Serotonin signals through postsynaptic Gα$_q$, Trio RhoGEF, and DAG to promote

***C. elegans* egg-laying circuit activity and behavior**

Pravat Dhakal, Sana Chaudhry, and Kevin M. Collins*

Department of Biology, University of Miami, Coral Gables, FL, United States of America

*To whom correspondence should be addressed. Email: *kevin.collins@miami.edu*

60 pages with 6 Figures, 2 Tables and 3 Movies

Abstract

Activated $G\alpha_q$ signals through Phospholipase-Cβ (PLCβ) and Trio, a Rho GTPase exchange

factor (RhoGEF), but how these distinct effector pathways promote cellular responses to

neurotransmitters like serotonin remains poorly understood. We used the egg-laying behavior

circuit of *C. elegans* to determine whether PLCβ and Trio mediate serotonin and $G\alpha_q$ signaling

through independent or related biochemical pathways. Using genetic rescue experiments, we

find that PLCβ functions in neurons while Trio RhoGEF functions in both neurons and the

postsynaptic vulval muscles. While $G\alpha_q$, PLCβ, and Trio RhoGEF mutants all fail to lay eggs in

response to serotonin, optogenetic stimulation of the serotonin releasing HSN command

neurons restores egg laying only in PLCβ mutants. PLCβ mutants showed vulval muscle Ca^{2+}

transients while strong $G\alpha_q$ and Trio RhoGEF mutants had little or no vulval muscle Ca^{2+} activity.

Treatment with Phorbol esters that mimic Diacylglycerol (DAG), a product of PIP_2 hydrolysis,

rescued egg-laying circuit activity and behavior defects of $G\alpha_q$ signaling mutants, suggesting

both Phospholipase C and Rho signaling promote synaptic transmission and egg-laying via DAG

production. DAG activates effectors including UNC-13, however, we find that phorbol esters, but

not serotonin, stimulate egg laying in *unc-13* and PLCβ mutants. These results support a model

where serotonin signaling through $G\alpha_q$, PLCβ, and UNC-13 promote neurotransmitter release,

and that serotonin also signals through $G\alpha_q$, Trio RhoGEF, and an unidentified PMA-responsive

effector to promote postsynaptic muscle excitability. Thus, the same neuromodulator serotonin

can signal in distinct cells and effector pathways to coordinate activation of a motor behavior

circuit.

Introduction

Neurons communicate in circuits via synaptic transmission to initiate, sustain, and terminate behaviors. During neurotransmission, both synaptic vesicles and dense-core vesicles fuse with the presynaptic membrane, releasing neurotransmitters and neuropeptides that activate postsynaptic ion channels and G protein coupled receptors (GPCRs) (Betke et al., 2012; Geppetti et al., 2015). While much has been learned about neurotransmitter signaling pathways through ionotropic receptors, the diversity of GPCRs and their signaling pathways has complicated our understanding of how their signaling exerts changes on cell excitability and behavior. The G protein, $G\alpha_q$, is one of the major G proteins expressed in all excitable cells (Offermanns, 2001; Simon et al., 1991; Wilkie et al., 1992). Activated $G\alpha_q$ signals through PIP_2-specific phospholipase-Cβ (PLCβ) to generate the second messengers, inositol 1,4,5 trisphosphate (IP_3) and diacylglycerol (DAG). IP_3 activates the IP_3 receptor to release Ca^{2+} from intracellular stores and activate downstream kinases, lipases, and ion channels (Berridge et al., 2000; Huang, 1989; Li et al., 2014; Mujica and Gonzalez, 2011). The membrane lipid DAG has been shown to recruit and activate numerous effector proteins including UNC-13 and Protein Kinase C (Ananthanarayanan et al., 2003; Brose and Rosenmund, 2002; Lou et al., 2008; Maruyama and Brenner, 1991; Rozengurt et al., 1997; Silinsky and Searl, 2003; Thore et al., 2005), but whether these or other identified DAG targets function to transduce all forms of $G\alpha_q$ signaling *in vivo* remains an open question.

Genetic studies in the nematode worm *C. elegans* show that $G\alpha_q$ signaling through both PLCβ, and Trio promotes neurotransmitter and neuropeptide transmission. In *C. elegans unc-73* gene encodes at least 8 isoforms of Trio, which has both Rac and Rho GTPase exchange factor (GEF) DH/PH domains (Steven et al., 2005; Williams et al., 2007). *unc-73* mutations that specifically affect the second Rho activating DH/PH GEF domain of Trio (Trio RhoGEF) disrupt locomotion, feeding, and egg-laying behaviors (Williams et al., 2007), without causing the axon

pathfinding and neurodevelopmental defects observed in animals bearing *unc-73* Trio RacGEF

mutations that affect the first, Rac activating DH/PH GEF domain (Steven et al., 1998). In worms,

$G\alpha_q$ knockouts are lethal while PLCβ or Trio RhoGEF single knockouts show defects in

neurotransmission that disrupt locomotion, feeding, egg-laying and other behaviors, resembling

$G\alpha_q$ loss-of-function mutants (Bastiani et al., 2003; Brundage et al., 1996; Hajdu-Cronin et al.,

1999; Lackner et al., 1999). Worms bearing mutations that disrupt both PLCβ and Trio RhoGEF

phenocopy the larval arrest phenotype of $G\alpha_q$ null mutants, consistent with these two effectors

relaying most or all of the relevant $G\alpha_q$ signaling (Williams et al., 2007). Genetic and biochemical

studies showed that $G\alpha_q$ binding to and activation of the Trio RhoGEF domain to promote Rho

signaling is conserved in mammals (Chhatriwala et al., 2007; Rojas et al., 2007), however, it

remains unclear how PLCβ and Rho signaling promotes neurotransmitter and neuropeptide

release *in vivo*. The larval lethality of $G\alpha_q$ null mutants can be rescued by the DAG-mimetic

phorbol ester, PMA (Reynolds et al., 2005), and PMA can also rescue the egg-laying defects of

PLCβ, Trio RhoGEF double mutants (Williams et al., 2007). These results suggest $G\alpha_q$ signaling

through both PLCβ and Trio may ultimately converge to regulate DAG levels and the activation

of downstream effectors. Both PLCβ and Trio RhoGEF promote acetylcholine (ACh) release

from motor neurons that control locomotion (Lackner et al., 1999; Miller et al., 1999; Williams et

al., 2007), although mutations in Trio RhoGEF cause behavior defects more aligned with a

function in dense core vesicle release (Hu et al., 2011). PLCβ is expressed in the nervous system

and intestine (Lackner et al., 1999), while $G\alpha_q$ and Trio show additional postsynaptic expression

in muscles (Bastiani et al., 2003; Lackner et al., 1999; Steven et al., 1998; Steven et al., 2005).

While re-expression of PLCβ in motor neurons (Lackner et al., 1999) or Trio in all neurons

(Williams et al., 2007) rescue the locomotion behavior defects of their mutants, prior work has

shown that $G\alpha_q$ has additional functions in muscles (Bastiani et al., 2003) to promote egg laying

where Trio RhoGEF is also expressed (Steven et al., 2005). Indeed, loss of PLCβ fails to

suppress the hyperactive egg-laying phenotypes of $G\alpha_q$ gain-of-function mutants, consistent

with $G\alpha_q$ signaling through other effectors like Trio RhoGEF to regulate egg laying (Bastiani et

al., 2003). Indeed, *unc-73* RhoGEF mutations strongly suppress the hyperactive egg-laying

behavior phenotypes of $G\alpha_o$ mutants unable to inhibit $G\alpha_q$ signaling (cite Williams et al. 2007).

Using genetics, optogenetics, pharmacology, and Ca^{2+} imaging techniques we have

investigated how $G\alpha_q$ and its two effector pathways regulate egg-laying circuit activity and

behavior. We find that PLCβ functions in the presynaptic neurons while Trio RhoGEF signals in

both neurons and muscles to promote egg laying. Loss of each of these effectors imparts specific

defects in egg-laying behavior that indicate these proteins function in distinct cells to promote

egg-laying circuit activity and behavior. Many of these defects can be rescued in part by

treatment with phorbol esters that mimic DAG production. These results clarify that despite $G\alpha_q$

signaling through independent PLCβ and Trio RhoGEF pathways, these effectors may ultimately

converge to potentiate DAG levels which promote egg-laying behavior.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Strains

C. elegans worms were maintained at 20°C on Nematode Growth Medium (NGM) agar plates with *E. coli* OP50 as a source of food as described previously (Brenner, 1974). All behavior assays and fluorescence imaging experiments were performed with age-matched adult hermaphrodites aged 24-36 h after the late L4 stage. All strains used in this study are listed in Table 1.

Molecular biology and transgenes

Vulval muscle GCaMP5 strains

Vulval muscle Ca^{2+} activity was recorded using GCaMP5G (Akerboom et al., 2013) which was expressed along with mCherry from the *unc-103e* promoter (Collins and Koelle, 2013), as previously described (Collins et al., 2016; Ravi et al., 2018a). The wild-type reporter strain, LX1918 *vsIs164 [unc-103e::GCaMP5::unc-54 3'UTR + unc-103e::mCherry::unc-54 3'UTR + lin-15(+)] lite-1(ce314) lin-15(n765ts) X* was used as described previously (Collins et al., 2016). LX1918 males were crossed separately into DA823 *egl-30(ad805) I*, MT1434 *egl-30(n686) I*, JT47 *egl-8(sa47) V*, MT1083 *egl-8(n488) V*, KG1278 *unc-73(ce362) I*, LX1226 *eat-16(tm761) I*, CG21 *egl-30(tg26) I*, *him-5(e1490) V*, or KP1097 *dgk-1(nu62) X* hermaphrodites to generate MIA140 *egl-30(ad805) I; vsIs164 lite-1(ce314) lin-15(n765ts) X*, MIA139 *egl-30(n686) I; vsIs164 lite-1(ce314) lin-15(n765ts) X*, MIA109 *egl-8(sa47) V; vsIs164 lite-1(ce314) lin-15(n765ts) X*, MIA288 *egl-8(n488) V; vsIs164 lite-1(ce314) lin-15(n765ts) X*, MIA141 *unc-73(ce362) I; vsIs164 lite-1(ce314) lin-15(n765ts) X*, MIA287 *eat-16(tm761) I; vsIs164 lite-1(ce314) lin-15(n765ts) X*, MIA286 *egl-30(tg26) I; vsIs164 lite-1(ce314) lin-15(n765ts) X*, and MIA296 *dgk-1(nu62) vsIs164 lite-1(ce314) lin-15(n765ts) X*, respectively. The corresponding gene mutation was confirmed by phenotype, genotype, or both. Presence of *vsIs164* was confirmed observing the mCherry

marker, and *lite-1(ce314) X* was confirmed with PCR genotyping. Oligo sequences used for

genotyping the corresponding mutations are shown in Table 2.

Trio RhoGEF-E transgenes

Pan-neuronal expression:

The *rab-3* promoter was used to drive expression of GFP alone or with Trio-RhoGEF-E. Briefly,

plasmids KG#68 (*rab-3p::GFP*; 15 ng/µl) alone or with KG#281 (*rab-3p:: unc-73e;* 50 ng/µL)

were injected into KG1278 *unc-73(ce362) I* (Williams et al., 2007). For behavior experiments,

five independent GFP-expressing transgenic lines were used, from which a single transgenic

line from each was kept: MIA374 *unc-73(ce362) I*; *keyEx66* (expressing GFP alone) and MIA375

unc-73(ce362) I; *keyEx67* (expressing GFP and Trio RhoGEF-E). Plasmids KG#281(*rab-3p::unc-73e*) and KG#68(*rab-3p::GFP*) were kind gifts from Dr. Kenneth Miller.

Pan-muscle expression

Plasmid pKMC33 (*rgs-1p::mCherry*) was digested with NheI/KpnI and ligated with similarly

digested pPD96.52 (Fire lab *C. elegans* Vector Kit 1999; 1608: L2534, Addgene) to generate

pKMC166 (*myo-3p::mCherry*). Plasmid KG#281 (*rab-3p::unc-73e*) was digested with NheI and

KpnI, and the insert was ligated into similarly digested pKMC166 to generate pPD3 (*myo-3p::unc-73e*). pKMC166 (15 ng/µL) alone or with pPD3 (50 ng/µL) was injected into KG1278

unc-73(ce362) I mutants. Five independent mCherry-expressing transgenic lines were used for

behavior experiments from which a single transgenic line from each was kept: MIA376 *unc-73(ce362) I; keyEx68* (expressing mCherry alone) and MIA377 *unc-73(ce362) I*; *keyEx69*

(expressing mCherry + Trio RhoGEF-E).

