Chapter 4

Imaging of the Cytoskeleton Using Live and Fixed *Drosophila* **Tissue Culture Cells**

Derek A. Applewhite, Christine A. Davis, Eric R. Griffis, and Omar A. Quintero

Abstract

In recent years, the convergence of multiple technologies and experimental approaches has led to the expanded use of cultured *Drosophila* cells as a model system. Their ease of culture and maintenance, susceptibility to RNA interference, and imaging characteristics have led to extensive use in both traditional experimental approaches as well as high-throughput RNAi screens. Here we describe *Drosophila* S2 cell culture and preparation for live-cell and fixed-cell fluorescence microscopy and scanning electron microscopy.

Key words Fluorescence microscopy, S2 cells, Transfection, Microtubule, Actin, Electron microscopy

1 Introduction

The marriage of Drosophila tissue culture and cytoskeletal research has been a fruitful one. Numerous cytoskeletal proteins have been discovered using S2 cells $[1]$, which is a testament to their practicality. Major advances in our understanding of cytoskeletal dynamics and function have been achieved using S2 cells, an indication of their versatility and strength as a model system $[2-10]$. Drosophila cells are cultured at room temperature in a medium that does not require buffering with $CO₂$. RNAi is both effective and easily administered [11]. Drosophila cells do not produce an interferon response to dsRNAs. Therefore, dsRNAs can be produced in vitro, eliminating the need to buy siRNAs. S2 cells readily incorporate dsRNAs when added to tissue culture medium. dsRNAs can also be generated against the 5′ and 3′ untranslated regions (UTRs) allowing for the depletion of endogenous target genes, and testing of exogenous genes for their ability to rescue RNAi phenotypes. RNAi protocols can involve as few as 3 days, depending upon the turnover of a given protein and frequently lead to substantial protein knockdown [\[12\]](#page-13-0). The Drosophila genome represents a pared

Ray H. Gavin (ed.), *Cytoskeleton: Methods and Protocols*, Methods in Molecular Biology, vol. 1365, DOI 10.1007/978-1-4939-3124-8_4, © Springer Science+Business Media New York 2016

down form of the mammalian genome and while approximately 75 % of human disease causing genes are retained in the Drosophila genome, there is far less functional redundancy $[13-15]$. Whereas the human or mouse genome may have three genes that are functionally interchangeable, the Drosophila genome will often have one. Collectively, these qualities have led to hundreds of RNAi screens of the full Drosophila genome at a fraction of the cost of screens preformed in mammalian tissue culture systems.

The usefulness of Drosophila S2 cells as tools for cytoskeletal research goes beyond their use in RNAi screens. S2 cells in particular adopt a flat, fried-egg-like morphology when plated on a concanavalin A (Con A)-coated surface $[16]$. This conformation makes them highly amenable to high-resolution microscopy $[17]$, and their sessile nature eliminates the problems produced by motile cells. S2 cells form a circumferential actin-rich lamellipodium with characteristic fast actin dynamics where proteins such as the Arp2/3 complex, Capping Protein, and Ena/VASP proteins localize [5]. This lamellipodium is followed by a contractile network highly reminiscent of a lamella with its own characteristic slower actin dynamics and signature proteins such as tropomyosin, non-muscle myosin II, and alpha-actinin (Fig. 1) $[18, 19]$ $[18, 19]$. This is even more evident as these actin-rich zones of S2 cells display similar phenotypes to those of migrating cells following RNAi depletion of these key actin-binding proteins $[5, 20-22]$. Thus, despite being non-motile, the behavior and dynamics of the actin-rich cell periphery of S2 cells mimics that of migrating cells. S2 cells have also been quite useful in studying microtubule dynamics. Our current

