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

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Graphical Abstract

Summary

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 Ca^{2+}-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.

Introduction

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].

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)[22,25,32–38], 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 (**Figure 1**). 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] (**Figure 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 (**Figure 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 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 (**Figure 2, Video S1**). 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 **Figures 1B, 2A, 2B**). 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 (**Figure 2C**).

The HS-AFM data in **Figure 2C** were compared with those obtained by the AFMfit and MD simulations (**Figure 2D, Table S1**). 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 (**Figure 2D**). 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 (**Figure 2D**); these results supported the

reliability of SimHS-AFMfit, despite their narrower distributions when compared

directly with the 2D HS-AFM data.

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

$CaCl_2$ (**Figures 3, S1, Video S2**). The unipolar crosslinking configuration, in which

the actin filaments shared the same polarity (**Table S2**), 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 **Figure**

S1B and **Video S2**[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[25] and was employed for these analyses (**Figures 3A,**

S1A). These parameters changed over time (**Figures 3B, S1B, C**), 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) (**Figure 3C**). 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) (**Figure**

S2, Video S3); these results were similar to those observed in the presence of

both S1 and ATP (**Figure 3C**). 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 (**Figure S1B, Video S2**).

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 (**Figures 3, S1, S3, Videos S2-**

S3) 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)[22,25]; 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 (**Figure S3, Table S3, Video S4**). The kinetics of the peak height and

HHP fluctuations were analyzed using the same approach as in our previous

studies[22,25] (**Figures S3A, 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

(**Figure S3C, Table S3**). 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) (**Table S3**);

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 (**Figure S4, Video S5**). 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 (**Figure S5, Videos S5, S6**) on the same actin filaments. Analysis of the

peak heights and HHPs in the mature S1-actin and cofilactin segment clusters

(**Figure S5A**) 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 ($p < 0.05$) (**Figures S5B, C; Table S4**). 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 (**Figures 4, S6, Videos S7, S8**). Using this approach, we generated libraries of the conformations for the Ca^{2+}-bound and Ca^{2+}-unbound alpha-actinin (**Figure 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 (**Figure 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 (**Figure 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 (**Figure S7, Table S5**). 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] (**Figures S7A, B**). 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 (**Figures S7A, C, D; Table S5**). 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 (**Figure 5A, Videos S9-S11**). 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

(**Figure 5B**). 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 (**Figure 4**), 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 (**Figures 4, 5**). 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 (**Figures 4A, 5A**). 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 (**Figure**

S8), 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) (**Figure S8A**). 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 (**Figure S8B**). 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 Ca²⁺-bound and Ca²⁺-unbound alpha-actinin based on the AFMfit and MD simulations (**Figure S8, Table S6**) 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 Ca²⁺ binding could restrict these motions to some extent. Our approach effectively refined and categorized the impact of Ca²⁺ 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 Ca²⁺, 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 Ca²⁺-bound and Ca²⁺-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 (**Figures S9, S10, Videos S12-S15**).

For the conformation libraries derived with AFMfit (**Figure S9A, Videos S12, S13**), PC1, PC2, and PC3 characterized the physical motions of Ca²⁺-bound alpha-actinin as opposite-direction bending (neck rotation), twisting, and opposite-direction bending (neck rotation), respectively. In contrast, for Ca²⁺-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 (**Figure S9B, Videos S14-S15**), 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 (**Figures S10A, 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 (**Figures S10C, 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 (**Figures S11, S12, Videos S12-S15**). 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 (**Figure S11**); these results confirmed opposite-direction bending between them (**Figure**

S9A, Videos S12-S13). Conversely, PC2 exhibited a strong linear correlation with

the twisting angle in the Ca^{2+}-bound state and confirmed the role of this PC in

capturing the twisting motion. However, in the Ca^{2+}-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 (**Figures S9A, S11, Video S12-S13**).

