Dopamine Negatively Modulates the NCA Ion Channels in *C. elegans*

Irini Topalidou[*], Kirsten Cooper[1], Laura Pereira[†], and Michael Ailion[*]

Department of Biochemistry, University of Washington, Seattle, WA, USA

[†]Department of Biological Sciences, Howard Hughes Medical Institute, Columbia University, New York, NY, USA

[1]Current address: Fred Hutchinson Cancer Research Center, Seattle, WA, USA

[*]Corresponding authors

Email: it2117@uw.edu (IT), mailion@uw.edu (MA)

Short title: NCA modulation by GRK-2 and dopamine

Abstract

The NALCN/NCA ion channel is a cation channel related to voltage-gated sodium and calcium channels.

NALCN has been reported to be a sodium leak channel with a conserved role in establishing neuronal

resting membrane potential, but its precise cellular role and regulation are unclear. The *Caenorhabditis*

elegans orthologs of NALCN, NCA-1 and NCA-2, act in premotor interneurons to regulate motor circuit

activity that sustains locomotion. Recently we found that NCA-1 and NCA-2 are activated by a signal

transduction pathway acting downstream of the heterotrimeric G protein G_q and the small GTPase Rho.

Through a forward genetic screen, here we identify the GPCR kinase GRK-2 as a new player affecting

signaling through the G_q-Rho-NCA pathway. Using structure-function analysis, we find that the GPCR

phosphorylation and membrane association domains of GRK-2 are required for its function. Genetic

epistasis experiments suggest that GRK-2 acts on the D2-like dopamine receptor DOP-3 to inhibit G_o

signaling and positively modulate NCA-1 and NCA-2 activity. Through cell-specific rescuing experiments,

we find that GRK-2 and DOP-3 act in premotor interneurons to modulate NCA channel function. Finally, we

demonstrate that dopamine, through DOP-3, negatively regulates NCA activity. Thus, this study identifies a

pathway by which dopamine modulates the activity of the NCA channels.

Author summary

Dopamine is a neurotransmitter that acts in the brain by binding seven transmembrane receptors that are coupled to heterotrimeric GTP-binding proteins (G proteins). Neuronal G proteins often function by modulating ion channels that control membrane excitability. Here we identify a molecular cascade downstream of dopamine in the nematode *C. elegans* that involves activation of the dopamine receptor DOP-3, activation of the G protein GOA-1, and inactivation of the NCA-1 and NCA-2 ion channels. We also identify a G protein-coupled receptor kinase (GRK-2) that inactivates the dopamine receptor DOP-3, thus leading to inactivation of GOA-1 and activation of the NCA channels. Thus, this study connects dopamine signaling to activity of the NCA channels through G protein signaling pathways.

Introduction

Heterotrimeric G proteins modulate neuronal activity in response to experience or environmental changes. G_q is one of the four types of heterotrimeric G protein alpha subunits [1] and is a positive regulator of neuronal activity and synaptic transmission [2–4]. In the canonical G_q pathway, G_q activates phospholipase Cβ (PLCβ) to cleave the lipid phosphatidylinositol 4,5-bisphosphate (PIP2) into diacylglycerol (DAG) and inositol trisphosphate (IP3), which act as second messengers. In a second major G_q signal transduction pathway, G_q directly binds and activates Rho guanine nucleotide exchange factors (GEFs), activators of the small GTPase Rho [5–8]. Rho regulates many biological functions including actin cytoskeleton dynamics and neuronal development, but less is known about Rho function in mature neurons. In *C. elegans*, Rho has been reported to stimulate synaptic transmission through multiple pathways [9–11]. We recently identified the *C. elegans* orthologs of the NALCN ion channel, NCA-1 and NCA-2, as downstream targets of a G_q-Rho signaling pathway [12]. We aim to understand the mechanism of activation of this pathway.

The NALCN/NCA ion channel is a nonselective cation channel that is a member of the voltage-gated sodium and calcium channel family [13–15]. The NALCN channel was proposed to be the major contributor to the sodium leak current that helps set the resting membrane potential of neurons [16], though there is controversy whether NALCN is indeed a sodium leak channel [17–19]. In humans, mutations in *NALCN* or its accessory subunit *UNC80* have been associated with a number of neurological symptoms, including cognitive and developmental delay [20–33]. In other organisms, mutations in NALCN/NCA or its accessory subunits lead to defects in rhythmic behaviors [16,34–42]. Specifically in *C. elegans*, the NCA channels act in premotor interneurons where they regulate persistent motor circuit activity that sustains locomotion [43]. In addition to the G_q-Rho pathway described above, two other mechanisms have been reported to regulate the activity of the NALCN channel: a G protein-independent activation of NALCN by G protein-

coupled receptors [44,45] and a G protein-dependent regulation by extracellular Ca^{2+} [46]. Here we

identify a molecular cascade downstream of dopamine in the nematode *C. elegans* that involves the D2-

like dopamine receptor DOP-3 and the G protein-coupled receptor kinase GRK-2 to modulate activity of

the NCA-1 and NCA-2 ion channels.

G protein-coupled receptor kinases (GRKs) are protein kinases that phosphorylate and desensitize G

protein-coupled receptors (GPCRs). Mammalian GRKs have been divided into three groups based on their

sequences and function: 1) GRK1 and GRK7, 2) GRK2 and GRK3, and 3) GRK4, GRK5 and GRK6 [47]. *C.*

elegans has two GRKs: GRK-1 and GRK-2, orthologs of the GRK4/5/6 and GRK2/3 families respectively [48].

Mammalian GRK2 is ubiquitously expressed [49,50] and GRK2 knock-out mice die as embryos [51]. In *C.*

elegans, *grk-2* is expressed in the nervous system and required for normal chemosensation [52] and egg-

laying [53]. In this study, we find that *C. elegans grk-2* mutants have locomotion defects due to decreased

G_q signaling. We identify the D2-like dopamine receptor DOP-3 as the putative GRK-2 target and find that

GRK-2 acts through DOP-3 to inhibit G_o signaling. This in turn leads to activation of the NCA channels

through the G_q-Rho signaling pathway. We also find that GRK-2 and DOP-3 exert their effect by acting in

the premotor interneurons, where the NCA channels also act to regulate persistent motor neuron activity

[43].

The D2-like receptors are GPCRs that couple to members of the inhibitory $G_{i/o}$ family [54]. In

mammals, GRK2 has been connected to the regulation of D2-type dopamine receptors, but the reported

results are based mainly on effects of GRK2 overexpression in heterologous expression systems [55–59].

The results reported here provide a direct connection between GRK-2 and D2-type receptor signaling in a

behaviorally relevant *in vivo* system. In *C. elegans,* dopamine, through *dop-3*, causes the slowing of the

worm's locomotion rate on food [60]; DOP-3 signals through G_o to inhibit locomotion [61]. Here we find

that dopamine, through activation of DOP-3, negatively modulates the activity of the NCA channels. This

suggests a model in which dopamine signaling negatively regulates NCA channel activity and sustained

locomotion through G protein signaling acting in premotor interneurons.

93
94   **Results**
95
The G protein-coupled receptor kinase GRK-2 promotes G_q signaling

To identify regulators of G_q signaling, we performed a forward genetic screen in the

nematode *C. elegans* for suppressors of the activated G_q mutant *egl-30(tg26)* [62,63]. The *egl-30(tg26)*

mutant is hyperactive and has a tightly coiled "loopy" posture (Fig 1A and B). These phenotypes were

suppressed by the *yak18* mutation isolated in our screen (Fig 1A). When outcrossed away from the *egl-*

30(tg26) mutation, *yak-18* mutant animals are shorter than wild type animals, have slow locomotion (Fig

1C, Right), and are egg-laying defective.

We mapped *yak18* to the left arm of Chromosome III and cloned it by whole-genome sequencing and a

complementation test with the deletion allele *grk-2(gk268)* (see Methods). *yak18* is a G to A transition

mutation in the W02B3.2 *(grk-2)* ORF that leads to the missense mutation G379E in the kinase domain of

GRK-2. GRK-2 is a serine/threonine protein kinase orthologous to the human GPCR kinases GRK2 and GRK3

[52]. The deletion allele *grk-2(gk268)* also suppresses the loopy posture and hyperactive locomotion of

activated G_q (Fig 1A and B) and causes defects in locomotion, egg-laying, and body-size similar to *grk-*

2(yak18) (Fig 1C Left, S1A and S1B). We also found that *grk-2* mutant animals are defective in swimming

(Fig S2), a locomotion behavior that has distinct kinematics to crawling [64]. Additionally, *grk-2* mutants

restrict their movements to a limited region of a bacterial lawn, whereas wild-type animals explore the

entire lawn (Fig S1C).

Our data suggest that GRK-2 regulates locomotion and is a positive regulator of G_q signaling. The

standard model of GRK action is that GPCR phosphorylation by GRK triggers GPCR binding to the inhibitory

protein beta-arrestin; binding of arrestin blocks GPCR signaling and mediates receptor internalization [65].

We tested whether loss of arrestin causes defects similar to loss of *grk-2* by using a deletion allele in *arr-1,*

the only *C. elegans* beta-arrestin homolog. We found that *arr-1(ok401)* mutant animals do not have slow

locomotion (Fig S3A). To test whether an *arr-1* mutation suppresses activated G_q, we constructed an *egl-*

30(tg26) mutant strain carrying an *arr-1* mutation in trans to a closely linked RFP marker (that is, an *egl-*

*30(tg26); arr-1/*RFP strain). Surprisingly, this strain segregated few viable non-red animals, suggesting that

egl-30(tg26); arr-1 double mutants are subviable. The few *egl-30(tg26); arr-1* viable animals looked similar

to the *egl-30(tg26)* single mutant (Fig S3B), but died as young adults. These results suggest that GRK-2 acts

independently of arrestin to regulate locomotion rate and G_q signaling.

In addition to phosphorylation of GPCRs, mammalian GRK2 can also regulate signaling in a

phosphorylation-independent manner [66,67]. Thus, we tested whether the kinase activity of GRK-2 is

required for proper locomotion and G_q signaling by assaying whether a kinase-dead GRK-2[K220R] mutant

[48,68] is capable of rescuing the *grk-2(gk268)* and *egl-30(tg26); grk-2(gk268)* mutants. Wild type GRK-2

rescued the locomotion defect of *grk-2(gk268)* mutants (Fig 1C, Left), but the kinase dead GRK-2[K220R],

although it was properly expressed (Fig 2G), did not rescue either the locomotion defect or the

suppression of activated G_q (Fig 1C and D). We conclude that GRK-2 acts as a kinase to regulate locomotion

rate and G_q signaling.

GPCR-phosphorylation and membrane association domains of GRK-2 are required for its function in

locomotion

To examine whether GRK-2 acts as a GPCR kinase to control locomotion, we took a structure-function

approach (Fig 2A). We took advantage of previously-described mutations that disrupt specific activities of

GRK-2, but do not disrupt GRK-2 protein expression or stability [48]. These mutations all affect conserved

residues in well-characterized domains of GRK-2 [48].

Although GRKs act as kinases for activated GPCRs, mammalian GRKs have been shown to interact with

and phosphorylate other molecules as well [66,67]. Therefore, although the kinase activity of GRK-2 is

required for locomotion, it is possible that the relevant targets are proteins other than GPCRs. To examine

whether phosphorylation of GPCRs is required for GRK-2 function in locomotion, we expressed GRK-2 with

mutations (D3K, L4K, V7A/L8A, and D10A) that have been shown to reduce mammalian GRK2

phosphorylation of GPCRs, but that do not affect phosphorylation of other targets [69]. These N-terminal

residues of mammalian GRKs form an amphipathic α-helix that contributes specifically to GPCR

phosphorylation [70–74]. *grk-2(gk268)* mutants expressing any of these mutant GRK-2 constructs had slow

locomotion like *grk-2(gk268)* (Fig 2B, 2C and 2G), indicating that GPCR phosphorylation is required for

GRK-2 function in locomotion *in vivo*.

In mammalian GRKs, interaction of the N-terminal region with the kinase domain stabilizes a closed

and more active conformation of the enzyme, important for phosphorylation of GPCRs and other

substrates [70–72]. Specifically, mutation of mammalian GRK1 Arg191 disrupted phosphorylation of target

substrates in addition to GPCRs, suggesting that this residue is critical for conformational changes

important for GRK function as a kinase [71]. To determine whether the analogous residue in GRK-2 is

required for its function in locomotion, we expressed GRK-2[R195A] in *grk-2(gk268)* mutants. GRK-

2[R195A] did not rescue the *grk-2(gk268)* locomotion phenotype (Fig 2D and 2G), further supporting the

model that GRK-2 acts as a GPCR kinase to regulate locomotion.

The RH (Regulator of G protein Signaling Homology) domain of mammalian GRK2 (Fig 2A) does not act

like other RGS domains as an accelerator of the intrinsic GTPase activity of the G_q subunit, but instead

interacts with G_q and participates in the uncoupling of GPCRs linked to G_q via a phosphorylation-

independent mechanism [67,74]. To examine whether the G_q-binding residues of the RH domain are

needed for GRK-2 function in locomotion, we expressed GRK-2[R106A], Y109I, and D110A that correspond

to mutations previously shown to disrupt mammalian GRK2 binding to $G_{q/11}$ [75]. All three mutant GRK-2

constructs rescued the slow locomotion defect of *grk-2(gk268)* (Fig 2E and 2G). These results suggest that

GRK-2 binding to G$_q$ and phosphorylation-independent desensitization of GPCR signaling are not required

for GRK-2 function in locomotion.

The pleckstrin homology (PH) domain of mammalian GRK2 (Fig 2A) mediates interactions of GRK2 with

membrane phospholipids and G$\beta\gamma$ subunits [67,76–78]. To examine whether these activities are required

for GRK-2 function in locomotion, we expressed GRK-2[K567E] that disrupts phospholipid binding [79] and

GRK-2[R587Q] that disrupts binding to G$\beta\gamma$ [79]. Neither of these GRK-2 mutants rescued the locomotion

defect of the *grk-2(gk268)* mutant (Fig 2F and 2G), suggesting that both phospholipid and G$\beta\gamma$ binding

through the PH domain of GRK-2 are required for GRK-2 function in locomotion.

GRK-2 acts in head acetylcholine neurons to control locomotion and G$_q$ signaling

GRK-2 is broadly expressed in body and head neurons [52]. To determine where GRK-2 acts to control

locomotion, we expressed the *grk-2* cDNA under the control of neuron-specific promoters. Expression

of *grk-2* under the pan-neuronal (*Prab-3*) or acetylcholine neuron (*Punc-17*) promoters fully rescued *grk-*

2(gk268) mutant locomotion (Fig 3A). Interestingly, expression in ventral cord acetylcholine motor neurons

(*Pacr-2*) did not rescue the locomotion phenotype, but expression driven by an *unc-17* promoter derivative

that is expressed mainly in the head acetylcholine neurons (*Punc-17H* [80,81]) rescued the locomotion

phenotype (Fig 3A). Additionally, expression driven in a number of interneurons and head motorneurons

by the *glr-1* promoter did not rescue (Fig 3A). To exclude the possibility that the described role of GRK-2 in

chemosensation [52] contributes to the slow locomotion phenotype of *grk-2* mutants, we expressed *grk-2*

under ciliated sensory neuron promoters (*Pxbx-1* and *Posm-6*). Expression of *grk-2* in ciliated sensory

neurons did not rescue the slow locomotion of *grk-2* mutants (Fig 3A). We conclude that *grk-2* acts in head

acetylcholine neurons to regulate locomotion.

