**An Hourglass Circuit Motif Transforms a Motor Program**

**via Subcellularly Localized Calcium Signaling in Muscle**

**Steven R. Sando[1], Nikhil Bhatla[1,2,3], Eugene L. Q. Lee[1,3],**

**H. Robert Horvitz[1,*]**

[1]Howard Hughes Medical Institute, Department of Biology, McGovern Institute for Brain

Research, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Cambridge, MA, 02139, USA

[2]Miller Institute, Helen Wills Neuroscience Institute, Department of Molecular and

Cellular Biology, University of California, Berkeley, Berkeley, 94720, USA

[3]Department of Brain and Cognitive Sciences, Massachusetts Institute of Technology,

Cambridge, MA, 02139, USA

*Correspondence: horvitz@mit.edu

Draft 5/30/2020

## Abstract

Neural control of muscle function is fundamental to animal behavior. In many cases, specific muscles can generate multiple distinct behaviors. Nonetheless, individual muscle cells are generally regarded as the smallest units of motor control. Here we report that muscle cells can alter their behavioral output by contracting subcellularly. We previously discovered that noxious tastes reverse the flow of material through the *C. elegans* pharynx, a neuromuscular pump, resulting in spitting. We now show that spitting is driven by the contraction of subcellular regions of individual muscle cells. Localized calcium signals accompany these contractions. Spitting is controlled by an "hourglass" circuit motif: parallel neural pathways converge onto a single motor neuron that differentially controls multiple muscles and the critical subcellular muscle compartment. In short, we find that subcellular muscle units enable modulatory motor control and propose that subcellular muscle contraction is a fundamental mechanism by which neurons can reshape motor function.

**Introduction**

How animal nervous systems differentially control muscle function to generate the variety of flexible, context-appropriate behaviors necessary for survival and reproduction is a fundamental problem in neuroscience. In many cases, distinct behaviors must be performed using the same muscle or set of muscles. For example, the muscles of the human jaw and tongue control both feeding and speech, while the *Drosophila* wing muscles produce both flight and song (O'Sullivan *et al.*, 2018). Neurons can elicit such different outcomes by altering the amplitudes and relative timing of muscle motions (Briggman and Kristan, 2008; Marder and Calabrese, 1996) or, in principle, by evoking entirely distinct modes of muscle function, with distinct spatial contraction parameters.

We are analyzing the neuromuscular control of behavior using the *C. elegans* feeding organ, the pharynx, as a model neuromuscular system. The pharynx (Figure 1A) is a neuromuscular pump that contracts rhythmically ("pumps") to generate the suction that ingests bacterial food (Avery and You, 2012). The pharynx contains 14 classes of neurons (20 neurons in total), 8 classes of muscles (20 muscles in total), 4 glands, and 16 structural cells, and the connectome of these cells has been completely described (Albertson and Thomson, 1976; Cook *et al.*, 2019).

Behavioral functions are known for 9 of the 14 pharyngeal neuron classes (15 of the 20 total neurons). The two M2 neurons, single M4, and two MC neurons promote pumping and/or ingestion (Avery and Horvitz, 1987, 1989; Trojanowski *et al.*, 2014); the two M3 and single I5 neurons regulate the timing of muscle relaxation (Avery, 1993); the

two I2 neurons inhibit pumping (Bhatla and Horvitz, 2015); the two I1 neurons promote

or inhibit pumping dependent on context (Dent *et al*., 2000; Trojanowski *et al*., 2014;

Bhatla *et al*., 2015); the two NSM neurons regulate locomotion and feeding in response

to food or food-related odors (Sawin *et al*., 2000; Li *et al*., 2012; Flavell *et al*., 2013;

Rhoades *et al*., 2019); and, as described in more detail below, the single M1 neuron

controls spitting behavior (Bhatla *et al*., 2015).

We previously found that short-wavelength violet or ultraviolet (UV) light inhibits

*C. elegans* feeding behavior and that this modulation likely is mediated by light-

generated reactive oxygen species (ROS) and thus reflects a response to noxious taste

stimuli (Bhatla and Horvitz, 2015). Consistent with this hypothesis, the same genes and

neurons required for light-induced feeding inhibition are also required for the inhibition of

feeding by the ROS hydrogen peroxide ($H_2O_2$) (Bhatla and Horvitz, 2015). Because we

and others have found that light and ROS act similarly to elicit behavioral responses

(Hill and Schaefer, 2009; Kim *et al*., 2013b; Kim and Johnson, 2014; Guntur *et al*., 2015;

Du *et al*., 2016; Arenas *et al*., 2017; Birkholz and Beane, 2017; Guntur *et al*., 2017), and

because of the high precision with which light can be controlled as an experimental

stimulus, we are using light as a tool to analyze how the neuromusculature of the

pharynx produces behavioral responses to noxious taste stimuli such as $H_2O_2$.

We found that upon exposure to short-wavelength light, pharyngeal pumping

rapidly stops ("acute inhibition") and then transiently resumes ("burst pumping"; Figure

1B). After the removal of light, the pumping rate is depressed and slowly recovers

("recovery") to the 4-5 Hz of normal feeding over about a minute (Bhatla and Horvitz,

2015). Our previous studies implicated four classes of pharyngeal neurons in the

pumping response to light (Bhatla and Horvitz, 2015; Bhatla *et al.*, 2015). Light inhibits

pumping by altering the activity of the I1, I2, and MC neurons. Subsequently, the M1

motor neuron promotes the burst pumping phase, during which the flow of material

through the anterior pharynx is reversed, producing a spitting behavior that ejects

ingested material from the pharynx.

We now report that light transforms feeding pumps into spitting pumps -- i.e.

reverses the direction in which material is driven by pharyngeal pumping -- by inducing

sustained contractions of subcellular regions of individual muscle cells, the three pm3

pharyngeal muscle cells. Spatially restricted calcium signals are localized to the regions

of pharyngeal muscle undergoing contraction and are controlled by the M1 neuron. M1

sits at the waist of an "hourglass" circuit motif, in which multiple upstream sensory

neurons converge on M1, which in turn makes divergent outputs onto multiple muscle

classes that control distinct subcomponents of the spitting reflex. Weak activation of M1

via a subset of upstream neurons can evoke a subset of M1's motor outputs, producing

an attenuated variant of spitting and showing how graded neuronal activation can

produce context-appropriate variations of a core behavior. Together, our results provide

an example of how muscle function can be modulated at a subcellular level to produce

flexible, contextual behavior and identifies subcellularly localized calcium as a

mechanistic basis of such modulation.

**Results**

**Worms Spit as a Consequence of the Sustained Contraction of Anterior Pharyngeal Muscles**

We previously defined burst pumping as the transient increase in pumping rate that follows acute light-induced pumping inhibition (Figure 1B) (Bhatla and Horvitz, 2015). Because 365 nm (UV) light evokes burst pumping most robustly (Bhatla and Horvitz, 2015), we used this wavelength in the experiments described below. We further characterized the burst pumping phase and observed that there are three alterations to pharyngeal function that occur during burst pumping: (a) pumping rate increases; (b) a valve that closes to capture food during feeding instead remains open, causing pharyngeal pumps to conclude in the spitting of pharyngeal contents; and (c) a filter that otherwise restricts particle influx opens, facilitating the rinsing of the pharyngeal lumen.

In this work, we first confirmed that pumping rate increases during burst pumping, as reported previously (Bhatla and Horvitz, 2015). We scored pumping in the burst pumping phase in real time by eye, using the assay validated by Bhatla and Horvitz (2015) and based on the rate of contraction of the grinder ("grinder pumps"), a readily-observed cuticular structure in the terminal bulb (Figure 1A and 1B).

We next confirmed and extended the previous observation that worms spit during the burst pumping phase (Bhatla *et al*., 2015). We distinguished feeding and spitting pumps by recording high-speed videos of worms feeding on a mixture of *E. coli*

bacterial food and comparably-sized 1 μm polystyrene beads (Fang-Yen *et al.*, 2009;

Bhatla *et al.*, 2015). We designated pumps that trapped ingested material in the anterior

pharynx as feeding pumps (Video 1) and pumps that failed to trap material as spitting

pumps (Video 2; Figure 1C). We previously found that violet light (436 nm) induces

spitting (Bhatla *et al.*, 2015) and replicated this result using UV light (365 nm) (Figure

1C-1E). Consistent with the hypothesis that the response to light reflects a response to

light-generated ROS, the odor of $H_2O_2$ also induced spitting (Figure 1—figure

supplement 1A).

We then identified the biomechanical mechanism by which particle flow is

reversed to produce spitting. In feeding, contraction of the pharyngeal muscles opens

the lumen of the pharynx, generating suction and drawing food and fluid inwards. Two

cuticular structures project from pharyngeal muscle into the lumen of the anterior

pharynx and buccal cavity: the metastomal flaps and the pharyngeal valve (Figure 1A)

(Albertson and Thomson, 1976). The metastomal flaps were previously shown to limit

the size and flow of particles that enter the pharyngeal lumen from the buccal cavity

(Fang-Yen *et al.*, 2009). For this reason, we will refer to the metastomal flaps as the

"metastomal filter." The pharyngeal valve is located immediately posterior to the filter

and prevents the escape of ingested particles from the pharyngeal lumen to the buccal

cavity: prior to the onset of pharyngeal muscle relaxation, the pharyngeal valve closes,

sealing the anterior end of the lumen to retain bacteria while fluid is released via

channels that border the lumen (Fang-Yen *et al.*, 2009). Given the importance of the

pharyngeal valve in feeding, we hypothesized that spitting involves a modulation of the

motions of this structure. We recorded videos of animals feeding and spitting under a

coverslip such that the anterior pharyngeal muscles and lumen were clearly visualized.

As reported previously (Fang-Yen *et al*., 2009), feeding pumps involved the closure of

the pharyngeal valve, thus trapping food (Figure 1F; Video 3). By contrast, spitting

pumps were characterized by a strikingly different motion: rather than relaxing and

closing at each pump's conclusion, the anterior tip of the pharynx remained contracted -

- i.e., open -- throughout the pumping cycle (Figure 1F; Video 4). This sustained

contraction prevented the pharyngeal valve from closing and capturing food at the end

of the pump, such that closure of the lumen expelled the pharyngeal contents. These

open-valve pumping motions occurred specifically during the burst pumping phase,

confirming that they are specific to spitting (Figure 1—figure supplement 1B and 1C).

Finally, a third aspect of pharyngeal behavior was altered by light in the burst

pumping phase. As reported previously (Fang-Yen *et al*., 2009), the metastomal filter

was typically partially closed during feeding, such that material accumulated in the

buccal cavity and filtered only gradually into the pharynx (Figure 1C and 1G; Video 1).

We observed that during spitting, however, material moved freely from the buccal cavity

into the pharynx (Video 2), indicating that the metastomal filter opened during spitting

(Figure 1C, 1G). Thus, in combination with the opening of the pharyngeal valve, this

opening of the metastomal filter produced a rinsing effect, in which large amounts of

material were drawn into and then expelled from the pharynx.

Although the metastomal filter was typically partially closed during feeding, we

noticed that the filter was open during an average of up to 25% of feeding pumps

(Figure 1G, Video 5). Because opening the filter significantly increased the amount of

material ingested during these pumps, we designated such pumps as "gulps".

In summary, we found that the spitting reflex is characterized by three changes to

pharyngeal behavior: (a) the pumping rate increases; (b) the pharyngeal valve remains

open instead of closing, producing spitting; and (c) the metastomal filter opens,

increasing the volume of material rinsed in and out with each pump. These changes

transform the pharyngeal motor program from one that promotes feeding into one that

promotes spitting from and rinsing of the procorpus (Figure 1A and 1H).

**Subcellularly Localized Muscle Contractions and Calcium Increases Open the**

**Pharyngeal Valve to Produce Spitting**

We next asked which muscles control the light-induced spitting reflex. The anterior

pharynx contains three pharyngeal muscle classes: pm1, pm2, and pm3 (Figure 2A).

pm1 is a single hexanucleate cell, while the pm2 and pm3 classes consist of three

binucleate cells each. The pm1 and pm2 muscles, small cells of unknown function, form

a ring around the anterior opening of the pharynx. The metastomal filter protrudes from

this ring into the buccal cavity (Figure 2A) such that contraction of the radially arranged

myofilaments of the pm1 and/or pm2 muscles would be expected to pull the filter open

and thus expand the aperture of the anterior pharynx. The pm3 muscles make up the

remainder of the musculature of the procorpus, and the pharyngeal valve protrudes

from their anterior ends. Because the filter and valve are held open in spitting, we

hypothesized that spitting involves the sustained contraction of some or all of pm1, pm2,

and/or the anterior end of pm3.

We sought to determine the roles of these muscles in spitting. Because ablation

of the pm3s results in lethality (Leon Avery, personal communication, March 2020), we

laser-killed the pm1 and pm2 muscles singly and in combination to determine what, if

any, function they have in spitting. Laser ablation of pm1, the pm2s, or both classes

together did not eliminate burst pumping or spitting (Figure 2B-2E), indicating that,

unexpectedly, the pm3s can suffice to open the pharyngeal valve and produce spitting.

In other words, the contraction of a subcellular region of the pm3 muscles must be

sufficient to open the valve. Specifically, the anterior regions of the pm3s underwent

sustained contraction while the rest of the muscles rhythmically contracted and relaxed

in animals in which the pm1 and pm2 muscles were ablated.

We were surprised to see the uncoupling of apparently separable subdomains --

the anterior end and the rest of the muscle cell -- within each of the pm3 muscle cells.

We then examined the physiological mechanism that produces these sustained and

spatially restricted muscle contractions in the pm3s. Given the central role of

intracellular calcium in initiating muscle contraction (Kuo and Ehrlich, 2015), we

expressed the calcium reporter GCaMP3 (Tian *et al*., 2009) in pharyngeal muscle and

imaged calcium changes in the pharynxes of immobilized animals (Kim *et al*., 2013a).

Immobilization inhibits pumping, and light stimulated pumping by immobilized animals

just as it does to produce burst pumping by free-moving animals. Light-stimulated

pumps were both dependent on the M1 neuron, which we previously showed to be

necessary for spitting (Bhatla *et al*., 2015), and resulted in the expulsion of previously

ingested mineral oil, as is the case for spitting by free-moving animals (Figure 2—figure

supplement 1A and data not shown).

