TITLE: Interneuron Control of *C. elegans* Developmental Decision-making

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SUMMARY

Animals integrate external stimuli to shape their physiological responses throughout development. In adverse environments, *Caenorhabditis elegans* larvae can enter a stress-resistant diapause state with arrested metabolism and reproductive physiology. Amphid sensory neurons feed into both rapid chemotactic and short-term foraging mode decisions, mediated by amphid and pre-motor interneurons, as well as the long-term diapause decision. We identify amphid interneurons that integrate pheromone cues and propagate this information via a neuropeptidergic pathways to influence larval developmental fate, bypassing the pre-motor system. AIA interneuron-derived FLP-2 neuropeptide signaling promotes reproductive growth and AIA activity is suppressed by pheromone. FLP-2 acts antagonistically to the insulin-like INS-1. FLP-2's growth promoting effects are inhibited by upstream metabotropic glutamatergic signaling and mediated by the broadly-expressed neuropeptide receptor NPR-30. Conversely, the AIB interneurons and their neuropeptide receptor NPR-9/GALR2 promote diapause entry. These neuropeptidergic outputs allow reuse of parts of a sensory system for a decision with a distinct timescale.

KEYWORDS

Developmental plasticity, interneurons, neuropeptides, G-protein coupled receptor, pheromone, circuits, metabotropic glutamate receptor, inter-tissue signaling, physiology, metabolism

INTRODUCTION

Natural environments are highly dynamic and this complexity challenges animals to accurately integrate external cues to shape their responses. Phenotypic plasticity is the ability of a single genotype to produce more than one phenotype depending on the external environment experienced. Adaptive developmental plasticity enables organisms to remodel their physiology, morphology, and behavior to better suit the predicted future environment and ultimately enhance their ecological success (Kelly et al., 2012). Developmental plasticity often results in long-lasting changes such as switches in developmental trajectories that irreversibly alter the adult phenotype or, in some cases, induce reversible developmental arrest. This adaptive strategy is employed throughout the animal kingdom by nematodes (Bento et al., 2010; Cassada and Russell, 1975), arthropods (Brakefield et al., 1998; Laforsch et al., 2006; Moczek and Emlen, 2000), fish (Podrabsky and Hand, 1999), reptiles (Janzen and Paukstis, 1991), and amphibians (Michimae and Wakahara, 2001; Pfennig, 1992). Although it is known that sensory cues usually trigger the developmental switch and that downstream inter-tissue signaling pathways enact the alternative developmental phenotype, the integrative neural mechanisms that transduce external inputs into effector pathways are less clear (Beldade et al., 2011; Nijhout, 2003). Developmental fate choice requires sensory evidence accumulation to surpass an innately-defined threshold, signaling the appropriateness of selecting a particular trajectory over the other. Understanding how an animal generates a neural representation of current and forecasted environmental conditions and converts these circuit computations into a predictive adaptive physiological response might provide fundamental insights into the molecular and cellular basis of decision-making over developmentally-relevant timescales.

Here, we leverage the well-defined genetics and nervous system of the microscopic roundworm *Caenorhabditis elegans* to dissect the sensory integration pathways controlling larval developmental plasticity. Under adverse environmental conditions, *C. elegans* L1 stage larvae can enter an alternate stress-resistant diapause state during which metabolism and reproductive physiology are arrested(Golden and Riddle, 1984). The transition into diapause is accompanied by adaptations that enable the larva to endure and survive deleterious conditions. Dauer larvae possess thickened cuticles, enlarged intestinal lipid droplets, arrested gonad development, and are radially constricted compared to their reproductive L3 stage counterparts (Cassada and Russell, 1975). They also exhibit dauer stage-specific behaviors such as nictation, carbon dioxide attraction, and cessation of pharyngeal pumping (Cassada and Russell, 1975; Hallem et al., 2011; Lee et al., 2011). Once in the dauer stage, larvae can survive for several months without food and can revert to the reproductive trajectory at any point during this period should a favorable shift in external conditions occur (Cassada and Russell, 1975; Klass and Hirsh, 1976). The *C. elegans* larval decision to enter diapause is informed by multimodal sensory cues

(Figure 1A). Coincident detection of high pheromone concentrations, high temperatures, and low food

availability by the larval sensory apparatus triggers diapause entry (Golden and Riddle, 1982; 1984). *C.*

elegans constitutively secretes a mixture nematode-specific glycosides called ascarosides that

comprise dauer larvae-inducing pheromone, which serves as a measure of local conspecific

competition for limited resources (Butcher et al., 2008; Jeong et al., 2005; Pungaliya et al., 2009).

These small-molecule ascarosides bind to seven transmembrane domain receptors located in

chemosensory neuron cilia to trigger intracellular signaling cascades that alter neuronal activity (Kim et

al., 2009; McGrath et al., 2011).

The majority of previous literature on the neural control of *C. elegans* diapause entry has

focused on the contributions of sensory neurons. Systematic laser and genetic ablations of sensory

neuron classes have revealed that six of the eleven amphid chemosensory neuron classes mediate

diapause entry (Bargmann and Horvitz, 1991; Kim *et al.*, 2009; Schackwitz et al., 1996). In *C. elegans*,

sensory neurons are also the main sources of neuroendocrine ligands like DAF-7/TGF-ß (ASI neurons)

and neuromodulators like serotonin (ADF neurons) that promote reproductive growth by acting on

multiple tissues (Schackwitz *et al.*, 1996; Sze et al., 2000). It is thus plausible that sensory layer circuits

account for all integrative computations of multimodal stimuli, which then bypasses interneuron

processing by directly executing secretory signaling pathways to influence developmental fate. In

contrast, *C. elegans* neurobehavioral studies generally involve a hierarchical organization of information

flow from the sensory layer to interneurons and finally to effector motor neurons (Figure 1B; Faumont et

al., 2012). The first layer amphid interneurons AIA, AIB, AIY, and AIZ are so termed because they

receive extensive synaptic inputs from sensory neurons residing within the amphid organ in the head

(White et al., 1986). They then relay this information to the second layer amphid interneurons RIA, RIB,

and RIM, which are presynaptic to command-like interneurons (White et al., 1986).

