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A leak K⁺ channel TWK-40 sustains the rhythmic motor program

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Abstract

Leak 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 contributes to 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 dorsorectal ganglion ventral process B (DVB), an excitatory GABAergic motor neuron that activates expulsion muscle contraction. In addition, TWK-40 substantially contributes to the rhythmic activity of DVB. Specifically, DVB Ca²⁺ oscillations exhibit obvious defects in loss-of-function (*lf*) mutant of twk-40. Expression of TWK-40(*gf*) in DVB recapitulates the expulsion deficiency of the twk-40(*gf*) mutant, and inhibits DVB Ca²⁺ oscillations in both wild-type and twk-40(*lf*) animals. Moreover, DVB innervated enteric muscles also exhibit rhythmic Ca²⁺ defects in twk-40 mutants. In summary, these findings establish TWK-40 as a crucial neuronal stabilizer of DMP, linking leak K_{2P} channels with rhythmic motor activity.

Keywords: twk-40, K_{2P} channel, motor rhythm, Ca²⁺ oscillation, membrane potential

Significance Statement

Rhythmic motor programs, with durations ranging from milliseconds to hours, are critical for numerous physiological processes. However, the molecular mechanisms that maintain these rhythms remain elusive. This study uncovers the role of an endogenous leak K⁺ channel, encoded by the gene of twk-40, in sustaining the defecation rhythm. We demonstrate that TWK-40 influences both the Ca^{2+} oscillations and the membrane potential within the dorsorectal ganglion ventral process B (DVB) neuron. Thus, TWK-40 is a vital component that affects the DVB neuron's transmission of pacemaker signals from the intestine to the enteric muscles. Given the K_{2P} channels' conserved function in modulating neuronal activity, our findings suggest their wider importance in regulating various rhythmic behaviors, such as respiration, cardiac pulsation, and gastrointestinal motility, in mammals.

Introduction

Two-pore domain potassium (K_{2P}) channels conduct K^+ leak currents. In contrast to voltage-gated K^+ channels, K_{2P} channels are mostly voltage-independent and noninactivating channels, which stabilize the cell's resting membrane potential (RMP) (1). 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 (2, 3). Aberrant functions of K_{2P} channels have been implicated in various disorders associated with genetic variation. For example, mutations of human TASK-3 (KCNK9



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p.Gly236Arg) cause KCNK9 Imprinting Syndrome, a pediatric neurodevelopmental disease with severe feeding difficulties, delayed development and intellectual disability (4). With predicted conservation of amino acid sequences across species, K_{2P} channels associated genetic and functional investigations in animal models are emerging (5, 6). 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 (6).

The nematode *Caenorhabditis elegans* (or *C. elegans*) genome contains a large family with at least 47 K_{2P} genes (5, 7). This large set of K_{2P} channels may allow for exceptionally fine "tuning" of the firing activity of individual cells within the very compact nematode nervous system (8, 9). Encouraged by the increasing understanding of the molecular and cellular wiring of the worm's neural network (7, 9, 10, 11), we use *C. elegans* to explore the functional complexity of K_{2P} channels as potential regulators of rhythmic motor behaviors in vivo (12, 13).

The C. elegans defecation motor program (DMP) exhibits a highly coordinated ultradian 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) (14). Driven by the synchronizing activity of electrically coupled dorsorectal ganglion ventral process B (DVB) and anterior ventral process L (AVL) motor neurons (15), EMC leads to the robust expulsion (Exp) of gut contents (Fig. 1A) (16, 17). Unlike most rhythmic motor circuits that are composed of a central pattern generator neural network or self-oscillating pacemaker neurons (18), the expulsion rhythm is precisely timed by endogenous calcium oscillation signals from the intestine (19, 20). The intestinal IP₃ receptor/itr-1driven pacemaker Ca²⁺ oscillations trigger a Ca²⁺-dependent secretion of neuropeptide NLP-40, which activates the neuronal G-protein-coupled receptor (GPCR) AEX-2 in DVB and AVL (21-24). GABA release from DVB (25), cyclically initiated by NLP-40 (24), activates the muscular excitatory GABA-gated cation channel EXP-1 to drive the final EMC (Fig. 1B) (26). Deficiency of either NLP-40, AEX-2 or EXP-1 results in serious expulsion defects in C. elegans. Although the intestinal Ca²⁺ oscillation sets the instructive timing signal of the expulsion rhythm (19, 20), 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 (27–29). The single subunit of TWK-40 has four transmembrane regions and two poreforming domains (Fig. 1I), which exhibit sequence similarity with the mammalian TASK (tandem-pore-acid-sensing K⁺) subfamily (Fig. S1A). A gain of function mutant of twk-40(bln336, L159N), similar to hTWIK(L146N) and hTASK1/3(L122N) that generated by CRISPR/Cas9 gene editing (12), 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 RMP in DVB neurons, in which the RMP was depolarized in twk-40(lf) and hyperpolarized in twk-40(L159N, gf) mutant, respectively. In combination with real-time Ca²⁺ imaging, we provide several lines of evidence to demonstrate that TWK-40 contributes to rhythmic motor behaviors-including defecation-by cell-autonomously regulating DVB's activity.