Neuron and muscle co-expression

Plasmids KG#68 (15 ng/µl; pan-neuronal GFP) or pKMC166 (15 ng/µl; pan-muscle mCherry) alone or with KG#281 (50ng/µl; pan-neuronal *unc-73e*) and pPD3 (50ng/µL; pan-muscle *unc-73e*) were injected into KG1278 *unc-73(ce362) I*, generating five independent mCherry(+), GFP(+) transgenic lines for behavior experiments from which a single transgenic line from each was kept: MIA372 *unc-73(ce362); keyEx64* expressing mCherry (muscles) and GFP (neurons) only and MIA373 *unc-73(ce362); keyEx65* expressing GFP (neurons), mCherry (muscles) and TrioRhoGEF-E (both neurons and muscles).

PLCβ Transgenes

To generate a control plasmid expressing GFP in neurons, GFP coding sequences were amplified from pJM60 (Moresco and Koelle, 2004) using oligonucleotides RE-GFP-FWD / -REV, digested with NheI / KpnI, and ligated into similarly digested pGP3 bearing the *rgs-1* promoter (Dong et al., 2000), generating pKMC78. An *egl-8* cDNA was used to generate and express a functional GFP fusion protein in neurons. Briefly, oligonucleotides egl-8-cDNA-fwd / -rev were used to amplified *egl-8* coding sequences from a plasmid bearing an *egl-8* cDNA provided by Dr. Kenneth Miller (pKP309). This amplicon was digested with NheI / NcoI and ligated into a similarly digested pPD49.26 plasmid, generating pKMC193. Quickchange mutagenesis with oligonucleotides egl-8-Cterm-NotI-fwd / -rev were used to insert an in-frame NotI site near the 3' end of the *egl-8* cDNA in a divergent region of the coding sequence, generating plasmid pKMC194. Coding sequences for *egl-8* bearing this NotI site were then moved to pKMC78 by digestion of pKMC194 with NheI/NcoI followed by ligation into a similarly digested pKMC78, generating pKMC195. Oligonucleotides NotI-GFP-FWD / -REV were used to amplified GFP coding sequences from pKMC78, digested with NotI, and ligated into a similarly digested pKMC195, generating pKMC196. A strain bearing the *egl-8(sa47)* mutation was generously provided by Dr. Joshua Kaplan and backcrossed four times to N2 wild-type animals to generate

LX1225 *egl-8(sa47) V*. MT8189 *lin-15(n765ts)* males were mated to LX1225 to generate LX1287

egl-8(sa47) V; lin-15(n765ts) X hermaphrodites that were kept at 15°C prior to injection.

Plasmids expressing GFP alone (pKMC78; 5 ng/μl) or *egl-8* cDNA fused to GFP (pKMC196; 5

ng/μl) were injected along with pL15EK (50 ng/μl) into LX1287 hermaphrodites. For behavior

experiments, five independent GFP-expressing lines were used from which a single transgenic

line (*vsEx679* [GFP] and *vsEx680* [EGL-8::GFP], respectively) was kept. We noted that

transgenic expression of GFP alone did cause a modest, but significant reduction of egg

accumulation compared to LX1225 *egl-8(sa47) V* mutant animals. This effect appeared to be

specific for egg accumulation, as these same *egl-8(sa47)* GFP-only expressing transgenic lines

showed similar resistance to 1 mM aldicarb as LX1225 *egl-8(sa47) V* (0 ±2.1% vs. 9 ±5.9% of

animals paralyzed at 4 h, respectively). In contrast, 48 ± 7.9% of transgenic *egl-8(sa47)* animals

expressing EGL-8::GFP were paralyzed at 4 h, not significantly different to wild-type N2 animals

(51 ±9.6% of animals paralyzed at 4 h).

Vulval muscle Channelrhodopsin-2 strains

N2 males were crossed into MIA229 *keyIs48 [ceh-24p::ChR2::unc-54 3'UTR + lin-15(+)], lite-*

1(ce314), lin-15(n765ts) X (Kopchock et al., 2021) to produce F1 heterozygous males, which

then were crossed separately into MIA211 *unc-73(ce362) I; lite-1(ce314) lin-15(n765ts) X,*

MIA299 *egl-30(ad805) I; lite-1(ce314) lin-15(n765ts) X*, MIA303 *egl-8(n488) V; lite-1(ce314) lin-*

15(n765ts) X, or MIA307 *egl-8(sa47) V; lite-1(ce314) lin-15(n765ts) X* hermaphrodites to

generate vulval muscle specific Channelrhodopsin-2 (ChR2) expressing transgenic lines

MIA248 *unc-73(ce362) I; keyIs48; lite-1(ce314) X*, MIA301 *egl-30(ad805) I; keyIs48; lite-*

1(ce314) X, MIA305 *egl-8(n488) V; keyIs48; lite-1(ce314) X*, and MIA309 *egl-8(sa47) V;*

keyIs48; lite-1(ce314) X. The presence of *lite-1(ce362)* was confirmed by genotyping as above,

and the presence of the ChR2 transgene was confirmed by rescue of the *lin-15(n765ts)* multi-

vulva (Muv) phenotype.

HSN Channelrhodopsin strains

ChR2 was expressed in the HSNs from the *egl-6* promoter via an integrated *wzIs30* transgene

(Emtage et al., 2012). This transgene was crossed into Gα_q signaling mutants as follows. N2

males were crossed into LX1836 *wzIs30 IV; lite-1(ce314) lin-15(n765ts) X* to generate

heterozygous F1 males, which were then crossed separately into MIA211 *unc-73(ce362) I; lite-*

1(ce314) lin-15(n765ts) X, MIA299 *egl-30(ad805) I; lite-1(ce314) lin-15(n765ts) X*, MIA303 *egl-*

8(n488) V; lite-1(ce314) lin-15(n765ts) X, or MIA307 *egl-8(sa47) V; lite-1(ce314) lin-15(n765ts)*

X hermaphrodites to generate MIA247 *unc-73(ce362) I; wzIs30 IV; lite-1(ce314) X,* MIA300 *egl-*

30(ad805) I; wzIs30 IV; lite-1(ce314) X, MIA304 *wzIs30 IV; egl-8(n488)V; lite-1(ce314) X*, and

MIA308 *wzIs30 IV; egl-8(sa47) V; lite-1(ce314) X*. The presence of *lite-1(ce362)* was confirmed

by PCR genotyping, and the *wzIs30* transgene was confirmed by rescue of the *lin-15(n765ts)*

Muv phenotype.

Behavior assays

207 Quantification of egg accumulation was performed as described (Chase and Koelle, 2004).

208 Staged adults were obtained by picking late L4 animals and culturing them 24-30 h at 20°C.

209 Each animal was placed in 7 μL of 20% hypochlorite (bleach) solution and eggs were counted

210 after animals had dissolved. Numbers of eggs and any internally hatched L1 animals were

211 combined.

Pharmacological assays

Egg laying in response to exogenous serotonin was performed as described (Banerjee et al., 2017; Kopchock et al., 2021). Individual staged adult animals were placed in 100 µl of either M9 buffer alone, or M9 containing 18.5 mM serotonin (creatinine sulfate monohydrate salt, Sigma-Aldrich #H7752) or M9 containing 10 µM PMA (Phorbol-12-myristate-13-acetate, Calbiochem #524400) in a 96-well microtiter dish. After 1 hour, the number of released eggs and L1 larvae in each well were counted. Since egg-laying defective animals sometimes release one or two eggs/L1 larvae in response to mechanical stimulation when they are first picked into the well, animals were only recorded as responding if they laid 3 or more progeny. For calcium imaging, NGM plates containing either PMA or ethanol solvent were prepared as described (Reynolds et al., 2005). Age-matched adult worms from each genotype were placed on separate PMA or control NGM plates at room temperature for 1.5 hour. An agar chunk was then placed between two glass coverslips for Ca^{2+} activity recording as described (Ravi et al., 2018b). The unused plates were kept at 4 °C for future use.

Optogenetic assay

All-*trans* retinal (Sigma Aldrich, R2500) was resuspended in ethanol (100%) to make 100 mM solution and added to a warmed culture of OP50 bacteria grown in B Broth media to a final concentration of 0.4 mM. Individual NGM agar plates were seeded with 200 µl of freshly prepared +ATR food and were grown in the dark for ~24 hours prior to use. In all photo-stimulation experiments, control animals were grown in the absence of ATR. Animals were imaged at 4x magnification on a Leica M165FC stereomicroscope and illuminated with 3.3 mW/cm^2 of ~470 ± 20 nm blue light produced using a EL6000 metal halide light source and a GFP excitation/emission filter set. The 30 s on/off sequence was programmed and controlled using a Doric Optogenetics TTL Pulse Generator (OTPG-4, Version 3.3) triggering a SHB1 series shutter controller (ThorLabs; 170712-1).

Microscopy

Ratiometric Ca^{2+} imaging

Vulval muscle Ca^{2+} activity was performed in freely behaving adult animals at 24-30 h past the late L4 larval stage, as described previously (Collins and Koelle 2013; Collins *et al.* 2016; Ravi *et al.* 2018a). Worms co-expressing GCaMP5G and mCherry under the *unc-103e* promoter transgene *vsIs164* were mounted beneath the chunk of agar over the glass slide. Ca^{2+} activity was recorded through an 20X Apochromatic objective (0.8 NA) mounted on an inverted Zeiss Axio Observer.Z1. A Colibri.2 LED illumination system was used to excite GCaMP5 at 470 nm and mCherry at 590 nm for 10 msec every 50 msec. GFP and mCherry fluorescence emission channels were separated using a Hamamatsu W-VIEW Gemini image splitter and recorded simultaneously for 10 min with an ORCA-Flash 4.0 V2 sCMOS camera at 256 / 256-pixel resolution (4x4 binning) at 16-bit depth. The motorized stage was manually controlled using a joystick to maintain the freely behaving animal in the field of view. Image sequences were exported to Volocity software (Quorum Technologies Inc.) for segmentation and ratiometric analysis. Ca^{2+} transient peaks from ratio traces were detected using a custom MATLAB script, as described (Ravi *et al.* 2018a).

Experimental design and statistical analysis

Sample sizes for behavioral assays followed previous studies (Chase and Koelle, 2004; Collins et al., 2016). Statistical analysis was performed using Prism v.8 or v.9 (GraphPad). Ca^{2+} transient peak amplitudes, widths, and inter-transient intervals were pooled from multiple animals (typically ≥ 10 animals per genotype). All statistical tests were corrected for multiple comparisons (Bonferroni for one-way ANOVA or Fisher's exact tests; Dunn's correction for

263   Kruskal–Wallis tests). Each figure legend indicates individual p-values with $p < 0.05$ being

264   considered significant.

Results

Trio RhoGEF acts both in neurons and muscle to drive egg-laying behavior

Prior work has shown that $G\alpha_q$ signaling (Fig. 1A) through PLCβ and Trio RhoGEF promotes neurotransmitter release and locomotion (Brundage et al., 1996; Miller et al., 1999; Williams et al., 2007). How $G\alpha_q$ signaling regulates other *C. elegans* behavior circuits is less well established. To address this uncertainty, we chose to examine the neural circuit driving egg-laying behavior (Fig. 1B). Egg-laying behavior in *C. elegans* is regulated by a small motor circuit with defined neurons and muscle connectivity (Cook et al., 2019; White et al., 1986). The HSNs are serotonergic command motor neurons (Fig. 1B) that initiate the egg-laying active state and promote the excitability of the vm1 and vm2 egg-laying vulval muscles (Collins et al., 2016; Emtage et al., 2012; Waggoner et al., 1998). Innervating ventral cord neurons release acetylcholine to regulate muscle contraction (Bany et al., 2003; Kim et al., 2001; Kopchock et al., 2021; Waggoner et al., 2000). We first examined the steady-state accumulation of eggs in the uterus as a proxy for changes in egg-laying circuit activity and behavior. As previously shown, animals bearing mutations in the EAT-16 RGS protein, which inhibits $G\alpha_q$ signaling (Hajdu-Cronin et al., 1999), or gain-of-function mutations in $G\alpha_q$ itself, (Bastiani et al., 2003; Doi and Iwasaki, 2002) showed a significant increase in egg laying resulting in a significant reduction in egg accumulation compared to the ~12 ± 3 embryos retained in wild-type animals (Fig. 1C-E; Fig. 1I). Conversely, animals bearing mutations which reduce $G\alpha_q$ signaling showed the opposite phenotype. Animals bearing an early nonsense mutation predicted to be a PLCβ null mutant, *egl-8(sa47),* (Lackner et al., 1999; Williams et al., 2007) accumulated an average of 21 eggs, a significant increase (Fig. 1G). Animals bearing a missense mutation in the RhoGEF domain of Trio, *unc-73(ce362)* (Williams et al., 2007), showed an even stronger increase in egg accumulation, accumulating 31 eggs and closely resembling animals bearing loss-of-function

mutations in Gα_q itself (Fig. 1F-1I). Together, these results confirm that Gα_q and its effectors

PLCβ and Trio RhoGEF are required for egg-laying behavior in *C. elegans* and that loss of the

Trio RhoGEF branch causes a stronger behavior impairment compared to loss of PLCβ.