In this study, we combine classical genetics methods with chemogenetics, calcium imaging, and

precision genome editing to examine whether a similar circuit hierarchy is involved in controlling *C.*

elegans developmental plasticity (Figure 1B). To model the stressful dauer-inducing conditions

encountered by *C. elegans* in the wild, we incubated developing larvae at elevated temperatures while

continuously exposing them to crude pheromone extract and a low-quality, limited food source (Lee et

al., 2017). The number of larvae that developed into dauers and non-dauer reproductive adults were

scored and used to calculate a dauer formation index value for each assay plate (see Methods). A

more positive index value indicates a greater tendency to form dauers while a more negative index

value denotes a preference for entering the reproductive developmental trajectory. We find that the AIA

interneurons contribute to developmental fate choice by integrating conspecific cues and propagating

this information via neuropeptide signaling, in particular by the RF-amide neuropeptide encoded by *flp-*

2. AIA-derived FLP-2 signaling promotes reproductive growth and is inhibited by upstream

glutamatergic signaling via the metabotropic glutamate receptor MGL-1. FLP-2 signaling, which we

show antagonizes insulin-like INS-1 signaling, is mediated by the downstream neuropeptide G-protein

coupled receptor NPR-30, expressed in neurons and the intestine. Furthermore, AIA's major

postsynaptic partners, the NPR-9/GALR2-expressing AIB interneurons, promotes diapause entry

suggesting an antagonistic relationship between both interneuron classes in this decision-making

paradigm. Our findings reveal a role for the first layer amphid interneurons in coupling sensory stimuli

detection to downstream neuropeptide pathways mediating inter-tissue signaling during developmental

decision-making.

RESULTS

AIA inhibition recapitulates the increased dauer formation phenotype of a *flp-2* mutant

To investigate if AIA activity affects larval developmental trajectory, we pharmacologically

silenced AIA by expressing the *Drosophila* histamine-gated chloride channel HisCl1 (Pokala et al.,

2014). *C. elegans* neither synthesizes nor uses histamine as an endogenous neurotransmitter (Chase

and Koelle, 2007). We constitutively silenced AIA by growing AIA::*HisCl1* animals on plates containing

histamine and compared dauer formation with animals of the same genotype grown on control plates

without histamine. We found that a significantly higher proportion of AIA-silenced animals entered

diapause compared to the negative control, indicating that AIA promotes entry into the reproductive

growth trajectory (Figure 1C).

As AIA inhibition increases dauer formation, AIA likely promotes reproductive growth. Given the

relatively long timescale of the diapause entry decision, we considered the role of modulatory

neuropeptides. The *flp* gene family encodes FMRFamide-like neuropeptides, some of which have been

implicated in regulating pheromone-induced dauer formation (Lee *et al.*, 2017). Similar to chemogenetic

silencing of AIA, *flp-2*(*ok3351*) mutants form more dauers compared to wild-type controls (Figure 1D;

Lee *et al.*, 2017). The *ok3351* allele harbors a deletion that removes the first exon of both predicted *flp-*

2 transcripts and is thus likely to be a null mutation. *flp-2* expression has been reported in the AIA, RID,

PVW, I5 and MC neurons (Kim and Li, 2004). A transcriptional reporter containing a truncated 2 kb

fragment of upstream regulatory sequence 5' to the *flp-2* start codon fused to GFP was expressed

strongly and consistently in a single pair of neurons in the head during the L1 stage (Figure 1E). We

identified this pair of neurons as the AIA interneurons based on GFP expression colocalization with a

nuclear-localized AIA-specific mCherry marker (Figure 1E; Shinkai et al., 2011).

AIA-derived FLP-2 promotes larval entry into the reproductive growth trajectory

To determine if FLP-2 mediates AIA's reproductive growth-promoting role, we expressed *flp-2*

cDNA specifically in AIA where it was sufficient to rescue the *flp-2(-)* dauer formation phenotype (Figure

2A). Some non-neuronal GFP expression was also visible in the intestine of the *flp-2* transcriptional

GFP reporter but intestine-specific *flp-2* cDNA expression did not affect *flp-2(-)* mutant dauer formation

(Figure S1). Since loss of FLP-2 signaling in the *flp-2(-)* mutant leads to increased dauer formation, we

wondered if an excess of the neuropeptide would have the opposite effect on larval development.

Indeed, AIA-specific overexpression of *flp-2* cDNA resulted in reduced dauer formation compared to

control animals (Figure 2C).

To confirm that FLP-2 peptides are secreted by AIA, we fused mCherry to the C-terminus of

FLP-2 precursors expressed in AIA. We detected both diffuse and vesicular mCherry expression in

AIA's soma, which was visualized by soluble GFP (Figure 2D). In *C. elegans,* secreted proteins are

released into the pseudocoelom and endocytosed by the coelomocyte scavenger cells (Fares and

Greenwald, 2001). The six coelomocyte scavenger cells are located in three pairs along the animal's

body. During the L1 stage, we observed strong mCherry signal within GFP-expressing coelomocyte

cells indicating FLP-2 peptide release and uptake (Figure 2E). Taken together, these results indicate

that FLP-2 is an AIA-secreted signal that promotes reproductive development.

Pheromone activates ASK and ADL sensory neurons but inhibits downstream AIA interneurons

The AIA interneurons make several chemical and electrical synaptic connections with the

amphid chemosensory neuron classes including ASK and ADL, which mediate adult responses to

certain ascarosides (Figure 3A; Jang et al., 2012; Macosko et al., 2009; White *et al*., 1986). Laser

microbeam ablation and mutant analysis of ASK and ADL indicate that these sensory neurons promote

dauer formation (Bargmann and Horvitz, 1991; Kim et al., 2009; Schackwitz et al., 1996). To examine

the relationship between sensory neuron activity and dauer formation, we silenced ASK and ADL by

selective expression of *Drosophila* HisCl1. Silencing of either neuron class reduced dauer formation

suggesting that ASK and ADL activity promotes diapause entry (Figure 3B,D). We note that the effect

size of ADL silencing is smaller compared to ASK silencing suggesting a subtler physiological

contribution by ADL during dauer formation. In adult animals, ASK intracellular calcium levels are

decreased by exposure to synthetic ascaroside cocktails that mediate adult aggregation (Macosko et

al., 2009). However, the crude pheromone extract used in this study is a mixture of ascaroside

components in naturally-occurring proportions whose synergistic effects might elicit different responses.

We sought to determine if and how crude pheromone extract modulates ASK and ADL responses by

delivering a time-locked pheromone stimulus to restrained L4 stage animals expressing the genetically-

encoded calcium sensor GCaMP6s in both neuron classes (Chen et al., 2013). Pheromone delivery

was accompanied by a fast, robust increase in intracellular calcium levels in ASK and ADL indicating

that both sensory neuron classes detect and are activated by crude pheromone (Figure 3C,E). In

addition, both paired partners of each sensory neuron class displayed symmetric responses to

pheromone delivery (Figure 3C,E).

