1) (Fig. S1, S8)
and encapsulated it with iLID-YFP-SNAP, actin (10% Alexa-647 labeled), profilin, and cofilin in
GUVs. Upon local recruitment of mDia1, some vesicles showed gradual drift toward the
stimulated direction, suggesting that mDia1 exerted protrusive forces also in the reconstituted
lipid vesicles (Fig. S13A, B). However, the response was minimal and difficult to detect.
Therefore, aiming to better mimic the actin network of migrating cells, we added pVCA-SspB,
Arp2/3, and capping protein (Fig. 4A). Remarkably, this full component system (pVCA + mDia1)
showed robust movements toward light stimulation, as observed in 18 out of 22 GUVs (Fig. 4B–
D, Fig. S13C–E, Movie S7, S9, S10). Polarized actin signal toward the illuminated direction
suggested that actin polymerization provided the force to push the membrane forward (Fig. 4B,
Movie S7). The vesicle continued to move steadily for an hour until the light was turned off (Fig.
4B, D, Movie S7). Furthermore, when we shifted the position of the blue light, the signals for
mDia1, pVCA, and actin reoriented, causing the vesicle to move in the new direction, akin to
how a migrating neutrophil responds to a new chemoattractant (Fig. 4B, D, Movie S7). The
speed of pVCA/mDia1 dual system was roughly 3 times larger than that of mDia1 GUVs (Fig. 4F,
S13B–D). The distance the front side membrane moved in 30 minutes was also significantly
longer in pVCA + mDia1 GUVs (Fig. S13E). Furthermore, membrane recruitment of mDia1 and
pVCA occasionally showed local protrusions, suggesting the generation of protrusive force (Fig.
S14, Movie S8). Together, the data indicated that mDia1-driven actin polymerization exhibits a
protrusive force that is substantially enhanced by pVCA and Arp2/3.
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When mDia1 and pVCA were replaced with the same amount of mCherry-SspB, vesicles did not
move even with the local blue light illumination (Fig. S15). In addition, the kymographs of the
protrusions of the vesicle perimeter and the membrane actin intensity indicated the timing and
direction of membrane protrusions correlate to the actin intensity and its polarity, supporting
that membrane protrusion is driven by actin cytoskeleton (Fig. 4D, E). Corroborating this, the
actin sequestering compound Latrunculin A and the formin inhibitor SMIFH2 substantially
compromised motility (Fig. 4H). Furthermore, deletion of the DAD domain from mDia1, which is
responsible for efficient actin nucleation by mDia1 (*87*), abolished the motility (Fig. 4H). These
results indicate that membrane protrusion and motion of the vesicles are driven by actin
polymerization.
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Deformation and adhesion of GUVs

Although the vesicles initially moved at an average velocity of 0.43 µm/min, their speed gradually decreased over time (Fig. 4F, G, Fig. S13C, D). Concomitant with this deceleration, the contact area of the bottom side of the vesicles constantly increased during the movement, stabilizing the vesicles in a dome-like shape (Fig. 4C, I). This increase in the contact area was not seen in the GUVs when pVCA and mDia1 were replaced with mCherry-SspB (Fig. S15). Thus, we speculate that the contact to the bottom substrate was induced by the protrusive reaction and that the adhesion and the concomitant deformation led to cumulative tension increase (*88*) which in turn counteracted the protrusive force. The force exerted by actin polymerization may not be enough to detach the GUV from the BSA-coated glass substrate. This is consistent with the observation where an initial contact site remained adherent even in a GUV that traveled farthest (Fig. 4I, Fig. S16A, B, Movie S9, S10). Additionally, actin recycling in the system may be insufficient and force gradually diminishes over time (*89*). Despite these potential resisting factors, the combination of mDia1 and pVCA induced movement consistently (Fig. 4, Fig. S13C, S16). Thus, we concluded that the asymmetric actin polymerization mediated by pVCA-mDia1 is sufficient to propel the vesicles forward from within.

Discussion

In the present study, we developed a fully reconstituted protocellular system to achieve light-directed motility in a protocell. We leveraged mDia1-mediated actin polymerization to establish the forces that drive movement. Our findings not only corroborate recent cell biological findings on formin's significant roles in cell migration (*83*, *90–95*) but also uniquely demonstrate that the mDia1-mediated actin polymerization system is sufficient to propel lipid vesicles, overcoming challenges thus far posed by genetic redundancy and cellular complexity. Formin-mediated actin polymerization exhibits several unique features compared to free barbed end elongation in Arp2/3-dependent polymerization, including processive elongation (*31*, *75*), accelerated polymerization rate (*75*, *76*), rotation, and coiling motion (*85*, *86*, *96*). These characteristics could contribute to the effective propulsion of the vesicle. Remarkably, our minimal system further revealed a significant synergy between pVCA and mDia1. Although further investigation is required, this synergistic effect may be explained by a positive feedback loop: mDia1 functions both as an actin elongator and a supplier of mother filaments for Arp2/3-mediated actin polymerization (*91*, *93*). In return, branch formation by the Arp2/3 complex likely generates more growing filaments for mDia1 to bind and elongate. To further elucidate the mechanisms of force generation and membrane protrusion, unveiling the nanoscopic architecture of the actin network in the migrating protocell will be crucial. Our protocell approach, which bridges the gap between cellular and biochemical domains, opens new avenues for comprehensively interrogating modules of cellular motility.

We achieved a GUV displacement speed in the range of 0.1–1.0 µm/min, which is comparable

to the migration rates of typical fibroblasts (*97*) and other adherent cells including those that

competed in the World Cell Race (*98*). How could we make the movement even faster? *L.*

monogytogenes and NPF-coated beads in purified cytoskeletal protein solution typically move

in the range of 1–15 µm/min (*27*, *28*, *30–33*). Some adherent cells can migrate at 5 µm/min

even when actomyosin contractility is inhibited (*19*). We propose three possible ways to make

artificial cell migration faster. First, increasing actin concentration (*76*, *99*) and integrating

additional factors, such as VASP (*100*), Fascin (*101*), and NPFs (*66*, *102*), could accelerate the

rate of actin polymerization. Secondly, optimizing membrane tension could enhance the

deformability of the lipid membrane, akin to the malleable structures observed in motile cells,

thereby potentially promoting more efficient protrusion and motility (*49*, *103*). Finally, fine-

tuning adhesion could enhance migration efficiency as many cells exhibit a preference for an

optimal adhesion range, where both insufficient and excessive adhesion can hinder motility

(*104*, *105*).

Interestingly, the phenotypes of mDia1 membrane recruitment differed between cells and

GUVs. In cells, mDia1 produced filopodia-like thin protrusions (Fig. S12), whereas in GUVs, it

pushed the lipid membrane as a continuous plane at a much broader scale than filopodia (Fig. 4,

S13–16). Since living cells tend to have higher membrane tension than liposomes (*106*), it may

appear counterintuitive that the cell membrane was more susceptible to mDia1-induced local

deformation. One possible explanation is that, in cells, endogenous proteins might work in

concert with mDia1 to amplify local membrane deformation and form long filopodia-like

protrusion. For Instance, SH3-containing proteins including IRSp53 (*107*) and Abi1 (*91*) could

interact with the proline-rich FH1 domain of mDia1. Alternatively, localized defects in

membrane tension could predispose certain areas to form thin protrusions (*108*). Additionally,

cytoskeleton-bound transmembrane proteins impede tension propagation in cells (*109*).

Furthermore, the nuclear accumulation of mDia1 in cells (Fig. S12) could reduce its effective

concentration and cause a heterogeneous distribution on the cell membrane, resulting in

focused protrusive force in regions with high mDia1 concentration, similar to how pVCA-driven

finger-like protrusions are formed in liposomes, as demonstrated by Gat *et al.* (*110*). Seamlessly

bridging native and artificial cells would be critical for a comprehensive understanding of the

regulatory mechanism of cellular morphodynamics.

We have recently shown that chemically-induced membrane recruitment of ActA, an NPF

derived from *L. monocytogenes*, and subsequent global actin polymerization lead to

eccentricity in the shape of GUVs (*55*). We noted a difference in membrane deformation

between the CID and LID systems, as the CID too could induce a clear membrane deformation

given a global, non-directional input. This difference could be attributed to the variations in
cytoskeletal proteins and input signals between the two systems. In the present study, we have
incorporated cofilin and capping proteins. Since cofilin and capping protein accelerate actin
depolymerization, these factors may make the actin network more plastic rather than exert
force to deform the membrane. Moreover, the binding kinetics of iLID-SspB (k_{on} =1.2 × 10^3 $M^{-1}s^{-1}$
, k_{off} =1.1 × 10^{-3} s^{-1}, K_d = 0.8 μM) substantially differs from that of FKBP-FRB (k_{on} =1.9 × 10^6 $M^{-1}s^{-1}$
, k_{off} =2.2 × 10^{-2} s^{-1}, K_d = 12 nM) (*59*, *111*, *112*). This may result in different reaction dynamics
between actin cytoskeleton and the lipid membrane.
347
Our finding that internal cytoskeletal force can drive the unidirectional motion of lipid vesicles
would offer avenues to reverse-engineer cell motility. Although we used light as an input,
asymmetric actin polymerization may be achievable with chemical inputs with consideration of
binding affinity (*79*, *113*), transmembrane signal transduction mechanisms (*114*), and self-
organized pattern formation (*115–119*). Furthermore, combining this approach with other
migratory forces (*111*, *120*, *121*) and applying synthetically engineered cytoskeletal molecules
(*76*, *122*) could enhance the motility even beyond the limit of natural systems. Achieving
synthetic motility in GUVs could be a step toward future developments in active therapeutic
agents, self-organizing artificial tissues, and synthetic neural circuits.

