Highly Ca\textsuperscript{2+}-selective TRPM Channels Regulate IP\textsubscript{3}-dependent Oscillatory Ca\textsuperscript{2+} Signaling in the C. elegans Intestine

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INTRODUCTION

The genetic model organism Caenorhabditis elegans provides numerous experimental advantages for developing an integrative genetic and molecular understanding of fundamental physiological processes (Barr, 2003; Strange, 2003). These advantages include a short life cycle, forward genetic tractability, a fully sequenced and well-annotated genome, and relative ease and economy of characterizing gene function using transgenic and RNA interference methods.

C. elegans intestinal epithelial cells generate rhythmic inositol 1,4,5-trisphosphate (IP\textsubscript{3})–dependent Ca\textsuperscript{2+} oscillations that control posterior body wall muscle contraction (pBoc) (Dal Santo et al., 1999; Espelt et al., 2005; Teramoto and Iwasaki, 2006; Peters et al., 2007). pBoc is part of a motor program that mediates defecation and can be observed readily through a dissecting microscope making it amenable to forward and reverse genetic screening (Thomas, 1990; Liu and Thomas, 1994; Iwasaki et al., 1995). Intestinal Ca\textsuperscript{2+} signaling can be quantified by imaging methods in isolated intestines (Espelt et al., 2005; Teramoto and Iwasaki, 2006; Peters et al., 2007) or in vivo using genetically encoded Ca\textsuperscript{2+} indicators (Teramoto and Iwasaki, 2006; Yan et al., 2006; Peters et al., 2007). Recent development of primary cell culture methods (Christensen et al., 2002; Strange et al., 2007) has made it possible to characterize intestinal ion channels using patch clamp methods (Estevez et al., 2003; Estevez and Strange, 2005; Yan et al., 2006; Lorin-Nebel et al., 2007). The ability to combine direct physiological measurements of IP\textsubscript{3}–dependent oscillatory Ca\textsuperscript{2+} signals and associated ion channel activity with forward and reverse genetic screening is unique to C. elegans. The worm intestinal epithelium thus provides a powerful model system in which to define the genetic and molecular details and integrative physiology of oscillatory Ca\textsuperscript{2+} signaling in nonexcitable cells.

Intestinal Ca\textsuperscript{2+} oscillations are strictly dependent on Ca\textsuperscript{2+} release from the ER via ITR-1, the single IP\textsubscript{3} receptor encoded by the C. elegans genome (Dal Santo et al., 1999; Espelt et al., 2005; Teramoto and Iwasaki, 2006). Extensive studies in vertebrate (for reviews see Venkatachalam et al., 2002; Parekh and Putney, 2005; Hogan and Rao, 2007)

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and Drosophila cells (Yeromin et al., 2004) have demonstrated that depletion of ER Ca\(^{2+}\) stores activates store-operated Ca\(^{2+}\) channels (SOCCs). SOCCs are widely believed to be an essential and ubiquitous component of Ca\(^{2+}\) signaling pathways, functioning to refill ER Ca\(^{2+}\) stores and modulate intracellular Ca\(^{2+}\) signals (e.g., Venkatachalam et al., 2002; Parekh and Putney, 2005; Hogan and Rao, 2007). The most extensively studied and characterized SOCC is the Ca\(^{2+}\) release-activated Ca\(^{2+}\) (CRAC) channel (Parekh and Putney, 2005). The CRAC channel pore is comprised of Orai1/CRACM and channel activation is mediated by STIM1, which functions as an ER Ca\(^{2+}\) sensor (for reviews see Hogan and Rao, 2007; Lewis, 2007; Putney, 2007).

C. elegans intestinal cells express robust CRAC channel activity (Estevez et al., 2003). RNAi silencing of orai-1 or stim-1, which encode worm Orai1/CRACM and STIM1 homologues, dramatically reduces CRAC channel expression and function, but surprisingly has no effect on intestinal Ca\(^{2+}\) signaling (Lorin-Nebel et al., 2007; Yan et al., 2006). These findings suggest that CRAC channels are not essential components of IP\(_3\)-dependent Ca\(^{2+}\) signaling in the intestine and indicate that other Ca\(^{2+}\) entry mechanisms must function to maintain intestinal Ca\(^{2+}\) oscillations.

In addition to CRAC channels, intestinal cells express a store-independent outwardly rectifying Ca\(^{2+}\) (ORCa) channel that has biophysical properties resembling those of mammalian TRPM channels (Estevez et al., 2003). Three TRPM homologues are encoded by the C. elegans genome, GON-2, GTL-1, and GTL-2 (Kahn-Kirby and Bargmann, 2006; Baylis and Goyal, 2007). GFP reporter studies have demonstrated that intestine cells express gon-2 and gtl-1 (Teramoto et al., 2005; cited as unpublished observations in Baylis and Goyal, 2007; WormBase, http://www.wormbase.org/). The goal of the present study was to define the roles these genes play in intestinal Ca\(^{2+}\) signaling. Our results demonstrate that GON-2 and GTL-1 are both required for ORCa channel activity and for maintaining rhythmic Ca\(^{2+}\) oscillations. We propose that gon-2 and gtl-1 encode the ORCa channel. We also suggest that ORCa channels comprise a major Ca\(^{2+}\) entry pathway in intestinal epithelial cells and that they function to regulate IP\(_3\) receptor activity and refill ER Ca\(^{2+}\) stores.

