Actomyosin activity-dependent apical targeting of Rab11 vesicles

reinforces apical constriction

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Running title:

Feedback via Rab11 reinforces apical constriction

Abstract:

During tissue morphogenesis, cell shape changes resulting from cell-generated forces often require active regulation of intracellular trafficking. How mechanical stimuli influence intracellular trafficking and how such regulation impacts tissue mechanics are not fully understood. In this study, we identify an actomyosin dependent mechanism involving Rab11-mediated trafficking in regulating apical constriction in the *Drosophila* embryo. During *Drosophila* mesoderm invagination, apical actin and Myosin II (actomyosin) contractility induces apical accumulation of Rab11-marked vesicle-like structures ("Rab11 vesicles") by promoting a directional bias in dynein mediated vesicle transport. At the apical domain, Rab11 vesicles are enriched near the adherens junctions (AJs). The apical accumulation of Rab11 vesicles is essential to prevent fragmented apical AJs, breaks in the supracellular actomyosin network and a reduction in the apical constriction rate. This Rab11 function is separate from its role in promoting apical Myosin II accumulation. These findings suggest a feedback mechanism between actomyosin activity and Rab11-mediated intracellular trafficking that regulates the force generation machinery during tissue folding.

Introduction:

Cell-generated mechanical forces play a central role in tissue morphogenesis. Genetically prescribed cellular forces can drive cell shape change and cell motion as a direct physical outcome, thereby mediating spatially and temporally defined tissue deformation (Collinet and Lecuit, 2021; Gilmour et al., 2017). In addition, mechanical forces can impact morphogenesis by triggering various cellular activities ranging from cytoskeleton reorganization to changes in gene expression (Fletcher and Mullins, 2010; Kirby and Lammerding, 2016; Sun and Irvine, 2016; Uhler and Shivashankar, 2017). Such active processes allow cells and tissues to respond to mechanical inputs adaptively and thereby increase the robustness of tissue morphogenesis. However, our knowledge of the active response of cells to mechanical forces remains limited.

In this work, we used mesoderm invagination during *Drosophila* gastrulation as a model to study how cells respond to contractile forces generated by actomyosin networks. Immediately before gastrulation, *Drosophila* embryos undergo an atypical cleavage called cellularization, during which peripherally localized syncytial nuclei are partitioned into a monolayer of epithelial cells (Mazumdar and Mazumdar, 2002). Mesoderm invagination is initiated by apical constriction resulted from graded apical activation of actomyosin in a 12-cell wide region in the ventrally localized mesodermal primordium (Heer et al., 2017; Leptin and Grunewald, 1990; Lim et al., 2017; Sweeton et al., 1991). These cells subsequently invaginate as the epithelium bends inwards, resulting in the formation of a furrow on the

ventral side of the embryo. The upstream signaling pathway that activates apical constriction

has been well characterized (reviewed in Gheisari et al., 2020; Gilmour et al., 2017; Martin,

2020). In response to the dorsal-ventral patterning information, the prospective mesodermal

cells express two transcription factors, Twist and Snail, which in turn trigger the apical

recruitment and activation of RhoGEF2 through GPCR signaling (Jha et al., 2018; Kerridge

et al., 2016; Manning et al., 2013). RhoGEF2 further activates the small GTPase Rho1 (the

Drosophila homologue of RhoA) and leads to the activation of Myosin II through Rho1's

effector Rho-associated protein kinase (Rok). Activated Myosin II forms an supracellular

actomyosin network at the apical cortex that is interconnected across the tissue through apical

adherens junctions (AJs) (Amano et al., 1996; Dawes-Hoang et al., 2005; Kimura et al.,

1996; Mason et al., 2013; Nikolaidou and Barrett, 2004; Vasquez et al., 2014; Winter et al.,

2001). Within individual cells, the contractions of apical actomyosin network pull AJ sites

inwards, causing progressive apical cell area reduction (Martin and Goldstein, 2014; Martin

et al., 2009; Martin et al., 2010; Mason et al., 2013).

Apical constriction can drive reorganization from subcellular to tissue levels through both

active and passive means. Apical constriction drives a tissue-scale viscous flow at the tissue

interior (He et al., 2014). Certain organelles, such as the nucleus, appear to move passively

with the flow by advection (Gelbart et al., 2012). Other subcellular structures, in contrast,

undergo active reorganization in response to apical forces. For examples, apical actomyosin

contractility has been shown to mediate apical shift and stabilization of the AJs and promote

the formation of a medioapically-localized noncentrosomal microtubule-organization center

(Weng and Wieschaus, 2016; Ko et al., 2019). It remains unclear whether other subcellular

structures also undergo active remodeling in response to apical constriction.

Rab11, a small GTPase of the Rab family, is a well-established marker for recycling

endosomes (Welz et al., 2014). Like typical small GTPases, Rab11 switches between active

and inactive states depending on the phosphorylation state of its bound guanine nucleotide. In

addition to recycling endosomes, Rab11 has also been reported to localize to the trans-Golgi

network (TGN) and post-Golgi vesicles. It functions in both exocytic and endocytic recycling

pathways by regulating vesicular transport from TGN and recycling endosomes to the plasma

membrane (Benli et al., 1996; Chen et al., 1998; Jedd et al., 1997; Pelissier et al., 2003;

Takahashi et al., 2012; Ullrich et al., 1996; Welz et al., 2014). Rab11 regulates multiple

vesicular trafficking steps, including vesicle formation, transport and tethering through its

various downstream effectors. For example, Rab11 directly interacts with the actin motor

Myosin V (Lapierre et al., 2001; Lipatova et al., 2008). It can also form complexes with

microtubule motors dynein and kinesins through adaptor proteins (Welz et al., 2014). These

interactions allow Rab11 vesicles to be transported along both actin and microtubule

filaments (Horgan et al., 2010; Schonteich et al., 2008; Schuh, 2011; Wang et al., 2008).

Here, we present evidence that apical actomyosin contractility induces biased transport of

Rab11-positive vesicles towards the cell apex in a dynein- and microtubule-dependent

manner. At the apical side, Rab11 vesicles are enriched at the vicinity of AJs. Eliminating

these vesicles through acute inactivation of Rab11 results in defects in AJ organization and

breaks in the supracellular actomyosin network. Our findings reveal an intimate interplay

between apical actomyosin contractions and Rab11-mediated vesicle trafficking that serves as

a feedback mechanism to reinforce the structural integrity of the apical actomyosin network.

Results:

Rab11 accumulates apically in the constricting cells during ventral furrow formation

In a search for potential changes in subcellular organization induced by apical actomyosin

contractions, we found that Rab11-labeled compartments undergo prominent reorganization

during apical constriction (Figure 1A-E; Figure S1). Live imaging of embryos expressing

endogenously YFP-tagged Rab11 and image segmentation (Berg et al., 2019; Methods)

revealed two main types of Rab11-positive structures (Figure 1F, G; Figure S1B): (1) One or

a few large perinuclear compartments residing at the apical side of each nucleus (hereafter

"perinuclear Rab11 compartment"). These compartments likely represented the trafficking

intermediate described in a previous study based on similarities in morphology and

localization (Pelissier et al., 2003). And (2) Small punctate structures. These puncta were less

than 1 μm in diameter and appeared as diffraction limited spots. Based on previous literature,

these Rab11 puncta could be small transport vesicles, recycling endosomes and/or other type

of transport carrier (Welz et al., 2014) ("Rab11 vesicles" herein). Before gastrulation, Rab11

vesicles were present near the basal side of the perinuclear Rab11 compartments (Figure 1C,

0 min; Figure 1F, G, 0 min). As the cells constricted apically, perinuclear Rab11

compartments moved basally following the basal movement of the nuclei (Figure 1C, blue

outlines, 9 min; Figure 1F, G, 7 min). Meanwhile, Rab11 vesicles appeared near the cell

apices and accumulated apically (Figure 1C-G). The difference in Rab11 vesicle distribution

before and after apical constriction was further confirmed by quantification of Rab11 vesicle

intensities at various apicobasal positions (Figure 1H; Methods). The Rab11 vesicles were

highly dynamic, yet at any given time the majority accumulated either adjacent to or slightly

basal to the apical actomyosin network (Figure 1E). No apical accumulation of Rab11

vesicles was observed in the surrounding ectodermal cells that did not undergo apical

constriction (Figure 1C; Figure S1A). In addition, we did not observe obvious apical

enrichment in the constricting cells for the other organelles we examined (Figure S1C-H).

The apical enrichment of Rab11 vesicles could not be readily explained by cytoplasmic

advection and suggests the involvement of active regulation.

Apical accumulation of Rab11 vesicles depends on apical actomyosin network but does

not require intact adherens junctions or apical shrinking

The spatiotemporal correlation between the apical Myosin II activation and the apical

accumulation of Rab11 vesicles prompted us to examine the relationship between the two

processes. To test whether apical activation of Myosin II is required for apical accumulation

of Rab11 vesicles, we injected embryos with the Rok inhibitor Y-27632 (Narumiya et al.,

2000). Injection of Y-27632 at the end of cellularization completely prevented apical Myosin

II activation and abolished apical Rab11 vesicle accumulation (Figure 2A). Next, we adapted

a previously described on-stage injection protocol (Coravos and Martin, 2016) to test the

effect of Y-27632 injection on Rab11 vesicles after they accumulated apically. After drug

injection, Myosin II immediately (< 1 min) dissociated from the apical cortex (Figure 2B,

B'). About 4 minutes after injection, Rab11 vesicles were largely depleted from the apical

surface (Figure 2B). The morphology of perinuclear Rab11 compartments was not obviously

affected by Y-27632 injection (Figure 2B, 3 – 6 μm). Consistent with the Y-27632 treatment,

knockdown of the myosin heavy chain Zipper also inhibited apical Rab11 vesicle

accumulation (Figure 2C). Together, these observations indicate that the induction and

maintenance of apical accumulation of Rab11 vesicles depends on the recruitment and/or

activation of apical Myosin II. In further support of this notion, we found that an expansion

of the actomyosin activation domain in ventralized *Spn27A* mutant embryos resulted in a

similar expansion of the region with apical accumulation of Rab11 vesicles (Figure 2D;

Ligoxygakis et al., 2003).

Since cortical actin network is required for Myosin II to generate contractile forces (Martin et

al., 2009), we asked whether apical Rab11 vesicle accumulation depends on F-actin. To this

end, we injected embryos with cytochalasin D (cytoD) to acutely disrupt actin network

during apical constriction. Upon cytoD injection, the apical side of the constricted cell

immediately relaxed, suggesting a rapid loss of myosin contractility (Figure 3A; Video 1).

