

1 **The C-type lectin Schlaff ensures epidermal barrier compactness in *Drosophila***

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16 **Summary statement**

17 Extracellular matrices adopt a stereotypic organisation for function during
18 development. The lectin Schlaff assists adhesion reactions to ensure compactness of
19 the epidermal cuticle in *Drosophila*.

20 **Abstract**

21 The stability of extracellular matrices is in general ensured by cross-linking of its
22 components. Previously, we had shown that the integrity of the layered *Drosophila*
23 cuticle relies on the presence of a covalent cuticular dityrosine network. Production
24 and composition of this structure remained unstudied. In this work, we present our
25 analyses of the *schlaff* (*sif*) gene coding for a C-type lectin that is needed for the
26 adhesion between the horizontal cuticle layers. The Sif protein mainly localizes
27 between the two layers called epicuticle and procuticle that separate from each other
28 when the function of Sif is reduced or eliminated paralleling the phenotype of a
29 cuticle with reduced extracellular dityrosine. Localisation of the dityrosinylated protein
30 Resilin to the epicuticle-procuticle interface suggests that the dityrosine network
31 mediates the adhesion of the epicuticle to the procuticle. Ultimately, compromised Sif
32 function is associated with massive water loss. In summary, we propose that Sif is

33 implied in the stabilisation of a dityrosine layer especially between the epicuticle and
34 the procuticle that in turn constitutes an outward barrier against uncontrolled water
35 flow.
36

37 **Introduction**

38 Extracellular matrices (ECM) contribute to tissue shape and function. Their integrity
39 depends on covalent and non-covalent interaction of their components. Collagen
40 crosslinking in the articular cartilage by lysyl oxidases, for example, enhances tissue
41 stability against physical wears (Saito and Marumo, 2010). Another prominent
42 example is the apical extracellular layered network of lipids and proteins that
43 constitutes the epidermal stratum corneum (Harding, 2004; Nishifuji and Yoon, 2013;
44 Rogers et al., 1996). A defective stratum corneum in patients suffering different types
45 of ichthyoses provokes a dry and scaly skin (Akiyama, 2017). Lamellar ichthyosis is
46 caused by mutations in the gene encoding the central cross-linking enzyme
47 transglutaminase that introduces covalent glutamine-lysine bonds. Extracellular
48 dityrosine links catalysed by peroxidases have been identified in connective tissues
49 and in response to oxidative stress (Keeley et al., 1969; Keeley and Labella, 1972;
50 LaBella et al., 1967; Malencik and Anderson, 2003; Tenovuo and Paunio, 1979a;
51 Tenovuo and Paunio, 1979b). While the molecular mechanisms and biochemical
52 reactions of ECM network formation are well understood, the subcellular localisation
53 of these processes are largely unexplored.

54 We address this issue by studying the molecular and cellular processes of insect
55 cuticle differentiation. The insect cuticle is an ECM that consists of the
56 polysaccharide chitin, proteins, catecholamines and lipids that interact with each
57 other to form a layered structure including the outermost envelope, the middle
58 epicuticle and the inner procuticle (Moussian, 2010; Moussian, 2013). It is produced
59 and organised at the apical plasma membrane and in the region adjacent to it named
60 the assembly zone. In the fruit fly *Drosophila melanogaster*, several proteins
61 including Knickkopf (Knk), Obstructor A (Obst-A), Chitinase 2 and the chitin
62 deacetylases Vermiform (Verm) and Serpentine (Serp) act in concert to ensure the
63 stereotypic organisation of the larval cuticle during embryogenesis (Chaudhari et al.,
64 2011; Moussian et al., 2006b; Pesch et al., 2015; Pesch et al., 2017). Stabilisation of
65 the cuticle depends partly on a network of molecular bonds between different types
66 of yet largely unknown proteins mediated by catecholamines, glutamine-lysine
67 bridges and dityrosines (Shaik et al., 2012; Shibata et al., 2010; Wright, 1987).
68 Catecholamine incorporation depends on a set of insect-specific enzymes including
69 phenol-oxidases (sclerotisation) and occurs predominantly within the upper region of

70 the procuticle called exocuticle. Glutamine-lysine crosslinking in *D. melanogaster*
71 involves a transglutaminase that among others uses the chitin-binding proteins
72 Cpr76Bd, Cpr47Ef, Cpr64Ac and Cpr97Eb as substrates suggesting that it acts
73 within the procuticle. Dityrosine crosslinking was postulated to occur in the basal site
74 of the procuticle adjacent to the apical plasma membrane of the epidermal cells
75 (Shaik et al., 2012). Spatial information is, hence, available for these events. By
76 contrast, the molecular and cellular mechanisms that control or mediate their
77 localisation within the differentiating cuticle are unknown.

78 In this work, we have analysed the role of the C-type lectin Schlaff (Slf) in cuticle
79 organisation and compactness in *D. melanogaster*. We demonstrate that Slf
80 participates in the establishment of the dityrosine network within a distinct zone of the
81 cuticle required for overall stability of the ECM.

82 **Results**

83 *Cuticle phenotype of slf mutant larvae*

84 Differentiation of the *D. melanogaster* larval cuticle is initiated at stage 15 of
85 embryogenesis and ends shortly before hatching (Moussian et al., 2006a). The
86 developing embryo and the ready-to-hatch larva almost fills the entire space of the
87 egg (Fig. 1). Homozygous *slf* mutant embryos look normal when cuticle differentiation
88 starts, but ready-to-hatch larvae retract from the egg-shell and the space between
89 the larva and the egg-shell is filled with liquid (Fig. 1). When freed from the egg, the
90 larvae contract and crumple and the cuticle occasionally detaches from the surface of
91 the animal (Fig. S1). The head skeleton and the tracheae are, however, unaffected.
92 When fixed with Hoyer's medium, the cuticle detaches from the body surface and
93 forms blisters (Fig.1). Larvae transheterozygous for an EMS-induced *slf* mutation and
94 any deficiency uncovering the *slf* locus e.g. Df(2L)ED250 or Df(2L)BSC225 (see
95 below) display the same phenotype as *slf* homozygous mutant larvae. Overall, the *slf*
96 mutant phenotype is reminiscent of the phenotype caused by a deletion of the *alas*
97 gene that codes for an enzyme of the heme biosynthesis pathway (Shaik et al.,
98 2012).

