K$_{2P}$ channel TWK-40 Regulates a Rhythmic Behavior in *C. elegans*

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24

Abstract

Background potassium (K^+) currents, conducted by two-pore domain K^+ (K_{2P}) channels, are critical for the stabilization of the membrane potential. The effect of K_{2P} channels on motor rhythm remains enigmatic. We show here that the K_{2P} TWK-40 regulates the rhythmic defecation motor program (DMP) in *Caenorhabditis elegans*. Disrupting TWK-40 suppresses the expulsion defects of *nlp-40* and *aex-2* mutants. By contrast, a gain-of-function (*gf*) mutant of *twk-40* significantly reduces the expulsion frequency per DMP cycle. *In situ* whole-cell patch clamping demonstrates that TWK-40 forms an outward current that hyperpolarize the resting membrane potential of DVB neuron. In addition, TWK-40 substantially contributes to the rhythmic activity of DVB. Specifically, DVB Ca^{2+} oscillations exhibit obvious defects in *twk-40* mutants. Expression of TWK-40(*gf*) in DVB recapitulates the expulsion deficiency of the *twk-40(gf)* mutant, and inhibits DVB Ca^{2+} oscillations in both wild-type and *twk-40(lf)* animals. Moreover, DVB innervated enteric muscles also exhibit rhythmic Ca^{2+} defects. Taken together, these results demonstrate that TWK-40 is an essential inhibitor of DMP, thus revealing a cellular mechanism linking K_{2P} channels with rhythmic motor activity.

Introduction

Two-pore domain potassium (K_{2P}) channels conduct K^+ leak currents. In contrast to voltage-gated K^+ channels, K_{2P}s are mostly voltage-independent and non-inactivating channels, which stabilize the cell's resting membrane potential (Enyedi and Czirjak, 2010). Along with most K_{2P} channels profiling by heterologous expression systems or in cultured primary cells, the channel associated behaviors and the intrinsic physiological characterization of specific K_{2P} channel have remained largely unknown.

The human genome encodes 15 K_{2P} channels, which are grouped into six families based on their functional resemblance and structural similarity (Goldstein et al., 2005; Lesage and Lazdunski, 2000). Aberrant functions of K_{2P} channels have been implicated in various disorders associated with genetic variation. For example, mutations of human TASK-3 (KCNK9 p.Gly236Arg) cause *KCNK9* Imprinting Syndrome, a pediatric neurodevelopmental disease with severe feeding difficulties, delayed development and intellectual disability (Graham et al., 2016). With predicted conservation of amino acid sequences across species, K_{2P} channels associated genetic and functional investigations in animal models are emerging (Buckingham et al., 2005). For instance, cardiac-specific inactivation or overexpression of Ork1, a *Drosophila* two-pore domain potassium channel, led to an increase or a complete arrest of fly heart beating, respectively (Lalevee et al., 2006).

The nematode *Caenorhabditis elegans* (or *C. elegans*) genome contains a large family with at least 47 K_{2P} genes (Bargmann, 1998; Buckingham et al., 2005). This large set of K_{2P} channels may allow for exceptionally fine 'tuning' of the firing activity of individual cells within the very compact (300 neurons) nematode nervous system (Witvliet et al.,

2021; Salkoff et al., 2001). Encouraged by the increasing understanding of the molecular

and cellular wiring of the worm's neural network (White et al., 1986; Bargmann, 1998;

Cook et al., 2019; Witvliet et al., 2021; Taylor et al. 2021), we use *C. elegans* to explore

the functional complexity of K_{2P} channels as potential regulators of rhythmic behaviors *in*

vivo (Ben Soussia et al., 2019; Wang et al., 1999).

The *C. elegans* defecation motor program (DMP) exhibits a highly coordinated

short-term rhythm. It is achieved by periodically activating a stereotyped sequence of

muscle contractions, including the initial contraction of posterior body wall muscles

(pBoc), followed by the second contraction of anterior body wall muscles (aBoc), and the

final contraction of enteric muscles (EMC) (Thomas, 1990). Driven by the synchronizing

activity of electrically-coupled DVB and AVL motor neurons (Choi et al., 2021), EMC

leads to the robust expulsion (Exp) of gut contents (**Figure 1A**) (Dal Santo et al., 1999;

Liu and Thomas, 1994). Unlike most rhythmic motor circuits that are composed of a

central pattern generator (CPG) neural network or self-oscillating pacemaker neurons

(Marder and Calabrese, 1996), the expulsion rhythm is precisely timed by endogenous

calcium oscillation signals from the intestine (Branicky and Hekimi, 2006; McIntire et

al., 1993a). The intestinal IP$_3$ receptor/*itr-1*-driven pacemaker Ca^{2+} oscillations trigger a

Ca^{2+}-dependent secretion of neuropeptide NLP-40, which activates the neuronal G

protein-coupled receptor (GPCR) AEX-2 in DVB and AVL (Mahoney et al., 2008;

Nehrke et al., 2008; Teramoto and Iwasaki, 2006; Wang et al., 2013). GABA release

from DVB (McIntire et al., 1993b), cyclically initiated by NLP-40 (Wang et al., 2013),

activates the muscular excitatory GABA-gated cation channel EXP-1 to drive the final

contraction of enteric muscles (**Figure 1B**) (Beg and Jorgensen, 2003). Deficiency of

either NLP-40, AEX-2 or EXP-1 results in serious expulsion defects in *C. elegans*. Thus,

the intestinal Ca^{2+} oscillation sets the instructive timing signal of the expulsion rhythm

(Branicky and Hekimi, 2006; McIntire et al., 1993a). However, the cellular processes that

control the expulsion rhythm in the intestine-neuron-muscle circuit are still unclear.

