A conserved neuropeptide system links head and body motor circuits to enable adaptive behavior

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SUMMARY

Neuromodulators promote adaptive behaviors in response to either environmental or internal physiological changes. These responses are often complex and may involve concerted activity changes across circuits that are not physically connected. It is not well understood how neuromodulatory systems act across circuits to elicit complex behavioral responses. Here we show that the *C. elegans* NLP-12 neuropeptide system shapes responses to food availability by selectively modulating the activity of head and body wall motor neurons. NLP-12 modulation of the head and body wall motor circuits is generated through conditional involvement of alternate GPCR targets. The CKR-1 GPCR is highly expressed in the head motor circuit, and functions to enhance head bending and increase trajectory reorientations during local food searching, primarily through stimulatory actions on SMD head motor neurons. In contrast, NLP-12 activation of CKR-1 and CKR-2 GPCRs regulates body bending under basal conditions, primarily through actions on body wall motor neurons. Thus, locomotor responses to changing environmental conditions emerge from conditional NLP-12 stimulation of head or body wall motor neuron targets.

Introduction

Neuromodulators serve critical roles in altering the functions of neurons to elicit alternate behavior. Disruptions in neuromodulatory transmitter systems are associated with a variety of behavioral and neuropsychiatric conditions, including eating disorders, anxiety, stress and mood disorders, depression, and schizophrenia.[1–3] To achieve their effects, neuromodulatory systems may act broadly through projections across many brain regions, or have circuit-specific actions based on the GPCRs involved and their cellular expression. A single neuromodulator may therefore perform vastly different signaling functions across the circuits where it is released. For example, Neuropeptide Y (NPY) coordinates a variety of energy and feeding-related behaviors in mammals through circuit-specific mechanisms. NPY signaling may increase or decrease food intake depending upon the circuit and GPCR targets involved.[4,5] Due to the varied actions of neuromodulators across cell types and neural circuits, it has remained challenging to define how specific neuromodulatory systems act *in vivo* to elicit alternate behavior. Addressing this question in the mammalian brain is further complicated by the often widespread and complex projection patterns of neuromodulatory transmitter systems, and our still growing knowledge of brain connectivity.

The compact neural organization and robust genetics of invertebrate systems such as *Caenorhabditis elegans* are attractive features for studies of neuromodulatory function. Prior work has shown that *C. elegans* NLP-12 neuropeptides are key modulatory signals in the control of behavioral adaptations to changing environmental conditions, such as food availability or oxygen abundance.[6–8] The NLP-12 system is the closest relative of the mammalian Cholecystokinin (CCK) neuropeptide system and is highly conserved across flies, worms and mammals.[9–11] CCK is abundantly expressed in the mammalian brain, however a clear understanding of the regulatory actions of CCK on the circuits where it is expressed is only now beginning to emerge.[12–15] Like mammals, the *C. elegans* genome encodes two putative CCK-responsive G protein-coupled receptors (GPCRs) (CKR-1 and CKR-2),

though, to date, direct activation by NLP-12 peptides has only been demonstrated for the CKR-2 GPCR.[9–11,16] The experimental tractability of *C. elegans*, combined with the highly conserved nature of the NLP-12/CCK system, offers a complementary approach for uncovering circuit-level actions underlying neuropeptide modulation, in particular NLP-12/CCK neuropeptide signaling.

Sudden decreases in food availability or environmental oxygen levels each evoke a characteristic behavioral response in *C. elegans* where animals limit their movement to a restricted area by increasing the frequency of trajectory changes (reorientations), a behavior known as local or area-restricted searching (ARS). ARS responses during food searching in particular are rapid and transient. Trajectory changes increase within a few minutes after food removal, and decrease with prolonged removal from food (>15-20 minutes) as animals transition to global searching (dispersal).[6–8,17–20] ARS is a highly conserved adaptive behavior and is evident across diverse animal species.[21–27] NLP-12 signaling promotes increases in body bending amplitude and turning during movement,[6,7] motor adaptations that are particularly relevant for ARS. Notably, *nlp-12* is strongly expressed in only a single neuron, the interneuron DVA[6] that has synaptic targets in the motor circuit and elsewhere[28]. Despite the restricted expression of *nlp-12*, there remains considerable uncertainty about the cellular targets of NLP-12 peptides and the circuit-level mechanisms by which NLP-12 modulation promotes its behavioral effects.

Here we explore the GPCR and cellular targets involved in NLP-12 neuromodulation of local food searching. Our findings reveal a primary requirement for NLP-12 signaling onto SMD head motor neurons, mediated through the CKR-1 GPCR, for trajectory changes during local searching. In contrast, NLP-12 signaling through both CKR-1 and CKR-2 GPCRs contribute to NLP-12 regulation of basal locomotion, likely through signaling onto body wall motor neurons. Our results suggest a model

where NLP-12 signaling acts conditionally through CKR-1 and CKR-2 to coordinate activity changes across head and body wall motor circuits during transitions between basal and adaptive motor states.

Results

NLP-12/CCK induced locomotor responses require functional CKR-1 signaling

To decipher mechanisms underlying NLP-12 regulation of local food searching, we sought to identify genes required for NLP-12-mediated locomotor changes, in particular the G protein-coupled receptors (GPCRs) responsible for NLP-12 signaling. The *C. elegans* genome encodes two GPCRs that can be activated by NLP-12, *ckr-1* and *ckr-2* (Cholecystokinin-like Receptors 1 and 2), with close sequence homology to the mammalian Cholecystokinin receptors CCK-1 and CCK-2 (Fig. S1).[9–11] Prior work demonstrated that NLP-12 activates CKR-2 *in vitro*[9]. Further genetic studies provided evidence that NLP-12 signaling mediates functional plasticity at cholinergic neuromuscular synapses through CKR-2 modulation of acetylcholine release from motor neurons.[6,29,30] Surprisingly however, deletion of *ckr-2* does not strongly affect local search behavior.[6] As functional roles for the CKR-1 GPCR have not been previously described, we sought to determine whether CKR-1 may be acting either alone or in combination with CKR-2 to direct NLP-12 regulation of local searching. We first isolated a full-length *ckr-1* cDNA identical to the predicted *ckr-1* sequence. As expected, we found the *ckr-1* locus encodes a predicted protein containing 7 transmembrane domains and sharing strong similarity to the CCK-like GPCR family (Fig. S1).

To define potential roles for CKR-1 and CKR-2 in local searching, we took advantage of a strain we had previously generated that stably expresses high levels of the NLP-12 precursor [*nlp-12*(OE)].[6] Overexpression of *nlp-12* in this manner elicits exaggerated loopy movement, increased trajectory changes and enhanced body bend amplitude (Fig. 1A, S2A). The average amplitude of bending is increased approximately 3-fold in comparison to wild type (Fig. 1B), and body bends are more broadly

distributed over steeper angles (Fig. 1C). These overexpression effects are constitutive, offering experimental advantages for pursuing genetic strategies to identify signaling mechanisms. We investigated the requirement for CKR-1 and CKR-2 in the locomotor changes elicited by *nlp-12* overexpression using available strains carrying independent deletions in each of these genes. The *ckr-2* deletion (*tm3082*) has been characterized previously and likely represents a null allele.[9,11,29] The *ckr-1* deletion (*ok2502)* removes 1289 base pairs, including exons 3-7 that encode predicted transmembrane domains 2-5 (Fig. S1B-C) and therefore also likely represents a null allele. *ckr-1* and *ckr-2* single gene deletions each partially reversed the effects of *nlp-12* overexpression (Fig. 1B-C, S2A), indicating that both CKR-1 and CKR-2 GPCRs are active under conditions when NLP-12 peptides are present at high levels. Notably, *ckr-1* deletion showed slightly greater suppression of *nlp-12(OE)* phenotypes compared with *ckr-2* deletion (Fig. 1B-C). Combined deletion of *ckr-1* and *ckr-2* completely reversed the locomotor changes produced by NLP-12 overexpression (Fig. 1A-C, S2A), suggesting that the GPCRs may act in a partially redundant manner. Our genetic analysis of *nlp-12* overexpression confirms a role for the CKR-2 GPCR in NLP-12-elicited motor adaptations, and importantly, provides first evidence implicating the previously uncharacterized CKR-1 GPCR in NLP-12 modulation of motor activity.

NLP-12 activates CKR-1 with high potency

To obtain direct evidence for NLP-12 activation of CKR-1, we used an *in vitro* bioluminescence-based approach. CKR-1 was expressed in Chinese hamster ovarian (CHO) cells stably expressing the promiscuous G-protein alpha subunit $G_{\alpha16}$ and a bioluminescent calcium indicator, aequorin.[31] The NLP-12 precursor gives rise to 2 distinct mature peptides, NLP-12-1 and NLP-12-2. Application of either NLP-12-1 or NLP-12-2 synthetic peptides produced robust calcium responses in cells expressing CKR-1. These responses were concentration-dependent with EC_{50} values of 3.5 and 1.9 nM for NLP-12-1 and NLP-12-2 peptides, respectively (Fig. 1D). These EC_{50} values are comparable to

those measured for NLP-12 activation of CKR-2 (8.0 nM and 10.2 nM) (Fig. 1E)[9], suggesting NLP-12 peptides act with similar potency across CKR-1 and CKR-2 GPCRs. Importantly, none of the other peptides from a library of over 350 synthetic *C. elegans* peptides elicited activation of CKR-1, nor did the NLP-12 peptides evoke calcium responses in cells transfected with an empty control vector (data not shown), indicating that CKR-1, like CKR-2, is a highly specific receptor for NLP-12.

CKR-1 is a key signaling component for local search behavior

To more deeply investigate roles for CKR-1 and CKR-2 in NLP-12 regulation of movement, we quantified body and head bending during basal locomotion (in the presence of food) using single worm tracking analysis. *nlp-12* deletion significantly reduced both body bending and head bending angles in comparison to wild type (Fig. 2A-B). Similarly, single deletions in *ckr-1* and *ckr-2* each produced significant reductions in body bending, and combined deletion produced effects similar to *nlp-12* deletion (Fig. 2A). In contrast, head bending was most strikingly affected by *ckr-1* deletion, with *ckr-2* deletion producing a more modest reduction (Fig. 2B). The preferential involvement of CKR-1 in head bending suggested the interesting possibility that CKR-1 and CKR-2 GPCRs are differentially utilized to regulate specific aspects of locomotion.

To explore this possibility further, we investigated whether CKR-1 and CKR-2 GPCRs are differentially involved in local search responses following removal from food. Specifically, we monitored worm movement during a 35-minute period immediately after removal from food and quantified turning behavior during the first (0-5, local searching) and last (30-35, dispersal) five minutes (Fig. 3A-B). Consistent with our previous findings[6], we found that deletion of *nlp-12* significantly decreased reorientations during the five minutes immediately following removal from food (0-5 minutes). Deletion of *ckr-2* produced no appreciable effect on reorientations (Fig. 3C,[6]); however, single deletion of *ckr-1* decreased reorientations to a similar level as observed for *nlp-12* deletion (Fig. 3C). Combined

deletion of *ckr-1* and *ckr-2* provided no additional decrease beyond that observed for single *ckr-1* deletion (Fig. 3C). In addition, combined deletion of *nlp-12* and *ckr-1* did not further decrease reorientations compared with either of the single mutants (Fig. 3C). Expression of wild type *ckr-1* under the control of native *ckr-1* promoter elements (3.5 kb) in *ckr-1* mutants restored normal reorientation behavior (Fig. 3C). These findings show that *nlp-12* and *ckr-1* act in the same genetic pathway and point to a selective requirement for NLP-12 signaling through CKR-1 in regulating trajectory changes during local searching. Deletion of *nlp-12* did not produce significant changes in dispersal behavior, but we noted a modest decrease in reorientations during dispersal in *ckr-1* mutants (Fig. 3D). This may indicate additional roles for CKR-1 during dispersal. Together, our genetic and behavioral studies implicate CKR-1 and CKR-2 GPCRs as targets of NLP-12 signaling under conditions of overexpression and during basal locomotion. In contrast, we find that NLP-12 modulation of local searching is primarily achieved through CKR-1 activation.

Acute stimulation of DVA promotes reorientation behavior and requires NLP-12 and CKR-1

We next addressed the question of how neuronal release of NLP-12 promotes area restricted searching. We measured trajectory changes elicited by acute depolarization of the DVA neuron. We used the *nlp-12* promoter to drive cell-specific expression of Channelrhodopsin-2 (ChR2)[32] in DVA and tracked worm movement during a 1 minute period of blue light (470 nm) photostimulation. We found that animals alter their trajectory of movement (reorientations) more frequently with depolarization of DVA compared to pre-stimulus control (Fig. 3E). Importantly, we did not observe increases in reorientations in the absence of retinal (–ATR) (Fig. 3E), demonstrating that the increase in reorientation frequency was a direct result of DVA depolarization. Depolarization of the DVA neuron in *nlp-12* mutants failed to produce a similar enhancement (Fig. 3E), offering support for the idea that reorientations primarily arise due to release of NLP-12 peptides. Single *ckr-1* deletion or combined *ckr-1* and *ckr-2* deletion also abrogated DVA-elicited increases in reorientation behavior while single *ckr-2* deletion had no appreciable effect (Fig. 3E), similar to our above findings for area restricted food

searching**.** Our photostimulation experiments provide direct evidence that NLP-12 release from the DVA neuron promotes reorientation behavior, and, in addition, provide evidence for central involvement of NLP-12 signaling through the CKR-1 GPCR in directing trajectory reorientations.

Elevated CKR-1 signaling enhances turning and body bending in an *nlp-12* dependent manner

To further define the role of CKR-1, we next asked whether increased CKR-1 signaling would be sufficient to induce local search-like behavior. To address this question, we pursued an overexpression strategy similar to our above approach for *nlp-12.* We expressed the *ckr-1* genomic sequence at high copy levels in wild type animals under native *ckr-1* promoter elements. We found that *ckr-1* overexpression produced striking increases in turning and large head to tail body bends, qualitatively similar to the effects of *nlp-12* overexpression (Fig. 4A, S2A). *ckr-1*(OE) animals made steep bends during runs of forward movement, with angles approaching 200°, whereas bending angles in wild type rarely exceeded 75° (Fig. 4B). Notably, these high angle bends often produced spontaneous reorientations during forward movement and sometimes elicited sustained coiling. The amplitude of body bends during movement also increased by approximately 3-fold in *ckr-1*(OE) animals compared to wild type (Fig. 4C). These increases in bending angles and body bend depth were returned to wild type levels by *nlp-12* deletion (Fig. 4B-C), demonstrating that NLP-12 peptides are the sole ligands acting on CKR-1 GPCRs to elicit these characteristic changes in movement. Together, our genetic studies define NLP-12/CKR-1 as a novel ligand-GPCR pathway that controls trajectory changes and body bending to produce adaptive behavior.

***ckr-1* is expressed in many neurons that do not receive direct synaptic inputs from DVA**

To identify cells where CKR-1 may act to promote local searching, we examined *ckr-1* expression. We generated strains expressing a *ckr-1* reporter transgene that included the complete *ckr-1* genomic locus and ~3.5 kb of upstream regulatory sequence SL2 trans-spliced to sequence encoding GFP (green fluorescent protein) or mCherry. We found that *ckr-1* is broadly expressed in the nervous

system, showing expression in a subset of ventral nerve cord motor neurons, amphid and phasmid sensory neurons, premotor interneurons, and motor neurons in the nerve ring (Fig. 5A-B). We identified many of these neurons, largely from analysis of *ckr-1* co-expression with previously characterized reporters (Table S2).

In the ventral nerve cord, we found that *ckr-1* is expressed in cholinergic, but not GABAergic, ventral cord motor neurons (Fig. S3A-B, Table S2). Amongst head neurons, the *ckr-1* reporter is expressed in GABAergic RMEV, RMED, AVL and RIS neurons, cholinergic SMDV, SMDD and RIV head motor neurons, the interneuron RIG, the serotonergic NSM neuron, and in the interneurons AIA and AIB (Fig. 5B, Table S2). Additional studies using DiI uptake indicated that *ckr-1* is also expressed in the amphid sensory neurons ASK and ASI and the phasmid sensory neurons PHA and PHB (Fig. 5, Table S2). Notably, with the exception of the ventral cord cholinergic neurons, the *ckr-1* reporter almost exclusively labeled neurons that do not receive direct synaptic input from DVA, suggesting that NLP-12 acts at least partially through extrasynaptic mechanisms.

