AFD Thermosensory Neurons Mediate Tactile-Dependent Locomotion Modulation

in *C. elegans*

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ABSTRACT

Sensory neurons drive animal behaviors by detecting environmental stimuli and relaying information to downstream circuits. Beyond their primary roles in sensing, these neurons often form additional synaptic connections outside their main sensory modality, suggesting broader contributions to behavior modulation. Here, we uncover an unexpected role for the thermosensory neuron AFD in coupling tactile experience to locomotion modulation in *Caenorhabditis elegans*. We show that while AFD employs cGMP signaling for both thermotaxis and tactile-dependent modulation, the specific molecular components of the cGMP pathway differ between these two processes. Interestingly, disrupting the dendritic sensory apparatus of AFD, which is essential for thermotaxis, does not impair tactile-based locomotion modulation, indicating that AFD can mediate tactile-dependent behavior independently of its thermosensory apparatus. In contrast, ablating the AFD neuron eliminates tactile-dependent modulation, pointing to an essential role for AFD itself, rather than its sensory dendritic endings. Further, we find tactile-dependent modulation requires the AIB interneuron, which connects AFD to touch circuits via electrical synapses. Removing innexins expressed in AFD and AIB abolishes this modulation, while re-establishing AFD-AIB connections with engineered electrical synapses restores it. Collectively, these findings uncover a previously unrecognized function of AFD beyond thermosensation, highlighting its influence on context-dependent neuroplasticity and behavioral modulation through broader circuit connectivity.

INTRODUCTION

Adaptive behavioral responses require animals to interpret sensory signals in the context of prior experiences, enabling effective responses to changing environmental conditions. For example, rodents associate contextual cues, such as odors and colors, with rewards or punishments, leading to context-dependent adjustments in approach or avoidance behaviors [1,2]. Disruptions in the biological processes underlying this plasticity, as seen in neurological and psychiatric disorders, often result in impaired behavior modulation based on prior sensory experiences [3–7]. Recognizing the critical role of context-dependent behavioral modulation for survival and well-being, ongoing research focuses on uncovering the neuroplastic mechanisms responsible for these adaptive processes.

Studies across diverse organisms reveal that animals, regardless of nervous system complexity, integrate prior sensory experiences to shape behavior [8–15]. In the nematode *C. elegans*, which has only 302 neurons, locomotion strategies are modified by prior exposure to stimuli such as odors, touch, light, and starvation, demonstrating robust adaptive behaviors [16–23]. The wide range of adaptive behaviors, combined with the well-mapped *C. elegans* nervous system and abundant genetic tools, have empowered the discovery of fundamental circuit mechanisms and molecular pathways underlying context-dependent behavioral modulation [24–28].

The *C. elegans* sensory system comprises 60 ciliated sensory neurons specialized in detecting chemical, thermal, mechanical, and olfactory stimuli [29,30]. Each sensory neuron has a dendritic apparatus that converts specific environmental signals into neuronal activity, which drives signal flow through downstream networks of interneurons and motor neurons, ultimately shaping behavior [31–33]. Among these, AFD, a pair of bilaterally symmetric left-right neurons, serves as the primary thermosensory neurons required for thermotaxis (movement toward the a preferred temperature) [34]. The dendritic endings of AFD, enriched with microvilli, serve as the primary site for thermal detection. Even when detached from the cell body, these dendritic endings retain calcium responsiveness to temperature stimuli [35]. Moreover, genetically disrupting these sensory endings abolishes the Ca^{2+} response in AFD cell bodies to temperature changes and eliminates thermotaxis, underscoring their essential role in thermal sensing [36–38].

The second messenger cyclic guanosine monophosphate (cGMP) plays a central role in modulating AFD

thermosensory activity. Temperature changes in AFD neurons trigger intracellular Ca^{2+} dynamics, with Ca^{2+}

levels rising during warming and falling during cooling [35,39,40]. This response relies on cGMP synthesis

mediated by the guanylyl cyclases (GCs) *gcy-8*, *gcy-18*, and *gcy-23*, which have overlapping but distinct roles.

Specifically, *gcy-8* is essential for generating thermally evoked Ca^{2+} responses in AFD [41,42], whereas *gcy-*

18 and *gcy-23* act synergistically to sustain temperature sensing [41,43]. The cGMP produced by these

cyclases activates cyclic nucleotide-gated (CNG) channels, comprised of alpha-subunits TAX-4 and beta-

subunits TAX-2, resulting in increases in intracellular Ca^{2+}. Mutations in either *tax-4* or *tax-2* abolish thermally

evoked Ca^{2+} responses in AFD and disrupt thermotaxis, underscoring the importance of cGMP signaling for

AFD-mediated thermosensation [40].

AFD transmits thermal signals to several downstream interneurons, including AIY, AIZ, and AIB, which

process this information to guide temperature-dependent behaviors. Thermotaxis in *C.*

elegans encompasses three categories: movement toward warmer temperatures (thermophilic), movement

toward cooler temperatures (cryophilic), and movement within a preferred temperature range (isothermal)

[44,45]. Each behavior type depends on distinct AFD synaptic partners: AIY is critical for thermophilic and

isothermal behaviors [46,47]; AIZ is specific for cryophilic behavior [48–50]; and AIB also supports thermophilic

behavior, though its role is less critical than that of AIY [51]. These findings demonstrate the functional

specificity of synaptic partners of AFD neurons in shaping distinct temperature-dependent behaviors.

In this study, we demonstrate that AFD plays a novel role in tactile-mediated, context-dependent

locomotion modulation, thereby expanding its function beyond temperature sensing. The mechanisms

underlying this role differ markedly from those involved in thermosensation. First, context-dependent

modulation requires distinct cGMP signaling components. Second, while the microvilli-rich sensory endings of

AFD are essential for thermosensation, they are dispensable for context-dependent modulation. Third, this

modulation depends on mechanosensory neurons and on electrical synapses between AFD and the AIB

interneuron, which connects to mechanosensory circuits. Finally, disruption of *inx-7* and *inx-10* genes,

encoding gap junction protein innexins in AFD and AIB, impairs context-dependent locomotion modulation.