Previous work has shown that PLCβ is expressed in neurons and in the intestine while

Gα_q and Trio are expressed in nearly all excitable cells including neurons and muscles (Bastiani

et al., 2003; Brundage et al., 1996; Lackner et al., 1999; Miller et al., 1999; Steven et al., 1998).

To understand where Gα_q and its effectors function to regulate egg laying, we used tissue-

specific promoters to express cDNAs encoding PLCβ or Trio RhoGEF in either all neurons, in

the body wall and egg-laying vulval muscles, or in both neurons and muscles. We found that

transgenic expression of PLCβ from a pan-neuronal promoter in PLCβ null mutants was

sufficient to rescue their defects in egg laying (Fig. 1J) and acetylcholine (ACh) release as

measured by restoration of sensitivity to aldicarb, a cholinesterase inhibitor (data not shown).

Previous work has indicated the presence of eight transcript variants of Trio (A, B, C1, C2, D1,

D2, E, and F), which are differentially expressed in *C. elegans* (Steven et al., 1998; Steven et

al., 2005). Transgenic expression of Trio RhoGEF-E in neurons is sufficient to rescue the

locomotion defects of Trio RhoGEF mutants (Williams et al., 2007). To explore whether Trio

RhoGEF acts similarly in neurons to promote egg laying, we used a pan-neuronal promoter to

express Trio RhoGEF-E and measured egg accumulation in these animals. We observed a

partial, but significant reduction in the number of eggs retained in Trio RhoGEF mutants (~36

eggs) compared to control Trio RhoGEF mutant animals (~42 eggs; Fig. 1K). In contrast,

transgenic expression of Trio RhoGEF-E in the egg-laying vulval muscles from a muscle-specific

promoter showed a much greater rescue of egg accumulation (~25 eggs), and this rescue of

egg laying was improved to nearly wild-type levels when Trio RhoGEF was expressed in both

neurons and muscles (~19 eggs; Fig. 1K). Together, these results confirm that Gα_q effectors

PLCβ and Trio RhoGEF function in neurons to regulate egg-laying behavior. Our results also

suggest Trio RhoGEF also functions in the postsynaptic vulval muscles for proper regulation of

egg laying, a finding consistent with previously results regarding $G\alpha_q$ (Bastiani et al., 2003).

Serotonin signals through $G\alpha_q$, Trio, and PLCβ to promote egg laying.

Previous studies have shown that serotonin released from the HSNs signals through G-protein

coupled serotonin receptors expressed on the vulval muscles (Bastiani et al., 2003; Dempsey et

al., 2005; Fernandez et al., 2020; Tanis et al., 2008; Xiao et al., 2006). The vulval muscles are

also innervated by cholinergic ventral cord motor neurons (Cook et al., 2019; White et al., 1986)

whose release of ACh is regulated by serotonin and G protein signaling (Nurrish et al., 1999).

To test whether serotonin promotes egg laying via activating $G\alpha_q$ signaling, we measured the

egg-laying response to serotonin in $G\alpha_q$ signaling mutants. Serotonin promotes egg laying in

hypertonic M9 buffer, a condition that normally inhibits egg laying in both wild-type and HSNs-

deficient *egl-1(dm)* mutants, which developmentally lack the HSNs (Fig. 2B). Consistent with

previous results (Bastiani et al., 2003; Brundage et al., 1996; Trent et al., 1983), nearly 78% of

wild-type and 70% of HSN-deficient *egl-1(dm)* animals laid eggs in response to serotonin

compared to only 13% of $G\alpha_q$ mutant animals (Fig. 2B). Serotonin response was similarly and

significantly reduced to 23% and 3% in PLCβ and Trio RhoGEF mutant animals, respectively

(Fig. 2B). Our results are consistent with the previous results reporting that $G\alpha_q$ loss-of-function

mutants and PLCβ deletion null mutants, *egl-8(n488)* do not lay eggs in response to exogenous

serotonin (Bastiani et al., 2003; Trent et al., 1983). However, we find that a second PLCβ null

mutant *egl-8(sa47)* similarly fails to lay eggs in response to exogenous serotonin, a result

different from that previously reported (Bastiani et al., 2003). This discrepancy may arise from

somewhat different concentrations of serotonin used. The distinct responses of animals without

HSNs and animals lacking $G\alpha_q$ signaling indicate that $G\alpha_q$, PLCβ and Trio act at least in part

outside of HSNs to promote egg laying in response to serotonin. To determine where Trio RhoGEF deficiency caused serotonin insensitivity, we measured egg laying in Trio RhoGEF mutant animals re-expressing Trio RhoGEF-E in either neurons, muscles, or both. Transgenic expression of Trio RhoGEF-E in neurons failed to rescue egg laying in response to serotonin (Fig. 2C), but expression of Trio RhoGEF-E in muscles, or in both neurons and muscles, restored egg laying of *unc-73(ce362)* mutant animals (Fig. 2C), suggesting Trio RhoGEF mediates serotonin signaling in the vulval muscles. Together, these results indicate that $G\alpha_q$, PLCβ, and Trio RhoGEF function at least in part outside of the HSNs to drive egg laying in response to serotonin.

Optogenetic stimulation of the HSNs and vulval muscles suggests cellular specificity of $G\alpha_q$ effectors for egg-laying.

Optogenetic stimulation of Channelrhodopsin-2 (ChR2) expressed in either the HSNs (Emtage et al., 2012) or vulval muscles (Kopchock et al., 2021) can drive egg laying. To test whether and how $G\alpha_q$ and its effectors mediate this response, we expressed ChR2 in HSNs in $G\alpha_q$ and effector mutants and measured egg laying during 30s of exposure to blue light. Blue light stimulation of the HSNs drove an average release of ~3 eggs in wild-type animals, which was reduced to essentially zero in $G\alpha_q$ [(*egl-30(ad805)*]] and Trio RhoGEF [*unc-73(ce362)*] mutants (Fig. 3A), consistent to our previous results showing Trio RhoGEF acts in part in the postsynaptic vulval muscles downstream of the HSNs. In contrast, optogenetic stimulation of the HSNs in PLCβ null mutants [*egl-8(sa47)* or *egl-8(n488)*] drove robust egg release, releasing an average of ~4 and ~6 embryos respectively in 30 s (Fig. 3A). The efficient rescue of egg laying in PLCβ but not $G\alpha_q$ or Trio RhoGEF mutants upon optogenetic stimulation of HSNs is again consistent with distinct $G\alpha_q$, PLCβ, and Trio RhoGEF requirements in the cells of the egg-laying circuit. To

test whether the failure of egg laying in Gα_q and Trio RhoGEF mutants was a consequence of muscle developmental defects, rather than excitability deficits, we expressed and stimulated ChR2 in the vulval muscles. Blue light exposure drove the release of ~4 eggs in 30 s in wild-type animals. Both PLCβ [*egl-8(sa47)* and *egl-8(nu488)*] and Trio RhoGEF mutants [*unc-73(ce362)*] laid a similar number of eggs as wild-type control animals after blue light stimulation (Fig. 3B). The *egl-30(ad805)* Gα_q mutant laid slightly fewer eggs on average (~3) but this was not significantly different than wild type. Thus, the failure of Gα_q and Trio mutants to lay eggs in response to exogenous serotonin or optogenetic stimulation of the HSNs does not arise from some intrinsic defect in vulval muscle contractility, but rather a specific deficiency in muscle excitability. These results are also consistent with prior findings showing rescue of egg-laying behavior defects of Gα_q, PLCβ, and Trio RhoGEF mutants by exogenous phorbol esters (Lackner et al., 1999; Williams et al., 2007). Together, these results support the conclusion from our rescue experiments (Fig. 1J-1K) that PLCβ and Trio RhoGEF function in distinct cells and through unique mechanisms to promote egg-laying circuit activity and behavior.

Gα_q and Trio RhoGEF are required for vulval muscle Ca^{2+} activity

Egg laying in *C. elegans* is a two-state behavior where ~20 minute inactive states are punctuated by ~2-minute active states with high levels of Ca^{2+} activity in the egg-laying circuit driving release of 3-5 eggs (Collins et al., 2016; Waggoner et al., 1998; Zhang et al., 2008; Zhang et al., 2010). Loss of Gα_q signaling in *egl-30(n686)* animals causes a significant reduction in spontaneous and serotonin-induced vulval muscle Ca^{2+} transients in immobilized animals (Shyn et al., 2003). We therefore tested whether these Gα_q dependent Ca^{2+} activity defects were shared in PLCβ and Trio RhoGEF mutants. We expressed the genetically encoded Ca^{2+} reporter, GCaMP5, along with mCherry in the vulval muscles of animals with either increased or decreased Gα_q signaling

and performed ratiometric imaging in freely behaving animals. As shown in Figure 4A, the normal two-state pattern of vulval muscle Ca^{2+} activity is lost in animals bearing strong loss-of-function $G\alpha_q$ or Trio RhoGEF mutations. In both the *egl-30(ad805)* $G\alpha_q$ and *unc-73(ce362)* Trio mutants, we failed to observe either the strong egg-laying Ca^{2+} transients where both the vm1 and vm2 muscles contract or even the smaller amplitude rhythmic 'twitch' Ca^{2+} transients (Fig. 4A) that are localized to the vm1 muscles (Collins and Koelle, 2013), strongly reducing the observed Ca^{2+} transient frequency (Fig. 4B). In contrast, the weaker *egl-30(n686)* $G\alpha_q$ mutant and two different PLCβ null mutants showed grossly normal vulval muscle Ca^{2+} activity during both egg-laying and twitch transients (Fig. 4A-C). The elevated pattern of vulval muscle Ca^{2+} activity we observed in weak *egl-30(n686)* $G\alpha_q$ and PLCβ mutants resembled *egl-1(dm)* animals lacking the HSNs (Collins et al., 2016). These animals still enter and leave infrequent egg-laying active states, possibly driven by the accumulation of eggs in the uterus (Ravi et al., 2018a). DAG Kinase-θ (DGK-θ) is thought to reduce DAG signaling through conversion to phosphatidic acid (Fig. 1A). Loss of the DGK-θ/DGK-1 increases neurotransmitter release and egg laying, likely through elevation of DAG levels and activation of downstream effectors (Jose and Koelle, 2005; Miller et al., 1996; Nurrish et al., 1999). To test if *dgk-1* mutants have increased egg-laying muscle activity, we performed Ca^{2+} imaging in *dgk-1(nu62)* mutants. Somewhat surprisingly, DAG Kinase mutant animals did not show a significant increase in vulval muscle Ca^{2+} activity (Fig. 4A-C). Like PLCβ, DGK-1 is expressed in neurons (Nurrish et al., 1999), suggesting alterations of IP_3 and /or DAG levels in neurons may affect the frequency of egg-laying active states without altering the overall pattern or strength of vulval muscle Ca^{2+} activity within those active states. Indeed, *goa-1(n1134)* mutants that reduce inhibitory $G\alpha_o$ signaling have hyperactive egg-laying behavior defects that strongly resemble *dgk-1(nu62)* mutants without causing a correspondingly significant increase in vulval muscle Ca^{2+} activity (Ravi et al., 2021)

Conversely, animals with increased $G\alpha_q$ signaling either from a gain-of-function *egl-30(tg26)*

mutations or *eat-16(tm761)* null mutations showed a significant increase in the amplitude of

vulval muscle Ca^{2+} transients (Fig. 4A and 4C). We also observed a significant increase in the

frequency of vulval muscle Ca^{2+} transients in *egl-30(tg26)* mutants, but this was not shared in

eat-16(tm761) mutants. Together, these results indicate $G\alpha_q$ and Trio RhoGEF, but not PLCβ,

promote vulval muscle activity that drives twitching and egg-laying Ca^{2+} transients during egg-

laying active states.

DAG mimetics restore muscle activity and egg laying to $G\alpha_q$ signaling mutants

How does serotonin signaling through $G\alpha_q$ promote vulval muscle activity? Previous results have

shown that DAG mimetic phorbol esters restore locomotion and animal viability to $G\alpha_q$ null

mutants and restore egg laying in PLCβ, Trio RhoGEF double mutants (Williams et al., 2007).