When we stimulated pumps with light, we detected calcium increases across the

procorpus and the anterior and terminal bulbs, indicating that functional GCaMP was

present in these regions (Video 6, Figure 2F-2H). Interestingly, while calcium in most

pharyngeal regions rose and fell over the course of a pump, we observed sustained

calcium signals at the tip of the pharynx; these signals persisted continuously

throughout the pump cycle (Figure 2G). Additionally, during some trials this anterior

region responded with a sustained rise in calcium even when the rest of the pharynx did

not respond (Figure 2I). Consistent with previous reports (Kerr *et al*., 2000; Shimozono

*et al*., 2004), we did not observe spatially restricted calcium signals in the anterior

pharynx during feeding pumps stimulated with serotonin, indicating that these localized

calcium transients are specific to spitting (data not shown). The location and temporal

dynamics of the sustained calcium signals coincided precisely with the sustained

muscle contractions that we observed during spitting behavior, strongly suggesting that

they are part of the physiological mechanism driving subcellular contraction.

While the pm1 and pm2 muscles were not necessary for spitting, their ablation

altered other aspects of pharyngeal function. First, pm2-ablated animals were partially

defective in opening the metastomal filter, such that the filter was often closed during

spitting (Video 7, Figure 2J). Second, consistent with a previous observation (L. Avery

and C. Fang-Yen, personal communication, March 2020), ablation of pm1 eliminated

the metastomal filter (Figure 2—figure supplement 1B and 1C; data not shown). For this

reason, we were unable to determine whether pm1 is also involved in opening the filter.

However, because pm2-ablated animals were not completely defective in opening the

filter (Figure 2J) and pm1 is the only other muscle positioned to perform this function,

we think it likely that pm1 contributes to the opening of the filter as well.

Taken together, and consistent with the anatomy of the anterior pharynx, our

results indicate that the pm1, pm2, and pm3 muscles play specialized roles in

controlling pharyngeal particle flow: the pm2 and likely the pm1 muscles actively open

the metastomal filter, increasing the aperture size of the anterior lumen and thus

facilitating particle influx, while a subcellular anterior compartment of the pm3s opens

the pharyngeal valve via subcellular calcium signaling, thus producing spitting.

**Pharyngeally-Expressed Gustatory Receptor Orthologs *lite-1* and *gur-3* Play**

**Major and Minor Roles, Respectively, in the Light-Induced Spitting Reflex**

Previously described *C. elegans* locomotory and pharyngeal responses to light depend

on the gustatory receptor orthologs *lite-1* and/or *gur-3*, which are expressed in a number

of pharyngeal and extra-pharyngeal neurons (Edwards *et al*., 2008; Liu *et al*., 2010;

Bhatla and Horvitz, 2015). We asked if gustatory receptor orthologs similarly control the

light-induced spitting reflex. Burst pumping rate was wild-type in animals carrying null

alleles of *gur-3* (Bhatla and Horvitz, 2015) or its paralogs *egl-47/gur-1, gur-4,* and *gur-5*

(Figure 3A and Figure 3—figure supplement 1A-1D). *lite-1* null mutants (Edwards *et al*.,

2008) could not be tested directly, because they exhibit significant defects in light-

induced pumping inhibition (Bhatla and Horvitz, 2015) (Figure 3B and 3C).

To examine the role of *lite-1* in burst pumping, we tested *lite-1* mutants in an *eat-*

*2* mutant background. *eat-2* mutants are severely defective in feeding pumping (Raizen

*et al*., 1995) but not in burst pumping (Figure 3D). Thus, the burst pumping rate rises

above the slow *eat-2* feeding pumping rate and can be scored even in animals defective

in light-induced inhibition of feeding. We found that *lite-1* but not *gur-3* was required for

burst pumping in the *eat-2* background, a defect that was rescued by a wild-type copy of

*lite-1* (Figure 3D-3G). Thus, light-induced stimulation of pumping requires *lite-1* but not

*gur-3.*

These experiments established a role for *lite-1* in controlling burst pumping. To

determine directly whether *lite-1* and/or *gur-3* are required for spitting -- i.e., the opening

of the pharyngeal valve -- we assayed light-induced spitting in *lite-1* and *gur-3* single

mutants and *lite-1 gur-3* double mutants. Both *gur-3* and *lite-1* mutants exhibited less

spitting than controls, and *lite-1* mutants also displayed a dramatic reduction in peak

spiting rate compared to wild-type animals (Figure 3H-3J and 3N). More strikingly, *lite-1*

*gur-3* double mutants did not spit in response to light (Figure 3K). Rescue transgenes

expressing wild-type copies of either *lite-1* (Bhatla and Horvitz, 2015) or *gur-3* (this

study) restored light-induced spitting in *lite-1 gur-3* double mutants (Figure 3L-3N). *lite-1*

mutants were additionally defective in opening the metastomal filter (Figure 3O).

Although *gur-3* mutants also displayed qualitatively reduced opening of the filter, this

reduction was not statistically significant (Figure 3O). Together, these results indicate

that both *lite-1* and *gur-3* function in light-induced spitting and opening of the filter, with

*lite-1* likely playing a greater role.

Next we assayed the pharyngeal muscle calcium response to light in *lite-1* and

*gur-3* mutants. *gur-3* mutants resembled wild-type animals (Figure 3P), while *lite-1*

mutants were almost completely defective in the pharyngeal muscle calcium response

to light, except for a very weak, fast response (Figure 3Q). This fast response depended

on *gur-3*, as the response of *lite-1 gur-3* double mutants was completely defective

(Figure 3R). Thus, consistent with our behavioral observations, *lite-1* and *gur-3* function

redundantly in light-induced calcium increases in pharyngeal muscle, with *lite-1* playing

a major role and *gur-3* playing a minor role.

Taken together, these results indicate that *lite-1* and *gur-3* both contribute to

light-induced spitting. *lite-1* is necessary for the full response -- i.e., a robust increase in

pharyngeal muscle calcium, pumping rate increase, and opening of the pharyngeal

valve and metastomal filter -- while *gur-3* is sufficient in the absence of *lite-1* to produce

an attenuated response (weak activation of pharyngeal muscle, partial opening of the

valve, and opening of the filter).

**The M1 Pharyngeal Neuron Innervates the Pharyngeal Valve and Controls Light-**

**Induced Spitting**

The M1 pharyngeal neuron is the only major source of innervation of the pm1, pm2, and

pm3 muscles at the anterior tip of the pharynx (Albertson and Thomson, 1976), in the

same region as the metastomal filter, the pharyngeal valve, and the subcellular muscle

contractions we observed during spitting (Figure 4A), suggesting that M1 is the motor

neuron that controls spitting. We previously found that M1 is required for spitting

induced by violet light (Bhatla *et al.*, 2015). We first confirmed that M1 is also required

for spitting induced by UV light, which, as noted above, we used throughout this study to

induce spitting. We laser-killed M1 and also generated an M1 genetic-ablation strain in

which the mammalian caspase ICE (Cerretti *et al.*, 1992; Thornberry *et al.*, 1992; Zheng

*et al.*, 1999) is expressed under an M1-specific promoter. Both laser and genetic

ablation of M1 eliminated UV light-induced burst pumping and spitting (Figure 4B-4E

and Figure 4—figure supplement 1A-C), and genetic ablation of M1 eliminated burst

pumping in *eat-2* mutants (Figure 4—figure supplement 1D). Laser ablation of M1 also

eliminated the spatially restricted calcium signals in anterior pharyngeal muscles (Figure

4F), consistent with their being induced by M1. We could not directly determine whether

ablation of M1 altered the function of the metastomal filter, because M1-ablated animals

did not spit and rarely pumped in the presence of light (but see below). We conclude

that the M1 neuron is required for UV light-induced burst pumping, spitting, and muscle

calcium physiology.

We observed that the pumping rate of M1-ablated animals recovered significantly

more quickly than did controls after stimulation with light and that these pumps, in

contrast to typical pumps in which the procorpus and grinder contract together, were

characterized by contractions of the grinder but not the procorpus (Figure 4—figure

supplement 1E-1H). These observations suggest that in addition to controlling pumping

and spitting in the burst pumping phase, M1 also inhibits the grinder during the recovery

phase.

Given that light-induced spitting requires M1, we asked whether M1 is acutely

activated by light. We generated transgenic animals expressing the calcium reporter

GCaMP6s (Chen *et al*., 2013) in M1 and measured light-induced calcium changes. As

indicated by robust GCaMP6s fluorescence increases, light increased M1 somatic

calcium levels, consistent with an acute function for M1 in spitting (Figure 4G-4I, Video

8).

We next asked if *lite-1* and *gur-3* control M1's calcium response to light. *lite-1* is

expressed in M1 (Bhatla and Horvitz, 2015; Taylor *et al*., 2019). The *gur-3* expression

pattern was first determined using extrachromosomal arrays expressing GFP under the

*gur-3* promoter (Bhatla and Horvitz, 2015) and subsequently examined using single-cell

transcriptomic analysis of the *C. elegans* nervous system (Taylor *et al*., 2019). Although

neither method detected *gur-3* expression in M1, when we integrated the previously-

generated extrachromosomal arrays into the genome we noted that, in addition to being

expressed in the I2 and I4 neurons as reported previously (Bhatla and Horvitz, 2015),

the stably integrated *gur-3$_{promoter}$::GFP* transgene was also expressed in M1 and

another pharyngeal neuron, MI (Figure 3—figure supplement 1E and 1F), consistent

with a function for both *lite-1* and *gur-3* in M1. As was the case with pharyngeal muscle

calcium increases, *lite-1* and *gur-3* were required for light-induced calcium increases in

the M1 soma (Figure 4J-4L, with *lite-1* and *gur-3* respectively playing major and minor

roles, indicating that the differential requirement for *lite-1* and *gur-3* in spitting occurs at

or upstream of M1's activation.

We then asked if M1 might be activated directly by light, as suggested by its

expression of *lite-1* and *gur-3*, or whether it instead is activated indirectly by input from

other light-sensitive neurons via synaptic, humoral (i.e., dense core vesicle), or gap

junction inputs. Synaptic and humoral dense-core vesicle signaling respectively require

*unc-13*, which encodes the *C. elegans* homolog of UNC13A (Maruyama and Brenner,

1991; Richmond *et al*., 1999, 2001), and *unc-31,* which encodes the *C. elegans*

homolog of CADPS/CAPS (Berwin *et al*., 1998), so we examined light-induced M1

calcium responses in these mutants. In both *unc-13(s69)* reduction-of-function mutants

(Richmond *et al*., 1999) -- null mutations are lethal (Kohn *et al*., 2000) -- and *unc-*

*31(u280)* presumptive null mutants (Speese *et al.*, 2007), M1's calcium response was

reduced in magnitude but still significant (Figure 4M-4P). These results indicate that M1

likely can function as a cellular photoreceptor but do not preclude the possibility that

M1's activation occurs through residual *unc-13* function, gap junctions, or a pathway in

which *unc-13* and *unc-31* function redundantly.

To determine whether acute activation of M1 is sufficient to produce spitting, we

expressed channelrhodopsin 2 (ChR2) (Nagel *et al.*, 2003; Boyden *et al.*, 2005) in M1.

Because the light used to activate ChR2 also activates the endogenous pharyngeal

response to light, we performed these experiments on *lite-1 gur-3* mutant animals.

While no *lite-1 gur-3* mutant animals grown in the absence of the essential ChR2

cofactor all-*trans* retinal (ATR) showed spitting behavior in response to stimulation with

470 nm blue light, 25% of animals grown with ATR did so when illuminated (Figure 4Q

and 4R). Thus, optogenetic activation of M1 can produce spitting behavior, although not

as efficiently as UV light does in the wild-type background.

Next, we asked what neurotransmitter or neurotransmitters M1 uses to activate

pharyngeal muscle. M1 expresses the cholinergic markers *unc-17* and *cha-1* (Franks *et*

*al.*, 2009; Taylor *et al.*, 2019), and consistent with a cholinergic function for M1 we found

that animals with loss-of-function mutations in genes required for signaling by

acetylcholine (ACh) but not by other neurotransmitters were severely defective in burst

pumping, as were *ric-1* mutants, which are defective in nicotinic ACh receptor

maturation (Halevi *et al.*, 2002) (Figure 4—figure supplement 1I-1R).

We assayed the burst pumping behavior of 36 strains, each carrying mutations in

one of 36 of the 37 known *C. elegans* ACh receptors (null mutation in the 37th receptor,

*acr-9*, results in lethality) (The *C. elegans* Deletion Mutant Consortium, 2012). While

several strains showed modest defects, none was strikingly defective, suggesting that

multiple acetylcholine receptors function redundantly downstream of M1 (Figure 4—

figure supplement 2A-2P').

Together these observations confirmed and extended our previous finding that

M1 is necessary for spitting, additionally showing that it controls spatially-restricted

muscle calcium signals, that it is acutely activated by light, and that its activation can

suffice for spitting.

**The *gur-3*-Expressing I2 and I4 Neurons Can Weakly Activate M1 to Open the**

**Metastomal Filter and Pharyngeal Valve Without Increasing Pumping Rate**

The M1 neuron's expression of *lite-1* and *gur-3* suggests that M1 is a likely site of action

of *lite-1* and *gur-3* in the spitting response to light. However, *unc-13* and *unc-31* mutants

were significantly reduced in M1 activation (Figure 4M-4P), consistent with the

possibility that other *lite-1* and/or *gur-3* neurons provide stimulatory inputs to M1.

To identify additional light-sensing neurons upstream of M1, we first focused on

pharyngeal neurons known to express *gur-3*. The pharyngeal I2 neurons express *gur-3*

and control light-induced pumping inhibition (Bhatla and Horvitz, 2015). Since the I2s

form electrical and chemical synapses with the M1 neuron (Albertson and Thomson,

1976), we tested the hypothesis that they provide functional inputs to M1 for the

induction of spitting by expressing a wild-type copy of *gur-3* under an I2-specific

promoter (Bhatla and Horvitz, 2015) in *lite-1 gur-3* double mutants. I2-specific rescue of

*gur-3* restored robust light-induced spitting, opening of the metastomal filter, and weak

M1 calcium increases to *lite-1 gur-3* double mutants, indicating that light can activate

M1 via *gur-3* function in the I2 neurons (Figure 5A-D). Laser ablation of M1 suppressed

this *gur-3*-dependent spitting and opening of the metastomal filter (Figure 5E-5G),

showing that the I2 neurons act via (or possibly in parallel to) M1 to induce spits and

open the filter.

