Avoidance of hydrogen sulfide is modulated by external and internal states in *C. elegans*

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Abstract

Hydrogen sulfide (H_2S) acts as an energy source, a toxin, and a gasotransmitter across diverse biological contexts. We use the robust locomotory responses of *Caenorhabditis elegans* to high levels of H_2S to elucidate the molecular mechanisms underlying its acute and adaptive responses. We find that the H_2S-evoked behavioral response is shaped by multiple environmental factors including oxygen (O_2) levels and nutritional state, and is modulated by various pathways such as insulin, TGF-β, and HIF-1 signaling, as well as by input from O_2-sensing neurons. Prolonged exposure to H_2S activates HIF-1 signaling, leading to the upregulation of stress-responsive genes, including those involved in H_2S detoxification. This promotes an adaptive state in which locomotory speed is reduced in H_2S, while responsiveness to other stimuli is preserved. In mutants deficient in HIF-1 signaling, iron storage, and detoxification mechanisms, animals display a robust initial response but rapidly enter a sleep-like behavior characterized by reduced mobility and diminished responsiveness to subsequent sensory stimuli. Furthermore, while acute production of mitochondria-derived reactive O_2 species (ROS) appears to initiate the avoidance response to H_2S, persistently high ROS promotes an adaptive state, likely by activating various stress-response pathways, without substantially compromising cellular H_2S detoxification capacity. Taken together, our study provides comprehensive molecular insights into the mechanisms through which *C. elegans* modulates and adapts its response to H_2S exposure.

Introduction

During the late Proterozoic era, the rise in oxygen (O_2) levels eliminated hydrogen sulfide (H_2S) from most habitats. Yet, low O_2 levels, along with high concentrations of hydrogen sulfide (H_2S) and carbon dioxide (CO_2), can persist in enclosed environments where bacteria actively decompose organic matter (Olson & Straub, 2016). H_2S can easily permeate biological membranes and interfere with various cellular processes. One of the most detrimental effects of H_2S is the disruption of cellular respiration by remodeling the mitochondrial electron transport chain and inhibiting cytochrome *c* oxidase (COX) (Cooper & Brown, 2008; Khan et al., 1990; Nicholls & Kim, 1982; Romanelli-Cedrez, Vairoletti, & Salinas, 2024).

The detection and response to chemical signals are crucial for various organisms to interact effectively with their environment. Animals living in H_2S-rich environments have evolved mechanisms to either avoid or adapt to these conditions, conferring them survival advantages. Species that encounter periodic increases in H_2S often exhibit avoidance behaviors. For example, benthic species undertake daily vertical migrations between sulfidic and non-sulfidic waters (Abel, Koenig, & Davis, 1987; Salvanes, Utne-Palm, Currie, & Braithwaite, 2011). Certain metazoan species have seized the ecological opportunities presented by H_2S-rich environments through the development of cellular adaptations. Livebearing fish species, for instance, have evolved COX subunits that are more resistant to H_2S and more efficient at H_2S detoxification (Kelley et al., 2016; Pfenninger et al., 2014).

Free-living nematodes feed on bacteria that thrive in decaying organic matter, such as compost. This complex and dynamic environment, where species like *C. elegans* are commonly found, may exhibit significant fluctuations in H_2S levels over short distances (Adams, Farwell, Pack, & Bamesberger, 1979; Budde & Roth, 2011; Morra & Dick, 1991; Patange, Breen, Arsuffi, & Ruvkun, 2025; Rodriguez-Kabana, Jordan, & Hollis, 1965; Romanelli-Cedrez et al., 2024). Evidence suggests that *C. elegans* has evolved tolerance to prolonged H_2S exposure by reprogramming gene expression through H_2S-induced stabilization of the hypoxia-inducible factor HIF-1 (Budde & Roth, 2010, 2011; Horsman, Heinis, & Miller, 2019; Ma, Vozdek, Bhatla, & Horvitz, 2012; Miller, Budde, & Roth, 2011; Powell-Coffman, 2010; Topalidou &

Miller, 2017), and by developing an H_2S-resistant electron transport chain (Romanelli-Cedrez

et al., 2024). In particular, low concentrations of H_2S are not only well tolerated but can also

be beneficial. For instance, exposure to 50 ppm H_2S has been shown to extend the lifespan and

enhance thermotolerance (Fawcett, Hoyt, Johnson, & Miller, 2015; Miller & Roth, 2007).

Moreover, endogenous H_2S production in *C. elegans* modulates its interactions with

actinobacteria (Patange et al., 2025). However, exposure to concentrations exceeding 150 ppm

proved lethal (Budde & Roth, 2010; Horsman et al., 2019).

In addition to long-term adaptive mechanisms, *C. elegans* exhibits an acute behavioral

response to H_2S exposure (Budde & Roth, 2011). In this study, we investigated whether and

how the nematode *C. elegans* acutely avoids environments rich in H_2S, how it adapts at the

molecular and physiological levels to H_2S exposure, and how these adaptations alter the

avoidance response.

Results

***C. elegans* increases locomotory activity in response to acute H_2S exposure**

In response to aversive cues, *C. elegans* initiates a pirouette followed by an increase of its

locomotory speed to escape the noxious stimuli. When acutely exposed to 150 ppm H_2S, the

laboratory N2 strain exhibited an increased locomotory speed and enhanced turning behavior,

while generally decreasing the frequency of reversals, as a strategy to escape the noxious

stimuli (***Figure 1A–C, Figure 1—Video 1***). The maximum speed was reached after 6–8

minutes in H_2S and returned to the baseline over a period of approximately 1 hour (***Figure 1D***).

The reduced locomotory speed after 30 minutes in 150 ppm H_2S was reversible when these

animals were immediately challenged with another stimulus, such as near-UV light (***Figure***

1E), suggesting that neuromuscular function remains preserved. The magnitude and dynamics

of the H_2S-induced avoidance responses were concentration-dependent. Under our assay

conditions, 50 ppm H_2S did not elicit an acute speed increase, and responses to 75 ppm were

variable. In contrast, exposure to 150 ppm H_2S consistently triggered a robust and reproducible

escape response (***Figure 1F***), consistent with earlier reports that H_2S at 50 ppm exerts

beneficial effects, while H_2S at 150 ppm is toxic to *C. elegans* (Budde & Roth, 2010; Fawcett

et al., 2015; Horsman et al., 2019; Miller & Roth, 2007). To investigate whether low levels of

H_2S might be preferable or even attractive to the animals, we exposed wild type animals to a

linear gradient of H_2S (*Figure 1G*; See methods for details) (Bretscher, Busch, & de Bono,

2008; Chang, Chronis, Karow, Marletta, & Bargmann, 2006; Gray et al., 2004). Animals were

allowed to move freely on a thin layer of bacteria within a microfluidic chamber containing an

H_2S gradient ranging from 150 ppm at one end to 0 ppm at the other. As expected, *C. elegans*

robustly avoids 150 ppm H_2S but does not accumulate at the extreme end of 0 ppm *(Figure 1G,*

H). The highest proportion of animals was found in the region with approximately 40 ppm H_2S.

These data suggest that H_2S acts as a potent repellent for *C. elegans* at high concentrations but

as an attractant at low levels.

Candidate gene screen identifies signaling pathways required for H_2S-evoked locomotion

To investigate the molecular mechanisms underlying the H_2S-evoked locomotory response in

C. elegans, we conducted a candidate gene screen for mutants that failed to increase their

locomotory speed upon exposure to an acute rise of H_2S level to 150 ppm. Our analysis

prioritized genes that are either known to be, or potentially involved in, sensory responses to

gaseous stimuli in both *C. elegans* and mammals (*Supplementary file 1*). We began by

examining mutants affecting globins, guanylate cyclases, and cyclic nucleotide-gated (CNG)

channels, which are involved in O_2 or CO_2 sensing in *C. elegans*, as well as wild isolates and

other previously characterized mutants with defective responses to gas stimuli (*Supplementary*

file 1) (Bretscher et al., 2008; Gray et al., 2004; Hallem & Sternberg, 2008; Persson et al., 2009).

Given the essential role of K^+ channels in acute hypoxia sensing in mammals, we also screened

all potassium (K^+) channel mutants (Gao, Gonzalez-Rodriguez, Ortega-Saenz, & Lopez-Barneo,

2017; Weir, Lopez-Barneo, Buckler, & Archer, 2005). To explore the neuronal components

involved in H_2S-evoked avoidance, we assayed mutants with defects in ciliogenesis or cilia-

mediated signaling, as well as animals deficient in neurotransmission involving classical

neurotransmitters, neuropeptides, or biogenic amines. Finally, considering that mitochondrial

function is central to H₂S detoxification, we included mitochondrial electron transport chain

(ETC) mutants and key factors implicated in H₂S and superoxide clearance. Together, these

functionally diverse categories allowed us to survey a wide spectrum of potential mechanisms

contributing to the behavioral response to H₂S.

In the screen, a collection of mutants displayed reduced speed response, whereas only

a few exhibited a lack of omega-turn and/or reversal responses to H₂S (***Supplementary file 1***).

The reversal inhibition upon H₂S exposure and its rebound following H₂S withdrawal appeared

to vary substantially across experiments for N2, suggesting that differences in population

density, food availability, and animals' physiological state prior to the assay may matter.

