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* display distinct locomotion in identical environments after exploring different**

physical structures.

To test whether prior physical experience influences *C. elegans* behavior, we allowed worms to

explore microfluidic chambers with distinct pillar designs before recording their locomotion in identical

assay zones (Fig. 1A). Because the environment within the assay zone is the same across chambers,

behavioral differences observed there are likely to reflect an influence of prior tactile experience. To

implement this assay, we designed two microfluidic chambers that differ only in the physical structure

of the exploration zone: a uniform chamber and a binary chamber (Fig. 1A). Before reaching the

assay zone, worms explore surrounding areas with pillar designs that differ in size and spacing

(exploration zone, Fig. 1A). This design allowed us to assess how exposure to different physical

contexts impacts locomotion in an otherwise identical setting.

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

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

behavior distinct from those in the binary chamber assay zone (Fig.1 B-F). Specifically, worms in the

uniform chamber assay zone moved approximately 40% faster (Fig. 1B, F), spent ~20% less time idle

(Fig. 1C, F), reversed direction ~20% less frequently (Fig. 1D, F), and turned ~30% more often (Fig.

1E, F) than worms in the binary chamber assay zone. Among the parameters measured, locomotion speed showed the most robust and reproducible modulation, establishing a stable behavioral metric for dissecting the underlying circuit and molecular mechanisms. These findings demonstrate that locomotion is shaped by past sensory experience rather than solely by immediate environmental cues.

Because worms in the binary chamber are exposed to both pillar types and remain free to move between exploration and assay zones, the behavioral differences described above could reflect exposure to a more complex physical environment rather than prior experience alone. To directly test whether locomotion is modulated by prior physical experience independently of continued access to the exploration zone, we designed microfluidic chambers in which the assay zone could be separated from the exploration zone by a removable barrier (Fig. 1–Supplement 1A). In these chambers, worms were initially allowed to explore the entire device, including exploration zones that either matched or differed from the assay zone. A barrier was then inserted to prevent worms in the assay zone from re-entering the exploration zones.

Under these conditions, locomotion immediately after barrier insertion was higher in worms that had previously explored physical settings matching the assay zone (205 ± 8 µm/s) than in worms that had explored non-matching settings (151 ± 7 µm/s; $p = 0.006$; Fig. 1–Supplement 1B). This difference persisted when worms were recorded 40 minutes after barrier insertion, with animals in matching chamber retaining their higher locomotion rates (218 ± 11 µm/s) compared to those in non-matching chambers (185 ± 8 µm/s; $p = 0.02$; Fig. 1–Supplement 1B). These findings demonstrate that prior exploration of distinct physical environments can modulate locomotion even when worms are prevented from returning to those environments, supporting a role for prior physical experience independent of ongoing sensory input.

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 cyclases (GCs), the enzymes responsible for cGMP synthesis. Using the preference assay, we identified two putative null mutants, *gcy-18(gk423024)* and *gcy-12(gk142661),* that displayed significant defects in spatial preference (Fig. 2–Supplement 1A). We then compared the locomotion of *gcy-18* and *gcy-12* mutants in both uniform and binary chambers. *gcy-12* mutant worms exhibited normal speed adjustment compared to wild type (Δspeed: *gcy-12*: 24 ± 5% vs. N2: 35 ± 7%, p = 0.27, Fig. 2– Supplement 1B), indicating that *gcy-12* is not required for locomotion modulation. In contrast, *gcy-18(gk423024)* mutants failed to execute context-dependent speed adjustment (Δspeed *gcy-18*: 3 ± 5% vs. N2: 35 ± 7%; p = 0.0013; Fig. 2A). A second allele, *gcy-18(nj38),* similarly showed significantly reduced Δspeed (11 ± 2%; p =0.011 compared to wild type; Fig. 2A). Together, these results indicate that *gcy-18* is required for context-dependent behavioral adjustment.

To confirm that the defects observed in *gcy-18* mutants were not due to background artifacts, we introduced a single-copy *gcy-18* transgene driven by the *gcy-18* promoter into *gcy-18(gk423024)* mutants. Expression of this transgene restored locomotion adjustments to near wild type levels (Δspeed: *gcy-18p::gcy-18*: 28 ± 6% vs. N2: 35 ± 7%, p = 0.8, Fig. 2B), confirming that loss of *gcy-18* underlies the observed behavioral defects. 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, these findings suggest a previously unrecognized

role for *gcy-18* and AFD neurons in mediating locomotion adjustments based on prior exploration of

physical environments.