We show here that loss of function of *twk-40* – a two-pore domain potassium

channel subunit – specifically suppresses the expulsion defects of *nlp-40* and *aex-2*

mutants, but not of *exp-1* mutant. TWK-40 exhibits the common structural features of

K_{2P} channel based on sequence analyses. The single subunit of TWK-40 has four

transmembrane regions and two pore-forming domains (**Figure 2A**), which exhibit

sequence similarity with the mammalian TASK (tandem-pore-acid-sensing K^+) subfamily

(**Supplementary Figure 1A**). A gain of function mutant of *twk-40(bln336)*, generated by

CRISPR/Cas9 gene editing (Ben Soussia et al., 2019), induces an expulsion defect by

reducing the frequency of expulsion per DMP cycle. Moreover, *in-situ* whole-cell patch

clamping revealed a *twk-40*-dependent outward K^+ current that regulates the resting

membrane potential in DVB neurons, in which the resting membrane potential (RMP)

was depolarized in *twk-40(lf)* and hyperpolarized in *twk-40(gf)* mutant, respectively. In

combination with real-time Ca^{2+} imaging, we provide several lines of evidence that

demonstrate that TWK-40 regulates rhythmic motor behaviors – including defecation –

by cell-autonomously regulating DVB's resting membrane potential.

Remarkably, we also found recently that TWK-40 modulates global locomotor

activity by regulating the activity of the AVA premotor interneuron (Meng et al., 2022).

Briefly, *twk-40(lf)* mutant animals exhibit exaggerated body bends during both forward

and backward movement, and more frequent and prolonged reversals. *twk-40(gf)* mutant

animals, by contrast, exhibit strongly altered locomotion including obvious decreased

body bending and velocity in both rhythmic forward and backward undulation.

Heterologous expression of the TWK-40 in HEK293 cells produced a voltage-insensitive

K^+ selective K_{2P}-like ion channel. Therefore, the K_{2P} channel TWK-40 is required for the

generation of multiple motor rhythms, including the defecation and locomotion motor

programs.

Results

twk-40(lf) suppresses the expulsion defect of nlp-40 and aex-2 mutants

To determine a potential role of the TWK-40 K_{2P} channel in the cellular mechanisms

controlling rhythmic DMP activity, we took advantage of three *exp* mutants that disrupt

DMP in different tissues within the expulsion motor circuit (**Figure 1B**). First, *nlp-*

40(tm4085), an instructive neuropeptide from the intestinal pacemaker that delivers

temporal information to the DVB neuron (Wang et al., 2013). Second, *aex-2(sa3)*, a G-

protein-coupled receptor that functions as the DVB receptor for NLP-40 (Mahoney et al.,

2008; Wang et al., 2013). And the third, *exp-1(sa6)*, which encodes an excitatory GABA

receptor expressed in enteric muscles (Beg and Jorgensen, 2003; Lee et al., 2005). Loss-

of-function mutants of these genes induced severe expulsion defects (**Figure 1C, E, G**)

by disrupting the normal function of the intestine, DVB neuron and enteric muscles,

respectively.

We reasoned that a loss of the potassium conductance *twk-40* would increase the

excitability of cells within the circuit and compensate the inhibitory effect of the *nlp-40*,

aex-2, or *exp-1* mutations. Hence, we combined the *twk-40* allele *hp834* (Figure 2A)

(Meng et al., 2022) with each DMP mutation. *hp834* contains a 7 bp deletion of the

sequence (GTTCGAG) at the base of 127-133 exon before the first pore-forming domain

of T28A8.1a (Figure 2A), causing a frameshift and subsequent premature stop codon of

twk-40a (Meng et al., 2022), one of three annotated isoforms of *twk-40*

(www.wormbase.org). We found that *twk-40(hp834)* significantly improved the

expulsion defect in *nlp-40* and *aex-2* mutants (**Figure 1C-F**). Specifically, the expulsion

frequency per DMP was increased in *nlp-40(tm4085); twk-40(hp834)* or *aex-2(sa3); twk-*

40(hp834), when compared to the single mutants of *nlp-40(tm4085)* and *aex-2(sa3)*,

respectively (**Figure 1C-F**). Similar expulsion defect suppression was observed in

another *twk-40(lf)* allele *hp733* (**Supplementary Figure 1B**), which harbors a missense

mutation that changes an amino acid at the end of the first transmembrane domain

(E58K) (Meng et al., 2022). By contrast, no substantial suppression of the expulsion

defect of *exp-1* mutants was observed for either loss-of-function allele of *twk-40*. Indeed,

no difference in expulsion frequency was observed between *exp-1(sa6)* and *exp-1(sa6);*

twk-40(hp834) or *exp-1(sa6); twk-40(hp733)* double mutants, respectively (**Figure 1G,**

H, Supplementary Figure 1B). These results demonstrated that *twk-40* is selectively

required for rhythmic defecation regulation, upstream of *exp-1*.

A twk-40 gain-of-function mutation reduces expulsion frequency

The selective suppression of *exp* defects in distinct *exp* mutants suggested that *twk-*

40, per se, may regulate the DMP. Indeed, in *twk-40(hp834, lf)* single mutants, the

expulsion number was modestly but significantly increased (13.87 ± 0.21/10 min)

compared to wild-type animals (12.97 ± 0.19/10 min) (**Figure 2C, D**). Similar results were

also observed in *twk-40(hp733)* mutants. These results confirm that *twk-40* regulates the

DMP negatively.

To further confirm the involvement of *twk-40* in the defecation motor program, we

examined the expulsion step in a gain-of-function mutant allele of *twk-40, bln336*

(**Figure 2A**)*.* These mutants harbor a pan-K_{2P} activating mutation (Ben Soussia et al.,

2019) that promotes the gating of vertebrate and invertebrate K_{2P} channels. Indeed,

heterologous expression of the corresponding TWK-40(L159N) channel in HEK293 cells

showed ~5 fold current increase from the wild-type TWK-40 (Meng et al., 2022).

Consistent with an inhibitory function of *twk-40*, we observed a strongly reduced

expulsion frequency (4.8±0.25/10 min) in *twk-40(bln336, L159N)* animals, i.e.

approximately 25% of wild type (12.97±0.19/10 min) (**Figure 2C, D**). Thus, gain-of-

function of *twk-40* inhibits the expulsion rhythm, which encouraged us to further

investigate the functional effects of *twk-40* loss- and gain-of-function mutants.

twk-40 regulates expulsion in the DVB neuron

To pinpoint the exact role of *twk-40* in the DMP, we first assessed its cellular focus

of action. Loss of *twk-40* suppressed the *exp* defect of *nlp-40* and *aex-2* mutants but not

of *exp-1*, indicating that *twk-40* regulates the expulsion frequency from the intestine

and/or expulsion neurons. Indeed, functional TWK-40 driven by a small fragment of its

upstream region (P*twk-40*::TWK-40::sl2dGFP, Methods) revealed the expression

exclusively in the nervous system and intestine (**Figure 2B**). The neuronal expression

pattern includes the excitatory ventral motor neurons (A and B types), but no expression

was observed in D-motor neurons. Meanwhile, sparse labeling of head and tail neurons

was also observed, including the DVC interneuron (strong) and the GABAergic DVB

motor neuron/interneuron (moderate) (**Figure 2B**).