AIA is depolarized when animals are presented with synthetic ascaroside mixtures (Macosko et

al., 2009). To probe if AIA responds similarly to crude pheromone extract, we delivered pheromone to

physically-restrained L4 animals expressing GCaMP6s in AIA only. We first recorded calcium influx

changes in AIA's soma and could not detect any significant changes in AIA activity during pheromone

delivery (Figure S2). As *C. elegans* interneurons exhibit compartmentalized calcium dynamics, we next

measured GCaMP fluorescence changes in the AIA processes within the nerve ring where synaptic

connections are densely concentrated (Hendricks et al., 2012). In our microfluidics setup, AIA is

frequently quiescent with only 20% of all animals assayed displaying any process activity during

experiments. In this fraction of animals, pheromone delivery consistently suppressed spontaneous AIA

process activity and removal of the pheromone stimulus was followed by a post-inhibitory activity

rebound that was greater in amplitude compared to before pheromone delivery (Figure 3F). Thus, AIA

activity is inhibited by crude pheromone extract. Furthermore, the opposite responses to pheromone of

ASK and ADL compared to AIA implies that ASK and ADL make inhibitory connections to downstream

AIA interneurons.

The AWA olfactory sensory neurons sense and mediate *C. elegans* chemoattraction to the

odorant diacetyl, and are gap-junctioned to AIA (Figure 3A; Bargmann et al., 1993; White et al., 1986).

Diacetyl is a bacterial metabolite and might serve as a growth-promoting food signal to the

bacteriovorous *C. elegans*. An AND-gate logic model of AIA integrative function has previously been

proposed where coincident inhibition of glutamatergic chemosensory neurons including ASK and

activation of AWA by diacetyl leads to robust AIA activation in adult animals (Dobosiewicz et al., 2019).

We wondered if exposure to diacetyl concentrations that mediate adult behavioral responses might bias

larval development towards the reproductive trajectory under our pheromone dauer-inducing assay

conditions. However, we found that diacetyl exposure throughout the assay duration did not affect

dauer formation compared to control assays with ethanol diluent only (Figure 3G). Behavioral

responses to diacetyl differ between larval and adult *C. elegans*, with larvae displaying a weaker

response (Fujiwara et al., 2016). Thus, stage-specific differences in sensory processing might account

for the lack of developmental effects of diacetyl exposure in our dauer formation assays. Furthermore,

the longer timescale of diacetyl exposure during dauer formation assays might also affect sensory

neuron-to-AIA circuit dynamics differently compared to acute diacetyl presentation in a microfluidics

device (Dobosiewicz et al., 2019).

FLP-2 signaling is inhibited by upstream glutamatergic transmission via the metabotropic glutamate receptor MGL-1

Although glutamate is the major excitatory neurotransmitter in the vertebrate central nervous system, glutamate can also have inhibitory effects depending on the type of glutamate receptors present in the postsynaptic membrane. ASK and ADL are glutamatergic sensory neurons (Serrano-Saiz et al., 2013). AIA expresses both the fast ionotropic glutamate-gated chloride channel GLC-3 and the slow G-protein coupled metabotropic glutamate receptor MGL-1 (Dillon et al., 2006; Greer et al., 2008; Horoszok et al., 2001; Taylor et al., 2021). Thus, it is likely that glutamatergic transmission from upstream ASK and ADL sensory neurons affects AIA-mediated FLP-2 signaling during developmental decision-making.

To test this hypothesis, we first determined if *glc-3(-)* mutants had a dauer formation phenotype. Interestingly, *glc-3(-)* mutants exhibited a wider spectrum of developmental phenotypes compared to the binary reproductive adult or arrested dauer phenotypic outcomes observed for other strains in this study. Under pheromone dauer-inducing conditions, *glc-3(-)* mutants also produce a third developmentally-arrested partial dauer phenotype that exhibits lighter-colored bodies and is not as radially-constricted as full dauers (Vowels and Thomas, 1992). *glc-3(-)* partial dauers also display pharyngeal pumping and active locomotory behavior. The intermediate partial dauer phenotype arises from either incomplete tissue remodeling during diapause entry or an inability to maintain complete tissue remodeling once in the dauer stage. When considering both partial dauers and dauers as having entered diapause, *glc-3(-)* mutants enter diapause at levels comparable to control animals (Figure 4A). If partial dauers are considered "non-dauers" that do not meet the criteria for dauer formation, then *glc-3(-)* mutants exhibit a reduced dauer formation phenotype (Figure 4B). *flp-2(-)*; *glc-3(-)* double mutants had an additive dauer formation phenotype significantly different from both the *flp-2(-)* and *glc-3(-)* single mutant controls (Figure 4B). Moreover, *flp-2(-)*; *glc-3(-)* double mutants form partial dauers at a level comparable to *glc-3(-)* single mutants. Taken together, these results argue against a role for inhibitory glutamatergic transmission via GLC-3 in regulating FLP-2 signaling during dauer formation (Figure 4B).

In contrast, *mgl-1(-)* mutants do not form partial dauers under pheromone dauer-inducing conditions. We found that fewer *mgl-1(-)* mutants developed into dauers compared to control animals suggesting that glutamatergic transmission via MGL-1 promotes pheromone-induced dauer formation (Figure 4C, Figure S3). MGL-1 shares sequence similarity with the mammalian group II inhibitory metabotropic glutamate receptors, suggesting that ASK and ADL glutamatergic transmission might suppress AIA and FLP-2 signaling (Dillon *et al.*, 2006). If FLP-2 signaling is downstream of MGL-1-

mediated glutamatergic transmission, we would expect the *flp-2(-)* mutant's increase in dauer formation
to mask the *mgl-1(-)* mutant's reduction in dauer formation phenotype in the double mutant, displaying
epistasis. As *mgl-1* and *flp-2* genes are on the same chromosome, we generated a *flp-2(-)*; *mgl-1(-)*
double mutant by CRISPR mutagenesis of the *mgl-1* locus in a *flp-2(-)* mutant background (see
Methods). The *flp-2(-)*; *mgl-1(-)* double mutant phenocopied the *flp-2(-)* single mutant's increased dauer
formation phenotype indicating that *flp-2* is in the same genetic pathway as *mgl-1* and acts downstream
(Figure 4C). Our results suggest that FLP-2 signaling is inhibited by glutamatergic transmission via the
metabotropic glutamate receptor MGL-1.
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The broadly-expressed neuropeptide receptor NPR-30 is downstream of FLP-2 signaling
We next focused on identifying downstream elements of the AIA-mediated developmental
decision-making circuit. *In vitro* studies indicate that peptides cleaved from the FLP-2 precursor protein
bind to the G-protein coupled neuropeptide receptor FRPR-18 in a heterologous mammalian cell
expression system (Larsen et al., 2013). However, *frpr-18(-)* mutants had a decreased dauer formation
phenotype (Figure 5A). Furthermore, *flp-2(-)*; *frpr-18(-)* double mutants exhibit an additive phenotype
that is significantly different from both the *flp-2(-)* and *frpr-18(-)* single mutant controls (Figure 5A).
These results indicate that *flp-2* and *frpr-18* are not in the same genetic pathway in the context of dauer
formation. We continued our search for potential downstream receptor mediators of FLP-2 signaling by
testing neuropeptide G-protein coupled receptor mutants that have an increased dauer formation
phenotype for their ability to completely suppress the *flp-2* overexpression reduced dauer formation
phenotype; this screen identified *npr-30* (Figure 5B). Thus, *npr-30* is downstream of *flp-2* in the same
pathway mediating the diapause entry decision.
To determine where *npr-30* is expressed, we generated a *npr-30* translational reporter
containing an 8.5 kb *npr-30* genomic fragment linked to GFP by an SL2-spliced intercistronic region.
During the L1 stage, GFP was broadly expressed in the nervous system as well as in the intestine
(Figure 5C). In the nervous system, we observed expression in sensory neurons, interneurons, and
motor neurons, suggesting that FLP-2 signaling exerts its global modulatory effects via NPR-30 (Figure
5D). Besides acting on other targets, FLP-2 might also mediate an AIA autoregulatory positive
feedback loop to drive and sustain commitment to reproductive growth under favorable conditions.
However, our *npr-30* translational GFP reporter did not colocalize with an AIA-specific mCherry marker
in L1 larvae, suggesting this motif is unlikely (Figure 5E).
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Insulin-like growth factor INS-1 and FLP-2 have antagonistic roles in developmental decision-
making