Remarkably, our recent findings reveal that the TWK-40 K_{2P} channel plays a pivotal role in modulating global locomotor activity by influencing the activity of the AVA premotor interneuron (30). Specifically, animals with a loss-of-function (*lf*) mutation in *twk-40* exhibit exaggerated body bends during both forward and backward movement, and more frequent and prolonged reversals. In contrast, gain-of-function mutants of *twk-40* strongly altered locomotion including obvious decreased body bending and velocity in both forward and backward undulation. Therefore, the K_{2P} channel TWK-40 is required for multiple motor rhythms, including the defection 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 (Fig. 1B). First, *nlp-40(tm4085)*, an instructive neuropeptide from the intestinal pacemaker that delivers temporal information to the DVB neuron (24). Second, *aex-2(sa3)*, a GPCR that functions as the DVB receptor for NLP-40 (21, 24). And the third, *exp-1(sa6)*, which encodes an excitatory GABA receptor expressed in enteric muscle (EM) (26, 31). If mutants of these genes induced severe expulsion defects (Fig. 1C, E, G) by disrupting the normal function of the intestine, DVB neuron, and EM, 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 null allele hp834 (30) 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 (Fig. 1I), causing a frameshift and subsequent premature stop codon of twk-40a (30), one of three annotated isoforms of twk-40 (www.wormbase.org). We term this mutant as twk-40(hp834, lf) or twk-40(V65 deletion, LF) (Fig. S1A). We found that twk-40(V65, lf) mutant significantly improved the expulsion defect in nlp-40 and aex-2 mutants (Fig. 1C-F). Specifically, the expulsion frequency per DMP was increased in nlp-40(tm4085); twk-40(hp834) (0.18 \pm 0.02 Exp per cycle) or aex-2(sa3); twk-40(hp834) (0.15 ± 0.02 Exp per cycle), when compared to the single mutants of nlp-40(tm4085) (0.08 ± 0.01 Exp per cycle) and aex-2(sa3) (0.08 ± 0.01 Exp per cycle), respectively (Fig. 1C-F). Similar expulsion defect suppression was observed in another twk-40(lf) allele hp733(E58K, LF) (Fig. S1A, B), which harbors a missense mutation that changes an amino acid at the end of the first transmembrane domain (E58K) (30). By contrast, no substantial suppression of the expulsion defect of exp-1 mutants was observed for either lf allele of twk-40. Indeed, no difference in expulsion frequency was observed between exp-1(sa6) $(0.17 \pm 0.01 \text{ Exp per cycle})$ and exp-1(sa6); twk-40(hp834) (0.17 ± 0.01 Exp per cycle) or exp-1(sa6); twk-40(E58K, LF) (0.16 \pm 0.01 Exp per cycle) double mutants, respectively (Figs. 1G, H and S1B). 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 contribute to the DMP.



