Gα$_q$ signals via Trio RhoGEF to modulate synaptic transmission in a model serotonin

motor circuit in *C. elegans*

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*

57 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 two effector pathways promote synaptic transmission 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 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. Vulval muscle Ca^{2+} activity remained in PLCβ mutants but was eliminated in strong $G\alpha_q$ and Trio RhoGEF mutants. Exogenous 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 has been proposed to activate effectors including UNC-13, however, we find that phorbol esters, but not serotonin, stimulate egg laying in *unc-13* mutants. Together, these results show that serotonin signaling through $G\alpha_q$ and PLCβ modulates UNC-13 activity to promote neurotransmitter release. 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 activate 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-C β (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). 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, a Rho GTPase Exchange Factor (RhoGEF), promotes synaptic transmission. Whether Trio signaling through Rho similarly promotes DAG and IP_3 production, or instead acts through an independent downstream pathway, is not clear. In worms, $G\alpha_q$ knockouts are lethal while PLCβ or Trio RhoGEF single knockouts show strong defects in neurotransmission that disrupt locomotion and egg-laying behaviors, resembling strong $G\alpha_q$ loss-of-function mutants

(Bastiani et al., 2003; Brundage et al., 1996; Hajdu-Cronin et al., 1999; Lackner et al., 1999). Worms missing 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 $G\alpha_q$ activation of Trio and Rho is conserved (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 or PLCβ / Trio RhoGEF double mutants can be rescued by the DAG-mimetic phorbol ester, PMA (Reynolds et al., 2005; Steven et al., 2005; Williams et al., 2007), suggesting $G\alpha_q$ 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, 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 or Trio in neurons rescue the locomotion behavior defects of their mutants (Williams et al., 2007), whether these proteins exclusively function in neurons to regulate egg laying, is an open question.

Using genetics, optogenetics, pharmacology, and calcium imaging techniques we have investigated how $G\alpha_q$ signaling through its two effector pathways regulate egg-laying circuit activity and behavior. We find that $G\alpha_q$ signals through PLCβ in the presynaptic neurons while $G\alpha_q$ signals through Trio in both neurons and muscles to promote egg laying. These results clarify that despite $G\alpha_q$ signaling through independent PLCβ and Trio 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 20 – 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 (50ng/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.

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 transgene (Emtage

et al., 2012). This transgene was crossed into $G\alpha_q$ 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

Quantification of egg accumulation was performed as described (Chase et al., 2004). Staged

adults were obtained by picking late L4 animals and culturing them 24-30hr at 20°C. Each animal

was placed in 7 µL of 20% hypochlorite (bleach) solution and eggs were counted after animals

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

Pharmacological assays

Egg laying in response to exogenous serotonin was performed as described (Banerjee et al.,

2017). Individual staged adult animals were placed in 100 µl of either M9 buffer alone, or M9

containing 7.5 mg/ml 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 progeny in response

to mechanical stimulation when they are first picked into the well, animals were only were

recorded as responding if they laid 3 or more progeny. For calcium imaging, NGM plates

containing PMA or control (equivolume ethanol solvent) were prepared as described (Reynolds

et al., 2005). Age-matched adult worms (n>10) from each genotype were placed on separate

PMA or control NGM plates at room temperature for 2 h, and subsequently transferred onto an

agar chunk which was placed between the glass slide and a glass cover slip for Ca^{2+} activity

recording (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

exposed to blue light using a Leica M165FC stereomicroscope equipped with an EL6000 metal

halide light source generating 8–16 mW/cm^2 (depending on the magnification used) of ~470 ±

20 nm blue light through a GFP filter. The 30 s on/off sequence was programmed and controlled

using the 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 et al., 2004; Collins et al.,

2016). Statistical analysis was performed using Prism 8 (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; Dunn for Kruskal–Wallis). Each figure legend

indicates individual p-values.