To determine if *grk-2* also acts in head acetylcholine neurons to regulate G_q signaling, we expressed

the *grk-2* cDNA in the head acetylcholine neurons of *egl-30(tg26); grk-2* double mutants. Expression in

head acetylcholine neurons reversed the *grk-2* suppression of the loopy posture and hyperactive

locomotion of activated G_q – that is, the *egl-30(tg26); grk-2* double mutants expressing *grk-2* cDNA in the

head acetylcholine neurons resemble the activated G_q single mutant (Fig 3B and C). These results suggest

that *grk-2* acts in head acetylcholine neurons to positively regulate G_q signaling.

To confirm that *grk-2* is expressed in the head acetylcholine neurons, we coexpressed tagRFP fused to

GRK-2 driven by the *grk-2* promoter (*grk-2*::tagRFP) and GFP driven by the head acetylcholine neuron

promoter (*Punc-17H*::GFP). We observed that *grk-2*::tagRFP is expressed broadly in head neurons and

colocalizes with GFP in several head acetylcholine neurons (Fig 3D). We conclude that GRK-2 is expressed

in head acetylcholine neurons to regulate locomotion and G_q signaling.

GRK-2 acts upstream of G_o to regulate locomotion

Our results suggest that GRK-2 acts as a GPCR kinase to regulate locomotion. If GRK-2 were a kinase for

a GPCR coupled to G_q (EGL-30 in *C. elegans*) then we would expect GRK-2 to negatively regulate G_q, which

does not agree with our data. Alternatively, GRK-2 could be a kinase for a GPCR coupled to G_o (GOA-1 in *C.*

elegans). The *C. elegans* G_q and G_o pathways act in opposite ways to regulate locomotion by controlling

acetylcholine release [82]. EGL-30 is a positive regulator of acetylcholine release whereas GOA-1 negatively

regulates the EGL-30 pathway through activation of the RGS protein EAT-16 and the diacylglycerol kinase

DGK-1. *egl-30* loss-of-function mutants are immobile whereas *egl-30* gain-of-function mutants are

hyperactive and have a loopy posture [83,84]. *goa-1* and *eat-16* mutants have locomotion phenotypes

opposite those of *egl-30*; they are hyperactive and have a loopy posture [85–87]. *dgk-1* loss-of-function

mutants are hyperactive but do not have a loopy posture [88]. To test whether GRK-2 acts on a G_o-coupled

GPCR, we examined whether *goa-1* mutations suppress *grk-2* mutants. We found that the *goa-1; grk-2*

double mutant is hyperactive and has a loopy posture like the *goa-1* single mutant (Fig S4A, S4C and S4D),

indicating that GRK-2 acts upstream of *goa-1*. This result suggests that GRK-2 could be acting on GPCR(s)

coupled to GOA-1.

To further dissect the GRK-2 pathway, we examined whether *grk-2* mutations suppress the hyperactive

phenotypes of *eat-16* and *dgk-1* mutants. The *eat-16; grk-2* double mutant is hyperactive and has a loopy

posture like the *eat-16* single mutant (Fig S4A, S4C and S4D) indicating that *eat-16*, like *goa-1*, acts

downstream of GRK-2. By contrast, the *grk-2; dgk-1* double mutant is similar to *grk-2* (Fig S4B). Expression

of the kinase dead GRK-2[K220R] in *grk-2; dgk-1* mutants does not restore *dgk-1* hyperactive locomotion

(Fig S4E). In addition, expression of GRK-2 under a head acetylcholine neuron promoter in *grk-2; dgk-1*

mutants restores *dgk-1* hyperactive locomotion (Fig S4F). Thus, GRK-2 regulation of the locomotion rate,

G_q signaling, and DAG signaling all depend on the GRK-2 kinase activity and a function of GRK-2 in head

acetylcholine neurons.

GRK-2 regulates the DOP-3 dopamine receptor

In a search for potential G_o-coupled GPCR targets for GRK-2, we considered the G_o-coupled D2-like

dopamine receptor DOP-3. In *C. elegans*, dopamine is required for the "basal slowing response", a

behavior in which wild type animals slow down when on a bacterial lawn [89]. This behavior is mediated by

the mechanosensory activation of dopamine neurons caused by physical contact of the worm body with

bacteria. *cat-2* mutants that are deficient in dopamine biosynthesis [90] or *dop-3* mutants that lack the D2-

like dopamine receptor DOP-3, are defective in basal slowing [61,89]. DOP-3 has been proposed to act

through G_o in ventral cord acetylcholine motor neurons to decrease acetylcholine release and promote the

basal slowing response [61].

If *grk-2* acts in the dopamine pathway to mediate proper locomotion, possibly by phosphorylating and

inactivating DOP-3, then mutations in *dop-3* and *cat-2* should suppress the *grk-2* locomotion phenotype.

Indeed, the *grk*-2 mutant slow locomotion phenotype was suppressed by mutations in *dop-3* and *cat-2* (Fig

4A). A *dop-3* mutation also suppressed the swimming defect of the *grk-2* mutant (Fig S2). In addition, the

dop-3 and *cat-2* mutations reversed the *grk-2* suppression of the loopy posture and hyperactive

locomotion of activated G_q – that is, the triple mutants resemble the activated G_q single mutant (Fig 4B-E

and Fig S5). These results suggest that GRK-2 acts in the dopamine pathway to regulate locomotion and G_q

signaling by negatively regulating the D2-like dopamine receptor DOP-3.

Our results suggest that GRK-2 acts in head acetylcholine neurons to regulate locomotion. To test if

DOP-3 acts in the same neurons as GRK-2, we expressed the *dop-3* cDNA under a pan-neuronal promoter

(*Prab-3*), an acetylcholine neuron promoter (*Punc-17*), a head acetylcholine neuron promoter (*Punc-17H*),

and an acetylcholine motor neuron promoter (*Pacr-2*) in the *grk-2; dop-3* double mutant. Expression

driven by the pan-neuronal, acetylcholine neuron, and head acetylcholine neuron promoters reversed the

dop-3 suppression of the slow locomotion of *grk-2(gk268)* mutant animals – that is, *grk-2; dop-3* mutant*s*

expressing *dop-3* cDNA by these three promoters resemble the *grk-2* mutant (Fig S6A). By contrast,

expression of the *dop-3* cDNA by an acetylcholine ventral cord motor neuron promoter did not reverse the

grk-2; dop-3 locomotion phenotype (Fig S6A) or the hyperactive locomotion and loopy posture of *egl-*

30(tg26); grk-2; dop-3 mutant animals (Fig S6C-E). We conclude that *dop-3*, like *grk-2*, acts in head

acetylcholine neurons, consistent with the model that GRK-2 acts directly on DOP-3. Moreover, *dop-3*

expression under the *grk-2* promoter reversed the *dop-3* suppression of the slow locomotion of *grk-2*

mutants (Figure S7A), supporting the idea that GRK-2 and DOP-3 act in the same neurons.

We observed that *grk-2; dop-3* and *cat-2; grk-2* double mutant animals still retain some of the

characteristic *grk-2* phenotypes: the animals have shorter bodies and are egg-laying defective. In addition,

grk-2 mutants do not fully explore a bacterial lawn and this behavior remains in the *grk-2; dop-3* double

mutant (Fig S1C). Thus, GRK-2 has additional neuronal functions that do not depend on *dop-3*.

The D1-like dopamine receptor DOP-1 has been shown to act antagonistically to DOP-3 to regulate the

basal slowing response: *dop-1* mutations suppress the *dop-3* basal slowing phenotype [61]. By contrast, we

found that DOP-1 is not involved in the GRK-2 and DOP-3 pathway that regulates locomotion rate because

dop-1 mutations do not affect the locomotion rate of the *grk-2; dop-3* double mutant (Fig S6B). Thus, the

role of DOP-3 in GRK-2-regulated locomotion is independent of its role in the basal slowing response.

Exposure of *C. elegans* to exogenous dopamine causes DOP-3-dependent paralysis — *dop-3* mutants

are significantly resistant to the paralytic effects of exogenous dopamine [61]. If GRK-2 negatively

regulates DOP-3, then *grk-2* mutants might be hypersensitive to dopamine due to increased DOP-3

activity. Indeed, we found that *grk-2* mutants are hypersensitive to dopamine and this hypersensitivity

depends on *dop-3* (Fig 4F).

In an effort to dissect the molecular mechanism by which *grk-2* regulates DOP-3 activity, we

expressed GFP-tagged DOP-3 under the *grk-2* promoter in *dop-3* and *grk-2; dop-3* mutant animals and

examined the levels of expression of DOP-3::GFP both by Western and by fluorescence microscopy (Fig

S7). Although *Pgrk-2*::DOP-3::GFP fully reversed the *dop-3* suppression of the slow locomotion of *grk-2*

mutants (Fig S7A), we did not observe any difference in the level of DOP-3 expression in a *grk-2* mutant

(Fig S7B-D) nor did we observe any obvious change in the subcellular localization of DOP-3::GFP in a *grk-2*

mutant (Fig S7C). However, one caveat is that we do not have the resolution to distinguish between DOP-3

localization on the plasma membrane or in an intracellular compartment.

GRK-2 is a positive modulator of NCA-1 and NCA-2 channel activity

In addition to genes within the canonical G_q-PLCβ pathway, our screen for suppressors of activated G_q

also identified the Trio RhoGEF (UNC-73 in *C. elegans*) as a new direct G_q effector [8]. Recently, we

identified the cation channels NCA-1 and NCA-2 as downstream targets of this G_q-Rho pathway.

Specifically, we found that mutations in genes that encode accessory subunits of the NCA channels (*unc-*

79, unc-80) or in the NCA channels per se (*nca-1; nca-2*) suppress the neuronal phenotypes of activated G_q

and activated Rho [12]. Moreover, mutations in the Rho-NCA pathway suppress the loopy posture of the

activated G_q mutant more strongly than do mutations in the canonical PLCβ pathway [12]. Like mutations

in the Rho-NCA pathway, *grk-2* mutants also strongly suppress the loopy posture of an activated G_q mutant

(Fig 1A, 4D and 4E), suggesting that *grk-2* may affect signaling through the Rho-NCA pathway.

To further examine whether *grk-2* affects Rho-NCA signaling, we built double mutants of *grk-2* with an

activated Rho mutant (G14V), referred to here as Rho*, expressed in acetylcholine neurons. Rho* has a

loopy posture and slow locomotion and a *grk-2* mutation partially suppresses these phenotypes (Fig 5A

and 5B), consistent with *grk-2* affecting signaling through the Rho-NCA pathway.

We also built double mutants of *grk-2* and a dominant activating mutation in the NCA-1 channel gene,

nca-1(ox352), referred to here as Nca* [12,24]. Like Rho*, Nca* mutants have a loopy posture and slow

locomotion. However, *grk-2* mutants do not suppress either of these phenotypes because Nca*; *grk-2*

double mutants behave identically to Nca* mutants (Fig 5C and 5D). This suggests that *grk-2* acts upstream

of NCA.

C. elegans has two proteins that encode pore-forming subunits of NCA channels, NCA-1 and NCA-2.

Mutations that disrupt both NCA-1 and NCA-2 channel activity cause a characteristic "fainter" phenotype

in which worms suddenly arrest their locomotion and acquire a straightened posture [35]. Our genetic

experiments indicate that GRK-2 affects Rho-NCA signaling, but *grk-2* mutants are not fainters. Given that

grk-2 partially suppresses Rho*, we hypothesized that GRK-2 is not absolutely required for Rho-NCA

signaling, but provides modulatory input. To test this hypothesis, we built double mutants between *grk-2*

and *nlf-1*, which is partially required for localization of the NCA-1 and NCA-2 channels and has a weak

fainter mutant phenotype [12,91]. A *grk-2* mutation strongly enhanced the weak fainter phenotype of an

nlf-1 mutant so that the double mutants resembled the stronger fainter mutants that completely abolish

NCA-1 and NCA-2 channel activity (Fig 6A and 6B). Moreover, double mutants between *grk-2* and the

RhoGEF Trio *unc-73* were also strong fainters, supporting the hypothesis that GRK-2 modulates the Rho-

NCA pathway (Fig 6C). By contrast, double mutants between *grk-2* and the *egl-8* PLCβ do not have a

fainter phenotype (Fig 6C). These results suggest that GRK-2 is a positive modulator of NCA-1 and NCA-2

channel activity.

If GRK-2 modulates the NCA channels by acting as a negative regulator of G_o then we would expect

that mutations in other proteins that act as negative regulators of G_o might enhance the fainter phenotype

of *nlf-1* mutants. Indeed, a mutation in *egl-10*, encoding the RGS that negatively regulates G_o [92], strongly

enhances the *nlf-1* fainter phenotype (Fig 6D). As controls, mutations in genes involved in dense-core

vesicle biogenesis (*eipr-1* and *cccp-1),* that cause locomotion defects comparable to *grk-2 or egl-10* [63,80],

did not enhance the *nlf-1* fainter phenotype, indicating that the interactions of *grk-2* and *egl-10* with *nlf-1*

are specific.

grk-2 acts in head acetylcholine neurons to mediate locomotion. We recently used the same *Punc-17H*

promoter construct to show that *nlf-1* also acts in head acetylcholine neurons and not in ventral cord

motor neurons to regulate locomotion [12]. Therefore, we predicted that expression of an activated G_o

mutant under a head acetylcholine neuron promoter would enhance the fainter phenotype of *nlf-1*

mutants. Indeed, we found that expression of the activated G_o mutant GOA-1[Q205L] in head

acetylcholine neurons makes the animals slow (Fig 6E) and significantly enhances the fainter phenotype of

nlf-1 mutants (Fig 6F). These results support the model that GRK-2 negatively regulates G_o, and that G_o

negatively regulates NCA-1 and NCA-2 channel activity.

Dopamine acts through DOP-3 to negatively modulate NCA-1 and NCA-2 channel activity

Our results are consistent with the model that GRK-2 acts in locomotion by negatively regulating DOP-3

and that GRK-2 is a positive modulator of NCA-1 and NCA-2 activity. These data predict that DOP-3 would

be a negative modulator of NCA-1 and NCA-2 channel activity. Consistent with this model, mutations in

cat-2 and *dop-3* almost fully suppress the *nlf-1* fainter phenotype during forward movement (Fig 7A and

7B). Additionally, *dop-3* mutants partially suppress the strong *grk-2; nlf-1* fainter phenotype, consistent

with the model that DOP-3 is a substrate for GRK-2 (Fig 7C). These results suggest that dopamine, through

DOP-3, negatively modulates NCA-1 and NCA-2 channel activity.

To more directly test whether *grk-2* and *dop-3* modulate the NCA channel per se, we created double

mutants between *grk-2* and the pore-forming subunit gene *nca-1. nca-1* mutants have a low penetrance,

very weak backward-fainting phenotype that is strongly enhanced in a *grk-2* mutant background (Fig S3C

and S6F). *arr-1* mutants, on the other hand, do not enhance the *nca-1* phenotype, further supporting the

conclusion that arrestin does not play a role in this pathway (Fig S3C). As expected, *dop-3* suppresses the

enhanced fainting phenotype of the *grk-2; nca-1* double mutant (Fig S6F).

Our data suggest that GRK-2 and DOP-3 play modulatory and not essential roles in the regulation of

NCA-1 (and possibly NCA-2) channel activity. By contrast, UNC-80 is necessary for the stability and function

of NCA-1 and NCA-2, so *unc-80* mutants are strong fainters [36,39]. As expected for a modulatory role in

regulating NCA-1 and NCA-2 activity, mutations in *dop-3* and *cat-2* do not suppress the strong fainter

phenotype of *unc-80* mutants (Fig S8A and S8B).

