

Optogenetically controlled cargo shows full length human myosin VI integrates activation signals *in vivo* and *in vitro*

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Abstract

Myosins are force-producing motor proteins that play countless critical roles in the cell, each requiring it to be activated at a specific location and time. To control myosin VI with this specificity, we created a novel optogenetic tool for activating myosin VI by fusing the light-sensitive *Avena sativa* phototropin1 LOV2 domain to a peptide from Dab2 (LOVDab), a myosin VI cargo protein. Our approach harnesses the native activation mechanism of myosin VI, allowing direct inferences on myosin VI function. LOVDab robustly recruits human full length myosin VI to various organelles *in vivo* and hinders peroxisome motion in a light-controllable manner. LOVDab activates myosin VI in an *in vitro* gliding filament assay, where lipid cargo sensitizes myosin VI to activation by LOVDab. Our results support a new model of myosin VI regulation whereby myosin VI integrates Ca^{2+} , lipid, and protein cargo signals in the cell to deploy in a site-specific manner.

Introduction

Motor proteins play countless roles in biology, each requiring the motor to be recruited and activated at a particular time and place inside the cell. To dissect these multiple roles, we must develop tools that allow us to control the recruitment and activation process. One promising technique for achieving this goal is through optogenetics (1). Optogenetics involves the engineering and application of optically-controlled, genetically encoded proteins, and is transforming the fields of neuro- and cell biology (2, 3). A major benefit of optogenetics is that proteins are activated using light, which allows for high temporal and spatial control over their protein of interest.

Myosin VI is a motor protein whose study could particularly benefit from optogenetic control. It is the only myosin known to walk toward the pointed end of actin filaments (5, 6). This property enables it to perform a diverse array of cellular functions including cell division, endosome trafficking, autophagy, and Golgi and plasma membrane anchoring (7-10). Myosin VI is also auto-inhibited, a property that is commonly found in other myosins (11). When myosin VI binds to cargo through specialized adaptor

proteins, this auto-inhibition is relieved through a poorly understood mechanism likely involving the disruption of an interaction between its cargo binding domain (CBD) and the myosin head (12, 13). Dissociation of the CBD from the head both frees the head to bind tightly to actin and exposes dimerization sites throughout the tail domain of myosin VI, allowing it to become a processive dimer (4, 16, 17). In some cases, myosin VI could conceivably function as a monomer, for example when fulfilling its role as a membrane tether during spermatid individualization (18). If this is the case, more work is needed to elucidate the cellular signals that determine its oligomeric state at each site of action.

Myosin VI has two classes of cargo proteins that bind to distinct, conserved motifs on the myosin VI C-terminus (22). Disabled2, or Dab2, belongs to the class of cargo proteins that bind to a conserved WWY site on myosin (23). Optineurin (OPTN) is a member of the second class that binds to a conserved RRL motif (19). Binding to members of either of these classes of cargo protein is thought to relieve the auto-inhibition through the mechanism described above. Recently, however, myosin VI's activation mechanism has been found to be more elaborate, with evidence now showing that myosin VI binds specifically to the signaling lipid PI(4,5)P₂ as well as being activated using Ca²⁺ (23, 24). The outstanding questions on its activation mechanism, together with its many roles throughout the cell, make myosin VI an ideal target for optogenetic study.

One highly successful optogenetic strategy is to use or modify naturally-occurring light sensitive proteins that directly alter a cellular property of interest, such as using channel rhodopsin to manipulate membrane ion gradients (1). Another method is to fuse a target protein to a naturally light-sensitive protein that undergoes a conformational change in response to light. The new fusion protein is designed such that it sterically blocks the target protein's binding to its partner in the dark state, but releases it in the lit state.

This latter engineering strategy has been employed using a variety of light-sensitive proteins, including phytochromes (25, 26), cryptochromes (27), photoactive yellow protein (PYP) (28), and the

Light, Oxygen, Voltage sensing domain 2, or LOV2, from *Avena sativa* phototropin1 (29-31). Each system has its own benefits (1), but we proceeded with the LOV2 domain due to its ability to cage a peptide in the dark, and expose it to binding effectors in the light. The ~150 AA domain binds a flavin mononucleotide (FMN) and undergoes a conformational change involving the unfolding of its N- and C-terminal helices upon absorbing blue light ($\lambda_{\max} \approx 447\text{nm}$) (32). Specifically, absorption leads to the formation of a covalent bond between the FMN's C4a atom and the sulfur atom of the catalytic cysteine residue C450 (33, 34). This event triggers the unfolding of both the A' α helix at its N-terminus and the larger J α helix at its C-terminus (35, 36). When the light stimulus is removed, the protein-FMN bond spontaneously hydrolyses in the dark on the seconds to minutes time scale followed by rapid refolding of the A' α and J α helices, thus completing the photocycle (34-36). The degree of this conformational change and the rate at which the helices refold in the dark can be independently altered by mutation (36, 37) which can be useful for tuning a photoswitch (29, 30).

Previously, we engineered the LOV2 domain to control DNA binding (38) as well as to sterically block, or "cage," a small PDZ domain-binding peptide that was fused to the C-terminal J α helix (30). In the latter system, the light-induced unfolding of the J α helix uncages the peptide and recruits PDZ domain-tethered proteins *in vivo*. This strategy has been utilized by others for the control of a variety of protein-protein interactions (39) including most recently epigenetic modifications (40).

Here we apply a similar uncaging strategy to engineer a LOV2 fusion protein that can recruit myosin VI in a light controllable manner. A short peptide region from the myosin VI cargo protein Dab2 (Dab2^{pep}) has been crystallized in complex with the cargo binding domain (CBD) of myosin VI, and shown to recruit the myosin VI tail *in vivo* (17). Phichith *et al.* independently were able to activate full-length porcine myosin VI *in vitro* using high concentrations of a Dab2 truncation that included Dab2^{pep} (4). Additionally, ITC experiments suggest that the N-terminal α -helix of Dab2^{pep} contains most of its binding affinity for myosin VI, making Dab2^{pep} a suitable target for caging by the LOV2 domain.

Here we engineer and apply an optogenetic activator for full-length human myosin VI using a LOV2-Dab2^{pep} fusion protein termed “LOVDab”. LOVDab robustly recruits myosin VI to a variety of cellular organelles in a light-dependent manner. Recruitment of myosin VI to peroxisomes slows their velocity, demonstrating myosin VI activation upon recruitment *in vivo* that is consistent with an anchoring role for myosin VI. We also purify full-length human myosin VI and demonstrate its photoactivation *in vitro* using a modified gliding filament assay. Lastly, we interrogate the interplay of lipid and cargo proteins in activating myosin VI, and show that the presence of PI(4,5)P₂ enhances myosin VI’s affinity for Dab2^{pep}.

Results

LOVDab design and optimization

To obtain light-controlled activation of myosin VI, we fused the portion of its cargo protein Dab2 (res. 674-711, Dab2^{pep}) that binds to the myosin VI cargo binding domain (CBD) to the C-terminus of the LOV2 Jα helix. In the crystal structure of the CBD-Dab2^{pep} complex, two CBDs and two Dab2^{pep} molecules form a tetrameric structure (**Figure 1A**). Each Dab2^{pep} in the tetramer contains two helical regions that contact the CBDs. The two helices bind to opposite CBDs so that each Dab2^{pep} binds across both CBDs in the tetramer. The modest interface between the two CBDs in the tetramer suggests that two Dab2^{pep}s promote myosin VI dimerization by tethering two myosin VI molecules in close proximity to each other, disrupting the interaction of the CBD to the myosin VI head domain and promoting myosin VI dimerization at various sites along its tail domain (4, 16, 17). Whether Dab2^{pep} directly competes with the interaction between the CBD and the myosin VI head is unknown. ITC measurements indicate that the majority of the binding affinity for the CBD lies in the N-terminal helix of Dab2^{pep} (17). Taken together, these observations suggest that light-induced uncaging of the N-terminal region of two Dab2^{pep} peptides may be sufficient to control myosin VI dimerization. Furthermore, the 2:2 stoichiometry of the CBD₂:Dab2^{pep}₂ tetramer results in a binding reaction dependent on the square of the concentration of Dab2^{pep}, which should amplify the switching capability of our design.

