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2 **Main Manuscript for**

3 The V-type H⁺-ATPase is targeted in anti-diuretic hormone control of the
4 Malpighian ‘renal’ tubules in *Aedes aegypti*

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Abstract

Like other insects, secretion by mosquito MTs is driven by the V-type H⁺-ATPase (VA), which is densely packed in the apical membrane of principal cells. The anti-diuretic neurohormone CAPA inhibits tubule secretion stimulated by select diuretic hormones; however, the cellular effectors of this inhibitory signaling cascade remain unclear. Herein, we show that the VA inhibitor bafilomycin selectively inhibits serotonin (5HT)- and calcitonin-related diuretic hormone (DH₃₁)-stimulated secretion. VA activity increases in DH₃₁-treated MTs, whereas CAPA abolishes this increase. A critical feature of VA activation involves the reversible association of the cytosolic (V₁) and membrane (V_o) complexes and results revealed higher V₁ protein abundance in membrane fractions of DH₃₁-treated MTs whereas CAPA significantly decreased V₁ protein abundance in membrane fractions while increasing it in cytosolic fractions. Immunolocalization of V₁ was observed strictly in the apical membrane of MTs treated with DH₃₁ alone whereas immunoreactivity was dispersed following CAPA treatment. Elevated levels of cGMP in CAPA-treated MTs suggests activation of a phosphodiesterase (PDE), resulting in decreased levels of DH₃₁-stimulated cAMP. Therefore, CAPA inhibition of MTs involves reducing VA activity and promotes complex dissociation hindering secretion. Collectively, these findings reveal a key target necessary for hormone-mediated inhibition of MTs required in countering diuresis providing a deeper understanding of this critical physiological process.

Significance Statement

The V-type H⁺-ATPase (VA) proton pump, provides the driving force for transepithelial ion and fluid secretion in insect Malpighian tubules (MTs). While studies have shown that diuretic stimulation activates various signaling pathways that culminate with increased VA activity, our understanding of anti-diuretic signaling and its potential regulation involving the VA remains rudimentary. Here we show that a CAPA neuropeptide acts through the NOS/cGMP/PKG pathway that inhibits VA activity, supporting the notion that anti-diuretic regulation is mediated through reversible dissociation of the VA complexes. Our results demonstrate a critical role of VA inhibition and trafficking necessary for anti-diuretic signaling, advancing our understanding of the complex neuroendocrine regulatory mechanisms of the MTs in an important human disease vector mosquito.

Main Text

Introduction

Insect post-prandial diuresis is under rigorous control by neuroendocrine factors (1), acting on the Malpighian ‘renal’ tubules (MTs) to regulate primary urine production. In the yellow fever mosquito, *Aedes aegypti*, several diuretics have been identified that regulate urine production including serotonin (5HT), calcitonin-related diuretic hormone (DH₃₁), corticotropin-releasing factor-related diuretic hormone (DH₄₄) and leucokinin-related (LK) diuretic hormone (2–5). Recently, an anti-diuretic peptidergic neurohormone, CAPA, was found to selectively inhibit DH₃₁- and 5HT-stimulated secretion of MTs (4, 6, 7). Insect CAPA neuropeptides are produced in the central

nervous system and are evolutionarily related to the vertebrate neuromedin U peptides (8). In *Drosophila melanogaster* and other dipterans, CAPA peptides act through a conserved nitridergic signaling pathway to stimulate diuresis by MTs (9, 10); however, in both larval and adult *A. aegypti*, CAPA peptides inhibit fluid secretion through a signaling cascade involving the NOS/cGMP/PKG pathway (6, 7). Despite this, the anti-diuretic signaling mechanism and downstream cellular targets, such as the ion channels and transporters, remain elusive.

In insect MTs, including *A. aegypti*, the bafilomycin-sensitive V-type H⁺ ATPase (VA), also known as the proton pump, functions as an electrogenic pump allowing the transport of protons from the cytoplasm to the tubule lumen, thus generating a cell-negative membrane voltage (11, 12). This membrane voltage can then drive secondary transport processes such as the cation/H⁺ exchanger or anion/H⁺ cotransporter (13, 14). Originally found in vacuolar membranes of animals and plants, the VA has since been found to be essential in cell function in both invertebrates and vertebrates (15). In insects, the VA is densely located in the apical brush border membrane of tubule principal cells (11, 16), which is rich in mitochondria and endoplasmic reticulum, fueling the ATP-consuming proton pump (1, 17). Previous studies have shown VA localization within the apical membrane of principal cells along the entire length of the MTs (17), but absent in stellate cells that express relatively higher levels of the P-type Na⁺/K⁺ ATPase (NKA) (17). Due to stronger VA immunoreactivity observed in MTs (17), and greater ATPase activity by electrophysiological assays (11, 18), the VA is categorized as serving mainly - stimulated transport mechanisms, whereas the NKA serves basic cell housekeeping functions when MTs are undergoing low unstimulated rates of secretion (11, 19).

Stimulation of distinct diuretic hormone receptors can activate various signaling pathways, including elevation of cyclic AMP (cAMP) levels which is known to increase VA activity and assembly in insects (20). In *A. aegypti*, DH₃₁, identified as the mosquito natriuretic peptide (21), selectively activates transepithelial secretion of Na⁺ in the MTs, using cAMP as a second messenger (1), and upregulating the VA function to stimulate fluid secretion (22). Similarly, 5HT-stimulated diuresis is also be mediated (at least in part) through the cAMP second messenger pathway (23), activating protein kinase A (PKA) to increase the transepithelial voltage of the basolateral membrane in tubule principal cells (1, 24). Thus, due to its predominant role in fluid secretion, the VA could be a likely target for both diuretic and anti-diuretic factors. The multi-subunit protein is composed of two major functional domains, a membrane-integrated V_o complex with properties of a proton channel (16, 25), and a cytoplasmic V₁ complex, which is the site for ATP binding and hydrolysis (11). Although the proton channel of the VA can be blocked pharmacologically by the macrolide antibiotic, bafilomycin (26), there are two known intrinsic mechanisms for VA regulation: firstly, through oxidation of the cystine residue on the A subunit of the V₁ complex, thus preventing ATP hydrolysis; secondly, through reversible disassembly of the V₁ complex from the holoenzyme (11, 27). While the role and regulation of the VA by diuretic hormones in insect MTs has been studied (28–30), research examining anti-diuretic signaling mechanisms involving the VA remain in their infancy.

The goal of this study was to identify the cellular targets necessary for CAPA-mediated inhibition of tubule fluid secretion stimulated by select diuretic factors in adult female *A. aegypti*. Our results provide evidence that CAPA neuropeptides inhibit fluid

secretion by VA complex dissociation, thus hindering VA function and activity that is essential for driving rapid post-prandial diuresis.