Interestingly, Myosin II remained enriched apically in the first four minutes after injection

(Figure 3A). In contrast, apical Rab11 vesicles quickly diminished after injection, similar to

what we observed in Y-27632 injected embryos (Figure 3B). This result indicates that the

accumulation of Myosin II at the apical domain is not sufficient to induce apical Rab11

vesicle accumulation without F-actin. Together, our observations so far suggest that an intact,

contractile apical actomyosin network is critical for apical accumulation of Rab11 vesicles.

During ventral furrow formation, contractile forces generated by apical actomyosin network

result in progressive apical shrinking in the presumptive mesoderm and a buildup of apical

tension across the constriction domain, both require apical AJs (Martin et al., 2009; Martin et

al., 2010; Mason et al., 2013). We therefore asked whether apical shrinking or the presence of

intact AJs is required for apical accumulation of Rab11 vesicles. We found that knockdown of

α-Catenin, a core component of AJ complex, did not prevent Rab11 vesicle accumulation,

although this treatment impaired the connection between the actomyosin network and the cell

membrane, causing Myosin II to coalesce into clustered spots at the center of the medioapical

domain (Martin et al., 2010; Figure 3C). In addition, we found that induction of apical

actomyosin contractility in dorsal cells without accompanying apical shrinking through Fog

overexpression (Morize et al., 1998; Methods) is sufficient to induce apical accumulation of

Rab11 vesicles (Figure 4A-C). Finally, we found that apical shrinking during dorsal fold

formation, a Myosin II-independent tissue folding process (Wang et al., 2012), did not induce

apical accumulation of Rab11 vesicles (Figure 4D, E). Taken together, these results indicate

that the apical accumulation of Rab11 vesicles, which we have shown requires apical

contractile actomyosin network, does not depend on mesodermal cell fate, apical shrinking or

integration of tensile forces across the tissue.

Rab11 vesicles undergo biased transport towards the cell apex during apical

constriction

We next examined how Rab11 vesicles accumulate at the apical surface during apical

constriction. Apical endocytosis has been shown to play an important role in apical

constriction as the apical membrane shrinks over time (Lee and Harland, 2010; Mateus et al.,

2011; Miao et al., 2019). Rab11 vesicles may be derived from endocytosis of apical

membranes. However, when we chased endocytosed cell membrane using FM4-64, a

lipophilic dye (Methods), we barely detected any colocalization between FM4-64 positive

vesicles and Rab11 vesicles, although a majority of FM4-64 positive vesicles colocalized

with Rab5-marked early endosomes (Figure S2A-C, Video 2). Consistent with this

observation, we found that blocking endocytosis using the temperature sensitive mutant of

shibire (*shi^{ts}*), the *Drosophila* homolog of dynamin (van der Bliek and Meyerowrtz, 1991),

did not prevent apical accumulation of Rab11 vesicles (Figure S2D, E). Together, these

results indicate that endocytosed apical membrane is not the major source of apical Rab11

vesicles.

An intriguing possibility is that the apical Rab11 vesicles are supplied from the more basal

side of the cell by directional transport. To capture the rapid movement of Rab11 vesicles in

the apical-basal direction, we focused on the cells located near the medial-lateral boundaries

of the constricting domain. These cells are tilted towards the ventral midline at the late stage

of apical constriction, making it possible to follow the apical-basal movement of Rab11

vesicles by fast imaging of a single focal plane (Figure 5A). We always selected focal planes

where myosin could be observed at the medial side of the cells to ensure that the cells we

analyzed were accumulating myosin apically (Figure 5B). Using this approach, we observed

constant transport of Rab11 vesicles in the axial direction of the cells (Figure 5B). There were

both apically and basally directed movements, with a bias towards the apical direction.

Vesicle tracking revealed that the apically directed movement accounted for approximately

three quarters of the total transport events (74.5% ± 5.7%; n = 255 trajectories from 3

embryos, Figure 5C, D, G). Other than the bias in directionality, there was no significant

difference in other aspects of the trajectories between apical and basal transport, including the

average velocity, the duration and the travel distance of the tractable trajectories (Figure 5E).

To further validate the results, we imaged embryos expressing a membrane marker and

mCherry-Rab11 (overexpression), which allowed us to quantify transport events only in cells

undergoing apical constriction (Figure 5F, Methods). There was no significant difference

between the results from the two analyses (Figure 5G). Note that due to our imaging

configuration, our analysis of vesicle transport was limited to the apical portion of the cells

(typically above the nuclei) that bent over towards the midline. It is unclear whether Rab11

vesicle transport also exists at the more basal region of the cell. Taken together, our results

demonstrate that Rab11 vesicles undergo biased transport to the cell apex in cells with active

apical actomyosin contractions. This biased transport may account for the apical enrichment

of Rab11 vesicles in these cells.

The apical-basal transport of Rab11 vesicles depends on microtubules and dynein

Because the saltatory and directional movement of Rab11 vesicles was reminiscent of

microtubule-dependent transport, we asked whether the transport of Rab11 vesicles is

mediated by microtubules. By two-color imaging with mCherry-Rab11 and the microtubule

marker Jupiter-GFP (Karpova et al., 2006), we found that most Rab11 vesicles were

associated with microtubules or microtubule bundles as they moved apically or basally

(Figure 6A; Video 3). Furthermore, on-stage injection of colchicine, a microtubule

depolymerization drug, in gastrulating embryos resulted in a rapid (less than a minute) loss of

microtubules and a sharp reduction in the directional transport events. The remaining

transport events only occurred in regions with residual microtubules (Figure 6B; Video 3).

Together, these results demonstrate that the apical-basal transport of Rab11 vesicles is

microtubule dependent.

Next, we examined the impact of colchicine injection on the apical accumulation of Rab11

vesicles. In line with the observed role of microtubules in Rab11 vesicle transport, injection

of embryos at late cellularization (N = 5 embryos) resulted in a significant reduction in the

apical accumulation of Rab11 vesicles compared to control embryos (N = 4 embryos) (Figure

6C-F). The activation of apical Myosin II was normal in the injected embryos, consistent

with a recent report (Ko et al., 2019). Unexpectedly, injection of colchicine at or after the

onset of gastrulation (N = 5 embryos) resulted in a wider range of phenotypes, and on

average there was no significant reduction in the number of apically enriched Rab11 vesicles

(Figure 6C-F). We speculate that disruption of microtubules not only reduces the apical-basal

transport of Rab11 vesicles but also inhibits the turnover of the vesicles that are already

accumulated apically. This combined effect may obscure the effect of loss of microtubules

after the onset of gastrulation.

Finally, we tested the role of microtubule motor dynein on the transport of Rab11 vesicles.

We found that injection of antibody against the dynein intermediate chain (DIC) (Yi et al.,

2011) during apical constriction resulted in a rapid reduction of vesicle transport events in

both apical and basal directions, whereas injection of a control GST antibody had no effect

(Figure 6G, Video 4). Furthermore, the apical accumulation of Rab11 vesicles was greatly

reduced in dynein antibody-injected embryos but not in the control antibody-injected

embryos (Figure 6H). We were not able to perform similar test on the role of kinesin motors

due to a lack of functional reagents. However, the pronounced impact of dynein inhibition on

the transport and apical accumulation of Rab11 vesicles suggests that dynein plays a

predominant role in the apical-basal transport of Rab11 vesicles during apical constriction.

The observation that inhibiting dynein abolishes both apical and basal transport of Rab11

vesicles may reflect the bidirectional nature of the microtubule populations in the space

between cell apices and nuclei during apical constriction (Ko et al., 2019).

The apical bias of Rab11 vesicle transport is rapidly abolished upon acute inhibition of

apical actomyosin contractility

Because the apical enrichment of Rab11 vesicles depends on actomyosin activity, we asked

whether the biased basal-to-apical transport of Rab11 vesicles also depends on actomyosin

activity. To address this question, we used a recently developed optogenetic tool to acutely

inhibit actomyosin activity through blue light-induced recruitment of a dominant negative

form of Rho1 (Rho1DN) to the plasma membrane ("Opto-Rho1DN", Figure 7A; Guo et al.,

2021). Using the same imaging configuration as shown in Figure 5A, we examined the

immediate impact of actomyosin inhibition on the transport of Rab11 vesicles. As expected,

blue light stimulation resulted in rapid loss of apical Myosin II (within ~30 seconds; Figure

7B). The loss of apical Myosin II at this stage of ventral furrow formation did not cause

furrow relaxation or immediate changes in cell orientation. Strikingly, blue light stimulation

resulted in a rapid change in the transport of Rab11 vesicles. Within the first 23 seconds after

stimulation, the proportion of apical transport was 64.6% (64.6% ± 4.1%; n = 575 trajectories

from 3 embryos), lower than that in the wildtype controls (Figure 7C). This proportion

dropped to close to 50% (52.3% ± 2.0%; n = 645 trajectories from 3 embryos) in the next 23-

second time window, indicating that the directional bias was completely abolished (Figure

7C). Notably, the loss of directional bias was caused by an increase in the basal transport

events instead of a decrease in the apical transport events (Figure 7D, E). Other aspects of the

transport are comparable between the two time windows after stimulation (Figure 7F).

Therefore, the main effect of actomyosin inhibition on Rab11 vesicle transport is to increase

the basal transport events, which results in loss of apical bias of the transport.

The observation that the loss of transport bias upon actomyosin inactivation is caused by an

increase in the basal transport rather than a reduction in the apical transport suggests that the

effect is not due to a general disruption of the microtubule organization. In line with this

prediction, we did not observe obvious changes in the density or orientation of microtubules

within the first two-minute window after Opto-Rho1DN stimulation (Figure 7G, H). This

result is consistent with the previous report that medioapical MTOC only became obviously

affected a few minutes after cytoD injection (Ko et al., 2019). Together, these results suggest

that apical actomyosin network could impact the directionality of Rab11 vesicle transport

partially independent of its role in organizing microtubules in the constricting cells (Ko et al.,

2019).

Rab11 reinforces apical AJs during apical constriction

We next sought to determine the function of apically accumulated Rab11 vesicles. Single

plane fast imaging analysis revealed that Rab11 vesicles remained very dynamic after they

arrived at the cell apices, with a substantial fraction moving towards apical AJs (Figure 8A;

Video 5). The enrichment of Rab11 vesicles near AJs was particularly obvious during the

early stage of apical constriction when apical AJs had not yet formed a continuous belt and

appeared as discrete foci (Figure 8A). Intensity analysis of E-cadherin-GFP and Rab11-

mCherry along cell boundaries revealed a positive correlation between the two intensity

profiles (Figure 8B-D; Methods). As a control, similar analysis of Rab11 and a general

membrane marker P4M, a PI(4)P binding protein, showed no significant correlation (Figure

8B-D).