**MATERIAL AND METHODS**

**C. elegans Strains**

Nematodes were cultured using standard methods on nematode growth medium (NGM) (Brenner, 1974). Wild-type worms were the Bristol N2 strain or elt-2::gfp worms that express a transcriptional GFP reporter in intestinal cell nuclei. Worms homozygous for the gon-2 loss-of-function allele gon-2(g388) or the gtl-1 deletion allele gtl-1(ok375) were used for studies of GON-2 and GTL-1 function. gon-2;gtl-1 double mutant worms were generated by crossing the gtl-1(ok375) and gon-2(g388) strains (Teramoto et al., 2005). The gon-2;gtl-1 double mutant worm strain exhibits greatly slowed larval development on NGM. To improve development and fertility sufficiently for experiments to be performed, double mutants were grown on NGM supplemented with 20 mM Mg\(^{2+}\) (see Teramoto et al., 2005). All worm strains were maintained at 16–20°C. Growth temperatures used in specific experiments are described below.

**Characterization of pBoc Cycle**

gon-2(q388) is a temperature sensitive allele and the mutant pheno-
type is observed at growth temperatures of 25°C (Sun and Lambie, 1997). For posterior body wall muscle contraction (pBoc) measure-
ments, eggs from wild-type and mutant worm strains were cultured in a 25°C incubator until adulthood. The times required for wild-
type, gon-2 mutant, gtl-1 mutant, and double mutant worms to reach adulthood at 25°C were 2–3 d, 3–4 d, 3–4 d, and 5 d, respectively.

pBoc was monitored by imaging worms on growth agar plates using a Carl Zeiss MicroImaging Inc. Stemi SV11 M’BIO stereo dissection microscope (Kramer Scientific Corp.) equipped with a DAGE-MTI DC2000 CCD camera. A minimum of 10 pBoc cycles were measured in each animal. Measurements were performed at a room air temperature of 22–23°C. Agar temperature was moni-
tored during the course of pBoc measurements using a thermis-

tor (Model 4600, Yellow Springs Instruments) and was 24–25°C.

**Dissection and Fluorescence Imaging of Intestines**

Worms were cultured as described above for pBoc measurements. Calcium oscillations were measured in isolated intestines as described previously (Esvelt et al., 2005). In brief, worms were placed in control saline (137 mM NaCl, 5 mM KCl, 1 mM MgCl\(_2\), 1 mM MgSO\(_4\), 0.5 mM CaCl\(_2\), 10 mM HEPES, 5 mM glucose, 2 mM L-asparagine, 0.5 mM L-cysteine, 2 mM L-glutamine, 0.5 mM L-methionine, 1.6 mM L-tyrosine, 28 mM sucrose, pH 7.3, 340 mOsM) and cut behind the pharynx using a 26-gauge needle. The hydrostatic pressure in the worm spontaneously extruded the intestine, which remained attached to the rectum and the posterior end of the animal. Isolated intestines were incubated for 15 min in bath saline containing 5 μM fluo-4 AM and 1% BSA. Imaging was performed using a Nikon TE2000 inverted micro-

scope, a SuperFluor 40X/1.3 N.A. oil objective lens, a Photome-

trics Cascade 512B cooled CCD camera (Roper Industries), and MetaFluor software (Molecular Devices Corporation). Room tem-

perature was maintained at 25–26°C. Fluo-4 was excited using a 490–500BP filter and a 525–57BP filter was used to detect fluores-

cence emission. Fluorescence images were acquired at 0.2 or 1 Hz. Changes in fluo-4 intensity were quantified in posterior-
to-anterior moving Ca\(^{2+}\) waves using region-of-interest selection and MetaFluor software (Molecular Devices Corporation).

**C. elegans Embryonic Cell Culture and Patch Clamp Electrophysiology**

Newly hatched wild type and mutant worm L1 larvae were cul-

ured at 25°C until adulthood. Embryonic cells were cultured for 2–3 d at 25°C on 12-mm diameter acid-washed glass coverslips using established methods (Christensen et al., 2002; Strange et al., 2007). To maximize suppression of GON-2 activity, cells isolated from gon-2 and gon-2;gtl-1 double mutant worms were cultured in the presence of gon-2 double stranded RNA (dsRNA) using methods described previously (Yan et al., 2006; Lorin-Nebel et al., 2007). gon-2 dsRNA was synthesized from a 640-bp (4041–4681-bp) gon-2 cDNA that was amplified from a C. elegans cDNA library.