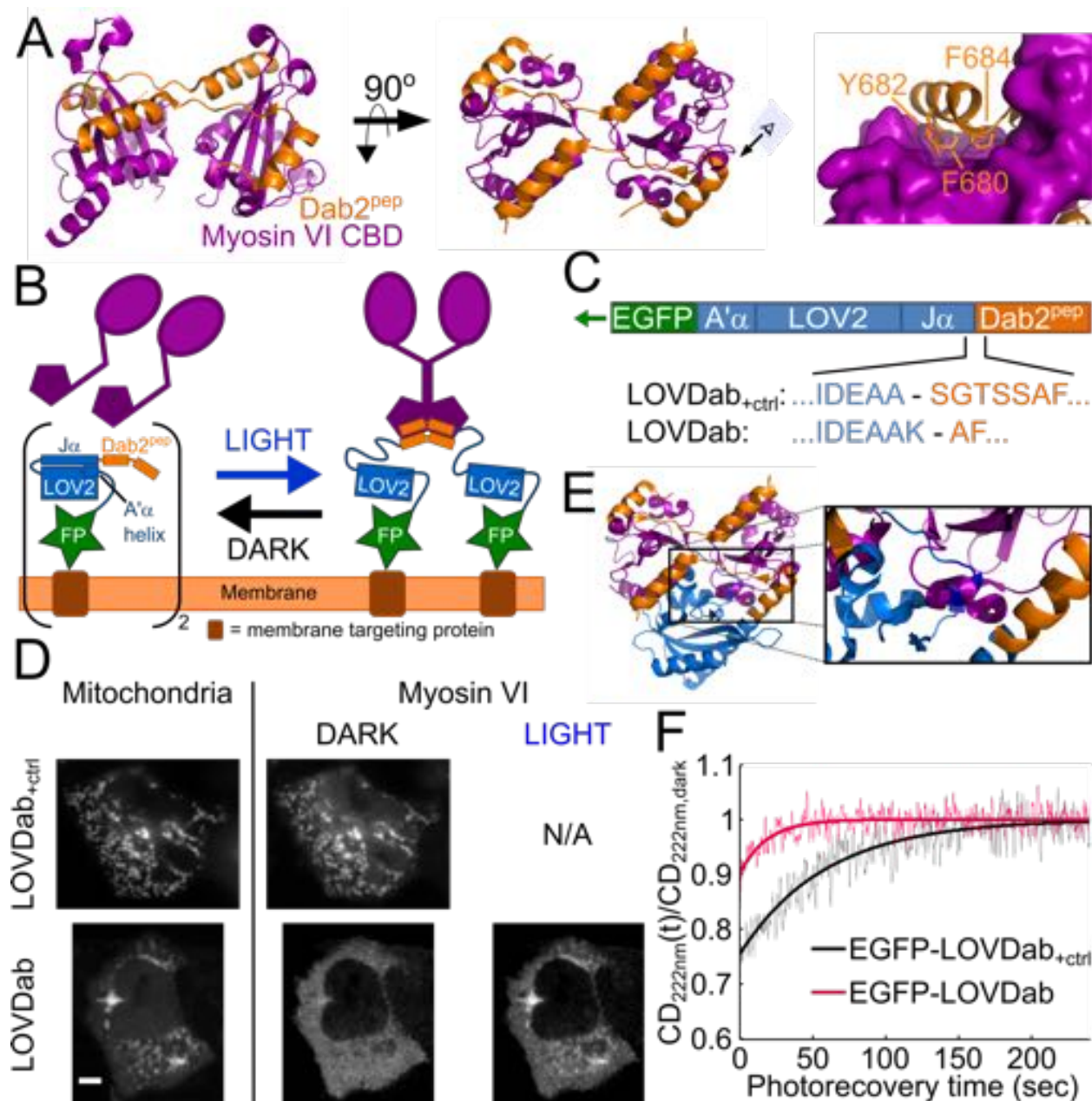


Figure 1: Design of LOVDab. (A) *Left and center:* The myosin VI CBD co-crystallized with Dab2^{pep} in two orientations illustrating how two Dab2^{pep} molecules straddle the CBDs. *Right:* View of N-terminal Dab2^{pep}:CBD binding interface with aromatic residues shown in sticks. (B) Diagram of desired function of LOVDab. In the dark, Dab2^{pep} is prevented from binding myosin VI. When excited by blue light, the A'α and Jα helices of LOV2 unfold, releasing Dab2^{pep} to recruit myosin VI to the membrane. An N-terminal tag targets LOVDab to a specific organelle in the cell. (C) Domain architecture of EGFP-LOVDab with the sequences of LOVDab_{+ctrl} and LOVDab at the fusion site. (D) Recruitment assay from (B) performed using the constructs in (C). LOVDab_{+ctrl} does not cage Dab2^{pep} in the dark whereas LOVDab only recruits myosin VI to the mitochondria in the lit state. Scale bar: 5 μm. (E) Alignment of LOV2 with Dab2^{pep}:CBD crystal structure (with zoom to boxed region on right) suggests LOVDab obstructs myosin VI binding to Dab2^{pep} in the dark. Dark blue: A'α helix. (F) Time course of dark state photorecovery of constructs in (B) measured by circular dichroism (CD) at 222nm normalized to their respective values in the dark state. At time = 0 sec the LOV2 domains are fully excited and allowed to recover in the dark.

Myosin VI cargo proteins tether myosin VI to membrane-bound organelles *in vivo*. Accordingly, we tested our designs using an assay that would recruit myosin VI to various membranes in the cell (**Figure 1B**). Mitochondria were an ideal first choice for such an assay since proteins can be targeted to the mitochondrial membrane by fusing the Tom70 transmembrane helix (Tom70^{helix}) to their N-termini (30). Additionally, myosin VI is not known to act on mitochondria, and overexpression of myosin VI in the cell should therefore not lead to increased background binding of myosin VI to this organelle. We thus cotransfected HeLa cells with Tom70^{helix}-Fluorescent Protein (FP)-LOVDab and -LOVDab_{+ctrl} fusion proteins and full-length human myosin VI tagged with a complimentary FP on its N-terminus. Because the absorption λ_{\max} of EGFP is similar to that of LOV2, we alternate which of two FPs, mCherry or EGFP, is on myosin VI and which is on LOVDab. The protein we intend to watch in both the light and the dark states of LOV2 is fused to mCherry in order to avoid simultaneous excitation of LOV2.

We first tested whether Dab2^{pep} is sufficient to recruit full-length myosin VI using an uncaged, constitutively open fusion of Dab2^{pep} to the C-terminus of the LOV2 J α helix (**Figure 1C**). Residues 674-679 of Dab2^{pep} are mostly glycine and serine, suggesting that these residues could serve as a flexible linker between the LOV2 domain and the remaining residues in Dab2^{pep}. This flexibility should prevent caging of the myosin VI binding site on Dab2^{pep} even when the J α helix is folded in the dark. As expected, LOV2 fused to the full Dab2^{pep} sequence recruits myosin VI to mitochondria in the dark (**Figure 1D**). Myosin VI is seen on puncta that correspond to the mitochondria visualized in the LOVDab_{+ctrl} channel. We refer to this construct as LOVDab_{+ctrl} (**Figure 1C**), since it is always myosin VI binding-competent.

Having established that Dab2^{pep} is sufficient for myosin VI recruitment, we next sought to re-engineer LOVDab_{+ctrl} to have light-dependent binding. Our strategy focuses on caging the aromatic residues F680, Y683, and F684 on the Dab2^{pep}'s N-terminal helix that are buried upon CBD binding (**Figure 1A**, right panel). These three residues must be close enough to the J α helix that they are sterically prevented from binding the CBD when the J α helix is folded in the LOV2 dark state. This

criterion is accomplished by reducing the number of intervening residues while maintaining a continuous helix encompassing the J α helix and the N-terminal helix of Dab2^{DEP}. An additional variable is helical registry which controls the relative orientation of the J α and the Dab2^{DEP} helices, and therefore the angle of the CBD-binding residues in Dab2^{DEP} with respect to the LOV2 domain. Additionally, disruption of the interaction between I539 on the J α helix and the LOV2 core partially unfolds the J α helix (41). These constraints together limit the amount of J α sequence we can modify.

We tested a small battery of constructs for light-dependent myosin VI binding using our mitochondrial recruitment assay (**Figure 1B**). One construct, which we refer to as LOVDab (**Figure 1C**), exhibits robust recruitment of myosin VI in response to light (**Figure 1D**). As intended, Tom70^{helix}-FP-LOVDab localizes to the surface of mitochondria, which are visible as puncta (**Figure 1D**). When the LOV2 is in the dark state, mCherry-myosin VI fluorescence shows a diffuse, cytosolic signature indicating that it is unbound and diffuse throughout the cytosol. Upon LOV2 activation via whole cell illumination with a blue, 488 nm laser, the myosin VI fluorescence is depleted from the cytosol and forms puncta corresponding to the mitochondria where Tom70^{helix}-FP-LOVDab resides (**Figure 1D**). Thus, LOVDab exhibits light-dependent binding to myosin VI.

Small deviations from this sequence abolish this light-dependent recruitment. LOVDab lacking K544 shows minor switching that was often accompanied with high dark state binding. LOVDab lacking both A543 and K544 shows weak, constitutive binding, indicating that moving the Dab2^{DEP} closer to the LOV2 domain beyond these residues destabilized the J α helix. The insertion of residues either C-terminal to K545 in the LOV2 sequence, or N-terminal to S678 in the LOVDab sequence, even when making compensatory insertions or deletions in the opposite fusion protein to maintain the myosin VI CBD binding site on the identical face of the J α helix, prevents caging of Dab2^{DEP}. Adding S678 of Dab2^{DEP} to LOVDab produced a construct with similar switching as LOVDab. Following the predicted register of the helix, this fusion would position F680, a residue that is buried in the Dab2^{DEP}:CBD interface (**Figure 1A**),

facing toward the H β -I β loop of LOV2. However, this construct shows a small level of dark state binding, so we continued our study with LOVDab.

Both LOVDab and LOVDab_{+ctrl} contain the double mutation T406A/T407A on the A' α helix. This double mutation stabilizes the J α helix by increasing the helicity of the neighboring A' α helix, which in turn improves caging of peptides fused to the J α helix (30, 36). Modeling using the crystal structure of LOV2 and that of the Dab2^{pep}₂:CBD₂ complex suggests that LOVDab blocks Dab2^{pep} from binding to the CBD of myosin VI by sterically occluding the CBD from its binding site on Dab2^{pep} (**Figure 1E**). Interestingly, the largest steric clash is between the CBD and the A' α helix, suggesting that both terminal helices contribute directly to the caging of Dab2^{pep}. In contrast, the flexible Dab2^{pep} residues 674-679 in LOV2Dab^{pep}_{+ctrl} make this steric clash unlikely. This clash, together with the placement of Dab2^{pep} F680 in the LOV2 L546 position in LOVDab (42), may explain why this construct shows such robust light-dependent recruitment.