It remains unclear whether the targeting of Rab11 vesicles to the cell periphery is followed by

fusion of vesicles with the plasma membrane, as demonstrated in some other systems

(Grünfelder et al., 2003; Takahashi et al., 2012). We were not able to detect a clear, stable

plasma membrane-associated signal for YFP-Rab11. Interestingly, a constitutively active

form of Rab11 (Rab11CA), which is locked in its GTP-bound state, showed a prominent cell

membrane localization in addition to the vesicle form (Figure S3A, B). As another evidence

supporting the exocytic origin of the Rab11 vesicles, we found that injection of embryos with

Brefeldin A (BFA), an Arf GEF inhibitor commonly used to block trafficking out of ER-

Golgi system (Chardin and McCormick, 1999), resulted in rapid reduction of apical Rab11

vesicles and formation of large Rab11 aggregates between the cell apex and the nucleus

(Figure S3C).

The enrichment of Rab11 vesicles near the apical AJs prompted us to ask whether Rab11

vesicles regulate the structure and function of AJs. To address this question, we inhibited

Rab11 activity by injecting embryos with purified dominant negative Rab11 mutant proteins

(Rab11DN), an approach previously used to reveal the function of Rab11 in cellularization

(Pelissier et al., 2003). Rab11DN blocks the activation of endogenous Rab11 by binding to

and sequestering the guanine nucleotide exchange factors (GEFs) for Rab11 (Ullrich et al.,

1996). Importantly, the injection approach allowed stage-specific inhibition of Rab11, which

was critical for bypassing the requirement for Rab11 in pre-gastrulation stages (Pelissier et

al., 2003; Riggs et al., 2003; Tiwari and Roy, 2008). Injection of Rab11DN at mid/late

cellularization completely prevented the accumulation of apical Rab11 vesicles during apical

constriction (N = 5/5); whereas injection of Rab11DN close to the onset of apical constriction

either eliminated apically accumulated Rab11 vesicles (in 4.4 ± 1.3 min, N = 24/31; Figure

8E; Video 6) or decreased their number (N = 7/31). These results suggest that active Rab11 is

critical for both initiation and maintenance of apical accumulation of Rab11 vesicles. In

contrast, the size and morphology of perinuclear Rab11 compartments were not immediately

affected by injection (Figure 8E, green arrows). Injection of Rab11DN did not obviously

affect the formation or morphology of apical Rab35 tubules, which have been previously

implicated in facilitating endocytic membrane uptake from the apical domain during apical

constriction (Jewett et al., 2017; Miao et al., 2019; Figure S4). Strikingly, injection of

Rab11DN has a notable impact on the organization of apical AJs visualized by E-cadherin-

GFP. In the control GST-injected embryos, apical AJs became more continuous and belt-like

6 minutes into apical constriction. In contrast, Rab11DN-injected embryos showed more

fragmented apical AJs at comparable stage (Figure 8F). No difference was observed between

the control and Rab11DN- injected embryos at the lateral region of the cells where E-

cadherin is diffusely distributed (Figure 8F). Another apical AJ component, the Ajuba LIM

protein Jub (Razzell et al., 2018), showed reduced enrichment at AJs upon Rab11DN

injection (Figure 8G). Together, these results suggest that the apical Rab11 vesicles function

to reinforce apical AJs during apical constriction.

Rab11 regulates Myosin II organization and promotes apical constriction

Given the important role of AJs in the spatial organization of the supracellular actomyosin

network (Martin et al., 2010; Sawyer et al., 2009), we examined the dynamics and

organization of apical Myosin II in embryos injected with Rab11DN around the onset of

gastrulation. Rab11DN injection at this stage did not cause any obvious defect in the apical

activation of Myosin II (Figure 9A-C, GST vs. Rab11DN late injection). However,

quantification of the rate of myosin flow towards the ventral midline showed a significantly

lower rate in Rab11DN injected embryos compared to the control embryos (Figure 9D-G).

This defect indicates that Rab11DN injection impaired apical constriction, which we

confirmed by analysis of apical cell area changes (Figure S5A-E). The apical constriction

defect was associated with frequent breaks within the apical Myosin II network as well as the

underlying actin network (Figure 9H-J; Video 7). These myosin breaks occurred randomly

across the constriction domain and were usually promptly reconnected, which prevented the

complete tearing apart of the network. These observations suggest that the apical

accumulation of Rab11 vesicles is important for maintaining the structural integrity of the

apical actomyosin network. In support of this notion, similar myosin breaks have been

observed in various conditions when apical Rab11 vesicle accumulation was abolished,

such as disruption of microtubules (Ko et al.,2019), inhibition of dynein (Video 8) and BFA-

mediated block of exocytosis (Figure S3C, asterisks; Video 9).

Previous studies have demonstrated that apical constriction of the ventral mesodermal cells is

pulsed, with successive constriction pulses interrupted by pauses when cells stabilize their

constricted state ("ratcheting" mechanism; Martin et al., 2009; Mason et al., 2013). To ask

whether Rab11DN injection affects pulsed apical constriction, we analyzed the dynamics of

apical area change during ~ 4 – 6 minutes after the onset of apical constriction (Methods).

When Rab11 was inhibited, cells still exhibited pulsatile constriction behavior; there was no

significant difference in the pulse interval between Rab11DN and control GST injected

embryos (41.3 ± 17.8 s for GST injection, mean ± s.d., N = 21 cells from 2 embryos; 48 ±

20.4 s for Rab11DN injection, mean ± s.d., N = 26 cells from 2 embryos; Figure 10A-C).

However, Rab11DN injection resulted in an increased frequency of apical re-expansion after

constriction pulses (Figure 10D), indicating that the cells were less capable of stabilizing

their constricted state. Thus, the frequent myosin breaks caused by Rab11DN injection

impaired the stabilization of the constricted state during pulsed constriction.

The apical re-expansion events in Rab11DN injected embryos were usually associated with

visible local disconnection between the myosin structures and the cell-cell boundary (Figure

10E). During such events, apical AJs were often pulled to the opposite side from where

myosin breaks happened (Figure 10F, red arrows). These observations suggest that the

increased frequency of myosin breaks is due to impaired connections between junction and

the actomyosin network, perhaps as a consequence of altered junction organization. In line

with this view, we observed similar myosin breaks in embryos defective in *canoe*, the

Drosophila Afadin homolog that regulates the linkage of the actin cytoskeleton to AJs during

apical constriction (Video 10, Sawyer et al., 2009). Together, these results suggest that the

apical Rab11 vesicles function to reinforce AJs and thereby strengthen the anchorage of the

actomyosin network to the AJs. Interestingly, we found that myosin breaks and defect in

apical constriction in the Rab11DN-injected embryos were more prominent during later

phases of apical constriction (Video 7; Figure S5A-E), suggesting that the role of apical

Rab11 vesicles becomes more important as tissue tension increases.

In addition to myosin breaks, we observed a second phenotype in the spatial organization of

apical Myosin II. Instead of forming a supracellular meshwork with medioapically enriched

myosin foci connected by myosin fibers, Myosin II formed ring-like circular structure at the

apical domain of each constricting cell (Figure 9A). Interestingly, a recent study showed that

loss of anisotropy in apical tension led to similar myosin ring formation in the constricting

cells (Chanet et al., 2017). In Rab11DN-injected embryos, most myosin breaks

predominantly occurred in the anterior-posterior (AP) orientation (Figure 10G), which is the

direction in which tension is higher (Martin et al., 2010). These breaks may dissipate tension

in the AP direction, thereby reducing tension anisotropy of the actomyosin network and

causing myosin ring formation. In support of this view, the constricting cells in Rab11DN

injected embryos exhibited no obvious increase of anisotropy in their apical geometry at the

late stages of apical constriction, in sharp contrast to those in control embryos in which

anisotropy continued to increase during apical constriction (Figure S5F). These observations

led to an interesting hypothesis that the "myosin ring" phenotype in Rab11DN-injected

embryos is a consequence of increased frequency of breaks in the supracellular actomyosin

network.

Distinct early and late functions of Rab11 in regulating apical Myosin II in mesoderm

primordium

The lack of defects in apical myosin activation upon Rab11 inhibition apparently contradicted

with previous findings that Rab11 is required for apical myosin activation in several other

apical constriction-mediated tissue folding processes (Le and Chung, 2021; Ossipova et al.,

2014, 2015). In these studies, Rab11 was typically inhibited at a stage much earlier than the

onset of apical constriction. We found that injection of Rab11DN proteins during early

cellularization (> 30min before the onset of gastrulation) indeed resulted in a strong reduction

or lack of apical myosin accumulation during gastrulation (Figure 9A, B). Therefore, through

acute inhibition of Rab11, we were able to resolve the early and late functions of Rab11 in

apical constriction and identify a previously unappreciated function of Rab11 in the feedback

regulation of apical actomyosin network post Myosin II activation (Figure 10H).

Discussion:

Our work reveals an intimate interplay between actomyosin network and Rab11-mediated vesicular trafficking during apical constriction mediated epithelial folding. Combining live imaging with genetic, optogenetic and pharmacological approaches, we show that during ventral furrow formation, apical actomyosin induces dynein- and microtubule-dependent, biased transport of Rab11 vesicles towards the cell apices, which facilitates the enrichment of the vesicles at apical AJs. By acute elimination of apical Rab11 vesicles through Rab11DN injection, we further present evidence that these vesicles are important for maintaining the structural integrity of the AJs and for preventing undesired breaks between actomyosin network and the AJs during apical constriction. These results suggest an actomyosin-dependent, Rab11-mediated feedback mechanism that serves to reinforce the connections between the actomyosin network and apical AJs (Figure 10H). In further support of the proposed mechanism, we found that acute disruption of Rab11 vesicle transport or blocking trafficking through the Golgi apparatus resulted in similar defects in the integrity of the supracellular actomyosin network. Finally, we show that this feedback mechanism is separate from the function of Rab11 in promoting apical Myosin II activation as previously reported in other systems. The mechanism identified in this work allows the tissue to promptly adapt to the increased tissue tension during apical constriction and maintain the integrity of the force generation machinery in the process of tissue folding.