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, with Δspeed values similar to

that observed in wild type worms (Δspeed: *gcy-8*: 29 ± 7% vs. N2: 35 ± 7%; 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 eliminates AFD

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 (Δspeed: *tax-4*: 68 $\pm$ 6%

vs. N2: 41$\pm$ 6%; p = 0.002; Fig. 3C), a striking difference from the lack of speed changes seen in *tax-*

2 mutants (Δspeed: *tax-2*: 2 $\pm$ 2%; p < 0.0001 compared to wild type). We examined the locomotion

speed of mutant worms in the binary chambers, which we refer to as the basal speed because wild

type worms consistently move slowest in this environment. We found *tax-4* mutants showed

significantly higher basal speed than the wild type (*tax-4:* 193 $\pm$ 9 µm/s vs. N2: 104 $\pm$ 4 µm/s, p <

0.0001; Fig. 3B), indicating that *tax-4* mutants can still adjust locomotion speed based on prior

experience even when basal locomotion is accelerated.

To further examine how basal locomotion influences context-dependent modulation, we took

advantage of the fact that worm locomotion rates are sensitive to environmental temperature [67,68].

We examined the relationship between temperature-induced changes in basal locomotion and

locomotion modulation based on prior experience of physical surroundings. Wild type worms

cultivated at either 23°C or 17°C and then transferred to 20°C exhibited significantly changes in basal

locomotion speed. Despite changes in basal speed, the extent of locomotion modulation in the

chambers was largely unaffected (Fig.3–Supplement 1A). Specifically, locomotion speed was

positively correlated with temperature shifts in both chambers (binary chambers: r = 0.52, p < 0.0001;

uniform chambers: r = 0.48, p < 0.0001; Fig.3–Supplement 1B), whereas no significant correlation

was observed between temperature and Δspeed (r = -0.03, p = 0.22; Fig.3—Supplement 1C),

supporting the notion that basal locomotion speed and context-dependent modulation are regulated

independently.

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

locomotion modulation, whereas TAX-4 primarily regulates overall locomotion level. Although both

pathways engaging cGMP signaling, their distinct phenotypes suggest separate 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

[69]. 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 showed significantly decreased speed modulation compared to wild type

(Δspeed: *cng-3:* 5 $\pm$ 4%, p = 0.0002; Fig. 3D), while *cng-2(tm4267)* and *cng-4(gk195496)* mutants

exhibited normal modulation comparable to wild type worms (p = 0.54 and p = 4.47 respectively; 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 [70,71], 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 to levels comparable to wild type (Δspeed: *srx-1Bp::cng-3*: 47 $\pm$ 8%; p < 0.0001

compared to *cng-3* mutant, p = 0.91 compared to wild type; and *gcy-18p::cng-3:* 40 $\pm$ 6%, p = 0.0007

compared to *cng-3* mutant, p = 0.99 compared to wild type; Fig. 3E). These results indicate that AFD

neurons are the site of action for CNG-3 in mediating context-dependent locomotion modulation.

Together, our findings reveal a role for AFD beyond thermosensation and show that components of a

cGMP signaling pathway enable AFD to modulate locomotion in an experience-dependent manner.

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

The finding that GCY-18 and CNG-3 in AFD neurons are required for context-dependent locomotion prompted us to test whether the AFD thermosensory apparatus is also necessary for this function. This apparatus consists of sensory microvilli at the tip of the AFD dendrite (Fig. 4A) and is 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 toward the cultivation temperature [37].

Despite this disruption, locomotion modulation based on experience of physical settings remained intact in *kcc-3(ok228)* mutant worms compared to wild type (Δspeed: *kcc-3*: 33 ± 4% vs. N2: 42 ± 7%, p = 0.28; Fig. 4B, C). *kcc-3* mutants also displayed elevated basal locomotion rates (basal speed: *kcc-3:* 174 ± 8 µm/s vs. N2: 115 ± 7 µm/s, p < 0.0001; Fig. 4B), similar to what we observed in *tax-4* mutants. This supports our earlier finding that overall locomotion rate does not necessarily correlate with context-dependent modulation.

To further test whether AFD sensory endings are required for context-dependent locomotion modulation, we examined *ttx-1(767)* mutant worms, which completely lack AFD microvilli and exhibit more severe thermotaxis defects than *kcc-3* mutants [38]. Despite the loss of sensory microvilli, *ttx-1* mutants retained the ability to modulate locomotion in microfluidic chambers. The extent of modulation was modestly reduced and more variable compared to wild type animals (Δspeed: *ttx-1*: 29 ± 10% vs. N2: 42 ± 7%, p = 0.29, Fig. 4D). Because *ttx-1* mutations disrupt the expression of multiple AFD genes, including components of the cGMP signaling pathway [72], this increased variability may reflect broader perturbations in AFD function. Nonetheless, these results indicate that AFD sensory microvilli are not strictly required for context-dependent locomotion modulation.

