Energy conversion mechanism revealed by ATP-free and ATP-dependent walking of myosin V motor

Noriyuki Kodera[1], Holger Flechsig[1], Takayuki Uchihashi[2], and Toshio Ando[1*]

[1]Nano Life Science Institute, Kanazawa University, Kakuma-machi, Kanazawa 920-192, Japan

[2]Department of Physics, Nagoya University, Chikusa-ku, Nagoya 464-8602, Japan

Abstract

The mechanical processes of ATPase protein motors are coupled to their ATPase reactions. The free energy released at a given step(s) of the ATPase cycle is converted into mechanical work. Therefore, it has long been thought that ATP is the energy source for mechanical work. Here, we show that the double-headed myosin V (M5) motor can perform ATP-free walking. In the presence of ADP, M5 bound to F-actin by both heads makes a forward step when the trailing head is detached by an external force. This forward step harnesses the strain energy in the leading (L) head, provided from the strong binding energy between the L-head and actin. Consequently, strain generation reduces the binding affinity, which manifests as sporadic, brief L-head detachment. Strain generation and brief L-head detachment also occur during ATP-dependent walking to similar extents as during ATP-free walking. These results suggest that the strong binding energy is also converted into mechanical work during ATP-dependent walking.

ATP has been described as the energy source of all living cells. Indeed, ATPase motor proteins, including myosin, kinesin, dynein and F_1, generate unidirectional force and movement by hydrolysing ATP, thereby performing a variety of cellular functions[1–5]. The mechanical work is performed by a powerstroke[6,7], which is defined as a rapid structural change that produces a large-scale motion comparable to the molecular size or as the formation of a highly strained conformation[8]. In the latter case, large-scale motion is generated by relaxation of the strain[8].

This article examines the energy conversion mechanism in myosin V (M5), a double-headed processive motor protein that moves by hand-over-hand walking toward the plus end of F-actin with ~36 nm advance per ATP hydrolysis cycle[9-13]. The term 'head' is defined as the motor domain plus the neck domain, while the term 'lever-arm' represents the neck domain plus the neck−motor domain junction (alias the converter hinge). Figure 1 illustrates a generally accepted chemomechanical cycle in M5 with a truncated tail (M5-HMM). M5-HMM will be referred to simply as M5. The cycle starts from the double-headed bound (DHB) state, where the trailing (T) head is nucleotide-free (NF) and the leading (L) head is bound to ADP. The neck domains of the T and L heads are oriented in forward and backward directions, respectively. However, the direction of the L-head neck region near the motor domain is often biased toward the forward direction, causing the entire neck to bend outward. This bending was observed by negative stain electron microscopy (nsEM) at low concentrations (0.5–1.0 µM) of ATP[14]. At such low concentrations of ATP, ATP binding to the T-head is the primary rate-limiting step[15,16], and therefore, M5 is predominantly in the initial state of the chemomechanical cycle (Fig. 1, top). ADP bound to the L-head is virtually unable to dissociate due to the strained structure of the L-head, which is the basis for processive hand-over-hand walking[13,17,18].

The chemomechanical cycle progresses as follows (Fig. 1). (1) Upon binding to ATP, the T-head detaches via a structurally revealed mechanism[19], resulting in a forward swing of the L-head lever-arm through its strain relaxation. (2) The ATP bound to the detached head is rapidly

hydrolysed into ADP and inorganic phosphate (Pi), resulting in a change in the angle between the

motor and neck domains by 80–90°[20-22] via a structurally revealed mechanism[21,22]. This change in

angle is known as the recovery stroke. It directs the actin-binding site of the motor domain to a

forward actin site, thereby promoting head binding to actin in a backward-tilt orientation. (3) The

detached head, undergoing Brownian motion around the forward-shifted neck−neck junction that

is also undergoing Brownian motion, searches for a forward actin site. (4) Upon actual binding to

an actin site weakly, the bound head becomes the new L-head in a primed pre-powestroke

conformation. The structure of this transient primed state has recently been elucidated by time-

resolved cryo-EM[23]. The step size, or the separation between the two motor domains bound to F-

actin, which we refer to as the 'motor domain (MD) separation', is approximately $36 \pm n \times 5.5$ nm,

where $n = -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, 3, 4$ for phalloidin-free F-actin, and $n = -1, 0, 1, 2$ for phalloidin-stabilised

F-actin[24]. The number of actin subunits contained within the MD-separation is $N_{m\text{-}m} = 13 \pm 2n$. This

discrete variation in actin sites available for head binding is the consequence of two factors: the

nearly straight walking of M5 on F-actin with minimal azimuthal distortion in the DHB state[25] and

the temporal variation in the F-actin helical pitch due to cumulative angular disorder between

adjacent actin subunits[24]. (5) Pi is released from the new L-head, which strengthens the L-head–

actin binding. This strong binding leads to the generation of a powerstroke, which is associated

with a bend-to-straight conformational change in the L-head[26,27]. However, the order of Pi release

and force generation in any myosin class is currently under debate[28–34]. Nevertheless, the crystal

structure of myosin VI[29] containing Pi in its putative escape route (termed 'the backdoor tunnel'[35])

suggests that the force generation occurs when Pi has left from the active site yet remains at the

tunnel exit[29,36]. We follow this structurally suggested scenario, since the weak binding between

actin and M5 with ADP·Pi at the active site would hinder the generation of a strong force[36]. (6)

ADP is released from the T head, resulting in an additional forward shift of the neck–neck junction

by 2–6 nm[17,37] and the restoration of the M5 molecule to its initial state (but with an advance by

$36 \pm n \times 5.5$ nm).

In the initial state (Fig. 1, top), the L-head is mainly strained through Pi release, which is

reflected in its bending. This strain is used for the L-head swing after T-head detachment. However,

nsEM[14] and high-speed atomic force microscopy (HS-AFM)[38] have also observed L-head bending

in the presence of ADP. HS-AFM has additionally detected occasional unfolding of the short coiled-

coil tail of M5 in the DHB state, resulting in M5 monomerisation[38]. This unfolding was not caused

by the AFM tip, as monomerised M5 was also observed in nsEM images of M5 purified by co-

pelleting with F-actin[39]. Following tail unfolding, the monomerised L-head rotated forward in a

manner similar to the swinging lever-arm motion observed in the presence of ATP[38]. Therefore, in

the presence of ADP, the DHB M5 may potentially step forward when its T-head is mechanically

detached, rather than by ATP binding. In the present study, we examined this possibility by using

interactive HS-AFM (iHS-AFM), where the AFM tip was used for both molecular imaging and head

detachment. Based on these and other observations, we investigated the energy conversion

mechanism in ATP-dependent walking of M5.

Results

ATP-free walking of M5

In the present study, we used M5 from chick brain[40,41]. The assay system used for HS-AFM

observation of M5 interacting with phalloidin-labelled F-actin immobilised on a lipid bilayer surface

is identical to that employed previously[38] (Fig. 2a and Methods). The lipid bilayer also contains 5%

(w/w) of a positively charged lipid that weakly attracts M5 molecules to the bilayer surface. This

attraction provides M5 molecules with a mechanical load against their movement along F-actin.

This load reduces the translocation velocity by 27% at saturating concentrations of ATP[38].

In the presence of 1 mM ADP, M5 molecules were bound to F-actin by both heads with N_{m-m} =

11 (1.5%), 13 (90.7%), 15 (7.6%), and 17 (0%) actin subunits (typical AFM images are shown in

Fig. 2b, top). M5 molecules with N_{m-m} = 2 also appeared by 0.12%, where the two heads were

bound to adjacent actin subunits within the same single strand of double-stranded F-actin. Even

in the presence of 0.1 and 1 µM ATP, this type of binding occurred to a similar extent as in the

case of ADP. Its typical AFM image is shown in Fig. 2b, bottom, together with an AFM image of

M5 with N_{m-m} = 13 that appeared before forming N_{m-m} = 2 at 1 µM ATP. For molecules with N_{m-m} =

2, we did not perform any additional experiment and analysis. The dynamic process leading to the

DHB state could not be captured with HS-AFM, as this binding had already been completed by

the time the HS-AFM system was ready for imaging after the addition of M5. Nonetheless, the

observation of double-headed binding with N_{m-m} = 11, 13, and 15 suggests that the unbound head,

which is destined to become the L-head, must have undergone a thermally induced angle change

at the converter hinge prior to reaching the final state. Otherwise, the unbound head would have

been unable to bind actin in the backward-tilt orientation. Although it is uncertain whether this

angle change is similar to the structurally defined recovery stroke[21,22], we refer to this thermally

induced angle change as a thermal recovery stroke. Unexpectedly from the crystal structures of

M5, previous nsEM observations of M5 alone revealed a NF head that was largely bent by ~90°

at the neck–motor domain junction (resembling a post-recovery stroke conformation) as well as a

straighter head at 100 µM ATP (resembling a post-powerstroke conformation)[42]. The appearance

frequencies of these conformations were lower than those of opposite counterparts under the

respective conditions[42]. Therefore, the neck–motor domain junction is sufficiently flexible to permit

a thermal recovery stroke to occur in the presence of ADP. However, upon binding to actin, the

converter hinge angle that has been temporarily altered by a thermal recovery stroke rapidly

redistributes itself around the most stable angle, which is restricted by the strong head–actin

binding. It can thus be inferred that L-head binding to actin following a thermal recovery stroke

results in the L-head being subjected to strain. To ascertain whether ADP-bound M5 can advance

by harnessing the strain energy acquired presumably in this way, we employed the iHS-AFM

technique[43,44], as explained below.

For the HS-AFM imaging of actin-bound M5 in the presence of 1 mM ADP, 0.1 µM ATP, or 1

µM ATP, the cantilever oscillation amplitude to be maintained during imaging (i.e., the set-point

amplitude A_s) was set to 0.9 × A_0, where A_0 (= 1.5 nm) is the free oscillation amplitude. Therefore,

the mean oscillation energy loss per tip–sample contact, ΔE_{ts}, was estimated to be ΔE_{ts} = 3.1–4.7

$k_B T$ (k_B, Boltzmann constant; T = 298 in kelvin) from the mechanical properties of the short

cantilevers used (see Methods). In iHS-AFM (Supplementary Fig. 1), which is used only in the

presence of 1 mM ADP, the operator of the HS-AFM system specifies a pixel position within the

successively displayed molecular images using a PC mouse pointer and then pushes a start key

to initiate the interactive mode in the next frame of imaging. It should be noted that the T- and L-

heads can be readily distinguished from one another. This is based on the curved L-head and also

on a specific rule between the polarity of F-actin and the direction in which the heads bind to actin[45]

(Supplementary Fig. 2).