Fig. 1 Live imaging of cytoskeletal probes in *Drosophila* S2 cells. (a–f) Shown is a single time point from a live-cell image sequence of S2 cells imaged by TIRF-M. (a) An S2 cell co-expressing mCherry-Actin and (b) the regulatory chain of non-muscle myosin II (Spaghetti-Squash, Sqh), tagged with EGFP. (**c**) Shown at higher magnification, the merged image of (a) and (b) where mCherry actin pictured in (a) is shown in *cyan* and EGFP-Sqh pictured in (b) is shown in *red* . (**d**) An S2 cell co-expressing EGFP-Short stop (Shot) and (**e**) mCherry-α- Tubulin . (**f**) The merged image of (**d**) and (**e**) where Shot-EGFP pictured in (**d**) is shown in *cyan* and mCherry-α-Tubulin pictured in (**e**) is shown in *red*. Scale bars in both low and high magnification images are 10 μm

understanding of spindle formation, in particular poleward flux, kinetochore attachments, and the role of molecular motors during mitosis owe much to experiments performed in S2 cells $[16, 23 [16, 23 [16, 23-$ [30](#page-14-0)]. In addition, the acentriolar interphase microtubule array offers a unique system to study with great detail the dynamics of the microtubule plus-end and minus-end as well as interactions between the actin and microtubule cytoskeletons $[16, 31-36]$.

S2 cells are easily transfected with tagged protein (fluorescent or otherwise), but are naturally non-adherent and must be induced to attach to a substrate. If the cells have not been attached to a substrate, they will be washed away during fixation, permeabilization, and staining. There are two main coatings that will induce cell attachment, concanavalin A (Con A) and polylysine. These two coatings differ in how the cell responds to them. Con A is a lectin (sugar binding protein) that is commonly purified from the jackbean (*Canavalia ensiformis*), and it presumably induces cell spreading in a Rac and Arp2/3-dependent manner as cells try to engulf the Con A coated substrate $[5]$. Due to the strong inducement of spreading as well as the engagement of the phagocytic machinery to the basal cortex of the cell, many membrane trafficking events (including cytokinesis) are disrupted in Con A plated cells, and these side effects should be considered when deciding whether to use Con A to induce adherence. Polylysine is a positively charged polymer of lysine that electrostatically interacts with negatively charged cell membranes and induces cell attachment and mild amounts of cell spreading. Polylysine is available as both L and D forms and available in a range of molecular weights. We have found that Drosophila cells need higher concentrations of polylysine than mammalian cells to attach to the substrate, and they tend to be highly sensitive to the oxidizing effects of thimerosal. Therefore, it is not recommended to purchase premade polylysine that uses this chemical as a preservative.

2 Materials

2.1 Culturing and Transient Transfection of Drosophila S2 Cells

- 1. Schneider's Drosophila Medium (Gibco/Life Technologies).
- 2. Fetal bovine serum, heat inactivated.
- 3. 100× antibiotic/antimycotic (Gibco/Life Technologies).
- 4. pMT/V5 His, pIZ/V5, and/or pAc5.1 vectors (Life Technologies).
- 5. $CuSO₄: 100$ mM aqueous solution.
- 6. FugeneHD (Promega).
- 7. Amaxa Kit V (Lonza) (optional).
- 8. Nucleofector Machine (Lonza) (optional).

2.2 Fixation and Staining of Drosophila S2 Cells for Immunofl uorescence

- 1. 1 mg/mL Polylysine: Dissolve Poly-D-Lysine or Poly-L-lysine (70,000–150,000 average molecular weight) in 50 mM Tris– HCl, pH 8.0. Aliquot and freeze at −20 °C.
- 2. 0.5 mg/mL concanavalin A(Con A): Dissolve Con A (Type IV-S, tissue culture grade) at 0.5 mg/mL in distilled water. Filter the Con A solution through a $0.22 \mu m$ filter into a fresh tube or centrifuge at $18,000 \times g$ (14,000 RPM) for 5 min to pellet aggregates. Retain the supernatant, and store it in 0.5 mL aliquots in 1.5 mL tubes at −20 °C.
- 3. 1 M Tris–HCl, pH 8.0.
- 4. #1.5 glass coverslips, glass-bottom or optical plastic multi-well plates.
- 5. Humidified chambers.
- 6. Paraformaldehyde: EM Grade packed in ampoules or made fresh.
- 7. Glutaraldehyde: EM Grade.
- 8. PHEM Buffer pH 6.9: 60 mM PIPES, 25 mM HEPES, 10 mM EGTA, 2 mM MgCl₂. This buffer can be made as a $2\times$ stock solution, autoclaved, and stored until use.
- 9. Sodium borohydride: aqueous solution 1 mg/mL.
- 10. Saponin: 10 mg/mL aqueous stock solution.
- 11. Donkey or goat serum.
- 12. Bovine serum albumin.
- 13. Triton X-100.
- 14. Mounting medium: (Dako, ProLong (Life Technologies), Fluoromount (Sigma), VECTASHIELD (Vector Laboratories), or a solution of 90 % glycerol, 20 mM sodium bicarbonate (from 0.5 M aqueous solution, pH 9), 3 % *n*-propyl gallate.
- 15. CoverGrip (Biotium) or nail polish.