Given that *gcy-18* is required for context-dependent locomotion modulation and that GCY-18 localizes to the distal dendrite of AFD, we next examined how disruption of sensory microvilli affects its localization in AFD. We used a split-GFP strategy to visualize endogenous GCY-18 [73]. A tandem

array of seven GFP11 β-strands (GFP11x7) was inserted at the C-terminus of GCY-18 using CRISPR-Cas9. When complemented with GFP1-10, GCY-18::GFP11x7 fluorescence was strongly enriched at the AFD sensory microvilli near the nose (Fig. 4–Supplement 1A-A″), consistent with previous reports [42,74,75]. In addition, weaker but reproducible GCY-18 signal was detected near the AFD soma and axon (Fig. 4–Supplement 1A‴). Importantly, in *kcc-3*, which exhibit disrupted sensory microvilli, and *ttx-1* mutants, which lack sensory microvilli, GCY-18 remained localized to the distal dendrite and was still detectable near the soma and axon (Fig. 4–Supplement 1B-B‴ and 1C-C‴). Although these experiments do not identify the precise subcellular site at which GCY-18 acts, they show that disruption or loss of sensory microvilli does not substantially alter GCY-18 localization within AFD.

We next asked whether AFD neurons themselves are required for this behavior. Using a published strain expressing caspase under the AFD-specific *gcy-8* promoter [76], we found that AFD-ablated worms completely lost the ability to adjust locomotion in microfluidic chambers. These animals showed no detectable differences between uniform and binary chambers in locomotion speed, idle time, or turning frequency (Fig. 4E). Together, these results indicate that while AFD sensory microvilli are dispensable for context-dependent locomotion modulation, the AFD neurons themselves are essential.

Building on our finding that locomotion modulation can be driven by prior physical experience even after worms are prevented from re-entering the exploration zones, we next tested whether AFD is required for this modulation using chambers in which the exploration and assay zones were separated by a removable barrier (Fig. 1–Supplement 1A). Under these conditions, locomotion modulation was significantly reduced in AFD-ablated worms (Δspeed: -AFD = 1 ± 6% vs. N2 = 23 ± 7%; p = 0.036; Fig. 4–Supplement 2A). Similarly, *gcy-18* mutants showed defective locomotion modulation (Δspeed: *gcy-18* = -1 ± 8% vs. N2 = 23 ± 7%; p = 0.034; Fig. 4–Supplement 2A). These results indicate that AFD and *gcy-18* are required to generate locomotion modulation in response to recent physical experience.

Finally, to determine whether the modulation defects observed in *gcy-18* mutants and AFD-

ablated worms could be attributed to developmental abnormalities or gross motor impairments, we

measured locomotion speed and body length on standard NGM plates. Both day-1 adult AFD-ablated

worms (speed: 281 ± 10 µm/s; p = 0.33; body length: 1.12 ± 0.01 mm; p = 0.76) and *gcy-18* mutants

(speed: 291 ± 13 µm/s; p = 0.22; body length: 1.15 ± 0.02 mm; p = 0.86) showed locomotion speeds

and body lengths comparable to wild type controls (speed: 252 ± 30 µm/s; body length: 1.14 ± 0.02

mm; Fig. 4–Supplement 2B, C). These results indicate that the loss of context-dependent locomotion

modulation is not due to developmental defects or gross impairments in locomotion.

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

subunit.

Having established that AFD integrates prior physical experience independent of its

thermosensory apparatus, we next asked whether direct mechanosensory input is required for

context-dependent locomotion modulation. 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, impairing touch sensitivity [77,78]. We found that *mec-10(tm1552)* mutants

failed to display locomotion adjustment compared to wild type worms (Δspeed: *mec-10*: 5 ± 4% vs.

N2: 33 ± 6%, p = 0.0003; Fig. 5A). 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.

The *mec-10* gene is expressed in several mechanosensory neurons, including the six touch

receptor neurons (TRNs) and the polymodal nociceptors FLP and PVD [77,79]. To determine which

neurons are required for tactile-dependent locomotion modulation, we expressed *mec-10* cDNA

under cell-specific promoters: *mec-18p* (TRNs) [80], *egl-44p* (FLP) [81], or *mec-10p* (TRNs, FLP, and

PVD) [79]. Expression in either FLP or TRNs alone did not restore modulation, as worms carrying *egl-*

44p::mec-10 (Δspeed: -11 ± 4%) or *mec-18p::mec-10* (Δspeed: -13 ± 4%) transgenes showed

significantly reduced Δspeed compared to wild type (Δspeed: N2: 33 ± 6%; p < 0.0001 for both; Fig.

5A). By contrast, *mec-10* co-expression in both FLP and TRNs (Δspeed: 16 ± 4%), or expression

from the *mec-10* promoter (Δspeed: 23 ± 4%), restored Δspeed to wild type levels (p = 0.20 and p =

0.57, respectively; Fig. 5A). These findings indicate that *mec-10* expression across multiple

mechanosensory neuron types is required for context-dependent locomotion modulation. It is also

worth noting that, while both tactile-dependent locomotion modulation and previously reported spatial

preference require FLP, only the former depends on TRNs. Together, these findings suggest that

distinct subsets of mechanosensory neurons differentially contribute to behaviors shaped by tactile

experience.

