1 **Atomic Conformational Dynamics and Actin-Crosslinking Function of Alpha-**
2 **Actinin Revealed by SimHS-AFMfit**
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Kien Xuan Ngo[1,5,6,*], Takashi Sumikama[1, 6,*], Rémi Vuillemot[2,*], Han Gia Nguyen[1],
Taro QP Uyeda[3], Ngan Thi Phuong Le[4], Sergei Grudinin[2,*]
[1]Nano Life Science Institute (WPI-NanoLSI), Kanazawa University, Kanazawa,
Japan.
[2]Univ. Grenoble Alpes, CNRS, Grenoble INP, LJK, 38000 Grenoble, France.
[3]Faculty of Advanced Science and Engineering, Waseda University, Shinjuku,
Japan.
[4]Center for Bioscience and Biotechnology, University of Science, Vietnam National
University, Ho Chi Minh City, Vietnam
[5]Lead contact
[6]These authors contributed equally.
*Corresponding author: Kien Xuan Ngo, Takashi Sumikama, Rémi Vuillemot,
Sergei Grudinin
17
18 **Email:**
19 ngoxuankien@staff.kanazawa-u.ac.jp (K.X.N.)
20 sumi@staff.kanazawa-u.ac.jp (T.S.)
21 remi.vuillemot@univ-grenoble-alpes.fr (R.V.)
22 sergei.grudinin@univ-grenoble-alpes.fr (S.G.)

Abstract

Alpha-actinin is a crucial actin-binding protein involved in cellular functions like muscle contractility, mechanosensation, and cell division. Studying its atomic structure and dynamics is challenging due to protein complexity and imaging limitations. To address this, we developed **SimHS-AFMfit**, integrating high-speed AFM (HS-AFM), AFMfit (a flexible fitting technique), and molecular dynamics (MD) simulations. This approach successfully converted 2D AFM images into 3D atomic conformations, revealing the atomic conformational dynamics of Ca²⁺-bound and unbound alpha-actinin. Using principal component analysis, we classified and quantified protein motions such as twisting and bending. HS-AFM and MD simulations further characterized the fluctuations of rise and axial distance (AD) between adjacent protomers in actin filament crosslinking models, identifying structural features that regulate myosin II and cofilin binding. These findings enhance our understanding of alpha-actinin's role in actin filament modulation and provide insights for studying more complex protein assemblies, such as contractile rings.

Keywords:

Alpha-actinin, Actin, Cofilin, Myosin II, unipolar-bipolar crosslinking, HS-AFM, AFMfit, MD Simulations, SimHS-AFMfit, PCA.

Alpha-actinin is a key protein in the organization of the actin cytoskeleton and is crucial for maintaining the mechanical properties of cells. In humans, alpha-actinin isoforms 2 and 3, which are believed to be Ca^{2+} insensitive, are integral to the function of striated muscle and are regulated by phosphoinositides[1–6]. In contrast, non-muscle alpha-actinin isoforms 1 and 4 are Ca^{2+}-sensitive[7–9]. Previous studies have elucidated the atomic structure of these muscle and non-muscle alpha-actinin isoforms via techniques such as X-ray scattering[7–9]; however, these methods often fail to capture the dynamic conformational changes of these molecules. An understanding of these changes is crucial for elucidating the role of alpha-actinin in actin filament crosslinking and the associated structural changes under unipolar and bipolar crosslinking states.

Actin is one of the most highly conserved eukaryotic proteins; when formed into filaments, actin plays a crucial role in various cellular processes, including morphogenesis, motility, division, intracellular transport, and membrane deformation in the cytosol[10]. These filaments also contribute to the nuclear functions such as transcriptional regulation, chromatin remodeling, and DNA repair[11]. Consequently, a key goal in biology and biophysics is to elucidate the molecular mechanisms governing the functional differentiation of the actin filaments within the cells. Actin filaments are right-handed helices, and their subunits are arranged in a way that generates two distinct pitches: a major pitch and a minor pitch. The major pitch represents the overall helical turn or a half helix of the filament and spans approximately 36 nm or approximately 13 subunits (6.5 protomer pairs) in the canonical actin filament[12–17]. The minor pitch, on the other hand, refers to the smaller, localized helical twist between adjacent G-actin subunits within one turn of the major helix and is approximately 5.5 nm[13–16]. These two structural features are fundamental to the establishment of the mechanical properties of the actin filaments[18,19], influencing their flexibility and stability[20,21]. Moreover, they play essential roles in regulating the binding interactions of proteins such as cofilin and myosin II, V, debrin, fimbrin, and Rng2-CHD[17,22,31,23–30].

The primary challenge in studying protein dynamics at atomic resolutions in real time using atomic force microscopy (AFM) lies in bridging gaps at the temporal and spatial scales. While high-speed AFM (HS-AFM) can capture the dynamics of the two-dimensional (2D) surface structures of proteins with optimal performance in just a few tens of milliseconds (~20 ms/frame) and at nanometer scales (1 nm in the x–y plane; ~0.1 nm in the z–direction)[22,24,32–38], conventional molecular dynamics (MD) simulations typically explore atomic structures over much shorter time scales, from femtoseconds to microseconds[39–41]. Protein dynamics span a wide range of temporal scales (fs-µs), reflecting movements from atomic vibrations to molecular tumbling and larger collective motions that can be observed with nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR)[42,43] and MD simulations[40,44–48]. However, HS-AFM is particularly valuable for investigating slower processes, such as protein folding and conformational changes induced by drugs or protein interactions, which occur over temporal scales ranging from milliseconds to seconds. Traditional MD simulations face challenges in modeling large and complex biological systems because of computational constraints. However, recent advancements have substantially extended their capabilities, allowing the simulation of larger biomolecular systems over longer timescales[49–52]. HS-AFM complements these advancements by enabling high-speed imaging of complex protein surface structures and dynamics and provides detailed insights into their functional activities[53]. NMR can simultaneously resolve the atomic structures and interactional dynamics but remains limited by the protein size, even with recent advancements in in-cell NMR. AFMfit utilizes an iterative fitting process that progressively modifies an input 3D atomic model (e.g., those obtained from a protein data bank, PDB or models from MD simulations) to match the 2D molecular surface images captured from multiple experimental AFM observations. AFMfit mutually explores the rigid and flexible degrees of freedom via the fast Fourier transform (FFT) and the nonlinear rigid block normal-mode analysis (NOLB-NMA) methods, respectively[54–56]. Overcoming the discrepancies in temporal and spatial resolution between the experimental AFM data and simulation data would enable

a thorough comparison of these two types of data in dynamic atomic structural

biology.

In this study, our goal was to explore the atomic conformational dynamics and

actin-crosslinking function of alpha-actinin through a multidimensional approach.

Thus, we developed an innovative workflow (SimHS-AFMfit) to transform the 2D

AFM images into three-dimensional (3D) atomic conformations by integrating HS-

AFM with the normal mode-based flexible fitting algorithm AFMfit[57] and MD

simulations[40,44–46]; this strategy partially bridges the spatial and temporal gaps

between the experimental AFM data and MD simulations. This enabled the

interpretation of the HS-AFM data with the 3D atomic models and overcame the

limitations of direct visualization techniques. MD simulations have extended our

understanding of protein dynamics by capturing atomic structural transitions on the

nanosecond timescale, providing complementary insights into molecular flexibility

and stability[58].

To validate our methodology, we applied it to smooth muscle alpha-actinin, which

is a key cytoskeletal protein that plays a crucial role in crosslinking actin filaments

and interacts with other regulatory proteins. We examined the atomic structure and

conformational changes of alpha-actinin in both the Ca^{2+}-bound and Ca^{2}-unbound

states. To expand our understanding of the general role of alpha-actinin in the

dynamics and function of muscle, stress fibers, and contractile rings, we applied

our methodology to actin filaments crosslinked with and without alpha-actinin.

Specifically, we aimed to use our approach to investigate (i) the contribution of

alpha-actinin to the spatial organization of the actin filament protomers and their

conformational changes and (ii) the interactions between the actin filaments and

alpha-actinin and regulatory proteins such as the myosin II head (S1) and cofilin in

the unipolar and bipolar crosslinking models.

Our SimHS-AFMfit was used to quantify the flexibility and domain motions of

alpha-actinin across various conformations, including twisting, bending, and

rotation motions in alpha-actinin. HS-AFM and MD simulations were also used to

explore the atomic conformations of the actin filaments in unipolar and bipolar

crosslinking models and further elucidated the role of alpha-actinin in regulating

the binding of S1 and cofilin in solutions containing ATP and with or without Ca²⁺,

which mimic the minimal system of sarcomeres, stress fibers, and contractile

rings[59–64]. The key findings included the fluctuations in the rise and AD of the actin

protomers in unipolar and bipolar crosslinking models, and residue–contact maps

were attained. Ultimately, we aimed to improve our understanding of the biological

roles of alpha-actinin and actin filament in muscle, stress fibers, contractile rings,

and focal adhesions, including their functions in unipolar and bipolar crosslinking

models; their physical impacts when interacting with actin regulatory proteins such

as cofilin and myosin II; and their contributions to cellular mechanics, with broader

implications for cytoskeletal research.

Results

Overview of the methodology for integrating HS-AFM with AFMfit and MD

simulations

The focus of this study was to understand how proteins change their atomic

structure and how these conformational changes are related to their functions.

Equally crucial, however, is understanding the protein dynamics, such as folding

and interaction processes since these processes directly influence the biological

roles of proteins. HS-AFM can provide insights into the dynamic structural changes

in proteins during their functional processes in solution[53,65,66]. While it has high

temporal resolution, HS-AFM lacks the atomic spatial resolution of cryo-electron

microscopy (cryo-EM). Therefore, one of the major challenges with AFM lies in

interpreting its low-resolution, 2D surface images into detailed 3D atomic

conformations.

The innovative aspect of this research lies in the combination of three methods:

HS-AFM, AFMfit (a method for fitting AFM images), and MD simulations to create

SimHS-AFMfit (**Fig. 1A-C**). By integrating these techniques, we can achieve a

more comprehensive view of the 3D atomic structure of proteins and their dynamic

changes during their functional activities.

Our methodology was used to analyze the conformational changes in the Ca^{2+}-bound and Ca^{2+}-unbound alpha-actinin over milliseconds to seconds and to determine the atomic conformational dynamics of this protein. Alpha-actinin is an antiparallel homodimer with a molecular weight exceeding 200 kDa. In the domain composition and structure of chicken gizzard smooth muscle alpha-actinin (PDB: 1SJJ)[6], alpha-actinin consist of the following: an N-terminal actin binding domain (ABD), in which the two calponin homology 1 and 2 (CH1, CH2) domains are in extensive contact; a central region containing four spectrin-like repeat (SR1-SR4) or rod domains; and a C-terminal calmodulin-like domain (CaMD) that includes two pairs of EF-hand motifs (EF12 and EF34), and the EF12 domain is responsible for Ca^{2+} binding. The two ABDs undergo a 90-degree rotation, enabling alpha-actinin to crosslink the actin filaments in nearly any orientation[6] (**Fig. 1A, B**).

We used SimHS-AFMfit to generate libraries of atomic models in different conformations for both Ca^{2+}-bound and Ca^{2+}-unbound alpha-actinin through a workflow (**Fig. 1C**); this provided insights into their atomic structures and collective motions over time. First, alpha-actinin molecules were gently immobilized on mica, and AFM data were collected with a typical imaging rate of 100 ms per frame. We then processed the HS-AFM Supplementary Videos with AFMfit, starting with a reference atomic model derived from the MD simulations. Specifically, AFMfit fit this reference model to the experimental AFM data by generating pseudo-AFM images derived from this reference model over two fitting steps. The first step was a rigid fitting step in which the reference model was rigidly aligned with the AFM experimental data to obtain an optimal pose using an exhaustive search algorithm based on the FFT. In the second flexible fitting step, the aligned models were flexibly deformed using the NOLB technique[54] to obtain the optimal elastic alignment of the atomic models to multiple AFM observations. By applying this iterative process to our alpha-actinin AFM data, we obtained the corresponding conformational libraries for the protein (see the Supplementary Methods).

Simultaneously, the same initial protein model (PDB: 1SJJ)[6] was used as the starting point for the MD simulations (see the Supplementary Methods); these were

conducted over a timescale of 500 nanoseconds and similarly produced a set of conformation libraries for alpha-actinin.

Both the AFMfit and MD simulation-based atomic conformations were then analyzed with principal component analysis (PCA); this enabled the interpretation of these conformational ensembles as the conformational dynamics of the atomic structure of the protein, surpassing X-ray scattering and cryo-EM methods.

Ca^{2+} binding affects smooth muscle alpha-actinin length flexibility

First, we employed state-of-the-art HS-AFM to obtain high spatiotemporal resolution images of alpha-actinin. Two-dimensional molecular surface images of the individual Ca^{2+}-bound and Ca^{2+}-unbound alpha-actinin molecules on mica were continuously recorded under near-physiological conditions at an imaging rate of 100 ms per frame (**Fig. 1D, Supplementary Video 1**). To distinguish the conformational dynamics between these two states, we tracked the positions (x, y, and z coordinates) of the two ABD spheres on opposite sides of multiple alpha-actinin molecules over sequential frames and calculated the distance between their peak heights (Pseudo AFM alpha-actinin-PDB: 1SJJ in **Fig. 1B**). HS-AFM revealed that the length flexibility of alpha-actinin decreased in the presence of Ca^{2+} compared with its absence. From the 2D HS-AFM dataset, the mean ± SD heights and lengths were 6.3 ± 0.9 nm (N = 7236) and 25.2 ± 2.3 nm (N = 3516) for Ca^{2+}-bound alpha-actinin and 5.5 ± 0.8 nm (N = 4043) and 25.6 ± 3.6 nm (N = 2016) for Ca^{2+}-unbound alpha-actinin. The results revealed statistically significant differences ($p < 0.05$) in the height and length distributions between the Ca^{2+}-bound and Ca^{2+}-unbound alpha-actinin (**Fig. 1E**).