Remarkably, restoring AFD–AIB connectivity via engineered Cx36 electrical synapses rescues this function.

Collectively, our findings uncover an unconventional mechanism by which AFD mediates behavior modulation

based on tactile experience.

RESULTS

***C. elegans* displays distinct locomotion in identical environments after exploring different physical**

structures.

To investigate the impact of prior experience on *C. elegans* behavior, we first allowed worms to explore

chambers with distinct pillar designs (exploration zone, Fig. 1A) before recording their locomotion in identical

assay zones (red dashed-line boxes, Fig. 1A). We hypothesized that if behavior were solely driven by

immediate sensory input, worms in identical assay zones would exhibit similar locomotion. Conversely, if prior

experience, such as exposure to different physical features in the exploration zones, influences behavior, then

worms should display distinct locomotor patterns even in the identical assay zones. To test these hypotheses,

we employed two types of microfluidic chambers: uniform and binary (Fig. 1A). Both chamber types include an

identical assay zone. Once worms enter this zone, their immediate environment is the same regardless of the

chamber. However, before reaching the assay zone, worms explore surrounding areas with pillar designs that

differ in size and spacing. This design allowed us to assess how prior exposure to different physical contexts

impacts locomotion in an otherwise identical setting.

Worms were allowed to explore the chambers for 60 minutes before their behavior was recorded in the

assay zones. We found that worms in the uniform chamber assay zone exhibited locomotor behavior that

differed from that of worms in the binary chamber assay zone (Fig. 1B-F). Specifically, in the uniform chamber

assay zone, worms moved approximately 40% faster (Fig. 1B, F), spent about 20% less time idle (Fig. 1C, F),

reversed direction around 20% less frequently (Fig. 1D, F), and turned about 30% more often (Fig. 1E, F) than

worms in the binary chamber assay zone. These findings demonstrate that locomotion adjustments are shaped

by past sensory experience rather than solely by immediate environmental cues. That worms exhibited

different behaviors in identical assay zones highlights the flexible, context-dependent nature of *C. elegans*

behavior.

Guanylyl cyclase gene *gcy-18* is required for context-dependent locomotion modulation in chambers.

To identify mechanisms underlying context-dependent locomotion adjustments, we employed a

previously reported preference assay that uses microfluidic arenas to assess the ability of worms to select a

preferred space [52]. Because worms must adjust their locomotion based on their surroundings to remain

within a preferred area, we hypothesized that mutations abolishing this preference would reveal key

mechanisms underlying context-dependent adjustments in the uniform and binary chambers. Accordingly, we

screened for mutant worms that failed to choose their preferred area, aiming to identify the genetic

mechanisms mediating locomotion adjustments in response to different physical structures. Given the

significant role of cGMP in neuronal plasticity and behavior modulation, we performed a small-scale genetic

screen using loss-of-function mutants for 24 genes encoding guanylyl cyclase (GC), the enzyme responsible

for cGMP synthesis. Using the preference assay, we identified two putative null mutants, *gcy-18(gk423024)*

and *gcy-12(gk142661),* that failed to display a spatial preference (Supp Fig. 1). We then compared the

locomotion properties of *gcy-18* and *gcy-12* mutants in both uniform and binary chambers. Our results showed

that *gcy-18* mutants failed to execute context-dependent adjustments, displaying similar locomotion rates in

both chamber types. Specifically, *gcy-18* mutants exhibited a significantly reduced Δspeed ($3 \pm 5\%$) compared

to wild type ($35 \pm 7\%$, p<0.001, Fig. 2A). In contrast, *gcy-12* mutant worms exhibited normal speed adjustment,

with Δspeed values comparable to wild type (Fig. 2A). This indicates that *gcy-12* is not required for the

modulation of locomotion speed. In comparison, the failure of *gcy-18* mutants to adjust their speed suggests

that *gcy-18* plays a critical role in context-dependent behavioral adjustment. Together, these results

demonstrate that among the guanylyl cyclases, *gcy-18* is essential for the context-dependent modulation of

locomotion.

To confirm that the defects observed in *gcy-18* mutants were not due to background artifacts, we

introduced a single-copy transgene that drives *gcy-18* cDNA expression under the control of a *gcy-18* promoter

into *gcy-18(gk423024)* mutants to test whether reintroducing a functional copy of *gcy-18* could rescue the

behavioral defects. Indeed, expression of the transgene restored locomotion adjustments (Δspeed: $20 \pm 6\%$) to

levels closer to those observed in wild type animals ($35 \pm 7\%$, p = 0.4, Fig. 2B), confirming the crucial role of

gcy-18 in mediating these adjustments based on the experience of exploring physical environments. The

identification of *gcy-18* was particularly intriguing, as its expression is restricted to a single pair of neurons, the

thermosensory AFDs. Given that our assay chambers lacked thermal gradients, this finding suggests a novel

role for *gcy-18* and AFD neurons in mediating locomotion adjustments in response to the exploration of

surrounding physical structures.

To further investigate the role of AFD-specific guanylyl cyclases in context-dependent locomotion

modulation, we examined *gcy-8*, which is essential for generating thermally evoked Ca^{2+} responses in AFD

[41,42]. In thermal responses, disrupting *gcy-8* alone is sufficient to impair AFD function, whereas disruption of

gcy-18 alone does not [41,43], indicating the critical role of GCY-8 in AFD thermosensation. If *gcy-18*

influenced behavioral adjustment in microfluidic chambers solely through its role in thermosensation, we would

expect that a loss-of-function mutation in *gcy-8* would have a similar or even more disruptive impact on

locomotion modulation. However, *gcy-8* mutant worms exhibit little change in their ability to adjust locomotion

speed (Δspeed: $29 \pm 7\%$), with Δspeed values similar to that observed in wild type worms (p = 0.96, Fig. 2C).