CKR-1 functions in the SMD head motor neurons to modulate body bending

We next pursued cell-specific *ckr-1* overexpression to gain insight into which of the *ckr-1*-expressing neurons defined above may be primary targets for modulation during local searching (Table S3-S4). We focused our analysis on body bending amplitude because this was the most easily quantifiable aspect of movement to be modified by *ckr-1* overexpression. High levels of pan-neuronal *ckr-1* expression (*rgef-1* promoter) increased body bending amplitude to a similar degree as overexpression using the native promoter (Fig. 5C). In contrast, high levels of ectopic *ckr-1* expression in muscles produced no appreciable change, consistent with a primary site of CKR-1 action in neurons (Fig. 5C). Surprisingly, *ckr-1* overexpression in cholinergic ventral cord motor neurons (*unc-17β* promoter) also did not elicit an appreciable change in body bend depth (Fig. 5C). We therefore next targeted the head neurons identified by our *ckr-1 reporter*, using several different promoters for *ckr-1* overexpression in

subsets of head neurons (Fig. 5C, Table S3-S4). *ckr-1* overexpression using either the *odr-2(16)* or *lgc-55* promoters produced a striking (2.5-fold) increase in body bend depth, comparable with *ckr-1* overexpressed under its endogenous promoter. In contrast, *ckr-1* overexpression in GABAergic neurons, including RMED and RMEV (using *unc-47* promoter), did not produce an appreciable effect. Likewise, *ckr-1* overexpression in RIV, RIG, NSM, AIA, AIB or amphid neurons failed to significantly enhance body bend depth. The *lgc-55* promoter drives expression in AVB, RMD, SMD and IL1 neurons, as well as neck muscles and a few other head neurons[33], while the *odr-2(16)* promoter primarily labels the RME and SMD head neurons[34] (Table S2-S3)**.** The overlapping expression of the *odr-2(16)* and *lgc-55* promoters in SMD neurons suggests that these neurons may be centrally involved. SMD co-labeling by *ckr-1::SL2::mCherry* and *Plad-2::GFP*[35] provided additional evidence for significant levels of *ckr-1* expression in these neurons (Fig. S3C). Intriguingly, we also noted that NLP-12::Venus clusters are concentrated in the nerve ring region of the DVA process (Fig. S5), in the vicinity of SMD processes. In contrast to *ckr-1*, *ckr-2* expression in the SMDs was absent or barely detectable (Fig. S3D)[36], pointing towards a specific role for *ckr-1* in regulating SMD motor neurons.

The 4 SMDs (dorsal-projecting SMDDL and SMDDR and ventral-projecting SMDVL and SMDVR) are bilateral motor neuron pairs that innervate dorsal and ventral head/neck musculature[28], and also form reciprocal connections with one another. They have been previously implicated in directional head bending and steering.[37–40] To better define the behavioral effects of SMD modulation, we more closely examined body bending in animals overexpressing *ckr-1* under control of the *odr-2(16)* promoter, and also using a second promoter, *flp-22Δ4*, that was recently shown to drive selective expression in the SMD neurons[41] (Fig. 6A). For both overexpression strains, we observed significant increases in body bending amplitude and bending angle compared to wild type (Fig. 5C, 6B, S2A). These increases were dependent on NLP-12 signaling (Fig. S6) and were similar to those observed for native *ckr-1*

(Fig. 4, S2A) and *nlp-12* overexpression (Fig. 1, S2A). Thus, the actions of CKR-1 in the SMD motor neurons recapitulate many of the behavioral effects of NLP-12 overexpression.

To ask if the SMD neurons are required for the locomotor changes produced by *ckr-1* overexpression, we expressed the photoactivatable cell ablation agent PH-miniSOG in the SMD neurons (P*flp-22*Δ*4*) of animals overexpressing *ckr-1* (native promoter). When activated by blue light (470 nm) PH-miniSOG produces reactive oxygen species and disrupts cellular function.[42] Following photoactivation of miniSOG in animals overexpressing *ckr-1*, we observed striking decreases in bending angles during movement (Fig. 6C-D). We confirmed successful SMD ablation by examining morphological changes in GFP-labeled SMD neurons following photoactivation of miniSOG (Fig. 6C). Expression of miniSOG did not have appreciable effects on the movement of *ckr-1(OE)* animals under control conditions (without light exposure) (Fig. S7A). In addition, stimulation of control animals without the miniSOG transgene did not appreciably alter body bending (Fig. 6D) or SMD neuron morphology (Fig. S7B). These results indicate that SMD motor neurons are required for the locomotor effects of *ckr-1* overexpression, and, importantly, raise the possibility that the SMD neurons are key targets for NLP-12 neuromodulation during local searching in wild type.

NLP-12/CKR-1 excitation of the SMD neurons promotes local searching

To test this hypothesis, we examined rescue of area restricted searching in *ckr-1* mutants using low-level (5-fold lower than used for overexpression) SMD-specific expression of wild type *ckr-1*. When the *ckr-1* transgene was expressed at this concentration in wild type animals, we did not observe appreciable increases in bending depth or angle (Fig. S8). However, low-level SMD-specific *ckr-1* expression in *ckr-1* mutants restored reorientations during food searching to roughly wild type levels (Fig. 7A). This result indicates that CKR-1 function in the SMD neurons is sufficient to support NLP-12 modulation of local searching.

To investigate how increased SMD activity may impact movement, we photostimulated the SMDs in animals expressing P*odr-2(16)::*Chrimson.[43] Prior to photostimulation, animals demonstrated long forward runs with relatively few changes in trajectory. Following the onset of photostimulation, Chrimson-expressing animals rapidly increased turning and trajectory reorientations (Fig. 7B-C). In contrast, control animals (-Retinal) did not increase trajectory changes during the light stimulation period (Fig. 7C). These results indicate that depolarization of the SMD neurons is sufficient to promote turning and reorientations, similar to our findings for NLP-12/CKR-1 signaling onto the SMD neurons. Taken together, our findings support a model (Fig. 8) where NLP-12/CKR-1 signaling promotes local searching by increasing the activity of SMD head motor neurons.

Discussion

Neuropeptidergic systems have crucial roles in modulating neuronal function to shape alternate behavioral responses, but we have limited knowledge of the circuit-level mechanisms by which these alternate responses are generated. Here, we show that the *C. elegans* NLP-12 neuropeptide system, closely related to the CCK system in mammals, shapes adaptive behavior through conditional modulation of motor circuits dedicated to control of either head or body wall musculature. We demonstrate that NLP-12 modulation of these circuits occurs through distinct GPCRs, CKR-1 and CKR-2, that primarily act on either head or body wall motor neurons respectively. Under basal conditions, NLP-12 modulation of the body wall motor circuit predominates, influencing the depth of body bends during sinusoidal movement through CKR-1 and CKR-2 GPCRs located on body wall motor neurons. NLP-12 activation of head motor neurons through CKR-1 becomes predominant in the absence of food, promoting reorientations. We propose that changes in food availability reconfigure functional connectivity in the NLP-12 system by differentially engaging GPCRs across the head and body wall motor circuits. Intriguingly, the involvement of 2 GPCRs in nematode NLP-12 signaling is reminiscent of the organization of the CCK system in mammals, which relies on signaling through CCK1 and

CCK2 GPCRs. CCK is among the most abundant peptides in the mammalian brain. New details about functional roles for CCK signaling in the brain and the GPCRs involved are continuing to emerge.[12–15,44–47] Our findings in worms may point towards similar conditional utilization of specific CCK-responsive GPCRs to coordinate activity across circuits in mammals.

NLP-12 neuropeptides act as key modulators in a range of *C. elegans* behaviors. Local search responses to varying oxygen levels and decreased food availability both involve NLP-12 signaling.[6,7] Additionally, NLP-12 signaling has been implicated in various aspects of proprioceptive signaling and postural control.[29,30] However, the mechanisms by which NLP-12 peptides exert their influence over these diverse behavioral responses have remained unclear. Our work addresses these mechanistic questions by defining specific roles for CKR-1 and CKR-2 GPCRs during basal locomotion and area-restricted searching. Area-restricted searching is a complex motor behavior, involving rapid trajectory changes that serve to maintain the animal within a restricted area of their immediate environment.[6,7,17,20] Reorientations during searching are produced through high angle forward turns[6,48] and reversal-coupled omega turns[6,17]. We previously demonstrated a requirement for NLP-12 in promoting reorientations during local searching.[6] Our analysis here shows that loss of *nlp-12* also has modest effects on body posture during normal exploratory movement, indicating additional NLP-12 regulation of motor targets under basal conditions. Intriguingly, the behavioral requirement for NLP-12 is far more apparent during local searching compared with basal locomotion, suggesting enhanced involvement of NLP-12 signaling for performance of local searching. Similar observations about NLP-12 involvement in chemotactic responses to varying oxygen levels suggested a model for graded NLP-12 regulation of movement.[7] Based on our observations, we speculate that increased engagement of head motor neurons through CKR-1 activation may be a

generalizable mechanism for dynamic NLP-12 regulation of behavior over changing external conditions.

Prior studies had implicated the CKR-2 GPCR in NLP-12 function[9,29,30], but roles for CKR-1 had not been previously described. CKR-2 shows slightly broader expression compared with CKR-1, but both GPCRs are expressed across a variety of neuron classes, including many that do not receive direct synaptic inputs from DVA. We noted very little overlap in CKR-1 and CKR-2 expression (Fig. S4), consistent with the idea that the two GPCRs serve distinct roles in modulating behavior. Our genetic analyses and heterologous expression studies firmly establish CKR-1 as a functional target for NLP-12 signaling with an activation profile similar to CKR-2. NLP-12 activation of CKR-2 stimulates neurotransmission through coupling with *egl-30* ($G_{\alpha q}$) and *egl-8* (PLCβ) likely by DAG interaction with the synaptic vesicle priming factor UNC-13.[29,30] Given the sequence homology between CKR-1 and CKR-2, it seems likely that CKR-1 also functions to positively regulate neuronal activity through *egl-30*. In support of this idea, we found that SMD-specific CKR-1 overexpression and SMD neuron photostimulation produced qualitatively similar behavioral effects, an increase in reorientations during movement. The DVA neuron makes a single synapse with SMDVL (Worm wiring). It is unclear whether this single synapse could account for NLP-12 elicited behavioral changes during local searching, or whether additional extrasynaptic signaling to other SMD neurons may also contribute.

SMDs innervate head and neck muscles[28,49] and biased activity of dorsal or ventral SMDs is correlated with directional head bending[37,38,40,41,50]. Turning is preceded by head bending or head swings. Shallow bends promote more gradual turns, while large head swings drive sharp turns.[48,51] Our results suggest NLP-12 activation of CKR-1 may modulate functional connectivity between SMD neurons and dorsal and ventral head/neck muscles. According to this model,

enhanced transmission from dorsal or ventral SMD synaptic outputs onto head and neck muscles would promote exaggerated head bending, thereby promoting enhanced turning and trajectory changes. CKR-1 activation could also influence SMD proprioceptive functions[41] or functional connectivity with other neurons implicated in regulation of head posture and bending, such as RIA[37,50] and RME[38].

Surprisingly, selective *ckr-1* overexpression using the *odr-2(16)* or *flp-22Δ4* promoters increased body bend depth, raising the question of how altered SMD activity might translate into increased body bending. Recent work suggests an interesting functional coupling between the activity of SMD neurons and ventral cord B-type motor neurons.[40] B-type motor neurons are suggested to act as a distributed central pattern generator for the propagation of body bends.[52,53] CKR-1 activation of SMDs may therefore influence body depth directly by altering body wall motor neuron excitability through a gap junction connection between VB1 and SMDVR or through neuromuscular synapses located in the sublateral processes.

The similar potency of NLP-12 peptides for activating CKR-1 and CKR-2, suggests that differential contributions of these GPCRs during basal locomotion and search responses do not arise differences in their responsiveness to NLP-12 peptides. This raises important questions about how a bias toward CKR-1 modulation of the head motor circuit during local searching may occur. We envision that NLP-12 regulation of the SMD neurons acts in parallel with other neural pathways previously shown to promote reversals during local searching. For example, olfactory information about food availability is conveyed by sensory neurons such as AWC and ASK to premotor interneurons (AIA, AIB, AIY) and ultimately transformed into patterns of motor neuron activity that drive reversals.[17,18,50,54] The SMD neurons also receive synaptic information from this circuit (for example, through synaptic connections from the AIB and RIM neurons)[28], raising

the possibility that a pathway activated by food removal may enhance SMD sensitivity to CKR-1 activation. In this case, SMD neurons may be a site for integration of information encoding reversals and forward reorientations during local searching. A shift to CKR-1 modulation of head neurons during searching could also be triggered by dopaminergic stimulation of DVA. Prior work implicated dopaminergic signaling from PDE neurons in the regulation of NLP-12 and motor responses.[6,8] In this case, elevated levels of NLP-12 secretion, perhaps from release sites in the nerve ring region, would be predicted to bias the system towards enhanced activation of the SMD neurons and elicit increased turning. Notably, PDE also regulates an antagonistic peptidergic circuit, mediated by FLP-1 neuropeptides, through inhibitory connections with AVK interneurons[8], suggesting the potential for more complex behavioral regulation.

Our studies of the nematode NLP-12 system offer new mechanistic insights into neuropeptide modulation of behavior. Our findings provide a key first step in defining roles for two NLP-12-responsive GPCRs in coordinating motor control across changing conditions. We propose that the NLP-12 system conditionally engages GPCRs expressed in head or body motor neurons to modify specific features of locomotion, most notably reorientations during searching and body bend depth during basal locomotion. Brain CCK has been increasingly implicated as a key regulator in diverse aspects of behavior, including feeding, satiety, memory, nociception and anxiety.[14,44,55–58] Thus our studies elucidating mechanisms for NLP-12 regulation of circuit function in the compact nematode nervous system may have important and broadly applicable implications for neuromodulation in more complex systems.

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Materials and Methods

Strains

All nematode strains (Table S1) were maintained on OP50 seeded agar nematode growth media (NGM) at room temperature (22–24°C). N2 Bristol strain was used as wild type. Transgenic animals were generated by microinjection into the germ line and transformation monitored by co-injection markers. Multiple independent extrachromosomal lines were obtained for each transgenic strain and data presented from a single representative transgenic line. Stably integrated lines were generated by X-ray integration and outcrossed at least four times to wild type.

Molecular Biology

All plasmids, unless specified, were generated by Gateway cloning (see Supplementary Tables). p-ENTR plasmids were generated for all promoters used (Table S5). The *ckr-1* minigene construct (pRB12/pRB13) was generated by cloning the *ckr-1* coding sequence (start to stop), with introns 1, 8 and 9. For cell specific overexpression or rescue, the *ckr-1* minigene was recombined with entry vectors containing the relevant cell-specific promoters. (Table S3-S4).

Behavioral assays and analyses

All behavioral assays were carried out using staged 1-day adult animals on Bacto-agar NGM agar plates seeded with a thin lawn of OP50 bacteria (50 µL) unless otherwise noted. Video recordings for behavioral analyses were obtained using a Firewire camera (Imaging Source) and ICCapture2.2. Animals were allowed to acclimate for 30 seconds prior to video recording. Locomotor analysis was performed using Wormlab (MBF Bioscience). Body bending angle was measured at the centroid of the animal's body as the supplementary angle measured between the head, midpoint and tail (Fig. 1C), and represented as binned histogram distributions. Body bend amplitude was quantified as the average centroid displacement over the duration of a

locomotion track (Fig. 1B). Kymographs were generated from worm body curvature data using custom MATLAB script (Jeremy Florman and Mark Alkema).

Area restricted search behavior

For quantification of local search behavior, single well-fed animals were transferred to an intermediate unseeded plate. After one minute, animals were repicked without bacteria and transferred to an unseeded behavior assay plate. Digital movies of animals (5 minutes duration) were captured over the first 5 mins (local search) and after 30 mins (dispersal). Videos were analyzed in ImageJ using the angle tool to measure the supplementary angle between the original and new trajectory (Fig. 3B) and reorientations were scored when changes in trajectory were >50°.