We showed above that *grk-2* mutants are hypersensitive to the paralytic effects of dopamine. We also

found that low concentrations of dopamine do not paralyze *grk-2* mutants but instead cause them to faint,

and that this effect depends on *dop-3* (Fig 7D). This is consistent with the model that dopamine acts

through DOP-3 to negatively modulate NCA-1 and NCA-2.

GRK-2 and DOP-3 act in command interneurons to control *grk-2* dependent locomotion

In *C. elegans*, the NCA channels act in premotor interneurons [12,43,91]. To determine whether *grk-2*

acts in a cell autonomous way to regulate NCA, we identified the head acetylcholine neurons where GRK-2

is expressed. We coexpressed GRK-2 fused to tagRFP driven by the *grk-2* promoter (*grk-2*::RFP) and

nuclear YFP driven by the choline transporter *cho-1* promoter (*Pcho-1*^{fosmid}*::SL2::YFP::H2B*), which is

expressed in all acetylcholine neurons [93]. We found that *grk-2* is expressed in the following head

acetylcholine neurons: the AVA, AVB, AVD, and AVE premotor interneurons; SMD and RMD head motor

neurons; and in the AIN, AIY, SIA, SIB, and SAA interneurons (Fig 8A).

   To further determine where GRK-2 acts to control locomotion, we expressed the *grk-2* cDNA under

additional neuron-specific promoters in *grk-2* mutants. We used a *cho-1* promoter fragment for expression

in the SMD and RMD head motor neurons [94], the *ceh-24* promoter for expression in the SIA and SIB

interneurons, and a *ttx-3* promoter fragment for AIY-specific expression [95]. For expression in premotor

command interneurons we used a combination of the *nmr-1* promoter for AVA, AVD and AVE (also PVC

and RIM) expression together with the *sra-11* promoter for AVB (also AIY and AIA) expression, as

previously described [91]. We found that *grk-2* expression in command interneurons fully rescued the slow

locomotion of *grk-2* mutants, but expression in the other neuron types failed to rescue (Fig 8B-8E).

However, expression of *grk-2* in only *sra-11* or only *nmr-1* expressing neurons did not rescue the slow

locomotion defect (Fig S9). Additionally, *grk-2* expression in the command interneurons was sufficient to

rescue the enhanced fainting phenotype of *grk-2; nlf-1* mutants (Fig 8F). Similarly, *dop-3* expression in the

command interneurons was sufficient to reverse the *dop-3* suppression of the slow locomotion of *grk-2*

mutants (Fig 8G). Given that the fainting phenotypes of *nlf-1* mutants and *nca* mutants were also rescued

by expression in command interneurons [43,91], our results suggest that GRK-2, DOP-3, and the NCA

channels act in the same neurons. However, we did not see rescue of the *grk-2* locomotion phenotype

using the *glr-1* promoter (Fig 3A), which in principle is also expressed in the command interneurons, and

similarly we did not observe statistically significant rescue of the *nlf-1* fainting phenotype using the same

glr-1 promoter [12]. The different results seen between the *glr-1* and the *nmr-1 + sra-11* promoters may

be due to different levels of expression or **because of expression in some different neuron types.**

Discussion

In this study we identified a pathway that modulates the activity of the NCA-1 and NCA-2 channels through dopamine and G_q signaling (Fig 9). We found that dopamine acts through the D2-like receptor DOP-3 to negatively modulate NCA-1 and NCA-2. Furthermore, we identified the GPCR kinase GRK-2 as a positive (indirect) regulator of G_q and negative regulator of NCA-1 and NCA-2. Our results suggest that GRK-2 mediates its regulatory effects by inhibiting DOP-3.

In *C. elegans*, GRK-2 was previously found to act in sensory neurons to regulate chemosensation [52]. Here we found that GRK-2 acts in command interneurons to regulate locomotion and G_q signaling. Using a structure-function approach, we found that GPCR phosphorylation, Gβγ-binding, and membrane-binding are required for GRK-2 function in locomotion, but binding to G_q is not required. Similar results were reported for the function of GRK-2 in chemosensation [48], suggesting that in both cases GRK-2 acts as a GPCR kinase and that membrane localization is critical for its function. Additionally, GRK-2 seems to act independently of arrestin to regulate both locomotion and chemosensation [52]. Because *cat-2* and *dop-3* mutants are hypersensitive to the aversive odorant octanol [96–98] and *grk-2* mutants are insensitive to octanol [52], GRK-2 might act as a GPCR kinase for DOP-3 in chemosensory neurons as well.

GRK-induced phosphorylation of GPCRs induces endocytosis, which leads to their sorting to either lysosomes for degradation or to recycling endosomes. GRK-dependent recruitment of arrestins to the phosphorylated receptor is typically required for endocytosis, but GRK2 was also reported to utilize arrestin-independent mechanisms to mediate receptor internalization [66]. GRK2 associates with a large number of proteins with known roles in receptor internalization and signaling. For example, the C-terminus of GRK2 directly binds clathrin and this interaction has been proposed to be involved in arrestin-independent internalization [99]. Our data suggest an arrestin-independent role for *C. elegans* GRK-2 in GPCR regulation, supporting the idea that the role of GRK-2 extends beyond just the recruitment of arrestin.

The D2-type dopamine receptors, like DOP-3, are GPCRs that couple to members of the inhibitory $G_{i/o}$ family. Mammalian GRK2 and GRK3 (the orthologs of GRK-2) have been connected to the desensitization, internalization, and recycling of D2-type dopamine receptors [55–59,100]. Interestingly, some of the effects of GRK2 on D2 receptor function may be independent of receptor phosphorylation [57,58,100], though one caveat of these studies is that they involve GRK2 overexpression in heterologous cells. Our structure-function approach indicates that GPCR phosphorylation is important for GRK-2 function in locomotion and G_q signaling in *C. elegans*, although we cannot exclude the possibility that phosphorylation of additional substrates may also be required. *In vivo* studies of the role of mammalian GRKs in the regulation of dopamine receptors have focused on the analysis of behaviors that are induced by psychostimulatory drugs such as cocaine that elevate the extracellular concentration of dopamine [59]. Mice with a cell-specific knockout of GRK2 in D2 receptor-expressing neurons have altered spontaneous locomotion and sensitivity to cocaine [101], though the cellular mechanisms underlying these behavioral effects are not known. Our findings provide evidence of a direct association between GRK-2 and D2-type receptor signaling that regulates locomotion in an *in vivo* system.

In *C. elegans,* the G_q and G_o pathways act in opposite ways to regulate locomotion by controlling synaptic vesicle release [82]. G_q acts as a positive regulator of acetylcholine release while G_o negatively regulates G_q signaling, through activation of the G_q RGS EAT-16 and the diacylglycerol kinase DGK-1. DGK-1 phosphorylates the second messenger DAG and thus inhibits its action. Using genetic epistasis, we demonstrated that GRK-2 acts upstream of GOA-1/G_o and EAT-16 to positively regulate locomotion and body posture. Given this result, our cell-specific rescue data, and our data indicating that GRK-2 acts as a GPCR kinase for a locomotion-related GPCR, we propose that GRK-2 acts as a kinase for the G_o-coupled GPCR DOP-3 in premotor interneurons. In this model, GRK-2 driven phosphorylation of DOP-3 reduces G_o signaling and thereby activates G_q signaling (Fig 9). Inhibition of G_o by GRK-2 could promote G_q-Rho

signaling by two mechanisms: (1) by inhibiting the G_q RGS EAT-16 and thus activating G_q itself, and (2) by

inhibiting DGK-1 which acts in parallel to G_q-Rho to regulate DAG levels (Fig 9).

Interestingly, a *grk-2* mutant is suppressed by mutations in *goa-1* and *eat-16*, but not by *dgk-1*. This

finding supports other literature that suggests that *goa-1* and *eat-16* have similar interactions with G_q

signaling, but that *dgk-1* is distinct [87,102]. GOA-1 and EAT-16 act upstream of G_q to inhibit G_q signaling.

DGK-1, on the other hand, acts downstream of G_q to reduce the pool of the G_q-generated second

messenger DAG. Adding to the complexity, DAG levels may be controlled by both the PLCβ and Rho

branches of the G_q pathway (Fig 9). Previously, it has been shown that mutations in *dgk-1* partially

suppress the strong locomotion defect of *egl-30*/G_q loss-of-function mutations [102]. Surprisingly, we

found that a *grk-2* mutation fully suppresses a *dgk-1* mutant. This suggests that the effect of GRK-2 on

locomotion is more complex and may be partially independent of G_q signaling and of G_q-generated DAG.

This agrees with our data showing that GRK-2 has additional neuronal functions that do not depend on

DOP-3.

G_q signaling regulates several genetically separable aspects of locomotion behavior including

locomotion rate and waveform. The G_q-PLCβ signaling pathway has been reported to act in ventral cord

motor neurons to regulate acetylcholine release and locomotion rate [103], whereas the G_q-Rho pathway

has been reported to act in at least two different classes of neurons including head acetylcholine neurons

to regulate locomotion rate, waveform, and fainting behavior [12]. Our data here further suggest that

DOP-3, GRK-2, and the G_q-Rho pathway all act together in the premotor command interneurons to

regulate activity of the NCA channels. The command interneurons have been previously shown to regulate

several aspects of locomotion behavior including the propensity to go forward or reverse [104,105] and

the tendency of the worm to sustain persistent locomotion [43]. Our data here suggest that the command

interneurons also regulate the locomotion rate and the posture of the animals. As we reported previously,

mutations in the Rho-NCA pathway suppress both the locomotion rate and loopy posture of activated G_q

mutants whereas mutations in the PLCβ pathway suppress mainly the locomotion rate [12]. Thus, G_q acts

through both the PLCβ pathway and the Rho-NCA pathway to regulate locomotion rate, probably by acting

in different neurons. By contrast, G_q acts primarily through the Rho-NCA pathway to regulate the posture

of the worms. This agrees with our data showing that *grk-2* mutations, which affect signaling through the

Rho-NCA pathway, strongly suppress the loopy posture of activated G_q.

The identification of GRK-2 as a putative DOP-3 kinase and positive modulator of G_q-Rho signaling

connects dopamine signaling to modulation of the NCA channels (Fig 9). NCA channels have been shown in

recent years to be important for neuronal excitability and a number of rhythmic behaviors [16,34–42]. In

humans, mutations affecting the NCA channel NALCN cause neurological diseases [20–33]. However,

despite the relevance of this channel to neuronal function it is unclear how it is gated and activated. Two

studies have shown that NALCN-dependent currents can be activated by G protein-coupled receptors in a

G-protein independent way [44,45] whereas another study showed that NALCN can be activated by low

extracellular calcium via a G protein-dependent pathway [46], but the specific mechanisms remain

unknown. Our results suggest that dopamine acts through the DOP-3 G-protein coupled receptor and

downstream G protein signaling pathways to modulate activity of the NCA channels in a physiologically

relevant setting. This is the first study connecting dopamine to the activation of these important channels.

Methods

Strains

Strains were maintained at room temperature or 20° on the OP50 strain of *E. coli* [106].

The Supplementary Information contains full genotypes of all the strains we used (S1 Table; List of strains).

Isolation and identification of the *grk-2(yak18)* mutation

The *grk-2(yak18)* mutant was isolated in an ENU screen as a suppressor of the hyperactive locomotion

and loopy posture of the activated G_q mutant *egl-30(tg26)* [63]. We mapped the *yak18* mutation to the left

arm of Chromosome III (between -27 and -21.8 m.u.) using a PCR mapping strategy that takes advantage of

PCR length polymorphisms due to indels in the Hawaiian strain CB4856 (Jihong Bai, personal

communication). Using whole-genome sequencing (see below), we found that *yak18* is a G to A transition

mutation in the W02B3.2 *(grk-2)* ORF that creates a G379E missense mutation in the kinase domain of

GRK-2. We confirmed the gene identification by performing a complementation test between *grk-2(yak18)*

and the *grk-2(gk268)* deletion mutant, finding that they fail to complement for the slow locomotion

phenotype.

Whole-Genome Sequencing

Genomic DNA from *grk-2(yak18)* animals was isolated and purified according to the Worm Genomic

DNA prep protocol from the Hobert lab website (http://hobertlab.org/wp-

content/uploads/2013/02/Worm_Genomic_DNA_Prep.pdf). The sample was sequenced using Ion Torrent

sequencing (DNA Sequencing Core Facility, University of Utah). The sequencing data were uploaded to the

Galaxy web platform and were analyzed as described [107].

Constructs and transgenes

The Supplemental Information contains a complete list of constructs used (S2 Table; List of plasmids).

All constructs made in this study were constructed using the multisite Gateway system (Invitrogen).

Specifically, a promoter region, a gene region (cDNA), and an N- or C-terminal 3'UTR or fluorescent tag

(GFP or tagRFP) fused to a 3'UTR were cloned into the destination vector pCFJ150. For the cell-specific

rescuing experiments, an operon GFP was included in the expression constructs downstream of the 3'UTR

[108]. This resulted in expression of untagged *grk-2, dop-3,* or *goa-1*, but allowed for confirmation of

proper promoter expression by monitoring GFP expression. The *cho-1* fosmid reporter construct *otIs534*

carries an SL2-spliced nuclear localized YFP::H2B immediately after the stop codon of the *cho-1* gene [93].

Extrachromosomal arrays were made by standard injection and transformation methods [109]. In all

cases we injected 5-10 ng/ul of the expression vector and isolated multiple independent lines. At least two

lines were tested that behaved similarly.

Expression of *grk-2*

We made a construct driving expression of the *grk-2* cDNA fused to tagRFP under the *grk-2* promoter

and generated worms with extrachromosomal arrays. For the *grk-2* promoter region, we PCR amplified

2892 bp upstream of the start codon using genomic DNA as a template and the following set of primers:

forward primer 5'cacgacagtttccatagtgattgg3' and reverse primer 5'tttttgttctgcaaaatcgaattg3'. *grk-2* was

expressed in neurons in the head, ventral cord, and tail, consistent with the published expression pattern

[52]. Neurons were identified by the stereotypical positions of cells expressing the acetylcholine neuron

reporter *cho-1^fosmid^*::SL2::YFP::H2B [93,110] that colocalized with *grk-2*::tagRFP.

Locomotion and egg-laying assays

For most experiments, we measured locomotion rate using the body bend assay. Specifically, first-day

adults were picked to a three-day-old lawn of OP50 and stimulated by poking the tail of the animal with a

worm pick. Body bends were then immediately counted for one minute. A body bend was defined as the

movement of the worm from maximum to minimum amplitude of the sine wave [102]. Specifically for the

experiment described in Fig 5D we used a radial locomotion assay. Animals were placed in the center of 10

cm plates with thin one to two-day-old lawns of OP50 and left for one hour. The position of each worm

was marked and the radial distance from the center of the plate was measured (cm travelled/h).

Egg-laying assays were performed as described [80]. L4 larvae were placed on plates with OP50 at 25°C

overnight. The next day, five animals were moved to a fresh plate and allowed to lay eggs at 25°C for two

hours. The number of eggs present on the plate was counted.

Waveform quantification

First-day adult animals were placed on an OP50 plate and allowed to move forward until when they

had completed five to ten tracks. Each animal's tracks were imaged at 40X magnification using a Nikon

SMZ18 microscope with the DS-L3 camera control system. Period and 2X amplitude were measured using

the line tool in Image J. For each worm, five period/ amplitude ratios were averaged and five worms were

used per experiment.