In both the Ca^{2+}-bound and Ca^{2+}-unbound states derived from the MD simulations,

PC1 exhibited strong negative linear correlations with the bending angles of both

chains (**Figure S12**) and indicated the same-direction bending in the two

conformations (**Figure S9B, Videos S14-S15**). 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 Ca^{2+}-bound and

Ca^{2+}-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 Ca^{2+}-bound state and primarily

twisting motion in the Ca^{2+}-unbound state (**Figures S9B, S12, Videos S14-S15**).

Overall, the AFMfit and MD simulations consistently identified the key motions in

both the Ca^{2+}-bound and Ca^{2+}-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 (**Figures 3, S1, S2, Videos S2, S3**) 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 (**Figures 6, S13, Videos S16-S20**).

We next analyzed the atomic conformational dynamics of Ca^{2+}-unbound alpha-actinin in the unipolar and bipolar models (**Figure S13, Videos S16-S17**). 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 (**Figure S13A, Video S16**). 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 (**Figure S13B, Video S17**).

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 (**Figure 6A, C; Table S7**). 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[25,26,69]. 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 (**Figure**
6C, Table S7). 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 (**Figure 6C, Table S7**). 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 (**Figure 6D, E; Table S10**).
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 (**Figures 6, S14,**
Tables S8-S10). Consequently, alpha-actinin could exert distinct physical effects,
such as neck bending or neck rotation (**Figure S13**), 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 (**Figure 6,**
Video S20). This restriction is unlikely to influence the increased fluctuations in
rise and AD of filaments, suggesting that alpha-actinin's ABD binding alone (**Table**
S10) 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 into the 3D atomic conformations. This
workflow enables the classification of the physical motions of these proteins
through PCA (**Figures 4, 5, Videos S7-S15**), including their domain distances and
twisting and bending modes (**Figures S7-S12, Videos S12-S15**). 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 (**Figures 6, S13, Videos S16-S17**).
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 (**Figure 6C, Table S7,**
Videos S18-S19). 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 (**Figures 3, S1-S2, S14, Videos**
S2-S3). 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 (**Figures 7A, S3, Video S4**).

i) Bare actin filaments typically support the normal binding and functional activity
of cofilin and S1 (**Figures S4, S5, Videos S5-S6**). 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)[25,70–72]. In
contrast, S1 binding maintains a longer HHP (**Figure 7A**).

(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 (**Figure S3, Video S4**).
Moreover, alpha-actinin crosslinking preserves a long HHP without affecting the
binding activity of S1 (**Figures 3, 7A, S1, S2, Videos S2-S3**).

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 (**Figure 6C**)
reveal that ABD binding to actin filaments alone is sufficient to drive these
structural changes. Residue-level contacts play a crucial role in determining the
extent of the AD fluctuations (**Figure 6D-E, Table S10, Videos S19-S20**). 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 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)[25]. 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 (**Figure 7B**). 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 (**Table S2**). 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

(**Table S10**), 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[25] 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

Materials and methods are included in the Supplementary Information.

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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1132 **Figure 1** Novel workflow for analyzing the dynamics and atomic structures of

1133 alpha-actinin through the integration of HS-AFM with the AFMfit and MD

1134 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[94]. 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).

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Figure 2 Ca^{2+} binding influencing the flexibility of the length of smooth muscle alpha-actinin, as analyzed using HS-AFM combined with the AFMfit and MD simulations.

(**A**) Illustration of the measurement of the length between the two spheres on the opposite sides of alpha-actinin, as shown in **Figure 1B**. The distance is calculated between the two peaks (blue), which are automatically detected within the region of interest (circles). The longitudinal section profile (right) displays the height and length measurements along the red line (left).

(**B**) 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.

(**C**) 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).

(**D**) 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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1190 **Figure 3** HS-AFM-based analysis of the dynamic conformation of the actin

1191 filaments crosslinked with alpha-actinin in a unipolar configuration in the presence

1192 of ATP, Ca^{2+}, 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[25].

(**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).

Figure 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 **Figure 1**. 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.

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Figure 5 AFMfit and MD simulations projected onto a common PCA space consistently capturing the ensemble motions of the atomic conformations and distributions of alpha-actinin in the Ca^{2+}-bound and Ca^{2+}-unbound states.

(**A**) 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.
(**B**) 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.