1. #1.5 glass-bottom dishes. *2.3 Live Cell Imaging*

- 2. Titanium Step Drill Bit—1/4″ to 1-3/8″ Increments, ten steps (Neiko) (optional).
- 3. 120 V 10-in. Drill Press (optional).
- 4. Norland Optical Adhesive 81 (Norland) (optional).
- 5. UV transilluminator (optional).
- 6. Cell-Tak (Corning) (optional).
- 7. Poly-lysine (optional).

2.4 Fixation and Preparation of Drosophila S2 Cells for Scanning Electron Microscopy

3.1 Culture

- 1. Silver paint.
- 2. Double-sided conductive tape.
- 3. Critical point dryer.
- 4. Coverslip holder for critical point dryer.
- 5. 200 proof ethanol.
- 6. Sputter coater.

of Drosophila S2 Cell (See **Note 1** *)*

3.2 Transient Transfection of Drosophila S2 Cells (See **Notes 2** *and* **3** *)*

- 1. Maintain *Drosophila* S2 cellsat room temperature (preferably between 19 and 27 °C) and in semi-suspension in 25-cm or 75-cm flasks with plug-end caps.
- 2. Passage cells by pipetting them from the culture medium, making sure that the cells are adequately resuspended and that any cells lightly adhered to the tissue culture plastic are removed. Generally, a 1:4 split of the cells into fresh cell culture medium will yield a cell density that will require passage every 3–4 days. It is important to note that S2 cell viability decreases when the cell density falls below 5×10^5 cells/mL.
- 1. Plate S2 cells at 40–80 % confluency in a 6 or 12-well tissue culture plate 15–30 min prior to transfection. Alternatively, plate cells a day in advance of transfection. This step is needed as the transfection protocol calls for the exchange of medium, and the cells will need this time to loosely adhere to the tissue culture plastic.
	- 2. If using the Fugene HD transfection reagent (Promega) (*see* **Note 3**), prepare the DNA–Fugene HD complex by diluting the desired amount of DNA in water or serum free Schneider's medium to a final volume of 100 μL. Next, add 6–8 μL of Fugene HD reagent directly to the diluted DNA with special care taken to avoid pipetting the reagent down sides of the microfuge tube. Incubate the DNA–Fugene HD mixture for 15–20 min at room temperature.
	- 3. While the incubation is in progress, gently remove the cell culture medium from the tissue culture plate, taking precaution not to disturb the weakly adherent cells. Replace the cell culture medium with 900 μL of fresh cell culture medium. Add the $100 \mu L$ DNA–Fugene HD complex dropwise to the 900 μL of medium containing the cells. The transfection is carried out overnight, and the medium is replaced with fresh medium the following day.
	- 4. Alternatively, transiently transfect S2 cells by using electroporation systems such as Amaxa nucleofector from Lonza. The Amaxa nucleofector kits are tailored to specific cell lines. The manufacturer suggests Kit V for Drosophila S2.
- 5. The Amaxa kit provides a nucleofection solution and a supplement solution. Mix these two solutions at a ratio of 4.5:1 prior to use. The mixed nucleofector reagent can be stored at 4 °C for up to 3 months.
- 6. Prepare DNA for electroporation by diluting the desired amount of DNA, typically between 0.1 and 2 μg of DNA, in the nucleofector reagent to a final volume of $100 \mu L$ in a microfuge tube. This can be prepared and set aside until the cells are ready.
- 7. Determine the appropriate volume of cells and pellet them by gentle centrifugation at 300 × *g* at room temperature for 5–10 min.
- 8. Next, remove the supernatant (tissue culture medium) (*see* **Note 4**).
- 9. Resuspend the pellet of cells in the diluted DNA–nucleofector mixture, and transfer the mixture to the electroporation cuvette (*see* **Note 5**).
- 10. After electroporation, transfer cells to fresh medium, and allow them to recover prior to $CuSO₄$ induction if using pMT/His-5 vectors (*see* **Note 6**).
- 1. For flame cleaning, use fine tipped forceps to grab an individual coverslip, and dip it into absolute ethanol. Allow most of the ethanol to run off the edge of the coverslip, and then wave the coverslip through an open flame. As the ethanol burns, continue to tilt and move the coverslip to prevent the ethanol from pooling in a single corner and superheating the glass.
- 2. Place flamed coverslips in a rack and rinse thoroughly in distilled water. Then place the coverslip rack over a heat block to allow them to dry thoroughly. Cover and store to block dust accumulation.
- 1. Cover the bottom of a broad shallow chamber with Parafilm, and then place the cleaned coverslips onto the Parafilm.
- 2. For 22×22 mm coverslips, put a 50 μ L drop of Con A on the center of the coverslip and then evenly smear the drop over the surface of the glass.
- 3. For 18×18 mm coverslips use a 35 µL drop.
- 4. Place the coverslips in an out-of-the-way location where they will not accumulate dust, and allow to dry overnight.
- 1. Dilute Con A to 0.05 mg/mL and then:
- 2. Add 80 μL of Con A to each well and allow to dry over at least 2 days.