Coverslips with cultured embryo cells were placed in the bot-

tom of a bath chamber (model R-26G; Warner Instrument Corp.) that was mounted onto the stage of a Nikon TE2000 inverted mi-

roscope. Bath temperature was maintained at 25°C using a Warner Instruments model SC-20 dual in-line heater/cooler, a model CL-

100 bipolar temperature controller, and a PHC series heater/cooler jacket for the bath chamber. Cells were visualized by fluorescence and video-enhanced DIC microscopy. Intestinal cells were identified
Induction of RNA Interference by Double Strand RNA Feeding
ampicillin and cultures were grown at 37 °C for 16–18 h with shaking.
containing 50 μg/ml ampicillin and 12.5 μg/ml tetracycline. Sin-
Bacterial strains were streaked to single colonies on agar plates
Rual et al., 2004) homologous to PLC
strains were engineered as described previously (Yin et al., 2004).

Whole cell currents were recorded using an Axopatch 200B
(AXON Instruments) patch clamp amplifier. Command voltage gen-
eration, data digitization, and data analysis were performed on a
2.79 GHz Pentium computer (Dimension 9150; Dell Computer Corp.)
using a Digitigid 1322A AD/DA interface with pClamp 10
software (AXON Instruments). Electrical connections to the ampli-
plier were made using Ag/AgCl wires and 3 M KCl/agar bridges.

Currents were elicited using a ramp or step voltage clamp pro-
tocol. For the ramp protocol, membrane potential was held at
0 mV and ramped from −80 to +80 mV at 215 mV/s every 5 s. Step
changes in whole cell current were elicited by stepping mem-
brane voltage from −80 to +80 mV in 20-mV steps from a holding
potential of 0 mV. Voltage steps were maintained for 400 ms. Cell
 capacitances for all cells studied ranged from 1 to 4 pF.

As we described previously, I NaCl is outwardly rectifying with
a strongly positive reversal potential (Estevez et al., 2003). In
the present study, we also observed that currents in gon-2 and gtl-1 mu-
ant cells reversed at strongly positive membrane potentials and
exhibited outward rectification. Outwardly rectifying currents with
reversal potentials <10 mV were deemed to be excessively contami-
nated with nonspecific leak current and were rejected from
final datasets.

Ion substitution studies were performed by replacement of
bath Na+ with various test cations. Cells were patch clamped ini-
tially in control bath solution until whole cell current had stabi-
ized and then switched to a Ca2+- and Mg2+-free medium containing
1 mM EGTA. Changes in reversal potential (Erev) were measured
after replacement of 150 mM bath NaCl with 150 mM NMDG-Cl,
130 mM NMDG-Cl and 10 mM CaCl2 or 130 mM NMDG-Cl and
10 mM MgCl2. Liquid junction potential changes were calculated
using pClamp 10. Reversal potentials during ion substitution ex-
periments were corrected for liquid junction potentials. Relative
permeabilities were calculated from Erev changes as described pre-
viously (Estevez et al., 2003).

Induction of RNA Interference by Double Strand RNA Feeding
RNA interference was induced by feeding gon-2,gtl-1 double mu-
ant worms bacteria producing dsRNA (e.g., Kamath et al., 2000; Rual et al., 2004) homologous to PLCγ or PLCβ. RNAi bacterial
strains were engineered as described previously (Yin et al., 2004).
Bacterial strains were streaked to single colonies on agar plates
containing 50 μg/ml ampicillin and 12.5 μg/ml tetracycline. Single
colonies were used to inoculate LB media containing 50 μg/ml ampicillin and cultures were grown at 37 °C for 16–18 h with shaking.
300 μl of each bacterial culture were seeded onto 60-mm NGM
agar plates containing 20 mM MgCl2, 50 μg/ml ampicillin, and
1 mM IPTG to induce dsRNA synthesis. After seeding, plates were
left at room temperature overnight. Eggs were transferred to the
RNAi feeding plates and grown at 25 °C.

Statistical Analysis
Data are presented as means ± SEM. Statistical significance was
determined using Student’s two-tailed t test for unpaired means.
When comparing three or more groups, statistical significance
was determined by one-way analysis of variance with a Bonferroni
post-hoc test. P values of ≤0.05 were taken to indicate statistical
significance. The rhythmicity of the pBoc cycle and intestinal Ca2+
oscillations is quantified as coefficient of variance, which is the
standard deviation expressed as a percentage of the sample mean.

RESULTS
Removal of Extracellular Ca2+ Causes Rapid Cessation of
Intestinal Ca2+ Oscillations
Calcium is taken up into the ER via the sarco/endoplasmic reticulum
Ca2+ ATPase (SERCA) while plasma membrane pumps and exchangers
continuously extrude Ca2+ from the cell (Berridge et al., 2003; Hogan and Rao, 2007). Because of the presence of plasma membrane Ca2+
extrusion mechanisms, some Ca2+ will be lost from the cell
during ER Ca2+ release. Repeated and/or prolonged ER Ca2+ release will eventually deplete ER Ca2+ stores and prevent further IP3-dependent Ca2+ signals unless plasma
membrane Ca2+ entry mechanisms are also active. To
determine whether such Ca2+ entry mechanisms are required
for IP3-dependent Ca2+ signaling in the intestine, we moni-
tored Ca2+ oscillations during removal of bath Ca2+. As shown in
Fig. 1, total intracellular fluo-4 fluorescence dropped and Ca2+
oscillations ceased rapidly when extracellular Ca2+ was removed. Calcium oscillations recovered when Ca2+ was added back to the bath. These
results demonstrate that Ca2+ entry mechanisms are active in the intestine and that Ca2+ oscillations are strictly
dependent on extracellular Ca2+ influx. Calcium entry
almost certainly functions to refill ER stores. In addition,
Ca2+ influx may modulate IP3 receptor activity and/or contribute to the total increase in cytoplasmic Ca2+
concentration during Ca2+ oscillations.

