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9 **Rho/Rok-dependent regulation of actomyosin contractility at tricellular junctions**

10 **controls epithelial permeability in Drosophila**

13 Thea Jacobs, Jone Isasti Sanchez, Steven Reger and Stefan Luschnig*

15 Institute of Integrative Cell Biology and Physiology, Cells in Motion (CiM) Interfaculty Center,

16 University of Münster, Röntgenstrasse 16, D-48149 Münster

*Lead contact

Correspondence: luschnig@uni-muenster.de

Summary

Cell contacts in epithelia are remodeled to regulate paracellular permeability and to control

passage of migrating cells, but how barrier function is modulated while preserving epithelial

integrity is not clear. In the follicular epithelium of *Drosophila* ovaries, tricellular junctions

(TCJs) open transiently in a process termed patency to allow passage of externally produced

yolk proteins for uptake by the oocyte. Here we show that modulation of actomyosin

contractility at cell vertices controls TCJ permeability. Before patency, circumferential

actomyosin bundles are anchored at apical follicle cell vertices, where tension-sensing

junctional proteins, Rho-associated kinase (Rok), and active Myosin II accumulate and

maintain vertices closed. TCJ opening is initiated by redistribution of Myosin II from

circumferential bundles to a medial pool, accompanied by decreasing tension on vertices. This

transition requires activation of Cofilin-dependent F-actin disassembly by the phosphatase

Slingshot and Myosin II inactivation by Myosin light chain phosphatase, and is counteracted

by Rok. Accordingly, constitutive activation of Myosin or of Rho signaling prevent vertex

opening, whereas reduced Myosin II or Rok activity cause excessive and premature vertex

opening. Thus, opening of intercellular gaps in the follicular epithelium does not require

actomyosin-based forces, but relies on a reduction of actomyosin contractility. Conversely, F-

actin assembly is required for closing intercellular gaps after patency. Our findings are

consistent with a force transduction model in which TCJ integrity is maintained by vertex-

anchored contractile actomyosin. We propose that the cell-type-specific organization of

actomyosin at cell vertices determines the mode of contractility-dependent regulation of

epithelial permeability.

Introduction

Intercellular contacts in epithelia are dynamically remodeled to enable cell rearrangements,

paracellular transport, or passage of migrating cells [1,2]. For instance, cell-cell contacts in the

intestinal epithelium open transiently to enhance nutrient absorption after food intake [3].

Paracellular extravasation of leukocytes from blood vessels requires the transient opening of

endothelial cell junctions stimulated by pro-inflammatory cytokines that modulate vascular

endothelial (VE)-Cadherin-based adhesion [4]. Aberrant weakening or disassembly of

intercellular junctions is a hallmark of infections and inflammatory conditions [5,6]. Transient

paracellular leaks also occur during cell division and cell rearrangements in epithelia and are

normally rapidly repaired by localized activation of Rho GTPases to promote actin

polymerization and actomyosin-mediated contraction of junctions [7]. However, how epithelial

cells modulate barrier function while preserving tissue integrity and undergoing dynamic shape

changes during morphogenesis remains unclear.

Epithelial cells are connected by force-bearing adherens junctions (AJs) and by occluding

junctions (tight junctions (TJs) in vertebrates and septate junctions (SJs) in invertebrates) that

seal the intercellular space [1]. The most abundant intercellular contacts in epithelia are bicellular

junctions (BCJs) between two cells. However, at sites where three or more cells meet (cell

vertices), specialized tricellular junctions (TCJs) composed of a distinct set of proteins mediate

adhesion and paracellular sealing [8]. In *Drosophila*, three TCJ-specific TM proteins, Anakonda

(Aka; [9]), Gliotactin (Gli; [10]) and M6 [11] form the paracellular barrier along basolateral cell

vertices, whereas the immunoglobulin domain TM protein Sidekick (Sdk) localizes at apical

tricellular AJs (tAJs) and is required for efficient cell rearrangements [12–15]. Vertebrate epithelia

display tricellular tight junctions (tTJs; [16]) that differ structurally from invertebrate TCJs and

comprise TM proteins of the Angulin/Lipolysis-stimulated Lipoprotein Receptor (LSR) family [17]

and the MARVEL family TM protein Tricellulin [18].

Cell vertices are key points that sense and integrate forces in epithelial and endothelial tissues

[19]. They are dynamically remodeled during cell rearrangements [20] and play fundamental roles

in cytoskeletal organization, mitotic spindle orientation, and epithelial barrier function [21].

Moreover, TCJs provide preferred routes for leukocyte extravasation from blood vessels [22] and

are exploited by bacterial pathogens for breaching epithelial barriers [23]. However, despite their

crucial functions, how TCJs are assembled and remodeled is only beginning to be understood.

Studies in *Drosophila* have revealed important insights into the molecular mechanisms

underlying epithelial cell polarization and intercellular junction formation [1,24]. *Drosophila* ovaries

contain chains of developing follicles, each of which comprises 16 germline cells encased by

an epithelial monolayer of somatic follicle cells (FCs; Fig. 1A). TCJs in the follicular epithelium

overlying the oocyte open transiently during vitellogenesis to generate intercellular channels

that allow passage of externally produced yolk proteins for uptake by the oocyte [25,26]. The

opening of FC vertices, referred to as follicular patency [27,28], is initiated by the sequential

removal of adhesion proteins (E-Cad, N-Cad, NCAM/Fasciclin 2, Sdk) from FC vertices and

by actomyosin remodeling [29,30]. However, the mechanisms underlying TCJ opening and the

role of actomyosin-based forces in this process were not clear.

We show here that vertex-anchored actomyosin generates tensile forces that keep TCJs

closed before patency. This depends on Rho-associated kinase (Rok), a main effector of Rho

GTPase [31,32]. Rok regulates actomyosin contractility in mammalian cells by phosphorylating

non-muscle Myosin II (MyoII) regulatory light chain (MRLC), thus activating MyoII, and by

inhibitory phosphorylation of Myosin light-chain phosphatase (MLCP), which normally

inactivates MyoII [31,33]. In parallel, Rok regulates F-actin dynamics by phosphorylating and

thereby activating LIM-domain kinase 1 (LIMK1), which in turn inactivates the F-actin-severing

protein Cofilin [34–36]. We found that in *Drosophila* FCs, Rok is required to maintain active MyoII,

but not for regulating F-actin dynamics via the LIMK1-Cofilin pathway. At the onset of patency,

downregulation of Rok results in MyoII inactivation and decreased tension acting on vertices.

In parallel, the protein phosphatase Slingshot (Ssh; [37]) activates Cofilin-dependent F-actin

disassembly. This work reveals how actomyosin contractility at TCJs is modulated to control

epithelial permeability.

Results

Actomyosin organization at follicle cell vertices

TCJs in the main body follicle epithelium overlying the oocyte open during vitellogenesis

(stages 8-10; Fig. 1A; [25]) to generate patent intercellular channels, which are visualized by

incubating follicles in fluorescent dextran (Fig. 1B; [29]). Intercellular gaps first appear at stage

9, reach maximal width at stage 10A, and close at stage 11 (Fig. 1B; [29,30]). To understand the

mechanism of vertex opening, we investigated the distribution of actomyosin in main body FCs

at the onset of patency (Fig. 1C-E).