Since the I2 neurons can strongly stimulate spitting, we next asked if they could

increase pumping rates in slow-pumping *eat-2* mutants. Light did not increase the

pumping rate of *eat-2; lite-1 gur-3; I2$_{promoter}$::gur-3(+)* animals (Figure 5H). Thus, while

the I2 neurons can activate M1 and thereby open the pharyngeal valve and metastomal

filter, they are unable to activate M1 sufficiently strongly to drive pumping rate

increases. This finding is consistent with our calcium imaging results indicating the I2

neurons can activate M1 only weakly (Figure 5D) and with our observation that *lite-1,*

but not *gur-3,* is required for burst pumping (Figure 3D-3G).

Because prior work showed that the I2s inhibit pumping in response to light

(Bhatla and Horvitz, 2015), we were initially surprised to see that *lite-1 gur-3*;

*I2$_{promoter}$::gur-3(+)* animals inhibited pumping only weakly (Figure 5E). Interestingly, after

we ablated M1 in these animals, we observed robust light-induced pumping inhibition

(Figure 5E, 5F, and 5I). This finding suggests that the I2 neurons' stimulatory effect on

M1 outweighs their inhibitory effect on pharyngeal muscle. Initially, it seemed

paradoxical that the I2s would function in this manner. However, when we compared the

rate of feeding pumps (i.e., pumps that capture food) in M1- and mock-ablated *lite-1*

*gur-3; I2promoter::gur-3* animals, it became clear that the I2s' activation of M1 actually

serves to reduce the overall feeding rate, because activating M1 eliminates feeding

pumps by turning them into spits (Figure 5J). Thus, rather than simply acting as

nonspecific inhibitors of the rates of both feeding and spitting pumps, the I2s specifically

function to reduce food intake via two mechanisms: direct inhibition of feeding by

hyperpolarizing pharyngeal muscles (Bhatla and Horvitz, 2015; Bhatla *et al.*, 2015) and

indirect conversion of feeding pumps into spits by activating M1 (Figure 5K).

We used an I2-specific genetic-ablation transgene (Bhatla and Horvitz, 2015) to

kill the I2 neurons in wild-type and *lite-1* genetic backgrounds. Spitting persisted after

ablation of the I2 neurons in both cases (Figure 5L and 5M), confirming that the I2

neurons are not necessary for spitting. Thus, *gur-3*-expressing neurons other than the

I2 neurons can promote spitting.

*gur-3* is also expressed in the pharyngeal I4 neuron (Figure 6A), which is of

unknown function. I4 is activated by light (Bhatla and Horvitz, 2015) and synapses onto

M1 (Albertson and Thomson, 1976). To determine if I4 contributes to M1's *gur-3*-

dependent activation by light, we laser-killed the I2s and I4 of *lite-1* mutants singly and

in combination and assayed spitting behavior. While *lite-1* animals in which either the

I2s or I4 were ablated alone exhibited spitting behavior in response to light, I4 ablation

significantly reduced the spitting of *lite-1* I2-ablated animals such that I2/I4 double-

ablated animals exhibited significantly delayed spitting (Figure 6B-6F), suggesting that

the I2 and I4 neurons are required redundantly for rapid light-induced spitting.

Consistent with the I2s and I4 acting together to promote activation of M1, we detected

small light-induced M1 calcium increases in mock-, I2-, and I4-ablated *lite-1* animals but

not in I2/I4 double-ablated *lite-1* animals (Figure 6G). I2-, I4-, and I2/I4-ablated animals

seemed to open the metastomal filter slightly less often than did mock-ablated controls,

but this small difference was not statistically significant (Figure 6H). We noticed that *lite-*

*1*; I4-ablated animals (Figure 6D) appeared to inhibit pumping more strongly than did

*lite-1;* mock-ablated animals (Figure 6B) and that this inhibition depended on the I2s

(Figure 6C). Thus, it is possible that I4 regulates the I2s' inhibition of pumping. Similarly,

the inhibition of *lite-1* I4-ablated animals (Figure 6D) was also much stronger than that

of *lite-1 gur-3; I2$_{promoter}$::gur-3(+)* animals (Figure 5B and 5E), suggesting that *gur-3*

functions in neurons other than the I2s and I4 to regulate the balance between

excitation and inhibition of pumping. Finally, these results are also consistent with *gur-*

*3'*s functioning in another upstream neuron that acts via I4, rather than in I4 itself. In

short, our ablation data suggest but do not prove that I4 can promote spitting.

To verify that the spitting we observed in these experiments was M1-dependent,

we killed M1 in combination with the I2 and I4 neurons of *lite-1* mutants. As expected,

ablation of M1 eliminated spitting in all conditions (Figure 6I-6M). Consistent with our

observation that I2 inhibits pumping in M1-ablated animals (Figure 5F), we found that

M1-, and M1/I4-ablated animals inhibited pumping in response to light and that triple-

ablated animals lacking M1, I2, and I4 were defective in pumping inhibition (Figure 66J,

6L-6N). Some M1/I2-ablated animals inhibited pumping in response to light, suggesting

that the I4 neuron might inhibit pumping in a manner similar to the I2 neurons, but this

effect was not statistically significant (Figure 6K and 6N).

Because ablating the I2 and I4 neurons together failed to completely eliminate

spitting, *gur-3* likely functions in one or more additional neurons. In addition to being

expressed in M1 and MI, *gur-3* is also expressed in the extra-pharyngeal AVD neurons.

Thus, these cells or others might be additional sites of residual *gur-3* function. In short,

at least the I2 and I4 neurons are required redundantly to inhibit pumping and promote

*gur-3-* and M1-dependent spitting.

**Discussion**

To understand how the nervous system adapts the output of a single set of muscles to a

changing environment, we analyzed the spitting reflex of the *C. elegans* pharynx. This

reflex comprises three parallel behavioral components: an increase in pumping rate, the

opening of the pharyngeal valve, and the opening of the metastomal filter. Opening the

pharyngeal valve permits the expulsion of ingested material, while opening the

metastomal filter allows the worm to flush in and out large amounts of fluid and particles

not previously in the pharynx, apparently rinsing its mouth in response to a bad taste

(Figure 7A). The pm2 and likely the pm1 pharyngeal muscles open the metastomal

filter, while a subcellular compartment of the pm3 muscles opens the pharyngeal valve,

transforming feeding motions into spitting motions. The pm3s make up the bulk of the

anterior pharynx, which pumps rhythmically during spitting. Opening of the pharyngeal

valve by the pm3s requires that a subcellular compartment at the anterior end of the

pm3s undergoes a sustained uncoupling from the rest of the cell and stay contracted.

Strikingly, the remaining posterior portion of each pm3 muscle cell continues to pump,

ejecting material. The subcellular contraction of the pm3s is accompanied by localized

increases in intracellular muscle calcium at the site of the pharyngeal valve. Spitting

behavior, opening of the metastomal filter, and muscle calcium physiology are

controlled by the M1 neuron, which directly innervates the pharyngeal muscles that

control the filter and valve. The gustatory-receptor orthologs *lite-1* and *gur-3* function

redundantly in the control of light-induced spitting: *lite-1* plays a major role and suffices

for nearly wild-type responses to light, while *gur-3* plays a smaller role and is sufficient

to partially open the valve and filter but not to increase pumping rate. *gur-3* functions in

the I2 pharyngeal neurons and likely also in the I4 neuron to evoke this attenuated

spitting response via the M1 neuron.

**Subcellular muscle units driven by neuronally regulated subcellularly localized**

**calcium signaling modulate motor behavior**

We identified a likely physiological effector for the subcellular muscle contraction of the

pm3s: calcium transients in pharyngeal muscle that colocalize with the specific muscle

region that undergoes sustained contraction during spitting and from which the

pharyngeal valve protrudes. We propose that these calcium transients are the drivers of

the subcellular muscle contraction of the pm3s.

Subcellularly localized calcium signaling in muscle has been observed in other

systems. Subcellular muscle calcium transients known as "calcium sparks" result from

calcium influx via individual ryanodine receptors (Cheng *et al*., 1993). These localized

calcium increases can trigger calcium-induced calcium release from the sarcoplasmic

reticulum, resulting in a wave of calcium release that drives excitation-contraction

coupling (Cheng *et al*., 1993; Kuo and Ehrlich, 2015). Calcium sparks also allow local

increases in intracellular calcium to drive nearby signaling events without elevating

global calcium levels (Nelson *et al*., 1995; Navedo *et al*., 2005; Nieves-Cintrón *et al*.,

2008).

Despite these examples of localized calcium in muscle in physiological settings,

how subcellular muscle calcium signaling contributes to behavior is poorly understood.

The *C. elegans* pm5 pharyngeal muscle cells function to swallow food from the anterior

pharynx to the terminal bulb via a peristaltic wave of subcellular contraction (Avery and

Horvitz, 1987), and subcellular calcium signals in the pm5s likely underlie swallowing

behavior (Shimozono *et al*., 2004; Kozlova *et al*., 2019). These transients have been

proposed to resemble calcium waves in cardiac muscle (Kozlova *et al*., 2019), a

phenomenon driven by the propagation of calcium-induced calcium release from

internal stores (Cheng *et al*., 1993). Subcellular signals have also been observed in

enteric muscles, which can contract peristaltically, but the functional significance of

these signals is unknown (Yamazawa and Iino, 2002). Our results identify a different

and novel role for subcellular muscle contraction and calcium signaling: sustained,

neuronally induced contraction of a stable, dedicated subcompartment of muscle, thus

modulating function and transforming one behavioral output into another. While calcium

sparks and *C. elegans* peristalsis behavior occur on a timescale of tens of milliseconds,

the contractions and calcium signals that we observed can last at least 10 seconds.

This timescale is more similar to that of calcium sparklets produced by L-type voltage-

gated calcium channels (Navedo *et al*., 2005). We propose that subcellular muscle

contraction via subcellular calcium signaling is a mechanism by which the nervous

system can modulate muscle function to alter motor outputs and so generate distinct

behaviors, and further suggest that *C. elegans* spitting behavior offers a system for the

analysis of the molecular bases of subcellular calcium signaling in muscle using a highly

genetically tractable organism.

**Independent control of the pharyngeal valve and metastomal filter generates four**

**distinct pumping behaviors**

We observed that, in addition to opening the pharyngeal valve, spitting worms open the

metastomal filter and that this opening depends in part on the pm2 muscles. This finding

suggests that in addition to passively filtering incoming material as reported previously

(Fang-Yen *et al*., 2009), the metastomal filter can be actively opened to allow

unrestricted entry of material into the pharynx. In the context of spitting pumps, opening

the filter permits new material to be rinsed in and out, while closing the filter allows

egestion without rinsing. We observed that the filter sometimes also opens during

feeding, producing "gulps" with greatly increased intake. Thus, the independent control

of the metastomal filter and pharyngeal valve produces four distinct pumping behavior

variants -- feeding, gulping, spitting with rinsing, and spitting without rinsing. Given that

M1 is the major source of innervation of the pm1 and pm2 muscles, from which the

metastomal filter protrudes (Albertson and Thomson, 1976), we think it likely that M1

can function in the production of gulps by opening the metastomal filter without

producing an accompanying contraction in the regions of pm3 that open the pharyngeal

valve. Such a behavior might allow enhanced consumption of certain preferred food or,

because it draws large amounts of material into the mouth, might allow the worm to

more efficiently sample the environment while foraging. The possibility that a single

neuron might control opposite behaviors (i.e., spitting and gulping) via the differential

activation of multiple downstream muscles and subcellular muscle compartments is

intriguing.

**The M1 neuron drives spitting from the waist of an hourglass circuit motif**

Our circuit studies show that the motor neuron M1 is a key regulator of spitting. We

speculate that in addition to controlling the muscles that produce spitting, M1 functions

as a central integrator of noxious taste information in the pharyngeal nervous system.

Several lines of evidence support this hypothesis. A recent analysis of the pharyngeal

connectome found that M1 exhibits a prominent and highly connected position in the

pharyngeal network (Cook *et al*., 2019), suggesting that M1 plays an important role in

network function. Second, M1 is particularly well-positioned to integrate noxious taste

stimuli, as it receives direct inputs from each of the other five *lite-1-* and/or *gur-3-*

expressing pharyngeal neurons (i.e., the paired I2 and single I4, M4, M5, and MI

neurons) (Albertson and Thomson, 1976; Bhatla and Horvitz, 2015). Consistent with this

reported connectivity, we found that two of these neuron classes, the I2s and I4,

contribute to M1's activation by light.  Third, it is likely that M1 is itself light- and ROS-

sensitive, as it expresses both *lite-1* (Bhatla and Horvitz, 2015) and *gur-3* (this study)

and we show here that it can respond robustly to light even when synaptic and humoral

inputs are substantially reduced or eliminated, respectively. For these reasons, we

propose that M1 sits at the narrow waist of an "hourglass" circuit motif (Figure 7B). In

this motif, multiple upstream parallel pathways converge on M1, which in turn makes

divergent outputs onto the multiple downstream muscle groups that control the discrete

motor outputs of the spitting reflex. Such an "hourglass" structure was recently

described in a theoretical analysis of the larger *C. elegans* non-pharyngeal nervous

system (Sabrin *et al*., 2020). We propose that the neuromuscular circuit we describe

here constitutes a miniature variation of an "hourglass" circuit organization.

**The magnitude of M1 activation by the I2 and I4 neurons evokes a distinct subset**

**of hourglass motor outputs**

We explored circuitry upstream of the M1 neuron and identified the I2 and I4 neurons as

likely sites of *gur-3* function in light-induced spitting. The I2s inhibit pumping in response

to light, and I4 was previously shown to be activated by light (Bhatla and Horvitz, 2015),

but no function for I4 had previously been reported. Because I4 expresses *gur-3* and

controls responses to light, we speculate that I4 is also a cellular receptor for light and

ROS. Interestingly, although the pharyngeal connectome and our data suggest that M1

acts as a bottleneck through which signals must pass to evoke spitting, the I2/I4 circuit

can selectively produce a subset of M1-dependent behaviors by weakly activating M1.