Figure 6 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 **Table S10**.

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Figure 7 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 **Table S2**.

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Supplementary Information for

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

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    Videos S1 to S20

    Supplementary References

Source Video

https://drive.google.com/drive/folders/1OX7NmnHoftt5swuxmw1WlzegKFTV6bJE?usp=sharing

Supplementary Information

Materials and Methods

Proteins and lipids

Rabbit skeletal actin and human (hs) cofilin 1 were prepared following the

same protocol as in our previous study[1]. Chicken gizzard smooth muscle alpha-

actinin (isoform 2)[2] was obtained from Cytoskeletons (Sigma, Japan).

Subfragment-1 (S1) was prepared from smooth muscle myosin using the method

described by Asakasa et al[3].

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[1].

HS-AFM Analysis

We employed high-speed atomic force microscopy (HS-AFM), as

previously described[1,4,5], 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[1].

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 (**Figures 3, S1**). The analytical

methods used in this study were adapted from our previous research[1,4].

AFMfit Analysis

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

images[6]. 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[7] 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[8]. 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 (**Figure S6**).

*** 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[9], TIP3P[10], the Li and Merz 12-6[11], the Li and Merz 12-
6-4[12] 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. Giambasy, 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[13] was used to control the temperature, and a Monte Carlo

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

algorithm[14] 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[15] 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[13]. 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[7]. 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[16], water coordination around Mg^{2+} and ADP in the actin

protomer was investigated. First, a protomer (PDB code: 8d15)[17] 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[18]. 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[16]. 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$_\alpha$ atoms[7]. 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[19]. 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)[20] 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 (**Figure S8A**). 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 Cα 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 (**Figure S8B**): 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 (**Figures 6A, 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 (**Figure S14**) and based on unipolar and bipolar configurations from

MD simulations (**Figures 6A, 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 **Figure**

S14A) 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)[1].

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:

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

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

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

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

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:

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

1641 The angle (degrees) at A was then calculated:

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

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 (**Figure S14**).

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Figure S1 Analysis of the dynamic conformations of actin filaments crosslinked by alpha-actinin in unipolar configuration in the presence of ATP, Ca^{2+}, and 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[4].

(**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[1] by referring to the EM study[21], 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 Figure 3 and Video S2**.

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Figure S2 A ridgeline plot illustrating the fluctuation of HHP in actin filaments

crosslinked by alpha-actinin.

(**A**) 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 [22]. 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 **Video S3**.

B) A histogram of HHP measured for actin filaments crosslinked with alpha-actinin.

A total of 4270 HHPs were counted.

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Figure S3 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 Video S4A.**

(**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 Video S4B.**

(**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[1]. 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).

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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

Figure S4 HS-AFM imaging reveals how cofilin and S1 competitively interact, utilizing 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 (**A**) and after (**B**) ATP was completely depleted in solution. Scale bars: 25 nm. Color scales: 0-17.5 nm. **Related to Figures S4-S5 and Videos S5 and S6**.

Figure S5 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) 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 **Figure S4B**. Red and cyan arrowheads mark cofilactin and S1-actin regions, respectively. Time labels correspond to frames in **Video S6** 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.

(B) Time-dependent variations in peak heights and HHP within cofilactin and S1-actin clusters.

(C) 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 ($p<0.00001$).

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Figure S6 Results of the exhaustive search for the optimal value of a hyperparameter (λ).

(**A**) 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). **Related to Videos S7-S8.**

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Figure S7 Analysis of domain distances in Ca²⁺-bound and Ca²⁺-unbound alpha-actinin based on conformations obtained from AFMfit and MD simulations.

(**A**) Structural comparison of Ca²⁺-bound and Ca²⁺-unbound alpha-actinin, showing the positions of the CH1, CH2, EF12, and EF34 domains.

(**B**) Distribution of distances between the CH1, CH2, EF12, and EF34 domains in Ca²⁺-bound (N = 1466) and Ca²⁺-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 Ca²⁺-bound and Ca²⁺-unbound states. The final data represent the averaged values of the two chains. Related to **Table S5**.