These results indicate that while *gcy-8* is critical for thermosensation, its mutation does not affect context-

dependent locomotion modulation, suggesting that independent cGMP signaling mechanisms govern AFD

neuronal activity in thermosensation and context-dependent behavior in microfluidic chambers (Fig. 2D).

Distinct CNG channels mediate context-dependent locomotion modulation and thermosensation.

The role of guanylyl cyclase in cGMP synthesis prompted us to investigate whether cyclic nucleotide-

gated (CNG) channels are involved in context-dependent locomotion modulation. CNG channels, composed of

α and β subunits, open upon binding cyclic nucleotides (*e.g.*, cGMP and cAMP), allowing Ca^{2+} influx [53–56] to

control signal transduction and neural plasticity across species [57–64] (Fig. 3A). In *C. elegans*, mutations in

either the *tax-4* or *tax-2* genes, which encode the α and β subunits of CNG channels respectively, impair

thermotaxis behavior [47,65] and disrupt AFD neuron responses to temperature changes [40,66]. To determine

their role in context-dependent locomotion modulation, we examined *tax-4(p678)* and *tax-2(p694)* mutant

worms using our microfluidic chamber assay.

We found that *tax-2* is essential for context-dependent locomotion modulation, as *tax-2* mutants did not

exhibit differences in speed between chamber types (Fig. 3B, C). In contrast, *tax-4* mutants displayed an

enhanced locomotion adjustment compared to wild type worms (p<0.01; Fig. 3C)—a striking difference from

the lack of speed changes seen in *tax-2* mutants. Furthermore, *tax-4* mutants exhibited significantly increased

basal locomotion rates in both chambers (Fig 3B), suggesting that alterations in basal locomotion do not

interfere with experience-dependent movement adjustments.

Consistent with the idea that basal and experience-dependent locomotion are regulated independently,

we found that wild type worms cultivated at either 23°C or 17°C and then transferred to 20°C during chamber

exploration exhibited significantly changes in basal locomotion speed but had little corresponding effect on the

extent of context-dependent modulation (Supp Fig. 2A). Specifically, temperature shifts were positively

correlated with basal locomotion rates (binary chambers: r = 0.52, p < 0.0001; uniform chambers: r = 0.48, p <

0.0001; Suppl. Fig. 2B), yet no significant correlation was observed between temperature shifts and Δspeed (r

= -0.03, p = 0.22; Suppl. Fig. 2C), reinforcing the idea that these two processes operate independently.

Together, these observations indicate that TAX-2 is critical for integrating prior experience into locomotion

modulation, while TAX-4 primarily regulates basal locomotion. Despite both pathways engaging cGMP

signaling, their functional independence suggests distinct regulatory mechanisms for basal locomotion and

context-dependent adjustments.

Given that four other genes (*cng-1, cng-2, cng-3* and *cng-4*) are predicted to encode CNG channels in *C.*

elegans, we investigated their role in locomotion modulation in microfluidic chambers [67]. Due to abnormal

development in *cng-1* mutants, we were unable to assess their locomotion; however, we were able to evaluate

mutants of the other three genes. We found that *cng-3(gk541751)* mutant worms failed to adjust locomotion

speed in the microfluidic chambers, while *cng-2(tm4267)* and *cng-4(gk195496)* mutants exhibited normal

modulation comparable to wild type worms (Fig. 3D). The identification of CNG-3 was particularly intriguing, as

recent studies suggest that it mediates changes in AFD neuronal activity based on prior temperature

experiences [68,69], indicating that CNG-3 contributes to neural plasticity rather than direct stimulus detection.

Our results further support this view by showing that CNG-3 plays a broader role in locomotion modulation in

environments lacking thermal gradients, which suggests its involvement in neuronal plasticity beyond the

thermosensory modality.

Next, we determined whether AFD is the site where CNG-3 functions in context-dependent locomotion

modulation. To do so, we introduced single-copy transgenes expressing *cng-3* cDNA under the control of two

AFD-specific promoters, *srtx-1Bp* and *gcy-18p*, into *cng-3(gk541751)* mutant worms. Regardless of the

promoter used, AFD-specific expression of *cng-3* restored the locomotion speed modulation (Δspeed: 47 $\pm$ 8%

for *srtx-1Bp*::*cng-3* and 40 $\pm$ 6% for *gcy-18p::cng-3*) to levels similar to wild type (Fig 3E). These results

demonstrate that AFD neurons are the site of action for CNG-3 in mediating context-dependent locomotion

modulation. Overall, our findings elucidate an unexplored role for AFD beyond thermosensation, revealing that

components of a cGMP signaling pathway enable AFD to modulate behavior in an experience-dependent

manner.

AFD sensory microvilli are dispensable for locomotion modulation, but AFD neurons are required.

The finding that cGMP signaling genes (such as *gcy-18* and *cng-3*) in AFD neurons modulate context-

dependent locomotion prompted us to investigate whether the AFD thermosensory apparatus, crucial for

temperature detection [36], is also necessary for locomotion modulation in our microfluidic assay. Previous

studies have shown that the sensory microvilli at the tip of the AFD dendrite (Fig. 4A) are essential for

temperature sensing and thermotaxis [36,38]. For example, mutations in the *kcc-3* gene, which encodes a

K^+/Cl^- cotransporter in the amphid sheath glia, disrupt microvilli formation and significantly impair thermotaxis

towards their cultivation temperature [37]. Despite these thermotaxis defects, we found that context-dependent

locomotion modulation remained unchanged in *kcc-3(ok228)* mutant worms (Δspeed: 33 $\pm$ 4%) compared to

wild type (42 $\pm$ 7%; p = 0.28; Fig. 4B, C). Interestingly, *kcc-3* mutant worms displayed elevated basal

locomotion rates in both chamber types (Fig. 4B), a phenomenon also observed in *tax-4* mutants. This further

supports our earlier finding that alterations in basal locomotion do not correlate with context-dependent

locomotion modulation (Suppl. Fig. 2B, C). Together, these findings suggest that the role of AFD neurons in

modulating context-dependent locomotion is distinct from their thermosensory functions and differs from the

mechanisms controlling basal locomotion.