Materials and Methods

Reagents

ATP was purchased from Gold Biology (A-081) or Nacalai Tesque (01072-82), prepared as 100 mM solution in 100 mM Tris-HCl (pH 7.4 at RT), and stored at -20°C. Creatin phosphate was purchased from Gold Biotechnology (C-323-5) or Oriental Yeast (45180000), prepared as 1 M solution in PBS (Gibco 10010-023), stored at -20°C. Creatin kinase was purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (10127566001) or Oriental Yeast (46430003), prepared as 40 µM solution in buffer V (50 mM HEPES-NaOH (pH 7.5), 150 mM NaCl, 7 mM β-mercaptoethanol, 10% glycerol), snap frozen, and stored at -20°C. Flavin mononucleotide (FMN) was purchased from TCI (R0023) and Wako (06500171), freshly prepared as 600 µM solution in MilliQ water before iLID expression. Alexa Fluor 647 C2 Maleimide (A20347) and Pierce™ Glutathione Agarose (16100) were purchased from Thermo Fisher Scientific. Hexadecane (H6703), Silicone oil (378348), and SMIFH2 (S4826) were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich. Latrunculin A was purchased form Wako (125-04363). Benzylguanine-PEG2000-DSPE was prepared and purified as previously described (*60*). POPC (1-palmitoyl-2-oleoyl-glycero-3-phosphocholine, 850457), POPS (1-palmitoyl-2-oleoyl-sn-glycero-3-phospho-L-serine, 840034), 18:1 DGS-NTA-Ni (1,2-dioleoyl-sn-glycero-3-[(N-(5-amino-1-carboxypentyl)iminodiacetic acid)succinyl] (nickel salt), 790404), 18:1 PE-PEG2000-benzylguanine (1,2-dioleoyl-sn-glycero-3-phosphoethanolamine-N-[benzylguanine(polyethylene glycol)-2000], 880137), and 18:1 Biotinyl Cap PE (1,2-dioleoyl-sn-glycero-3-phosphoethanolamine-N-(cap biotinyl) (sodium salt), 870273C) were purchased from Avanti Polar Lipids as chloroform solution. Actin (AKL99), pyrene labeled actin (AP05), Arp2/3 (RP01P), Profilin (PR02), Cofilin (CF01), were purchased from Cytoskeleton. Strep-Tactin XT (2-4010-010, discontinued) resin, Strep-Tactin XT 4Flow (2-5010-010) resin, and purified Strep-Tactin protein were purchased from IBA. Ni-NTA agarose (30210) was purchased from Qiagen. Amylose resin (E8021S) was purchased from New England BioLabs.

Plasmid construction

pQE80L-6×His-MBP-TEVprorease(S219V)

Ser219Val mutation (*123*) was introduced by PCR with the template plasmid gifted from Dr. Yubin Zhou and the primer set of fwd: 5'-TGGTGAAACCTGAAGAACCTTTT-3' and rev: 5'-TTCACCATGAAAACTTTATGGCC-3'. TEV prorease (S219V) was then PCR amplified with the primer set of fwd: 5'-AATTGAGCTCGATGAGCGGCCTGGTGC-3' and rev: 5'-AATTGGATCCTTATTGCGAGTACACCAATTCATTCATG-3' and inserted between SalI and BamHI sites of pQE-80L MBP-SspB Nano plasmid (Addgene #60409) by using restriction digestion and T4 ligase ligation process.

pQE80L-6×His-MBP-TEVsite-mCherry-SspB(micro)

EYFP-2×SAGG linker was PCR amplified from the template plasmid YFP-FKBP (*124*)with the

primer set fwd: 5'- GTATTTTCAGGGATCGCCGCTAGCGCTACCGG-3' and rev: 5'-

TCGGGGAGCTGGATCCTCCGCCAGCGCTGC-3' and inserted into BamHI site of pQE-80L MBP-SspB

Nano plasmid (Addgene #60409) by using Gibson assembly. EYFP part was then replaced with

mCherry from pmCherry-C1 (Clontech) by restriction digestion and T4 ligase ligation process

with AgeI and BsrGI. Arg73 of SspB was mutated to Gln by PCR with the primer set fwd: 5'-

AACGCCCagTTTAAGGGCGTGTCTCGT-3' and rev: 5'- CTTAAActGGGCGTTGAACTGGATAA-3'.

pGEX-2T-GST-3Csite-TEVsite-6×His

Two sets of oligo DNA pairs were designed to introduce 3C protease cleavage site, TEV protease

cleavage site, and 6×His tag (1st set, fwd: 5'-

<u>GGTTCCGCGTGGATC</u>TGGTCTTGAGGTGCTCTTTCAGGGACCCGGCAGTCTCGAGGGTCTG<u>TACAAGCG</u>

<u>AATTCAG</u>-3', rev: 5'-

<u>CTGAATTCGCTTGTA</u>CAGACCCTCGAGACTGCCGGGTCCCTGAAAGAGCACCTCAAGACC<u>AGATCCACG</u>

<u>CGGAACC</u>-3'. 2nd set, fwd: 5'-

<u>TACAAGCGAATTCAG</u>GAGAACCTCTACTTTCAAAGCGATCATCATCATCATCATCACTAAA<u>AATTCATCGT</u>

<u>GACTG</u>-3' and rev: 5'-

<u>CAGTCACGATGAATT</u>TTTAGTGATGATGATGATGATGATCGCTTTGAAAGTAGAGGTTCTC<u>CTGAATTCG</u>

<u>CTTGTA</u>-3' (underlines indicate overhang sequences)). To anneal oligo DNAs individually, 0.5

µM each DNAs were mixed in 1× T4 Ligase buffer (NEB, B0202S) and heated at 85°C for 10 min

and cooled 5°C per 2 min down to 40°C. pGEX-2T, which was kindly gifted from Dr. Miho Iijima,

was digested by BamHI and EcoRI and assembled with the two annealed DNA fragments by

Gibson assembly.

pGEX2T-GST-pVCA-3Csite-SspB(micro)-mCherry-TEVsite-6×His

To first construct pGEX2T-GST-pVCA-3Csite-TEVsite-6×His, pVCA (proline rich region and VCA

domain) of human N-WASP was PCR amplified with the primer set fwd: 5'-

CAGTCTCGAGGGAGGTGTTGAAGCTGTTAAAAATGA-3' and rev: 5'-

TCCTGAATTCCGTCTTCCCACTCATCATCATCCTC-3' and inserted between XhoI and EcoRI site of

pGEX-2T-GST-3Csite-TEVsite-6×His by using restriction digestion and T4 ligase ligation. Then,

SspB(micro)-mCherry was PCR amplified with the primer set fwd: 5'-

TGAGTGGGAAGACGGAATTGGGCAGTCGACGGTACCGCG-3' and rev: 5'-

GTAGAGGTTCTCCTGAATTCCCTTGTACAGCTCGTCCATGCC-3' and inserted in the EcoRI site of

pGEX2T-GST-pVCA-3Csite-TEVsite-6×His by Gibson assembly.

pET28-2×Strep-iLID-EYFP-MARCKS

First, pET28-2×Strep-iLID-6×His was constructed as follows. iLID sequence was cut out from the
pLL7.0: Venus-iLID-Mito (Addgene #60413) by NheI and EcoRI and inserted between NheI and
EcoRI sites of pET28-2×Strep-tag gifted from Dr. Kanemaki by using restriction digestion and T4
ligase ligation. Then, to construct pET28-2×Strep-iLID-EYFP-6×His, EYFP was PCR amplified from
pEYFP-C1 (Clontech) with the primer set fwd: 5'-AATTGTCGACATGGTGAGCAAGGGCGAG-3' and
rev: 5'-AATTGCGGCCGCCTTGTACAGCTCGTCCATGC-3' and inserted between SalI and NotI sites
of pET28-2×Strep-iLID-6×His by restriction digestion and T4 ligation. MARCKS-ED fragment was
constructed   by   oligo   annealing   (1st   set   fwd: 5'-
GTACAAGGGAAGTGCTGGTGGTAAAAGAAAAAGAAGCGCTTTTCCTTC-3'   and   rev: 5'-
TTCTTGAAGGAAAAGCGCTTCTTTTTCTTTTTACCACCAGCACTTCCCTT-3',   2nd   set   fwd: 5'-
AAGAAGTCTTTCAAGCTGAGCGGCTTCTCCTTCAAGAAGAACAAGAAGTA-3'   and   rev: 5'-
GTACTACTTCTTGTTCTTCTTGAAGGAGAAGCCGCTCAGCTTGAAAGAC-3') and inserted into BsrG1
site of pET28-2×Strep-iLID-EYFP-6×His.

pET28-2×Strep-iLID-EYFP-SNAP
SNAP tag sequence was PCR amplified from the template Phage-ubc-nls-ha-tdMCP-SNAP, a kind
gift   from   Dr.   Bin   Wu,   with   the   primer   set   fwd: 5'-
AATTTGTACAAGTCTGCTGGCGGAAGCGCTGGAGGCAGCATGGACAAAGACTGCGAAATGAAGC-3'
and rev: 5'-AATTGCGGCCGCTTAACCCAGCCCAGGCTTG-3' and inserted between BsrGI and NotI
of pET28-2×Strep-iLID-EYFP-MARCKS by restriction digestion and T4 ligation.

iLID-EYFP-CAAX (Clontech C1) and iLID mutants
iLID-EYFP sequence was cut out from pET28-2×Strep-iLID-EYFP-6×His by NheI and BsrGI and
inserted between NheI and BsrGI sites of FRB-ECFP-CAAX (*125*) by using restriction digestion
and T4 ligation.

mCherry-SspB(micro) (Clontech C1)
SspB(micro)   sequence   was   PCR   amplified   from   pQE80L-6×His-MBP-TEVsite-mCherry-
SspB(micro)
with   the   primer   set   fwd: 5'-GAACAGTACGAACGCGCC-3'   and   rev: 5'-
AATTCTCGAGGACCACCAGCACTACCACCAGCACTACCACCAGCACTACCACCAGCACTACCACCAGCAC
TACCAATATTCAGCTCGTCATAGATT-3' and inserted between BsrGI and XhoI sites by restriction
digestion and T4 ligation. A silent mutation was introduced to BamHI site upstream of SspB by
inverse PCR with the primer set fwd: 5'-GAGGATCtAGCTCCCCGAAACGCCCT-3' and rev: 5'-
GGGAGCTaGATCCTCCGCCAGCGCTG-3'

pQE80L-MBP-TEVsite-mCherry-MCS

mCherry sequence was PCR amplified from pmCherry-C1 (clontech) with the primer set fwd: 5'-
GTATTTTCAGGGATCGCTAGCGCTACCGGTC-3'   and   rev: 5'-
TCAGCTAATTAAGCTATCAGTTATCTAGATCCGGTGGATC-3' and inserted between BamHI and
HindIII sites of pQE-80L MBP-SspB Nano by Gibson assembly.