The HS-AFM data in **Fig. 1E** were compared with those obtained by the AFMfit and MD simulations (**Fig. 1F, Supplementary Table 1**). From the 3D AFMfit dataset, the lengths were 24.7 ± 0.9 nm (N = 1466) for Ca^{2+}-bound and 25.2 ± 1.4 nm (N = 1140) for Ca^{2+}-unbound alpha-actinin. Similarly, in the 3D MD simulation dataset, the corresponding values were 25.4 ± 0.6 nm (N = 500) for the Ca^{2+}-bound alpha-actinin and 24.1 ± 0.7 nm (N = 500) for the unbound alpha-actinin (**Fig. 1F**). Specifically, the Ca^{2+}-bound state yielded a narrower distribution of length,

indicating that the binding of Ca^{2+} to the EF12 domain constrained the molecular dynamics of alpha-actinin. The length distributions obtained from the AFMfit and MD simulations were noticeably similar (**Fig. 1F**); these results supported the reliability of SimHS-AFMfit, despite their narrower distributions when compared directly with the 2D HS-AFM data (**Fig. 1E**).

HS-AFM analysis of the structures of the unipolar actin filaments crosslinked with alpha-actinin in the presence or absence of S1 or cofilin

Having demonstrated the positional distributions of alpha-actinin in the bound and unbound states with Ca^{2+}, we next employed HS-AFM to capture the changes in the structure of the unipolar crosslinking model in the presence of S1, ATP, and $CaCl_2$ (**Fig. 2, Supplementary Fig. 1, Supplementary Video 2**). The unipolar crosslinking configuration, in which the actin filaments shared the same polarity (**Supplementary Table 1**), was identified by examining the persistent binding of S1 to the actin filaments; the persistent binding occurred when ATP was gradually depleted and was explained in captions **Supplementary Fig. 1B** and **Supplementary Video 2**[3,22,67]. Our semiautomatic method was previously developed to precisely measure the half-helical pitch (HHP), the number of protomer pairs per HHP, and the mean axial distance (MAD) between the adjacent protomers along the same long-pitch strand[24] and was employed for these analyses (**Fig. 2A, Supplementary Fig. 1A**). These parameters changed over time (**Fig. 2B, Supplementary Fig. 1C**), indicating that HHP, the number of actin protomer pairs per HHP, and the MAD values of actin filaments in the unipolar crosslinking configuration in the presence of ATP and S1 were not static but rather dynamic. Consequently, these parameters were characterized by broad distributions: HHP (36.3 ± 2.3 nm, N = 1055); number of protomer pairs per HHP (5.5 pairs/HHP [5.4%], 6.5 pairs/HHP [80.3%], 7.5 pairs/HHP [13.8%], and 8.5 pairs/HHP [0.5%], N = 6956.5); and MAD (5.5 ± 0.3 nm, N = 1055) (**Fig. 2C**). In the presence of ATP but not S1, the mean HHP in the filaments crosslinked by alpha-actinin was 36.5 ± 2.8 nm (N = 4270) (**Supplementary Fig. 1D, E, Supplementary Video 3**); these results were similar to those observed in the

presence of both S1 and ATP (**Fig. 2C**). These results indicated that the HHP of

the actin filaments in unipolar crosslinking models underwent intrinsic thermal

fluctuations around a mean value, driven by changes in the number of protomer

pairs per HHP and MAD. Under ATP-nearly depleted conditions, S1 persistently

associated with the actin filaments in these unipolar crosslinking models

(**Supplementary Fig. 1B, Supplementary Video 2**).

Alpha-actinin inhibits the shortening of major pitch and cofilin binding and

the formation of mature cofilin clusters

The HHP and MAD values obtained in this study (**Fig. 2, Supplementary Fig. 1,**

Supplementary Videos 2, 3) were compared with those of the control actin

filaments (specifically, those without alpha-actinin crosslinking) investigated in our

previous studies (e.g., HHP: 36.8 ± 4.3 nm, MAD: 4.3–5.6 nm)[22,24]; here, the

physical mechanisms by which crosslinking with alpha-actinin affected the helical

twists of the actin filaments upon interaction with S1 or with no S1 interaction were

further investigated.

To further explore the physical effects of alpha-actinin on the helical twists of the

actin filaments, we initially induced crosslinking between the actin filaments and

alpha-actinin in the presence of ATP and $MgCl_2$. Cofilin was then added at a final

concentration of 600 nM; this concentration was significantly greater than its

binding affinity (k_d) of 5–10 nM for bare actin filaments[68], and the results were

compared with those of the actin filaments with cofilin but without the alpha-actin

crosslinking (**Fig. 3A-C, Supplementary Table 1, Supplementary Video 4**). The

kinetics of the peak height and HHP fluctuations were analyzed using the same

approach as in our previous studies[22,24] (**Fig. 3A, B**). In our experiments, the

crosslinked filaments were arranged with the same polarity, as determined by the

similar crosslinking angles of alpha-actinin[3]. The mean peak height and HHP

values of the actin segments crosslinked with alpha-actinin and bound with cofilin

(cofilactin-actinin clusters) were 9.9 ± 1.1 nm (N = 2514) and 33.0 ± 4.6 nm (N =

2003), respectively; however, the corresponding values of the mature cofilactin

clusters without alpha-actinin crosslinking, which served as the control, were

significantly different ($p < 0.05$), with values of 10.7 ± 1.0 nm (N = 425) and 29.7 ±
3.0 nm (N = 300), respectively (**Fig. 3C, Supplementary Table 1**). Two key
findings emerged from these experiments: (i) Alpha-actinin significantly inhibited
the super twisting of the half helices. Specifically, the major pitches of the half
helices of the actin segments crosslinked by alpha-actinin were unable to undergo
the shortening induced by the immature cofilactin-actinin clusters; this was
reflected by their greater HHP values relative to those of the mature cofilactin
clusters without the alpha-actinin crosslinking (HHP: 33.0 ± 4.6 nm vs. 29.7 ± 3.0
nm). (ii) Alpha-actinin strongly inhibited the cofilin binding and the formation of the
mature cofilin clusters since the peak height of immature clusters of cofilactin-
actinin (9.9 ± 1.1 nm) was significantly lower ($p < 0.05$) than that of the mature
cofilactin clusters (10.7 ± 1.0 nm) (**Supplementary Table 1**); however, these
values were significantly greater ($p < 0.05$) than that of the bare actin segments
(8.6 ± 0.8 nm), as identified in our previous study[22].

Myosin II and cofilin competitively bind to long and short half helices to
facilitate cluster formation

The debate on how the actin filaments adopted different conformations to regulate
the functions and localizations of various actin-binding proteins (ABPs) within cells
is ongoing[17]. To further address this issue, HS-AFM was used to observe the
competitive binding of S1 and cofilin to the actin filaments in a buffer containing
ADP and ATP. The actin filaments were gently immobilized on a lipid membrane
in F-buffer initially containing 1 mM ADP, 0.01 mM ATP, 0.5 mM $MgCl_2$ and 300
nM S1, followed by the addition of 100 nM cofilin (**Fig. 3D-F, Supplementary Fig.**
2, Supplementary Videos 5, 6). Under high-ADP and low-ATP conditions, S1
transiently associated with the actin filaments and dissociated from the actin
filaments, whereas cofilin actively sought binding sites to form clusters. The
transient interaction of S1 with the actin filaments consumed ATP, and since ATP
became depleted, stable S1 clusters formed; however, these S1 clusters were
spatially segregated from the cofilin clusters on the same actin filaments. Analysis
of the peak heights and HHPs in the mature S1-actin and cofilactin segment

clusters (**Fig. 3D**) revealed that the S1 clusters (14.9 ± 1.4 nm (N = 1051) and 33.9 ± 4.4 nm (N = 805)) contained higher and longer HHPs than the cofilin clusters (10.5 ± 1.0 nm (N = 935) and 25.7 ± 3.6 nm (N = 767)), as assessed by the statistical significance ($p < 0.05$) (**Fig. 3E, F, Supplementary Table 1**). These findings indicated that S1 and cofilin preferentially bound long and short half helices, respectively, when their stable clusters were formed. Interestingly, these clusters remained segregated on the same actin filaments under ATP-depleted conditions, likely because long HHPs, which supported stable S1 binding; these represented stable half helices similar to those in well-defined or canonical actin filaments, whereas the shorter HHPs, which accommodated the cofilin clusters, corresponded to the constrained and less stable half helices. However, the specific features of the actin filaments that governed the accommodation of S1 and cofilin before and after ATP depletion remained elusive when only HS-AFM, which is a technique that provided the 2D surface structures with nanometer and millisecond resolution, was used. Further exploration of the structural differences among the actin filaments of the different configurations, such as the degree of helical twisting, the number of protomer pairs per HHP, the rise, and the ADs, was crucial for understanding how these properties regulated the binding and functions of different ABPs.

Investigating alpha-actinin dynamics at the atomic level via SimHS-AFMfit

Our HS-AFM–based analyses helped elucidate some of the characteristics of alpha-actinin, including its fluctuations in height and length over time, as well as its actin-crosslinking functions. However, these conventional AFM analyses were unable to reveal the critical insights into the conformational dynamics of the atomic structure and domain interactions of alpha-actin, such as its bending, rotation, and twisting motions. An understanding of these dynamics is essential for understanding the mechanical influence of alpha-actinin on the structure, dynamics, and function of the actin filaments. Thus, we created SimHS-AFMfit through the integration of HS-AFM with AFMfit and MD simulations to further explore the dynamics and atomic structure of alpha-actinin. We employed AFMfit to convert the 2D molecular surfaces of alpha-actinin obtained from HS-AFM into 3D atomic conformations (**Fig. 4, Supplementary Fig. 3A, B, Supplementary Videos 7, 8**). Using this approach, we generated libraries of the conformations for the Ca^{2+}-bound and Ca^{2+}-unbound alpha-actinin (**Fig. 4A**). These conformations were subsequently aligned to compare the dynamics of the two states according to both the AFMfit analyses and the MD simulations. The distribution of the positions of Cα was broader in the AFMfit analyses than in the MD simulations (**Fig. 4A**); this likely occurred because the 100-millisecond-scale HS-AFM measurements captured more extensive molecular movements than the 0.5-microsecond MD simulations. Additionally, substrate interactions that occurred during the AFM analysis, which were not present in the MD simulation results, could influence the dynamics of alpha-actinin.

The root mean square fluctuation (RMSF), which is a commonly used metric for evaluating the flexibility and mobility of atoms or residues in proteins, was employed to quantify the deviation of each Cα atom from its average position using the conformational libraries generated with the AFMfit and MD simulations (**Fig. 4B**). The results revealed the dynamic motions of CH1-CH2 within the ABD, neck, and EF12-EF34 domains, whereas the rod (SR1-SR4) domains exhibited relatively high rigidity. Despite the differences estimated in the fluctuation magnitude, both

the AFMfit and the MD simulation results consistently demonstrated that compared with the unbound state, the Ca^{2+} binding significantly reduced the motion of the CH1-CH2 and EF12-EF34 domains near the neck.

Next, we quantitatively analyzed the dynamic movements of the individual domains at the atomic level by focusing on the distances between CH1 and CH2 within the ABD and between EF12 and EF34 within the CaMD (**Supplementary Fig. 3C-F, Supplementary Table 1**). On the basis of this analysis, the domain distances were classified as either rigid or flexible. For rigid domains with minimal distance fluctuations, AFMfit confirmed that the ABD had the smallest conformation, and the CH1–CH2 distances for the Ca^{2+}-bound and Ca^{2+}-unbound states were 2.45 ± 0.01 nm and 2.46 ± 0.01 nm, respectively, and these values were consistent with those from previous structural studies[5] (**Supplementary Fig. 3C-D**). Similarly, for the Ca^{2+}-bound and Ca^{2+}-unbound states, the CH1–EF34 distances were 3.06 ± 0.01 nm and 3.07 ± 0.02 nm, respectively, whereas the CH2–EF34 distances were 3.63 ± 0.01 nm and 3.63 ± 0.02 nm, respectively. For flexible domains with larger distance fluctuations, AFMfit demonstrated that Ca^{2+} binding significantly reduced the magnitude of fluctuations relative to the unbound state. Specifically, the CH1-EF12 distances were 3.89 ± 0.16 nm and 3.76 ± 0.21 nm for the Ca^{2+}-bound and Ca^{2+}-unbound states, respectively. Similarly, the CH2–EF12 distances were 4.58 ± 0.06 nm and 4.53 ± 0.09 nm, whereas the EF12–EF34 distances were 2.81 ± 0.05 nm and 2.73 ± 0.07 nm, respectively.

The results from the MD simulations corroborated the molecular dynamics of Ca^{2+}-bound and Ca^{2+}-unbound alpha-actin obtained with AFMfit, revealing similar trends at the atomic level (**Supplementary Fig. 3E-F, Supplementary Table 1**). While the AFMfit had greater magnitudes of the domain fluctuations than MD simulations, both methods consistently demonstrated that the Ca^{2+} binding to the EF12 domain reduced the degree of fluctuations in the alpha-actinin dynamics. Our SimHS-AFMfit simultaneously captured and described the atomic conformations and dynamics of alpha-actinin, partially bridging temporal and spatial gaps between the experimental AFM data and MD simulations. This approach surpassed the

limitations of previous static structural studies based on X-ray scattering[5,7–9] and cryo-EM[6].

Classifying the dynamic conformations of alpha-actinin via PCA

PCA is a statistical method used to reduce the dimensionality of a dataset while retaining its most significant variations. It is highly effective in identifying and classifying the collective motions of individual protein domains using principal components (PCs).