(**C, D**) 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 **Table S5**.

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Figure S8 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 $C\alpha$ positions within the SR2-SR3 domain, defining 0 degrees. The bending angles were then determined relative to the center of mass of the $C\alpha$ 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 $C\alpha$ 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 **Table S6**.

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Figure S9 PCA of atomic structures and physical motions of Ca^{2+}-bound and Ca^{2+}-unbound alpha-actinin using conformational libraries obtained from AFMfit and MD simulations. The PCA was conducted using conformations of Ca^{2+}-bound and Ca^{2+}-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 **Videos S12-S15**.

Figure S10 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 **Figure S9**.

A Projected on eigenvectors derived from AFMfit with Ca²⁺

B Projected on eigenvectors derived from AFMfit without Ca²⁺

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Figure S11 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 **Figures S10A, B**.

(**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 Ca^{2+}

D Projected on eigenvectors derived from MD simulations without Ca^{2+}

1947

1948 **Figure S12** Correlation between principal components (PC1, PC2, PC3) and
1949 bending and twisting angles in Ca^{2+}-bound and unbound alpha-actinin using
1950 conformations obtained from MD simulations. Related to **Figures S10C, D**.
1951 (**C, D**) The plots of the correlation between PC1, PC2, PC2 and bending and
1952 twisting angles in chain 1 (red dots) and chain 2 (blue dots) of Ca^{2+}-bound and
1953 Ca^{2+}-unbound alpha-actinin obtained from MD simulations.

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

1978

1979 **Figure S13** PCA of the atomic structures and physical motions of alpha-actinin

1980 molecules on the basis of conformational libraries derived from unipolar (**A**) and

1981 bipolar (**B**) crosslinking models obtained with MD simulations. The alpha-actinin

1982 structures are illustrated in tube conformations, with the ABD, neck, rod, and EF12-

1983 EF34 domains represented in red, cyan, green, and yellow, respectively.

1984 Eigenvectors indicating the direction of motion are shown with white arrows. The

1985 final system of unipolar configurations consisted of two actin fibers (26 protomers),

1986 one alpha-actinin molecule, 1032 K^+ atoms, 718 Cl^- atoms, 26 Mg^{2+} atoms, 26 ADP

1987 molecules, and 1,433,011 water molecules, for a total number of 4,479,739 atoms

1988 in the system. The bipolar model was constructed similarly, differing only in the

1989 inclusion of 1,432,853 water molecules (see Supplementary Methods). Related to

1990 **Videos S16-S17**.

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Figure S14 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 (**Figure 6B**). 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 $p \leq 0.05$. See our analysis in Supplementary Methods for details. Related to **Figures 3, S1, S2, Table S8, and Videos S2–S3**.

Table S1 Summary of the height and length (mean ± SD) distributions of ABDs in Ca^{2+}-bound and Ca^{2+}-unbound alpha-actinin analyzed using conformations obtained from HS-AFM, AFMfit, and MD simulations. ND: not determined. Statistical differences were assessed using a two-population *t-test*, with a significant difference confirmed at $p \leq 0.05$. Related to **Figure 2.**

	Height (nm) (N)	Length (nm) (N)
Ca^{2+}-bound state (HS-AFM)	6.3 ± 0.9 (7236)	25.2 ± 2.3 (3516)
Ca^{2+}-unbound state (HS-AFM)	5.5 ± 0.8 (4043)	25.6 ± 3.6 (2016)
p-value (*t-test*) (HS-AFM)	0	7.45454×10^{-7}
Ca^{2+}-bound state (AFMfit)	ND	24.7 ± 0.9 (1466)
Ca^{2+}-unbound state (AFMfit)	ND	25.2 ± 1.4 (1140)
p-value (*t-test*) (AFMfit)	ND	8.98×10^{-28}
Ca^{2+}-bound state (MD simulations)	ND	25.4 ± 0.6 (500)
Ca^{2+}-unbound state (MD simulations)	ND	24.1 ± 0.7 (500)
p-value (*t-test*) (MD simulations)	ND	0

Table S2 A brief comparison of structure, localization, and functions of actin filaments crosslinked by alpha-actinin in bipolar and unipolar configurations within cells[21–25]. Related to **Figure 7B**.