Weak *gur-3*-dependent stimulation of M1 is sufficient to open the pharyngeal valve and

metastomal filter, but not to increase pumping rates. Because UV light robustly activates

the I2s (Bhatla and Horvitz, 2015), the fact that the I2s activate M1 only weakly

suggests that their input to M1 is similarly weak. The weakness of this connection might

be a design feature of the pharyngeal nervous system, allowing strong activation of the

I2 neurons to be converted into weak activation of the M1 neuron, thereby producing an

attenuated variation of spitting. We speculate that I4 might function in a similar way, and

that the I2s and I4 serve as modules to trigger attenuated spitting, while input from other

cells and/or endogenous *lite-1* function in M1 produce spitting in a more robust manner,

enabling the pharyngeal nervous system to generate graded variations of the spitting

reflex and thus fine-tune its output to the environment. One problem that must be solved

by an hourglass circuit structure with one or a few cells in the bottleneck is how to

differentially evoke downstream outputs when all upstream inputs must be compressed

together at the hourglass waist. We suggest that the M1 spitting circuit illustrates a

simple solution to this problem: graded activation of M1 in the hourglass waist activates

progressively larger subsets of downstream outputs. Outputs of such a circuit can thus

be tuned by adjusting the magnitude of upstream inputs, allowing upstream neurons to

input additively if their connections to the bottleneck are equally weighted or to evoke a

subset of downstream outputs if they only weakly activate the bottleneck (as is the case

with the I2 neurons).

Previous studies showed that the I2s inhibit pumping and that M1 is required for

spitting (Bhatla and Horvitz, 2015; Bhatla *et al*., 2015). We found that in addition the I2s

can promote pumps (spitting pumps) and that M1 can inhibit pumping (it does so in the

recovery phase). Thus, each of these neuron classes can function in superficially

opposite ways in different contexts. Although it might seem counterproductive for a

given neuron to both promote and inhibit pumping, both of these outputs share the

effect of reducing food intake, since spitting pumps eject previously ingested food. We

suggest that these differentially timed inhibitory and excitatory neural inputs to

pharyngeal muscle allow the pharynx to generate a sequence of actions, first inhibiting

pumping and/or stimulating spitting to eject noxious material, then increasing pumping

rate and rinsing in the burst pumping phase if noxious stimulation continues, and finally

inhibiting all pumping, including spitting, as the animal flees the site of the noxious

encounter. Additionally, because spitting with an opened metastomal filter results in

rinsing new material into the pharynx, it might be maladaptive if spitting persists when

the animal is in a large region of noxious material; in this case, circuits promoting

inhibition on a longer timescale than spitting would serve to limit additional exposure to

noxious material.

More generally, we propose that subcellular muscle contraction mediated by

subcellularly localized muscle calcium signaling is a fundamental mechanism by which

nervous systems can reshape motor outputs and suggest that hourglass motifs might

function broadly in neuronal circuit organization for the production of complex adaptive

behavior in response to changing environments.

**Acknowledgments**

We thank N. An, R. Droste, S. Flavell, N. Ji, E. Jorgensen, R. Komuniecki, J. Meisel, S.

Mitani, M. Treinin, Addgene, and the *Caenorhabditis* Genetics Center, which is funded

by NIH Office of Research Infrastructure Programs (P40 OD010440), for strains and

reagents; and K. Boulias, V. Dwivedi, K. Burkhart, D. Ghosh, H. Johnsen, T. Littleton, J.

Meisel, C. Pender, P. Reddien, J. Saul, and Horvitz laboratory members for discussions

and advice.

**Competing interests:** The authors declare that no competing interests exist.

**Materials and methods**

*C. elegans* **strains and transgenes (listed in order of appearance):**

N2 (wild type)

CB1072 *unc-29(e1072)*

MT26279 *lin-15(n765ts); nIs507 [inx-4$_{promoter}$::GFP; lin-15(+)]*

MT23338 *nIs686 [gpa-16$_{promoter}$::gcamp3::unc-54 3' UTR; lin-15(+)] III; lin-15AB(n765ts)*

MT21783 *gur-3(ok2245)*

KG1180 *lite-1(ce314)*

MT21793 *lite-1(ce314) gur-3(ok2245)*

DA1113 *eat-2(ad1113)*

MT25982 *eat-2(ad1113); gur-3(ok2245)*

MT22899 *eat-2(ad1113); lite-1(ce314)*

MT25983 *eat-2(ad1113); lite-1(ce314) gur-3(ok2245)*

MT25999 *eat-2(ad1113); lite-1(ce314) gur-3(ok2245); nIs687 [lite-1$_{promoter}$::gfp::lite-1; lin-15(+)]*

MT25809 *lite-1(ce314) gur-3(ok2245) lin-15(n765ts); nEx2281 [lite-1$_{promoter}$::lite-1::gfp; lin-15(+)]*

MT25810 *lite-1(ce314) gur-3(ok2245) lin-15(n765ts); nEx2157 [gur-3 gDNA; lin-15(+)]*

MT23415 *nIs686 III; gur-3(ok2245) lin-15(n765ts)*

MT23417 *nIs686 III; lite-1(ce314) lin-15(n765ts)*

MT23370 *nIs686 III; lite-1(ce314) gur-3(ok2245) lin-15(n765ts)*

MT25631 *lin-15(n765ts); nIs864 [glr-2$_{promoter}$::gfp::unc-54 3' UTR; lin-15(+)]*

MT25732 *lin-15(n765ts); nIs864; nEx2905 [lury-1$_{promoter}$::ice::sl2::mcherry::unc-54 3'*

*UTR; ttx-3$_{promoter}$::mcherry]*

MT23192 *lin-15(n765ts); nIs678 [glr-2$_{promoter}$::gcamp6s::unc-54 3' UTR; lin-15(+)]*

MT23250 *gur-3(ok2245) lin-15(n765ts); nIs678*

MT23230 *lite-1(ce314) lin-15(n765ts); nIs678*

MT23369 *lite-1(ce314) gur-3(ok2245) lin-15(n765ts); nIs678*

MT23343 *unc-13(s69); lin-15(n765ts); nIs678*

MT23410 *unc-31(u280); lin-15(n765ts); nIs678*

MT25468 *lite-1(ce314) gur-3(ok2245) lin-15(n765ts); nEx2815 [lury-*

*1$_{promoter}$::chr2::sl2::mcherry::unc-54 3' UTR]*

MT23606 *lite-1(ce314) gur-3(ok2245) lin-15AB(n765ts); nEx2144 [flp-*

*15$_{promoter}$::mcherry::gur-3, lin-15(+)]*

MT23545 *lite-1(ce314) gur-3(ok2245) lin-15AB(n765ts); nIs678 ; nEx2144*

MT26001 *eat-2(ad1113); lite-1(ce314) gur-3(ok2245) nIs791 X [integrated transgene*

*derived from nEx2144: flp-15$_{promoter}$::mcherry::gur-3, lin-15(+)]*

MT21421 *nIs569 [flp-15$_{promoter}$::csp-1b; ges-1$_{promoter}$::gfp]*

MT21791 *lite-1(ce314) nIs569*

**Supplemental strains:**

MT2249 *egl-47(n1082dm)*

RB850 *egl-47(ok677)*

RB845 *gur-4(ok672)*

FX06169 *gur-5(tm6169)*

MT24110 *lin-15(n765ts); nIs780 [gur-3$_{promoter}$::gfp; lin-15(+)]*

MT25804 *oxIs322 [myo-2$_{promoter}$::mcherry::h2b; myo-3$_{promoter}$::mcherry::h2b] II ; nIs310*

*[nlp-13$_{promoter}$::gfp] V; nEx2905*

MT25950 *eat-2(ad1113); nIs865 [integrated transgene derived from nEx2905: lury-*

*1$_{promoter}$::ice::sl2::mcherry::unc-54 3' UTR; ttx-3$_{promoter}$::mcherry]*

CB933 *unc-17(e245)*

PR1152 *cha-1(p1152)*

RM509 *ric-3(md158)*

CB156 *unc-25(e156) dnj-17(ju1162)*

MT6308 *eat-4(ky5)*

CB1112 *cat-2(e1112)*

MT10661 *tdc-1(n3420)*

MT14984 *tph-1(n4622)*

MT15434 *tph-1(mg280)*

MT22280 *ser-4(ok512); mod-1(ok103); ser-1(ok345) ser-7(tm1325)*

CB211 *lev-1(e211)*

MT6637 *acr-2(n2595 n2420)*

RB1659 *acr-3(ok2049)*

TU1803 *deg-3(u662) des-2(u695)*

NC293 *acr-5(ok180)*

FX03723 *acr-6(tm3723)*

FX863 *acr-7(tm863)*

RB1195 *acr-8(ok1240)*

FX02515 *acr-10(tm2515)*

VC40816 *acr-11(gk827759)*

VC188 *acr-12(ok367)*

ZZ15 *lev-8/acr-13(x15)*

FX05819 *acr-14(tm5819)*

RB1172 *acr-15(ok1214)*

RB918 *acr-16(ok789)*

VC40773 *acr-17(gk804825)*

VC40487 *acr-17(gk661490)*

VC20403 *acr-18(gk324494)*

VC491 *acr-19(ok967)*

VC20325 *acr-20(gk161737)*

RB1250 *acr-21(ok1314)*

VC20417 *acr-23(gk231233)*

EG8095 *acr-23(ox429)*

RB2119 *acr-23(ok2804)*

VC20738 *acr-24(gk387895)*

VC40292 *acr-24(gk557791)*

MT21980 *deg-3(u773)*

CB904 *unc-38(e264)*

MT1512 *lev-7/unc-63(x13)*

FX03268 *acc-1(tm3268)*

VC40182 *acc-2(gk501637)*

VC1757 *acc-2(ok2216)*

FX03219 *acc-2(tm3219)*

FX03174 *acc-3(tm3174)*

CX12724 *acc-4(ok2371)*

MT22153 *lgc-40(tm3377)*

VC20746 *pbo-5(gk963058)*

RB1379 *pbo-6(ok1564)*

RB896 *gar-1(ok755)*

RB756 *gar-2(ok520)*

VC670 *gar-3(gk337)*

**Molecular biology**

Transgenes were generated by standard cloning methods. DNA sequences used in the

generation of transgenes were amplified with the primers indicated below.

Generated using the infusion cloning technique (Takara Bio, Mountain View, CA) and

injected as plasmids:

*nIs864 - pSS028 [glr-2$_{promoter}$::gfp::unc-54 3' UTR]*

*nEx2905 and nIs865 - pSS042 [lury-1$_{promoter}$::ice::sl2::mcherry::unc-54 3' UTR]*

*nEx2815 - pSS034 [lury-1$_{promoter}$::chr2::sl2::mcherry::unc-54 3' UTR]*

*glr-2$_{promoter}$*: TTGGGACAAATGTGGAAACGA,

TTCGCTTTTTACAGAGTTAACTCTGC

*lury-1$_{promoter}$*: TTCATTAAGTAATCCGTTTAGGGCAAAT,

GATTGGATTTTCTGGAATAATCGGGT

*ice*: ATGGCCGACAAGGTCCTGA,

TTAATGTCCTGGGAAGAGGTAGAAACATC

Generated and injected as PCR product:

*nIs686 - pcNB1 [gpa-16$_{promoter}$::gcamp3::unc-54 3' UTR]*

*nEx2157 – pcNB20 [gur-3$_{promoter}$::gur-3 gDNA::gur-3 3' UTR]*

*nIs678 - [glr-2$_{promoter}$::gcamp6s::unc-54 3' UTR]*

*gpa-16<sub>promoter</sub>*: ACCAACCTGAACAGCGAATC,

AAAGGGAATTTTATGTGAATAATATCG

*gur-3<sub>promoter</sub>::gur-3 gDNA::gur-3 3' UTR:* GCCTGATGGAACACACTTCCAAC

GTTTACCCCGTCTCTATTTCCGCTTTG

*gcamp6s*: ATGGGTTCTCATCATCATCATCATC,

GCCCGTACGGCCGACTAGTAGG

**Grinder Pumping Assay**

Previously, we used a xenon bulb (Till Photonics Polychrome V, 150 W; Thermo Fischer

Scientific, Waltham, MA) to deliver 365 nm UV light through an inverted microscope

(Axiovert S100; Zeiss, Oberkochen, Germany) to individual worms on an agar pad

(Bhatla and Horvitz, 2015). Because of the low throughput of this approach, we

designed a device to deliver 365 nm UV light to standard Petri dishes used for culturing

worms and used this apparatus to assay behavioral responses to 365 nm UV light as

described previously for 436 nm violet light (Bhatla and Horvitz, 2015). The apparatus

consists of a UV-light-emitting LED (M365F1; Thorlabs, Newton, NJ) coupled by a fiber-

optic cable to a collimating lens. The LED system delivers 365 nm UV light in a 3-4 mm

spot at a power of ~1.5mW/mm$^2$ to young (1-day post-L4) hermaphrodite adults moving

freely on a Petri dish, producing a burst pumping response indistinguishable from that

obtained previously (Bhatla and Horvitz, 2015). Custom Matlab software was used to

control the LED, and the contraction rate of the grinder before, during, and after

application of light was observed by eye via a dissecting microscope and manually

recorded via this software (Bhatla and Horvitz, 2015). All behavioral data were

visualized as described in (Bhatla and Horvitz, 2015; Bhatla *et al*., 2015). All behavioral

assays and imaging experiments were performed in the same location, at which

temperature averaged 19°C, with a standard deviation of 1.2°C.

**Pharyngeal transport assay**

Pharyngeal transport assays were performed as described previously (Bhatla *et al*.,

2015). To visualize the direction of flow in the pharynx during each pump, worms were

fed a 50% dilution of 1 μm polystyrene beads (Polysciences, Warrington, PA) in M9

buffer. Young (1-day post-L4) hermaphrodite adults were placed with bacteria on an

NGM agar pad on a coverslip and observed with a 20x objective on an inverted

microscope (Axiovert S100; Zeiss). Videos were recorded at 1000 frames per sec using

a high-speed video camera (Fastcam Mini; Photron, Tokyo, Japan). 365 nm UV light

(0.88-1.5 mW/mm$^2$) was presented to the worm for 10 sec (Till Photonics Polychrome V,

150 W xenon bulb; Thermo Fischer Scientific). Hydrogen peroxide was administered as

described previously (Bhatla and Horvitz, 2015). Videos were viewed and manually

annotated, using custom Matlab software, for specific behavioral events: ingestion

(beads being retained in the procorpus after procorpus relaxation), spitting (beads

flowing out of the procorpus), and pumping (movement of the grinder). In some cases,

the worm moved temporarily out of the focal plane of the microscope or field-of-view of

the camera. These unscorable frames were annotated as "missing" and excluded from

further analysis. The position of the metastomal filter was scored separately based on

whether beads passed freely through or accumulated in the buccal cavity during feeding

or spitting, and the fraction of feeding and spitting pumps with the filter open or closed

was calculated for the period before and during illumination. Animals with fewer than

five scorable pumps in a given 10 sec interval were censored from these analyses.