Single worm tracking

Single worm tracking was carried out using Worm Tracker 2.[59] Animals were allowed to acclimate for 30 seconds prior to tracking. Movement features were extracted from five minutes of continuous locomotion tracking. Worm tracker software version 2.0.3.1, created by Eviatar Yemini and Tadas Jucikas (Schafer lab, MRC, Cambridge, UK), was used to analyze movement.[60] Absolute midbody bending (Fig. 2A) and head bending (Fig. 2B) angles were quantified.

SMD ablation

Cell ablation protocol by miniSOG activation was adapted from Xu *et. al.* 2016.[42] MiniSOG activation was achieved by stimulation with repetitive 2 Hz 250 ms blue light pulses for 12 minutes [200mW/cm^2, 488 nm 50 W LED (Mightex Systems)]. Experiments were performed on unseeded plates using larval stage 4 *ckr-1(OE)* animals expressing miniSOG and GFP transgenes under the *flp-22Δ4* promoter. Following stimulation, animals were allowed to recover in the dark on NGM OP50 plates for 16 hours prior to behavioral analysis or imaging.

Photostimulation experiments

All-Trans Retinal (ATR) plates were prepared (100 mM stock in Ethanol, final working 2.7 mM in OP50). Plates were stored at 4°C under dark conditions and used within one week. Animals were grown on +ATR OP50 plates in dark and L4 animals were transferred to a fresh +ATR plate prior to the day of experiment. Experiments were performed using one-day adults. For ChR2 photostimulation, experiments were conducted using a fluorescent dissecting microscope (Zeiss stereo Discovery.V12) equipped with a GFP filter set. Behavior was recorded for a 1-minute period prior to photostimulation and during a subsequent 1-minute period during photostimulation. Data are expressed as % change in reorientations across these time intervals. Chrimson photostimulation (26 mW/cm^2) experiments were conducted using a 625 nm 50 W LED (Mightex Systems). Animals were video recorded for 1 minute in the absence of light stimulation (prestimulus) and subsequently for 1 minute with light stimulation. Control experiments (-ATR) were performed in the same manner.

Imaging

Fluorescent images were acquired using either BX51WI (Olympus) or Yokogawa (Perkin Elmer) spinning disc confocal microscopes. Data acquisition was performed using Volocity software. Staged one-day adult animals were immobilized using 0.3 M sodium azide on 2% agarose pads. Images were analyzed using ImageJ software.

in vitro GPCR characterization

The GPCR activation assay was performed as previously described.[31,61,62] Briefly, CHO-K1 cells stably expressing the luminescent Ca^{2+} indicator aequorin and the promiscuous $G_{\alpha16}$ protein (ES-000-A24 cell line, PerkinElmer) were transiently transfected with *ckr-1*/pcDNA3.1, *ckr-2*/pcDNA3.1 or empty pcDNA3.1 vector. Cells were transfected with Lipofectamine LTX and Plus reagent (Invitrogen) at 60–80% confluency and grown overnight at 37°C. After 24 hours, they were shifted to 28°C overnight. On the day of the assay, transfected cells were collected in bovine serum albumin (BSA) medium (DMEM/F12 without phenol red with L-glutamine and 15

mM HEPES, Gibco, supplemented with 0.1% BSA), at a density of 5 million cells per mL, and loaded with 5 μM coelenterazine h (Invitrogen) for 4 hours at room temperature. Compound plates containing synthetic peptides in DMEM/BSA were placed in a MicroBeta LumiJet luminometer (PerkinElmer). After loading, the transfected cells were added at a density of 25,000 cells/well, and luminescence was measured for 30 seconds at a wavelength of 469 nm. After 30 seconds, 0.1% triton X-100 (Merck) was added to lyse the cells, resulting in a maximal Ca^{2+} response that was measured for 30 seconds. To constitute concentration-response curves of NLP-12 peptides, peptide concentrations ranging from 1 pM to 10 μM were tested in triplicate on two independent days.

.

Table S1
Strains generated/used in this work

Strain	Genotype	Strain information
IZ908	*nlp-12(ok335) I*	outcrossed from RB607 (CGC)
IZ2287	*ckr-1(ok2502) I*	outcrossed from RB1923 (CGC)
LSC0032	*ckr-2(tm3082) III*	outcrossed from Japanese knockout allele
IZ2304	*ckr-1(ok2502) I; ckr-2(tm3082) III*	
IZ1152	*ufIs104*	*Pnlp-12::nlp-12::nlp-12 3'UTR (100 ng/µL), Plgc-11::GFP [pHP6 (50 ng/µL)] 1.76 kb PCR product containing the nlp-12 promoter and genomic locus (−354 bp to +1407 bp relative to the transcriptional start).*
IZ1284	*ckr-1(ok2502) I; ufIs104*	
IZ1231	*ckr-2(tm3082) III; ufIs104*	
IZ1295	*ckr-1(ok2502) I; ckr-2(tm3082) III; ufIs104*	
IZ2544	*lin-15(n765ts); ufEx942*	*Pckr-1::ckr-1::SL2::GFP [pRB25 (50 ng/µL)] + Plin-15::lin-15+[pL15EK (50ng/µL)]*
IZ1908	*ufIs141*	*pCKR-1::CKR-1::SL2::mCherry [pDT205 (40 ng/µL)]*
IZ2065	*ufIs148*	*Pckr-2::GFP [pDT195 (20 ng/µL)]*
IZ2251	*ufIs141; ufIs148*	*Pckr-1::ckr-1::SL2::mCherry; Pckr-2::GFP*
IZ2633	*ufEx942; ufIs43*	*Pckr-1::ckr-1::SL2::GFP, Pacr-2::mCherry [pPRB6 (30ng/µL)]*
IZ2280	*ufIs141; vsIs48*	*Pckr-1::ckr-1::SL2::mCherry; Punc-17::GFP*
IZ2468	*ufIs141; akEx263*	*Pckr-1::ckr-1::SL2::mCherry; Punc-4::GFP*
IZ2245	*ufIs141; oxIs12*	*Pckr-1::ckr-1::SL2::mCherry; Punc-47::GFP*
IZ2246	*ufIs141; kyIs51*	*Pckr-1::ckr-1::SL2::mCherry; Podr-2(2b)::GFP*
IZ2454	*ufIs141; ufEx863*	*Pckr-1::ckr-1::SL2::mCherry; Podr-2(18)::GFP*
IZ2248	*ufIs141; mgIs18*	*Pckr-1::ckr-1::SL2::mCherry; Pttx-3::GFP*
IZ2249	*ufIs141; oyIs18*	*Pckr-1::ckr-1::SL2::mCherry; Pgcy-8::GFP*
IZ2250	*ufIs141; oyIs14*	*Pckr-1::ckr-1::SL2::mCherry; Psra-6::GFP*
IZ2447	*ufIs141; otIs337*	*Pckr-1::ckr-1::SL2::mCherry; Plad-2::GFP*
IZ2499	*ufIs141; zfIs6*	*Pckr-1::ckr-1::SL2::mCherry; Plgc-55::GFP*
IZ3533	*ufIs141; ufEx1485*	*Pckr-1::ckr-1::SL2::mCherry ; Podr-2(16)::GFP[pNB60 (50 ng/µL)]; Punc122::GFP (50ng/µL)*
IZ3591	*ufis141; ufEx1504*	*Pckr-1::ckr-1::SL2::mCherry ; Pflp-22Δ4::GFP [pSR17 (50ng/µL)]; Punc-122::RFP (50 ng/µL)*
IZ2635	*ufEx942; dbEx721*	*Pckr-1::ckr-1::SL2::GFP, Pnpr-4::RFP*
IZ2455	*ufIs141; adEx1616*	*Pckr-1::ckr-1::SL2::mCherry; Pser-4::GFP*
IZ2459	*ufIs141; njIs10*	*Pckr-1::ckr-1::SL2::mCherry; Pglr-3::GFP*
IZ2504	*ufIs141; otIs123*	*Pckr-1::ckr-1::SL2::mCherry; Psra-11::GFP*
IZ2546	*ufIs141; mgIs42*	*Pckr-1::ckr-1::SL2::mCherry; Ptph-1::GFP*
IZ2277	*ufEx802*	*Pckr-1::genomic ckr-1 [pDT112 (100ng/µL)] + pHP6 [Plgc-11::GFP (50ng/µL)]*
IZ2399	*nlp-12(ok335)I; ufEx802*	
IZ3201	*ufEx953*	*Prgef-1::ckr-1 minigene [pRB20 (25ng/µL)] + Plgc-11::GFP (50ng/µL)*
IZ3217	*ufEx689*	*Pckr-1::ckr-1 minigene [pDT231 (20ng/µL)] + Punc-122::GFP (20ng/µL)]*
IZ3198	*ufEx962*	*Pmyo-3::ckr-1 minigene [pRB16 (25ng/µL)] + Pelt-2::GFP (50ng/µL)*
IZ3211	*ufEx1309*	*Punc-17β::ckr-1 minigene [pRB14 (50ng/µL)] + Plgc-11::GFP [pHP6 (50ng/µL)]*
IZ3212	*ufEx1310*	*Punc-47::ckr-1 minigene [pRB15(25ng/µL)] + Plgc-11::GFP [pHP6 (50 ng/µL)]*
IZ3197	*ufEx930*	*Plgc-55::ckr-1 minigene [pRB17(25 ng/µL)] + pHP6 (50 ng/µL)]*
IZ3203	*ufEx1003*	*Podr-2(16)::ckr-1 minigene [pRB27(25ng/µL)] + Plgc-11::GFP [pHP6 (50ng/µL)]*

IZ3650	*ufEx1538*	*Pflp-22(Δ4)::ckr-1 minigene [pSR37(50 ng/μL)] + Plgc-11::GFP [pHP6 (50 ng/μL)]*
IZ3210	*ufEx1180*	*Pgcy-28d::ckr-1 minigene [pRB29 (25 ng/μL)] + Plgc-11::GFP [pHP6 (50 ng/μL)]*
IZ3199	*ufEx1181*	*Podr-2(18)::ckr-1 minigene [pRB26 (25 ng/μL)] + Plgc-11::GFP [pHP6 (50 ng/μL)]*
IZ3231	*ufEx1196*	*Posm-6::ckr-1 minigene [pNB66 (25 ng/μL)] + Plgc-11::mCherry [pBB107 (50 ng/μL)]*
IZ3200	*ufEx1197*	*Plim-4::ckr-1 minigene [pNB67 (25 ng/μL)] + Plgc-11::mCherry [pBB107 (50 ng/μL)]*
IZ3222	*ufEx1234*	*Pnpr-9::ckr-1 minigene [pNB61 (25 ng/μL)] + Plgc-11::GFP [pHP6 (80 ng/μL)]*
IZ2461	*ckr-1(ok2502)I; ufEx911*	*Pckr-1::ckr-1 [pDT231 (5 ng/μL)] + Plgc-11::GFP [pHP6 (50 ng/μL)]*
IZ3112	*ckr-1(ok2502) I; ufEx1247*	*Podr-2(16)::ckr-1 minigene (5ng/μL) + Plgc-11::GFP [pHP6 (80 ng/μL)]*
IZ3116	*ckr-1(ok2502) I; ufEx1250*	*Plgc-55::ckr-1 minigene [pRB17 (5ng/μL)] + Plgc-11::GFP [pHP6 (80 ng/μL)]*
IZ3890	*ckr-1(ok2502) I; ufEx1646*	*Pflp-22Δ4::ckr-1 minigene [pSR33 (5 ng/μL)] + Punc122::GFP (50ng/μL)*
IZ3875	*ufEx1638*	*Pflp-22Δ4::ckr-1 minigene [pSR33 (5 ng/μL)] + Punc-122::RFP (50 ng/μL)*
IZ3587	*ufEx1518*	*Pflp-22(Δ4)::miniSOG, Pflp-22(Δ4)::GFP [pSR19D (50ng/μL) + pSR17A (50 ng/μL)] + Plgc-11::mCherry [pBB107 (50 ng/μL)]*
IZ3701	*ufEx802*; *ufEx1518*	*Pckr-1::ckr-1* genomic; *Pflp-22(Δ4)::miniSOG; Pflp-22Δ4::GFP*
IZ1782	*lite-1(ce314) X; ufIs140*	*Pnlp-12::ChR::GFP [pCL28 (50 ng/μL)] + Plgc-11::GFP [pHP6 (30 ng/μL)]*
IZ1779	*nlp-12(ok335) I; lite-1(ce314) X; ufIs140*	
IZ1968	*ckr-1(ok2502) I; ckr-2(tm3082) III; lite-1(ce314) X; ufIs140*	
IZ1777	*ckr-1(ok2502) I; lite-1(ce314) X; ufIs140*	
IZ1781	*ckr-2(tm3082) III; lite-1(ce314) X; ufIs140*	
IZ3645	*ufIs186*	*Podr-2(16)::Chrimson [pSR11 (50 ng/μL]; Punc-122::GFP (50 ng/μL)*

Table S2

Neuron type	Neuron class	*ckr-1* #	Method of identification	Marker	Strain*	Reference
Sensory	ASK	+	DiI staining			
	ASI	+	DiI staining			
	AWB	+	DiI staining			
	ASH	+	DiI staining			
	PHA	+	Dye uptake			
	PHB	+	Dye uptake			
	NSM (motor+ sensory)	+	Anatomical + colocalization*	*Ptph-1::GFP*	*mgIs42*	63
	IL1, IL2	-				
	OLQ, OLV	-				
	BAG	-				
Interneuron	AIA (Ach)	+	Colocalization*	*Psra-11::GFP*	*otIs123*	64
	AIY	-	Colocalization*	*Pttx-3::GFP*	*mgIs18*	65
	AIB (Ach)	+		*Podr-2(2b)::GFP*	*kyIs51*	34
	AVL (GABA)	+	Colocalization*	*Punc-47::GFP*	*oxIs12*	66
	RIS (GABA)	+	Colocalization*	*Punc-47::GFP*	*oxIs12*	
	RIG (glutamate)	+	Colocalization*	*Podr-2(18)::GFP*	*ufEx863*	34
	RIS	+	Colocalization*	*Pser-4::GFP*	*adEx1616*	
	PVQ	+	Colocalization*	*Psra-6::GFP*	*oyIs14*	67
Head motor	RMEV/D	+	Colocalization*	*Punc-47::GFP*	*oxIs12*	
	SMDV/D	+	Colocalization*	*Plad-2::GFP* *Plgc-55::GFP* *Podr-2(16)::GFP* *Pflp-22(Δ4)::GFP*	*otIs337* *zfIs6* *ufEx1485* *ufEx1504*	35 33 34 41
	RIV	+	Colocalization*	*Pnpr-4::RFP*	*dbEx721*	68
Ventral cord motor	Cholinergic VA/VB/DA/DB	+	Colocalization*	*Punc-17::GFP* *Pacr-2::mCherry*	*vsIs48* *ufIs43*	69 70
	GABAergic	-	Colocalization*	*Punc-47::GFP*	*oxIs12*	

* Indicated strains were crossed into *ufIs141* to generate strains to determine colocalization
# + indicates *ckr-1* expression, - indicates absence

Table S3

Promoter	Expression	References
Pckr-1	*ckr-1* native promoter (3564 bp)	
Prgef-1	Pan-neuronal	
Punc-17β	**Restricted expression in cholinergic motor neurons (VNC)**	71
Punc-47	All GABAergic neurons	66
Pmyo-3	Muscles	
Podr-2(16)	**SMD, RME**	34
Plgc-55	**SMD**, IL1, AVB, RMD, neck muscles	33
Pgcy-28.d	**AIA**	72
Plim-4(s) (lim-4 promoter fragment from -3328 to -2174 upstream of start)	**RIV**	33
Pnpr-9	**AIB**	73
Podr-2(18)	**RIG**, SMB	34
Posm-6	ADE, **amphid neurons**, AQR, CEM, CEP, HOA, HOB, IL1, IL2, OLL, OLQ, PDE, **phasmid neurons**.	74

Bold indicates neurons where *ckr-1* is expressed.

Table S4

Entry vectors containing promoters recombined with destination vectors pRB12 or pRB13 for cell-specific overexpression or rescue of *ckr-1*.