The apical enrichment of Rab11 vesicles is closely associated with the formation of intact

actomyosin network at the apical domain of the cell, as evidenced by the strict correlation

between the two processes in a variety of conditions we tested. In particular, we show that

accumulation of myosin at the apical cortex without F-actin (and thereby lacking

contractility) is not sufficient to induce vesicle accumulation, and that the directional bias in

Rab11 vesicle transport diminishes immediately after acute actomyosin inactivation. The

outcomes of these tests also let us rule out the requirement of actomyosin-AJ coupling and

apical shrinking for Rab11 vesicle accumulation. Since actomyosin networks are intrinsically

contractile, our findings raise an intriguing possibility that the biased Rab11 vesicle transport

is subjected to mechanosensitive regulations. In recent years, it has been increasingly

appreciated that cell and tissue-scale mechanical forces can impact intracellular membrane

trafficking. For example, high membrane tension can suppress the formation of endocytic

vesicles (Wu et al., 2017) and promote vesicle fusion with lipid bilayer (Shillcock and

Lipowsky, 2005; Staykova et al., 2011). Mechanical stresses can also impact vesicle transport

and distribution in neurons (Ahmed and Saif, 2014; Ahmed et al., 2012; Siechen et al., 2009)

and trigger regulated exocytosis in various contexts (Boycott et al., 2013; Gauthier et al.,

2011; Khandelwal et al., 2013). The rapid alteration in Rab11 vesicle transport in response to

actomyosin activities provides a potential example of mechanical regulation of intracellular

trafficking in the context of tissue morphogenesis.

The way how apical constriction affect Rab11 vesicle transport is unknown. Apical

constriction may cause changes in the activity of the motor complexes that drive the motion

of Rab11 vesicles. Regulation of dynein-mediated transport can occur at multiple levels,

including Rab11-adaptor binding, adaptor activities, adaptor-motor binding, dynein

recruitment to microtubules, and motor activity itself (Dillman and Pfister, 1994; Fu and

Holzbaur, 2013; Horgan et al., 2010; Moughamian et al., 2013; Otani et al., 2011; Vaughan et

al., 2002; Wang et al., 2019). Alternatively, apical actomyosin contractions may bias the

direction of transport by generating a "sink" that retains the vesicles at the apical side,

thereby inhibiting the initiation of the reverse, basally directed transport of the vesicles.

Future research is required to further tease apart these possibilities.

Another important question remained to be address is the molecular basis of the myosin

breaks observed in Rab11DN injected embryos. Rab11 may regulate apical constriction by

regulating endocytic recycling of Fog and GPCR (Fuse et al., 2013; Jha et al., 2018; Pouille

et al., 2009). However, alteration in Fog-GPCR signaling would be expected to affect apical

myosin II activation, which was not observed in our experiments upon acute Rab11DN

injection. Rab11 may also be involved in Rab35-mediated endocytosis of apical membrane,

which has been shown to facilitate ratcheted constriction (Jewett et al., 2017; Miao et al.,

2019). However, we found that the apical Rab11 vesicles are not derived from endocytosis

and that acute injection of Rab11DN did not obviously affect the Rab35 compartments.

Instead, we show that in Rab11DN injected embryos, the appearance of frequent myosin

breaks was associated with severe fragmentation of apical AJs, raising the possibility that the

function of Rab11 in maintaining the integrity of the actomyosin network is attributed to its

role in regulating apical AJs. Rab11 recycling endosomes have been shown to regulate the

delivery of E-cadherin to the AJs in a number of other cell and tissue contexts (Langevin et

al., 2005; Le Droguen et al., 2015; Lock and Stow, 2005; Woichansky et al., 2016; Yashiro et

al., 2014). However, we did not detect E-cadherin-GFP signal on Rab11 vesicles during

apical constriction. It is possible that the signal was too weak to be detected by the method

we used. Alternatively, these vesicles may function to transport other junction components or

regulators. Finally, Rab11 vesicles may regulate the connection between AJ and actomyosin

network by delivering actin regulators to AJs, as dynamic actin turnover at AJs has been

shown to impact the detachment and reattachment of actomyosin network to AJs (Jodoin et

al., 2015). Future studies identifying the cargos of the Rab11 vesicles during apical

constriction will be the key to understand the molecular function of these vesicles.

Materials and methods:

Fly stocks and genetics

Drosophila melanogaster flies were grown and maintained at 18°C and crosses were raised

and maintained at room temperature (21 – 23°C) unless otherwise mentioned. All flies were

raised on standard fly food. For embryo collection, flies with corresponding genotype were

used to set up cages and maintained at 18°C, and embryos were collected from apple juice

agar plate containing fresh yeast paste.

For most experiments, embryos expressing endogenously tagged YFP::Rab11 (Dunst et al.,

2015) (BDSC Stock#62549) were imaged to visualize Rab11 vesicles. We also generated

UAS-mCherry::Rab11 transgenic flies for dual-color imaging with other GFP-tagged markers

(Figure 6A and B, Figure 8A, Figure S2C and Figure S4). For lines with UAS-driven

transgenes or shRNA, we used GAL4 driver lines carrying matα4-GAL-VP16 (denoted as

"mat67" on the 2nd chromosome and "mat15" on the 3rd chromosome) to drive maternal

expression in the embryo through either direct cross or recombination.

The following fly lines were generated for dual-color imaging of Rab11 with other markers in

this study:

－　Sqh::mCherry; YFP::Rab11

－　Gap43::mCherry/Cyo; YFP::Rab11

－　mat67 mCherry::Rab11; mat15 GFP::Jupiter

–   mat67 mCherry::Rab11; mat15 E-cadherin::GFP

–   mat67 mCherry::Rab11;mat15 mCherry::P4M

Figure S1: To examine other organelle behavior during apical constriction, the following lines

were either directly used or first crossed to mat67; mat15 flies in order to obtain embryos

expressing the corresponding fluorescent marker:

–   UAS-Arf79F::GFP (BDSC Stock#65850)

–   UAS-KDEL::GFP (BDSC Stock#9898)

–   UAS-YFP::Rab7 (BDSC Stock#23641)

–   YFP::Rab5 (BDSC Stock#62543)

–   YFP::Rab8 (BDSC Stock#62546)

Figure 2C: To knock down Myosin II, female flies of a TRiP *zipper*; YFP::Rab11 stock

generated from a TRiP *zipper* RNAi line (BDSC Stock#37480) were crossed to male flies

from stock mat67 Sqh::mCherry; mat15 YFP::Rab11 to obtain F1 TRiP *zipper*/mat67

Sqh::mCherry; YFP::Rab11/mat15 YFP::Rab11 flies, and embryos from these F1 flies were

collected for imaging.

Figure 2D: To generate ventralized embryos, *Spn27A1*/Cyo; Sqh::mCherry YFP::Rab11/TM3

was crossed to Df(2L)BSC7/Cyo; Sqh::mCherry YFP::Rab11/TM3 to obtain *Spn27A1*/

Df(2L)BSC7; Sqh::mCherry YFP::Rab11 flies, and embryos from these flies were collected

for imaging. *Spn27A* encodes a serine protease inhibitor that regulates dorsal-ventral

patterning in early embryos by inhibiting the Toll-Dorsal pathway (Ligoxygakis et al., 2003).

Consistent with previous reports, *Spn27A* mutant embryos showed a ventralized phenotype

with expanded apical Myosin II activation domain during gastrulation (Figure 2D;

Ligoxygakis et al., 2003).

Figure 3C: To knock down α-catenin, female flies of TRiP *α-catenin* RNAi line (BDSC

Stock# 33430) were crossed to male flies from stock mat67 Sqh::mCherry; mat15

YFP::Rab11 to obtain F1 +/mat67 Sqh::mCherry; TRiP *α-catenin* /mat15 YFP::Rab11 flies,

and embryos from these F1 flies were collected for imaging. Consistent with previous

reports, disrupting AJs did not prevent apical myosin activation, but rather impaired the

connection between the actomyosin network and the cell-cell boundaries. As a result, Myosin

II coalesced into concentrated spots at the center of each individual medioapical domain

(Martin et al., 2010).

Figure 4A-C: To overexpress Fog, female flies from UAS-Fog stock were crossed to male

flies from stock mat67 Sqh::mCherry; mat15 E-cad::GFP or mat67 Sqh::mCherry;

YFP::Rab11 to obtain corresponding F1 flies, and embryos from these F1 flies were collected

for imaging. As shown in a previous study, ectopic myosin activation in dorsal cells by

ectopic expression of Fog does not cause cell apex shrinking or tissue indentation, thereby

providing a scenario where actomyosin contractility and apical cell area reduction is

decoupled (Morize et al., 1998).

Figure 7A-F: Female flies from stock CRY2::mCherry::Rho1DN YFP::Rab11/TM6C;

CIBNpm/FM7 were crossed to male flies from stock mat67 Sqh::mCherry; mat15

YFP::Rab11 to generate mat67 Sqh::mCherry/+; CRY2::mCherry::Rho1DN

YFP::Rab11/mat15 YFP::Rab11; CIBNpm/+ flies, and embryos from these flies were

collected for imaging.

Figure 7G, H: Female flies from stock CRY2::mCherry::Rho1DN /TM6C; CIBNpm/FM7

were crossed to male flies from stock mat67 Sqh::mCherry; mat15 GFP::Jupiter to generate

mat67 Sqh::mCherry/+; CRY2::mCherry::Rho1DN / mat15 GFP::Jupiter; CIBNpm/+ flies,

and embryos from these flies were collected for imaging.

Figure 8, 10, S5: Sqh::mCherry E-cadherin::GFP was used for Rab11DN injection

experiment for examining adherens junction phenotype and quantifying apical area change.

Sqh::mCherry mat67; mat15 UAS-Jub::GFP was used for figure 8G.

Figure 9A-H: embryos from SqhmCherry; YFP-Rab11 flies were used.

Figure 9I: embryos from mat67 Sqh::mCherry; mat15 UtrABD::GFP were used in Rab11DN

injection experiment for examining apical actin network.

Figure S2C: embryos from mat67 mCherry::Rab11/YFP::Rab5 flies were used.

Figure S2D, E: The fly stock used for temperature shift experiment is shi^{ts}/ shi^{ts};

Sqh::mCherry; YFP::Rab11.

Figure S3A, B: To visualize the localization of constitutively active Rab11, UAS-

YFP::Rab11Q70L (BDSC Stock#9791) was crossed to mat67; mat15 males, and embryos

from F1 females were used for imaging.

Figure S4: embryos from mat67 mCherry::Rab11/UAS-YFP::Rab35 were used.

Video 10: A TRiP *canoe* RNAi line (BDSC Stock#38194) was used for *canoe* knockdown.

Female flies from the TRiP *canoe* stock were crossed to male flies from stock mat67

Sqh::mCherry; mat15 E-cad::GFP to obtain F1 TRiP *canoe*/mat67 Sqh::mCherry; +/mat15 E-

cad::GFP flies, and embryos from these F1 flies were collected for imaging.