AIB interneurons are crucial for tactile-dependent behavioral plasticity.

Touch-sensitive neurons that express *mec-10*, including TRNs, FLP, and PVD, do not form

direct synapses with AFD, suggesting that tactile information is relayed through intermediary neurons.

Because the interneuron AIB receives synaptic input from FLP and forms electrical synapses with

AFD, we hypothesized that AIB could serve as a conduit for mechanosensory signals to reach AFD.

To test whether AIB is required for tactile-dependent modulation, we examined locomotion in worms

with genetically ablated AIB neurons using *npr-9p::caspase* expression [82]. AIB-ablated worms failed

to adjust locomotion speed, showing a near-complete loss of modulation (Δspeed: -1 ± 5%) compared

to wild type (30 ± 8%, p = 0.001, Fig. 5B). These results demonstrate that AIB is required for AFD-

mediated tactile-dependent locomotion modulation. However, because *mec-10*-expressing TRNs are

also required, additional pathways beyond AIB likely contribute to transmitting tactile information to

AFD, potentially involving indirect synaptic connections through other interneurons or long-distance

signaling via neuropeptides or other modulators (Fig. 5C).

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

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

proteins known as innexins [83]. If electrical coupling between AIB and AFD contributes to tactile-

dependent locomotion modulation, then disruption of innexin genes should impair locomotion

adjustments in microfluidic chambers. To test this, we examined loss-of-function mutants of several

innexin genes. *C. elegans* possesses 25 innexin genes [84,85]. Single-cell RNA-seq data from the

CeNGEN database [86] indicate that three genes (*inx-4, inx-10,* and *inx-19)* are expressed in AFD,

one (*inx-1)* is expressed in AIB, and one (*inx-7*) is expressed in both. We found that *inx-4, inx-7*, and

inx-10 mutants exhibited a partial but significant reduction in locomotion modulation compared to wild

type worms (Δspeed: N2: 45 ± 7%; *inx-4*: 23 ± 5%, p = 0.037; *inx-7*: 21 ± 5%, p = 0.013; *inx-10*:

16 ± 3%, p = 0.0007; Fig. 6A). Mutations in *inx-1* also reduced Δspeed values, although the effect did

not reach statistical significance (Δspeed: *inx-1:* 25 ± 6%, p = 0.076), whereas *inx-19* mutations had

little impact on speed modulation (*inx-19:* 32 ± 5%, p = 0.51, vs. wild type; Fig. 6A). Furthermore, *inx-*

7; inx-10 double mutants exhibited a more pronounced reduction in Δspeed compared to single

mutants (Δspeed: *inx-7; inx-10* double mutant: 6 ± 5%; p = 0.032 compared to *inx-7* single mutant;

Fig. 6B). Together, these findings suggest that multiple innexin genes act redundantly to support

tactile-dependent locomotion modulation.

Targeted electrical coupling between AFD and AIB restores tactile-dependent modulation.

We next tested whether restoring *inx-10* specifically in AFD would be sufficient to rescue the

behavioral defect. Using the AFD-specific *srtx-1b* promoter, we expressed *inx-10* cDNA in *inx-10*

mutant worms. These transgenic animals displayed significantly improved locomotion modulation

(Δspeed: 42 ± 5%) compared to non-transgenic *inx-10* mutants (15 ± 4%; p = 0.018; Fig. 6D),

indicating that *inx-10* expression in AFD alone is sufficient to restore function.

To directly test whether restoring the electrical connection between AFD and AIB could rescue

modulation in innexin mutants, we expressed the mammalian gap junction protein Cx36 [87–90] in

both AFD (*srtx-1Bp*) and AIB (*inx-1p*) neurons in *inx-7; inx-10* double mutants (Fig. 6C). Cx36

expression significantly improved locomotion modulation, restoring Δspeed from 7 ± 4% to 35 ± 8% (p

= 0.0035; Fig. 6D). These results demonstrate that although innexin mutations disrupt connectivity

across multiple neurons, restoring a single targeted electrical connection between AFD and AIB is

sufficient to rescue tactile-dependent locomotion modulation, identifying the AIB-AFD electrical

synapse as a critical circuit element for tactile-dependent behavioral control.

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 [91–94]. Similarly, the olfactory receptor neuron AWC exhibits

stochastic responses to temperature, introducing variability that enhances the flexibility and reliability

of thermotactic behavior [95–97]. 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. Although TAX-4 is essential for AFD to detect temperature and generate thermally evoked

responses [40], it is dispensable for tactile-dependent locomotion modulation. By contrast, CNG-3,

which is not required for temperature sensing [70], is crucial for tactile-dependent locomotion

modulation. Consistent with a broader role in sensory plasticity, CNG-3 is required in AWC neurons

for short-term odor adaptation [98] and in AFD for adjusting temperature thresholds based on prior

thermal experiences [70]. Our demonstration that CNG-3 is essential for tactile-dependent locomotion

modulation further supports the view 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]. Interestingly, TAX-4, the canonical α

partner of TAX-2, is not required for tactile-dependent modulation. This suggests that TAX-2 may

support experience-dependent neural plasticity either on its own or by pairing with alternative α

subunits such as CNG-3. This type of 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 [99–101]. It is worth noting that the *tax-*

2(p694) mutation affects *tax-2* expression in four neurons (AFD, BAG, ASE, and ADE) [102].