When the cantilever tip reaches a locus within a molecule corresponding to the specified pixel,

A_s is rapidly reduced to a preset level A_p. This results in the application of a controlled strong force

to the specified locus by moving the sample stage vertically towards the oscillating tip. Immediately

after this large force application, the system returns to the normal imaging mode. The HS-AFM

system interprets this excessive vertical displacement as a very low height of the locus, such that

the specified pixel appears darker in the image. In the experiments described below, A_p was set

to 0.33 × A_0 (= 0.5 nm), corresponding to ΔE_{ts} = 14.6–22.0 $k_B T$. Furthermore, to ensure 100%

head detachment, the strong force was applied to closely positioned 7 × 7–11 × 11-pixel points

including the operator-specified point at their centre (for more details, see Supplementary Fig. 1).

It should be noted that the oscillation energy, ΔE_{ts} = 3.1–4.7 $k_B T$ or 14.6–22.0 $k_B T$, is transferred

to the sample at each tip–sample contact. However, this transferred energy dissipates rapidly

(within much shorter than the oscillation period of ~1 µs) into the surrounding water. Consequently,

the transferred energy does not accumulate in the sample, as demonstrated by the HS-AFM

imaging of the stator ring of F_1-ATPase at 12.5 fps for 40 s using a cantilever with a resonant

frequency of 1.2 MHz in water, where repeated conformational changes were continuously

observed without any loss of activity[46]. In these conditions, a single stator ring was iteratively

tapped with the tip tens of millions of times.

The application of a strong force to a motor domain (Fig. 2c) could detach the motor domain

from actin with nearly 100% probability. The event of no detachment only rarely occurred but

tended to occur when the motor domain shifted its position due to a change of the F-actin helical

pitch that occurred by chance just prior to the initiation of the interactive mode. Since the vertically

applied strong force pushes the motor domain toward its bound actin subunit, head detachment

is very likely to be caused by brief structural deformation of the motor domain. When a strong

force was applied to the L-head motor domain, the molecule appeared to remain in the same

position despite brief detachment of the L-head. This detachment was confirmed by the brief

disappearance of the motor domain from the image (Supplementary Fig. 3). In contrast, when the

T-head motor domain was detached by the strong force, the molecule stepped forward with a high

probability (92.5%). When this operation was repeated, the molecule almost always advanced in

each interactive-mode operation, resulting in a long-range movement (Fig. 2d; Supplementary

Video 1). It is noteworthy that the stepping direction was independent of the scanning direction

(Supplementary Fig.4; Supplementary Video 2). Therefore, the observed forward stepping is not

attributed to tip dragging. Furthermore, M5 retained its ATP-dependent motor activity after

repeated application of a strong force, as evidenced by processive walking of such molecules after

the addition of ATP by the UV photolysis of caged-ATP (Supplementary Fig. 5; Supplementary

Video 3).

Comparison of strain energies in different nucleotide conditions and MD-separations

The observed ATP-free walking indicates that the forward step of M5 uses the strain energy in the L-head provided just by the double-headed binding to F-actin. A crucial question is whether the mechanism of energy usage in ATP-dependent walking is identical to that in ATP-free walking. It remains unclear whether the strained L-head in the DHB state formed via the ADP·Pi-induced recovery stroke and subsequent Pi release is identical (or similar) to that formed via the thermal recovery stroke alone. To address this question, a quantitative comparison of the strain energies produced in the three nucleotide conditions (1 mM ADP, 0.1 μM ATP, or 1 μM ATP) was made. It is important to note that the chemical state of the T-head depends on the nucleotide conditions. In the presence of 0.1 and 1 μM ATP, the actin-bound T-head is predominantly NF, judging from the ADP dissociation rate constant of 7.2 s^{-1} at the T-head under the experimental conditions[38], whereas the L-head is bound to ADP in all three conditions.

   In the DHB state, M5 is primarily subjected to strain at the converter hinges of the T and L heads, as well as at the neck domain of the L-head. To estimate the strain energy at each site, the distribution of the neck orientation angle (φ), relative to the F-actin orientation, of single-headed M5 bound to F-actin was first measured for both ADP-bound and NF states[38] (Fig. 3a). The angular spring constants of the converter hinge $K(\varphi)$, as estimated from the respective angle distributions $P(\varphi)$, are dependent on the angle. For instance, at 1 mM ADP, the spring constant K_{ADP} is 23.0 $k_B T \cdot$rad^{-2} at the equilibrium angle $\varphi_0 = 28.5°$, decreasing with increasing φ (Fig. 3b, solid red line). In the NF state, the angular spring is stiffer. For instance, the spring constant K_{NF} is 40.0 $k_B T \cdot$rad^{-2} at $\varphi_0 = 28.5°$ and 37.9 $k_B T \cdot$rad^{-2} at the equilibrium angle in the NF state, $\varphi_0 = 32.9°$ (Fig. 3b, dashed red line). The potential energies of the converter hinge in the ADP-bound and NF states, $U_D(\varphi)$ and $U_{NF}(\varphi)$, are shown in Fig. 3b with the black solid and black dashed lines, respectively. The corresponding forces $F(\varphi)$ generated, in parallel to F-actin, at the neck free end in the ADP-bound and NF states are shown in Fig. 3b with the blue solid and blue dashed lines, respectively.

$F(\varphi)$ in the ADP-bound state approaches a plateau (approximately 2.2 pN) at $\varphi > 100°$, which is

consistent with the reported stall force for M5, 1.9–3.0 pN[47-49]. The derivation of these mechanical

quantities is described in Methods.

Subsequently, the geometric parameters of M5 in the DHB state were measured: the tangential

angle of the L-head neck region emerging from the motor domain, φ_L, the angle of the T-head

neck as a function of φ_L, $\varphi_T(\varphi_L)$, and the deflection of the L-head neck end (at the neck−neck joint)

as a function of φ_L, $h(\varphi_L)$ (see Fig. 3c, inset). The experimental data of $h = h(\varphi_L)$ and $\varphi_T = \varphi_T(\varphi_L)$

were fitted to the fourth and second polynomial functions, respectively (solid lines in Fig. 3c,d for

$N_{m-m} = 13$ actin subunits and in Supplementary Fig. 6a-d for $N_{m-m} = 11$ and 15 actin subunits). Note

that each solid line is drawn in a range of observed angles of φ_L. The maximum angle of φ_L

(denoted with φ_L^{max}), where the L-head neck deflection was extrapolated to zero, was

approximately 127° for $N_{m-m} = 11$, 135° for $N_{m-m} = 13$, and 145° for $N_{m-m} = 15$, irrespective of the

nucleotide conditions. For each MD-separation, the fitted curves for $h = h(\varphi_L)$ are nearly identical

across the three nucleotide conditions (the three solid lines in Fig. 3c for $N_{m-m} = 13$ and those in

Supplementary Fig. 6a,b for $N_{m-m} = 11$ and 15). This is also the case for $\varphi_T = \varphi_T(\varphi_L)$ (the three

solid lines in Fig. 3d for $N_{m-m} = 13$ and those in Supplementary Fig. 6c,d for $N_{m-m} = 11$ and 15). The

only distinct difference between the nucleotide conditions is that the minimum value of φ_L that the

L-head can take is smaller (approximately by 20−30°) in the presence of ATP than in the presence

of ADP (see the left end of each fitted solid lines in Fig. 3c,d and Supplementary Fig. 6a−d). Since

φ_T is always larger than the equilibrium angles φ_0 of single-headed M5 (28.5° for the ADP-bound

head, and 32.9° for the NF-head) irrespective of the nucleotide conditions, the stiffer NF T-head

at 0.1 and 1 μM ATP pushes the ADP-bound L-head at the neck-neck junction more strongly than

the less stiff ADP-bound T-head at 1 mM ADP (Fig. 3d, inset), resulting in the smaller minimum

value of φ_L in the presence of ATP. This is how the 2-6 nm forward shift of the neck−neck (or

neck−tail) junction occurs when ADP detaches from the T-head[17,37].

The DHB state remains stationary under all nucleotide conditions, except for thermal

fluctuations. Consequently, all forces acting on a M5 molecule in the DHB state, including the

constraining forces, are balanced. As such, the sum of the strain energies at the three sites is

conserved (from the principle of virtual work in mechanics; see Methods). When the strain

energies at the converter hinges of the T and L heads and at the neck domain of the L-head are

denoted as U_{TCH}, U_{LCH}, and U_{neck}, respectively, the sum $U_{TCH}[\varphi_T(\varphi_L)] + U_{LCH}(\varphi_L) + U_{neck}[h(\varphi_L)]$ is

constant ($\equiv E_{total}$) over possible values of φ_L, under a given condition. The value of $U_{TCH}[\varphi_T(\varphi_L)]$

can be estimated from $U_D(\varphi)$ or $U_{NF}(\varphi)$ at $\varphi = \varphi_L$ (solid or dashed black lines in Fig. 3b) depending

on the nucleotide condition, while the value of $U_{LCH}(\varphi_L)$ can be estimated from $U_D(\varphi)$ at $\varphi = \varphi_L$

(solid black line in Fig. 3b). The resulting $U_{TCH}[\varphi_T(\varphi_L)]$ and $U_{LCH}(\varphi_L)$ for $N_{m-m} = 13$ are shown in Fig.

3e with the dotted lines and the black solid line (common to all nucleotide conditions, except for

the angle ranges), respectively, and those for $N_{m-m} = 11$ and 15 are shown in Supplementary Fig.

6e,f. The value of E_{total} can be obtained as $E_{total} = U_{TCH}[\varphi_T(\varphi_L^{max})] + U_{LCH}(\varphi_L^{max})$. The results are

shown in Fig. 3e with solid horizontal lines for $N_{m-m} = 13$, while those for $N_{m-m} = 11$ and 15 are

shown in Supplementary Fig. 6e,f. As can be clearly seen by the solid horizontal lines in these

figures, the total strain energy is very similar (around ~10 k_BT) across the three nucleotide

conditions. It is also similar across the different MD-separations. This similarity across the different

MD-separations is consistent with the report that there is no significant difference in the kinetics

of ATP-dependent walking regardless of the stride length[24]. The strain energy used for the

mechanical work performed by the L-head swing after T-head detachment is not the total strain

energy E_{total} but $U_{LCH}(\varphi_L) + U_{neck}[h(\varphi_L)]$ (dashed lines located just below the solid horizontal lines

in Fig. 3e and Supplementary Fig. 6e,f). However, the contribution of $U_{TCH}[\varphi_T(\varphi_L)]$ to E_{total} is small

and almost identical across the three nucleotide conditions, although the maximum value of

$U_{TCH}[\varphi_T(\varphi_L)]$ differs across the different MD-separations (0.5 k_BT for $N_{m-m} = 15$, 0.7 k_BT for $N_{m-m} =$

13, and 1.5 k_BT for $N_{m-m} = 11$). Thus, the strain energy to be used for the forward step is very

similar between ATP-free walking and ATP-dependent walking, despite the different pathways to

the strained state as described above.