Fig. 1. Disrupted expulsion rhythm in twk-40 mutants. A) Schematic representation of the defecation motor program (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 s. B) Schematic representation of the expulsion motor circuit, including the intestine, DVB neuron, and 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. I) Diagram of the TWK-40 K⁺ channel and the mutation loci. P1 and P2, pore domains; 1–4 transmembrane domains; fs, predicted frameshift mutation; qf, gain-of-function mutation. J) twk-40 is expressed in DVB based on co-localization of Ptwk-40::TWK-40::sl2dGFP and Punc-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. K) 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. L) 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). M) Neuronal expression of wild-type TWK-40 (TWK-40(WT)) in DVB neurons rescues the expulsion deficiency of twk-40(bln336, gf) mutants. N, O) Neuronal expression of gain-of-function TWK-40(L159N) in DVB in wild type (N) or twk-40(hp834, lf) (O) 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. One-way ANOVA test was used, in which: ns, not significant, **P < 0.01, *P < 0.05, ***P < 0.001, $^{****P} < 0.0001$ relative to wild type or as indicated.

Indeed, in twk-40(V65 deletion) single mutants, the expulsion number was modestly but significantly increased ($13.87 \pm 0.21/10$ min) compared to wild-type animals ($12.97 \pm 0.19/10$ min) (Fig. 1K, L). Similar results were also observed in twk-40(E58K, LF) mutants. These results confirm that twk-40 contributes to the DMP negatively.

To further confirm the involvement of twk-40 in the DMP, we examined the expulsion step in a gain-of-function mutant allele of twk-40, bln336(L159N, GF) (Fig. 1I). These mutants harbor a pan-K_{2P} activating mutation (12) that promotes the gating of vertebrate and invertebrate K_{2P} channels. Indeed, heterologous expression of the corresponding TWK-40(L159N, GF) channel in HEK293T cells showed ~5 fold current increase from the wild-type TWK-40 (30). 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) (Fig. 1K, L). 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 mutants disrupt the expulsion behavior

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 mutants disrupt the expulsion frequency from the intestine and/or expulsion neurons. Indeed, functional TWK-40 driven by a small fragment of its upstream region (Ptwk-40::TWK-40:: sl2dGF) (Tables S1–S3) revealed the expression exclusively in the nervous system and intestine (Fig. 1J). The neuronal expression pattern includes the excitatory ventral motor neurons (A- and B-types), and the excitatory GABAergic DVB motor neuron/interneuron (moderate), but no expression was observed in inhibitory D-motor neurons. Meanwhile, sparse labeling of head and tail neurons was also observed, including the DVC interneuron (strong) (Fig. 1J).

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 competitively expressed in twk-40(L159N, gf) mutant (0.26 \pm 0.02 Exp per cycle), in an attempt to reduce its severe exp defect. Expression of wild-type TWK-40 (i.e. TWK-40(WT)) by the short promoter Ptwk-40 (Tables S2 and S3) rescued the animal's expulsion frequency to $(0.55 \pm 0.04 \text{ Exp})$ per cycle) (Fig. 1M). Expression of TWK-40(WT) in GABAergic DVB/AVL/D-motor neurons (Punc-47), also significantly restored the DMP (0.67 \pm 0.06 Exp per cycle). More importantly, when we restored TWK-40(WT) expression exclusively in the DVB neuron (Pflp-10) (15), the expulsion defect of twk-40(L159N, gf) mutant was rescued (0.7 ± 0.06 Exp per cycle). In contrast, expression of the TWK-40(WT) in the intestine (Pges-1, $33.2 \pm 1.9\%$) (Fig. S1C) or D-motor neurons (Punc-25 s, $33.8 \pm 5.6\%$) (32), however, did not restore a normal expulsion frequency (Fig. 1M). 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 (Ptwk-40, Punc-47 or Pflp-10) resembled the expulsion defect as found in twk-40(bln336, L159N) mutant animals, exhibiting strongly reduced expulsion frequency per cycle (Fig. 1N). TWK-40(L159N) expression only in D-MNs (Punc-25s), however,

could not replicate this defect. Similar phenotypes were also observed by expressing TWK-40(L159N) in a *twk*-40(*lf*) mutant context (Fig. 1O).

Taken together, these results demonstrate that *twk*-40 is sufficient and necessary in DVB neurons for the regulation of the expulsion.