Reorganization of apical actomyosin precedes vertex opening

We visualized E-Cadherin (E-Cad::RFP), non-muscle Myosin II (MyoII::GFP) and the

mechanosensitive protein Vinculin (Vinc::GFP) in living follicles before (stages 7 and 8) and

during early (stage 9) and full patency (stage 10A; Fig. 1C-E). On the basal side of FCs, MyoII

was enriched in planar polarized stress fibers throughout the stages analyzed (Fig. 1C; [38,39]).

By contrast, on the apical side of FCs in pre-patent follicles (stages 7 and 8), MyoII (Fig. 1D)

and actin filaments (visualized by Lifeact::mBaoJin; Fig. S1A,B) aligned at the cell perimeter,

with prominent accumulations at TCJs. MyoII bundles appeared to connect to vertices, where

Vinc was enriched overlapping with E-Cad (Fig. 1D,E), suggesting that actomyosin bundles

exert tension on AJs at cell vertices. While E-Cad was present in continuous belt-like AJs on

the apical side at stage 7, E-Cad was removed from vertices at stage 8 (Fig. 1D). At onset of

patency (stage 9), MyoII receded from vertices and redistributed from circumferential bundles

to a medial pool (Fig. 1D; [40]). Apical MyoII levels further decreased by stage 10A, while basal

MyoII-containing stress fibers were maintained (Fig. 1D). Concurrently, Vinc accumulations at

apical vertices decreased by 74.7% (n(st8)=9, n(st9)=10, p=0.00026) from stage 8 to stage 9

and disappeared at stage 10A (Fig. 1E). Similarly, the force-sensing LIM-domain proteins

Ajuba (GFP::Jub) and Zyxin (Zyx::GFP) [41] accumulated in distinct puncta adjacent to apical

vertices at stage 8 and disappeared by stage 9 (Fig. S1C-F). These findings suggest that apical

FC vertices are under tension in pre-patent follicles and that tension on vertices decreases at

the onset of patency.

To explain these results, we considered a force transduction model [19,42–44] in which contractile

actomyosin bundles make end-on connections to AJs at vertices (Fig. 1G). The combined

forces acting on these AJs are directed towards the center and tighten the vertex. Conversely,

reduced actomyosin-based tension at stage 9 is predicted to release tension and thereby allow

opening of vertices for patency.

Tension on vertices decreases at the onset of patency

To test this model, we asked whether vertices in pre-patent FCs are indeed under tension. We

laser-ablated apical FC vertices (marked by E-Cad::GFP) at stage 7, 8 or 9, and analyzed

displacement of neighboring vertices as a measure for tension acting on them (Fig. S2A,B;

Video S1). This revealed rapid displacement in stage 7 (0.0114 +/- 0.0063 µm/s) and stage 8

(0.0097 +/- 0.0048 µm/s) follicles. By contrast, displacement was strongly reduced (0.0038 +/-

0.0023 µm/s) at stage 9 (Fig. S2B-D), consistent with results from ablations of bicellular

junctions [40]. These findings, along with the behavior of force-sensing proteins (Fig. S1),

indicate that FC vertices are under tension in pre-patent follicles and suggest that tension on

vertices decreases before the onset of patency.

Rho-associated kinase localizes at follicle cell vertices and limits vertex opening

To understand how tension on vertices is generated, we analyzed the distribution of Rok, a

key regulator of actomyosin contractility [32,33]. We found that an mNeonGreen::Rok fusion

protein (mNG::Rok; [45]) accumulates at apical cell boundaries, with prominent puncta abutting

FC vertices in pre-patent follicles (Fig. 2A). Like Rok, active MyoII, detected by an antibody

against MRLC phosphorylated on Serine 21 (p-MyoII), accumulated near apical vertices in pre-

patent follicles (Fig. 2B). Rok puncta disappeared by the onset of patency at stage 9 (Fig.

2A,E), resembling the behavior of tension-sensing proteins Vinc, Jub, and Zyx (Fig. 1E, Fig.
S1). Along with mNG::Rok, p-MyoII accumulations receded from vertices towards the medial
region at stage 9, suggesting that Rok maintains a pool of active MyoII at vertices. Supporting
this idea, RNAi-mediated depletion of Rok in FC clones led to a substantial reduction (57.9%
of control (st. 8); n=11, p=0.000881) of p-MyoII signals at vertices (Fig. 2C,F). Rok-depleted
cells showed enlarged apical outlines, indicating reduced apical constriction, as reported
previously [40,46]. Strikingly, Rok-depleted FC clones also displayed enlarged dextran-filled
intercellular gaps (quantified as the fraction of total cell area, referred to as patency index [29];
Fig. 2D,G). Intercellular gaps in Rok-depleted tissue occasionally appeared already at stage
8, preceding the onset of patency in neighboring control tissue (Fig. 2D). Thus, Rok-dependent
MyoII activity is required to limit both the extent and the timing of vertex opening.

Downregulation of Myosin II activity by protein phosphatase 1 is required for patency

We asked next how Rok regulates MyoII activity in FCs. Rok can activate Myosin by
phosphorylating MRLC and by inhibiting Myosin light chain phosphatase (MLCP, also known
as protein phosphatase 1 (PP1); Fig. 3E), which inactivates MyoII by dephosphorylating MRLC
[33]. We found that loss of the PP1 catalytic subunit, PP1β, encoded by *flapwing (flw*; [47,48]), in
flw^FP41 FC clones caused excessive MyoII activation (indicated by elevated p-MyoII levels) in
pre-patent follicles (Fig. 3A,B). MyoII hyperactivation in *flw^FP41* clones persisted into stage 10A,
when apical p-MyoII levels are low in wild-type FCs (Fig. 3A,B), suggesting that PP1β normally
inactivates apical MyoII at the onset of patency. *flw^FP41* cells showed smaller apical areas
compared to control cells, presumably due to increased apical constriction upon MyoII
overactivation. Strikingly, FC vertices in *flw^FP41* clones failed to open when surrounding wild-
type epithelium was fully patent at stage 10A (Fig. 3C,D), indicating that MyoII inactivation by
PP1β is required for FCs to enter patency. Conversely, interfering with MyoII activity by
expressing in FCs a dominant-negative form of Myosin II heavy chain lacking the actin-binding
head domain (MHC^DN::YFP; [49]) caused reduced MyoII phosphorylation (Fig. 3G) and
excessive vertex opening (Fig. 3F,H). Together, these findings indicate that Rok-dependent
MyoII contractility acts to keep FC vertices closed until stage 9, while subsequent
downregulation of MyoII activity by MLCP is necessary to allow vertex opening, the extent of
which is determined by the degree of MyoII activity.