We further probed the structural changes in LOVDab and LOVDab_{+ctrl} using circular dichroism (CD) at 222 nm to interrogate the light triggered unfolding of the J α helix and the uncaging of Dab2^{pep}. In order to better replicate the protein used in the *in vivo* assays, we fused an EGFP to the N-termini of LOVDab and LOVDab_{+ctrl} for our CD measurements. The observed 25% fractional change in helicity in EGFP-LOVDab_{+ctrl} compares well with our previously measured values for the LOV2 domain (36), suggesting that fusion to either EGFP or Dab2^{pep} does not alter the extent of conformational change. We expect that Dab2^{pep} forms a helical extension of the J α helix in LOVDab, whereas Dab2^{pep} is likely unfolded in EGFP-LOVDab_{+ctrl}, as Dab2^{pep}'s intrinsic helicity is only 0.64% (43). Consistent with this finding, the fractional change in helicity is smaller in EGFP-LOVDab than in EGFP-LOVDab_{+ctrl} (**Figure 1F**), in part driven by the 20% higher intrinsic helicity of EGFP-LOVDab over EGFP-LOVDab_{+ctrl}. This decrease in apparent unfolding of the J α helix supports the notion that the Dab2^{pep} is more tightly caged in LOVDab than in LOVDab_{+ctrl}.

Photoswitchable cargo recruits myosin VI to diverse membrane compartments in the cell.

One benefit of optogenetic approaches is their ability to control proteins at a subcellular level. Using a focused laser beam, myosin VI recruitment via LOVDab was performed selectively on subcellular regions (<5 μm in diameter) in a reversible and repeatable manner (**Figures 2A-C, Video 1**). Overlaying the helix recovery CD trace of LOVDab on the mitochondrial fluorescence (**Figures 2C**) shows that myosin VI unbinds from the mitochondria at a similar rate to the J α helix refolding in the dark, indicating that myosin VI recruitment is occurring through our LOV2 construct.

To test the generalizability of this recruitment, we targeted LOVDab to two other membranes, the plasma membrane. By fusing LOVDab to beta-2-adrenergic receptor (B2AR), we demonstrate recruitment of myosin VI to the plasma membrane in response to light (**Figures 2D,E, Video 2**). The flat shape of the HeLa cell makes it more challenging to observe the contrast in cytosolic versus membrane-bound myosin VI as compared to that with mitochondria in the previous assay. Therefore, LOVDab is a robust recruiter of myosin VI.

Light-dependent recruitment of myosin VI stalls peroxisomes.

Peroxisome movement is highly coupled to microtubule dynamics (44). Myosin V has previously been shown to slow the redistribution of peroxisomes upon recruitment of constitutively active kinesin-2, causing the peroxisomes to accumulate near the cell boundary. These observations suggest that myosins are capable of stalling and/or decoupling peroxisomes from microtubule machinery (45). We reasoned that if recruiting myosin VI to peroxisomes alters their motion inside the cell, this assay could determine whether LOVDab can activate myosin VI upon its recruitment. We targeted LOVDab and LOVDab_{+ctrl} to peroxisomes by fusing the Pex3 membrane targeting domain (Pex3^{MTD}) to its N-terminus (46). We find that among cells co-transfected with Pex3^{MTD}-FP-LOV2Dab2^{pep}_{+ctrl} and myosin VI, cells

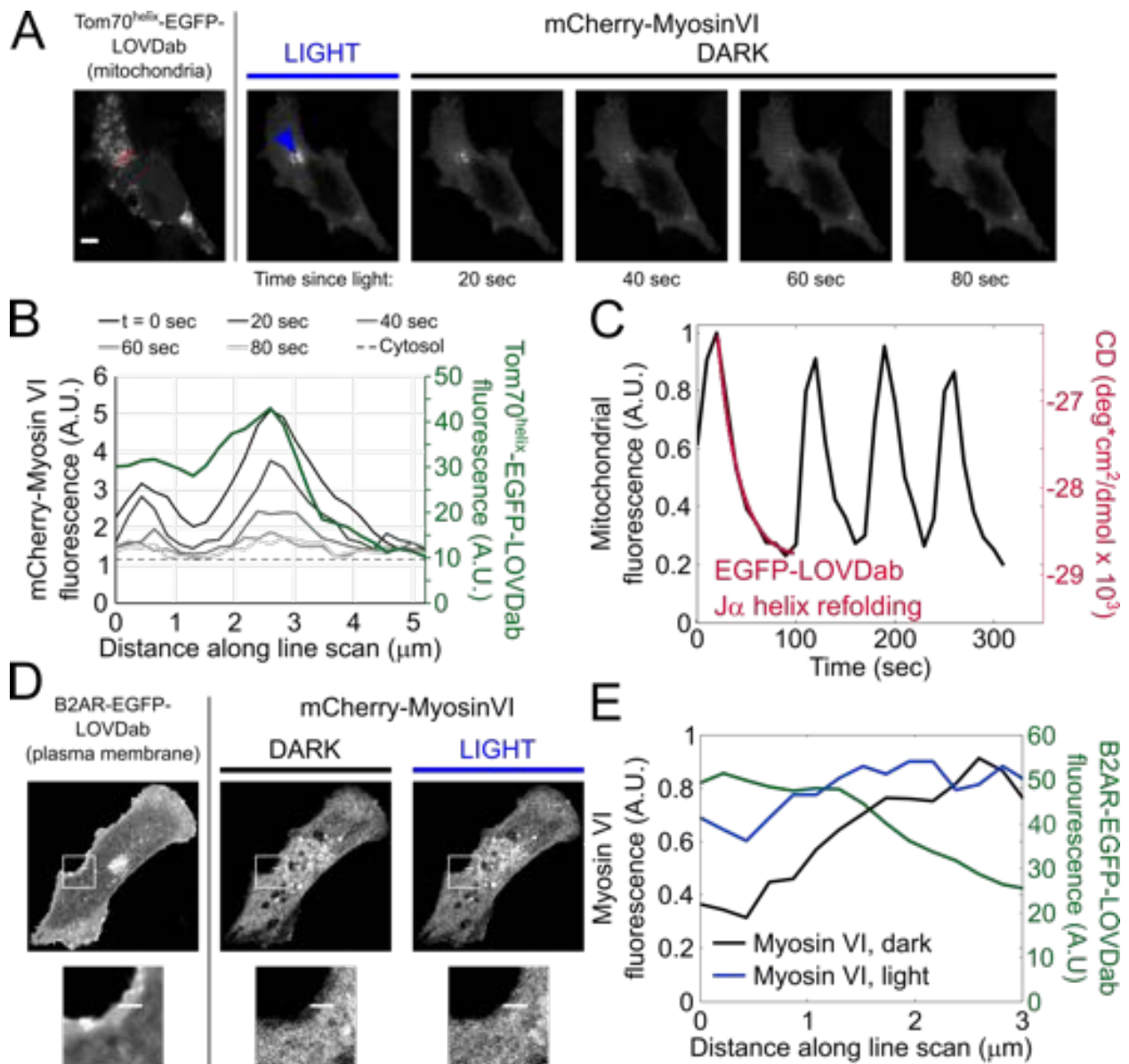


Figure 2. LOVDab robustly recruits myosin VI to different membranes within the cell in a light dependent manner. (A-C) Spot-specific, light-dependent recruitment of myosin VI to mitochondria. (A) Images of cell showing spot-dependent (blue arrow) recruitment of myosin VI. As cell is left in dark, myosin VI unbinds. Scale bar: 5 μm. (B) Fluorescence intensity line scan across red line in (A) over time. (C) Mean fluorescence in spot peak in (A) quantified over sequential pulses of light shows myosin VI recruitment is reversible and repeatable. Overlaid circular dichroism (CD) trace of EGFP-LOVDab photorecovery indicates that the myosin unbinding rate is similar to the refolding rate of the Jα helix in LOVDab. (D) Light-dependent recruitment of myosin VI to the plasma membrane. *Bottom row*: expanded view. Line is approximately 3 μm (see (E)). (E) Quantification of fluorescence of line in Panel (D). Fluorescence increases near cell edge where the plasma membrane is in focus.

having high myosin VI concentration exhibit constitutive binding between LOV2Dab2^{pep}_{+ctrl} and myosin VI. In contrast, wild type peroxisomes do not show significant binding of myosin VI (**Figures 3A,B**). Significantly, peroxisomes that bind myosin VI have overall slower velocities than wild type peroxisomes, supporting previous data showing that myosin V is capable of stalling microtubule-directed transport of these organelles (45).

We next targeted LOVDab to peroxisomes, and were able to achieve reversible, light-dependent recruitment of myosin VI to this organelle (**Figures 4A,B; Video 3**). Furthermore, the recruitment occurs only to peroxisomes coated in LOVDab. Recruitment did not appear to be sufficient to deplete myosin VI from other vesicles in the cell, suggesting that our design does not impact native myosin VI activity.

Lit peroxisomes move more slowly, presumably because the recruited myosin VIs act as a dynamic tension sensor that stalls and anchors peroxisomes to the actin network (47). Reduced peroxisome movement is evident from projections of maximum pixel values from consecutive blocks of 24-25 frames (46-48 seconds), as the fast moving peroxisomes form blurred patterns that coalesce into compact puncta in the light (**Figure 4C, Video 4**). After three minutes in the dark, the peroxisome motility resumes, as indicated by the blurred patterns reappearing. We therefore conclude that LOVDab is capable of reversibly activating myosin VI *in vivo*.

Activation of myosin VI in an *in vitro* gliding filament assay.

Myosin VI could halt peroxisome movements by binding to actin filaments either with or without motor activity. In order to directly demonstrate activation of myosin VI motility by Dab2^{pep}, we designed a modified gliding filament assay whereby we anchor an EGFP-LOV2-Dab2^{pep} fusion protein to the surface of a glass coverslip through an anti-GFP antibody (3E6). We then perfused soluble mCherry-myosin VI with actin together (**Figure 5A**). This design allows us to interrogate myosin VI activation without altering its C-terminal cargo binding domain.