The TRPM Channels GTL-1 and GON-2 Are Required for
Normal Intestinal Ca2+ Signaling
As discussed in the Introduction, loss of function of
CRAC channels and the ER Ca2+ sensor STIM-1 has no
effect on oscillatory Ca2+ signaling in the C. elegans
intestine (Lorin-Nebel et al., 2007; Yan et al., 2006). Other
channels must therefore mediate Ca2+ entry. Given that
gon-2 and gtl-1 are expressed in the intestine (Teramoto
et al., 2005; cited as unpublished observations in Baylis
and Goyal, 2007; WormBase, http://www.wormbase.org/),
we quantified pBoc and intestinal Ca2+ oscillations in
animals harboring loss-of-function mutations in these
genes. gtl-1(ok375) is a 2,714-bp deletion allele that de-
letes all of the predicted transmembrane domains
of GTL-1 and is almost certainly null. gon-2(q388) is a
point mutation in which glutamate 955 is mutated to
lysine (West et al., 2001). Glutamate 955 is highly
conserved in human, mouse, Drosophila, and C. elegans
TRP channels and mutation to lysine most likely causes tempera-
ture-sensitive disruption of a step in GON-2 synthesis
(West et al., 2001). The E955K mutation induces a severe
loss-of-function phenotype when worms are grown at 25°C (Sun and Lambie, 1997; Church and Lambie, 2003). As noted earlier, the gon-2;gtl-1 double mutant was derived from a cross of gtl-1(ok375) and gon-2(q388) worms (Teramoto et al., 2005).

Fig. 2 A shows pHoc cycles in individual wild-type and channel mutant worms. Coefficients of variance were calculated as a measure of cycle rhythmicity. Wild-type worms exhibited a highly rhythmic pHoc cycle with coefficients of variance for individual animals ranging from 2 to 5%. In striking contrast, loss of activity of either channel disrupted pHoc rhythmicity. Coefficients of variance ranged from 3 to 33% and 7 to 28% for GTL-1 and GON-2 mutant worms, respectively. Disruption of pHoc was more severe in the double mutant worms where coefficients of variance ranged from 10 to 67%.

pHoc cycle data are summarized in Fig. 2 B. Mean cycle periods and coefficients of variance were increased significantly (P < 0.05) in gtl-1 mutant, gon-2 mutant, and double mutant worms. In addition, the mean coefficient of variance was significantly (P < 0.01) greater in the double mutant worms compared with either GTL-1 or GON-2 mutant animals.

As discussed in the Materials and methods section, double mutant worms develop and reproduce poorly unless the Mg²⁺ concentration in the growth agar is increased to 20 mM. To determine whether high Mg²⁺ has any effect on the pHoc cycle, we grew wild-type worms for one generation on high Mg²⁺ plates. Mean ± SEM pHoc period and coefficient of variance were 43 ± 1 s and 3.5 ± 0.7% (n = 6), respectively, and were not significantly (P > 0.3) different from those of worms grown on standard NGM agar (see Fig. 2 B).

Intestinal IP₃-dependent Ca²⁺ oscillations drive pHoc through a yet to be defined mechanism (Dal Santo et al., 1999; Espelt et al., 2005; Teramoto and Iwasaki, 2006; Peters et al., 2007). To determine whether GTL-1 and GON-2 function in Ca²⁺ signaling, we quantified Ca²⁺ oscillations in intestines dissected from wild-type and mutant animals. Calcium oscillations were arrhythmic in intestines isolated from GTL-1, GON-2, and double mutant worms (Fig. 3 A). Mean coefficients of variance were increased significantly (P < 0.05) by 2.3–3.2-fold in the single and double mutants (Fig. 3 B). Due to intracycle and animal-to-animal variability, the mean oscillation periods were not significantly (P > 0.05) different for the three groups of mutant worms and wild-type animals (unpublished data). Oscillation kinetics as measured by
initiated (Estevez et al., 2003). Mean ORCa current density at +80 mV measured 4–5 min after membrane rupture in wild-type cells was 266 pA/pF (Fig. 4 A). The mean ± SEM reversal potential (E_rev) of I_ORCa was 18 ± 1 mV (n = 22). The positive reversal potential is expected for a Ca²⁺-selective channel (Estevez et al., 2003).