Results

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

Prior work has shown that Gα_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), however, whether Gα_q and its effectors similarly regulate 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 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 (Waggoner et al. 1998; Emtage et al. 2012; Collins et al. 2016) while innervating ventral cord neurons release acetylcholine to regulate muscle contraction (Kim et al., 2001; Kopchock et al., 2021; Waggoner et al., 2000a). 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 Gα_q signaling (Hajdu-Cronin et al., 1999), or gain-of-function mutations in Gα_q itself, (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 Gα_q signaling through its effectors 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 cell-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 neuron-specific 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 fully sufficient to rescue the locomotion

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

similarly in neurons for 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 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 signals through both PLCβ and Trio

RhoGEF function in neurons to regulate egg-laying behavior. Our results also suggest the $G\alpha_q$

effector Trio 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 by activating receptors that couple to $G\alpha_q$, we

measured how serotonin signaling from the HSNs drives egg laying 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 the 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 mutant animals lacking $G\alpha_q$ (Fig. 2B).

Serotonin response was similarly and significantly reduced to 23% and 3% in PLCβ and Trio

RhoGEF mutant animals, respectively (Fig. 2B). 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 exogenous serotonin. To determine where Trio

RhoGEF deficiency caused serotonin insensitivity, we measured egg laying in animals

expressing Trio RhoGEF in either neurons, muscles, or both. Transgenic expression of Trio

RhoGEF in neurons failed to rescue egg laying in response to serotonin (Fig. 2C), but expression

of Trio RhoGEF in muscles, or in both neurons and muscles, restored egg laying to of animals

(Fig. 2C), suggesting Trio mediates vulval muscle serotonin signaling. Together, these results

indicate that Gα_q, PLCβ and Trio RhoGEF function outside of the HSNs to drive egg laying in

response to serotonin. The fact that PLCβ mutants are resistant to serotonin but unlike Trio

mutants, show hyperactive egg-laying behavior upon pan-neuronal overexpression, suggests

PLCβ acts presynaptically, either downstream or parallel to the HSNs, possibly to regulate ACh

release, while Trio RhoGEF functions downstream of HSN, likely functioning postsynaptically in

the egg-laying vulval muscles.

Optogenetic stimulation of the HSNs and vulval muscles suggests cellular specificity of

Gα_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 Gα_q and its effectors signal downstream to mediate this response, we expressed ChR2 in

HSNs in Gα_q and effector mutants and measured egg laying during 30s of exposure to blue light.

Blue light stimulation of the HSNs drove the release of ~3 eggs in wild-type animals, which was

reduced to essentially zero in Gα_q [(*egl-30(ad805)*)] and Trio RhoGEF [*unc-73(ce362)*] mutants

(Fig. 3A), consistent to our previous results showing Trio RhoGEF acts downstream of the HSNs

in the postsynaptic vulval muscles. In contrast, stimulation of the HSNs in PLCβ null mutants

[*egl-8(sa47)* and *egl-8(nu488)*] drove egg release, releasing ~4 and ~6 embryos respectively in

30 s (Fig. 3A). To test whether the failure of egg laying in Gα_q and Trio RhoGEF mutants was

caused by developmental defects in the circuit, 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 (~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

electrical excitability. These results support the conclusion from our rescue experiments (Fig.

1J-1K) that Gα_q signals through PLCβ and Trio RhoGEF in distinct cells and through unique

mechanisms to promote egg-laying circuit activity and behavior.

Gα_q and Trio 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 Ca2+ activity in the egg-laying circuit driving

release of 3-5 eggs (Collins et al., 2016; Waggoner et al., 1998). 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 Gα_q or Trio RhoGEF

mutations. In both the *egl-30(ad805)* Gα_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 that are localized to the vm1 muscles

(Fig. 4A), strongly reducing the observed Ca^{2+} transient frequency (Fig. 4B). In contrast, the

weaker *egl-30(n686)* Gα_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 in weak *egl-30(n686)* Gα_q and PLCβ mutants we observed

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. Conversely, animals with increased Gα_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. 4B and 4C). There was also an

increase in the frequency of vulval muscle Ca^{2+} transients in *egl-30(tg26)* mutants, but this effect

did not rise to the level of significance in *eat-16(tm761)* mutants. Together, these results indicate