To further confirm that the sensory endings of AFD are not required for context-dependent locomotion

modulation, we examined *ttx-1(767)* mutant worms, which completely lack microvilli and exhibit more severe

thermotaxis defects than those seen in *kcc-3* mutants [38]. Consistent with the notion that AFD has separate

roles in context-dependent locomotion and thermosensation, *ttx-1* mutants still display locomotion modulation

in microfluidic chambers. However, the extent of modulation in these mutants was slightly reduced and more

variable (Δspeed: 29 $\pm$ 10%) compared to wild type animals (42 $\pm$ 7%, p = 0.29, Fig. 4D). It is worth noting that

ttx-1 mutations disrupt the expression of multiple AFD genes, including those involved in cGMP signaling [70],

which may explain the increased variability in locomotion modulation. Nonetheless, despite completely lacking

the AFD sensory apparatus, the ability of *ttx-1* mutant worms to adjust their locomotion speed further

demonstrates that AFD neurons modulate context-dependent locomotion via mechanisms distinct from those

used in thermosensation.

Surprised to find that the AFD sensory apparatus is dispensable for locomotion modulation, we next

examined worms with genetically ablated AFD neurons. To achieve targeted AFD ablation, we used a

published strain with an integrated transgene expressing caspase protein under the AFD-specific promoter

gcy-8p [71]. AFD-ablated worms lost the ability to adjust locomotion rates in microfluidic chambers, as

indicated by a significant reduction in Δspeed (wild type: 42 ± 7%, AFD ablated: -2 ± 7%, p <0.001; Fig. 4E).

These results demonstrate that although the sensory endings of AFD are not required for locomotion

adjustment, the AFD neuron itself is essential.

Context-dependent locomotion modulation requires the MEC-10 mechanosensory channel subunit.

We investigated whether mechanosensation is necessary for worms to perform context-dependent

locomotion adjustments in microfluidic chambers. This was prompted by previous findings showing that touch

sensation is critical for *C. elegans* to select their preferred space through interactions with physical structures

[52]. The *mec-10* gene encodes an amiloride-sensitive Na^+ channel protein required for sensing body touch.

Mutations in *mec-10* disrupt mechanotransduction channels in the worms touch-receptor neurons (TRNs),

impairing touch sensitivity [72,73]. We found that *mec-10(tm1552)* mutants failed to display locomotion

adjustment (Δspeed: 5 ± 4%, Fig. 5B). These results show that *mec-10* is crucial for context-dependent

locomotion modulation, supporting the hypothesis that locomotion is modulated depending on the worm's

tactile experience.

AIB interneurons connecting TRNs and AFD are crucial for tactile-dependent behavioral plasticity.

Touch receptor neurons (TRNs) do not directly synapse onto AFD, suggesting that additional neurons are

required to bridge them for tactile-dependent locomotion modulation. Examination of the *C. elegans*

connectome revealed that AIB serves as the shortest network pathway connecting TRNs to AFD (Fig. 5A). This

positions AIB as a key candidate for relaying signals from TRNs to AFD. If this is correct, we expect AIB to be

necessary for tactile-dependent modulation. To examine this, we quantified the locomotion of AIB-ablated

worms in microfluidic chambers. For this, we employed a previously published strain expressing caspase

under an AIB-specific promoter (*npr-9p*), resulting in ablation of the AIB neuron pair [74]. We found AIB-ablated

worms failed to adjust their speed in chambers, showing a significant reduction in ∆speed (-1 ± 5%) compared

to wild type (32 ± 8%, p <0.01, Fig. 5C). These results demonstrate that the AIB interneurons are crucial for

tactile-dependent locomotion modulation.

Mutations in *innexin* genes disrupt tactile-dependent modulation.

Electrical synapses between AIB and AFD in *C. elegans* are formed by gap junction proteins called

innexins [75]. If these AIB–AFD connections are important for tactile-dependent modulation, then mutations in

innexin genes should impair locomotion adjustments in microfluidic chambers. To examine this hypothesis, we

investigated loss-of-function mutants of various innexin genes. Because *C. elegans* has 25 innexin genes

[76,77], we focused on those known to be expressed in AFD and AIB [78–80], identifying three genes (*inx-4,*

inx-10 and *inx-19)* expressed in AFD*,* one gene (*inx-1)* in AIB, and one gene (*inx-7*) in both*.* We found that *inx-*

10 mutants exhibited a partial but significant decrease in locomotion adjustments (∆speed: 15 ± 3%) compared

to wild type worms (45 ± 7%, p <0.001, Fig. 6A). Similarly, mutations in *inx-1, inx-4, and inx-7* all lowered

∆speed values, although these differences were not statistically significant relative to wild type worms (Fig.

6A). Furthermore, we found that *inx-7; inx-10* double mutants exhibit a lower ∆speed compared to *inx-7* or *inx-*

10 single mutants (Fig. 6B). These findings suggest that disrupting innexins in AFD and AIB impair tactile-

dependent locomotion modulation.