Whole cell current density was strikingly and significantly (P < 0.01) suppressed in intestinal cells cultured from both gon-2 and gtl-1 mutant worms. In both groups of cells, the majority of currents we observed were outwardly rectifying with a strongly positive E_rev similar to that of I_ORCa. In 2 out 11 gon-2 mutant cells, whole cell current exhibited an E_rev close to zero and a near-linear current-to-voltage relationship. We interpreted these observations as indicating that loss of function of gon-2 in these cells completely suppressed I_ORCa and that whole oscillation rise and fall times were unaffected (P > 0.05) by channel mutations (unpublished data). We conclude from data shown in Figs. 2 and 3 that GTL-1 and GON-2 are both required for maintaining the rhythmicity of Ca²⁺ oscillations in the C. elegans intestinal epithelium.

GTL-1 and GON-2 Mediate Whole Cell Outwardly Rectifying Ca²⁺ Currents

We suggested previously that I_ORCa may play an important role in generating intestinal Ca²⁺ oscillations (Estevez et al., 2003; Estevez and Strange, 2005). To determine whether the ORCa channel is encoded by gon-2 and/or gtl-1, we characterized whole cell cation currents in intestinal cells cultured from wild-type, gon-2 mutant, gtl-1 mutant, and gon-2;gtl-1 double mutant worms. I_ORCa in wild-type intestinal cells is constitutively active and undergoes additional slow activation for 1–2 min after whole cell recording is initiated (Estevez et al., 2003). Mean ORCa current density at +80 mV measured 4–5 min after membrane rupture in wild-type cells was 266 pA/pF (Fig. 4 A). The mean ± SEM reversal potential (E_rev) of I_ORCa was 18 ± 1 mV (n = 22). The positive reversal potential is expected for a Ca²⁺-selective channel (Estevez et al., 2003).

Whole cell current density was strikingly and significantly (P < 0.01) suppressed in intestinal cells cultured from both gon-2 and gtl-1 mutant worms. In both groups of cells, the majority of currents we observed were outwardly rectifying with a strongly positive E_rev similar to that of I_ORCa. In 2 out 11 gon-2 mutant cells, whole cell current exhibited an E_rev close to zero and a near-linear current-to-voltage relationship. We interpreted these observations as indicating that loss of function of gon-2 in these cells completely suppressed I_ORCa and that whole

Figure 3. Effect of gtl-1 and gon-2 loss-of-function mutations on intestinal Ca²⁺ oscillation rhythmicity. (A) Calcium oscillations in single intestines isolated from wild-type, GTL-1 mutant, GON-2 mutant, and double mutant worms. (B) Calcium oscillation rhythmicity in wild-type and mutant worm intestines. Rhythmicity is quantified as coefficient of variance. Values are means ± SEM (n = 6–10). *, P < 0.05; **, P < 0.001, compared with wild-type worms. All worm strains were grown at 25°C.
cell conductance was due largely to a nonselective leak current. Mean current density was 26.5 pH/pF in gon-2 cells and 83.5 pH/pF in gtl-1 cells (Fig. 4 A). Currents recorded from all gtl-1 cells showed outward rectification and had a mean ± SEM Erev of 19 ± 1 mV (n = 21). The mean ± SEM Erev value for the outwardly rectifying currents observed in gon-2 mutant cells was 18 ± 2 mV (n = 9). Mean reversal potentials of outwardly rectifying currents in gon-2 and gtl-1 mutant cells were not significantly (P > 0.05) different from that observed in wild-type cells.

In five out of five gon-2;gtl-1 double mutant cells, a small current with a near-linear current-to-voltage relationship was detected. The mean ± SEM Erev for this current was 1.1 ± 2.7 mV (n = 5), which is not significantly (P > 0.7) different from 0 (Fig. 4 B). To determine whole cell current properties in the absence of I ORCa , we patch clamped wild-type intestinal cells and bathed them with 100 μM La3+, which completely inhibits ORCa channel activity (see Fig. 6 A). A small near-linear current with an Erev (mean ± SEM = −1.6 ± 1.5 mV; n = 5) not significantly (P > 0.3) different from 0 was recorded in these cells (Fig. 4 B). We define this current as nonselective leak current. Mean ± SEM whole cell currents measured at −80 mV and +80 mV in gon-2;gtl-1 double mutant cells and wild-type cells treated with 100 μM La3+ were −3.5 ± 1.8 pH/pF and 4.0 ± 1.8 pH/pF (n = 5) and −1.9 ± 3.2 pH/pF and 3.1 ± 0.4 pH/pF (n = 5), respectively, and were not significantly (P > 0.6) different (Fig. 4 B). Treatment of gon-2;gtl-1 mutant cells with 100 μM La3+ had no significant (P > 0.2) on whole cell current amplitude (mean ± SEM whole cell currents measured at −80 and +80 mV were −4.9 ± 1.0 and 8.3 ± 3.8 pH/pF, respectively; n = 3). These results demonstrate that combined loss of GON-2 and GTL-1 activity completely suppresses I ORCa . We therefore conclude that I ORCa is mediated by the function of both channels.