Fainting assays

The fainting phenotype is characterized by frequent arrest of locomotion, accompanied by a

straightening of the anterior part of the body. We scored fainting as a sudden halt in movement

accompanied by a straightened posture.

First-day adults were transferred to plates with two to three-day-old lawns of OP50 and left

undisturbed for one minute. Animals were then poked either on the head (for backward movement) or on

the tail (for forward movement), and we counted the number of body bends before the animal faints. If

the animal made ten body bends, the assay was stopped and we recorded ten as the number. Thus,

animals that never faint (for example, wild-type) are scored as 10 in these experiments. Specifically for the

experiment described in Fig 7D the number reported was the percentage of animals that fainted before

making 10 body bends.

Swimming assays

Single, first-day adults were transferred to a 25 ul drop of M9 buffer at the center of an empty NGM

plate and video recorded for 30 sec. The swimming behavior was analyzed as described [38,64].

Body length measurements

First-day adults were mounted on 2% agarose pads and anesthetized in M9 buffer containing 50 mM

sodium azide for ten minutes. The image of each animal was obtained using a Nikon 80i wide-field

compound microscope. Body size was measured using ImageJ software.

Dopamine resistance assays

We used a method similar to the one described [61]. Specifically, first-day adults were transferred to

plates containing dopamine (5 mM, 10 mM, 15 mM, 20 mM, 40 mM) and incubated for 20 min at room

temperature. Animals were then poked using a worm-pick and the number of body bends was counted,

stopping the assay at 10 body bends. We report the percent of animals that moved 10 body bends without

stopping (Percent of animals moving). A body bend was defined as the movement of the worm from

maximum to minimum amplitude of the sine wave. Dopamine plates were prepared fresh just before use,

as described [61].

Immunoblotting

For the Western analysis shown in Figure 2G, worm lysates were prepared as follows. Ten transgenic animals from each strain were transferred to a 6 cm OP50 plate and grown until most of their progeny had reached adult stage. Animals from five such plates were washed off with M9, collected in a 15 ml Falcon tube, and spun down at 2000 rpm for 3 min. Animals were washed twice with M9. The pelleted worms were then resuspended in 2X SDS loading dye and lysed by incubation at 95°C for 20 min. For the Western analysis shown in Figure S7B, worm lysates were prepared as follows. Two hundred transgenic worms were individually picked and transferred in a microfuge tube in 10 ul M9. An equal volume of 2X SDS loading dye was added to the tube and the animals were lysed by incubation at 95°C for 20 min.

Samples were resolved on 10% SDS-polyacrylamide gels and blotted onto PVDF membranes. To detect the desired proteins, we added the following primary antibodies: monoclonal anti-GRK2/3, clone C5/1.1 (1:1000, EMD Millipore #05-465), monoclonal anti-beta-tubulin antibody (1:1000, ThermoFisher, BT7R, #MA5-16308), rabbit polyclonal anti-GFP (1:1000, Santa Cruz #sc-8334), and monoclonal anti-mCherry (1:50, a gift from Jihong Bai and the Fred Hutchinson Cancer Research Center antibody development shared resource center). The secondary antibodies were an Alexa Fluor 680-conjugated goat anti-mouse antibody (1:20,000, Jackson Laboratory #115-625-144) and an Alexa Fluor 680-conjugated goat anti-rabbit antibody (1:20,000, Jackson Laboratory #115-625-166). A LI-COR processor was used to develop images.

Imaging

For fluorescence imaging, first-day adult animals were mounted on 2% agarose pads and anesthetized with 50 mM sodium azide for ten minutes before placing the cover slip. The images shown in Figures 3D and S7C were obtained using an Olympus FLUOVIEW FV1200 confocal microscope. The images shown in Figure 8A were acquired using a Zeiss confocal microscope (LSM880) with Z-stack analysis and reconstruction performed using the ZEN software tool.

For pictures of worms, first-day adult animals were placed on an assay plate and photographed at 50

or 60X using a Nikon SMZ18 dissecting microscope with a DS-L3 camera control system. The images were

processed using ImageJ.

Statistics

P values were determined using GraphPad Prism 5.0d (GraphPad Software). Normally distributed data

sets requiring multiple comparisons were analyzed by a one-way ANOVA followed by a Bonferroni or

Dunnett test. Normally distributed pairwise data comparisons were analyzed by two-tailed unpaired t

tests. Non-normally distributed data sets with multiple comparisons were analyzed by a Kruskal-Wallis

nonparametric ANOVA followed by Dunn's test to examine selected comparisons. Non-normally

distributed pairwise data comparisons were analyzed by a Mann-Whitney test. For the experiments shown

in Figures S3C and S6F a chi-square test for multiple comparisons was used.

Acknowledgments

Special thanks to Denise Ferkey and Jordan Wood for generously providing the *grk-2* mutant

constructs, Jihong Bai for discussions and sharing unpublished methods and equipment, Yongming Dong

for help with the swimming assay, Ithai Rabinowitch for the *sra-11* promoter plasmid, Jill Hoyt for making

the *grk-2; nlf-1* double mutant, Jill Hoyt and Jordan Hoyt for help with the analysis of the whole-genome

sequencing data, Jérôme Cattin-Ortolá for help with confocal microscopy, Dana Miller for sharing

equipment, Oliver Hobert for providing materials and methodology, and Brian Kraemer and Rebecca Kow

for insightful ideas. Some strains were provided by the CGC, which is funded by the NIH Office of Research

Infrastructure Programs (P40 OD010440).

Author Contributions

IT and MA conceived and designed the experiments. IT and KC performed the experiments. LP identified

the head acetylcholine neurons where *grk-2* is expressed. IT and MA wrote the paper.

References

1. Wilkie TM, Gilbert DJ, Olsen AS, Chen XN, Amatruda TT, Korenberg JR, et al. Evolution of the

mammalian G protein alpha subunit multigene family. Nat Genet. 1992;1: 85–91.

doi:10.1038/ng0592-85

2. Coulon P, Kanyshkova T, Broicher T, Munsch T, Wettschureck N, Seidenbecher T, et al. Activity Modes

in Thalamocortical Relay Neurons are Modulated by G(q)/G(11) Family G-proteins - Serotonergic and

Glutamatergic Signaling. Front Cell Neurosci. 2010;4: 132. doi:10.3389/fncel.2010.00132

3. Gamper N, Reznikov V, Yamada Y, Yang J, Shapiro MS. Phosphatidylinositol 4,5-bisphosphate signals

underlie receptor-specific Gq/11-mediated modulation of N-type Ca2+ channels. J Neurosci. 2004;24:

10980–10992. doi:10.1523/JNEUROSCI.3869-04.2004

4. Krause M, Offermanns S, Stocker M, Pedarzani P. Functional specificity of G alpha q and G alpha 11 in

the cholinergic and glutamatergic modulation of potassium currents and excitability in hippocampal

neurons. J Neurosci. 2002;22: 666–673.

5. Lutz S, Freichel-Blomquist A, Yang Y, Rümenapp U, Jakobs KH, Schmidt M, et al. The guanine

nucleotide exchange factor p63RhoGEF, a specific link between Gq/11-coupled receptor signaling and

RhoA. J Biol Chem. 2005;280: 11134–11139. doi:10.1074/jbc.M411322200

6.   Lutz S, Shankaranarayanan A, Coco C, Ridilla M, Nance MR, Vettel C, et al. Structure of Galphaq-

p63RhoGEF-RhoA complex reveals a pathway for the activation of RhoA by GPCRs. Science. 2007;318:

1923–1927. doi:10.1126/science.1147554

7.   Rojas RJ, Yohe ME, Gershburg S, Kawano T, Kozasa T, Sondek J. Galphaq directly activates p63RhoGEF

and Trio via a conserved extension of the Dbl homology-associated pleckstrin homology domain. J

Biol Chem. 2007;282: 29201–29210. doi:10.1074/jbc.M703458200

8.   Williams SL, Lutz S, Charlie NK, Vettel C, Ailion M, Coco C, et al. Trio's Rho-specific GEF domain is the

missing Galpha q effector in C. elegans. Genes Dev. 2007;21: 2731–2746. doi:10.1101/gad.1592007

9.   Chan JP, Hu Z, Sieburth D. Recruitment of sphingosine kinase to presynaptic terminals by a conserved

muscarinic signaling pathway promotes neurotransmitter release. Genes Dev. 2012;26: 1070–1085.

doi:10.1101/gad.188003.112

10. Hiley E, McMullan R, Nurrish SJ. The Galpha12-RGS RhoGEF-RhoA signalling pathway regulates

neurotransmitter release in C. elegans. EMBO J. 2006;25: 5884–5895. doi:10.1038/sj.emboj.7601458

11. McMullan R, Hiley E, Morrison P, Nurrish SJ. Rho is a presynaptic activator of neurotransmitter

release at pre-existing synapses in C. elegans. Genes Dev. 2006;20: 65–76. doi:10.1101/gad.359706

12. Topalidou I, Chen P-A, Cooper K, Watanabe S, Jorgensen EM, Ailion M. The NCA-1 and NCA-2 ion

channels function downstream of Gq and Rho to regulate locomotion in Caenorhabditis elegans.

Genetics. 2017;206: 265–282. doi:10.1534/genetics.116.198820

13. Ren D. Sodium leak channels in neuronal excitability and rhythmic behaviors. Neuron. 2011;72: 899–

911. doi:10.1016/j.neuron.2011.12.007

14. Liebeskind BJ, Hillis DM, Zakon HH. Phylogeny unites animal sodium leak channels with fungal calcium

channels in an ancient, voltage-insensitive clade. Mol Biol Evol. 2012;29: 3613–3616.

doi:10.1093/molbev/mss182

15. Lee JH, Cribbs LL, Perez-Reyes E. Cloning of a novel four repeat protein related to voltage-gated

sodium and calcium channels. FEBS Lett. 1999;445: 231–236.

16. Lu B, Su Y, Das S, Liu J, Xia J, Ren D. The neuronal channel NALCN contributes resting sodium

permeability and is required for normal respiratory rhythm. Cell. 2007;129: 371–383.

doi:10.1016/j.cell.2007.02.041

17. Boone AN, Senatore A, Chemin J, Monteil A, Spafford JD. Gd3+ and calcium sensitive, sodium leak

currents are features of weak membrane-glass seals in patch clamp recordings. PloS One. 2014;9:

e98808. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0098808

18. Senatore A, Spafford JD. A uniquely adaptable pore is consistent with NALCN being an ion sensor.

Channels. 2013;7: 60–68. doi:10.4161/chan.23981

19. Senatore A, Monteil A, van Minnen J, Smit AB, Spafford JD. NALCN ion channels have alternative

selectivity filters resembling calcium channels or sodium channels. PloS One. 2013;8: e55088.

doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0055088

20. Al-Sayed MD, Al-Zaidan H, Albakheet A, Hakami H, Kenana R, Al-Yafee Y, et al. Mutations in NALCN

cause an autosomal-recessive syndrome with severe hypotonia, speech impairment, and cognitive

delay. Am J Hum Genet. 2013;93: 721–726. doi:10.1016/j.ajhg.2013.08.001

21.   Chong JX, McMillin MJ, Shively KM, Beck AE, Marvin CT, Armenteros JR, et al. De novo mutations in

NALCN cause a syndrome characterized by congenital contractures of the limbs and face, hypotonia,

and developmental delay. Am J Hum Genet. 2015;96: 462–473. doi:10.1016/j.ajhg.2015.01.003

22.   Fukai R, Saitsu H, Okamoto N, Sakai Y, Fattal-Valevski A, Masaaki S, et al. De novo missense mutations

in NALCN cause developmental and intellectual impairment with hypotonia. J Hum Genet. 2016;61:

451–455. doi:10.1038/jhg.2015.163

23.   Aoyagi K, Rossignol E, Hamdan FF, Mulcahy B, Xie L, Nagamatsu S, et al. A Gain-of-Function Mutation

in NALCN in a Child with Intellectual Disability, Ataxia, and Arthrogryposis. Hum Mutat. 2015;36: 753–

757. doi:10.1002/humu.22797

24.   Bend EG, Si Y, Stevenson DA, Bayrak-Toydemir P, Newcomb TM, Jorgensen EM, et al. NALCN

channelopathies: Distinguishing gain-of-function and loss-of-function mutations. Neurology. 2016;87:

1131–1139. doi:10.1212/WNL.0000000000003095

25.   Gal M, Magen D, Zahran Y, Ravid S, Eran A, Khayat M, et al. A novel homozygous splice site mutation

in NALCN identified in siblings with cachexia, strabismus, severe intellectual disability, epilepsy and

abnormal respiratory rhythm. Eur J Med Genet. 2016;59: 204–209. doi:10.1016/j.ejmg.2016.02.007

26.   Karakaya M, Heller R, Kunde V, Zimmer K-P, Chao C-M, Nürnberg P, et al. Novel Mutations in the

Nonselective Sodium Leak Channel (NALCN) Lead to Distal Arthrogryposis with Increased Muscle

Tone. Neuropediatrics. 2016;47: 273–277. doi:10.1055/s-0036-1584084

27.   Köroğlu Ç, Seven M, Tolun A. Recessive truncating NALCN mutation in infantile neuroaxonal

dystrophy with facial dysmorphism. J Med Genet. 2013;50: 515–520. doi:10.1136/jmedgenet-2013-

101634

28.   Perez Y, Kadir R, Volodarsky M, Noyman I, Flusser H, Shorer Z, et al. UNC80 mutation causes a

syndrome of hypotonia, severe intellectual disability, dyskinesia and dysmorphism, similar to that

caused by mutations in its interacting cation channel NALCN. J Med Genet. 2016;53: 397–402.

doi:10.1136/jmedgenet-2015-103352

29.   Valkanas E, Schaffer K, Dunham C, Maduro V, du Souich C, Rupps R, et al. Phenotypic evolution of

UNC80 loss of function. Am J Med Genet A. 2016;170: 3106–3114. doi:10.1002/ajmg.a.37929

30.   Shamseldin HE, Faqeih E, Alasmari A, Zaki MS, Gleeson JG, Alkuraya FS. Mutations in UNC80, Encoding

Part of the UNC79-UNC80-NALCN Channel Complex, Cause Autosomal-Recessive Severe Infantile

Encephalopathy. Am J Hum Genet. 2016;98: 210–215. doi:10.1016/j.ajhg.2015.11.013

31.   Stray-Pedersen A, Cobben J-M, Prescott TE, Lee S, Cang C, Aranda K, et al. Biallelic Mutations in

UNC80 Cause Persistent Hypotonia, Encephalopathy, Growth Retardation, and Severe Intellectual

Disability. Am J Hum Genet. 2016;98: 202–209. doi:10.1016/j.ajhg.2015.11.004

32.   Wang Y, Koh K, Ichinose Y, Yasumura M, Ohtsuka T, Takiyama Y. A de novo mutation in the NALCN

gene in an adult patient with cerebellar ataxia associated with intellectual disability and

arthrogryposis. Clin Genet. 2016;90: 556–557. doi:10.1111/cge.12851

33.   Lozic B, Johansson S, Lovric Kojundzic S, Markic J, Knappskog PM, Hahn AF, et al. Novel NALCN

variant: altered respiratory and circadian rhythm, anesthetic sensitivity. Ann Clin Transl Neurol.

2016;3: 876–883. doi:10.1002/acn3.362

34.   Funato H, Miyoshi C, Fujiyama T, Kanda T, Sato M, Wang Z, et al. Forward-genetics analysis of sleep in

randomly mutagenized mice. Nature. 2016;539: 378–383. doi:10.1038/nature20142

35.   Humphrey JA, Hamming KS, Thacker CM, Scott RL, Sedensky MM, Snutch TP, et al. A putative cation

706   channel and its novel regulator: cross-species conservation of effects on general anesthesia. Curr Biol.