99 For a detailed analysis of the cuticle phenotype, we examined the localisation of
100 fluorescent-tagged cuticular proteins in wild-type and *slf* mutant larvae (Fig. 2).
101 TweedleD-dsRed (TwdID-dsRed) (Guan et al., 2006) and Cuticular Protein 67B-RFP

102 (CPR67B-RFP) line the body surface of the wild-type larva. The region marked by
103 TwdID-dsRed detaches from the epidermis. By contrast, the region of CPR67B-RFP
104 localisation does not detach and marks the body surface (Fig. 2).

105 Taken together, mutations in *slf* affect the integrity of the larval body. Especially, the
106 adhesion between the TwdID-dsRed and CPR67B-RFP domains depends on Slf. We
107 assume that the observed liquid in the egg space of *slf* mutant embryos is the
108 haemolymph that leaks out because through the loss of its integrity the cuticle has
109 become permeable.

110 *Slf is not needed for the function of the inward barrier*

111 To further inspect cuticle barrier integrity, we performed a dye penetration assay that
112 we had developed recently (Wang et al., 2017a; Wang et al., 2016). Incubation of
113 wild-type, *slf* and *alas* mutant ready-to-hatch embryos with bromophenol blue does
114 not result in dye uptake, while *snurstorr snarlik (sns)* mutant animals with a defective
115 envelope (Zuber et al., 2018) do so (Fig. S2). Thus, Slf is not needed for protection of
116 xenobiotic penetration through the cuticle.

117 *The cuticle of slf mutant embryos is delaminated.*

118 In order to understand the defects at the cellular level, we analysed the ultrastructure
119 of the body cuticle of *slf* mutant larvae by transmission electron microscopy (Fig. 1).
120 The wild-type body cuticle is composed of three biochemical distinct horizontal
121 layers, the envelope, the epicuticle and the procuticle. The upper envelope consists
122 of alternating electron-dense and electron-lucid films. The middle epicuticle is a
123 bipartite matrix of cross-linked proteins and lipids. The procuticle contacting the
124 apical surface of the epidermal cell is characterised by a helicoidal stack of chitin-
125 protein sheets (laminae). In the cuticle of *slf* mutant ready-to-hatch larvae
126 unstructured regions of various sizes disrupt the organisation of the laminae. The
127 procuticle is occasionally separated from the above epicuticle. The upper tier of the
128 epicuticle is not smooth. The envelope is continuous and its ultrastructure appears to
129 be normal. In summary, cuticle compactness in *slf* mutant larvae is lost.

130 *Mutations in slf do not affect septate junctions*

131 Loss of barrier function is observed in *Drosophila* embryos that have mutations in
132 genes coding for septate junction (SJ) components (Izumi and Furuse, 2014). To test

133 whether *sif* mutations affect SJ integrity, we investigated ultrastructure of the SJ in *sif*
134 mutant embryos by transmission electron microscopy (Fig. S3). In the wild-type larva,
135 SJs connect neighbouring epidermal cells. In the *sif* mutant larva the SJ
136 ultrastructure is unchanged. The correct assembly of SJs does not exclude that they
137 may have nevertheless lost their barrier function. We performed dye injection assays
138 to analyse SJ barrier function (Fig. S3). When wild-type stage 16 embryos were
139 injected with 10 and 3 kDa dye-conjugated dextran, the epidermal cells retained
140 dextran within the body cavity. In *sif* mutant stage 16 embryos dextran retention is
141 normal. Hence, we conclude that the loss of barrier function in *sif* mutant larvae is not
142 due to defective SJ.

143 *Sif* is a C-type lectin expressed in the epidermis

144 In order to understand the molecular defects caused by mutations in *sif*, we identified
145 the gene affected by these mutations. The *sif* gene was initially mapped to the
146 cytological position 25A to 25C on the left arm of chromosome 2 (see flybase.org).
147 By deficiency mapping, we localised the mutations in an interval uncovered by
148 Df(2L)BSC225 containing 10 loci. To narrow down the *sif* region, we attempted to
149 reduce the number of candidate genes in a transgenic rescue experiment. Due to the
150 cuticle defects observed in *sif* mutant larvae, we suspected that the factor affected
151 might be associated with the apical plasma membrane or extracellular. A good
152 candidate is CG3244 (Clect27) that was reported to be needed for wing cuticle
153 integrity (Shibata et al., 2010). We recombined an insertion of the Pacman CHS322-
154 140E11 (20233bp) that includes CG3244 and the neighbouring gene CG3294,
155 coding for a putative zinc-finger RNA-binding protein to the chromosome harbouring
156 the *sif*^{2L-199} mutation (Fig. 3). Homozygous *sif*^{2L-199} larvae carrying the CHS322-
157 140E11 insertion do not display the *sif* mutant phenotype. In *in situ* experiments, we
158 detect the CG3244 transcript in the developing epidermis during late embryogenesis
159 when the cuticle is formed (Fig. 3).

160 According to the SignalP software, CG3244 possesses a signal peptide suggesting
161 that it may be secreted. CG3244, a Ca²⁺-dependent lectin (C-type lectin), has
162 recently been proposed to be a target of the transglutaminase that catalyses the
163 cross-linking of proteins in the cuticle (Shibata et al., 2010). We sequenced the
164 genomic DNA of the candidate CG3244 isolated from the two EMS alleles *sif*^{J83} and
165 *sif*^{2L-199} and identified in each sequence a single point mutation that leads to an

166 exchange of an amino acid (Fig. 3). These amino acids are highly conserved
167 between CG3244 and homologous sequences. A rabbit antiserum produced against
168 CG3244 failed to recognise an antigen in protein extracts from *sif* mutant larvae,
169 while a 25 kDa protein was present in protein extracts from wild-type first instar
170 larvae (data not shown). Moreover, we were able to phenocopy the *sif*-mutant
171 phenotype by RNA interference (RNAi) through the expression of UAS-driven
172 CG3244 RNA hairpin constructs in the epidermis (Suppl. Fig. S1). Thus, mutations in
173 CG3244 are responsible for the *sif* mutant phenotype described above.

174 The Slf protein contains 231 amino acids and is composed of an N-terminal signal
175 peptide and a C-type lectin domain (Fig. 3). The motif QPD especially within the C-
176 type lectin domain is found in galactose binding lectins (Zelensky and Gready, 2005).
177 Closely related sequences, probably Slf orthologs are found in other arthropods. A
178 weak homology is detected to L-Selectins from vertebrates, which actually do not
179 seem to have true counterparts in *Drosophila*. In order to determine the sugar moiety
180 recognised and bound by Slf, we studied the binding capacity of Slf to mannose,
181 galactose, lactose or N-acetyl-glucosamine (GlcNAc, the chitin monomer) in binding
182 assays using agarose columns exposing the respective sugar. Slf extracted from
183 stage 17 wild-type embryos was able to bind to mannose and galactose but not to
184 lactose or GlcNAc (Fig. S4).