First, we determined the ensemble of the atomic motions of the Ca^{2+}-bound and Ca^{2+}-unbound alpha-actinin by analyzing the libraries of the conformations obtained from both the AFMfit and MD simulations and projected these motions onto a common PCA space (**Fig. 4C, Supplementary Videos 9-11**). The eigenvalues of principal component 1 (PC1), PC2, and PC3 were used to determine the percentage contribution of each motion. PC1 (36%) primarily captured the ensemble of the opposite-direction bending motions or neck rotation, PC2 (20%) represented same-direction bending motions or neck bending, and PC3 (15%) described a combination of opposite-direction bending and twisting motions.

To compare the data obtained from the AFMfit and MD simulations, we projected the conformational libraries of the Ca^{2+}-bound and Ca^{2+}-unbound alpha-actinin generated from both the AFMfit analyses and MD simulations onto a common PCA space and plotted the distributions of PC1 versus PC2 and PC1 versus PC3 (**Fig. 4D**). For the Ca^{2+}-bound state, PC1 from the AFMfit conformational libraries captured a broad and symmetric distribution of opposite-direction bending, whereas that from the MD simulation libraries demonstrated a narrower and more asymmetric distribution. In contrast, for the Ca^{2+}-unbound state, PC1 from the AFMfit libraries exhibited an asymmetric distribution, whereas that of the MD simulation libraries demonstrated a more symmetric pattern; these results highlighted the different spectral characteristics between the two methods.

Despite the differences in the fluctuation magnitude exhibited between the AFMfit analyses and MD simulations (**Fig. 4A-B**), the PC2 value derived from both the

AFMfit analyses and MD simulations consistently captured the motions of both the

Ca^{2+}-bound and the Ca^{2+}-unbound states; these results indicated the overlapping

spectra between the two methods. A similar trend was observed for PC3, which

captured comparable fluctuation spectra in the Ca^{2+}-bound state for both methods.

However, for the Ca^{2+}-unbound state, PC3 exhibited distinct fluctuation spectra

between the two approaches. Therefore, PCA successfully analyzed and

categorized the physical motions in the Ca^{2+}-bound and Ca^{2+}-unbound alpha-

actinin using PC1, PC2, and PC3; these PCs were derived from the conformations

generated via AFMfit analysis and the MD simulations (**Fig. 4**). Across all results,

the eigenvectors represented by the white arrows in SR1 and SR4 were small,

whereas those in SR2 and SR3 showed almost no motion; these results confirmed

the rigidity of the rod domain. In contrast, prominent eigenvectors were observed

in CH1–CH2 within the ABD, in EF12–EF34, and in the neck domain, indicating

relatively high flexibility in these regions (**Fig. 4A, C**). In summary, our SimHS-

AFMfit demonstrates an outstanding ability to capture and categorize the atomic

conformational dynamics of the Ca^{2+}-bound and Ca^{2+}-unbound alpha-actinin.

To better capture the collective motions of the molecules, we also analyzed the

bending and twisting angles of the ABD relative to the rod domain in both the Ca^{2+}-

bound and Ca^{2+}-unbound alpha-actinin. As described above, PCA of the

conformations confirmed the rigidity of the rod domain (SR2-SR3). With reference

to a vector defined along the Cα positions within the SR2-SR3 domain

(**Supplementary Fig. 4**), the bending angles were measured relative to the center

of mass of the Cα atoms in the CH1, CH2, EF12, and EF34 domains near the neck

in chain 1 (red) and chain 2 (blue) (**Supplementary Fig. 4A**). To measure the

twisting angles, the vectors were defined by linking the centers of mass of the Cα

atoms between the EF12-EF34 and CH1-CH2 domains, and the angles of these

vectors were measured relative to the SR2-SR3-aligned reference vector

(**Supplementary Fig. 4B**). The distributions of bending and twisting angles in

chain 1 and chain 2, with and without Ca^{2+} binding, were analyzed to more

effectively capture the directions of the collective motions, whether in the same or

opposite direction. Quantitative measurements of the bending and twisting angles

in chains 1 and 2 of the Ca^{2+}-bound and Ca^{2+}-unbound alpha-actinin based on the

AFMfit and MD simulations (**Supplementary Fig. 4, Supplementary Table 1**)

confirmed the flexibility of the bending and twisting motions of alpha-actinin.

Despite the previously identified differences between the two methods in their

ability to estimate the magnitudes of fluctuation, both the AFMfit and the MD

simulations showed that Ca^{2+} binding could restrict these motions to some extent.

Our approach effectively refined and categorized the impact of Ca^{2+} on physical

motions, such as the bending and twisting of smooth muscle alpha-actinin. When

the ensemble of conformations obtained using our method was compared with

those obtained from other techniques, such as cryo-EM[6], which reported that

isoform 2 alpha-actinin was not sensitive to Ca^{2+}, our findings were not only

consistent but also provided a better description of its dynamic nature.

Comparing the key principal components derived from the AFMfit and MD

simulations

To explore the collective motions of alpha-actinin using a multidimensional

approach such as SimHS-AFMfit, we separately projected the conformational

libraries of the Ca^{2+}-bound and Ca^{2+}-unbound alpha-actinin generated from the

AFMfit analyses and MD simulations onto PCA spaces. We then plotted and

compared the key PCs (PC1, PC2, and PC3) that described the collective motions

of the domains of alpha-actinin via the same eigenvectors (**Supplementary Fig.**

5, 6, Supplementary Videos 12-15).

For the conformation libraries derived with AFMfit (**Supplementary Fig. 5A,**

Supplementary Videos 12, 13), PC1, PC2, and PC3 characterized the physical

motions of Ca^{2+}-bound alpha-actinin as opposite-direction bending (neck rotation),

twisting, and opposite-direction bending (neck rotation), respectively. In contrast,

for Ca^{2+}-unbound alpha-actinin, PC1, PC2, and PC3 corresponded to opposite-

direction bending (neck rotation), same-direction bending (neck bending), and

opposite-direction bending (neck rotation), respectively.

Similarly, for the MD simulation-based libraries (**Supplementary Fig. 5B, Supplementary Videos 14-15**), PC1, PC2, and PC3 characterized same-direction bending (neck bending), opposite-direction bending (neck rotation), and a combination of twisting and rotation, respectively, in the Ca²⁺-bound alpha-actinin. In the unbound state, these PCs corresponded to same-direction bending (neck bending), opposite-direction bending (neck rotation), and twisting, respectively. Based on the eigenvectors derived from the conformation libraries obtained with AFMfit for both the bound and unbound states (**Supplementary Fig. 5A, B**), PC1 and PC3 consistently captured the opposite-direction bending motions or neck rotations, despite the differences in the fluctuation magnitudes between the AFMfit and MD simulations; these results indicated a high degree of spectral overlap in the conformations derived with the two methods. However, PC2 exhibited distinct behaviors between the states and captured the twisting motions in the Ca²⁺-bound state and same-direction bending motions or neck rotations in the Ca²⁺-unbound state, highlighting a significant spectral difference between the two methods.

Similarly, based on eigenvectors derived from the conformation libraries obtained from the MD simulations for both the bound and unbound states (**Supplementary Fig. 5C, D**), PC1 and PC2 consistently captured the same-direction and opposite-direction bending motions in the Ca²⁺-bound and unbound states, respectively, despite the differences in the fluctuation magnitudes between the AFMfit and MD simulations; these results further indicated strong spectral overlap. In contrast, PC3 showed distinct behaviors for the two states and captured a combination of twisting and bending motions in the Ca²⁺-bound state and primarily twisting motions in the Ca²⁺-unbound state; these results indicated that the two methods revealed significant spectral differences. In summary, SimHS-AFMfit could effectively capture and classify the physical motions of alpha-actinin within various common PCA spaces.

The interpretation was further validated by separately analyzing the correlations among PC1, PC2, and PC3 and the bending and twisting angles in chains 1 and 2 (**Supplementary Fig. 7, 8, Supplementary Videos 12-15**). In both the Ca²⁺-

bound and Ca²⁺-unbound states derived from AFMfit, PC1 and PC3 demonstrated strong positive and negative linear correlations with the bending angles of the two chains (**Supplementary Fig. 7**); these results confirmed opposite-direction bending between them (**Supplementary Fig. 5A, Supplementary Videos 12-13**). Conversely, PC2 exhibited a strong linear correlation with the twisting angle in the Ca²⁺-bound state and confirmed the role of this PC in capturing the twisting motion. However, in the Ca²⁺-unbound state, the correlations between PC2 and the bending angles for chains 1 and 2 were very similar; these results indicated that this PC captured the same-direction bending motions for this conformation (**Supplementary Fig. 5A, 7B, Supplementary Video 12-13**).

In both the Ca²⁺-bound and Ca²⁺-unbound states derived from the MD simulations, PC1 exhibited strong negative linear correlations with the bending angles of both chains (**Supplementary Fig. 8**) and indicated the same-direction bending in the two conformations (**Supplementary Fig. 5B, Supplementary Videos 14-15**). In contrast, PC2 demonstrated strong negative and positive linear correlations with the bending angles in the two chains; these results indicated opposite-direction bending in the Ca²⁺-bound and Ca²⁺-unbound states, whereas PC3 was weakly correlated with the two bending angles and was largely sensitive to the twisting angle; thus, this PC captured a combination of twisting and bending motions in the Ca²⁺-bound state and primarily twisting motion in the Ca²⁺-unbound state (**Supplementary Fig. 5B, 8, Supplementary Videos 14-15**).

Overall, the AFMfit and MD simulations consistently identified the key motions in both the Ca²⁺-bound and Ca²⁺-unbound alpha-actinin, although some discrepancies remained due to factors such as differences in the temporal and spatial resolutions or sample fixation between the HS-AFM and MD simulations. AFMfit was shown to be a powerful tool for transforming the 2D surface images obtained from AFM into 3D atomic conformations; however, its integration with complimentary techniques such as MD simulations is crucial for addressing the spatial and temporal gaps in the AFM data.

Analyzing complex protein models using SimHS-AFMfit

In this study, we developed a novel strategy that integrated HS-AFM, AFMfit, and MD simulations (SimHS-AFMfit) to address some limitations in the spatial and temporal resolution of AFM using Ca^{2+}-bound and Ca^{2+}-unbound alpha-actinin. This approach successfully captured the physical motions of individual domains and distinguished the atomic conformational changes in alpha-actinin following binding with Ca^{2+}.

However, converting complex 2D AFM images of actin filaments crosslinked to alpha-actinin (**Fig. 2, Supplementary Fig. 1, Supplementary Videos 2, 3**) into 3D atomic conformations with AFMfit remained challenging because of the intricate nature of these protein assemblies, which include both actin filaments and alpha-actinin. By also employing MD simulations, we constructed two models of unipolar and bipolar crosslinking, along with a model of a bare actin filament, and these models were simulated under the same conditions used for alpha-actinin for 100 ns (**Fig. 5, Supplementary Fig. 9, Supplementary Videos 16-20**).

We next analyzed the atomic conformational dynamics of Ca^{2+}-unbound alpha-actinin in the unipolar and bipolar models (**Supplementary Fig. 9, Supplementary Videos 16-17**). In the unipolar configuration, PC1, PC2, and PC3 primarily captured same-direction (neck bending), opposite-direction (neck rotation), and same-direction (neck bending) motions, respectively, as indicated by the trajectories marked by the white arrows (**Supplementary Fig. 9A, Supplementary Video 16**). Conversely, in the bipolar model, PC1, PC2, and PC3 corresponded to opposite-direction (neck rotation), same-direction (neck bending), and an unclassified mode predominantly observed in lower ABD movements, respectively (**Supplementary Fig. 9B, Supplementary Video 17**).

Since each actin filament in all the MD simulation models contained 13 fixed protomers (equal to 6.5 promoter pairs/HHP), the fluctuations in the HHP across all conformations were minimal, with values of ~36.2 ± 0.0 nm for bare actin, 36.3 ± 0.0 nm for both bipolar-flexible and bipolar-fixed models, and 36.3 ± 0.0 nm for the unipolar-flexible model (**Fig. 5A, C; Supplementary Table 1**). These values

aligned with our expectations from previous findings and indicated that the fluctuations in the HHP primarily resulted from the variations in the number of protomers per HHP[24,25,69]. However, the rise values exhibited large fluctuations of varying magnitudes: 2.8 ± 0.1 nm for bare actin, 2.8 ± 0.2 nm and 2.9 ± 0.2 nm for the bipolar-flexible and bipolar-fixed models, respectively, and 2.8 ± 0.1 nm for the unipolar-flexible model. A similar trend was observed in the AD values, with values of 5.6 ± 0.1 nm for bare actin, 5.7 ± 0.2 nm for both bipolar-flexible and bipolar-fixed models, and especially 6.0 ± 0.3 nm for the unipolar-flexible model (**Fig. 5C, Supplementary Table 1**). Statistical analysis revealed that when comparing the bare actin filaments to those in the unipolar and bipolar models, the AD values were significantly different ($p < 0.05$, *t-test*), whereas the rise values were not significantly different (**Fig. 5C, Supplementary Table 1**). Additionally, the rise values between the bipolar-fixed model and that in bipolar-flexible and unipolar-flexible models were also significantly different ($p < 0.05$, *t-test*), whereas the rise and AD values were not significantly different when comparing them between bipolar-flexible and unipolar-flexible models.

The local residue contact maps between the two ABDs in the alpha-actinin molecule and the actin protomers greatly differed between the unipolar-flexible and bipolar-flexible and bipolar-fixed crosslinking models (**Fig. 5D, E; Supplementary Table 1**). These differences provide a biochemical basis for validating key component interactions that regulate conformational changes in actin filaments across different cellular assemblies.