However, the effects of phorbol esters on egg laying in single mutants was not clear, raising

questions as to whether PMA rescued egg laying downstream of PLCβ, Trio RhoGEF, or both

(Fig. 5A). We measured the egg-laying responses of wild-type animals and $G\alpha_q$ signaling

mutants to Phorbol 12-myristate 13-acetate (PMA). As shown in Figure 5B, PMA treatment

strongly stimulated egg laying in wild-type animals and all mutants with reduced $G\alpha_q$ signaling

(≥80% animals laying eggs). Like serotonin (Fig. 2B), PMA also rescued egg laying in *egl-1(dm)*

mutant animals lacking the HSNs (Fig. 4B), but only PMA rescued egg laying in $G\alpha_q$ and effector

signaling mutants. These results are consistent with PMA acting downstream of both serotonin

release from the HSNs and its subsequent signaling through $G\alpha_q$. We next imaged how

exogenous PMA affected vulval muscle Ca^{2+} transient activity. We performed 10-minute

GCaMP5 Ca^{2+} recordings of wild-type or $G\alpha_q$ signaling mutants treated for two hours with 10 μM

PMA (Movies 1-3). Quantitation of Ca^{2+} transients showed that PMA significantly increased

vulval muscle Ca^{2+} activity in wild-type animals to 10±1.6 transients per minute from an average

2±0.9 transients per min in vehicle-treated, wild-type animals (Fig. 5C-D and Movie 1). PMA also

restored both rhythmic twitch and egg-laying Ca^{2+} transients to strong Gα_q and Trio RhoGEF

signaling mutants, with Ca^{2+} transients frequencies increasing from essentially 0±0.8 transients

per minute in vehicle-treated controls to 7±2 transients per minute after PMA treatment, almost

but not quite to the level of PMA-treated wild-type control animals (Fig. 5C-D and Movies 2-3).

Together, these studies show that DAG-mimetic phorbol esters restore muscle excitability and

contractility defects of Gα_q and Trio RhoGEF mutants, suggesting DAG production is a major

and necessary consequence of both Gα_q and Trio RhoGEF signaling.

DAG promotes egg laying independent of UNC-13 and Protein Kinase C

How do phorbol esters such as PMA rescue vulval muscle Ca^{2+} activity and egg laying? Previous

results have shown that DAG and PMA bind to C1 domain-containing proteins such as mUNC-

13/UNC-13 and Protein Kinase C (PKC) to regulate their activity (Betz et al., 1998; Huang, 1989;

Konig et al., 1985; Newton, 2001; Silinsky and Searl, 2003).To test if DAG regulates egg-laying

behavior through activation of UNC-13 or PKC, we tested how PMA and serotonin affect egg

laying in mutants lacking these proteins (Fig. 6). Mutants that eliminate axonal and synaptic

UNC-13 show reduced egg laying, accumulating an average of 22 eggs compared to 15 seen in

wild-type animals (Fig. 6A). Null *unc-13(s69)* and loss of function *unc-13(e51)* mutants have

much less severe egg-laying defects compared to Gα_q signaling mutants, accumulating ~22 and

~19 eggs (Fig. 6A) compared to >30 eggs (Fig. 1C-I). These results suggest that Gα_q promotes

synaptic transmission and egg-laying through an UNC-13 independent pathway. If PMA

activation of vulval muscle Ca^{2+} and egg laying were mediated by UNC-13, then mutations that

eliminate this protein should reduce that response. However, *unc-13* mutants still laid eggs in

response to PMA (Fig. 6B). Because DAG production may be a conserved biochemical

consequence of $G\alpha_q$ signaling through both PLCβ and Trio RhoGEF pathways, and both effector

pathways have functions in neurons, we hypothesized that serotonin might promote egg laying

via modulation of UNC-13 activity. In support of this model, *unc-13* mutants failed to lay eggs in

response to serotonin (Fig. 6B). To determine whether serotonin promotes egg laying through

Protein Kinase C, we analyzed egg accumulation in animals bearing predicted null mutations in

different PKC isoforms (Edwards et al., 2012; Hyde et al., 2011; Okochi et al., 2005; Tabuse,

2002; Tabuse et al., 1989). PKC-1 has previously been shown to promote neuropeptide

transmission (Sieburth et al., 2007). While neuropeptides signal to promote egg laying (Avery et

al., 1993; Brewer et al., 2019; Jacob and Kaplan, 2003; Kass et al., 2001), PKC-1 (nPKC-ε) null

mutants showed a grossly normal egg accumulation of 14~17 eggs (Fig. 6C). Animals bearing

predicted null mutants of novel and conventional PKCs such as nPKCδ/θ (TPA-1) and cPKCα/β

(PKC-2) orthologs also show no significant differences in egg accumulation (Fig. 6C), suggesting

that disruption of PKC signaling does not strongly affect egg-laying behavior. Like UNC-13, If

PMA activation of vulval muscle Ca^{2+} and egg laying were mediated by PKCs, then mutations

that eliminate PKCs, should reduce that response. However, PKC single mutant animals still laid

eggs in response to PMA (Fig. 6C). Together, these results support a model where serotonin

promotes neurotransmitter release and egg laying via UNC-13, however, there are additional

targets of DAG that function in parallel to UNC-13 in neurons and/or downstream of UNC-13 in

the vulval muscles to promote egg laying.

Discussion

In this study we explored the cellular specificity of $G\alpha_q$ effector signaling as it regulates egg-laying circuit activity and behavior using molecular genetics, optogenetics, pharmacology, and calcium imaging techniques. We found that $G\alpha_q$ effectors PLCβ and Trio RhoGEF differentially act in neurons and muscles to promote synaptic transmission and egg-laying behavior. PLCβ signals presynaptically in neurons while Trio RhoGEF signals both presynaptically in neurons and postsynaptically in muscles. Although $G\alpha_q$, PLCβ, and Trio RhoGEF mutants all fail to lay eggs in response to serotonin, optogenetic stimulation of HSNs fully rescued egg laying in PLCβ but not $G\alpha_q$ or Trio RhoGEF mutants, suggesting hyperactivation of the HSNs may be able to bypass PLCβ signaling in some cases. Recent work has shown that the HSNs release NLP-3 neuropeptides which can promote egg laying even in *tph-1* mutants lacking serotonin (Brewer et al., 2019), possibly explaining why optogenetic activation of HSNs may be able to stimulate egg laying in PLCβ mutants even when exogenous serotonin cannot. The HSNs are also predicted to release Ach (Gendrel et al., 2016; Pereira et al., 2015), which may signal through nAChR receptors expressed on the vulval muscles (Kim et al., 2001; Waggoner et al., 2000). Because serotonin drives egg laying in animals lacking HSNs but not in animals lacking PLCβ, we propose that $G\alpha_q$ and PLCβ act in neurons other than HSN to promote ACh release onto the vulval muscles for egg laying. The cholinergic VA, VB, and VC neurons also innervate the vulval muscles alongside the HSNs (Cook et al., 2019; White et al., 1986). Consistent with this model, we have recently shown that blocking VC synaptic transmission reduces egg laying in response to serotonin (Kopchock et al., 2021). Optogenetic stimulation of the VCs (Kopchock et al., 2021) or VA/VB neurons (Kopchock et al., unpublished) stimulates vulval muscle Ca^{2+} activity, but the resulting Ca^{2+} activity is insufficient to drive egg laying behavior (data now shown). Because we find that mutations that increase $G\alpha_q$ signaling have stronger vulval muscle Ca^{2+} transients, we

propose that serotonin and NLP-3 released from HSN potentiates both ACh release from other motor neurons and the electrical excitability and/or contractility of the vulval muscles, converting rhythmic twitch Ca^{2+} transients into stronger egg-laying transients. Previous studies have shown that Trio RhoGEF acts in presynaptic motor neurons to regulate locomotion behavior (Hu et al., 2011; Steven et al., 2005; Williams et al., 2007). Our studies show that transgenic Trio RhoGEF expression in either neurons or muscles alone is insufficient to restore wild-type level of egg-laying behavior, but expression in both is sufficient. These results mirror previously published results for $G\alpha_q$ (Bastiani et al., 2003), further supporting a model where PLCβ and Trio RhoGEF have distinct functions during locomotion and egg-laying behaviors.

How do $G\alpha_q$, PLCβ and Trio-RhoGEF signaling promote egg-laying behavior? Earlier studies have suggested that Rho ortholog RHO-1 in *C. elegans* regulates synaptic activity in a mechanism that involves the G12 family protein GPA-12 (Hiley et al., 2006; Lutz et al., 2005). Activated RHO-1 also directly binds to and inhibits the DGK-1 diacylglycerol kinase expressed in neurons that signals to reduce DAG available to bind effectors (Hiley et al., 2006; McMullan et al., 2006). Our data are consistent with the previous results reporting that $G\alpha_q$ signaling regulates postsynaptic vulval muscle activity mainly through $G\alpha_q$-Trio pathway as $G\alpha_q$, and Trio mutants show a similarly strong reduction in vulval muscle Ca^{2+} activity. Because muscle activity defects in $G\alpha_q$ and Trio mutants can be restored by the DAG-mimetic PMA, we suggest that insufficient levels of DAG are responsible for the circuit activity and behavior defects of $G\alpha_q$ and Trio RhoGEF mutants. In the absence of PLCβ, how would parallel $G\alpha_q$ signaling through Trio RhoGEF and RHO-1 generate DAG? Besides PLCβ (EGL-8)*, C. elegans* expresses four other PLC orthologs: PLCε (PLC-1), PLC-2, PLCγ (PLC-3), and PLCδ (PLC-4) (Vázquez-Manrique et al., 2008). *In vitro* studies with cultured mammalian cells show that small G proteins like Rho can bind to and activate PLCε (Seifert et al., 2008; Wing et al., 2003). Genetic evidence in *C. elegans*

suggests a model that both PLCε and PLCγ likely function downstream of Gα$_q$ to promote cell

activity (Kunitomo et al., 2013; Yu et al., 2013), but whether Trio activation of Rho ultimately acts

through these PLCs to produce DAG is not clear. One approach to test if these other PLCs

mediate Rho signaling would be to perform genetic epistasis experiments. However, loss of Rho-

1 causes lethality (Jantsch-Plunger et al., 2000; McMullan and Nurrish, 2011) and loss of PLCε

and PLCγ cause sterility defects (Yin et al., 2004), limiting our ability to measure differences in

egg laying. Imaging or biochemical experiments documenting changes in PIP$_2$ (Stauffer et al.,

1998) and/or DAG (Ohno et al., 2017; Tewson et al., 2012) could allow for directs tests of

whether Gα$_q$ signaling through Trio and Rho changes PIP2 and DAG levels *in vivo*.

Previous studies have shown that the DAG mimetic phorbol esters promote both synaptic

vesicle and dense core vesicle release from neurons and neurosecretory cells (Silinsky and

Searl, 2003). DAG and phorbol esters activate many effectors including mUNC-13 in the brain

and Protein Kinase C (PKC) in nearly all cells (Betz et al., 1998; Huang, 1989). In *C. elegans*,

treatment of exogenous PMA promotes hypersensitivity to the paralytic effects of aldicarb

(Sieburth et al., 2007). Double mutants of both PKC-1 null and UNC-13 (H17K) show a greater

magnitude of resistivity to phorbol esters compared to either mutant alone suggesting that PMA

acts in part through these effectors to regulate ACh release (Sieburth et al., 2007; Silinsky and

Searl, 2003). Our data show that animals lacking either UNC-13 or single PKC isoforms still

show a robust egg-laying response to PMA (Fig. 6), suggesting DAG and PMA promote muscle

activity via other targets. *In vitro* studies show ROCK (Rho-associated coiled-coil kinase)

activation in PMA-induced apoptosis and macrophage differentiation (Chang et al., 2006; Yang

et al., 2017). ROCK has a predicted C1 domain that mediates protein interaction with DAG and

might bind and be similarly activated by PMA (Xiao et al., 2009). In *C. elegans,* RHO-1 signals

through LET-502/ROCK to phosphorylate non-muscle myosin light chain (Shimizu et al., 2018).

Gα$_q$ also promotes neurotransmitter release via additional kinase targets including SEK-1

Mitogen-Activated Protein Kinase Kinase in the p38 MAPK pathway and KSR-1 in the ERK MAPK pathway (Coleman et al., 2018; Hoyt et al., 2017). KSR-1 is particularly interesting in that its N-terminus shares sequence similarly with C1 domains that might mediate regulation by DAG. Loss of KSR-1 and other ERK MAPK components also suppress the loopy locomotion defects caused by gain-of-function mutations in Rho-1 (Coleman et al., 2018). Taken together, our work is consistent with a model where additional DAG-sensitive effectors act downstream of $G\alpha_q$, Trio and Rho to promote muscle excitability and /or contractility for egg laying.