Re-establishing AIB-AFD electrical synapses restores tactile-dependent locomotion modulation in *inx-*

***7; inx-10* double mutants.**

If the tactile-dependent modulation defects in innexin mutants result from disrupted AIB-AFD electrical

synapses, then reintroducing a synthetic gap junction specifically between these neurons should rescue

locomotion modulation. To test this, we employed a recently developed approach that introduces engineered

electrical synapses by expressing the mammalian gap junction protein Cx36 in *C. elegans* neurons. Several

studies have shown that engineered Cx36 synapses in *C. elegans* facilitate electrical coupling between

neurons, support behavioral modulation, and circumvent chemosensory impairments in damaged neural

circuits [81–84]. Based on these findings, we introduced Cx36 into AFD and AIB neurons in *inx-7; inx-10*

double mutants (Fig. 6C). Remarkably, expression of Cx36 in both AFD and AIB significantly improved

locomotion adjustments in *inx-7; inx-10* mutants, increasing Δspeed from 15 ± 3% to 31 ± 8% (p <0.05, Fig.

6D). These findings demonstrate that engineered electrical synapses between AFD and AIB can restore tactile-

dependent locomotion modulation.

DISCUSSION

Our study reveals that the thermosensory AFD neuron plays an unexpected role in coupling tactile experiences

to locomotion modulation in *C. elegans*. We show that: 1) *C. elegans* exhibit distinct locomotion patterns in

identical environments, influenced by prior tactile experiences; 2) tactile-dependent behavior modulation

requires the AFD neuron but not its thermosensory dendritic endings; 3) thermotaxis and tactile-dependent

locomotion modulation rely on distinct sets of cGMP signaling proteins and CNG channel subunits; 4) the AIB

interneuron, which connects AFD to mechanosensory circuits, is essential for tactile modulation; and 5)

electrical synapses between AFD and AIB are critical for this process. Below, we discuss the implications of

these findings.

A thermosensation-independent role for AFD in tactile-dependent behavior modulation.

Our findings highlight the remarkable versatility of sensory neurons in shaping behaviors beyond their

primary functions. This supports the emerging view that sensory neurons have multifaceted roles in circuit

modulation, extending well beyond canonical sensory activities. Such complexity is encoded at multiple levels

within neural circuits. In *C. elegans*, for instance, the ASH neuron drives avoidance responses to various

noxious stimuli, including hyperosmolarity, nose touch, and volatile repellents, demonstrating polymodal

functionality [85–88]. Similarly, the olfactory receptor neuron AWC exhibits stochastic responses to

temperature, introducing variability that enhances the flexibility and reliability of thermotactic behavior [89–91].

In contrast to these examples, the role of AFD in tactile-dependent plasticity does not rely on its sensory

endings but is mediated through synaptic connectivity. This reveals an unexpected mechanism by which AFD

influences context-dependent behavioral plasticity via network-level interactions rather than direct sensory

activity.

Distinct cGMP signaling pathways in AFD mediate sensation and plasticity.

Our data indicates that the CNG channel α subunits TAX-4 and CNG-3 play distinct roles in AFD

function. Previous work has shown that TAX-4 is essential for AFD to detect temperature and generate

thermally evoked responses [40], whereas CNG-3, although dispensable for temperature sensing, is crucial for

tactile-dependent locomotion modulation. Supporting a broader role in sensory plasticity, CNG-3 is required in

AWC neurons for short-term odor adaptation [92] and in AFD for adjusting temperature thresholds based on

prior thermal experiences [68]. Our demonstration of the essential role of CNG-3 in tactile-dependent

locomotion modulation further suggests that CNG-3 enables context-dependent behavioral plasticity rather

than directly mediating stimulus detection.

CNG channels are heteromeric complexes composed of both α and β subunits. Our data, along with

previous work, show that TAX-2, the CNG β subunit in *C. elegans*, is required for both tactile-dependent

locomotion modulation and thermotransduction [40]. This finding implies that TAX-2 can partner with different α

subunits to support sensory detection and neural plasticity. This functional specialization is reminiscent of

photoreceptor neurons, where the composition and ratio of CNG channel subunits determine light sensitivity

and enable contrast detection under varying light intensities [93–95].

In addition to the diversity of CNG channels, guanylyl cyclases in AFD also exhibit functional specificity.

For example, mutations in *gcy-18* alone significantly disrupt tactile-dependent locomotion modulation without

substantially affecting temperature sensing [41,43], whereas *gcy-8* is essential for generating thermally evoked

Ca^{2+} responses [41,42] yet appears dispensable for tactile-dependent plasticity. Together, these results show

that AFD uses distinct sets of guanylyl cyclases and CNG channels to execute dual roles—precise

temperature sensing and context-dependent behavioral modulation.

Differential regulation of context-dependent plasticity and basal locomotion rates in AFD.

Our results further suggest that the mechanisms controlling basal locomotion and context-dependent

behavioral modulation are not only distinct but also operate independently. Temperature fluctuations

significantly affect basal locomotion rates, i.e., higher temperatures accelerate speed, while lower

temperatures slow it down [96,97]. However, tactile-dependent locomotion modulation in microfluidic chambers

remains robust despite these temperature-induced changes in basal movement. This independence is further

supported by our observations in *tax-4* and *kcc-3* mutants, which display elevated basal locomotion rates yet

still adjust their locomotion in response to tactile experiences. These findings indicate that the processes

governing basal locomotion and context-dependent modulation are controlled by separate, non-interfering

mechanisms, even though both pathways engage cGMP signaling.

Electrical synapses bridge distinct circuits for behavioral modulation.

AIB-AFD electrical synapses are pivotal for tactile-dependent behavioral plasticity, serving to connect

mechanosensory and thermosensory circuits. Our results show that disrupting the electrical connection

between AFD and AIB impairs tactile-dependent locomotion modulation, whereas reintroducing engineered

synapses restores it. The successful replacement of invertebrate innexins with vertebrate connexins, proteins

that perform similar functions despite lacking sequence homology, indicates that the core function of these

synapses lies in their connectivity rather than in their specific protein sequences. Previous models have

proposed that AIB-AFD electrical synapses contribute to avoidance behavior by forming part of an FLP-AIB-

AFD circuit, with AIB serving as a hub neuron that integrates sensory inputs via chemical synapse with FLP

and electrical synapse with AFD [98]. Our experiments using engineered synapses elucidate the functional

importance of the AIB-AFD connection in tactile-dependent locomotion modulation. Moreover, the transfer of

signaling molecules such as Ca^{2+} and cGMP through electrical synapses likely facilitates the coordination of

neuronal activity across distinct networks [99–102]. Although the precise mechanisms require further

investigation, our study demonstrates that AIB-AFD electrical synapses are essential for incorporating tactile

context into locomotion modulation.