Aberrant Ca^{2+} oscillation of the DVB neuron in twk-40 mutants

To determine whether twk-40 directly mediates DVB's neuronal activity, we performed Ca²⁺ imaging in animals expressing the genetically encoded Ca²⁺ sensor GCaMP6s in the DVB neuron (Fig. 2A, Table S1) (33). We conducted the Ca²⁺ imaging in a liquid environment on restricted animals, in which DVB exhibited tight correlation of rhythmic Ca²⁺ oscillations with cyclic expulsion behavior (Fig. 2B–D). In wild-type animals, DVB fired periodic Ca²⁺ spikes (or Ca^{2+} oscillations) with a frequency of 4.5 ± 0.3 Hz/300 s (Fig. 2B, E, F). To verify these Ca²⁺ spikes represent pacemakeractivated DVB activation, we examined their dependence on NLP-40, the instructive neuropeptide from the intestinal pacemaker that delivers temporal information to the DVB neuron (24). Consistent with previous reports (15, 24), we observed severe decrease in both DVB Ca²⁺ and expulsion frequency in the nlp-40(tm4085) mutant (Fig. S2A-C). These results demonstrate that the activation dynamics of DVB are indeed dependent on the NLP-40-initiated pacemaker signal.

In twk-40(L159N, gf) mutants, the frequency of Ca²⁺ spikes was significantly reduced to 3.2 ± 0.3 Hz/300 s (Fig. 2E, F). Interestingly, the Ca²⁺ amplitude was also diminished in twk-40(L159N, gf) mutants (Fig. 2G). Conversely, in twk-40(hp834, lf) mutants, the Ca²⁺ frequency was significantly increased to 5.9 ± 0.5 Hz/300 s. Yet, the Ca²⁺ amplitude of twk-40(hp834) was unchanged (Fig. 2G), and the individual Ca²⁺ spike kinetics—including the rise and decay time—were not modified either (Fig. S3A–C), suggesting that twk-40 contributes to the basal-activity of the DVB neuron. Taken together, our experiments demonstrate that the intrinsic DVB Ca²⁺ 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(L159N, gf) mutant background (Tables S1–S3). Consistent with our behavioral data, the Ca^{2+} frequency and amplitude were partially rescued when TWK-40(WT) was expressed in DVB in twk-40(L159N, gf) mutants (Fig. 2H–J). By contrast, neither frequency nor amplitude was restored when TWK-40(WT) was expressed in D-motor neurons. In addition, we then expressed TWK-40(WT) in twk-40(hp834, lf) mutant and found that the increased Ca^{2+} frequency of these mutants could also be rescued to wild-type levels when TWK-40(WT) was expressed in DVB (Fig. 2K–M). 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 mediates neuronal Ca^{2+} oscillations of the DVB neuron.

twk-40 cell-autonomously regulates DVB Ca²⁺ oscillation

The broad neuronal expression pattern of twk-40 indicates that TWK-40 may contribute to the DMP not limited in the DVB neuron (11). To examine whether synaptic input upstream of DVB may play a role, we examined the DVB Ca²⁺ oscillations in an *unc-13(lf)* background (24). UNC-13 is a conserved and essential presynaptic



Fig. 2. TWK-40 inhibits DVB Ca^{2+} oscillation. A) *Left*, schematic representation of *C. elegans* DVB neuron and enteric muscle (EM) in a lateral view. The genetically encoded Ca^{2+} indicator GCaMP6s was expressed in DVB to measure its neuronal activity. *Right*, representative spontaneous Ca^{2+} oscillation imaged by GCaMP in DVB neuron. 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. B) Representative recording of Ca^{2+} oscillations in DVB over time. Arrow heads indicate the corresponding time points in upper panels. C) Representative single event of simultaneous recording of DVB Ca^{2+} activity and expulsion action that observed by anal bacterial fluorescence. D) Cross-correlation between DVB Ca^{2+} and Exp. Faint lines indicate the results from individual Ca^{2+} transient, and the black line indicates mean value. Black dashed line denotes tight correlation between DVB Ca^{2+} and Exp action with a ~0.8 s delay. E) Representative Ca^{2+} activity (*left*) and color maps (*right*) of DVB neurons in wild type, twk-40(*bln336*, *gf*) and twk-40(*hp834*, *lf*) mutants, respectively. F, G) Significant reduction of Ca^{2+} transient frequency and amplitude in twk-40(*bln336*, *gf*) mutant, *n* = 20. Reduction of TWK-40(WT) in twk-40(*bln336*, *gf*) mutants. H) Representative DVB Ca^{2+} transient, *n* = 20. K) Representative DVB Ca^{2+} transient, *n* = 20. K) Representative DVB Ca^{2+} transient for UPB specific expression. *Punc-25* promoter including D-MNs/RME expression but lacking DVB expression. I, J) Quantification of the frequency and amplitude of Ca^{2+} transients, *n* = 20. K) Representative DVB Ca^{2+} transient for 40(*h*) R34, *lf*) mutant. L, M) Quantification of the frequency and amplitude of Ca^{2+} transients, *n* = 20 animals. All data are expressed as means \pm SEM. One-way ANOVA test was used, in which: ns, not significant, **P* < 0.05, ***