Rok controls patency by regulating Myosin II activity

Besides promoting MyoII contractility, Rok stimulates F-actin assembly in mammalian cells by
activating LIMK1, which in turn inhibits the F-actin-severing activity of Cofilin [34–36]. To test
whether Rok-dependent F-actin regulation is involved in vertex remodeling, we analyzed the
effects of *Rok* RNAi on F-actin in FCs. Surprisingly, while *Rok* RNAi led to substantially
reduced apical p-MyoII signals (Fig. 2C), there was only a minor reduction of F-actin in Rok-

depleted cells at stage 7 and no significant effect on the distribution or levels of F-actin at later
stages (Fig. 2C,F). Notably, F-actin still accumulated at apical junctions in Rok-depleted cells
(Fig. 2C). These findings suggest that in FCs Rok acts mainly by controlling MyoII activity,
whereas Rok-dependent regulation of F-actin dynamics via LIMK1 appears to play no
significant role. Consistent with this notion, loss of LIMK1 in homozygous viable *LIMK1*[2] null
mutants [50] had no detectable effect on F-actin organization in FCs or on patency (Fig. S3).

Vertex-associated F-actin prevents TCJ opening

F-actin was enriched at apical FC vertices in pre-patent follicles (stages 7, 8) and receded from
vertices by stage 9 (Fig. S1A,B), suggesting that initiation of patency involves F-actin
remodeling. To test this idea, we used mutations or RNAi to probe the roles of F-actin-
regulators. However, in many cases this led to pleiotropic effects on epithelial organization or
cell survival (not shown), thus precluding specific functions in patency. Therefore, to deplete
F-actin in a more acute fashion, we treated cultured follicles with Latrunculin A (LatA), which
prevents actin assembly by sequestering actin monomers and by accelerating F-actin
depolymerization [51]. In follicles treated with LatA for 45 minutes, apical F-actin was strongly
reduced compared to controls (Fig. 4A,B) and E-Cad-labelled AJs were interrupted at vertices
(Fig. 4D). Interestingly, LatA treatment led to enlarged intercellular gaps on the apical, but not
basolateral side, at stage 10A (Fig. 4C-E), suggesting that an apical pool of LatA-sensitive F-
actin is required to maintain E-Cad at vertices and to prevent precocious vertex opening.

Enabled/VASP is dispensable for vertex-associated F-actin assembly in FCs

A key F-actin regulator, Enabled / vasodilator-stimulated protein (Ena/VASP), promotes
assembly of vertex-associated F-actin in mammalian cells [52] and in *Drosophila* [53,54]. A
GFP::Ena fusion protein localized, besides cytoplasmic accumulations, to puncta abutting FC
vertices in pre-patent follicles (Fig. S4A,B), resembling Jub, Vinc, and Zyx localization (Fig.1E,
Fig. S1C,D), and consistent with direct binding of Ena to Vinc and Zyx [55]. The GFP::Ena puncta
disappeared from vertices by stage 9 (Fig. S4A,B), coinciding with a reduction of vertex-
associated F-actin (Fig. S1A,B). To probe Ena´s role in organizing this F-actin pool, we
depleted Ena function either by sequestrating Ena protein at mitochondria (Fig. S4D; [53,56]) or
by inducing FC clones homozygous for a newly generated *ena* deletion allele (*ena*[1.8]; Fig.
S4C,E). Both led to depletion of Ena protein but had no or only slight effects on F-actin
accumulation at apical vertices (Fig. S4D,E,G), and patency was not detectably affected (Fig.
S4H,I). By contrast, Ena overexpression caused excessive F-actin accumulation and formation
of actin-rich-protrusions at apical cell boundaries and vertices (Fig. S4F,G). Thus, although
Ena can induce vertex-associated F-actin assembly in FCs, it is dispensable for this function,
presumably due to redundancy with other factors.

Hypertonic shock induces opening of vertices *ex vivo*

Searching for ways to analyze the dynamics of patency, we noticed that treatment of cultured
stage 9 follicles with hypertonic medium induced transient opening of FC vertices, resembling
the intercellular gaps observed during patency (Fig. 5A; [29]). Addition of PBS or sucrose to the
medium induced rapid formation of intercellular gaps, which reached maximal size after
approximately one minute and closed after 5 minutes (n=5; Fig. 5A,B; Video S2). Addition of
DMSO had a more gradual effect, and caused an initial contraction of cells, followed by
opening of vertices with a peak at seven minutes and closure after 25 minutes (n=8; Fig. 5A,B;
Video S2). By contrast, hypotonic treatment by diluting (1:1) the medium with water did not
alter cell contacts at stage 9 (Fig. 5A,B; n=8) but induced closure of intercellular gaps in patent
(stage 10A) follicles (Fig 5C,D; n=5). Interestingly, opening of vertices upon DMSO-induced
hypertonic treatment was restricted to vitellogenic (stage 9) follicles, and was not observed at
earlier stages (Fig. 5E,F). In previtellogenic follicles (stage 5) with proliferating FCs, transient
gaps were observed only at boundaries of dividing cells (Fig. 5E; Video S3), revealing
junctional remodeling during mitosis [57]. These findings suggest that hypertonic treatment can
induce opening of FC vertices only when remodeling of cell-cell junctions and of actomyosin
has provided a permissive condition for initiation of patency.

We used the hypertonic (DMSO-induced) shock assay in stage 9 follicles as a proxy for
patency initiation to probe the roles of F-actin in vertex opening and closure. Cortical F-actin
(visualized by Lifeact::GFP) increased 10 sec after adding DMSO, coinciding with initial
contraction of FCs (Fig. 5G; Video S4). Subsequently, F-actin disappeared from the cortex as
intercellular gaps became visible and re-appeared at vertices when gaps started to close.
Interestingly, Lifeact::GFP signals were anti-correlated with intercellular gap size: minimal
signals concurred with maximal gap size and vice versa (Fig. 5H), suggesting that disassembly
of cortical F-actin may be required for vertex opening, while F-actin assembly may promote
closure of gaps.

Cofilin-dependent F-actin disassembly is required for opening intercellular gaps

To test this hypothesis, we manipulated F-actin dynamics using pharmacological inhibitors or
genetics and analyzed gap opening and closure following DMSO-induced hypertonic shock.
In follicles treated with LatA, Lifeact::GFP signals were uniformly low and did not change after
adding DMSO, although FCs contracted after 3 minutes (Fig. 5G,I; Video S5). Intercellular
spaces in LatA-treated follicles opened, with gaps reaching maximal size after 16 minutes, but,
unlike controls, failed to close within one hour (Fig. 5G,I), consistent with a requirement of F-
actin assembly for vertex closure.

Conversely, FC clones lacking the protein phosphatase Slingshot (Ssh; [37]), which promotes F-
actin disassembly by dephosphorylating and thereby activating Cofilin, showed substantial

accumulation of apical F-actin that persisted into stage 10A (Fig. 4F,G). Interestingly, *ssh[1-11]*

mutant FC clones displayed reduced intercellular openings during patency (Fig. 4H,I). Taken

together, these results indicate that Slingshot/Cofilin-dependent F-actin disassembly is

required for vertex opening, while F-actin assembly promotes closure of gaps after patency.