707   2007;17: 624–629. doi:10.1016/j.cub.2007.02.037

708   36.   Jospin M, Watanabe S, Joshi D, Young S, Hamming K, Thacker C, et al. UNC-80 and the NCA ion

709   channels contribute to endocytosis defects in synaptojanin mutants. Curr Biol. 2007;17: 1595–1600.

710   doi:10.1016/j.cub.2007.08.036

711   37.   Nash HA, Scott RL, Lear BC, Allada R. An unusual cation channel mediates photic control of

712   locomotion in Drosophila. Curr Biol. 2002;12: 2152–2158.

713   38.   Pierce-Shimomura JT, Chen BL, Mun JJ, Ho R, Sarkis R, McIntire SL. Genetic analysis of crawling and

714   swimming locomotory patterns in C. elegans. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A. 2008;105: 20982–20987.

715   doi:10.1073/pnas.0810359105

716   39.   Yeh E, Ng S, Zhang M, Bouhours M, Wang Y, Wang M, et al. A putative cation channel, NCA-1, and a

717   novel protein, UNC-80, transmit neuronal activity in C. elegans. PLoS Biol. 2008;6: e55.

718   doi:10.1371/journal.pbio.0060055

719   40.   Lear BC, Darrah EJ, Aldrich BT, Gebre S, Scott RL, Nash HA, et al. UNC79 and UNC80, Putative Auxiliary

720   Subunits of the NARROW ABDOMEN Ion Channel, Are Indispensable for Robust Circadian Locomotor

721   Rhythms in Drosophila. PloS One. 2013;8: e78147. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0078147

722   41.   Lear BC, Lin J-M, Keath JR, McGill JJ, Raman IM, Allada R. The ion channel narrow abdomen is critical

723   for neural output of the Drosophila circadian pacemaker. Neuron. 2005;48: 965–976.

724   doi:10.1016/j.neuron.2005.10.030

42. Yeh S-Y, Huang W-H, Wang W, Ward CS, Chao ES, Wu Z, et al. Respiratory Network Stability and

Modulatory Response to Substance P Require Nalcn. Neuron. 2017;94: 294–303.

doi:10.1016/j.neuron.2017.03.024

43. Gao S, Xie L, Kawano T, Po MD, Pirri JK, Guan S, et al. The NCA sodium leak channel is required for

persistent motor circuit activity that sustains locomotion. Nat Commun. 2015;6: 6323.

doi:10.1038/ncomms7323

44. Lu B, Su Y, Das S, Wang H, Wang Y, Liu J, et al. Peptide neurotransmitters activate a cation channel

complex of NALCN and UNC-80. Nature. 2009;457: 741–744. doi:10.1038/nature07579

45. Swayne LA, Mezghrani A, Varrault A, Chemin J, Bertrand G, Dalle S, et al. The NALCN ion channel is

activated by M3 muscarinic receptors in a pancreatic beta-cell line. EMBO Rep. 2009;10: 873–880.

doi:10.1038/embor.2009.125

46. Lu B, Zhang Q, Wang H, Wang Y, Nakayama M, Ren D. Extracellular calcium controls background

current and neuronal excitability via an UNC79-UNC80-NALCN cation channel complex. Neuron.

2010;68: 488–499. doi:10.1016/j.neuron.2010.09.014

47. Ferguson SS. Evolving concepts in G protein-coupled receptor endocytosis: the role in receptor

desensitization and signaling. Pharmacol Rev. 2001;53: 1–24.

48. Wood JF, Wang J, Benovic JL, Ferkey DM. Structural domains required for Caenorhabditis elegans G

protein-coupled receptor kinase 2 (GRK-2) function in vivo. J Biol Chem. 2012;287: 12634–12644.

doi:10.1074/jbc.M111.336818

49. Benovic JL, Onorato JJ, Arriza JL, Stone WC, Lohse M, Jenkins NA, et al. Cloning, expression, and

chromosomal localization of beta-adrenergic receptor kinase 2. A new member of the receptor kinase

family. J Biol Chem. 1991;266: 14939–14946.

50. Schleicher S, Boekhoff I, Arriza J, Lefkowitz RJ, Breer H. A beta-adrenergic receptor kinase-like enzyme

is involved in olfactory signal termination. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A. 1993;90: 1420–1424.

51. Jaber M, Koch WJ, Rockman H, Smith B, Bond RA, Sulik KK, et al. Essential role of beta-adrenergic

receptor kinase 1 in cardiac development and function. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A. 1996;93: 12974–

12979.

52. Fukuto HS, Ferkey DM, Apicella AJ, Lans H, Sharmeen T, Chen W, et al. G protein-coupled receptor

kinase function is essential for chemosensation in C. elegans. Neuron. 2004;42: 581–593.

53. Wang J, Luo J, Aryal DK, Wetsel WC, Nass R, Benovic JL. G protein-coupled receptor kinase-2 (GRK-2)

regulates serotonin metabolism through the monoamine oxidase AMX-2 in Caenorhabditis elegans. J

Biol Chem. 2017;292: 5943–5956. doi:10.1074/jbc.M116.760850

54. Pierce KL, Premont RT, Lefkowitz RJ. Seven-transmembrane receptors. Nat Rev Mol Cell Biol. 2002;3:

639–650. doi:10.1038/nrm908

55. Ito K, Haga T, Lameh J, Sadée W. Sequestration of dopamine D2 receptors depends on coexpression

of G-protein-coupled receptor kinases 2 or 5. Eur J Biochem. 1999;260: 112–119. doi:10.1046/j.1432-

1327.1999.00125.x

56. Kim KM, Valenzano KJ, Robinson SR, Yao WD, Barak LS, Caron MG. Differential regulation of the

dopamine D2 and D3 receptors by G protein-coupled receptor kinases and beta-arrestins. J Biol

Chem. 2001;276: 37409–37414. doi:10.1074/jbc.M106728200

57.   Cho D, Zheng M, Min C, Ma L, Kurose H, Park JH, et al. Agonist-induced endocytosis and receptor

phosphorylation mediate resensitization of dopamine D(2) receptors. Mol Endocrinol. 2010;24: 574–

586. doi:10.1210/me.2009-0369

58.   Namkung Y, Dipace C, Javitch JA, Sibley DR. G protein-coupled receptor kinase-mediated

phosphorylation regulates post-endocytic trafficking of the D2 dopamine receptor. J Biol Chem.

2009;284: 15038–15051. doi:10.1074/jbc.M900388200

59.   Gurevich EV, Gainetdinov RR, Gurevich VV. G protein-coupled receptor kinases as regulators of

dopamine receptor functions. Pharmacol Res. 2016;111: 1–16. doi:10.1016/j.phrs.2016.05.010

60.   Sawin ER, Ranganathan R, Horvitz HR. C. elegans locomotory rate is modulated by the environment

through a dopaminergic pathway and by experience through a serotonergic pathway. Neuron.

2000;26: 619–631.

61.   Chase DL, Pepper JS, Koelle MR. Mechanism of extrasynaptic dopamine signaling in Caenorhabditis

elegans. Nat Neurosci. 2004;7: 1096–1103. doi:10.1038/nn1316

62.   Doi M, Iwasaki K. Regulation of retrograde signaling at neuromuscular junctions by the novel C2

domain protein AEX-1. Neuron. 2002;33: 249–259.

63.   Ailion M, Hannemann M, Dalton S, Pappas A, Watanabe S, Hegermann J, et al. Two Rab2 interactors

regulate dense-core vesicle maturation. Neuron. 2014;82: 167–180.

doi:10.1016/j.neuron.2014.02.017

64.   Vidal-Gadea A, Topper S, Young L, Crisp A, Kressin L, Elbel E, et al. Caenorhabditis elegans selects

distinct crawling and swimming gaits via dopamine and serotonin. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A. 2011;108:

17504–17509. doi:10.1073/pnas.1108673108

65. Pitcher JA, Freedman NJ, Lefkowitz RJ. G protein-coupled receptor kinases. Annu Rev Biochem.

1998;67: 653–692. doi:10.1146/annurev.biochem.67.1.653

66. Evron T, Daigle TL, Caron MG. GRK2: multiple roles beyond G protein-coupled receptor

desensitization. Trends Pharmacol Sci. 2012;33: 154–164. doi:10.1016/j.tips.2011.12.003

67. Ribas C, Penela P, Murga C, Salcedo A, García-Hoz C, Jurado-Pueyo M, et al. The G protein-coupled

receptor kinase (GRK) interactome: role of GRKs in GPCR regulation and signaling. Biochim Biophys

Acta. 2007;1768: 913–922. doi:10.1016/j.bbamem.2006.09.019

68. Kong G, Penn R, Benovic JL. A beta-adrenergic receptor kinase dominant negative mutant attenuates

desensitization of the beta 2-adrenergic receptor. J Biol Chem. 1994;269: 13084–13087.

69. Pao CS, Barker BL, Benovic JL. Role of the amino terminus of G protein-coupled receptor kinase 2 in

receptor phosphorylation. Biochemistry (Mosc). 2009;48: 7325–7333. doi:10.1021/bi900408g

70. Boguth CA, Singh P, Huang C, Tesmer JJG. Molecular basis for activation of G protein-coupled

receptor kinases. EMBO J. 2010;29: 3249–3259. doi:10.1038/emboj.2010.206

71. Huang C, Yoshino-Koh K, Tesmer JJG. A surface of the kinase domain critical for the allosteric

activation of G protein-coupled receptor kinases. J Biol Chem. 2009;284: 17206–17215.

doi:10.1074/jbc.M809544200

72. Huang C-C, Orban T, Jastrzebska B, Palczewski K, Tesmer JJG. Activation of G protein-coupled receptor

kinase 1 involves interactions between its N-terminal region and its kinase domain. Biochemistry

(Mosc). 2011;50: 1940–1949. doi:10.1021/bi101606e

73.   Noble B, Kallal LA, Pausch MH, Benovic JL. Development of a yeast bioassay to characterize G protein-

806   coupled receptor kinases. Identification of an NH2-terminal region essential for receptor

807   phosphorylation. J Biol Chem. 2003;278: 47466–47476. doi:10.1074/jbc.M308257200

808   74.   Pao CS, Benovic JL. Phosphorylation-independent desensitization of G protein-coupled receptors? Sci

809   STKE. 2002;2002: pe42. doi:10.1126/stke.2002.153.pe42

810   75.   Sterne-Marr R, Tesmer JJG, Day PW, Stracquatanio RP, Cilente J-AE, O'Connor KE, et al. G protein-

811   coupled receptor Kinase 2/G alpha q/11 interaction. A novel surface on a regulator of G protein

812   signaling homology domain for binding G alpha subunits. J Biol Chem. 2003;278: 6050–6058.

813   doi:10.1074/jbc.M208787200

814   76.   Boekhoff I, Inglese J, Schleicher S, Koch WJ, Lefkowitz RJ, Breer H. Olfactory desensitization requires

815   membrane targeting of receptor kinase mediated by beta gamma-subunits of heterotrimeric G

816   proteins. J Biol Chem. 1994;269: 37–40.

817   77.   Koch WJ, Inglese J, Stone WC, Lefkowitz RJ. The binding site for the beta gamma subunits of

818   heterotrimeric G proteins on the beta-adrenergic receptor kinase. J Biol Chem. 1993;268: 8256–8260.

819   78.   Touhara K, Koch WJ, Hawes BE, Lefkowitz RJ. Mutational analysis of the pleckstrin homology domain

820   of the beta-adrenergic receptor kinase. Differential effects on G beta gamma and

821   phosphatidylinositol 4,5-bisphosphate binding. J Biol Chem. 1995;270: 17000–17005.

822   79.   Carman CV, Barak LS, Chen C, Liu-Chen LY, Onorato JJ, Kennedy SP, et al. Mutational analysis of

823   Gbetagamma and phospholipid interaction with G protein-coupled receptor kinase 2. J Biol Chem.

824   2000;275: 10443–10452.

825   80.   Topalidou I, Cattin-Ortolá J, Pappas AL, Cooper K, Merrihew GE, MacCoss MJ, et al. The EARP Complex

826   and Its Interactor EIPR-1 Are Required for Cargo Sorting to Dense-Core Vesicles. PLoS Genet. 2016;12:

827   e1006074. doi:10.1371/journal.pgen.1006074

828   81.   Hammarlund M, Palfreyman MT, Watanabe S, Olsen S, Jorgensen EM. Open syntaxin docks synaptic

829   vesicles. PLoS Biol. 2007;5: e198. doi:10.1371/journal.pbio.0050198

830   82.   Koelle MR. Neurotransmitter signaling through heterotrimeric G proteins: insights from studies in C.

831   elegans. WormBook Online Rev C Elegans Biol. 2016; 1–78. doi:10.1895/wormbook.1.75.2

832   83.   Bastiani CA, Gharib S, Simon MI, Sternberg PW. Caenorhabditis elegans Galphaq regulates egg-laying

833   behavior via a PLCbeta-independent and serotonin-dependent signaling pathway and likely functions

834   both in the nervous system and in muscle. Genetics. 2003;165: 1805–1822.

835   84.   Brundage L, Avery L, Katz A, Kim UJ, Mendel JE, Sternberg PW, et al. Mutations in a C. elegans

836   Gqalpha gene disrupt movement, egg laying, and viability. Neuron. 1996;16: 999–1009.

837   85.   Mendel JE, Korswagen HC, Liu KS, Hajdu-Cronin YM, Simon MI, Plasterk RH, et al. Participation of the

838   protein Go in multiple aspects of behavior in C. elegans. Science. 1995;267: 1652–1655.

839   86.   Ségalat L, Elkes DA, Kaplan JM. Modulation of serotonin-controlled behaviors by Go in Caenorhabditis

840   elegans. Science. 1995;267: 1648–1651.

841   87.   Hajdu-Cronin YM, Chen WJ, Patikoglou G, Koelle MR, Sternberg PW. Antagonism between G(o)alpha

842   and G(q)alpha in Caenorhabditis elegans: the RGS protein EAT-16 is necessary for G(o)alpha signaling

843   and regulates G(q)alpha activity. Genes Dev. 1999;13: 1780–1793.

844   88.   Nurrish S, Ségalat L, Kaplan JM. Serotonin inhibition of synaptic transmission: Galpha(0) decreases the

845   abundance of UNC-13 at release sites. Neuron. 1999;24: 231–242.

89.   Sawin ER, Ranganathan R, Horvitz HR. C. elegans locomotory rate is modulated by the environment

through a dopaminergic pathway and by experience through a serotonergic pathway. Neuron.

2000;26: 619–631.

90.   Lints R, Emmons SW. Patterning of dopaminergic neurotransmitter identity among Caenorhabditis

elegans ray sensory neurons by a TGFbeta family signaling pathway and a Hox gene. Development.

1999;126: 5819–5831.

91.   Xie L, Gao S, Alcaire SM, Aoyagi K, Wang Y, Griffin JK, et al. NLF-1 delivers a sodium leak channel to

regulate neuronal excitability and modulate rhythmic locomotion. Neuron. 2013;77: 1069–1082.

doi:10.1016/j.neuron.2013.01.018

92.   Koelle MR, Horvitz HR. EGL-10 regulates G protein signaling in the C. elegans nervous system and

shares a conserved domain with many mammalian proteins. Cell. 1996;84: 115–125.