Nevertheless, our screen revealed that signaling pathways, including cGMP, insulin and TGF-

β signaling, contributed to H₂S-evoked avoidance (***Supplementary file 1***). A naturally

occurring variant of the neuropeptide receptor gene *npr-1*, previously implicated in the

modulation of O_2 and CO_2 responses, also affected locomotory speed in H₂S (***Supplementary***

file 1). In addition, mitochondrial components, including those involved in respiration and H₂S

detoxification, played critical roles in triggering and maintaining escape behavior in H₂S. In

contrast, we did not find evidence that globins, K^+ channels, or biogenic amine signaling

contributed significantly to the behavioral avoidance to H₂S (***Supplementary file 1***).

cGMP signaling in ASJ cilia contributes to H₂S avoidance

One group of mutants exhibiting reduced locomotory speed in H₂S had defects in ciliogenesis

(***Figure 2A–C***). This group included *daf-19* mutants lacking cilia, *dyf-3* mutants with reduced

cilia length, and *dyf-7* mutants in which ciliogenesis occurs but the cilia are not anchored to

their sensilla and are not exposed to the external environment (Heiman & Shaham, 2009;

Murayama, Toh, Ohshima, & Koga, 2005; Starich et al., 1995; Swoboda, Adler, & Thomas,

2000). These findings suggest that ciliogenesis and exposure of cilia to the external

environment are essential for animals to escape H₂S exposure. In addition, these mutants

exhibited consistently high reversal rate, likely associated with their reduced locomotory speed

(***Figure 2—figure supplement 1A–F***). Cilia-mediated sensory responses often involve the

activation of guanylate cyclases and the opening of cGMP-gated channels (Ferkey, Sengupta,

& L'Etoile, 2021). We observed significantly attenuated locomotory speed in response to H_2S

in *tax-4* or *tax-2* mutants, which lack key subunits of cilia-enriched cGMP-gated channels

(***Figure 2D, E***). In a comprehensive survey of all guanylate cyclase mutants, the *daf-11* strain

emerged as the only mutant showing speed response defects in the avoidance of H_2S (***Figure***

2D, supplementary file 1). Similar to the cilia mutants, animals deficient in *daf-11* had low

speed, attenuated omega turns, and constantly high reversal rate (***Figure 2D, Figure 2—figure***

supplement 1G, H). Selective expression of *daf-11* in ASJ neurons, but not in other neurons,

partially restored the speed response to acute H_2S (***Figures 2F, Figure 2—figure supplement***

2A–D). In addition, the H_2S response defect of *tax-4* mutants was also rescued by selective

expression of its cDNA in ASJ neurons (***Figure 2G***), suggesting that the receptor guanylate

cyclase DAF-11 and the CNG channel TAX-4 act at least partially in ASJ neurons to promote

acute avoidance to H_2S. To validate the role of ASJ neurons in H_2S responses, we blocked

neurotransmission from ASJ using the catalytic domain of *Tetanus Toxin (TeTx)*, which impairs

neurosecretion by specifically cleaving synaptobrevin (Schiavo et al., 1992). Cell-specific

expression of *TeTx* in ASJ significantly inhibited the speed response to H_2S ***(Figure 2H)***.

Surprisingly, using the Ca^{2+} sensor GCaMP6s to monitor a direct response of ASJ neurons to

H_2S, we observed no H_2S-induced Ca^{2+} transients under any of the tested conditions, whereas

CO_2-evoked Ca^{2+} increases were readily detected ***(Figure 2I, Figure 2—figure supplement***

2E). These findings suggest that although ASJ neuronal activity and neurosecretion contribute

to the H_2S responses, ASJ neurons are unlikely to play a role in directly detecting H_2S.

Starvation modulates H_2S avoidance

In the candidate gene screen, another set of mutants with reduced speed responses to H_2S had

previously been shown to be defective in response to CO_2 (Hallem & Sternberg, 2008).

Specifically, the H_2S-evoked speed response was reduced in mutants deficient in nutrient-

sensitive signaling, including the insulin receptor DAF-2, the TGF-β ligand DAF-7, and the

nuclear hormone receptor NHR-49 (***Figure 3A–C, Figure 3—figure supplement 1A***).

Similarly, mutants lacking other CO_2 response modulators, such as the calcineurin subunits

TAX-6 and CNB-1, also failed to respond to H_2S (*Figure 3—figure supplement 1B, C*). In

addition to the abolished speed response, we also observed that the H_2S-evoked omega-turn

response was nearly abolished in *daf-2* mutants, and high proportion of animals exhibited

persistently high reversal rate regardless of H_2S stimulation (*Figure 3—figure supplement 1D–*

F). The H_2S avoidance defects observed in *daf-2* and *daf-7* single mutants were fully

suppressed in *daf-2; daf-16* and *daf-7; daf-3* double mutants *(Figure 3A, B).* Therefore, it is

likely that insulin and TGF-β signaling modulate H_2S responses by regulating the expression

of relevant genes via DAF-16 and DAF-3 transcription factors, respectively. Given that H_2S-

evoked speed response was modulated by the nutrient-sensitive pathways, we further explored

whether the locomotory response to H_2S was sensitive to the nutrient state. Similar to the

response to CO_2 (Bretscher et al., 2008; Hallem & Sternberg, 2008), we observed that a 24-

hour period of starvation suppressed the speed response to H_2S *(Figure 3D).* However, the CO_2

sensor GCY-9 was dispensable for H_2S-evoked avoidance *(Figure 3—figure supplement 1G–*

I). These findings suggest that while acute avoidance of CO_2 and H_2S share common

modulatory pathways, the responses are initiated through distinct mechanisms.

The O_2 sensing circuit antagonizes H_2S avoidance in wild isolates

Wild strains of *C. elegans* thrive in environmental niches characterized by variable O_2, CO_2

and H_2S levels (Adams et al., 1979; Bretscher et al., 2008; Budde & Roth, 2011; Gea, Barrena,

Artola, & Sanchez, 2004; Hallem & Sternberg, 2008; Morra & Dick, 1991; Oshins, Michel,

Louis, Richard, & Rynk, 2022; Patange et al., 2025; Rodriguez-Kabana et al., 1965). Compared

to the laboratory reference strain N2, wild isolates display robust responses to high O_2 but

reduced sensitivity to CO_2 stimulation (Beets et al., 2020; Bretscher et al., 2008; Carrillo,

Guillermin, Rengarajan, Okubo, & Hallem, 2013; Hallem & Sternberg, 2008; Kodama-Namba

et al., 2013; McGrath et al., 2009). It is thought that the unique O_2 and CO_2 responses of N2

strain evolved during its domestication on solid media at atmospheric gas concentrations

(Sterken, Snoek, Kammenga, & Andersen, 2015). We hypothesized that wild *C. elegans* strains

might also exhibit an attenuated response to H_2S, and therefore included a set of wild strains in

our candidate gene screen. Consistent with this hypothesis, wild isolates including CB4855,

CB4856, and CB4858 exhibited reduced locomotory speed in H_2S (***Figure 3E, Figure 3—***

figure supplement 1J).

A naturally occurring variation in the neuropeptide receptor NPR-1 predominantly

determines the differences in locomotory responses to O_2 and CO_2 between the laboratory N2

strain and wild isolates. The NPR-1(215F) variant found in wild isolates is less active than the

NPR-1(215V) found in N2 animals (de Bono & Bargmann, 1998). We wondered whether the

variations in the *npr-1* gene also contribute to differences in the acute response to H_2S. The

absence of *npr-1* was sufficient to reduce the speed response to H_2S, suggesting that active

NPR-1 signaling promotes H_2S avoidance (***Figure 3F***). NPR-1(215V) primarily acts within the

RMG interneurons to modulate responses to environmental stimuli by inhibiting signal output

from these neurons (***Figure 3G***) (Laurent et al., 2015; Macosko et al., 2009). Cell-specific

expression of the highly active *npr-1(215V)* variant in RMG neurons effectively restored the

H_2S-evoked locomotory speed in *npr-1* null mutant worms (***Figure 3H***). Furthermore,

optogenetic stimulation of RMG interneurons using channelrhodopsin-2 (ChR2) significantly

dampened the locomotory response to H_2S in N2 animals, suggesting that high RMG activity

inhibits H_2S responses (***Figure 3—figure supplement 1K***).

The perception of 21% O_2 involves the soluble guanylate cyclases GCY-35/GCY-36

and the downstream cyclic nucleotide-gated (CNG) channels TAX-4/TAX-2 in the URX, AQR,

and PQR O_2-sensing neurons, which relay the signals to RMG (Busch et al., 2012; Cheung,

Cohen, Rogers, Albayram, & de Bono, 2005; Couto, Oda, Nikolaev, Soltesz, & de Bono, 2013;

Gray et al., 2004; Laurent et al., 2015; Persson et al., 2009; Zimmer et al., 2009). We

investigated whether disrupting the O_2 sensing machinery would have the same effect as

inhibiting RMG signaling pathway by NPR-1(215V). Mutating *gcy-35* and *tax-4*, or genetically

ablating the O_2 sensing neurons URX, AQR, and PQR by cell-specific expression of the pro-

apoptotic gene *egl-1* restored H_2S-evoked speed response in *npr-1* null mutants (***Figure 3I–K***).

Specific expression of *gcy-35* cDNA in O_2 sensing neurons was sufficient to repress this

response to H$_2$S in *npr-1; gcy-35* double mutants (***Figure 3L***). Finally, enhancing the

presynaptic activity of URX, AQR, PQR neurons by the expression of a gain-of-function PKC-

1(A160E) (Dekker, Mcintyre, & Parker, 1993; Hiroki et al., 2022) significantly dampened H$_2$S-

induced locomotory speed (***Figure 3—figure supplement 1L***). Taken together, these

observations indicate that activation of the O$_2$-sensing circuit inhibits the neural pathway

required for H$_2$S-evoked avoidance response.

H$_2$S exposure reprograms gene expression in *C. elegans*

Wild isolates that were relatively insensitive to H$_2$S exposure (***Figure 3E, Figure 3—figure***

supplement 1J) likely evolved adaptations to persist in environments where H$_2$S levels may

transiently increase (Budde & Roth, 2011; Patange et al., 2025; Rodriguez-Kabana et al., 1965;

Romanelli-Cedrez et al., 2024). These adaptations to H$_2$S are mediated, at least in part, by the

reprogramming of gene expression (Miller et al., 2011). To identify the genes whose expression

was induced by prolonged H$_2$S exposure, we conducted a comparative analysis of transcriptome

profiles in animals exposed to 50 ppm or 150 ppm H$_2$S for 1 hour, 2 hours, or 12 hours. RNA-

seq analysis revealed that exposure to either 50 ppm or 150 ppm H$_2$S for one hour was sufficient

to trigger significant changes in gene expression, with 518 or 304 genes showing differential

expression, respectively (***Figure 4A, Supplementary file 2***). Genes induced by H$_2$S exposure

for 1 or 2 hours displayed considerable overlap (***Figure 4B, Figure 4—figure supplement 1A***).

Gene Ontology (GO) analysis revealed that biological processes such as defense against

bacteria and cysteine biosynthesis from L-serine were significantly enriched after H$_2$S exposure

(***Figure 4C, D, Figure 4—figure supplement 1B, C***). As expected, we observed a robust

induction of genes involved in H$_2$S detoxification (***Figure 4E, F***) (Horsman & Miller, 2016;

Miller et al., 2011; Niu et al., 2011; Vora et al., 2022). H$_2$S is detoxified in mitochondria by

sulfide:quinone oxidoreductase SQRD-1 to produce persulfide, which is then metabolized by

sulfur dioxygenase ETHE-1 to generate sulfite. Thiosulfate transferase further oxidizes sulfite

to produce thiosulfate (Hildebrandt & Grieshaber, 2008). Glutathione S-transferases (GSTs)

remove accumulated sulfur molecules during H$_2$S oxidation (Jackson, Melideo, & Jorns, 2012).