Plasmid	***ckr-1* expression construct**
pRB31	*Pacr-2::ckr-1*
pRB14	*Punc-17β::ckr-1*
pRB16	*Pmyo-3::ckr-1*
pRB30	*Plad-2::ckr-1*
pRB17	*Plgc-55::ckr-1*
pRB27	*Podr-2(16)::ckr-1*
pSR33	*Pflp-22Δ4::ckr-1*
pRB18	*Pglr-2::ckr-1*
pRB20	*PF25B3.3::ckr-1*
pRB21	*Pttr-39::ckr-1*
pRB22	*Pdel-1::ckr-1*
pRB23	*Punc-129::ckr-1*
pRB24	*Plim-6 Intron 4::ckr-1*
pRB26	*Podr-2(18)::ckr-1*
pRB28	*Ptph-1::ckr-1*
pRB29	*Pgcy-28d::ckr-1*
pNB66	*Posm-6::ckr-1*
pNB67	*Plim-4::ckr-1*
pNB61	*Pnpr-9::ckr-1*

Table S5
Promoter lengths and primer information for promoters used

Pckr-1 3564bp promoter region of *ckr-1* amplified from genomic DNA OMF2159 (Forward primer): CTGCAGGATGGAGATTCAATCAGC OMF2160 (Reverse primer): TGTGTATCTGAAAATTTTTAATTTTAAA
Pckr-2 8.6 kb promoter region of *ckr-2* amplified from genomic DNA OMF1067 (Forward primer): GCATGCGGGTGTGATAAGTGCAATGAAGTGG OMF1068 (Reverse primer): ACGTACCGGTTCCTCCTGATGTACCGTTGACATTGTGG
Plgc-55 2663bp amplified from plasmid lgc55_2663-0_pPD95_75 (Mark Alkema) OMF1019 (Forward primer): ATGTCTGCCCCTATCACCAGTG OMF1020 (Reverse primer): TTCATTTCGACATCTATTTGCCAATA
Podr-2(16) 3.2 kb promoter fragment amplified from genomic DNA OMF1878 (Forward primer): ATGGGAATGGCGGCAAAT OMF1879 (Reverse primer): CGGGCATCCCGACAAACTGT
Plad-2 4.5 kb upstream of *lad-2* ATG amplified from genomic DNA OMF1876 (Forward primer): ATTTTTTGCTGTGTTCCACTAA OMF1920 (Reverse primer): TGTTGGAAAAATCCAAAAAAAAAGTCTGC
Pflp-22(Δ4) 1532bp promoter fragment was amplified from genomic DNA based on Yeon *et. al* 2018.[36] OMF2610 (Forward primer): TGCAGGAAACACCACCTAGTATATAAT OMF2611 (Reverse primer): TGCAAGCTTAGAGTACAACGGCGA
Pmyo-3 Amplified myo-3 promoter(2344bp) from pBB38 (*Pmyo-3::acr-2 cDNA*) OMF763 (Forward primer): CGGCTATAATAAGTTCTTGAATAA OMF764 (Reverse primer): CCTGAAAATTAGACGGTAAAAGTG
Punc17β *unc-17β promoter (485bp) amplified from plasmid pRM#621* OMF1594 (Forward primer): TTGGTTTTCACAATTTTCTGGTTTT OMF1595 (Reverse primer): TTGAACAAGAGATGCGGAAAATAGAAAGA
Punc-47 *unc-47* promoter (1158bp) amplified from genomic DNA OMF658 (Forward primer): AGTCGAAAGTCGGTGGCAAG OMF659 (Reverse primer): GTCGTCTCACAGGAAAGACAGAT
Podr-2(18) 2.4 kb promoter fragment amplified from genomic DNA OMF1015 (Forward primer): GAACAGGGTCTCTCACAGTTTGTCG OMF1016 (Reverse primer): CCATCAGCCAAATGTAGGCTCGG
Pnpr-9 *npr-9* promoter (2305bp) amplified from genomic DNA OMF1353 (Forward primer): CAATGCAGAAGAAGACTCTTCATCC OMF1544 (Reverse primer): GACATTTCCCAACGACATTTCCC
Pgcy-28d 2841 bp promoter for *gcy-28d* amplified from genomic DNA. OMF1884 (Forward primer): TACAATTGTAGTGAGCTTCG OMF1885 (Reverse primer): TTCGCACTCATCTCACCATTCC
Plim-4 *lim-4* promoter fragment from -3328 to -2174 upstream of start was amplified from plasmid [*Plim-4(-3328 to -2174)::NLSwCherry::SL2::GCaMP6s]* (Mark Alkema) OMF2166 (Forward primer): AAGCTTTGATTTAGAAATTGTAGTTTC OMF2167 (Reverse primer): ACAAGCCGCTCAGTTTTGATCTAAAAT
Posm-6 2083 bp promoter region from *Posm-6::GFP* (Claire Benard) OMF2227 (Forward primer): CTTGCATGTTATGGATACTCTGAAT OMF2228 (Reverse primer): TTTTCGTCTGAAAATGGAGGCATAG
Ptph-1 *tph-1* promoter was amplified from *Ptph-1::unc-2* (Mark Alkema) OMF926 (Forward primer): GGTGGTCTTCCCGCTTGCAATAC OMF927 (Reverse primer): ATGATTGAAGAGAGCAATGCTAC

FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure 1. NLP-12/CCK induced locomotor responses require functional *ckr-1* signaling

(A) Representative movement trajectories of wild type (black), *nlp-12(OE)* (red) and *nlp-12(OE);ckr-1(lf);ckr-2(lf)* (green) animals during forward runs (30s) on NGM agar plates seeded with OP50 bacteria. *nlp-12(OE)* refers to the transgenic strain (*ufls104*) stably expressing high levels of wild type *nlp-12* genomic sequence. Note the convoluted *nlp-12(OE)* movement tracks are restored to wild type by combined *ckr-1* and *ckr-2* deletion. Scale bar, 1 mm. Asterisks (*) indicate position of worm at start of recording.

(B) Average body bend amplitude (indicated in schematic by blue arrow between orange lines, centroid (green) of worm) for the genotypes as indicated. Bars represent mean ± SEM. In this and subsequent figures, numbers within bars indicate n for each genotype. ****$p<0.0001$, ***$p<0.001$, ANOVA with Holms-Sidak post-hoc test.

(C) Frequency distribution of body bending angle (indicated in blue in schematic) for the genotypes indicated. wild type: n= 12, *nlp-12(OE)*: n=10, *nlp-12(OE);ckr-1(lf)*: n=10, *nlp-12(OE);ckr-2(lf)*: n=12, *nlp-12(OE);ckr-1(lf);ckr-2(lf)*: n=12.

(D, E) Concentration-response curves of the mean calcium responses (% activation ± SEM) in CHO cells expressing either CKR-1 (D) or CKR-2 (E) for different concentrations of synthetic peptides NLP-12-1 (solid blue circles) or NLP-12-2 (solid black squares). Solid lines indicate curve fits to the data (n = 6). 95% confidence intervals (nM), CKR-1: NLP-12-1, 1.79-7.07; NLP-12-2, 0.93-3.77 and CKR-2: NLP-12-1, 5.16-12.51; NLP-12-2, 6.43-16.73.

Figure 2. CKR-1 and CKR-2 differentially regulate head and body bending during basal locomotion

Scatterplots of single worm track analyses of movement (5 minutes) in the presence of food. Body bending **(A)** and head bending **(B)** angles (measured angle (blue) is indicated in the schematics) are quantified for the indicated genotypes. Each data point represents the average

body or head bend angle for a single animal from analysis of 5 minutes of locomotion. Horizontal red bar indicates mean, shading indicates SEM for wildtype (blue) and mutants (orange). ****p<0.0001 compared to wild type, Wilcoxon rank-sum test. wild type: n=19, *nlp-12(ok335)*: n=16, *ckr-1(ok2502)*: n=16, *ckr-2(tm3082)*: n=16, *ckr-1(ok2502);ckr-2(tm3082)*: n=8.

Figure 3. NLP-12/CCK food search responses are mediated through the GPCR CKR-1

(A) Schematic of the food search assay indicating the time intervals when reorientations were scored. Wild type animals increase reorientations during the first 5 mins (0-5 mins) after removal from food (local search) and reduce reorientations during dispersal (30-35 mins).

(B) Snapshot images overlaid showing worm posture prior to and upon reorientation (5 s between original trajectory (black arrowhead) and new trajectory (pink arrow head). Supplementary angle (blue) between the black and pink dashed lines indicates the change in trajectory. Trajectory changes were scored as reorientations if changes in trajectory were greater than 50°.

(C) Quantification of reorientations during 0-5 minutes following removal from food for the genotypes indicated. Rescue refers to transgenic expression of wild type *ckr-1* in *ckr-1* mutants. Bars represent mean ± SEM. ****p<0.0001, ANOVA with Holms-Sidak's post-hoc test. Numbers within bars indicate n for each genotype. See also Figure S2B.

(D) Total number of reorientations during an interval of 30-35 minutes following removal from food for the genotypes as shown. Each bar represents mean ± SEM. *p<0.05, ANOVA with Holms-Sidak's post-hoc test.

(E) Trajectory changes (reorientations) scored in response to photostimulation of DVA. Percent change in the number of high angle turns elicited during a period of 1 min of blue light exposure compared to prestimulus (no blue light). Bars represent mean ± SEM. ***p<0.001, **p<0.01, *p<0.05 compared to +ATR control. ATR: *all-trans* retinal.

Figure 4. Elevated CKR-1 signaling enhances bending angle and amplitude in an *nlp-12* dependent manner

(A) Representative movement trajectories of wild type (black), *ckr-1(OE)* (blue) and *ckr-1(OE); nlp-12(lf)* (green) animals for 30 seconds on NGM agar plates seeded with OP50 bacteria. *ckr-1(OE)* refers to high copy expression of the wild type *ckr-1* genomic locus (*ufEx802*). Note the increased frequency of high angle turns and convoluted track for *ckr-1(OE)*. These movement phenotypes are reversed by *nlp-12* deletion. Scale bar, 1 mm.

(B) Frequency distribution of body bending angles (mean ±SEM) during forward runs (30 s) on plates thinly seeded with OP50 bacteria. wild type: n= 8, *ckr-1(OE)*: n=10, and *ckr-1(OE);nlp-12(lf)*: n=10.

(C) Comparison of the average body bend amplitude for the indicated genotypes. Bars represent mean ± SEM. ****p<0.0001, ANOVA with Holms-Sidak's post-hoc test. Numbers within bars indicate n for each genotype.

Figure 5. *ckr-1* functions in the SMD head motor neurons to modulate body bending

(A) Confocal maximum intensity projection of adult expressing the *Pckr-1::ckr-1::SL2::GFP* reporter. Note expression in multiple head neurons (white box) and a subset of ventral nerve cord motor neurons (white arrowheads).

(B) Confocal maximum intensity projection of the head region of adult expressing the *Pckr-1::ckr-1::SL2::GFP* reporter. Scale bar, 10 µm. See Fig. S3 and Table S2 for additional expression information.

(C) Quantification of average body bend amplitudes (mean ± SEM) for *ckr-1* overexpression in the indicated cell types. Promoters used for listed cell types: pan-neuronal *Prgef-1*, muscle *Pmyo-3*, GABA motor neurons *Punc*-47, cholinergic ventral cord motor neurons *Punc-17β*. See Table S3 for details about cellular expression of promoters used for head neurons. ****p<0.0001, ***p<0.001, ANOVA with Holms-Sidak's post-hoc test. Numbers within bars indicate n for each genotype.

Figure 6. Ablation of SMD motor neurons abolishes the effects of *ckr-1* overexpression

(A) Representative tracks (1 minute) for indicated genotypes. Asterisks indicate position of animal at the beginning of recordings. Note increased reorientations and body bending depth in the tracks with cell-specific *ckr-1* overexpression. Scale bar, 1mm.

(B) Average body bending angle distribution (mean ± SEM) for the indicated genotypes. High level expression of *ckr-1* in SMDs using the *odr-2(16)* or *flp-22Δ4* promoters increases bending angle. wild type n=9 (black circles), *Podr-2(16)::ckr-1(OE)*: n=8 (blue squares), *Pflp-22Δ4::ckr-1(OE)*: n=11 (orange triangles)

(C) Top, representative fluorescent images of SMD motor neuron in *ckr-1(OE)* animals without (left) or with (right) miniSOG expression 16 hours following photoactivation. Bottom, representative 30 s track for control *ckr-1(OE)* (-miniSOG, left) animal or SMD ablated *ckr-1(OE)* (+miniSOG, right) animal 16 hours after photostimulation. Scale bar, 1 µm.

(D) Average body bending angle distribution (mean ± SEM) for control *ckr-1(OE)* (green squares, n=8) and SMD ablated *ckr-1(OE)* (red triangles, n=11) animals. SMD ablation reduces the frequency of large bending angles produced by *ckr-1(OE).*

Figure 7. NLP-12/CKR-1 excitation of the SMD neurons promotes reorientations

(A) Total reorientations measured during 0-5 minutes following removal from food for the genotypes indicated. *ckr-1* rescue refers to expression of wild type *ckr-1* (5 ng/µL) in *ckr-1(ok2502)* animals using the indicated promoters. Bars represent mean ± SEM. ****$p<0.0001$, ***$p<0.001$ ANOVA with Holms-Sidak's post-hoc test. Numbers within bars indicate n for each genotype.

(B) Representative tracks (1 minute) on thinly seeded NGM agar plates prior to (left) and during photostimulation (right) for transgenic animals expressing *Podr-2(16)::Chrimson*. Scale bar, 1 mm. Asterisks (*) indicate position of worm at start of recording.

(C) Left, quantification of reorientations for individual animals over 1 minute durations prior to (prestimulus) and during photostimulation (+ATR). Right, quantification of reorientations for

individual animals prior to and during photostimulation in control animals (-ATR). Black circles, reorientations during prestimulus. Orange circles, reorientations during photostimulation. **p<0.01, ns not significant. Paired t-test. ATR: *all trans* retinal.

Figure 8. Proposed model for NLP-12 action through CKR-1 and CKR-2

During basal locomotion, NLP-12 activation of CKR-1 and CKR-2 GPCRs in ventral nerve cord motor neurons regulates body bending. During local searching, NLP-12 acts primarily through CKR-1 in SMD motor neurons to promote increased turning, trajectory changes and enhance body bending. Solid arrows indicate known synaptic connections, dotted arrows indicate extrasynaptic. Sensory neurons (green), head interneurons (orange), and motor neurons (red). Olfactory sensory neurons: AWA, AWB, AWC, ASE.

Supplementary Figures

Figure S1

(A) Dendrogram (generated using Phylogeny,fr[75]) showing the predicted relationship between Drosophila (Dm_CCKLR-1/2), *C. elegans* (Ce_CKR-1/2), mouse (Mm) and human (Hs) CCK1/2-R GPCRs.

(B) Boxshade alignment of *C. elegans* CKR-1 and CKR-2 with Human CCK-1 and CCK-2 receptors. Black shading indicates identical amino acids, while grey shading indicates similar amino acids. Red bar indicates the amino acids removed by *ckr-1(ok2502)* deletion.

(C) Schematic representation of CKR-1 GPCR membrane topology and domains affected by the *ckr-1(ok2502)* deletion (red shading). NLP-12 ligand indicated by solid orange circle.

Figure S2

Representative body curvature kymographs for worm locomotion, basal locomotion on food (A) and area restricted searching (ARS) off food (B), during first minute of locomotion on a thin seeded OP50 assay plate. Head to tail orientation along the horizontal axis in each kymograph is left to right as indicated for wild type. Time is indicated along the vertical axis from 0 to 1 minute. SMD *ckr-1(OE)* indicated is *Pflp-22(Δ4)::ckr-1*.

Figure S3

(A) Confocal maximum intensity projections of a segment of the ventral nerve cord of a transgenic animal coexpressing *Pckr-1::ckr-1::SL2::GFP* and the cholinergic reporter *Pacr-2::mCherry*. *ckr-1* is expressed in the DA and DB motor neurons in the ventral nerve cord. Anterior is to the left in all panels. Scale bar, 10 μm.

(B) Confocal maximum intensity projections of a segment of the ventral nerve cord of a transgenic animal coexpressing *Pckr-1::ckr-1::SL2::mCherry* and the GABAergic reporter *Punc-47::GFP*.

(C) Confocal maximum intensity projections of optical sections with SMD fluorescence (GFP) from the head region of a transgenic animal expressing *ckr-1::SL2::mCherry* (left panel) together with *Plad-2::GFP* (middle panel). White arrowheads denote the SMD cell bodies in all cases. Note the colocalization of the red and green fluorescence exclusively in the SMD neurons (merge right panel).