2×Strep-mCherry-MCS
mCherry sequence was PCR amplified from pmCherry-C1 (clontech) by the primer set fwd: 5'-
AGCGGGTGCCGCTAGTCATATGGGTACGCTAGCGCTACCGGTCG-3'   and   rev: 5'-
GGTGGTGGTGCTCGATCAGTTATCTAGATCCGGTGGATCC-3' and inserted between NheI and XhoI
sites of pET28-2×Strep-tag by Gibson assembly.

2×Strep-MBP-TEVsite-mCherry-MCS
MBP-TEVsite-mCherry-MCS was PCR amplified from the template pQE80L-MBP-TEVsite-
mCherry-MCS with the primer set fwd 5'-CAAATGGGTCGGATCGACGGATCTAAAATCGAAGAAGG-
3' and rev: 5'-GGTGGTGGTGCTCGATCAGTTATCTAGATCCGGTGGA-3' and inserted between
BamHI and XhoI sites of pET28-2×Strep-tag by Gibson assembly.

pCold-6×His-2×Strep-MBP-TEVsite-mCherry-SspB(micro)-mDia1(FH1-FH2-DAD)
A DNA fragment 2×Strep-MBP-TEVsite-mCherry was PCR amplified from 2xStrep-MBP-mCherry-
MCS with the primer set fwd: 5'-TCGAAGGTAGGCATATGGGCTGGTCTCACCC-3' and rev: 5'-
ACAGCTCGTCCATGCCG-3'. The other DNA fragment SspB(micro) was PCR amplified from
mCherry-SspB(micro) (Clontech C1) with the primer sets fwd: 5'-GCATGGACGAGCTGTACAAG-3'
and rev: 5'-TCATTCTTGGCCATAGCTTGAGCTCGAGGACC-3'. pCold-mDia1, which was a kind gift
from Dr. Roberto Dominguez, was digested by NdeI and assembled with the two DNA
fragments by Gibson assembly.

pET28-2×Strep-mCherry-SspB(micro)-mDia1(FH1-FH2-DAD)
mCherry-SspB(micro)-mDia1(FH1-FH2-DAD) was cut out from pCold-6×His-2×Strep-MBP-
TEVsite-mCherry-SspB(micro)-mDia1(FH1-FH2-DAD) by AgeI and BamHI and inserted between
AgeI and BamHI sites of 2×Strep-mCherry-MCS by restriction digestion and T4 ligation.

EYFP-FKBP-mDia1(FH1-FH2-DAD)
mDia1(FH1-FH2-DAD) was cut out from pCold-6×His-2×Strep-MBP-TEVsite-mCherry-
SspB(micro)-mDia1(FH1-FH2-DAD) by XhoI and BamHI and inserted between XhoI and BamHI of
EYFP-FKBP by restriction digestion and T4 ligation.

pET28-6×His-2×Strep-TEVsite-Capβ2(mouse)-Capα1(mouse)

First, pET28-6×His-2×Strep was constructed as follows. 6×His sequence was synthesized by oligo annealing of fwd: 5'-AGGAGATATACCATGGGCCATCACCATCACCATCACATGGGCTGGTCTCA-3' and rev: 5'- TGAGACCAGCCCATGTGATGGTGATGGTGATGGCCCATGGTATATCTCCT-3' and inserted into NcoI site of pET28-2×Strep-tag. Capβ2(mouse)-Capα1(mouse) was PCR amplified from the template of pET3d-Capβ2(mouse)-Capα1(mouse), gifted from Dr. Julie Plastino and Dr. Cecile Sykes, with the primer set fwd: 5'-CTGGAGCGGGTGCCGCTAGCGAGAACCTCTACTTTCAAAGCGATATGAGCGATCAGCAGCTGG-3' and rev: 5'- TGTCGACGGAGCTCGAATTCTTAAGCATTCTGCATTTCTTTGCCAATC-3' and inserted between NheI and EcoRI of pET28-6×His-2×Strep by Gibson assembly. TEV cleavage site was designed in the forward primer and introduced between 2×Strep tag and Capβ2 ORF.

Actin preparation

Actin for GUV experiments was reconstituted from lyophilized powder as described in manufacturer's instructions, aliquoted, snap-frozen in liquid nitrogen, and stored at -80°C.

For actin polymerization assays, actin was dissolved in G-buffer [2 mM Tris-HCl (pH 7.5 at RT), 0.1 mM $CaCl_2$, 0.2 mM ATP, 0.5 mM DTT, 1 mM NaN_3] at concentration less than 65 μM and dialyzed against G-buffer for 3 days with daily buffer exchange. Dialyzed actin was then purified by a Superdex 200 increase 10/300 GL column (Cytiva) to separate monomer fraction from occasional larger molecular size (smaller elution volume) fraction. The purified actin was stored at 4°C with dialysis against G-buffer. The dialysis buffer for actin storage was exchanged twice a week.

Alexa 647 labeling of actin was performed following the previously reported method (*126*). First, rabbit skeletal muscle actin (Cytoskeleton Inc., #AKL99) was dissolved in G*-buffer [2 mM Tris-HCl (pH 7.5 at RT), 0.1 mM $CaCl_2$, 0.2 mM ATP] at concentration less than 65 μM and dialyzed against G*-buffer overnight and 3 hours. Dialyzed actin was collected and mixed with 4 molar excess Alexa Fluor 647 C2 maleimide (ThermoFisher, A20347, solubilized to 10 mM in DMSO) and incubated at 4°C overnight with rotation (10 min labeling as in the original protocol did not yield efficient labeling in the case of Alexa Fluor 647). The reaction was quenched by adding DTT to 10 mM. aggregated proteins and insoluble dyes were removed by ultracentrifugation at 350,000×g (90,000 rpm, TLA-100.1 rotor) for 12 min. The supernatant was collected and mixed 1/10 volume of 10×KMEI buffer (500 mM KCl, 10 mM $MgCl_2$, 10 mM EGTA, 100 mM Imidazole, pH 7.0) and final 1 mM ATP to polymerize actin at RT for 2–3 hours. Labeled filamentous actin was collected by ultracentrifugation at 195,000×g (67,000 rpm, TLA-100.1 rotor) for 30 min and resuspended with G-buffer. The labeled actin was dialyzed against G-buffer for 3 days with daily buffer exchange and purified through size exclusion chromatography with a Superdex 200 increase 10/300. The protein was snap-frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at -80°C.

Protein purification

543 All protein expressions were carried out in BL21-CodonPlus (DE3)-RIL (Agilent Technologies).

544 Cell lysis was performed by microfluidizer (Microfluidics, Model M-110Y).

546 6×His-MBP-TEV protease (S219V)

547 The bacteria transformed with pQE80L-6×His-MBP-TEVprotease (S219V) were cultured

548 overnight in LB broth supplemented with 100 µg/mL Ampicillin and 25 µg/mL Chloramphenicol

549 (LB/Amp/Cam). Pre-culture was inoculated to LB/Amp/Cam and cultured at 37°C until OD_{600}

550 reached around 0.4. Protein expression was induced by adding 300 µM IPTG and allowed to

551 proceed for 17 hours at 18°C. The cells were re-suspended with 50 mM Tris-HCl (pH 7.5 at RT),

552 250 mM NaCl, 5 mM $MgCl_2$, 7 mM β-mercaptoethanol and lysed by microfluidizer. The lysate

553 was centrifuged at 20,000×g at 4°C for 30 min to remove cell debris. The protein was purified

554 by Ni-NTA, eluted around 60–100 mM imidazole, and then dialyzed against 25 mM Tris-HCl (pH

555 7.5 at RT), 200 mM NaCl, 7 mM β-mercaptoethanol. The elution was concentrated by Amicon

556 Ultra (10 kDa cutoff) and further dialyzed against 25 mM Tris-HCl (pH 7.5 at RT), 200 mM NaCl,

557 7 mM β-mercaptoethanol, 50% glycerol. The protein was stored at -20 °C.