Notably, *gst-19* and *sqrd-1* were among the most significantly upregulated genes after one or

two hours of exposure to either 50 ppm or 150 ppm H_2S, while *ethe-1* showed a weak increase

(***Figure 4E, F, Figure 4—figure supplement 1D, E, Supplementary file 2***).

H_2S exposure is known to activate the HIF-1 pathway (Budde & Roth, 2010, 2011;

Horsman et al., 2019; Ma et al., 2012; Miller et al., 2011; Powell-Coffman, 2010; Topalidou &

Miller, 2017). In line with this, a proportion of genes with HIF-1 regulated promoters displayed

increased expression after 1 or 2 hours of H_2S exposure (***Figure 4—figure supplement 1F***).

Among these were the aforementioned detoxifying enzymes GST-19, SQRD-1, and ETHE-1,

as well as CYSL-1, CYSL-2, and CDO-1, which are involved in cysteine metabolism

(***Supplementary file 2***). Consistent with earlier studies, we also observed differential expression

of a set of SKN-1 targets in response to chronic H_2S exposure (***Figure 4—figure supplement***

1G) (Horsman et al., 2019; Miller et al., 2011; Niu et al., 2011). This included the heat shock

protein genes *hsp-16.2* and *hsp-16.41* (***Figure 4E, F, Figure 4—figure supplement 1D, E***).

Surprisingly, we detected a rapid increase in the expression of genes associated with

intracellular H_2S production, including the methanethiol oxidase-encoding gene *semo-1* and the

mercaptopyruvate sulfurtransferase-encoding gene *mpst-3* (***Figure 4E, F, Figure 4—figure***

supplement 1D, E) (Philipp et al., 2022; Qabazard et al., 2014). Elevated expression of 3-

mercaptopyruvate sulfurtransferase has similarly been reported in sulfide spring fish,

suggesting a conserved response mechanism to H_2S (Kelley et al., 2016; Mathew, Schlipalius,

& Ebert, 2011; Qabazard et al., 2014). However, the functional implications of increased

expression of H_2S synthesis genes remains unclear.

When exposed to H_2S for 12 hours, the differentially expressed genes showed reduced

overlap with those identified at earlier time points (***Figure 4B, Figure 4—figure supplement***

1A), suggesting that distinct defense strategies may be employed at various stages of H_2S

exposure. Furthermore, substantial overlap was observed between the sets of genes induced by

50 ppm and 150 ppm H_2S after 1h or 2h exposure. However, this overlap decreased

significantly after 12 hours exposure (***Figure 4—figure supplement 1H–J***). Additionally, we

noticed that 150 ppm H_2S specifically triggered the expression of the HIF-1 regulator *rhy-1* and

the HIF-1 target *nhr-57* at all exposure time points, a response that was less pronounced at 50

ppm H_2S (***Figures 4E, F, Figure 4—figure supplement 1D, E, K and L***). Together, these

findings suggest that multiple defense mechanisms are induced to adapt to the stress imposed

by H_2S, which can diverge over time and at different H_2S concentrations.

Locomotory speed response to H_2S is modulated by HIF-1-induced detoxification

Given that HIF-1 signaling is robustly activated shortly after H_2S exposure (***Figure 4—figure***

supplement 1F) (Budde & Roth, 2010, 2011; Miller et al., 2011), we next sought to determine

how HIF-1 signaling might contribute to H_2S-evoked avoidance response, and began by

examining the effects of HIF-1 stabilization. Acclimating animals in 1% O_2 for 12 hours or

longer significantly decreased the speed response to H_2S, indicating that HIF-1 stabilization

inhibits the H_2S-evoked avoidance behavior **(*Figure 5A*)**. To confirm this observation, we

examined several mutants with stabilized HIF-1. The conserved proline-4-hydroxylase

PHD/EGL-9 and the von Hippel-Lindau (VHL) tumor suppressor protein are required for HIF-

1 degradation (Kaelin & Ratcliffe, 2008; Semenza, 2010). Disruption of either *egl-9* or *vhl-1*

leads to HIF-1 stabilization under normoxic conditions. Similar to the effect of prolonged

hypoxia, both mutants exhibited a markedly reduced locomotory speed in H_2S **(*Figure 5B*)**.

Interestingly, the omega-turn and reversal responses to H_2S were also substantially inhibited in

egl-9 mutants **(*Figure 5—figure supplement 1A, B*)**. In contrast, the locomotory speed

response to 1% O_2 remained largely unaffected in *egl-9* deficient animals **(*Figure 5—figure***

***supplement 1C*),** suggesting a selective impairment of the H_2S response. In addition, expressing

the non-degradable forms of HIF-1, *hif-1*(P621A or P621G), under the pan-neuronal *unc-14*

promoter or under the endogenous *hif-1* promoter, was sufficient to inhibit H_2S evoked speed

responses (***Figure 5C***). Together, these findings indicate that the activation of HIF-1 signaling

during prolonged H_2S or hypoxia exposure mediates an adaptive response associated with

reduced behavioral responses to H_2S, and that HIF-1 stabilization in neurons alone is sufficient

to promote this behavioral adaptation.

On the other hand, animals lacking HIF-1 signaling have previously been shown to

display increased sensitivity to H_2S and become paralyzed rapidly upon exposure (Budde &

Roth, 2010; Horsman et al., 2019). Consistent with this, *hif-1* mutants exhibited a brief increase

in speed upon H_2S exposure, which rapidly declined to baseline levels (**Figure 5D**). They also

displayed a stronger initial omega-turn response and greater inhibition of the reversal rate than

WT (**Figure 5E, F**), confirming that animals deficient in HIF-1 signaling are sensitized to H_2S

exposure. This transient avoidance behavior was also observed in *egl-9; hif-1* and *vhl-1; hif-1*

double mutants (**Figure 5G, H**), suggesting that this phenotype is linked to the absence of HIF-

1 signaling. Importantly, *hif-1* mutants displayed a robust speed response to other stimuli, such

as near-UV light and 1% O_2 stimulation **(Figure 5I, Figure5—figure supplement 1D)**,

suggesting that the brief avoidance response is specific to H_2S rather than reflecting a general

locomotory defect. Further supporting increased sensitivity to H_2S in *hif-1* mutants, the

locomotory speed response of *hif-1* mutants to subsequent near-UV light stimulation was nearly

abolished after 30 minutes of H_2S exposure, whereas *egl-9* mutants and WT animals remained

fully responsive **(Figure 5I)**. The reduced movement and lack of responsiveness to other

stressors in *hif-1* mutants resemble the stress-induced sleep-like behavior previously observed

in response to noxious heat (Byrne Rodgers & Ryu, 2020). Prompted by this observation, we

next explored whether HIF-1-induced detoxification genes were also required to maintain H_2S-

evoked behavioral responses (**Figure 5—figure supplement 1E**). Similar to *hif-1* mutants,

sqrd-1 and *ethe-1* mutants displayed brief responses to H_2S, with locomotory activity rapidly

returning to baseline levels **(Figure 5J, K, Figure 5—figure supplement 1F–I)**. However, both

mutants responded normally to 1% O_2, suggesting a specific hypersensitivity to H_2S toxicity

(Figure 5—figure supplement 1J). Furthermore, we examined the contribution of additional

genes whose expression was upregulated in response to H_2S, including the

sulfhydrylase/cysteine synthase-encoding genes *cysl-1*, *cysl-2*, and *cysl-3*, as well as *semo-1*.

Disrupting any of these genes phenocopied the responses observed in *hif-1, ethe-1*, or *sqrd-1*

mutants, while they displayed normal responses to 1% O_2 (**Figure 5L, Figure 5—figure**

supplement 1D, K–P). These observations suggest that while the HIF-1-induced H_2S

detoxification system is not essential for initiating the response to H_2S, it is required to maintain

animals' locomotory activity in the presence of H_2S.

Labile iron pool sustains the locomotory activity in H_2S

Among the most differentially regulated genes upon exposure to H_2S, we observed consistent

downregulation of *ftn-1* and to a lesser extent *ftn-2*, whereas *smf-3* expression was increased

under specific H_2S conditions (***Figure 6A, B, Figure 6—figure supplement 1A–D***). The

ferritin-encoding genes *ftn-1* and *ftn-2,* along with the iron transporter *smf-3*, are critical for

maintaining intracellular labile iron homeostasis in *C. elegans* (Ackerman & Gems, 2012;

Gourley, Parker, Jones, Zumbrennen, & Leibold, 2003; Rajan et al., 2019; Romney, Newman,

Thacker, & Leibold, 2011), suggesting that H_2S exposure may interfere with cellular iron

storage. It has been shown that disrupting *ftn-1* increases labile iron pools in the cytoplasm,

while its overexpression reduces these levels (Anderson & Leibold, 2014; Romney et al., 2011).

We found that *ftn-1* mutants had enhanced speed response to H_2S, whereas *ftn-1* overexpression

attenuated H_2S-induced speed increase without damaging acute response to 1% O_2 (***Figure 6C,***

D, Figure 6—figure supplement 1E). In addition, *smf-3* mutants, which impair iron uptake,

exhibited a reduced speed response to H_2S (***Figure 6D***). These results support the idea that H_2S

exposure disrupts iron homeostasis.

To complement our genetic analysis, we pharmacologically depleted labile irons. In

the presence of the iron chelator 2,2'-dipyridyl (BP), the H_2S-evoked speed response was fully

lost (***Figure 6E***), whereas locomotory speed in response to hypoxia was maintained (***Figure***

6—figure supplement 1F). We noticed that, similar to *hif-1* mutants, both *smf-3* mutants and

BP-treated animals exhibited a strong initial omega-turn response to H_2S (***Figure 6—figure***

supplement 1G, I), suggesting that these animals are hypersensitive to H_2S toxicity. One

possibility is that low iron levels compromise H_2S detoxification capacity, as the detoxification

enzyme ETHE-1 requires iron for its activity (Kabil & Banerjee, 2012; Pettinati, Brem,

McDonough, & Schofield, 2015). By contrast, increasing iron levels by feeding ferric

ammonium citrate (FAC) or by disrupting *ftn-1* significantly sustained animals' locomotory

speed in H$_2$S (***Figure 6D, E***), likely by delaying H$_2$S-mediated iron depletion. However, the

reorientation and reversals were not significantly affected (***Figure 6—figure supplement 1G–***

J). This impact of FAC supplementation and *ftn-1* disruption on speed response was largely

lost in the absence of *hif-1* (***Figure 6F, G***), suggesting that the effects of iron require HIF-1-

dependent detoxification (***Figure 6H)***. Yet, increased iron availability modestly improved the

locomotory activity of *hif-1* mutants in H$_2$S (***Figure 6F, G***), presumably by compensating for

the low iron levels in *hif-1* mutant animals (Rajan et al., 2019; Romney et al., 2011).