IN SUMMARY, our findings reveal an unexpected role for AFD in tactile-dependent behavioral plasticity. They

show that specialized molecular mechanisms (including distinct cGMP signaling pathways, diverse guanylyl

cyclases, and functional electrical synapse connectivity) enable AFD sensory neurons to perform dual

functions: detect stimuli and support context-dependent plasticity. This work expands our understanding of

sensory neuron versatility supporting adaptive behavior in animals.

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project.

METHODS

Nematode Strains and Growth – *C. elegans* strains were maintained under standard conditions at 20°C on

nematode growth medium (NGM) agar plates [103]. These plates were seeded with *E. coli* OP50 lawns.

Strains used in this study are listed in Table 1.

Single Copy Insertion of Transgenes – *Mos1*-mediated transgene insertion methods were used to generate

transgenic animals carrying single-copy transgenes [104,105]. Briefly, worms carrying the *ttTi5605 Mos1* site

on chromosome II were injected with a mixture of plasmids encoding the transgene of interest (40 ng/μl) and

Cas9 protein plus guide RNA specific to the *Mos1* site (60 ng/μl). To aid in selection of successful insertions,

the inserted transgene also included markers *vha-9p::mScarlet* and *rps-0p::hygR*, which confer red

fluorescence in the gut and hygromycin resistance, respectively.

Transgenes and Germline Transformation – Strains carrying extrachromosomal arrays were generated by

microinjecting various plasmids together with co-injection markers. The co-injection markers included *unc-*

112p::gfp (coelomocyte, 30 ng/μl), *rpl-28p::neoR* (20 ng/μl), and *Cbr-unc-119* (20 ng/μl). The blank vector

pBluescript was used as filler DNA to bring the final total DNA concentration to 100 ng/μl. A detailed list of the

plasmids used to create transgenic worms in this study is provided in Table 2.

Fabrication of PDMS Microfluidic Chambers – Microfluidic chambers were designed in AutoCAD (S1. File),

and the resulting CAD designs were used to fabricate SU8-Silicon molds with a height of 100 μm using

photolithography (FlowJem, NO, Canada). These molds were then used to fabricate microfluidic chambers with

various physical features using soft lithography with polydimethyl siloxane (PDMS, Sylgard 184, Dow Corning,

MI). Specifically, PDMS prepolymer was poured onto the SU8-silicon molds and cured at 80°C for 2 hours.

Once cured, the PDMS layer was carefully lifted away from the silicon wafer, and a 2 mm skin biopsy punch

(Acuderm Inc., FL) was used to create inlet and outlet holes. To assemble the device, the PDMS layer was

place onto a microscope slide (1 mm thick), and the assembly was treated in a plasma cleaner (PDC-32G,

Harrick Scientific, NY) for 1 minute. Distilled water was added to the plasma-treated devices within 5 minutes.

Before loading the worms, the devices were thoroughly rinsed with M9 buffer.

Behavior Analysis – Worms were age-synchronized for behavioral assays by transferring 40–50 young adult

worms onto an NGM plate seeded with OP50 and allowing them to lay eggs for 2 hours before removal. The

plates were then kept at room temperature (20 ± 2°C) for 72 hours, allowing the eggs to develop into young

adults. To wash the synchronized adults off the plate, worms were gently transferred into Eppendorf tubes

using glass Pasteur pipettes. After allowing the worms to settle at the bottom of the tube (~1 minute), the

supernatant was removed and replaced with fresh M9 buffer. This washing step was repeated three times to

remove residual OP50. Next, approximately 30–70 worms were loaded into the chamber inlet using a 20μl

pipette and allowed to explore the chamber freely for 60 minutes before recording. Videos were captured for 10

seconds at 7.5 frames per second using a Basler acA2440 camera (Basler, PA) equipped with an AF Micro-

NIKKOR 60 mm lens (Nikon, NY). Behavioral data were extracted from the videos using WormLab software

(MBF Bioscience, VT) through individual worm tracking. Only those worms that were already within the assay

area at the start of the recording were analyzed, and any worms that entered later were excluded. Crawling

speed was determined by the total distance traveled by a worm during the 10 second recording. A turn was

defined as a change in crawling direction of 15° or more. Reversals were defined as sudden movement in the

opposite direction for at least 5 frames (~0.6 seconds). Worms were considered idle if their absolute velocity

(distance traveled between frames) was below 20 µm/s for more than 10 frames (~1.3 seconds).

Statistical Analysis – Behavior measurements were calculated for each individual chamber, and these

chamber-specific values were then used to generate the final mean values shown in the bar plots. The sample

size was defined as the number (approximately 25) of chambers analyzed per experiment. An unpaired

Student's t-test with Bonferroni correction was used to compare average speeds between uniform and binary

chambers. To quantify the relative difference between groups, we calculated the percent change for each value

in the uniform chambers relative to the mean of value from the binary chambers. Specifically, we subtracted

the mean of the values from the binary chamber from each individual value in the uniform chamber. The result

was then divided by the mean of the binary chamber and multiplied by 100 to express the difference as a

percentage. For comparisons among multiple strains, we conducted one-way ANOVA followed by a Tukey–

Kramer post hoc test on all possible pairwise comparisons. All statistical analyses were performed using R.

Figure 1. *C. elegans* displays distinct locomotion in identical environments after exploring different surrounding

areas. (A) Schematic of two microfluidic chamber designs—uniform and binary—used for behavioral assays.