93.   Stefanakis N, Carrera I, Hobert O. Regulatory Logic of Pan-Neuronal Gene Expression in C. elegans.

Neuron. 2015;87: 733–750. doi:10.1016/j.neuron.2015.07.031

94.   Zhang F, Bhattacharya A, Nelson JC, Abe N, Gordon P, Lloret-Fernandez C, et al. The LIM and POU

homeobox genes ttx-3 and unc-86 act as terminal selectors in distinct cholinergic and serotonergic

neuron types. Development. 2014;141: 422–435. doi:10.1242/dev.099721

95.   Wenick AS, Hobert O. Genomic cis-regulatory architecture and trans-acting regulators of a single

interneuron-specific gene battery in C. elegans. Dev Cell. 2004;6: 757–770.

doi:10.1016/j.devcel.2004.05.004

96. Ezak MJ, Ferkey DM. The C. elegans D2-like dopamine receptor DOP-3 decreases behavioral

sensitivity to the olfactory stimulus 1-octanol. PloS One. 2010;5: e9487.

doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0009487

97. Ferkey DM, Hyde R, Haspel G, Dionne HM, Hess HA, Suzuki H, et al. C. elegans G protein regulator

RGS-3 controls sensitivity to sensory stimuli. Neuron. 2007;53: 39–52.

doi:10.1016/j.neuron.2006.11.015

98. Wragg RT, Hapiak V, Miller SB, Harris GP, Gray J, Komuniecki PR, et al. Tyramine and octopamine

independently inhibit serotonin-stimulated aversive behaviors in Caenorhabditis elegans through two

novel amine receptors. J Neurosci. 2007;27: 13402–13412. doi:10.1523/JNEUROSCI.3495-07.2007

99. Shiina T, Arai K, Tanabe S, Yoshida N, Haga T, Nagao T, et al. Clathrin box in G protein-coupled

receptor kinase 2. J Biol Chem. 2001;276: 33019–33026. doi:10.1074/jbc.M100140200

100. Namkung Y, Dipace C, Urizar E, Javitch JA, Sibley DR. G protein-coupled receptor kinase-2

constitutively regulates D2 dopamine receptor expression and signaling independently of receptor

phosphorylation. J Biol Chem. 2009;284: 34103–34115. doi:10.1074/jbc.M109.055707

101. Daigle TL, Ferris MJ, Gainetdinov RR, Sotnikova TD, Urs NM, Jones SR, et al. Selective deletion of GRK2

alters psychostimulant-induced behaviors and dopamine neurotransmission.

Neuropsychopharmacology. 2014;39: 2450–2462. doi:10.1038/npp.2014.97

102. Miller KG, Emerson MD, Rand JB. Goalpha and diacylglycerol kinase negatively regulate the Gqalpha

pathway in C. elegans. Neuron. 1999;24: 323–333.

103. Lackner MR, Nurrish SJ, Kaplan JM. Facilitation of synaptic transmission by EGL-30 Gqalpha and EGL-8

PLCbeta: DAG binding to UNC-13 is required to stimulate acetylcholine release. Neuron. 1999;24:

335–346.

104. Chalfie M, Sulston JE, White JG, Southgate E, Thomson JN, Brenner S. The neural circuit for touch

sensitivity in Caenorhabditis elegans. J Neurosci. 1985;5: 956–964.

105. Zheng Y, Brockie PJ, Mellem JE, Madsen DM, Maricq AV. Neuronal control of locomotion in C. elegans

is modified by a dominant mutation in the GLR-1 ionotropic glutamate receptor. Neuron. 1999;24:

347–361.

106. Brenner S. The genetics of Caenorhabditis elegans. Genetics. 1974;77: 71–94.

107. Hoyt JM, Wilson SK, Kasa M, Rise JS, Topalidou I, Ailion M. The SEK-1 p38 MAP Kinase Pathway

Modulates Gq Signaling in Caenorhabditis elegans. G3. 2017;[Epub ahead of print].

doi:10.1534/g3.117.043273

108. Frøkjær-Jensen C, Davis MW, Ailion M, Jorgensen EM. Improved Mos1-mediated transgenesis in C.

elegans. Nat Methods. 2012;9: 117–118. doi:10.1038/nmeth.1865

109. Mello CC, Kramer JM, Stinchcomb D, Ambros V. Efficient gene transfer in C.elegans:

extrachromosomal maintenance and integration of transforming sequences. EMBO J. 1991;10: 3959–

3970.

110. Pereira L, Kratsios P, Serrano-Saiz E, Sheftel H, Mayo AE, Hall DH, et al. A cellular and regulatory map

of the cholinergic nervous system of C. elegans. eLife. 2015;4: e12432. doi:10.7554/eLife.12432

Figure Captions

Fig 1. **The GRK-2 kinase regulates locomotion and G_q signaling.**

(A,B) *grk-2* mutations suppress activated G_q. The activated G_q mutant *egl-30(tg26)* (Gq*) has hyperactive

locomotion and a tightly coiled loopy posture. (A) The *grk-2(gk268)* and *grk-2(yak18)* mutations suppress

the loopy posture of activated G_q. (B) The *grk-2(gk268)* mutation suppresses the hyperactive locomotion of

activated G_q. (***, P<0.001. Error bars = SEM; n = 10).

(C) The kinase activity of GRK-2 is required for proper locomotion. The *grk-2(gk268)* and *grk-2(yak18)*

mutants have slow locomotion. The *grk-2(gk268)* slow locomotion is rescued by expression of the wild-

type *grk-2* cDNA under the control of its own promoter (GRK-2(+)), but is not rescued by expression of the

kinase dead GRK-2[K220R]. (**, P<0.01; ***, P<0.001. Error bars = SEM; n = 10-15).

(D) The kinase dead GRK-2 does not reverse the *grk-2* suppression of activated G_q. A *grk-2(gk268)*

mutation suppresses the hyperactive locomotion of *egl-30(tg26)* (Gq*). Expression of the kinase dead GRK-

2[K220R] does not rescue the *grk-2* mutant for this phenotype. (**, P<0.01. Error bars = SEM; n = 10).

Fig 2. GRK-2 regulation of locomotion requires GPCR-phosphorylation and membrane association.

(A) Domain structure of GRK-2. GRK-2 is a 707 amino acid protein with three well-characterized domains:

the RGS homology (RH) domain, the kinase domain, and the pleckstrin homology (PH) domain. The protein

structure was drawn using DOG 1.0.

(B-D) Residues required for GPCR phosphorylation are required for GRK-2 function in locomotion. The D3K

(transgene *yakEx77*), L4K (transgene *yakEx78*), V7A/L8A (transgene *yakEx79*), and D10A (transgene

yakEx80) mutations are predicted to block GPCR phosphorylation. The R195A mutation (transgene

yakEx95) disrupts predicted intramolecular stabilizing interactions that are required for effective

phosphorylation. In each case, expression of the mutant *grk-2* cDNA under the control of its own promoter

did not rescue the slow locomotion of the *grk-2(gk268)* mutant (ns, P>0.05, each strain compared to *grk-2*.

Error bars = SEM; n = 10-20).

(E) Residues in the RH domain predicted to disrupt G_q binding are not required for GRK-2 function in

locomotion. The R106A (transgene *yakEx57*), Y109I (transgene *yakEx55*), and D110A (transgene *yakEx56*)

mutations are predicted to disrupt G_q binding. In each case, expression of the mutant *grk-2* cDNA under

the control of the *grk-2* promoter significantly rescued the slow locomotion of the *grk-2(gk268)* mutant

(**, P<0.01; ***, P<0.001. Error bars = SEM; n = 10).

(F) Residues in the PH domain predicted to disrupt GRK-2 phospholipid binding or binding to Gβγ are

required for GRK-2 function in locomotion. Mutation K567E (transgene *yakEx87*) is predicted to disrupt

GRK-2 phospholipid binding, and mutation R587Q (transgene *yakEx88*) is predicted to disrupt binding to

Gβγ. In both cases, expression of the mutant *grk-2* cDNA under the control of the *grk-2* promoter did not

rescue the slow locomotion of the *grk-2(gk268)* mutant. (**, P<0.01. ns, P>0.05. Error bars = SEM; n = 10).

(G) Verification of the expression of the mutant *grk-2* cDNAs used for the experiments shown in Figure 1D

and Figure 2B-F. Western blot analysis of whole worm extracts from *grk-2(gk268)* mutants expressing the

indicated *grk-2* mutant cDNAs as extrachromosomal arrays.

Fig 3. GRK-2 acts in head acetylcholine neurons.

(A) *grk-2* acts in head acetylcholine neurons to control locomotion. The *grk-2* cDNA was expressed in *grk-*

2(gk268) mutants under a pan-neuronal promoter (*Prab-3,* transgene *yakEx44*), acetylcholine neuron

promoter (*Punc-17,* transgene *yakEx45*), ventral cord acetylcholine motor neuron promoter (*Pacr-2,*

transgene *yakEx47*), head acetylcholine neuron promoter (*Punc-17H,* transgene *yakEx51*), glutamate

receptor promoter (*Pglr-1,* transgene *yakEx52*), and ciliated sensory neuron promoter (*Pxbx-1,* transgene

yakEx71). Expression driven by the pan-neuronal, acetylcholine neuron, and head acetylcholine neuron

promoters rescued the slow locomotion of *grk-2* mutants. (***, P<0.001. Error bars = SEM; n = 10-25).

(B,C) GRK-2 acts in head acetylcholine neurons to positively regulate G_q signaling. A *grk-2(gk268)* mutant

suppresses the loopy posture and hyperactive locomotion of the activated G_q mutant *egl-30(tg26)* (Gq*).

Expression of the *grk-2* cDNA under a head acetylcholine neuron promoter (*Punc-17H*, transgene *yakEx51*)

reverses the *grk-2* suppression of the loopy posture (B) and hyperactive locomotion (C) of activated G_q.

(***, P<0.001. Error bars = SEM; n = 10).

(D) *grk-2* is expressed in head acetylcholine neurons. Representative images of a Z-stack projection of the

area around the nerve ring in the head of an animal coexpressing tagRFP fused to the GRK-2 ORF driven by

the *grk-2* promoter (*grk-2*::tagRFP, integration *yakIs19*) and GFP under a head acetylcholine neuron

promoter (*Punc-17H*::eGFP, transgene *yakEx94*). Anterior to the left. Because *Punc-17H*::GFP is highly

expressed and diffuse throughout the cell but *grk-2*::tagRFP is dimmer and localized only in the cytoplasm,

their coexpression is hard to see in the merged image. For this reason, we have circled the cells where

there is coexpression. Scale bar: 10 μm.

Fig 4. Mutations in *dop-3* and *cat-2* suppress *grk-2*.

(A) Mutations in *dop-3* and *cat-2* suppress the slow locomotion of *grk-2* mutants. The *grk-2(gk268)* mutant

has a slow locomotion phenotype. The *dop-3(vs106)* mutation fully suppresses and the *cat-2(e1112)*

mutation partially suppresses the slow locomotion of the *grk-2(gk268)* mutant (***, P<0.001. Error bars =

SEM; n = 32-72).

(B,C) A *dop-3* mutation reverses the *grk-2* mutant suppression of activated G_q. The *grk-2(gk268)* mutation

suppresses the loopy posture and hyperactive locomotion of the activated G_q mutant *egl-30(tg26)* (Gq*).

The *dop-3(vs106)* mutation reverses the *grk-2* suppression of the loopy posture (B) and hyperactive

locomotion (C) of Gq*. (***, P<0.001. Error bars = SEM; n = 15-20).

(D,E) *dop-3* and *cat-2* mutations reverse the *grk-2* mutant suppression of the loopy posture of activated

G_q. The *grk-2(gk268)* mutation suppresses the loopy posture of the activated G_q mutant *egl-30(tg26)*

(Gq*).The *dop-3 (vs106)* and *cat-2(e1112)* mutations reverse the *grk-2* suppression of the loopy posture of

Gq*. (***, P<0.001. ns, P>0.05. Error bars = SEM; n = 5).

(F) *grk-2* mutants are hypersensitive to dopamine in a *dop-3*-dependent manner. Shown is the percentage

of wild type, *dop-3(vs106), grk-2(gk268),* or *grk-2(gk268); dop-3(vs106)* animals that moved ten body

bends after a 20 min exposure to the indicated concentrations of dopamine. Every data point represents

the mean +/- SEM of three trials (15-20 animals per experiment and strain).

Fig 5. A *grk-2* mutation partially suppresses activated Rho but does not suppress activated NCA-1.

(A,B) A *grk-2* mutation partially suppresses activated Rho. Animals expressing activated RHO-1 [RHO-

1[G14V]) under an acetylcholine promoter (Rho*, transgene *nzIs29*) have slow locomotion and loopy

posture. The *grk-2(gk268)* mutation partially suppresses both the loopy posture (A) and slow locomotion

(B) of the Rho* animals. (***, P<0.001. Error bars = SEM; n = 10).

(C,D) A *grk-2* mutation does not suppress activated NCA-1. The activated NCA-1 mutant (Nca*, *nca-*

1(ox352)) has slow locomotion and loopy posture. The *grk-2(gk268)* mutation does not suppress the loopy

posture (C) or the slow locomotion (D) of Nca*. To measure the locomotion of the slow moving Nca*

animals, we used a radial locomotion assay in which we placed animals in the center of a 10 cm plate and

measured how far the animals had moved in one hour. (ns, P>0.05. Error bars = SEM; n = 10).

Fig 6. GRK-2 is a positive modulator of NCA-1 and NCA-2 channel activity.

(A) A *grk-2* mutation enhances the weak forward fainting phenotype of an *nlf-1* mutant. Representative

images of wild-type, *nlf-1(tm3631),* and *grk-2(gk268); nlf-1(tm3631)* mutant animals. The asterisk shows

the anterior part of the worm that becomes straight when an animal faints.

(B) A *grk-2* mutation enhances the weak forward fainting phenotype of an *nlf-1* mutant. The *nlf-1(tm3631)*

mutant is a weak fainter. The *grk-2(gk268)* mutation enhances the *nlf-1* mutant so that the double is a

strong fainter. (***, P<0.001. Error bars = SEM; n = 10-20). The number shown is the number of body

bends before the animal faints. If the animal made ten body bends without fainting, the assay was stopped

and we recorded ten as the number (see Methods).

(C) The *grk-2(gk268)* mutation enhances the *unc-73(ox317)* mutant so that the double mutant is a strong

fainter. The *grk-2(gk268)* mutation has no effect on an *egl-8(sa47)* mutant. (***, P<0.001. Error bars =

SEM; n = 15).

(D) The *egl-10(md176)* mutation enhances the *nlf-1(tm3631)* mutant so that the double mutant is a strong

fainter. (***, P<0.001. Error bars = SEM; n = 25).

(E) Expression of activated G_o in head acetylcholine neurons inhibits locomotion. Animals expressing an

activated G_o mutant (GOA-1[Q205L]) under a head acetylcholine neuron promoter (*Punc-17H*::GOA-1*,

transgene *yakEx103*) move more slowly than wild type animals. (***, P<0.001. Error bars = SEM; n = 17).

(F) Expression of activated G_o in head acetylcholine neurons enhances the weak forward fainting

phenotype of an *nlf-1* mutant. The *nlf-1(tm3631)* mutant is a weak fainter in forward movement. The *nlf-

1(tm3631)* mutant expressing an activated G_o mutant (GOA-1[Q205L]) under a head acetylcholine neuron

promoter (*Punc-17H*::GOA-1*, transgene *yakEx103*) is a stronger fainter than the *nlf-1(tm3631)* mutant.

(***, P<0.001. Error bars = SEM; n = 54).

1015

Fig 7. Dopamine negatively modulates NCA-1 and NCA-2 channel activity.