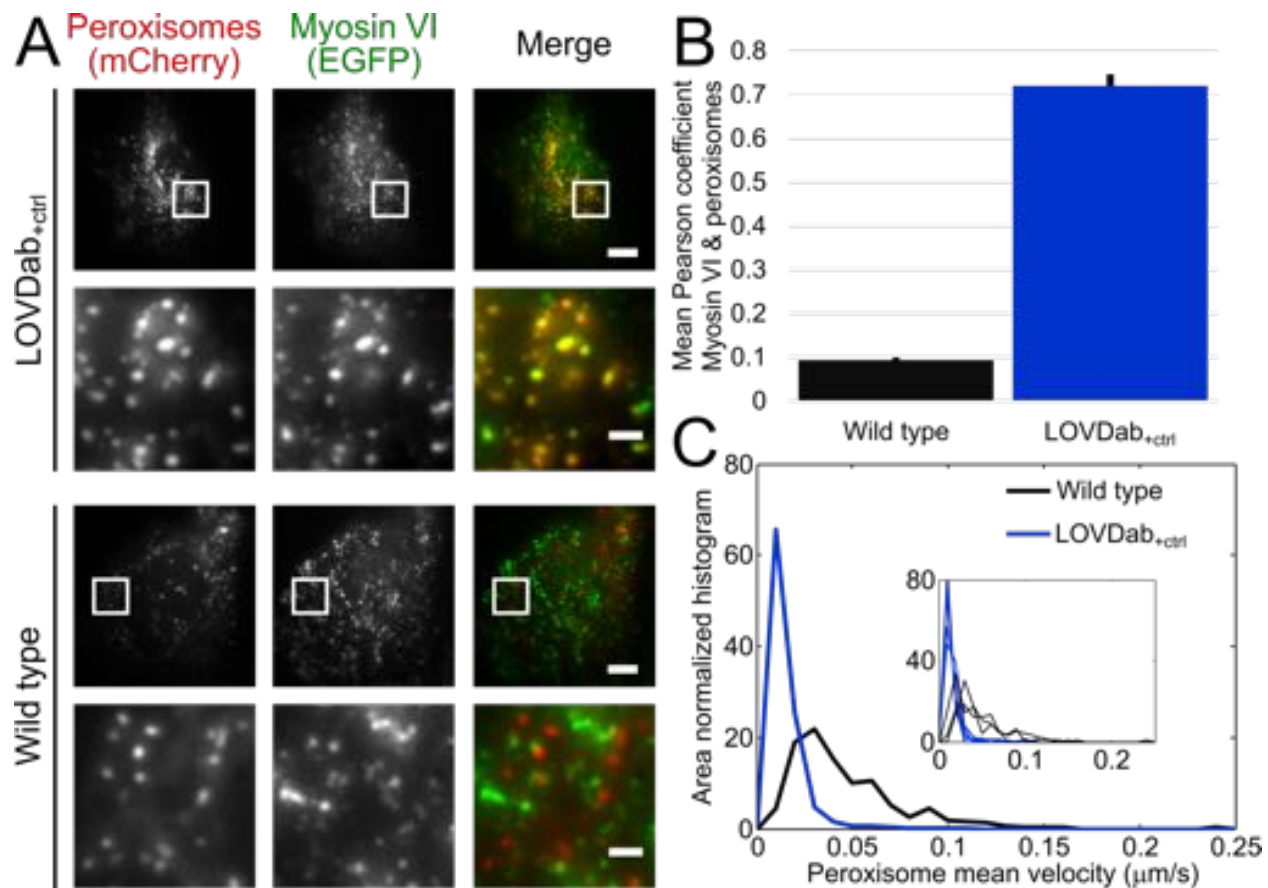


Figure 3. Myosin VI is recruited to peroxisomes via Dab2^{pep}. **(A)** The membrane targeting domain of Pex3 (Pex3^{MTD}) is used to express either mCherry-LOVDab_{+ctrl} or mCherry only (Wild type). Top two rows: Cells with peroxisomes containing LOVDab_{+ctrl} bind EGFP-myosin VI. Bottom two rows: Wild type peroxisomes lacking LOVDab_{+ctrl} do not bind myosin VI. The 2nd and 4th rows are expanded views of boxed regions in the 1st and 3rd rows, respectively. Scale bars: 5 μm (1 μm expanded). **(B)** Quantification of overlap between peroxisome and myosin VI channels confirms significant recruitment of myosin VI to peroxisomes labeled with LOVDab_{+ctrl} (mean \pm SEM, $p < .01$, t-test; wild type, $n=3$; LOVDab2^{pep}_{+ctrl}, $n=6$). **(C)** Peroxisome frame-to-frame velocities are markedly reduced in cells expressing Pex3^{MTD}-mCherry- LOVDab_{+ctrl}. Inset shows distributions for each cell used in analysis. Main graph shows distributions pooling all peroxisome data from these cells.

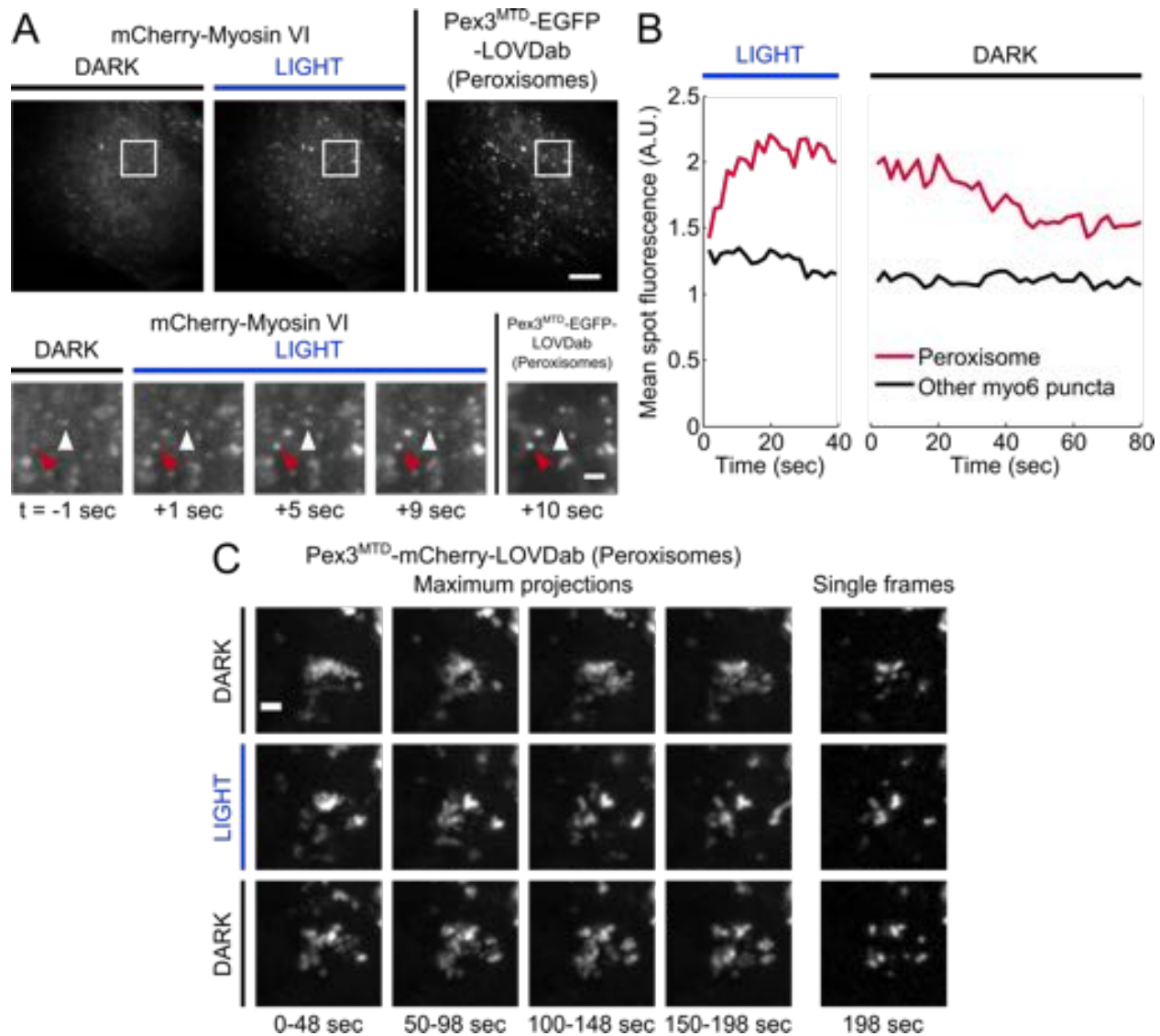


Figure 4. LOVDab reversibly recruits EGFP-myosin VI to peroxisomes in a light-dependent manner, which causes them to stall. **(A)** Images of cell showing light-dependent recruitment of myosin VI to peroxisomes. *Top row*: whole cell view. *Bottom row*: expanded image of boxed region. Vesicles showing light-dependent recruitment (red arrows) correspond to peroxisomes (right image) while vesicles binding myosin VI in the dark do not (white arrows). Thus, light-dependent recruitment occurs through LOVDab. Scale bars: 5 μm (1 μm expanded). **(B)** Quantification of fluorescence of vesicles labelled in **(A)**. The red line corresponds to red arrowed vesicle; black line to the white labeled vesicle. **(C)** Maximum intensity projections over 48-50 seconds of peroxisome movement in a cell expressing EGFP-myosin VI and Pex3^{MTD}-mCherry-LOVDab. Peroxisomes moving diffusively appear blurred out and occupy expanded areas. Restricted peroxisomes occupy compact spaces (see right picture, middle row). As LOVDab is activated, peroxisomes stall, displaying more limited excursions. Motions resume after peroxisomes are left in the dark (3 minute delay between middle and bottom row). Projections constructed from consecutive blocks of 24-25 two second frames. Each row is from separate video; time increases down and to the right. Scale bar, 1μm.