The value of $U_{neck}[h(\varphi_L)]$ can be obtained as $U_{neck}[h(\varphi_L)] = E_{total} − U_{TCH}[\varphi_T(\varphi_L)] − U_{LCH}(\varphi_L)$ (long

dashed lines in Fig. 3e and Supplementary 6e,f). The spring constant of the L-head neck, k_{neck},

estimated from $U_{neck}[h(\varphi_L)]$ depends on φ_L and the MD-separation (Fig. 3f and Supplementary Fig.

6g,h). These dependencies indicate that larger neck bending (i.e., smaller φ_L) results in smaller

k_{neck}. The value of k_{neck} varies around 0.18 pN/nm, a value previously estimated using optical

tweezers[17]. Note that the estimated values of the spring constant in the large φ_L regions are not

reliable because the values were obtained by dividing the values of $2U_{neck}$ by small values of h^2.

Foot stomping

If a M5 molecule is bound to actin solely by the T-head, the molecule will not undergo strain except

for that induced by thermal effects. Therefore, the total strain energy in M5 in the DHB state at 1

mM ADP originates from the strong binding energy between the L-head and actin. Interestingly, it

was observed at 1 mM ADP that the L-head occasionally detached from actin and then quickly

reattached to F-actin at the same position or its vicinity (Supplementary Fig. 7a; Supplementary

Video 4). This behaviour, which occurs predominantly at the L-head, was previously observed by

HS-AFM also in the presence of 0.1 and 1 μM ATP[38]. This behaviour is referred to as 'foot stomp'.

In our previous study, positional shifts of the motor domains approximately by ±5.5 nm without

detachment (Supplementary Fig. 7b,c; Supplementary Vide 5) were misclassified also as foot

stomp. The positional shifts without detachment are now referred to as 'foot sliding' and are

understood to result from changes in the helical pitch of F-actin. The foot sliding was observed to

occur at either head (L-head, Supplementary Fig. 7b; T-head, Supplementary Fig. 7c), resulting in

wider or shorter MD-separations. Foot stomping is not due to tip force, as similar behaviour has

been observed during ATP-dependent M5 walking using interferometric scattering (iSCAT)

microscopy[50] and polarised fluorescence microscopy[51]. The frequency of foot stomping observed

with iSCAT was ~3% of steps taken at 1 µM ATP, ~0.6% of steps taken at 10 µM ATP, and none

at saturating ATP[50]. The lower frequency at higher ATP concentrations is likely attributable to the

T-head being detached by its binding to ATP during L-head foot stomping, resulting in complete

dissociation of the molecule. Such foot stomp events would have been excluded from the count.

This complete dissociation is likely to be one of the mechanisms by which processive walking of

M5 is terminated. Since single-headed M5–ADP has a high affinity for actin (K_d = 7.6 × 10^{-9} M,

corresponding to a binding energy of -18.7 $k_B T$)[16], foot stomping at the L-head is most likely

caused by a reduction in its binding energy equivalent to the total strain energy of ~10 $k_B T$.

Therefore, the affinity of the L-head reduces to approximately K_d = Exp[(-18.7 + 10)] ≈ 1.7 × 10^{-4}

M in the DHB state under the three nucleotide conditions, which must manifest as foot stomping.

We verified this issue by estimating the foot stomp rate (R_{stomp}) by counting the number of foot

stomp events (N_{stomp}) out of the total number of imaged frames (N_{total}), as R_{stomp} = N_{stomp}/N_{total} ×

imaging rate, where N_{stomp} observed at different MD-separations were summed. This summation

is because the total strain energy is similar between different MD-separations. As shown in Table

1, R_{stomp} was similar across the three nucleotide conditions (0.069 s^{-1}, 0.064 s^{-1}, and 0.109 s^{-1} at

1 mM ADP, 0.1 µM ATP, and 1 µM ATP, respectively). Our results of R_{stomp} are similar to those

estimated from the frequencies of foot stomping observed with iSCAT microscopyy[50], although

some foot stomp events are likely to be missed at 10 µM ATP due to complete dissociation of M5:

0.05 s^{-1} and 0.04 s^{-1} at 1 µM and 10 µM ATP, respectively. Here, the second-order ATP binding

rate constant (2.0 µM^{-1}s^{-1}) and the ADP dissociation rate constant (10.8 s^{-1})[38] at the T-head were

used to estimate R_{stomp} from the foot stomp frequencies observed by iSCAT microscopy[50]. Thus,

the generation of molecular strain reduces the affinity of the L-head for actin, resulting in foot

stomping, while the generated strain energy $U_{LCH}(\varphi_L)$ + $U_{neck}[h(\varphi_L)]$ is converted into mechanical

work performed by the actin-bound L-head during both ATP-free and ATP-dependent walking.

Table 1 | Foot stomp events observed under three nucleotide conditions

Nucleotide conditions	Total number of images	Number of foot stomp events	Imaging rate (fps)	Foot stomp rate (s⁻¹)
1 mM ADP	25,790	588	3.0	0.068
0.1 µM ATP	7,441	71	6.67	0.064
1 µM ATP	5,709	93	6.67	0.109

Although very rare, M5 exhibited 30 instances of a backward step following spontaneous L-

head detachment, among the 25,790 images captured in the presence of 1 mM ADP. To counteract

this backward step, M5 displayed 28 forward steps following spontaneous T-head detachment in

the presence of 1 mM ADP. The similar frequencies of the forward and backward steps caused by

spontaneous head detachment are therefore consistent with the principle of detailed balance

under thermal equilibrium.

Energetics of ATP-free and ATP-dependent walking

This section uses an energy landscape to quantitatively explain the relatively low success/failure

ratio in ATP-free walking compared to ATP-dependent walking. This landscape leads to the

landing of the detached head on F-actin through molecular processes occurring at the detached

and attached heads. The results show the ADP·Pi-induced recovery stroke greatly contributes to

the high degree of successful forward stepping in ATP-dependent walking, despite a small free

energy being expended for the recovery stroke.

In ATP-free walking, the T-head, detached from actin by the strong tip force, reaches the next

forward binding site through the following stages: (i) thermal recovery stroke by the detached head,

(ii) forward swing of the actin-bound L-head, and (iii) Brownian search of the detached head for

the next binding site[47,50,52,53.]. The Brownian search is performed by rotational diffusion of the

bound head around the equilibrium angle relative to F-actin and by rotational diffusion of the

detached head around the neck–neck junction (see Fig. 4a,b). However, the energy spent in the

latter Brownian rotation is negligible[54,55] because the neck–neck joint is highly flexible as indicated

by the wide distribution of the angle made by the two necks at the joint[56]. Thus, the following

equation holds for the success/failure ratio (= 0.925/0.075) of ATP-free forward stepping:

$$\frac{success}{failure} = \left[\frac{thermal\ recovery\ stroke}{without\ recovery\ stroke}\right]_{detached\ head} \times \left[\frac{forward\ swing}{backward\ swing}\right]_{bound\ head}. \quad (1)$$

Here, the denominators and the numerators on the right-hand side represent the probabilities of

respective molecular actions. From Eq.(1), the overall energy barrier difference between the

forward step and the backward return after T-head detachment (ΔE_0) is equal to the sum of the

energy barrier differences corresponding to the first term (ΔE_1) and the second term (ΔE_2) on the

right side of Eq.(1), i.e.,

$$\Delta E_0 = \Delta E_1 + \Delta E_2. \quad (2)$$

In the failure events, the detached motor domain returned to the original actin site or its vicinity.

Despite the low probability of backward return, the distribution of MD-separations formed

immediately after backward return was similar to that of forward step (pink and red bars in

Supplementary Fig. 8). This similarity indicates that the distribution of different MD separations is

predominantly determined by the probabilities that the half pitch of F-actin takes approximately 36

$\pm n \times 5.5$ nm. Even when the resulting MD separation differs between the two DHB states formed

immediately after the success and failure steps, the two states are energetically similar, as the

total strain energy (E_{total}) is only slightly sensitive to the MD separation (Fig. 3e and Supplementary

Fig. 6e,f). Consequently, the energy landscapes for the forward step and the backward return can

be depicted as shown in Fig. 4c, where $G_f^{\ddagger}$ and $G_b^{\ddagger}$ denote the energy barrier heights for the

forward step and the backward return, respectively. Their difference is given by $G_f^{\ddagger} - G_b^{\ddagger} = \Delta E_0$.

The overall energy barrier difference ΔE_0 is given by $\Delta E_0 = -k_B T \log_e(success/failure) = -2.5$

$k_B T$ (see Fig. 4c). Next, we estimate the energy barrier difference ΔE_1 between the presence and

absence of a thermal recovery stroke by the detached head; see the first term on the right-hand

side of Eq.(1). In ATP-dependent walking, the recovery stroke in the detached head is caused by

the ATP hydrolysis into ADP·Pi in the detached head (Fig. 1)[20-22] in a structurally well-defined

manner[21,22,57]. The recovery stroke angle $\Delta\varphi_{rs}$ was previously measured to be 85˚ ± 19˚[20] using a

bright-field optical microscope in combination with a UV-flash photolysis system for the release of

ATP from caged-ATP. In this measurement, the neck of monomeric M5 was immobilised on a top

surface of a bead, while the motion of a double bead specifically attached to the motor domain

was observed in real time. The angular spring constant of the neck–motor domain junction in the

actin-unbound head was estimated to be $k' = 23$ pN·nm·rad^{-2} = 5.59 k_BT·rad^{-2} from the Gaussian

width of the thermally driven angular fluctuations[20], which was very similar between before and

after a recovery stroke. The value of the angular spring constant is also similar to that of muscle

myosins[58]. It is noteworthy that the spring constant k' is significantly smaller than those of the

single-headed M5 bound to actin in the ADP-bound and NF conditions, K_{ADP} and K_{NF}, respectively

(Fig. 3b). Thus, actin binding largely stiffens the converter hinge. Supposing that the value of $\Delta\varphi_{rs}=$

85˚ is the most adequate angle to achieve the MD-separation of 36 nm, $\Delta\varphi_{rs}$ ranges from 77˚ to

95˚ for covering the MD-separation range of 36 ± 5.5 nm. The mean thermal recovery stroke

energy is approximately estimated to be $\Delta E_1 = 0.5 \times k' \times \langle\Delta\varphi_{rs}^2\rangle = 6.3$ k_BT, where averaging is

made over the angle range of 77˚–95˚. As a consequence of this large uphill process, the forward

landing of the detached T-head is slow (approximately 10.7 s^{-1}, corresponding to a characteristic

time ≈ 94 ms, Fig. 4d), compared to that observed in ATP-dependent walking (160–180 s^{-1})[47,52].