The insulin signaling pathway is an evolutionarily-conserved regulator of energy homeostasis

and metabolism. In mammals, insulin signaling promotes lipid storage and inhibits the breakdown of fat

(Huang et al., 2020). In *C. elegans*, the larval transition into diapause entails increased lipid storage

and decreased fat metabolism to facilitate long-term survival under resource-scarce conditions (Ashrafi,

2007). In addition to *flp-2*, AIA co-expresses the insulin-related growth factor-encoding *ins-1* (Kodama

et al., 2006). In adult animals, AIA-specific INS-1 release mediates normal turning behavior during

odor-evoked local search (Chalasani et al., 2010). Therefore, we decided to investigate if AIA-derived

INS-1 might play a role in dauer formation. Under pheromone dauer-inducing conditions, *ins-1(-)*

mutants exhibited a decreased dauer formation phenotype indicating that INS-1 signaling promotes

diapause entry (Figure 6A). Furthermore, the *flp-2(-)*; *ins-1(-)* double mutant displayed an additive

phenotype that was significantly different from both the *flp-2(-)* and *ins-1(-)* single mutant phenotypes,

suggesting that these neuropeptides act in independent genetic pathways (Figure 6A). To determine if

AIA-derived INS-1 promotes dauer entry, we expressed *ins-1* cDNA in an AIA-specific manner in an

ins-1(-) mutant background and found that it did not affect the *ins-1(-)* mutant's dauer formation

phenotype (Figure 6B). As *ins-1* is expressed in many other neuron classes besides AIA, we propose

that INS-1 secretion by other neuron classes antagonizes AIA-derived FLP-2 signaling during

pheromone-induced dauer formation (Figure 6C; Kodama *et al.*, 2006).

AIB interneurons and their neuropeptide receptor NPR-9/GALR2 promote diapause entry

The AIB interneurons are AIA's main postsynaptic partners and the strong unidirectional

synaptic connection from AIA to AIB is likely to be inhibitory based on their opposite functions in

behavioral studies (Wakabayashi et al., 2004). Furthermore, AIA is cholinergic and AIB expresses the

ACC-1 acetylcholine-gated chloride channel (Pereira et al., 2015; Putrenko et al., 2005; Taylor et al.,

2021). However, AIB also expresses excitatory glutamate receptors and receives synaptic inputs from

glutamatergic sensory neurons including the pheromone-sensing ADL (Brockie et al., 2001; Serrano-

Saiz et al., 2013; White et al., 1986). This observation suggests that excitatory glutamatergic and

inhibitory cholinergic neurotransmission from the sensory layer and other pre-motor interneurons,

respectively, might compete to shape AIB responses under different environmental conditions.

Pharmacological silencing of AIB reduced dauer formation suggesting that the AIA and AIB first

layer interneurons have antagonistic effects on larval developmental choice (Figure 7A). *npr-9* encodes

a neuropeptide G-protein coupled receptor that is homologous to human galanin receptor 2 (GALR2)

and is expressed in the AIB neurons where it mediates adult foraging behavior (Bendena et al., 2008).

npr-9(-) mutants assayed for pheromone-induced dauer formation recapitulated the AIB-silenced

decreased dauer formation phenotype suggesting that AIB's diapause entry-promoting role involves

NPR-9 signaling (Figure 7B). We used a genetic epistasis test to determine whether FLP-2 and NPR-9

mediate related or independent signaling pathways. As *npr-9* and *flp-2* are also on the same

chromosome, we used a similar CRISPR-based strategy as with the *flp-2(-)*; *mgl-1(-)* strain discussed

above to generate a *flp-2(-)*; *npr-9(-)* double mutant. The *flp-2(-)*; *npr-9(-)* double mutant phenocopied

the *flp-2(-)* single mutant's increased dauer formation phenotype indicating that *flp-2* is downstream of

npr-9 in the same genetic pathway that influences developmental fate (Figure 7B). The decreased

dauer formation phenotype of AIB-silenced animals suggests that AIB is activated by adverse

environmental cues that promote dauer formation. However, neither AIB's process nor soma exhibited

any activity changes in response to acute pheromone delivery in a microfluidics device (Figure 7C,

Figure S4). The absence of any AIB response to pheromone presentation alone suggests that AIB

activity might be gated by additional sensory inputs that could interact with the pheromone stimulus. As

L4 stage animals were used for calcium imaging experiments, it is also possible that stage-specific

synaptic connectivity differences might underlie the observed discrepancies between dauer formation

assay results and functional imaging data.

DISCUSSION

Here, we show that a pair of interneurons controls the switch between different larval

developmental trajectories depending on prevailing environmental conditions. Under favorable

conditions, AIA is active and secretes FLP-2 neuropeptides, which promotes reproductive growth

(Figure 8A). FLP-2 signaling is mediated by the neuropeptide receptor NPR-30 which is broadly

expressed in neurons and the intestine (Figure 8A). As conspecific population density and competition

for limited resources increases, the concentration of secreted pheromone in the local area also

increases. These pheromone cues activate the ASK and ADL sensory neurons, which suppress

downstream AIA interneuron activity (Figure 8B). FLP-2 signaling is inhibited by upstream

glutamatergic transmission mediated by the metabotropic glutamate receptor MGL-1 resulting in more

larvae choosing to enter diapause (Figure 8B). Thus, we have discovered how salient sensory cues are

transduced by an integrative interneuron into neuropeptidergic signals that shape larval developmental

decision-making. We further expand this decision-making circuit by functionally implicating the AIB

interneurons, AIA's main postsynaptic partners, and their NPR-9/GALR2 neuropeptide receptor in

promoting diapause entry (Figure 8C).