185 Taking all these data together, we conclude that *sif* encodes the C-type lectin
186 CG3244, which potentially binds extracellular sugars but not chitin.

187 *Slf defines a new zone within the epidermal cuticle*

188 Loss of cuticle compactness suggests that Slf is a coupling link between cuticle
189 components. In order to examine the cuticular localisation of Slf we generated a C-
190 terminally RFP-tagged Slf (Slf-RFP) version expressed in the larval epidermis under
191 the control of the *tweedleM* promoter. To visualize the cuticle, we used a GFP-tagged
192 version of the Tweedle-class protein Tubby (Tb-GFP) and an E-GFP-tagged version
193 of the chitin-binding protein Obstructor (ObstE-GFP, (Tajiri et al., 2017)). Tb-GFP
194 marks an apical region, while ObstE-GFP localises to a basal region adjacent to the
195 epidermis. A Slf-RFP signal is detected in the whole procuticle with a strong signal in
196 a thin region just below the Tb-GFP area and at the apical border of the ObstE-GFP
197 layer (Fig. 4). Strong dots of an RFP signal occurred also under the procuticle,
198 probably depicting intracellular vesicles. Thus, Slf localisation within the procuticle is

199 necessary for cuticle compactness. We speculate that its accumulation in the apical
200 region of the procuticle may define a new cuticle zone.

201 *Slf is required for soft cuticle integrity.*

202 In *slf* mutant larvae, the soft body cuticle is disorganised, the head skeleton, by
203 contrast, that consists of a melanised and hard cuticle is unaffected (Fig. 1). This
204 observation suggests that Slf is needed especially in soft but not hard cuticle. To test
205 this assumption, using the Flp/FRT technique (see Materials & Methods), we
206 generated *slf* mutant clones in adult heads that are composed of hard sclerites
207 connected by soft joints. Flies harbouring *slf* mutant tissue in the head fail to eclose
208 and die within the pupal case. The overall anatomy of their head appears to be
209 normal (Fig. 5). However, the ptilinum, a soft and elastic cuticle that expands to break
210 open the pupa case, is ruptured. We thus reckon that soft cuticle integrity requires Slf
211 function. To corroborate this interpretation, we down-regulated *slf* activity in the
212 whole body of developing pupa by RNAi (Fig. S5). We observed that the cuticle in the
213 leg joints, wing hinges, ventral abdomen and ptilinum were necrotic. The body parts
214 with the hard cuticle appeared to be unaffected. These flies died in the pupal case or
215 shortly after eclosion. In summary, our genetic experiments suggest that Slf is
216 especially required in the unsclerotised, soft cuticle of larvae and adult animals.

217 *Slf cooperates with heme synthesis pathway in dityrosine layer formation.*

218 Defects provoked by mutations in *slf* are reminiscent of those caused by mutation in
219 *alas*, a gene encoding the delta-aminolevulinate synthase, which initiates the
220 synthesis of heme (Figs. 1 & S1) (Shaik et al., 2012). Is there a genetic and
221 molecular relationship between Slf and heme synthesis pathway? In order to answer
222 this question, we performed a series of genetic and histological experiments. First,
223 we examined embryos double-mutant for *alas* and *slf* mutations. The phenotype of
224 these embryos was comparable to the ones provoked by mutations in either of the
225 genes (Fig. S1). Assuming that both mutations represent loss-of-function situations,
226 this observation suggests that these genes act in a common pathway. Consistently,
227 reduction of larval *alas* or *slf* expression by RNAi caused a similar lethal phenotype
228 (Fig. S6). Second, we tested whether Slf localisation may depend on Alas function.
229 Using our anti-Slf specific antiserum, we find that Slf localises to the cuticle (Fig. 6).
230 However, the thin L1 cuticle does not allow a more detailed localisation.

231 The phenotype of *alas* mutant larvae has been linked with the breakdown of the
232 dityrosine barrier (Shaik et al., 2012). Using a DT specific antibody (α -DT), we tested
233 whether the dityrosine network may depend on the presence of Slf. We observed that
234 dityrosine signal intensity is reduced in these animals in the integumental cuticle, but
235 not in the tracheal cuticle (not shown). This suggests that Slf might be either involved
236 in dityrosine network formation or needed for the localisation i.e. stabilisation of
237 dityrosinylated proteins to form a network. A well-known substrate protein modified
238 by dityrosine links is Resilin (Andersen, 1964). We generated a Venus-tagged
239 version of Resilin and co-expressed it with Slf-RFP in the cuticle of L3 larvae (Fig. 7).
240 These chimeric proteins co-localise at the apical domain of Slf. Hence, Slf seems to
241 be associated with dityrosinylated proteins. To further elucidate the relationship
242 between Slf and Resilin, we expressed Resilin-Venus in third larvae with RNAi-
243 induced reduced *slf* expression. We observed that Resilin-Venus is mislocalised in
244 these larvae (Fig. 7). This suggests that Slf might be responsible for either the
245 delivery or the stabilisation of dityrosine-forming proteins to the correct position in the
246 cuticle.

247 A well-known peroxidase involved in dityrosine formation in insects including fruit flies
248 is the membrane-inserted Dual Oxidase Duox (Anh et al., 2011; Edens et al., 2001).
249 Using α -DT specific antibody, we tested the presence of dityrosines in homozygous
250 mutant embryos deficient for *duox*. In these animals, the dityrosine signal was
251 comparable to the signal in wild type embryos (Fig.6). This suggests that either Duox
252 is not involved in the formation of a larval dityrosine network, activity of maternally
253 provided Duox is enough to catalyse the formation of the cuticle dityrosine network or
254 another peroxidase may compensate decreased Duox activity.

255 Taken together, we conclude that Slf is a part of the dityrosine layer in the cuticle and
256 the localisation of the dityrosinylated proteins to this layer depends on Slf activity.

257 *The Slf homologous CG6055 is needed for tracheal air-filling*

258 Not only the epidermis, but also the tracheal tubes produce a cuticle that lines their
259 surface (Moussian et al., 2006a). Slf is not present in the tracheal system (Fig. 3).
260 According to the BDGP FlyExpress database (Konikoff et al., 2009), the two Slf
261 homologous C-type lectins CG4115 and CG6055 are expressed in the tracheal
262 tubes. To test whether these two factors may play a barrier role in the tracheae, we
263 knocked-down the expression of CG4115 and CG6055 by RNAi. We expressed the

264 respective UAS-driven stem loops by the tracheal-specific Gal4 driver *btl*-Gal4. RNAi
265 provoked down-regulation of *CG6055* resulted in a subset of larvae that fail to air-fill
266 their tracheae. Failure to air-fill has been repeatedly associated with loss of tracheal
267 barrier function (Moussian et al., 2015; Tsarouhas et al., 2007; Wang et al., 2015).
268 We therefore conclude that reduction of *CG6055* function in the tracheae causes loss
269 of barrier in the tracheal system.