Results

Bafilomycin inhibits DH₃₁- and 5HT-stimulated fluid secretion rate. To determine the appropriate concentration of bafilomycin to test on adult *A. aegypti* MTs, dosages of 10⁻⁴ M to 10⁻¹⁰ M were applied against DH₃₁-stimulated tubules (Fig. S1). Higher doses of bafilomycin (10⁻⁴ M and 10⁻⁵ M) resulted in significant inhibition of fluid secretion rate, with maximal inhibition leading to a five-fold decrease, observed with treatment of 10⁻⁵ M bafilomycin. Next, to determine whether inhibiting the VA would decrease fluid secretion rate stimulated by other diuretic hormones, including 5HT and DH₄₄, the effect of 10⁻⁵ M bafilomycin on adult tubules stimulated with these diuretics was tested (Fig. 1). Fluid secretion rates were measured over 30 min under control (stimulated) conditions, and then at 10-min intervals in the presence of bafilomycin. Treatment of MTs with 10⁻⁵ M bafilomycin against DH₃₁ led to a decrease of fluid secretion over the treatment interval. Specifically, 30 min after treatment with bafilomycin, fluid secretion rate was significantly reduced by over two-fold to 0.438±0.041 nL min⁻¹, compared to the DH₃₁ control, 0.941±0.077 nL min⁻¹ (Fig. 1A). Similar results were seen with 5HT-stimulated MTs; however, a decrease in fluid secretion was observed 30 min post-bafilomycin, with a significant inhibition 40 min after treatment (0.522±0.072 nL min⁻¹, 5HT vs. 0.182±0.045 nL min⁻¹, 5HT + bafilomycin) (Fig. 1B). Distinct from DH₃₁ and 5HT-stimulated tubules, DH₄₄-stimulated secretion was insensitive to bafilomycin treatment (Fig. 1C). To confirm whether *Aedae*CAPA-1 anti-diuresis is mediated by VA inhibition,

adult female MTs were treated with either DH_{31} alone or in combination with *Aedae*CAPA-1, bafilomycin, or both (Fig. 1D). MTs treated with either *Aedae*CAPA-1 or bafilomycin resulted in a significant inhibition of DH_{31} -stimulated secretion, ($0.092 \pm 0.027 \text{ nL min}^{-1}$ and $0.155 \pm 0.036 \text{ nL min}^{-1}$ respectively) and similar inhibition of fluid secretion was observed when both *Aedae*CAPA-1 and bafilomycin were applied together ($0.131 \pm 0.043 \text{ nL min}^{-1}$) with no evidence of any additive inhibitory effects (Fig. 1D).

***Aedae*CAPA-1 and bafilomycin alkalinizes secreted fluid in DH_{31} - and 5HT-stimulated MTs.** The VA pumps protons from the cell into the tubule lumen thus generating an electromotive potential (31, 32) and providing energy to drive the secretion of cations via Na^+/H^+ and/or K^+/H^+ antiporters (11). An indirect way to measure whether *Aedae*CAPA-1 and bafilomycin inhibits VA activity involves measuring the pH of the secreted fluid from diuretic-stimulated MTs treated with *Aedae*CAPA-1 or bafilomycin (Fig. 2). In DH_{31} -stimulated MTs treated with *Aedae*CAPA-1, there was an immediate significantly higher pH (7.479 ± 0.030) at 40 min relative to control, increasing up to 7.73 ± 0.038 at 60 min (Fig. 2A). Similar, yet slightly higher pH levels were seen with DH_{31} -stimulated MTs treated with bafilomycin, with significantly higher pH (7.66 ± 0.064) relative to control at 40 min, increasing up to 7.855 ± 0.074 at 60 min. Comparable to DH_{31} , after addition of *Aedae*CAPA-1 or bafilomycin, the pH of 5HT-stimulated MTs was seen to significantly increase up to 7.75 ± 0.061 and 7.82 ± 0.083 respectively, at the 60 min mark (Fig. 2B). In contrast, unlike the effects observed with DH_{31} - and 5HT-stimulated MTs, *Aedae*CAPA-1 or bafilomycin did not alter the pH of

the secreted fluid in DH₄₄-stimulated MTs (Fig. 2C). The pH increased from 7.4 to 7.9 during the 30-min DH₄₄ incubation; however, pH did not change following the addition of *Aedae*CAPA-1 or bafilomycin. Separately, we conducted measurements in unstimulated tubules to verify pH in these small droplets did not drift over a time frame consistent with our above experiments. Unstimulated MTs were allowed to secrete, and the droplets were isolated and their pH was measured over the course of 60 min (Fig. S2). Over this incubation period, no change was observed in the pH of secreted droplets from unstimulated MTs, upholding the notion that the alkalization of secreted fluid observed following *Aedae*CAPA-1 (or bafilomycin) treatment of DH₃₁- and 5HT-stimulated MTs is a result of VA inhibition.

***Aedae*CAPA-1 decreases VA activity in DH₃₁-stimulated MTs.** In *Aedes* MTs, between 50% and 60% of the total ATPase activity can be attributed to a bafilomycin- and nitrate-sensitive component that reflects the activity of the VA pump (11). The remaining ATPase activity may be due to nucleotide cyclases, protein kinases, myosin, DNA helicases, and other ATP-consuming processes such as the NKA (11). As such, to determine whether CAPA inhibits VA and/or NKA function, female diuretic-stimulated MTs were challenged with *Aedae*CAPA-1 to measure the resultant NKA and VA activity. As expected given its role as the natriuretic diuretic hormone, adult female MTs treated with DH₃₁ resulted in a significant (> two-fold) increase of VA activity, 0.0329±0.0007 μmoles ADP/μg protein/hour, compared to saline controls, 0.0151±0.0021 μmoles ADP/μg protein/hour (Fig. 3A). Importantly, MTs incubated with both DH₃₁ and *Aedae*CAPA-1 had a significantly lower VA activity, 0.00617±0.00347

μmoles ADP/μg protein/hour, resulting in activity levels indistinguishable from saline controls. In contrast, neither 5HT nor DH₄₄ influenced VA activity ($p>0.05$) when compared with saline controls, while co-treatment with *Aedae*CAPA-1 also resulted in indistinguishable VA activity. Similar VA activity levels were observed between 5HT and DH₄₄ (0.0255 ± 0.0078 and 0.0208 ± 0.0042 μmoles ADP/μg protein/hour) and with co-application of *Aedae*CAPA-1 (0.0150 ± 0.0036 and 0.0154 ± 0.0070 μmoles ADP/μg protein/hour). Unlike changes observed in VA activity following treatment with DH₃₁, diuretic-stimulation or *Aedae*CAPA-1 treatment did not perturb NKA activity, with levels similar to that of unstimulated MTs (Fig. 3B).

***Aedae*CAPA-1 leads to increased cGMP levels in DH₃₁-treated MTs.** To further understand the CAPA signaling pathway involving the second messenger, cGMP, we sought to determine changes of cGMP levels in MTs incubated in DH₃₁ alone or combined with *Aedae*CAPA-1 (Fig. 3C). Treatment of MTs with DH₃₁ alone had low levels of cGMP, 10.91 ± 0.1096 pmol⁻¹/tubule, comparable to saline treated MTs, 10.94 ± 0.1108 pmol⁻¹/tubule. Treatment of MTs with *Aedae*CAPA-1 resulted in a significant increase in cGMP levels compared to saline ($p=0.0543$) and DH₃₁ ($p<0.05$) incubated tubules, increasing to 11.39 ± 0.1012 pmol⁻¹/tubule (Fig. 3C). Similar results were observed with MTs treated with both DH₃₁ + *Aedae*CAPA-1, with significantly increased cGMP levels of 11.39 ± 0.1232 pmol⁻¹/tubule (Fig. 3C).