We then systematically tested the tissue or cell requirements of *twk-40* for the

expulsion behavior. A wild-type TWK-40 cDNA driven by different promoters was

expressed in *twk-40(bln336, gf)* mutant, in an attempt to reduce its severe *exp* defect.

Expression of wild-type TWK-40 (i.e., TWK-40(WT)) by the short promoter P*twk-40*

(Methods) rescued the animal's expulsion frequency to 55.5±4.5% (**Figure 2E**).

Expression of TWK-40(WT) in GABAergic DVB/AVL and D-motor neurons (driven by

a P*unc-47* promoter fragment), also significantly restored the DMP (67.7±6.4%). In

contrast, expression of the TWK-40(WT) in the intestine (driven by P*ges-1* promoter,

33.2±1.9%) (**Supplementary Figure S1C**) or D-motor neurons (driven by a short P*unc-*

25 promoter, 33.8±5.6%, Methods), however, did not restore a normal expulsion

frequency (**Figure 2E**). Therefore, consistent with the expression pattern, these results

suggest that regulation of the expulsion rhythm by *twk-40* requires DVB neurons.

To further confirm this notion, we ectopically expressed the TWK-40(L159N) gain-

of-function mutant in DVB neurons. Indeed, in the wild-type N2 background, TWK-

40(L159N) expression in DVB (using its own promoter or P*unc-47*) resembled the

expulsion defect as found in *twk-40(bln336)* mutant animals, exhibiting strongly reduced

expulsion frequency per cycle (**Figure 2F**). TWK-40(L159N) expression only in D-MNs

(by the short P*unc-25* promoter), however, could not replicate this defect. Similar

phenotypes were also observed by expressing TWK-40(L159N) in a *twk-40(lf)* mutant

context (**Figure 2G**).

Taken together, these results demonstrate that *twk-40* is sufficient and necessary in

DVB neurons for the regulation of the expulsion rhythm.

Rhythmic Ca²⁺ oscillation of the DVB neuron is disrupted in twk-40 mutants

To determine whether *twk-40* directly regulates DVB's neuronal activity, we

performed Ca^{2+} imaging in animals expressing the genetically encoded Ca^{2+} sensor

GCaMP6s in the DVB neuron (**Figure 3Ai**). DVB exhibited tight correlation of rhythmic

Ca^{2+} oscillations with cyclic expulsion behavior (Wang and Sieburth, 2013). In wild-type

animals, DVB fired periodic Ca^{2+} spikes (or Ca^{2+} oscillations) with a frequency of

4.5±0.3 Hz/300s (**Figure 3Aii**). In *twk-40(bln336, gf)* mutants, the frequency of Ca^{2+}

spikes was significantly reduced to 3.2±0.3 Hz/300s (**Figure 3B, C**). Interestingly, the

Ca^{2+} amplitude was also diminished in *twk-40(bln336, gf)* mutants (**Figure 3D**).

Conversely, in *twk-40(hp834)* loss-of-function mutants, the Ca^{2+} frequency was

significantly increased to 5.9±0.5 Hz/300s. Yet, the Ca^{2+} amplitude of *twk-40(hp834)* was

unchanged (**Figure 3D**), and the individual Ca^{2+} spike kinetics – including the rise and

decay time – were not modified either (**Supplementary Figure S2A-C**), suggesting that

twk-40 contributes to the basal-activity of the DVB neuron. Taken together, our

experiments demonstrate that the intrinsic DVB Ca^{2+} oscillation activity was substantially

regulated by *twk-40*.

To further decipher *twk-40*'s cellular specificity, we firstly measured neuronal Ca^{2+}

activity by expressing wild-type TWK-40 cDNA under different exogenous promoters in

a *twk-40(bln336, gf)* mutant background. Consistent with our behavioral data, the Ca^{2+}

oscillation frequency and amplitude were partially rescued when TWK-40(WT) was

expressed in DVB in *twk-40(bln336, gf)* mutants (**Figure 3E-G**). By contrast, neither

frequency nor amplitude was restored when TWK-40(WT) was expressed in GABAergic

D-motor neurons (**Figure 3G**). In addition, we also expressed TWK-40(WT) in *twk-*

40(hp834) loss-of-function mutant and found that the increased Ca^{2+} frequency of these

mutants could be rescued to wild-type levels when TWK-40(WT) was expressed in DVB

neurons (**Figure 3H-J**). Thus, TWK-40(WT) is sufficient to restore the neuronal Ca^{2+}

activity of the DVB neurons.

Collectively, these results support the notion that *twk-40* regulates neuronal Ca^{2+}

oscillations of the DVB neuron.

twk-40 cell-autonomously regulates DVB Ca^{2+} oscillations

The broad neuronal expression pattern of *twk-40* and a lack of DVB-specific

promoters for our rescue experiments did not allow us to directly prove that TWK-40

regulates the DMP solely from the DVB neuron (White et al., 1986). To examine whether

synaptic input upstream of DVB may play a role, we examined the DVB Ca^{2+} oscillations

in an *unc-13(lf)* background. UNC-13 is a conserved and essential presynaptic Ca^{2+}

effector that triggers exocytosis and neurotransmitter release. Loss of function of *unc-13*

strongly impairs global neurotransmission throughout the nervous system (Brose et al.,

1995; Gao and Zhen, 2011; Richmond and Jorgensen, 1999). Interestingly, in the *unc-*

13(lf) mutant background, we found that Ca^{2+} oscillation defects were retained in *twk-40*

mutants, including the decreased frequency and amplitude in *twk-40(bln336, gf)* mutants

and increased frequency in *twk-40(hp834, lf)* mutants (**Supplementary Figure S3A-C**).