(D) Confocal maximum intensity projections of optical sections with SMD fluorescence (mCherry) from the head region of a transgenic animal coexpressing *Podr-2(16)::mCherry* (left panel), and *Pckr-2::GFP* (middle panel). Note weak *ckr-2* expression in a single SMDD neuron (merge, right panel).

Figure S4

Confocal maximum intensity projections of transgenic worm expressing *Pckr-1::ckr-1::SL2::mCherry* and *Pckr-2::GFP*. **(A)** *ckr-1* and *ckr-2* expression in the entire worm. Both *ckr-1* and *ckr-2* are highly expressed in head neurons and ventral nerve cord motor neurons. However, there is very little overlap between expression of *ckr-1* and *ckr-2*. **(B)** Magnified view of *ckr-1* and *ckr-2* expression in the head region. **(C)** Magnified view of ckr-1 and ckr-2 expression in the ventral nerve cord. Scale bar, 10 μm.

Figure S5

Confocal maximum intensity projection of the nerve ring region of a transgenic animal expressing *Pnlp-12::NLP-12::Venus*. Note the high levels of NLP-12::Venus in the nerve ring. Scale bar, 5 μm.

Figure S6

(A) Representative tracks (30 s) for transgenic animals with high levels of cell-specific *ckr-1* expression *(Pflp-22Δ4::ckr-1*) in wild type (top) or *nlp-12* deletion background (bottom). Asterisks indicate position of animals at the beginning of recording. Scale bar, 1 mm.

(B) Average bending angle distribution (mean ± SEM) for SMD-specific *ckr-1(OE)* in wild type (green squares, n=11) or *nlp-12(lf)* background (orange circles, n=10).

Figure S7

(A) Average body bending angle distribution (mean ± SEM) for *pSMD::ckr-1(OE)* animals expressing miniSOG in SMDs (*Pflp-22Δ4::miniSOG)*, but not subjected to photoactivation (control, black diamonds) compared to wild type (blue triangles). n=8 for each group.

(B) Single confocal slices of GFP-labeled SMD neurons, following photoactivation (right) compared to control (-photoactivation, left), in transgenic animals without miniSOG expression. Photoactivation protocol does not alter SMD neuron morphology in the absence of miniSOG expression. Scale bar, 1 μm.

Figure S8

Average body bending angle distribution (mean ± SEM) plotted for wildtype control animals (solid black circles, n=8) and *Pflp-22Δ4::ckr-1* (solid orange squares, n=8). Low level (5 ng/μL) cell-specific expression of *ckr-1* in SMDs in wild type did not alter body bending.

Supplementary Tables

Table S1

Strains generated/used in this work.

Table S2

Cell identification (method of ID, marker and strain indicated for each neuron) to determine *ckr-1* expressing neurons. * Indicated strains were crossed into *ufIs141 (Pckr-1::ckr-1::SL2::GFP)* to generate strains to determine colocalization. [#] + or – indicates presence or absence of *ckr-1* expression in identified neuron.

Table S3

Promoters used in *ckr-1(OE)* screen (Fig.5C) indicating expression pattern. Bold neurons indicate *ckr-1* expression.

Table S4

Plasmid constructs used in cell specific *ckr-1(OE)* screen or cell-specifc rescue (Fig. 5C, 7A).

For cell specific overexpression or rescue of *ckr-1*, *ckr-1* minigene was expressed under indicated promoters.

Table S5

Promoter lengths and primer information for promoters used.

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Figure 1

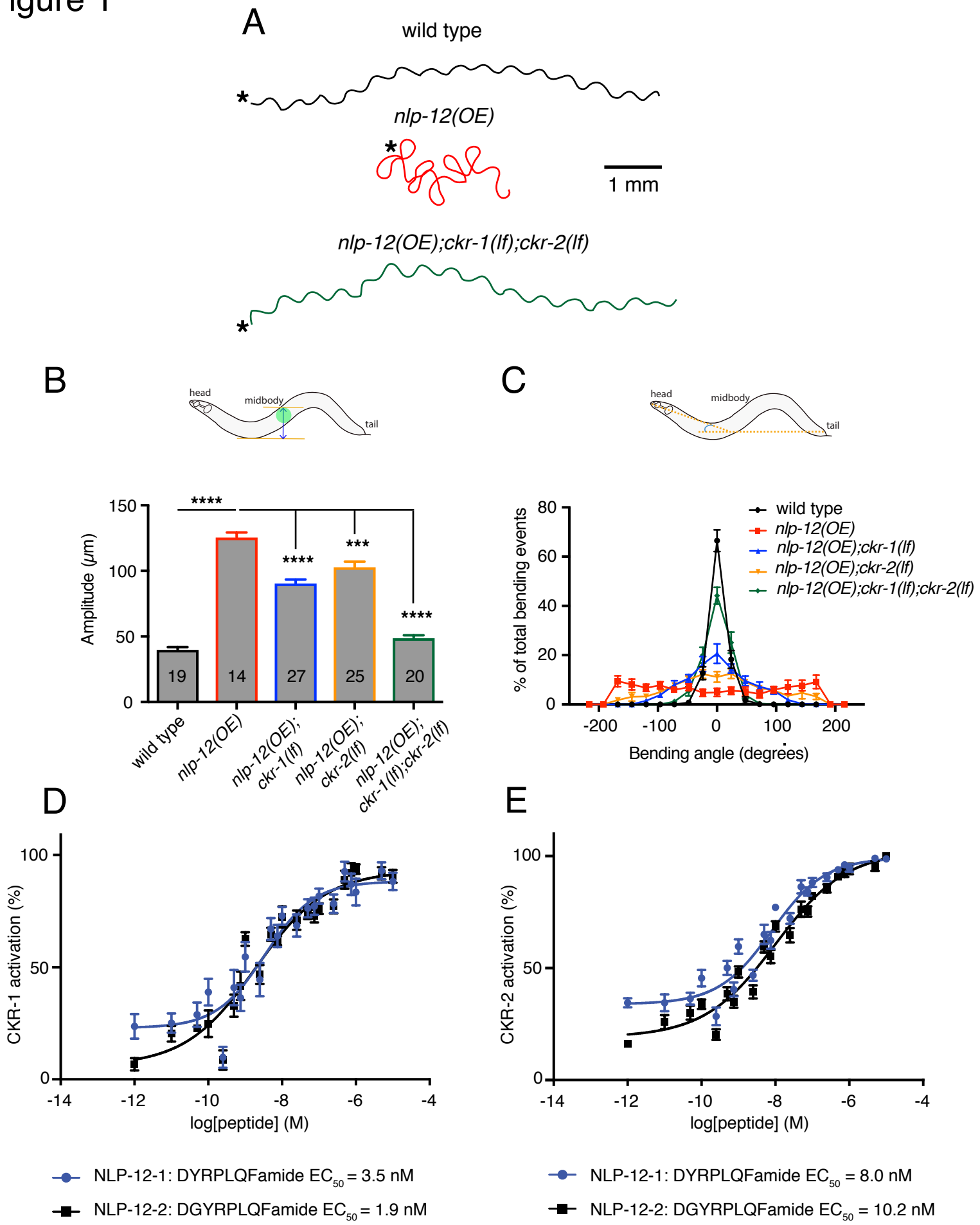

A
wild type
nlp-12(OE)
1 mm
nlp-12(OE);ckr-1(lf);ckr-2(lf)
B
head
midbody
tail
Amplitude (μm)
****
****
***
****
19
14
27
25
20
wild type
nlp-12(OE)
nlp-12(OE); ckr-1(lf)
nlp-12(OE); ckr-2(lf)
nlp-12(OE); ckr-1(lf);ckr-2(lf)
C
head
midbody
tail
% of total bending events
wild type
nlp-12(OE)
nlp-12(OE);ckr-1(lf)
nlp-12(OE);ckr-2(lf)
nlp-12(OE);ckr-1(lf);ckr-2(lf)
Bending angle (degrees)
D
CKR-1 activation (%)
log[peptide] (M)
NLP-12-1: DYRPLQFamide EC50 = 3.5 nM
NLP-12-2: DGYRPLQFamide EC50 = 1.9 nM
E
CKR-2 activation (%)
log[peptide] (M)
NLP-12-1: DYRPLQFamide EC50 = 8.0 nM
NLP-12-2: DGYRPLQFamide EC50 = 10.2 nM

Figure 2

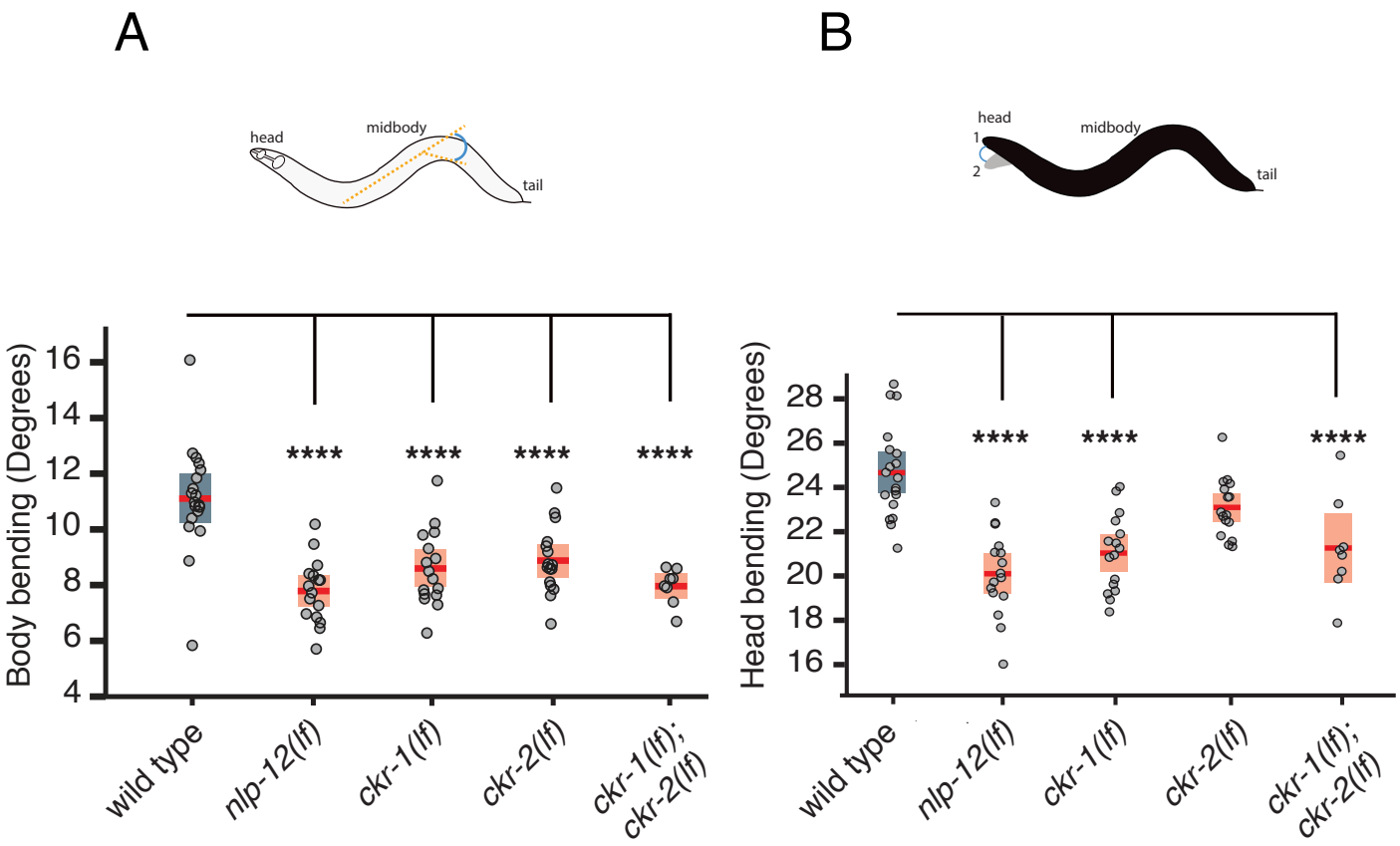

A
head
midbody
tail
Body bending (Degrees)
16
14
12
10
8
6
4
****
****
****
****
wild type
nlp-12(lf)
ckr-1(lf)
ckr-2(lf)
ckr-1(lf);
ckr-2(lf)
B
head
1
2
midbody
tail
Head bending (Degrees)
28
26
24
22
20
18
16
****
****
****
wild type
nlp-12(lf)
ckr-1(lf)
ckr-2(lf)
ckr-1(lf);
ckr-2(lf)

Figure 3

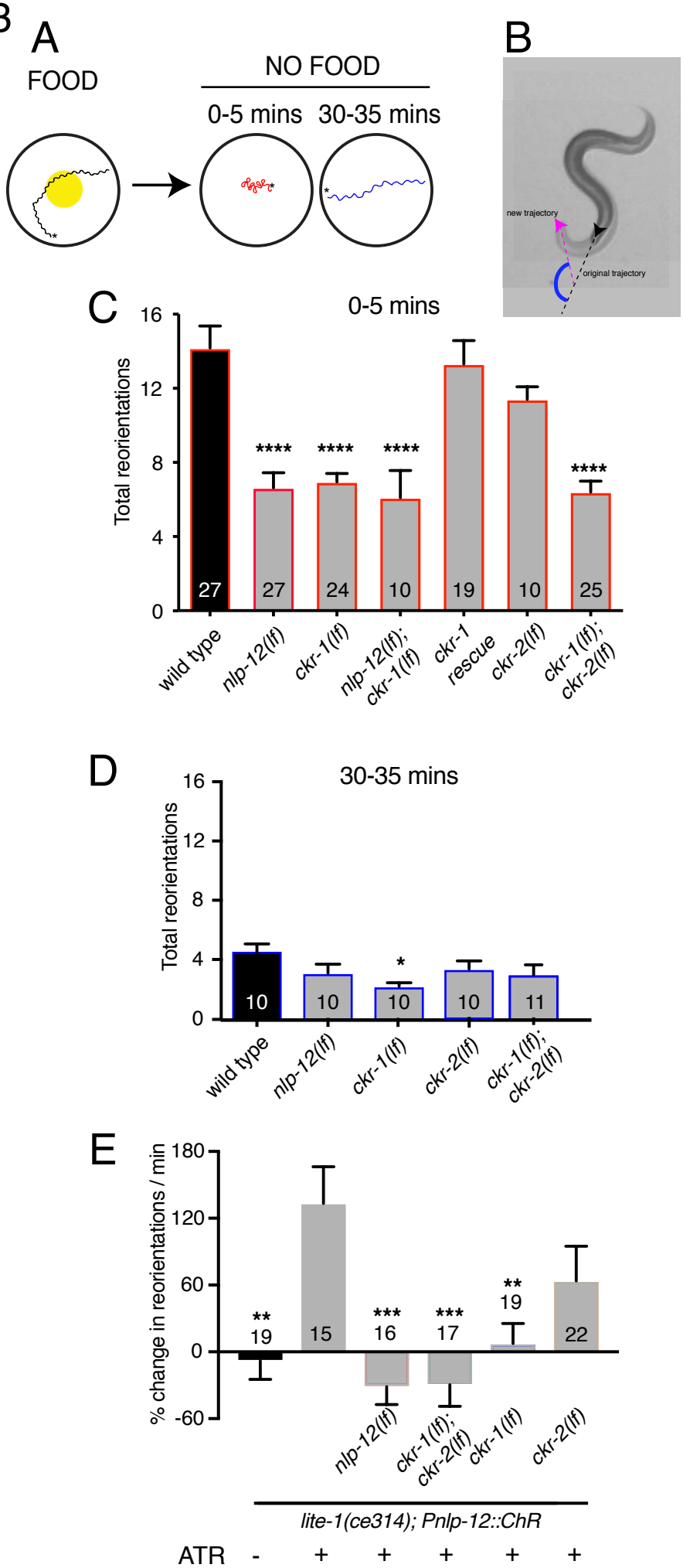

A
FOOD
NO FOOD
0-5 mins
30-35 mins
B
new trajectory
original trajectory
C
0-5 mins
Total reorientations
16
12
8
4
0
****
****
****
****
27
27
24
10
19
10
25
wild type
nlp-12(lf)
ckr-1(lf)
nlp-12(lf); ckr-1(lf)
ckr-1 rescue
ckr-2(lf)
ckr-1(lf); ckr-2(lf)
D
30-35 mins
Total reorientations
16
12
8
4
0
*
10
10
10
10
11
wild type
nlp-12(lf)
ckr-1(lf)
ckr-2(lf)
ckr-1(lf); ckr-2(lf)
E
% change in reorientations / min
180
120
60
0
-60
**
19
15
***
16
***
17
**
19
22
nlp-12(lf)
ckr-1(lf); ckr-2(lf)
ckr-1(lf)
ckr-2(lf)
lite-1(ce314); Pnlp-12::ChR
ATR - + + + + +