559 mCherry-SspB

560 The bacteria transformed with pQE80L-6×His-MBP-TEVsite-mCherry-SspB were cultured

561 overnight in LB broth supplemented with 100 µg/mL Ampicillin and 25 µg/mL Chloramphenicol

562 (LB/Amp/Cam). Pre-culture was inoculated to LB/Amp/Cam and cultured at 37°C until OD_{600}

563 reached 0.4–0.6. Protein expression was induced by adding 300 µM IPTG and allowed to

564 proceed for 18 hours at 22°C. The cells were re-suspended with 50 mM Tris-HCl (pH 7.5 at RT),

565 250 mM NaCl, 7 mM β-mercaptoethanol, 20 mM Imidazole supplemented with cOmplete

566 EDTA-free protease Inhibitor Cocktail (MilliporeSigma) and lysed by microfluidizer. The lysate

567 was centrifuged at 20,000×g at 4°C for 30 min to remove cell debris. The protein was first

568 purified by Ni-NTA, eluted around 50 mM imidazole, and then dialyzed against 25 mM Tris-HCl

569 (pH 7.5 at RT), 250 mM NaCl, 7 mM β-mercaptoethanol. 6×His-MBP tag was cleaved by 6×His-

570 MBP-TEV protease (S219V) (purified in house) during the dialysis. The cleaved 6×His-MBP tag

571 and TEV protease were removed through the second round of Ni-NTA column. Flow through

572 and wash fractions were dialyzed against buffer S [25 mM Tris-HCl (pH 7.5 at RT), 250 mM NaCl,

573 7 mM β-mercaptoethanol] and concentrated by Amicon Ultra (10 kDa cutoff). The protein was

574 snap-frozen in liquid nitrogen in storage buffer [25 mM Tris-HCl (pH 7.5 at RT), 250 mM NaCl, 7

575 mM β-mercaptoethanol, 20% glycerol] and stored at -80 °C.

577 iLID-YFP-MARCKS

578 The bacteria transformed with pET28-2×Strep-iLID-EYFP-MARCKS were cultured overnight in LB

579 broth supplemented with 50 µg/mL Kanamycin and 25 µg/mL Chloramphenicol (LB/Kan/Cam).

580 Pre-culture was inoculated to LB/Kan/Cam and cultured at 37°C until OD600 reached around

0.6. Protein expression was induced by adding 300 µM IPTG and allowed to proceed for 17

hours at 23°C in the presence of 6 µM FMN. The cells were resuspended with buffer L1 [50 mM

Tris-HCl (pH 7.5 at RT), 200 mM NaCl, 1 mM EDTA, 7 mM β-mercaptoethanol] and lysed by

microfluidizer. The lysate was centrifuged at 20,000×g at 4°C for 30 min to remove cell debris.

The supernatant was applied to Strep-Tactin XT (IBA Lifesciences) equilibrated with buffer L1

and the protein was eluted with 50 mM biotin in buffer L1. The elution was dialyzed against

buffer L2 [25 mM Tris-HCl (pH 7.5 at RT), 200 mM NaCl, 7 mM β-mercaptoethanol] and

concentrated by Amicon Ultra (10 kDa cutoff). The protein was snap-frozen in liquid nitrogen in

storage buffer [25 mM Tris-HCl (pH 7.5 at RT), 200 mM NaCl, 7 mM β-mercaptoethanol, 30%

glycerol] and stored at -80 °C.

iLID-YFP-SNAP

The bacteria transformed with pET28-2×Strep-iLID-EYFP-SNAP were cultured overnight in LB

broth supplemented with 50 µg/mL Kanamycin and 25 µg/mL Chloramphenicol (LB/Kan/Cam).

Pre-culture was inoculated to LB/Kan/Cam and cultured at 37°C until OD_{600} reached around 0.5.

Protein expression was induced by adding 300 µM IPTG and allowed to proceed for 20 hours at

23°C in the presence of 6 µM FMN. The cells were resuspended with buffer L1 (50 mM Tris-HCl

(pH 7.5 at RT), 200 mM NaCl, 1 mM EDTA, 7 mM β-mercaptoethanol) and lysed by

microfluidizer. The lysate was centrifuged at 20,000×g at 4°C for 30 min to remove cell debris.

The supernatant was applied to Strep-Tactin XT (IBA Lifesciences) equilibrated with buffer L and

the protein was eluted with 50 mM biotin in buffer L1. The elution was further purified by

Superdex 200 increase 10/300 GL column in the buffer L2 [25 mM Tris-HCl (pH 7.5 at RT), 200

mM NaCl, 7 mM β-mercaptoethanol] and concentrated by Amicon Ultra (10 kDa cutoff). The

protein was snap-frozen in liquid nitrogen in storage buffer [25 mM Tris-HCl (pH 7.5 at RT), 200

mM NaCl, 7 mM β-mercaptoethanol, 30% glycerol] and stored at -80 °C.

GST-pVCA-SspB-mCherry

The bacteria transformed with pGEX2T-GST-pVCA-3Csite-SspB(micro)-mCherry-TEVsite-6×His

were cultured overnight in LB broth supplemented with 100 µg/mL Ampicillin and 25 µg/mL

Chloramphenicol (LB/Amp/Cam). Pre-culture was inoculated to LB/Amp/Cam and cultured at

37°C until OD_{600} reached around 0.5–0.6. After cooling the culture on ice, protein expression

was induced by adding 300 µM IPTG and allowed to proceed for 24–26 hours at 18°C. The cells

were resuspended with buffer V (50 mM HEPES-NaOH (pH 7.5), 150 mM NaCl, 10% glycerol, 14

mM b-mercaptoethanol, 1 mM EDTA, 1 mM PMSF, 100 µg/mL DNase, supplemented with

cOmplete EDTA-free protease inhibitor cocktail) and lysed by microfluidizer. The lysate was

centrifuged at 20,000×g at 4°C for 30 min to remove cell debris. To enhance resin binding, final

5 mM DTT was added to the lysate. The lysate was applied to glutathione sepharose

equilibrated with buffer V [50 mM HEPES-NaOH (pH 7.5) 150 mM NaCl, 10% glycerol, 7 mM b-

mercaptoethanol, and 1 mM PMSF], and the protein was eluted with 20 mM glutathione in
buffer V (pH was adjusted between 7.0–8.0 by NaOH). The elution was then purified by Ni-NTA
and eluted with 50–500 mM imidazole. After concentrated by Amicon Ultra (10 kDa cutoff), the
protein was further purified by Superdex 200 increase 10/300 GL column in buffer V and
concentrated again by Amicon Ultra (10 kDa cutoff). The protein was snap-frozen in liquid
nitrogen and stored at -80 °C.

mCherry-SspB-mDia1
The bacteria transformed with pET28-2×Strep-mCherry-SspB(micro)-mDia1(FH1-FH2-DAD)
were cultured overnight in LB broth supplemented with 50 µg/mL Kanamycin and 25 µg/mL
Chloramphenicol (LB/Kan/Cam). Pre-culture was inoculated to LB/Kan/Cam and cultured at
37°C until OD_{600} reached around 0.5–0.6. After cooling the culture on ice, protein expression
was induced by adding 300 µM IPTG and allowed to proceed for 24 hours at 16°C. The cells
were resuspended with buffer D [50 mM Tris-HCl (pH 7.5), 500 mM NaCl, 10% glycerol, 1 mM
DTT, 1 mM EDTA, 1 mM PMSF, 100 µg/mL DNase, supplemented with cOmplete EDTA-free
protease inhibitor cocktail] and lysed by microfluidizer. The lysate was centrifuged at 20,000×g
at 4°C for 30 min to remove cell debris. The supernatant was applied to Strep-Tactin XT (IBA
Lifesciences) equilibrated with buffer D1 (50 mM Tris-HCl (pH 7.5), 500 mM NaCl, 10% glycerol,
1 mM DTT, 1 mM EDTA, 1 mM PMSF) and the protein was eluted with 50 mM biotin in buffer
D1. The elution was concentrated by Amicon Ultra (10 kDa cutoff) and dialysed against buffer
D2 [25 mM HEPES-NaOH (pH 7.5), 150 mM NaCl, 7 mM b-mercaptoethanol, 10% glycerol]. The
protein was further purified by Superdex 200 increase 10/300 GL column in buffer D2 and
concentrated again by Amicon Ultra (10 kDa cutoff). The protein was snap-frozen in liquid
nitrogen and stored at -80 °C.

Capping protein
The bacteria transformed with pET28-6×His-2×Strep-TEVsite-Capβ2(mouse)-Capα1(mouse)
were cultured overnight in LB/Kan/Cam. Pre-culture was inoculated to LB/Kan/Cam and
cultured at 37°C until OD_{600} reached around 0.7. Protein expression was induced by adding 300
µM IPTG and allowed to proceed for 24 hours at 18°C. The cells were re-suspended with 50 mM
Tris-HCl (pH 7.5 at RT), 150 mM NaCl, 14 mM β-mercaptoethanol, 1 mM EDTA, 1 mM PMSF,
100 µg/mL DNase and lysed by microfluidizer. The lysate was centrifuged at 20,000×g at 4°C for
30 min to remove cell debris. The supernatant was applied to Strep-Tactin XT 4Flow (IBA
Lifesciences) equilibrated with buffer C1 [50 mM Tris-HCl (pH 7.5 at RT), 150 mM NaCl, 7 mM
β-mercaptoethanol] and the protein was eluted with 50 mM biotin in buffer C1. The elution
was dialyzed against buffer C2 [25 mM Tris-HCl (pH 7.5 at RT), 150 mM NaCl, 7 mM β-
mercaptoethanol]. 6×His-2×Strep tag was cleaved by 6×His-MBP-TEV protease (S219V) (purified
in house) during the dialysis. The cleaved 6×His-2×Strep tag and TEV protease were removed

through Ni-NTA column. Flow through and wash fractions were dialyzed against buffer and
concentrated by Amicon Ultra (10 kDa cutoff). The protein was snap-frozen in liquid nitrogen in
buffer C2 and stored at -80 °C.
660