Ca²⁺ effector that triggers exocytosis and neurotransmitter release (34–36). Loss of function of *unc*-13 strongly impairs global neurotransmission with minor effect on NLP-40 release (24). Interestingly, in the *unc*-13(*lf*) mutant background, we found that Ca²⁺ oscillation defects were retained in *twk*-40 mutants, including the decreased frequency and amplitude in *twk*-40(*L*159N, *gf*) mutants and increased frequency in *twk*-40(*h*p834, *lf*) mutants (Fig. S4A–C). These results demonstrate that potential presynaptic inputs to DVB do not interfere with the regulation of DVB's Ca²⁺ activities by TWK-40, and that *twk*-40 most likely regulates the cellular excitability of DVB neuron in a cell-autonomous manner.

To reinforce this notion, we further tested TWK-40's inhibition of DVB by measuring the Ca²⁺ oscillation in different transgenic lines that expressed the twk-40(L159N, gf) cDNA. When TWK-40(L159N) was expressed in DVB in wild-type animals (Ptwk-40, Punc-47 or Pflp-10), the frequency and amplitude of Ca²⁺ spikes were significantly reduced (Fig. S5A), similar to twk-40(L159N, gf) mutants (Fig. S5B, C). By contrast, expression of TWK-40(L159N) in D-motor neurons had no effect. Furthermore, reduced Ca²⁺ oscillations were also observed when TWK-40(L159N) was expressed in a twk-40(hp834, lf) mutant background (Fig. S5E, F). These results reveal that ectopic expression of TWK-40(L159N) is sufficient to silence the Ca²⁺ oscillation of DVB neurons. Namely, TWK-40 execute a dominant inhibition of the intrinsic activity regulation in DVB neuron.

DVB activity regulates Ca²⁺ 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 EM, which wrap around the posterior gut to further pressurize the intestinal contents (25). EMs are innervated by DVB (Fig. 3A) and AVL neurons (11, 25), and the contraction of EMs is driven by intracellular Ca^{2+} transients (37). We then ask whether EM Ca^{2+} activity is also disrupted in *twk*-40 mutants.

We thus performed Ca²⁺ imaging of animals expressing the calcium indicator GCaMP6s in the enteric muscles (EM::GCaMP6s, Fig. 3B) (33). Similar to activation dynamics in DVB neuron, EM displayed rhythmic Ca²⁺ spikes closely correlated with expulsion action (Fig. 3C, D). In our experimental conditions, the EM Ca²⁺ spikes exhibited a frequency of 6.4 ± 0.5 Hz/300 s (n = 20) in wildtype animals (Fig. 3E), which was also eliminated in nlp-40(tm4085) mutant (Fig. S2D, E). In twk-40 mutants, the periodicity of EM Ca²⁺ spikes was affected. Specifically, the EM Ca²⁺ frequency was significantly reduced in twk-40(L159N, gf) mutants $(3.0 \pm 0.2 \text{ Hz}/$ 300 s, n = 20), and increased to 8.6 ± 0.6 Hz/300 s (n = 20) in twk-40(hp834, lf) mutants (Fig. 3E, F), reminiscent of twk-40's effects for DVB Ca²⁺ frequency. EM Ca²⁺ amplitudes, however, were unchanged in twk-40(L159N, gf) animals (Fig. 3G), which differs from the reduction observed for DVB Ca²⁺ spike amplitudes. Given that no twk-40 expression was observed in EM, we propose that the effects of twk-40 mutations on the Ca²⁺ activity of EM 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 Ca²⁺ frequency in twk-40(L159N, *gf*) mutant was almost fully rescued by expressing TWK-40(WT) in DVB (Ptwk-40, Punc-47 and Pflp-10), but not in EM (Pexp-1) or in D-motor neurons (Punc-25s) (Fig. 3H, I). Consistently, the increased frequency of EM Ca²⁺ spikes in twk-40(hp834, lf) mutants was also restored to wild-type by TWK-40(WT) expression in DVB neurons

(Fig. 3J, K). We also ectopically expressed the gain-of-function TWK-40(L159N) in twk-40(hp834) animals to inhibit DVB's activity and recorded the EM Ca^{2+} spikes. Consistently, 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 EM or D-motor neurons (Fig. 3L, M). Collectively, our experiments argue that twk-40 changes Ca^{2+} activities of EM by modulating DVB activity.