This result of the landing rate was obtained without considering the different MD-separations

formed immediately after landing. For the kinetic scheme of

361   k_B k_F
362   backward return ← detached T-head → forward step

with rate constants k_B (for backward return) and k_F (for forward step), the landing rate $k_{landing}$ should

be the same between the two landing processes, i.e. $k_{landing} = k_F + k_B$; from $k_F/k_B = 0.925/0.075$,

we obtain $k_F = 9.9$ s^{-1} and $k_B = 0.80$ s^{-1}. However, the backward return landing was slower (about

6.0 s^{-1}) than the forward landing, as estimated from the histogram of backward return times (Fig.

4e). This inconsistency is most likely due to the limited number of backward return events, as well

as the limited time resolution. The relationship between the forward landing rate and the MD-

separation (Fig. 4f,g) will be described later.

From the values $\Delta E_0 = -2.5\ k_B T$ and $\Delta E_1 = 6.3\ k_B T$, the energy barrier difference between the

forward and backward swings of the actin-bound head can be indirectly estimated to be ΔE_2 (=

$\Delta E_0 - \Delta E_1) = -8.8\ k_B T$. However, the value of ΔE_2 can be directly estimated, as described below.

Just before forward landing of the detached head, the actin-bound head with ADP makes an angle

of $45° \pm \delta$ relative to F-actin, while just before backward return landing, it makes an angle of $135°$

$\pm \delta$, where δ is approximately $10°$, estimated from the differences of $\varphi_L{}^{max}$ between different MD-

separations. Therefore, ΔE_2 can be estimated as the mean potential energy difference, $\langle U_D(45°)\rangle$

$- \langle U_D(135°)\rangle$, where averaging is made over the angle regions, $45° - \delta \leq \varphi \leq 45° + \delta$ for $\langle U_D(45°)\rangle$

and $135° - \delta \leq \varphi \leq 135° + \delta$ for $\langle U_D(135°)\rangle$; see the light-blue regions under the solid black line in

Fig. 3b. The values of $\langle U_D(45°)\rangle$ and $\langle U_D(135°)\rangle$ are $0.7\ k_B T$ and $9.4\ k_B T$, respectively, which yields

$\Delta E_2 = -8.7\ k_B T$. This result is in good agreement with the value indirectly estimated above. Thus,

the energy landscape derived from Eq.(1) could quantitatively explain the observed

success/failure ratio of the forward step in ATP-free walking.

In ATP-dependent walking, failure of the forward step is very rare. This is due to the first term

on the right-hand side of Eq. (1) changing to the following form:

385
$$\left[\frac{\text{ADP} \cdot \text{Pi-induced recovery stroke}}{\text{thermal reversal of recovery stroke}}\right]_{\text{detached head}}. \quad (3)$$

The second term on the right-hand side of Eq.(1) is common to both ATP-free and ATP-dependent

walking. The energy barrier difference ΔE_1 corresponding to the new form (3) becomes $\Delta E_1 = -$

$2.3\ k_B T - (+ 6.3\ k_B T) = -8.6\ k_B T$. Here, the $-2.3\ k_B T$ is for the ADP·Pi-induced recovery stroke

estimated from the ATPase kinetics[16], while 6.3 $k_B T$ is the energy required to thermally reverse the

ADP·Pi-induced recovery stroke (i.e., $0.5 \times k' \times \langle \Delta \varphi_{rs}^2 \rangle$). By including the second term shown in

Eq.(1), the overall energy barrier difference between the forward step and the backward return

becomes $\Delta E_0 = -8.6 \ k_B T - 8.7 \ k_B T = -17.3 \ k_B T$. The success/failure ratio therefore becomes

$\text{Exp}(-17.3) \approx 3 \times 10^{-8}$. The ADP·Pi-induced recovery stroke largely contributes to this high success

rate by elevating the energy barrier height for the backward return, despite the small amount of

free energy expended (2.3 $k_B T$).

Mechanical model and simulations of ATP-free M5 translocation

We constructed a simplified mechanical model of the M5 dimer considering converter-hinge

energies derived from HS-AFM data for the angular distribution $P(\varphi)$ mentioned above (Methods,

Supplementary Information). Brownian dynamics simulations of the model were employed to

numerically investigate ATP-free M5 translocation cycles along F-actin (Methods, Supplementary

Methods, Supplementary Fig. 9, and Supplementary Table 1). We investigated the following

questions: (i) Is the external energy applied with the AFM tip under iHS-AFM scanning sufficient

to induce mechanical detachment of the T-head? (ii) How long must the rebinding process for a

step in an ATP-free cycle be?

As described above, the total strain energy is ~10 $k_B T$ for M5–ADP in the DHB state. To enable

binding of an M5 head, the actin-binding energy should at least compensate for this total strain.

Thus, the head–actin binding energy is estimated to be at least −10 $k_B T$. In the ATP-free case, the

energy required for mechanically detaching the T-head has to be supplied by the AFM tip, which

under interactive mode scanning provides sufficient energy (14.6–22.0 $k_B T$ oscillation energy loss

per tap). Importantly, the externally supplied energy is always larger than the amount that is

temporarily borrowed from the environment during the thermal recovery stroke ($\Delta E_1 = 6.3 \ k_B T$ for

$\Delta\varphi_{rs} = 85°$), such that the energy balance for an entire forward step is consistent with the second

law of thermodynamics (that is, the energy balance confirms that the steps proceed downhill).

Brownian dynamics simulations of the ATP-free M5 stepping revealed a forward landing time

of 82 ms (rate, 12.2 s^{-1}; n = 1852), while the backward return landing time was 110.4 ms (rate,

9.06 s^{-1}; n = 148). When the loading effect of the substrate surface in the HS-AFM experiment is

considered, these values become 112 ms (rate 8.9 s^{-1}) and 151 ms (rate, 6.6 s^{-1}) for the forward

and backward return landings, respectively, which are roughly consistent with the HS-AFM data

(94 ms for forward landing and 166 ms for backward landing). The step time distribution together

with an exemplary time trace of the M5 for consecutive ATP-free stepping and corresponding

conformational snapshots of the mechanical M5 model are shown in Supplementary Fig. 10 (also

see Supplementary Video 6). Furthermore, the success/failure ratio for a forward step after

mechanical T-head detachment obtained from simulations as 0.926/0.074 agrees remarkably well

with HS-AFM observations of 0.925/0.075.

Although the simplified mechanical model of ATP-free M5 translocation does not resolve the

detailed physical processes underlying an M5 step upon mechanical T-head detachment (and

therefore does not allow us to infer their corresponding energetics), the numerical investigations

confirm the HS-AFM observations that the process of rebinding and strain generation in the L-

head does not require the execution of ATP-related conformational changes (i.e., the recovery

stroke and the powerstroke) and corresponding chemical energy input.

MD-separations after ATP-free and ATP-dependent forward steps

Although the MD-separation formed after forward stepping is not directly related to the main

subject of this study (i.e., the energy conversion mechanism), two observed results and their

interpretations are briefly described here. The first result is that two MD-separations of N_{m-m} = 13

and 15 showed similar landing rates in the ATP-free walking (10.4 s^{-1} for N_{m-m} =13 and 10.9 s^{-1} for

$N_{m\text{-}m}$ = 15; Fig. 4f,g). The number of events with $N_{m\text{-}m}$ = 11 was too small to be analysed. The

landing rate is influenced by the energy required for the thermal recovery stroke, $1/2\,k'\Delta\varphi_{rs}^2$, and

the energy required for the forward orientation of the bound head $U_D(\varphi_L)$, the sum of which is not

significantly different between the two MD-separations: 6.87 k_BT for $N_{m\text{-}m}$ = 13 ($\Delta\varphi_{rs}$ = 85˚ and φ_L

= 45˚) and 7.83 k_BT for $N_{m\text{-}m}$ = 15 ($\Delta\varphi_{rs}$ = 95˚ and φ_L = 35˚). This small difference, ~1 k_BT, is roughly

consistent with the small difference in the landing rate, considering the insufficient time resolution

of HS-AFM imaging, as well as the limited number of stepping events with $N_{m\text{-}m}$ = 15.

The second result is the distribution of MD-separations taken immediately after forward

stepping in ATP-free and ATP-dependent walking (Supplementary Fig. 8). The MD-separation is

largely determined by the periodicity of F-actin that guides the positions of the L and T heads[36].

However, a discernible tendency is evident in the distributions across the three nucleotide

conditions, albeit small differences. That is, the probability of taking a step with a MD-separation

of $N_{m\text{-}m}$ = 15 is greater in the presence of ATP than in the presence of ADP. Additionally, the

probability of having $N_{m\text{-}m}$ = 15 is marginally lower at 0.1 µM ATP than at 1 µM ATP. These

tendencies cannot be explained by the energetics of M5. The helical pitch of F-actin remains

virtually unchanged during the Brownian search by the detached head, as judged from the foot

sliding rate (Table 2) that reflects the frequency of changes in the helical pitch of F-actin. Therefore,

even when taking the MD-separation of $N_{m\text{-}m}$ = 15 is energetically unfavourable, M5 always binds

to the corresponding actin site. One possibility that explains these nucleotide-dependent

tendencies is that the structure of phalloidin-bound F-actin may be susceptible to modulation by

nucleotides in solution, in an unknown mechanism. This possibility is suggested by the nucleotide

dependence of the foot sliding rate (Table 2).

Table 2 | Foot sliding events observed under three nucleotide conditions

Nucleotide conditions	Total number of images	Number of foot sliding events	Imaging rate (fps)	Foot sliding rate (s^{-1})
1 mM ADP	25,790	287	3.0	0.033
0.1 µM ATP	7,441	135	6.67	0.12
1 µM ATP	5,709	175	6.67	0.20

Discussion

Before discussing the energy conversion mechanism in M5 walking, it is important to recapitulate

the recent debate on the timing of Pi release in myosins[28-34,36,59]. The debate is now being settled,

to which the crystal structure of myosin VI has contributed greatly[29]. This structure shows the

presence of Pi in the backdoor tunnel[35], not in the active site, while the lever-arm is in the pre-

powerstroke state[29,36,59]. Therefore, this structure suggests the possibility that the powerstroke

occurs when Pi is still somewhere near the tunnel exit or at the tunnel exit, thereby explaining the

observations of ~2-times slower release of Pi into solution than the lever-arm swing[31-33]. A

structural comparison between the primed pre-powerstroke state and the post-powerstroke state,

as revealed by time-resolved cryo-EM, also supports this view[23]. It is hard to believe that a large

force can be generated in weakly bound myosin head with ADP·Pi at the active site, without any

chemical transition. We therefore adopt the most plausible view that the force generation occurs

at some time after Pi has left from the active site but before it is released into solution. However,

even in this view, we will simply describe the force generation as occurring after Pi release.