Figure 4

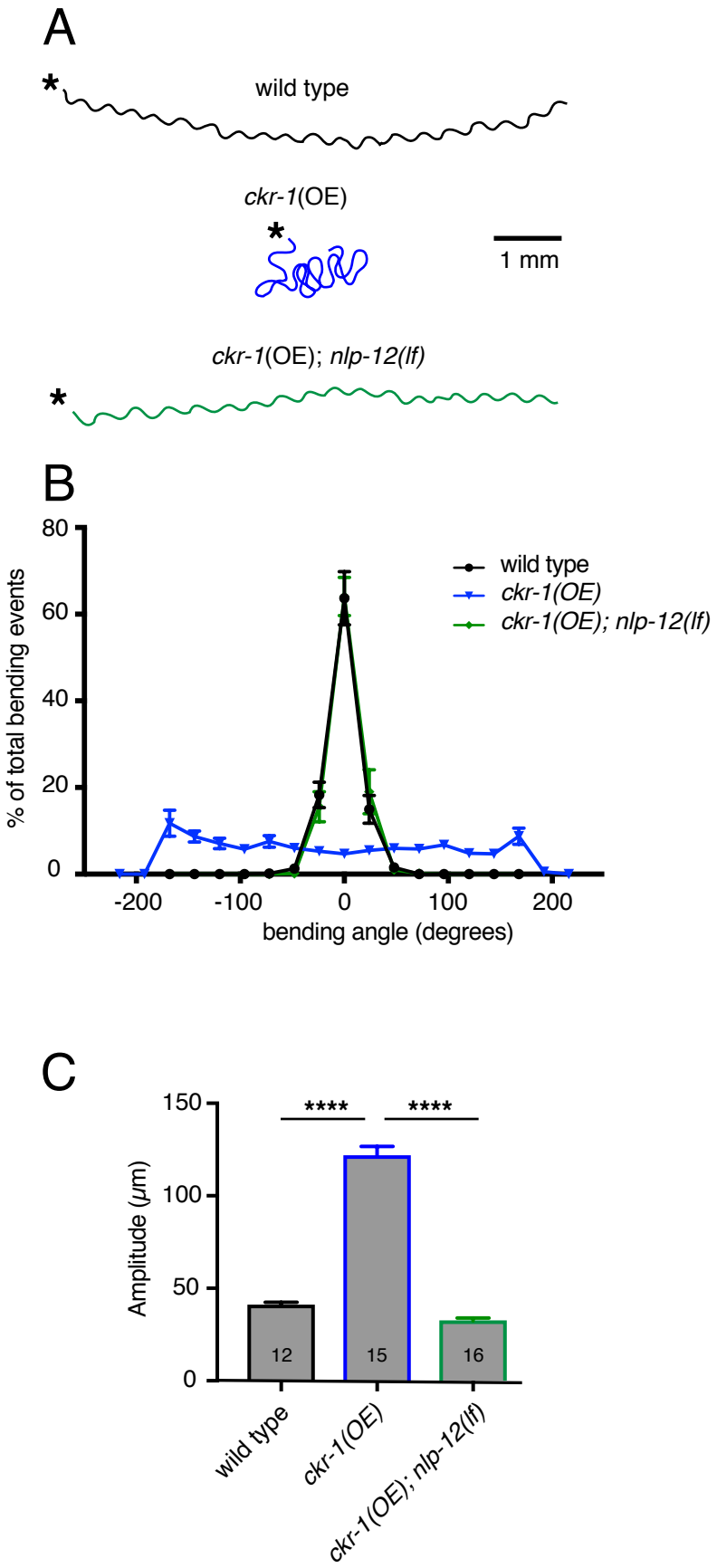

A
wild type
ckr-1(OE)
1 mm
ckr-1(OE); nlp-12(lf)
B
% of total bending events
80
60
40
20
0
-200
-100
0
100
200
bending angle (degrees)
wild type
ckr-1(OE)
ckr-1(OE); nlp-12(lf)
C
Amplitude (μm)
150
100
50
0
****
****
12
15
16
wild type
ckr-1(OE)
ckr-1(OE); nlp-12(lf)

Figure 5

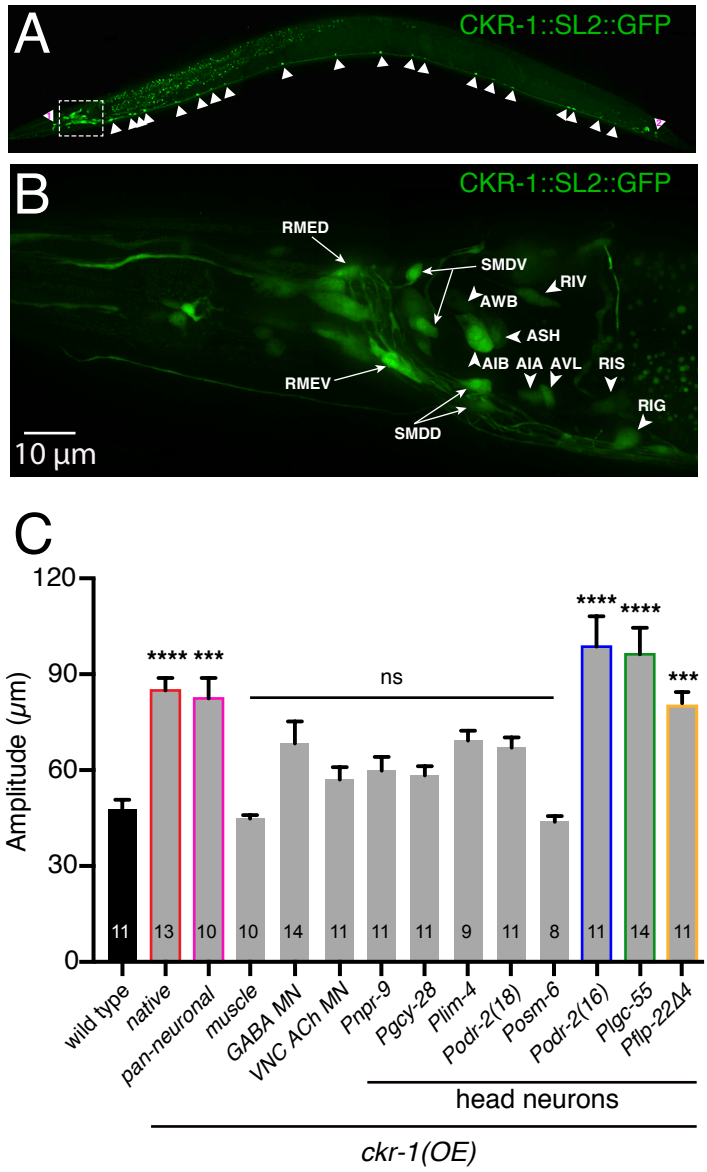

A
CKR-1::SL2::GFP
B
CKR-1::SL2::GFP
RMED
SMDV
RIV
AWB
ASH
AIB
AIA
AVL
RIS
RMEV
RIG
SMDD
10 µm
C
Amplitude (µm)
120
90
60
30
0
**** ***
ns
**** ****
***
11
13
10
10
14
11
11
11
9
11
8
11
14
11
wild type
native
pan-neuronal
muscle
GABA MN
VNC ACh MN
Pnpr-9
Pgcy-28
Plim-4
Podr-2(18)
Posm-6
Podr-2(16)
Plgc-55
Pflp-22Δ4
head neurons
ckr-1(OE)

Figure 6

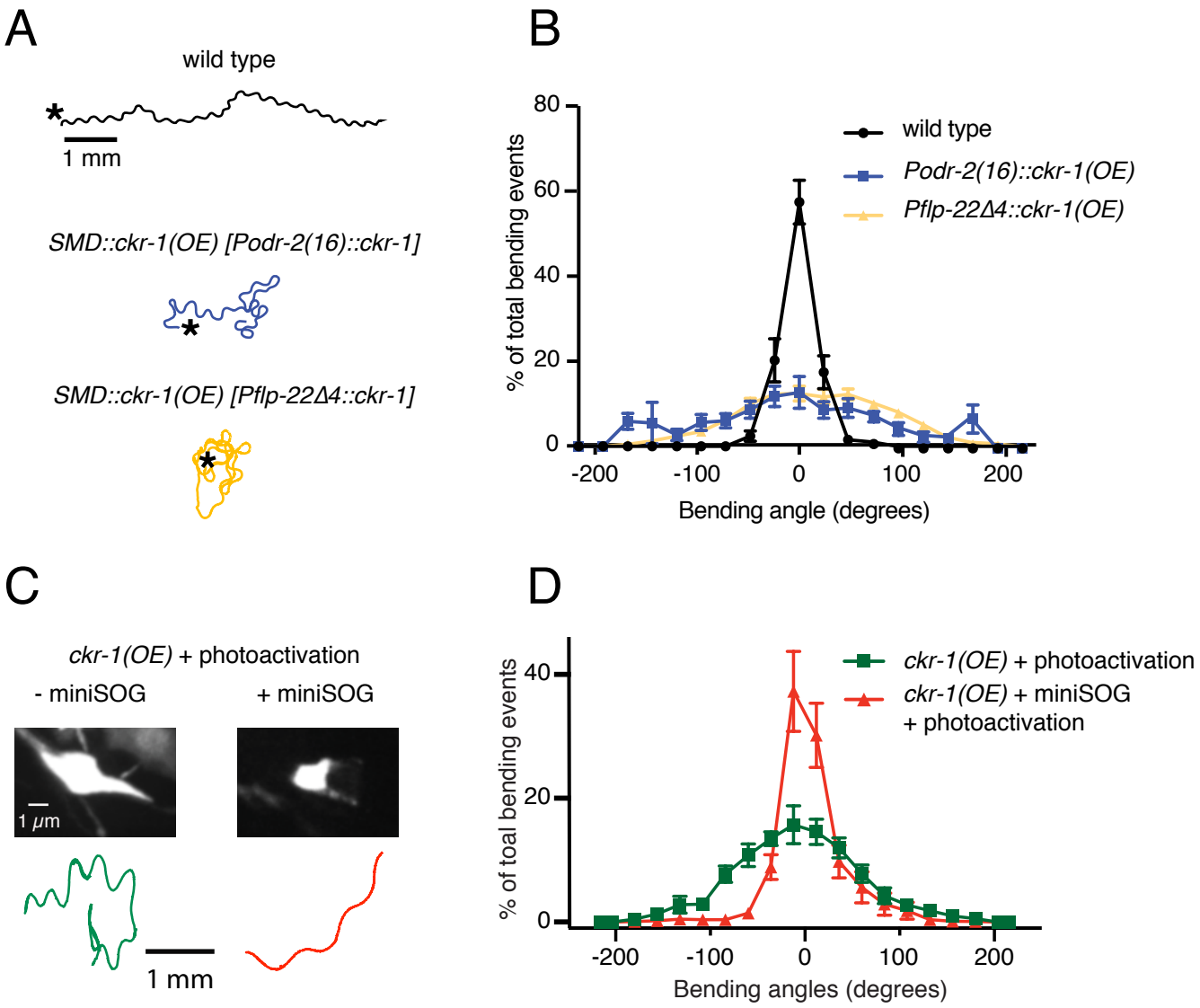

A
wild type
1 mm
SMD::ckr-1(OE) [Podr-2(16)::ckr-1]
SMD::ckr-1(OE) [Pflp-22Δ4::ckr-1]
B
% of total bending events
80
60
40
20
0
-200
-100
0
100
200
Bending angle (degrees)
wild type
Podr-2(16)::ckr-1(OE)
Pflp-22Δ4::ckr-1(OE)
C
ckr-1(OE) + photoactivation
- miniSOG
+ miniSOG
1 μm
1 mm
D
% of toal bending events
40
20
0
-200
-100
0
100
200
Bending angles (degrees)
ckr-1(OE) + photoactivation
ckr-1(OE) + miniSOG
+ photoactivation

Figure 7

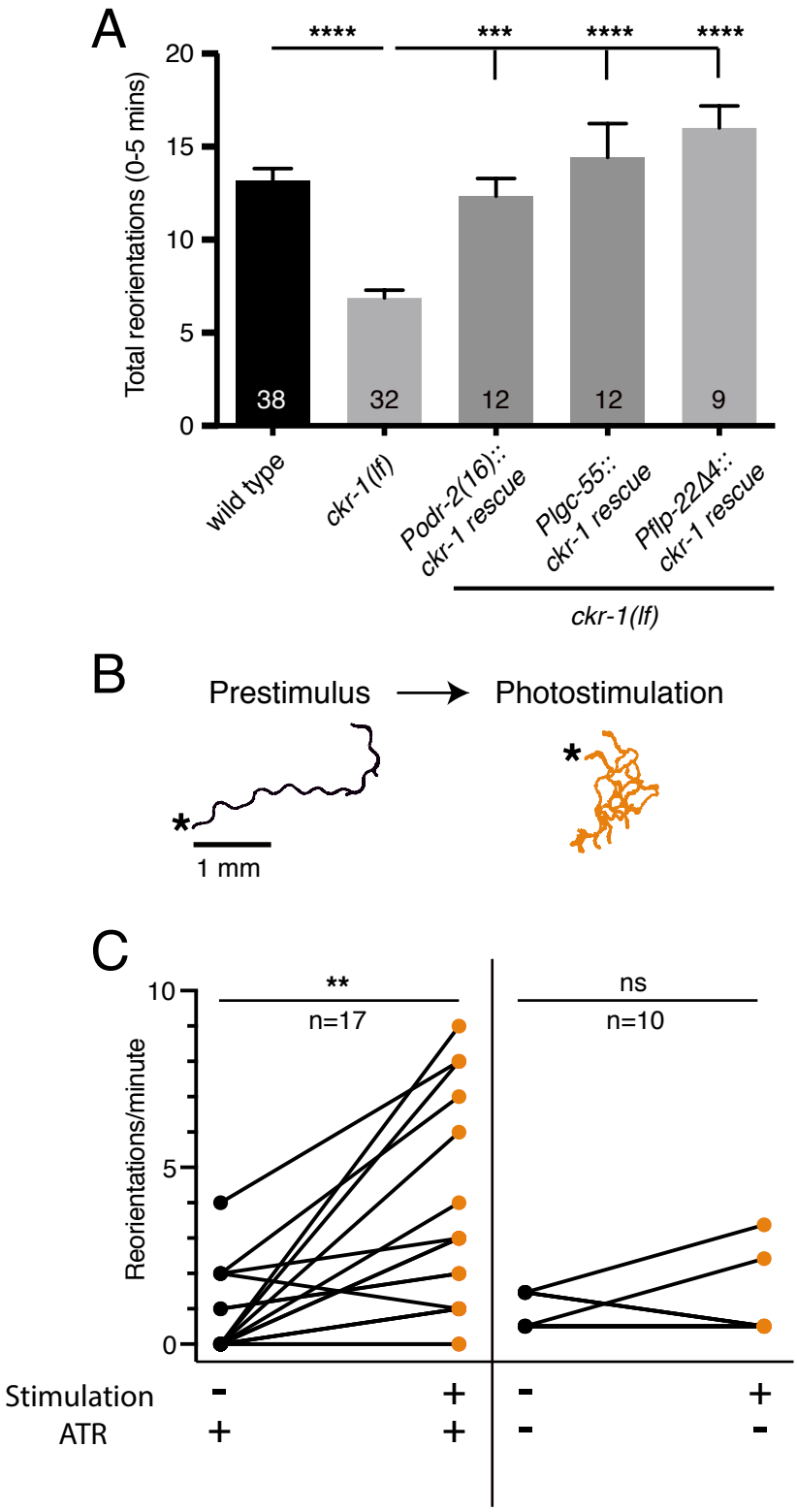

A
****
***
****
****
Total reorientations (0-5 mins)
20
15
10
5
0
38
32
12
12
9
wild type
ckr-1(lf)
Podr-2(16)::
ckr-1 rescue
Plgc-55::
ckr-1 rescue
Pflp-22Δ4::
ckr-1 rescue
ckr-1(lf)
B
Prestimulus
Photostimulation
1 mm
C
**
n=17
ns
n=10
Reorientations/minute
10
5
0
Stimulation
ATR
-
+
+
+
-
+
-
-