Acute activation of Rho signaling is sufficient to prevent patency

Our findings suggest that Rho-induced actomyosin contractility is necessary to maintain FC

vertices closed. To test whether Rho signaling is also sufficient to prevent vertex opening, we

combined the hypertonic shock assay (Fig. 5) with the CRY2/CIBN optogenetic system [58] to

acutely activate Rho signaling (Fig. 6A). We generated mosaic follicles co-expressing CRY2-

RhoGEF2::mCherry and plasma membrane-anchored CIBN::pmGFP in FC clones (Fig. 6B).

Illumination with blue light (488 nm) triggered rapid plasma membrane recruitment of CRY2-

RhoGEF2::mCherry. When a hypertonic shock was applied by adding DMSO nine minutes

after optogenetic Rho activation, control cells opened their vertices, whereas vertices

remained closed in FCs with activated Rho signaling (Fig. 6B,C). As a control, chronic

membrane localization of Rho in flies expressing CRY2-RhoGEF2::mCherry and

CIBN::pmGFP under constant light blocked patency, whereas CRY2-RhoGEF2::mCherry

expressed alone was distributed in the cytoplasm and did not affect patency (Fig. 6D,E). Thus,

the blockade of patency after optogenetic Rho activation is not caused by chronic RhoGEF2

overexpression, and acute activation of Rho-induced actomyosin contractility is sufficient to

prevent opening of FC vertices.

Discussion

We used follicular patency in *Drosophila* as a model to understand how an intact epithelial

barrier is transiently breached by opening of TCJs to enhance paracellular permeability. Our

work reveals that this process is governed by modulation of actomyosin contractility at cell

vertices. We show first that before patency, apical vertex-anchored actomyosin bundles

generate tensile forces that keep vertices closed. Sustained MyoII activity in pre-patent follicles

depends on Rho-associated kinase, which accumulates at vertices along with tension-sensing

junctional proteins Jub, Vinc, and Zyx. Second, when TCJ opening initiates, MyoII redistributes

from vertex-anchored peripheral bundles to a medial pool, Rok and tension-sensing proteins

withdraw from vertices, and junctional tension is released. Third, this transition requires

inactivation of MyoII by Myosin light-chain phosphatase (MLCP), which is normally inactivated

through phosphorylation by Rok. Removal of Rok at the onset of patency abrogates

inactivation of MLCP, enabling it to inactivate MyoII, thereby releasing constricting forces and

allowing vertices to open. Finally, we show that a dynamic (LatA-sensitive) pool of F-actin is

associated with apical FC vertices and helps to keep vertices closed. Initiation of patency

requires Slingshot/Cofilin-dependent disassembly of this F-actin network. Conversely, F-actin

assembly is required for closing intercellular gaps after patency.

Thus, surprisingly, opening of intercellular gaps in the follicular epithelium does not require

actomyosin-based forces, but depends on reduction of actomyosin contractility, which acts to

constrict vertices. This is consistent with a force transduction model in which TCJ integrity is

maintained by contractile actomyosin bundles that are anchored in an end-on fashion at

vertices (Fig. 1G; [19,42–44]). This type of actomyosin arrangement was described in mammalian

mammary epithelial EpH4 cells, where the tricellular tight junction (tTJ) protein Tricellulin

regulates F-actin organization through Cdc42 [59] and anchors actin filaments at vertices via α-

Catenin, which in turn recruits Vinculin to reinforce linkage to the tTJ-associated actin network

[52]. Resembling our findings in *Drosophila*, MyoII is concentrated at tTJs and is required for

maintaining tTJ integrity in EpH4 cells [52]. While Tricellulin is not conserved in *Drosophila*, the

vertex-specific adhesion protein Sidekick (Sdk) plays an analogous role by recruiting MyoII [15],

suggesting that MyoII has a common function in TCJ maintenance in vertebrate and

invertebrate epithelia.

Tension-sensitive actomyosin assembly at cell vertices

What mediates the assembly of vertex-anchored F-actin? Tension-sensitive Vinculin

recruitment promotes F-actin organization at vertices and is required for TCJ integrity and

barrier function in mammalian cells [52] and in the *Xenopus* epidermis [60]. Although Vinculin also

accumulates at vertices of pre-patent follicles, we found Vinculin to be dispensable for F-actin

organization and for control of patency (not shown), consistent with earlier reports of *vinc* being

a non-essential gene in *Drosophila* [61,62]. This could be explained by functional redundancy of

Vinculin with other proteins that mediate tension-sensitive linkage between AJs and F-actin,

such as Ajuba and Zyxin [63]. Interestingly, Vinculin and Zyxin recruit the actin polymerase

Ena/VASP [55] to AJs under tension, where Ena promotes F-actin assembly [64]. Ena is recruited

to vertices in *Drosophila* (Fig. S4; [53,54,65]) and in mammalian epithelial cells [52]. However, like

Vinculin, Ena was not essential for F-actin assembly in FCs, suggesting that Ena acts in a

redundant fashion along with other factors that ensure robust maintenance of this F-actin

network.

Dual regulation of actomyosin contractility during patency

Work in mammalian cells suggested that tensile forces sustain a positive feedback loop that

generates vertex-anchored actin filaments through tension-dependent recruitment of Vinculin

and actin-polymerizing proteins, such as Ena/VASP [52,64]. We showed that local activation of

MyoII by vertex-localized Rok generates contractile forces, which in turn may promote tension-

dependent F-actin assembly at FC vertices. Our genetic results indicate that this feedback

loop can be broken by inactivating MyoII through MLCP or by promoting Ssh/Cofilin-dependent

F-actin disassembly (Fig. 6F). Thus, patency initiation involves dual regulation of actomyosin

contractility, and both, MyoII inactivation and F-actin disassembly, are required for normal

vertex opening. Interestingly, we identified two phosphatases, MLCP and Slingshot, as

essential regulators of these processes during patency initiation. It will be interesting to

elucidate whether Rho/Rok signaling regulates both phosphatases to jointly control F-actin

dynamics and Myosin activity, or whether different upstream signals are involved. While Rok

clearly controls MyoII activity via MLCP in pre-patent FCs, our genetic results suggest that the

conserved parallel pathway downstream of Rok that regulates F-actin dynamics via LIMK1-

dependent inactivation of Cofilin [34,36,66] is not active in FCs. Instead, we found that the

phosphatase Ssh is essential for Cofilin-dependent F-actin disassembly at the onset of

patency. As Ssh has not been reported to be regulated by Rho signaling, it will be interesting

to elucidate how Ssh activity or localization is controlled in FCs. Interestingly, the mammalian

Ssh homolog SSH1L can antagonize Rok signaling by dephosphorylating the Rok substrate

MyoII phosphatase MYPT-1 [67]. While it is not known whether Ssh acts analogously in

Drosophila, such a mechanism could mediate coordinate regulation of actin disassembly and

Myosin inactivation in patency initiation.