Apart from direct activation of C1 domain containing effectors, emerging evidence indicates Phospholipase C-dependent production of DAG can regulate neural circuit activity via endocannabinoid-mediated retrograde signaling. In pyramidal cells of the mouse hippocampus, postsynaptic calcium influx through voltage-gated calcium channels activates PLCβ1 to generate DAG (Hashimotodani et al., 2006; Hashimotodani et al., 2007; Soltesz et al., 2015). Diacylglycerol lipase-α (DAGLα) can convert DAG to Arachidonoylglycerol (2-AG), which signals from dendrites in a retrograde manner through presynaptic $G\alpha_o$-coupled endocannabinoid receptors to inhibit neurotransmitter release (Hashimotodani et al., 2013; Hashimotodani et al., 2005; Soltesz et al., 2015; Tanimura et al., 2010; Wettschureck et al., 2006). In *C. elegans*, 2-AG activates the NPR-19 endocannabinoid receptor ortholog that couples to $G\alpha_o$ to modulate serotonin transmission, pharyngeal, feeding, and locomotory behaviors (Oakes et al., 2019; Oakes et al., 2017; Pastuhov et al., 2016). We have recently shown that feedback of egg accumulation alters vulval muscle Ca^{2+} activity, which subsequently signals to regulate bursts of Ca^{2+} transients in the HSNs that accompany the onset of the egg-laying active state (Ravi et al., 2018a; Ravi et al., 2021), These results support a model where stretch-dependent feedback of egg accumulation stimulates postsynaptic vulval muscle Ca^{2+} signaling. This Ca^{2+} could then activate PLCs to generate DAG and 2-AG which signal to modulate HSN activity, serotonin release, and egg laying. The genetic and experimental accessibility of the *C. elegans* egg-laying

579   circuit should allow us to determine if conserved G proteins like $G\alpha_q$ act generally to drive neural

580   circuit activity via changes in DAG, subsequent activation of effectors, and retrograde

581   messengers like 2-AG.

Acknowledgements

This work was funded by grants from the NIH (R01-NS086932) and NSF (IOS-1844657) to KMC. PD is supported by AHA predoctoral fellowship Award (20PRE35210233). We thank Drs. Kenneth Miller and Joshua Kaplan for sharing plasmids and strains. Some of the strains used in this study were provided by the *C. elegans* Genetics Center, which is funded by NIH Office of Research Infrastructure Programs (P40 OD010440). We thank Drs. Julia Dallman, Laura Bianchi, and Athula Wikramanayake along with members of the Collins lab for helpful discussions and feedback on the manuscript.

Figure 1: Trio RhoGEF is required in both neurons and muscles to regulate egg-laying

behavior (A) Schematics of excitatory (black) and inhibitory (red) $G\alpha_q$ signaling pathway. *C.*

elegans gene names are beneath the protein they encode. **(B)** Cartoon of the *C. elegans* egg-

laying behavior circuit from a lateral view. Only the left side of the bilaterally symmetric circuit is

shown. HSNL, Hermaphrodite Specific Neuron (left); VC4 and VC5 Ventral C neurons; vm1 and

vm2 vulval muscles, um1 and um2 uterine muscles; uv1 uterine-vulval neuroendocrine cells. **(C-**

H) Bright field images of worms of the indicated genotypes; arrowheads indicate accumulated

eggs. Mean number of accumulated eggs ± 95% confidence intervals is also indicated. Position

of the vulva is shown with asterisk (*). **(I)** Scatterplot of egg accumulation in wild-type, *eat-*

16(tm761), *egl-30(tg26)*, *egl-30(ad805), egl-8(sa47), and unc-73(ce362)* mutant animals. Line

indicates mean eggs ± 95% confidence intervals. Asterisks indicate p ≤0.0001 (One way ANOVA

with Bonferroni's correction; wild type (n=49); *eat-16(tm761)* (n=36); *egl-30(tg26)* (n=47); *egl-*

30(ad805) (n=44); *egl-8(sa47)* (n=65); *unc-73(ce362)* (n=38). **(J)** Transgenic rescue of *egl-8*

PLCβ egg-laying defects. Scatterplot of egg accumulation in transgenic animals expressing GFP

only or EGL-8/PLCβ fused to GFP from the *rgs-1* promoter in *egl-8(sa47)* null mutants (n=50)

compared to wild-type (n=30) and *egl-8(sa47)* mutant animals (n=30). Bar indicates mean eggs

±95% confidence intervals. Asterisks indicate p≤0.0001 (One-way ANOVA with Bonferroni's

correction) **(K)** Transgenic rescue of *unc-73* Trio RhoGEF egg-laying defects. Scatterplot of egg

accumulation in wild-type (n=60), *unc-73(ce362)* mutants (n=72), and transgenic animals

expressing a fluorescent protein with or without Trio in neurons (n≥32) or in muscles (n≥69), or

in both neurons and muscles (n≥41) in *unc-73(ce362)* mutants*. Horizontal line indicates mean

accumulated eggs ±95% confidence intervals. Asterisks indicate p≤0.0145; n.s.= not significant

(p>0.05; One-way ANOVA with Bonferroni's correction for multiple comparisons).

Figure 2: Serotonin signals through Gα$_q$, Trio, and PLCβ to promote egg-laying.

(A) Model of serotonergic and acetylcholine (ACh) signaling in the egg-laying circuit. **(B)** Bar plots showing the percentage of animals laying eggs in M9 buffer alone (grey) or M9 +18.5 mM serotonin (green) in 1 hr. Bar indicates mean percent ±95% confidence intervals. Asterisks indicate $p < 0.0007$; n.s.= not significant ($p > 0.05$, Fisher's exact test with Bonferroni's correction for multiple comparisons; n>30 animals). **(C)** Bar plot showing percent of animals laying eggs in M9 buffer or M9 +18.5 mM serotonin in wild-type or Trio RhoGEF mutant animals expressing nothing or Trio RhoGEF in neurons, muscles, or both. Bar indicates mean percent ±95% confidence intervals. Asterisks indicate $p < 0.0007$; n.s.= not significant ($p > 0.05$, Fisher's exact test with Bonferroni's correction for multiple comparisons; n>30 animals).

Figure 3: Optogenetic stimulation of the HSNs or vulval muscles indicates cellular specificity of Gα$_q$ effectors for egg laying. (A) On left, cartoon of the egg-laying circuit and experiment showing blue light activation of HSN for 30 seconds. On right, scatterplot showing eggs laid per worm in presence (+) or absence (-) of all-*trans* retinal (ATR) cofactor during the blue light activation of ChR2 expressed in HSNs of wild-type (grey), *egl-30(ad805)* Gα$_q$ strong loss-of-function mutants (red), *egl-8(n488) and egl-8(sa47)* PLCβ mutants (orange), and *unc-73(ce362)* Trio mutant (purple) animals. Line indicates mean eggs laid ±95% confidence

intervals. Asterisks indicate $p<0.0001$; n.s.= not significant ($p>0.05$, One-way ANOVA with

Bonferroni's correction for multiple comparisons; n= how many animals?). (**B)** On the left,

cartoon of the egg-laying circuit and experiment showing blue light activation of vulval muscles

for 30 seconds(left). On the right, scatter plots of eggs laid per worm in presence (+) or absence

(-) of ATR during blue light activation of ChR2 expressed in the vulval muscles of wild type, *egl-*

30(ad805) $G\alpha_q$ strong loss-of-function mutants (red), *egl-8(n488) and egl-8(sa47)* PLCβ mutants

(orange)*,* and *unc-73(ce362)* Trio mutant (purple) animals. Line indicates mean eggs laid ±95%

confidence intervals. Asterisk indicates $p≤0.0255$; n.s.=not significant, $p>0.05$ (One-way ANOVA

with Bonferroni's correction for multiple comparisons; n>10).

Figure 4: Gα_q and Trio signaling promotes vulval muscle activity. (A) Representative GCaMP5::mCherry (ΔR/R) ratio traces showing vulval muscle Ca^{2+} activity in freely behaving wild-type (black), *egl-30(n686)* Gα_q weak loss of function mutant (red), *egl-30(ad805)* Gα_q strong loss-of-function mutant (red), *unc-73 (ce362)* Trio strong loss-of-function mutant (purple), *egl-8(n488)* PLCβ null mutant (light blue), *egl-8(sa47)* PLCβ null mutant (orange), *eat-16(tm761)* Gα_q RGS protein null mutant (grey), *egl-30(tg26)* strong Gα_q gain-of-function mutant (magenta), and *dgk-1(nu62)* DAG Kinase null mutant *(*dark blue*)* animals during active (green solid bar) and

inactive (dotted grey line) egg-laying behavior states. Arrowheads indicate egg-laying events.

Vertical and horizontal scale bars show GCaMP5/mCherry fluorescence ratio ($\Delta R/R$) and time,

respectively **(B)** Scatterplots of Ca^{2+} transient frequency for indicated genotypes. Line indicates

mean eggs laid ±95% confidence intervals; asterisks indicate $p \leq 0.0340$; n.s. indicates not

significant ($p > 0.05$, One-way ANOVA with Bonferroni's correction for multiple comparisons;

n>10 animals recorded per genotype). **(C)** Scatterplots of Ca^{2+} peak amplitudes for the indicated

genotypes during twitch (closed square) and egg-laying transients (open circles). Asterisks

indicate $p < 0.0001$, n.s. indicates not significant ($p > 0.05$, Kruskal Wallis test with Dunn's

correction for multiple comparisons).

Figure 5: DAG mimetic PMA rescues egg-laying circuit activity and behavior defects of Gα_q signaling mutants. **(A)** Diagrams showing working model of Gα_q and DAG signaling pathway during egg-laying behavior. **(B)** Bar plots showing the percentage of animals showing egg laying in M9 buffer (open grey bars) or M9 buffer +10 µM PMA (filled green bars) Sample size for each genotype and each condition. Error bars indicate 95% confidence intervals for the proportion; asterisks indicate $p<0.0006$ (Fisher's exact test with Bonferroni's correction for multiple comparisons; $n≥30$ animals per genotype and condition). **(C)** Left, representative GCaMP5::mCherry (ΔR/R) ratio traces showing vulval muscle Ca^{2+} activity in wild-type or the indicated Gα_q signaling mutant animals in the absence or presence of 10 µM PMA. Arrowheads indicate egg-laying events. Vertical and horizontal scale bars show GCaMP5/mCherry fluorescence ratio (ΔR/R) and time, respectively. Right, heat map showing intensity modulated color spectrum of GCaMP5::mCherry (ΔR/R) ratio of vulval muscle Ca^{2+} activity ranging from blue (low Ca^{2+}) to red (high Ca^{2+}) of 10 animals. **(D)** Scatterplots of Ca^{2+} transient frequency in the absence (-) and presence (+) of 10 µM PMA for the indicated genotypes. Line indicates mean eggs laid ±95% confidence intervals; asterisk indicates $p≤0.0275$; n.s.= not significant ($p>0.05$, One-way ANOVA with Bonferroni's correction for multiple comparisons; $n≥10$ animals per genotype and condition).

Figure 6: DAG promotes egg laying independent of UNC-13 or Protein Kinase C. (A)
Scatterplot of egg accumulation in wild-type, *unc-13(e51)* loss-of-function mutant, and *unc-13(s69)* null mutant animals. Line indicates mean eggs laid ±95% confidence intervals. Asterisk indicates p ≤0.0021 (One-way ANOVA with Bonferroni's correction for multiple comparisons; n≥36 per genotype and condition). **(B)** Bar plots showing the percentage of wild-type, *unc-13(e51),* or *unc-13(s69)* mutant animals laying eggs in M9 buffer (grey open boxes), 18.5 mM serotonin (filled blue boxes), or 10 µM PMA (filled green boxes). Bar indicates mean eggs ±95% confidence interval for the proportion. Asterisks indicate p<0.0006; n. s = not significant (p>0.05, Fisher's exact test with Bonferroni's correction for multiple comparisons; n≥36 animals per genotype and condition). **(C)** Scatterplot of egg accumulation in wild-type (n=24) and indicated Protein Kinase C mutant animals (n≥35 per genotype). Line indicates average eggs accumulated

±95% confidence intervals. n.s.= not significant (p>0.05, One-way ANOVA with Bonferroni's

correction for multiple comparisons **(D)** Bar plots showing the percentage of wild-type and

Protein Kinase C mutant animals showing egg laying in M9 buffer (open bars) or 10 µM PMA

(filled green bars). Bar indicates mean eggs ±95% confidence intervals for the proportion.

Asterisks indicate p<0.0007; n.s.= not significant (p>0.05, Fisher's exact test with Bonferroni

correction for multiple comparisons; n≥35 animals per genotype and condition).

Movie 1: GCaMP5:mCherry fluorescence ratio in the vulval muscles of wild-type animals

in the absence or presence of 10 μM DAG analogue, PMA. Blue indicates low $Ca^{2+,}$ and red

indicates elevated Ca^{2+}.

Movie 2: GCaMP5:mCherry fluorescence ratio in the vulval muscles of strong loss of

function $G\alpha_q$ mutant, *egl-30(ad805),* in the absence or presence of 10 μM DAG analogue,

PMA. Blue indicates low $Ca^{2+,}$ and red indicates elevated Ca^{2+}.

Movie 3: GCaMP5:mCherry fluorescence ratio in the vulval muscles of strong loss of

function Trio mutant, *unc-73(ce362)*, animals in the absence or presence of PMA. Blue

indicates low $Ca^{2+,}$ and red indicates elevated Ca^2.