Diapause entry can be maladaptive if an incorrect assessment of environmental conditions is

made since dauer larvae can take up to 20 hours to fully re-enter the trajectory leading to reproductive

adulthood (Cassada and Russell, 1975). The metabolic costs of physiological remodeling coupled with

the delay in nutritional intake (dauers are non-feeding) can negatively impact future reproductive

success. Thus, we would expect such an important calculation to be under the control of complex,

distributed regulatory networks as opposed to relying on a more efficient sparse-coding scheme that is

less robust when challenged with noisy inputs from nature. There are likely to be more neuron classes

involved in this circuit, especially other interneurons that lie at the confluence of multiple upstream

sensory modalities and have neuromodulatory capabilities. A key motivation behind this study was to

determine if information flow during developmental decision-making followed the same generalized

hierarchical structure as behavior. Based on our findings, the interneuron layer does contribute to the

diapause entry decision in an integrative capacity; it would be interesting to see whether interneuron-

derived signals eventually feed back to the sensory layer, which then executes terminal effector

pathways that 'locks in' larval fate.

The results of our microfluidics experiments show that acute inhibition of AIA by pheromone is

followed by a sharp increase in calcium influx immediately after pheromone delivery is terminated. This

observed post-inhibitory increase in AIA activity appears to contradict our functional dauer formation

assay results which suggest that dauer-inducing environmental conditions inhibit AIA-derived FLP-2

signaling. However, the AIA response to acute pheromone presentation is likely to be mediated by the

fast ionotropic glutamate-gated GLC-3 chloride channel. Based on our epistasis analysis results, FLP-2

signaling is largely mediated by the slower-acting metabotropic MGL-1 receptor. Larvae are also

exposed to lower pheromone concentrations over longer timescales during dauer formation assays

compared to the microfluidics setup. Furthermore, larvae encounter other multimodal sensory cues

such as temperature and food during dauer formation assays, which might interact with and modulate

the neuronal response to pheromone. Thus, post-inhibitory activity rebounds driven by acute neuronal

inhibition might not actually be occurring during the actual diapause entry decision-making process.

While acute pheromone delivery is useful for identifying the valence of a neuron's response to the

stimulus, it is clearly insufficient to accurately determine larval neuronal dynamics over

developmentally-relevant timescales. Advances in long-term functional imaging of neurons in larvae

cultured in agarose microchambers might well be useful for this application (Bringmann, 2011; Turek et

al., 2015).

Neuropeptide signaling is an ancient inter-tissue communication mechanism that regulates

animal behavioral and physiological states (Elphick et al., 2018). In *C. elegans*, individual neuron

classes and non-neuronal tissue types express a constellation of neuropeptides and neuropeptide

receptors underscoring the vastness and complexity of extrasynaptic neurohormonal networks present

in a simple organism (Taylor et al., 2021). The arrested dauer organismal phenotype arises from

coordinated multi-tissue remodeling driven by individual fate decisions computed at the cellular level. In

this study, we discovered that developmentally-relevant sensory inputs likely spatially bifurcate

downstream of AIA-mediated FLP-2 signaling at the NPR-30 neuropeptide receptor, which is expressed

in the intestine in addition to other neuron classes and thus has the hallmarks of a fan-out circuit motif.

Future studies comparing the roles of NPR-30-mediated signaling between neuronal and intestinal cell

types during diapause entry might yield insights into the mechanisms of tissue-specific neuropeptide

modulation. Insulin/insulin-like growth factor (IGF) signaling is a similarly conserved inter-tissue

communication pathway (Garofalo, 2002; Murphy and Hu, 2013). The DAF-2 receptor tyrosine kinase is

the only insulin/IGF receptor encoded by the *C. elegans* genome and is expressed in the intestine and

nervous system (Hunt-Newbury et al., 2007; Kimura et al., 2011; Kimura et al., 1997). *daf-2* loss-of-

function mutants have an increased dauer formation phenotype indicating that the INS-1 ligand

antagonizes DAF-2 receptor signaling (Kimura et al., 1997). We have shown that FLP-2 and INS-1

mediate antagonistic signaling pathways during pheromone-induced diapause entry, and they likely

converge on intestinal cells that co-express NPR-30 and DAF-2. This discovery is concordant with the

intestine being a key target tissue in the diapause entry decision, and we have demonstrated a neural

pathway from sensory transduction to this target tissue (Hung et al., 2014).

Obesity is an increasingly prevalent disease characterized by excessive levels of body adiposity

and is itself a risk factor for other debilitating medical conditions such as cancer, diabetes, and heart

disease (Blüher, 2019). G-protein coupled receptors are important regulators of metabolism and energy

homeostasis, and mutations in genes encoding these metabotropic receptors are associated with

altered risk for developing obesity (Akbari et al., 2021; Oliveira de Souza et al., 2021). It is striking that

in the neural pathway regulating *C. elegans* larval developmental plasticity identified here, all receptors

involved are G-protein coupled metabotropic receptors (MGL-1, NPR-30, NPR-9). This highlights a

conserved role for metabotropic receptors in establishing and maintaining chronic metabolic and

physiological states, the dysfunction of which can have profound effects on an organism's life history.

The metabotropic glutamate receptor MGL-1 mediates foraging behavior and reproductive

plasticity in adult *C. elegans*, and is expressed in just four interneuron classes AIA, RMD, AIY, and

NSM (Jeong and Paik, 2017; López-Cruz et al., 2019). Here, we show that MGL-1 plays a critical role in

establishing an alternative larval phenotype over developmentally-relevant timescales by inhibiting

growth-promoting FLP-2 neuropeptide signaling. MGL-1 is similar in sequence to the mammalian group

II glutamate metabotropic receptors mGluR2 and mGluR3, which are expressed in the hypothalamus

and pituitary gland (Durand et al., 2008). When activated by glutamate binding, the group II mGluRs

inhibit cyclic AMP production as a result of their negative coupling to adenylyl cyclase resulting in

inhibition of the receptor-expressing neuron (Cartmell and Schoepp, 2000). In mammalian nervous

systems, the hypothalamus receives inputs from multiple sensory modalities and integrates this wide

range of information to drive appropriate behavioral and physiological responses (Saper and Lowell,

2014). In particular, the hypothalamic-pituitary axis of transmission mediates many aspects of growth,

development, and the response to stressful stimuli through neuroendocrine regulation (Saper and

Lowell, 2014). In these brain regions, glutamatergic neurotransmission via group II mGluRs inhibits the

release of neuroendocrine factors (Durand et al., 2008; Scaccianoce et al., 2003). Similarly in *C.*

elegans, we find that the AIA interneurons act as an integrative hub that translates inhibitory

glutamatergic neurotransmission from the sensory layer into downregulation of neuropeptidergic

signaling that ultimately impacts energy metabolism, reproductive physiology, and organismal

morphology.