3.3 Fixation and Staining of Drosophila S2 Cells for Immunofl uorescence (See **Note 7** *)*

3.3.1 Preparing the Surface of Coverslips (See **Notes 8** *and* **9** *)*

3.3.2 Coating of Substrates

 Con A Coating of Coverslips

 Con A Coating of 96-Well Plates

- 5. Wash the coverslips three times in PHEM-Wash $(1 \times PHEM +$ 0.1 % Triton X-100)—5 min per wash.
- 6. Block nonspecific antibody binding sites and reduce background by incubating cells in a blocking solution (PHEM-Wash + 5 % Boiled donkey serum) for 30 min to 1 h at room temperature (*see* **Note 12**).
- 7. Incubate cells in primary antibody for 1 h at room temperature or overnight at 4 °C if antibody staining is desired. Dilute antibodies to the appropriate concentration with blocking solution; determine concentrations empirically for each antibody. Dot 50μ L drops of antibody solution onto a Parafilm sheet in a humidified chamber, and place a coverslip on top of each drop. Ensure that the cell-adhering side of the coverslip makes contact with the drop of antibody solution.
- 8. Wash cells 4×5 min in PHEM-Wash.
- 9. Perform secondary antibody incubation as described for primary antibody using fluorescent secondary antibodies and additions such as DAPI or fluorescent-labeled phalloidin diluted in blocking buffer.
- 10. Wash coverslips 4×5 min in PHEM-Wash.
- 11. Rinse cells $1 \times$ in PHEM and $1 \times$ in distilled water to remove salts.
- 12. Wick away excess fluid from coverslips and then mount them (cell side down) on slides using one drop of a mounting media.
- 13. Use vacuum aspiration to remove any excess mounting media from around the edges of the coverslips and then seal them with a hardening material such as nail polish, VALAP, or CoverGrip (Biotium).
- 1. Plate S2 cells on glass-bottom dishes (*see* Note 14) that have been coated with a lectin solution, concanavalin A (con A). Con A should be applied to the glass surface and allowed to incubate for 1–2 min. *3.4 Live Cell Imaging (See* **Note 13** *)*
	- 2. Remove con A, carefully ensuring that the reagent is completely removed, and allow the dishes to dry before the addition of cell culture medium containing cells. Allow 30–60 min for S2 cells to fully attach and spread on the con A coated surface.
	- 3. Alternatively, plate S2 plate on Polylysine or Cell-tak (Corning) Cat. No. 354240) coated glass. See manufacturer's instructions for coating glass-bottom dishes with Cell-tak.
	- 4. Perform imaging in Schneider's Insect Medium supplemented with 10 % heat-inactivated FBS and antibiotic. Imaging is conveniently carried out at room temperature without $CO₂$.