199

200 ***AedaeCAPA-1* leads to VA holoenzyme dissociation in DH₃₁-treated MTs.** The

201 reversible dissociation of the V₁ complex from the V_o membrane-integrated complex is a

202 well-known mechanism for regulating VA transport activity (20, 28, 29, 32, 33). To

203 determine whether *AedaeCAPA-1* influences VA complex dissociation, membrane and

204 cytosolic protein fractions were isolated from DH₃₁ and DH₃₁ + *AedaeCAPA-1* incubated

205 MTs, and a polyclonal V₁ antibody (11) was used to measure protein abundance. Western

206 blot analysis revealed three protein bands, with calculated molecular masses of 74 kDa,

207 56 kDa, and 32 kDa (11, 34). The V₁ complex is composed of eight subunits (A-H),

208 which includes the A (~74kDa) and B subunit (~56Da) that form a ring structure and

209 allow for ATP binding (32). Additionally, studies have suggested that subunit D

210 (~32kDa) alongside subunit F constitute the central rotational stalk of the V₁ complex

211 (35). There was no difference in abundance observed for the 74 kDa band between

212 membrane and cytosolic fractions in saline and DH₃₁ treatments whereas DH₃₁ +

213 *AedaeCAPA-1* incubated MTs had reduced 74 kDa band protein abundance in membrane

214 fractions relative to the cytosolic fraction (Fig. 4A-C). Abundance of the 56 kDa band

215 was higher in the membrane protein isolations of DH₃₁-incubated MTs, whereas DH₃₁ +

216 *AedaeCAPA-1* incubated MTs had significantly lower abundance in membrane compared

217 to cytosolic fractions. (Fig. 4D-F). Finally, there was no difference in abundance of the

218 32 kDa band between cytosolic and membrane fractions in MTs treated with saline or

219 DH₃₁ alone; however, as observed for the 74 and 56 kDa band, DH₃₁ + *AedaeCAPA-1*

220 incubated MTs showed a significant decrease in the membrane protein abundance of the

221 32 kDa band compared to the cytosolic fractions (Fig. 4G-I). In summary, all three of the

VA immunoreactive bands (74 kDa, 56 kDa, and 32 kDa) showed significantly lower abundance in membrane fractions relative to cytosolic protein fractions in DH₃₁ + *Aedae*CAPA-1 incubated MTs.

We next immunolocalized the membrane-integrated V_o and cytosolic V₁ complex in the female *A. aegypti* MTs. Transverse sections of saline-incubated (control) MTs demonstrated moderate enrichment of V_o (Fig. 5A, red), and V₁ (Fig 5B, green) complexes in the apical membrane of principal cells (Fig. 6A-B, Fig. S3A-B). Comparatively, DH₃₁-incubated MTs revealed intense co-localization of the V_o (Fig. 5D, red), and V₁ (Fig 5E, green) complexes strictly to the apical membrane of principal cells (Fig. 5F, solid arrow), identified by their larger nuclei (blue DAPI staining). To further demonstrate the apical co-localization of the V_o/V₁ subunits, transverse and cross-sectional images of MTs were co-labelled with both V_o and V₁ antibodies. In these tubule preparations treated with DH₃₁ alone, V₁ staining was strictly co-localized with V_o staining (Fig. 5F, Fig. 6C, yellow, solid arrow) on the apical membrane of principal cells (Fig. 6D, Fig. S3C-D), resulting in a significant increase in V₁ apical membrane immunolocalization (Fig. 7A) with no change in the staining intensity in the cytosolic portion of the MTs (Fig. 7B) compared to saline treated tubule preparations. Interestingly, although V_o immunolocalization was restricted to the apical membrane, V₁ immunoreactivity was observed in both the apical membrane and cytosolic region in DH₃₁ + *Aedae*CAPA-1 co-treated MTs (Fig. 5G-I, Fig. 6E-J, Fig. S3E-J), with a significantly higher immunoreactive staining intensity found in the cytosolic region of the MTs compared to control (saline) or DH₃₁-treated MTs (Fig. 7A). Notably, the significant increase in V₁ apical membrane immunolocalization following DH₃₁ treatment was

abolished when MTs were co-incubated with *Aedae*CAPA-1 (Fig. 7B). Immunostaining was absent in control preparations probed with only secondary antibodies (not shown) confirming the specific detection of the VA complexes with each primary antibody.

Discussion

Eukaryotic V-ATPases are a multi-subunit protein composed of up to 14 different polypeptides, which form two major structural complexes. The peripheral V_1 complex (400-600 kDa), is invariably present in the cytoplasm and interacts with ATP, ADP, and inorganic phosphate (36). The cytosolic V_1 complex consists of eight different subunits (A-H): (1) a globular headpiece with three alternating subunits A and B forming a ring, (2) a central rotor stalk with single copies of subunits D and F, and lastly, (3) a peripheral stalk made up of subunits C, E, G, and H (36). The B subunit, shown to have high sequence similarity amongst several species from fungi to mammals (37, 38), is a 56 kDa polypeptide, and is one of the two sites (along with subunit A) (32) in the V_1 complex that binds ATP. In contrast, the membrane-integrated V_o complex (150-350 kDa) mediates the transport of H^+ across the membrane (36). The V_o complex is composed of five different subunits (a-d), which collectively function in the proton translocation pathway (11, 36).

The MTs of the *Aedes* mosquito are the main organs responsible for the secretion of water and solutes, thereby contributing towards hydromineral homeostasis of the animal (39). Active ion transport in *A. aegypti* MTs is accomplished mainly by the V-ATPases (VA) densely localized in the apical brush-border membrane of principal cells,

that energize the apical and basolateral membrane as well as the paracellular pathway, allowing for transepithelial secretion of NaCl, KCl, and other solutes (40). The VA is widely distributed in both eukaryotes and prokaryotes and, due to their involvement in basic cellular mechanisms, serve as critical components of virtually every eukaryotic cell (36). In animal cells, V-ATPase molecules in the plasma membrane, especially on the apical membrane of epithelial cells, contribute to extracellular acidification or alkalization, intracellular pH homeostasis, or energize the plasma membrane for secondary active transport (41, 42). In insect MTs, the VA plays a major role in fluid secretion, thus serving as a primary target for both diuretic and, as our data demonstrates, anti-diuretic hormonal regulation of the insect ‘kidney’. Although the structure and function of the VA has been elucidated in some detail (11, 20, 31, 32, 43–46), the regulation of the proton pump remains unclear. Of the various regulatory mechanisms for VA activity, the most studied is the reversible dissociation of the cytosolic V_1 complex from the membrane-integrated V_o complex, first established in the midgut of the tobacco hornworm, *Manduca sexta* and yeast, *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* (45, 47). In this study, we investigated the activity and regulation of the VA under both diuretic and anti-diuretic hormone control of the adult female *A. aegypti* MTs. In particular, the current results advance our knowledge of the anti-diuretic control of the *A. aegypti* MTs, revealing a cellular mechanism for CAPA inhibition of the MTs by targeting the VA to block fluid secretion stimulated by select diuretic factors. This includes inhibition of the DH₃₁-related mosquito natriuretic peptide, which is critical for the post-haematophagy diuresis that eliminates excess water and sodium originating from the bloodmeal-derived plasma.

289 In insects, water excretion is tightly regulated to maintain homeostasis of ions and
 290 water (1, 48, 49). Female *A. aegypti* engorge a salt- and water-rich bloodmeal to obtain
 291 the necessary nutrients and proteins for their eggs (1), with about 40% of the ingested
 292 water eliminated in the first hour post feeding (50). The high rates of water excretion
 293 along with the high rates of primary urine production post bloodmeal suggest a highly
 294 coordinated and defined hormonal regulation of the signaling processes and downstream
 295 cellular targets for ion and water transport (51). In *Aedes* MTs, fluid secretion increases
 296 three-fold after stimulation with mosquito natriuretic peptide (identified as DH₃₁), via
 297 cAMP as a second messenger (1), which activates V-ATPase-driven cation transport
 298 processes (20, 29, 34). Herein we show that DH₃₁-stimulated secretion is inhibited by
 299 bafilomycin, thought to block the proton channel of the VA (26). Moreover, the addition
 300 of either bafilomycin or *Aedae*CAPA-1 caused alkalization of the secreted fluid,
 301 indicating inhibition of the VA, which may lead to constrained entry of cations across the
 302 apical membrane through proposed alkali cation/proton antiporter (13, 14). Thus, since
 303 bafilomycin inhibits DH₃₁-stimulated secretion while the natriuretic activity of DH₃₁
 304 remains unaffected in response to *Aedae*CAPA-1 (4), this supports the VA as a target in
 305 the inhibition of fluid secretion. Consequently, the driving force of ion movement and
 306 osmotically-obliged water is reduced, but select Na⁺ channels and cotransporters remain
 307 unaffected in the presence of *Aedae*CAPA-1. Similar results were seen in 5HT-stimulated
 308 secretion, albeit slightly delayed. A study by Tiburcy et al. (34) showed that Ca²⁺-
 309 mediated diuresis does not require the assembly and activation of the VA (33). The
 310 cAMP effect is implemented by protein kinase A (PKA), with inhibitors of PKA
 311 abolishing the response of VA to stimulation (28). Although the endogenous 5HT

receptor expressed within the *A. aegypti* MTs necessary for diuretic activity remains elusive, in the kissing bug, *Rhodnius prolixus*, both cAMP and Ca^{2+} have been shown to initiate diuresis in response to 5HT (52), which could explain the delayed response of *Aedae*CAPA-1 inhibition on 5HT-stimulated tubules as Ca^{2+} -mediated diuresis is independent of the VA (34).