**Muscle motion visualization assay**

To visualize the timing of pharyngeal muscle motions during each pump, young (1-day

post-L4) hermaphrodite adults were placed with bacteria on an NGM agar pad

underneath a coverslip and observed with a 20x objective on an inverted microscope

(Axiovert S100; Zeiss ). Videos were recorded at 86 frames per sec using an EMCCD

camera (iXon$^+$; Andor, Belfast, United Kingdom). 365 nm UV light was presented to the

worm for 10 sec (Till Photonics Polychrome V, 150 W xenon bulb; Thermo Fischer

Scientific). Slow-moving *unc-29(e1072)* animals were filmed to facilitate video capture.

Videos were viewed and manually annotated based on whether the anterior tip of the

pharynx closed or remained open at the end of each pump.

**Laser ablations**

We used a pulsed nitrogen laser (MicroPoint; Andor) coupled to a compound

microscope (Axioplan; Zeiss) to conduct laser microsurgery of individual pharyngeal

neurons, as previously described (Fang-Yen *et al*., 2012). Briefly, worms were

immobilized using 10 mM sodium azide and mounted for viewing through a 100x oil

objective. Ablations were performed on hermaphrodite larvae of stages 1 or 2 (L1 or

L2), with cell nuclei identified by either Nomarski differential interference contrast optics

or cell-specific GFP reporters. Specifically, M1 was identified by Nomarski optics or by

the M1-expressed GFP reporter *nIs864*, which drives expression of GFP in M1 via the

*glr-2* promoter (Brockie *et al*., 2001), while pm1 was identified by GFP reporter *nIs507*,

which drives expression of GFP in pm1 via the *inx-4* promoter (Altun *et al*., 2009). The

pm2 muscles, the I2 and I4 neurons, and, in some experiments, the M1 neuron were

identified by Nomarski optics. Ablations were confirmed the following day by

appearance under Nomarski optics and/or by the loss of cell-specific fluorescence. On

day 3 or 4, adults were assayed for their response to light. Mock-ablated animals were

mounted alongside ablation animals and received identical treatments (i.e., observation

of nuclear morphology and/or GFP expression) at each step. Animals were allocated

into mock and ablation groups randomly.

**Genetic ablation**

M1 was ablated genetically by overexpressing the mammalian caspase ICE fused to an

*sl2::mcherry* sequence in M1 driven by the *lury-1* promoter (Ohno *et al*., 2017). For all

animals assayed, genetic ablation of M1 was confirmed beforehand using an M1-

specific GFP marker *(nIs864)*, which drives expression of GFP in M1 via the *glr-2*

promoter (Brockie *et al*., 2001). The *nEx2905* genetic ablation transgene also killed the

M2 neurons in approximately 50% of animals assayed (Figure S4A), as confirmed using

an M2-specific GFP marker (*nIs310*) (Luo and Horvitz, 2017). The *sl2::mcherry*

sequence used drove varying degrees of mCherry expression in pharyngeal muscle,

and we found that the brightness of this mCherry expression correlated with the rate of

M2-killing, such that selecting animals with dim pharyngeal mCherry expression

reduced the rate of M2-killing to 1-2% (Figure S4C). Animals assayed in Figure 4D and

4E were not selected in this way. We did not determine the rate of M1 or M2 killing in

*nIs865* animals.

**Optogenetic depolarization**

Optogenetic manipulations were performed as described previously (Bhatla *et al*.,

2015). Cultivation plates were seeded with 300 µL of OP50 *E. coli* mixed with 0.5 µL of

100 mM all-*trans* retinal (ATR+) or ethanol alone (ATR-) and stored in the dark.

Transgenic hermaphrodite worms carrying the channelrhodopsin 2 (*chr2*) coding

sequence (Nagel *et al*., 2003; Boyden *et al*., 2005) fused to a *sl2::mcherry* sequence

were cultivated on these plates in the dark from egg to adulthood. For behavioral

assays, one-day-old animals were analyzed as described above ('Pharyngeal Transport

Assay'), except that 470 nm light was used in the place of 365 nm UV light. *nEx2815*

*[lury-1<sub>promoter</sub>::chr2::sl2::mcherry::unc-54 3' UTR]* was expressed in both M1 and the M2s

driven by the *lury-1* promoter (Ohno *et al*., 2017). To avoid confounding optogenetic

activation of the M2s, we assayed only mosaic animals pre-selected for expression of

mCherry in M1 but not the M2s. Animals were allocated into ATR- and ATR+ groups

randomly.

**Calcium imaging**

Calcium imaging was performed as described previously (Bhatla and Horvitz, 2015).

Cellular calcium changes were monitored using either GCaMP3 (Tian *et al*., 2009)

expressed using the *nIs686* transgene in pharyngeal muscle driven by the *gpa-16*

promoter (Jansen *et al*., 1999) or GCaMP6s (Chen *et al*., 2013) expressed in M1 using

the *nIs678* transgene driven by the *glr-2* promoter (Brockie *et al*., 2001). Adult

hermaphrodite worms were immobilized using polystyrene beads on 10% agarose pads

under a coverslip (Kim *et al*., 2013a), and neurons were imaged using an inverted

microscope (Axiovert S100; Zeiss) with a 40x air objective. To stimulate animals with

UV light and image GCaMP fluorescence simultaneously, light was flickered between

365 nm UV and 485 nm light at a rate of 2 Hz. Behavioral spitting responses to flickered

365 nm / 485 nm light were indistinguishable from behavioral responses to 365 nm light

(not shown). Videos were recorded using an EMCCD camera (iXon$^+$; Andor) and

analyzed using custom Matlab software as described previously (Bhatla and Horvitz,

2015; Bhatla *et al*., 2015). The immobilized pumping assay described in Figure S2A

was performed under the same conditions described above for calcium imaging, with

the exception that animals were stimulated with only 485 nm light.

**Behavioral Statistics**

For all measurements, each animal was scored once. Biological replicates were

performed using separate populations of animals on different days and consisted of 20

animals unless indicated otherwise. Statistics for significance of differences between

fractions in metastomal filter analyses were calculated as follows. Fractions were log-

transformed, and any fractions with a numerator of zero were approximated to 0.1 prior

to transformation. Similar results were obtained by approximating numerators of zero

with 0.01. Log-transformed datasets were assessed for significance with an unpaired t-

test when a single pair of conditions was compared or unpaired ordinary one-way

ANOVA analysis when multiple conditions were compared. These analyses assumed

that log-transformed data followed a normal distribution with similar standard deviations.

Statistics for significance between average spitting rates were calculated as follows. For

each animal, the total number of spits observed during stimulation with light was divided

by the number of scorable frames in the light administration phase for that animal to

give the average pumping rate during light administration. Significance of differences

between groups was assessed by unpaired, ordinary one-way ANOVA analysis, with

the assumption that the data followed a Gaussian distribution with similar standard

deviations. Pumping inhibition was calculated by dividing the average pumping rate

during light stimulation (10 < t < 20) by the average pumping rate in the feeding phase

(0 < t <10). All statistics were calculated using Prism (GraphPad Software, San Diego,

CA).

**Author contributions**

SRS - Conceptualization, Methodology, Investigation, Resources, Formal analysis,

Validation, Writing (original draft), Writing (reviewing and editing), Visualization

NB - Conceptualization, Methodology, Investigation, Resources, Formal analysis,

Writing (reviewing and editing)

ELLQ - Formal analysis, Writing (reviewing and editing)

HRH - Conceptualization, Writing (reviewing and editing), Supervision, Funding

Acquisition

## References

Albertson, D.G., and Thomson, J.N. (1976). The pharynx of *Caenorhabditis elegans*. Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London. B, Biological Sciences *275*, 299–325.

Altun, Z.F., Chen, B., Wang, Z.W., and Hall, D.H. (2009). High resolution map of *Caenorhabditis elegans* gap junction proteins. Developmental Dynamics *238*, 1936–1950.

Arenas, O.M., Zaharieva, E.E., Para, A., Vásquez-Doorman, C., Petersen, C.P., and Gallio, M. (2017). Activation of planarian TRPA1 by reactive oxygen species reveals a conserved mechanism for animal nociception. Nat Neurosci *20*, 1686–1693.

Avery, L. (1993). Motor neuron M3 controls pharyngeal muscle relaxation timing in *Caenorhabditis elegans*. Journal of Experimental Biology *175*, 283–297.

Avery, L., and Horvitz, H.R. (1987). A cell that dies during wild-type *C. elegans* development can function as a neuron in a *ced-3* mutant. Cell *51*, 1071–1078.

Avery, L., and Horvitz, H.R. (1989). Pharyngeal pumping continues after laser killing of the pharyngeal nervous system of *C. elegans*. Neuron *3*, 473–485.

Avery, L., and You, Y. (2012). *C. elegans* feeding. WormBook, ed. The *C. elegans* Research Community, WormBook, doi/10.1895/wormbook.1.150.1, http://www.wormbook.org.

Berwin, B., Floor, E., and Martin, T.F.J. (1998). CAPS (mammalian UNC-31) protein localizes to membranes involved in dense-core vesicle exocytosis. Neuron *21*, 137–145.

Bhatla, N., and Horvitz, H.R. (2015). Light and hydrogen peroxide inhibit *C. elegans* feeding through gustatory receptor orthologs and pharyngeal neurons. Neuron *85*, 804–818.

Bhatla, N., Droste, R., Sando, S.R., Huang, A., and Horvitz, H.R. (2015). Distinct neural circuits control rhythm inhibition and spitting by the myogenic pharynx of *C. elegans*. Current Biology *25*, 2075–2089.

Birkholz, T.R., and Beane, W.S. (2017). The planarian TRPA1 homolog mediates extraocular behavioral responses to near-ultraviolet light. Journal of Experimental Biology *220*, 2616–2625.

Boyden, E.S., Zhang, F., Bamberg, E., Nagel, G., and Deisseroth, K. (2005). Millisecond-timescale, genetically targeted optical control of neural activity. Nat Neurosci *8*, 1263–1268.

Briggman, K.L., and Kristan, W.B. (2008). Multifunctional pattern-generating circuits. Annual Review of Neuroscience *31*, 271–294.

Brockie, P.J., Madsen, D.M., Zheng, Y., Mellem, J., and Maricq, A.V. (2001). Differential expression of glutamate receptor subunits in the nervous system of *Caenorhabditis elegans* and their regulation by the homeodomain protein UNC-42. J. Neurosci. *21*, 1510–1522.

Cerretti, D.P., Kozlosky, C.J., Mosley, B., Nelson, N., Ness, K.V., Greenstreet, T.A., March, C.J., Kronheim, Druck, T., Cannizzaro, L.A., *et al.* (1992). Molecular cloning of the interleukin-1 beta converting enzyme. Science *256*, 97–100.

Chen, T., Wardill, T.J., Sun, Y., Pulver, S.R., Renninger, S.L., Baohan, A., Schreiter, E.R., Kerr, R.A., Orger, M.B., Jayaraman, V., *et al.* (2013). Ultrasensitive fluorescent proteins for imaging neuronal activity. Nature *499*, 295–300.

Cheng, H., Lederer, W., and Cannell, M. (1993). Calcium sparks: elementary events underlying excitation-contraction coupling in heart muscle. Science *262*, 740–744.

Cook, S.J., Crouse, C.M., Yemini, E., Hall, D.H., Emmons, S.W., and Hobert, O. (2019). The connectome of the *Caenorhabditis elegans* pharynx. BioRxiv https://doi.org/10.1101/868513.

Dent, J.A., Smith, M.M., Vassilatis, D.K., and Avery, L. (2000). The genetics of ivermectin resistance in *Caenorhabditis elegans*. PNAS *97*, 2674–2679.

Du, E.J., Ahn, T.J., Wen, X., Seo, D.-W., Na, D.L., Kwon, J.Y., Choi, M., Kim, H., Cho, H., and Kang, K. (2016). Nucleophile sensitivity of *Drosophila* TRPA1 underlies light-induced feeding deterrence. eLife *5*, e18425.

Edwards, S.L., Charlie, N.K., Milfort, M.C., Brown, B.S., Gravlin, C.N., Knecht, J.E., and Miller, K.G. (2008). A novel molecular solution for ultraviolet light detection in *Caenorhabditis elegans*. PLOS Biology *6*, e198.

Fang-Yen, C., Avery, L., and Samuel, A.D.T. (2009). Two size-selective mechanisms specifically trap bacteria-sized food particles in *Caenorhabditis elegans*. PNAS *106*, 20093–20096.

Fang-Yen, C., Gabel, C.V., Samuel, A.D.T., Bargmann, C.I., and Avery, L. (2012). Laser microsurgery in *Caenorhabditis elegans*. In Methods in Cell Biology, (Elsevier), pp. 177–206.

Flavell, S.W., Pokala, N., Macosko, E.Z., Albrecht, D.R., Larsch, J., and Bargmann, C.I. (2013). Serotonin and the neuropeptide PDF initiate and extend opposing behavioral states in *C. elegans*. Cell *154*, 1023–1035.

Franks, C.J., Murray, C., Ogden, D., O'Connor, V., and Holden-Dye, L. (2009). A comparison of electrically evoked and channel rhodopsin-evoked postsynaptic potentials in the pharyngeal system of *Caenorhabditis elegans*. Invert Neurosci *9*, 43–56.

Guntur, A.R., Gu, P., Takle, K., Chen, J., Xiang, Y., and Yang, C. (2015). *Drosophila* TRPA1 isoforms detect UV light via photochemical production of $H_2O_2$. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA *112*, E5753–E5761.

Guntur, A.R., Gou, B., Gu, P., He, R., Stern, U., Xiang, Y., and Yang, C. (2017). $H_2O_2$-sensitive isoforms of *Drosophila melanogaster* TRPA1 act in bitter-sensing gustatory neurons to promote avoidance of UV during egg-laying. Genetics *205*, 749–759.

Halevi, S., McKay, J., Palfreyman, M., Yassin, L., Eshel, M., Jorgensen, E., and Treinin, M. (2002). The *C. elegans ric-3* gene is required for maturation of nicotinic acetylcholine receptors. The EMBO Journal *21*, 1012–1020.

Hill, K., and Schaefer, M. (2009). Ultraviolet light and photosensitising agents activate TRPA1 via generation of oxidative stress. Cell Calcium *45*, 155–164.

Jansen, G., Thijssen, K.L., Werner, P., van der Horst, M., Hazendonk, E., and Plasterk, R.H.A. (1999). The complete family of genes encoding G proteins of *Caenorhabditis elegans*. Nature Genetics *21*, 414.