5. Image the coverslips in a SEM (Fig. [2](#page-9-0)).

4 Notes

1. S2 cells can be maintained in either Schneider's Drosophila medium (available from many suppliers) supplemented with 10 % FBS and antibiotics, or serum free media that are designed for SF9 cell culture. However, live cell imaging should be performed in Schneider's medium as serum free media both produces background fluorescence and contains trace amounts of divalent ions, which tend to induce expression from pMT/ V5-His vectors. S2 do not require $CO₂$, and they are tolerant of and perform well at high cell densities. Cells should be passaged when they become confluent. S2 cells are loosely adherent on tissue culture plastic that has been treated for cell culture and thus do not require trypsin/EDTA treatments.

 Fig. 2 Scanning electron micrography of *Drosophila* S2 cells . Shown are representative images of S2 cells allowed to adhere to glass coverslips coated with either poly-L-lysine or concanavalin-A. Cells were allowed to adhere for 1 h prior to fixation and processing for SEM. While the size and surface morphology for cells was somewhat variable, nearly all cells grown on concanavalin-A coated coverslips displayed a smooth dorsal surface morphology with few projections, a smooth-edge morphology and were well-spread. Scale bars are 5 μm

 2. The amount of plasmid DNA transfected depends on the cytoskeletal protein being imaged and the *Drosophila* expression vector used. pMT/V5 His vectors that are copper inducible are typically transfected at a range of 0.1–2 μg DNA. An advantage of using pMT/V5-His vectors is that the amount of protein expressed can be titrated with the amount of $CuSO₄$ supplemented in the tissue culture medium prior to imaging. Successful imaging experiments have been carried out using vectors that have constitutively active promoters such as the pIZ/V5 vector, which uses the OpIE2 promoter and the pAc5.1/V5 which uses the *Drosophila* actin 5C promoter. However, it is often best to titrate the amount of DNA transfected in order to achieve optimal protein expression levels with these vectors. It is also possible to transfect in vectors containing the UAS promoter, which are usually generated for producing transgenic flies. To work with UAS vectors, one can co-transfect a pMT-Gal4 to allow for inducible expression of the UAS promoter. For live cell imaging of fluorescently tagged cytoskeletal proteins good results have been achieved by an overnight induction of $25-600 \mu M$ CuSO₄. It is particularly important to use the low end of this range of $CuSO₄$ when imaging microtubule plus-end tracking proteins (+TIPS) that are sensitive to mis-localization as a consequence of overexpression. Expression of other cytoskeletal proteins such as tubulin, actin, or actin-binding proteins that are less sensitive to the artifacts generated by overexpression, can be achieved by overnight induction at the higher end of this range.

Transient transfection of cytoskeletal proteins is generally carried out 1–2 days prior to live-cell imaging. The exact timing is highly dependent on the vector and the expression of the protein of interest and an effort should be made to optimize this timing. For visualizing mitosis, it is usually best to wait 3 or more days before imaging. Mitosisis a rare event in a cells lifetime, and only 5 % of cells will be in mitosis at any point in time. If the transfection efficiency is 50 %, a culture will only have 2.5 % of cells transfected and in mitosis at any point during imaging. For this reason, stably transfected cells are usually preferred for studies of mitosis.