Mitochondrial function modulates H$_2$S-evoked locomotion responses

The mitochondrial electron transport chain (ETC) is not only the primary target of H$_2$S

toxicity, but is also an essential component of the H$_2$S detoxification pathways (Cooper &

Brown, 2008; Khan et al., 1990; Nicholls & Kim, 1982; Romanelli-Cedrez et al., 2024).

Based on this, we hypothesized that ETC plays a central role in the locomotory response to

H$_2$S. Indeed, mutating the genes critical for ETC function, including *gas-1*, *clk-1*, *mev-1,* and

isp-1, impaired the H$_2$S-evoked speed and reversal responses (***Figure 7A–D, Figure 7—***

figure supplement 1A–D). These data suggest either that dysfunctional ETC induces an

adaptive response to cellular stressors or that a functional ETC is required to trigger and

support H$_2$S-evoked avoidance behavior. Consistent with the later model, exposing animals to

rotenone, an ETC complex I inhibitor, robustly inhibited the speed responses to H$_2$S at all

time points we tested (***Figure 7E***). Similar to ETC mutants, WT animals exposed to rotenone

for 2 hours also showed reduced basal locomotory activity (***Figure 7E***).

In contrast to prolonged rotenone exposure, we noticed that transient rotenone

exposure substantially increased animals' basal locomotory speed (***Figure 7E***) (Onukwufor et

al., 2022), suggesting that acute ETC interruption evokes behavioral avoidance, in a manner

similar to that observed with other noxious stimuli. Since rotenone rapidly and persistently

stimulates mitochondrial ROS production (Ochi et al., 2016; Ramsay & Singer, 1992; Zorov,

Juhaszova, & Sollott, 2014), the transient locomotory increase during short rotenone exposure

(***Figure 7E***) is likely driven by these ROS bursts, whereas reduced locomotory activity during

prolonged exposure is presumably caused by chronically elevated ROS production. As toxic

levels of H_2S also induce ROS (Jia et al., 2020), this raised the possibility that H_2S-evoked

behavioral responses were modulated by the mitochondrial ROS. Therefore, we sought to

further explore how mitochondrial ROS contributes to speed response to high H_2S. We

focused on superoxide dismutases (SODs), key enzymes in superoxide detoxification. The *C.*

elegans genome encodes five *sod* genes: *sod-1* and *sod-5* encode cytosolic Cu/ZnSODs, *sod-2*

and *sod-3* encode mitochondrial MnSODs, and *sod-4* encodes the extracellular Cu/ZnSOD

isoforms (Doonan et al., 2008; Zubovych, Straud, & Roth, 2010). All *sod* single mutants

exhibited a robust initial response to 150 ppm H_2S *(Figure 7F, G)*. Interestingly, the

mitochondrial SOD mutants *sod-2* and *sod-3*, as well as *sod-5*, showed an initial burst of

locomotory activity followed by a rapid decline in speed in the presence of H_2S *(Figure 7F,*

G), but maintained a high locomotory speed in response to 1% O_2 *(Figure 7—figure*

supplement 1E). In the quintuple *sod-1; sod-2; sod-3; sod-4; sod-5* mutant, which lacks all

superoxide dismutases and presumably accumulates higher ROS levels, the H_2S-evoked speed

and omega-turn responses were nearly abolished, and the proportion of animals exhibiting

reversals remained consistently high, a pattern resembling that of *egl-9* and ETC mutants

(Figure 7G, Figure 7—figure supplement 1F, G). Similar to *sod-2* and *sod-3*, the quintuple

sod mutant exhibited robust speed response to 1% O_2 (Zhao et al., 2022). In addition, the

quintuple mutants responded normally to near-UV light after 30 minutes of H_2S exposure

(*Figure 7—figure supplement 1H)*, indicating that their neuromuscular function remains

largely preserved. These observations suggest that either constitutively high ROS levels in

quintuple mutants dampen H_2S-evoked ROS transients, or they promote adaptation to H_2S-

induced stress, presumably via activation of stress-responsive pathways such as HIF-1,

NRF2/SKN-1, and DAF-16/FOXO, ultimately reducing the locomotory responses (*Figure*

7H) (Lee, Hwang, & Kenyon, 2010; Lennicke & Cocheme, 2021; Patten, Germain, Kelly, &

Slack, 2010).

Discussion

Animals' behavior and physiology are profoundly influenced by the environments in which

they evolved. The laboratory strain N2, which is adapted to low atmospheric CO_2 and H_2S

concentrations, robustly avoids both gases (Beets et al., 2020; Bretscher et al., 2008; Carrillo

et al., 2013; Hallem & Sternberg, 2008; Kodama-Namba et al., 2013; McGrath et al., 2009).

Upon acute exposure to H_2S above 75 ppm, N2 exhibits an avoidance behavior characterized

by reorientation and increased locomotion. This response is significantly reduced in wild

isolates. These divergent responses between the laboratory strain and wild isolates are primarily

driven by variations in the *npr-1* gene, which encodes a neuropeptide receptor, suggesting that

C. elegans has undergone rapid evolutionary adaptation to its environment.

The behavioral response to a specific sensory stimulus is usually shaped by an interplay

of multiple environmental and physiological cues. We observe that conditions dampening *C.*

elegans' response to CO_2 also impair the response to H_2S. Specifically, the speed response to

H_2S is significantly inhibited at high O_2 levels, and in mutants with defective insulin or TGF-β

pathway that signal starvation. However, despite these shared modulations, CO_2 and H_2S

responses involve distinct molecular mechanisms. For example, CO_2 responses are mediated

by the guanylate cyclase GCY-9 in BAG neurons (Hallem et al., 2011), which is dispensable

for H_2S responses. In addition, acute exposure to H_2S induces a delayed acceleration compared

to CO_2. These data suggest that while responses to the two gases share a downstream neural

circuit that can be dynamically modulated by the state of O_2 sensing circuit, they are triggered

by distinct mechanisms.

In a candidate gene survey, we excluded the potential involvement of globins, K^+

channels, biogenic amines, and most guanylate cyclases in H_2S responses. However, we

observed that H_2S avoidance requires the activity of guanylate cyclase DAF-11 in ASJ neurons,

as well as neurosecretion from these neurons. Since the DAF-11 pathway and neurosecretion

from ASJ neurons regulate developmental programs that modify sensory functions in *C.*

elegans (Murakami, Koga, & Ohshima, 2001), it is not surprising that *daf-11* mutants display

pleiotropic phenotypes including impaired H_2S and CO_2 responses (Hallem & Sternberg, 2008).

In addition, we did not detect an H_2S-evoked calcium transient in ASJ neurons. Therefore,

although ASJ neurons and DAF-11 activity are clearly required, how H_2S avoidance is triggered

remains to be elucidated.

Consistent with previous reports (Horsman et al., 2019; Miller et al., 2011), H_2S

exposure substantially alters the gene expression in *C. elegans*, including those involved in H_2S

detoxification and iron homeostasis pathways. The repression of *ftn-1* and induction of *smf-3*

observed during H_2S exposure suggest that H_2S depletes intracellular labile iron. Iron is a

critical cofactor required for the activity of many enzymes and supports a wide range of cellular

processes (Dev & Babitt, 2017; Hentze, Muckenthaler, & Andrews, 2004). One important

enzyme that requires labile iron as cofactor is PHD/EGL-9, which targets HIF-1 for degradation.

Changes in iron availability are therefore expected to modulate EGL-9 activity, which in turn

alter the expression of HIF-1-regulated genes (Liochev, 1996; Myllyharju & Kivirikko, 1997;

Read, Bentley, Archer, & Dunham-Snary, 2021; Xu & Moller, 2011). However, ETHE-1, a

key H_2S detoxification enzyme upregulated upon HIF-1 stabilization, also requires iron for its

persulfide dioxygenase activity (Kabil & Banerjee, 2012; Pettinati et al., 2015). Therefore, H_2S-

evoked responses under varying iron availability are determined by the combined effects of

labile iron on HIF-1 signaling and on the H_2S detoxification enzymes, among other factors. For

instance, although reduced iron availability in *smf-3* or BP-treated animals may promote the

HIF-1 induced detoxification pathways by inactivating EGL-9, the actual enzymatic clearance

of H_2S is impaired due to low ETHE-1 activity. Supporting this, *smf-3* mutants and BP-treated

animals display increased sensitivity to H_2S, including enhanced initial omega-turn responses

and rapid inhibition of locomotion. In contrast, increased iron availability in *ftn-1* mutants or

FAC-treated animals likely delays iron depletion during H_2S exposure, preserving ETHE-1

detoxification capacity and postponing the onset of HIF-1-mediated adaptations that are

associated with reduced locomotion. This may explain the sustained high locomotory speed

observed in *ftn-1* mutants or FAC-treated animals. In the absence of HIF-1, iron

supplementation only partially improves the locomotory response to H_2S, likely because the

H_2S detoxification system including ETHE-1 cannot be transcriptionally induced. The modest

effect observed may instead reflect correction of iron deficiency in *hif-1* mutants.