Interestingly, DH_{44} -mediated stimulation was observed to be independent of the VA, as bafilomycin had no effect on the secretion rate or pH of the secreted fluid following application with this CRF-related diuretic peptide. Previous studies have noted that low nanomolar concentrations of a DH_{44} -related peptide were linked to the stimulation of the paracellular pathway only (53), mediating this action through intracellular Ca^{2+} as a second messenger (54). In contrast, high nanomolar concentrations of a DH_{44} -related peptide were shown to influence both paracellular and transcellular transport, increasing intracellular Ca^{2+} and cAMP (54). In female *A. aegypti*, post-prandial diuresis is observed in three phases: peak phase (within 10 min of feeding), post-peak phase (10 – 50 min), and late phase (50 – 120 min), with significant water loss during the peak phase (50). Although haemolymph concentrations of diuretic peptides have yet to be determined in mosquitoes, DH_{31} is immediately released into circulation post bloodmeal, stimulating rapid secretion of Na^+ and excess water (21, 50). Since DH_{44} -stimulated diuresis in *A. aegypti* involves non-selective transport Na^+ and K^+ cations (4), this supports a delayed release of this diuretic hormone post-feeding to maintain production (albeit reduced) of primary urine whilst conserving Na^+ ions. This coincides with the high DH_{44} receptor transcript abundance one hour post-feeding, suggesting a role for DH_{44} during post-peak and late phases of diuresis (51), in which

anti-diuretic CAPA neurohormones may not be involved. Additionally, highest DH₄₄ receptor transcript abundance was observed 24 hours post-bloodmeal (51), which could reflect the transport of nitrogenous wastes (55, 56), suggesting a crucial, yet relatively elusive role for DH₄₄ in mosquito tubule fluid secretion.

In unstimulated adult female *Aedes* MTs isolated *in vitro*, the VA exhibits variable rates of enzyme activity, consistent with highly variable rates of secretion, as found also in various other insect species (24, 57, 58). The VA is the main energizer in MTs as 60% of total ATPase activity can be appointed to the VA (11), whereas the NKA, with around 28% of ATPase activity, also plays a role in membrane energization, denoting a more important role in the function of MTs than was previously assumed (17, 34, 39, 40). Indeed, the NKA inhibitor ouabain was shown to inhibit low rates of secretion and alter cation levels in unstimulated adult female MTs in *A. aegypti* (19). In *R. prolixus*, NKA activity in MTs is inhibited by 5HT via cAMP (59), whereas our results showed no change in NKA activity with each tested diuretic (DH₃₁, 5HT, or DH₄₄). Thus, the NKA may be involved in cell housekeeping functions and determining the Na⁺/K⁺ ratio of the secreted fluid by MTs (59). Here we show a significant two-fold increase in VA activity in MTs treated with DH₃₁ compared to the unstimulated MTs, with no change in VA activity in 5HT and DH₄₄-treated MTs. Notably, *AedaeCAPA-1* diminished the DH₃₁-stimulated VA activity, which corroborates the reduced fluid secretion rate and alkalization of the secreted fluid. The present study examined the effects of *AedaeCAPA-1* on DH₃₁-stimulated VA activation for the first time in insects. Stimulation of DH₃₁ causes an increase in cAMP production, which activates Na⁺ channels and the Na⁺/K⁺/2Cl⁻ cotransporter in the basolateral membrane (60) and up-

regulates the VA activity (as shown here) for increased fluid secretion (22). The DH₃₁ receptor (*AaegGPRCAL1*) is expressed in a distal-proximal gradient in the MTs, with greater expression in principal cells in which the VA in the apical membrane is highly expressed (17, 61). The co-localization of the DH₃₁ receptor, VA, and cation exchangers (62–64) in the distal segment of the MTs, along with the CAPA receptor (6), collectively supports the major roles DH₃₁ and CAPA play in post-prandial diuresis and anti-diuresis, respectively. In contrast to the marked changes in VA activity in response to diuretic and anti-diuretic hormones, NKA activity remained unchanged in response to treatments conducted herein. Similarly, previous studies have noted no measurable effects of 1 mmol ouabain on transepithelial resistance and voltage of isolated MTs (65); however, approximately 50% of fluid secretion was inhibited by ouabain when treated for an extended period (66). Thus, although NKA inhibition would have no instantaneous effect on transepithelial transport, it may compromise transport after normal cell housekeeping functions are impaired (11). In unstimulated adult female MTs, ouabain inhibited the low rates of fluid secretion by ~33% by reducing secretion of K⁺ and Cl⁻ into the lumen (19). Further studies should examine the potential role of the NKA in diuretic and anti-diuretic processes.

The reversible dissociation of the V₁ and V_o complexes is currently thought as a universal regulatory mechanism of V-ATPases, appearing to be widely conserved from yeast to animal cells (11, 20, 29, 67). Although previously shown with cAMP (22), it remains unknown on whether the second messengers, Ca²⁺, cGMP, and nitric oxide (NO) affect the assembly/disassembly of the V₁V_o complexes in insect MTs. In this study, VA protein abundance was confirmed by western blot analyses. The 56 kDa band represents

the B subunit (37), while the 74 kDa is suggested to be the A subunit and the 32 kDa band is suggested to be the D subunit of the V_1 complex (30). The higher abundance of the V_1 complex in the cytosolic fraction of the *Aedae*CAPA-1-treated MTs compared to membrane fractions provide novel evidence of hormonally regulated V_1 dissociation from the holoenzyme in *Aedes* MTs. This was further confirmed with V_1 staining found both in the apical membrane and cytosol of the MTs treated with DH_{31} and *Aedae*CAPA-1 in contrast to the strict co-localization of the V_1 and V_o complex in the apical membrane of MTs treated alone with DH_{31} . In unstimulated *A. aegypti* MTs, 40-73% of the V_1 subunits were found to be membrane associated, with reassembly of the V_1V_o complex observed upon stimulation with cAMP analogues (34). Currently, studies are still unraveling the molecular details of reversible V_1/V_o dissociation as a regulatory mechanism of VA activity (68, 69). Although studies have revealed that hormonal regulation can activate the assembly of the holoenzyme, the signaling mechanisms achieving this control are unclear. Upon dissociation of the V_1 complex, subunit C is released from the complex (45, 67, 70, 71), suggesting a central role in holoenzyme assembly/disassembly. Subunit C binds to subunits E and G of the V_1 complex, and to subunit a of the V_o complex, bridging the two complexes together (72) and serving as a good candidate for modulating VA stability. In yeast, the cAMP/PKA pathway is proposed to be involved in the reversible dissociation of the VA; however, it is still unknown on whether an active PKA enhances the reassembly or prevents dissociation of the VA (12). In the *Calliphora* blowfly, 5HT stimulates transepithelial secretion of a KCl-rich primary saliva (73). It was shown that the reversible activation and assembly of the VA was dependent on the 5HT-stimulated cAMP and activation of PKA (20, 28). The V_1 subunit C is one likely target of

PKA in the blowfly salivary glands, as it was shown to be phosphorylated in a cAMP-dependent manner (46). In this study, the data provides direct evidence of VA assembly in DH₃₁-incubated MTs, with high V₁ enrichment found in the membrane fractions, confirming the crucial role of the VA in DH₃₁-stimulated secretion. Studies in *A. aegypti* have demonstrated the involvement of PKA in the activation and assembly of the VA upon natriuretic hormone (i.e. DH₃₁) stimulation and indicate the phosphorylation of the VA subunits by PKA in the MTs (34). These studies indicate a regulatory role of PKA in VA assembly and activation that may be independent or in addition to phosphorylation (34).