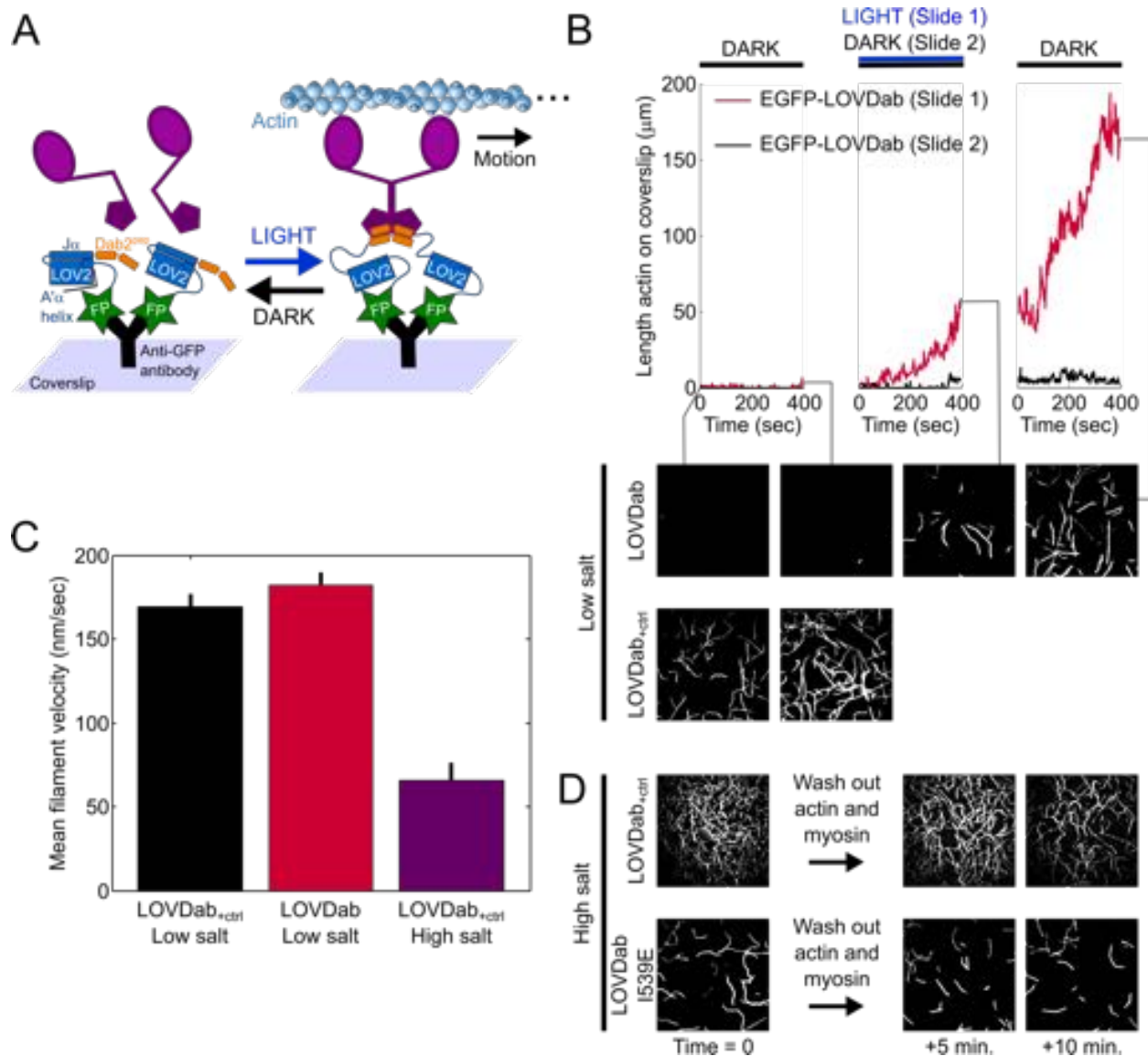


Figure 5. *In vitro* gliding filament assay indicates that LOVDab activates full-length human myosin VI in response to light. **(A)** Diagram of the modified gliding filament assay. EGFP-LOVDab is attached to the coverslip surface using an anti-GFP antibody. Soluble myosin VI is recruited to the surface by Dab2^{pep} and translates actin filaments. **(B)** Quantification of actin binding to surface over time for LOVDab. Recorded in multiple videos. Slide 1 was prepared and excited throughout second video. Slide 2 was left in the dark for all three recordings. Pictures underneath correspond to indicated time points in red curve. Below, matching time points for a representative slide coated with LOVDab_{ctrl} are included for comparison. **(C)** Filament velocities in different conditions. Salt significantly alters filament velocity while velocities for LOVDab and LOVDab_{ctrl} are similar (mean + SEM; first column, n=4; others, n=3). **(D)** Upper row: in high salt, actin releases from coverslip when free myosin and actin are washed out of the slide. Lower row: the I539E mutation unfolds the J α helix, acting as a constitutive lit state mutant. This mutation allows LOVDab to recruit actin to the surface in high salt.

We find that full-length human myosin VI purified in a low salt ([KCl] = 25mM) MOPS buffer propels filaments at 170 nm/sec when recruited by LOVDab_{+ctrl}. This velocity agrees well with published values (12, 48). Under these conditions, LOVDab_{+ctrl} recruits actin to the surface rapidly in the dark (**Figure 5B**, lower panels; **Video 5**).

When the coverslip is coated with LOVDab, myosin VI only recruits actin to the surface after the LOV2 is excited with blue light (**Figure 5B**, **Video 6**). After 400 seconds of excitation, the coverslip surface is not yet saturated with actin, indicating that the actin deposits at a slower rate than with LOVDab_{+ctrl}-coated coverslips. The velocity of the actin filaments recruited through LOVDab is similar to that of filaments recruited through LOVDab_{+ctrl} (**Figure 5C**). This latter finding suggests that both constructs fully activate myosin VI. The slower deposition rate for LOVDab may be due to the lower availability of the Dab2^{pep} in LOVDab over LOVDab_{+ctrl}, leading to fewer recruited myosin VI motors. It could also reflect the selective recruitment of microaggregates of myosin VI by LOVDab, which would diffuse to the surface more slowly than monomeric myosin VI (see below).

For both constructs, myosin VI appears to be recruited to the surface irreversibly, as once the LOV2 was activated, actin did not release from the slide (**Figure 5B**, lower panels). To determine whether this irreversibility was due to the high affinity of Dab2^{pep} for the myosin VI CBD, we attempted to invert the gliding filament assay to directly observe myosin VI walking on actin. However, we find that myosin VI purified in low salt solutions forms soluble microaggregates which are visible as diffusing clusters in the TIRF microscope. Testing a series of buffers, we find that myosin VI prepared in a high salt (KCl = 150 mM) Tris buffer does not form visible microaggregates. Myosin VI prepared in this second buffer is active in the gliding filament assay when LOVDab_{+ctrl} is on the surface. Consistent with a reduction in the myosin:actin affinity in high salt, filaments recruited to the surface in this assay have a significantly reduced velocity (**Figure 5C**). This myosin also did not perform in the TIRF assay, either because the concentration needed to dimerize the myosin VI using cargo was prohibitively high for detection using

TIRF, or because of the well-documented decrease in affinity between myosins and actin in high salt conditions (49, 50).

Unlike in low salt conditions, washing out free actin and myosin VI from the slide results in the slow release of myosin VI from LOVDab_{+ctrl} in high salt. (**Figure 5D**) Together, the high off-rate of myosin VI from the mitochondria and the reversibility in the high salt myosin VI preparation suggest that the irreversibility seen in the gliding filament assays using myosin VI prepared in low salt was primarily due to the presence of myosin VI microaggregates. However, without the high avidity of the myosin VI microaggregates, we do not observe recruitment of actin to the surface via LOVDab under high salt conditions. We postulate that the lack of myosin VI recruitment to LOVDab *in vitro* is due to the engineered caging effect of the LOV2 domain on Dab2^{pep} in the LOVDab construct. This effect could weaken the effective K_D for binding of Dab2^{pep} to myosin VI to a point where even in the light, the myosin VI cannot be recruited at concentrations where it is soluble in our high salt buffers. Alternatively, the lifetime of the LOVDab:myosin VI:actin complex may be too short to propel the actin filaments. Importantly, LOVDab containing an I539E point mutation that unfolds the J α helix (41) constitutively recruited actin in the presence of high salt myosin VI, proving that LOVDab is inherently capable of activating myosin VI (**Figure 5D**).

We also tested whether a LOV2 domain fused to the myosin VI-binding residues (412-520) of optineurin (OPTN) could activate myosin VI in our gliding filament assay. Though EGFP-LOV2-OPTN₍₄₁₂₋₅₂₀₎ migrates as a dimer in size exclusion chromatography (**Figure 5 – figure supplement 1**), it does not activate myosin VI. Lack of activation is consistent with recent studies showing that the large insert in the myosin VI tail domain, which is present in our construct, occludes the OPTN binding site (21). Furthermore, OPTN must be ubiquitinated prior to binding myosin VI (20).

Multiple signals contribute to myosin VI activation

Other factors that may contribute to the differences in our *in vivo* and *in vitro* assays include the lack of Ca^{2+} and $\text{PI}(4,5)\text{P}_2$ in the *in vitro* assays, both of which are known to bind myosin VI (23, 24). At myosin VI concentrations too low to interact with $\text{LOVDab}_{+\text{ctrl}}$, the addition of $\text{PI}(4,5)\text{P}_2$ rescues recruitment of actin to the coverslip (**Figure 6A**). This rescue requires the presence of Ca^{2+} ions, suggesting that the three signals, $\text{PI}(4,5)\text{P}_2$, Ca^{2+} and Dab2, are integrated to activate myosin VI in the proper time and place in the cell.