Gα_q signaling through Trio RhoGEF, but not PLCβ, promotes 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 Gα_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 to PLCβ, Trio RhoGEF double mutants (Williams et al., 2007). However, whether

phorbol esters rescued egg-laying behavior in $G\alpha_q$ or effector single mutants was not reported,

raising questions as to whether $G\alpha_q$ rescue by phorbols esters was a general feature or was

restricted to specific effector signaling pathways or behaviors (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+} activity. We performed 10-minute GCaMP5 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 exogenous PMA increased vulval muscle Ca^{2+} activity in wild-type animals, as

shown by the more frequent rhythmic twitch Ca^{2+} transients (Movie 1). PMA also restored both

rhythmic twitch and egg-laying Ca^{2+} transients to strong $G\alpha_q$ and Trio RhoGEF signaling

mutants, as measured by both an increase in Ca^{2+} transient peak amplitude and frequency (Fig.

5C-5E). While PMA treatment did not restore vulval muscle Ca^{2+} transient frequency in $G\alpha_q$ and

Trio mutants to wild-type levels, Ca^{2+} transient frequency was significantly improved in $G\alpha_q$

mutant animals (Fig. 5C-5D). We did record more Ca^{2+} transients in Trio mutants after treatment

with PMA, but there was no significant difference to the vehicle control. We interpret differences

observed in PMA rescue of egg laying (Fig. 5B) and vulval muscle Ca^{2+} (Fig. 5C-D) as being a

result of the shortness of the 10-minute Ca^{2+} recording period that followed PMA treatment. Egg-laying active states typically occur every ~20 minutes in wild-type animals (Waggoner et al., 1998) and every 12-15 minutes in hyperactive egg-laying behavior mutants that resemble the effects of PMA treatment (Ravi et al., 2020; Waggoner et al., 2000b). The M9 buffer assays allow egg-laying events to accumulate over one hour without having to capture specific events. While we did observe nearly all $G\alpha_q$ and Trio mutant animals as now being able to lay eggs, this was not always captured during the Ca^{2+} recording. Together, these studies show that DAG-mimetic phorbol esters restore muscle contractility defects of $G\alpha_q$ and Trio RhoGEF mutants, suggesting DAG production is a major and necessary consequence of $G\alpha_q$ 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 binds 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 $G\alpha_q$ signaling mutants, accumulating ~22 and ~19 eggs (Fig. 6A) compared to >30 eggs (Fig. 1C-I). These results suggest that $G\alpha_q$ 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 $G\alpha_q$ 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 mutant animals still laid eggs in response to PMA (Fig. 6C) suggesting PKCs do not mediate the egg-laying response to PMA. Together, these results show that serotonin signals through $G\alpha_q$ via UNC-13 to promote neurotransmitter release, 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 demonstrated the cellular specificity of $G\alpha_q$ 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 signals both presynaptically in neurons and postsynaptically in muscles. Although $G\alpha_q$, PLCβ, and Trio 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 releases NLP-3 neuropeptides which can promote egg laying even in *tph-1* mutants lacking serotonin (Brewer et al., 2019). Because pan-neuronal expression of PLCβ was able to rescue both egg-laying and cholinergic transmission defects of PLCβ null mutants, we propose that $G\alpha_q$ signals through PLCβ to promote acetylcholine release from the VA, VB, and VC neurons, which 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 VC synaptic transmission is important for egg laying in response to serotonin (Kopchock et al., 2021). Previous studies have shown that Trio acts in the presynaptic motor neurons to regulate locomotion behavior (Hu et al., 2011; Steven et al., 2005; Williams et al., 2007). Our studies show that Trio overexpression 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 further indicate that $G\alpha_q$ signaling through PLCβ and Trio RhoGEF fulfill 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 demonstrate 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 $G\alpha_q$ 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, 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 $G\alpha_q$ 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). $G\alpha_q$ 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 $G\alpha_q$ to promote muscle contractility during egg laying.

Apart from direct activation of C1 domain containing effectors, emerging evidence indicates 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 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 bursting in the HSNs (Ravi et al., 2018b; Ravi et al., 2020), These results support a model where stretch-dependent feedback of egg accumulation stimulates postsynaptic vulval muscle Ca^{2+} signaling. This Ca^{2+} would 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 circuit should allow us to determine if conserved G proteins like $G\alpha_q$ act generally to drive neural circuit activity via changes in DAG, subsequent activation of effectors, and retrograde messengers like 2-AG.