Together, these results indicate that *Aedae*CAPA-1 binding to its cognate receptor in principal cells of the MTs (6), targets the NOS/cGMP/PKG pathway (4, 6) to inhibit DH₃₁-mediated elevation of cAMP (21, 74), which blocks VA activation and prevents protons from being pumped across the apical membrane, creating a more alkaline lumen. Our study provides novel evidence that the anti-diuretic activity of CAPA is mediated through the dissociation of the VA holoenzyme involving the removal of the V₁ complex from the apical membrane, hindering luminal flux of protons that in turn starves cation/H⁺ exchange, which ultimately reduces fluid secretion (Fig. 8). However, it has yet to be determined how CAPA-activated PKG leads to the reversible dissociation of the VA. In *R. prolixus* MTs, the physiological roles of cGMP and cAMP were examined (75) suggesting cGMP inhibits fluid secretion by activating a phosphodiesterase (PDE) that degrades cAMP that is elevated following 5HT and diuretic hormone (DH) stimulation of MTs. Indeed, the addition of cAMP at high concentrations reversed the negative effects of cGMP (75), supporting that these two cyclic nucleotides facilitate two opposing

physiological roles in the MTs. The data herein reveals cGMP levels increase in MTs treated with CAPA alone or in combination with DH₃₁ compared to tubules stimulated with DH₃₁ alone, which upholds the role of cGMP in the CAPA anti-diuretic signaling pathway. Taken together, this data suggests that CAPA hormone activation of its receptor in principal cells of the MTs elevates cGMP levels that activate a cAMP-selective PDE to reduce levels of the diuretic hormone second messenger, cAMP. This in turn reduces the activity of the PKA-activated VA, causing V₁V_o disassembly and ceasing transport of protons into the tubule lumen.

In summary, our study highlights a novel target in the anti-diuretic signaling pathway of adult female *A. aegypti* MTs, emphasizing the intricate and precise regulatory mechanism of anti-diuresis. Although extensive studies have investigated the process of hydromineral balance in terrestrial insects from a diuretic perspective (1, 10, 21, 76–78), these current findings advance our understanding of anti-diuretic hormone control while providing further evidence of a previously elusive endocrine regulatory mechanism of the VA in mosquitoes (Fig. 8). Given that many terrestrial insects are recognized as agricultural pests or disease vectors, further investigating their complex regulation of ionic and osmotic balance may aid in lessening the burden of insects that are a hazard to human health and prosperity through development of novel pest management strategies that, at least in part, impede their neuroendocrine control of hydromineral homeostasis.

Materials and Methods

Animal rearing

Eggs of *Aedes aegypti* (Liverpool strain) were collected from an established laboratory colony described previously (4, 79). All mosquitoes were raised under a 12:12 light:dark cycle. Non-blood fed female insects (three-six days post-eclosion) were used for physiological assays, dissected under physiological saline (*Aedes* saline) adapted from (60) that contained (in mmol⁻¹): 150 NaCl, 25 HEPES, 3.4 KCl, 7.5 NaOH, 1.8 NaHCO₃, 1 MgSO₄, 1.7 CaCl₂, and 5 glucose, and titrated to pH 7.1.

MT fluid secretion assay

In order to determine fluid secretion rates, modified Ramsay assays were performed as described previously (4, 80). Female adults (3-6 day old) were dissected under physiological *Aedes* saline prepared as previously described (60), and MTs were removed and placed in a Sylgard-lined Petri dish containing 20 µL bathing droplets (1:1 mixture of Schneider's Insect Medium (Sigma-Aldrich): *Aedes* saline, immersed in hydrated mineral oil to prevent evaporation. The proximal end of the MT was wrapped around a Minutein pin to allow for fluid secretion measurements.

Time course inhibition of bafilomycin

Dosage of bafilomycin A₁ was based on a dose-response analysis of bafilomycin against DH₃₁-stimulated tubules (Fig. S1). In the interest of determining whether bafilomycin inhibits the effects of the diuretic factors, dosages of 25 nmol l⁻¹ *Drome*DH₃₁ (4, 21), 100 nmol l⁻¹ 5HT (4, 77, 81), and 10 nmol l⁻¹ *Rhopr*DH (CRF-related diuretic peptide, DH₄₄) (4, 54) were applied to the isolated MTs. Neurohormone receptors, including those for 5HT, and the peptides DH₃₁, DH₄₄, and CAPA, are localized to the

basolateral membrane of principal cells (6, 61, 82), while the LK receptor is localized exclusively to stellate cells (83). As a result, the effects of bafilomycin were tested on diuretics known to act on the principal cells of the MTs. After incubating with the individual diuretics for 30 min (using the modified Ramsay assay), diuretic peptide was added alone (controls) or in combination with bafilomycin (final concentration 10^{-5} M). The fluid secretion rate was recorded every 10 min for a total of 80 min. In order to determine whether inhibition of the VA was involved in the anti-diuretic activity of CAPA peptides on adult MTs, the effects of 1 fmol l^{-1} *Aedae*CAPA-1 (4, 6) were investigated in combination with DH_{31} and bafilomycin.

Measurement of pH of secreted fluid

The pH of secreted fluids was measured by using ion-selective microelectrodes (ISME) pulled from glass capillaries (TW-150-4, World Precision Instruments, Sarasota, FL, USA) using a Sutter P-97 Flaming Brown pipette puller (Sutter Instruments, San Raffael, CA, USA). Microelectrodes were silanized with *N,N*-dimethyltrimethylsilylamine (Fluka, Buchs, Switzerland) pipetted onto the interior of a glass dish inverted over the group of microelectrodes. A 1:2 ratio of number of microelectrodes to amount of silanization solution (in μl) was used. The microelectrodes were left to silanize for 75 min at 350°C and left to cool before use. The microelectrodes were back-filled with a solution containing 100 mmol l^{-1} NaCl and 100 mmol l^{-1} sodium citrate that was titrated to pH 6.0 and front-filled using Hydrogen Ionophore I – cocktail B (Fluka, Buchs, Switzerland). The electrode tips were then coated with ~3.5% (w/v) polyvinyl chloride (PVC) dissolved in tetrahydrofuran, to avoid displacement of the

ionophore cocktail when submerged in the paraffin oil (84). The H⁺-selective microelectrodes were calibrated in *Aedes* saline titrated to either pH 7.0 or pH 8.0. Reference electrodes were prepared from glass capillaries (1B100F-4, World Precision Instruments) using a pipette puller described above and were backfilled with 500 mmol l⁻¹ KCl. Secreted droplet pH measurements were done immediately after collection to prevent alkalization of the droplet due to carbon dioxide diffusion into the paraffin oil. Microelectrodes and reference electrodes were connected to an electrometer through silver chloride wires where voltage signals were recorded through a data acquisition system (Picolog for Windows, version 5.25.3). In order to measure pH of the secreted fluid, tubules were set up using the Ramsay assay, and pH measurements were recorded every 10 min for a total of 60 min.