These findings indicated that the fluctuations in rise and AD were intrinsic properties of actin filaments and that binding with alpha-actinin further amplified the AD fluctuations compared with those of bare filaments. The binding of alpha-actinin to actin filaments differed between the unipolar and bipolar models in several aspects, including the residue-level interactions between the alpha-actinin's ABDs and actin filaments, the spacing between the two filaments, and the crosslinking angles of alpha-actinin relative to the filaments (**Fig. 5, Supplementary Fig. 10, Supplementary Table 1**). Consequently, alpha-actinin

could exert distinct physical effects, such as neck bending or neck rotation (**Supplementary Fig. 9**), on the actin protomers and cause differential conformational changes, as reflected in the significantly increased AD fluctuations. This prediction was validated by the MD simulations of bipolar-fixed model, which revealed restricted motion of alpha-actinin (**Fig. 5, Supplementary Video 20**). This restriction is unlikely to influence the increased fluctuations in rise and AD of filaments, suggesting that alpha-actinin's ABD binding alone (**Supplementary Table 1**) is sufficient to drive these changes.

Discussion

Alpha-actinin regulates the dynamic conformations and functions of the actin filaments by interacting with myosin II while inhibiting cofilin binding and cluster formation

In this study, we successfully developed a novel workflow, SimHS-AFM, to convert the 2D AFM images of alpha-actinin (**Fig. 1, Supplementary Video 1**) into the 3D atomic conformations. This workflow enables the classification of the physical motions of these proteins through PCA (**Fig. 4, Supplementary Videos 7-15**), including their domain distances and twisting and bending modes (**Supplementary Fig. 3-8, Supplementary Videos 12-15**). We further explored the roles of Ca^{2+} in regulating the conformational changes of smooth muscle alpha-actinin and simulate its actin-crosslinking effects on the dynamics and atomic structure of the actin filaments (**Fig. 5, Supplementary Fig. 9, Supplementary Videos 16-17**). Additionally, we identify the variations in rise and AD, distinguishing the bare actin filaments (2.8 ± 0.1 nm, 5.6 ± 0.1 nm) from their unipolar (2.8 ± 0.1 nm; 6.0 ± 0.3 nm) and bipolar (2.8 ± 0.2 nm, 5.7 ± 0.2 nm) flexible models (**Fig. 5C, Supplementary Table 1, Supplementary Videos 18-19**). These structural characteristics, including the rise and AD fluctuations as well as distinct residue-level interactions, play critical roles in regulating the excitatory binding of myosin II (S1) and the inhibitory binding of cofilin. These findings increase our understanding of the physical properties and biological functions of alpha-actinin and actin filaments.

Additionally, we experimentally investigated the actin-crosslinking with alpha-actinin in unipolar configurations using HS-AFM (**Fig. 2, Supplementary Fig. 1, Supplementary Videos 2-3**). This led to the hypothesis that alpha-actinin crosslinking increased the rise and AD or MAD fluctuations, which aligned with the MD simulation results, and influenced the binding of S1 and cofilin (**Fig. 6A, Fig. 3A-C, Supplementary Video 4**).

i) Bare actin filaments typically support the normal binding and functional activity of cofilin and S1 (**Fig. 3D-F, Supplementary Fig. 2, Supplementary Videos 5-6**). The binding and clustering of cofilin tend to shorten the HHP by approximately 25%, reducing the number of the protomer pairs per HHP (usually to 4.5 or 5.5 protomer pairs per HHP)[24,70–72]. In contrast, S1 binding maintains a longer HHP (**Fig. 3D-F, 6A**).

(ii) When alpha-actinin crosslinks with the actin filaments in the unipolar model, cofilin binding and the formation of the mature cofilin clusters are substantially inhibited, thus preventing the shortening of the HHP (**Fig. 3B, Supplementary Video 4B**). Moreover, alpha-actinin crosslinking preserves a long HHP without affecting the binding activity of S1 (**Fig. 2, 6A, Supplementary Fig. 1, Supplementary Videos 2-3**).

Our findings indicate that the fluctuations in rise and AD are inherent in the bare actin filaments and that crosslinking with alpha-actinin further strengthens the AD vibrations in both the bipolar and unipolar models. Interestingly, even when all Cα atoms in alpha-actinin were computationally constrained while the other atoms remained flexible, the MD simulations of a bipolar model over 100 ns (**Fig. 5C**) reveal that ABD binding to actin filaments alone is sufficient to drive these enhanced structural changes. Residue-level contacts play a crucial role in determining the extent of the AD fluctuations (**Fig. 5D-E, Supplementary Table 1, Supplementary Videos 19-20**). These results are further supported by our MD simulations, which demonstrate that allowing backbone inflexibility in the Cα atoms of alpha-actinin in the bipolar-fixed crosslinking model result in AD values comparable to those observed in the fully flexible alpha-actinin model, where

rotational motions of the ABD around the neck or just strong alpha-actinin's ABD-
actin electrostatic interaction enhance the AD fluctuations in the actin filaments.
Notably, previous experimental data have demonstrated that fluctuations in the
rise are more pronounced in the bent actin filaments bound to ADP than in those
bound to ADP+Pi[73]. Additionally, the mean axial distance (MAD) between two
adjacent actin protomers along the same long-pitch strand is greater within the
shortened bare half helices (5.0–6.3 nm) than within the typically sized helices
(4.3–5.6 nm)[24]. The differences in the fluctuation magnitudes of the AD or MAD
induced by the different ABPs, such as alpha-actinin and cofilin, may provide key
insights into how these compounds regulate each other's binding or inhibitory
effects on the actin filaments.
Interestingly, the actin filaments crosslinked with alpha-actinin play distinct roles
depending on their crosslinking configuration and location in a cell (**Fig. 6B**). In the
bipolar model, they are involved primarily in structures such as contractile rings
(CRs), stress fibers, and sarcomeres, whereas in the unipolar configuration, they
contribute to lamellipodia, filopodia, cortical actin, and microvilli (**Supplementary**
Table 2). Our results indicate that future research should focus on experimentally
investigating the atomic conformational dynamics of the actin filaments in unipolar
and bipolar crosslinking models, including rise, AD fluctuations, and key residue-
interactions (**Supplementary Tables 1-2**), to gain deeper insights into the
functional and spatial differences between these assemblies within the cells.

Advantages of SimHS-AFMfit
Time-resolved cryo-EM is emerging as a powerful tool for investigating protein
dynamics and atomic conformations simultaneously[74–76]. Its potential can be
further enhanced by integrating approaches such as cryo-EM flexible fitting[77] and
computational methods. Additionally, advanced NMR spectroscopy provides
complementary insights and captures both structural and dynamic aspects of
proteins during interactions[42,43,78,79].
While NMR spectroscopy excels in studying protein structure, dynamics, and
interactions, it has limitations. Traditional solution-state NMR is most effective for

proteins under ~30–50 kDa, although techniques such as transverse relaxation-optimized spectroscopy (TROSY) extend this range to ~100 kDa. Larger proteins suffer from the signal overlap and line broadening because of the slow molecular tumbling and transverse relaxation. Compared with cryo-EM and X-ray crystallography, NMR also has lower sensitivity, and peak overlap complicates resonance assignments in complex systems[43,80–82].

In dynamic studies, NMR provides insights into timescales from picoseconds to seconds but struggles with motions faster than 10 ps or slower than seconds to minutes[81,82]. Solid-state NMR remains challenging for membrane proteins because of the need for extensive isotopic labeling and specialized pulse sequences[82]. Additionally, weak or transient interactions can produce signals that are too faint for accurate characterization. Sample preparation and long data acquisition times (hours to days) further risk protein degradation or aggregation[80]. While cryo-EM surpasses NMR in resolving large protein complexes (>100 kDa), it is less effective for studying dynamics[83]. However, these techniques can complement each other[84]. Other single-molecule techniques, such as FRET, can complement NMR for fast dynamics[85], but no standalone method can perfectly capture the atomic structures, dynamics, and interactions simultaneously.

Despite the inherent limitations of AFM, such as its ability to capture only 2D surface images with a maximum spatial resolution of 1 nm in the x–y plane and 0.1 nm in the z dimension, recent advancements in HS-AFM have significantly increased its temporal resolution. Due to these improvements, imaging at timescales of a few tens of milliseconds or faster can be performed and enable a more precise characterization of protein dynamics[53]. HS-AFM has the ability to image large complex protein systems without the need for chemical labeling, enabling the simultaneous capture of nanostructures, dynamics, and protein interactions or assemblies under near-physiological conditions; this capability surpasses those of NMR and cryo-EM. Additionally, by integrating HS-AFM with the AFMfit[57] and MD simulations[47,48] through SimHS-AFMfit, we generated comprehensive libraries of atomic conformations, facilitating the investigation of

the physical motions, atomic structures, and functions of alpha-actinin through
PCA and providing a robust framework for improving the interpretation of low-
resolution experimental AFM and simulated data. For example, the twisting and
bending motions of alpha-actinin were cross-validated through the AFMfit and MD
simulations, providing deeper insights into the mechanical effects on the actin
filaments. Compared with those of bare actin filaments, the SimHS-AFMfit reveals
increased AD dynamic fluctuations in the bare actin filament and bipolar
crosslinking models; this capability surpasses previous static structural studies
using X-ray diffraction[15,16] and cryo-EM[13,86]. This characteristic of actin filaments,
which was originally explored in our previous studies[24] and further demonstrated
in various crosslinking models here, may play a crucial role in regulating the
binding and function of myosin II, cofilin and other ABPs. Ultimately, this integration
addresses the spatial and temporal limitations of experimental AFM data and
facilitates the study of the atomic conformational dynamics of more complex
protein assemblies.

Apparently, SimHS-AFMfit still faces challenges in bridging the temporal gaps
between millisecond AFM imaging and microsecond MD simulations, highlighting
the need for future improvements to address these discrepancies. Additionally, the
ability of AFMfit to fit large complex protein assemblies is still challenging because
of the complicated models used, necessitating the development of improved fitting
algorithms or models. However, the data obtained through SimHS-AFMfit can be
useful for developing force fields to simulate complex protein models, as
demonstrated in previous studies[49–52]. Force fields are crucial for accurately
validating the interatomic forces acting between the atoms composing the system
since they account for the intermolecular or interatomic interactions and energy
minimization[87,88]. Specifically, our workflow facilitates the use of AFMfit to analyze
the experimental AFM data of complex actin filaments crosslinked with alpha-
actinin. More broadly, the conformational libraries could also serve as training data
for the deep learning models[89–91] to predict the pseudoatomic structures across
different timescales (i.e., prediction of protein dynamics) and help bridge the gap

between the experimental and computational methods. In this context, recent

advancements in three-dimensional localization AFM (3D-LAFM) have

successfully transformed the AFM data into 3D density data[92], facilitating large-

scale 3D atomic AFM data generation through the integration with the MD

simulations.

In conclusion, SimHS-AFMfit provides an innovative approach for overcoming the

spatial resolution limitations of AFM data. This method can be further developed,

such as by its integration with AI, NMR, cryo-EM, cryo-ET, or in silico AFM[93], to

bridge the spatiotemporal resolution gaps between HS-AFM and the MD

simulations and to predict protein dynamics; this has enabled real-time studies of

the atomic conformational dynamics of complex proteins and surpassing the

capabilities of individual techniques. Our approach facilitates new possibilities for

advancing the understanding of the atomic structural dynamics of complex protein

assemblies that mimic cellular machines.

Methods

Proteins and lipids

Rabbit skeletal actin and human (hs) cofilin 1 were prepared following the same protocol as in our previous study[22]. Chicken gizzard smooth muscle alpha-actinin (isoform 2)[5] was obtained from Cytoskeletons (Sigma, Japan). Subfragment-1 (S1) was prepared from smooth muscle myosin using the method described by Asakasa et al[94].

The lipid compositions used in this study consisted of neutral 1,2-dipalmitoyl-sn-glycero-3-phosphocholine (DPPC, Avanti) and positively charged 1,2-dipalmitoyl-3-trimethylammonium-propane (DPTAP, Avanti). Liposomes were prepared with a DPPC/DPTAP ratio of 90:10 (wt%), and the lipid membrane was subsequently formed on mica[22].

HS-AFM Analysis

We employed high-speed atomic force microscopy (HS-AFM), as previously described[22,24,95], to capture the dynamic conformations of alpha-actinin in various states, providing high-speed imaging and two-dimensional (2D) surface structure of the protein at nanometer resolution. Chicken gizzard smooth muscle alpha-actinin, an isoform 2 (Sigma, Japan), was diluted to 30 nM and imaged in F-buffer containing 20 mM KCl, 10 mM PIPES-KOH (pH 6.8), 0.5 mM $MgCl_2$, 0.25 mM EGTA, 0.25 mM DTT, and 0.5 mM ATP. To observe the dynamic conformational changes in alpha-actinin with $CaCl_2$, the proteins were imaged in the same F-buffer with addition of 0.1-0.2 mM $CaCl_2$.

To investigate the dynamic conformational changes in actin filaments crosslinked solely by alpha-actinin, actin filaments were gently immobilized on a lipid membrane and F-buffer consisting of 0.5 mM $MgCl_2$, 0.5 mM ATP, and 50 nM alpha-actinin, but without $CaCl_2$, was employed for HS-AFM imaging. In all experiments, actin filaments were immobilized on DPPC/DPTAP ratio of 90:10 (wt%) for HS-AFM imaging, as done in our previous study[22].

To study the dynamic conformational changes in actin filaments crosslinked by alpha-actinin in the presence of myosin II heads (S1), actin filaments were

gently immobilized on a lipid membrane and immersed in F-buffer containing 1 mM

ATP, 0.1 mM $CaCl_2$, 50 nM alpha-actinin, and 1 μM S1, but without $MgCl_2$, for HS-

AFM imaging.

To study the competitive interactions between cofilin and S1, which utilize

distinct short and long helical structures on the same actin filament to form their

respective clusters, actin filaments were gently immobilized on a lipid membrane.

HS-AFM imaging was performed in an F-buffer initially containing 1 mM ADP, 0.01

mM ATP, and 300 nM S1, followed by the addition of 100 nM cofilin.