Molecular cloning and generation of transgenic fly lines

To make construct for in vitro expression of recombinant dominant negative Rab11 (S25N)

protein, dominant negative Rab11 coding sequence was PCR amplified from genomic DNA

of UAS-YFPRab11DN (BDSC Stock#9792) and inserted into pGEX-6p-1 vector (a gift from

the Griffin lab, Dartmouth College) using BamHI and XhoI restriction sites.

To make constructs for transgenic fly lines, mCherry-P4M double strand DNA was

synthesized in vitro (Integrated DNA Technologies) and inserted into a fly transformation

vector (pTiger, courtesy of S. Ferguson, State University of New York at Fredonia, Fredonia,

NY, USA) using NotI and NheI restriction site to generate the pTiger-mCherry-P4M plasmid.

To make pTiger-mCherry-Rab11 construct, wild type Rab11 coding sequence was PCR

amplified from genomic DNA of UAS-YFP::Rab11 (BDSC Stock# 9790) and cloned into

pTiger-mCherry-P4M construct using SpeI and NheI restriction sites to replace the P4M

sequence.

The resulting pTiger-mCherry-P4M and pTiger-mCherry-Rab11 constructs were sent to

BestGene, Inc., for integration into either attP2 or attP40 site using the phiC31 integrase

system (Groth et al., 2004).

Live imaging and optogenetics

Embryos were dechorionated in 3% bleach, rinsed with water 12 times and mounted in water

in a 35 mm MatTek glass-bottom dish (MatTek Corporation). Unless otherwise mentioned,

all images were obtained using a Nikon inverted spinning disk confocal microscope equipped

with the perfect focus system and Andor W1 dual camera, dual spinning disk module. An CFI

Plan Apo Lambda 60×/1.40 WD 0.13 mm Oil Objective Lens objective was used for imaging

at room temperature. YFP and GFP tagged proteins were imaged with a 488-nm laser and

mCherry tagged proteins were imaged with a 561-nm laser. Images in Figure 1A, S1A and B

were obtained using an upright Olympus FV-MPERS multiphoton microscope equipped with

the InSight Deep Laser System with an Olympus 25X/1.05 water dipping objective

(XLPLN25×WMP2). Images in Figure 1D, 2A, 2D, S2, S3 were obtained using a Zeiss Axio

Observer laser scanning confocal microscope (LSM 880).

For optogenetic experiments, flies were kept in the dark and live sample preparation was

performed under red light. Embryos were first imaged with 561-nm laser to visualize Myosin

II signal to determine the developmental stage of the embryo. Once the embryo reached the

desired stage, two-color imaging with both 488-nm and 561-nm lasers were carried out,

where the 488-nm laser was used for both optogenetic stimulation and YFP-Rab11

visualization. The Opto-Rho1DN optogenetic tool used in this experiment is based on the

CIBN-CRY2 system (Guglielmi et al., 2015; Kennedy et al., 2010). Blue-light dependent

recruitment of a CRY2-Rho1DN fusion protein to plasma membrane-anchored CIBN blocks

activation of endogenous Rho1, causing rapid dissociation of Myosin II and F-actin from the

cell apices, thereby acutely inhibits apical actomyosin contractility (Guo et al., 2021).

For the temperature shift experiment with shi^{ts} mutants, a Zeiss Axio Observer laser scanning

confocal microscope (LSM 880) with an incubation chamber was used. Embryos subjected to

restrictive temperature were prepared at room temperature and then transferred to an

incubation chamber, which was preheated to 32°C. A 40X/1.3 numerical aperture oil-

immersion objective, and 488-nm argon laser and 561-nm laser were used for imaging.

Rab11 dominant negative protein expression and purification

pGEX-6p-1-Rab11DN plasmid was transformed into E.coli (BL21(DE3), New England

BioLabs). An empty vector with only GST coding sequence was also transformed as control.

After IPTG induction, bacteria were resuspended in 32 mL lysis buffer (50 mM Tris pH7.5,

150 mM NaCl, 0.1% Triton X-100, 1 mM PMSF, 1 mM DTT) and lysed with 0.25 mg/mL

lysozyme incubation on ice for 2 h followed by sonication (6 rounds of 10 pulses every 1

minute). GST and GST-Rab11DN were purified from the supernatant with Glutathione

Sepharose 4B GST-tagged protein purification resin (GE17-0756-01, Sigma-Aldrich) using

batch method. Eluted protein was dialyzed using slide-A-Lyzer dialysis cassettes (Cat#66380,

Thermo Scientific) with 50 mM Tris buffer (pH8.0) and further concentrated to a final

concentration of ~200 μM with Amicon Ultra-0.5mL centrifugal filters (Cat#UFC501024,

Millipore Sigma).

On-stage drug / protein injection

Embryos at cellularization stage were prepared as previously described, then mounted ventral

side down on a 50 x 25 mm glass coverslip pre-covered with a thin layer of glue. Embryos

were dried for 10-15 minutes in a desiccator. Embryos were then covered with halocarbon oil

(halocarbon 700/halocarbon 27 = 3:1). A homemade injection device mounted next to the

spinning disk confocal microscope was used for on-stage injection. Embryos were injected

laterally into the ventral part of the embryo. 50 mM Y-27632 (Enzo Life Sciences), 25

mg/mL colchicine (Sigma-Aldrich), 5 mg/mL Cytochalasin D (Sigma-Aldrich), 0.5 μg/μL

FM4-64 (Invitrogen[TM]) and 10 mg/mL Brefeldin A (Sigma-Aldrich) were used for

corresponding experiment. For Rab11DN injection, Triton X-100 was added to a final

concentration of 0.1% to prevent the solution from clogging the needle. For dynein and GST

antibody injection, commercial monoclonal antibodies against cytoplasmic dynein

intermediate chain (Cat#sc-13524, Santa Cruz Biotechnology) and monoclonal antibody

against GST (Cat#sc-138, Santa Cruz Biotechnology) were first concentrated to 2 mg/mL

with Amicon Ultra-0.5 mL centrifugal filters before injection (Cat#UFC501024, Millipore

Sigma). For FM4-64 injection, the membrane dye was injected into the perivitelline space at

late cellularization to label the cell membrane and monitor the localization of endocytosed

membrane dye. For all other injections, the indicated reagents were injected into the embryo.

Image processing and analysis

All images were processed using ImageJ (NIH) and MATLAB (MathWorks). For the

following figures, due to laser power fluctuation and the extent of photobleaching with

different imaging duration, the contrast was adjusted to make the cytoplasmic signal

comparable: Figure 2A, 2B (Rab11), 2C (Myosin II), 2D (Myosin II and Rab11), S3(Myosin

II and Rab11), 6C (Rab11), 6H (Myosin II and Rab11), 8E, 8F, 9A.

For 3D segmentation and rendering of Rab11-positive structures (Figure 1F-H), we first

segmented a group of presumptive mesodermal cells in membrane channel using Embryo

Development Geometry Explorer (EDGE), a MATLAB-based software (Gelbart et al., 2012)

to generate individual cell mask. Then we used ilastik, a machine learning based software

(Berg et al., 2019) to segment Rab11 vesicles and perinuclear compartments in the Rab11

channel (Pixel classification) to generate a probability map. A custom MATLAB script was

used to convert the probability map for vesicle and perinuclear compartment to binary mask.

These masks were applied to original image to remove background signal and 3D rendering

of resulting images was created using Nikon Elements software. To generate 3D view of

Rab11 structures in a single cell, the cell mask generated from EDGE was applied to the

processed Rab11 images before 3D rendering. In Figure 1F and 1G, the original images are

generated by maximum intensity projection rendering method while the rest of images are

generated with alpha blending method.

For vesicle tracking in embryos expressing YFP-Rab11 and mCherry-Sqh (Figure 5A-E,

Figure 7A-E), a 13.8 µm x 6.9 µm region of interest including approximately one constricting

cell at 50% egg length was selected, and Rab11 vesicles were manually marked frame by

frame for each trajectory using a multi-point tool in ImageJ. The x-y coordinates of

individual vesicles over time were then exported. A MATLAB script was written to

reconstruct the trajectories based on the coordinate information. The direction of each

trajectory was defined by the relative translocation of the vesicle along apical basal axis

between trackable start and end positions. All trajectories were grouped into two categories

based on their direction (apical or basal) for further analysis of parameters, including

trajectory count, average velocity, trajectory length and trajectory duration.

To validate the vesicle tracking analysis (Figure 5F, G), we performed the following analyses.

First, we imaged embryos expressing both myosin and membrane markers at multiple z-

planes. This approach allowed us to map the position of the single plane image to the cross-

section view of the embryo (Figure 5F). The results confirmed that our single-plane imaging

approach captured the cells located at the medial-lateral boundaries of the constricting

domain. We noticed that although all of these cells showed apical myosin accumulation,

some cells were constricted apically, whereas others appeared to be in the process of apical

constriction or even stretched by the more centrally localized constricting cells. These

observations were consistent with a recent report demonstrating that apical myosin

contractility is graded from the center of the constriction domain (Denk-Lobnig et al., 2021).

Second, we imaged embryos expressing both a membrane marker and mCherry-Rab11

(overexpression) and quantified transport events only in cells displaying obvious apical

shrinking. We found no significant difference between the results from the original and the

new analyses (Figure 5G). These additional analyses also indicate that apical actomyosin

accumulation, but not apical area reduction, is the determining factor for the biased transport

of Rab11 vesicles, consistent with the observation in dorsal cells with ectopic Fog expression

(Figure 4A-C).

For quantification of vesicle density in 2D (Figure 4D-F), 3 separate ROIs covering most of

the constriction region were selected, with each ROI enclosing a relatively flat piece of tissue

surface (based on the apical Myosin II signal). For each ROI, a Z position near the apical

surface where most vesicles were accumulated was selected for quantification. Vesicles were

detected using the Find Maxima function in ImageJ in combination with manual correction to

ensure accuracy of the counting. For vesicle counting in 3D (Figure 4D-F), the FIJI plugin

3D Maxima Finder was used and the noise tolerance parameter was determined based on

average intensity of the entire image stack (Ollion et al., 2013).

The colocalization between Rab11-mCherry and E-cadherin-GFP (Figure 8B-D) was

quantified in embryos at the stage of early ventral furrow formation. For each embryo, 5 non-

neighboring constricting cells were manually segmented using a multi-point tool to mark the

vertices of the cell outline. A MATLAB script was written to import the coordinates of these

vertices to create the cell outline. For each cell outline, a series of closely spaced and evenly

distributed sampling points were generated along the outline. For each sampling point, E-

cadherin-GFP signal intensity on that single pixel was extracted as the junction signal, and

average Rab11-mCherry signal intensity within a radius of 5 pixels (~0.54 μm) was

calculated as Rab11 signal for the same point. For each cell, a scatter plot of E-cadherin

intensity over Rab11 intensity for all the sampling points was generated, and a correlation

coefficient was calculated. A similar analysis was performed between P4M-GFP and Rab11-

mCherry as a control.