NKA and VA activities

The Na⁺/K⁺-ATPase (NKA) and VA activity in the MTs was determined using a modified 96-well microplate method (85, 86), which relies on the enzymatic coupling of ouabain- or bafilomycin-sensitive hydrolysis of ATP to the oxidation of reduced nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide (NADH). The microplate spectrophotometer is therefore able to directly measure the disappearance of NADH. Adult female MTs (three to six day old) were dissected and incubated for 30 min in *Aedes* saline, diuretic (DH₃₁, 5HT, or DH₄₄) alone or combined with *Aedae*CAPA-1. Following 30-min incubation, MTs were collected into 1.5 mL microcentrifuge tubes (40-50 sets of MTs per tube = 200-250 MTs per treatment), flash frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at -80°C. Tissues were thawed on ice and 150 µL of homogenizing buffer (four parts of SEI with

composition (in mmol l⁻¹): 150 sucrose, 10 EDTA, and 50 imidazole; pH 7.3 and one part of SEID with composition: 0.5% of sodium deoxycholic acid in SEI) and MTs were then sonicated on ice for 10 sec (two pulses of 5 sec) and subsequently centrifuged at 10,000 x g for 10 min at 4°C. The supernatant was transferred into a fresh microcentrifuge tube and stored on ice.

Prior to the assay, three solutions were prepared (Solution A, B, and C) and all stored on ice. Solution A contained 4 units mL⁻¹ lactate dehydrogenase (LDH), 5 units mL⁻¹ pyruvate kinase (PK), 50 mmol l⁻¹ imidazole, 2.8 mmol l⁻¹ phosphoenolpyruvate (PEP), 0.22 mmol l⁻¹ ATP, and 50 mmol l⁻¹ NADH, pH 7.5. The solution was subsequently mixed with a salt solution in a 4:1 ratio (salt solution composition (in mmol l⁻¹): 189 NaCl, 10.5 MgCl₂, 42 KCl, and 50 imidazole, pH 7.5. Working solution B consisted of solution A with 5 mmol l⁻¹ ouabain and solution C consisted of solution A with 10 µmol l⁻¹ bafilomycin. The concentrations of ouabain and bafilomycin were based on previous studies (85). To ensure the batch of assay mixture (Solution A) was effective, an adenosine diphosphate (ADP) standard curve was run. ADP standards were prepared as follows: 0 nmol 10µL⁻¹ (200µL of 50mmol l⁻¹ imidazole buffer (IB), pH 7.5); 5 nmol 10µL⁻¹ (25µL of 4mmol l⁻¹ ADP stock and 175µL of IB); 10 nmol 10µL⁻¹ (50µL of 4mmol l⁻¹ ADP stock/ 150 µL of IB); 20 nmol 10 µL⁻¹ (100µL of 4mmol l⁻¹ ADP stock/100µL of IB); 40 nmol 10 µL⁻¹ (40 mmol l⁻¹ ADP stock). The standards were added to a 96-well polystyrene microplate in duplicates of 10 µL per well, followed by the addition of 200 µL of solution A. The plate was placed in a thermo Multiscan Spectrum microplate spectrophotometer set at 25°C and a linear rate of NADH disappearance was

measured at 340 nm. The absorbance spectra were recorded and analyzed using the Multiscan Spectrum data acquisition system with SkanIt version 2.2 software. The ADP standards (0 to 40 nmoles well⁻¹) should yield an optical density (OD) between 0.9 and 0.2 OD units, while the slope of the curve should result in -0.012 to -0.014 OD nmol ADP⁻¹. Homogenized MT samples were thawed and added to the microplate (kept on ice) in six replicates of 10 µL per well. Next, two wells per sample were filled with 200 µL of working solution A, two wells with 200 µL of working solution B and two wells with 200 µL of working solution C. The microplate was quickly placed in the microplate spectrophotometer and the decrease in NADH absorbance was measured for 30 min at 340 nm. NKA and VA activity was calculated using the following equation:

$$\text{NKA or VA activity} = (((\Delta\text{ATPase}/S)/[P]) \times 60 \text{ (min)}),$$

where ΔATPase is the difference in ATP hydrolysis in the absence and presence of ouabain or bafilomycin, S is the slope of the ADP standard curve, $[P]$ is the protein concentration of the sample. Protein was quantified using a Bradford assay (Sigma-Aldrich Canada, Ltd.,) according to manufacturer's guidelines with bovine serum albumin (Bioshop Canada Inc., Burlington, ON, Canada) as a standard. Final activity was expressed as micromoles of ADP per milligram of protein per hour.

Protein processing and western blot analyses

MTs were isolated under physiological saline from 40-50 female *A. aegypti* for each biological replicate (defined as $n = 1$) and incubated for 60 min in the following treatments: *Aedes* saline, 25 nmol l⁻¹ DH₃₁, or 25 nmol l⁻¹ DH₃₁ and 1 fmol l⁻¹ *Aedae*CAPA-1. Following the incubation, tissues were stored at -80°C until processing.

To separate the membrane and cytosolic proteins, a membrane protein extraction kit was used (ThermoFisher Scientific) following recommended guidelines for soft tissue with minor modifications including 200 μ L of permeabilization and solubilization buffer and a 1:200 protease inhibitor cocktail (Sigma Aldrich) in both buffers. Final protein concentrations were calculated using a Bradford assay (Sigma-Aldrich Canada, Ltd.,) according to manufacturer's guidelines with bovine serum albumin (BioRad Laboratories) as a standard and quantified using an A_o Absorbance Microplate Reader (Azure Biosystems) at 595 nm.

Protein samples were denatured by heating for 5 min at 100°C with 6X loading buffer (225 mmol l⁻¹ Tris-HCl pH 6.8, 3.5% (w/v) SDS, 35% glycerol, 12.5% (v/v) β -mercaptoethanol and 0.01% (w/v) Bromophenol blue). Into each lane, 5 μ g of protein was loaded onto a 4% stacking and 12% resolving sodium dodecyl sulphate polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (SDS-PAGE) gel. Protein samples were migrated initially at 80 V for 30 min and subsequently at 110 V for 90 min before being transferred onto a polyvinylidene difluoride (PVDF) membrane using a wet transfer method at 100 V for 60 min in a cold transfer buffer (0.225 g Tris. 1.05 g glycine in 20% methanol). Following transfer, PVDF membranes were blocked with 5% skim milk powder in Tris-buffered saline (TBS-T; 9.9 mmol l⁻¹ Tris, 0.15 mmol l⁻¹ NaCl, 0.1 mmol l⁻¹ Tween-20, 0.1 mmol l⁻¹ NP-40 pH 7.4) for 60 min at RT, and incubated on a rocking platform overnight at 4°C with a guinea pig polyclonal anti-VA (Ab 353-2 against the V₁ complex of the VA (11), a kind gift from Prof. Wiczorek, University of Osnabruck, Germany, used at a 1:2000 dilution in 5% skim milk in TBS-T. The next day, PVDF membranes were washed for 60 min in TBST-T, changing the wash buffer every 15 min. Blots were

then incubated with a goat anti-guinea pig HRP conjugated secondary antibody (1:2500 in 5% skim milk in TBS-T) (Life Technologies, Burlington, ON) for 60 min at RT and subsequently washed three times for 15 min with TBS-T. Lastly, blots were incubated with the Clarity Western ECL substrate and images were acquired using a ChemiDoc MP Imaging System (Bio-Rad). Molecular weight measurements were performed using Image Lab 5.0 software (Bio-Rad). PVDF membranes were then probed with Coomassie brilliant blue, since total protein normalization is now considered the benchmark method for quantitative analysis of western blot data (87, 88) and has been used in studies involving *A. aegypti* protein normalization (89). ImageJ software (NIH, USA) was used to quantify protein abundance.