To explore the binding and supertwisting activities of cofilin clusters on the

half-helices of actin filaments without and with alpha-actinin crosslinking, actin

filaments were gently immobilized on a lipid membrane, either without or with 400

nM alpha-actinin crosslinking in F-buffer containing 1 mM ATP, followed by the

addition of 600 nM hs cofilin, for HS-AFM imaging.

The half helical pitch (HHP), the number of protomer pairs per HHP, and

the mean axial distance (MAD) between adjacent actin protomers along the same

long-pitch strand within individual HHPs were analyzed for actin filaments

crosslinked by alpha-actinin under conditions containing Ca^{2+}, ATP, and S1, but

without $MgCl_2$ were analyzed using HS-AFM (**Fig. 2, Supplementary Fig. 1A-C**).

The analytical methods used in this study were adapted from our previous

research[22,24].

AFMfit Analysis

AFMfit was originally developed for fitting 3D atomic structures into 2D AFM

images[57]. In this study, AFMfit utilized the same PDB files as the initial models

used in MD simulations. The models were derived from PDB entry 1SJJ[6] for both

Ca^{2+}-bound and Ca^{2+}-unbound states, serving as a reference atomic model.

AFMfit started by cropping AFM images into sub-images (referred to as

particles) that corresponded to the molecule of interest. This operation was semi-

automatic, a first automatic process identifies putative particles using the particle-

tracking toolkit TrackPy (Allan, D. B., Caswell, T., Keim, N. C., van der Wel, C. M.,

& Verweij, R. W. (2021). soft-matter/trackpy: Trackpy v0.5.0 (v0.5.0). Zenodo.

https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.4682814), then, we performed a manual double
check to remove false positives.

The extracted particles were processed with AFMfit. It estimated the optimal
rigid and flexible alignments of the model that maximize the similarity between the
particles and pseudo-AFM images calculated from the atomic model. The
calculation of pseudo-AFM images needed to be adjusted to experimental
conditions. Particularly, the shape of the experimental probe tip needed to be
estimated to accurately account for the tip-convolution effect. We performed this
estimation by an exhaustive search of a smoothness parameter of the pseudo-
AFM image calculation over the entire set of particles.

AFMfit proceeded in two steps. In the first step, it performed a rigid-body
pre-alignment of the model to the particles using an FFT-accelerated 5D
exhaustive search that estimated the relative position (two translational degrees of
freedom) and orientation (three rotational degrees of freedom) of each particle.
The angular step for rotational search was set to 10° and restricted to flat
orientations of alpha-actinin to accelerate the computations. The translational step
in the z-direction was set to 1 Å.

In the second step, it combined the continuous rigid and flexible alignments
of the model to the particle using the non-linear normal mode analysis method
NOLB[54]. NOLB calculated normal modes using the Rotation-Translation of Blocks
(RTB) approximation on an Elastic Network Model (ENM). The interaction cutoff in
the ENM is set to 8 Å. We restricted the possible motions of our model to the
sixteen lowest frequency normal modes, among which, ten modes were the flexible
motions describing the most collective motions of alpha-actinin including bending
and twisting. The six normal modes left corresponded to rigid translations and rigid
rotations in 3D, which were used to account for continuous rigid rearrangement
that could be necessary when flexibly deformating the model. According to the
AFMfit method, we iteratively calculated the optimal linear approximation of the
normal mode displacement that fitted the particle. Then, we carried out a non-linear
extrapolation of the motion following the NOLB methodology. We iterated over the

linear approximation and non-linear extrapolation until convergence, which in
practice was obtained in five iterations.

The flexible fitting procedure balanced between minimizing the deformations
toward the initial model (to preserve the structure and avoid unfeasible distortions)
and maximized the similarity to the data. This balance was controlled by a
hyperparameter λ. We estimated λ with an exhaustive search by performing the
flexible fitting over a sample of particles with the objective of allowing a maximum
of 10 Å of average root-mean-square deviation (RMSD) toward the initial model.
The value of 10 Å was set to roughly adjust to the range of motion typically
observed in MD simulations of alpha-actinin. The optimal value was obtained for
λ=7.5 (**Supplementary Fig. 3A-B**).

MD Simulations

Molecular dynamics (MD) simulations were performed to generate libraries
of conformations for Ca^{2+}-bound and Ca^{2+}-unbound alpha-actinin and bipolar and
unipolar crosslinking models.

The initial models for alpha-actinin with and without Ca^{2+} in the bulk system
were made from the PDB entry 1SJJ. The alpha-actinin was solvated in a 30 mM
KCl solution. The system without Ca^{2+} consists of one alpha-actinin, 182 K^+, 128
Cl^-, and 251,756 water molecules. In the system with Ca^{2+}, four K^+ were removed
and two Ca^{2+} were placed at the center of C_γ of Asp768 and Asp771. It was
confirmed that Ca^{2+} ions are stably bound to Asp residues during the simulation.
The histidine residues were assumed to be in the protonation state at pH = 7, since
they face the bulk solution. The size of the system was 168.856 × 325.387 ×
144.838 $Å^3$. AMBER ff19SB[96], TIP3P[97], the Li and Merz 12-6[98], the Li and Merz
12-6-4[99] models were employed for the proteins, water molecules, monovalent
ions, and divalent ions, respectively. The system was equilibrated by 1 ns MD
simulations with constant temperature (300 K) and pressure conditions (1 bar),
followed by 10 ns MD simulations with constant temperature (300 K) and volume
conditions. All MD simulations were performed using AMBER22 (D. A. Case, H.
M. Aktulga, K. Belfon, I. Y. Ben-Shalom, J. T. Berryman, S. R. Brozell, D. S. Cerutti,

T. E. Cheatham, I. G. A. Cisneros, V. W. D. Cruzeiro, T. A. Darden, N. Forouzesh,

G. Giambasŭ, T. Giese, M. K. Gilson, H. Gohlke, A. W. Goetz, J. Harris, S. Izadi,

S. A. Izmailov, et al., AMBER22; University of California: San Francisco, 2022). A

Berendsen thermostat[100] was used to control the temperature, and a Monte Carlo

barostat with anisotropic scaling was used to control the pressure. The SHAKE

algorithm[101] was used to keep the bond length having H atoms constant, enabling

the use of a time step of 2 fs. The periodic boundary condition was imposed, and

long-range interactions were calculated by the particle mesh Ewald method[102] with

a 10 Å cutoff in real space. After the equilibration, the MD simulation was

performed for 500 ns with constant temperature at 300 K and volume conditions

using the Berendsen thermostat[100]. The trajectories were saved at each 1 ns to

generate 500 configuration libraries, which were used to analyse principal

component (PC) modes using principal component analysis (PCA) to capture the

bending and twisting angles, and distances between domains.

For the unipolar and bipolar systems, two actin fibers crosslinked by an

alpha-actinin, the initial coordinates were originally given in the Liu and Taylor'

paper[6]. The link in the paper to download the structures is not available now, so a

corresponding author, Kenneth A. Taylor, gifted them to us. In the previous

calculation using QM/MM[103], water coordination around Mg^{2+} and ADP in the actin

protomer was investigated. First, a protomer (PDB code: 8d15)[73] was solvated in

a 20 mM NaCl solution with one Mg^{2+} and one ADP. The system consists of one

protomer, 73 Na^+, 63 Cl^-, 1 Mg^{2+}, one ADP, and 23,442 water molecules. For the

protein, water molecules, monovalent ions, and divalent ions, the same force fields

as in the case of alpha-actinin simulations were used. The Carlson model was

employed for ADP[104]. The system was equilibrated by 100 ps MD simulation with

constant temperature (300 K) and pressure conditions (1 bar). The actin protomer,

ADP, and Mg^{2+} were constrained with a force constant of 10 kcal/mol/$Å^2$ to their

original positions. Then, 3 μs MD simulation with constant temperature (300 K) and

volume conditions (1 bar) was performed. The actin protomer, ADP, and Mg^{2+} were

weakly constrained with a force constant of 0.2 kcal/mol/$Å^2$ to prevent unwanted

large structural change in the bulk solution. Water molecules gradually entered the protomer over 2 µs. The coordination of water molecules around Mg^{2+} and ADP was confirmed to be similar to the previous configuration obtained by QM/MM calculation[103]. In the remaining 1 µs simulation, the number of water molecules around Mg^{2+} has fluctuated but did not change. The protomer, ADP, Mg^{2+}, and 27 water molecules around Mg^{2+} were picked up and aligned to the Liu and Taylor' configuration by minimizing RMSD between C_α atoms[6]. Then, protomers were elongated while considering the symmetry to form 36 nm fiber, and the fiber in a vacuum while the periodic boundary condition was imposed was minimized to remove bad contacts. In the Liu and Taylor' configuration, a part of the neck domain in the alpha-actinin (residue 251-260) was missing, which was complemented by the Modeller package[105]. The system consisting of two actin fibers and alpha-actinin in a vacuum while the periodic boundary condition was imposed was minimized and then solvated in a 40 mM KCl solution. The final system of unipolar configuration consists of two actin fibers (26 protomers), one alpha-actinin, 1032 K^+, 718 Cl^-, 26 Mg^{2+}, 26 ADP, and 1,433,011 water molecules, and total number of atoms in the system was 4,479,739. The system was shortly optimized with 1000 step minimization and was equilibrated by 130 ps MD simulation with constant temperature (300 K) and pressure conditions (1 bar). The temperature gradually increased up to 300 K. The pressure was anisotropically controlled so that only the box size in z direction was allowed to move, in which the actin fiber was placed along the x direction. During the equilibration, the actin fiber, the alpha-actinin, Mg^{2+}, ADP, and water molecules inside the actin were constrained with a force constant of 2 kcal/mol/$Å^2$. The size of the equilibrated system was 360.000 × 480.809 × 260.784 $Å^3$. Then, the constraint was turned off and only the box size along the x direction was allowed to move to observe the fluctuation of half helical pitch (HHP), rise, and axial distance (AD) between adjacent protomers along the same long-pitch strand. 100 ns MD simulation was similarly performed for flexible and frozen alpha-actinin in the unipolar crosslinking model, and the trajectories saved at 100 ps were used for the analyses. In the

same way, the system was built and the simulation was performed for the bipolar

configuration, but the number of water molecules was 1,432,853. To build a bare

actin fiber system, the alpha-actinin was removed from the unipolar system, and

100 ps MD simulation with constant temperature (300 K) and pressure conditions

(1 bar) was performed to fill the space originally located by the alpha-actinin. MD

simulations were similarly performed for 100 ns.

Principal component analysis

Before the PCA, the configuration of alpha-actinin was aligned assuming

that C_α atoms in the center part of the rod domain (residue 485-525) have the

lowest root mean square fluctuation (RMSF).

To compare the conformational library of AFMfit and MD simulations for

Ca^{2+}-bound and Ca^{2+}-unbound states, we chose to reduce the dimensionality of

the libraries using PCA. We normalized the number of elements in the four

conformational libraries of AFMfit and MD simulations for Ca^{2+}-bound and Ca^{2+}-

unbound states, ensuring each library contains 1,000 conformations. We

combined these libraries to obtain a total library of 4,000 conformations. These

conformations were then projected onto the same subspace using PCA. Then PCA

was performed using singular value decomposition (SVD)[106] on the mean-

subtracted C_α coordinates of the combined libraries. We reduced the dimension to

three principal components by retaining only the principal components (PCs) that

have the most impact on the variance, more precisely the PCs that have an

explained variance ratio (i.e. the normalized squared singular values) of more than

10%. To obtain a subspace on a per-atom basis, the eigenvectors were normalized

by the number of C_α atoms in the system.

After performing MD simulations, we also conducted the analyses of alpha-

actinin conformations obtained from both unipolar and bipolar models using PCA.

This approach allowed us to capture their atomic conformational dynamics,

enabling an evaluation of the physical motion effects such as bending, twisting,

and rotation of alpha-actinin on fluctuations of the rise or AD in the crosslinked

actin filaments.

Analyses of domain distances and twisting and bending angles in alpha-actinin

The ABD was divided into two domains: CH1, residue 26-138; CH2, residue 139-251. EF12 is residue 749-818, and EF34 is residue 819-888. The center of C_α of each domain was used to compute domain distances. Since there are four centers, there are six distances.

For the analyses of bending and twisting angles, the alpha-actinin was aligned as described in PCA. The C_α atoms in residue 485-525 were placed on the xy-plane and their average coordinate was set to be the origin. The rod domain was placed along the x-axis (**Supplementary Fig. 4A**). The position of the center of C_α atoms of CH1 and CH2 in one chain and EF12 and EF34 in the other chain is denoted as (x_1, y_1, z_1) (end 1), and that of the other end (end 2) is denoted as (x_2, y_2, z_2). x_1 is chosen so that $x_1 > 0$, so $x_2 < 0$. The bending angle for end 1 was calculated by $\tan^{-1}(z_1/x_1)$, and that for end 2 by $-\tan^{-1}(z_2/x_2)$. In this definition, the bending angles in alpha-actinin (PDB ID: 1SJJ) were -1.4 and 8.5 degrees.

For the twisting angle calculation, the position of the center of $C\alpha$ atoms of CH1 and CH2 at end 1 is denoted as (x_{1c}, y_{1c}, z_{1c}), and that of EF12 and EF34 at end 1 is denoted as (x_{1e}, y_{1e}, z_{1e}). The twisting angle for end 1 was defined as the angle between a vector from the center of EF12 and EF34 to the center of CH1 and CH2 in the yz-plane and y axis (**Supplementary Fig. 4B**): that is, $\tan^{-1}((z_{1c} - z_{1e})/(y_{1c} - y_{1e}))$. For end 2, considering the orientation, it was calculated by $\tan^{-1}(-(z_{2c} - z_{2e})/(y_{2c} - y_{2e}))$. When the twisting angle became less than -100 degrees, 360 degrees was added to the angle, since it is a part of the fluctuation over 180 degrees. In this definition, the twisting angles in alpha-actinin (PDB ID: 1SJJ) were -12.8 and 20.5 degrees.