We showed that F-actin reassembly is required for sealing intercellular gaps to terminate

patency. Similarly, localized transient Rho activation mediates actin polymerization and Rok-

dependent contractility to repair tight junction leaks in *Xenopus* epidermis [7]. How Rho activity

is spatially and temporally regulated to restore barrier integrity, or to control TCJ opening, as

in the case of patency, is not clear. In vertebrate endothelial cells, inflammatory mediators,

such as histamine, thrombin, or VEGF, induce opening of cell-cell junctions to increase

vascular permeability by activating actomyosin contractility through RhoA [68]. Thus, in this

system, opposite to *Drosophila* follicles or *Xenopus* epidermis, Rho-induced actomyosin

contractility increases junctional permeability rather than preventing it. In endothelial cells,

which differ from cuboidal epithelia in cell shape and cytoskeletal organization, Rho activation

induces radially aligned stress fibers that exert pulling and shear forces on VE-Cadherin-based

junctions, resulting in junctional leaks [69,70]. By contrast, contractility of vertex-anchored

actomyosin filaments in FCs maintains TCJ integrity and prevents premature TCJ opening.

Thus, the cell-type-specific organization of actomyosin at cell vertices determines the mode of

contractility-dependent regulation of epithelial permeability.

Materials and Methods

Drosophila **strains and genetics**

Unless noted otherwise, *Drosophila* strains are described in FlyBase. Genotypes of specimens

shown in the figures are listed in Table S1. All strains used in this work are listed in Table S2.

Mosaic follicles carrying mutant clones for *ena^1.8^*, *flw ^FP41^*, or *ssh^1-11^* were generated using

Flipase-induced mitotic recombination. A strain carrying a *hs-Flp* source and the appropriate

FRT chromosome marked with either *ubi-GFP-nls* or *ubi-mRFP-nls* transgenes was crossed

to a strain carrying the mutation of interest on the corresponding FRT chromosome. To induce

Flp-mediated mitotic recombination, progeny of these crosses was heat-shocked at the pupal

stage (48-96 hours after puparium formation) for 3 x 60 mins at 37°C in a water bath. For RNAi-

mediated knockdown or overexpression experiments, flip-out clones were generated by

crossing flies carrying *hs-Flp^122^* and the UAS construct of choice to flies carrying an

act5C>CD2>Gal4 flip-out construct. Progeny of these crosses was heat-shocked as adults (1-

2 days after eclosion) for 30 min at 37°C in a water bath.

Generation of new *ena* alleles

A transgenic CRISPR approach was used to generate *ena* deletion alleles. Male flies

expressing from a transgene (B-83021) two different guide RNAs (sgRNA-WKO.1-C12.1,

sgRNA-WKO.1-C12.2; [71]) targeting the *ena* coding sequence were crossed to females

expressing *nos*-Cas9 in the germline. F1 males expressing *nos-Cas9* and the two guide RNAs

were crossed with *y w; Gla/CyO Dfd-GMR-YFP* females to establish stocks. Single F2 males

were mated with *ena^23^/CyO* (B-25405) females to test for complementation of *ena^23^* lethality.

Lines were established from crosses that failed to complement lethality. The *ena^1.8^* mutation

was recombined onto an FRTG13 chromosome for subsequent mosaic analyses. To identify

lesions in the *ena* locus of newly induced *ena* alleles, genomic DNA was isolated from

homozygous embryos (detected by the absence of YFP signal from the *CyO Dfd-GMR-YFP*

balancer chromosome) and the *ena* genomic region was amplified using oligonucleotides (5'-

CCTGGTACACATTCGCGTTT and 5'-TGTGCAGCTGAGATCTTGGA) and sequenced.

Transgenic constructs

The UAS-Lifeact::mBaoJin construct was generated as follows. The Lifeact peptide [72] coding

sequence was produced by annealing two complementary oligonucleotides (5'-

CAAAATGGGCGTGGCCGATCTGATCAAGAAGTTCGAGAGCATCAGCAAGGAGGAA and

5'-

CCGGTTCCTCCTTGCTGATGCTCTCGAACTTCTTGATCAGATCGGCCACGCCCATTTTG

GTAC), resulting in a dsDNA fragment with overhangs compatible with AgeI and XbaI

restriction sites, respectively. A plasmid carrying the mBaoJin [73] coding sequence was a gift

from Kiryl Piatkevich (Westlake University, Zhejiang, China). The mBaoJin coding sequence

was amplified using forward (5'-GAACCGGTCGCCACCGTGTCGAAAGGTGAAGAGGA) and

reverse (5'-GATCTAGATTATTTGTACAGCTCGTCCATGC) primers and the product was cut

with AgeI and XbaI. The Lifeact and mBaojin fragments were co-ligated with pUASt-attB [74]

after cutting with AgeI and XbaI. The pUASt-Lifeact::mBaoJin construct was integrated into the

attP40 and attP2 landing sites, respectively, using PhiC31-mediated site-specific integration

[74]. All plasmids used in this study are listed in Table S2.

Antibodies and immunostainings

Female flies were collected 24-48 hours after eclosion and were fed on baker´s yeast for two

days before dissecting ovaries in Shields and Sang M3 medium (Biomol; supplemented with

1x Penicillin/Streptomycin and 10% fetal bovine serum; M3++ medium). For immunostaining,

dissected ovarioles were fixed in 4% PFA in PBS for 15 minutes at room temperature, rinsed

quickly 3 times in PBT and blocked 3 x 30 minutes in 10% BSA in PBT (0.2% Tween-20).

Primary antibodies (see Table S3) were diluted in 10% BSA in PBT and incubated with slow

agitation overnight at 4°C. After 3 washes in PBT, samples were blocked 3 x 30 mins in 10%

BSA/PBT. Fluorophore-conjugated secondary antibodies (see Table S3) were added at 1:500

in 10% BSA/PBT and incubated for 2.5 hours at room temperature or overnight at 4°C. After

six washes (10 min each) in PBT, samples were mounted in ProLong Gold antifade medium

(Thermo Fisher).

For anti-phospho-Myosin stainings, follicles were dissected in M3++ medium and then fixed in

4% PFA in PBS supplemented with phosphatase inhibitor solution (modified after [75]).

Subsequent steps were done as described above, except that primary antibodies were

incubated for 24 hours at 4°C. Phosphatase inhibitor solution was prepared as a 20x stock

solution (modified after [75]: 20 mM NaF, 20 mM β-Glycerophosphate, 20 mM Na_3VO_4, 100 mM

$Na_4P_2O_7 \cdot 10H_2O$).

F-actin in fixed samples was visualized using Phalloidin AlexaFluor-488 or Phalloidin

AlexaFluor-568 (1:1000; Fisher Scientific), together with secondary antibodies.

Culture and imaging of ovarian follicles

For live imaging, follicles were dissected and cultured in M3++ medium. For plasma membrane

staining, CellMask Orange Plasma Membrane Stain (6.25 µg/mL final concentration; Thermo

Fisher) was added to the dissection medium. For permeability assays, follicles were

transferred to 200 µL M3++ medium containing dextran (10 kDa) conjugated with AlexaFluor-

647 (37.5 µg/mL, Life Technologies). For visualizing F-actin with Lifeact-Halo2, follicles

expressing *UAS-Lifeact-Halo2* [76] driven by *GR1*-Gal4 were incubated in M3++ medium

containing 1 µM HALO-Tag Ligand-Janelia Fluor-646 (Promega, GA1120) for 20 minutes

before mounting. Follicles were imaged immediately after mounting on glass slides with cover

slips.