These results demonstrate that presynaptic inputs to DVB don't interfere with the

regulation of DVB's Ca^{2+} activities by TWK-40, and that *twk-40* most likely regulates the

excitability of DVB neurons in a cell-autonomous manner.

To reinforce this notion, we further tested TWK-40's inhibition of DVB by

measuring the Ca^{2+} oscillation in transgenic lines that expressed the *twk-40(L159N, gf)*

cDNA. When TWK-40(L159N) was expressed in DVB in wild-type animals (driven by

P*twk-40* or P*unc-47* promoters), the frequency and amplitude of Ca^{2+} spikes were

significantly reduced (**Supplementary Figure S4A**), similar to *twk-40(bln336, gf)*

mutants (**Supplementary Figure S4B, C**). By contrast, expression of TWK-40(L159N)

in D-motor neurons had no effect. Furthermore, reduced Ca^{2+} oscillations were also

observed when TWK-40(L159N) was expressed in a *twk-40(hp834)* loss-of-function

mutant background (**Supplementary Figure S4E-F**). These results reveal that ectopic

expression of TWK-40(L159N) is sufficient to silence the Ca^{2+} oscillation of DVB

neurons. Namely, TWK-40 may execute a dominant inhibition of the intrinsic activity

regulation in DVB neuron.

DVB activity regulates Ca^{2+} dynamics in enteric muscles

The expulsion behavior ultimately relies on the coordinated contraction of a group

of muscles, including the anal depressor and sphincter, and two enteric muscles (EM),

which wrap around the posterior gut to further pressurize the intestinal contents

(McIntire et al., 1993b). EMs are innervated by DVB (**Figure 4Ai**) and AVL neurons

(McIntire et al., 1993, Nature; White et al., 1986), and the contraction of EMs is driven

by intracellular Ca^{2+} transients (LeBoeuf and Garcia, 2017). We then ask whether EM

Ca^{2+} activity is also regulated in *twk-40* mutants.

We thus performed Ca^{2+} imaging of animals expressing the calcium indicator

GCaMP6s in the enteric muscles (EM::GCaMP6s, **Figure 4Aii**). As expected, enteric

muscles displayed rhythmic Ca^{2+} increases correlated with expulsion. In our experimental

conditions, the EM Ca^{2+} spikes exhibited a frequency of 6.4±0.5 Hz/300s (n = 20) in

wild-type animals (**Figure 4Aii**). In *twk-40* mutants, the periodicity of EM Ca^{2+} spikes

was affected. Specifically, the EM Ca^{2+} spike frequency was significantly reduced in *twk-*

40(bln336, gf) mutants (3.0±0.2 Hz/300s, n = 20), and increased to 8.6±0.6 Hz/300s (n =

20) in *twk-40(hp834, lf)* mutants (**Figure 4B, C**), reminiscent of *twk-40*'s effects for DVB

Ca^{2+} frequency. EM Ca^{2+} spike amplitudes, however, were unchanged in *twk-40(bln336,*

gf) animals (**Figure 4C**), which differs from the reduction observed for DVB Ca^{2+} spike

amplitudes (**Figure 3C**). Given that no *twk-40* expression was observed in enteric

muscles (**Figure 2B**), we propose that the effects of *twk-40* mutations on the Ca^{2+} activity

of enteric muscles are a consequence of the dysregulation of presynaptic DVB neurons.

To confirm this idea, we performed additional experiments by expressing wild-type

TWK-40 in EM and DVB neurons, respectively. We found that the reduced EM Ca^{2+}

frequency in *twk-40(bln336, gf)* mutant was almost fully rescued by expressing TWK-

40(WT) in DVB (P*twk-40*::TWK-40(WT) or P*unc-47*::TWK-40(WT)), but not in enteric

muscles (P*exp-1*::TWK-40(WT)) or in D-motor neurons (P*unc-25*::TWK-40(WT))

(**Figure 4D, E**). Consistently, the increased frequency of EM Ca^{2+} spikes in *twk-*

40(hp834, lf) mutants was also restored to wild-type by TWK-40(WT) expression in

DVB neurons (**Figure 4F, G**). We also ectopically expressed the TWK-40(L159N) gain-

of-function in *twk-40(hp834)* animals to inhibit DVB's activity and recorded the EM Ca^{2+}

spikes. Consistent with our model, the frequency of EM Ca^{2+} spikes was significantly

diminished in this experiment. This inhibition was however not observed in animals

expressing TWK-40(L159N) in the enteric muscles or D-motor neurons (**Figure 4H, I**).

Collectively, our experiments argue that *twk-40* regulates Ca^{2+} activities of enteric

muscles by modulating DVB activity.

TWK-40 hyperpolarizes the resting membrane potential of DVB neuron

The functional inhibition of DVB neuron by *twk-40* is consistent with an inhibitory

function of this potassium channel. To directly investigate the functional effect of *twk-40*,

we dissected and recorded GFP-labeled DVB neurons *in vivo* in the whole-cell patch

clamp configuration (Methods, **Figure 5A**). In wild-type animals, stable outward K^+

currents were recorded at stepwise holding voltages from -60 mV to +80 mV (Xie et al.,

2013; Jiang et al., 2021). These currents were significantly diminished in *twk-40(hp834)*

loss-of-function mutants (**Figure 5B, C**). Conversely, in *twk-40(bln336)* gain-of-function

mutants, outward currents were dramatically increased (**Figure 5B, C**). Thus, these *in-*

situ neuronal recordings demonstrate that *twk-40* supports a functional K^+ current in DVB

neuron.

Furthermore, the resting membrane potential (RMP) of DVB was also analyzed.

While wild-type DVB neurons had an RMP of -38.9±3.7 mV (n = 6), loss of *twk-40*

depolarized the RMP to -22.1±2.9 mV (n = 7). Conversely, in *twk-40(bln336)* mutants,

the RMP of DVB neuron was dramatically hyperpolarized to -63.1±5.8 mV (n = 6)

(**Figure 5D, E**). Taken together, these results demonstrate that TWK-40 constitutes a K^+

channel that stabilizes the RMP of DVB neuron.