TWK-40 hyperpolarizes the RMP 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 (Fig. 4A). In wild-type animals, stable outward K⁺ currents were recorded at stepwise holding voltages from -60 mV to +80 mV (38, 39). These currents were significantly diminished in twk-40(hp834) lf mutants (Fig. 4B, C). Conversely, in twk-40(L159N) gain-of-function mutants, outward currents were dramatically increased (Fig. 4B, C). Thus, these in situ neuronal recordings demonstrate that twk-40 supports a functional K⁺ current in DVB neuron.

Furthermore, the RMP of DVB was also analyzed. While wildtype 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(L159N, gf) mutants, the RMP of DVB neuron was dramatically hyperpolarized to -63.1 ± 5.8 mV (n = 6) (Fig. 4D, 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 (Fig. 4F).

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 behavior 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 behavioral rescue experiments, and real-time neuronal and muscular Ca²⁺ imaging, reveal the substantial contribution of TWK-40 to rhythmic expulsion activity. Further proof collected by in situ whole-cell patch clamp recording and heterologous expression of TWK-40 (30), demonstrates that twk-40 constitutes a neuronal K_{2P}-like potassium-selective current. Our results thus identify a K_{2P} channel TWK-40, through its influence on DVB neuron (this study) and AVA interneuron (30), plays a critical role in coordinating the expulsion rhythm and locomotion, respectively. These findings suggest a broader significance of TWK-40/K_{2P} in orchestrating multiple motor rhythms, providing insights into the molecular mechanisms underlying coordinated motor behaviors.

Genetic analysis initially highlighted critical ion channel genes for DVB activity, such as *unc-2* and *egl-19* that encode the α 1 subunits of P/Q- and L- type voltage-gated Ca²⁺ channel, respectively (40), and *egl-36*, a Shaw-type (Kv3) voltage-dependent potassium channel subunit (41). However, the in vivo cellular mechanism of how these channels contribute to the behavior is unknown. The recent descriptions of synchronized giant action potentials



Fig. 3. DVB-driven Ca²⁺ dynamics in enteric muscles was altered in twk-40 mutants. A) Left, schematic representation of *C. elegans* DVB neuron and enteric muscle (EM) in a lateral view. Right, representative Ca²⁺ oscillation imaged by GCaMP in EM in vivo. From left to right, Ca²⁺ signal of EM in the quiescent state, at peak Ca²⁺ signal and upon return to the basal state. Scale bar, 5 μ m. B) Representative recording of Ca²⁺ oscillations in EM over time. C) Representative single event of simultaneous recording of EM Ca²⁺ activity and expulsion action that observed by anal bacterial fluorescence. D) Cross-correlation between EM Ca²⁺ and Exp. Black dashed line denotes tight correlation between EM Ca²⁺ and Exp action with a ~0.3 s delay. E) Representative Ca²⁺ activity (left) and color maps (right) of enteric muscles in twk-40(*b*h336, *gf*) and twk-40(*b*h834, *lf*) mutants, respectively. F, G) Quantification of EM Ca²⁺ transients frequency and amplitude, *n* = 20. Ca²⁺ transient frequency was significantly reduced in twk-40(*b*h834, *gf*) mutant. EM Ca²⁺ amplitude was not altered in either mutants. H, J) Representative EM Ca²⁺ traces (left) and color maps (right) in twk-40(*b*h834, *lf*) for tissue-specific expression of TWK-40(WT). Different promoters are used: 1, endogenous promoter Ptwk-40; 2, Punc-47 promoter including DVB/AVL/D-MNs expression; 3, Pflp-10 promoter for DVB specific expression; 4, Punc-25s promoter including D-MNs/RME expression but lacking DVB expression; 5, Pexp-1 promoter for enteric muscle expression. I, K) Rescue of EM Ca²⁺ transient frequency by expression of TWK-40(*h*p834, *lf*) following TWK-40(L159N) in twk-40(*h*p834, *lf*) following TWK-40(L159N). M) Reduction of EM Ca²⁺ transient frequency following TWK-40(L159N) expression in DVB, but not in enteric muscles or other neurons, *n* = 20. L) Representative EM Ca²⁺ transient frequency following TWK-40(L159N) mass expression in DVB, but not in enteric muscles or other neurons, *n* = 20. L) Representa