For osmotic treatment, dissected follicles were transferred to 8-well glass-bottom chambers

(VWR 734-2061) coated with Poly-D-Lysine (1 mg/mL in 0.15 M H_3BO_3 pH 8.4). Each chamber

contained 200 µL M3++ medium supplemented with dextran-AlexaFluor647 as above.

Osmolarity was changed during imaging by adding the respective osmotic agent as follows:

10 µL 50% DMSO in M3++ (final concentration 2.38% DMSO or 304 mosmol/L); 10 µL 5x PBS

in M3++ (final concentration 0.238x PBS or 88,96 mosmol/L); 50 µL 250 mM Sucrose in M3++

(final concentration 50 mM or 50 mosmol/L). For hypotonic shocks, 150 µL H_2O were added

to follicles in 150 µL medium containing dextran-AlexaFluor647. The concentration of dextran-

AlexaFluor647 (37.5 µg/mL) was kept constant during osmotic shocks by adding the

appropriate amount of dextran-AlexaFluor647 along with the osmotic reagent.

For Latrunculin A treatment, follicles were dissected and incubated for 45 minutes in M3++

medium supplemented with Insulin (0.4 mg/mL; Sigma I0516) and Latrunculin A (2 µM; Abcam

#ab144290).

For long-term high-resolution live imaging, follicles were mounted in fibrinogen gel as

described in [77]. Follicles were dissected in serum-free M3 medium containing Fibrinogen (5

mg/mL; Sigma F3879) and transferred in 7 µL of medium to a MatTek round dish imaging

chamber (MatTek Corp., P35G-1.5-14-C). Fibrinogen was clotted by adding 1.6 µL Thrombin

(1000 units/mL; Sigma T4648) for 5 to 10 minutes. The clot was covered with 200 µL

Schneider's medium supplemented with 20% fetal bovine serum, Glucose (1 g/L) and Insulin

(0.4 mg/mL; Sigma I0516; adapted from [77]).

For osmotic shock experiments, follicles were transferred to 8-well glass-bottom chambers

(VWR 734-2061) coated with Poly-D-Lysine (1 mg/mL in 0.15 M H_3BO_3 pH 8.4). Each chamber

contained 200 µL M3++ medium supplemented with 10 kDa dextran-AlexaFluor647 as above.

For optogenetic experiments, flies were fed on yeast in constant darkness at 25°C for two days

before dissection. Flies were dissected and samples were mounted under red light before

imaging on a Leica SP8 confocal microscope.

For all remaining experiments, follicles were mounted in M3++ medium (containing dextran-

AlexaFluor647 where applicable) on glass slides with cover slips held by spacers (a cut cover

slip between two layers of double-sided tape).

All media and reagents are listed in Table S4.

Laser Ablations

Dissected follicles were mounted in eight-well glass-bottom chambers coated with poly-D-

Lysine and covered with 200 µL M3++ medium. Imaging was performed on a Zeiss Spinning

Disk (Yokogawa CSU-X1) confocal microscope with 100x / NA 1.45 oil immersion objective.

Images of a single z-plane were acquired at a rate of two frames per second over 40 seconds.

Ablations were performed using a pulsed 355 nm laser (Rapp OptoElectronics). Vertices were

ablated within a 5-pixel ROI with one laser pulse (530 ms) per vertex. Vertex displacement

was   tracked   in   FIJI   using   the   Manual   Tracking   Plugin

(https://imagej.net/ij/plugins/track/track.html). Using R (v4.2.3, with RStudio Interface

(2023.03.0+386)), the displacement of the three vertices next to the ablated vertex was

calculated as Euclidean distance ($d = \sqrt{(x_1 - y_1)^2 + (x_2 - y_2)^2}$). The mean displacement and

standard deviation of the three vertices per movie were calculated and the time series data

was smoothed by applying a running median with a median window of k=5.

Microscopy

484   Confocal images were acquired on a Leica SP8 confocal microscope with 40x / NA 1.3 or 63x

485   / NA 1.4 oil immersion objectives or on a Zeiss LSM980 confocal microscope equipped with

486   an Airyscan 2 module and a 63x / NA 1.4 oil immersion objective. Airyscan images were

487   processed using Zeiss Zen blue (v3.5.093.00010) Software with super-resolution filter set to

488   6.3.

Image analysis

Images were processed using FIJI/ImageJ (v1.42; [78]) and OMERO (5.8.0). Image panels were

assembled using OMERO.figure v6.2.2 [79] and Affinity Designer (v2.3.0).

For quantification of signal intensities at vertices, average projections of 20 confocal sections

spanning 3 µm of the apical region were generated. Fluorescence intensities at vertices were

measured within circular ROIs with 60 pixels diameter (for 63 x objective) or 55 pixels diameter

(40 x objective) centered on a vertex. Background was subtracted and mean intensities were

normalized to the mean intensities at the earliest stage analyzed.

To measure patency index, confocal sections of main body FCs were acquired at 25% of total

epithelium height from the basal surface. A median filter was applied to the dextran-

AlexaFluor647 channel, and a threshold was set to create a mask of the dextran signal. The

Analyze Particle feature in FIJI was used to measure the area filled with dextran signal. The

patency index represents the total area of dextran-filled intercellular spaces within the ROI

divided by the total ROI area [29].

Statistics

Statistical analyses were performed in R (4.2.3) using RStudio Interface (2023.03.0+386). For

phenotypic analyses, sample size (n) was not predetermined using statistical methods, but

was chosen by considering the variability of a given phenotype, determined by the standard

deviation. Sample size for each experiment is indicated in the graphs or figure legends.

Experiments were considered independent if specimens were derived from different parental

crosses. Investigators were not blinded to allocation during experiments. The data was tested

for normality using the Shapiro-Wilk test. Welch's two-sample t-test was used for normally

distributed data. For data that was not normally distributed, or data that was compared

between multiple stages, the Wilcoxon rank-sum test (R standard package) was used. P-

values were corrected for multiple testing using the Bonferroni-Holm method [80].

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Author contributions

527   Conceptualization, T.J., J.I.S., S.L.; Methodology, all authors; Investigation, all authors; Formal

528   Analysis, T.J., J.I.S., S.R.; Visualization, T.J., J.I.S., S.R.; Reagents and tools, all authors;

529   Figures, T.J., S.L.; Writing – Original Draft, T.J.; Writing – Review and Editing, S.L.; Funding

530   Acquisition, S.L; Supervision, S.L.

Declaration of interests

533   The authors declare no competing interests.

Supplemental information

Document S1. Figures S1–S4 and Tables S1-S3.

Video S1. Laser ablations of apical FC vertices. Related to Figure 1 and S2.

Video S2. Osmotic treatment of cultured follicles. Related to Figure 4 and 5.

Video S3. Hypertonic treatment of stage 5 follicles containing cells in interphase and mitotic

cells. Related to Figure 4 and 5.

Video S4. Hypertonic treatment of follicle expressing Lifeact::GFP. Related to Figure 4 and 5.