Despite numerous single-molecule studies of M5 motility using optical methods[9-

12,15,17,18,20,25,47.48,50-53], the ATP energy conversion in M5 walking has been little studied. The energy

conversion mechanism in M5 is derived from the prevailing view developed from extensive studies

of the muscle actomyosin system[1,2,27,36,60]. Changes in the ATP free energy along the muscle

actomyosin ATPase reaction pathway have been estimated from measurements of ATPase

kinetics and thermodynamics[61,62]. In this system, the free energy changes occur primarily at the

stages of ATP binding-induced head dissociation[19], ATP hydrolysis to ADP·Pi accompanied by a

recovery stroke[20-22], Pi release accompanied by the change from weak to strong head binding to

actin[29,36], and ADP release[17,37]. The amounts of released energy in these stages are approximately

10, 2, 12, and 3 $k_B T$, respectively[61] (see Fig. 5a). This profile of free energy changes is likely to be

similar in the M5−actin system, although the free energy changes at the first (ATP binding), fourth

(Pi release), and last (ADP release) stages depend on the concentrations of free ATP, Pi, and ADP,

respectively. Indeed, the actin-activated hydrolysis of ATP to ADP·Pi by M5 is associated with a

free energy change of −2.3 $k_B T$[16], similar to the case of muscle myosin. As contractile force is

generated when muscle myosin is in the strongly bound state formed during or after Pi release, it

is rational to assume that the 12 kBT of free energy provided at the stage of Pi release is used to

rotate or strain the crossbridge at the converter hinge[1,2,27]; when this idea is applied to M5, this

process may be delineated as winding up a spiral spring at the converter hinge of the L-head (Fig.

5b), as structurally suggested recently[23]. It has therefore generally been thought that the chemical

energy of ATP is the source of the mechanical work (or strain energy) produced by the power

stroke. However, this energy conversion mechanism cannot account for the ATP-free walking

observed in this study.

In this study, we have presented two main lines of data supporting our view that the strong

binding energy between actin and ADP-bound M5 is converted into mechanical work during ATP-

dependent walking (Fig. 5c). Note that in our assay system, a load is applied against the walking

of M5 from the substrate surface. The first line of data shows that the strain energy accumulated

in the L-head, $U_{LCH}(\varphi_L) + U_{neck}[h(\varphi_L)]$, is almost identical between ATP-free and ATP-dependent

walking for the respective cases of MD-separations (Fig. 3e & Supplementary Fig. 6e,f). It is

difficult to understand this good quantitative agreement of strain energy if the mechanism of strain

energy generation and hence the mechanism of energy conversion into mechanical work differed

significantly between ATP-free and ATP-dependent walking. Therefore, this good agreement

strongly suggests that during the ATP-dependent walking of M5, the chemical free energy of ATP

is not converted into the strain energy of ~10 $k_B T$ and is therefore not converted into mechanical

work. This view may not be far from the traditional view that muscle contractile tension is generated

when actin−myosin binding is strengthened by the release of Pi, which is accompanied by the

release of free energy by 12 $k_B T$. It is impossible (at least very difficult) to decompose this released

energy into its individual components, such as the free energy changes caused by the Pi release

itself, by binding between actin and ADP-bound head, and by conformational changes in myosin

and actin. However, a significant fraction of the released free energy must originate from the strong

head−actin binding energy.

The second line of supporting data is the foot stomping (brief head detachment) that occurs

predominantly at the L-head in all the nucleotide conditions tested. This spontaneous brief

detachment can be understood as being caused by the reduction in head-actin binding energy.

The foot stomp rate was found to be comparable, irrespective of the different nucleotide conditions

tested, thereby indicating a comparable level of reduction in head-actin binding energy,

corresponding to the strain energy of ~10 $k_B T$. In addition to the two lines of data mentioned above,

the energetic analysis and the computational simulations of ATP-free walking could quantitatively

explain the success/failure ratio for the forward step of M5 caused by mechanical detachment of

the T-head. Our proposition that the L-head−actin binding energy serves as the energy source for

mechanical work appears to imply that the magnitude of the force generated by a single M5

molecule in the presence of ATP depends on the ionic strength; the force becomes greater as the

ionic strength is reduced. However, the molecular strain of M5 in the DHB state does not seem

sensitive to the ionic strength, as far as the L-head−actin binding is strong enough. In muscle, it

is well known that the isometric tension increases as ionic strength decreases[e.g. 63,64]. However,

interpreting this increased force in muscle is not straightforward. Single-molecule force

measurements are ideal for addressing this issue. To the best of our knowledge, however,

systematic measurements of the force generated by a single myosin molecule have not been

performed at different ionic strengths.

Our view that M5 does not convert ATP chemical energy into mechanical work does not mean

that this chemical energy is not essential for the forward translocation. To use the strain energy

generated by L-head−actin binding for forward translocation, the strong association between the

T-head and actin must be broken[19]. ATP binding to the T-head breaks this strong bond, releasing

free energy of approximately 10 kBT, assuming that it is approximately the same between muscle

myosin and M5. Although it is very difficult to decompose this released free energy into constituent

components, the large binding energy between the NF T-head and ATP must be used to break the

T-head−actin bond. The binding energy between the NF T-head and actin is approximately 23.8

$k_B T$, corresponding to the equilibrium constant of 4.9×10^{-11} M (Ref. 16). Although the affinity of

the NF head for ATP is too high to measure experimentally, the ATP binding energy must be

comparable to 23.8 $k_B T$. In addition, the hydrolysis of ATP to ADP·Pi associated with a recovery

stroke[20-22] and a free energy change of −2.3 $k_B T$ (Ref. 16) plays an important role in increasing

the efficiency of the forward landing of the detached head as well as in preventing its backward

return. Thus, the major role of ATP chemical energy is to release the strain energy acquired by the

strong L-head−actin binding for the forward movement of M5. In addition, it lowers the energy

barrier for the forward step and raises the energy barrier for the backward return, thereby ensuring

the unidirectional process of M5 walking.

It is well known in various contexts that a protein can change its affinity for ligands, membranes,

or partner proteins when subjected to external mechanical stress[e.g.,65-67]. However, it has only

rarely been reported that a homo-oligomeric protein changes its binding affinity for a target as a

result of the structural strain caused by the multivalent binding. For example, double-headed IgGs

were observed to migrate non-unidirectionally on a two-dimensional antigen lattice, when the

adjacent epitopes were appropriately separated, whereas single-headed IgGs stably remained at

one antigenic site[68]. There are many homo-oligomeric proteins with structural symmetry that can

bind to a target with multiple binding sites[69]. Although not yet explored, these oligomeric proteins

may universally exploit the affinity reduction caused by strain generation due to multivalent binding.

M5 may be a special case where the strain energy gained in this way is used for unidirectional

movement and mechanical work. This energy conversion mechanism will be found in other motor

proteins and used for the potential creation of novel molecular motors.

Methods

Sample preparation

The full length of M5 was prepared from chick brain[70] and digested with proteinase K in the

absence of Ca^{2+} to produce M5-HMM[39,41]. Instead of using an actin-copelleting method to purify

M5-HMM[39,41], we used a protein concentrator (Vivaspin 500 of 100,000 MWCO; Sartorius) and

washing buffer containing 20 mM imidazole-HCl (pH 7.6), 100 mM KCl, 2 mM $MgCl_2$, 1 mM EGTA,

5 mM DTT and 0.1 mM PMSF. This was because the short coiled-coil tail of M5-HMM occasionally

unfolds when it is bound to actin filaments in the absence of ATP[38,39]. Partially biotinylated (20%)

actin filaments from rabbit skeletal muscles were prepared and then stabilized with phalloidin[10].

Streptavidin, glucose, hexokinase and nucleotides were purchased from Wako Pure Chemicals,

and phalloidin was purchased from Sigma Aldrich. The synthetic lipids, 1,2-dipalmitoyl-sn-glycero-

3-phosphocholine (DPPC), positively charged 1,2-dipalmitoyl-3-trimethylammonium-propane

(DPTAP), and 1,2-dipalmitoyl-sn-glycero-3-phosphoethanolamine-N-(cap biotinyl) (biotin-cap-

DPPE), were purchased from Avanti Polar Lipids.

HS-AFM observations

A mica disc (1 mm in diameter) was glued onto the top of a sample stage (glass rod of 2 mm in

diameter and 2 mm in height) and its top surface was cleaved using Scotch tape. The mica-

supported lipid bilayers as a substrate surface were formed by the deposition of liposomes

prepared using DPPC, DPTAP and biotin-cap-DPPE (with a typical weight ratio of 0.85:0.05:0.1)

onto the freshly cleaved mica surface[38,71]. After rinsing the lipid bilayer substrate with buffer A (20

mM imidazole-HCl (pH 7.6), 25 mM KCl, 2 mM $MgCl_2$, 1 mM EGTA, 5 mM DTT), a drop (2 µl) of

streptavidin in buffer A (10 nM) was deposited on the surface for 3 min. After rinsing with buffer A,

a drop (2 µl) of partially biotinylated actin filaments (1 µM) in buffer A was deposited on the

substrate surface for 10 min. After rinsing with a solution containing 1 mM ADP (1 U ml^{-1}

hexokinase and 10 mM glucose were added to remove contaminating ATP) in buffer A, we

deposited a drop (2 µl) of the same solution plus M5-HMM (0.1 to 1 nM) on the substrate surface

and allowed it to sit for 3 min. Finally, the sample stage was mounted onto the scanning stage of

our HS-AFM apparatus[72,73] (to which the interactive mode was newly implemented) and immersed

in a cell chamber filled with the same solution (60 µl) without M5-HMM. All HS-AFM imaging

experiments were performed at room temperature (25˚C) in amplitude modulation mode. For the

usual imaging (no sample manipulation by the AFM tip) of the M5-HMM interacting with actin, the

cantilever free oscillation amplitude A_0 was set to 1.5 nm, while the set point amplitude during

imaging A_s was set to 0.85 × A_0 (= 1.28 nm). The mean oscillation energy loss per tip–sample

contact, ΔE_{ts}, was estimated to be $\Delta E_{ts} = \gamma k_c (A_0^2 - A_s^2)/(2Q_c) = 3.1–4.7$ $k_B T$ (k_B, Boltzmann

constant; T = 298 in kelvin), where γ (≈ 0.9) is a correction factor that accounts for the amplitude

reduction caused by a cantilever resonant frequency shift toward a higher frequency by repulsive

tip–sample interactions, and k_c = 0.1–0.15 N/m and Q_c = 1.5 are the spring constant and the quality

factor of the short cantilevers used. For interactive mode imaging, the set point amplitude A_p was

typically set to 0.33 × A_0 (= 0.5 nm) to apply a strong force to a few closely adjacent positions on

either head of the actin-bound M5-HMM. Short cantilevers (BL-AC7DS-KU4; 7−8 µm long, 2 µm

wide and 90 nm thick) were custom-made by Olympus, whose resonant frequency, spring constant

and quality factor were f_c = 0.8−1.2 MHz in water. The spring constant of each cantilever was

estimated from its measured frequency spectrum of thermal oscillation in buffer A. The interactive

mode is described in Supplementary Fig. 1.