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was created with BioRender.com.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

Conceptualization – CMC, PWS. Methodology – CMC. Crude pheromone extraction and dauer

formation assays – CMC. Molecular cloning and transgenesis – CMC. Microscopy – CMC. CRISPR

mutagenesis – HP. Calcium imaging – MT, MS. Data analysis – CMC, MT, MS. CMC wrote the paper

with input from all authors. Funding acquisition – PWS, VV.

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DECLARATION OF INTERESTS

The authors declare no competing interests.

FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure 1. AIA inhibition recapitulates the increased dauer formation phenotype of a *flp-2* mutant.

(A) Schematic illustration showing different multimodal environmental inputs integrated by an L1 larva

during the diapause entry decision.

(B) Schematic illustration showing hierarchical organization of neural processing layers controlling *C.*
elegans behavior.
(C) Dauer formation assays for AIA::*HisCl1* animals grown on plates with and without histamine. N=9
population assays. Data represented as mean ± SEM, Welch's T-test, **p<0.01.
(D) Dauer formation assays for *flp-2(-)* mutants. N=5-6 population assays. Data represented as mean ±
SEM, Welch's T-test, *p<0.05.
(E) P*flp-2*::*GFP* colocalization with AIA-specific P*gcy-28*.d::*mCherry-H2B* marker in an L1 stage larva.
448

Figure 2. AIA-derived FLP-2 promotes larval entry into the reproductive growth trajectory.
(A) Dauer formation assays for AIA-specific *flp-2* cDNA expression in an *flp-2(-)* mutant background.
N=5 population assays. Data represented as mean ± SEM, ANOVA followed by Tukey HSD posthoc,
**p<0.01, n.s.=no significance.
(B) Dauer formation assays for AIA-specific *flp-2* cDNA overexpression. N=3 population assays. Data
represented as mean ± SEM, Welch's T-test, **p<0.01.
(C) P*flp-2*::*flp-2* cDNA::*mCherry* colocalization with AIA-specific P*gcy-28*.d::*GFP* in an L1 stage larva.
(D) FLP-2::mCherry accumulation within first pair of coelomocytes visualized with P*ofm-1*::*GFP* in an L1
stage larva.
458

Figure 3. Pheromone activates ASK and ADL sensory neurons but inhibits downstream
AIA interneurons.
(A) Schematic illustration of unweighted synaptic connections between ASK, ADL, AWA sensory
neurons and AIA.
(B) Dauer formation assays for ASK>*HisCl1* animals grown on plates with and without histamine. N=7-9
population assays. Data represented as mean ± SEM, Welch's T-test, ***p<0.001.
(C) ASK::*GCaMP6s* somatic average traces in response to pheromone delivery in microfluidics device.
L4 stage animals. Top panel – ASK (Left paired partner). Bottom panel – ASK (Right paired partner).
N=17 animals. Data represented as mean (thick black line) ± SEM (gray shading).
(D) Dauer formation assays for ADL::*HisCl1* animals grown on plates with and without histamine. N=8-
11 population assays. Data represented as mean ± SEM, Welch's T-test, *p<0.05.
(E) ADL::*GCaMP6s* somatic average traces in response to pheromone delivery in microfluidics device.
L4 stage animals. Top panel – ADL (Left paired partner). Bottom panel – ADL (Right paired partner).
N=17 animals. Data represented as mean (thick black line) ± SEM (gray shading).
(F) AIA::*GCaMP6s* process average trace in response to pheromone delivery in microfluidics device. L4
stage animals. N=5 animals. Data represented as mean (thick black line) ± SEM (gray shading).

(G) Dauer formation assays for N2 animals grown in presence of 2 µL ethanol or 2 µL 1:1000 diacetyl

diluted in ethanol. N=4 population assays. Data represented as mean ± SEM, Welch's T-test, n.s.=no

significance.

Figure 4. FLP-2 signaling is inhibited by upstream glutamatergic transmission via the

metabotropic glutamate receptor MGL-1

(A) Percentage of full dauers (red), partial dauers (gray), and reproductive adults (blue) formed during

dauer formation assays for N2 and *glc-3(-)* mutants. N=146 animals (N2) and 135 animals (*glc-3(-)*), 2

trials per genotype.

(B) Dauer formation assays for *flp-2(-); glc-3(-)* double mutant genetic epistasis analysis. N=3-4

population assays. Data represented as mean ± SEM, ANOVA followed by Tukey HSD posthoc,

*p<0.05, **p<0.01.

(C) Dauer formation assays for *flp-2(-); mgl-1(-)* double mutant genetic epistasis analysis. N=3-4

population assays. Data represented as mean ± SEM, ANOVA followed by Tukey HSD posthoc,

*p<0.05, ***p<0.001, n.s.=no significance.

Figure 5. The broadly-expressed neuropeptide receptor NPR-30 is downstream of FLP-2

signaling.

(A) Dauer formation assays for *flp-2(-); frpr-18(-)* double mutant genetic epistasis analysis. N=6-7

population assays. Data represented as mean ± SEM, ANOVA followed by Tukey HSD posthoc,

**p<0.01, ***p<0.001.

(B) Dauer formation assays for *npr-30(-)* suppression of AIA::*flp-2* cDNA overexpression. Only

transgenic animals counted. N=4-8 population assays. Data represented as mean ± SEM, ANOVA

followed by Tukey HSD posthoc, *p<0.05, ***p<0.001, n.s.=no significance.

(C) Representative image of *npr-30* translational GFP reporter (PS9109) expression in an L1 stage

larva. GFP expression present in nervous system and intestine. Left panel – GFP channel only. Right

panel – GFP and DIC channels merge.

(D) Representative image of *npr-30* translational GFP reporter (PS9152) expression in an L1 stage

larva. Strain injected with lower GFP reporter plasmid concentration than (C) to enable better

visualization of motor neurons located along the ventral side of the animal's body. GFP is expressed in

sensory neurons (white arrowhead pointing at dendritic processes extending towards nose tip),

interneurons, and motor neurons (white asterisk).

(E) Representative image showing AIA-specific P*gcy-28.d*::*mCherry-H2B* does not colocalize with an

npr-30 translational GFP reporter in an L1 stage larva. Top panel – GFP and mCherry channels merge.

Bottom panel – GFP, mCherry, and DIC channels merge.

Figure 6. Insulin-like growth factor INS-1 and FLP-2 have antagonistic roles in developmental

decision-making.

(A) Dauer formation assays for *flp-2(-); ins-1(-)* double mutant genetic epistasis analysis. N=3-4

population assays. Data represented as mean ± SEM, ANOVA followed by Tukey HSD posthoc,

**p<0.01, ***p<0.001.

(B) Dauer formation assays for AIA-specific *ins-1* cDNA expression in an *ins-1(-)* mutant background.