270 In summary, Slf-like lectins are essential constituents of extracellular barriers in
271 insects. Consistent with work on mammalian galectins (Argueso et al., 2009; Hikita et
272 al., 2000), it is even thinkable that an important function of lectins in general is to
273 contribute to the construction of epithelial barriers.

274 **Discussion**

275 The insect cuticle is a water resistant barrier withstanding the internal hydrostatic
276 pressure and preventing uncontrolled transpiration and water penetration. Previously,
277 we had shown that a heme-dependent pathway is required to generate a dityrosine-
278 based waterproof matrix within the cuticle of the *D. melanogaster* larva (Shaik et al.,
279 2012). Recently, we reported on the role of the ABC transporter Snustorr (Snu) and
280 the extracellular protein Snustorr-snarlik (SnsI) in the construction of an envelope-
281 based anti-penetration and anti-transpiration barrier in *D. melanogaster* (Zuber et al.,
282 2017). In the present work, we propose that the C-type lectin Slf cooperates with the
283 heme-biosynthesis pathway to stabilise the distribution of the cuticle dityrosinylated
284 proteins, exemplified by Resilin. The network of dityrosinylated proteins, in turn, is
285 needed for correct contact between chitin laminae within the procuticle and between
286 the procuticle and the epicuticle.

287 *Slf is a cuticular C-type lectin*

288 Analyses of the Slf protein sequence suggest that it is a secreted galactose-binding
289 C-type lectin. Our sugar binding data confirm the prediction that Slf is able to bind
290 among others galactose. In *D. melanogaster*, galactose residues are found on side
291 branches of N-glycans and on a tetrasaccharide that links glycosaminoglycans
292 (GAGs) to serine residues of certain membrane-bound proteins such as glypicans
293 and syndecans (Nakato and Li, 2016). Cuticle proteins have not been reported yet to
294 harbour sugar moieties. Moreover, Slf is detected within the procuticle in *D.*
295 *melanogaster* stage 17 embryos, especially accumulating at a distinct sheet at the

296 apical border of the procuticle between the two zones marked by the cuticle proteins
297 TwdID and CPR67b. Based on these data, we assume that Slf is a cuticular C-type
298 lectin contributing to late cuticle differentiation. Presumably, Slf exerts its function by
299 binding an extracellular protein that carries a galactose. In principle, this finding is in
300 line with data demonstrating the Slf (Clect27) is a cuticle protein that is essential for
301 survival and needed for wing formation (Shibata et al., 2010). Moreover, it was
302 shown that Slf is a substrate of the cross-linking enzyme transglutaminase that
303 mediates covalent glutamine-lysine bonds. Down-regulation of transglutaminase
304 expression, however, causes a mild cuticle phenotype compared to the strong *slf*
305 mutant phenotype. Thus, taken together, Slf is a component of a composite
306 extracellular network including non-essential covalent (glutamine-lysine bridges) and
307 essential non-covalent (galactose binding) interactions.

308 We find that Slf is present in other insects. Thus, the role of Slf in the soft cuticle of
309 other insects is probably conserved. According to information from the beetle base
310 on the putative orthologue of Slf in the red flour beetle *Tribolium castaneum*
311 (<http://ibeetle-base.uni-goettingen.de/details/TC013911>), injection of double-stranded
312 RNA into larvae is 100% lethal. A phenotype has not been reported. However, this
313 result underlines that Slf is also essential in other insects than *D. melanogaster*.

314 *Slf function is independent of the envelope*

315 Classically, the outermost cuticle layer called envelope has been considered to be
316 the bona fide desiccation barrier. In a recent work, we demonstrated that the
317 extracellular protein SnsI and the ABC transporter Snu contribute to the
318 establishment of the envelope in turn ensuring desiccation as well as penetration
319 resistance (Zuber et al., 2017). The function of Snu is obviously conserved in other
320 insects (Broehan et al., 2013; Yu et al., 2017). The envelope of *slf* mutant larvae is
321 normal at the ultrastructural level. In addition, cuticle impermeability to xenobiotics is
322 maintained in these larvae indicating that Slf is dispensable for an inward barrier.
323 Furthermore, the procuticle is not disrupted in *snu* or *snsI* mutant larvae. Based on
324 these evidences, we conclude that Slf and Snu/SnsI act in different pathways or
325 mechanisms designed to establish a cuticular barrier preventing especially water
326 loss.

327 *Slf is required especially in the soft unsclerotised cuticle*

328 Elimination or reduction of Slf function especially affects the integrity of soft cuticle
329 types including the larval body cuticle, the joint cuticle and the ptilinum. By contrast,
330 hard cuticle types are largely unaffected. The major difference between hard and soft
331 cuticles is the presence of an elaborate exocuticle in the hard cuticle that, as at the
332 upper portion of the procuticle, consists of a sclerotised chitin-protein matrix. Based
333 on this histological difference, we hypothesise that the region between the
334 unsclerotised procuticle - called endocuticle in the hard cuticle - and the epicuticle is
335 a region where components are cross-linked either by catecholamines (sclerotized
336 exocuticle) or by dityrosines (soft cuticle). This region is apparently needed to
337 prevent massive water loss through the cuticle.

338 *Slf is involved in organising cuticle compactness through production or stabilisation of*
339 *the dityrosine network*

340 Mutations in *slf* are embryonic lethal. Loss of Slf function entails massive water loss.
341 By fluorescence microscopy, we show that the outer TwdID-layer of the cuticle
342 detaches from the inner CPR67b-layer of the cuticle in respective ready-to-hatch
343 larvae. In addition, by transmission electron microscopy, we show that the procuticle
344 of these larvae is loose. Thus, Slf is needed for compactness in the procuticle as well
345 as the attachment of the TwdID- to the CPR67b-layer within the cuticle.