Analyses of half helical pitch, rise and axial distance

We analyzed HHP, rise, and AD in bare actin filaments and in actin filaments crosslinked with flexible and frozen alpha-actinin, comprising both bipolar and unipolar crosslinking models obtained by MD simulations. In the MD simulations of actin filaments, the box along the filaments was allowed to move.

The HHP corresponds to the box length along this direction. The rise was defined

as the average distance between the centers of mass of two adjacent protomers

along the double-strand filament axis. Whereas, the AD was determined as the

average distance between the centers of mass between adjacent protomers along

the same long-pitch strand or the same protofilament axis (**Fig. 5A, C**).

Methods for measuring alpha-actinin crosslinking angles and inter-filament

spacing

Alpha-actinin molecules crosslink two actin filaments in either a parallel (unipolar)

or anti-parallel (bipolar) configuration. In this study, we analyzed the crosslinking

angles (both small and large) relative to the filament axis and inter-filament spacing

between actin filaments based on unipolar crosslinking conformations obtained

from HS-AFM (**Supplementary Fig. 10**) and based on unipolar and bipolar

configurations from MD simulations (**Fig. 5A, B**). Two alpha-actinin molecules

consistently intercalated between actin filaments at every half-helical turn, forming

a parallelogram-like configuration.

To analyze the conformations derived from HS-AFM, we tracked the center of

mass (CoM) positions of four crossover points (e.g., A, B, C, and D in

Supplementary Fig. 10) in a parallelogram, using their vertex coordinates. This

process was performed with the Kodec software to semi-automatically detect the

CoM positions (including its source code)[22].

To compute the interior angles of a parallelogram when the vertex coordinates

were known, we followed these steps:

Given four vertices—A (x1, y1), B (x2, y2), C (x3, y3), and D (x4, y4)—arranged

sequentially around the parallelogram, the first step was to determine the four

vectors representing its sides:

1036
$$\overrightarrow{AB} = (x2 - x1), (y2 - y1)$$

1037
$$\overrightarrow{AD} = (x4 - x1), (y4 - y1)$$

1038
$$\overrightarrow{BC} = (x3 - x2), (y3 - y2)$$

1039
$$\overrightarrow{CD} = (x4 - x3), (y4 - y3)$$

1040 Second, the angle between two vectors were calculated as:

Angle at A: between $\overrightarrow{AD}$ and $\overrightarrow{AB}$

Angle at B: between $\overrightarrow{AB}$ and $\overrightarrow{BC}$

Angle at C: between $\overrightarrow{BC}$ and $\overrightarrow{CD}$

Angle at D: between $\overrightarrow{CD}$ and $\overrightarrow{AD}$

For example, an angle θ (rad) at A:

$$\theta = \arccos \frac{(x2 - x1)(x4 - x1) + (y2 - y1)(y4 - y1)}{\sqrt{(x2 - x1)^2 + (y2 - y1)^2}.\sqrt{(x4 - x1)^2 + (y4 - y1)^2}}$$

The angle (degrees) at A was then calculated:

$$\theta\,(deg) = \theta\,(rad)\frac{180}{\pi}$$

The angles at B, C, and D were calculated using the same approach. Finally, the physical lengths of AB, BC, CD, and DA segments were similarly determined and converted the lengths from pixel to nm unit.

Length of AB segment: $L\,(nm) = \frac{nm*pixel}{pixel}\sqrt{(x2 - x1)^2 + (y2 - y1)^2}$

The similar approach was utilized to analyze the unipolar and bipolar crosslinking conformations obtained from MD simulations. We noted that the definition of inter-filament measurements in HS-AFM and MD simulation data differed slightly, as described in their respective captions (**Supplementary Fig. 10**).

Data availability

All the data are included in the Supplementary Information or as source data. The conformation libraries, available in PDB format, can be accessed upon reasonable request and are open for AI-based training collaboration.

Code availability

https://gricad-gitlab.univ-grenoble-alpes.fr/GruLab/afmfit

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Author Contributions:

K.X.N. designed the research; K.X.N., T.S., R.V. and S.G. performed the research; K.X.N., T.S., R.V., H.G.N., T.Q.P.U., N.T.P.L., and S.G. analyzed the data; K.X.N., T.S., R.V. and S.G. wrote the paper.

Declaration of interests:

The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

Declaration of generative AI and AI-assisted technology

During the preparation of this work, the authors used ChatGPT to enhance the clarity of the English in their writing. After utilizing this tool, they carefully reviewed and edited the content as necessary and take full responsibility for the final publication. Furthermore, the manuscript has been submitted for scientific and English editing through Nature Springer's service.

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A

EF34
ABD
CH2 CH1 neck SR1 SR2 SR3 SR4
EF12 SR4 SR3 SR2 SR1
EF12   EF12 CH1 CH2 ABD
Ca²⁺   EF34

CH2 CH1 EF34
neck SR1 SR2 SR3 SR4
EF12 SR4 SR3 SR2 SR1 EF12
CH1 CH2
EF34

B

8.00 nm
0.00 nm
probe
25.6 nm

Height (nm) vs Length (nm)

C

Exp. AFM   Initial model (PDB)   AFMfit   Libraries of conformations   Atomic structure & dynamics

HS-AFM + AFMfit

25 nm

MD simulations

PCA

PCA

Collective motions

D

Ca²⁺-unbound alpha-actinin

2.4 s   13.7 s   19.9 s   20.2 s

Ca²⁺-bound alpha-actinin

8nm

1.0 s   8.1 s   12.7 s   13.0 s

E

Ca²⁺-unbound (HS-AFM)

Ca²⁺-bound (HS-AFM)

Height (nm)   Length (nm)

F

Ca²⁺-bound/AFMfit
Ca²⁺-unbound/AFMfit
Ca²⁺-bound/MD simulations
Ca²⁺-unbound/MD simulations
Fitting
Fitting
Fitting
Fitting

Probability vs Length (nm)

Fig. 1 Novel workflow for analyzing the dynamics and atomic structures of alpha-actinin through the integration of HS-AFM with the AFMfit and MD simulations.

(**A**) Domain composition and structure of chicken gizzard smooth muscle alpha-actinin (PDB: 1SJJ) depicted in a ribbon model and an electrostatic surface potential model. In the latter, red and blue represent negative and positive charges, respectively. Alpha-actinin is an antiparallel homodimer with a molecular weight exceeding 200 kDa. It comprises an N-terminal actin binding domain (ABD), in which the two calponin homology 1 and 2 (CH1, CH2) domains are in extensive contact, a central region containing four spectrin-like repeat (SR1-SR4) or rod domains, and a C-terminal calmodulin-like domain (CaMD) that includes two pairs of EF-hand motifs (EF12 and EF34). The EF12 domain is responsible for the Ca^{2+} binding. The two ABDs undergo a 90-degree rotation, enabling alpha-actinin to crosslink the actin filaments in nearly any orientation.

(**B**) Pseudo-AFM images and topographic cross-sectional profile of alpha-actinin generated with the AFM viewer[107]. The pseudo-AFM images were obtained with the following scan parameters: step size, 0.1 nm; cone angle, 5°; and tip radius, 2.0 nm. The cross-sectional profile in the bottom panel corresponds to the red line in the middle panel.

(**C**) Workflow for developing libraries of conformations, storing them as PDB files, and analyzing the dynamics and atomic structures of alpha-actinin through the integration of HS-AFM with the AFMfit and molecular dynamics (MD) simulations. This process is followed by principal component analysis (PCA) to identify and classify dynamic atomic structures into distinct modes of collective motion (indicated by white arrows).

(**D**) HS-AFM still images showing the various physical motions of alpha-actinin, such as twisting and bending, with and without Ca^{2+} binding. Scale bars: 25 nm. Color scale: 0–8 nm.

(**E**) Ridgeline plots displaying the distribution of the peak heights and lengths between the two ABDs for Ca^{2+}-bound and Ca^{2+}-unbound alpha-actinin obtained with HS-AFM. A two-sample *t test* ($p \leq 0.05$) indicates that the differences in the distributions of the height and length between the bound and unbound states are significant ($p = 0$ for height, $p = 7.45454 \times 10^{-7}$ for length).

(**F**) Plot showing the length distributions between the two centers of mass of the CH1-CH2 and EF12-EF34 domains located on the opposite sides of alpha-actinin using data from the atomic conformations obtained from the AFMfit and MD simulations for both the Ca^{2+}-bound and Ca^{2+}-unbound states. The mean ± SD lengths were determined through single Gaussian fitting. A two-sample *t test* ($p \leq 0.05$) confirmed that the differences in the distributions of the length between the Ca^{2+}-bound and Ca^{2+}-unbound states were statistically significant ($p = 8.9 \times 10^{-28}$ for the AFMfit data; $p = 0$ for the MD simulations).

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Fig. 2 HS-AFM-based analysis of the dynamic conformation of the actin

filaments crosslinked with alpha-actinin in a unipolar configuration in the

presence of ATP, Ca²⁺, and S1.

(**A**) Longitudinal section profile illustrating the analysis of the magnitudes of the

two adjacent HHPs, the number of protomer pairs per HHP, and the MADs in

various actin filaments captured at different time points with still AFM images. The

analytic methods employed were developed previously[24].

(**B**) Time-dependent changes in the magnitudes of two adjacent HHPs, the number

of protomer pairs per HHP, and the MADs in the actin filaments crosslinked with

50 nM α-actinin in the presence of 1 mM ATP, 0.1 mM $CaCl_2$, and 1 μM S1 but

without $MgCl_2$. Scale bars: 25 nm. Color scale: 0–12 nm.

(**C**) Ridgeline and bar plots displaying the distribution of the magnitude of the

HHPs, the number of the protomer pairs per HHP, and the MADs, as well as the

corresponding number of events (N) (1055, 6956.5, and 1055, respectively).

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Fig. 3 The crosslinking of actin filaments by alpha-actinin inhibits both the development of mature cofilin clusters and shortening of HHP in actin filaments.

(**A**) Time-dependent changes in the peak heights and HHPs of actin filaments incubated with only 600 nM hs cofilin 1 and 1mM ATP. A ~25% decrease in HHP and the formation of mature cofilin clusters on actin filaments in the absence of alpha-actinin served as positive controls, providing a basis for comparison with the cofilin clusters and HHP shown in **B**. Red and green arrowheads indicate the peaks in mature cofilin clusters and bare actin segments (served as negative controls), respectively. Time label indicates the time after adding cofilin. Scale bars: 25 nm. Color scale: 0-12 nm. **Related to Supplementary Video 4A.**

(**B**) Time-dependent changes in the peak heights and HHPs of actin filaments incubated 400 nM α-actinin and 1 mM ATP, and subsequently added with 600 nM cofilin. The cofilin binding and formation of mature cofilin clusters, and the shortening of HHP were significantly suppressed by crosslinking of alpha-actinin. Red arrowheads denote the peaks in mature cofilin clusters within the supertwisted half helices of actin segments (cofilactin) without alpha-actinin, and blue arrowheads indicate those in immature cofilin clusters within the long half helices of actin segments crosslinked with alpha-actinin (cofilactin-actinin), respectively. Scale bars: 25 nm. Color scale: 0-13 nm. **Related to Supplementary Video 4B.**

(**C**) Histograms of the peak height and HHP measured from various actin filaments

with and without alpha-actinin crosslinking, showing the presence of both mature

and immature cofilin clusters. These clusters corresponded to short and long

HHPs, respectively. Notably, their categorization as mature or immature clusters

was based on their differences in peak heights and length of corresponding HHPs,

and their comparisons with bare actin (i.e., peak height of 8.6 ± 0.8 nm, HHP of

36.8 ± 4.3 nm), as reported in our previous studies[22]. The mean ± SD heights and

lengths are 10.7 ± 1.0 nm (N = 425) and 27.9 ± 3.0 nm (N= 300) for mature clusters

of cofilactin segment without alpha-actinin, and 9.9 ± 1.1 nm (N = 2514) and 33.0

± 4.6 nm (N = 2003) for immature clusters of cofilactin segment with alpha-actinin

crosslinking (cofilactin-actinin). A two-population *t-test* ($p < 0.05$) indicates that the

differences in height and HHP distribution between the clusters of cofilactin

segments without and with alpha-actinin crosslinking are significant ($p = 2.9 \times 10^{-38}$

for height, $p = 8.5 \times 10^{-68}$ for HHP).

(**D**) Still AFM images show actin filaments with distinct short and long HHP regions

where cofilin (cofilactin) and S1 (S1-actin) clusters bind. These filaments

represented one of the configurations in **Supplementary Fig. 2B**. Red and cyan

arrowheads mark cofilactin and S1-actin regions, respectively. Time labels

correspond to frames in **Supplementary Video 6** after the addition of 100 nM

cofilin, during which stable S1 clusters were formed near cofilin clusters on actin

filaments when ATP levels were depleted. Scale bars: 25 nm. Color scale: 0-17.5

nm.

(**E**) Time-dependent variations in peak heights and HHP within cofilactin and S1-

actin clusters.

(**F**) Ridgeline plots displaying the distribution of peak heights and HHP in cofilactin

and S1-actin cluster regions. The average peak heights (mean ± SD) are 10.5 ±

1.0 nm (N = 935) for cofilactin and 14.9 ± 1.4 nm (N = 1051) for S1-actin segments.

The average HHPs (mean ± SD) are 25.7 ± 3.6 nm (N = 767) for cofilactin and

33.9 ± 4.4 nm (N = 805) for S1-actin. Statistical differences between mean values

were analyzed using a two-population *t-test* and significant at ($p<0.00001$).

Fig. 4 Analyses of the dynamics and atomic structure of the Ca^{2+}-bound and unbound alpha-actinin using HS-AFM combined with the AFMfit and MD simulations.