(A) The *cat-2(e1112)* mutation suppresses the weak forward fainting phenotype of the *nlf-1(tm3631)*

mutant. (***, P<0.001. Error bars = SEM; n = 40).

(B) The *dop-3(vs106)* mutation suppresses the weak forward fainting phenotype of the *nlf-1(tm3631)*

mutant. (***, P<0.001. Error bars = SEM; n = 40).

(C) The *dop-3(vs106)* mutation partially suppresses the strong forward fainting phenotype of the *grk-

2(gk268); nlf-1(tm3631)* double mutant. (***, P<0.001. Error bars = SEM; n = 40).

(D) Exogenous dopamine causes the *grk-2(gk268)* mutant to faint in a *dop-3* dependent manner. Shown is

the percentage of animals that faint within a period of ten body bends when moving backwards after

exposure to 2 mM dopamine for 20 min. (***, P<0.001. Error bars = SEM; n = 2-5 trials of 14-25 animals

each).

1027

Fig 8. GRK-2 is expressed and acts in command interneurons to regulate locomotion.

(A) *grk-2* is expressed in command interneurons. Representative images of a Z-stack projection of the area

around the nerve ring (head) of an animal coexpressing tagRFP fused to the GRK-2 cDNA driven by the *grk-*

2 promoter (*grk-2::RFP*, transgene *yakIs19*) and a *cho-1* fosmid YFP reporter (*cho-1^{fosmid}*::SL2::YFP::H2B,

transgene *otIs534*). For the *cho-1* fosmid reporter, an SL2-spliced, nuclear-localized *YFP::H2B* sequence

was engineered right after the stop codon of the gene [93,110]. As indicated in the figure, *grk-2::RFP* is

expressed in the AVA, AVB, AVD, and AVE command interneurons; SMD and RMD head motor neurons;

and in the AIN, AIY, SIA, SIB, and SAA interneurons. Scale bar: 10 μm.

(B-D) *grk-2* cDNA expression in (B) SMD/RMD (*Pcho-1,* 3.3 to 2.6 kb upstream of the ATG, transgene

yakEx135), (C) SIA/SIB (*Pceh-24*, transgene *yakEx149*), or (D) AIY (*Pttx-3*, transgene *yakEx138*) neurons

does not rescue the slow locomotion of *grk-2(gk268)* mutants. (Error bars = SEM; n = 15).

(E) *grk-2* cDNA expression in command interneurons (*Psra-11 + Pnmr-1*, transgene *yakEx141*) is sufficient

to rescue the slow locomotion of *grk-2(gk268)* mutants. (***, P<0.001. Error bars = SEM; n = 25).

(F) *grk-2* cDNA expression in command interneurons (*Psra-11 + Pnmr-1*, transgene *yakEx141*) is sufficient

to rescue the strong fainting phenotype of *grk-2(gk268); nlf-1(tm3631)* mutants. (***, P<0.001. Error bars

= SEM; n = 40).

(G) *dop-3* cDNA expression in command interneurons (*Psra-11 + Pnmr-1*, transgene *yakEx148*) is sufficient

to reverse the *dop-3(vs106)* mutant suppression of the slow locomotion of *grk-2(gk268)* mutant animals.

(**, P<0.01. Error bars = SEM; n = 23).

1047

Fig 9. Model for GRK-2 and dopamine action in modulating activity of the NCA channels.

Schematic representation of the dopamine, G_q and G_o signaling pathways [61,82]. Solid arrows indicate

direct actions or direct physical interactions. Dashed arrows indicate interactions that may be indirect. Our

results suggest that dopamine decreases activity of the NCA-1 and NCA-2 channels (shown here

collectively as "NCA") by binding to DOP-3 and activating G_o signaling. GRK-2 acts as a kinase for the D2-

like dopamine receptor DOP-3 to inhibit DOP-3, and thereby inhibit G_o, activate G_q, and positively regulate

NCA-1 and NCA-2 channel activity.

Supporting information

S1 Fig. *grk-2* mutant phenotypes.

(A) The *grk-2(gk268)* mutant has an egg-laying defect. The graph shows the number of eggs laid by 5

animals in a 2 h period. (**, $P<0.01$. Error bars = SEM; n = 2 plates of 5 animals each).

(B) The *grk-2(gk268)* mutant animals have short bodies. (***, $P<0.001$. Error bars = SEM; n = 10).

(C) A *dop-3* mutation does not suppress the restricted exploration behavior of *grk-2* mutants. Shown are

images of tracks of five wild-type, *grk-2(gk268),* and *grk-2(gk268); dop-3(vs106)* mutant animals that were

allowed to explore a bacterial lawn for 2 hours at room temperature.

S2 Fig. *grk-2* mutants have swimming defects.

Shown are plots of bending angle (midpoint) versus time for representative individual animals. The two

plots of *grk-2(gk268)* mutant animals show individuals with strong and weak swimming defects. The *dop-3(vs106)* mutation suppresses the swimming defects of the *grk-2*(gk268) mutant.

S3 Fig. Arrestin mutants do not have locomotion defects and do not suppress Gq*.

(A) The *arr-1(ok401)* mutant has no locomotion defect. (ns, $P>0.05$. Error bars = SEM; n = 10).

(B) The *arr-1(ok401)* mutation does not suppress the loopy posture of the *egl-30(tg26)* mutant.

(C) The *arr-1(ok401)* mutation, in contrast to a *grk-2(gk268)* mutation, does not cause a fainting phenotype

in an *nca-1(gk9)* mutant background. Shown is the percentage of animals that faint when moving

backwards. The wild type, *nca-1*, *grk-2*, and *grk-2; nca-1* data are the same data shown in Figure S6F. The

graph shows the combined data from two independent experiments, each with n = 20-40. (**, $P<0.01$;

***, $P<0.001$; ns, $P>0.05$).

S4 Fig. A *grk-2* mutation suppresses the hyperactive locomotion of *dgk-1*, but not *goa-1* or *eat-16*

mutants.

(A) The *grk-2(gk268)* mutation does not suppress the hyperactive locomotion of the *eat-16(tm775)* and

goa-1(sa734) mutants. (ns, P>0.05. Error bars = SEM; n = 10-20).

(B) The *grk-2(gk268)* mutation suppresses the hyperactive locomotion phenotype of the *dgk-1(sy428)*

mutant. (***, P<0.001. ns, P>0.05. Error bars = SEM; n = 10-20).

(C-D) The *grk-2(gk268)* mutation does not suppress the loopy posture of the *eat-16(tm775)* and *goa-*

1(sa734) mutants. (ns, P>0.05. Error bars = SEM; n = 5).

(E) The kinase dead GRK-2 does not reverse the *grk-2* suppression of the *dgk-1* hyperactive locomotion

phenotype. Expression of the kinase dead GRK-2[K220R] mutant under its own promoter (transgene

yakEx48) does not reverse the *grk-2* suppression of *dgk-1* hyperactivity. (ns, P>0.05. Error bars = SEM; n =

10-20).

(F) Expression of the *grk-2* cDNA under a head acetylcholine neuron promoter (transgene *yakEx51*)

reverses the *grk-2* suppression of the hyperactive locomotion of the *dgk-1(sy428)* mutant. (***, P<0.001.

Error bars = SEM; n = 10-20).

1093

1094 **S5 Fig. A *cat-2* mutation reverses the *grk-2* mutant suppression of activated G$_q$.** The *grk-2(gk268)*

1095 mutation suppresses the loopy posture and hyperactive locomotion of the activated G$_q$ mutant *egl-*

1096 *30(tg26)* (Gq*).The *cat-2(e1112)* mutation reverses the *grk-2* suppression of the loopy posture (A) and

1097 hyperactive locomotion (B) of Gq*. (***, P<0.001. Error bars = SEM; n = 15-20).

1098

S6 Fig. *dop-3* acts in head acetylcholine neurons to regulate *grk-2* dependent locomotion.

(A) The *dop-3* suppression of *grk-2* is reversed by *dop-3* expression in head acetylcholine neurons. The

dop-3 cDNA was expressed in the *grk-2(gk268); dop-3(vs106)* double mutant under a pan-neuronal

promoter (*Prab-3,* transgene *yakEx112*), acetylcholine neuron promoter (*Punc-17,* transgene *yakEx111*),

head acetylcholine neuron promoter (*Punc-17H,* transgene *yakEx110*) and ventral cord acetylcholine

motor neuron promoter (*Pacr-2,* transgene *yakEx109*). Expression of *dop-3* driven by the pan-neuronal,

acetylcholine neuron, and head acetylcholine neuron promoters reversed the *dop-3(vs106)* mutant

suppression of the slow locomotion of *grk-2(gk268)* mutant animals. (*, $P<0.05$; **, $P<0.01$; ***, $P<0.001$;

ns, $P>0.05$. Error bars = SEM; n = 10-33).

(B) A *dop-1* mutation does not affect the *dop-3* suppression of the *grk-2* slow locomotion phenotype. *grk-*

2; dop-3 mutants move more rapidly than the *grk-2* mutant. The *dop-1(vs100)* mutation does not affect

grk-2(gk268); dop-3(vs106) locomotion. (ns, $P>0.05$. Error bars = SEM; n = 23-34).

(C-E) Expression of *dop-3* in ventral cord motor neurons is not sufficient to reverse the hyperactive

locomotion and loopy posture of *egl-30(tg26); grk-2; dop-3* mutant animals. (C) Expression of *dop-3* driven

by the ventral cord neuron promoter (*Pacr-2*, transgene *yakEx109*) does not reduce the hyperactivity of

egl-30(tg26); grk-2(gk268); dop-3(vs106) mutant animals. (***, $P<0.001$; ns, $P>0.05$. Error bars = SEM; n =

10). (D-E) Expression of *dop-3* driven by the ventral cord neuron promoter (*Pacr-2*, transgene *yakEx109*)

does not reverse the loopy waveform of *egl-30(tg26); grk-2(gk268); dop-3(vs106)* mutant animals. (**,

$P<0.01$; ***, $P<0.001$; ns, $P>0.05$. Error bars = SEM; n = 10).

(F) A *dop-3* mutation suppresses the fainting phenotype of *grk-2; nca-1* mutants. Shown is the percentage

of animals that faint when moving backwards. The wild type, *nca-1*, *grk-2*, and *grk-2; nca-1* data are the

same data shown in Figure S3C. The graph shows the combined data from two independent experiments,

each with n = 20-40. (**, $P<0.01$; ***, $P<0.001$; ns, $P>0.05$).

1122

1123   **S7 Fig. *grk-2* does not affect the level of expression or subcellular localization of DOP-3::GFP.**

L1124   (A) DOP-3::GFP expression driven by the *grk-2* promoter (transgene *yakEx130*) reverses the *dop-3* mutant

L1125   suppression of the slow locomotion phenotype of *grk-2* mutants. (**, $P<0.01$; ***, $P<0.001$. Error bars =

L1126   SEM; n = 10).

L1127   (B) DOP-3::GFP levels remain unaffected in *grk-2* mutants. Immunoblot of extracts derived from *dop-3* or

L1128   *grk-2; dop-3* animals expressing *Pgrk-2*::DOP-3::GFP and *Pmyo-2*::mCherry from an extrachromosomal

L1129   array (transgene *yakEx130*). The experiment was repeated twice with similar results.

L1130   (C,D) DOP-3::GFP subcellular localization and level of expression remain unaffected in *grk-2* mutants. (C)

L1131   Representative images of a Z-stack projection of the area around the nerve ring in the head of *dop-3* or

L1132   *grk-2; dop-3* mutant animals expressing *Pgrk-2*::DOP-3::GFP (transgene *yakEx130*). (D) Quantification of

L1133   the ratio of DOP-3::GFP to mCherry in the region around the nerve ring of *dop-3* or *grk-2; dop-3* animals

L1134   expressing *Pgrk-2*::DOP-3::GFP and *Pmyo-2*::mCherry (transgene *yakEx130*). (ns, $P>0.05$. Error bars = SEM;

L1135   n = 10).

L1136

L1137   **S8 Fig. Mutations in *dop-3* and *cat-2* do not suppress the strong fainter phenotype of *unc-80* mutants.**

L1138   (A) The *dop-3(vs106)* mutation does not suppress the strong forward fainting phenotype of the *unc-*

L1139   *80(ox330)* mutant. (ns, $P>0.05$. Error bars = SEM; n = 20).

L1140   (B) The *cat-2(e1112)* mutation does not suppress the strong forward fainting phenotype of the *unc-*

L1141   *80(ox330)* mutant. (ns, $P>0.05$. Error bars = SEM; n = 36-38).

L1142

L1143   **S9 Fig. *grk-2* expression driven by only the *sra-11* or *nmr-1* promoter does not rescue the slow**

L1144   **locomotion of *grk-2* mutants.**

L1145   (A), (B) *grk-2* cDNA expression driven by the (A) *sra-11* (*Psra-11*, transgene *yakEx147*) or (B) *nmr-1* (*Pnmr-*

L1146   *1*, transgene *yakEx85*) promoter does not rescue the slow locomotion of the *grk-2(gk268)* mutant. (ns,

L1147 $P>0.05$. Error bars = SEM; n = 10-20).

1148

1149
1150   **S1 Table. List of strains.**

1151
1152   **S2 Table. List of plasmids.**

1153

Fig 1

Fig 2

Fig 3

Fig 4

Fig 5

A

Rho*

Rho*; *grk-2*

B

Body bends/min

***

wild type   Rho*   Rho*; *grk-2*

C

Nca*

Nca*; *grk-2*

D

cm travelled/h

ns

Nca*   Nca*; *grk-2*

Fig 6

Fig 7

Fig 8

Fig 9

S1 Fig.

A Eggs laid

B Length(mm)

C WT

grk-2(gk268)

grk-2(gk268); dop-3(vs106)

wild type   *grk-2(gk268)*   **

wild type   *grk-2(gk268)*   ***

S2 Fig.

S3 Fig.

A

B

C

S5 Fig

A

B

S6 Fig.

S7 Fig

A

B

C

D

S8 Fig.