346 The detachment of parts of the larval cuticle from the body is reminiscent of the *alas*
347 mutant phenotype (Shaik et al., 2012). This suggests that Slf and Alas may
348 contribute to the same structure in the cuticle. Alas is involved in the production of
349 heme that is a co-factor of a yet unidentified oxidase catalysing the formation of a
350 dityrosine network within the cuticle at the end of embryogenesis. We find that the
351 cuticular dityrosine signal is reduced in *slf* mutant embryos and that the
352 dityrosinylated cuticle protein Resilin is mislocalised in these animals. We conclude
353 that Slf is required either for production or stabilisation of the dityrosine network that
354 constitutes a barrier against water loss (Fig. 8).

355 Similarly, in vertebrates, galectin-3 forms an impermeable 500 nm thick lattice
356 through the interaction with mucins at the surface of the ocular epithelium (Argueso
357 et al., 2009). The presumed association of Slf with galactose-residues in a group of
358 N-glycans or GAGs, its incorporation in a dityrosine and Gln-Lys network would in an

359 analogous manner stabilise extracellular proteins required for cuticle integrity and
360 barrier function. Slf is, hence, an adapter-like protein that glues different cuticular
361 networks. Overall, we suspect that lectins may play a key role in ECM organisation.

362 **Materials & Methods**

363 *Fly work and microscopy*

364 Mutations were kept over balancers harbouring GFP or YFP constructs expressed
365 under the control of either *Krüppel* or *Deformed*. This allows identification of
366 homozygous mutant embryos, which lack any GFP expression. They were collected
367 on apple juice agar plates garnished with a spot of yeast paste. For dextran injection
368 experiments, embryos were dechorionated with bleach, and those of the desired
369 stage were selected by hand, and dried on silica granulate for 4 minutes. 3kD
370 dextran coupled to rhodamine and FITC-coupled 10kD dextran (Thermo-Fisher) were
371 dissolved at a 10 mg/ml concentration in Sørensen injection buffer. For injections,
372 these solutions were mixed at a 1:1 ratio, resulting in a 5 mg/ml concentration for
373 each labelled dextran. Starting immediately after injection, behaviour of the
374 fluorescence signal was monitored for about one hour using a Zeiss Axiophot
375 microscope.

376 For cuticle preparations, larvae were deposited on a glass slide in Hoyer's medium
377 (Ashburner et al., 2005) covered by a coverslip and incubated at 65°C or 80°C
378 overnight. They were examined by Nomarski microscopy on a Zeiss Axiophot
379 microscope. Cuticle auto-fluorescence was examined after excitation with a 405nm
380 laser on Zeiss LSM 710 or 880 confocal microscopes. For immunofluorescence
381 microscopy, dechorionated embryos were fixed in Hepes buffered 3,7%
382 formaldehyde for 20 minutes at room temperature, devitellinized and incubated with
383 the respective antibodies, which were detected with appropriate secondary
384 antibodies. Stained embryos were viewed on a Zeiss Axiophot, Olympus flowview
385 FV1000, Zeiss LSM 710 or 880 confocal microscope. For permeability experiments,
386 embryos were dechorionated, devitellinized and incubated in bromophenol blue
387 solution following the protocol described in (Zuber et al., 2018). For electron
388 microscopy, specimens were prepared following the protocol described in Moussian
389 and Schwarz (Moussian and Schwarz, 2010). Samples for scanning electron
390 microscopy (SEM) were prepared and analysed as published recently (Wang et al.,

391 2017b). For live imaging, ready-to-hatch larvae carrying fluorescent cuticle markers
392 were put on a glass slide into a drop of Halocarbon oil 700 (Sigma) and covered with
393 a coverslip. Cuticle detachment was monitored using a Leica DMI8 fluorescent
394 microscope. For live imaging of third instar larvae, larvae were anesthetized with
395 ether, mounted in halocarbon oil on a glass slide and covered with a coverslip.
396 Fluorescence was observed on a Zeiss LSM 880 microscope. Images were prepared
397 using Adobe Photoshop and Illustrator CS6 software.

398 *Generation of homozygous slf mutant clones*

399 The *slf*^{2L199} allele was induced on a chromosome carrying FRT (Flipase Recognition
400 Target) sequence (Luschnig et al., 2004). These flies were crossed to flies carrying a
401 lethal mutation on a 2nd chromosome with FRT sequence and expressing Flipase in
402 head driven by the *eyeless* promoter (*eye>flipase*). The progeny carried *slf*, FRT on
403 one second chromosome, FRT on another homologous second chromosome and
404 expressed Flipase in head of developing flies. As a consequence of the Flipase
405 activity, *slf* homozygous clones were generated in the head of developing pupae.

406 *RNA interference*

407 To generate flies expressing hairpin RNA against *slf* (*slf*^{RNAi}) in the epidermis of
408 pupae the UAS/Gal4 system was used (Brand and Perrimon, 1993). Flies carrying
409 *slf*^{RNAi} under the control of the UAS promoter (*UAS>RNAi-slf*, from NIG-Fly, Kyoto,
410 Japan) were crossed with flies harbouring *Gal4* under the control of the promoter of
411 the *knickkopf* gene (*knk>gal4*). The progeny eclosing of the pupae was observed.

412 RNAi experiments to suppress the expression of *CG4115* and *CG6055* were
413 conducted using appropriate UAS-driven hairpin constructs (Dietzl et al., 2007) under
414 the control of the tracheal-specific driver *btl-Gal4*.

415 *Molecular Biology*

416 Standard molecular techniques (PCR, sequencing) were applied to identify and
417 characterise the *slf* gene as presented in figure 3.

418 *Carbohydrate binding assays*

419 Proteins from 60 ready-to-hatch embryos were extracted in TCS buffer (10mM Tris-
420 HCl, 10mM CaCl₂, 150mM NaCl, pH 7.4). Protein extracts were incubated with D-
421 Galactose agarose (Thermo), Lactose-, Mannose- or N-acetyl-glucosamine

422 sepharose (all three GALAB) beads. Western blotting and immune-detection was
423 performed as previously described (Norum et al., 2010).

424 **Author contributions**

425 RZ, KSS, FM, HH, AS, NG performed the experiments. RZ, SB, HS and BM
426 analysed data. RZ and BM wrote the manuscript.