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

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2038 **Table S3** Summary of the peak height and HHP (mean ± SD) in mature cofilin
2039 clusters (cofilactin) without alpha-actinin and immature cofilin clusters within actin
2040 segments crosslinked with alpha-actinin (cofilactin-actinin). Statistical differences
2041 were assessed using a two-population *t-test*, with a significant difference confirmed
2042 at *p* ≤ 0.05. Related to **Figure S3C.**

Clusters of	Height (nm) (N)	HHP (nm) (N)
Cofilactin	10.7 ± 1.0 (425)	27.9 ± 3.0 (300)
Cofilactin-actinin	9.9 ± 1.1 (2514)	33 ± 4.6 (2003)
p-value (*t-test*)	2.9×10^{-38}	8.5×10^{-68}

2043

2044 **Table S4** Summary of the peak height and HHP (mean ± SD) in cofilin clusters
2045 (cofilactin) and S1 clusters (S1-actin) formed and segregated on the same actin
2046 filaments. Statistical differences between the mean values were assessed using a
2047 two-population *t-test*, with a significant difference confirmed at $p \le 0.05$. Related to
2048 **Figure S5C**.

Clusters of	Peak Height (nm) (N)	HHP (nm) (N)
S1-actin	14.9 ± 1.4 (1051)	33.9 ± 4.4 (805)
Cofilactin	10.5 ± 1.0 (935)	25.7 ± 3.6 (767)
p-value (*t-test*)	0	3.3×10^{-245}

2049

2050 **Table S5** Summary of the distances between domains (mean ± SD) in Ca^{2+}-bound
2051 and Ca^{2+}-unbound alpha-actinin, derived from conformational libraries obtained
2052 from AFMfit and MD simulations. The domain distances were measured separately
2053 for chain 1 and chain 2 in individual conformations (stored as PDB files) for both
2054 Ca^{2+}-bound and Ca^{2+}-unbound states. The final data represent the averaged
2055 values of the two chains. A two-population *t-test* was conducted to evaluate the
2056 statistical difference ($p \le 0.05$) between the mean values of the Ca^{2+}-bound and
2057 Ca^{2+}-unbound states. **Related to Figure S7.**

Domain distance (nm)	Ca^{2+}-bound/ AFMfit	Ca^{2+}-unbound/ AFMfit	t-test (p-value)
CH1-CH2	2.45 ± 0.01	2.46 ± 0.01	4.6 × 10^{-10}
CH1-EF12	3.89 ± 0.16	3.76 ± 0.21	1.9 × 10^{-62}
CH1-EF34	3.06 ± 0.01	3.07 ± 0.02	8.7 × 10^{-38}
CH2-EF12	4.58 ± 0.06	4.53 ± 0.09	1.8 × 10^{-49}
CH2-EF34	3.63 ± 0.01	3.63 ± 0.02	1.5 × 10^{-08}
EF12-EF34	2.81 ± 0.05	2.78 ± 0.07	7.7 × 10^{-48}
N	1466	1140	
Domain distance (nm)	Ca^{2+}-bound/ MD simulations	Ca^{2+}-unbound/ MD simulations	t-test (p-value)
CH1-CH2	2.58 ± 0.02	2.54 ± 0.03	7.0 × 10^{-105}
CH1-EF12	4.10 ± 0.15	4.22 ± 0.30	9.7 × 10^{-15}
CH1-EF34	2.79 ± 0.09	3.15 ± 0.14	1.4 × 10^{-260}
CH2-EF12	4.53 ± 0.06	4.79 ± 0.12	2.9 × 10^{-237}
CH2-EF34	3.62 ± 0.09	3.71 ± 0.12	2.4 × 10^{-42}
EF12-EF34	3.21 ± 0.10	3.06 ± 0.16	1.0 × 10^{-61}
N	500	500	

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Table S6 Summary of the bending and twisting angles of the ABD (mean ± SD) near the neck domain relative to the rod domain in Ca^{2+}-bound and Ca^{2+}-unbound alpha-actinin, derived from conformational libraries obtained from AFMfit and MD simulations. A two-population *t-test* was conducted to evaluate the statistical difference ($p \leq 0.05$) between the mean values of the Ca^{2+}-bound and Ca^{2+}-unbound states obtained from AFMfit or MD simulations. **Related to Figure S8**.