S9 Fig

A

B

S1 Table. List of strains

N2: Bristol wild strain

CB1112: *cat-2(e1112) II*

CB4856: Hawaiian wild strain

EG317: *unc-73(ox317) I*

EG330: *unc-80(ox330) V*

EG352: *nca-1(ox352) IV*

EG4782: *nzIs29[Punc-17::rho-1(G14V), unc-122::gfp] II*

EG5504: *nlf-1(tm3631) X*

FG7: *grk-2(gk268) III*

JT47: *egl-8(sa47) V*

EG3745: *eat-16(tm775) I ; him-5(e1490) V*

JT734: *goa-1(sa734) I*

LX645: *dop-1(vs100) X*

LX703: *dop-3(vs106) X*

LX705: *dop-1(vs100) X dop-3(vs106) X*

MT8504: *egl-10(md176) V*

PS2627: *dgk-1(sy428) X*

RB660: *arr-1(ok401) X*

XZ1151: *egl-30(tg26) I*

The following strains were produced in this study:

XZ18: *grk-2(yak18) III*

XZ1089: *egl-30(tg26) I ; grk-2(yak18) III*

XZ1527: *egl-30(tg26) I ; grk-2(gk268) III*

XZ1531: *grk-2(gk268) III ; egl-8(sa47) V*

XZ1532: *unc-73(ox317) I ; grk-2(gk268) III*

XZ1544: *grk-2(gk268) III ; yakEx44[Prab-3::grk-2 cDNA::tbb-2 3'UTR::OPERON::GFP::H2B, Pmyo-3::mCherry]*

XZ1549: *grk-2(gk268) III ; yakEx45[Punc-17::grk-2 cDNA::tbb-2 3'UTR::OPERON::GFP::H2B, Pmyo-2::mCherry]*

XZ1551: *grk-2(gk268) III ; yakEx47[Pacr-2::grk-2 cDNA::tbb-2 3'UTR::OPERON::GFP::H2B, Pmyo-2::mCherry]*

XZ1552: *grk-2(gk268) III ; yakEx48[GRK-2[K220R], Pmyo-2::mCherry]*

XZ1559: *nzIs29[Punc-17::rho-1(G14V), unc-122::gfp] II ; grk-2(gk268) III*

XZ1560: *grk-2(gk268) III ; nca-1(ox352) IV*

XZ1561: *grk-2(gk268) III ; yakEx51[Punc-17H::grk-2 cDNA::tbb-2 3'UTR::OPERON::GFP::H2B, Pmyo-3::mCherry]*

XZ1562: *grk-2(gk268) III ; yakEx52[Pglr-1::grk-2 cDNA::tbb-2 3'UTR::OPERON::GFP::H2B, Pmyo-2::mCherry]*

XZ1563: *grk-2(gk268) III ; yakEx53[Posm-6::grk-2 cDNA::tbb-2 3'UTR::OPERON::GFP::H2B, Pmyo-3::mCherry]*

XZ1571: *grk-2(gk268) III ; yakEx54[Pgrk-2::grk-2 cDNA::tagRFP, Pmyo-3::GFP]*

XZ1579: *grk-2(gk268) III ; yakEx55[GRK-2[Y109I], Pmyo-2::mCherry]*

XZ1581: *grk-2(gk268) III ; dgk-1(sy428) X*

XZ1582: *grk-2(gk268) III ; yakEx57[GRK-2[R106A], Pmyo-2::mCherry]*

XZ1583: *grk-2(gk268) III ; yakEx56[GRK-2[D110A], Pmyo-2::mCherry]*

XZ1641: *grk-2(gk268) III ; yakEx71[Pxbx-1::grk-2 cDNA::tbb-2 3'UTR::OPERON::GFP::H2B, Pmyo-2::mCherry]*

XZ1675: *grk-2(gk268) III ; yakEx77[GRK-2[D3K], Pmyo-2:mCherry]*

XZ1676: *grk-2(gk268) III ; yakEx78[GRK-2[L4K], Pmyo-2:mCherry]*

XZ1684: *eat-16(tm775) I ; grk-2(gk268) III*

XZ1691: *grk-2(gk268) III ; nlf-1(tm3631) X*

XZ1692: *grk-2(gk268) III ; yakEx79[GRK-2[V7A/L8A], Pmyo-2:mCherry]*

XZ1693: *grk-2(gk268) III ; yakEx80[GRK-2[D10A], Pmyo-2:mCherry]*

XZ1694: *grk-2(gk268) III ; dgk-1(sy428) X ; yakEx51[Punc-17H::grk-2 cDNA::tbb-2 3'UTR::OPERON::GFP::H2B,*

Pmyo-3::mCherry]

XZ1695: *grk-2(gk268) III ; dgk-1(sy428) X ; yakEx48[GRK-2[K220R], Pmyo-2::mCherry]*

XZ1713: *goa-1(sa734) I ; grk-2(gk268) III*

XZ1724: *grk-2(gk268) III ; yakEx85[Pnmr-1::grk-2cDNA::tbb-2 3'UTR::OPERON:GFP::H2B, Pmyo-2::mCherry]*

XZ1727: *grk-2(gk268) III ; yakEx87[GRK-2[K567E], Pmyo-2::mCherry]*

XZ1728: *grk-2(gk268) III ; yakEx88[GRK-2[R587Q], Pmyo-2::mCherry]*

XZ1729 *grk-2(gk268) III ; nca-1(gk9) IV*

XZ1730 *grk-2(gk268) III ; nca-2(gk5) III*

XZ1766: *grk-2(gk268) III ; yakEx95[GRK-2[R195A], Pmyo-2::mCherry]*

XZ1767: *grk-2(gk268) III ; yakIs19[Pgrk-2::grk-2 cDNA::tagRFP] ; yakEx94[Punc-17H::eGFP::let-858 3'UTR]*

XZ1845: *yakEx103[Punc-17H::GOA-1[Q205L]::tbb-2 3'UTR::OPERON::GFP::H2B, Pmyo-2::mCherry]*

XZ1859: *egl-10(md176) V ; nlf-1(tm3631) X*

XZ1876: *nlf-1(tm3631) X ; yakEx103[Punc-17H::GOA-1[Q205L]::tbb-2 3'UTR::OPERON::GFP::H2B, Pmyo-2::mCherry]*

XZ1903: *grk-2(gk268) III ; dop-3(vs106) X*

XZ1904: *egl-30(tg26) I ; grk-2(gk268) III ; dop-3(vs106) X*

XZ1905: *cat-2(e1112) II ; grk-2(gk268) III*

XZ1906: *egl-30(tg26) I ; cat-2(e1112) II ; grk-2(gk268) III*

XZ1909: *grk-2(gk268) III ; dop-3(vs106) X ; yakEx109[Pacr-2::dop-3 cDNA::tbb-2 3'UTR::OPERON::GFP::H2B, Pmyo-2::mCherry]*

XZ1910: *grk-2(gk268) III ; dop-3(vs106) X ; yakEx110[Punc-17H::dop-3 cDNA::tbb-2 3'UTR::OPERON::GFP::H2B, Pmyo-2::mCherry]*

XZ1911: *grk-2(gk268) III ; dop-3(vs106) X ; yakEx111[Punc-17::dop-3 cDNA::tbb-2 3'UTR::OPERON::GFP::H2B, Pmyo-2::mCherry]*

XZ1912: *grk-2(gk268) III ; dop-3(vs106) X ; yakEx112[Prab-3::dop-3 cDNA::tbb-2 3'UTR::OPERON::GFP::H2B,*

Pmyo-2::mCherry]

XZ1925: *cat-2(e1112) II ; unc-80(ox330) V*

XZ1935: *cat-2(e1112) II ; nlf-1(tm3631) X*

XZ1936: *unc-80(ox330) V ; dop-3(vs106) X*

XZ1940: *nlf-1(tm3631) X dop-3(vs106) X*

XZ1941: *grk-2(gk268) III ; nlf-1(tm3631) X dop-3(vs106) X*

XZ2007: *grk-2(gk268) III ; dop-1(vs100) X dop-3(vs106) X*

XZ2028: *egl-30(tg26) I ; grk-2(gk268) III ; yakEx48[GRK-2(K220R), Pmyo-2::mCherry]*

XZ2029: *egl-30(tg26) I ; grk-2(gk268) III ; yakEx51[Punc-17H::grk-2 cDNA::tbb-2 3'UTR::OPERON::GFP::H2B,*

Pmyo-3::mCherry]

XZ2063: *dop-3(vs106) X ; yakEx130[Pgrk-2::dop-3 cDNA::GFP, Pmyo-2::mCherry]*

XZ2066: *nca-1(gk9) IV ; arr-1(ok401) X*

XZ2071: *grk-2(gk268) III ; yakEx135[Pcho-1(3.3 to 2.6)::grk-2 cDNA::tbb-2 3'UTR::OPERON::GFP::H2B, Pmyo-*

2::mCherry]

XZ2075 *grk-2(gk268) III ; yakEx138[Pttx-3::grk-2 cDNA::tbb-2 3'UTR::OPERON::GFP::H2B, Pmyo-2::mCherry]*

XZ2078 *grk-2(gk268) III ; yakEx141[Psra-11::grk-2 cDNA::tbb-2 3'UTR::OPERON::GFP::H2B,*

Pnmr-1::grk-2 cDNA:: tbb-2 3'UTR::OPERON::GFP::H2B, Pmyo-2::mCherry]

XZ2086 *grk-2(gk268) III ; yakEx147[Psra-11::grk-2 cDNA::tbb-2 3'UTR::OPERON::GFP::H2B, Pmyo-2::mCherry]*

XZ2087 *grk-2(gk268) III ; dop-3(vs106) X ; yakEx148[Psra-11::dop-3 cDNA::tbb-2 3'UTR::OPERON::GFP::H2B,*

Pnmr-1::dop-3 cDNA::tbb-2 3'UTR::OPERON::GFP::H2B, Pmyo-2::mCherry]

XZ2088 *grk-2(gk268) III ; nlf-1(tm3631) X ; yakEx141[Psra-11::grk-2 cDNA::tbb-2 3'UTR::OPERON::GFP::H2B,*

Pnmr-1::grk-2 cDNA:: tbb-2 3'UTR::OPERON::GFP::H2B, Pmyo-2::mCherry]

XZ2089: *grk-2(gk268) III ; yakEx149[Pceh-24::grk-2 cDNA::tbb-2 3'UTR::OPERON::GFP::H2B, Pmyo-2::mCherry]*

XZ2090: *grk-2(gk268) III ; dop-3(vs106) X ; yakEx130[Pgrk-2::dop-3 cDNA::GFP, Pmyo-2::mCherry]*

XZ2091: *egl-30(tg26) I ; grk-2(gk268) III ; dop-3(vs106) X ; yakEx109[Pacr-2::dop-3 cDNA::tbb-2 3'UTR::OPERON::GFP::H2B, Pmyo-2::mCherry]*

XZ2095: *otIs534[Pcho-1^{fosmid}::SL2::YFP::H2B] ; yakIs19[Pgrk-2::grk-2 cDNA::tagRFP]*

S2 Table. List of plasmids

<u>Gateway destination vectors</u>

pCFJ150   Gateway destination vector for insertion at chr II Mos site *ttTi5605*

<u>Gateway entry clones</u>

GL29   *Psra-11* [4-1] (4922 bp of the *sra-11* promoter upstream of the ATG)

pADA180   *Punc-17H* [4-1] (derived from the *unc-17* promoter of pGH1, carrying a 127 bp

                 deletion that removes the nerve cord β enhancer, expressed in head

                 acetylcholine neurons)

p_C06E1.4_93   *Pglr-1* [4-1] (from Open Biosystems) (727 bp of the *glr-1* promoter upstream of

                 and including the ATG)

pCFJ31   *Pacr-2* [4-1] (3362 bp of the *acr-2* promoter upstream of the ATG)

pCFJ326   *tbb-2 3'UTR*::OPERON::GFP::H2B [2-3]

pCR185   GFP::*unc-54* 3'UTR [2-3]

pEGB05   *Prab-3* [4-1] (1210 bp of the *rab-3* promoter upstream of the ATG)

pET68   *grk-2* cDNA [1-2]

pET85   *Posm-6* [4-1] (2400 bp of the *osm-6* promoter upstream of the ATG)

pET89   *Pgrk-2* [4-1] (2895 bp of the *grk-2* promoter upstream of the ATG)

pET108   *Pxbx-1* [4-1] (373 bp of the *xbx-1* promoter upstream of the ATG)

pET134   *goa-1*[Q205L] cDNA [1-2]

pET139   *dop-3* cDNA with stop codon [1-2]

pET181   *dop-3* cDNA without stop codon [1-2]

pET185   *Pcho-1*(3.3-2.6) [4-1] (fragment of the *cho-1* promoter from 3300 bp to

              2600 bp upstream of the ATG)

pET186   *Pceh-24* [4-1] (3013 bp of the *ceh-24* promoter upstream of the ATG)

pET196   *Pttx-3* [4-1] (414 bp fragment of the *ttx-3* genomic region starting from

              the second exon and including the AIY motif that directs expression only

              in AIY)

pGH1   *Punc-17* [4-1] (3229 bp of the *unc-17* promoter upstream of and including the

              ATG)

pGH107   tagRFP::*let-858* 3'UTR [2-3]

pMA102   *Pnmr-1* [4-1] (4709 bp of the *nmr-1* promoter upstream of the ATG)

Gateway expression constructs

pET79   *Prab-3::grk-2 cDNA::tbb-2 3'UTR*::OPERON::GFP::H2B_pCFJ150

pET81   *Punc-17::grk-2 cDNA::tbb-2 3'UTR*::OPERON::GFP::H2B_pCFJ150

pET82   *Punc-17H::grk-2 cDNA::tbb-2 3'UTR*::OPERON::GFP::H2B_pCFJ150

pET83   *Pacr-2::grk-2 cDNA::tbb-2 3'UTR*::OPERON::GFP::H2B_pCFJ150

pET86   *Posm-6::grk-2 cDNA::tbb-2 3'UTR*::OPERON::GFP::H2B_pCFJ150

pET88   *Pglr-1::grk-2 cDNA::tbb-2 3'UTR*::OPERON::GFP::H2B_pCFJ150

pET90   *Pgrk-2::grk-2 cDNA*::GFP_pCFJ150

pET91   *Pgrk-2::grk-2 cDNA*::tagRFP_pCFJ150

pET93   *Punc-17H::eGFP::let-858 3'UTR*_pCFJ150

pET109   *Pxbx-1::grk-2 cDNA::tbb-2 3'UTR*::OPERON::GFP::H2B_pCFJ150

pET119   *Pnmr-1::grk-2 cDNA::tbb-2 3'UTR*::OPERON::GFP::H2B_pCFJ150

pET135   *Punc-17H::GOA-1[Q205L]::tbb-2 3'UTR*::OPERON::GFP::H2B_pCFJ150

pET140   *Prab-3::dop-3 cDNA::tbb-2 3'UTR*::OPERON::GFP::H2B_pCFJ150

pET141   *Pacr-2::dop-3 cDNA::tbb-2 3'UTR*::OPERON::GFP::H2B_pCFJ150

pET142   *Punc-17::dop-3 cDNA::tbb-2 3'UTR*::OPERON::GFP::H2B_pCFJ150

pET143   *Punc-17H::dop-3 cDNA::tbb-2 3'UTR*::OPERON::GFP::H2B_pCFJ150

pET184   *Pgrk-2::dop-3 cDNA*::GFP_pCFJ150

pET190   *Pceh-24::grk-2 cDNA::tbb-2 3'UTR*::OPERON::GFP::H2B_pCFJ150

pET191   *Pcho-1(3.3-2.6)::grk-2 cDNA::tbb-2 3'UTR*::OPERON::GFP::H2B_pCFJ150

pET197   *Pttx-3::grk-2 cDNA::tbb-2* 3'UTR::OPERON-GFP::H2B_pCFJ150

pET209   *Pnmr-1::dop-3 cDNA::tbb-2 3'UTR*::OPERON::GFP::H2B_pCFJ150

pET214   *Psra-11::grk-2 cDNA::tbb-2 3'UTR*::OPERON::GFP::H2B_pCFJ150

pET215   *Psra-11::dop-3 cDNA::tbb-2 3'UTR*::OPERON::GFP::H2B_pCFJ150

Plasmids used for the GRK-2 structure-function analysis: from Wood et al., 2012.

pFG45   *Pgrk-2::*GRK-2

pFG46   *Pgrk-2::*GRK-2[D3K]

pFG47   *Pgrk-2::*GRK-2[L4K]

pFG48   *Pgrk-2::*GRK-2[V7A/L8A]

pFG49   *Pgrk-2::*GRK-2[D10A]

pFG84   *Pgrk-2::*GRK-2[R195A]

pFG85   *Pgrk-2::*GRK-2[R106A]

pFG86   *Pgrk-2*::GRK-2[Y109I]

pFG87   *Pgrk-2*::GRK-2[D110A]

pFG88   *Pgrk-2*::GRK-2[K220R]

pFG89   *Pgrk-2*::GRK-2[K567E]

pFG90   *Pgrk-2*::GRK-2[R587Q]