At concentrations below 50 ppm, H_2S is well tolerated or even preferred, with

beneficial effects such as improved thermotolerance (Fawcett et al., 2015; Miller & Roth, 2007;

Qabazard et al., 2014). Notably, behavioral avoidance is absent below 50 ppm H_2S, suggesting

that escape behavior is triggered only when H_2S is not efficiently detoxified. This led us to

hypothesize that animals with enhanced detoxification capacity would show reduced avoidance

of otherwise toxic H_2S levels. Indeed, the speed response to H_2S is attenuated when the

detoxification program is upregulated under conditions of constitutive activation of HIF-1, such

as in *egl-9* or *vhl-1* mutants, after prolonged exposure to 1% O_2, or when HIF-1 signaling is

specifically activated in neurons. These observations support the idea that the initial avoidance

response to H_2S is triggered by neuronal detection of acute toxicity, while the subsequent

decline in speed reflects a rapid activation of adaptive mechanisms, particularly through

stabilization of HIF-1. The fact that wild type animals remain responsive to other stimuli after

prolonged H_2S exposure suggests that reduced locomotory speed in H_2S reflects active

desensitization rather than general paralysis. However, persistently high H_2S exposure is likely

to exhaust cellular defense systems, leading to toxicity and paralysis. By contrast, the rapid loss

of locomotion observed in *hif-1* mutants and detoxification-defective mutants is mediated by a

mechanism distinct from adaptation. Their loss of responsiveness to other stimuli after H_2S

exposure suggests that these animals likely become sensitized and rapidly intoxicated by H_2S

due to impaired detoxification. Therefore, H_2S exposure promotes a behavioral program that

includes an initial reorientation and acceleration responses followed by a progressive adaptation

driven by cellular detoxification processes. A similar behavioral program has been observed in

C. elegans during noxious heat exposure, which induces short-term heat avoidance followed

by long-lasting cytoprotective adaptation and a gradual reduction in avoidance (Byrne Rodgers

& Ryu, 2020).

The interaction of H_2S with mitochondrial ETC is multifaceted, acting as an electron

donor at low concentrations and becoming a potent toxicant at high levels (Szabo et al.,

2014), in part by promoting superoxide generation through complex IV inhibition and reverse

electron transport at complex I (Cooper & Brown, 2008; Jia et al., 2020; Khan et al., 1990;

Nicholls & Kim, 1982; Romanelli-Cedrez et al., 2024). We propose that mitochondria play a dual role in H_2S-evoked locomotory avoidance. On one hand, the mitochondrial ETC contributes to H_2S detoxification and promotes adaptation. On the other hand, toxic levels of H_2S remodel the ETC, leading to increased ROS production, which may serve as a trigger for the avoidance response. Supporting the idea that acute mitochondrial ROS generation initiates avoidance of high H_2S levels, short-term rotenone exposure, known to promote mitochondrial ROS formation (Ochi et al., 2016; Ramsay & Singer, 1992; Zorov et al., 2014), substantially increases locomotory speed (Onukwufor et al., 2022). Meanwhile, the speed response to high H_2S is fully suppressed by rotenone. This inhibition could result either from excessive mitochondrial ROS generated by rotenone, which may dampen the H_2S-triggered ROS spike, or from direct complex I inhibition, which may disrupt other H_2S signaling processes required to initiate avoidance. However, persistent mitochondrial ROS production appears to suppress high locomotory speed and inhibit responsiveness to H_2S, as observed after 2-hour rotenone exposure, in mitochondrial ETC mutants, and in animals lacking all superoxide dismutases. One likely explanation is that mitochondrial ROS can activate a variety of stress-responsive pathways, including HIF-1, NRF2/SKN-1, and DAF-16/ FOXO signaling (Lee et al., 2010; Lennicke & Cocheme, 2021; Patten et al., 2010), priming animals' adaptation to prolonged stress rather than causing toxicity. This is supported by the observation that even though SOD-deficient animals do not display strong initial locomotory responses to H_2S, they remain responsive to other stimuli after 30 minutes of H_2S exposure, suggesting that high ROS levels do not compromise general viability or the H_2S detoxification capacity. Therefore, we favor a model in which mitochondrial ROS exert a biphasic effect on H_2S-induced avoidance, facilitating H_2S avoidance under acute conditions, and contributing to locomotory inhibition when it is chronically elevated. Overall, lack of a clear sensory machinery, the slow increase of locomotory speed in H_2S (*Figure 1D*), the rotenone-evoked speed responses, and the strong modulation of H_2S responses by mitochondrial ETC inhibition suggest that H_2S may not be directly perceived by *C. elegans*. Instead, acute avoidance to H_2S is likely initiated by ROS-induced toxicity.

In summary, this study unveils a novel behavior of *C. elegans* in their avoidance to

H_2S. The speed response to H_2S is intricately shaped by environmental context, integrating

inputs from other sensory cues such as food availability and O_2 levels. Our findings suggest

that H_2S-induced locomotion arises from acute remodeling of mitochondrial ETC and

associated ROS production, while highlighting the vital role of the HIF-1-induced

detoxification pathways and iron homeostasis in protecting against H_2S-induced mitochondrial

toxicity. Further work is needed to validate this model and to elucidate the neural circuits

mediating the behavioral response to ROS-induced toxicity.

Materials and Methods

Strains

C. elegans were maintained using standard protocols (Brenner, 1974). Strains used in this study

are listed in ***Supplementary file 1*** and ***Supplementary file 3***.

Preparation of H_2S gas mixture

Different H_2S concentrations were created as previously described (Miller & Roth, 2007).

Briefly, the H_2S-containing gas mixture were prepared by diluting 5000 ppm H_2S in nitrogen

(N_2) with 7% O_2 balanced with N_2. The gas flow was tuned by Sierra Smart-Trak 100 mass

flow controllers. H_2S concentration in the mixture was measured using two H_2S detectors (MSA

ALTAIR 2X gas detector for H_2S and Clip Single Gas Detector, SDG, CROWCON). The pre-

defined gas mixtures of 7% O_2, 1% O_2 and 5% CO_2 with N_2 were purchased from Air Liquide

Gas AB. 5000 ppm H_2S stock in N_2 was obtained from Linde Gas AB. Gas mixtures in all

experiments were hydrated before use.

Molecular Biology

The Multisite Gateway system (Thermo Fisher Scientific, United States) was used to generate

expression vectors. Promoters, including *gcy-37* (2.7kb), *trx-1* (1 kb), *ftn-1*(2 kb), *daf-11* (3 kb),

odr-3(2.7 kb), *gpa-11*(3 kb), *sra-6*(3 kb), *odr-1*(2.4 kb), *flp-21*(4.1kb), and *ocr-2*(2.4 kb) were

amplified from N2 genomic DNA and cloned into pDONR P4P1 using BP clonase. g*cy-35*,

tax-4, and *pkc-1* cDNAs were amplified using the first strand cDNA library as the template,

while *daf-11* and *ftn-1* genomic sequences were amplified using genomic DNA as the template.

The entry clones of these genes pDONR 221 were generated using BP reaction. To generate

the gain of function mutation of *pkc-1* (A160E), Q5 Site-Directed Mutagenesis Kit (NEB) was

used according to manufacturer instructions. All expression vectors were generated using LR

reaction. The primer sequences were displayed in ***Supplementary file 4***.

To generate transgenic animals, the *daf-11* expression vectors were injected at the

concentration of 20 ng/µl supplemented with 50 ng/µl of a coelomocyte co-injection marker

(*unc-122p::GFP)* and 30 ng/µl of 1kb DNA ladder. For *tax-4* gene, the injection mixtures were

prepared using 40 ng/µl of *tax-4* expression vectors, 50 ng/µl of a coelomocyte co-injection

marker and 10 ng/µl of 1kb DNA ladder. The rest of expression constructs were injected at 50

ng/µl together with 50 ng/µl of a coelomocyte marker.

CRISPR/Cas9 genome editing

Genes were disrupted using CRISPR/Cas9 mediated genome editing as described (Dokshin,

Ghanta, Piscopo, & Mello, 2018; Ghanta & Mello, 2020). The strategy involved the utilization

of homology-directed insertion of custom designed single strand DNA template (ssODN),

which had two homology arms of 35bp flanking the targeted PAM site. Between two homology

arms, a short sequence containing a unique restriction enzyme cutting site as well as in-frame

and out-of-frame stop codons, was included. The insertion of ssODN template would delete 16

bases of coding sequence, ensuring the proper gene disruption. To prepare the injection cocktail,

0.5 µl of Cas9 protein (IDT) was mixed with 5 µl of 0.4µg/µl tracrRNA (IDT, United States)

and 2.8 µl of 0.4 µg/µl crRNA (IDT). The mixture was incubated at 37°C for at least 10 minutes

before 2.2 µl of 1µg/µl ssODN (or 500 ng dsDNA) and 2 µl of 0.6 µg/µl *rol-6* co-injection

marker were added. Nuclease-free water was used to bring the final volume to 20 µl. The

injection mixture was centrifuged for 2 minutes before use.

Behavioral assays

H$_2$S evoked locomotion activity was monitored as described previously (Laurent et al., 2015; Zhao et al., 2022). Briefly, OP50 bacteria were seeded on the assay plates 16 hours before use. The border of bacterial lawn was removed using a PDMS stamp. For each assay, 25 to 30 day-one adult animals were picked onto assay plates, allowed to settle down for 15 minutes, and subsequently sealed within microfluidic chambers. A syringe pump (PHD 2000, Harvard Apparatus) was employed to deliver gas mixtures into the microfluidic chamber at a constant flow of 3 ml/min. The rapid switch between different gas mixtures were controlled by Telfon valves coupled with ValveBank Perfusion Controller (AutoMate Scientific). The locomotory activity at different gas mixtures were monitored using a high-resolution camera (FLIR) mounted on a Zeiss Stemi 508 microscope. Videos were captured at a rate of 2 frames per second, starting with a 2-minute recording in 7% O$_2$, followed by 10 or 11 minutes in H$_2$S, and ending with 7% O$_2$. For the long-term recording in H$_2$S, video capture commenced with a 2-minute period in 7% O$_2$, followed by a duration of 148 minutes in 150 ppm H$_2$S, and concluded with a final 2-minute interval in 7% O$_2$. For each strain or condition, 3 to 4 replicates were performed.

Near-UV light experiments were conducted to assess whether animals remained responsive following a 30-minute incubation in 150 ppm H$_2$S balanced with 7% O$_2$. For each experiment, 6-minute videos were recorded. The first 2 minutes captured the baseline locomotion of the animals under white light, followed by 2 minutes of exposure to near-UV light (435 nm, 0.7 mW/mm^2), and concluded with 2 minutes of white light. 3 to 4 replicates were performed, with approximately 15 animals recorded per replicate.

The H$_2$S gradient experiment was performed in a PDMS chamber connected to a pump delivering gas at 0.5 ml/min. To establish a gradient ranging from 150 ppm to 0 ppm H$_2$S, we pumped 150 ppm H$_2$S balanced with 7% O$_2$ into one side and 7% O$_2$ into the opposite side. After 25 minutes, the number of animals in each of the 5 sections was counted (***Figure 1G***). Four replicates were performed, each using 30 day-one adult animals.