Figure S8A	Bending angle (degree)	N	p-value
Chain 1-Ca^{2+}-bound-AFMfit	7.0 ± 6.7	1466	2.7×10^{-28}
Chain 2-Ca^{2+}-bound-AFMfit	4.3 ± 6.5	1466	4.7×10^{-7}
Chain 1-Ca^{2+}-unbound-AFMfit	1.7 ± 7.7	1140	2.7×10^{-28}
Chain 2-Ca^{2+}-unbound-AFMfit	2.8 ± 8.9	1140	4.7×10^{-7}
Chain 1-Ca^{2+}-bound-MD simulations	8.8 ± 5.1	500	2.8×10^{-25}
Chain 2-Ca^{2+}-bound-MD simulations	3.8 ± 4.6	500	4.6×10^{-11}
Chain 1-Ca^{2+}-unbound-MD simulations	12.6 ± 6.0	500	2.8×10^{-25}
Chain 2-Ca^{2+}-unbound-MD simulations	6.0 ± 5.8	500	4.6×10^{-11}

Figure S8B	Twisting angle (degree)	N	p-value
Chain 1-Ca^{2+}-bound-AFMfit	16.7 ± 24.6	1466	6.8×10^{-18}
Chain 2-Ca^{2+}-bound-AFMfit	101.2 ± 37.5	1466	9.7×10^{-66}
Chain 1-Ca^{2+}-unbound-AFMfit	7.5 ± 29.4	1140	6.8×10^{-18}
Chain 2-Ca^{2+}-unbound-AFMfit	128.6 ± 41.5	1140	9.7×10^{-66}
Chain 1-Ca^{2+}-bound-MD simulations	42.7 ± 10.4	500	2.8×10^{-25}
Chain 2-Ca^{2+}-bound-MD simulations	58.4 ± 11.3	500	6.7×10^{-142}
Chain 1-Ca^{2+}-unbound-MD simulations	27.0 ± 11.6	500	2.8×10^{-25}
Chain 2-Ca^{2+}-unbound-MD simulations	82.1 ± 13.5	500	6.7×10^{-142}

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Table S7 Summary of HHP, rise, and AD (mean ± SD) values measured from bare actin filaments and actin filaments in bipolar-flexible, bipolar-fixed, and unipolar-flexible models conducted by MD simulations. The statistical difference ($p \leq 0.05$) between the values of bare actin filaments and their conformations in the unipolar and bipolar models was assessed using a one-way *ANOVA* and a two-population *t-test*. Related to **Figure 6C.**

Model	HHP (nm)	Rise (nm)	AD (nm)
Bare actin	36.2 ± 0.0	2.8 ± 0.1	5.6 ± 0.1
	(N = 14)	(N = 33)	(N = 34)
Bipolar-flexible	36.3 ± 0.0	2.8 ± 0.2	5.7 ± 0.2
	(N = 14)	(N = 58)	(N = 59)
Bipolar-fixed	36.3 ± 0.0	2.9 ± 0.2	5.7 ± 0.2
	(N = 13)	(N = 81)	(N = 78)
Unipolar-flexible	36.2 ± 0.0	2.8 ± 0.1	6.0 ± 0.3
	(N = 14)	(N = 42)	(N = 37)
One-way ANOVA (*p*-value) for all values	1.9×10^{-14}	0.00325	2.6×10^{-5}
Bare actin vs. bipolar-flexible, *t-test* (*p*-value)	0.00158	0.87644	0.00158
Bare actin vs. bipolar-fixed, *t-test* (*p*-value)	5.6×10^{-5}	0.02016	5.6×10^{-5}
Bare actin vs. unipolar-flexible, *t-test* (*p*-value)	0.02957	0.34058	0.02957
Bipolar-flexible vs. unipolar-flexible, *t-test* (*p*-value)	7.9×10^{-4}	0.33007	0.11681