Caged-ATP experiments

For caged-ATP experiments combined with iHS-AFM observations, we installed the following

optical components in our HS-AFM system (Supplementary Fig. 5a,b): a UV-LED system of 365

nm (L11922-401 and C11924-111, Hamamatsu photonics, Japan) and a dichroic mirror that

reflects UV light (320–360 nm) and transmits visible light (500–700 nm). Continuous UV light was

irradiated onto a sample area around the cantilever through the same objective lens (ELDW 20XC,

Nikon, Japan) used for cantilever deflection detection. The power of the incident UV light at the

exit of the objective lens was 19 mW at 350 nm. The diameter of the focal region measured by the

half-intensity diameter was approximately 300 µm (Supplementary Fig. 5c), from which the focal

volume was estimated to be ~14 nL. As the volume of the liquid cell was 60 µL, the caged-ATP

experiments could be repeated many times. After M5-HMM was deposited onto a mica-supported

lipid bilayer surface containing immobilized actin filaments, the sample stage was rinsed with a

solution containing 20 µM caged-ATP, 1 U ml^{-1} hexokinase, and 10 mM glucose dissolved in buffer

A. Therefore, the ATP released from caged-ATP was quickly converted to ADP. Finally, the sample

stage was immersed in a cell chamber filled with the same solution (60 µl) without M5-HMM.

Before performing iHS-AFM observations, photolysis of caged-ATP was performed several times

to confirm whether M5 moved unidirectionally by photolysis of caged-ATP. This experiment

generated some ADP in solution, and therefore, the M5 molecules in the observation area were

presumably bound to ADP before the subsequent iHS-AFM imaging. Then, ATP-free walking was

observed for several steps, immediately after which caged-ATP was photolyzed while HS-AFM

images were captured continuously (Supplementary Fig. 5d; Supplementary Video 3).

Mechanical properties of converter hinge in actin-bound single-headed M5

The potential energy $U(\varphi)$ of the converter hinge determines the equilibrium distribution $P(\varphi) \propto$

$\exp(-U(\varphi)/k_B T)$ of the lever-arm angle φ relative to the orientation of F-actin measured from the

plus end side (Fig. 3a, inset). By fitting to the HS-AFM data of single-headed M5 bound to actin

observed in 1 mM ADP and NF conditions[38], we found that in both conditions, $U(\varphi)$ fits well to the

functional form of $U(\varphi) = [(bk_0 + k_1(\varphi - \varphi_0))/(b + (\varphi - \varphi_0))](1 - \cos(\varphi - \varphi_0))$ (Fig. 3b, black

lines). Here, φ_0 is the equilibrium angle: 28.5° at 1 mM ADP and 32.9° in the NF condition. The

other parameters are $b = 34.4°$, $k_0 = 23\ k_B T$ and $k_1 = 2.3\ k_B T$ at 1 mM ADP, and $b = 75.0°$, $k_0 = 37.9$

$k_B T$ and $k_1 = 4.1\ k_B T$ in the NF condition. The stiffness of the converter hinge in 1 mM ADP and

NF conditions, i.e., the angular spring constants, $K_D(\varphi)$ and $K_{NF}(\varphi)$, were determined from $U(\varphi) =$

$(1/2)\,K(\varphi) \cdot (\varphi - \varphi_0)^2$ (Fig. 3b, red lines). The magnitude of the force $F(\varphi)$ in the direction parallel

-to F-actin generated at the free end of the lever-arm was obtained as $F(\varphi) = K(\varphi) \cdot$

$(\varphi - \varphi_0)^2/[L_{\text{neck}}(\cos\varphi_0 - \cos\varphi)]/0.243$ (Fig. 3b, blue lines), where L_{neck} is the neck length (~23

nm estimated from nsEM images[42]) and the division by 0.243 is for unit conversion from $k_B T$ to

pN·nm.

Strain energy of M5 in DHB state

To estimate the strain energy accumulated in a M5 molecule in the DHB state, we first measured

the following three geometrical parameters from HS-AFM images (Fig. 3c, inset): the tangential

angle of the L-head's neck region emerging from the motor domain, φ_L; the angle of the T-head

neck as a function of φ_L, $\varphi_T(\varphi_L)$; the deflection of the neck end of the L-head as a function of φ_L,

$h(\varphi_L)$. The angles, φ_L and φ_T, relative to the orientation of F-actin, were measured from the plus

end side of F-actin. The results are shown in Fig. 3c,d (for $N_{\text{m-m}} = 13$ actin subunits),

Supplementary Fig. 6a,c (for $N_{\text{m-m}} = 11$ actin subunits), and Supplementary Fig. 6b,d (for $N_{\text{m-m}} =$

15 actin subunits). The total strain energy E_{total} is expressed as $E_{\text{total}} = U_D(\varphi_L) + U_X[\varphi_T(\varphi_L)] +$

$U_{\text{neck}}[h(\varphi_L)]$, where $U_D(\varphi_L)$ is the strain energy of the L-head converter hinge (the subscription D

denotes the ADP-bound state), $U_X[\varphi_T(\varphi_L)]$ is the strain energy of the T-head converter hinge (the

subscription X is either D or NF depending on the nucleotide state of the T-head), and $U_{neck}[h(\varphi_L)]$

is the bending energy of the L-head's neck region. The DHB states formed during ATP-free and

ATP-dependent walking are almost stationary, meaning that all forces acting on a M5 molecule,

including constraining forces, are balanced. From the principle of 'virtual work' in mechanics, the

work done by the non-constraining forces (i.e., the forces generated by the two converter hinges

and the bending of the L-head) is zero, which can be expressed as

661
$$\left[\frac{\partial U_D(\varphi_L)}{\partial \varphi_L} + \frac{\partial U_X[\varphi_T(\varphi_L)]}{\partial \varphi_T} \frac{\partial \varphi_T}{\partial \varphi_L} + \frac{\partial U_{neck}[h(\varphi_L)]}{\partial h} \frac{\partial h}{\partial \varphi_L} \right] \cdot \delta\varphi_L = 0, \qquad (1)$$

where $\delta\varphi_L$ is the virtual displacement. Therefore, the total strain energy E_{total} is conserved. The

results obtained for E_{total}, $U_D(\varphi_L) + U_X[\varphi_T(\varphi_L)]$, $U_{neck}[h(\varphi_L)]$, $U_X[\varphi_T(\varphi_L)]$, and the spring constant of

the L-head neck k_{neck} are shown in Fig.3e,f for $N_{m\text{-}m}$ = 13, Supplementary Fig.6e,g for $N_{m\text{-}m}$ = 11,

and Supplementary Fig.6f,h for $N_{m\text{-}m}$ = 15.

Mechanical model and simulations

To obtain relevant numerical estimates for ATP-free stepping from mathematical modelling, a

simple representation of the M5 dimer was employed, with the shape (in the characteristic HS-

AFM planar geometry) characterized by only three variables: the angles ϕ_1 and ϕ_2 for the two

neck–motor domain junctions and the neck–neck junction angle ϕ_c (Supplementary Fig. 9). To

simplify the simulations, our energy does not include a contribution due to elastic bending of the

necks (i.e., h = 0). Instead, this elastic energy was included to the energy of L-head converter

hinge. The neck–motor domain junction angle ϕ used in the M5 model and the maximum lever-

arm angle $\varphi_L^{max} = 135°$ are related via $\phi - \phi_0 = \varphi_L^{max} - \varphi_0$, where the equilibrium angle $\phi_0 =$

148.5° of the neck–motor domain junction corresponds to the equilibrium lever-arm angle $\varphi_0 =$

28.5° relative to the actin filament (see Supplementary Methods).

The total energy of DHB M5 is $E = U(\phi_1) + U(\phi_2) - 2\epsilon$, where ϵ is the absolute value of the

actin-binding energy of the M5 head. As done for previous models[54,55], we assumed that the neck–

neck junction was highly flexible and that there was no contribution to the elastic energy coming

from it.

Conformational motions that underlie M5 stepping proceed on the timescales of milliseconds,

where inertial effects are negligible, and only overdamped motions with velocities instantaneously

following the applied forces occur. Therefore, the stochastic Langevin description, which

effectively accounts for the interactions of M5 with the surrounding environment via viscous friction,

is applicable. To numerically investigate ATP-free M5 translocation, Brownian dynamics

simulations were performed for the five beads representing the rigid rods in our mechanical model

(Supplementary Figs. 9,10). The dynamic evolution of the M5 five-bead model is therefore

described by equations for the beads $\frac{d}{dt}\vec{R}_i = -\frac{\partial E}{\partial \vec{R}_i} + \sqrt{2\Theta}\vec{\xi}_i(t)$, $E = U(\phi_1) + U(\phi_2) +$

$\sum_{i=1}^{4} \frac{1}{2}\kappa_s(\Delta l_i)^2$, and $< \xi_{i,\alpha}(t)\xi_{j,\beta}(t) > = \delta_{ij}\delta_{\alpha\beta}\delta(t)$. Here, $\vec{R}_i = (X_i, Y_i)^T$ is the instantaneous

position of bead i. In the reduced equations, lengths were measured in units of the neck length

$l_n = 36/\sqrt{2}$ nm, and time was measured in units of $\mu l_n^2/k_0$, where μ is the viscous friction

coefficient of beads and $k_0 = 23\ k_B T$. Hence, converter hinge energies $U(\phi)$ were measured in

units of k_0. The total potential energy E of the 5-bead model is the sum of both converter hinge

energies. The expression of E contains additional barriers of dimensionless strength $\kappa_s = 150$,

which prevent length changes Δl of the motor domains and neck rods ($\Delta l_i = |\vec{R}_{i+1} - \vec{R}_i| - l_i^{(0)}$).

The dimensionless quantity Θ, which determines the fluctuation intensity of beads, was related to

the equilibrium converter hinge stiffness k_0 , i.e., $\Theta = k_B T/k_0 = 1/23$. Starting from the

configuration with both myosin heads bound to the actin filament, the set of equations was

numerically integrated to obtain bead positions $\vec{R}_i = (X_i, Y_i)^T$ at any time moment. In the

simulations, the Euler scheme with a dimensionless time-step of $5 \cdot 10^{-4}$ was employed. In our

dimensionless numerical model, time was measured in units of $\tau = \mu l_n^2/k_0$. Introducing the bead

mobility $\Gamma = 1/\mu$ and using the dimensionless quantity $\Theta = k_B T/k_0$, we obtain $\tau = \frac{\Theta l_n^2}{\Gamma k_B T}$. Using the

Einstein relation $\Gamma k_B T = D$, it is expressed as $\tau = \Theta l_n^2/D$. Assuming a diffusion constant of $D =$

$10^{-7} \text{cm}^2/\text{s}$, we obtain a time unit of approximately $\tau = 3\,\mu s$. This estimate was applied to relate

timescales of model simulations to observations from HS-AFM experiments. Consistent with the

approximate character of the model, the actin filament and interactions of M5 heads with it were

accounted for in a simplified way. For details of the model, its parameters, and numerical

simulations, refer to the Supplementary Fig. 9, Supplementary Table 1, and Supplementary

Methods.