Table 1: Lists of *C. elegans* strains used in this study

Strains	Genotype	Feature	Figure(s)	Source
N2	Wild type	Bristol wild-type strain	1,2,5	(Brenner, 1974)
MT1434	*egl-30(n686) I*	$G\alpha_q$ loss-of-function mutant, Egg-laying defective	1,2,5	(Trent et al., 1983)
DA823	*egl-30(ad805) I*	$G\alpha_q$ strong loss-of-function mutant, Egg-laying defective	1,2,5	(Brundage et al., 1996; Mendel et al., 1995)
KG1278	*unc-73(ce362) I*	Trio RhoGEF loss-of-function mutant, Egg-laying defective	1,2	(Williams et al., 2007)

KG1397	*unc-73(ev802) I*	Trio RhoGEF deletion mutant, Egg-laying defective	2,5	(Williams et al., 2007)
JT47	*egl-8(sa47) V*	PLCβ null, Egg-laying defective	1,2,5	(Thomas, 1990)
MT1083	*egl-8(n488) V*	PLCβ null, Egg-laying defective	2	(Trent et al., 1983)
LX1226	*eat-16(tm761) I*	Gα$_q$ RGS null, Hyperactive egg laying	1	(Porter and Koelle, 2010)
CG21	*egl-30(tg26) I; him-5(e1490) V*	Gα$_q$ gain-of-function mutant, Hyperactive egg-laying	1	(Garcia et al., 2001)
LX1832	*lite-1(ce314) lin-15(n765ts) X*	strain used for transgenic line creation		(Gürel et al., 2012)
LX1286	*egl-8(sa47) I; lin-15(n765ts) X*	PLCβ null mutant, Egg-laying defective; multi-vulva	1	This study
LX1674	*egl-8(sa47) I; lin-15(n765ts) X; vsEx679*	PLCβ null, Egg-laying defective; non-Muv, expresses GFP in neurons from *rgs-1* promoter	1	This study
LX1675	*egl-8(sa47) I; lin-15(n765ts) X; vsEx680*	PLCβ null, Egg laying defective; non-Muv, expresses PLCβ and GFP in neurons from *rgs-1* promoter	1	This study
MIA26	*egl-1(n986dm) V*	Lacks HSNs	2,5	(Ravi et al., 2018a)
LX1918	*vsIs164 lite-1(ce314) lin-15(n765ts) X*	Expresses GCaMP5 and mCherry in the vulval muscles	4,5	(Li et al., 2013)

MIA109	*egl-8(sa47) V;* *vsIs164 lite-* *1(ce314), lin-* *15(n765ts) X*	Expresses GCaMP5 and mCherry in the vulval muscles of *egl-8(sa47)* mutant	4,5	This study
MIA139	*egl-30(n686) I;* *vsIs164 lite-* *1(ce314) lin-* *15(n765ts) X*	Expresses GCaMP5 and mCherry in the vulval muscles of *egl-30(n686)*	4,5	This study
MIA140	*egl-30(ad805) I;* *vsIs164 lite-* *1(ce314), lin-* *15(n765ts) X*	Expresses GCaMP5 and mCherry in the vulval muscles of *egl-30(ad805)*	4,5	This study
MIA141	*unc-73(ce362) I;* *vsIs164, lite-* *1(ce314) lin-* *15(n765ts) X*	Expresses GCaMP5 and mCherry in the vulval muscles of *unc-73(ce362)*	4,5	This study
MIA286	*egl-30(tg26) I;* *vsIs164, lite-* *1(ce314) lin-* *15(n765ts) X*	Expresses GCaMP5 and mCherry in the vulval muscles of *egl-30(tg26)*	4	This study
MIA287	*eat-16(tm761) I;* *vsIs164 lite-* *1(ce314) lin-* *15(n765ts) X*	Expresses GCaMP5 and mCherry in the vulval muscles of *eat-16(tm761)*	4	This study

MIA288	*egl-8(n488) V; vsIs164 lite-1 (ce314) lin-15(n765ts) X*	Expresses GCaMP5 and mCherry in the vulval muscles of *egl-8(n488)*	4,5	This study
MIA296	*dgk-1(nu62) lite-1(ce314) lin-15(n765ts) X*	Expresses GCaMP5 and mCherry in the vulval muscles of *dgk-1(nu62)*	4	This study
MIA372	*unc-73(ce362) I; keyEx64*	Expresses GFP in the neurons and mCherry in the muscles of *unc-73(ce362)*	1	This study
MIA373	*unc-73(ce362) I; keyEx65*	Expresses GFP and Trio RhoGEF-E cDNA in the neurons, and mCherry and Trio RhoGEF-E cDNA in the muscles of *unc-73(ce362)*	1	This study
MIA374	*unc-73(ce362) I; keyEx66*	Expresses GFP in neurons	1	This study
MIA375	*unc-73(ce362) I; keyEx67*	Expresses GFP and Trio RhoGEF-E cDNA in neurons	1	This study
MIA376	*unc-73(ce362) I; keyEx68*	Expresses mCherry in muscles	1,2	This study
MIA377	*unc-73(ce362) I; keyEx69*	Expresses mCherry and Trio RhoGEF-E cDNA in muscles	1,2	This study

LX1836	*wzIs30 IV; lite-1(ce314) lin-15(n765ts) X*	Expresses Channelrhodopsin-2 (ChR2) in HSNs from the *egl-6* promoter	3	(Collins et al., 2016)
MIA229	*keyIs48; lite-1(ce314) lin-15(n765ts) X*	Expresses ChR2 in vulval muscles from the *ceh-24* promoter	3	(Kopchock et al., 2021)
MIA300	*egl-30(ad805) I; wzIs30 IV; lite-1(ce314) X*	Expresses ChR2 in HSN of *egl-30(ad805)* mutant	3	This study
MIA301	*egl-30(ad805) I; keyIs48; lite-1(ce314) X*	Expresses ChR2 in vulval muscles of *egl-30(ad805)* mutant	3	This study
MIA304	*wzIs30 IV; egl-8(n488) V; lite-1(ce314) X*	Expresses ChR2 in HSNs of *egl-8(n488)* mutant	3	This study
MIA305	*egl-8(n488) V; keyIs48; lite-1(ce314) X*	Expresses ChR2 in vulval muscles of *egl-8(n488)* mutant	3	This study
MIA308	*wzIs30 IV; egl-8(sa47) V; lite-1(ce314) X*	Express ChR2 in HSNs of *egl-8(sa47)* mutant	3	This study
MIA309	*egl-8(sa47) V; keyIs48; lite-1(ce314) X*	Expresses ChR2 in vulval muscles of *egl-8(sa47)* mutant	3	This study

MIA247	*unc-73(ce362) I; wzIs30 IV; lite-1(ce314) X*	Expresses ChR2 in HSN of *unc-73(ce362)* mutant	3	This study
MIA248	*unc-73(ce362) I; keyIs48; lite-1(ce314) X*	Expresses ChR2 in vulval muscles of *unc-73(ce362)* mutant	3	This study
MT7929	*unc-13(e51) I*	UNC-13 loss-of-function	6	(Brenner, 1974)
EG9631	*unc-13(s69) I*	UNC-13 null	6	(Rose and Baillie, 1980)
IK105	*pkc-1(nj1) V*	nPKCε null	6	(Okochi et al., 2005)
IK130	*pkc-1(nj3) V*	nPKCε null	6	(Okochi et al., 2005)
RB781	*pkc-1(ok563) V*	nPKCε null	6	(Consortium, 2012)
VC127	*pkc-2(ok328) X*	cPKCα/β null	6	(Consortium, 2012)
MJ500	*tpa-1(k501) IV*	nPKCδ/θ null	6	(Tabuse et al., 1989)
MJ563	*tpa-1(k530) IV*	nPKCδ/θ null	6	(Tabuse et al., 1989)

 Table 2: Lists of oligonucleotide sequences used in this study

Oligo Name	Sequence (5'>3')	Use
lite-1(ce314)-fwd	ACGGGAGACGAAGAGCTAAAT AGG	Genotyping of *lite-1(ce314)*
lite-1(ce314)-rev	CTAAGTTGCCGGTTGCCTTAG AAC	Genotyping of *lite-1(ce314)*
egl-30(n686)-F	GCCAACCGAGCAGGACATTCTG CG	Genotyping of *egl-30(n686)*
eg-30(n686)-R	CGGGAAAGTAGTCAGCGAGAT GCG	Genotyping of *egl-30(n686)*
egl-30(ad805)-F	GCCAGGGCTGTCCCATTACGG	Genotyping of *egl-30(ad805)*
egl-30(ad805)-R	TCGGAAAGCGCCACCAGGAAC	Genotyping of *egl-30(ad805)*
egl-8-cDNA-fwd	CTTGGCTAGCGTAGAAAAATG GCAAAGGAGTTCCAGTTC	For amplification of *egl-8* coding sequences
egl-8-cDNA-rev	CGCCCATGGTTATCAAACGACA GAAGTCGGTTGAGC	For amplification of *egl-8* coding sequences
egl-8-Cterm-NotI-fwd	GTGGGTACTCCACTGGGGGTG CGGCCGCTGGAGGTCCTTCGA CACCGGT	Quick change mutagenesis of *egl-8* cDNA to insert in-frame NotI enzyme for GFP insertion
egl-8-Cterm-NotI-rev	ACCGGTGTCGAAGGACCTCCA GCGGCCGCACCC CCAGTGGAGTACCCAC	Quick-change mutagenesis of *egl-8* cDNA to insert in-frame NotI enzyme for GFP insertion

NotI-GFP-FWD	GGTGCGGCCGCTGGAAGTAAA GGAGAAGAACTTTTC	For amplification of GFP with flanking, in-frame NotI enzyme sites for insertion into *egl-8* cDNA
NotI-GFP-REV	TCCAGCGGCCGCTCCTTTGTAT AGTTCATCCATGCC	For amplification of GFP with flanking, in-frame NotI enzyme sites for insertion into *egl-8* cDNA
RE-GFP-FWD-new	GCGTCTAGAACCGGTGCTAGC GTAGAAAAAATGGTCAGTAAAG GAGAAGAACTTTTC	For amplification of sequences encoding GFP for cloning into pGP3 *rgs-1* promoter containing plasmid
RE-GFP-REV	TACGAATTCGGTACCTCAGATT TATTTGTATAGTTCATCCATG	For amplification of sequences encoding GFP for cloning into pGP3 *rgs-1* promoter containing plasmid

References:

Akerboom, J., Carreras Calderon, N., Tian, L., Wabnig, S., Prigge, M., Tolo, J., Gordus, A., Orger, M.B., Severi, K.E., Macklin, J.J*., et al.* (2013). Genetically encoded calcium indicators for multi-color neural activity imaging and combination with optogenetics. Front Mol Neurosci *6*, 2.

Ananthanarayanan, B., Stahelin, R.V., Digman, M.A., and Cho, W. (2003). Activation mechanisms of conventional protein kinase C isoforms are determined by the ligand affinity and conformational flexibility of their C1 domains. J Biol Chem *278*, 46886-46894.

Avery, L., Bargmann, C.I., and Horvitz, H.R. (1993). The Caenorhabditis elegans unc-31 gene affects multiple nervous system-controlled functions. Genetics *134*, 455-464.

Banerjee, N., Bhattacharya, R., Gorczyca, M., Collins, K.M., and Francis, M.M. (2017). Local neuropeptide signaling modulates serotonergic transmission to shape the temporal organization of C. elegans egg-laying behavior. PLoS Genet *13*, e1006697.

Bany, I.A., Dong, M.Q., and Koelle, M.R. (2003). Genetic and cellular basis for acetylcholine inhibition of Caenorhabditis elegans egg-laying behavior. J Neurosci *23*, 8060-8069.

Bastiani, C.A., Gharib, S., Simon, M.I., and Sternberg, P.W. (2003). Caenorhabditis elegans Galphaq regulates egg-laying behavior via a PLCbeta-independent and serotonin-dependent signaling pathway and likely functions both in the nervous system and in muscle. Genetics *165*, 1805-1822.

Berridge, M.J., Lipp, P., and Bootman, M.D. (2000). The versatility and universality of calcium signalling. Nat Rev Mol Cell Biol *1*, 11-21.

Betke, K.M., Wells, C.A., and Hamm, H.E. (2012). GPCR mediated regulation of synaptic transmission. Prog Neurobiol *96*, 304-321.

Betz, A., Ashery, U., Rickmann, M., Augustin, I., Neher, E., Sudhof, T.C., Rettig, J., and Brose, N. (1998).

Munc13-1 is a presynaptic phorbol ester receptor that enhances neurotransmitter release.

Neuron *21*, 123-136.

Brenner, S. (1974). The genetics of Caenorhabditis elegans. Genetics *77*, 71-94.

Brewer, J.C., Olson, A.C., Collins, K.M., and Koelle, M.R. (2019). Serotonin and neuropeptides are both

released by the HSN command neuron to initiate Caenorhabditis elegans egg laying. PLoS Genet

15, e1007896.