Moreover, the strong convergence of functional and circuit-level evidence, including the requirement

for GCY-18, the rescue of CNG-3 function in AFD, and role of AIB–AFD coupling, points to AFD as

the most likely site of TAX-2 function in tactile-dependent locomotion modulation.

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. These results show that AFD uses distinct sets of guanylyl cyclases to execute dual roles:

precise temperature sensing and tactile-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 [67,68]. 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 link the thermosensory neuron AFD to tactile-dependent behavioral

modulation.

AIB-AFD electrical synapses are pivotal for tactile-dependent behavioral plasticity. Disrupting

this connection impairs tactile-dependent locomotion modulation, whereas restoring an engineered

electrical synapse rescues this behavior. The successful replacement of invertebrate innexins with

vertebrate connexins, which perform analogous functions despite lacking sequence homology,

indicates that the core function of these synapses lies in their connectivity rather than in their specific

protein sequences. This observation suggests that the transfer of signaling molecules such as Ca^{2+}

and cGMP through electrical synapses may facilitate the coordination of neuronal activity across

distinct networks [103–106].

Together, these findings support a model in which AIB functions as a hub neuron that relays

mechanosensory input from FLP to AFD to modulate locomotion (Fig. 5C). However, because

electrical synapses are often bidirectional, information flow may also occur in the opposite direction,

from AFD to AIB. Determining the directionality and dynamics of this signaling remains an important

question for future investigation. A similar circuit logic has been proposed for thermal avoidance

behavior, in which AIB integrates inputs from FLP via chemical synapses and couples to AFD via

electrical synapses, forming an FLP-AIB-AFD circuit. In that case, the directionality of information flow

also remains unresolved [107].

Finally, the proposed circuit mechanism for tactile-dependent modulation does not exclude

additional routes of modulation. These may include extra-synaptic signaling mechanisms, such as

neuropeptide release from other touch-sensitive neurons. While the precise molecular and circuit

mechanisms remain to be elucidated, our findings establish that AIB-AFD electrical synapses are

essential for incorporating tactile context into locomotor control.

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 tactile-dependent plasticity. A

limitation of this study is that the directionality and mode of information flow between AFD and AIB

remain unresolved, and defining this relationship will be an important goal for future investigation.

Nevertheless, our results establish the AFD-AIB connection as a regulatory hub in tactile-dependent

locomotor modulation and expand our understanding of sensory neuron versatility in adaptive

behavior.

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METHODS

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

20°C on nematode growth medium (NGM) agar plates [108]. These plates were seeded with *E. coli*

OP50 lawns. Strains used in this study are listed in Table S1 and are available from the

corresponding author upon request.

Molecular Biology – All DNA constructs were sequence-verified. cDNA sequences encoding *mec-*

10, *cng-3*, and *inx-10* were amplified from a cDNA library made with the SuperScript III Reverse

Transcriptase kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific, MA) from total RNA extracted from adult N2 worms. A

codon-optimized cDNA sequence for the mouse gap junction protein connexin-36 (Cx36) was

previously described [109]. DNA plasmid constructs for *C. elegans* expression were assembled by LR

recombination using the MultiSite Gateway Three-Fragment Vector Construction Kit (Thermo Fisher

Scientific, MA). Entry clones were constructed as follows: (i) promoter sequences flanked by attL4

and attR1 sites; (ii) cDNA sequences flanked by attL1 and attL2 sites; and (iii) *sl2::mNeonGreen::rab-3 3'utr* flanked by attR2 and attL3 sites. Destination vectors used for LR recombination included the

pDEST R4-R3 Vector II and a custom-built destination vector BJP-C957, which contains a

hygromycin resistance cassette for selection, an intestinal fluorescent marker (*vha-6p::mScarlet::tbb-2 3'utr*) for visual screening transgenic worms, and flanking *mos1* sequences to facilitate homologous

recombination for Mos1-mediated single-copy insertion (MosSCI). Promoters used for tissue- or cell-

specific expression were: *gcy-18p* (2 kb) and *srtx-1Bp* (493 bp) for AFD; *mec-18p* (390 bp) for TRNs;

egl-44p (5 kb) for FLP; *inx-1p* (1kb) for AIB, and *mec-10p* (3 kb) for expression in TRNs, FLP, and

PVD. Plasmids used to generate transgenic strains in this study are listed in Table S2.