Data availability

Data supporting the findings of this study are included within the article and supplementary figures.

The videos analysed to generate Fig. 3c-f are partially included as Supplementary Videos 1 and

2 (because many video images were used for Fig.3c-f, we will provide them upon request). It is

also the same for the videos analysed for Tables 1 and 2. Source data for Fig.3a,c,d, Fig. 4d-g,

Supplementary Fig,6,a-d, and Supplementary Fig.10l are provided with this paper.

Code availability

This study does not produce code applicable for other purposes.

References

1. Geeves, M. A. The ATPase mechanism of myosin and actomyosin. *Biopolymers* **105**, 483–491

(2016).

2. Vale, R. D. & Milligan, R. A. The way things move: Looking under the hood of molecular motor

proteins. *Science* **288**, 88–95 (2000).

3. Cross, R. A. Mechanochemistry of the kinesin-1 ATPase. *Biopolymers* **105**, 476–482 (2016).

4. Schmidt, H. & Carter, A. P. Structure and mechanism of the dynein motor ATPase. *Biopolymers*

105, 557–567 (2016).

5. Adachi, K. et al. Coupling of rotation and catalysis in F_1-ATPase revealed by single-molecule

imaging and manipulation. *Cell* **130**, 309–321 (2007).

6. Hwang, W. & Karplus, M. Structural basis for power stroke vs. Brownian ratchet mechanisms

of motor proteins. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A*. **116**, 19777–19785 (2019).

7. Howard, J. Motor proteins as nanomachines: The roles of thermal fluctuations in generating

force and motion. *Biol. Phys*. **60**, 47–59 (2011).

8. Howard, J. Protein power strokes. *Curr. Biol*. **16**, R517–R519 (2006).

9. Mehta, A. D., Rock, R. S., Rief, M., Spudich, J. A., Mooseker, M. S. & Cheney, R. E. *Nature*

400, 590–593 (1999).

10. Sakamoto, T., Amitani, I., Yokota, E. & Ando, T. Direct observation of processive movement by

individual myosin V molecules. *Biochem. Biophys. Res. Commun*. **272**, 586–590 (2000).

11. Yildiz, A. *et al*. Myosin V walks hand-over-hand: single fluorophore imaging with 1.5-nm

localization. *Science* **300**, 2061–2065 (2003).

12. Sakamoto, T., Webb, M. R., Forgacs, E., White, H. D. & Sellers, J. R. Direct observation of the

mechanochemical coupling in myosin Va during processive movement. *Nature* **455**, 128–132

(2008).

13. Rosenfeld, S. S. & Sweeney, H. L. A model of myosin V processivity. *J. Biol. Chem*. 279,

40100–40111 (2004).

14. Walker, M. L., Burgess, S. A., Sellers, J. R., Wang, F., Hammer III, J. A., Trinick, J. & Knight,

P. J. Two-headed binding of a processive myosin to F-actin. *Nature* **405**, 804–807 (2000).

15. Oguchi, Y., Mikhailenko, S. V., Ohki, T., Olivares, A. O., De La Cruz, E. M. & Ishiwata, S. Load-

dependent ADP binding to myosins V and VI: Implications for subunit coordination and function.

Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A. **105**, 7714–7719 (2008).

16. De La Cruz, E. M., Wells, A. L., Rosenfeld, S. S., Ostap, E. M. & Sweeney, H. L. The kinetic

mechanism of myosin V. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A.* **96**, 13726–13731 (1999).

17. Veigel, C., Schmitz, S., Wang, F. & Sellers, J. R. Load-dependent kinetics of myosin-V can

explain its high processivity. *Nat. Cell Biol*. **7**, 861–869 (2005).

18. Purcell, T. J., Sweeney, H. L. & Spudich, J. A. A force-dependent state controls the coordination

of processive myosin V. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A*. **102**, 13873–13878 (2005).

19. Coureux, P.-D., Wells, A. L., Ménétrey, J., Yengo, C. M., Morris, C. A., Sweeney, H. L. &

Houdusse, A. Structural state of the myosin V motor without bound nucleotide. *Nature* **425**,

419–423 (2003).

20. Shiroguchi, K., Chin, H. F., Hannemann, D. E., Muneyuki, E., De La Cruz, E. M. & Kinosita Jr.

K. Direct observation of the myosin Va recovery stroke that contributes to unidirectional

stepping along actin. *PLoS. Biol.* **9**, e1001031 (2011).

21. Coureux, P.-D., Sweeney, H. L. & Houdusse, A. Three myosin V structures delineate essential

features of chemo-mechanical transduction. *EMBO J*. **23**, 4527–4537 (2004).

22. Fischer, S., Windshügel, B., Horak, D., Holmes, K. C. & Smith, J. C. Structural mechanism of

the recovery stroke in the myosin molecular motor. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A*. **102**, 6873–

6878 (2005).

23. Klebl, D. P. et al. Swinging lever mechanism of myosin directly shown by time-resolved cryo-

EM. *Nature* **642**, 519–526 (2025).

24. Fineberg, A. et al. Myosin-5 varies its step length to carry cargo straight along the irregular F-

actin track. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A.* **121**, e2401625121 (2024).

25. Ali, M. Y., Uemura, S., Adachi, K., Itoh, H., Kinosita Jr. K. & Ishiwata, S. Myosin V is a left-

handed spiral motor on the right-handed actin helix. *Nat. Struct. Biol.* **9**, 464-467 (2002).

26. Vale, R. D. Myosin V motor proteins: marching stepwise towards a mechanism. J. Cell Biol.

163, 445–450 (2003).

27. Spudich, J. A. The myosin swinging cross-bridge model. *Nat. Rev. Mol. Cell Biol*. **2**, 387–392

(2001).

28. Hwang, Y., Washio, T., Hisada, T., Higuchi, H. & Kaya, M. A reverse stroke characterizes the

force generation of cardiac myofilaments, leading to an understanding of heart function. *Proc.*

Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A. **118**, e2011659118 (2021).

29. Llinas, P. et al. How actin initiates the motor activity of myosin. *Dev. Cell* **33**, 401–412 (2015).

30. Stehle, R. Force responses and sarcomere dynamics of cardiac myofibrils induced by rapid

changes in [Pi]. *Biophys*. *J.* **112**, 356–367 (2017).

31. Trivedi, D. V., Muretta, J. M., Swenson, A. M., Davis, J. P., Thomas, D. D. & Yengo, C. M.

Direct measurements of the coordination of lever arm swing and the catalytic cycle in myosin

V. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A.* **112**, 14593–14598 (2015).

32. Muretta, J. M., Rohde, J. A., Johnsrud, D. O., Cornea, S. & Thomas, D. D. *Proc. Natl. Acad.*

Sci. U. S. A. **112**, 14272–14277 (2015).

33. Woody, M. S., Winkelmann, D. A., Capitanio, M., Ostap, E. M. & Goldman, Y. E. Single

molecule mechanics resolves the earliest events in force generation by cardiac myosin. *eLife*

8, e49266 (2019).

34. Caremani, M., Melli, L., Dolfi, M., Lombardi, V. & Linari, M. The working stroke of the myosin

II motor in muscle is not tightly coupled to release of orthophosphate from its active site. *J.*

Physiol. **591**, 5187–5205 (2013).

35. Yount, R, G., Lawson, D. & Rayment, I. Is myosin a "back door" enzyme? *Biophys. J.* **68**, 44s–

49s (1995).

36. Robert-Paganin, J., Pylypenko, O., Kikuti, C., Sweeney, H. L. & Houdusse, A. Force generation

by myosin motors: A structural perspective. *Chem. Rev*. **120**, 5−35 (2020).

37. Oke, O. A. et al. Influence of lever structure on myosin 5a walking. *Proc. Natl Acad. Sci. U. S.*

A. **107**, 2509–2514 (2010).

38. Kodera, N., Yamamoto, D., Ishikawa, R. & Ando, T. Video imaging of walking myosin V by

high-speed atomic force microscopy. *Nature* **468**, 72–76 (2010).

39. Wang, F., Chen, L., Arcucci, O., Harvey, E. V., Bowers, B., Xu, Y., Hammer III, J. A. & Sellers,

J. R. Effect of ADP and ionic strength on the kinetic and motile properties of recombinant

mouse myosin V. *J. Biol. Chem*. **275**, 4329–4335 (2000).

40. Espindola, F. S. et al. The light chain composition of chicken brain myosin-Va: Calmodulin,

myosin-II essential light chains, and 8-kDa dynein light chain/PIN. *Cell Motil. Cytoskel.* **47**,

269–281 (2000).

41. Koide, H. et al. Identification of the specific IQ motif of myosin V from which calmodulin

dissociates in the presence of Ca^{2+}. *Biochemistry* **45**, 11598–11604 (2006).

42. Burgess, S. et al. The prepower stroke conformation of myosin V. *J. Cell Biol*. **159**, 983–991

(2002).

43. Haruyama, T., Uchihashi, T., Yamada, Y., Kodera, N., Ando, T. & Konno, H. Negatively charged

lipids are essential for functional and structural switch of human 2-Cys peroxiredoxin II. *J. Mol.*

Biol. **430**, 602–610 (2018).

44. Owa, M. et al. Inner lumen proteins stabilize doublet microtubules in cilia and flagella. *Nat.*

Commun. **10**, 1143 (2019).

45. Ando, T., Uchihashi, T. & Scheuring, S. Filming biomolecular processes by high-speed atomic

force microscopy. *Chem. Rev.* **114**, 3120–3188 (2014).

46. Uchihashi, T., Iino, R., Ando, T. & Noji, H. High-speed atomic force microscopy reveals rotary

catalysis of rotorless F1-ATPase. *Science* **333**, 755–758 (2011).

47. Uemura, S., Higuchi, H., Olivares, A. O., De La Cruz, E. M., Ishiwata, S. Mechanochemical

coupling of two substeps in a single myosin V motor. *Nat. Struct. Mol. Biol*. **11**, 877–883 (2004).

48. Gebhardt, J. C. M., Clemen, A. E.-M., Jaud, J. & Rief, M. Myosin-V is a mechanical ratchet.

Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A. **103**, 8680–8685 (2006).

49. Kad, N. M., Trybus, K. M. & Warshaw, D. M. Load and Pi control flux through the branched

kinetic cycle of myosin V. *J. Biol. Chem*. **283**, 17477–17484 (2008).

50. Andrecka, J. et al. Structural dynamics of myosin 5 during processive motion revealed by

interferometric scattering microscopy. *eLife* 4, e05413 (2015).

51. Beausang, J. F., Shroder, D. Y., Nelson, P. C. & Goldman Y. E. Tilting and wobble of myosin V

by high-speed singlemolecule polarized fluorescence microscopy. *Biophys. J*. **104**, 1263–1273

(2013).