This signal integration could explain recruitment of myosin VI to the Golgi via LOVDab with the KDEL receptor (KDELRL). Overexpression of KDELRL seems to be cytotoxic. At low expression levels KDELRL-FP-LOVDab recruits myosin VI to the Golgi apparatus in a light-dependent manner (**Figure 6B,C; Video 7**). However, the amount of myosin VI binding to each LOVDab-labeled membrane does not correlate with the amount of LOVDab on that membrane (**Figure 6B-D**). This lack of correlation cannot be explained by limiting myosin VI since when light is applied to the cell, additional myosin VI binds to each membrane. Thus, other factors on these membranes must alter the myosin VI affinity for its protein cargo Dab2^{pep} , even between similar membranes. Together, these data support a new model of myosin VI activation whereby myosin VI integrates multiple cargo signals to deploy in a site-specific manner in the cell (**Figure 6E**, see discussion below). The presence of these signals *in vivo* also may explain why myosin VI is activated by LOVDab *in vivo* but not in our *in vitro* gliding filament assay.

Discussion

Myosin VI is the only myosin that walks toward the pointed end of actin filaments (5, 6). This property gives it many unique roles throughout the cell including endocytosis, cell migration, and autophagy (51). Furthermore, the mechanism for myosin VI activation is still highly debated (13). To create a tool that could help address these questions, we engineered an optogenetic activator of myosin VI, LOVDab.

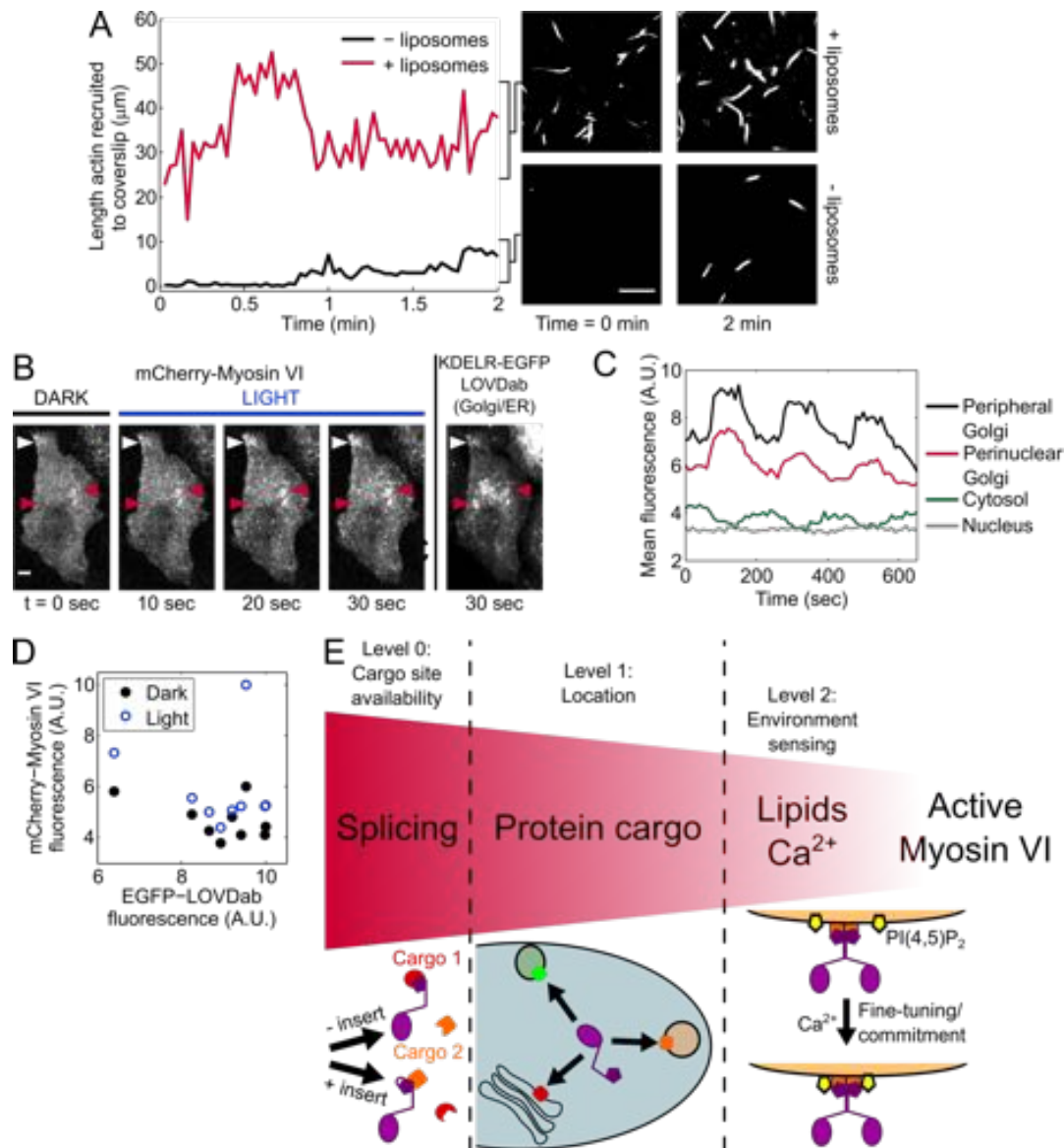


Figure 6. Myosin VI integrates cargo signals to deploy in site-specific manner. **(A)** At concentrations of mCherry2B-Myosin VI (prepared in physiological KCl conditions, see text) too low for LOVDab_{ctrl} to recruit actin to the coverslip (- liposomes, bottom), addition of artificial liposomes containing 5% PI(4,5)P₂ sensitizes full-length myosin VI to Dab2^{pep} cargo, rescuing recruitment of actin to the surface (+ liposomes, top). **(B)** LOVDab was targeted to the Golgi apparatus using a KDEL receptor (KDELRL) with an R5Q/D193N double mutation to promote retention in the Golgi. White arrows highlight peripheral Golgi that exceptionally recruits myosin VI. Red arrows highlight portions of perinuclear Golgi stacks, some of which recruit myosin VI well (right arrow) whereas others have minor switching (left arrow). Scale bar: 5 μm. **(C)** Mean fluorescence in different areas of the cell described in **(B)**. Perinuclear Golgi fluorescence is the mean of all perinuclear stacks. Cytosolic fluorescence is anticorrelated with Golgi fluorescence, indicating depletion of myosin VI from the cytosol upon excitation of LOVDab. Nuclear fluorescence is static and indicates the noise level of the measurement. **(D)** The amount of myosin VI binding is not correlated with the amount of LOVDab on the different Golgi stacks, indicating other factors in the cell must alter the myosin VI:LOVDab affinity on the different membranes. **(E)** Model of myosin VI cargo integration in the cell. Alternative splicing biases myosin VI isoforms to different cargo proteins. Protein cargo recruits myosin VI isoforms to specific locations in the cell and determines its oligomeric state. Lipid, Ca²⁺, and other cargoes help myosin VI sense the environment, modulating its affinity for cargo, as seen in **(A-D)**.

Previous optogenetic efforts to control motors recruited constitutively active, truncated, forced-dimer motor proteins (52, 53). These designs provide an excellent means of laser-induced force-generation *in vivo*, and allow researchers to use members of each of the three classes of motor proteins. Our LOVDab differs in that it controls myosin VI through its native activation mechanism without any alterations to the myosin itself. Thus, our approach allows for direct tests of myosin VI function and control in cellular contexts. Additionally, since full-length myosin VI is auto-inhibited when not bound to cargo, our method couples recruitment and motor activity, preventing potential adverse effects on cytoskeletal systems when exogenous myosin VI is expressed *in vivo*.

Curiously, LOVDab places the residue F680 of Dab2^{pep} (res. 674-711) in the L546 position of LOV2, which Guntas *et al* observed to bind to a hydrophobic pocket in the non-FMN binding face of the β sheet of LOV2 (42). When optimizing their LOV2-based recruitment system, “improved Light Inducible Dimer (iLID)”, they noticed their optimal switch had a key phenylalanine residue that bound this pocket. Another parallel between our designs is a shortened photorecovery time. Their optimal construct exhibits a photorecovery time with $\tau \approx 22$ seconds relative to the wild type value of 80 seconds (36). Similarly, LOVDab exhibits a $\tau = 15$ seconds compared to LOVDab_{+ctrl} which has a mean $\tau = 47$ seconds, much closer to the recorded value for LOV2 406A/407A of 56 seconds (37). The relative difference in photorecovery times are evident from the rates of J α helix reversion in **Figure 1D**. Given the relative intolerance of LOVDab to deviations of F680 from this position, these results suggest that this hydrophobic pocket may be of general importance for caging peptides on the C-terminus of LOV2. Furthermore, a quickened dark state reversion time may highlight a key role of the L546 pocket in the overall conformational dynamics of the LOV2 domain. In any case, it seems that placing the Dab2^{pep} F680 in this pocket contributed to robust, light-dependent recruitment of myosin VI by LOVDab.

We demonstrated that LOVDab is capable of recruiting myosin VI in a light-dependent manner to mitochondrial, plasma, Golgi and peroxisomal membranes. Strictly speaking, however, binding of

myosin VI to Dab2^{pep} is not equivalent to activation. Activation requires the release of autoinhibition of full-length myosin VI, allowing it to interact with actin in either a transport (54) or anchoring role (18). In order to demonstrate activation of myosin VI *in vivo*, we showed that myosin VI recruited to peroxisomes via our engineered positive control construct LOVDab_{+ctrl} stalls these organelles. Similarly, upon activation with light, LOVDab reversibly recruits myosin VI at high concentrations in the cell, stalling peroxisomes. These findings indicate that upon recruitment by LOVDab, myosin VI is capable of interacting with actin strongly enough to decouple peroxisomal motion from the underlying microtubule-based processes that drive their native behavior (44). This anchoring strongly suggests that LOVDab is capable of activating myosin VI *in vivo*.