Both chambers feature an identical assay area (red dashed-line boxes) where locomotion was analyzed, while

the exploration zones contain distinct PDMS pillar patterns for worm exploration. (B–E) Bar graphs showing

locomotion properties of wild type N2 worms in the assay zones of both chamber types after 1 hour of

exploration. Data from binary chambers are shown in orange and from uniform chambers in blue. Shown are

(B) locomotion speed, (C) percentage of time spent idle, (D) reversal frequency, and (E) turning frequency.

Error bars represent standard error of the mean (SEM); each data point represents the mean behavior value of

worms within a chamber. (F) Percent changes in locomotion properties, calculated from data in panels B–E

and normalized to the mean value obtained from binary chambers (see Methods), are presented as mean ±

SEM. Statistical significance was determined using an unpaired Student's t-test (***: $p < 0.001$, *: $p < 0.05$).

Figure 2. Guanylate cyclase gene *gcy-18* functions in AFD to mediate context-dependent locomotion

modulation. (A) Speed differences (Δspeed) between uniform and binary chambers of wild type N2, *gcy-18* and

gcy-12 mutant worms. ΔSpeed was calculated as the percent change in locomotion rates in uniform chambers,

relative to the mean of values obtained in binary chambers (see Methods). Mutant worms lacking *gcy-18* failed

to demonstrate context-dependent adjustments in locomotion speed, as indicated by a low Δspeed value,

whereas *gcy-12* mutants behaved similarly to wild type worms. (B) A single-copy transgene expressing *gcy-18*

cDNA under the control of the *gcy-8* promoter in AFD restores context-dependent locomotion modulation. (C)

Disruption of *gcy-8* does not impair context-dependent locomotion modulation. (D) Schematic illustrating the

distinct roles of guanylate cyclase genes in AFD sensory neurons: *gcy-8* is required for thermosensation but

not for context-dependent locomotion modulation, whereas *gcy-18* is essential for context-dependent

locomotion modulation and plays only a moderate role in thermosensation. Data are presented as mean ±

SEM. Each data point represents the mean behavior of worms within a single chamber. Statistical significance

was determined using one-way ANOVA followed by a Tukey–Kramer post hoc test (***: $p < 0.001$).

Figure 3. Cyclic nucleotide-gated (CNG) channel subunits TAX-2 and CNG-3 are required for locomotion

modulation, but TAX-4 is not. (A) Schematic representation of CNG channel function. CNG channels are

activated by cyclic nucleotides (such as cGMP) and mediate Ca^{2+} influx, thereby influencing neuronal activity

and animal behavior. (B) Locomotion speed (µm/s) of N2, *tax-2*, and *tax-4* mutant worms in binary (orange)

and uniform (blue) chambers. The *tax-2* mutants exhibit identical locomotion rates in both chamber types,

whereas worms lacking *tax-4* display accelerated basal locomotion while still preserving context-dependent

locomotion modulation. (C) Speed differences (Δspeed) for N2, *tax-2* mutant, and *tax-4* mutant worms. The

tax-2 mutants failed to modulate locomotion rates in a context-dependent manner, whereas *tax-4* mutations

enhanced modulation. (D) Assessment of *cng-2*, *cng-3*, and *cng-4* roles in locomotion adjustments. The *cng-3*

mutation abolishes locomotion modulation. (E) Single-copy transgenes expressing *cng-3* cDNA under two

different AFD-specific promoters restore context-dependent locomotion adjustments. Data are presented as

mean ± SEM. Each data point represents the mean behavior of worms within a single chamber. Statistical

significance was determined using an unpaired Student's t-test to compare speeds between uniform and

binary chambers (panel B) and one-way ANOVA followed by a Tukey–Kramer post hoc test to compare

Δspeed across strains (panels C-E) (*: $p < 0.05$; **: $p < 0.01$, and ***: $p < 0.001$).

Figure 4. AFD, but not its sensory endings, is required for context-dependent locomotion modulation. (A)

Schematic representation of AFD function in temperature sensing and locomotion modulation. AFD sensory

endings are essential for thermosensation but dispensable for context-dependent locomotion modulation. (B)

Locomotion speed (μm/s) of wild type N2 and *kcc-3* mutant worms in the binary (orange) and uniform (blue)

chambers. The *kcc-3* mutants preserve context-dependent locomotion modulation while exhibiting increased

basal locomotion rates. (C) Speed differences (Δspeed) for N2 and *kcc-3* mutant worms, and (D) for N2 and

ttx-1 mutant worms, respectively. Context-dependent locomotion modulation remains in *kcc-3* and *ttx-1* mutant

worms, although they abolish the AFD thermosensory function. (E) Ablation of AFD eliminates the context-

dependent locomotion modulation. Data are presented as mean ± SEM. Each data point represents the mean

behavior of worms within a single chamber. Statistical significance was determined using an unpaired

Student's t-text (n.s. indicates not significant, and ***: p < 0.001).

Figure 5. Context-dependent locomotion adjustments require both the mechanosensory channel subunit MEC-10 and the AIB interneurons that connect AFD to touch circuits. (A) Schematic representation of neurons synapsing with AFD. AIB provides the shortest pathway linking AFD to touch receptor neurons. (B, C) Speed differences (Δspeed) for N2, *mec-10* mutants, and AIB-ablated (-AIB) worms. Both *mec-10* mutants (B) and AIB-ablated worms (C) fail to modulate locomotion in microfluidic chambers. Data are presented as mean ± SEM. Each data point represents the mean behavior of worms within a single chamber. Statistical significance was determined using one-way ANOVA followed by a Tukey–Kramer post hoc test (**: p < 0.01).