N=4 population assays. Data represented as mean ± SEM, ANOVA followed by Tukey HSD posthoc,

***p<0.001, n.s.=no significance.

(C) Schematic model showing antagonistic relationship between FLP-2 and INS-1 signaling during

diapause entry.

Figure 7. AIB interneurons and their neuropeptide receptor NPR-9/GALR2 promote diapause

entry.

(A) Dauer formation assays for AIB>*HisCl1* animals grown on plates with and without histamine. N=7

population assays. Data represented as mean ± SEM, Welch's T-test, ***p<0.001.

(B) Dauer formation assays for *flp-2(-); npr-9(-)* double mutant genetic epistasis analysis. N=2-4

population assays. Data represented as mean ± SEM, ANOVA followed by Tukey HSD posthoc,

*p<0.05, ***p<0.001, n.s.=no significance.

(C) AIB::*GCaMP6s* process average trace in response to pheromone delivery in microfluidics device.

L4 stage animals. N=13 animals. Data represented as mean (thick black line) ± SEM (gray shading).

Figure 8: AIA controls a neuropeptide switch between different larval developmental

trajectories.

(A and B) Schematic model of AIA-derived FLP-2 signaling pathway under different environmental

conditions: (A) Reproductive growth conditions and (B) Dauer-inducing conditions.

(C) Schematic model of neural circuit mediating the diapause entry decision including pheromone-

sensing neurons and interneurons identified in this study.

Supplementary Figure 1: Intestine-specific *flp-2* cDNA expression does not rescue *flp-2(-)*

mutant increased dauer formation phenotype.

Dauer formation assays for intestine-specific *flp-2* cDNA expression in an *flp-2(-)* mutant background.

N=3-4 population assays. Data represented as mean ± SEM, ANOVA followed by Tukey HSD posthoc,

*p<0.05, n.s.=no significance.

Supplementary Figure 2. AIA soma GCaMP response to pheromone delivery.

AIA::*GCaMP6s* somatic average traces in response to pheromone delivery in microfluidics device. L4

stage animals. Top panel – AIA (Left paired partner). Bottom panel – AIA (Right paired partner). N=5

animals. Data represented as mean (thick black line) ± SEM (gray shading).

Supplementary Figure 3. *mgl-1*(*tm1811*) deletion allele has a decreased dauer formation

phenotype.

Dauer formation assays for *mgl-1*(*tm1811*) mutants. N=4 population assays. Data represented as mean

± SEM, Welch's T-test, **p<0.01.

Supplementary Figure 4. AIB soma GCaMP response to pheromone delivery.

AIB::*GCaMP6s* somatic average traces in response to pheromone delivery in microfluidics device. L4

stage animals. Top panel – AIB (Left paired partner). Bottom panel – AIB (Right paired partner). N=13

animals. Data represented as mean (thick black line) ± SEM (gray shading).

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Animal maintenance and strains

562   Animals were cultivated at 21°C on standard nematode growth media (NGM) plates seeded with

Escherichia coli OP50 cultured in Luria-Bertani (LB) broth. The following strains were used in this study:

N2 (Bristol)

PS8919: *syEx1777*[P*flp-2*::*GFP*, P*gcy-28*.d::*mCherry-H2B*, P*ofm-1*::*RFP*]

PS9101: *syIs759*[P*gcy-28*.d::*HisCl1*::SL2::*GFP*, P*flp-2*::*flp-2* cDNA::*mCherry*, P*ofm-1*::*GFP*]

PS7370: *flp-2*(*ok3351*)

PS8968: *flp-2*(*ok3351*); *syEx1755*[P*flp-2*::*flp-2* cDNA::SL2::*GFP*, P*ofm-1*::*RFP*]

PS9150: *flp-2*(*ok3351*); *syEx1866*[P*ges-1*::*flp-2* cDNA::SL2::*GFP*, P*ofm-1*::*RFP*]

PS8735: *syEx1755*[P*flp-2*::*flp-2* cDNA::SL2::*GFP*, P*ofm-1*::*RFP*]

PS7866: *syIs493*[P*sra-9*::*cGAL*, P*ofm-1*::*RFP*]; *syIs371*[*UAS*::*HisCl1*::SL2::*GFP*, P*ofm-1*::*GFP*]

PS8159: *syIs540*[P*npr-9*::*cGAL*, P*ofm-1*::*RFP*]; *syIs371*[*UAS*::*HisCl1*::SL2::*GFP*, P*ofm-1*::*GFP*]

PS9006: *syEx1811*[P*sre-1*::*HisCl1*::SL2::*GFP*, P*ofm-1*::*RFP*]

PS8955: *syEx1793*[P*sra-9*::*GCaMP6s*, P*sre-1*::*GCaMP6s*, P*gcy-28*.d::*GCaMP6s*]

PS9111: *syIs761*[P*gcy-28*.d::*GCaMP6s*, P*myo-2*::*mCherry*]

PS8162: *syIs543*[P*npr-9*::*GCaMP6s*, P*ofm-1*::*RFP*]

RB594: *glc-3*(*ok321*)

PS8586: *npr-9*(*sy1417*)

PS8628: *flp-2*(*ok3351*); *npr-9*(*sy1429*)

PS9192: *mgl-1*(*sy1623*)

PS9193: *flp-2*(*ok3351*); *mgl-1*(*sy1624*)

FX01811: *mgl-1(tm1811)*

PS7624: *frpr-18*(*ok2698*)

PS7831: *flp-2*(*ok3351*); *frpr-18*(*ok2698*)

FX06617: *npr-30*(*tm6617*)

PS8931: *npr-30*(*tm6617*); *syEx1755*[P*flp-2*::*flp-2* cDNA::SL2::*GFP*, P*ofm-1*::*RFP*]

FX01888: *ins-1*(*tm1888*)

PS9137: *flp-2*(*ok3351*); *ins-1*(*tm1888*)

PS9147: *ins-1*(*tm1888*); *syEx1863*[P*gcy-28*.d::*ins-1* cDNA::SL2::*mCherry-H2B*, P*ofm-1*::*RFP*]

PS9109: *npr-30*(*tm6617*); *syEx1844*[P*npr-30*::*npr-30* genomic DNA::SL2::*GFP*, P*tax-4*::*mCherry-H2B*,

P*ofm-1*::*RFP*]

PS9152: *npr-30*(*tm6617*); *syEx1868*[P*npr-30*::*npr-30* genomic DNA::SL2::*GFP*, P*gcy-28*.d::*mCherry-*

H2B, P*ofm-1*::*RFP*]

Molecular biology and transgenesis

flp-2 and ins-1 cDNA were PCR amplified from N2 cDNA library. Promoters and *npr-30* genomic

DNA were PCR amplified from N2 genomic DNA library. *Drosophila HisCl1* was PCR amplified from

pJL046 (Wang et al., 2017). Constructs were inserted into pSM *GFP*, pSM *mCherry-H2B*, or pSM

GCaMP6s vector backbone using HiFi Assembly or restriction cloning. ASK>*HisCl1* and AIB>*HisCl1*

neuronal silencing strains were generated by placing a *15xUAS*::*HisCl1*::SL2::*GFP* effector under the

control of ASK and AIB-specific drivers respectively (Wang et al., 2017).