Brose, N., and Rosenmund, C. (2002). Move over protein kinase C, you've got company: alternative

cellular effectors of diacylglycerol and phorbol esters. J Cell Sci *115*, 4399-4411.

Brundage, L., Avery, L., Katz, A., Kim, U.J., Mendel, J.E., Sternberg, P.W., and Simon, M.I. (1996).

Mutations in a C. elegans Gqalpha gene disrupt movement, egg laying, and viability. Neuron *16*,

999-1009.

Chang, Y.C., Lee, H.H., Chen, Y.J., Bokoch, G.M., and Chang, Z.F. (2006). Contribution of guanine

exchange factor H1 in phorbol ester-induced apoptosis. Cell Death Differ *13*, 2023-2032.

Chase, D.L., and Koelle, M.R. (2004). Genetic analysis of RGS protein function in Caenorhabditis

elegans. Methods Enzymol *389*, 305-320.

Chhatriwala, M.K., Betts, L., Worthylake, D.K., and Sondek, J. (2007). The DH and PH domains of Trio

coordinately engage Rho GTPases for their efficient activation. J Mol Biol *368*, 1307-1320.

Coleman, B., Topalidou, I., and Ailion, M. (2018). Modulation of Gq-Rho Signaling by the ERK MAPK

Pathway Controls Locomotion in Caenorhabditis elegans. Genetics *209*, 523-535.

Collins, K.M., Bode, A., Fernandez, R.W., Tanis, J.E., Brewer, J.C., Creamer, M.S., and Koelle, M.R.

(2016). Activity of the C. elegans egg-laying behavior circuit is controlled by competing activation

and feedback inhibition. Elife *5*.

Collins, K.M., and Koelle, M.R. (2013). Postsynaptic ERG potassium channels limit muscle excitability to

allow distinct egg-laying behavior states in Caenorhabditis elegans. J Neurosci *33*, 761-775.

Consortium, C.e.D.M. (2012). large-scale screening for targeted knockouts in the Caenorhabditis

elegans genome. G3 (Bethesda) *2*, 1415-1425.

Cook, S.J., Jarrell, T.A., Brittin, C.A., Wang, Y., Bloniarz, A.E., Yakovlev, M.A., Nguyen, K.C.Q., Tang, L.T.,

Bayer, E.A., Duerr, J.S.*, et al.* (2019). Whole-animal connectomes of both Caenorhabditis elegans

sexes. Nature *571*, 63-71.

Dempsey, C.M., Mackenzie, S.M., Gargus, A., Blanco, G., and Sze, J.Y. (2005). Serotonin (5HT),

fluoxetine, imipramine and dopamine target distinct 5HT receptor signaling to modulate

Caenorhabditis elegans egg-laying behavior. Genetics *169*, 1425-1436.

Doi, M., and Iwasaki, K. (2002). Regulation of retrograde signaling at neuromuscular junctions by the

novel C2 domain protein AEX-1. Neuron *33*, 249-259.

Dong, M.Q., Chase, D., Patikoglou, G.A., and Koelle, M.R. (2000). Multiple RGS proteins alter neural G

protein signaling to allow C. elegans to rapidly change behavior when fed. Genes Dev *14*, 2003-

2014.

Edwards, M.R., Johnson, J.R., Rankin, K., Jenkins, R.E., Maguire, C., Morgan, A., Burgoyne, R.D., and

Barclay, J.W. (2012). PKC-2 phosphorylation of UNC-18 Ser322 in AFD neurons regulates

temperature dependency of locomotion. J Neurosci *32*, 7042-7051.

Emtage, L., Aziz-Zaman, S., Padovan-Merhar, O., Horvitz, H.R., Fang-Yen, C., and Ringstad, N. (2012).

IRK-1 potassium channels mediate peptidergic inhibition of Caenorhabditis elegans serotonin

neurons via a G(o) signaling pathway. J Neurosci *32*, 16285-16295.

Fernandez, R.W., Wei, K., Wang, E.Y., Mikalauskaite, D., Olson, A., Pepper, J., Christie, N., Kim, S.,

Weissenborn, S., Sarov, M*., et al.* (2020). Cellular Expression and Functional Roles of All 26

Neurotransmitter GPCRs in the C. elegans Egg-Laying Circuit. J Neurosci *40*, 7475-7488.

Garcia, L.R., Mehta, P., and Sternberg, P.W. (2001). Regulation of distinct muscle behaviors controls the

C. elegans male's copulatory spicules during mating. Cell *107*, 777-788.

Gendrel, M., Atlas, E.G., and Hobert, O. (2016). A cellular and regulatory map of the GABAergic nervous

system of C. elegans. Elife *5*.

Geppetti, P., Veldhuis, N.A., Lieu, T., and Bunnett, N.W. (2015). G Protein-Coupled Receptors: Dynamic

Machines for Signaling Pain and Itch. Neuron *88*, 635-649.

Gürel, G., Gustafson, M.A., Pepper, J.S., Horvitz, H.R., and Koelle, M.R. (2012). Receptors and other

signaling proteins required for serotonin control of locomotion in Caenorhabditis elegans.

Genetics *192*, 1359-1371.

Hajdu-Cronin, Y.M., Chen, W.J., Patikoglou, G., Koelle, M.R., and Sternberg, P.W. (1999). Antagonism

between G(o)alpha and G(q)alpha in Caenorhabditis elegans: the RGS protein EAT-16 is

necessary for G(o)alpha signaling and regulates G(q)alpha activity. Genes Dev *13*, 1780-1793.

Hashimotodani, Y., Ohno-Shosaku, T., and Kano, M. (2006). [Mechanisms of triggering

endocannabinoid release]. Seikagaku *78*, 126-130.

Hashimotodani, Y., Ohno-Shosaku, T., Tanimura, A., Kita, Y., Sano, Y., Shimizu, T., Di Marzo, V., and

Kano, M. (2013). Acute inhibition of diacylglycerol lipase blocks endocannabinoid-mediated

retrograde signalling: evidence for on-demand biosynthesis of 2-arachidonoylglycerol. J Physiol

591, 4765-4776.

Hashimotodani, Y., Ohno-Shosaku, T., Tsubokawa, H., Ogata, H., Emoto, K., Maejima, T., Araishi, K.,

Shin, H.S., and Kano, M. (2005). Phospholipase Cbeta serves as a coincidence detector through

its Ca2+ dependency for triggering retrograde endocannabinoid signal. Neuron *45*, 257-268.

Hashimotodani, Y., Ohno-Shosaku, T., Watanabe, M., and Kano, M. (2007). Roles of phospholipase

Cbeta and NMDA receptor in activity-dependent endocannabinoid release. J Physiol *584*, 373-

380.

Hiley, E., McMullan, R., and Nurrish, S.J. (2006). The Galpha12-RGS RhoGEF-RhoA signalling pathway

regulates neurotransmitter release in C. elegans. Embo j *25*, 5884-5895.

Hoyt, J.M., Wilson, S.K., Kasa, M., Rise, J.S., Topalidou, I., and Ailion, M. (2017). The SEK-1 p38 MAP

Kinase Pathway Modulates Gq Signaling in Caenorhabditis elegans. G3 (Bethesda) *7*, 2979-2989.

Hu, S., Pawson, T., and Steven, R.M. (2011). UNC-73/trio RhoGEF-2 activity modulates Caenorhabditis

elegans motility through changes in neurotransmitter signaling upstream of the GSA-1/Galphas

pathway. Genetics *189*, 137-151.

Huang, K.P. (1989). The mechanism of protein kinase C activation. Trends Neurosci *12*, 425-432.

Hyde, R., Corkins, M.E., Somers, G.A., and Hart, A.C. (2011). PKC-1 acts with the ERK MAPK signaling

pathway to regulate Caenorhabditis elegans mechanosensory response. Genes Brain Behav *10*,

286-298.

Jacob, T.C., and Kaplan, J.M. (2003). The EGL-21 carboxypeptidase E facilitates acetylcholine release at

Caenorhabditis elegans neuromuscular junctions. J Neurosci *23*, 2122-2130.

Jantsch-Plunger, V., Gönczy, P., Romano, A., Schnabel, H., Hamill, D., Schnabel, R., Hyman, A.A., and

Glotzer, M. (2000). CYK-4: A Rho family gtpase activating protein (GAP) required for central

spindle formation and cytokinesis. J Cell Biol *149*, 1391-1404.

Jose, A.M., and Koelle, M.R. (2005). Domains, amino acid residues, and new isoforms of Caenorhabditis

elegans diacylglycerol kinase 1 (DGK-1) important for terminating diacylglycerol signaling in vivo.

J Biol Chem *280*, 2730-2736.

Kass, J., Jacob, T.C., Kim, P., and Kaplan, J.M. (2001). The EGL-3 proprotein convertase regulates

mechanosensory responses of Caenorhabditis elegans. J Neurosci *21*, 9265-9272.

Kim, J., Poole, D.S., Waggoner, L.E., Kempf, A., Ramirez, D.S., Treschow, P.A., and Schafer, W.R. (2001).

Genes affecting the activity of nicotinic receptors involved in Caenorhabditis elegans egg-laying

behavior. Genetics *157*, 1599-1610.

Konig, B., DiNitto, P.A., and Blumberg, P.M. (1985). Stoichiometric binding of diacylglycerol to the

phorbol ester receptor. J Cell Biochem *29*, 37-44.

Kopchock, R.J., 3rd, Ravi, B., Bode, A., and Collins, K.M. (2021). The sex-specific VC neurons are

mechanically activated motor neurons that facilitate serotonin-induced egg laying in C. elegans. J

Neurosci.

Kunitomo, H., Sato, H., Iwata, R., Satoh, Y., Ohno, H., Yamada, K., and Iino, Y. (2013). Concentration

memory-dependent synaptic plasticity of a taste circuit regulates salt concentration chemotaxis

in Caenorhabditis elegans. Nat Commun *4*, 2210.

Lackner, M.R., Nurrish, S.J., and Kaplan, J.M. (1999). Facilitation of synaptic transmission by EGL-30

Gqalpha and EGL-8 PLCbeta: DAG binding to UNC-13 is required to stimulate acetylcholine

release. Neuron *24*, 335-346.

Li, B., Jie, W., Huang, L., Wei, P., Li, S., Luo, Z., Friedman, A.K., Meredith, A.L., Han, M.H., Zhu, X.H., *et al.*

(2014). Nuclear BK channels regulate gene expression via the control of nuclear calcium

signaling. Nat Neurosci *17*, 1055-1063.

Li, P., Collins, K.M., Koelle, M.R., and Shen, K. (2013). LIN-12/Notch signaling instructs postsynaptic

muscle arm development by regulating UNC-40/DCC and MADD-2 in Caenorhabditis elegans.

Elife *2*, e00378.

Lou, X., Korogod, N., Brose, N., and Schneggenburger, R. (2008). Phorbol esters modulate spontaneous

and Ca2+-evoked transmitter release via acting on both Munc13 and protein kinase C. J Neurosci

28, 8257-8267.

Lutz, S., Freichel-Blomquist, A., Yang, Y., Rumenapp, U., Jakobs, K.H., Schmidt, M., and Wieland, T.

(2005). The guanine nucleotide exchange factor p63RhoGEF, a specific link between Gq/11-

coupled receptor signaling and RhoA. J Biol Chem *280*, 11134-11139.

Maruyama, I.N., and Brenner, S. (1991). A phorbol ester/diacylglycerol-binding protein encoded by the

unc-13 gene of Caenorhabditis elegans. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A *88*, 5729-5733.

McMullan, R., Hiley, E., Morrison, P., and Nurrish, S.J. (2006). Rho is a presynaptic activator of

neurotransmitter release at pre-existing synapses in C. elegans. Genes Dev *20*, 65-76.

McMullan, R., and Nurrish, S.J. (2011). The RHO-1 RhoGTPase modulates fertility and multiple

behaviors in adult C. elegans. PLoS One *6*, e17265.

Mendel, J.E., Korswagen, H.C., Liu, K.S., Hajdu-Cronin, Y.M., Simon, M.I., Plasterk, R.H., and Sternberg,

P.W. (1995). Participation of the protein Go in multiple aspects of behavior in C. elegans. Science

267, 1652-1655.

Miller, K.G., Alfonso, A., Nguyen, M., Crowell, J.A., Johnson, C.D., and Rand, J.B. (1996). A genetic

selection for Caenorhabditis elegans synaptic transmission mutants. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A *93*,

12593-12598.

Miller, K.G., Emerson, M.D., and Rand, J.B. (1999). Goalpha and diacylglycerol kinase negatively

regulate the Gqalpha pathway in C. elegans. Neuron *24*, 323-333.

Moresco, J.J., and Koelle, M.R. (2004). Activation of EGL-47, a Galpha(o)-coupled receptor, inhibits

function of hermaphrodite-specific motor neurons to regulate Caenorhabditis elegans egg-laying

behavior. J Neurosci *24*, 8522-8530.