- 3. We have achieved good results using Fugene HD transfection reagent (Promega). It is always best to follow the manufacturer's instructions while preparing both the plasmid DNA and cells for electroporation. Lonza recommends 2×10^6 cells per transfection and from 0.1 to 2 μg of DNA per transfection.
- 4. It is important to remove as much tissue culture medium as possible without disturbing the pellet as residual media can interfere with the electroporation.
- 5. The electroporation machine provided by the Lonza system contains a preset S2 cell protocol, G-030 (or G-30 for Nucleofector I device).
- 6. Electroporation does lead to cell death but in general if the protocol is adhered to, the amount of cell death does not interfere with the progress of the experiment. Very high transfection efficiencies can be achieved with electroporation, however, transfection efficiency is highly dependent on plasmid DNA quality and the health of the cells prior to electroporation.
- 7. Drosophila S2 cells cannot be fixed and stained like mammalian cells. They are non-adherent and must be induced to adhere to coverslips or multiwell plates; they do not tolerate low-density cultures and therefore must be seeded carefully in order to function optimally. And they do not tolerate hypertonic buffers and therefore require specific buffers for washing and fixation.
- 8. In order to plate cells on glass, the hydrophobic coating found on most coverslips must be removed. There are several ways to do this: plasma cleaning, hydrogen peroxide + sulfuric acid soaking, and flame cleaning. Flame cleaning does not produce any chemical waste that requires storage and disposal or require a special piece of equipment.
- 9. S2 cellsare only weakly adherent to glass surfaces, which must be functionalized in order to keep cells immobilized for fixation and staining.
- 10. S2 cells are extremely sensitive to plating density. If plated at too low of a concentration, they will not form extensive microtubule networks. Additionally, if one wishes to visualize mitotic cells, a too low density will make it very difficult to observe enough cells. However, plating at a too high density will inhibit their spreading and lead to cells stacking upon each other, resulting in out of focus noise in images. It is advisable to empirically determine how many cells to plate for any given application.
- 11. Many existing protocols for cell fixation work well for S2 cells. Several methods may need to be tested to find one that is compatible with both fixing the structure you wish to observe and that preserves the antigenicity of the molecules you wish to localize. Fixatives that work for S2 cells include −80 °C methanol, a mixture of methanol and formaldehyde (90 % methanol, 3.2 % formaldehyde, 5 mM sodium bicarbonate, pH 9 (from a 0.5 M stock) chilled to –80 °C prior to fixation), 4–10 % formaldehyde, and ice-cold acetone. The protocol in Subheading 3.3.5 uses a common fixation method that contains a mild detergent to give simultaneous fixation and permeabilization. Simultaneous fixation/permeabilization works well for many

antigens and structures as the detergent speeds up the access of the fixative while allowing some loosely bound protein to leave the cells, thereby reducing background. Alternatively, fixation followed by permeabilization or rapid fixation $(10-60 s)$ followed by permeabilization and then 10 min of a second fixation can be utilized as well.

- 12. We use donkey serum and the highly cross-subtracted donkey secondary antibodies from Jackson ImmunoResearch diluted in $1 \times TBS + 0.1$ % Triton X-100 + 2 % BSA.
- 13. Imaging is performed on an inverted microscope. Both the actin and microtubule cytoskeletons are sensitive to phototoxicity. Exposure to excess fluorescent light can quickly lead to a slowing or altering of the natural filament dynamics. Imaging should be performed to minimize the fluorescent light exposure. Both spinning-disk confocal and total internal reflection (TIRF) microscopy lend themselves to limiting the amount of light exposure while providing a good signal-to-noise ratio ideal for imaging proteins that are expressed at low levels. The speed of image acquisition by both these types of microscopy is also ideal for capturing the dynamics of the actin and microtubule cytoskeletons of live cells.
- 14. Glass bottom dishes can be made using a step drill bit (Neiko Titanium Step Drill Bit—1/4″ to 1-3/8″ Increments, 10 steps) installed in an upright drill press (SKIL 3320-01 120 V 10-in. Drill Press); however, commercial dishes with their superior flatness are highly recommended for TIRF. The bit is used to bore a circular opening in the bottom of a 35 mm plastic dish 1.5–2 cm in diameter. Cover-slips can then be glued to the dish, using any number of quick drying plastic compatible adhesives. We prefer an ultraviolet curing adhesive available from Norland (Norland Optical Adhesive 81) which quickly cures following a brief exposure (5–10 min) to ultraviolet light from a transilluminator.
- 15. Chemical fixation halts deterioration of the sample by crosslinking proteins. This crosslinking also provides some support for dehydration and critical point drying. Chemical fixatives are hazardous. Gloves and a fume hood should be used during fixation.
- 16. Samples must be dry to withstand the high vacuum of a scanning electron microscope. Air-drying creates enormous surface tension that causes samples to crumple losing their original surface shapes. To preserve a sample's structure, dehydration in ethanol and critical point drying (CPD) in carbon dioxide are used to dry the sample. During CDP 100 % ethanol, which is miscible with water and carbon dioxide, is exchanged for liquid carbon dioxide. Heat and pressure are applied to the

sample to reach the point where liquid carbon dioxide changes into gaseous carbon dioxide (the critical point). The sample is now dry. Having never been exposed to surface tension the original structures are preserved.