In order to verify activation of myosin VI directly, we developed a modified *in vitro* gliding filament assay in which myosin VI is recruited to the coverslip via LOVDab or LOVDab_{+ctrl}. Myosin VI purified under either high or low salt conditions is active when recruited through LOVDab_{+ctrl}. Moreover, at low concentrations of myosin VI, PI(4,5)P₂-containing liposomes enhance myosin VI's affinity for LOVDab_{+ctrl} (**Figure 6A**). Therefore, membranes enriched in PI(4,5)P₂ (55) would enhance myosin VI's effective affinity to its cargo protein Dab2^{pep}. This enhancement requires Ca²⁺, supporting recent studies suggesting that Ca²⁺ transients could play a role in regulating myosin VI function (23, 24). Moreover, when LOVDab is targeted to the Golgi apparatus, the amount of myosin VI bound does not scale with the amount of LOVDab on a given stack. Therefore, local differences modulate myosin VI's ability to bind these organelles. One cause for this difference could be in the concentrations of PI4P on the different stacks. Though myosin VI binds more strongly to PI(4,5)P₂, it also shows significant binding to PI4P (23), which is found on the Golgi (55). Another source of diversity is likely in Ca²⁺ transients, as secretory pathway organelles such as the Golgi are rich in Ca²⁺ (56). The cisternae in the Golgi have different luminal Ca²⁺ concentrations based on their developmental stage and can differentially release Ca²⁺ (57).

Together with our work, these data suggest that even within a cell, myosin VI integrates protein, lipid, and Ca^{2+} signals to perform its function in a site-specific manner.

Our findings therefore support a new model of myosin VI activation where, rather than having a given cargo for a given function, myosin VI integrates multiple signals on a given membrane to modulate binding and motor activation (**Figure 6E**). Regulation through splicing biases myosin VI to certain protein cargo adaptors (21). The protein cargos regulate the localization of myosin VI in the cell, and may also be the primary determinant of myosin VI's oligomeric state (4). Once on-site, secondary cargo signals such as lipids or Ca^{2+} may fine-tune myosin VI's activity at that location by increasing myosin VI's effective affinity for its substrate, driving local activation (24).

LOVDab is a unique optogenetic tool in that it activates full-length myosin VI without altering the myosin itself, allowing for direct inferences on myosin VI activity and regulation *in vitro* and *in vivo*. Our approach here could guide similar optogenetic efforts to control native systems with minimal perturbation. LOVDab exhibits robust, light-dependent myosin VI recruitment to many different organelles, and myosin binding to LOVDab propels actin filaments *in vitro*. Using LOVDab, we discovered evidence for a new activation model for human myosin VI, whereby myosin VI integrates its activation signals to obtain a site-specific mode of activation. How each of these cargos are integrated, and how this integration is reflected structurally in myosin VI, are outstanding questions. In particular, the relation between the oligomeric state of myosin VI and its site-specific roles in the cell, and how this is impacted by different cargos, is not entirely known. We believe that LOVDab will be an extremely useful tool for answering these and additional questions about how this important motor protein functions in the cell.

Materials and methods

Plasmid construction

For protein purification, plasmids encoding LOV2-Dab2^{pep} fusion proteins were engineered within a pHISparallel1 vector encoding a modular -/NdeI/-His6-Protein G-/AgeI/-EGFP-/EcoRI/-LOV2-Dab2^{pep}- /XhoI/- that allowed for facile swapping of domains via ligation. Full-length myosin VI was incorporated into baculovirus for expression in SF9 cells using the BestBac system by Expression Systems (Nevada, USA) according to the manufacturer's guidelines. An mCherry2B (58) with an N-terminal FLAG tag was first incorporated at the myosin VI N-terminus within the pET vector (see below) prior to insertion into a modified pBlueBac plasmid via SLiCE cloning due to the large sizes of the fragments (59). We fused mCherry2B to its to improve solubility, reduce dimerization, and increase fluorescence of the protein over mCherry (58).

For live cell imaging, LOV2-Dab2^{pep} plasmid constructs were created for transfection using ligations from a modular pEGFP vector containing the general sequence -/NheI/-membrane tag-/AgeI/-FP-/EcoRI/-LOV2-Dab2^{pep}-/BamHI/- Membrane tags include: for mitochondria, the mitochondrial outer membrane targeting sequence of yeast Tom70^{helix} (res. 1-40); for the plasma membrane, full length golden hamster Beta-2-Adrenergic Receptor (B2AR); for the Golgi Apparatus, full-length human KDEL receptor containing a R5Q/D193N double mutation to improve retention in the Golgi (60, 61); and for peroxisomes, the N-terminal targeting sequence of human Pex3 (res. 1-42) (Pex3^{MTD}) with a (GGG)x3 linker (46, 62). Tom70^{helix} and B2AR were generous gifts from M. Glotzer. KDEL and Pex3^{MTD} were constructed from gBlocks ordered from Integrated DNA Technologies (Coralville, IA). Full-length human myosin VI, isoform 1 (a generous gift from M. Zhang) was expressed in their modified pET vector containing a sequence encoding -/NheI/-FP-/XhoI/-myosin VI-/NotI/-. Fluorescent proteins were exchanged via ligation.

Protein purification

LOV2-containing constructs were purified as described previously (36). Briefly, constructs were expressed in *E. coli* with an (His)₆-Protein G fusion to their N-terminus, followed by a TEV protease restriction site. After elution from the Ni-NTA column, proteins were dialyzed against a TEV protease cleavage buffer (50 mM Tris, 1 mM EDTA, 1 mM DTT, pH = 8.0) before or during the cleavage reaction. EDTA and DTT were removed by dialysis prior to passing the cleaved protein through a regenerated Ni-NTA column. Proteins were then concentrated and ran on a size exclusion column (HiPrep 16/60 S-100 HR, GE Healthcare Life Sciences) that was equilibrated in the relevant assay buffer.

Full-length human myosin VI with an N-terminal FLAG-mCherry2B fusion was incorporated into baculovirus as discussed above. SF9 cells were infected at a 1:1 MOI and proteins were harvested from SF9 cells 58-72 hours post infection. The cells were re-suspended in Lysis buffer (see below for recipes) containing 2 mM ATP, and a cocktail of protease inhibitors including 1mM phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride (PMSF) and 10μg/mL each of: aprotinin, leupeptin, chymostatin, and pepstatin A. The cells were lysed by douncing and nutated for 40 minutes at 4°C to allow the myosin VI to diffuse out of the cells. The lysate was spun at 14,000 rpm in a Legend X1R centrifuge (F15S-8x50c rotor, Thermo Scientific) and a variable amount of anti-FLAG resin (M2, Sigma) added to the supernatant. After incubation, the resin was spun out of suspension at 900xg in a 5810R centrifuge (A-4-81 rotor, Eppendorf) and washed with wash buffer (see below) containing 3 mM ATP, a variable amount of Calmodulin, and protease inhibitors. Resin was repelleted using the same procedure and re-suspended in wash buffer before transferred to a drip column where the resin was further washed. Resin was then incubated with elution buffer (wash buffer + 0.2 mg/mL FLAG peptide) for 1 hour. Protein was eluted and dialyzed against wash buffer containing no ATP or protease inhibitors. In the low salt preps (see text) the lysis buffer was 50 mM Tris-HCl, 150 mM KCl, 0.5 mM DTT, and 0.1% Triton X-100, pH = 7.7. The wash buffer was 20 mM imidazole, 150 mM KCl, 5 mM MgCl₂, 1 mM EDTA, and 1 mM EGTA, and 0.5 mM DTT, pH = 7.5. The

storage/dialysis buffer was either AB: 25mM imidazole, 25 mM KCl, 4 mM Mg_2Cl_2 , 1mM EGTA, 2mM DTT, pH = 7.5; or KMg25: 10 mM MOPS, 25 mM KCl, 1 mM EGTA, 1 mM $MgCl_2$, and 1 mM DTT, pH = 7.0. For the high salt prep, the lysis buffer was 50 mM Tris-HCl, 150 mM KCl, 0.5 mM EDTA, 1 mM EGTA, 4 mM $MgCl_2$, 0.5 mM DTT, and 0.1% Triton X-100, pH = 7.3, and the final dialysis/assay buffer was 50mM Tris-HCl, 150 mM KCl, 1 mM EDTA, 1mM EGTA, 5 mM $MgCl_2$, and 0.5 mM DTT (1 mM DTT for final dialysis), pH = 7.3. For both preps, buffers were chilled to 0-4°C before use. pH values were set at room temperature.

Protein purity was assessed using SDS-PAGE. In the case of LOV2-containing constructs, protein quality was further assessed using UV-Vis spectroscopy to measure the FMN photorecovery rate and circular dichroism (CD) (see below) to measure the fractional change in helicity of the protein, as done previously in our lab (36). The UV-Vis spectroscopy was carried out on an Olis HP 8452 Diode Array Spectrophotometer (Bogart, GA). The recovery of FMN absorbance at 448 nm was fit to a single exponential using MATLAB to obtain the FMN dark state recovery time constant, τ_{FMN} . Circular dichroism (CD) was performed on a Jasco 715 spectrophotometer and a 40W white LED lamp (BT DWNLT A, TheLEDLight.com) was used to excite the LOV2 domain in the cuvette for ≥ 12 seconds for photo excitation. The refolding traces at 222 nm were fit to a single exponential using MATLAB and the fractional change in helicity in the protein as $\delta_{222} = (CD_{222,dark} - CD_{222,light}) / CD_{222,dark}$.