Functional Properties of GON-2 and GTL-1 Mediated Whole Cell Currents

The inhibitory effects of loss of GON-2 or GTL-1 alone on I ORCa are not additive; whole cell current density was reduced ~90% and ~70% in gon-2 and gtl-1 mutant cells, respectively (Fig. 4 A). These results indicate that (a) GON-2 and GTL-1 can function independently as ion channels, but (b) their functions in mediating I ORCa are somehow interdependent (see Discussion). We define the currents observed in gon-2 and gtl-1 mutant cells as I GTL-1 and I GON-2 , respectively.

To further define the roles of GON-2 and GTL-1 in mediating I ORCa , we characterized the biophysical properties of I GTL-1 and I GON-2 . Fig. 5 shows representative ORCa (i.e., wild type), GON-2, and GTL-1 currents and relative current-to-voltage relationships. All three currents show similar outward rectification. However, relative inward GTL-1 currents at −20 to −80 mV were slightly but significantly (P < 0.001) greater than that of I ORCa (Fig. 5 B).

I ORCa was inhibited by extracellular La3+ with a mean ± SEM IC50 of 3.7 ± 0.6 μM (n = 76). The La3+ dose–response relationships for I GON-2 and I GTL-1 were superimposable with that of I ORCa (Fig. 6 A). Mean ± SEM La3+ IC50 values were 5.7 ± 1.8 μM (n = 6) and 5.3 ± 1.5 μM (n = 4) for I GON-2 and I GTL-1 , respectively, and were not significantly (P > 0.05) different from that of I ORCa .

Fig. 6 B shows cation permeabilities measured under bi-ionic conditions of the ORCa, GON-2, and GTL-1 channels relative to Na+ (i.e., PNa/PNa). The PNa/PNa, PNa/PNa, PNa/PNa, and PNa/PNa for the channels were not significantly (P > 0.05) different and ranged between 0.07 and 0.1, 0.57 and 66, and 3 and 6, respectively.

Increasing intracellular Mg2+ concentration inhibits I ORCa (Fig. 6 C) (Estevez et al., 2003). The Mg2+ dose–response relationships for I ORCa , I GON-2 , and I GTL-1 were similar (Fig. 6 C). IC50 values derived from fits to mean values in the datasets were 420 μM for I ORCa , 440 μM for
Xing et al. have measurable Mg$^{2+}$ permeabilities under bi-ionic conditions. However, given that the relative Ca$^{2+}$ permeabilities of the channels are at least an order of magnitude greater than that of Mg$^{2+}$ (Fig. 6B and Teramoto et al., 2005), a more physiologically relevant question is whether significant Mg$^{2+}$ permeation occurs when Ca$^{2+}$ is present in the extracellular medium. To address this question, we patch clamped wild-type intestinal cells in a modified standard bath solution containing 130 mM NaCl and 30 mM NMDG-Cl and the normal Ca$^{2+}$ and Mg$^{2+}$ concentrations of 1 mM and 5 mM, respectively. When current amplitude had stabilized, the NMDG-Cl was replaced with 15 mM MgCl$_2$. In the presence of 1 mM bath Ca$^{2+}$, the mean ± SEM shifts in $E_{rev}$ and current density at $/H_{11002}$ 80 mV observed when bath Mg$^{2+}$ levels were raised fourfold were 0.7 ± 0.5 mV (n = 4) and $/H_{11002}$ 1.6 ± 1.7 pA/pF (n = 4), respectively (Fig. 7). These values were not significantly (P > 0.3) different from zero suggesting that Mg$^{2+}$ permeation through the ORCa channel is very low in the presence of Ca$^{2+}$. Studies designed to directly quantify net Mg$^{2+}$ influx through the ORCa channel under physiologically relevant conditions are needed to fully define its role in intestinal Mg$^{2+}$ uptake and whole animal Mg$^{2+}$ homeostasis.

Physiological Roles of GON-2 and GTL-1

As shown in Figs. 2 and 3, loss of gon-2 and/or gtl-1 activity dramatically disrupts pBoc rhythmicity and intestinal Ca$^{2+}$ signaling. Teramoto et al. (2005) observed that the pBoc cycle was prolonged and apparently arrhythmic in gon-2,gtl-1 double mutant worms and that the defect was fully rescued by increasing the Mg$^{2+}$ concentration of the growth agar to 40 mM. They suggested that the altered defecation cycle was due to an alteration in the physiological state of the intestine resulting from Mg$^{2+}$ deficiency. In our hands, the pBoc defect in double mutant worms was unaffected by external Mg$^{2+}$ levels of either 20 (Fig. 2) or 40 mM (unpublished data).
Calcium-selective TRPM Channels Regulate Oscillatory Ca\textsuperscript{2+}

![Figure 8](https://example.com/figure8.png)

**DISCUSSION**

The ORCa Channel Is Encoded by the TRPM Homologues gon-2 and gtl-1

The TRP cation channel superfamily is subdivided into TRPC, TRPV, TRPM, TRPML, TRPP, TRPN, and TRPA subfamilies. All TRP channels are comprised of six predicted transmembrane domains and intracellular N and C termini. Functional TRP channels are formed from homomeric or heteromeric association of four TRP subunits. TRP channels function in diverse physiological processes including sensory transduction, epithelial transport of Ca\textsuperscript{2+} and Mg\textsuperscript{2+}, Ca\textsuperscript{2+} signaling, and modulation of membrane potential (Owsianik et al., 2006; Nilius et al., 2007).