Transgenes, Germline Transformation, and Genome Editing – Strains carrying extrachromosomal

arrays were generated by microinjecting various plasmids together with co-injection markers. The co-

injection markers included *unc-112p::gfp* (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 S2.

Mos1-mediated transgene insertion [110,111] was used to generate single-copy transgenic

animals. Briefly, worms carrying the *ttTi5605 Mos1* site on chromosome II were injected with a

plasmid mixture containing the transgene of interest (40 ng/µl), along with BJP-B908, a plasmid

expressing Cas9 and a guide RNA targeting the Mos1 site (60 ng/µl). Selection markers included *rps-0p::hygR* for hygromycin resistance and *vha-9p::mScarlet* for intestinal red fluorescence to enable

visual screening.

The *gcy-18::gfp11×7* knock-in strain was generated using a modified CRISPR–Cas9 protocol

employing preassembled Cas9 ribonucleoprotein (RNP) complexes, co-injected with a single-

stranded DNA repair template to facilitate homologous recombination [112,113]. Cas9 protein and

crRNA (targeting sequence: TACAACGACTGAAAGAGGAG) were obtained from Integrated DNA

Technologies (IDT, NJ). The single-stranded DNA repair template for generating *gcy-18::gfp11×7* was

synthesized by Twist Bioscience. Successful editing produced the *pek331* allele, which carries an in-

frame GFP11×7 insertion at the C-terminus of GCY-18. The insertion was verified by PCR and DNA

sequencing. A worm strain, BJH833, carrying both *pek331* and *muIs253 [eft-3p::sfgfp1-10::unc-54*

3'utr], was used to visualize GCY-18 by complemented split-GFP fluorescence [114].

Fabrication of PDMS Microfluidic Chambers – Microfluidic chamber designs were created in

AutoCAD and fabricated as 100 µm SU8-silicon molds using photolithography (FlowJem, NO,

Canada). PDMS devices were produced by pouring degassed PDMS prepolymer (Sylgard 184, Dow

Corning, MI) onto the molds, degassing again under vacuum (-25 inHg, 15 min, room temperature),

and curing at 80 °C for 2 hours. The cured PDMS was peeled from the mold, and inlet/outlet ports

were punched using a 2 mm biopsy punch (Acuderm Inc., FL). For the chambers with a removable

barrier shown in Figure 1–Supplement 1A, cast PDMS chamber structures were bonded onto a thin

semi-cured PDMS sheet to create a permanent, watertight seal. To prepare the sheet, ~30 ml of

PDMS was poured into a 6-inch Petri dish, degassed for 15 min, and partially cured at 65 °C for 15-

20 min, until firm but still tacky. PDMS chamber structures were gently placed onto the sheet with ~2

mm spacing to allow the formation of a barrier, then fully cured at 80 °C for 30 min. PDMS devices

were bonded to 1 mm glass microscope slides using oxygen plasma treatment (PDC-32G, Harrick

Scientific, NY, 1 min).

Behavior Recording and Analysis – 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 recordings. 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).

For behavior analysis, worms were age-synchronized by transferring 30-50 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 (22°C) for 3 days, allowing the eggs to develop into young adults, identified by the presence of 5-10 eggs arranged in single rows within the gonads of all worms on the plate. 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 an inlet of the chambers shown in Figure 1 using a 20µl pipette and allowed to roam freely in the chamber for 60 minutes before behavior in the assay area was recorded.

To assay worms confined to the assay area by a barrier (Fig. 1–Supplement 1A), PDMS chambers were prepared with a removable gap separating the training and assay zones. M9 buffer was first injected into the exploration zone, after which ~100 worms were loaded and allowed to explore for 10 minutes, during which they moved only within the reach of the M9 buffer, typically up to the gap between the exploration and assay zones. To remove the barrier, additional M9 buffer was gently introduced into the assay zone until it merged with the buffer, allowing worms to move freely between zones. After 15 minutes of exploration, the barrier was reintroduced by completely drying the space between the zones with a Kimwipe, once again confining worms to areas containing M9 buffer. Behavior in the assay zone was recorded immediately after the barrier was reinserted and again 40 minutes later.

Fluorescence microscopy – Widefield fluorescence microscopy was performed using a Leica DMi8
inverted microscope equipped with 63x/1.4NA and 100x/1.4NA oil-immersion objectives (Leica
Biosystems, NJ). Worms were mounted on thin 3% agar pads and anesthetized with 10 mM
levamisole diluted in M9 buffer. Images were acquired with an Andor iXon-888 EMCCD camera
(Oxford Instruments, England), with an exposure time of 150 ms and an electron-multiplying (EM)
gain of 200. Acquisition settings were kept constant across experiments.

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.

DATA AVAILABILITY

The data supporting the findings of this study are available in Dryad at
https://doi.org/10.5061/dryad.k3j9kd5pz.