 17. Scanning Electron Microscopy (SEM) requires conductivity throughout the system. Biological samples lose their conductivity once water is removed. Mounting samples on aluminum stubs facilitates conductivity from the SEM stage to the sample and provides a stable surface. Conductivity must continue across the surface of the sample. This requires the deposition of a thin layer of metal. Sputter coating uses a heavy inert gas (typically Argon) to create a plasma field around a metal target. The plasma field erodes the target so that metal atoms are ejected onto the surface of the sample.

References

- 1. Schneider I (1972) Cell lines derived from late embryonic stages of *Drosophila melanogaster*. J Embryol Exp Morphol 27:353–365
- 2. Somma MP, Fasulo B, Cenci G, Cundari E, Gatti M (2002) Molecular dissection of cytokinesis by RNAi interference in Drosophila tissue culture cells. Mol Biol Cell 13:2448–2460
- 3. Pearson AM, Baksa K, Rämet M, Protas M, McKee M, Brown D, Ezekowitz RA (2003) Identification of cytoskeletal regulatory proteins required for efficient phagocytosis in Drosophila. Microbes Infect 10:815–824
- 4. Kiger AA, Baum B, Jones S, Jones MR, Coulson A, Echeverri C, Perrimon N (2003) A functional genomic analysis of cell morphology using RNA interference. J Biol 2:27
- 5. Rogers SL, Wiedemann U, Stuurman N, Vale RD (2003) Molecular requirements for actinbased lamella formation in Drosophila S2 cells. J Cell Biol 162:1079–1088
- 6. Eggert US, Kiger AA, Richter C, Perlman ZE, Perrimon N, Mitchison TJ, Field CM (2004) Parallel chemical genetic and genome-wide RNAi screens identify cytokinesis inhibitors and targets. PLoS Biol 12:e379
- 7. Goshima G, Wollman R, Goodwin SS, Zhang N, Scholey JM, Vale RD, Stuurman N (2007) Genes required for mitotic spindle assembly in Drosophila S2 cells. Science 316:417–421
- 8. D'Ambrosio MV, Vale RD (2010) A whole genome RNAi screen of Drosophila S2 cell spreading performed using automated computational image analysis. J Cell Biol 191: 471–479
- 9. Moutinho-Pereira S, Stuurman N, Afonso O, Hornsveld M, Aguiar P, Goshima G, Vale RD, Maiato H (2013) Genes involved in centrosome-

independent mitotic spindle assembly in Drosophila S2 cells. Proc Natl Acad Sci 110:19808-19813