Bipolar-flexible vs. Bipolar-fixed, *t-test* (*p*-value)	0.34514	0.0043	0.0681
Unipolar-flexible vs. Bipolar-fixed, *t-test* (*p*-value)	6.1×10^{-5}	0.057	0.00413

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2073 **Table S8** A summary of alpha-actinin crosslinking angles relative to the filament
2074 axis and inter-filament spaces or lengths of actin filaments crosslinked by alpha-
2075 actinin, as determined from MD simulation experiments. Statistical differences
2076 were assessed using a two-population *t-test*, with a significant difference confirmed
2077 at ($p \leq 0.05$). Related to **Figure 6B**.

Figure 6B (MD simulations)	Inter-filament length (nm)(mean ± SD)	Crosslinking angle (degrees) (mean ± SD)
Bipolar-flexible	35 ± 0.5 (N = 6100)	68.4 ± 3.3 (N = 6100)
Bipolar-fixed	20.2 ± 0.4 (N = 10000)	42.9 ± 0.0 (N = 10000)
Unipolar-flexible	32.4 ± 0.8 (N = 6100)	75.0 ± 2.0 (N = 6100)
One-way ANOVA (*p*-value)	0	0

Table S9 A summary of alpha-actinin crosslinking angles relative to the filament axis, HHP, and inter-filament spaces or lengths of actin filaments crosslinked by alpha-actinin, as determined from HS-AFM experiments. Statistical differences were assessed using a two-population *t-test*, with a significant difference confirmed at ($p ≤ 0.05$). Related to **Figure S14**.

Figure S14A (HS-AFM)	Mean ± SD	N	*t-test* (*p*-value)
Small angle (degrees)	61.2 ± 3.6	200	1.4×10^{-28}
Large angle (degrees)	118.1 ± 2.8	200	2.9×10^{-41}
HHP (nm)	36.2 ± 1.8	200	0.05
Inter-filament length (nm)	39.5 ± 1.7	200	1.7×10^{-14}
Figure S14B (HS-AFM)	Mean ± SD	N	*t-test* (*p*-value)
Small angle (degrees)	67.6 ± 4.5	124	1.4×10^{-28}
Large angle (degrees)	112.5 ± 3.6	124	2.9×10^{-41}
HHP (nm)	35.7 ± 2.5	124	0.05
Inter-filament length (nm)	40.8 ± 1.1	124	1.7×10^{-14}

Table S10 A summary of residue-level contact probability maps between alpha-actinin and actin subunits, derived from all-atom MD simulations using three crosslinking models. The unipolar-flexible crosslinking model represents parallel actin filaments with the same polarity, crosslinked by alpha-actinin, which flexibly adjusted their conformation during simulations. In contrast, the bipolar-flexible and bipolar-fixed crosslinking models describe anti-parallel actin filaments with opposite polarity, also crosslinked by alpha-actinin, but either allowing flexible conformational changes or maintaining fixed Cα positions during simulations. This

crucial biochemical data, computed by all-atoms MD simulations, can be served as a foundational source for further biochemical experiments aimed at investigating the binding residues in unipolar and bipolar crosslinking models within cells. Key amino acid residues involved in contacts with a probability greater than 0.9 were highlighted in green for alpha-actinin and in red for actin. Related to **Figure 6D**.

Alpha-actinin	Actin	Unipolar-flexible	Bipolar-flexible	Bipolar-fixed
Leu26	Asp56	0.919180	0.656393	
Leu26	Asn92			0.339100
Leu26	Glu93	1.535082	0.386230	
Asp27	Asn92			0.688600
Asp27	Arg95	0.830000		
Ala29	Lys50		0.311148	
Glu31	Arg95		0.728852	
Arg87	Gln354	0.339344		
Lys107	Glu99	0.316557		
Ser110	Arg95	1.065246		
Ser110	Glu99		1.124098	
Lys122	Glu57	0.651639		
Glu144/	Thr5	0.526721		
Glu144	Thr6	0.470820		
Thr145	Ala22	0.446230		
Ser146	Arg95		0.687705	
Glu149	Arg28		0.510492	0.669700
Glu149	Arg95		1.750000	0.573700
Glu226	Ser350		0.388033	
Arg233	Asp25	1.443115		