Kerr, R., Lev-Ram, V., Baird, G., Vincent, P., Tsien, R.Y., and Schafer, W.R. (2000). Optical imaging of calcium transients in neurons and pharyngeal muscle of *C. elegans*. Neuron *26*, 583–594.

Kim, M.J., and Johnson, W.A. (2014). ROS-mediated activation of *Drosophila* larval nociceptor neurons by UVC irradiation. BMC Neurosci *15*, 14.

Kim, E., Sun, L., Gabel, C.V., and Fang-Yen, C. (2013a). Long-term imaging of *Caenorhabditis elegans* using nanoparticle-mediated immobilization. PLoS ONE *8*, e53419.

Kim, M.J., Ainsley, J.A., Carder, J.W., and Johnson, W.A. (2013b). Hyperoxia-triggered aversion behavior in *Drosophila* foraging larvae is mediated by sensory detection of hydrogen peroxide. Journal of Neurogenetics *27*, 151–162.

Kohn, R.E., Duerr, J.S., McManus, J.R., Duke, A., Rakow, T.L., Maruyama, H., Moulder, G., Maruyama, I.N., Barstead, R.J., and Rand, J.B. (2000). Expression of Multiple UNC-13 Proteins in the *Caenorhabditis elegans* Nervous System. Mol Biol Cell *11*, 3441–3452.

Kozlova, A.A., Lotfi, M., and Okkema, P.G. (2019). Crosstalk with the GAR-3 Receptor Contributes to Feeding Defects in *Caenorhabditis elegans eat-2* Mutants. Genetics *212*, 231–243.

Kuo, I.Y., and Ehrlich, B.E. (2015). Signaling in muscle contraction. Cold Spring Harb Perspect Biol *7*, :a006023.

Li, Z., Li, Y., Yi, Y., Huang, W., Yang, S., Niu, W., Zhang, L., Xu, Z., Qu, A., Wu, Z., *et al*. (2012). Dissecting a central flip-flop circuit that integrates contradictory sensory cues in *C. elegans* feeding regulation. Nature Communications *3*, 1–8.

Liu, J., Ward, A., Gao, J., Dong, Y., Nishio, N., Inada, H., Kang, L., Yu, Y., Ma, D., Xu, T., *et al*. (2010). *C. elegans* phototransduction requires a G protein–dependent cGMP pathway and a taste receptor homolog. Nature Neuroscience *13*, 715–722.

Luo, S., and Horvitz, H.R. (2017). The CDK8 complex and proneural proteins together drive neurogenesis from a mesodermal lineage. Current Biology *27*, 661–672.

Marder, E., and Calabrese, R.L. (1996). Principles of rhythmic motor pattern generation. Physiological Reviews *76*, 687–717.

Maruyama, I.N., and Brenner, S. (1991). A phorbol ester/diacylglycerol-binding protein encoded by the *unc-13* gene of *Caenorhabditis elegans*. PNAS *88*, 5729–5733.

Nagel, G., Szellas, T., Huhn, W., Kateriya, S., Adeishvili, N., Berthold, P., Ollig, D.,
Hegemann, P., and Bamberg, E. (2003). Channelrhodopsin-2, a directly light-
gated cation-selective membrane channel. PNAS *100*, 13940–13945.
Navedo, M.F., Amberg, G.C., Votaw, V.S., and Santana, L.F. (2005). Constitutively
active L-type $Ca^{2+}$ channels. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences
*102*, 11112–11117.
Nelson, M.T., Cheng, H., Rubart, M., Santana, L.F., Bonev, A.D., Knot, H.J., and
Lederer, W.J. (1995). Relaxation of arterial smooth muscle by calcium sparks.
Science *270*, 633–637.
Nieves-Cintrón, M., Amberg, G.C., Navedo, M.F., Molkentin, J.D., and Santana, L.F.
(2008). The control of $Ca^{2+}$ influx and NFATc3 signaling in arterial smooth muscle
during hypertension. PNAS *105*, 15623–15628.
Ohno, H., Yoshida, M., Sato, T., Kato, J., Miyazato, M., Kojima, M., Ida, T., and Iino, Y.
(2017). Luqin-like RYamide peptides regulate food-evoked responses in *C.*
*elegans*. eLife *6*, e28877.
O'Sullivan, A., Lindsay, T., Prudnikova, A., Erdi, B., Dickinson, M., and von Philipsborn,
A.C. (2018). Multifunctional wing motor control of song and flight. Current Biology
*28*, 2705-2717.e4.
Raizen, D.M., Lee, R.Y., and Avery, L. (1995). Interacting genes required for pharyngeal
excitation by motor neuron MC in *Caenorhabditis elegans*. Genetics *141*, 1365–
1382.
Rhoades, J.L., Nelson, J.C., Nwabudike, I., Yu, S.K., McLachlan, I.G., Madan, G.K.,
Abebe, E., Powers, J.R., Colón-Ramos, D.A., and Flavell, S.W. (2019). ASICs
mediate food responses in an enteric serotonergic neuron that controls foraging
behaviors. Cell *176*, 85-97.e14.
Richmond, J.E., Davis, W.S., and Jorgensen, E.M. (1999). UNC-13 is required for
synaptic vesicle fusion in *C. elegans*. Nat Neurosci *2*, 959–964.
Richmond, J.E., Weimer, R.M., and Jorgensen, E.M. (2001). An open form of syntaxin
bypasses the requirement for UNC-13 in vesicle priming. Nature *412*, 338–341.
Sabrin, K.M., Wei, Y., Heuvel, M.P. van den, and Dovrolis, C. (2020). The hourglass
organization of the *Caenorhabditis elegans* connectome. PLOS Computational
Biology *16*, e1007526.
Sawin, E.R., Ranganathan, R., and Horvitz, H.R. (2000). *C. elegans* locomotory rate is
modulated by the environment through a dopaminergic pathway and by
experience through a serotonergic pathway. Neuron *26*, 619–631.
Shimozono, S., Fukano, T., Kimura, K.D., Mori, I., Kirino, Y., and Miyawaki, A. (2004).
Slow $Ca^{2+}$ dynamics in pharyngeal muscles in *Caenorhabditis elegans* during
fast pumping. EMBO Rep. *5*, 521–526.
Speese, S., Petrie, M., Schuske, K., Ailion, M., Ann, K., Iwasaki, K., Jorgensen, E.M.,
and Martin, T.F.J. (2007). UNC-31 (CAPS) is required for dense-core vesicle but
not synaptic vesicle exocytosis in *Caenorhabditis elegans*. J. Neurosci. *27*,
6150–6162.

Taylor, S.R., Santpere, G., Reilly, M., Glenwinkel, L., Poff, A., McWhirter, R., Xu, C.,
Weinreb, A., Basavaraju, M., Cook, S.J., *et al*. (2019). Expression profiling of the
mature *C. elegans* nervous system by single-cell RNA-Sequencing. BioRxiv
https://doi.org/10.1101/737577.
The *C. elegans* Deletion Mutant Consortium (2012). Large-scale screening for targeted
knockouts in the *Caenorhabditis elegans* genome. G3: Genes, Genomes,
Genetics *2*, 1415–1425.
Thornberry, N.A., Bull, H.G., Calaycay, J.R., Chapman, K.T., Howard, A.D., Kostura,
M.J., Miller, D.K., Molineaux, S.M., Weidner, J.R., Aunins, J., *et al*. (1992). A
novel heterodimeric cysteine protease is required for interleukin-1β processing in
monocytes. Nature *356*, 768.
Tian, L., Hires, S.A., Mao, T., Huber, D., Chiappe, M.E., Chalasani, S.H., Petreanu, L.,
Akerboom, J., McKinney, S.A., Schreiter, E.R., *et al*. (2009). Imaging neural
activity in worms, flies and mice with improved GCaMP calcium indicators.
Nature Methods *6*, 875–881.
Trojanowski, N.F., Padovan-Merhar, O., Raizen, D.M., and Fang-Yen, C. (2014). Neural
and genetic degeneracy underlies *Caenorhabditis elegans* feeding behavior.
Journal of Neurophysiology *112*, 951–961.
Yamazawa, T., and Iino, M. (2002). Simultaneous imaging of $Ca^{2+}$ signals in interstitial
cells of Cajal and longitudinal smooth muscle cells during rhythmic activity in
mouse ileum. The Journal of Physiology *538*, 823–835.
Zheng, Y., Brockie, P.J., Mellem, J.E., Madsen, D.M., and Maricq, A.V. (1999).
Neuronal control of locomotion in *C. elegans* is modified by a dominant mutation
in the GLR-1 ionotropic glutamate receptor. Neuron *24*, 347–361.
1099

1100     **Summary of figures and supplemental material**

1101

<u>**Main figures:**</u>

**Figure 1**

**Figure 2**

**Figure 3**

**Figure 4**

**Figure 5**

**Figure 6**

**Figure 7**

1110

<u>**Supplemental material:**</u>

**Figure 1—figure supplement 1**

**Figure 2—figure supplement 1**

**Figure 3—figure supplement 1**

**Figure 4—figure supplement 1**

**Figure 4—figure supplement 2**

**Video 1**

**Video 2**

**Video 3**

**Video 4**

**Video 5**

**Video 6**

**Video 7**

**Video 8**

**Figure 1. Worms Spit as a Consequence of the Sustained Contraction of Anterior Pharyngeal Muscles**

(A) Anatomy of the *C. elegans* pharynx; a, anterior; d, dorsal.

(B) Grinder pumping response to 365 nm UV light (from Bhatla and Horvitz [2015]). Left, adult wild-type *C. elegans* head showing one pump of the grinder; center, raster plot of individual animals, each grinder contraction shown by a tick; right, backward moving average of the pumping rate of the same animals. Labels indicate the "acute inhibition," "burst," and "recovery" phases of the response. Scale bar, 20 μm.

(C) Representative images of worms feeding and spitting in the polystyrene bead feeding assay. Pumps were scored as "feeding" if they resulted in the retention of particles in the anterior pharynx (arrows), while pumps were scored as "spitting" if they released beads from the procorpus into the environment or if beads ingested during a procorpus contraction were not retained. In feeding pumps, the metastomal filter was typically partially closed, such that food accumulated in the buccal cavity (arrowheads and inset). Spitting pumps involved the opening of the metastomal filter such that the buccal cavity did not fill.

(D) Raster plot of representative results from polystyrene bead feeding assay. Animals carried the transgene *nIs678 (M1$_{promoter}$::gcamp6s)*. "*M1$_{promoter}$*" refers to the *glr-2* promoter.

(E) Quantification of average grinder pumping and spitting rates of animals shown in (D).

(F) Representative images of the pumping cycles of feeding (left column) and spitting

worms (right column). When open, the lumen of the pharynx (arrowheads) is visible as a

white line. The food-trapping pharyngeal valve (left arrowhead) is located at the anterior

end of the lumen. In the absence of UV light (left column), the lumen and pharyngeal

valve open (yellow arrowheads) and close (white arrowheads) nearly synchronously,

enabling the trapping and eventual ingestion of food (Fang-yen *et al.*, 2009). By

contrast, in the presence of UV (right column) light the opening of the lumen and the

pharyngeal valve become uncoupled. While the lumen continues to open and close, the

muscle region at the site of the pharyngeal valve undergoes sustained contraction and

thus opens the valve such that the conclusion of a pump ejects material from the

pharynx. Animals were *unc-29(e1072)* mutants to facilitate video capture.

(G) Quantification of frequencies at which the metastomal filter was open in feeding and

spitting pumps in (D). Center bar, mean; error bars, standard deviation (SD). ****, $p <$

0.0001; t test.

(H) Diagrammatic summary of feeding and spitting behavior.

Shading around traces indicates standard error of the mean (SEM). See also **Figure**

**supplement 1**.

**Figure 2. Subcellularly Localized Muscle Contractions and Calcium Increases**

**Open the Pharyngeal Valve to Produce Spitting**

(A) Anatomy of the anterior pharynx showing pharyngeal muscles pm1, pm2, and pm3. Double-headed arrows indicate orientation of muscle fibers.

(B-E) Mock-ablated (n = 9 animals), pm1-ablated (n = 5), pm2-ablated (n = 8), and pm1/pm2 double-ablated animals (n = 4) are wild-type in light-induced spitting. All animals carried transgene *nIs507 (pm1$_{promoter}$::gfp)* to mark pm1. *"pm1$_{promoter}$" r*efers to the *inx-4* promoter.

(F) Diagram of the eight classes of pharyngeal muscle (pm1-8; borders indicated by thin solid black lines; lumen indicated with thick solid black lines). Dashed boxes indicate regions analyzed for GCaMP3 fluorescence changes.

(G) Representative images from video of pharyngeal muscle GCaMP3 calcium imaging. Yellow arrowhead indicates spatially restricted calcium increases. Images false-colored based on the intensity of fluorescence changes. See also Video 6.

(H) Light induces increases in pharyngeal muscle calcium. Regions analyzed are indicated in (F). n = 13 animals.

(I) Spatially restricted calcium increases occur even when light does not induce pumps. Regions adjacent to the anterior tip of the pharynx do not exhibit sustained calcium signals when the pharynx is not pumping. Regions analyzed are indicated in (F). n = 9 animals.

(J) Laser ablation of the pm2 pharyngeal muscles partially suppresses the light-induced

opening of the metastomal filter. Center bar, mean; error bars, SD. ***, $p < 0.001$; t test.

n ≥ 5 animals.

Shading around traces indicates SEM. Animals in (G-J) carried transgene *nls686*

*(pharyngeal muscle$_{promoter}$::gcamp3). "pharyngeal muscle$_{promoter}$"* refers to the *gpa-16*

promoter. See also **Figure supplement 1**.

**Figure 3. Pharyngeally-Expressed Gustatory Receptor Orthologs *lite-1* and *gur-3***

**Play Major and Minor Roles, Respectively, in the Light-Induced Spitting Reflex**

(A) *gur-3* is not required for light-induced burst pumping. n = 3 biological replicates (60 animals total).

(B-C) The contribution of *lite-1* to burst pumping cannot be evaluated directly because *lite-1* mutants are partially defective in pumping inhibition. $n_{lite-1}$ = 2 biological replicates (40 animals total); $n_{lite-1\ gur-3}$ = 20 animals.

(D-F) Burst pumping of *eat-2(ad1113)* mutants depends on *lite-1* but not *gur-3*. n = 3 biological replicates (60 animals total).