Mujica, P.E., and Gonzalez, F.G. (2011). Interaction between IP(3) receptors and BK channels in arterial

smooth muscle: non-canonical IP(3) signaling at work. J Gen Physiol *137*, 473-477.

Newton, A.C. (2001). Protein kinase C: structural and spatial regulation by phosphorylation, cofactors,

and macromolecular interactions. Chem Rev *101*, 2353-2364.

Nurrish, S., Segalat, L., and Kaplan, J.M. (1999). Serotonin inhibition of synaptic transmission: Galpha(0)

decreases the abundance of UNC-13 at release sites. Neuron *24*, 231-242.

Oakes, M., Law, W.J., and Komuniecki, R. (2019). Cannabinoids Stimulate the TRP Channel-Dependent

Release of Both Serotonin and Dopamine to Modulate Behavior in C. elegans. J Neurosci *39*,

4142-4152.

Oakes, M.D., Law, W.J., Clark, T., Bamber, B.A., and Komuniecki, R. (2017). Cannabinoids Activate

Monoaminergic Signaling to Modulate Key C. elegans Behaviors. J Neurosci *37*, 2859-2869.

Offermanns, S. (2001). In vivo functions of heterotrimeric G-proteins: studies in Galpha-deficient mice.

Oncogene *20*, 1635-1642.

Ohno, H., Sakai, N., Adachi, T., and Iino, Y. (2017). Dynamics of Presynaptic Diacylglycerol in a Sensory

Neuron Encode Differences between Past and Current Stimulus Intensity. Cell Rep *20*, 2294-

2303.

Okochi, Y., Kimura, K.D., Ohta, A., and Mori, I. (2005). Diverse regulation of sensory signaling by C.

elegans nPKC-epsilon/eta TTX-4. EMBO J *24*, 2127-2137.

Pastuhov, S.I., Matsumoto, K., and Hisamoto, N. (2016). Endocannabinoid signaling regulates

regenerative axon navigation in Caenorhabditis elegans via the GPCRs NPR-19 and NPR-32.

Genes Cells *21*, 696-705.

Pereira, L., Kratsios, P., Serrano-Saiz, E., Sheftel, H., Mayo, A.E., Hall, D.H., White, J.G., LeBoeuf, B.,

Garcia, L.R., Alon, U.*, et al.* (2015). A cellular and regulatory map of the cholinergic nervous

system of C. elegans. Elife *4*.

Porter, M.Y., and Koelle, M.R. (2010). RSBP-1 is a membrane-targeting subunit required by the

Galpha(q)-specific but not the Galpha(o)-specific R7 regulator of G protein signaling in

Caenorhabditis elegans. Mol Biol Cell *21*, 232-243.

Ravi, B., Garcia, J., and Collins, K.M. (2018a). Homeostatic Feedback Modulates the Development of

Two-State Patterned Activity in a Model Serotonin Motor Circuit in Caenorhabditis elegans. J

Neurosci *38*, 6283-6298.

Ravi, B., Nassar, L.M., Kopchock, R.J., 3rd, Dhakal, P., Scheetz, M., and Collins, K.M. (2018b).

Ratiometric Calcium Imaging of Individual Neurons in Behaving Caenorhabditis Elegans. J Vis Exp.

Ravi, B., Zhao, J., Chaudhry, I., Signorelli, R., Bartole, M., Kopchock, R.J., Guijarro, C., Kaplan, J.M., Kang,

L., and Collins, K.M. (2021). Presynaptic Galphao (GOA-1) signals to depress command neuron

excitability and allow stretch-dependent modulation of egg laying in Caenorhabditis elegans.

Genetics.

Reynolds, N.K., Schade, M.A., and Miller, K.G. (2005). Convergent, RIC-8-dependent Galpha signaling

pathways in the Caenorhabditis elegans synaptic signaling network. Genetics *169*, 651-670.

Rojas, R.J., Yohe, M.E., Gershburg, S., Kawano, T., Kozasa, T., and Sondek, J. (2007). Galphaq directly

activates p63RhoGEF and Trio via a conserved extension of the Dbl homology-associated

pleckstrin homology domain. J Biol Chem *282*, 29201-29210.

Rose, A.M., and Baillie, D.L. (1980). Genetic organization of the region around UNC-15 (I), a gene

affecting paramyosin in Caenorhabditis elegans. Genetics *96*, 639-648.

Rozengurt, E., Sinnett-Smith, J., and Zugaza, J.L. (1997). Protein kinase D: a novel target for

diacylglycerol and phorbol esters. Biochem Soc Trans *25*, 565-571.

Seifert, J.P., Zhou, Y., Hicks, S.N., Sondek, J., and Harden, T.K. (2008). Dual activation of phospholipase

C-epsilon by Rho and Ras GTPases. J Biol Chem *283*, 29690-29698.

Shimizu, T., Pastuhov, S.I., Hanafusa, H., Matsumoto, K., and Hisamoto, N. (2018). The C. elegans

BRCA2-ALP/Enigma Complex Regulates Axon Regeneration via a Rho GTPase-ROCK-MLC

Phosphorylation Pathway. Cell Rep *24*, 1880-1889.

Shyn, S.I., Kerr, R., and Schafer, W.R. (2003). Serotonin and Go modulate functional states of neurons

and muscles controlling C. elegans egg-laying behavior. Curr Biol *13*, 1910-1915.

Sieburth, D., Madison, J.M., and Kaplan, J.M. (2007). PKC-1 regulates secretion of neuropeptides. Nat

Neurosci *10*, 49-57.

Silinsky, E.M., and Searl, T.J. (2003). Phorbol esters and neurotransmitter release: more than just

protein kinase C? Br J Pharmacol *138*, 1191-1201.

Simon, M.I., Strathmann, M.P., and Gautam, N. (1991). Diversity of G proteins in signal transduction.

Science *252*, 802-808.

Soltesz, I., Alger, B.E., Kano, M., Lee, S.H., Lovinger, D.M., Ohno-Shosaku, T., and Watanabe, M. (2015).

Weeding out bad waves: towards selective cannabinoid circuit control in epilepsy. Nat Rev

Neurosci *16*, 264-277.

Stauffer, T.P., Ahn, S., and Meyer, T. (1998). Receptor-induced transient reduction in plasma

membrane PtdIns(4,5)P2 concentration monitored in living cells. Curr Biol *8*, 343-346.

Steven, R., Kubiseski, T.J., Zheng, H., Kulkarni, S., Mancillas, J., Ruiz Morales, A., Hogue, C.W., Pawson,

T., and Culotti, J. (1998). UNC-73 activates the Rac GTPase and is required for cell and growth

cone migrations in C. elegans. Cell *92*, 785-795.

Steven, R., Zhang, L., Culotti, J., and Pawson, T. (2005). The UNC-73/Trio RhoGEF-2 domain is required

in separate isoforms for the regulation of pharynx pumping and normal neurotransmission in C.

elegans. Genes Dev *19*, 2016-2029.

Tabuse, Y. (2002). Protein kinase C isotypes in C. elegans. J Biochem *132*, 519-522.

Tabuse, Y., Nishiwaki, K., and Miwa, J. (1989). Mutations in a protein kinase C homolog confer phorbol

ester resistance on Caenorhabditis elegans. Science *243*, 1713-1716.

Tanimura, A., Yamazaki, M., Hashimotodani, Y., Uchigashima, M., Kawata, S., Abe, M., Kita, Y.,

Hashimoto, K., Shimizu, T., Watanabe, M.*, et al.* (2010). The endocannabinoid 2-

arachidonoylglycerol produced by diacylglycerol lipase alpha mediates retrograde suppression of

synaptic transmission. Neuron *65*, 320-327.

Tanis, J.E., Moresco, J.J., Lindquist, R.A., and Koelle, M.R. (2008). Regulation of serotonin biosynthesis

by the G proteins Galphao and Galphaq controls serotonin signaling in Caenorhabditis elegans.

Genetics *178*, 157-169.

Tewson, P., Westenberg, M., Zhao, Y., Campbell, R.E., Quinn, A.M., and Hughes, T.E. (2012).

Simultaneous detection of Ca2+ and diacylglycerol signaling in living cells. PLoS One *7*, e42791.

Thomas, J.H. (1990). Genetic analysis of defecation in Caenorhabditis elegans. Genetics *124*, 855-872.

Thore, S., Dyachok, O., Gylfe, E., and Tengholm, A. (2005). Feedback activation of phospholipase C via

intracellular mobilization and store-operated influx of Ca2+ in insulin-secreting beta-cells. J Cell

Sci *118*, 4463-4471.

Trent, C., Tsuing, N., and Horvitz, H.R. (1983). Egg-laying defective mutants of the nematode

Caenorhabditis elegans. Genetics *104*, 619-647.

Vázquez-Manrique, R.P., Nagy, A.I., Legg, J.C., Bales, O.A., Ly, S., and Baylis, H.A. (2008). Phospholipase

C-epsilon regulates epidermal morphogenesis in Caenorhabditis elegans. PLoS Genet *4*,

e1000043.

Waggoner, L.E., Dickinson, K.A., Poole, D.S., Tabuse, Y., Miwa, J., and Schafer, W.R. (2000). Long-term

nicotine adaptation in Caenorhabditis elegans involves PKC-dependent changes in nicotinic

receptor abundance. J Neurosci *20*, 8802-8811.

Waggoner, L.E., Zhou, G.T., Schafer, R.W., and Schafer, W.R. (1998). Control of alternative behavioral

states by serotonin in Caenorhabditis elegans. Neuron *21*, 203-214.

Wettschureck, N., van der Stelt, M., Tsubokawa, H., Krestel, H., Moers, A., Petrosino, S., Schütz, G., Di

Marzo, V., and Offermanns, S. (2006). Forebrain-specific inactivation of Gq/G11 family G

proteins results in age-dependent epilepsy and impaired endocannabinoid formation. Mol Cell

Biol *26*, 5888-5894.

White, J.G., Southgate, E., Thomson, J.N., and Brenner, S. (1986). The structure of the nervous system

of the nematode Caenorhabditis elegans. Philos Trans R Soc Lond B Biol Sci *314*, 1-340.

Wilkie, T.M., Gilbert, D.J., Olsen, A.S., Chen, X.N., Amatruda, T.T., Korenberg, J.R., Trask, B.J., de Jong,

P., Reed, R.R., Simon, M.I.*, et al.* (1992). Evolution of the mammalian G protein alpha subunit

multigene family. Nat Genet *1*, 85-91.

Williams, S.L., Lutz, S., Charlie, N.K., Vettel, C., Ailion, M., Coco, C., Tesmer, J.J., Jorgensen, E.M.,

Wieland, T., and Miller, K.G. (2007). Trio's Rho-specific GEF domain is the missing Galpha q

effector in C. elegans. Genes Dev *21*, 2731-2746.

Wing, M.R., Snyder, J.T., Sondek, J., and Harden, T.K. (2003). Direct activation of phospholipase C-

epsilon by Rho. J Biol Chem *278*, 41253-41258.

Xiao, H., Hapiak, V.M., Smith, K.A., Lin, L., Hobson, R.J., Plenefisch, J., and Komuniecki, R. (2006). SER-1,

a Caenorhabditis elegans 5-HT2-like receptor, and a multi-PDZ domain containing protein (MPZ-

1) interact in vulval muscle to facilitate serotonin-stimulated egg-laying. Dev Biol *298*, 379-391.

Xiao, L., Eto, M., and Kazanietz, M.G. (2009). ROCK mediates phorbol ester-induced apoptosis in

prostate cancer cells via p21Cip1 up-regulation and JNK. J Biol Chem *284*, 29365-29375.

Yang, L., Dai, F., Tang, L., Le, Y., and Yao, W. (2017). Macrophage differentiation induced by PMA is

mediated by activation of RhoA/ROCK signaling. J Toxicol Sci *42*, 763-771.

Yin, X., Gower, N.J., Baylis, H.A., and Strange, K. (2004). Inositol 1,4,5-trisphosphate signaling regulates

rhythmic contractile activity of myoepithelial sheath cells in Caenorhabditis elegans. Mol Biol

Cell *15*, 3938-3949.

Yu, H., Aleman-Meza, B., Gharib, S., Labocha, M.K., Cronin, C.J., Sternberg, P.W., and Zhong, W. (2013).

Systematic profiling of Caenorhabditis elegans locomotive behaviors reveals additional

components in G-protein Galphaq signaling. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A *110*, 11940-11945.

Zhang, M., Chung, S.H., Fang-Yen, C., Craig, C., Kerr, R.A., Suzuki, H., Samuel, A.D., Mazur, E., and

Schafer, W.R. (2008). A self-regulating feed-forward circuit controlling C. elegans egg-laying

behavior. Curr Biol *18*, 1445-1455.

Zhang, M., Schafer, W.R., and Breitling, R. (2010). A circuit model of the temporal pattern generator of

Caenorhabditis egg-laying behavior. BMC Syst Biol *4*, 81.

1002