To assess the effects of rotenone on H_2S evoked locomotory response, day-one adult

animals were subjected to 10 μM rotenone for 10min, 30min, 1 hour and 2 hours on the drug

containing plates. Subsequently, the rotenone-treated animals were assayed on the standard

assay plates without the drug. To explore the impact of ferric ammonium citrate (FAC) (F5879,

Sigma-Aldrich) and 2,2′-Bipyridyl (BP) (D216305, Sigma-Aldrich) on behavioral response to

H_2S, L4 animals were exposed to 100 μM FAC or 5 mg/ml BP for 16 hours in the presence of

bacterial food. The FAC or BP treated animals were assayed on FAC or BP containing plates,

respectively.

Optogenetic experiments were performed as previously outlined (Zhao et al., 2022).

Transgenic L4 animals were exposed to 100 μM all-trans retinal (ATR) (R2500, Sigma) in the

dark for 16 hours. The ATR-fed animals were assayed under continuous illumination of 70

$\mu W/mm^2$ blue light, which was switched on at the start of recording at 7% O_2. Blue light was

emitted from an ultra-high-power LED lamp (UHP-MIC-LED-460, Prizmatix), and the light

intensity was determined using a PM50 Optical Power Meter (ThorLabs). To minimize the

effect of transmitted light on the transgenic animals, a long-pass optical filter was used to

eliminate the lights with short wavelengths during picking. All videos of behavioral analysis

were analyzed using a home-made MATLAB program Zentracker

(https://github.com/wormtracker/zentracker). For all behavior analyses, at least three assays

were performed for each strain with more than 80 worms in total.

Ca^{2+} Imaging

L4 animals expressing the GCaMP6s sensor in ASJ neurons were picked 24 hours before

imaging. The agarose pads were prepared 1 hour before the experiment. Animals were

incubated in 15 μl of 10 mM levamisole for 40 minutes prior to imaging. Between 15 and 20

animals were immobilized using 10 mM levamisole diluted in a concentrated OP50 bacterial

suspension and mounted on a 2% agarose pad in M9 buffer on a glass slide. The animals were

then covered with a microfluidic chamber. Imaging lasted for 16 minutes. O_2 (7%) was pumped

into the microfluidic chamber during the first and last 4 minutes. From minute 4 to 12, a mixture

of 7% O_2 and 150 ppm H_2S was pumped.

Imaging was performed on a Nikon AZ100 microscope equipped with a TwinCam

adapter (Cairn Research, UK), fitted with two DMK 33U monochrome cameras (The Imaging

Source, Germany). A 2x AZ Plan Fluor objective with 1x zoom was used, with an exposure

time of 300 ms. Excitation of GCaMP and RFP was provided by a CoolLED pE-300 (CoolLED,

UK). The TwinCam adapter was mounted with emission filters for green fluorescent protein

(510/20 nm) and red fluorescent protein (590/35 nm), along with a DC/T510LPXRXTUf2

dichroic mirror. Imaging data were analyzed using Neuron Analyzer, a custom-written Matlab

program for processing image stacks (code available at

https://github.com/neuronanalyser/neuronanalyser).

RNA extraction and sequencing

To obtain RNA samples for RNA-seq, thirty young adult animals were picked to each fresh

plate and allowed to lay eggs for 2 hours, after which the adult animals were removed and eggs

were allowed to develop into day-one adults. Day-one animals were subsequently challenged

with H_2S for three different time periods (1 hour, 2 hours and 12 hours). For each time period,

five plates of day-one animals were exposed to 50 ppm H_2S, 150 ppm H_2S or 7% O_2 as a control

group. Subsequently, the animals were immediately collected and rinsed three times with M9

buffer. After washing, the worm pellet was frozen in liquid nitrogen. Animals were

homogenized using Bullet Blender (Next Advance) in the presence of Qiazol Lysis Reagent

and 0.5mm Zirconia beads at 4°C. RNA was prepared using RNeasy Plus Universal Mini Kit

(Qiagen). Six independent RNA samples were prepared for each condition. The 2100

Bioanalyzer instrument (Agilent) was used for the RNA quality control with a microfluidic chip

specific for RNA (Agilent RNA 6000 Nano Kit). Then 1 µg of qualified RNA samples in

RNase-free ddH2O was used for library preparation. Library was constructed and sequenced

by Novogene.

RNA-seq analysis

The RNA-seq data were aligned using STAR v2.7.9a (Dobin et al., 2013) and gene expression counts extracted by featureCounts v2.0.3 (Liao, Smyth, & Shi, 2014). Differential expression was calculated using DESeq2 (Love, Huber, & Anders, 2014). GO analysis was performed using the EnrichR R package (Kuleshov et al., 2016) on genes having p.adj < 1e-10. For brevity, several highly similar GO categories were manually omitted (full EnrichR output available at Github repository).

Data availability

Raw sequencing data has been deposited at ArrayExpress # E-MTAB-13296. The R code is available at https://github.com/henriksson-lab/ce_h2s_tc.

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Figure legends

Figure 1. Acute locomotory responses of *C. elegans* to hydrogen sulfide

(**A**) Changes in the locomotory speed of WT animals (N2 laboratory strain) evoked by a switch

from 7% O_2 to 150 ppm H_2S balanced with 7% O_2, followed by a return to 7% O_2. (**B**)

Proportion of WT animals undergoing reorientation movements (omega turns) during a switch

from 7% O_2 to 150 ppm H_2S balanced with 7% O_2, followed by a return to 7% O_2. (**C**) Fraction

of WT animals doing backward locomotion (reversals) during a switch from 7% O_2 to 150 ppm

H_2S balanced with 7% O_2, followed by a return to 7% O_2. (**D**) Locomotory speed of WT was

recorded for 2 minutes at 7% O_2, followed by 148 minutes at 150 ppm H_2S balanced with 7%

O_2, and then at 7% O_2. (**E**) Locomotory speed of WT animals in response to near-UV light (435

nm, 0.7 mW/mm^2) exposure, before and directly after 30-minute preincubation in 150 ppm H_2S

balanced with 7% O_2. Locomotory activity was recorded for 2 minutes before, during and after

UV light exposure. (**F**) Locomotory speed of WT animals to different concentrations of H_2S

balanced with 7% O_2. Red bars on the x-axis represent two intervals (4–5 minutes and 11–12

minutes, labeled a and b, respectively) used for statistical analysis. **** = $p < 0.0001$, ** = $p <$

0.01, * = $p < 0.05$, ns = not significant, Mann–Whitney U test. (**G**) Distribution of WT animals

in a microfluidic device after 25 minutes of aerotaxis. The gas inputs and the five chamber

sections used for scoring are indicated. (**H**) Distribution of WT animals in a gradient of H_2S

(150 ppm to 0 ppm). The bins correspond to different sections of the microfluidic chamber

described in (**G**). N= 4 aerotaxis assays.

1029

Figure 2. Neurosecretion from ASJ neurons contributes to H₂S avoidance

(**A–H**) Locomotory speed responses to a switch from 7% O_2 to 150 ppm H_2S balanced with 7% O_2 for animals of the indicated genotype: WT and *daf-19(m86)* (**A**); WT and *dyf-3(m185)* (**B**); WT and *dyf-7(m539)* (**C**); WT, *daf-11(m47)* and *tax-4(p678)* (**D**); WT and *tax-2(p691)* (**E**); WT, *daf-11(m47)* and transgenic *daf-11(m47)* expressing *daf-11* genomic DNA in ASJ neurons (two independent lines) (**F**); WT, *tax-4(p678)* and transgenic *tax-4(p678)* expressing *tax-4* cDNA in ASJ neurons (two independent lines) (**G**); WT and transgenic WT expressing the catalytic domain of the *tetanus* toxin (TeTx) in ASJ neurons (**H**). For the comparison of acute locomotory speed responses between strains, red bars on the x-axis represent two intervals (4–5 minutes and 11–12 minutes, labeled a and b, respectively, in panels D, F, and G) used for statistical analysis. **** = $p < 0.0001$, *** = $p < 0.001$, ** = $p < 0.01$, * = $p < 0.05$, ns = not significant, Mann–Whitney U test. (**I**) Calcium transients evoked in ASJ neurons of WT animals in response to a switch from 7% O_2 to 150 ppm H_2S balanced with 7% O_2 for animals (N=42). The slow decline in GCaMP6s fluorescence is due to photobleaching.

Figure 3. Insulin, TGF-β, and high O_2 signaling pathways antagonizes H₂S avoidance

(**A, B**) Locomotory speed responses to a switch from 7% O_2 to 150 ppm H_2S balanced with 7% O_2 for animals of the indicated genotype: WT, *daf-2(e1370), daf-16(mgDf47)*, and *daf-2(e1370); daf-16(mgDf47)* double mutants (**A**); WT, *daf-7(e1372), daf-3(mgDf90),* and *daf-7(e1372); daf-3(mgDf90)* double mutants (**B**). For the *daf-2* assays, WT and *daf-2* mutants were maintained at 15°C. L4 animals were picked and shifted to 25°C until day-one adults, then assayed at room temperature. (**C**) Hypothetical model for the regulation of H₂S avoidance by a starvation program involving the insulin, TGF-β, and NHR-49 pathways. (**D**) Locomotory speed response to a switch from 7% O_2 to 150 ppm H_2S balanced with 7% O_2 in fed and starved WT animals. (**E, F**) Locomotory speed responses to a switch from 7% O_2 to 150 ppm H_2S balanced with 7% O_2 for animals of the indicated genotype: WT and wild isolates (CB4858 and CB4855) (**E**); WT and *npr-1(ad609)* (**F**). (**G**) Hypothetical model showing how O_2 regulates H₂S avoidance via the inhibitory RMG circuit activity, which is modulated by O_2 sensory inputs

and NPR-1 signaling. (**H–L**) Locomotory speed responses to a switch from 7% O_2 to 150 ppm

H_2S balanced with 7% O_2 for animals of the indicated genotype: WT, *npr-1(ad609)*, and

transgenic *npr-1(ad609)* expressing *npr-1* in RMG neurons using Cre-LoxP system (Macosko

et al., 2009) (**H**); WT, *npr-1(ad609), gcy-35(ok769)*, and *npr-1(ad609); gcy-35(ok769)* double

mutants (**I**); WT, *npr-1(ad609), tax-4(p678)* and *npr-1(ad609); tax-4(p678)* double mutants (**J**);

WT, *npr-1(ad609), qaIs2241*(genetic ablation of AQR, PQR and URX neurons) and *npr-*

1(ad609); qaIs 2241 (**K**); WT, *npr-1(ad609), npr-1(ad609); gcy-35(ok769)* double mutants and

transgenic npr-1(ad609); gcy-35(ok769) double mutants expressing *gcy-35* cDNA under *gcy-*

37 promoter, which drives *gcy-35* expression in O_2 sensing neurons (**L**). For the comparison of

acute locomotory responses between strains, red bars on the x-axis represent two intervals (4–

5 minutes and 11–12 minutes, labeled a and b, respectively, in panel E) used for statistical

analysis. **** = $p < 0.0001$, *** = $p < 0.001$, ** = $p < 0.01$, * = $p < 0.05$, ns = not significant,

Mann–Whitney U test.