(G) *lite-1* rescuing transgene *nIs687* (*lite-1$_{promoter}$::gfp::lite-1)* rescues the burst pumping defect of *eat-2; lite-1 gur-3* mutants. n = 3 biological replicates (60 animals total).

(H-K) Light-induced spitting is reduced in *gur-3* and *lite-1* single mutants and eliminated in *lite-1 gur-3* double mutants. n = 10 animals except $n_{gur-3}$ = 9.

(L-M) Expression of wild-type *lite-1 (*transgene *nEx2281; lite-1$_{promoter}$::lite-1::gfp)* or *gur-3* (transgene *nEx2157*; *gur-3$_{promoter}$::gur-3 gDNA*) respectively restores wild-type or partial spitting to *lite-1 gur-3* double mutants. n = 10 animals.

(N) Quantification of average spitting rate during light exposure of animals from (H-M).

(O) Quantification of the frequencies at which the metastomal filter was open in feeding and spitting pumps in (H-M).

(P-R) Light-induced pharyngeal muscle calcium increases depend on *lite-1* (which

accounts for 99% of the response) and *gur-3* (which makes a small contribution to the

initial activation of pharyngeal muscle; black arrows). n ≥ 20 animals.

Shading around traces indicates SEM. All *gur-3* alleles are null allele *gur-3*(*ok2245)* and

all *lite-1* alleles are null allele *lite-1*(*ce314)*. Center bar, mean; error bars, SD. ****, $p <$

0.0001; ***, $p < 0.0005$, **, $p < 0.005$; n.s., not significant; ordinary one-way ANOVA.

See also **Figure supplement 1**.

1215

**Figure 4. The Pharyngeal Neuron M1 Controls the Spitting Reflex**

(A) The anatomy of M1 (red) suggests that it controls spitting directly, as it is the only

neuron to make neuromuscular junctions (bolded blue segment) with the region of

pharyngeal muscle that undergoes sustained contraction during spitting.

(B-C) M1 laser-ablated, but not mock-ablated, animals are completely defective in light-

induced spitting and burst pumping. Animals carried GFP reporter transgene *nIs864*

*(M1_{promoter}::gfp)* to mark M1. *"M1_{promoter}"* refers to the *glr-2* promoter. n ≥ 12 animals.

(D-E) M1 genetically-ablated animals, but not transgene-negative sibling controls, are

completely defective in light-induced spitting and burst pumping. Ablated animals

carried genetic-ablation transgene *nEx2905* (*M1_{promoter}::ice::sl2::mcherry*) and all

animals carried GFP reporter transgene *nIs864.* "*M1_{promoter}*" refers to the *lury-1*

promoter. n = 10 animals.

(F) Spatially restricted calcium signals depend on M1. Region analyzed is indicated in

Figure 2F. n ≥ 11 animals. Animals carried pharyngeal muscle GCaMP3 transgene

*nIs686*.

(G) Representative example of light-induced GCaMP6s fluorescence increase in M1.

Animals carried transgene *nIs678 (M1_{promoter}::gcamp6s)*. "*M1_{promoter}*" refers to the *glr-2*

promoter. The unchanging signal common to both images was caused by GCaMP6s

fluorescence in additional *glr-2*-expressing neurons in the nerve ring. See also Video 8.

(H) Heatmap of light-induced GCaMP6s fluorescence increases ($F/F_0$) in the M1 soma.

Each row is a different animal; n = 20.

(I) Average response of animals shown in (H).

(J-L) Light-induced calcium increases in the M1 neuron depend on *lite-1* (which accounts for 99% M1's response) and *gur-3* (which makes a small but consistent contribution to M1's initial activation; black arrows). n = 3 biological replicates (more than 60 animals total).

(M) Light-induced calcium increases in M1 are reduced but still significant in *unc-13(s69)* mutants. n = 2 biological replicates (greater than 41 animals total).

(N) Quantification of M1's calcium response to light in *unc-13(s69)* mutants in (M). Error bars, SEM; *, $p < 0.05$; t test.

(O) Light-induced calcium increases in M1 are reduced but still significant in *unc-31(u280)* mutants. n = 20 animals.

(P) Quantification of M1's calcium response to light in *unc-31(u280)* mutants in (O). Error bars, SEM; **, $p < 0.01$; t test.

(Q-R) A subset (~25%) of *lite-1 gur-3* animals expressing an M1-specific ChR2 transgene *nEx2815 (M1$_{promoter}$::chr2::sl2::mcherry)* grown in the presence, but not the absence, of ATR spit in response to 470 nm light. "*M1$_{promoter}$*" refers to the *lury-1* promoter. n ≥ 10 animals.

Shading around traces indicates SEM. All *gur-3* alleles are null allele *gur-3(ok2245),* and all *lite-1* alleles are null allele *lite-1(ce314)*. See also **Figure supplement 1** and **Figure supplement 2**.

**Figure 5. The *gur-3*-Expressing I2 Neurons Can Activate M1 to Produce an Attenuated Form of Spitting**

(A-B) I2-specific expression of *gur-3* restores light-induced spitting to *lite-1 gur-3* mutants. n = 5 animals.

(C) Quantification of the frequencies at which the metastomal filter was open in feeding and spitting pumps in (A) and (B). Center bar, mean; error bars, SEM; ****, p < 0.0001; t test. n = 5 animals.

(D) I2-specific expression of *gur-3* restores the light-induced M1 calcium response of *lite-1 gur-3* mutants. n ≥ 26 animals.

(E-F) Laser ablation of M1 suppresses the I2-specific *gur-3* rescue of *lite-1 gur-3* spitting defects. n = 11 animals.

(G) Quantification of the frequencies at which the metastomal filter was open in feeding and spitting pumps in (E) and (F). Center bar, mean; error bars, SEM; ****, p < 0.0001; t test. n ≥ 8 animals.

(H) I2-specific expression of *gur-3* via transgene *nIs791* (*I2$_{promoter}$::mcherry::gur-3(+)*) does not rescue the burst pumping defect of *eat-2; lite-1 gur-3* animals in the grinder pumping assay. n = 20 animals.

(I) Comparison of grinder pumping rates in (E) and (F). While mock-ablated animals from (E) do not inhibit pumping in response to light, M1-ablated animals from (F) exhibit robust light-induced inhibition, indicating that the I2s' promotion of pumping via M1 outweighs their inhibition of pumping.

(J) Comparison of feeding pumping rates from (E) and (F).

(K) Model for the effects of the I2 neurons on M1 and pumping. The I2 neurons reduce

overall feeding by two mechanisms: direct inhibition of feeding pumps and M1-

dependent promotion of spitting pumps.

(L) Genetic ablation of the I2 neurons in a wild-type background does not eliminate light-

induced spitting. n = 5 animals.

(M) Genetic ablation of the I2 neurons of *lite-1(ce314)* mutants does not eliminate light-

induced spitting. n = 6 animals.

Shading around traces indicates SEM. Unless indicated otherwise, "I2-specific

expression of *gur-3"* refers to transgene *nEx2144 (I2$_{promoter}$::mcherry::gur-3(+))*. "Genetic

ablation of the I2 neurons" refers to transgene *nIs569 (I2$_{promoter}$::csp-1b)* (Bhatla and

Horvitz, 2015). "*I2$_{promoter}$*" refers to the *flp-15* promoter.

**Figure 6. The I4 Neuron Functions with the I2 Neurons to Promote Spitting and Inhibit Feeding**

(A) Diagram indicating the cellular morphology of M1 and the *gur-3*-expressing I2 and I4 pharyngeal neurons. The I2 neurons are bilaterally symmetric; only one I2 neuron is depicted.

(B) Mock-ablated *lite-1* animals inhibit pumping and spit in response to light. n = 8 animals.

(C) I2-ablated *lite-1* animals spit in response to light but do not inhibit pumping. n = 8 animals.

(D) I4-ablated *lite-1* animals inhibit pumping and spit in response to light. n = 10 animals.

(E) I2/I4 double-ablated *lite-1* animals exhibit delayed spitting and do not inhibit pumping in response to light. n = 8 animals.

(F) Quantification of average spitting rate during light exposure of animals from (B-E).

(G) I2- and I4-ablated *lite-1* animals exhibit small M1 calcium responses; I2/I4 double-ablated animals do not have detectable M1 calcium responses. n ≥ 8 animals.

(H) Quantification of the frequencies at which the metastomal filter was open in feeding and spitting pumps in (B-E). n ≥ 4 animals.

(I) Mock-ablated *lite-1* animals inhibit pumping and spit in response to light. n = 5 animals.

(J-L) M1-ablated (n = 6 animals), M1/I2-ablated (n = 6), and M1/I4-ablated (n = 7) *lite-1*

animals inhibit pumping, but do not spit, in response to light.

(M) M1/I2/I4 triple-ablated *lite-1* animals neither inhibit pumping nor spit in response to

light. n = 4 animals.

(N) Quantification of pumping inhibition in (I-M). Ablation of the I2 neurons eliminates

light-induced pumping inhibition.

Shading around traces indicates SEM. All animals were *lite-1*(ce314) null mutants and

carried transgene *nls678 (M1$_{promoter}$::gcamp6s)*. "*M1$_{promoter}$*" refers to the *glr-2* promoter.

Center bar, mean; error bars, SD. \*\*, $p < 0.005$; \*, $p < 0.05$; n.s., not significant; ordinary

one-way ANOVA.

**Figure 7. Models of Spitting Behavior and Neural Circuitry**

(A) Model for feeding and spitting. During feeding, the M1 neuron is inactive. Thus, the metastomal filter is partially closed, restricting particle influx, and the pharyngeal valve closes at the end of each pump, trapping food. During spitting induced by light or reactive oxygen species (ROS), M1 is active, thus inducing spitting of ingested material by opening the pharyngeal valve and facilitating rinsing of the pharynx by opening the metastomal filter.

(B) Model for neural circuitry controlling light- and ROS-induced spitting. Light or ROS stimulate the M1, I2, and I4 neurons via LITE-1 and GUR-3. The I2 and I4 neurons excite M1, which is situated in the "waist" of an "hourglass" circuit motif. In turn, M1 makes diverging outputs to multiple pharyngeal muscle classes, each driving distinct aspects of the spitting reflex: the pm1 and pm2 muscles open the metastomal filter, a subcellular compartment of the pm3 muscles opens the pharyngeal valve, and the remainder of pm3 pumps. The M1 and I2 neurons each also inhibit pumping.

**Figure 1—figure supplement 1.**

(A) The odor of 9M hydrogen peroxide induces spitting. Animals are *unc-29(e1072)*

mutants to facilitate video capture. n = 4 animals.

(B) Raster plot showing occurrence of "closed" (black) and "open" (green) pumps in

pharyngeal muscle motion visualization assay. n = 7 animals.

(C) Moving averages of animals from (B), indicating that the burst pumping phase

consists almost completely of "open" pumps.

Shading around traces indicates SEM.

**Figure 2—figure supplement 1.**

(A) Quantification of pumps induced by 485 nm light in 10 seconds in immobilized

pumping assay. Laser ablation of M1, but not other pharyngeal neurons, eliminates

light-induced pumping.

(B-C) pm1-ablated animals lack the metastomal filter and thus ingest more material into

the procorpus than mock-ablated controls do. Dark material in the pharyngeal lumen is

a mixture of *E. coli* and 1 μm polystyrene beads. In mock-ablated animals, accumulation

is visible in the pharyngeal isthmus but is minimal in the procorpus of most animals.

pm1-ablated animals accumulate markedly more material in the procorpus. We also

noticed qualitatively that pm1-ablated animals often spit material less efficiently than

control animals, but this difference could stem from the differences in the average

amount of ingested material in the pharynx in each condition. All animals carry

transgene *nIs507 (pm1$_{promoter}$::gfp).* "*pm1$_{promoter}$*" refers to the *inx-4* promoter.

**Figure 3—figure supplement 1.**

(A) *egl-47/gur-1(n1082dm)* mutants were normal in burst pumping. n = 20 animals.

(B) *egl-47/gur-1(ok677)* mutants were normal in burst pumping. n = 20 animals.

(C) *gur-4(ok672)* mutants were normal in burst pumping. n = 20 animals.

(D) *gur-5(tm6169)* mutants were normal in burst pumping. n = 20 animals.

(E-F) Integrated *gur-3* transcriptional reporter transgene *nIs780 (gur-3$_{promoter}$::gfp)* is expressed in the MI and M1 pharyngeal neurons and an unidentified head neuron (not shown), in addition to being expressed in the I2, I4, and AVD neurons as previously reported by Bhatla and Horvitz (2015).

Shading around traces indicates SEM.

**Figure 4—figure supplement 1.**

(A) Overexpression of the mammalian caspase ICE in M1 via the transgene *nEx2905* (*M1$_{promoter - lury-1}$::ice::sl2::mCherry)* kills M1 with high efficiency and the M2 pharyngeal neurons with moderate efficiency. The presence of M1 and the M2s was determined by the expression of transgenes *nIs864 (M1$_{promoter - glr-2}$::gfp)* and *nIs310 (nlp-13$_{promoter}$::gfp)*, respectively.

(B) M1 genetic-ablation transgene eliminates burst pumping in the grinder pumping assay. Ablation animals carried transgene *nEx2905 (M1$_{promoter - lury-1}$::ice::sl2::mcherry);* all animals carried *nIs864 (M1$_{promoter - glr-2}$::gfp).* n = 40 animals.

(C) Screening animals based on the brightness of pharyngeal mCherry expression allows the selection of animals lacking the M1 neuron but not the M2 neurons. When pharyngeal muscle mCherry expression is high, animals are more likely to lack the M2s. Animals with dim pharyngeal muscle mCherry expression very rarely lack M2s; thus dim mCherry expression can be used to enrich for animals lacking only M1. Center bar, mean; error bars, SEM. n = 3 biological replicates (more than 65 animals total).

(D) Genetic ablation of M1 eliminates burst pumping in *eat-2* mutants. Ablation animals carried transgene *nIs865 (M1$_{promoter - lury-1}$::ice::sl2::mCherry).* n = 3 biological replicates (60 animals total).

(E) Comparison of grinder pumping rates of mock- and M1-ablated animals from Figure 4B and 4C. In addition to eliminating burst pumping and spitting, M1 ablation enhances the rate of pumping recovery after illumination. n ≥ 12 animals.

(F) Laser-ablated animals from Figure 4B exhibit abnormal "uncoupled" pumps, during

which the grinder pumps while the procorpus does not. n ≥ 12 animals.