Video S5. Hypertonic treatment of follicle expressing Lifeact::GFP treated with Latrunculin A.

Related to Figure 4 and 5.

Video S6. Optogenetic activation of Rho signaling followed by hypertonic treatment. Related

to Figure 6.

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Figure 1

Figure 1

Reorganization of actomyosin at follicle cell vertices precedes vertex opening.

(A) Confocal sections of living follicles before (stage 7) and during (stages 8, 9, 10A)

vitellogenesis. Fs(2)Ket::GFP (green) labels nuclei, CellMask (magenta) labels plasma

membranes. Anterior is to the left, dorsal is up. NC, nurse cells; Oo, oocyte; BC, border cells;

sFC, stretch follicle cells; mbFC, main body follicle cells.

(B) Basolateral sections of mbFCs acquired at 25% FC height. Dextran (green) marks

intercellular spaces, CellMask (magenta) labels plasma membranes. Single-channel views

show dextran (grey).

(C-D) Basal (C) and apical (D) sections of mbFCs expressing E-Cad::RFP (magenta) and

MyoII::GFP (green). Close-ups (D) show single vertices (rectangles in overview). Note that

MyoII (intensities color-coded using heatmap in (D)) accumulates near apical vertices at stage

7 and 8 and redistributes to the medial region at stage 9 (D). Cross-sectional (xz) view (D)

shows that apical, but not basal, MyoII declines by stage 9.

(E) Apical sections of FC vertices in follicles expressing E-Cad::RFP (magenta) and Vinc::GFP

(green). Note that Vinc::GFP (color-coded using heatmap in single-channel view) accumulates

near vertices at stage 7 and 8 and declines by stage 9.

(F) Quantification of MyoII::GFP and Vinc::GFP signals (normalized) at apical vertices. Box

plots show maximum and minimum observations, upper and lower quartile, and median

(horizontal line). Number of follicles (n) analyzed is indicated. P-values (Pairwise Wilcoxon

Rank Sum Test): * $p \leq 0.05$, ** $p \leq 0.01$, *** $p \leq 0.001$, **** $p \leq 0.0001$.

(G) Model of force transmission at apical FC vertices at stage 8 (modified from [19]).

Scale bars: (A), 50 µm; (B- D), 5 µm, close-ups 1 µm, (E) 1 µm.

See also Figure S1 and Video S1.

Figure 2

Figure 2

Rho-associated kinase localizes at follicle cell vertices and limits vertex opening.

(A) Apical sections of mbFCs expressing E-Cad::RFP (magenta) and mNeonGreen::Rok

(mNG::Rok; green). Close-up views show single vertices. Note that mNG::Rok (intensities

color-coded using heatmap in single-channel view) accumulates near vertices in pre-patent

follicles (stage 7, 8), but not in later stages.

(B) Apical sections of follicles expressing E-Cad::GFP (magenta) stained for p-MyoII (green;

heatmap in single-channel view). Close-ups show single vertices. Note that p-MyoII

redistributes from vertices to the medial region by stage 9.

(C) Apical sections of follicles expressing *Rok* dsRNA in mCherry-nls-marked clones (yellow)

stained for p-MyoII (cyan), E-Cad (magenta) and F-actin (Phalloidin; not shown in merge).

Note reduced p-MyoII, but not F-actin signals in Rok-depleted cells. Arrowheads indicate F-

actin accumulation at vertices in Rok-depleted cells.

(D) Basolateral sections of follicles expressing *Rok* dsRNA in mCherry-nls-marked clones

(magenta). Dextran (green) marks intercellular spaces. Single-channel views show dextran

(grey). Note enlarged gaps in Rok-depleted cells compared to control cells at stage 9 and

stage 10A.

(E) Quantification of mNeonGreen::Rok signals (normalized) at apical vertices. Number of

follicles (n) analyzed is indicated. P-values (Pairwise Wilcoxon Rank Sum Test): * $p \leq 0.05$, **

$p \leq 0.01$, *** $p \leq 0.001$, **** $p \leq 0.0001$.

(F) Quantification of p-MyoII and Phalloidin signals (normalized) at apical vertices in *Rok* RNAi

and control clones. Number of follicles (n) analyzed is indicated. P-values (Welch's two-sample

t-test): * $p \leq 0.05$, ** $p \leq 0.01$, *** $p \leq 0.001$, **** $p \leq 0.0001$.

(G) Quantification of patency index in *Rok* RNAi and control clones. Number of follicles (n)

analyzed is indicated. P-values (Welch's two-sample t-test): * $p \leq 0.05$, ** $p \leq 0.01$, *** $p \leq$

0.001, **** $p \leq 0.0001$.

Scale bars: (A-B), 5 µm, close-ups 1 µm; (C) 5 µm; (D) 10 µm.

See also Figures S2 and S3.

Figure 3

Figure 3

Downregulation of Myosin II activity by protein phosphatase 1 is required for patency.

(A) Apical (xy, left) and orthogonal (xz, right) sections of follicle epithelium carrying *PP1β* (*flw^{FP41}*) clones (marked by absence of RFP (yellow)), stained for E-Cad (magenta) and p-MyoII (cyan). Dashed lines indicate positions of orthogonal sections. Note increased p-MyoII levels (color-coded using heatmap) on apical and basal sides in *PP1β* mutant cells.

(B) Quantification of p-MyoII signals (normalized) at apical vertices in *PP1β* and control cells. Number of follicles (n) analyzed is indicated. P-values (Welch's two-sample t-test): * $p \leq 0.05$, ** $p \leq 0.01$, *** $p \leq 0.001$, **** $p \leq 0.0001$.

(C) Basolateral section of follicle carrying *PP1β* clone marked by absence of RFP (magenta). Dextran (green) marks intercellular spaces.

(D) Quantification of patency index of *PP1β* and control cells. Number of follicles (n) analyzed is indicated. P-values (Welch's two-sample t-test): * $p \leq 0.05$, ** $p \leq 0.01$, *** $p \leq 0.001$, **** $p \leq 0.0001$.

(E) Scheme of non-muscle Myosin II with Myosin heavy chain (MHC/Zip), Myosin regulatory light chain (MRLC/Sqh), and its regulators Myosin light chain kinase (MLCK), Myosin light-chain phosphatase (MLCP), and Rok.

(F) Basolateral sections of mbFCs expressing MHC^{DN}::YFP in mCherry-nls-marked clones (magenta). Dextran (green) marks intercellular spaces. Note enlarged intercellular gaps in MHC^{DN}::YFP-expressing tissue at stage 9 and 10A.

(G) Stage 10A follicle expressing MHC^{DN}::YFP (yellow) in clones, stained for E-Cad (magenta) and p-MyoII (cyan). Note that MHC^{DN}::YFP-expressing cells show reduced p-MyoII levels.

(H) Patency index of control and MHC^{DN}::YFP-expressing clones. Number of follicles (n) analyzed is indicated. P-values (Welch's two-sample t-test): * $p \leq 0.05$, ** $p \leq 0.01$, *** $p \leq 0.001$, **** $p \leq 0.0001$.