Figure 8

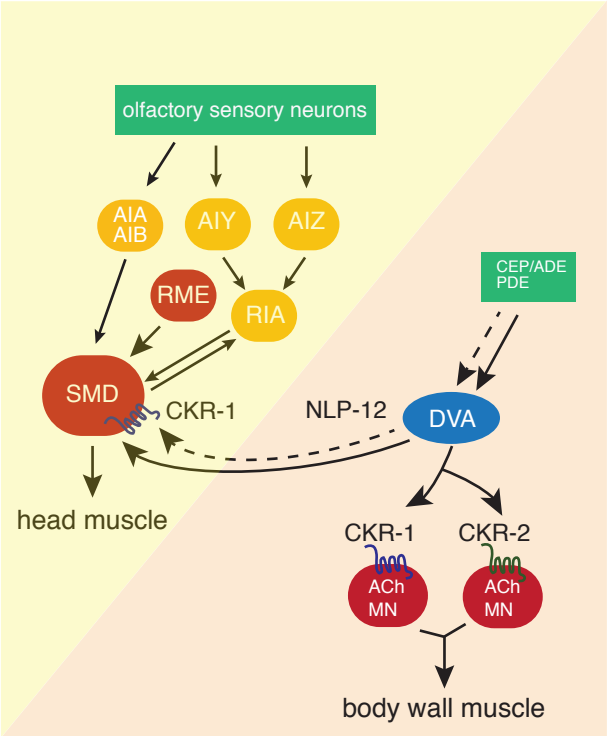
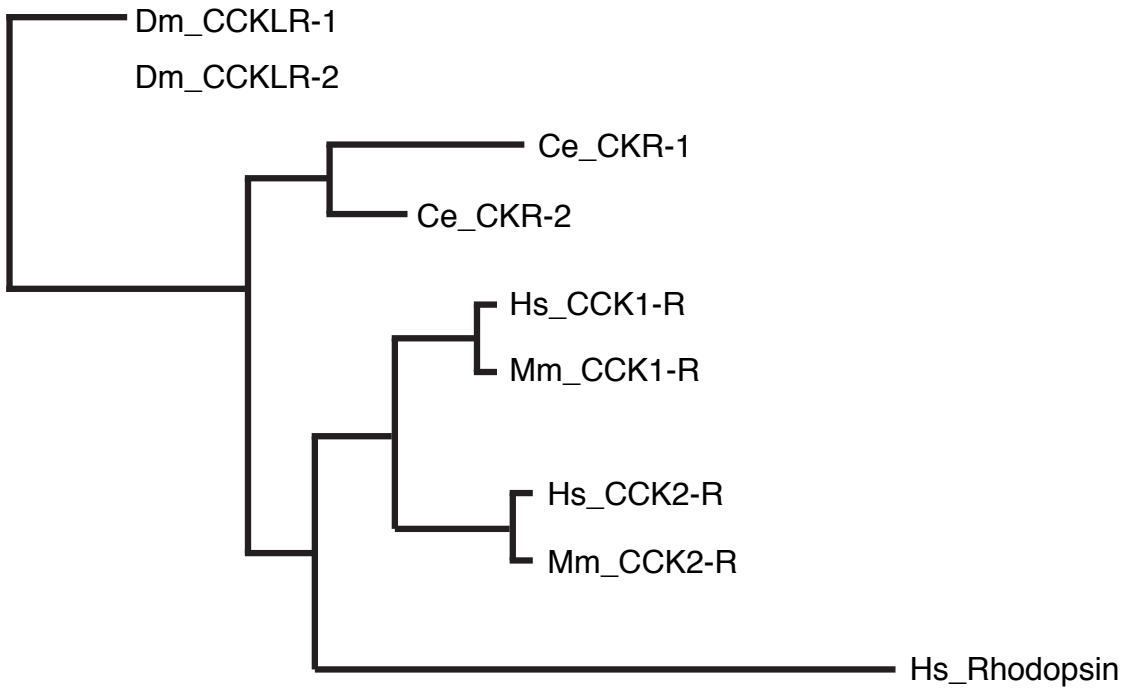
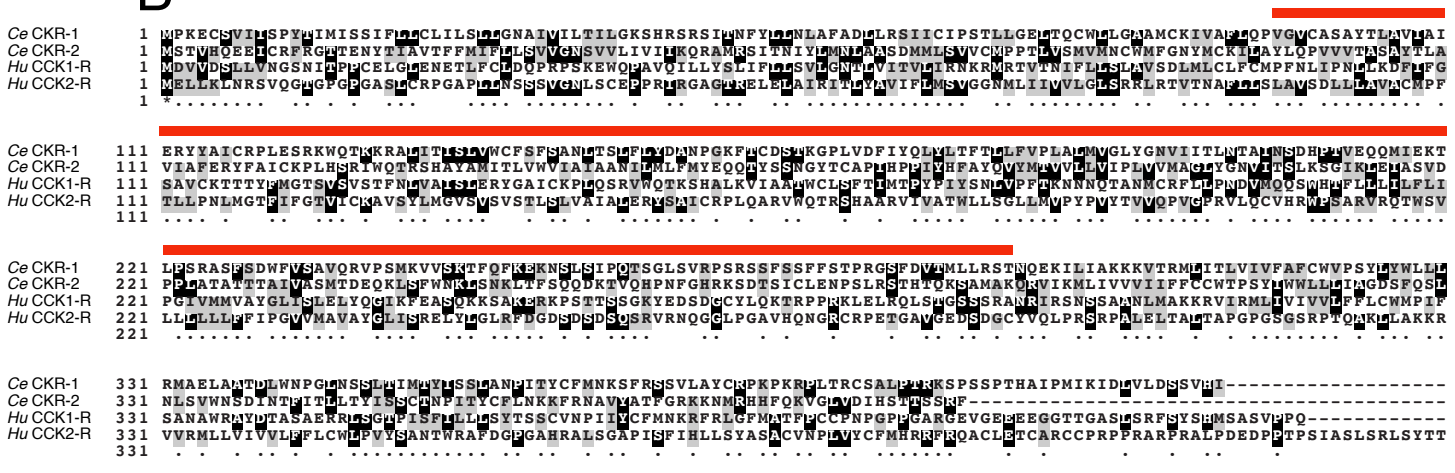

olfactory sensory neurons
AIA
AIB
AIY
AIZ
RME
RIA
SMD
CKR-1
NLP-12
DVA
CEP/ADE
PDE
head muscle
CKR-1
CKR-2
ACh
MN
ACh
MN
body wall muscle

Figure S1

A



B



C

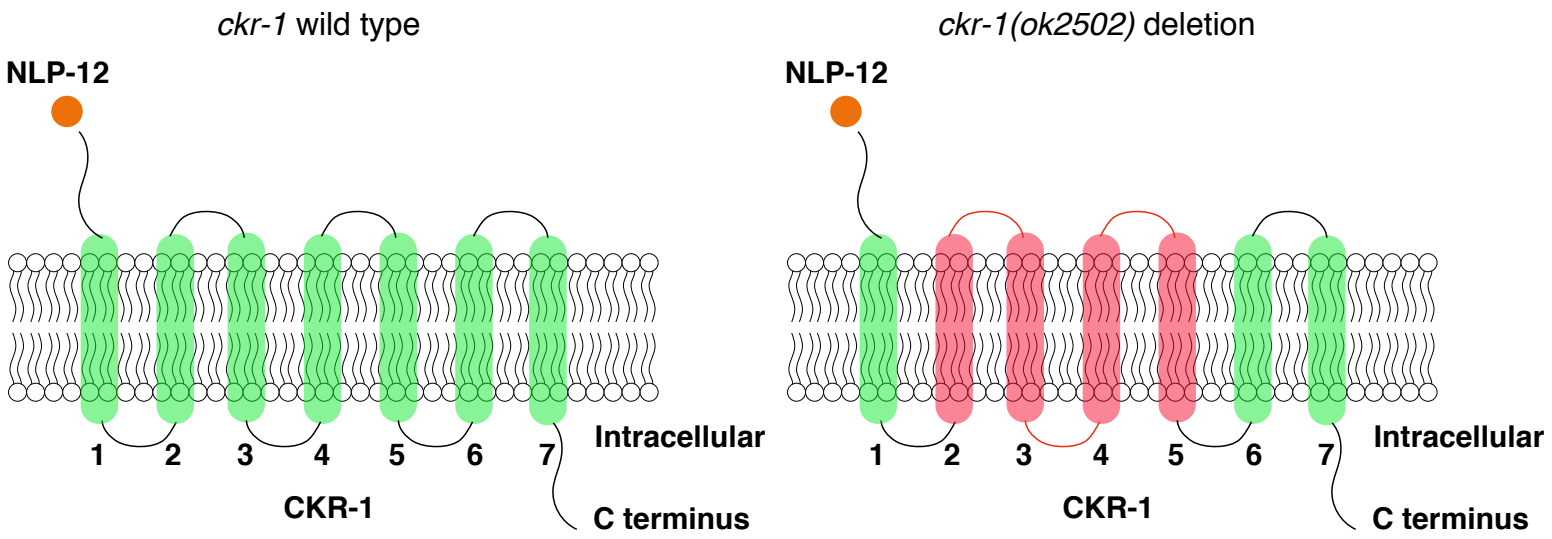


Figure S2

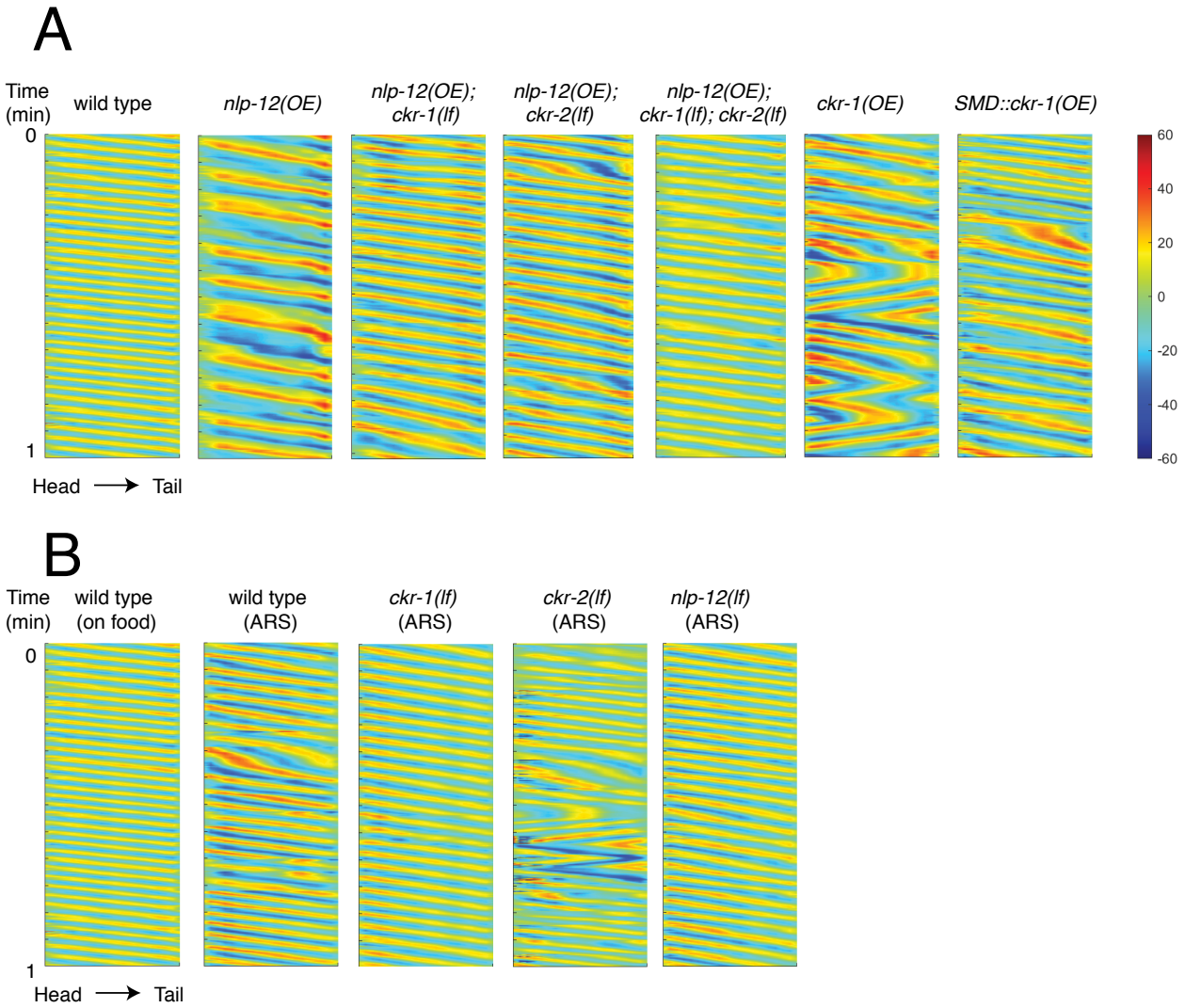

A
Time (min)
wild type
nlp-12(OE)
nlp-12(OE); ckr-1(lf)
nlp-12(OE); ckr-2(lf)
nlp-12(OE); ckr-1(lf); ckr-2(lf)
ckr-1(OE)
SMD::ckr-1(OE)
0
1
Head → Tail
60
40
20
0
-20
-40
-60
B
Time (min)
wild type (on food)
wild type (ARS)
ckr-1(lf) (ARS)
ckr-2(lf) (ARS)
nlp-12(lf) (ARS)
0
1
Head → Tail

Figure S3

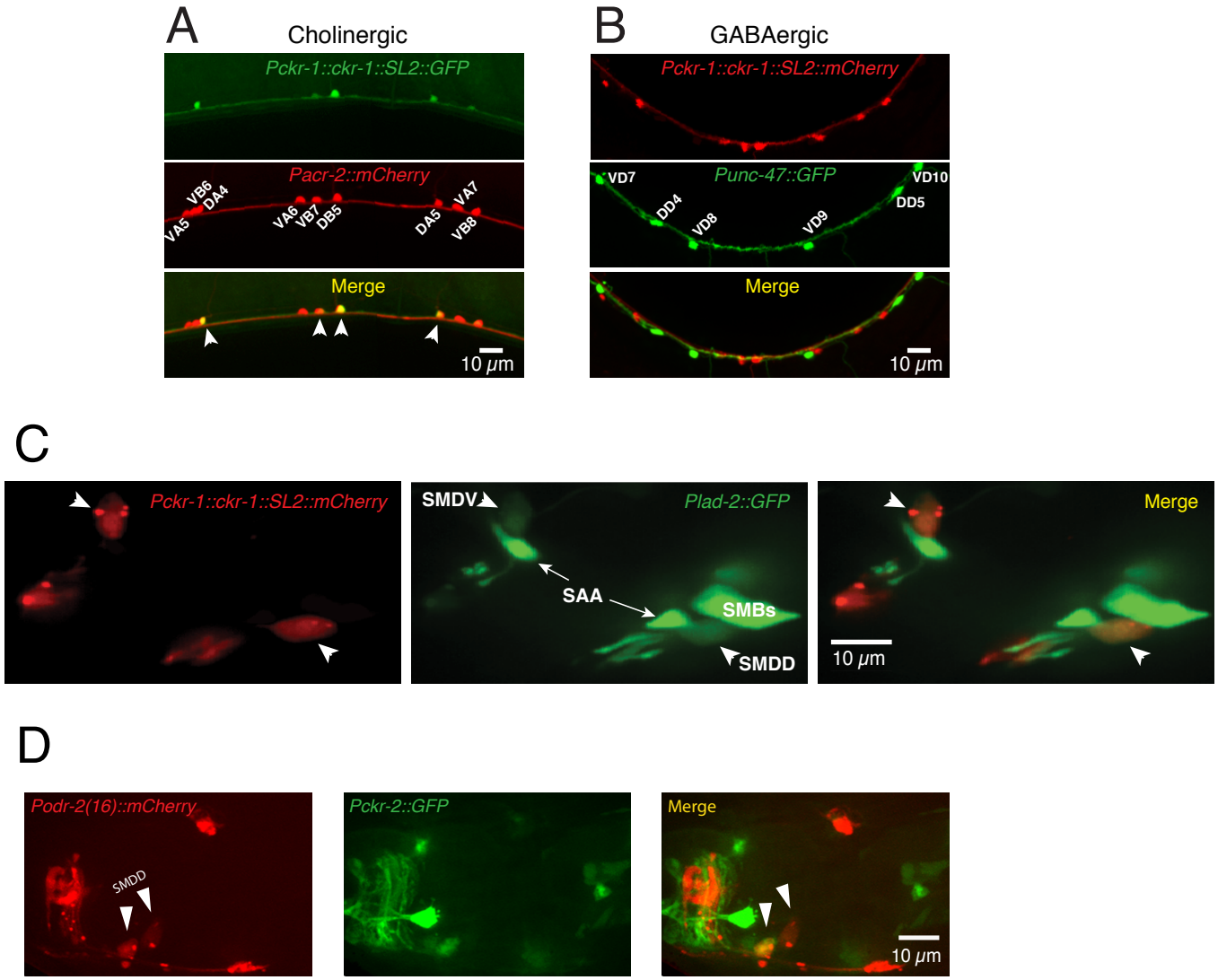

A
Cholinergic
Pckr-1::ckr-1::SL2::GFP
Pacr-2::mCherry
VB6
DA4
VA5
VA6
VB7
DB5
DA5
VA7
VB8
Merge
10 μm
B
GABAergic
Pckr-1::ckr-1::SL2::mCherry
VD7
Punc-47::GFP
VD10
DD4
VD8
VD9
DD5
Merge
10 μm
C
Pckr-1::ckr-1::SL2::mCherry
SMDV
Plad-2::GFP
SAA
SMBs
SMDD
Merge
10 μm
D
Podr-2(16)::mCherry
SMDD
Pckr-2::GFP
Merge
10 μm