Pyrene-actin polymerization assay

For pyrene actin assay, actin was purified by size exclusion column. One milligram of actin
(Cytoskeleton Inc. AKL99-B) was dissolved in 400 µL G-buffer [2 mM Tris-HCl (pH 7.5 at RT), 0.1
mM $CaCl_2$, 0.2 mM ATP, 0.5 mM DTT, 1 mM NaN_3] and dialyzed against the same buffer. After 3
days dialysis with daily buffer exchange, the actin was purified by Superdex 200 Increase
10/300 GL column (GE Healthcare) to separate monomer fraction from a fraction occasionally
appear at larger size molecular size (smaller elution volume). The purified actin was stored at
4°C in a dialyzed manner against G-Buffer with twice a week buffer exchange.
Pyrene-actin polymerization assay was performed with FluoroMax 3 and Datamax software.
Pyrene fluorescence and its kinetics were measured by 365 nm excitation (1 nm bandwidth)
and 407 nm emission (5 nm bandwidth). The reaction was prepared by following the previously
reported method (*127*), except that the reaction was 50 µL in quartz cuvettes (Hellma, 105-251-
15-40).
674

GUV preparation by emulsion transfer

Lipid-in-oil solution was prepared as follows. Chloroform solutions of lipids were mixed in 5 mL
glass vial, dried at 70°C with N_2 gas flow, and left in vacuum 3 hours to overnight. The amounts
of lipids were typically 6.5 µmol (1.3 mM, 1 mg/mL at final concentration in oil) for 40 mol%
POPS/60 mol% POPC mixture (MARCKS peptide anchoring) and 1.5 µmol (0.3 mM, 0.23 mg/mL
at final concentration in oil) for 2 mol% Bendylguanine-conjugated lipid/98 mol% POPC and
100% POPC (SNAP-tag anchoring). was dissolved in 5 mL of oil mixture (90 volume%
hexadecane, 10 volume% silicone oil) by heating at 80°C for 1–2 hours, then brought to RT.
For iLID-SspB translocation experiments, inner solution contained 4 µM iLID-YFP-SNAP (or iLID-
EYFP-MARCKS) and 1 µM mCherry-SspB(micro) in buffer (22.5 mM Tris-HCl (pH 7.5 at RT), 122.5
mM NaCl, 2 mM $MgCl_2$, 240 mM sucrose, 0.7 mM β-mercaptoethanol, and 3% glycerol). Outer
solution was prepared by replacing protein fractions of inner solution with their buffers and
sucrose with glucose.
For actin polymerization experiments, inner solution was prepared by mixing 10 µL of actin
(10% Alexa 647 labelled) in G-buffer and 10 µL of other proteins solution similarly to pyrene
actin polymerization assay. At the final concentration, inner solution typically contained 11.75
µM iLID-EYFP-SNAP, 1 µM GST-pVCA-SspB(micro)-mCherry, 1 µM mCherry-SspB(micro)-mDia1,
7.5 µM actin, 150 nM Arp2/3, 50 nM capping protein, 3 µM profilin, 2 µM cofilin, 1 µM creatine
kinase in the buffer (5.9 mM Tris-HCl (pH 7.5 at RT), 1.3 mM HEPES-NaOH (pH 7.5 at RT), 7.7
mM Imidazole (pH 8.0 at RT), 27 µM KH_2PO_4, 74 µM Na_2HPO_4, 39 mM KCl, 33 mM NaCl, 0.8

mM MgCl$_2$, 43 µM CaCl$_2$, 1.1 mM EGTA, 1.2 mM β-mercaptoethanol, 0.21 mM DTT, 0.43 mM
NaN$_3$, 1 mM ATP, 25 mM creatine phosphate, 240 mM sucrose and 2.8% glycerol). Outer
solution was prepared by replacing protein fractions of inner solution with their buffers and
sucrose with glucose. Protein and buffer conditions are summarized in Supplementary table 1.
GUVs were prepared as previously reported (*55, 128*). Briefly, oil-buffer interface was created
by layering 250 µL lipid-in-oil solution on top of 250 µL outer buffer in 1.5 mL tube. Water-in-oil
emulsion was made by vigorously pipetting 20 µL of inner solution in 250 µL of lipid-in-oil
solution and gently added to the top of the oil-buffer layers. The emulsions were transferred
through the oil-buffer interface by centrifugation at 2500×g for 2 min at RT. GUVs were
collected by pipetting.
705
Image acquisition and analysis
For imaging GUVs, 8-well glass chamber slides (ThermoFisher Scientific, 154534) were
pretreated with 10 mg/mL BSA in PBS for 10 minutes and washed with MilliQ water twice.
LSM780 confocal microscope (Zeiss) equipped with Plan-Aprochromat 63X/1.40na oil
immersion DIC objective lens (Zeiss 420782-9900) was used for imaging and light stimulation of
GUVs. YFP, mCherry, and Alexa Fluor 647 were imaged with 514, 561, and 633 nm excitation
lasers, respectively. Blue light illumination for iLID stimulation was performed by using
bleaching function with 458 nm laser at intensity 1.0–5.0%, scan speed 6 (pixel dwell time = 6.3
µsec). Main beam splitters MBS458/561, MBS 488/561/633, and MBS 458/514 were used for
458 and 561, 633, and 514 nm excitation, respectively. The imaging was performed at room
temperature. Data were analyzed by Fiji software (*129*).
717
Live cell CID experiments
DNA constructs: Four plasmids were used which encoded Lyn-CFP-FRB (*130*), YFP-FKBP (*130*),
YFP-FKBP-Tiam1 (*124*), YFP-FKBP-pVCA, and YFP-FKBP-mDia1.
Cell culture: HEK293T cells (ATCC) were cultured in DMEM (Corning, 10-013-CV) supplemented
with 10% fetal bovine serum (Corning, 35-010-CV) and 1% penicillin-streptomycin
(ThermoFisher, 15140163).
Transient transfection: HEK293T cells were seeded at a density of 9,000-12,000 cells in an 8-
well chamber slide. A solution of 0.3 µg of DNA, 1 µL of FuGENE HD, and 30 µL of Opti-MEM per
well was added for transfection. FRB:FKBP pairs were cotransfected in a 1:1 or 1:2 ratio. Cells
were incubated at 37°C with 5% CO$_2$ and 95% humidity for 24–48 h before imaging.
Microscopes and imaging: Live cell imaging of actin NPF recruitment to the cell membrane was
performed using an Eclipse Ti inverted fluorescence microscope (Nikon) with a 100x Oil
objective lens and Andor Zyla 4.2 plus sCMOS camera, or with a 60x Oil, TIRF 60x Oil, or TIRF
100x Oil objective lens and ORCA-Fusion Digital CMOS camera. Images were captured every 1
min for 30-120 min, where within 5 min of starting, 0.1 µM rapamycin was added. Nikon

microscopes were driven by NIS-Elements software (Nikon). All live cell imaging was performed
at 37 °C with 5% CO_2 and humidity control by a stage top incubator. Image processing and
analysis were performed by Fiji software.

Data analysis: Per transfection sample, each cell from the image set was counted between
three categories. The categories were no change, lamellipodia, and filipodia. Cells with
lamellipodia or filipodia pre-rapamycin were not counted unless new membrane protrusions
formed after rapamycin addition. If the cell under observation did not produce any new
lamellipodia or filipodia after addition of rapamycin, then it was counted as no change. Only
healthy cells fully in the plane of view with clear expression of both FRB and FKBP constructs
were counted. If there was any doubt in the phenotype of the cell, then it was not included in
the count.

Statistics

1. The cell counts for each category were summed across all experiments, and this sum was
divided by the total number of cells to get a percentage of cells belonging to each category
when a certain actin NPF was recruited to the membrane.

2. For each image set collected from a transfection sample, the categorized cell counts were
divided by the total cell count to get percentages. For each actin NPF, the percentages from all
transfection samples were averaged. These averages were analyzed by two-tailed Student's t-
test assuming equal variance (checked with F-test) in order to establish the significance of
lamellipodia or filopodia detection between transfection samples.

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Author contributions

HTM, SR, and TI conceived the project. HTM performed most of the experiments and analyzed
the data with contributions from SR, HN, BC, SM, SMN and TI. SR established GUV preparation
method. WR performed in-cell CID experiment and analyzed the data. DN, DAK, and BC
provided cytoskeleton proteins. TM provided benzylguanine-conjugated lipid. HTM wrote the
manuscript in consultation with TI. HTM, SR, and TI edited the manuscript. All the authors
contributed to the final version of the manuscript.

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Figure Legends

Fig. 1. Reversible and asymmetric control of protein localization with iLID-SspB within GUVs.
(A) Schematic representation of iLID-SspB reaction with global light stimulation. iLID was
tethered on the membrane via the interaction between SNAP-tag and bendylguanine-
conjugated lipids. Upon blue light illumination, Jα helix of iLID extends to expose the binding
site for SspB, whereas in the dark, iLID reverses to its closed state and releases SspB. (B)
Representative images of iLID-YFP-SNAP and mCherry-SspB. Scale bar, 10 μm. Blue bar indicates
the period of blue light illumination. (C) Time course of membrane/lumen ratio of mCherry-
SspB signal (n=5). Error bars indicate standard deviation. Blue area indicates the period of blue
light stimulation. Triangles indicate timepoints represented in (B). (D) Schematic representation
of iLID-SspB reaction with local light stimulation. (E) Representative images of mCherry-SspB.
Scale bar, 10 μm. Yellow box indicates the area of blue light illumination. (F) Membrane/lumen
ratio of mCherry-SspB for the representative image shown. The distance is measured from the
center of blue light illumination along the perimeter of the GUV. (G) Representative image and
kymograph of repetitive and reversible SspB translocation. Kymograph shows membrane signal
of mCherry-SspB.