(**A**) Positions of the Cα atoms from the libraries of the Ca^{2+}-bound and Ca^{2+}-unbound alpha-actinin conformations obtained from the AFMfit and MD simulations. The conformations were aligned, assuming that the helical elements in the SR2 and SR3 domains (residues 485-525) exhibited the lowest root mean square fluctuation (RMSF). Top views and two different side views are presented to compare the molecular dynamics among the states and conformation libraries.

(**B**) RMSF values plotted against the residue number. The illustration of the alpha-actinin domains, along with their corresponding amino acid residues, is based on PDB ID 1SJJ, using colors consistent with those in **Fig. 1A**. From the N-terminus to the C-terminus: CH1, CH2: calponin homology 1 and 2; SR1-SR4: spectrin-like repeat 1-4; and EF12, EF34: EF hand motifs 12, 34.

(**C**) Ensemble motions of the atomic conformations of alpha-actinin projected onto a common PCA space according to the conformational libraries of Ca^{2+}-bound and Ca^{2+}-unbound alpha-actinin obtained from the AFMfit and MD simulations. The eigenvalues of the principal components (PC1, PC2, PC3) were used to calculate the contributions (in percentages) of each motion to the total motions of alpha-actinin in the two states. The alpha-actinin structures are illustrated in the tube conformations, with the ABD, neck, rod, and EF12-EF34 domains represented in red, cyan, green, and yellow, respectively; the eigenvectors indicating the direction of motion are shown with blue arrows.

(**D**) Distributions of PC1 and PC2 (left) and PC1 and PC3 (right). The values derived from the conformational libraries obtained from the AFMfit and MD simulations are plotted in blue and red, respectively. Light blue and light red represent the PCs obtained from the libraries corresponding to the Ca^{2+}-unbound state, whereas dark blue and dark red represent the PCs obtained from the libraries corresponding to the Ca^{2+}-bound state.

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Fig. 5 Differences in the conformational changes in the actin filaments crosslinked with alpha-actinin in unipolar and bipolar models, including rise, AD, and residue-level interactions. (**A**) Illustrations of the unipolar and bipolar crosslinking models of the actin filaments with alpha-actinin. The unipolar crosslinking configuration occurs when the actin filaments share the same polarity, whereas the bipolar crosslinking configuration appears when the actin filaments align with opposite polarities. The rise and AD analyses were performed using conformations obtained from MD simulations. See the definitions of rise and AD in the Supplementary Methods.

(**B**) Quantitative analysis of the inter-filament lengths and alpha–actin crosslinking

angles relative to the filament axis in the unipolar-flexible, bipolar-flexible, and

bipolar-fixed models obtained from the MD simulations. In these models, the

flexible condition allowed all Cα atoms in alpha-actinin to vibrate freely, while the

fixed condition computationally constrained them.

(**C**) Analysis of the HHP, rise, and AD in the bare actin filaments and in the

unipolar-flexible, bipolar-flexible, and bipolar-fixed models using the conformations

derived from the MD simulations.

(**D, E**) Characterization of the residue-level interactions between the alpha-actinin

ABDs and actin protomers during crosslinking in the unipolar-flexible and bipolar-

flexible models. If an atom of one residue was in contact within 2 Å of an atom of

another residue, these two residues were considered to be interacting. The

probability of the residue contacts, time averaged contact probability, was

calculated as the combined sum of interactions between the two alpha-actinin

ABDs (green texts) and actin (red texts) residues, resulting in a maximum value of

2. Related to **Supplementary Table 1**.

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Fig. 6 Hypothesis outlining the configurations, functions, and localizations of the actin filaments and their crosslinking with alpha-actinin in both unipolar and bipolar models.

(**A**) Summary of our experimental findings on how the actin filaments and crosslinking of the unipolar actin filaments with alpha-actinin regulate the binding of S1 and cofilin.

(**B**) Illustration depicting the unipolar and bipolar crosslinking conformations, highlighting their distinct localizations and functions within cells. This figure was created using BioRender.com. Related to **Supplementary Table 2**.

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Supplementary Information for

Atomic Conformational Dynamics and Actin-Crosslinking Function of Alpha-Actinin Revealed by SimHS-AFMfit

Kien Xuan Ngo, Takashi Sumikama, Rémi Vuillemot, Han Gia Nguyen, Taro QP Uyeda, Ngan Thi Phuong Le, Sergei Grudinin

Email:

ngoxuankien@staff.kanazawa-u.ac.jp

sumi@staff.kanazawa-u.ac.jp

remi.vuillemot@univ-grenoble-alpes.fr

sergei.grudinin@univ-grenoble-alpes.fr

This PDF file includes:

       Supplementary Figures 1 to 10

       Supplementary Tables 1 to 2

       Supplementary Videos 1 to 20

       Supplementary References

Supplementary Figure 1: Analysis of the dynamic conformations of actin filaments crosslinked by alpha-actinin in unipolar configuration in the presence or absence of S1 using HS-AFM.

(**A**) A longitudinal section profile illustrating for the analysis of two consecutive HHPs, the number of protomer pairs per HHP, and MADs in various actin filaments captured at different time points. The analytic methods used were developed in our previous study[24].

(**B**) Still AFM images with time labels were shown for conditions with ATP present and after ATP depletion (primarily converted into ADP and inorganic phosphate in solution) to observe the binding of S1 on actin filaments. As ATP levels gradually declined or nearly depleted due to ATP hydrolysis (ATP → ADP + Pi) during the actomyosin reaction, S1 binding to actin filaments persisted for longer durations, enabling capture by HS-AFM at an imaging rate of 330 ms per frame. All actin filaments in the imaging field were aligned with the pointed end (PE) on the left and the barbed end (BE) on the right, reflecting the actual unipolar crosslinking configuration. As similarly done in our previous study[22] by referring to the EM study[67], the polarity of actin filaments was confirmed by observing the tilted angles of S1, with its head pointing toward the pointed (minus) end (PE), resembling an arrowhead along the filament. This characteristic orientation allowed differentiation between the PE and the barbed (plus) end (BE). Yellow and cyan arrowheads indicate alpha-actinin and S1 molecules, respectively. Scale bars: 25 nm. Color scale: 0-12 nm.

(**C**) Time-dependent changes in two consecutive HHPs, the number of protomer pairs per HHP, and MADs in actin filaments crosslinked by 50 nM α-actinin in the presence of 1 mM ATP, 0.1 mM $CaCl_2$, and 1 μM S1, but without $MgCl_2$.
 Related to Fig. 2, Supplementary Video 2.

(**D**) Still AFM images of actin filaments crosslinked using 50 nM alpha-actinin and imaged in F-buffer with 0.5 mM $MgCl_2$ and 0.5 mM ATP, but without $CaCl_2$. The polarity of the crosslinking configuration was determined based on a previous study [63]. Accordingly, the crosslinking of actin filaments by alpha-actinin was determined as unipolar configuration in this case. It is because no changes were observed in the preferred attachment angle of the crosslinkers once the filament spacing stabilized, indicating that the filaments were incorporated in the same polarity as previously crosslinked filaments (an unipolar configuration). Scale bars: 25 nm. Color scale: 0-12 nm. Related to **Supplementary Video 3**.

(**E**) A histogram of HHP measured for actin filaments crosslinked with alpha-actinin. A total of 4270 HHPs were counted.

A 0.01 mM ATP + 1 mM ADP + 300 nM S1 + 100 nM cofilin

B Same condition in A but, when ATP was completely depleted in solution

Supplementary Figure 2: Segregation of cofilin and S1 clusters, as identified by their distinct short and long HHP conformations and corresponding peak-height differences, visualized using HS-AFM.

(**A**) Cofilin and S1 competitively interact and utilize different HHP structures on the same actin filament to form their respective clusters. Green, cyan, and red arrowheads denote bare actin (lowest height, normal HHP), S1-actin (highest height, normal HHP), and cofilactin (intermediate height between bare actin and S1-actin, with a ~25% reduction in HHP) those are represented in these still AFM images. Actin filaments were initially imaged in F-buffer containing 0.01 mm ATP, 1 mM ADP, and 300 nM S1, followed by adding 100 nM cofilin. As ATP levels gradually declined due to ATP hydrolysis (ATP → ADP + Pi) during the actomyosin reaction, S1 binding to actin filaments persisted for longer durations and formed stable its clusters when ATP was completely depleted. Time indicates the time after adding cofilin before (**upper panel**) and after (**lower panel**) ATP was completely depleted in solution. Scale bars: 25 nm. Color scales: 0-17.5 nm. **Related to Fig. 3D-F, Supplementary Videos 5 and 6**.

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Supplementary Figure 3: Analysis of domain distances in Ca²⁺-bound and Ca²⁺-unbound alpha-actinin based on conformations obtained from AFMfit and MD simulations.

(**A**) Results of the exhaustive search for the optimal value of a hyperparameter (λ). Average root mean square deviation (RMSD): This represented the average amplitude of the flexible deformation, calculated as the RMSD between the final and initial states. The largest λ value tested that keeps the average RMSD below 10 Å is $\lambda = 7.5$.

(**B**) Average Pixel-RMSD Difference: This corresponded to the criterion used by AFMfit to evaluate the goodness of fit. Beyond $\lambda = 7.5$, the fitting ceases to improve and reaches a plateau, indicating the onset of overfitting (See Supplementary Methods). **<u>Related to Supplementary Videos 7-8.</u>**

(**C**) Structural comparison of Ca^{2+}-bound and Ca^{2+}-unbound alpha-actinin, showing the positions of the CH1, CH2, EF12, and EF34 domains.

(**D**) Distribution of distances between the CH1, CH2, EF12, and EF34 domains in Ca^{2+}-bound (N = 1466) and Ca^{2+}-unbound (N = 1140) alpha-actinin derived from AFMfit conformations. The domain distances were measured separately for chain 1 and chain 2 in individual conformations (stored as PDB files) for both Ca^{2+}-bound and Ca^{2+}-unbound states. The final data represent the averaged values of the two chains. Related to **Supplementary Table 1**.

(**E, F**) Time-dependent variations and distributions of domain distances between the CH1, CH2, EF12, and EF34 domains in Ca^{2+}-bound (N = 500) and Ca^{2+}-unbound (N = 500) alpha-actinin, based on conformations from MD simulations. The domain distances were similarly measured for chain 1 and chain 2 in individual conformations for both Ca^{2+}-bound and Ca^{2+}-unbound states. The final data represent the averaged values of the two chains. Related to **Supplementary Table 1**.

A

B

Supplementary Figure 4: Analysis of the bending and twisting angles of the ABD relative to the rod domain of Ca^{2+}-bound and Ca^{2+}-unbound alpha-actinin using the conformations obtained from (A) AFMfit and (B) MD simulations (MD).

PCA of the conformations confirmed the rigidity of the rod domain (SR2-SR3). To calculate the bending and twisting angles, a reference vector (dashed line) was aligned along the Cα positions within the SR2-SR3 domain, defining 0 degrees. The bending angles were then determined relative to the center of mass of the Cα atoms in the CH1, CH2, EF12, and EF34 domains near the neck domain in chain 1 (red) and chain 2 (blue), as shown in the upper panels (A). For the twisting angles, a vector was defined by connecting the centers of mass of the Cα atoms between the EF12-EF34 and CH1-CH2 domains. These twisting angles were then measured relative to a reference vector aligned along the SR2-SR3 domain, as shown in the upper panel (B). Positive and negative bending or twisting angles corresponded to angles in the upper and lower reference vectors, respectively, for both (A) and (B). A two-population *t-test* was conducted to evaluate the statistical difference ($p < 0.05$) between the mean values of the Ca^{2+}-bound and Ca^{2+}-unbound states. Related to **Supplementary Table 1**.

Supplementary Figure 5: PCA of atomic structures and physical motions of Ca²⁺-bound and Ca²⁺-unbound alpha-actinin using conformational libraries obtained from AFMfit and MD simulations. The PCA was conducted using conformations of Ca²⁺-bound and Ca²⁺-unbound states, obtained from AFMfit (A) and MD simulations (B).
Eigenvalues of the principal components (PC1, PC2, PC3) were used to calculate the contribution in percentage of each physical motion for these states. The alpha-actinin structures are illustrated in tube conformations, with the ABD, neck, rod, and EF12-EF34 domains represented in red, cyan, green, and yellow, respectively. Eigenvectors indicating the direction of motion are shown with white arrows. Related to **Supplementary Videos 12-15**.

Supplementary Figure 6: The ensemble motions of atomic conformations and distributions of principal components of alpha-actinin with Ca^{2+}-bound and Ca^{2+}-unbound states obtained from AFMfit and MD simulations projected onto four PCA spaces.

All the libraries of conformations with and without Ca^{2+} obtained from AFMfit and MD simulations were projected onto eigenvectors derived from either the data with Ca^{2+} obtained from AFMfit (**A**), or from the data without Ca^{2+} obtained from AFMfit (**B**), or from the data with Ca^{2+} obtained from MD simulations (**C**), or from the data without Ca^{2+} obtained from MD simulations (**D**). The plots in dark blue, light blue, dark red, and light red are the projections of the conformations with Ca^{2+} obtained from AFMfit, without Ca^{2+} obtained from AFMfit, with Ca^{2+} obtained from MD simulations, and without Ca^{2+} obtained from MD simulations, respectively. Related to **Supplementary Fig. 5**.

A Projected on eigenvectors derived from AFMfit with Ca^{2+}

● Chain 1   ● Chain 2

B Projected on eigenvectors derived from AFMfit without Ca^{2+}

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Supplementary Figure 7: Correlation between principal components (PC1,

PC2, PC3) and bending and twisting angles in Ca^{2+}-bound and Ca^{2+}-unbound

alpha-actinin using conformations obtained from AFMfit. Related to

Supplementary Fig. 4, 5.