Figure S4

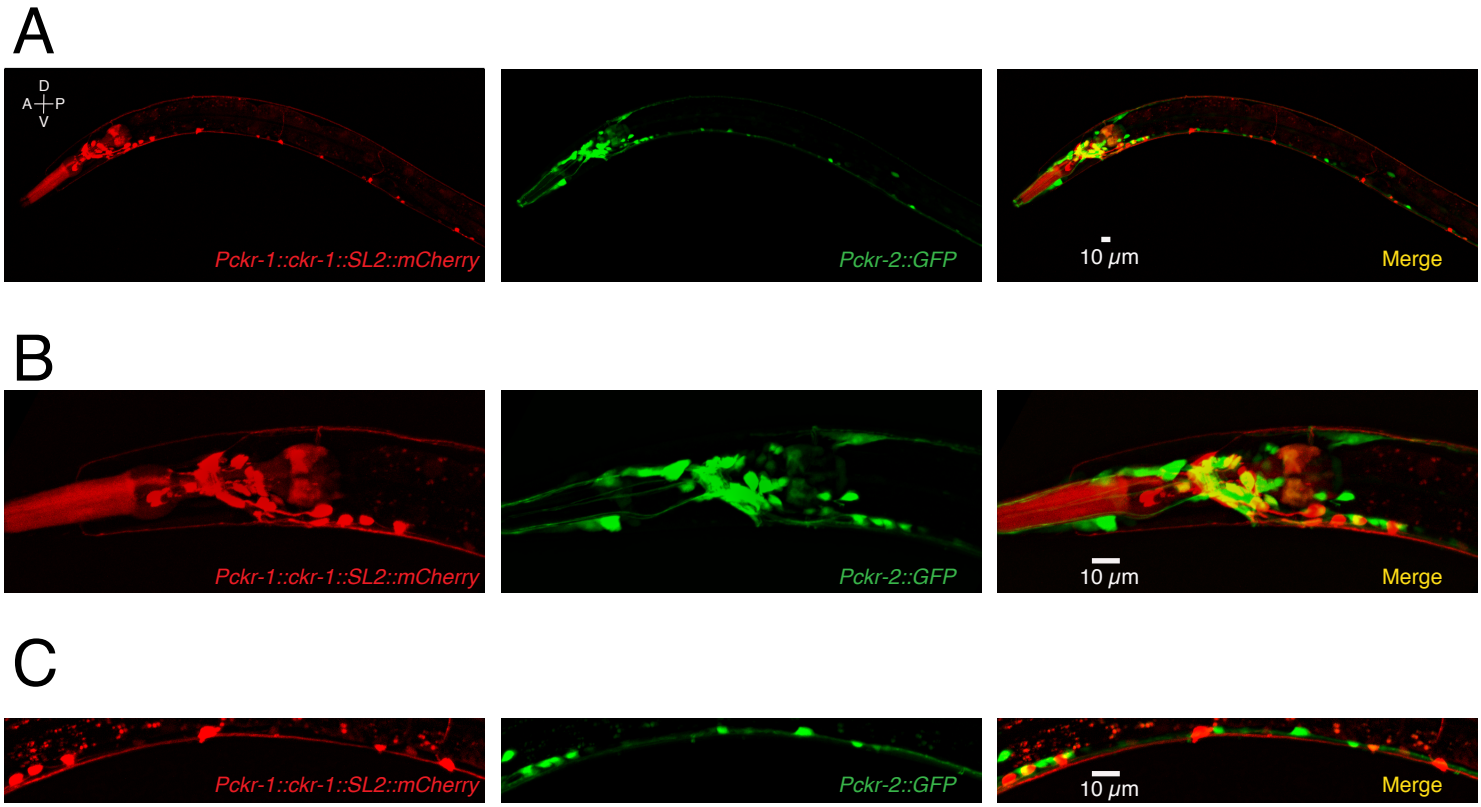

A
D
A
P
V
Pckr-1::ckr-1::SL2::mCherry
Pckr-2::GFP
10 μm
Merge
B
Pckr-1::ckr-1::SL2::mCherry
Pckr-2::GFP
10 μm
Merge
C
Pckr-1::ckr-1::SL2::mCherry
Pckr-2::GFP
10 μm
Merge

Figure S5

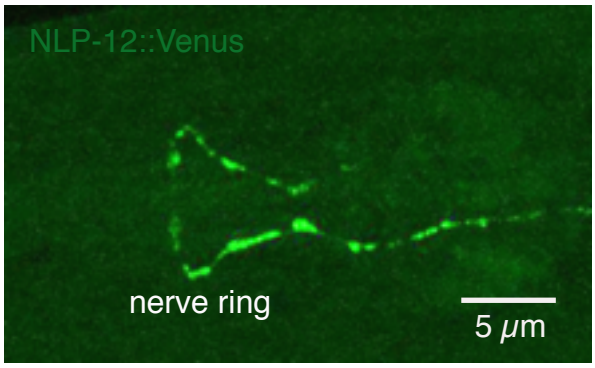


Figure S6

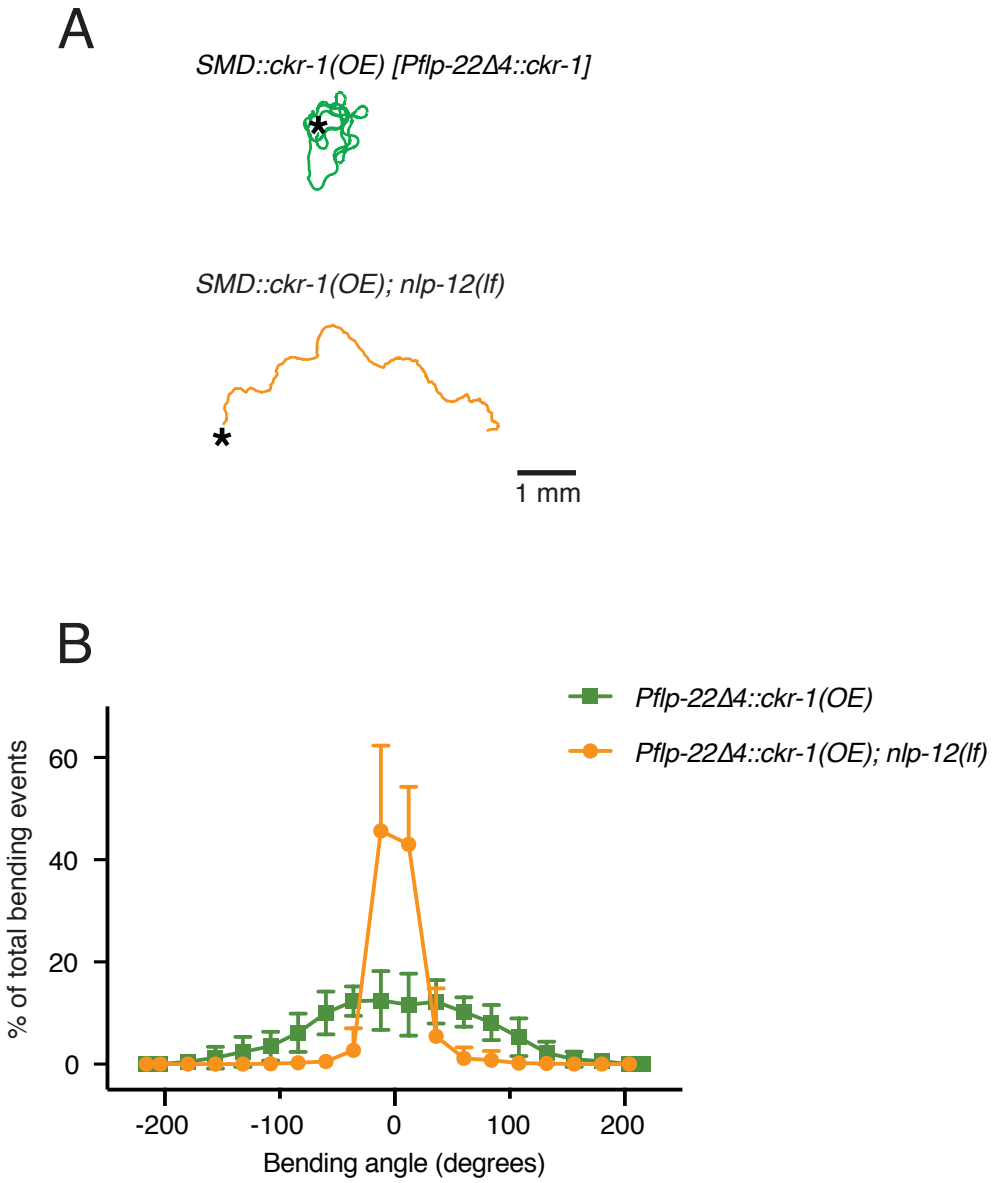
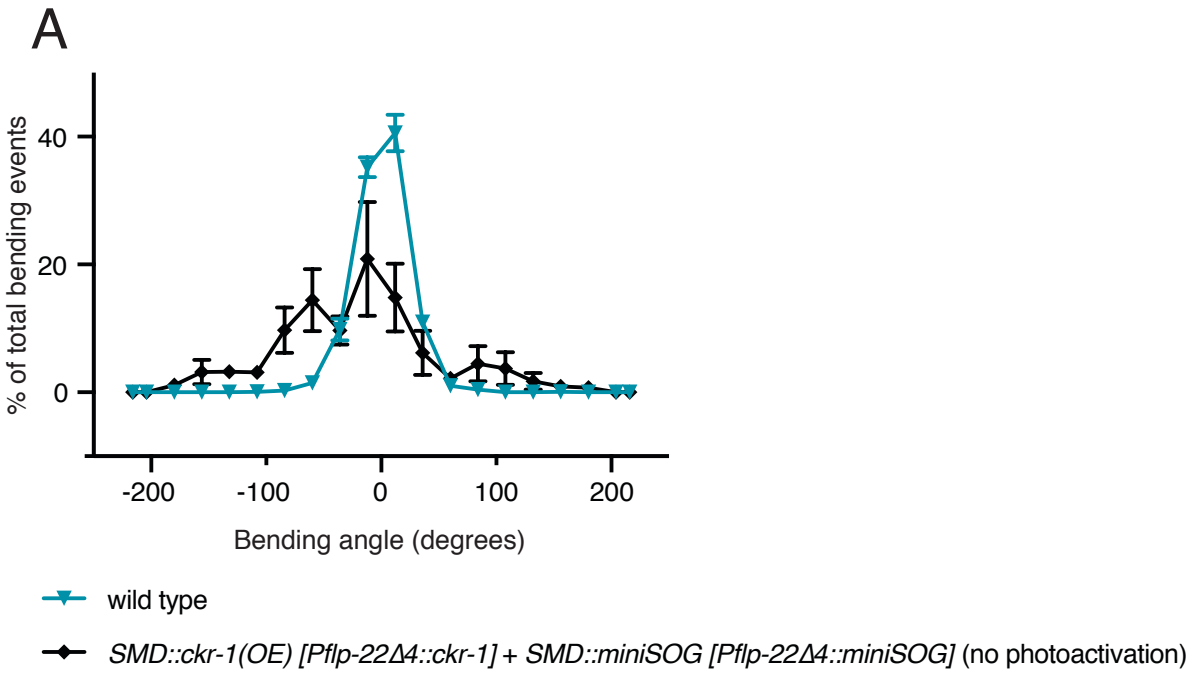

A
SMD::ckr-1(OE) [Pflp-22Δ4::ckr-1]
SMD::ckr-1(OE); nlp-12(lf)
1 mm
B
Pflp-22Δ4::ckr-1(OE)
Pflp-22Δ4::ckr-1(OE); nlp-12(lf)
% of total bending events
60
40
20
0
-200
-100
0
100
200
Bending angle (degrees)

Figure S7


A
% of total bending events
40
20
0
-200
-100
0
100
200
Bending angle (degrees)
wild type
SMD::ckr-1(OE) [Pflp-22Δ4::ckr-1] + SMD::miniSOG [Pflp-22Δ4::miniSOG] (no photoactivation)

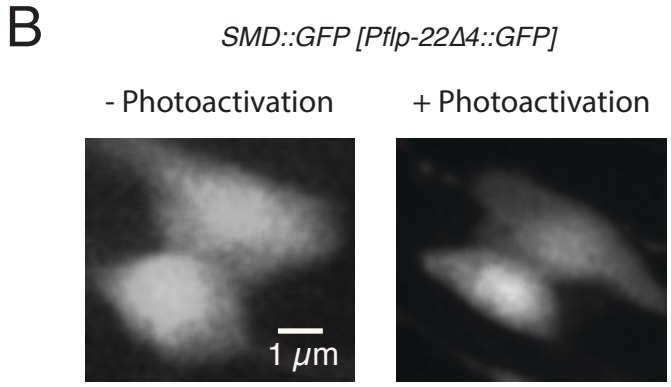
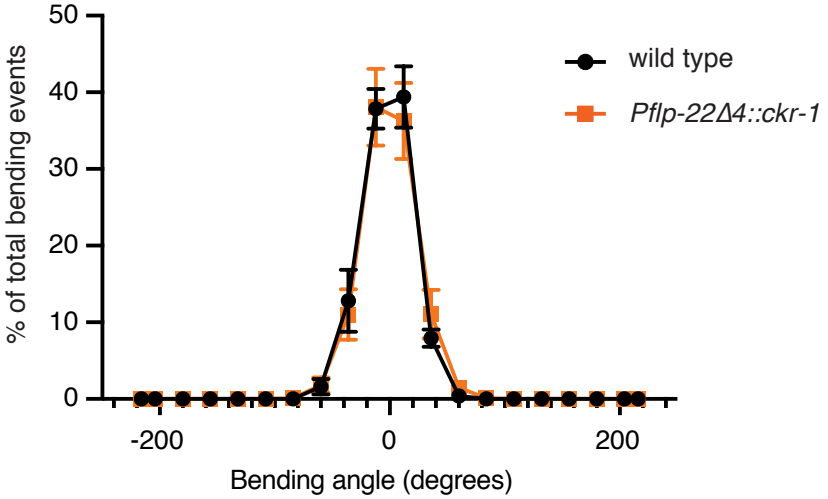

B
SMD::GFP [Pflp-22Δ4::GFP]
- Photoactivation
+ Photoactivation
1 μm

Figure S8


50
40
30
20
10
0
% of total bending events
-200
0
200
Bending angle (degrees)
wild type
Pflp-22Δ4::ckr-1