Fig. 2. Reversible light control of actin cytoskeleton within GUVs. (A) Bulk pyrene actin
polymerization assay with 1 μM actin (5% pyrene labeled), 10 nM Arp2/3, and 100 nM NPFs. (-
NPF) represents actin and Arp2/3 only condition. (B) Schematic representation of light inducible
actin polymerization. Translocation of pVCA-SspB-mCherry increases local concentration of

pVCA on the membrane and enhances actin polymerization. (C) Representative images of
pVCA-SspB-mCherry and Alexa 647 actin. Blue bar indicates the period of blue light illumination.
(D), (E) Time course of membrane/lumen ratio of mCherry and Alexa 647 actin. +: full set of
components (n=4). -Light: no blue light stimulation (n=3). -pVCA: pVCA-SspB-mCherry was
replaced with mCherry-SspB (n=4). -Arp2/3: Arp2/3 was omitted (n=4). Error bars indicate 95%
CI. Triangles indicate timepoints represented in (C). (F) Representative images of reversible
actin polymerization. Blue bars indicate the period of blue light illumination. (G) Time course of
membrane/lumen ratio of pVCA-SspB-mCherry and Alexa 647-labeled actin in (F). Triangles
indicate timepoints represented in (F).

Fig. 3. Asymmetric light control of actin cytoskeleton within GUVs. (A) Schematic
representation of iLID-SspB reaction with local light stimulation. (B, D) Representative images of
light inducible asymmetric actin polymerization. Yellow boxes indicate the area of blue light
illumination. (C, E) Kymograph of membrane pVCA-SspB and actin signals. Blue bars indicate the
period of blue light illumination. Triangles indicate timepoints represented in (B, D).

Fig. 4. mDia1-mediated actin polymerization drives protrusive motility of GUVs. (A) Schematic
representation of light inducible membrane protrusion driven by pVCA and mDia1-mediated
actin polymerization. (B) Representative images of pVCA-mDia1-mediated movement of GUVs.
Yellow boxes indicate the area of blue light stimulation. Dotted line shows the initial position of
the GUV. (C) Representative images of iLID-EYFP-SNAP showing the increase in adhesive area
and vesicle deformation into dome-like shape. Bottom plane indicates the confocal plane right
above the bottom substrate. Side view is reconstituted from z-stack. Dotted line shows the
adhesive area of the previous images. (D) Color-coded boundaries of GUVs. The data
correspond as follows. Left: Fig. 4B. Middle: Fig. S16A. Right: Fig. S16B. (E, F) Kymographs of
membrane signal of mCherry and actin Alexa-647 and membrane protrusions. Triangles in (E)
indicate the timepoints represented in (B, C). Data of (E) and (F) corresponds to Fig. 4 (B) and
Fig. S16A, respectively. (G) Distance the front (illuminated) side of GUV membrane moved
forward. pVCA+mDia1 (1 μM GST-pVCA-SspB-mCherry + 1 μM mCherry-SspB-mDia1, n=14
vesicles), mDia1 (1 μM mCherry-SspB-mDia1, n=12 vesicles), pVCA (1 μM GST-pVCA-SspB-
mCherry, n=12 vesicles). Error bars indicate standard error of the mean (SEM). (H) DMSO (n=9
vesicles), 30 μM LatA (Latrunculin A) (n=10 vesicles). DMSO, ΔDAD: mCherry-SspB-mDia1 (FH1-
FH2-DAD) was replaced with mCherry-SspB-mDia1(FH1-FH2) (n=13 vesicles). 30 μM SMIFH2
(n=6 vesicles). Error bars indicate standard error of the mean (SEM). (I) A GUV deformed into
dome-like shape after movement. Upper images: before light stimulation. Lower images: after
light stimulation. The data corresponds to Fig. S16C.

Fig. S1. Proteins purified in this study. (A) SDS-PAGE results of purified proteins. Blue: Coomassie brilliant blue staining. Gray: SYPRO Ruby staining. Most mCherry-tagged proteins show two extra bands due to a known chromophore cleavage reaction during the boiling process (*131*, *132*). (B) Domain structures of NPFs used in this study.

Fig. S2. Optimization of membrane anchoring of iLID. (A),(D),(G),(I): Schematic representations of membrane anchoring of iLID. (B),(C),(E),(F),(H),(J): Confocal images of iLID variants and mCherry-SspB. (B) His-tag Ni-NTA pair caused non-specific membrane recruitment of SspB. This is possibly caused by the presence of 2×Strep-iLID-YFP-6×His because mCherry-SspB itself did not show non-specific binding to the membrane of 5%Ni-NTA DGS/95%POPC (C). (E),(F) MARCKS-ED peptide requires high percentage of PS and PEGylated-lipids to reduce non-specific binding of SspB. (H) Biotin-StrepTactin-Streptag also caused non-specific membrane binding of SspB. (J) The data correspond with Fig. 1B.

Fig. S3. Asymmetric control of protein localization with iLID-SspB within GUVs. (A) Time course of membrane/lumen ratio of mCherry-SspB signal in the illuminated area (n=5). Error bars indicate 95% CI. Blue area indicates the time window of blue light stimulation. The data corresponds to Fig. 1E and F. (B, C) Confocal images and time course of membrane/lumen ratio of mCherry-SspB signal responding to repetitive local light illuminations. The data corresponds to Fig. 1G.

Fig. S4. Optimization of ActA-SspB. (A) Pyrene actin polymerization assay. The reaction was performed with 1 µM actin (5% pyrene labeled), 10 nM Arp2/3, and 100 nM ActA variants or GST-VCA. (B) Fluorescence intensity/time in 0–6 min of (A) was plotted as bar chart. (C–E) Light inducible local membrane recruitment of ActA (C) Confocal images of ActA translocation. Yellow boxes indicate the area of blue light illumination. (D) Time course of membrane/lumen ratio of ActA-SspB variants (n≥5 for each variant). Error bars indicate SEM. Blue bar indicates the time window of blue light stimulation. (E) Average membrane/lumen ratio of mCherry signal. In each condition, left and right bars indicate before and after light stimulation, respectively. The numbers on the bar chart indicate the fold change after stimulation.

Fig. S5. Light inducible actin polymerization with global ActA membrane recruitment. iLID-EYFP-MARCKS (5 µM), ActA-SspBnano-mCherry (2 µM), actin (1.5 µM, 10% Alexa-647 labeled), and Arp2/3 (150 nM) were encapsulated in GUVs containing 60 mol% POPC/40 mol% POPS. Blue light was applied to the entire GUV. (A) Representative images of ActA(1–183)-SspB(nano)-mCherry and actin Alexa-647. All components (n=4): w/o ActA: ActA(1–183)-SspB(nano)-mCherry was replaced with mCherry-SspB(micro) (n=3), w/o Arp2/3: Arp2/3 was omitted (n=3). No Light: no blue light stimulation (n=3). (B, C) Time course of membrane/lumen ratio of

883   mCherry and actin Alexa 647. (D) Bar chart of membrane/lumen ratio of actin Alexa 647 before
884   (0 min) and after (40 min) light stimulation. Error bars indicate SEM.
885
Fig. S6. Asymmetric ActA membrane recruitment fails to induce directed actin polarization
toward local light illumination. iLID-EYFP-MARCKS (5 µM), ActA-SspBnano-mCherry (2 µM),
actin (1.5 µM, 10% Alexa-647 labeled), and Arp2/3 (150 nM), 1 mM ATP were encapsulated in
GUVs containing 60 mol% POPC/40 mol% POPS. Yellow boxes indicate the area of blue light
illumination. Although ActA creates asymmetric distribution, actin patches randomly
distributed due to the diffusion on the membrane.
892
893   **Fig. S7. Global ActA membrane recruitment fails to induce actin polymerization on the**
894   **membrane in the presence of profilin, cofilin, and capping protein.** 15 µM iLID-YFP-MARCKS, 5
895   µM ActA(1-183)-SspB(nano)-mCherry, 7.5 µM actin (10% Alexa 647 labeled), 150 nM Arp2/3, 3
896   µM profilin, cofilin, and capping protein were encapsulated in GUVs containing 60 mol%
897   POPC/40 mol% POPS. Blue bars indicate the period of blue light illumination.
898
899   **Fig. S8. Pyrene actin polymerization assay.** (A, B) The reactions were performed with 2 µM
900   actin (5% pyrene labeled), 10 nM Arp2/3, and 100 nM NPFs at RT. (-) represents actin and
901   Arp2/3 only condition. (C) The reactions were performed with 2 µM actin (5% pyrene labeled)
902   with the indicated factors.
903
Fig. S9. Light control of actin cytoskeleton with pVCA-SspB-mCherry. The data correspond to
Fig. 2C–E. (+) condition contains 15 µM iLID-YFP-MARCKS, 4.2 µM pVCA-SspB(nano)-mCherry,
7.5 µM actin (10% Alexa 647 labelled), 150 nM Arp2/3, 100 nM capping protein, 3 µM profilin, 4
µM cofilin, and 1 mM ATP. In (-light) and (-Arp2/3) conditions, blue light illumination or Arp2/3
was omitted from (+) condition, respectively. In (-pVCA) condition, pVCA-SspB(nano)-mCherry
was replaced with mCherry-SspB(micro).
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911
912   **Fig. S10. Representative images of reversible actin polymerization.** Confocal images and time
913   course of membrane/lumen ratio of pVCA-SspB-mCherry and Alexa 647-labeld actin. Blue bars
914   on images and blue regions in graphs indicate timepoints with blue light illumination. This
915   figure corresponds with Fig. 2F, G.
916
Fig. S11. Asymmetric actin polymerization induced by pVCA. (A, B) Confocal images of local
pVCA recruitment and actin polymerization. Yellow boxes indicate areas of blue light
illumination. (A) The data corresponds to Fig. 3B and C. In (B), Vesicle movement toward light

stimulation was observed. Gray scaled images were created by averaging pVCA and actin
images. Dotted circles indicate positions of vesicles in the images of one above.