(**A, B**) The plots of the correlation between PC1, PC2, PC2 and bending and

twisting angles in chain 1 (red dots) and chain 2 (blue dots) of Ca^{2+}-bound and

Ca^{2+}-unbound alpha-actinin obtained from AFMfit.

C Projected on eigenvectors derived from MD simulations with Ca²⁺

D Projected on eigenvectors derived from MD simulations without Ca²⁺

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Supplementary Figure 8: Correlation between principal components (PC1,
PC2, PC3) and bending and twisting angles in Ca^{2+}-bound and unbound
alpha-actinin using conformations obtained from MD simulations. Related to
Supplementary Fig. 4, 5.

(**C, D**) The plots of the correlation between PC1, PC2, PC2 and bending and
twisting angles in chain 1 (red dots) and chain 2 (blue dots) of Ca^{2+}-bound and
Ca^{2+}-unbound alpha-actinin obtained from MD simulations.

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A Unipolar

PC1 (43.5%) PC2 (34.7%) PC3 (7.0%)

Same-direction   Opposite-direction   Same-direction
(neck bending)   (neck rotation)   (neck bending)

B Bipolar

PC1 (46.4%) PC2 (20.7%) PC3 (15.9%)

Opposite-direction   Same-direction   Mode is mostly seen
(neck rotation)   (neck bending)   in the lower ABD

1882

Supplementary Figure 9: PCA of the atomic structures and physical motions of alpha-actinin molecules on the basis of conformational libraries derived from unipolar (A) and bipolar (B) crosslinking models obtained with MD simulations.

The alpha-actinin structures are illustrated in tube conformations, with the ABD, neck, rod, and EF12-EF34 domains represented in red, cyan, green, and yellow, respectively. Eigenvectors indicating the direction of motion are shown with white arrows. The final system of unipolar configurations consisted of two actin fibers (26 protomers), one alpha-actinin molecule, 1032 K^+ atoms, 718 Cl^- atoms, 26 Mg^{2+} atoms, 26 ADP molecules, and 1,433,011 water molecules, for a total number of 4,479,739 atoms in the system. The bipolar model was constructed similarly, differing only in the inclusion of 1,432,853 water molecules (see Supplementary Methods). Related to **Supplementary Videos 16-17**.

Supplementary Figure 10: Quantitative analysis of spacious inter-filament lengths, HHP, and alpha-actinin crosslinking angles relative to the filament axis, based on experimental HS-AFM data for actin filaments crosslinked by alpha-actinin, both in the presence (A) and absence (B) of S1.

In our HS-AFM data, alpha-actinin crosslinked the actin filaments in a unipolar
configuration. Two alpha-actinin molecules consistently intercalated between actin
filaments at every half-helical turn, forming a parallelogram-like configuration. The
segments AB, CD, EF, and HG correspond to HHP, while AD, BC, EG, and FH
represent inter-filament spaces or lengths. It is noted that the definition of inter-
filament spacing differs slightly from that in the MD simulation data (**Fig. 5B**). In
the MD simulation, spacing was measured by a vertical line connecting between
the two filaments, whereas in the AFM data, it is determined by measuring the
parallel sides of a parallelogram. As a result, the inter-filament lengths measured
in AFM data were larger than that in MD simulations. Statistical differences were
assessed using a two-population t-test, with a significant difference confirmed at p
≤ 0.05. See our analysis in Supplementary Methods for details. Related to **Fig. 2,**
Supplementary Fig. 1, Supplementary Table 1, and Supplementary Videos 2–
3.
Supplementary Table 2 A brief comparison of structure, localization, and
functions of actin filaments crosslinked by alpha-actinin in bipolar and unipolar
configurations within cells[61–63,67,108]. Related to **Figure 6B**.

Feature	Bipolar configuration	Unipolar configuration
Polarity	Opposite at each end	All barbed (plus) ends face the same direction
Crosslinking by alpha-actinin	Forms contractile networks	Forms stable, non-contractile bundles
Myosin interaction	Strong (contractile activity)	Weak (non-contractile activity)
Cellular function	Force generation, contraction	Protrusion, structural support, migration
Localization in cells	Stress fibers, contractile rings, sarcomeres	Lamellipodia, filopodia, cortical actin, microvilli

1935

1936

Supplementary Video 1 HS-AFM imaging of structure and dynamic conformational changes of Ca^{2+}-bound and Ca^{2+}-unbound alpha-actinin in solution. The AFM images were smoothed with Gaussian filter (σ = 1). Imaging rate was done at 100 ms per frame. The Supplementary Video plays at 5 fps. Scale bars: 25 nm. Related to **Fig. 2**.

Supplementary Video 2 HS-AFM imaging of the dynamic conformational changes in actin filaments crosslinked by alpha-actinin in the presence of ATP, Ca^{2+}, and S1. Actin filaments were incubated with 50 nM α-actinin under conditions containing 1 mM ATP, 0.1 mM $CaCl_2$, and 1 µM S1, but without $MgCl_2$. As ATP levels gradually declined or nearly depleted due to ATP hydrolysis (ATP → ADP + Pi) during the actomyosin reaction, S1 binding to actin filaments persisted for longer durations, enabling capture by HS-AFM at an imaging rate of 330 ms per frame. All actin filaments in the imaging field were aligned with the pointed end (PE) on the left and the barbed end (BE) on the right, reflecting the actual unipolar crosslinking configuration. The polarity of actin filaments was determined using S1, as similarly done in our previous study[22] by referring to the EM study[67]. The AFM images were processed using a Gaussian filter (σ = 1). The Supplementary Video plays at 5 frames per second. Scale bar: 25 nm. Related to **Fig. 2, Supplementary Fig. 1A-C**.

Supplementary Video 3 HS-AFM imaging of the dynamic conformational changes in actin filaments crosslinked by alpha-actinin in the presence of ATP and Mg^{2+}. Actin filaments were crosslinked with 50 nM alpha-actinin and observed in F-buffer supplemented with 0.5 mM $MgCl_2$ and 0.5 mM ATP, but without $CaCl_2$. The AFM images were recorded at an imaging rate of 500 ms per frame and processed using a Gaussian filter (σ = 1). The Supplementary Video plays at 5 frames per second. Scale bar: 25 nm. Related to **Supplementary Fig. 1D-E**.

Supplementary Video 4 HS-AFM analysis of helical structures in actin filaments without and with alpha-actinin crosslinking. Actin filaments were gently immobilized on a lipid membrane and imaged in F-buffer containing 1 mM ATP, 600 nM hs cofilin, and either (A) without or (B) with 400 nM alpha-actinin. Alpha-actinin crosslinking was found to suppress the shortening of half helices and the formation of mature cofilin clusters. AFM images were captured at an imaging rate of 500 ms per frame and processed with a Gaussian filter ($\sigma = 1$). Time labels indicate the elapsed time after cofilin addition. The Supplementary Video plays at 5 frames per second. Scale bar: 25 nm. Related to **Fig. 3A-C**.

Supplementary Video 5 HS-AFM imaging was conducted to explore the competitive interactions between cofilin and S1, focusing on how they utilize distinct helical structures on the same actin filament to form their respective clusters. Actin filaments were gently immobilized on a lipid membrane and imaged in F-buffer initially containing 1 mM ADP, 0.01 mM ATP, and 300 nM S1, followed by the addition of 100 nM cofilin. When ATP was gradually or nearly depleted, stable S1 clusters were formed near cofilin clusters on actin filaments. AFM images were acquired at a rate of 500 ms per frame and processed using a Gaussian filter ($\sigma = 1$). Time labels indicate the elapsed time after cofilin addition. The Supplementary Video plays at 5 frames per second, with a scale bar of 25 nm. Related to **Fig. 3D, Supplementary Fig. 2**.

Supplementary Video 6 HS-AFM imaging was performed to observe actin filaments utilizing distinct shorter and longer half-helices for the binding of cofilin clusters and S1 clusters, respectively. Actin filaments were gently immobilized on a lipid membrane and imaged in F-buffer initially containing 1 mM ADP, 0.01 mM ATP, and 300 nM S1, followed by the addition of 100 nM cofilin. As ATP levels completely depleted, stable S1 clusters formed in proximity to cofilin clusters on the same actin filaments. AFM images were recorded at a rate of 500 ms per frame and processed using a Gaussian filter ($\sigma = 1$). Time labels indicate the elapsed time after cofilin addition. The Supplementary Video plays at 5 frames per second. Scale bar: 25 nm. Related to **Fig. 3D**.

Supplementary Video 7 The HS-AFM Supplementary Videos of Ca^{2+}-bound
alpha-actinin (left) and the atomic model (right) that were obtained through rigid
and flexible fitting using AFMfit. The initial model of the Ca^{2+}-bound state was
constructed based on PDB entry 1SJJ. Related to **Fig. 4A**.

Supplementary Video 8 The HS-AFM Supplementary Videos of Ca^{2+}-unbound
alpha-actinin (left) and the atomic model (right) that were obtained through rigid
and flexible fitting using AFMfit. The initial model of the Ca^{2+}-unbound state was
generated based on PDB entry 1SJJ. Related to **Fig. 4A**.

Supplementary Video 9 PC1 captured the ensemble of opposite-direction
bending motions or neck rotation. Related to **Fig. 4C**.

Supplementary Video 10 PC2 represented same-direction bending motions or
neck bending. Related to **Fig. 4C**.

Supplementary Video 11 PC3 described a combination of opposite-direction
bending and twisting motions. Related to **Fig. 4C**.

Supplementary Video 12 PC1, PC2, PC3 described physical motions Ca^{2+}-bound
alpha-actinin obtained from AFMfit. Related to **Supplementary Fig. 5A**.

Supplementary Video 13 PC1, PC2, PC3 described physical motions Ca^{2+}-
unbound alpha-actinin obtained from AFMfit. Related to **Supplementary Fig. 5A**.

Supplementary Video 14 PC1, PC2, PC3 described physical motions Ca^{2+}-bound
alpha-actinin obtained from MD simulations. Related to **Supplementary Fig. 5B**.

Supplementary Video 15 PC1, PC2, PC3 described physical motions Ca^{2+}-
unbound alpha-actinin obtained from MD simulations. Related to **Supplementary**
Fig. 5B.

Supplementary Video 16 PC1, PC2, PC3 described physical motions Ca^{2+}-
unbound alpha-actinin, as derived from unipolar crosslinking model obtained from
MD simulations. Related to **Supplementary Fig. 9A**.

Supplementary Video 17 PC1, PC2, PC3 described physical motions Ca^{2+}-
unbound alpha-actinin, as derived from bipolar crosslinking model obtained from
MD simulations. Related to **Supplementary Fig. 9B**.

Supplementary Video 18 Molecular dynamics of unipolar-flexible crosslinking model obtained from MD simulations. All atoms were allowed to flexibly vibrate in the model and MD simulations were carried out for 100 ns. With different residue contacts locating in different domains on both sides of actin subunits (e.g., electrostatic interaction between actin: ASP25, ARG28, GLU57, ARG95, GLU99, GLN354 and alpha-actinin: ARG233, GLU236, LYS122, ASP27/GLU236, LYS107, ARG87) compared to the bipolar-flexible model, alpha-actinin-unbound Ca^{2+} appeared to promote greater same-direction neck bending (PC1 + PC3: 50.5%) than opposite-direction neck rotation (PC2: 34%) in the unipolar-flexible model. This suggests that alpha-actinin's bending or rotation may have minimal impact on fluctuations in rise and AD in the unipolar model compared to the two bipolar models, which displayed specific electrostatic interactions between residues (e.g., actin: ARG28, GLU57, ARG95; alpha-actinin: GLU149, ARG233, GLU31/GLU149/ASP235). Moreover, the rise fluctuations were nearly identical to those observed in the bare actin filament, but AD fluctuations were significantly different ($p \leq 0.05$). **Note**: The simulation box remained unchanged. Consequently, slight drifting of the model in the box may cause the actin protomers to move in or out of the box. Related to **Fig. 5, Supplementary Fig. 9, Supplementary Table 1**.

Supplementary Video 19 Molecular dynamics of bipolar-flexible crosslinking model obtained from MD simulations. All atoms were allowed to flexibly vibrate in the model and MD simulations were carried out for 100 ns. With specific residue contacts locating in different domains on both sides of actin subunits and different locations compared to the unipolar-flexible model, alpha-actinin-unbound Ca^{2+} appeared to induce greater opposite-direction neck rotation (PC1: 46.4%) than same-direction neck bending (PC2: 20.7%) in the bipolar-flexible model. This suggests that neck rotation in alpha-actinin has a stronger physical impact on fluctuations in rise and AD, whereas the unipolar-flexible model exhibited weaker fluctuations in this motion. It is possible that certain key contacting residues contribute to this effect, warranting further investigation in future studies. Additionally, the rise and AD fluctuations were higher than those observed in the bare actin filament. **Note**: The simulation box remained unchanged. Consequently, slight drifting of the model in the box may cause the actin protomers to move in or out of the box. Related to **Fig. 5, Supplementary Fig. 9, Supplementary Table 1**.

Supplementary Video 20 Molecular dynamics of bipolar-fixed crosslinking model obtained from MD simulations. In the model, all Cα atoms in alpha-actinin were computationally constrained to prevent vibrations, and MD simulations were performed for 100 ns. With less residue contacts and mainly electrostatic interactions between residues locating in different domains on both sides of actin subunits compared to the unipolar-flexible model, alpha-actinin-unbound Ca^{2+} exhibited highly rigid in the bipolar-fixed model. This explains that static electrostatic binding alpha-actinin to actin subunits in the bipolar model was sufficient to increase fluctuations in the rise and AD as compared to the flexible models. **Note**: The simulation box remained unchanged. Consequently, slight drifting of the model in the box may cause the actin protomer to move in or out of the box. Related to **Fig. 5, Supplementary Fig. 9, Supplementary Table 1**.

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