In summary, we show here that TWK-40 forms a *bona fide* potassium channel that

cell-autonomously maintains the RMP of DVB neuron, and that *twk-40* is essential for

the regulation of the rhythmic expulsion motor program (**Figure 5F**).

Discussion

Potassium currents mediated by K_{2P} channels are important modulators of neuronal

activity in animal nervous systems. We show here that the previously uncharacterized K_{2P}

channel TWK-40 provides a prominent leak potassium current in the DVB motor neuron

that regulates the rhythmic expulsion behaviour of *C. elegans*. We present genetic

evidence that loss of *twk-40* suppresses the *exp* defects of *nlp-40* and *aex-2* mutants.

Additional evidence from expression pattern analysis, behavioral rescue experiments, and

real-time neuronal and muscular Ca^{2+} imaging, reveal the substantial contribution of

TWK-40 to rhythmic expulsion activity. Further proof collected by heterologous

expression of TWK-40 (Meng et al., 2022) and *in situ* whole-cell patch clamp recording,

demonstrates that *twk-40* constitutes a K_{2P}-like potassium-selective current, and regulates

the RMP of DVB neuron. Our results thus identify a K_{2P} channel-dependent cellular

mechanism for rhythmic DMP regulation.

Circadian rhythms with 24-hour-long cycles like sleeping are well studied and are

controlled by the expression fluctuation of clock genes, like *Per1*, *Per2*,and *Bmal1 etc*.

(Lowrey and Takahashi, 2004). Ultradian rhythms (or episodic ultradian events) with

diverse shorter periods ranging from milliseconds to hours, are ubiquitous and

indispensable in many neuromuscular systems, such as heartbeat, respiration and

peristalsis (Goh et al., 2019). These ultradian rhythms are generally considered to be

generated by motor central pattern generators (CPG) (Marder and Bucher, 2001). The

ultradian DMP rhythm in *C. elegans* however is a remarkable exception, as it is initiated

by calcium oscillations in intestinal cells (Teramoto and Iwasaki, 2006). The DVB and

AVL neurons, acting as a signaling bridge through NLP-40 and GABA pathways,

transfer non-neuronal calcium oscillation from the intestine to enteric muscles to execute

the expulsion action.

Genetic analysis initially highlighted critical ion channel genes for DVB activity,

such as *unc-2* and *egl-19* that encode the α1 subunits of P/Q- and L- type voltage-gated

Ca^{2+} channel, respectively (Wang and Sieburth, 2013), and *egl-36*, a Shaw-type (Kv3)

voltage-dependent potassium channel subunit (Johnstone et al., 1997). However, the *in*

vivo cellular mechanism of how these channels contribute to the behavior is still

unknown. The recent descriptions of synchronized giant action potentials between AVL

and DVB, and of unusual compound action potentials in AVL, provide insights into how

the rhythmic expulsion behaviour is generated at the cellular level. In particular, the

negative potassium spikes in AVL are mediated by a repolarization-activated potassium

channel EXP-2 (Jiang et al., 2021). Yet, no ion channel had been associated so far with

the rhythmic activity of DVB. Thus, this study identifies TWK-40 as a novel important

electrical component for the regulation of the defecation motor program.

Among 47 K_{2P} genes in the *C. elegans* genome (Bargmann, 1998), only few have

been substantially investigated. Interestingly, nematode K_{2P} channels have been mostly

studied using gain-of-function mutations identified in forward genetic screens. For

instance, while *twk-18(gf)* mutants cause sluggish, uncoordinated movement (Kunkel et

al., 2000), *sup-9(gf)* mutants are hyperactive with a characteristic rubberband phenotype

(de la Cruz et al., 2014). Gain-of-function mutants of *unc-58* show significant deficits in

locomotion, egg laying, development and aging (Kasap et al., 2018; Salkoff et al., 2005).

Except for *twk-18*, we still lack a comprehensive understanding of the electrical

properties of these channels *in vitro* and *in vivo*. The recent discovery of a universal

activating mutation that promotes the gating of vertebrate and invertebrate K_{2P} channels

has opened the way to more comprehensive manipulation of ion channel activity (Ben

Soussia et al., 2019). We used this strategy here to engineer a point mutation of TWK-40

L159N that achieved a substantial gain-of-function effect. First, we show in a related

study that the currents conducted by TWK-40(L159N) channels exhibit ~5 fold increase

compared to TWK-40(WT) when heterologously expressed in HEK293 cells (Meng et

al., 2022). Second, the resting membrane potential of DVB neurons was drastically

hyperpolarized due to the increased outward K^+ current. In this *twk-40(bln336)* gain-of-

function mutant, the neuronal Ca^{2+} oscillation frequency and amplitude were reduced,

resulting in the significantly diminished expulsion frequency. Thus, our study not only

identifies TWK-40 as a regulator of the expulsion rhythm and DVB RMP, but also

provides insight into the electrical properties of this K_{2P} channel.

We also describe the impact of loss of *twk-40* on the expulsion behavior and DVB

activity. In contrast to *gf* mutants, the resting membrane potential of DVB neuron was

depolarized in *twk-40(lf)* mutant, and high Ca^{2+} oscillation activity was observed.

Consequently, the expulsion number exhibited a moderate but significant increase in *twk-*

40(lf) mutant. The fact that only few K_{2P} mutants with loss of function phenotypes have

been identified in *C. elegans* may be due to functional redundancy between K_{2P} genes.

twk-7 is a notable exception as it exhibits hyperactive locomotion (Gottschling et al.,

2017; Luersen et al., 2016). Interestingly, we have found that *twk-40(lf)* mutants also

exhibit increased forward and backward body bends, as well as more frequent and

prolonged reversals (Meng et al., 2022). A recent genetic study reported that loss of

function *twk-40* could reverse the reduced body curvature of *C. elegans NALCN(lf)*

mutants (Zhou et al., 2022). Thus, TWK-40 appears to be required for the regulation of

multiple motor rhythms.