Arg233	Asp56			0.882200
Arg233	Glu57		0.787869	
Arg233	Glu167			1.600600
Asp235	Arg96		0.516066	
Glu236	Arg28	1.119016		
Glu236	Arg95	1.585246		1.740300
Asp842	Thr5		0.327213	
Arg866	Glu364		0.340820	

Video S1 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. Video plays at 5 fps. Scale bars: 25 nm. Related to **Figure 2**.

Video S2 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[1] by referring to the EM study[21]. The AFM images were processed using a Gaussian filter (σ = 1). The Video plays at 5 frames per second. Scale bar: 25 nm. Related to **Figures 3 and S1**.

Video S3 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 Video plays at 5 frames per second. Scale bar: 25 nm. Related to **Figure S2**.

Video S4 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 (σ = 1). Time labels indicate the elapsed time after cofilin addition. The Video plays at 5 frames per second. Scale bar: 25 nm. Related to **Figure S3**.

Video S5 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 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 (σ = 1). Time labels indicate the elapsed time after cofilin addition. The Video plays at 5 frames per second, with a scale bar of 25 nm. Related to **Figure S4**.

Video S6 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 (σ = 1). Time labels indicate the elapsed time after cofilin addition. The Video plays at 5 frames per second. Scale bar: 25 nm. Related to **Figure S5A**.

Video S7 The HS-AFM 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 **Figure 4A**.

Video S8 The HS-AFM 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 **Figure 4A**.

Video S9 PC1 captured the ensemble of opposite-direction bending motions or neck rotation. Related to **Figure 5**.

Video S10 PC2 represented same-direction bending motions or neck bending. Related to **Figure 5**.

Video S11 PC3 described a combination of opposite-direction bending and twisting motions. Related to **Figure 5**.

Video S12 PC1, PC2, PC3 described physical motions Ca^{2+}-bound alpha-actinin obtained from AFMfit. Related to **Figure S9A**.

Video S13 PC1, PC2, PC3 described physical motions Ca^{2+}-unbound alpha-actinin obtained from AFMfit. Related to **Figure S9A**.

Video S14 PC1, PC2, PC3 described physical motions Ca^{2+}-bound alpha-actinin obtained from MD simulations. Related to **Figure S9B**.

Video S15 PC1, PC2, PC3 described physical motions Ca^{2+}-unbound alpha-actinin obtained from MD simulations. Related to **Figure S9B**.

Video S16 PC1, PC2, PC3 described physical motions Ca^{2+}-unbound alpha-actinin, as derived from unipolar crosslinking model obtained from MD simulations. Related to **Figure S13A**.

Video S17 PC1, PC2, PC3 described physical motions Ca^{2+}-unbound alpha-actinin, as derived from bipolar crosslinking model obtained from MD simulations. Related to **Figure S13B**.

Video S18 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 fewer residue contacts locating in different domains on both sides of actin subunits than in the bipolar-flexible and bipolar-fixed models, 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 stronger residue interactions. 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 protomer to move in or out of the box. Related to **Figures 6, S13, Table S10**.

Video S19 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 higher residue contacts locating in different domains on both sides of actin subunits than and different locations in 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 protomer to move in or out of the box. Related to **Figures 6, S13, Table S10**.

Video S20 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 higher residue contacts locating in different domains on both sides of actin
subunits than and different locations in the unipolar-flexible model, alpha-actinin-
unbound Ca^{2+} exhibited highly rigid in the bipolar-fixed model. This explains that
strong binding of alpha-actinin to actin subunits in the bipolar model was sufficient
to increase fluctuations in the rise and AD as compared to the unipolar-flexible
model, which exhibited weaker residue interactions. 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 protomer to move in or out of the box. Related to
Figures 6, S13, Table S10.

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