Fig. S12. Quantitative analysis of mDia1-induced filopodia formation in Cos7 cells. (A)
Schematic representation of chemically-inducible mDia1 translocation and membrane
protrusions. (B, C) Confocal images of plasma membrane recruitment of mDia1 and subsequent
filopodia formation. Cos7 cells were transfected with Lyn-ECFP-FRB, Lifeact-mCherry, and either
of YFP-FKBP or YFP-FKBP-mDia1. At time 0, 100 nM rapamycin was added. Green: YFP-FKBP or
YFP-FKBP-mDia1. Magenta: Lifeact-mCherry. (B) YFP-FKBP control. (C) YFP-FKBP-mDia1. (D)
Zoomed-up view of filopodia extension. Images were acquired every 1.5 minutes. The bottom is
merged image. (E) Quantification of mDia1-induced filopodia. Number of filopodia whose
length is longer than 15 μm was counted. P-values: ****: < 0.0001. Wilcoxon rank sum test. YF
(YFP-FKBP): n=36 cells. YF-mDia1 (YFP-FKBP-mDia1): n=33 cells. (F–H) Quantification of the
phenotypes observed after plasma membrane translocation of mDia1, pVCA, Tiam1 (Rac1 GEF),
and control protein YFP-FKBP.

**Fig. S13. mDia1-mediated GUV movement and the comparison between mDia1 and pVCA +
mDia1 system.** (A) Representative images of mDia1-mediated GUV movement. Yellow boxes
indicate the area of blue light stimulation. Dotted lines indicate the initial position of the GUV.
(B, C) Time course of the distance the front (illuminated) side of GUV membrane moved
forward. Each line represents each GUVs. Insets show the initial response. (D, E) Quantification
of the initial velocity and the distance the front side of GUV membrane moved forward. P
values of Steel-Dwass test (two sided) are indicated. pVCA + mDia1: n=22 vesicles. mDia1: n=11
vesicles. pVCA: n=12 vesicles. Box whisker plots represent median, 1st, 3rd quartiles and
1.5×inter-quartile range.

Fig. S14. Local protrusions in pVCA + mDia1 GUVs. Representative images of local protrusions
seen in pVCA + mDia1 GUVs. Yellow boxes indicate the area of blue light stimulation. Dotted
lines indicate the initial position of the GUV. White arrows indicate where local protrusions
arose.

Fig. S15. Lack of vesicle movement and shape change with mCherry-SspB. With pVCA-SspB-
mCherry and mCherry-SspB-mDia1 being replaced with mCherry-SspB, GUVs neither moved nor
changed their shape after blue light illumination. (A) Time course of the distance the front
(illuminated) side of GUV membrane moved forward. pVCA + mDia1 GUVs: n=6 vesicle. SspB
GUVs: n=4 vesicles. Error bars indicate SEM. (B) 3D reconstitution of iLID-YFP-SNAP images
before and after blue light illumination.

Fig. S16. Representative images of pVCA-mDia1-mediated movement of GUVs. (A, B)

Representative images of pVCA-mDia1-mediated movement of GUVs. Yellow boxes indicate the

area of blue light stimulation. Dotted lines indicate the initial position of the GUV. White arrows

indicate where local protrusions arose. (C) Distance the front side of GUV membrane moved

forward. Data was quantified from the images of (B). Blue areas indicate the periods of blue

light stimulation.

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Figure 1

Fig. 1. Reversible and asymmetric control of protein localization with iLID-SspB within GUVs. (A) Schematic representation of iLID-SspB reaction with global light stimulation. iLID was tethered on the membrane via the interaction between SNAP-tag and bendylguanine-conjugated lipids. Upon blue light illumination, Jα helix of iLID extends to expose the binding site for SspB, whereas in the dark, iLID reverses to its closed state and releases SspB. (B) Representative images of iLID-YFP-SNAP and mCherry-SspB. Scale bar, 10 μm. Blue bar indicates the period of blue light illumination. (C) Time course of membrane/lumen ratio of mCherry-SspB signal (n=5). Error bars indicate standard deviation. Blue area indicates the period of blue light stimulation. Triangles indicate timepoints represented in (B). (D) Schematic representation of iLID-SspB reaction with local light stimulation. (E) Representative images of mCherry-SspB. Scale bar, 10 μm. Yellow box indicates the area of blue light illumination. (F) Membrane/lumen ratio of mCherry-SspB for the representative image shown. The distance is measured from the center of blue light illumination along the perimeter of the GUV. (G) Representative image and kymograph of repetitive and reversible SspB translocation. Kymograph shows membrane signal of mCherry-SspB.

Figure 2

Fig. 2. Reversible light control of actin cytoskeleton within GUVs. (A) Bulk pyrene actin polymerization assay with 1 µM actin (5% pyrene labeled), 10 nM Arp2/3, and 100 nM NPFs. (-NPF) represents actin and Arp2/3 only condition. (B) Schematic representation of light inducible actin polymerization. Translocation of pVCA-SspB-mCherry increases local concentration of pVCA on the membrane and enhances actin polymerization. (C) Representative images of pVCA-SspB-mCherry and Alexa 647 actin. Blue bar indicates the period of blue light illumination. (D), (E) Time course of membrane/lumen ratio of mCherry and Alexa 647 actin. +: full set of components (n=4). -Light: no blue light stimulation (n=3). -pVCA: pVCA-SspB-mCherry was replaced with mCherry-SspB (n=4). -Arp2/3: Arp2/3 was omitted (n=4). Error bars indicate 95% CI. Triangles indicate timepoints represented in (C). (F) Representative images of reversible actin polymerization. Blue bars indicate the period of blue light illumination. (G) Time course of membrane/lumen ratio of pVCA-SspB-mCherry and Alexa 647-labeled actin in (F). Triangles indicate timepoints represented in (F).

Figure 3

Fig. 3. Asymmetric light control of actin cytoskeleton within GUVs. (A) Schematic representation of iLID-SspB reaction with local light stimulation. (B, D) Representative images of light inducible asymmetric actin polymerization. Yellow boxes indicate the area of blue light illumination. (C, E) Kymograph of membrane pVCA-SspB and actin signals. Blue bars indicate the period of blue light illumination. Triangles indicate timepoints represented in (B, D).

Figure 4

Fig. 4. mDia1-mediated actin polymerization drives protrusive motility of GUVs. (A) Schematic representation of light inducible membrane protrusion driven by pVCA and mDia1-mediated actin polymerization. (B) Representative images of pVCA-mDia1-mediated movement of GUVs. Yellow boxes indicate the area of blue light stimulation. Dotted line shows the initial position of the GUV. (C) Representative images of iLID-EYFP-SNAP showing the increase in adhesive area and vesicle deformation into dome-like shape. Bottom plane indicates the confocal plane right above the bottom substrate. Side view is reconstituted from z-stack. Dotted line shows the adhesive area of the previous images. (D) Color-coded boundaries of GUVs. The data correspond as follows. Left: Fig. 4B. Middle: Fig. S16A. Right: Fig. S16B. (E, F) Kymographs of membrane signal of mCherry and actin Alexa-647 and membrane protrusions. Triangles in (E) indicate the timepoints represented in (B, C). Data of (E) and (F) corresponds to Fig. 4 (B) and Fig. S16A, respectively. (G) Distance the front (illuminated) side of GUV membrane moved forward. pVCA+mDia1 (1 μM GST-pVCA-SspB-mCherry + 1 μM mCherry-SspB-mDia1, n=14 vesicles), mDia1 (1 μM mCherry-SspB-mDia1, n=12 vesicles), pVCA (1 μM GST-pVCA-SspB-mCherry, n=12 vesicles). Error bars indicate standard error of the mean (SEM). (H) DMSO (n=9 vesicles), 30 μM LatA (Latrunculin A) (n=10 vesicles). DMSO, ΔDAD: mCherry-SspB-mDia1 (FH1-FH2-DAD) was replaced with mCherry-SspB-mDia1(FH1-FH2) (n=13 vesicles). 30 μM SMIFH2 (n=6 vesicles). Error bars indicate standard error of the mean (SEM). (I) A GUV deformed into dome-like shape after movement. Upper images: before light stimulation. Lower images: after light stimulation. The data corresponds to Fig. S16C.

Figure S1

Fig. S1. Proteins purified in this study. (A) SDS-PAGE results of purified proteins. Blue: Coomassie brilliant blue staining. Gray: SYPRO Ruby staining. Most mCherry-tagged proteins show two extra bands due to a known chromophore cleavage reaction during the boiling process (131, 132). (B) Domain structures of NPFs used in this study.

Figure S2

A

Ni-NTA 6xHis tag
iLID

B 5 mol% NI-NTA-DGS/0–2 mol% PEG2000-PE/ 93-95 mol% POPC

2xStrep-iLID-YFP-6xHis (4 µM)   mCherry-SspB (1 µM)

PEG2000-PE 0 mol%

0.5 mol%

1.0 mol%

2.0 mol%

C 5 mol% Ni-NTA-DGS/95 mol% POPC

mCherry-SspB (1 µM)

D

POPS MARCKS-ED
iLID

E 2xStrep-iLID-YFP-MARCKS (4 µM)   mCherry-SspB (1 µM)

10 mol% POPS/ 90 mol% POPC

20 mol% POPS/ 80 mol% POPC

40 mol% POPS/ 60 mol% POPC

F 40 mol% POPS/58–60 mol% POPC

2xStrep-iLID-YFP-MARCKS (4 µM)   mCherry-SspB (1 µM)

PEG2000-PE 0.5 mol%

1.0 mol%

2.0 mol%

Figure S2

Fig. S2. Optimization of membrane anchoring of iLID. (A),(D),(G),(I): Schematic representations of membrane anchoring of iLID. (B),(C),(E),(F), (H),(J): Confocal images of iLID variants and mCherry-SspB. (B) His-tag Ni-NTA pair caused non-specific membrane recruitment of SspB. This is possibly caused by the presence of 2×Strep-iLID-YFP-6×His because mCherry-SspB itself did not show non-specific binding to the membrane of 5%Ni-NTA DGS/95%POPC (C). (E),(F) MARCKS-ED peptide requires high percentage of PS and PEGylated-lipids to reduce non-specific binding of SspB. (H) Biotin-StrepTactin-Streptag also caused non-specific membrane binding of SspB. (J) The data correspond with Fig. 1B.