The mammalian TRPM subfamily consists of TRPM1–8 (Kraft and Harteneck, 2005). GON-2 and GTL-1 share \(~23\%\) identity with TRPM1, TRPM3, TRPM6, and TRPM7 (Baylis and Goyal, 2007). The conserved structural motifs...
in these channels are the transmembrane domains, the TRP domain, and portions of the cytoplasmic N terminus.

Amino acids that comprise the pores of TRPM6 and TRPM7 have been identified by mutagenesis and patch clamp analysis (Chubanov et al., 2007; Li et al., 2007; Topala et al., 2007). The homologous pore domains are nearly identical in GON-2 and GTL-1. This is consistent with our findings that the two channels have similar biophysical properties (Figs. 5 and 6).

As shown in Fig. 4 A and Fig. 5 A, I_{ORCa} is dramatically inhibited by loss-of-function mutations in either gon-2 or gtl-1. Loss of function of both genes completely eliminates the current (Fig. 4 B). There are two possible explanations for these results. Either the ORCa whole cell current is comprised of independent GON-2 and GTL-1 currents, or the ORCa channel is a GON-2/GTL-1 heteromer. Our results suggest that the function of GON-2 and GTL-1 are interdependent. The combined inhibition of I_{ORCa} observed in gon-2 and gtl-1 mutant cells is ~160% (Fig. 4 A). This finding indicates that GON-2 and GTL-1 can function independently as ion channels, but that maximal I_{ORCa} activity requires a functional interaction between them. One possibility is that the ORCa channel is a GON-2/GTL-1 heteromer. Alternatively, loss of either GON-2 or GTL-1 alone may disrupt the trafficking, expression, and/or regulation of the other channel.

Numerous studies have provided evidence that closely related TRP channels heteromultimerize (Owsianik et al., 2006; Nilius et al., 2007). Heteromultimers of TRPM6 and TRPM7, homologues of GON-2 and GTL-1, have been described (Chubanov et al., 2004; Li et al., 2006). At present, we favor the hypothesis that the ORCa channel is formed by association of GON-2 and GTL-1 subunits. However, extensive additional work including heterologous expression, mutagenesis, and subcellular localization of the two channels in vivo is required to test this idea.

Our electrophysiological findings differ from those of Teramoto et al. (2005). These investigators saw no effect of the gtl-1 deletion allele on whole cell current, whereas the gon-2 mutation reduced La^{3+}-inhibitable outward current at +100 mV ~75%. Current reduction was similar in intestinal cells cultured from gon-2 and the gon-2/gtl-1 double mutant worms. They also observed that the I_Ca_{Ca} value for inhibition of the wild-type current by intracellular Mg^{2+} was 4.7-fold higher than that of the current observed in gtl-1 mutant cells. In contrast, we found that I_{ORCa}, I_{GON-2}, and I_{GT-1} exhibit similar sensitivities to intracellular Mg^{2+} (Fig. 6 C). Teramoto et al. (2005) concluded that GON-2 mainly mediates the outwardly rectifying current and that GTL-1 functions mainly to regulate current Mg^{2+} responsiveness. The reasons for the differences in our findings are unclear.

Role of GON-2 and GTL-1 in Oscillatory Ca^{2+} Signaling

Most TRP channels described to date have no or relatively low selectivity for Ca^{2+} over Na^{+} (Owsianik et al., 2006). The exceptions to this generalization are TRPV5 and TRPV6, which have P_{Ca}/P_{Na} values >100 and play important roles in epithelial Ca^{2+} absorption (Vennekens et al., 2000; Yue et al., 2001; Owsianik et al., 2006). GON-2, GTL-1, and the ORCa channels exhibit a >60-fold selectivity for Ca^{2+} over Na^{+} (Estevez et al., 2003). Mammalian TRPM channels are either impermeable to Ca^{2+} (TRPM4 and TRPM5) or have P_{Ca}/P_{Na} values of 0.1–10 (Owsianik et al., 2006). Heterologously expressed Drosophila TRP and TRPL have relative Ca^{2+} permeabilities of 10–12 (Xu et al., 1997). Studies of the native TRP current in wild-type Drosophila photoreceptor cells indicate that the channel(s) responsible for the current are ~40-fold more permeable to Ca^{2+} than monovalent cations (Hardie and Minke, 1992; Reuss et al., 1997). The endogenous Ca^{2+} conductances in trp and trpl mutant photoreceptor cells have P_{Ca}/P_{Na} values of ~4 and ~86, respectively (Hardie and Minke, 1992; Reuss et al., 1997). Thus, together with mammalian TRPV5/6 and possibly Drosophila TRP, GON-2, GTL-1, and the ORCa channels have the highest Ca^{2+} selectivity of all characterized TRPs.