The slight outward-rectification of the *twk-40* dependent K^+ currents in DVB

neurons differs from the voltage-independent currents observed in recombinant TWK-40

recorded in HEK293 cells (Meng et al., 2022). This could be due to endogenous

regulatory subunits expressed in DVB neurons that modify the channel kinetics of TWK-

40. Alternatively, TWK-40 could form heteromers with other K_{2P} subunits *in vivo*,

resulting in heterodimers with different activation kinetics (Czirjak and Enyedi, 2002).

K_{2P} channels can be modulated by a variety of biophysical parameters, such as pH,

temperature, and mechanic forces (Enyedi and Czirjak, 2010). Certain K_{2P} channels,

including TASK-1/3, TREK-1, and TRESK, are activated by volatile general anesthetics

at clinically relevant concentrations (Liu et al., 2004; Patel et al., 1999; Sirois et al.,

2000), indicating a major class of drug target from these K_{2P} channels. As a possible

ortholog of human TASK-1/3, identification of the critical stimulator of TWK-40 in the

future could promote the understanding of how the external environment and internal

state affect motor rhythm.

Materials and Methods

The complete lists of constructs, transgenic lines and strains generated or acquired for

this study are provided in the Supplementary Table 1 and Table 2. All *C. elegans* strains

were cultured on standard Nematode Growth Medium (NGM) plates seeded with OP50,

and maintained at 22 °C. Unless stated otherwise noted, the wild-type animal refers to the

Bristol N2 strain. Only hermaphrodite worms were used for the experiments.

Constructs and molecular biology

All expression plasmids in this study were constructed by Three-Fragment Multisite

Gateway (Invitrogen, Thermo Fisher Scientific, USA) (Magnani et al., 2006). Three-

Fragment Multisite gateway system consists of three entry clones. Three entry clones

comprising three PCR products (promoter, target gene, sl2-GFP or unc-54 3'UTR, in

name of slot 1, slot 2 and slot 3, respectively) were recombined into the pDEST-R4-R3 or

pDEST-R4-R3-unc-54 3'UTR destination vectors by using standard LR recombination

reactions to generate the expression clones.

All promoters used in this study were generated by PCR against a mixed-stage N2

C. elegans genomic DNA. Promoters include the 1.4 kb P*twk-40*, 1.2 kb P*unc-47*, 1.8 kb

P*unc-25*, 2.4 kb P*exp-1* and 1.4 kb P*ges-1* genomic sequence upstream of the respective

ATG start codon and were used to substitute for the *rab-3* fragment in standard BP

reaction-generated entry clone A with the In-Fusion method, using ClonExpress® II One

Step Cloning Kit (Vazyme, China). The used 1.8 kb short promoter of P*unc-25* is only

expressed in D-motor neurons (unpublished).

To generate the entry clones slot 2 and slot 3, we used standard BP recombination

reactions. An entry clone B contributing sequences of slot 2 in the expression plasmid

contains sequence of a target gene, i.e., *twk-40*, GFP, or RFP. The "B" entry clones were

constructed by the use of *pDONR™ 221* donor vector (Invitrogen) through BP reactions.

All the DNA fragments used to construct entry clone B involved in this project were

amplified by PCR with the primers containing attB1 and attB2 recombination sites.

An entry clone "C" contributing sequences of slot 3 in the expression plasmids

contains a sequence of *unc-54* 3' UTR, *sl2d*-GFP or *sl2d*-wCherry. The "C" entry clones

were constructed by use of *pDONR-P2R-P3* donor vector through standard BP reactions.

The corresponding PCR products with attB2R and attB3 sites were amplified by PCR.

For calcium imaging, constructs with genetic calcium sensor GCaMP6.0s were

used for neuronal activity measurement. The GCaMP6.0s sequence (Chen et al., 2013)

was codon-optimized for expression in *C. elegans*. The synthesized gene also contains

three *C. elegans* introns and contain restriction enzyme sites to facilitate subsequent

cloning. In all constructs, GCaMP6.0s was fused in frame with a *C. elegans* codon-

optimized wCherry at the C-terminus to allow ratio metric measurement via simultaneous

imaging of GFP and RFP.

Genetic mutants and transgenetic arrays

Loss-of-function allele *hp834* was generated by targeted CRISPR/Cas9 genome editing

with a 7 bp deletion of the sequence (GTTCGAG, base 127-133) was introduced in the

2nd exon of T28A8.1a. *twk-40(bln336)* was generated by CRISPR/Cas9 technology by

mutating 1047-1048 base of T28A8.1a from CT to AA. Other genetic mutants used for

constructing transgenic lines and compound mutants were obtained from the

Caenorhabditis Genetics Center (*CGC*). Transgenic animals that carry non-integrated,

extra-chromosomal arrays (*gaaEx*) were generated by co-injecting an injection marker

with one to multiple DNA construct at 5-30 ng/μl. All animals were backcrossed at least

four times against N2 prior to analyses.

Behavioral assay for the defecation motor program

A single 12-18 hr post-L4 stage adult hermaphrodite, maintained on standard culture

conditions, was transferred to a fresh NMG plate and let to settle down for at least five

minutes. Count the number of pBoc and Exp steps in 10 minutes. Each genotype assays

were repeated at least in 10 worms. "Exp per cycle" for each worm was calculated as the

ratio of Exp over pBoc.

Fluorescence Microscopy

Images of fluorescently tagged proteins were captured in live L4 worms. L4 stage

transgenic animals expressing fluorescence markers were picked a day before imaging.

Worms were immobilized by 2.5 mM levamisole (Sigma-Aldrich, USA) in M9 buffer.

Fluorescence signals were captured from live worms using a Plan-Apochromatic 60X

objective on a confocal microscope (FV3000, Olympus, Japan) in the same conditions.

Calcium imaging

The genetic calcium indicator GCaMP6.0s was used for neuronal calcium imaging in this

study. To simplify the experiment, animals are glued down on the cover glass as

described for electrophysiological recording but leave the tail free (Gao et al., 2015). The

defecation motor program did not show significant difference between immobilized intact

animals and free moving animals. GFP fluorescence from GCaMP in DVB and intestine

muscles from immobilized animals was collected with a 60X water objective (Nikon,

Japan) and recorded by a sCMOS digital camera (Hamamatsu ORCA-Flash 4.0V2,

Japan) at 100 ms per frame. Custom MATLAB scripts were used to extract the pixel

intensity for each frame. $\Delta F/F$ was used to calculate the relative fluorescence intensity

change, and analyzed by MicroManager and Image J.