Immunolocalization of VA complexes in MTs

Immunohistochemistry of the MTs localizing the VA complexes was conducted following a previously published protocol (90). Adult female MTs (three to six day old) were dissected out in *Aedes* saline and incubated in similar conditions described in the western blot section above. Following the incubation, the MTs were immersed in Bouin's solution and fixed for two hours in small glass vials. Tissues were then rinsed three times and stored in 70% ethanol at 4°C until further processing. Fixed tissues were dehydrated through a series of ethanol washes: 70% ethanol for 30 min, 95% ethanol for 30 min, and 100% ethanol three times for 30 min. The tissues were cleared with xylene (ethanol:xylene for 30 min then 100% xylene three times for 30 min), and infiltrated in Paraplast Plus Tissue Embedding Medium (Oxford Worldwide, LLC, Memphis, USA) at xylene:paraffin wax for 60 min at 60°C, then rinsed in pure paraffin wax twice for 1 hour

for 60°C. Following the last rinse, the tissues were embedded in the paraffin wax and left to solidify at 4°C until further processing. Sections (5 µm) were cut using a Leica RM 2125RT manual rotary microtome (Leica Microsystems Inc., Richmond Hill, Canada) and slides were incubated overnight on a slide warmer at 45°C.

The following day, sections were deparaffinized with xylene (two rinses for 5 min each), and rehydrated via a descending series of ethanol washes (100% ethanol twice for 2 min, 95% ethanol for 2 min, 70% ethanol for 2 min, 50% ethanol for 2 min) and finally in distilled water for 20 min. Next, sections were subjected to a heat-induced epitope retrieval (HIER) by immersing slides in a sodium citrate buffer (10 nmol l⁻¹, pH 6.0) and heating both slides and solution in a microwave oven for 4 min. The solution and slides were allowed to cool for 20 min, reheated for 2 min, and left to stand at room temperature (RT) for 15 min. Slides were then washed three times in phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) pH 7.4, 0.4% Kodak Photo-Flo 200 in PBS (PBS/PF, 10 min), 0.05% Triton X-100 in PBS (PBS/TX, 10 min), and 10% antibody dilution buffer (ADB; 10% goat serum, 3% BSA and 0.05% Triton X-100 in PBS) in PBS (PBS/ADB, 10 min). Slides were incubated overnight at RT with a guinea pig polyclonal anti-V₁ (Ab 353-2 against the V₁ complex, identical antibody used in western blot analyses, at 1:5000 dilution in ADB) in combination with a 1:100 mouse polyclonal anti-ATP6V0A1 antibody for V_o (Abnova, Taipei, Taiwan).

Following overnight primary antibody incubation, slides were washed briefly in distilled water, with sequential washes with PBS/PF, PBS/TX, and PBS/ADB for 10 min each as described above. A goat anti-guinea pig antibody conjugated to AlexaFluor 488 (1:500 in ADB, Jackson ImmunoResearch) and sheep anti-mouse antibody conjugated to

AlexaFluor 594 or (1:500 in ADB, Jackson ImmunoResearch) were applied to visualize the VA complexes. The slides were left to incubate in the secondary antibody for 60 min at RT. For negative controls, slides were processed as described above with primary antibodies omitted. Slides were then washed in distilled water/0.4% PF three times for 1 min each and finally in distilled water for 1 min. Slides were air dried for 30 min and mounted using ProLongTM Gold antifade reagent with DAPI (Life Technologies, Burlington, ON, Canada). Fluorescence images were captured using an Olympus IX81 inverted fluorescent microscope (Olympus Canada, Richmond Hill, ON, Canada). Using ImageJ, V₁ cell fluorescence was measured as described previously (91, 92) where sections of interest were selected and their area, integrated density, and mean grey values measured. A total of 14 – 16 preps were selected, consisting of both transverse and cross-sections, and three sections of interest were selected from both membrane and cytosolic staining (the size of the selected area was kept consistent to reduce bias). Background values were also recorded by selecting regions of the preps with no fluorescence near the sections of interest. The corrected cell fluorescence (CCF) was calculated using the equation: CCF = integrated density – (area of selected cell x mean fluorescence of background readings (modified from original equation since only portions of the cell were selected)).

cGMP Measurements

A competitive cGMP ELISA kit (Cell Signaling Technology, #4360) was used to measure the effect of DH₃₁ and *Aedae*CAPA-1 on cGMP levels in the MTs. Adult MTs were isolated under physiological saline from 50 female *A. aegypti* for each biological

replicate (defined as $n = 1$). To prevent cGMP degradation, tubules were incubated first with a phosphodiesterase inhibitor, 10^{-4} mol^{-1} zaprinast, for 10 min (93) before any of the experimental treatments, specifically *Aedes* saline, $25 \text{ nmol}^{-1} \text{ DH}_{31}$, $1 \text{ fmol}^{-1} \text{ AedaeCAPA-1}$, or $25 \text{ nmol}^{-1} \text{ DH}_{31} + 1 \text{ fmol}^{-1} \text{ AedaeCAPA-1}$ for a further 20 min. After incubation was complete, tissues were stored at -80°C until processing. To measure cGMP concentrations, frozen tubule samples were thawed on ice and $125 \mu\text{L}$ of 1X cell lysis buffer (CLB, #9803) was added to each tube (1 mmol^{-1} phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride (PMSF) was added to 1X CLB fresh each time). Tissue samples were kept on ice for 10 min, sonicated for 10 s (similar conditions as described for NKA/VA activity assay), centrifuged for 3 min at 10,000 x rpm, and the supernatant was isolated and kept on ice. Using a commercial 96-well microtitre plate precoated with cGMP rabbit monoclonal antibody, the cGMP-HRP conjugate was added in triplicate wells with $50 \mu\text{L}$ per well. This was followed by the addition of $50 \mu\text{L}$ of either tubule samples or cGMP standards ranging from 100 nmol^{-1} to 0.25 nmol^{-1} . The plate was covered and incubated at RT for 3 h on a horizontal orbital plate shaker. Following incubation, plate contents were discarded, and wells were washed four times with $200 \mu\text{L}$ /well of 1X wash buffer. Next, $100 \mu\text{L}$ of 3,3',5,5'-tetramethylbenzidine (TMB) substrate was added to each well, and the plate was covered and kept for 10 min at RT. The enzymatic reaction was quenched by adding $100 \mu\text{L}$ of $2 \text{ mmol}^{-1} \text{ HCl}$ and absorbance read at 450 nm using a Synergy 2 Microplate Reader (Biotek).

Statistical analyses

Data was compiled using Microsoft Excel and transferred to Graphpad Prism software v.7 to create figures and conduct all statistical analyses. Data was analyzed accordingly using a one-way or two-way ANOVA and a Bonferroni post-test, or Student's T-test, with differences between treatments considered significant if $p < 0.05$.

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Data and materials availability

All data are available in the main text or the supplementary materials. Additional data related to this paper may be requested from the authors.

Figures and Tables

Fig. 1. Effect of 10^{-5} M bafilomycin on fluid secretion rates by *A. aegypti* MTs stimulated with different diuretic hormones. MTs were treated with either (A) 25 nmol l^{-1} DH_{31} (B) 100 nmol l^{-1} 5HT or (C) 10 nmol l^{-1} DH_{44} , and secreted droplets were measured at 10-min intervals for 30 min. Immediately following measurement of the 30-min point fluid droplet (solid arrow), MTs were treated with (A) DH_{31} (B) 5HT (C) or DH_{44} alone (blue circles) or in combination with 10^{-5} M bafilomycin (yellow squares). Droplets were measured at similar intervals for an additional 50 min. Significant differences between bafilomycin-treated and the corresponding time point controls are denoted by an asterisk, as determined by a two-way ANOVA and Bonferroni multiple comparison post-hoc test ($p < 0.05$). Data represent the mean $\pm$ standard error ($n = 12-23$). (D) MTs were treated with 25 nmol l^{-1} DH_{31} alone or in combination with 1 fmol l^{-1} *Aedae*CAPA-1, bafilomycin, or both *Aedae*CAPA-1 and bafilomycin for 60 min. Data labelled with different letters are significantly different from each other (mean $\pm$ SEM; one-way ANOVA with Bonferroni multiple comparison, $p < 0.05$, $n = 7-17$).