Given their exceptionally high Ca^{2+} selectivity and essential roles in maintaining pBoc and Ca^{2+} signaling rhythmicity (Fig. 2 and 3), what possible functions could GON-2 and GTL-1 be performing? Data in Fig. 8 suggests that the channels function in a signaling pathway together with PLCγ to regulate IP_{3} receptor activity. Our previous studies failed to identify a significant role for the canonical store-operated CRAC channel in maintaining intestinal Ca^{2+} oscillations (Lorin-Nebel et al., 2007; Yan et al., 2006). Thus other Ca^{2+} channels must provide a Ca^{2+} entry pathway that allows for store refilling. It is conceivable that GON-2 and GTL-1 function in part to refill ER Ca^{2+} stores. However, even in the absence of these channels Ca^{2+} oscillations continue albeit arrhythmically (Figs. 2 and 3). This indicates that other Ca^{2+} entry pathways must function in the intestine to refill stores under these experimental conditions.

An attractive possibility is that the GON-2 and GTL-1 channels play a direct role in modulating IP_{3} receptor activity and controlling oscillation frequency. It is well established that IP_{3} receptors are regulated in a biphasic manner by intracellular Ca^{2+}; low levels of Ca^{2+} activate the channels whereas high Ca^{2+} levels feedback and inhibit channel activity (Foskett et al., 2007). Foskett and coworkers (Mak et al., 1998; Foskett et al., 2007) have argued that Ca^{2+} is a true IP_{3} receptor agonist and that IP_{3} functions only to relieve Ca^{2+} inhibition. In excitable cells, plasma membrane Ca^{2+} influx through voltage- and ligand-gated Ca^{2+} channels can trigger intracellular Ca^{2+} release through ryanodine receptors via a process termed Ca^{2+}-induced Ca^{2+} release (CICR) (Berridge et al., 2003). Plasma membrane Ca^{2+} influx can also trigger CICR via IP_{3} receptors (e.g., Kukuljan et al., 1997; Kapur et al., 2001; Gordienko et al., 2007).
The disruption of Ca\(^{2+}\) oscillation rhythmicity in gon-2 and gtl-1 mutants (Figs. 2 and 3) suggests that the channels function as part of the timekeeping apparatus that regulates cycle periodicity. We have shown previously that under conditions of low intracellular Ca\(^{2+}\) buffering, ORCa channel activity oscillates. Oscillating channel activity is due to a Ca\(^{2+}\) feedback mechanism similar to that observed with the IP\(_3\) receptor (Estevez and Strange, 2005). Such oscillating channel activity could provide a source of extracellular Ca\(^{2+}\) that functions to modulate IP\(_3\) receptor activity. Specifically, Ca\(^{2+}\) influx through ORCa channels could trigger IP\(_3\) receptor–mediated Ca\(^{2+}\) release via CICR. Rising cytoplasmic Ca\(^{2+}\) levels would feedback on both the IP\(_3\) receptor and ORCa channels functioning initially to increase and than eventually inhibit their activity. Calcium influx through ORCa channels would raise Ca\(^{2+}\) levels in channel microdomains and may also contribute to the overall increase in cytoplasmic Ca\(^{2+}\). Microdomain Ca\(^{2+}\) increases as well as the amplitude of the cytoplasmic Ca\(^{2+}\) increase would likely play a role in triggering downstream cellular functions.

Several TRP channels are known to be regulated by intracellular Ca\(^{2+}\) and play important roles in Ca\(^{2+}\) signaling. For example, the nonselective cation channel TRPM4 is activated by increases in intracellular Ca\(^{2+}\) (Launay et al., 2002). In T cells, TRPM4-mediated membrane depolarization modulates Ca\(^{2+}\) influx via CRAC channels and controls oscillatory Ca\(^{2+}\) signaling (Launay et al., 2004). TRPM5 is activated by intracellular Ca\(^{2+}\) concentrations of 0.3–1 \(\mu\)M and inhibited by higher Ca\(^{2+}\) levels and may function to couple intracellular Ca\(^{2+}\) release to membrane electrical activity (Prawitt et al., 2003). TRPC3 shows modest Ca\(^{2+}\) selectivity and initiates Ca\(^{2+}\) oscillations when activated by OAG. Increasing intracellular Ca\(^{2+}\) levels inhibits the channel (Grimaldi et al., 2003). Extensive additional studies using Ca\(^{2+}\) imaging, patch clamp electrophysiology, molecular biology, and forward and reverse genetics are needed to define the precise roles played by GON-2 and GTL-1 in intestinal Ca\(^{2+}\) signaling.

In conclusion, we have demonstrated that \(I_{\text{ORCa}}\) requires the combined function of the TRPM genes gon-2 and gtl-1. GON-2 and GTL-1 are highly Ca\(^{2+}\)-selective channels and are essential for maintaining rhythmic Ca\(^{2+}\) oscillations in the \textit{C. elegans} intestine. We postulate that GON-2 and GTL-1 form a heteromeric channel that selectively mediates Ca\(^{2+}\) influx and functions primarily to regulate IP\(_3\) receptor activity and possibly to refill ER Ca\(^{2+}\) stores.

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