For Myosin II intensity quantification (Figure 9B), 100-pixel by 100-pixel ROIs (10.8 μm X

10.8 μm) were taken from the apical Myosin II domain. Average intensity R was measured

inside the ROI on that plane, and background noise at the same plane (R_{bg}) was measured as

the mean intensity of a random ROI outside the embryo. To assess cytoplasmic myosin

intensity (C), we used the same ROI position but at a slightly deeper Z below the apical

myosin network, the background noise at that plane (C_{bg}) was measured as described above.

The normalized Myosin II intensity $I = (R-R_{bg}) / (C-C_{bg})$. Embryos at ~6 – 7 min after the

onset of gastrulation were used for quantification.

To quantify the rate of apical constriction based on the movement of apical Myosin II

structures (Figure 9D-G), kymographs were generated from the same dataset of the above-

mentioned 100-sec myosin movies. For each embryo, a series of myosin kymographs were

generated by average projection over every 30 pixels (3.2 μm) along anterior posterior axis.

Bandpass filter in ImageJ were used to remove noise. A custom MATLAB script was used for

automatic segmentation of individual myosin traces and fitting with lines. Rate of Myosin II

moving towards ventral midline was extracted by calculating the slope of each myosin trace.

Velocity of Myosin II at ventral midline was subtracted to correct for the drift of ventral

midline itself. The rate of myosin movement was then plotted against the distance of the

corresponding myosin structure to ventral midline at the time when tracing started.

For quantification of myosin breaks (Figure 9J, 10G), a maximum projection over 3 – 5 μm

thick Z stacks that include all apical Myosin II signal was generated. A ~100-sec time

window starting from the time point when the Myosin II domain at the ventral surface

exhibits a relatively clear domain boundary (~6 – 7 min after the onset of gastrulation) was

selected to count the number of myosin break events. At the site where myosin break occurs,

the myosin fiber usually snaps and the two ends rapidly retract, which creates a clear gap

between neighboring myosin clusters.

To analyze the cell area dynamic from fast movies (Figure 10A-D), the time lapse movie of a

subapical single slice from E-cad channel was first rearranged to convert T dimension into Z

dimension. Individual cells in the resulting image were segmented in ilastik using carving

method (Berg et al., 2019). Once segmented, cell area, constriction rate and pulse duration

were calculated using a customized MATLAB script. In order to find the peaks for the

constriction rate, the constriction rate curve was first smoothed using MATLAB smooth

function with a span of 5. The rate was then inverted to convert valleys into peaks and

MATLAB findpeaks function was used to locate the peaks and pulse duration was calculated

as the interval between neighboring peaks.

To quantify the rate of apical constriction from E-cadherin-GFP movies (Figure S5A, B),

images at 6 – 7 μm below the apical surface were used to measure the cell area change over

time. A group of constricting cells at the ventral most region of the embryo were outlined

frame by frame using multi-point tool in ImageJ. The area of the same cell group over time

was then calculated and plotted using MATLAB.

To analyze the distribution of cell area in the same embryo at 2 min, 5 min and 8 min after

onset of gastrulation (Figure S5C-E), individual constricting cell was segmented using

Embryo Development Geometry Explorer (EDGE), a MATLAB-based software (Gelbart et

al., 2012). Individual cell area was then calculated, and the distribution histogram of cell area

was plotted. Cell anisotropy was calculated based on the same segmented cell dataset (Figure

S5F). Two orthogonal (anteroposterior and mediolateral) lines passing the centroid of the cell

were drawn across the segmented cell, and the cell anisotropy was calculated as the ratio

between the anteroposterior intercept by the cell boundary and the mediolateral intercept.

Statistics

Statistical comparisons were performed using two tailed one-sample t test or two-tailed

Student's t tests. Sample sizes can be found in figure legends. p values were calculated using

MATLAB ttest (Two tailed one-sample t test) and ttest2 function (Two tailed Student's t test).

Supplemental Material

Figure S1 shows changes in 3D Rab11 structures during ventral furrow formation as well as a

comparison to other endomembrane compartments. Figure S2 shows that Rab11 vesicles are

not derived from endocytosis. Figure S3 shows the localization of constitutively active Rab11

during ventral furrow formation and the impact of BFA injection on Rab11 and Myosin II.

Figure S4 shows that Rab11DN injection does not obviously affect Rab35 structures. Figure

S5 shows that acute inhibition of Rab11 results in reduced rate of apical constriction. Video 1

shows myosin network relaxation immediately after cytoD injection. Video 2 shows Rab5,

Rab11 localization relative to endocytosed vesicles after FM4-64 membrane dye injection.

Video 3 shows the impact of acute disruption of MTs on Rab11 vesicle transport. Video 4

shows the impact of dynein inhibition on Rab11 vesicle transport. Video 5 shows the

dynamics of Rab11 vesicles near apical adherens junctions. Video 6 shows the rapid

disappearance of Rab11 vesicles after Rab11DN injection. Video 7 shows that injection of

Rab11DN causes frequent breaks within the apical actomyosin network. Video 8 shows that

injection of dynein antibody affects apical Rab11 vesicle accumulation and causes frequent

myosin breaks. Video 9 shows that injection of BFA results in abnormal Rab11 structures and

causes frequent myosin breaks. Video 10 shows that knockdown of Canoe causes frequent

myosin breaks.

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Author Contributions:

841 *Author Contributions:*

842 W.C. and B.H. designed the study. W.C. performed the experiments and analyzed the data.

843 W.C. and B.H. wrote the manuscript.

Declaration of Interests:

Declaration of Interests:

The authors declare no competing interests.

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 Figures and Figure Legends:

 Figure 1

Figure 1. Rab11-positive vesicle-like structures accumulate apically in constricting cells

during ventral furrow formation

(A) Apical constriction during ventral furrow formation. Scale bar, 10 μm.

(B) The imaging setup for acquiring the en face view of constricting cells.

(C) Rab11 compartments (endogenous YFP-Rab11) in an embryo at the onset (0 min) and 9

min into ventral furrow formation. Top panel, maximum projection over 2 μm depth from en

face view; middle and bottom panels, a single slice and maximum projection of the cross-

section view, respectively. Red boxes: Z position of the corresponding en face view. Red

arrows: perinuclear Rab11 vesicles; green arrows and blue outlines: perinuclear Rab11

compartments; yellow outline: nucleus.

(D) Zoom-in view of a small ROI in the ventral region of the embryo.

(E) Montage showing Rab11 and Myosin II distribution over depth during apical

constriction.

(F, G) 3D reconstruction of Rab11 positive structures in ventral mesoderm constricting cells.

0 min: onset of gastrulation. Rab11 perinuclear compartments and vesicles are segmented

separately using ilastik. An individual cell is shown in G as an example. Cell outlines (yellow

dotted lines) are determined based on Gap43-mCherry signal.

(H) The intensity profile of summed intensity of Rab11 vesicles along Z direction. 0 μm: cell

apex. Error bar: s.d. N = 13 cells.

All scale bars are 5 μm unless mentioned otherwise.

Figure 2

Figure 2. Apical accumulation of Rab11 vesicles depends on apical Myosin II activation

(A) Inhibition of Myosin II activation by Y-27632 injection at late cellularization prevents

apical Rab11 vesicle accumulation. (A') Zoom-in view of the outlined region in A. 0 sec:

onset of gastrulation. Y-27632 injection: $N = 4$ embryos; H_2O injection: $N = 3$ embryos.

(B) Injection of Y-27632 during apical constriction causes rapid diminishing of apical Rab11

vesicles. $N = 4$ embryos. (B') Cross-section view. Yellow lines: apical surface. (B'') Zoom-in

view of B.

(C) Knockdown of myosin heavy chain Zipper inhibits apical accumulation of Rab11 vesicle.

$N = 4$ embryos for each genotype. (C') Zoom-in view of C.

(D) *Spn27A*/Df mutant embryos exhibit ventralized phenotype with expanded domain of

apical Myosin II activation and apical Rab11 vesicle accumulation ($N = 3$ embryos). (D')

Zoom-in view of D. Images were Gaussian filtered with a radius of 0.5 pixel. Fewer z-slices

were projected for the zoom-in view to improve the signal/noise.

All scale bars for zoom-in view, 2 μm; scale bars for the rest, 10 μm. All en face views are

maximum projections of a ~3 – 4 μm-stack below apical surface of the constriction domain.

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 Figure 3

Figure 3. Apical accumulation of Rab11 vesicles depends on F-actin but not does not

require intact AJs

(A, A', B, B') Cytochalasin D injection (0 min) during apical constriction results in rapid

diminishing of apical Rab11 vesicles without causing immediate apical myosin loss. (A)

Maximum projection of apical Myosin II. Scale bar, 10 µm. (A') Cross-section view. Yellow

lines: apical surface. Scale bar, 10 µm. (B) Enface view showing apical Rab11 vesicles. Scale

bar, 10 µm. (B') Zoom-in view of B. Scale bar, 2 µm.

(C) Knockdown of junctional component α-Catenin does not prevent apical accumulation of

Rab11 vesicles. Scale bars, 5 µm. Scale bars for zoom-in view, 2 µm.

 Figure 4

 Rab11

Figure 4. Apical actomyosin activation, but not apical cell area reduction, is critical for

apical accumulation of Rab11 vesicles

(A) Ectopic expression of Fog results in Myosin II activation in dorsal cells but does not

cause apical area reduction. N = 3 embryos. Scale bar, 10 μm.

(B, C) Ectopic activation of Myosin II in dorsal cells by overexpression of Fog induces

ectopic apical accumulation of Rab11 vesicles. (B) Enface view. (C) Cross section view.

Scale bars, 5 μm. Scale bar for zoom-in view, 2 μm.

(D, E) Comparison of YFP-Rab11 in ventral furrow and dorsal fold. Yellow outlines:

example cells displaying apical area reduction. Dorsal fold cells do not show apical Rab11

vesicle accumulation despite undergoing apical shrinking. (D) and (E): Cross-section view

and en face view, respectively. Scale bar, 5 μm. Green arrows: Rab11 vesicles. Scale bar, 5

μm.

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Figure 5

Figure 5. Rab11 vesicles are transported apical-basally with a strong bias in the apical

direction

(A) Imaging configuration to capture the movement of Rab11 vesicles along the apical-basal

direction. Red line: imaging plane. Green outlines: constricting cells being imaged.