In-situ electrophysiology

Dissection and recording were carried out using protocols and solutions described in the

previous studies (Gao and Zhen, 2011; Richmond and Jorgensen, 1999; Mellem et al.,

2008). Briefly, 1- or 2-day-old hermaphrodite adults were glued (Histoacryl Blue, Braun,

Germany) to a sylgard-coated cover glass covered with bath solution (Sylgard 184,

Dowcorning, USA) under stereoscopic microscope M50 (Leica, Germany). After clearing

the viscera by suction through a glass pipette, the cuticle flap was turned and gently glued

down using WORMGLU (GluStitch Inc., Canada) to expose the neuromuscular system.

The integrity of the ventral nerve cord were visually examined via DIC microscopy

(Eclipse FN1, Nikon, Japan), and DVB neuron were patched using 15-20 MΩ-resistant

borosilicate pipettes (1B100F-4, World Precision Instruments, USA). Pipettes were

pulled by micropipette puller P-1000 (Sutter, USA), and fire-polished by microforge MF-

830 (Narishige, Japan). Membrane potential, I-V curve and action potentials were

recorded in the whole-cell configuration by EPC9 amplifier (HEKA, Germany), using the

pulse and processed with Igor Pro (WaveMetrics, USA) and Clampfit 10 software (Axon

Instruments, Molecular Devices, USA). Membrane potential was recorded at 0 pA, action

potentials was recorded from 0 pA to 100 pA, I-V curve was recorded at holding

potential from –60 mV to 80mV at 20 mV increment. Data were digitized at 10–20 kHz

and filtered at 2.6 kHz. The pipette solution contains (in mM): K-gluconate 115; KCl 25;

$CaCl_2$ 0.1; $MgCl_2$ 5; BAPTA 1; HEPES 10; Na_2ATP 5; Na_2GTP 0.5; cAMP 0.5; cGMP

0.5, pH7.2 with KOH, ~320 mOsm. cAMP and cGMP were included to maintain the

activity and longevity of the preparation. The bath solution consists of (in mM): NaCl

150; KCl 5; $CaCl_2$ 5; $MgCl_2$ 1; glucose 10; sucrose 5; HEPES 15, pH7.3 with NaOH,

~330 mOsm. Chemicals were obtained from Sigma unless stated otherwise. Experiments

were performed at room temperatures (20-22 °C).

Statistical analysis

The two-tailed Student's *t*-test were used to compare data sets. $P < 0.05$ was considered

to be statistically significant; *, ** and *** denote $P < 0.05$, $P < 0.01$, $P < 0.001$,

respectively. Graphing and subsequent analysis were performed using Igor Pro

(WaveMetrics), Clampfit (Molecular Devices), Image J (National Institutes of Health),

Python, Matlab (MathWorks, USA), GraphPad Prism 8 (GraphPad Software Inc., USA)

and Excel (Microsoft, USA). For behavior analysis, calcium imaging, electrophysiology

and fluorescence imaging, each recording trace was obtained from a different animal.

Unless specified otherwise, data were presented as the mean ± SEM.

Author Contributions

S.G. conceived experiments and wrote the manuscript. Z.Y., Y.Z., B.Y., and Y.X.

performed experiments and analyzed data. L.C., Y.L., J. C. J.M., W.H., S.E.M, T.B., and

C.Z. contributed to the experiments. T.B. and M.Z. provided reagents, discussed the

experiments and edited the text.

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Declaration of Interests

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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Figure 1. Loss of function of twk-40 suppresses expulsion defects in nlp-40 and aex-2

mutants

(**A**) Schematic representation of the <u>d</u>efecation <u>m</u>otor <u>p</u>rogram (DMP), which consists of

three distinct sets of muscle contractions: the posterior body muscle contraction (pBoc),

the anterior body muscle contraction (aBoc), and the expulsion muscle contraction (exp

or EMC). The regular defecation cycle period is approximately 45 sec. (**B**) Schematic

representation of the expulsion motor circuit, including the intestine, DVB neuron and

enteric muscles (EM). ER, endoplasmic reticulum; ITR-1, inositol 1,4,5-trisphosphate

receptor; DCV: dense core vesicle. (**C, E, G**) Ethograms of defecation behavior in *nlp-40*

and *nlp-40; twk-40* double mutants, *aex-2* and *aex-2; twk-40* double mutants, and *exp-1*

and *exp-1; twk-40* double mutants, respectively. Each dot and character represent 1 s.

Letters 'p' and 'x' represent pBoc and exp, respectively. (**D, F, H**) Quantifications of the

expulsion frequency per defecation cycle. The expulsion deficiency was partially

recovered by loss of *twk-40* in *nlp-40* and *aex-2* mutants, but not in *exp-1* mutants. All

data are expressed as means ± SEM. Student's *t*-test was used. Statistical significance is

indicated as follows: ns, not significant, $*P < 0.05$, $***P < 0.001$ in comparison with that

as denoted.

Figure 2. twk-40 regulates expulsion rhythm from DVB neuron

(**A**) Diagram of the TWK-40 K$^+$ channel and the mutation loci. P1 and P2, pore domains;

1-4 transmembrane domains; *fs*, predicted frameshift mutation; *gf*, gain-of-function

mutation. (**B**) *twk-40* is expressed in DVB based on co-localization of P*twk-40*::TWK-

40::sl2dGFP and P*unc-47*::RFP. GFP was observed in the ventral excitatory motor

neurons, a few head and tail neurons, and the intestine. Scale bar, 20 μm. *Right*, zoomed

view of *twk-40* expression in DVB and DVC. Scale bar, 5 μm. (**C**) Ethograms of

defecation behavior in wild type, *twk-40(bln336, gf)* and *twk-40(hp834, lf)* animals. Each

dot and character represent 1 s. Letters 'p' and 'x' represent pBoc and exp, respectively.