Scale bars: (A) 5 µm; (C,F,G) 10 µm.

See also Figure S3.

Figure 4

Figure 4

F-actin dynamics regulates vertex opening.

(A) Apical (xy, top) or orthogonal (xz, bottom) sections of stage 8 follicles expressing E-
Cad::RFP (magenta) and Lifeact::mBaoJin (green), treated with DMSO (1%, control) or
Latrunculin A (LatA; 2 µM). Note reduced Lifeact::mBaoJin intensities after LatA treatment.

(B) Quantification of Lifeact::mBaoJin signals (normalized) at apical vertices of stage 8 follicles
treated with DMSO (control) or LatA. Number of follicles (n) analyzed is indicated. P-values
(Welch's two-sample t-test): * p ≤ 0.05, ** p ≤ 0.01, *** p ≤ 0.001, **** p ≤ 0.0001.

(C) Cross-sections of stage 10A follicles expressing E-Cad::GFP (green) treated with DMSO
(control) or LatA. Single channels show E-Cad or Dextran (grey). Note enlarged intercellular
gaps filled with dextran (magenta) on apical side in LatA-treated follicles.

(D) Apical sections of mbFCs expressing E-Cad::GFP. Follicles were treated with DMSO
(control) or 2 µM LatA for 45 minutes before imaging. Single channels show E-Cad (grey).
Note removal of E-Cad from vertices and enlarged intercellular gaps filled with dextran
(magenta) in LatA-treated follicles.

(E) Patency index on basolateral and apical sides of stage 10A follicles treated with DMSO
(control) or LatA. Number of follicles (n) analyzed is indicated. P-values (Welch's two-sample
t-test): * p ≤ 0.05, ** p ≤ 0.01, *** p ≤ 0.001, **** p ≤ 0.0001.

(F) Apical sections of mbFCs carrying ssh^{1-11} clones (marked by absence of RFP (yellow)),
stained for E-Cad (magenta) and p-MyoII (cyan). Note accumulation of p-MyoII at vertices at
stage 10A (arrowheads).

(G) Quantification of Phalloidin signals (normalized) at apical vertices in ssh^{1-11} and control
cells at stage 8 and stage 10A. Number of follicles (n) analyzed is indicated. P-values (Welch's
two-sample t-test): * p ≤ 0.05, ** p ≤ 0.01, *** p ≤ 0.001, **** p ≤ 0.0001.

(H) Basolateral section of follicle carrying ssh^{1-11} clone marked by absence of RFP (magenta).
Dextran (green) marks intercellular spaces.

(I) Patency index in ssh^{1-11} clones and control cells. Number of follicles (n) analyzed is
indicated. P-values (Welch's two-sample t-test): * p ≤ 0.05, ** p ≤ 0.01, *** p ≤ 0.001, **** p ≤
0.0001.

(J) Scheme of Cofilin regulation. Phosphorylation by LIMK1 inactivates, while
dephosphorylation by Slingshot activates Cofilin´s F-actin depolymerizing activity.

Scale bars: (A) 1 µm; (C,H) 10 µm; (D,F) 5 µm.

See also Figures S3 and S4.

Figure 5

Figure 5

Hypertonic shock induces opening of follicle cell vertices *ex vivo.*

(A) Stills (basolateral sections) from time-lapse movies of early patent (stage 9) follicles
exposed to hypertonic (305 mosmol/L / 2.38% DMSO, 88,96 mosmol/L / 0.238x PBS, or 50
mosmol/L / 50 mM Sucrose) or hypotonic (50% H_2O) medium at t=0 min. Dextran (green)
marks intercellular spaces, CellMask (magenta) labels plasma membranes.

(B) Patency index over time after hypertonic or hypotonic treatment as indicated. Graphs show
mean values and standard deviations, smoothed using a running median.

(C) Basolateral sections of patent (stage 10A) follicle exposed to hypotonic (50% H_2O) medium
at t=0 min. Note that intercellular gaps close after addition of H_2O.

(D) Patency index over time after hypotonic treatment of stage 9 (purple line) or stage 10A
(blue line) follicles.

(E) Hypertonic (DMSO) treatment of stage 5 follicles. Note that vertices of interphase cells
remain closed after adding DMSO (top), whereas transient leaks appear at boundaries of
dividing cells (bottom).

(F) Patency index over time of stage 5 follicles.

(G) Stage 9 follicles expressing Lifeact::GFP (driven by *CY2*-Gal4; green), treated with DMSO
(control; top) or 2 µM LatA (bottom) for 45 minutes before imaging. Dextran (magenta) marks
intercellular spaces. At t=0 min, follicles were exposed to DMSO-induced hypertonic shock.
Note that Lifeact::GFP disappears before gap opening and relocalizes at vertices (arrowheads)
when gaps start to close. Open vertices fail to close in LatA-treated follicles.

(H) Quantification of Lifeact::GFP signals at cell boundaries (green line) and of patency index
(purple line) over time in control follicles.

(I) Patency index over time of control (purple line) and LatA-treated (blue line) follicles.

Scale bars: (A, C, E, G): 5 µm.

See also Videos S2, S3, S4 and S5.

Figure 6

Figure 6

Acute activation of Rho is sufficient to prevent patency.

(A) Scheme of combined Rho activation and hypertonic shock experiment. Follicles are exposed to blue light (488 nm, 9 min) to activate Rho signaling before adding DMSO at t=10 min to induce a hypertonic shock.

(B) Stills (basolateral sections) from time-lapse movie of stage 9 follicle expressing CRY2-RhoGEF2::mCherry (magenta) and CIBN::pmGFP (yellow) in FC clone. Dextran (cyan) marks intercellular spaces. Blue light at t=1 min (+488 nm) triggers membrane localization of CRY2-RhoGEF2::mCherry. DMSO-induced hypertonic shock at t=10 min triggers vertex opening in control tissue, whereas vertices of optoRhoGEF-expressing cells do not open. Single channels show CRY2-RhoGEF2::mCherry intensities (heat map) and dextran (grey).

(C) Patency index over time of control cells (purple line) and optoRhoGEF-expressing cells (blue line). Mean values and standard deviations (smoothed using a running median) are shown.

(D) Basolateral sections of stage 10A follicles from females raised in constant light, expressing CRY2-RhoGEF2::mCherry (magenta) either alone (top) or with CIBN::pmGFP (yellow, bottom) in FC clones. Note that continuous Rho activation by plasma-membrane-targeted RhoGEF2, but not overexpressed RhoGEF2 alone, blocks vertex opening.

(E) Patency index of FCs expressing CRY2-RhoGEF2::mCherry either alone (left) or together with CIBN::pmGFP (right) under constant light. Act5c>CRY2-RhoGEF2::mCherry-expressing cells ("clone") are compared to surrounding cells ("control"). Number of follicles (n) analyzed is indicated. P-values (Welch's two-sample t-test): * $p \leq 0.05$, ** $p \leq 0.01$, *** $p \leq 0.001$, **** $p \leq 0.0001$.

(F) Regulation of actomyosin contractility in FCs at patency initiation.

Scale bars: (B, D) 10 µm.

See also Video S6.