1071

Figure 4. Prolonged H_2S exposure reprograms gene expression in *C. elegans*

(**A**) Venn diagram displaying the number of differentially expressed genes after 1-hour

exposure to 50 ppm or 150 ppm H_2S balanced with 7% O_2 in WT animals (adjusted $p < $ 1e-10).

(**B**) Venn diagram displaying the number of differentially expressed genes after 1-, 2-, and 12-

hour exposure to 150 ppm H_2S balanced with 7% O_2 in WT animals (adjusted $p < $ 1e-10). (**C,**

D) Significantly enriched GO categories for differentially expressed genes with adjusted $p <$

1e-10 in WT animals exposed to 50 ppm (**C**) or 150 ppm (**D**) H_2S balanced with 7% O_2 for 1

hour. (**E, F**) Volcano plots showing the differentially expressed genes with adjusted $p < $ 1e-10

in WT animals exposed to 50 ppm (**E**) or 150 ppm (**F**) H_2S balanced with 7% O_2 for 1 hour. A

set of genes involved in H_2S detoxification, cysteine metabolism and stress response were

highlighted in red.

1083

1084 **Figure 5. Acute response to H_2S is modulated by HIF-1 signaling**

(**A**) Locomotory speed responses of WT animals to a switch from 7% O_2 to 150 ppm H_2S balanced with 7% O_2 after incubation of the animals for 0, 12, 24, or 36 hours in 1% O_2. (**B, C**) Locomotory speed responses to a switch from 7% O_2 to 150 ppm H_2S balanced with 7% O_2 for animals of the indicated genotype: WT, *egl-9(sa307)*, and *vhl-1(ok161)* (**B**); WT and transgenic animals expressing the non-degradable form of HIF-1 (P621A or P621G) under the pan-neuronal *unc-14* promoter or the endogenous *hif-1* promoter, respectively (**C**). (**D–F**) Avoidance responses of WT and *hif-1(ia4)* to a switch from 7% O_2 to 150 ppm H_2S balanced with 7% O_2, including locomotory speed (**D**), reorientation (omega-turn) (**E**), and reversal (**F**). (**G, H**) Locomotory speed responses to a switch from 7% O_2 to 150 ppm H_2S balanced with 7% O_2 for animals of the indicated genotype: WT, *egl-9(sa307), hif-1(ia4)*, and *egl-9(sa307); hif-1(ia4)* double mutants (**G**); WT, *vhl-1(ok161), hif-1(ia4)*, and *vhl-1(ok161); hif-1(ia4)* double mutants (**H**). (**I**) Average locomotory speed during 2 minutes of exposure to near-UV light for WT, *hif-1(ia4)*, and *egl-9(sa307)* before (Ctrl = control) and after 30 minutes of exposure to 150 ppm H_2S balanced with 7% O_2. (**J–L**) Locomotory speed responses to a switch from 7% O_2 to 150 ppm H_2S balanced with 7% O_2 for animals of the indicated genotype: WT and *sqrd-1(tm3378)* (**J**); WT and *ethe-1(yum2895)* (**K**); WT, *cysl-1(ok762), cysl-2(ok3516)*, and *cysl-3(yum4)* (**L**). For the comparison of acute locomotory responses between strains, red bars on the x-axis represent two intervals (4–5 minutes and 11–12 minutes, labeled a and b, respectively, in panels A, B, C, and L) used for statistical analysis. *** = $p < 0.001$, ** = $p < 0.01$, * = $p < 0.05$, ns = not significant, Mann–Whitney U test.

Figure 6. Labile iron pool sustains the locomotory activity in H_2S

(**A, B**) Volcano plots showing the relative expression of the genes involved in the regulation of iron homeostasis in WT animals after 2-hour exposure in 50 ppm (**A**) or 150 ppm (**B**) H_2S balanced with 7% O_2. (**C–G**) Locomotory speed responses to a switch from 7% O_2 to 150 ppm H_2S balanced with 7% O_2 for animals of indicated genotypes or treatments: WT and animals overexpressing *ftn-1* genomic DNA under its own promoter (#1 and #2 indicate two independent lines) (**C**); WT, *smf-3(ok1305)*, and *ftn-1(ok3625)* (**D**); WT, and WT pretreated

with 100 μM 2,2′-Bipyridyl (BP) or with 5 mg/ml ferric ammonium citrate (FAC) in the

presence of food for 16 hours (**E**); WT, *hif-1(ia4)*, and *hif-1(ia4)* mutants pretreated with 5

mg/ml ferric ammonium citrate (FAC) for 16 hours (**F**)*;* WT, *hif-1(ia4), ftn-1(ok3625)*, and *hif-*

1(ia4); ftn-1(ok3625) double mutants (**G**). (**H**) Hypothetical model of the interactions between

labile iron pool and HIF-1 signaling. For the comparison of acute locomotory speed responses

between strains or conditions, red bars on the x-axis represent two intervals (4–5 minutes and

11–12 minutes, labeled a and b, respectively, in panels C, D, and E) used for statistical analysis.

**** $= p < 0.0001$, *** $= p < 0.001$, ** $= p < 0.01$, * $= p < 0.05$, ns = not significant, Mann–

Whitney U test.

1122

Figure 7. Mitochondrial function is required for acute response to H_2S

(**A–D**) Locomotory speed responses to a switch from 7% O_2 to 150 ppm H_2S balanced with 7%

O_2 for animals of the indicated genotype: WT and *gas-1(fc21)* (**A**); WT and *clk-1(qm30)* (**B**);

WT and *mev-1(kn1)* (**C**); WT and *isp-1(qm150)* (**D**). (**E**) Locomotory speed responses to a

switch from 7% O_2 to 150 ppm H_2S balanced with 7% O_2 for WT animals pretreated with 10

μM rotenone for 0 minute, 10 minutes, 30 minutes, 60 minutes or 120 minutes. For the

comparison of acute locomotory speed responses between strains or conditions, red bars on the

x-axis represent two intervals (4–5 minutes and 11–12 minutes) used for statistical analysis.

*** $= p < 0.001$, ** $= p < 0.01$, * $= p < 0.05$, ns = not significant, Mann–Whitney U test. (**F–**

G) Locomotory speed responses to a switch from 7% O_2 to 150 ppm H_2S balanced with 7% O_2

for animals of the indicated genotype: WT, *sod-1(tm776)*, *sod-2(ok1030)*, and *sod-3(tm760)*

(**F**); WT, *sod-4(gk101)*, *sod-5(tm1146)*, and *sod-1(tm783); sod-2(ok1030); sod-3(tm760); sod-*

4(gk101); sod-5 (tm1146) (**G**). For the comparison of acute locomotory speed responses

between strains or conditions, red bars on the x-axis represent the time interval (6–10 minutes)

used for statistical analysis. *** $= p < 0.001$, ** $= p < 0.01$, * $= p < 0.05$, ns = not significant,

Mann–Whitney U test. (**H**) Hypothetical model of the role of mitochondria in response to toxic

levels of H_2S. In this model, mitochondria play a dual role in H_2S-evoked avoidance behavior.

A transient burst of mitochondrial ROS triggered by high H_2S levels initiates locomotory

avoidance, whereas sustained ROS elevation activates stress-responsive pathways, including

HIF-1, NRF2/SKN-1, and DAF-16/FOXO, promoting adaptation to prolonged H_2S exposure.

1143

Figure supplement legends

Figure 2—figure supplement 1. Acute avoidance response to H_2S is regulated by cGMP

signaling

(**A–H**) Fraction of animals undergoing reorientation movements (omega turns, left) or

backward locomotion (reversals, right) during a switch from 7% O_2 to 150 ppm H_2S balanced

with 7% O_2 for animals of the indicated genotype: WT and *daf-19(m86)* (**A, B**); WT and *dyf-*

3(m185) (**C, D**); WT and *dyf-7(m539)* (**E, F**); WT, *daf-11(m47)*, and *tax-4(p678)* (**G, H**).

1151

Figure 2—figure supplement 2. Acute response to H_2S is regulated by *daf-11* signaling in

ASJ neurons

(**A**) The detailed expression pattern of each promoter used to express *daf-11* genomic DNA.

Promoters shown in green rescued the *daf-11(m47)* mutant phenotype. (**B–D**) Locomotory

speed responses to a switch from 7% O_2 to 150 ppm H_2S balanced with 7% O_2 for animals of

the indicated genotype: WT, *daf-11(m47)*, and transgenic *daf-11* mutants expressing *daf-11*

genomic DNA in different subsets of neurons. Red bars on the x-axis represent two intervals

(4–5 minutes and 11–12 minutes, labeled a and b, respectively) used for statistical analysis. *

= $p < 0.05$, ns = not significant, Mann–Whitney U test. (**E**) Calcium transients evoked in ASJ

neurons of WT animals in response to a switch from 7% O_2 to 3% CO_2 balanced with 7% O_2

for animals (N=16).