427 **Competing interests**

428 The authors declare no competing or financial interests.

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572 **Figure legends**

573 *Fig.1 Homozygous slf mutant larvae contract and lose water whilst their cuticle*
574 *detaches from the body surface.*

575 The ready-to-hatch living *wild type* larva fills the entire egg space (A), whilst the
576 homozygous *slf* mutant larva (B) is separated from the egg case by liquid (white
577 triangles). The head skeleton and the tracheae (white arrow) are unaffected in these
578 larvae. The cuticle of the wild type larvae fixed in Hoyer's medium acquires a spindle-
579 like shape (C) whilst the cuticle of *slf* mutant larvae forms irregular bulges, especially
580 in the head region, whereas the abdominal cuticle is crumpled (D). The cuticle of
581 ready-to-hatch *wild type* larvae in transmission electron micrographs (E) is built of
582 three distinct and tightly adhering layers: the external envelope (env) consisting of
583 alternating electron-lucid and electron-dense sheets, the bipartite epicuticle and the
584 chitinous procuticle (pro) that consists of chitin sheets (laminae). In *slf* mutant larvae
585 (F) the procuticular laminal organization is disrupted by various sizes of electron-lucid
586 regions (black triangle). Adhesion between the epicuticle and the procuticle is
587 disrupted (arrows). The structure of the envelope seems to be normal but the
588 envelope may detach from the epicuticle (asterisk).

589 *Fig. 2. Cuticle of slf mutant larvae is delaminated*

590 The layer of TweedleD (TwdID-dsRed, green) lines the body in living *wild type*
591 larvae before hatching mounted in hydrocarbon medium (A, A'), whilst in *slf*
592 homozygous mutant larvae this layer detaches from the body surface (B, B', white
593 arrow). The layer represented by CPR67b-RFP lines the body in *wild type* (C, C') and
594 *slf* (D, D') mutant larvae, in spite of the detachment of the other cuticular layers in *slf*
595 mutant larvae (white arrow).

596 *Fig. 3 Slf is a C-type lectin*

597 The CHS322-140E11 insertion including two genes (GC3294 and CG3244)
598 recombined on the chromosome carrying the *slf 2L-199* mutation rescues the *slf*
599 mutant phenotype (A). Detection of the CG3244 transcript in the developing embryos
600 reveals the signal in the epidermis at stage 15 and 16 (B, C, blue). The Slf protein is
601 composed of the N-terminal signal peptide (D, light grey) and the C-type lectin
602 domain (D, dark grey) with the QPD motif (black), found in galactose binding lectins.
603 In the sequence of *slf IJ83* mutants exchange of glycine to ... has been found, whilst
604 in the sequence of *slf 2L-199* mutants exchange of glutamate to... (D, F, red). There
605 is weak homology between Slf and human L-Selectin (F).

606 *Fig. 4 Slf protein localizes between the Tweedle layer and the procuticle.*

607 RFP-tagged Slf protein expressed in the epidermis under the control of the promoter
608 of the *tweedleM* gene (*twldm>slf-RFP*) forms particles in the cell and a thin layer in
609 the cuticle of the living third instar larvae. The Slf layer (red) occurs below the
610 Tweedle layer marked by a GFP-tagged Tubby protein, Tb-GFP (green; E, E') and at
611 the upper edge of the chitinous procuticle marked by GFP-tagged ObstE (green; F,
612 F'). The 405-nm induced autofluorescence of the outermost cuticular layer envelope
613 is marked in blue (E-F').

614 *Fig. 5 The ptilinum is disrupted in flies with down-regulated Slf*

615 As shown in scanning electron micrographs, the head of the wild-type fly is
616 composed of the large compound eye and sclerites bridged by rather narrow soft
617 cuticular membranes that are not clearly exposed (A, A'). Homozygous *slf* mutant
618 clones induced by the Flp/FRT system in the head of otherwise wild-type flies
619 (*eylessFlp>FRT slf*) provoke disruption of especially the soft ptilinum at the forehead
620 (arrow, B, B') and the joining of the eye bristles with their basis (triangle, D, D'). The
621 ommatidial structure is unchanged.

622 *Fig. 6 α -Slf antibody signal occurs in the cuticle of the embryos at late developmental*
623 *stages*

624 Probed with an α -Slf antibody (red), Slf is detected in the entire epidermal cuticle and
625 the mouth hooks of *wild type* embryos at early stage 17 (A, A'), whilst embryos with a
626 deleted *slf* gene do not show any α -Slf-signal (B, B'). Lateral boundaries between the
627 cells are visualized by antibody staining against the junction protein Coracle (green)
628 and the nuclei are visualized by blue DAPI staining (A-B'). The α -Slf antibody signal

629 (red) co-localizes with the α -dityrosine antibody signal (α -DT, green) in the epidermal
630 cuticle and the cuticle of the mouth hooks of the *wild-type* early stage 17 embryos (C-
631 E'). The dityrosine signal occurs additionally in the tracheae where no Slf signal is
632 present (C-E', white arrow). In homozygous *slf*^{2L199} mutant embryos at the early stage
633 17 the α -Slf signal (red) occurs inside the epidermal cells, whilst the α -DT signal
634 (green) is strongly reduced in the epidermal cuticle, contrary to the mouth hooks and
635 the tracheae, where it remains strong (F-H'). In early stage 17 embryos homozygous
636 for the mutation in the *alas* gene the α -Slf signal (red) occurs in the epidermal cuticle
637 and the mouth hooks, whilst the α -DT signal (green) is strongly reduced in the whole
638 body (I-K'). In early stage 17 embryos with a deletion of the *dual oxidase* (*duox*)
639 gene, the α -DT signal (green) is unchanged compared to *wild-type* embryos (M-O').
640 The lateral boundaries between the cells are visualized by α -Coracle staining (red,
641 M-O').

642 *Fig. 7 Resilin localization depends on Slf activity.*

643 In the cuticle of the third instar *Drosophila* larvae, the signal of RFP-conjugated Slf
644 protein (A-A'', red) overlaps with the signal of Venus-conjugated Resilin (A-A'',
645 green). The envelope blue signal shows auto-fluorescence of the envelope). In third
646 instar larvae with down-regulated *slf* expression, the Resilin-Venus signal occurs in
647 the whole procuticle (B', green), whilst in the *wild type* larvae it is confined to a
648 narrow region in the upper cuticle part (B). The localization of the TweedleF-dsRed
649 protein is unchanged in *slf* RNAi third instar larvae (B', red) in comparison to the *wild*-
650 *type* larvae (B).