Transgenic strains were generated by microinjection of plasmids with co-injection markers into

adult worms. Plasmids were injected at 10-50 ng/µL. Co-injection markers were injected at: P*myo-*

2::*mCherry* (0.5 ng/µL), P*ofm-1*::*RFP* (40 ng/µL), P*ofm-1*::*GFP* (30-40 ng/µL). 1 kb DNA ladder was

used as a filler to bring final DNA concentration to 200 ng/µL.

CRISPR mutagenesis

608 CRISPR mutagenesis was performed as described in previously described(Wang et al., 2018).

609 Briefly, a 43-base-pair universal STOP-IN cassette was inserted near the 5' end of the target gene to

610 disrupt translation. Independent F2 homozygous animals were isolated using PCR detection and

611 confirmed with Sanger sequencing.

613 **Pheromone-induced dauer formation assays**

614 Crude dauer pheromone extract was prepared as previously described (Schroeder and Flatt,

615 2014). To control for differences in pheromone potency between batches, a pheromone dose response

616 curve was generated for each batch and the pheromone volume that yielded 50% dauer formation

617 under the experimental conditions described below was selected for dauer formation assays. 8% (w/v)

618 heat-killed OP50 was made by washing bacteria from an overnight culture with virgin S-basal,

619 resuspending with virgin S-basal, and killing at 95-100°C. The afternoon before experiments, L4 worms

620 were picked from well-fed stock plates onto seeded plates and grown overnight at 21°C. Pheromone of

621 desired volume was placed at the center of 35 mm Petri dishes and 2 mL of NGM agar without peptone

622 was poured into each plate. Plates were dried overnight on benchtop at 21°C. On the day of

623 experiments, pheromone plates were seeded with 2 µL heat-killed OP50 and adults animals were

624 allowed to lay 60-70 eggs per plate. Adults were then picked off and 18 µL of heat-killed OP50 added to

625 the plates. Once the food patch had completely dried, plates were sealed with parafilm and placed in a

626 25.5°C incubator for 72 hours. The number of dauers and non-dauers per plate were counted and the

627 Dauer Formation Index (DFI) per plate calculated using the following formula:

629 $$DFI = \frac{\text{No. of Dauers} - \text{No. of Non-dauers}}{\text{No. of Dauers} + \text{No. of Non-dauers}}$$

631 To make histamine plates, histamine dihydrochloride powder was mixed into NGM agar at

632 ~50°C to a final concentration of 10 mM and poured into Petri dishes with pheromone.

633 For dauer formation assays with diacetyl, assays were set up as described above. Before

634 parafilming, 2 µL of 200 proof ethanol or 2 µL or 1:1000 diacetyl diluted in ethanol was added to the

635 side of the food patch.

636 For experiments using extrachromosomal array transgenic lines, lines that had 70-80% array

637 transmission rates were selected for population assays. All animals on each plate were counted unless

638 noted otherwise. At least 3 population assays were completed for each control and genotype/treatment

639 (except for N2 controls in Figure 7B), with each assay containing 60-70 animals. Control and

640 genotype/treatment plates were always assayed simultaneously under the same conditions for

641 comparisons.

642
Microscopy

Animals were immobilized with 50 mM sodium azide on 2% agarose pads. Slides were imaged
under a ZEISS Imager.Z2 microscope attached to a Axiocam 506 mono camera capture source.
Images were processed using ZenPro software.

Calcium imaging

Microfluidic device fabrication

We designed a 2-layer microfluidic chip capable of delivering sequences of stimuli with a
worm trap suitable for housing worms at L4 larval stage. The chip was designed in AutoCAD software,
and sent to CAD/Art Services, Inc to print the photomask. Photolithography in a clean room was
performed on a silicon wafer to make the 2-layer mold from the photomask. For the first layer, which
included the worm trap, SU-8 2025 was spin coated on the silicon wafer at 4000 rpm to achieve 25 μm
thickness. For the second layer, the same photoresist was spin coated at 1250 rpm for a thickness of
70 μm. Polydimethylsiloxane (PDMS) was poured over the mold and cured on a 90°C hotplate to
solidify. Each PDMS chip was then punched with a 1 mm biopsy punch and was bonded to a cover
slip using a handheld corona treater.

Microfluidic experiment design

L4 stage animals were assayed and all experiments were conducted at 20°C. We chose 3
stimuli for the experiment: 10% (v/v) crude pheromone extract diluted in CTX buffer (5 mM
KH_2PO_4/K_2HPO_4 pH 6, 1 mM $CaCl_2$ and 1 mM $MgSO_4$, 50 mM NaCl) as the main stimulus, CTX buffer
as the control stimulus, and 0.01 mM Fluorescein to confirm chemical delivery. Each stimulus interval
was 15 seconds, sufficient time to capture the rise and fall of calcium transients. Stimulus interval was
then followed by a 30-second CTX buffer interval to give neurons enough time to return to baseline and
be ready for the next stimulus.

Data Analysis

For each animal, fluorescence was captured at 4 volumes/second, 25 z-slices/volume and 1.2
μm/slice and average background intensity was subtracted from each volume. To measure calcium
activity of the neuron's soma, average intensity of pixels within a 3.2 μm x 3.2 μm x 3.6 μm volume
around the center of the soma was calculated. To extract calcium activity of neuron processes, a 38 μm
x 38 μm x 24 μm rectangular volume surrounding the processes were identified at each timepoint,

pixels from the soma were removed from the volume and the average intensity of the remaining pixels

were calculated. F_0 was defined as average intensity during the 5-second window before the delivery of

pheromone.

STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

For dauer formation assays, unpaired Welch's T-test or ANOVA followed by Tukey HSD

posthoc analysis were used to determine statistically significant differences between groups. All

statistical analyses were performed in R. All plots were generated in Python.

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890

Figure 1

Figure 2

A

Dauer Formation Index

n.s.
**

N2   flp-2(-)   AIA::flp-2(+);
                   flp-2(-)

B

Dauer Formation Index

**

N2   AIA::flp-2(oe)

	GFP	mCherry	merge

C

AIA (L)

10 μm   10 μm   10 μm

D

First
coelomocyte
pair

10 μm   10 μm   10 μm

Figure 3

Figure 4

Figure 5

Figure 6

Figure 7

Figure 8

Figure S1

Figure S2

Figure S3

Figure S4