Figure S3

A

B

C

up ⬆

down ⬇

left ⬅

right ➡

mCherry-SspB membrane/lumen ratio

time (min)

Fig. S3. Asymmetric control of protein localization with iLID-SspB within GUVs. (A) Time course of membrane/lumen ratio of mCherry-SspB signal in the illuminated area (n=5). Error bars indicate 95% CI. Blue area indicates the time window of blue light stimulation. The data corresponds to Fig. 1E and F. (B, C) Confocal images and time course of membrane/lumen ratio of mCherry-SspB signal responding to repetitive local light illuminations. The data corresponds to Fig. 1G.

Figure S4

Fig. S4. Optimization of ActA-SspB. (A) Pyrene actin polymerization assay. The reaction was performed with 1 µM actin (5% pyrene labeled), 10 nM Arp2/3, and 100 nM ActA variants or GST-VCA. (B) Fluorescence intensity/time in 0–6 min of (A) was plotted as bar chart. (C–E) Light inducible local membrane recruitment of ActA (C) Confocal images of ActA translocation. Yellow boxes indicate the area of blue light illumination. (D) Time course of membrane/lumen ratio of ActA-SspB variants (n≥5 for each variant). Error bars indicate SEM. Blue bar indicates the time window of blue light stimulation. (E) Average membrane/lumen ratio of mCherry signal. In each condition, left and right bars indicate before and after light stimulation, respectively. The numbers on the bar chart indicate the fold change after stimulation.

Figure S5

Figure S5

Fig S5. Light inducible actin polymerization with global ActA membrane recruitment. iLID-EYFP-MARCKS (5 µM), ActA-SspBnano-mCherry (2 µM), actin (1.5 µM, 10% Alexa-647 labeled), and Arp2/3 (150 nM) were encapsulated in GUVs containing 60 mol% POPC/40 mol% POPS. Blue light was applied to the entire GUV. (A) Representative images of ActA(1–183)-SspB(nano)-mCherry and actin Alexa-647. All components (n=4): w/o ActA: ActA(1–183)-SspB(nano)-mCherry was replaced with mCherry-SspB(micro) (n=3), w/o Arp2/3: Arp2/3 was omitted (n=3). No Light: no blue light stimulation (n=3). (B, C) Time course of membrane/lumen ratio of mCherry and actin Alexa 647. (D) Bar chart of membrane/lumen ratio of actin Alexa 647 before (0 min) and after (40 min) light stimulation. Error bars indicate SEM.

Figure S6

Fig S6. Asymmetric ActA membrane recruitment fails to induce directed actin polarization toward local light illumination. iLID-EYFP-MARCKS (5 μM), ActA-SspBnano-mCherry (2 μM), actin (1.5 μM, 10% Alexa-647 labeled), and Arp2/3 (150 nM), 1 mM ATP were encapsulated in GUVs containing 60 mol% POPC/40 mol% POPS. Yellow boxes indicate the area of blue light illumination. Although ActA creates asymmetric distribution, actin patches randomly distributed due to the diffusion on the membrane.

Figure S7

Fig. S7. Global ActA membrane recruitment fails to induce actin polymerization on the membrane in the presence of profilin, cofilin, and capping protein. 15 µM iLID-YFP-MARCKS, 5 µM ActA(1-183)-SspB(nano)-mCherry, 7.5 µM actin (10% Alexa 647 labeled), 150 nM Arp2/3, 3 µM profilin, cofilin, and capping protein were encapsulated in GUVs containing 60 mol% POPC/40 mol% POPS. Blue bars indicate the period of blue light illumination.

Figure S8

A

B

C

Fig. S8. Pyrene actin polymerization assay. (A, B) The reactions were performed with 2 µM actin (5% pyrene labeled), 10 nM Arp2/3, and 100 nM NPFs at RT. (-) represents actin and Arp2/3 only condition. (C) The reactions were performed with 2 µM actin (5% pyrene labeled) with the indicated factors.

Figure S9

Fig. S9. Light control of actin cytoskeleton with pVCA-SspB-mCherry. The data correspond to Fig. 2C–E. (+) condition contains 15 µM iLID-YFP-MARCKS, 4.2 µM pVCA-SspB(nano)-mCherry, 7.5 µM actin (10% Alexa 647 labelled), 150 nM Arp2/3, 100 nM capping protein, 3 µM profilin, 4 µM cofilin, and 1 mM ATP. In (-light) and (-Arp2/3) conditions, blue light illumination or Arp2/3 was omitted from (+) condition, respectively. In (-pVCA) condition, pVCA-SspB(nano)-mCherry was replaced with mCherry-SspB(micro).

Figure S10

Figure S10

Fig. S10. Representative images of reversible actin polymerization. Confocal images and time course of membrane/lumen ratio of pVCA-SspB-mCherry and Alexa 647-labeld actin. Blue bars on images and blue regions in graphs indicate timepoints with blue light illumination. This figure corresponds with Fig. 2F, G.

Figure S11

A

pVCA-SspB-mCherry

actin-Alexa647

0   2.7   7.7   28.6   106.2   (min)

B

pVCA-SspB-mCherry   actin-Alexa647

13.8

73.1

137.4

(min)

Fig. S11. Asymmetric actin polymerization induced by pVCA. (A, B) Confocal images of local pVCA recruitment and actin polymerization. Yellow boxes indicate areas of blue light illumination. (A) The data corresponds to Fig. 3B and C. In (B), Vesicle movement toward light stimulation was observed. Gray scaled images were created by averaging pVCA and actin images. Dotted circles indicate positions of vesicles in the images of one above.

Figure S12

Figure S12

Fig. S12. Quantitative analysis of mDia1-induced filopodia formation in Cos7 cells. (A) Schematic representation of chemically-inducible mDia1 translocation and membrane protrusions. (B, C) Confocal images of plasma membrane recruitment of mDia1 and subsequent filopodia formation. Cos7 cells were transfected with Lyn-ECFP-FRB, Lifeact-mCherry, and either of YFP-FKBP or YFP-FKBP-mDia1. At time 0, 100 nM rapamycin was added. Green: YFP-FKBP or YFP-FKBP-mDia1. Magenta: Lifeact-mCherry. (B) YFP-FKBP control. (C) YFP-FKBP-mDia1. (D) Zoomed-up view of filopodia extension. Images were acquired every 1.5 minutes. The bottom is merged image. (E) Quantification of mDia1-induced filopodia. Number of filopodia whose length is longer than 15 μm was counted. P-values: ****: < 0.0001. Wilcoxon rank sum test. YF (YFP-FKBP): n=36 cells. YF-mDia1 (YFP-FKBP-mDia1): n=33 cells. (F–H) Quantification of the phenotypes observed after plasma membrane translocation of mDia1, pVCA, Tiam1 (Rac1 GEF), and control protein YFP-FKBP.

Figure S13

Fig. S13. mDia1-mediated GUV movement and the comparison between mDia1 and pVCA + mDia1 system. (A) Representative images of mDia1-mediated GUV movement. Yellow boxes indicate the area of blue light stimulation. Dotted lines indicate the initial position of the GUV. (B, C) Time course of the distance the front (illuminated) side of GUV membrane moved forward. Each line represents each GUVs. Insets show the initial response. (D, E) Quantification of the initial velocity and the distance the front side of GUV membrane moved forward. P values of Steel-Dwass test (two sided) are indicated. pVCA + mDia1: n=22 vesicles. mDia1: n=11 vesicles. pVCA: n=12 vesicles. Box whisker plots represent median, 1st, 3rd quartiles and 1.5×interquartile range.

Figure S14

Fig. S14. Local protrusions in pVCA + mDia1 GUVs. Representative images of local protrusions seen in pVCA + mDia1 GUVs. Yellow boxes indicate the area of blue light stimulation. Dotted lines indicate the initial position of the GUV. White arrows indicate where local protrusions arose.

Figure S15

A

B

SspB

0 min   51 min

Fig. S15. Lack of vesicle movement and shape change with mCherry-SspB. With pVCA-SspB-mCherry and mCherry-SspB-mDia1 being replaced with mCherry-SspB, GUVs neither moved nor changed their shape after blue light illumination. (A) Time course of the distance the front (illuminated) side of GUV membrane moved forward. pVCA + mDia1 GUVs: n=6 vesicle. SspB GUVs: n=4 vesicles. Error bars indicate SEM. (B) 3D reconstitution of iLID-YFP-SNAP images before and after blue light illumination.

Figure S16

Fig. S16. Representative images of pVCA-mDia1-mediated movement of GUVs. (A, B) Representative images of pVCA-mDia1-mediated movement of GUVs. Yellow boxes indicate the area of blue light stimulation. Dotted lines indicate the initial position of the GUV. White arrows indicate where local protrusions arose. (C) Distance the front side of GUV membrane moved forward. Data was quantified from the images of (B). Blue areas indicate the periods of blue light stimulation.