651 *Fig. 8 Slf promotes dityrosine formation or stabilises the dityrosine network*

652 Our data allow proposing two alternative scenarios of Slf function. Either Slf assists
653 directly a haem-dependent peroxidase (Per) at dityrosinylation of cuticle proteins
654 such as Resilin (1), or it is needed to localize and stabilize the dityrosine network
655 (solid lines) in the interface (int) between the epi- (epi) and procuticle (pro).
656 Stabilization of the interface or interaction with a peroxidase may require sugar
657 binding (dotted lines). The peroxidase may be inserted into the plasma membrane
658 (pm) or extracellular; to simplify the scheme we have indicated only one possibility for
659 each alternative scenario. Haem (H) is produced in the cytoplasm involving
660 mitochondrial Alas. env envelope

661 *Fig. S1 Dityrosine distribution depends on Slf but not on Duox*

662 The *wild-type* ready-to-hatch living larva fills the entire egg (A). Ready-to-hatch
663 larvae with eliminated or reduced *slf* function (*slf*^{J83}, *slf*^{L-199}, *slf* deficiency, *slf*^{RNAi}) are
664 contracted and the space between the embryo and the egg case is filled with liquid
665 (B-E). Their tracheal system is air-filled and the head skeleton seems to be
666 unaffected. The phenotype of the homozygous mutants carrying loss-of-function
667 insertion in the *alas* (F) gene is reminiscent of the *slf* phenotype, but, additionally the
668 tracheae are not air-filled. The phenotype of the *slf alas* double mutant larva
669 resembles *alas* mutant embryos (G). The tracheae of the homozygous mutants in the
670 *dual oxidase (duox)* gene are not air-filled, but the larvae do not contract in the egg
671 (H).

672 After freeing from the egg and keeping the living larvae in halocarbon oil under the
673 coverslip, the *wild type* larvae stretch and their cuticle lines the body surface
674 (I), whilst the cuticle of the *slf* mutant (J,K), *alas* mutant (L) and the *slf, alas* double
675 mutant (M) larvae to a lesser or greater extent detaches from the body surface. In
676 *duox* mutant larvae only a thin layer of the cuticle, probably the envelope detaches
677 from the surface (N).

678 In Hoyer's cuticle preparations, the envelope as visualized by a 405nm laser (blue)
679 lines the body surface of the wild-type larva (O). In *slf* (P, Q) and *alas* (R) mutant
680 larvae, the envelope forms small blisters at the ventral (vs) and large blisters at the
681 dorsal side (ds) of the body. In *slf, alas* double mutant larvae, it detaches from the
682 whole body forming large blisters (S). In *duox* mutants it forms small blisters on the
683 ventral side of the body only (T).

684 *Fig. S2 Slf is not needed for inward barrier function*

685 The cuticle of the living *wild-type*, *slf*, *alas* and *duox* homozygous mutant ready-to-
686 hatch larvae is impermeable for bromophenol blue (bpb). The upper panel shows the
687 larvae before incubation and the lower panel after incubation with bpb. Larvae
688 homozygous mutant for *snsI* exhibiting a defective envelope are permeable for bpb,
689 which leaks into the larvae and stains them with a dark blue colour.

690 *Fig. S3 Septate junctions of the slf mutant larvae are normal*

691 Septate junctions (SJ) connect neighbouring epidermal cells as shown in electron
692 micrographs of late *wild type* embryos (A). Comparably, septate junctions of the *slf*

693 mutant larvae are unchanged (B). In larvae carrying mutation in gene encoding
694 septate junction component Coracle, the septate junctions are not present (C).
695 Epidermal cells of stage 16 *wild type* (D) or *slf* mutant embryos (E) contain particles
696 of 10 kDa dye-conjugated dextran that was injected in their haemolymph. to the
697 retains in the body cavity (asterisk; cut: cuticle, ec: epidermal cells), By contrast, in
698 stage 16 coracle mutant embryos (F), the dextran signal is also detected in lines
699 probably representing the lateral membrane (triangle).

700 *Fig. S4 Slf protein binds in vitro to galactose and mannose, but not to GlcNAc and*
701 *lactose.*

702 Protein extracts from the wild type larvae before hatching show distinct band in size
703 27kDa representing the Slf protein (A, B). This band is missing in protein extracts
704 from the *slf* deficient larvae (A, ?). A band in this size is visible in the eluates of the
705 mannose (A) and galactose (B) columns, whilst not present in the eluates of the
706 GlcNAc and lactose (A) columns.

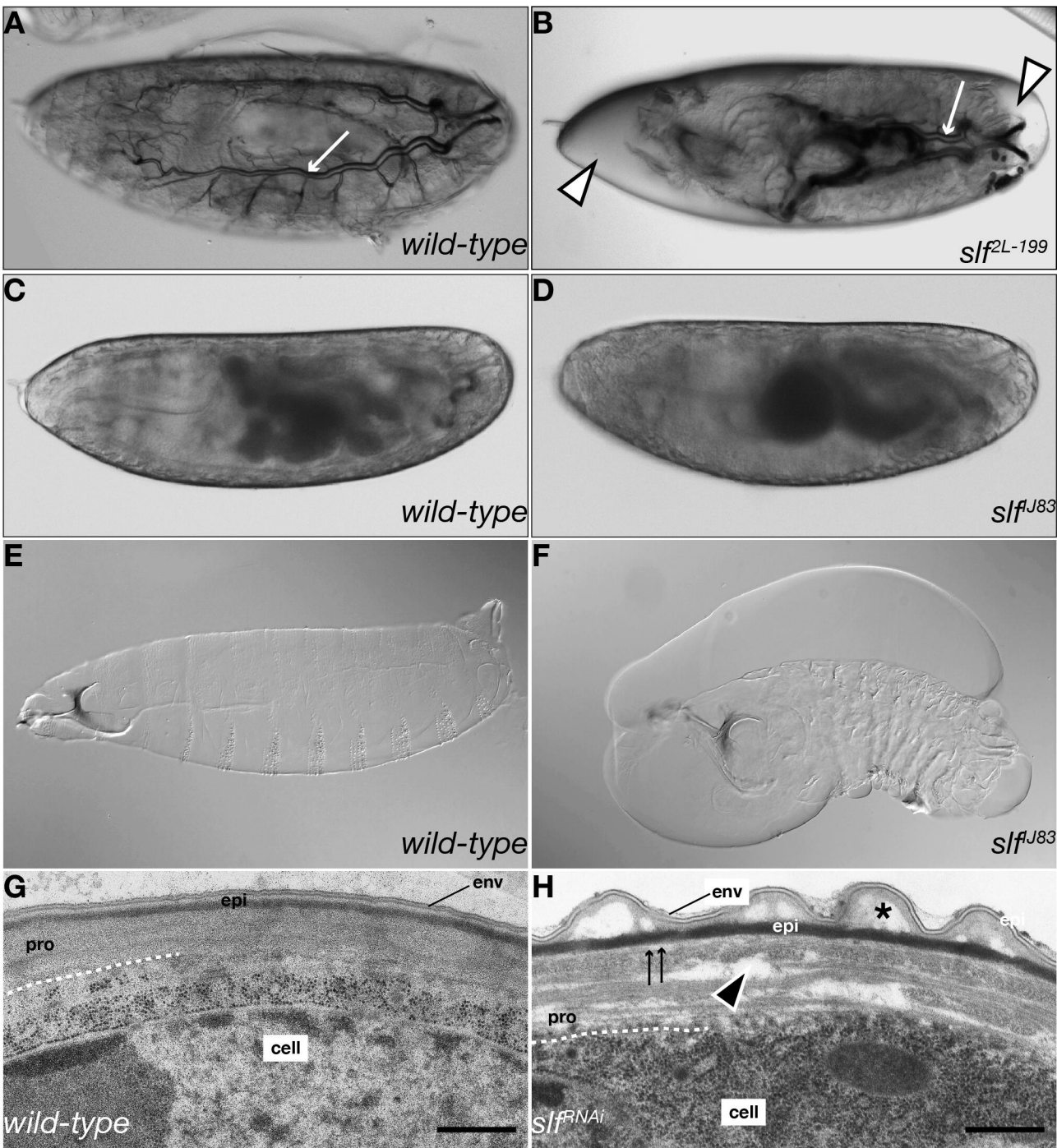
707 *Fig. S5 Flies with down-regulated Slf activity show soft cuticle damages and necrosis*
708 By light microscopy, in flies with down-regulated Slf activity by RNAi, we observe
709 necrosis in the soft cuticle regions like the dorsal abdominal region (asterisk, F), at
710 joints (arrow, H) and the wing hinge (arrowhead, J) in comparison to the intact cuticle
711 in *wild-type* flies (E, G and I).