1163

Figure 3—figure supplement 1. Insulin, TGF-β, and O_2 signaling modulate locomotory

response to H_2S

(**A–C**) Locomotory speed responses to a switch from 7% O_2 to 150 ppm H_2S balanced with 7%

O_2 for animals of the indicated genotype: WT and *nhr-49(nr2041)* (**A**); WT and *tax-6(ok2065)*

(**B**); WT and *cnb-1(ok276)* (**C**). (**D–F**) Locomotory responses to a switch from 7% O_2 to 150

ppm H_2S balanced with 7% O_2 for WT and *daf-2(e1370)*, including locomotory speed (**D**),

reorientation (omega turns) (**E**), and reversal (**F**). WT and *daf-2* mutants were maintained at

15°C. L4 animals were picked and shifted to 25°C until day-one adults, then assayed at room

temperature. (**G–I**) Locomotory responses to a switch from 7% O_2 to 150 ppm H_2S balanced

with 7% O_2 for WT and *gcy-9(tm7632)*, including locomotory speed (**G**), reorientation (omega

turns) (**H**), and reversal (**I**). (**J**) Locomotory speed responses to a switch from 7% O_2 to 150

ppm H_2S balanced with 7% O_2 for WT animals and wild isolate CB4856. (**K**) Optogenetic

stimulation of RMG neurons using channelrhodopsin-2 (ChR2). ChR2 was expressed in RMG

neurons using the Cre-LoxP system (Macosko et al., 2009). Blue light was delivered as soon as

the assay was initiated at 7% O_2. Locomotory speed responses to a switch from 7% O_2 to 150

ppm H_2S balanced with 7% O_2 were recorded for day-one adults grown for 16 hours in the

presence or absence of ATR. (**L**) Locomotory speed responses to a switch from 7% O_2 to 150

ppm H_2S balanced with 7% O_2, following activation of O_2 sensing neurons by expressing a

gain-of-function allele of *pkc*-1 in O_2 sensory neurons under *gcy-37* promoter. For the

comparison of acute locomotory speed responses between strains or conditions, red bars on the

x-axis represent two intervals (4–5 minutes and 11–12 minutes, indicated with red bars on the

x-axis) for statistical analysis. **** $= p < 0.0001$, *** $= p < 0.001$, ** $= p < 0.01$, ns = not

significant, Mann–Whitney U test.

1187

Figure 4—figure supplement 1. Transcriptome reprogramming induced by H_2S exposure

(**A**) Venn diagram displaying the number of differentially expressed genes with adjusted *p*

value <1e-10 in WT animals exposed to 50 ppm H_2S balanced with 7% O_2 for 1, 2, or 12 hours.

(**B, C**) Significantly enriched GO categories for differentially expressed genes with adjusted *p*

value <1e-10 in WT animals exposed to 50 ppm (**B**) or 150 ppm (**C**) H_2S balanced with 7% O_2

for 2 hours. (**D, E**) Volcano plots showing the differentially expressed genes with adjusted *p*

value <1e-10 in WT animals exposed to 50 ppm (**D**) or 150 ppm (**E**) H_2S balanced with 7% O_2

for 2 hours. A set of genes involved in H_2S detoxification, cysteine metabolism and stress

response are highlighted in red. (**F, G**) The number of HIF-1(**F**) and SKN-1(**G**) target genes

induced by 50 ppm or 150 ppm H_2S exposure for 1 hour, 2 hours or 12 hours in WT animals,

with adjusted p value < 1e-30. (**H–J**) Venn diagrams displaying the number of differentially

expressed genes (adjusted p value <1e-10) in WT animals under the indicated conditions:

animals exposed to 50 ppm or 150 ppm H_2S for 1hour (**H**); 2 hours (**I**); and 12 hours (**J**). (**K,**

L) Volcano plots showing the differentially expressed genes (adjusted p value <1e-10) in WT

animals that were exposed to either 50 ppm (**K**) or 150 ppm (**L**) H_2S balanced with 7% O_2 for

12 hours. A set of genes involved in H_2S detoxification, cysteine metabolism and stress

response are highlighted in red.

1205

Figure 5—figure supplement 1. Acute response to H_2S is modulated by HIF-1 signaling

(**A, B**) Fraction of WT and *egl-9(sa307)* animals undergoing reorientation movements (omega

turns) (**A**) or backward locomotion (reversals) (**B**) during a switch from 7% O_2 to 150 ppm H_2S

balanced with 7% O_2. (**C, D**) Locomotory speed responses to a switch from 7% O_2 to 1% O_2

for WT and *egl-9(sa307)* (**C**); WT, *hif-1(ia4)*, and *semo-1(yum2889)* (**D**). (**E**) HIF-1 signaling

regulates the H_2S mitochondrial detoxification pathway. The detoxification enzyme SQRD-1

(sulfide:quinone oxidoreductase) oxidizes H_2S, donating electrons to ubiquinone (uq), and

rhodoquinone (rq) of the mitochondrial electron transport chain (ETC). ETHE-1 (persulfide

dioxygenase) oxidizes sulfur compounds to sulfite. (**F–I**) Fraction of animals undergoing

reorientation movements (omega turns, F and H) or backward locomotion (reversals, G and I)

during a switch from 7% O_2 to 150 ppm H_2S balanced with 7% O_2 for the indicated genotypes:

WT and *sqrd-1(tm3378)* (**F, G**)*;* and WT and *ethe-1(yum2895)* (**H, I**). (**J**) Locomotory speed

responses to a switch from 7% O_2 to 1% O_2 for WT, *sqrd-1(tm3378)*, and *ethe-1(yum2895)*. (**K,**

L) Fraction of WT, *cysl-1(ok762), cysl-2(ok3516)*, and *cysl-3(yum4)* animals undergoing

reorientation movements (omega turns, K) or backward locomotion (reversals, L) during a

switch from 7% O_2 to 150 ppm H_2S balanced with 7% O_2. (**M**) Locomotory speed responses to

a switch from 7% O_2 to 1% O_2 for WT, *cysl-1(ok762), cysl-2(ok3516)*, and *cysl-3(yum4)*

animals. (**N**) Locomotory speed responses to a switch from 7% O_2 to 150 ppm H_2S balanced

with 7% O_2 for WT and *semo-1(yum2889)*. (**O, P**) Fraction of animals undergoing reorientation

(omega turns, **O**) or backward locomotion (reversals, **P**) in response to a switch from 7% O_2 to

150 ppm H_2S balanced with 7% O_2. Comparisons of acute locomotory responses between

strains were performed using two intervals (4–5 minutes and 11–12 minutes, indicated with red

bars on the x-axis) for statistical analysis. *** = $p < 0.001$, ns = not significant, Mann–Whitney

U test.

1230

Figure 6—figure supplement 1. Labile iron pool sustains the locomotory activity in H_2S

(**A–D**) Volcano plots showing the relative expression of the genes involved in the regulation of

iron homeostasis (*ftn-1*, *ftn-2*, and *smf-3*) in WT animals under the following conditions: 1-hour

exposure in 50 ppm H_2S balanced with 7% O_2 (**A**); 1-hour exposure in 150 ppm H_2S balanced

with 7% O_2 (**B**); 12-hour exposure in 50 ppm H_2S balanced with 7% O_2 (**C**); and 12-hour

exposure in 150 ppm H_2S balanced with 7% O_2 (**D**). (**E, F**) Locomotory speed responses to a

switch from 7% O_2 to 1% O_2 for animals of the indicated genotype or treatment: WT, and two

independent transgenic lines overexpressing *ftn-1* genomic DNA under its own promoter (#1

and #2) (**E**); WT animals, WT animals treated with 100 μM 2,2′-Bipyridyl (BP), and WT

animals treated with 5 mg/ml ferric ammonium citrate (FAC) for 16 hours (**F**). Red bar on the

x-axis represents one-minute time interval (3–4 minutes) used for statistical analysis. * = $p <$

0.05, ns = not significant, Mann–Whitney U test. (**G, H**) Fraction of animals undergoing

reorientation movements (omega turns) (**G**) or backward locomotion (reversals) (**H**) during a

switch from 7% O_2 to 150 ppm H_2S balanced with 7% O_2 for animals of the indicated genotypes

WT, *smf-3(ok1305)*, and *ftn-1(ok3625)*. (**I, J**) Fraction of animals undergoing reorientation

movements (omega turns) (**I**) or backward locomotion (reversals) (**J**) during a switch from 7%

O_2 to 150 ppm H_2S balanced with 7% O_2 for WT animals, WT animals pretreated with either

100 μM 2,2′-Bipyridyl (BP) or with 5 mg/ml ferric ammonium citrate (FAC) in the presence of

food for 16 hours.

1250

Figure 7—figure supplement 1. Mitochondrial function is required for acute response to

H_2S

(**A–D**) Fraction of animals undergoing reorientation movements (omega turns) or backward

locomotion (reversals) during a switch from 7% O_2 to 150 ppm H_2S balanced with 7% O_2 for

the indicated genotype or treatment: WT and *clk-1(qm30)* (**A, B**); WT and *mev-1(kn1)* (**C, D**).

(**E**) Locomotory speed responses to a switch from 7% O_2 to 1% O_2 for WT, *sod-2(ok1030);* and

sod-3(tm760). (**F, G**) Fraction of animals undergoing reorientation movements (omega turns,

F) or backward locomotion (reversals, **G**) during a switch from 7% O_2 to 150 ppm H_2S balanced

with 7% O_2 for WT and *sod-1(tm783); sod-2(ok1030); sod-3(tm760); sod-4(gk101); sod-5*

(tm1146). (**H**) Locomotory response to acute near UV exposure for WT and *sod-1(tm783); sod-*

2(ok1030); sod-3(tm760); sod-4(gk101); sod-5 (tm1146) before and after 30 minutes of

exposure to 150ppm H_2S.

1263

1264   **Figure 1—Video 1. The locomotory response of WT animals to H_2S**

1265   An 8x accelerated video clip (original length: 16 minutes) showing WT (N2) animals exposed

1266   to 7% O_2 for 2 minutes, followed by 11 minutes in 150 ppm H_2S, and then returned to 7% O_2.

1267   The H_2S exposure segment is highlighted and begins at the 15-second mark, corresponding to

1268   2 minutes in the original recording.

Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3

Figure 4

Figure 5

Figure 6

Figure 7

Figure 2—figure supplement 1

Figure 2—figure supplement 2

A

Promoter	neurons															
Pdaf-11	ASH	AWB	AWC	ASJ	ASK	ADL	ASI	ASE								
Podr-3	ASH	AWB	AWC						ADF	AWA						
Podr-1		AWB	AWC	ASJ	ASK		ASI									
Pflp-21	ASH					ADL	ASI	ASE			FLP	URA	RMG	MC	M2	M4
Pgpa-11	ASH					ADL										
Psra-6	ASH						ASI									PVQ
Ptrx-1				ASJ												

E

ASJ::GCaMP6s
□ 7% O_2
▨ 3% CO_2 with 7% O_2

Figure 3—figure supplement 1

Figure 4—figure supplement 1

Figure 5—figure supplement 1

Figure 6—figure supplement 1