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. Both

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

while the surrounding exploration zones differ in PDMS pillar arrangement. (B-E) Quantification of

locomotion in the assay area after 1 hour of exploration. Data from binary chambers (n = 21) are

shown in orange and from uniform (n = 21) chambers in blue. Shown are (B) locomotion speed, (C)

percentage of time spent idle, (D) reversal frequency, and (E) turning frequency. Statistical

significance was determined using an unpaired Student's t-test (***p < 0.001, *p < 0.05). Mean ±

SEM; each point represents the mean behavioral value of all worms within one chamber. (F) Percent

change in each locomotion metric (speed, idle time, reversal frequency, and turning frequency),

calculated from panels B-E and normalized to the mean value in binary chambers. Mean ± SEM;

each point represents the mean behavioral value of all worms within one chamber.

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

modulation. (A) Difference in locomotion speed (Δspeed) between uniform and binary chambers of

wild type N2 (uniform: n = 19; binary: n = 20), *gcy-18(gk423024)* mutant (uniform: *n* = 20; binary: n =

28), and *gcy-18(nj38) mutant* (uniform: *n* = 27, binary: n = 27) . ΔSpeed was calculated as the percent

change in locomotion speed in uniform chambers, relative to the mean speed measured in binary

chambers (see Methods). Mutant worms lacking *gcy-18* failed to demonstrate context-dependent

locomotion adjustments in locomotion speed, as indicated by a low Δspeed value. (B) Δspeed of wild

type*, gcy-18* mutants, and *gcy-18* mutant worms carrying a single-copy transgene expressing *gcy-18*

under the control of the *gcy-18* promoter. Expression of *gcy-18p::gcy-18* restored Δspeed (uniform:

n= 26; binary: n = 24). (C) Locomotion speed adjustment of N2, *gcy-18* mutants, and *gcy-8* mutant

worms (uniform: n = 20, binary: n = 18). 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 modest role in thermosensation. Data are presented as mean ± SEM. Each data point represents

the mean behavior of worms within a single chamber. Asterisks above bars indicate statistical

significance compared to wild type, whereas asterisks above horizontal black lines indicate statistical

significance between mutant strains. Statistical significance was determined using one-way ANOVA

followed by a Tukey-Kramer post hoc test (n.s.: $p > 0.05$; *: $p < 0.05$; **: $p < 0.01$).

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 (uniform: n =

30; binary: n = 29), *tax-2* (uniform: n = 27; binary: n = 22), and *tax-4* (uniform: n = 21; binary: n = 21)

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. Asterisks above blue bars

indicate statistically significant differences in locomotion speed between uniform and binary chambers

(unpaired Student's *t*-test). Asterisks above horizontal black lines indicate statistically significant

differences in basal speed, defined as speed of worms in the binary chamber, between N2 and *tax-4*

mutants (one-way ANOVA followed by a Tukey-Kramer post hoc test; *n.s.*: $p > 0.05$; ***: $p < 0.001$).

(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* (uniform: n = 24; binary: n = 22), *cng-3* (uniform: n =

29; binary: n = 28), and *cng-4* (uniform: n = 24; binary: n = 29) roles in locomotion adjustments. The

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

under two AFD-specific promoters, *srtx-1bp* (uniform: n = 26; binary: n = 22) and *gcy-18p* (uniform: n =

26; binary: n = 25), restore context-dependent locomotion adjustments. Data are presented as mean

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

denote statistical significance versus wild type (above bars) or between mutant strains (above

horizontal black lines). Δspeed comparisons across strains (panels C-E) were determined using one-

way ANOVA followed by Tukey-Kramer post hoc tests (*: $p < 0.05$; **: $p < 0.01$, 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 (uniform: n = 22; binary: n = 22)

 and *kcc-3* (uniform: n = 27; binary: n = 27) 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. Asterisks above blue bars indicate significant differences between

uniform and binary chambers (unpaired Student's *t*-test). Basal speed differences in the binary

chambers were determined using one-way ANOVA followed by a Tukey–Kramer post hoc tests (***:

$p < 0.001$). (C) Δspeed of N2 and *kcc-3* mutant worms, and (D) Δspeed of N2 (uniform: n = 22; binary:

n = 22) and *ttx-1* (uniform: n = 27; binary: n = 27)mutant worms. 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 modulation of speed, idle time, and

turning frequency (uniform: n = 34; binary: n = 36). Data are presented as mean ± SEM. Each data

point represents the mean behavior of worms within a single chamber. Asterisks indicate statistical

significance compared to wild type. Δspeed across strains (panels C-E) was analyzed by one-way

ANOVA followed by Tukey-Kramer post hoc tests (n.s.: $p > 0.05$, and ***: $p < 0.001$).