(**D**) Quantifications of the expulsion frequency per defecation cycle. Compared to wild-

type animals, the expulsion deficiency was significantly reduced in *twk-40(bln336, gf)*,

but not in *twk-40(hp834, lf)*. (**E**) Neuronal expression of wild-type TWK-40 (TWK-

40(WT)) in DVB neurons rescues the expulsion deficiency of *twk-40(bln336, gf)*

mutants. (**F, G**) Neuronal expression of gain-of-function TWK-40(L159N) in DVB in

wild type (F) or *twk-40(hp834)* (G) recapitulates the expulsion deficiency of *twk-40(gf)*

mutant. The number of tested animals is indicated for each strain. All data are expressed

as means ± SEM. Student's *t*-test was used, in which: ns, not significant, **$P < 0.01$,

***$P < 0.001$ relative to wild type or as indicated.

Figure 3. twk-40 inhibits DVB Ca^{2+} oscillation

(**A**) i. Schematic representation of *C. elegans* DVB neuron and enteric muscle (EM) in a

lateral view. The genetically-encoded Ca^{2+} indicator GCaMP6.0s was expressed in DVB

to measure its neuronal activity. ii. Representative spontaneous Ca^{2+} oscillation imaged

by GCaMP in DVB neuron *in-vivo*. *Upper*, from left to right, Ca^{2+} signal of DVB in (1)

the quiescent state, (2) at peak Ca^{2+} signal and (3) upon return to the basal state. Scale

bar, 5 μm. *Bottom*, representative recording of Ca^{2+} oscillations in DVB over time. Arrow

heads indicate the corresponding time points in upper panels. Color map of the Ca^{2+}

oscillations in wild-type animals. (**B**) Representative Ca^{2+} activity (*left*) and color maps

(*right*) of DVB neurons in *twk-40(bln336, gf)* and *twk-40(hp834, lf)* mutants,

respectively. (**C, D**) Significant reduction of Ca^{2+} transient frequency and amplitude in

twk-40(bln336, gf) mutant, n=20. Reduction of frequency but not amplitude in *twk-*

40(hp834, lf) mutants. (**E**) Representative DVB Ca^{2+} traces (*left*) and color maps (*right*)

for tissue-specific expression of TWK-40(WT) in *twk-40(bln336, gf)* mutants. *Upper*,

endogenous promoter P*twk-40*; *middle*, P*unc-47* promoter including DVB expression;

bottom, P*unc-25* promoter lacking DVB expression. (**F, G**) Quantification of the

frequency and amplitude of Ca^{2+} transients, n=20. (**H**) Representative DVB Ca^{2+} traces

(*left*) and color maps (*right*) for tissue-specific expression of TWK-40(WT) in *twk-*

40(hp834, lf) mutant. (**F, G**) Quantification of the frequency and amplitude of Ca^{2+}

transients, n=20. All data are expressed as means ± SEM. Student's *t*-test was used, in

which: ns, not significant, *$P < 0.05$, **$P < 0.01$, ***$P < 0.001$ in comparison with that

as denoted.

Figure 4. Disruption of Ca²⁺ dynamics in enteric muscles of twk-40 mutants

(**A**) *i*. Schematic representation of *C. elegans* DVB neuron and enteric muscle (EM) in a

lateral view. The genetically-encoded Ca²⁺ indicator GCaMP6.0s was expressed in EM.

ii. Representative Ca²⁺ oscillation imaged by GCaMP in EM *in-vivo*. *Upper,* from left to

right, Ca²⁺ signal of EM in (1) the quiescent state, (2) at peak Ca²⁺ signal and (3) upon

return to the basal state. Scale bar, 5 μm. *Bottom*, representative recording of Ca²⁺

oscillations in EM over time. Arrow heads indicate the corresponding time points in

upper panels. Color map of the rhythmic EM Ca²⁺ activities in wild-type animals. (**B**)

Representative Ca^{2+} activity (*left*) and color maps (*right*) of enteric muscles in *twk-*

40(bln336, gf) and *twk-40(hp834, lf)* mutants, respectively. (**C**) Quantification of EM

Ca^{2+} transients frequency and amplitude , n=20. Ca^{2+} transient frequency was

significantly reduced in *twk-40(bln336, gf)* mutant, but was increased in *twk-40(hp834, lf)*

mutant. EM Ca^{2+} amplitude was not altered in either mutants. (**D, F**) Representative EM

Ca^{2+} traces (*left*) and color maps (*right*) in *twk-40(bln336, gf)* (E) and *twk-40(hp834, lf)*

(G) for tissue-specific expression of TWK-40(WT). 1, endogenous promoter P*twk-40*; 2,

P*unc-47* promoter including DVB expression; 3, P*unc-25* promoter lacking DVB

expression; 4, P*exp-1* promoter for enteric muscle expression. (**E, G**) Rescue of EM Ca^{2+}

transient frequency by expression of TWK-40(WT) in DVB, but not enteric muscles or

other neurons, n=20. (**H**) Representative EM Ca^{2+} traces (*left*) and color maps (*right*) in

twk-40(hp834, lf) following tissue-specific expression of TWK-40(L159N). (**I**) Reduction

of EM Ca^{2+} transient frequency following TWK-40(L159N) expression in DVB, but not

enteric muscles or other neurons, n=20. All data are expressed as means ± SEM.

Student's *t*-test was used, in which: ns, not significant, $*P < 0.05$, $**P < 0.01$, $***P <$

0.001 in comparison with that as denoted.

Figure 5. TWK-40 hyperpolarizes the DVB neuron.

(**A**) *Left*, schematic representation of *C. elegans* DVB neuron for whole-cell patch clamp

recording. *Right*, GFP-labeled DVB soma and axon. (**B**) Representative outward K^+

currents recorded from DVB neurons in different genotypes. (**C**) Quantification of the

current-voltage curves from different genotypes reveals that the outward currents were

reduced in *twk-40(hp834, lf)* mutant, but increased in *twk-40(bln336, gf)* mutant. (**D, E**)

Representative traces and quantification of the resting membrane potential (RMP)

recorded from DVB in different genotypes. (**F**) The working Model: K_{2P} channel TWK-

40 regulates the rhythmic expulsion behavior by setting the resting membrane potential of

DVB neuron. Student's *t*-test was used to test the significant difference of average

currents at +80 mV, in which: ns, not significant, *$P < 0.05$, **$P < 0.01$ in comparison

with that as denoted.