52. Dunn, A. R & Spudich, J. A. Dynamics of the unbound head during myosin V processive

translocation. *Nat. Struct. Mol. Biol*. **14**. 246–248 (2007).

53. Fujita, K., Iwaki, M., Iwane, A. H., Marcucci, L. & Yanagida T. Switching of myosin-V motion

between the lever-arm swing and Brownian search-and-catch. *Nat. Commun*. **3**, 956 (2012).

54. Hinczewski, M., Tehver, R. & Thirumalai, D. Design principles governing the motility of myosin

V. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A*. **110**, E4059–E4068 (2013).

55. Craig, E. M. & Linke, H. Mechanochemical model for myosin V. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A*.

106, 18261–18266 (2009).

56. Takagi, Y. et al. Myosin-10 produces its power-stroke in two phases and moves processively

along a single actin filament under low load. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A.* **111**, E1833–E1842

(2014).

57. Wulf, S. F. et al. Force-producing ADP state of myosin bound to actin. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.*

S. A. **113**, E1844–E1852 (2016).

58. Billington, N., Revill, D. J., Burgess, S. A., Chantler, P. D. & Knight, P. J. Flexibility within the

heads of muscle myosin-2 molecules. *J. Mol. Biol.* **426**, 894–907 (2014).

59. Houdusse, A. & Sweeney, H. L. How myosin generates force on actin filaments. *TIBS* **41**, 989–

997 (2016).

60. Geeves, M. A. & Holmes, K. C. Structural mechanism of muscle contraction. *Annu. Rev.*

Biochem. **68**, 248 687–728 (1999).

61. Howard, J. *Mechanics of Motor Proteins and the Cytoskeleton*. Sinauer Associates, Inc.

Sunderland, Massachusetts (2001).

62. Kodama, T. Thermodynamic analysis of muscle ATPase mechanisms. *Physiol. Rev.* **65**, 467–

551 (1985).

63. Sugi, H. et al. Enhancement of force generated by Individual myosin heads in skinned rabbit

psoas muscle fibers at low ionic strength. *PLOS ONE* **8**, e63658 (2013).

64. Karatzaferi, C., Chinn, M. K. & Cooke, R. The force exerted by a muscle cross-bridge depends

directly on the strength of the actomyosin bond. *Biophys. J.* **87** 2532–2544 (2004).

65. Braun, A. R., Lacy, M. M., Ducas, V. C., Rhoades, E. & Sachs, J. N. α-synuclein-induced

membrane remodeling is driven by binding affinity, partition depth, and interleaflet order

asymmetry. *J. Am. Chem. Soc.* **136**, 9962−9972 (2014).

66. Jaalouk, D. E. & Lammerding, J. Mechanotransduction gone awry. *Nat. Rev. Mol. Cell Biol.* **10**,

63−73 (2009).

67. Xie, W. et al. Static and dynamic: Evolving biomaterial mechanical properties to control cellular

mechanotransduction. *Adv. Sci.* **10**, 2204594 (2023).

68. Preiner, J. et al. IgGs are made for walking on bacterial and viral surfaces. *Nat. Commun*. **5**,

4394 (2014).

69. Goodsell, D. S. & Olson, A. J. Structural symmetry and protein function. *Annu. Rev. Biophys.*

Biomol. Struct. **29**, 105–53 (2000).

70. Cheney, R. E. Purification and assay of myosin V. *Methods Enzymol.* **298**, 3–18 (1998).

71. Yamamoto, D. et al. High-speed atomic force microscopy techniques for observing dynamic

621 biomolecular processes. *Methods Enzymol*. **475**, 541–564 (2010).

72. Ando, T., Uchihashi, T. & Fukuma, T. High-speed atomic force microscopy for nano-

visualization of dynamic biomolecular processes. *Prog. Surf. Sci*. **83**, 337–437 (2008).

73. Ando, T. *High-Speed Atomic Force Microscopy in Biology*. Springer Berlin, Heidelberg (2022).

Acknowledgements

We thank A. Mikhailov for advising us about the modelling and simulations of ATP-free walking of

M5, and R. Vale and J. Howard for critical reading of the original manuscript. We acknowledge

Grant-in-Aid for Scientific Research (S) #24227005 and #17H06121 (T.A.), (A) #22H00405 (T.A.)

and (C) #21K03483 (H.F.) from the Japan Society for the Promotion of Science, the Human

Frontier Science Program grant #RGP0019 (T.A.), the PRESTO grant #JPMJPR13L4 (N.K.) from

the Japan Science and Technology Agency, and the Transdisciplinary Research Promotion grant

(H.F. and N.K.) from NanoLSI-WPI for financial support of this work.

Author information

Contributions

T.A. conceptualized this study and the iHS-AFM technique. N.K. constructed a UV-illumination

system and installed it to the HS-AFM system, performed all experiments and analysed the image

data. T.U. developed a software program for iHS-AFM. H.F. performed modelling and simulations

of ATP-free M5 translocation. T.A. analysed the strain energy. H.F. and T.A. analysed the

energetics of ATP-free and ATP-dependent M5 walking. T.A. wrote the manuscript and all authors

provided feedback and editorial support.

Correspondence and requests for materials should be addressed to Toshio Ando

Ethics declarations

Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

Additional Information

Supplementary Information

Description of Additional Supplementary Files

Fig. 1 | Generally accepted chemomechanical cycle in walking M5. NF, D, Pi, D·Pi, and T
denote nucleotide-free, ADP, inorganic phosphate, ADP·Pi, and ATP, respectively. See the main
text for details.
911

Fig. 2 | iHS-AFM imaging of ATP-free walking of M5. a Schematic of the assay system used for the imaging of ATP-free and ATP-dependent walking of M5 (see Methods). **b** Typical HS-AFM images showing actin-bound M5 with different MD-separations: top, in the presence of 1 mM ADP; bottom, in the presence of 1 μM ATP. The white arrows indicate the X-scanning directions during image acquisition. **c** Schematic showing the application of a strong tip force to an ADP-bound motor domain. **d** Typical successive HS-AFM images showing ATP-free walking of M5. Scan area, 130 × 65 nm²; number of pixels, 80 × 40 pixels; frame rate, 5 fps. A strong force was applied to the areas (7 × 7 pixels; dark rectangles) encircled with a white dashed line (4.0, 7.4 and 13.6 s). White arrow, coiled-coil tail of M5 tilted toward the minus end of F-actin; vertical dashed lines, the centres of mass of the motor domains; plus sign, the plus end of F-actin. The schematics on the right-hand side explain the AFM images, where the areas to which strong force was applied are marked with red dashed lines. The images were acquired while the tip was being scanned towards the +X and +Y directions during raster scanning.

Fig. 3 | Mechanical properties of converter hinges and L-head neck of M5 in three nucleotide conditions. a Distributions of neck angle of actin-bound single-headed M5 in the NF and 1 mM ADP conditions. The horizontal bars indicate bin width 5°. **b** Angle-dependence of stiffness (red) and energy (black) of converter hinge, and the magnitude of force in the direction of F-actin generated at the free end of the neck (blue). The solid and broken lines are those for 1 mM ADP and NF conditions, respectively. **c–f** Mechanical properties of M5 with MD-separation of N_{m-m} = 13. The lines are drawn within the observed angle ranges of φ_L. The colour code shown in (**c**) is common in (**c–f**), except for the black line in (**e**). In (**c**), lever-arm displacement h depending on the angle φ_L is shown. The solid lines were obtained by fitting the plotted data to fourth polynomial functions. The inset shows three geometrical parameters (φ_L, φ_T, and h) measured. In(**d**), dependence of φ_T on φ_L is shown. The solid lines were obtained by fitting the plotted data to second polynomial functions. The inset shows the stiffer NF T-head pushing the neck–neck junction. In (**e**), strain energies as a function of φ_L are shown. U_{TCH} and U_{LCH} are strain energies of the converter hinges at the T and L heads, respectively. U_{neck} is the bending energy of the L-head neck. The top horizontal solid lines show the total strain energy (U_{TCH} + U_{LCH} + U_{neck}), and the dashed lines slightly below the horizontal solid lines show U_{LCH} + U_{neck}. In (**f**), spring constants of L-head neck bending, k_{neck}, are shown.

Fig. 4 | Transition events in ATP-free walking of M5. a Schematic showing transition events occurring between the T-head detachment and its final binding to a front actin site. **b** Energy landscape leading the detached head to forward step or backward return. Both the activation energies ($G_f^{\ddagger}$ and $G_b^{\ddagger}$) are assumed to contain an identical unspecifiable component in addition to E_1 (thermal recovery stroke energy only for the forward step) and E_2 (energy for lever-arm swing). **c** Typical successive HS-AFM images showing transition events. Scan area, 130×65 nm²; number of pixels, 80×40; frame rate, 5 fps. A strong force was applied to the area (7×7 pixels; dark rectangle) encircled with a white dashed line (1.8 s). The images were acquired while the tip was being scanned towards the +X and +Y directions during raster scanning. **d-g** Histograms of time duration between T-head detachment by tip-force and its landing on a front actin site (**d,f,g**) or on an original actin site or its vicinity (**e**). The red and blue lines indicate a single exponential function fitted to the respective histograms. Note that the time resolution is limited to the image acquisition time (200 ms). In (**d,e**), all data are combined without distinguishing the MD-separations after landing. In (**f**), only data with $N_{m-m} = 13$ are combined. In (**g**), only data with $N_{m-m} = 15$ are combined.

Fig. 5 | Mechanism of energy conversion into mechanical work in M5. A, M, T, D, Pi, and NF denote actin, M5, ATP, ADP, orthophosphate, and nucleotide-free, respectively. **a** Free energy changes along the ATPase reaction of M5−actin. Since some values of free energy changes are not yet available for M5−actin, the values shown correspond to those for skeletal actomyosin[61]. The superscripts, TH and LH, denote the trailing head and leading head, respectively. During the transition from $A \cdot M^{LH} \cdot D$ to $A \cdot M^{TH} \cdot D$ (black dotted line), the second head detaches from actin to become the new L-head. **b** Conventional mechanism of energy transduction to mechanical work. In this mechanism, the free energy ~12 $k_B T$ released at the transition from $A \cdot M^{LH} \cdot D \cdot Pi$ to $A \cdot M^{LH} \cdot D$, shown with the red line in (**a**), is assumed to be used to actively rotate the lever-arm around the L-head converter hinge, like winding up a spiral spring. By this rotation, the L-head is strained. **c** New mechanism proposed in this study. More than 50% of the strong binding energy between actin and the ADP-bound L-head is used to strain the M5 molecule predominantly at the L-head. This results in weaker binding of the L-head to actin. Here, the binding energy between $M \cdot D \cdot Pi$ and actin is assumed to be negligibly small, compared to that between $M \cdot D$ and actin.