(G) Comparison of grinder pumping rates of control and M1-ablated animals from Figure

4D and 4E. In addition to eliminating burst pumping and spitting, M1 ablation enhances

the rate of pumping recovery after illumination. n = 10 animals.

(H) M1 genetic-ablation animals from Figure 4E exhibit abnormal "uncoupled" pumps,

during which the grinder pumps while the procorpus does not. n = 10 animals.

(I) *unc-17(e245)* vesicular acetylcholine transporter mutants defective in vesicular

acetylcholine transport were severely defective in both feeding and burst pumping. n = 3

biological replicates (60 animals total).

(J) *cha-1(p1152)* choline acetyltransferase mutants defective in acetylcholine synthesis

were severely defective in both feeding and burst pumping. n = 20 animals.

(K) *ric-3(md158)* mutants defective in nicotinic acetylcholine receptor maturation were

severely defective in both feeding and burst pumping. n = 20 animals.

(L) *unc-25(e156)* glutamate decarboxylase mutants defective in GABA synthesis were

normal in burst pumping. n = 20 animals.

(M) *eat-4(ky5)* vesicular glutamate transporter mutants defective in vesicular glutamate

transport were defective in acute inhibition (Bhatla and Horvitz, 2015) but normal in

burst pumping. n = 20 animals.

(N) *cat-2(e1113)* tyrosine hydroxylase mutants defective in dopamine synthesis were

normal in burst pumping. n = 20 animals.

(O) *tdc-1(n3420)* tyrosine decarboxylase mutants defective in tyramine and octopamine

synthesis were normal in burst pumping. n = 20 animals.

(P) *tph-1(n4622)* tryptophan hydroxylase mutants defective in serotonin synthesis were

mildly defective in both feeding and burst pumping. n = 3 biological replicates (60

animals total).

(Q) *tph-1(mg280)* tryptophan hydroxylase mutants defective in serotonin synthesis were

mildly defective in both feeding and burst pumping. n = 3 biological replicates (60

animals total).

(R) *ser-4(ok512); mod-1(ok103); ser-1(ok345) ser-7(tm1325)* quadruple serotonin

receptor mutants were defective in feeding but normal in burst pumping. n = 20 animals.

Shading around traces indicates SEM. "$M1_{promoter-lury-1}$" refers to the *lury-1* promoter

and "$M1_{promoter-glr-2}$" refers to the *glr-2* promoter. Panels (E-H) are derived from videos

of bead feeding assays, all other behavior plots were grinder pumping assays scored in

real time.

**Figure 4—figure supplement 2: Burst pumping responses of acetylcholine**

**receptor mutants to UV light.**

(A) *lev-1/acr-1(e211)* nicotinic acetylcholine receptor mutants were normal in burst

pumping. n = 20 animals.

(B) *acr-2(n2595 n2420)* nicotinic acetylcholine receptor mutants were normal in burst

pumping. n = 20 animals.

(C) *acr-3(ok2049)* nicotinic acetylcholine receptor mutants were normal in burst

pumping. n = 20 animals.

(D) *deg-3(u662); des-2/acr-4(u695)* nicotinic acetylcholine receptor mutants were

normal in burst pumping. n = 20 animals.

(E) *acr-5(ok180)* nicotinic acetylcholine receptor mutants were normal in burst pumping.

n = 20 animals.

(F) *acr-6(tm3723)* nicotinic acetylcholine receptor mutants were subtly defective in burst

pumping. n = 3 biological replicates (60 animals total).

(G) *acr-7(tm863)* nicotinic acetylcholine receptor mutants were modestly defective in

burst pumping. n = 3 biological replicates (60 animals total).

(H) *acr-8(ok1240)* nicotinic acetylcholine receptor mutants were normal in burst

pumping. n = 3 biological replicates (60 animals total).

(I) *acr-10(tm2515)* nicotinic acetylcholine receptor mutants were normal in burst

pumping. n = 20 animals.

(J) *acr-11(gk827759)* nicotinic acetylcholine receptor mutants were normal in burst

pumping. n = 20 animals.

(K) *acr-12(ok367)* nicotinic acetylcholine receptor mutants were normal in burst

pumping. n = 20 animals.

(L) *lev-8/acr-13(x15)* nicotinic acetylcholine receptor mutants were normal in burst

pumping. n = 20 animals.

(M) *acr-14(tm5819)* nicotinic acetylcholine receptor mutants were normal in burst

pumping. n = 20 animals.

(N) *acr-15(ok1214)* nicotinic acetylcholine receptor mutants were normal in burst

pumping. n = 20 animals.

(O) *acr-16(ok789)* nicotinic acetylcholine receptor mutants were normal in burst

pumping. n = 20 animals.

(P) *acr-17(gk804825)* nicotinic acetylcholine receptor mutants were defective in both

feeding and burst pumping. n = 2 biological replicates (40 animals total).

(Q) *acr-17(gk661490)* nicotinic acetylcholine receptor mutants were normal in burst

pumping. n = 20 animals.

(R) *acr-18(gk324494)* nicotinic acetylcholine receptor mutants were defective in feeding

but normal in burst pumping. n = 20 animals.

(S) *acr-19(ok967)* nicotinic acetylcholine receptor mutants were normal in burst

pumping. n = 20 animals.

(T) *acr-20(gk161737)* nicotinic acetylcholine receptor mutants were normal in burst

pumping. n = 20 animals.

(U) *acr-21(ok1314)* nicotinic acetylcholine receptor mutants were normal in burst

pumping. n = 20 animals.

(V) *acr-23(gk231233)* nicotinic acetylcholine receptor mutants were subtly defective in

feeding and defective in burst pumping. n = 3 biological replicates (60 animals total).

(W) *acr-23(ox429)* nicotinic acetylcholine receptor mutants were subtly defective in

burst pumping. n = 3 biological replicates (60 animals total).

(X) *acr-23(ok2804)* nicotinic acetylcholine receptor mutants were normal in burst

pumping. n = 20 animals.

(Y) *acr-24(gk387895)* nicotinic acetylcholine receptor mutants were defective in both

feeding and burst pumping. n = 2 biological replicates (40 animals total).

(Z) *acr-24(gk557791)* nicotinic acetylcholine receptor mutants were defective in burst

pumping. n = 3 biological replicates (60 animals total).

(A') *deg-3(u773)* nicotinic acetylcholine receptor mutants were normal in burst pumping.

n = 20 animals.

(B') *unc-29(e1072)* nicotinic acetylcholine receptor mutants were normal in burst

pumping. n = 3 biological replicates (60 animals total).

(C') *unc-38(e264)* nicotinic acetylcholine receptor mutants were normal in burst

pumping. n = 20 animals.

(D') *lev-7/unc-63(x13)* nicotinic acetylcholine receptor mutants were normal in burst

pumping. n = 20 animals.

(E') *acc-1(tm3268)* acetylcholine-gated chloride channel mutants were normal in burst

pumping. n = 20 animals.

(F') *acc-2(gk501637)* acetylcholine-gated chloride channel mutants were normal in burst

pumping. n = 20 animals.

(G') *acc-2(ok2216)* acetylcholine-gated chloride channel mutants were defective in

feeding and burst pumping. n = 3 biological replicates (60 animals total).

(H') *acc-2(tm3219)* acetylcholine-gated chloride channel mutants were normal in burst

pumping. n = 20 animals.

(I') *acc-3(tm3174)* acetylcholine-gated chloride channel mutants were normal in burst

pumping. n = 20 animals.

(J') *acc-4(ok2371)* acetylcholine-gated chloride channel mutants were normal in burst

pumping. n = 20 animals.

(K') *lgc-40(tm3377)* acetylcholine-gated chloride channel mutants were normal in burst

pumping. n = 20 animals.

(L') *pbo-5(gk963058)* nicotinic acetylcholine receptor family mutants were normal in

burst pumping. n = 20 animals.

(M') *pbo-6(ok1564)* nicotinic acetylcholine receptor family mutants were normal in burst

pumping. n = 20 animals.

(N') *gar-1(ok755)* muscarinic acetylcholine receptor mutants were subtly defective in

burst pumping. n = 3 biological replicates (60 animals total).

(O') *gar-2(ok520)* muscarinic acetylcholine receptor mutants were normal in burst

pumping. n = 20 animals.

(P') *gar-3(gk337)* muscarinic acetylcholine receptor mutants were normal in burst

pumping. n = 20 animals.

**Video 1: Feeding pumps in polystyrene bead feeding assay.**

High frame rate video of *C. elegans* feeding in polystyrene bead feeding assay. The small, dark particles are polystyrene beads. During typical feeding pumps, beads accumulate in the buccal cavity. Beads filter gradually from the buccal cavity into the pharyngeal lumen, where they are trapped by the closure of the pharyngeal valve at the front of the pharynx upon the conclusion of each pump. Video was recorded at 1,000 frames per second. Playback is at 3% of original speed.

**Video 2: Spitting pumps in polystyrene bead feeding assay.**

High frame rate video of *C. elegans* spitting in response to light in polystyrene bead feeding assay. During spitting pumps, beads no longer accumulate in the buccal cavity, but instead freely enter the pharyngeal lumen. At the end of the pump, all ingested material is expelled. Video was recorded at 1,000 frames per second. Playback is at 3% of original speed.

**Video 3: Feeding pumps in muscle motion visualization assay.**

Video of *C. elegans* feeding beneath a coverslip. The pharyngeal lumen is visible as a white space when it is opened by the contraction of pharyngeal muscle. In feeding, the musculature of the anterior pharynx relaxes at the end of each pump, closing the pharyngeal valve and thereby trapping ingested material. Video was recorded at 86 frames per second. Playback is at 50% of original speed.

1528

**Video 4: Spitting pumps in muscle motion visualization assay.**

Video of *C. elegans* beneath a coverslip spitting in response to light. In contrast to

feeding pumps, spitting pumps are characterized by the sustained contraction of the

anterior musculature of the pharynx, which remains contracted open as the rest of the

pharynx continues to contract and relax. Video was recorded at 86 frames per second.

Playback is at 50% of original speed.

**Video 5: "Gulping" pumps in polystyrene bead feeding assay.**

High frame rate video of *C. elegans* "gulping" in polystyrene bead feeding assay.

As in spitting pumps, beads pass freely through the buccal cavity and into the

pharyngeal lumen. As in feeding pumps, this material is subsequently trapped and

retained by the pharyngeal valve, resulting in ingestion. Video was recorded at 1,000

frames per second. Playback is at 3% of original speed.

**Video 6: Pharyngeal muscle calcium response to light.**

The pharyngeal muscle calcium response to light, as reported by GCaMP3

fluorescence. Pumps result in fluorescence increases across the entirety of the anterior

pharynx. Before and between pumps, localized and sustained calcium increases occur

at the anterior tip of the pharynx. Video was recorded at 15 frames per second and

1548 false-colored based on the intensity of fluorescence changes (blue, low intensity; red,

1549 high intensity). Playback is in real time.

1550

**Video 7: pm2-ablated animals are defective in opening the metastomal filter**

**during spitting behavior in polystyrene bead feeding assay.**

High frame rate video of pm2-ablated *C. elegans* spitting in response to light in

polystyrene bead feeding assay. In contrast to typical spitting pumps, beads accumulate

in the buccal cavity, indicating that the metastomal filter is partially closed. At the end of

the pump, ingested material is still expelled, indicating that the pharyngeal valve is

open. Video was recorded at 1,000 frames per second. Playback is at 3% of original

speed.

1559

1560 **Video 8: The pharyngeal neuron M1 is activated by light.**

1561 The pharyngeal neuron M1 is acutely activated by light, as reported by GCaMP6s

1562 fluorescence. Video was recorded at 2 frames per second and false-colored based on

1563 the intensity of fluorescence changes (blue, low intensity; red, high intensity). Playback

1564 is at 100% of original speed.

# Figure 1

**A** — The *C. elegans* pharynx

Pharyngeal Valve
Buccal cavity
Lumen
Metastomal flap/filter

Buccal cavity
Procorpus
Anterior bulb
Grinder
Food
Intestine
Lumen
Terminal Bulb

**B** — Grinder pumping rate assay:
Worms on *E. coli* lawn
Scored in real-time by eye

UV light
acute inhibition
burst
recovery

**C** — Polystyrene bead-feeding assay:
Worms fed *E. coli* and 1 μM beads
Particle motion filmed (1K FPS)

No light
Feeding - beads retained
Filter closed - buccal cavity fills

UV light
Spitting - beads released
Filter open - buccal cavity does not fill

**D** — Polystyrene bead-feeding assay (analysis of high-speed videos)

UV light
spitting pump
feeding pump

**E** — Quantification of video

UV light
spits
grinder pumps

**G** — Metastomal filter opening

****
feeding pumps
spitting pumps
no light
UV light

**F** — Muscle motion visualization assay:
Worms placed under coverslip
Motions of pharyngeal muscle and lumen filmed

No light
Muscles pump synchronously

UV light; anterior muscle
held open, lumen closes

**H** — Feeding / Spitting

Contraction of pharyngeal muscles opens the lumen, part-closed metastomal filter limits ingestion:

Contraction of pharyngeal muscles opens the lumen, material flows freely past open metastomal filter:

Pharyngeal valve closes:

Pharyngeal valve does not close:

Pharynx relaxes and ingested material is trapped on valve:

Pharynx relaxes and ingested material is expelled:

**Figure 2**

**A** Musculature of the anterior pharynx

**B** Mock-ablated

**C** pm1-ablated

**D** pm2-ablated

**E** pm1/2 double-ablated

**F** Pharyngeal muscle (pm) classes and regions analyzed by calcium imaging

**G** Pharyngeal muscle Ca2+ response (GCaMP3) to light

**H** Pharyngeal muscle Ca²⁺

**I** Pharyngeal muscle Ca²⁺ Trials in which no pumps were stimulated

**J** Metastomal filter opening

**Figure 3**

# Figure 4

**Figure 5**

**Figure 6**

**Figure 7**

**A**

Feeding

Spitting

Light/ROS

Ca²⁺ M1

Light/ROS

Ca²⁺ M1

Light/ROS

Ca²⁺ M1

**B**

**UV light/ROS**

GUR-3 — I2    GUR-3 — I4

LITE-1
GUR-3 — M1

pm1/2    pm3

**Inhibit    Open filter    Open valve    Stimulate
pumps     (rinse)        (spit)         pumps**

**Figure 1—figure supplement 1**

**Figure 2—figure supplement 1**

**Figure 3—figure supplement 1**

**Figure 4—figure supplement 1**