Fig. 2. Effect of bafilomycin and *Aedae*CAPA-1 on pH of the secreted fluid by *A. aegypti* MTs stimulated with distinct diuretic hormones. MTs were treated with either (A) DH₃₁ (B) 5HT (C) or DH₄₄, and secreted droplets were measured at 10-min intervals for 30 min using an ion-selective microelectrode. Immediately following measurement of the 30-min point fluid droplet (solid arrow), MTs were treated with (A) DH₃₁ (B) 5HT (C) or DH₄₄ alone (blue circles) or in combination with *Aedae*CAPA-1 (purple triangles) or bafilomycin (yellow squares). Droplets were measured at similar intervals for an additional 30 min. Significant differences between *Aedae*CAPA-1- and bafilomycin-treated and the corresponding time point controls are denoted by a double asterisk, (mean± SEM; two-way ANOVA with Bonferroni multiple comparison, $p < 0.05$, $n = 14-34$).

Fig. 3. Effect of *AedaeCAPA-1* on VA and NKA activity and cGMP levels in stimulated *A. aegypti* MTs. MTs were incubated in *Aedes* saline, diuretics (DH₃₁, 5HT, and DH₄₄) alone or in combination with *AedaeCAPA-1* for 30 min before collection to measure (A) VA and (B) NKA activity. Data labelled with different letters are significantly different from each other (mean± SEM; one-way ANOVA with Bonferroni multiple comparison, p<0.05). N.S. denotes no statistical significance. (n=50 sets of MTs for all treatments (n=3 per treatment)). To monitor activity of *AedaeCAPA-1* on cGMP production in stimulated *A. aegypti* MTs (C), tubuules were incubated in zaprinast for 10 min before incubation with following treatments; *Aedes* saline, DH₃₁, *AedaeCAPA-1* alone, or in combination with DH₃₁ for 20 min before collection. An asterisk is denoted for significance within treatments (mean± SEM; one-way ANOVA with Bonferroni multiple comparison, p<0.05, n=50 sets of MTs for all treatments (n=3 per treatment)).

Fig. 4. Membrane and cytosolic protein abundance of the V₁ complex in *A. aegypti* MTs. The MTs (n=40-50) were incubated in *Aedes* saline, DH₃₁, or DH₃₁ and *Aedae*CAPA-1 for one hour before collection. Protein abundance was measured in the (A-C) 74 kDa (D-F) 56 kDa and (G-I) 32 kDa bands of the V₁ complex. Individual band densities were normalized to total protein using Coomassie staining, and graphed relative to saline-treated controls. An asterisk denotes significance within cytosolic and membrane fractions (mean± SEM; Student's T-test, p<0.05, n=3-4 replicates) whereas ns denotes no significance.

Fig. 5. Immunolocalization of the V_0 and V_1 complexes in transverse sections of stimulated *A. aegypti* MTs. Representative paraffin-embedded sections of *A. aegypti* MTs incubated in either (A-C) *Aedes* saline, (D-F) DH_{31} and (G-I) DH_{31} and *AedaeCAPA-1*. Panels (A,D,G) show V_0 staining (red), (B,E,H) show V_1 staining (green), and panels (C,F,I) show merged antibody staining highly prominent in DH_{31} treatment but less evident in saline and *AedaeCAPA-1* treatments. Solid white arrows denote apical VA staining, and empty arrows indicate cytosolic VA staining. DAPI nuclear staining is shown in blue. Scale bar 100 μ m (PC = principal cell, SC = stellate cell).

Fig. 6. Immuno co-localization of the V_0 and V_1 complexes in cross sections of stimulated *A. aegypti* MTs. Representative paraffin-embedded sections of *A. aegypti* MTs incubated in either (A, B) *Aedes* saline, (C, D) DH_{31} and (E-J) DH_{31} and *AedaeCAPA-1*. Images A, C and E-G show merged V_0 and V_1 antibody staining while B, D and H-J show brightfield images. Solid white arrows denote apical VA staining, and empty arrows indicate cytosolic VA staining. DAPI nuclear staining is shown in blue. Scale bar 100 μ m. (PC = principal cell).

Fig. 7. Corrected cell fluorescence (CTCF) of V₁ staining in stimulated *A.*

aegypti MTs. (A) Membrane and (B) cytosolic V₁ staining was measured using immunohistochemistry in MTs incubated in either *Aedes* saline, DH₃₁, or DH₃₁ and *Aedae*CAPA-1. Data labelled with different letters are significantly different from each other (mean ± SEM; one-way ANOVA with Bonferroni multiple comparison, p < 0.05, n = 14-16).

Fig. 8. Schematic diagram summarizing the signaling pathway of diuretic and anti-diuretic control of adult *A. aegypti* MTs. The principal cells in *A. aegypti* MTs are responsible for the transport of Na⁺ and K⁺ cations via secondary active transport, energized by the V-type H⁺-ATPase (VA), localized in the brush border of the apical membrane. The movement of protons creates a gradient, driving the exchange of Na⁺ and K⁺ through cation/H⁺ antiporters (NHA). Neurohormone receptors for DH₃₁, 5HT, DH₄₄, and CAPA are localized to the basolateral membrane of the principal cells, while the kinin receptor is localized exclusively in the stellate cells. Our data together with previous work indicates that DH₃₁ stimulates diuresis through activation and assembly of the VA in the apical membrane, with no effect on the Na⁺/K⁺-ATPase (NKA). The anti-diuretic effect of *Aedae*CAPA-1, facilitated by the NOS/cGMP/PKG pathway, causes V₁ dissociation from the membrane, hindering activity, and thus reducing fluid secretion. The biogenic amine, 5HT, has also been shown to stimulate activation of the VA, however, to a lesser extent. DH₄₄-related peptide receptor activation increases Ca²⁺ (as well as cAMP at higher doses) but its action was found to be independent of the VA. Lastly, it was shown earlier that cGMP inhibits kinin-stimulated diuresis, suggesting an additional anti-diuretic factor may exist that acts specifically on stellate cells.

Fig. S1. Dose response of bafilomycin on *in vitro* fluid secretion rates of DH₃₁-stimulated MTs of adult female *A. aegypti*. Doses of 10⁻⁴ M to 10⁻¹⁰ M bafilomycin were applied to MTs together with DH₃₁ for 60 min. Data labelled with different letters are significantly different from each other (mean ± SEM; one-way ANOVA with Bonferroni multiple comparison, $p < 0.05$, $n = 5-13$).

Fig. S2. Measurement of pH in fluid secreted by unstimulated *A. aegypti* adult female MTs. Secreted droplets were isolated and measured at 10-min intervals for 60 min using an ion-selective microelectrode. No significant differences were observed in the measurements, (mean± SEM; two-way ANOVA with Bonferroni multiple comparison, $p < 0.05$, $n = 10$); ns denotes no statistical significance.

Fig. S3. Immunolocalization of the V_0 and V_1 complexes in stimulated *A. aegypti* MTs (cross sections). Representative paraffin-embedded sections of *A. aegypti* MTs incubated in either (A, B) *Aedes* saline, (C, D) DH_{31} and (E-J) DH_{31} and *Aedae*CAPA-1. Panels (A,C, E-G) show membrane-integrated V_0 staining (red) and (B,D,H-J) demonstrate V_1 staining (green). Solid white arrows denote apical VA staining, and empty arrows indicate cytosolic VA staining. Scale bar 100 μ m (PC = principal cell).

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