712 *Fig. S6 Down-regulation of slf or alas causes a similar larval phenotype*

713 The wild-type L1 and L3 larvae have a slender body shape (A,D). L3 and L1 larvae
714 with down-regulated *slf* expression in the epidermis and tracheae or down-regulated
715 ubiquitous *alas* expression induced by RNAi (*slf^{RNAi}*; *knk-Gal4* and *alas^{RNAi}*; *L370-*
716 *Gal4*, respectively) are podgy and have melanised injuries on their surface (arrows,
717 B,C).

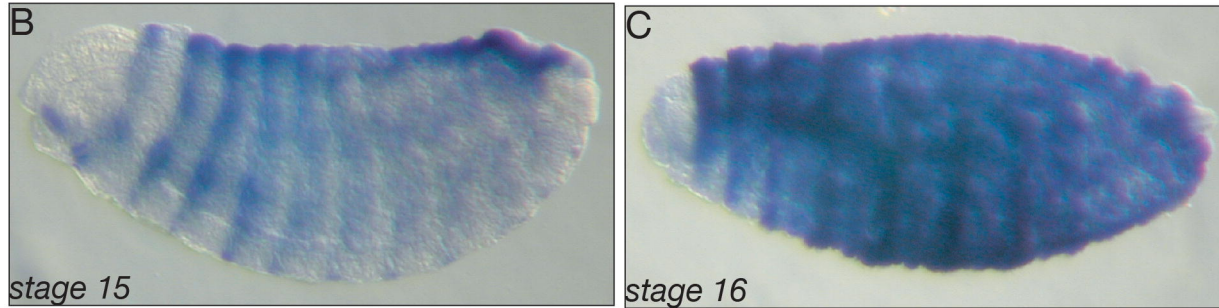
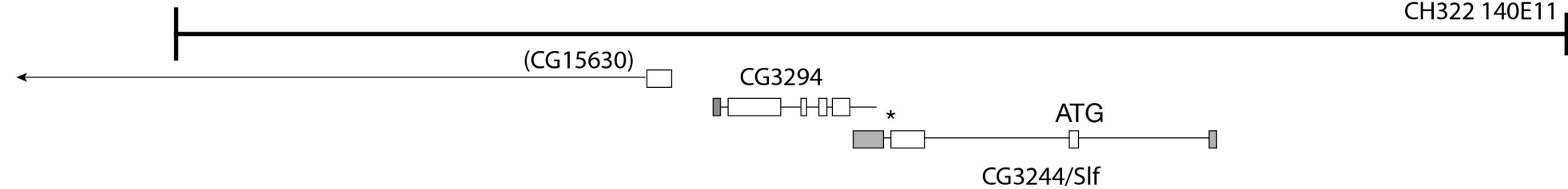
718 We were unable to compare the same larval stages for down-regulation of *slf* or *alas*,
719 because *slf^{RNAi}*; *L370-Gal4* larvae die within the egg case showing the *slf* mutant
720 phenotype, and *alas^{RNAi}*; *knk-Gal4* do not show any phenotype.

Figure 1





A



D

MKVTLAIATFCVVMACSHAARTTTTTATKPGRFLSLPVPKACASRPKEFS
 YRGKNMFLTTHVPALANKKVDWLDGRNLCREYCMDLVALETQEKNNLIFR
 VIQQNDVPYIWTAGRICDFAGCENRPDLEPKTVYGWFWSATREKIQATNR
 IPQGWGYNPWSQTGHKKRPOPDNAEYDINQTKEQCLSVLNNVYNDGIAWH
 DVACYHEKPVICEDNEELLRYVAATNPGIRL

F

Slf	28	TKPGRFLSLPVPKACASRPKE-----FSYRGKNM-----FLTTH-----VPALANKKVDWLD	74
		T+ G ++ P K C S ++ F G M FL H + K ++W	
L-Selectin	6	TREGPSKAMIFPWKCQSTQRDLWNIFKLGWGTMLCCDFLAHHGTDWCWYHYSEKPMNWQR	65
		IJ83	
Slf	75	GRNLCREYCMDLVALETQEKNNLIFRVIQQNDVPYIWTAGRICDFAGCENRPDLEPKTVY	134
		R CR+ DLVA++++ + + + + Y W R K	
L-Selectin	66	ARRFCRDNYTDLVAIQNKAEIEYLEKTLPFSSR-SYYWIGIR-----KIGG	109
		2L-199	
Slf	135	GWFWSATREKIQATNRIPQGWGYNPWSQTGHKKRPOPDNAEYDINQTKEQCLSVLNNVYN	194
		W W T + + + W G + E + + KE C + +	
L-Selectin	110	IWTWVGTNKSLTEE---AENWG-----DGE <u>P</u> NNKKNKEDCVEIYIKRNK	150
Slf	195	DGIAWHDVACYHEKPVIC	212
		D W+D AC+ K +C	
L-Selectin	151	DAGKWND DACHKLKAALC	168

Figure 4

Figure 5