- 10. Toret CP, D'Ambrosio MV, Vale RD, Simon MA, Nelson WJ (2014) A genome-wide screen identifies conserved protein hubs required for cadherin- mediated cell-cell adhesion. J Cell Biol 201:265–279
- 11. Caplen NJ, Fleenor J, Fire A, Morgan RA (2000) dsRNA-mediated gene silencing in cultured Drosophila cells: a tissue culture model for the analysis of RNA interference. Gene 252:95–105
- 12. Rogers SL, Rogers GC (2008) Culture of Drosophila S2 cells and their use for RNAimediated loss-of-function studies and immunofluorescence microscopy. Nat Protoc 3: 606–611
- 13. Adams MD et al (2000) The genome sequence of *Drosophila melanogaster*. Science 287: 2185–2195
- 14. Reiter LT, Potocki L, Chien S, Gribskov M, Bier E (2001) A systematic analysis of human disease- associated gene sequences in *Drosophila melanogaster*. Genome Res 11:1114–1125
- 15. Beir E (2005) Drosophila, the golden bug, emerges as a tool for human genetics. Nat Rev Genet 39:715–720
- 16. Rogers SL, Rogers GC, Sharp DJ, Vale RD (2002) Drosophila EB1 is important for proper assembly, dynamics, and positioning of the mitotic spindle. J Cell Biol 158: 873–884
- 17. Kner P, Chhun BB, Griffis ER, Winoto L, Gustafsson MG (2009) Super-resolution video microscopy of live cells by structured illumination. Nat Methods 6:339–342
- 18. Iwasa JH, Mullins RD (2007) Spatial and temporal relationships between actin-filament nucleation, capping, and disassembly. Curr Biol 17:395–406
- 19. Uehara R, Goshima G, Mabuchi I, Vale RD, Spudich JA, Griffis ER (2010) Determinants of myosin II cortical localization during cytokinesis. Curr Biol 20:1080–1085
- 20. Biyasheva A, Svitkina T, Kunda P, Baum B, Borisy G (2004) Cascade pathway of filopodia formation downstream of SCAR. J Cell Sci 117:837–848
- 21. Kim JH, Cho A, Yin H, Schafer DA, Mouneimne G, Simpson KJ, Nguyen KV, Brugge JS, Montell DJ (2011) Psidin, a conserved protein that regulates protrusion dynamics and cell migration. Genens Dev 25:730–741
- 22. Bai SW, Herrera-Abreu MT, Rohn JL, Racine V, Tajadura V, Suryavanshi N, Bechtel S, Wiemann S, Baum B, Ridley AJ (2011) Identification and characterization of a set of conserved and new regulators of cytoskeletal organization, cell morphology and migration. BMC Biol 9:54
- 23. Maiato H, Sampaio P, Lemos CL, Findlay J, Carmena M, Earnshaw WC, Sunkel CE (2002) MAST/Orbit has a role in microtubulekinetochore attachment and is essential for chromosome alignment and maintenance of spindle bipolarity. J Cell Biol 157:749–760
- 24. Logarinho E, Bousbaa H, Dias JM, Lopes C, Amorim I, Antunes-Martins A, Sunkel CE (2004) Different spindle checkpoint proteins monitor microtubule attachment and tension at kinetochores in Drosophila cells. J Cell Sci 117:1757–1771
- 25. Maiato H, Rieder CL, Khodjakov A (2004) Kinetochore-driven formation of kinetochore fibers contributes to spindle assembly during animal mitosis. J Cell Biol 167:831–840
- 26. Goshima G, Nédélec F, Vale RD (2005) Mechanisms for focusing mitotic spindle poles by minus end-directed motor proteins. J Cell Biol 171:229–240
- 27. Maiato H, Hergert PJ, Moutinho-Pereira S, Dong Y, Vandenbeldt KJ, Rieder CL, McEwen

BF (2006) The ultrastructure of the kinetochore and kinetochore fiber in Drosophila somatic cells. Chromosoma 115:469–480

- 28. Griffis ER, Stuurman N, Vale RD (2007) Spindly, a novel protein essential for silencing the spindle assembly checkpoint, recruits dynein to the kinetochore. J Cell Biol 117: 1005–1015
- 29. Zhang D, Rogers GC, Buster DW, Sharp DJ (2007) Three microtubule severing enzymes contribute to the "Pacman-flux" machinery that moves chromosomes. J Cell Biol 177:231–242
- 30. Maresca TJ, Salmon ED (2009) Intrakinetochore stretch is associated with changes in kinetochore phosphorylation and spindle assembly checkpoint activity. J Cell Biol 184:373–381
- 31. Rogers GC, Rusan NM, Peifer M, Rogers SL (2008) A multicomponent assembly pathway contributes to the formation of acentrosomal microtubule arrays in interphase Drosophila cells. Mol Biol Cell 19:3163–3178
- 32. Rogers SL, Wiedemann U, Häcker U, Turck C, Vale RD (2004) Drosophila RhoGEF2 associates with microtubule plus ends in an EB1-dependent manner. Curr Biol 14: 1827–1833
- 33. Mennella V, Rogers GC, Rogers SL, Buster DW, Vale RD, Sharp DJ (2005) Functionally distinct kinesin-13 family members cooperate to regulate microtubule dynamics during interphase. Nat Cell Biol 7:235–45
- 34. Goodwin SS, Vale RD (2010) Patronin regulates the microtubule network by protecting microtubule minus ends. Cell 143: 263–274
- 35. Rothenberg ME, Rogers SL, Vale RD, Jan LY, Jan YN (2003) Drosophila pod-1 crosslinks both actin and microtubules and controls the targeting of axons. Neuron 39:779–791
- 36. Applewhite DA, Grode KD, Keller D, Zadeh AD, Slep KC, Rogers SL (2010) The spectraplakin Short stop is an actin-microtubule cross-linker that contributes to organization of the microtubule network. Mol Biol Cell 21:1714–1724