(B, B') Surface view of an embryo imaged as depicted in A. Scale bar, 10 μm. (B'): zoom-in

view of B showing the apical movement of two Rab11 vesicles (white circles). Scale bar, 2

μm.

(C) Vesicle trajectories in 3 wildtype embryos in a ~35-sec time window. Red and blue mark

apical- and basal-bound trajectories, respectively.

(D) Counts of apically and basally oriented trajectories.

(E) Comparison of average trajectory length, velocity and duration (mean ± s.d.) shows no

significant difference between apically and basally directed transport. Two tailed Student's t-

test; N = 3 embryos.

(F) Left: Enface view of an embryo expressing both myosin and membrane markers. Right:

Cross-section view of the same embryo at the indicated A-P positions (cyan lines). White

line: imaging plane; yellow and red outlines: cells with or without obvious apical shrinking,

respectively. Scale bars, 10 μm.

(G) Rab11 vesicles exhibit directional bias towards the apical side. WT (cells with apical

Myosin II activation): quantification of movies with Myosin II and Rab11 markers. The ROI

may include a mixture of apically constricted and non-constricted cells that exhibited apical

myosin accumulation. WT (constricting cell only): quantification of movies with membrane

and Rab11 markers. Only apically constricted cells are quantified (Methods). Two tailed one-

sample t-test against 50% was used for comparison to hypothetical unbiased transport. Two

tailed Student's t test was used for comparison between two WT samples. N = 3 embryos for

each category.

For all panels, error bar: s.d.; ***: $p < 0.001$; **: $p < 0.01$; *: $p < 0.05$; n.s.: $p > 0.05$.

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Figure 6

Figure 6. Rab11 vesicle transport requires microtubules and dynein

(A) An example of Rab11 vesicle movement (yellow circle) along the microtubules (Jupiter-

GFP). Scale bar, 1 μm.

(B) Acute disruption of microtubules via colchicine injection results in immediate inhibition

of Rab11 vesicle transport. Magenta arrowheads: residual microtubules. Yellow circles:

region where microtubules were completely disrupted. Scale bar, 2 μm.

(C) En face view of the constricting domain shortly (< 2 min) after on-stage injection of

water or colchicine. Injection of colchicine shortly before but not after the onset of

gastrulation (N = 5 embryos for each condition) results in reduced Rab11 vesicle

accumulation compared to water injected controls (N = 4 embryos). Scale bar, 10 μm. Bottom

panels: zoom-in views. Scale bar, 2 μm.

(D-F) Quantification of Rab11 vesicle density after water or colchicine injection within a 3.5

μm-stack from apical surface (D) or in a single z plane near apical surface (E) generates

consistent results (F).

(G) Injection of dynein antibody rapidly abolishes both apical (red) and basal (green)

transport of Rab11 vesicles. Trajectories show vesicle movement within a 20-sec window at

the indicated time after injection. N = 5 embryos for each condition. Scale bar, 2 μm.

(H) En face view showing inhibition of apical accumulation of Rab11 vesicles upon on-stage

injection of dynein antibody immediately before the onset of gastrulation. N = 5 and 6

embryos for GST antibody and dynein antibody injection, respectively. Scale bar, 10 μm.

Bottom panels: zoom-in views. Scale bar, 2 μm.

Figure 7

Figure 7. The apical bias of Rab11 vesicle transport depends on activation of apical

actomyosin contractility

(A) Diagram depicting optogenetic inhibition of Myosin II activation by Opto-Rho1DN.

(B) Top: upon continuous blue light stimulation, Rho1DN is immediately recruited to the

plasma membrane (yellow arrows). Apical myosin II (red boxes) disappears ~ 30 sec after

stimulation. Bottom: A control embryo at similar stage of furrow formation. Scale bar, 10 μm.

(C – F) The apical bias of the transport is abolished in less than one minute after Opto-

Rho1DN stimulation (C, n = 3 embryos). This change is caused by a significant increase in

the number of basally directed transport events (D), which is not observed in wildtype

embryos (E, n = 3 embryos). There is no significant difference on average trajectory velocity,

length and duration of apical and basal bound transports between 0 – 23 sec and 35 – 58 sec

post stimulation windows (F, mean ± s.d.). Two tailed one-sample t-test against 50% was

used for comparison to hypothetical unbiased transport. Two tailed Student's t test was used

for comparison between conditions.

(G, H) Microtubules do not exhibit obvious changes in intensity or overall organization in the

first two minutes after Opto-Rho1DN stimulation (0 min). (G) En face maximum intensity

projection of the apical surface (5 μm thick) showing microtubules (GFP-Jupiter) in an embryo

stimulated at the stage comparable to that in B. Scale bar, 5 μm. (H) Cross section view showing

an embryo stimulated at a stage slightly earlier than that in (G). Scale bar, 10 μm.

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Figure 8

Figure 8. Rab11 reinforces the apical AJs during ventral furrow formation

(A) Capturing apical Rab11 vesicle dynamics with single-plane fast imaging. Example of a single constricting cell is shown. Scale bar, 5 μm. (A') zoom-in view of (A) showing two Rab11 vesicles moving towards an adherens junction spot. Scale bar, 1 μm.

(B-D) Analysis of spatial correlation between Rab11 vesicles and AJs. (B) The same constricting cell as shown in (A) is outlined in green. Magenta circle: an example sampling region within which Rab11 signal is measured. Right panel: the intensity profiles of E-cadherin and Rab11 along the indicated cell outline. (C) E-cadherin intensities for all points along the cell outline plotted against the corresponding Rab11 intensities. (D) Rab11 shows a significantly higher correlation with E-cadherin than with a general membrane marker P4M (N = 3 embryos for each genotype, 5 cells per embryo). Two tailed Student's t-test was used for statistical comparison.

(E) Injection of Rab11DN rapidly eliminates apical Rab11 vesicles but does not immediately affect the perinuclear Rab11 compartments (green arrows). Scale bar, 10 μm. (E') Zoom-in view of (E). Scale bar, 2 μm.

(F) Rab11DN injection affects the integrity of apical AJs in the constricting cells. 14 out of 19 Rab11DN injected embryos show fragmented apical AJs while 8 of 8 GST injected embryos show relatively continuous AJs. Scale bar, 5 μm.

(G) Ajub shows reduced enrichment at the apical AJs during apical constriction in Rab11DN injected embryos compared to the control embryos (N = 4 embryos for each condition). Scale bar, 5 μm. Bottom, enlarged view of one cell (cyan boxes) as an example. Scale bar, 1 μm.

 Figure 9

Figure 9. Acute inhibition of Rab11 results in defects in Myosin II organization and

apical constriction

(A-C) Stage-dependent effect of Rab11DN injection on apical myosin network. (A): Injection

of Rab11DN at early cellularization (> 30 min before onset of gastrulation) impairs apical

myosin II activation (N = 3 embryos), whereas injection around the onset of gastrulation does

not affect myosin II activation but causes defects in apical myosin organization (N = 4

embryos). GST injection: N = 3 embryos. Scale bar, 10 μm. (B, C): Quantification of apical

myosin II intensity (B) and the width of myosin domain (C) at ~6-7 min after the onset of

gastrulation. Two tailed Student's t-test was used for statistical comparison.

(D) Example kymograph showing the movement of apical myosin II towards ventral midline

at ~6-7 minutes into gastrulation. Only the late Rab11DN injected embryos were analyzed in

(D) – (K). Scale bar, 5 μm.

(E – G) Quantification of apical constriction rate in embryos injected with GST and

Rab11DN. (E, F) Rate of ventral movement of myosin structures as a function of their initial

position relative to the ventral midline. Red asterisks: average velocity. Red curve:

polynomial fit. (G) Rate for myosin structures located 10-15 μm away from the ventral

midline. Two tailed Student's t test was used for statistical comparison.

(H – J) Rab11DN injection increases the frequency of myosin breaks during apical

constriction. (H) Left, representative surface views of the supracellular myosin network.

Scale bar, 10 μm. Right, zoom-in view showing myosin dynamics over time. Red

arrowheads: myosin breaks. Scale bar, 2 μm. (I) Myosin breaks are associated with breaks in

the underlying F-actin network (UtrophinABD-Venus). Scale bar, 2 μm. N = 3 embryos for

each condition. (J) Quantification of the number of myosin breaks over a ~100-sec time

window at ~6 – 7 min after apical constriction starts. Two tailed Student's t test was used for

statistical comparison.

1296

Figure 10

Figure 10. Rab11DN injection results in increased frequency of apical re-expansion

during apical constriction

(A, B) Example cell area change and constriction rate over time in GST and Rab11DN

injected embryos. Yellow shaded area, constriction phase; white area, stabilization phase; red

shaded area, apical re-expansion. Vertical lines in B: peak of constriction rate.

(C) Rab11DN injection does not affect the frequency of cell constriction pulses. Pulse

interval was calculated as the interval between neighboring constriction peaks.

(D, E) Rab11DN injected embryos exhibited increased frequency of apical re-expansion

events. (D) Heatmap showing constriction rate of individual cell over ~200 sec window

during mid-apical constriction phase in GST and Rab11DN injected embryos. Positive

constriction rate indicates apical re-expansion. N = 21 cells from 2 GST-injected embryos. N

= 26 cells from 2 Rab11DN-injected embryos. Red boxes correspond to the examples shown

in (E). Asterisks in (E): gaps resulted from myosin break event. Scale bars, 2 μm.

(F) Apical AJ is pulled inward (red arrows) when myosin break (yellow asterisks) occurs in

the adjacent cell. Scale bar, 2 μm.

(G) Quantification of myosin break orientation in GST- and Rab11DN-injected embryos.

Dataset from figure 9 (late injection) was used for this analysis.

(H) Schematics of proposed actomyosin-dependent feedback mechanism.

Supplemental Figure 1

Figure S1. Localization of Rab11 and other endomembrane compartments during ventral furrow formation

(A) 3D reconstruction of the ventral part of an embryo expressing YFP-Rab11 and mCherry-Sqh during ventral furrow formation showing apical accumulation of Rab11 vesicles in constricting cells. Magenta box indicates the apical region of the constricting cells. Bottom panel are the cross-section view images of the same embryo. Scale bar, 10 μm.

(B) Vesicle segmentation using different probability threshold. Vesicles are segmented based on the probability map generated by ilastik. Threshold of 0.7 gives best quality of segmentation.