Fig. 4. TWK-40 hyperpolarizes the membrane potential of 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 participate in the regulation of rhythmic expulsion behavior by setting the RMP of DVB neuron. One-way ANOVA 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.

between AVL and DVB, and of unusual compound action potentials in AVL, provide insights into how the rhythmic expulsion behavior is generated at the cellular level. In particular, the negative potassium spikes in AVL are mediated by a repolarizationactivated potassium channel EXP-2 (38). This study identifies how the TWK-40 channel contributes to DVB's rhythmic activity, at the interface between the pace-making intestinal tissue and EM. Moreover, the interplay between AVL and DVB neurons, mediated through gap junction coupling, is crucial for the generation of action potentials in DVB (38). TWK-40 may possibly interact with components of the gap junction complex or be modulated by the coupling activity itself.

Among 47 K_{2P} genes in the *C. elegans* genome (7), 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 (42), sup-9(gf) mutants are hyperactive with a characteristic rubberband phenotype (43). Gain-of-function mutants of unc-58 show significant deficits in locomotion, egg laying, development, and aging (44, 45). 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 (12). 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 (30). Second, the RMP of DVB neurons was drastically hyperpolarized due to the increased outward K⁺ current. In this twk-40(L159N) gain-of-function mutant, the neuronal Ca²⁺ oscillation frequency and amplitude were also 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 biophysical insight into the electrical properties of the 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 RMP of DVB neuron was depolarized in twk-40(*lf*) mutant, and high Ca²⁺ 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 (46, 47). 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 (30). A recent genetic study reported that loss of function twk-40 could reverse the reduced body curvature of *C. elegans* NALCN(*lf*) mutants (48). Thus, TWK-40 is required for the regulation of multiple motor rhythms.

Although the expression of twk-40 on DVB does not appear to be the highest from both our data and CeNGEN (https://www.cengen. org), direct whole-cell recording of DVB showed that twk-40 significantly modulated the outward K⁺ current. The slight outwardrectification 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 (30). 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 (49). A potential dynamic regulation of TWK-40, controlled by intracellular signaling pathways such as those mediated by cAMP in response to the activation of the GPCR AEX-2 (24, 40), or by extracellular molecular like protons released from intestine to initiate pBoc (50), could also modulate its activation kinetics and represent a mechanism by which the neuron adapts to physiological demands, fine-tuning the transmission of the pacemaker signal in a context-dependent manner. Our study, in its current state, shows the influence of TWK-40 in the function of DVB neuron and rhythmic motor programs, however, this does not preclude the involvement of other channels because DVB expresses multiple K_{2P} channels (51).

 K_{2P} channels can be modulated by a variety of biophysical parameters, such as pH, temperature, and mechanic forces (1).

Certain K_{2P} channels, including TASK-1/3, TREK-1, and TRESK, are activated by volatile general anesthetics at clinically relevant concentrations (52–54), indicating a major class of drug target from these K_{2P} channels. While our current data do not directly address these possibility, future studies could investigate whether TWK-40 activity is altered by the molecules that respond to metabolic or neurotransmitter cues. 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 via K_{2P} channel.

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Supplementary Material

Supplementary material is available at PNAS Nexus online.

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Author Contributions

S.G. conceived experiments and wrote the manuscript. Z.Y., Y.L., B.Y., and Y.X. performed experiments and analyzed data. L.C., J.C. J.M., Y.W., Y.T., S.E.M., and C.Z. contributed to the experiments. M.Z. and T.B. provided reagents, discussed the experiments, and edited the text.

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Data Availability

Data supporting the findings of this study are included within the article and the Supplementary material. All data set are publicly available via Zenodo (https://zenodo.org/records/11440010).

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