Gliding filament assay

Nitrocellulose-coated coverslips were first coated in anti-GFP antibody (clone 3E6 MP Biomedicals, California, USA) at 0.25 $\mu g/mL$ in PBS. Following this, coverslips were blocked using 1 mg/mL BSA (ELISA grade, EMD Millipore) and the antibody saturated using EGFP-LOV2-Dab2^{pep} at 1 μM . After this, the slide was washed using KMg25 and a solution containing myosin VI, F-actin, and an oxygen scavenging system (0.45% glucose (w/v) 0.5% (v/v) BME, 432 $\mu g/mL$ glucose oxidase, and 72 $\mu g/mL$ catalase) (63) was perfused. Slides were then imaged using an x100, 1.65 NA objective (Olympus) on a custom-built total

internal reflection microscope employing an EMCCD camera (iXon; Andor Technologies). This microscope was controlled with the open source Micro-Manager program (www.micro-manager.org). For assays involving lipid cargo, artificial liposomes from Echelon Biosciences (Utah, USA) containing 5% of the signaling lipid PI(4,5)P₂ were added to the assay buffer. The liposomes had no effect on myosin VI activity if Ca²⁺ was not present at a total concentration of at least 1.5 mM (corresponding to a free Ca²⁺ concentration of approximately 25 μM). The necessity of Ca²⁺ matches previous results but this concentration is approximately tenfold lower than previously used for assessing the interaction of lipids with the myosin VI tail domain (23).

Gliding filament velocities were calculated from at least 3 videos from at least 2 independent preparations of myosin VI, using at least 10 filaments/video and at least 10 frames/filament. MTrackJ was used to generate the actin tracks (64). Filaments showing smooth and continuous movement were tracked. To quantify the length of actin on the coverslip, images were background subtracted and thresholded to create binary images of the actin that were then skeletonized using the ImageJ function. The sum of pixels in the images were converted to length using the pixel calibration and used as the estimate for the length of actin on the coverslip.

Live cell assays

HeLa cells were passaged in Dulbecco's modified Eagle medium (DMEM) from Corning (New York, USA) supplemented with 10% heat-inactivated FBS (Sigma, Missouri, USA) and 1x HyClone pen-strep-L-glut (GE Healthcare Life Sciences, Utah, USA). One day prior to transfection, cells were split onto plasma cleaned glass coverslips. Coverslips that were 80-95% confluent were washed into DMEM media lacking supplements 10-20 minutes prior to transfection. Cells were co-transfected with a combination of plasmids containing genes for either an FP-LOV2-Dab2^{pep} construct fused to a gene encoding an organelle-targeting transmembrane protein at its 5' end or a gene encoding full-length human myosin VI with either EGFP or mCherry2B (see above) at its N-terminus using Lipofectamine 2000 (Life

Technologies, Illinois, USA), according to the manufacturer's guidelines. Cells were imaged 18-24 hours post-transfection. Confocal images were taken using a 63×, 1.4 numerical aperture (NA) objective on an Axiovert 200M microscope (Zeiss) with a spinning disk confocal (CSU10, Yokogawa) and an electron-multiplying charge-coupled device (EMCCD) camera (Cascade 512B, Photometrics). The microscope was controlled using MetaMorph (Molecular Devices). TIRF images (peroxisome experiments) were taken using the microscope used in the gliding filament assay. Videos were background subtracted using either the rolling ball or parabolic algorithms in ImageJ (65). Quantified pixel values are plotted post-background subtraction to match images shown.

Author Contributions

ARF, TRS and RSR designed research; ARF performed research and analyzed data, ARF, TRS and RSR wrote the manuscript.

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SUPPORTING INFORMATION

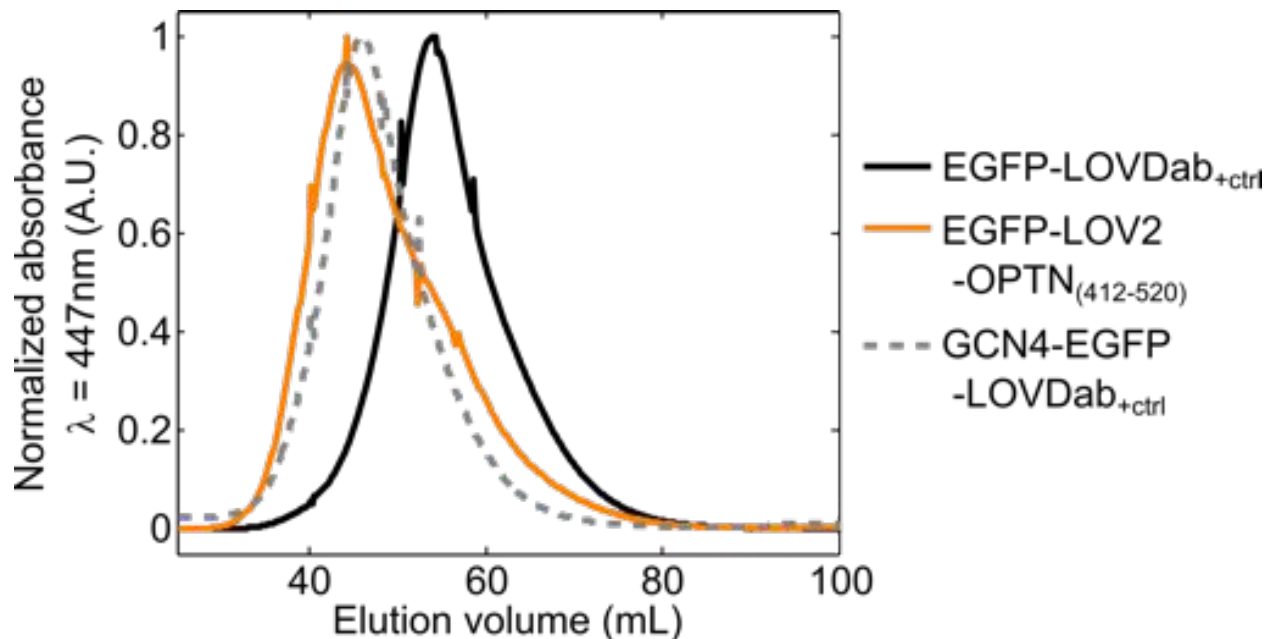


Figure 5-figure supplement 1. EGFP-LOV2 fused to the myosin VI-binding portion of Optineurin migrates as a dimer by size exclusion chromatography. Optineurin (OPTN) has previously been shown to activate full-length porcine myosin VI at much lower concentrations than a truncated portion of Dab2 containing Dab2^{pep} (4). We therefore wanted to test whether the putative myosin VI binding site on OPTN (res. 412-520) could activate full-length human myosin VI in our gliding filament assay. Comparison to the elution trace of EGFP-LOVDab_{+ctrl} dimerized via a GCN4 leucine zipper, OPTN₍₄₂₁₋₅₂₀₎ fused to the C-terminus of EGFP-LOV2 migrates as a dimer in our size exclusion column. This is consistent with previous reports showing OPTN is a dimer (4) and the prediction that these residues in OPTN form a coiled-coil (14, 15). However, EGFP-LOV2-OPTN₍₄₁₂₋₅₂₀₎ did not recruit actin to the surface of our gliding filament assay, seemingly inconsistent with the study showing activation of porcine myosin VI via optineurin. (4). Though OPTN binding to the myosin VI tail was shown to be large insert independent (19), one difference between porcine myosin VI and our human full length construct is that our construct contains the large insert of isoform 1. Since doing this experiment, a group of researchers have shown that myosin VI binds OPTN only after it has been ubiquitinated (20), and have solved the structure of a molecular “switch” region in the tail domain involving the long insert that occludes the OPTN binding site (21). Our results therefor support their findings.

VIDEOS

Video 1. Spot-specific recruitment of myosin VI to mitochondria. Two concatenated videos showing subcellular recruitment of myosin VI to mitochondria in cell depicted in **Figure 2A**. Scale bar: 5 μm ; time stamp: min:sec.

Video 2. Light-dependent recruitment of myosin VI to plasma membrane. Plasma membrane is in focus near cell edge (compare to **Figure 2D,E**). As cell is illuminated, myosin VI appears to spread from the middle of the cell outwards, indicating binding to LOVDab on plasma membrane. Scale bar: 10 μm .

Video 3. Myosin VI is recruited to peroxisomes in a light-dependent manner. Sequential movies showing light-dependent recruitment of myosin VI to peroxisomes in cell shown in **Figure 4A**, with subsequent release of myosin VI in the dark. Scale bar: 5 μm . Time resets to 0 sec at the start of each video.

Video 4. Recruitment of myosin VI to peroxisomes causes them to stall. As light is applied to the cell (**Figure 4C**), peroxisome movements slow. When the cell is returned to the dark, the peroxisomes begin to move freely again. In the upper right, tubules are visible that occur in some cells overexpressing peroxisome proteins. Tubules form independently of Dab2^{pep}. Scale bar: 5 μm . Time stamp is min:sec and resets to zero at the start of each movie; cell was left in the dark three minutes prior to final movie.

Video 5. Myosin VI bound to LOVDab_{+ctrl} propels filaments in vivo. Gliding filament assay depicted in **Figure 5A** with LOVDab_{+ctrl}. Video shows actin filaments propelled by myosin VI prepared in low salt, indicating activation of myosin VI motor activity by LOVDab_{+ctrl}. Scale bar: 5 μm ; time stamp: min:sec.

Video 6. Light-dependent recruitment of actin to coverslip. Gliding filament assay depicted in **Figure 5A** with LOVDab shows that once light is applied to the slide, actin filaments begin to come down to the surface, indicating binding. However, actin filaments do not unbind from the coverslip when the slide is returned to the dark. This differs from our *in vivo* experiments where myosin VI rapidly unbinds from the membrane once the cell is returned to the dark (see **Figures 2A-C, 4B; Videos 1-3**). Scale bar: 5 μ m; time stamp: min:sec.

Video 7. Light-dependent recruitment of myosin VI to the Golgi apparatus. LOVDab targeted to Golgi apparatus via KDEL receptor (R5Q/D193N) rapidly recruits myosin VI in the light and releases it in the dark. Comparison to LOVDab channel (**Figure 6B-D**) shows that myosin VI binding is not proportional to the amount of LOVDab on each Golgi stack. Scale bar: 5 μ m; time stamp: min:sec.

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