(C-H) Localization change of different compartment markers in the ventral cross-section view of embryos. from late cellularization (top image in each panel) to early gastrulation. (C) Golgi marker Arf79F. Green dotted box shows the lack of Golgi puncta in the apical region of the constricting domain. (D) Late endosome marker Rab7. (E) Early endosome marker YFP-Rab5. (F) Recycling endosome marker YFP-Rab11. (G) YFP-Rab8. (H) ER marker KDEL-GFP. Among all the organelles examined here, Rab11 positive structures exhibit the most striking morphology and localization changes during ventral furrow formation. Images in A and B were taken on a multiphoton microscope. Scale bars, 10 μm. Images in C – F were taken on a spinning disk confocal microscope. Red dotted lines indicate the ventral furrow. Scale bars, 5 μm. The cross-section views were made by maximum intensity projection over 4 – 5 μm.

Supplemental Figure 2

1343 **Figure S2. Apical Rab11 vesicles are not derived from endocytosis**

1344 **(A)** Endocytosed positive vesicles labeled by membrane dye FM4-64 extensively colocalize

1345 with YFP-Rab5 vesicles (85%, 72 vesicles from 3 embryos) but not YFP-Rab11 vesicles (3%,

1346 98 vesicles from 3 embryos) during apical constriction. Green arrows mark Rab5 vesicles

1347 that do not colocalize with FM4-64 vesicles and yellow arrows mark Rab5 vesicles that

1348 colocalize with FM4-64 vesicles. Scale bar, 5 μm.

1349 **(B)** Quantification of colocalization between endocytosed FM4-64 vesicles and

1350 corresponding Rab vesicles.

1351 **(C)** YFP-Rab5 and mCherry-Rab11 vesicles do not show colocalization. Scale bar, 5 μm.

1352 **(D, D')** Top panels (D): Montage showing Sqh-mCherry in the ventral cross-section view of

1353 wild type and shi^{ts} embryos during ventral furrow formation. Bottom panels (D'): En face

1354 view images showing myosin accumulation at the indicated time points. En face view images

1355 were Gaussian filtered with a radius of 0.5 pixel. Contrasts were adjusted to make the

1356 cytoplasmic background comparable. Scale bars, 10 μm. Embryos were placed at restrictive

1357 temperature (32°C) during cellularization. shi^{ts} mutant embryos (N = 17 embryos) exhibit

1358 ventral furrow formation defects with different level of severity compared to wildtype

1359 controls (N = 5 embryos). shi^{ts} (mild) embryos (N = 10 embryos) progress slower in ventral

1360 furrow formation while shi^{ts} (severe) embryos (N = 7 embryos) fail to form ventral furrow as

1361 tissue relaxes after initial constriction. In both group of mutant embryos, apical myosin

1362 intensity eventually rises to a level comparable or higher than that in the wildtype controls.

1363 Interestingly, a previous study has shown that blocking endocytosis using shi^{ts} in *snail* mutant

embryos rescued the accumulation of Fog in the apical cytoplasm and partially restored

apical Myosin II accumulation (Pouille et al., 2009). It is unclear whether the Myosin II

phenotype observed in our study was associated with the role of dynamin in regulating Fog.

(E, E') Disruption of dynamin function does not prevent apical accumulation of Rab11

vesicles. (E) En face view (maximum projection over 2 μm from apical surface) of the ventral

region of embryos at the onset of gastrulation (T = 0) or during gastrulation when ventral

furrow shows similar morphology between different groups of embryos. (E') Zoom-in view

of the highlighted regions (red boxes) are shown at the bottom. shi^{ts} (mild) embryos show

similar apical Rab11 vesicle accumulation compared to the controls. In shi^{ts} (severe)

embryos, Rab11 vesicles are already present in the broad apical region of the embryo before

apical constriction starts. Nevertheless, the amount of apical Rab11 vesicles substantially

increases in the constricting cells during ventral furrow formation. Contrasts were adjusted to

make the cytoplasmic background comparable. Images were Gaussian filtered with a radius

of 0.7 pixel. Scale bar, 10 μm. Scale bar for zoom-in panel, 2 μm.

1378

 Supplemental Figure 3

Figure S3. Rab11 vesicles are likely involved in the exocytic pathways

(A, B) Constitutively active Rab11 localizes to the plasma membrane in addition to vesicles

and perinuclear compartments. (A) Montage showing the cross-section view of an embryo

expressing YFP-Rab11CA during early ventral furrow formation. T = 0 sec indicates the

onset of apical constriction. Apical and lateral membrane localization of Rab11CA is

enhanced over time in the constricting cells. N = 4 embryos. Scale bar, 10 μm. (B) En face

view of the same embryo at T = 0 sec and 297 sec from the apical surface (0 μm) to 4 μm

below the surface. Scale bar, 10 μm. Bottom panels for each time point shows enlarged view

of regions indicated by red boxes. Scale bar, 2 μm.

(C) Acute inhibition of secretory pathway by Brefeldin A injection results in enlarged Rab11

structures (yellow arrows) compared to control DMSO injection. Breaks between

neighboring myosin (magenta asterisks) was often observed in BFA injected embryos. N = 3

embryos. Scale bar, 5 μm.

Supplemental Figure 4

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1397 **Figure S4. Rab11DN injection does not affect the Rab35 compartments during apical**

1398 **constriction.**

1399 Eliminating apical Rab11 vesicle accumulation by Rab11DN injection does not prevent the

1400 formation of Rab35 positive tubules or obviously affect their morphology in the constricting

1401 cells during ventral furrow formation. Scale bar, 5 μm.

Supplemental Figure 5

Figure S5. Acute inhibition of Rab11 results in reduced rate of apical constriction

(A) Representative images showing apical cell area change in GST injected embryo and

Rab11DN injected embryo during apical constriction. A single z plane at 3-4 μm depth from

the apical surface is shown. The total area of a cell group (masked in blue) located in the

middle of the constriction domain was tracked over time and quantified in (B).

(B) Apical area change over time. 5 embryos were injected with Rab11DN (DN1-DN5) and 6

embryos were injected with GST (GST1-GST6). The GST2 embryo was not used for

quantification because it exhibited abnormal cell shape even before gastrulation.

(C-D) Histograms of individual cell area distribution at 2min, 5min and 8min after the onset

of gastrulation for GST (C, N = 4 embryos, GST1 embryo was not included due to lack of

data at 2 min) and Rab11DN (D, N = 5 embryos) injected embryos. The change in area

distribution is reflected by histogram subtraction between neighboring time points in the

corresponding background (C', C'', D', D''). In the 2 – 5 minute period, apical area reduction

in GST (C') and Rab11DN (D') injected embryos is in general comparable. However, in the 5

– 8 minute period, while cells in GST (C'') injected embryos continue to reduce their apical

area, cells in Rab11DN (D'') injected embryos only show a very mild area reduction.

(E) Box plot showing the average cell area at indicated time point for GST and Rab11DN

injected embryos. Two tailed Student's t-test was used for statistical comparison.

(F) Quantification of anisotropy for individual constricting cells at 2 min, 5 min and 8 min

after the onset of gastrulation. Same embryos from C-E were analyzed. Compared to GST

injected control embryos, Rab11DN injected embryos show a substantially attenuated

1425 increase in anisotropy in the 5 – 8 minute period. Error bars stand for standard deviation.

1426 Two tailed Student's t-test was used for statistical comparison.

1427

Supplemental Videos:

Video 1. Acute cytoD injection results in rapid tissue relaxation without immediately eliminating apical Myosin II. 5 mg/mL cytoD was injected into embryo after onset of apical constriction. A maximum intensity projection of 3 μm of Myosin II signal is shown. Images were acquired every 9 s and the video is displayed at 10 frames per second.

Video 2. Endocytosed FM4-64 vesicle colocalizes with Rab5 vesicle but not Rab11 vesicles. 0.5 μg/μL FM4-64 was injected into the embryo at late cellularization. Images were acquired every 0.46 s during apical constriction and videos are displayed at 20 frames per second.

Video 3. Acute disruption of MTs inhibits Rab11 vesicle transport. A representative embryo immediately before (top) or one minute after (bottom) 25 mM colchicine injection is shown. Images were acquired every 0.22 s during apical constriction and videos are displayed at 20 frames per second.

Video 4. Acute inactivation of Dynein inhibits Rab11 vesicle transport. Top, Rab11 channel at indicated time after antibody injection; bottom, same corresponding movies overlaid with manually segmented trajectories, with red being apically directed transport and green being basally directed transport. 2 mg/mL antibody was injected during apical

1449   constriction. Scale bar, 2 µm. Images were acquired every 0.22 s during apical constriction

1450   and videos are displayed at 20 frames per second.

1451

1452   **Video 5. Rab11 vesicle dynamics near apical adherens junctions (marked by E-**

1453   **cadherin-GFP).** Rab11 vesicles are moving towards and become enriched at adherens

1454   junctions. Scale bar, 4 µm. Images were acquired every 0.21 s during apical constriction and

1455   videos are displayed at 20 frames per second.

1456

Video 6. Rab11 vesicles disappear after Rab11DN injection. Maximum intensity

projections of 3 µm Z stacks from apical surface. GST injection does not affect apical Rab11

vesicle accumulation. Upon Rab11DN injection, however, the apically accumulated Rab11

vesicles disappear over a 4-minute period, while the perinuclear Rab11 compartments appear

to be intact. An exponential fit pixel-wise bleach correction method (ImageJ) was used to

correct for photobleaching. Images were acquired every 5.8 s (left) or 7.2 s during apical

constriction and videos are displayed at 10 frames per second.

1464

Video 7. Injection of Rab11DN causes frequent breaks in supracellular actomyosin

network. First part of the movie: Increased breaks in apical myosin network. Stars mark the

site where myosin break events happen. Images were acquired every 5.8 s (left) or 5 s (right)

during apical constriction and videos are displayed at 5 frames per second. Second part of the

movie: Increased breaks in apical F-actin networks. Images were acquired every 6 s (top) or 7

s (bottom) during apical constriction and videos are displayed at 5 frames per second.

1471

1472   **Video 8. Acute dynein inhibition by dynein antibody injection affects apical Rab11**

1473   **vesicle accumulation and causes frequent Myosin II breaks.** Dynein antibody was injected

1474   around onset of apical constriction or slightly after. Images were acquired every 4.1 s (top) or

1475   4.7 s (bottom) during apical constriction and videos are displayed at 5 frames per second.

1476

1477   **Video 9. Brefeldin A injection results in abnormal Rab11 structures and frequent**

1478   **Myosin II breaks.** BFA was injected around late cellularization. Images were acquired every

1479   30 s during apical constriction and videos are displayed at 2 frames per second.

1480

1481   **Video 10. Knockdown of Canoe causes frequent Myosin II breaks.** Images were acquired

1482   every 5 s and the video is displayed at 10 frames per second.

1483