Figure 6. Tactile-dependent locomotion modulation is disrupted in mutant worms lacking gap junction genes

and is restored by engineered Cx36 electrical synapses linking AFD and AIB. (A) Speed differences (∆speed)

for *inx-1, 4, 7, 10, 19* mutant worms. (B) Speed differences for *inx-7; inx-10* double mutants. (C) Schematic

illustrating engineered electrical synapses formed by Cx36 when expressed in adjacent neurons. (D) Tactile-

dependent locomotion modulation is restored in *inx-7; inx-10* double mutants by expressing Cx36 in AFD and

AIB neurons. Data are presented as mean ± SEM. Each data point represents the mean behavior of worms

within a single chamber. Statistical significance was determined using one-way ANOVA followed by a Tukey–

Kramer post hoc test (*: $p < 0.05$; **: $p < 0.01$, and ***: $p < 0.001$).

Suppl. Figure 1. Worms lacking either *gcy-18* or *gcy-12* failed to identify their preferred area in microfluidic

chambers. Preference index values of wild type N2 worms, *gcy-18* mutants, and *gcy-12* mutants were

determined as described by Han *et al.* [52]. Wild type worms exhibit a strong preference for a specific zone

(zone IV, as defined by Han *et al*. [52]), whereas both *gcy-18* and *gcy-12* mutants show significantly reduced

preference compared to wild type worms. Bars represent mean ± SEM. Statistical comparisons were

performed using one-way ANOVA followed by a Dunnett's test for multiple comparisons (**p < 0.01).

Suppl. figure 2. Temperature shifts do not affect tactile-dependent modulation. (A) Schematic of experimental

design: Worms were reared at three different temperatures (17°C, 20°C, and 23°C) and then transferred to

20°C for 1 hour during the behavioral assay. (B) Locomotion speed of wild type N2 worms in the binary

(orange) and uniform (blue) chambers after experiencing temperature shifts. Linear regression analysis reveals

a significant positive correlation between rearing temperature and locomotion speed in both chambers. (C)

Differences in speed (Δspeed) between worms experiencing different temperature shifts. Linear regression

significance test shows no significant relationship between Δspeed and temperature shift. Points represent

mean ± SEM.

Table 1. List of *C. elegans* strains used in this study

Strain	Genotype	Citation
PR694	*tax-2(p694) I*	[106]
PR678	*tax-4(p678) III*	[65]
FX31482	*cng-2(tm4267) IV*	[107]
VC40261	*cng-3(gk541751) IV*	[108]
VC20290	*cng-4(gk195496) IV*	[108]
IK800	*gcy-8(oy44) IV.*	[43]
VC30137	*gcy-18(gk423024) IV*	[108]
VC20451	*gcy-12(gk142661) II*	[108]
BJH3481	*gcy-18(gk423024) IV, pekSi609[gcy-18p::gcy-18(cDNA)::sl2::mNeonGreen::unc-54 3'utr, vha-6p::mScarlet, hygR(+)] ttTi5605 II*	This study
BJH3527	*pekSi655[srtx-1Bp::cng-3(cDNA)::sl2::mNeonGreen::unc-54 3'utr, vha-9p::mScarlet, hygR(+)] ttTi5605 II; cng-3(gk541751) IV*	This study
BJH3537	*tax-2(p694) I; pekSi665[srtx-1Bp::tax2(cDNA)::sl2::mNeonGreen ::unc-54 3'utr, vha-9p::mScarlet, hygR(+)] ttTi5605 II*	This study
BJH3539	*pekSi667 [gcy-18p::cng-3(cDNA)::sl2::mNeonGreen::unc-54 3'utr, vha-9p::mScarlet, hygR(+)] ttTi5605 II; cng-3(gk541751) IV*	This study
GN112	*pgIs2[gcy-8p::TU#813, gcy-8p::TU#814, unc-122p::GFP, gcy-8p::mCherry, gcy-8p::gfp, ttx-3p::gfp]*	[71]
LX1024	*kcc-3(ok228) II*	[37]
PR767	*ttx-1(p767) V*	[38]
JN578	*peIs578 [npr-9p::casp1 + npr-9p::venus + unc-122p::mCherry] (genetically ablated AIB)*	[74]
ZB2551	*mec-10(tm1552) X*	[72]
CB1611	*mec-4(e1611) X*	[109]
FG927	*inx-1(tm6662) X.*	[110]
FG0614	*inx-4 (ok2373) V*	[80]
RB1792	*inx-7(ok2319) IV*	[110]
RB2051	*inx-10(ok2714) V*	[110]
FX01896	*inx-19(tm1896) I*	[111]
BJH2919	*inx-7(ok2319) IV; inx-10(ok2714) V*	This study
BJH1162	*pekEx302 [srtx-1Bp::cx36::sl2::mNeonGreen, inx-1p::cx36 ::sl2::mKate, Cbr-unc-119(+), unc-122p::GFP, neoR(+)]; unc-119(ed3) III; inx-7(ok2319) IV; inx-10(ok2714) V*	This study

553 **Table 2. List of plasmids used to create transgenic *C. elegans* strains**

Name	Contruct	Notes
BJP-MR16	*gcy-18p::gcy-18(mini-gene)::sl2::mNeonGreen::rab-3 3'utr; vha-9p::mScarlet::tbb-2 3'utr; rps-0p::hygR*	The *gcy-18* mini-gene includes all exons and introns 11, 12, and 13.
BJP-MR65	*srtx-1Bp::cng-3(cDNA)::sl2::mNeonGreen::rab-3 3'utr; vha-9p::mScarlet::tbb-2 3'utr; rps-0p::hygR*	
BJP-MR72	*srtx-1Bp::tax2(cDNA)::sl2::mNeonGreen::rab-3 3'utr; vha-9p::mScarlet::tbb-2 3'utr; rps-0p::hygR*	
BJP-MR93	*gcy-18p::cng-3(cDNA)::sl2::mNeonGreen::rab-3 3'utr; vha-9p::mScarlet::tbb-2 3'utr; rps-0p::hygR*	
BJP-MR96	*inx-1p::cx36::sl2::mKate::rab-3 3'utr*	
BJP-MR97	*srtx-1bp::cx36::sl2::mKate::rab-3 3'utr*	

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