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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 $p \leq 0.0001$ (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 $p \leq 0.0001$ (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 $p \leq 0.0145$; 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 +7.5 mg/mL 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 +7.5 mg/ml 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).

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)* $G\alpha_q$ 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. Asterisks indicate p<0.0001; n.s.= not significant (p>0.05, One-way ANOVA with

Bonferroni's correction for multiple comparisons). (**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).

Figure 4: Gα_q and Trio signaling promotes vulval muscle activity. (A) Representative

GCaMP5::mCherry (ΔR/R) ratio traces showing vulval muscle Ca²⁺ 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;

n>10 animals recorded per genotype. **(B)** Scatterplots of Ca^{2+} transient frequency for indicated

genotypes. Line indicates mean eggs laid ±95% confidence intervals; asterisks indicate

p≤0.0340; n.s. indicates not significant (p>0.05, One-way ANOVA with Bonferroni's correction

for multiple comparisons). **(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

$G\alpha_q$ signaling mutants. **(A)** Diagrams showing working model of $G\alpha_q$ 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). 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). **(C)** Representative GCaMP5::mCherry (ΔR/R) ratio traces showing vulval muscle Ca^{2+} activity in wild-type or the indicated $G\alpha_q$ signaling mutant animals in the absence (left) or presence (right) of 10 µM PMA. Arrowheads indicate egg-laying events. Number of animals recorded for each genotype and condition, n>10. **(D)** 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. **(E)** 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).

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).

(**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), 7.5 mg/ml 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). **(C)** Scatterplot of egg accumulation in wild-type and

indicated Protein Kinase C mutant animals. 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).

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-1(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., 2020)
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	ACGGGAGACGAAGAGCTAAATAGG	Genotyping of *lite-1(ce314)*
lite-1(ce314)-rev	CTAAGTTGCCGGTTGCCTTAGAAC	Genotyping of *lite-1(ce314)*
egl-30(n686)-F	GCCAACCGAGCAGGACATTCTGCG	Genotyping of *egl-30(n686)*
eg-30(n686)-R	CGGGAAAGTAGTCAGCGAGATGCG	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	CTTGGCTAGCGTAGAAAAATGGCAAAGGAGTTCCAGTTC	For amplification of *egl-8* coding sequences
egl-8-cDNA-rev	CGCCCATGGTTATCAAACGACAGAAGTCGGTTGAGC	For amplification of *egl-8* coding sequences
egl-8-Cterm-NotI-fwd	GTGGGTACTCCACTGGGGGTGCGGCCGCTGGAGGTCCTTCGACACCGGT	Quick change mutagenesis of *egl-8* cDNA to insert in-frame NotI enzyme for GFP insertion
egl-8-Cterm-NotI-rev	ACCGGTGTCGAAGGACCTCCAGCGGCCGCACCCCCAGTGGAGTACCCAC	Quick-change mutagenesis of *egl-8* cDNA to insert in-frame NotI enzyme for GFP insertion

NotI-GFP-FWD	GGTGCGGCCGCTGGAAGTAAAGGAGAAGAACTTTTC	For amplification of GFP with flanking, in-frame NotI enzyme sites for insertion into *egl-8* cDNA
NotI-GFP-REV	TCCAGCGGCCGCTCCTTTGTATAGTTCATCCATGCC	For amplification of GFP with flanking, in-frame NotI enzyme sites for insertion into *egl-8* cDNA
RE-GFP-FWD-new	GCGTCTAGAACCGGTGCTAGCGTAGAAAAATGGTCAGTAAAGGAGAAGAACTTTTC	For amplification of sequences encoding GFP for cloning into pGP3 *rgs-1* promoter containing plasmid
RE-GFP-REV	TACGAATTCGGTACCTCAGATTTATTTGTATAGTTCATCCATG	For amplification of sequences encoding GFP for cloning into pGP3 *rgs-1* promoter containing plasmid

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