Figure 5. Context-dependent locomotion adjustments require the mechanosensory channel subunit

MEC-10 and the interneuron AIB. (A) Δspeed of wild type (uniform: n = 26; binary n = 22), *mec-10*

mutants (uniform: n = 30; binary n = 21), and *mec-10* mutants expressing *mec-10* cDNA under cell-

specific promoters: *mec-18p* (TRNs; uniform: n = 29; binary n = 25), *egl-44p* (FLP; uniform: n = 27;

binary n = 34), or *mec-10p* (TRNs, FLP, and PVD; uniform: n = 32; binary n = 26). (B) Δspeed of wild

type and AIB-ablated worms (uniform: n = 30; binary n = 30). AIB ablation abolishes speed

modulation. Data are shown as mean ± SEM; each data point represents the average speed of

worms in a single chamber. Asterisks indicate statistical significance compared to wild type (one-way

ANOVA followed by Tukey-Kramer post hoc tests; ***p < 0.001). (C) Schematic illustrating a circuit

framework connecting *mec-10* expressing neurons, AIB, and AFD in tactile-dependent modulation of

locomotion.

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 (Δspeed) for wild type worms (uniform: n = 23; binary: n = 25) and *inx-1* (uniform: n = 24, ;

binary: n = 24)*, inx-4* (uniform: n = 27; binary: n = 26)*, inx-7* (uniform: n = 29; binary: n= 30)*, inx-10*

(uniform: n = 30; binary: n = 29)*, inx-19* (uniform: n = 23; binary: n = 24) mutants. (B) Speed

differences for *inx-7; inx-10* double mutants (uniform: n = 25; binary: n = 27). (C) Schematic

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

AFD-specific expression of *inx-10* cDNA restored tactile-dependent locomotion modulation in *inx-10*

mutant worms (*srtx-1bp*; uniform: n = 23; binary: n = 24). Expression of Cx36 in both AFD (*srtx-1bp*)

and AIB (*inx-1p*) similarly restored modulation in *inx-7; inx-10* double mutants (uniform: n = 30; binary:

n = 28). Data are presented as mean ± SEM. Asterisks denote statistical significance versus wild type

(above bars) or between indicated genotypes (above horizontal black lines). Each data point

represents the mean behavior of worms within a single chamber. Statistical significance was

determined using one-way ANOVA followed by Tukey-Kramer post hoc tests (*: $p < 0.05$; **: $p < 0.01$,

and ***: $p < 0.001$).

Figure 1–Supplement 1. Prior exploration of distinct physical settings modulates locomotion speed

of worms in identical environments. (A) Schematic of the chamber design with separate exploration

and assay zones divided by a removable barrier. The assay zone was identical across conditions,

whereas the exploration zone contained physical settings that were either matching or non-matching

relative to the assay zone. Worms explored these settings before entering the assay zone, where

they were confined by insertion of a barrier. (B) Quantification of locomotion speed for wild type N2

worms in the assay area was performed either immediately after inserting the barrier or 40 minutes

later (matching: n = 25; non-matching: n = 28). Asterisks indicate statistically significant difference

between matching and non-matching chambers (unpaired Student's *t*-test; *: p <0.05; **: p < 0.01).

(C) The percent change in locomotion speed (Δspeed) between worms that had explored matching

and non-matching chambers was calculated and normalized to the mean value of the non-matching

condition. Data are presented as mean ± SEM, with each point representing the mean value of

worms within a single chamber.

Figure 2–Supplement 1. Guanylyl cyclase genes *gcy-18* and *gcy-12* are required for spatial

preference, but only *gcy-18* supports context-dependent locomotion modulation. (A) A small-scale

screen of guanylyl cyclase genes required for spatial preference in microfluidic chambers. Preference

index values were calculated as previously described [52]. Wild type worms exhibited a strong

preference for area IV, the preferred region of the chamber [52], whereas *gcy-18(gk423024)* and *gcy-*

12(gk142661) mutants showed significantly reduced preference. Data are shown as mean ± SEM;

each point represents the mean value from one chamber. Statistical comparisons were performed

using Dunnett's test for multiple comparisons (** $p < 0.01$). (B) Speed differences (Δspeed) between

uniform and binary chambers in wild type N2 and *gcy-12* mutant worms. *gcy-12* mutants displayed

context-dependent locomotion modulation comparable to wild type. Data are shown as mean ± SEM;

each point represents the mean behavior of worms within a single chamber. Statistical significance

was determined using an unpaired Student's t-test (n.s., $p > 0.05$).

Figure 3–Supplement 1. Temperature shifts alter absolute locomotion speed but do not affect

context-dependent locomotion modulation. (A) Experimental design. Worms were cultivated at 17°C,

20°C, or 23°C and then transferred to 20°C for 1 hour before behavioral recording. (B) Locomotion

speed of wild type N2 worms in the binary (left) and uniform (right) chambers after experiencing

temperature shifts (+3°C: uniform n = 32; binary n = 31; 0°C: uniform n = 30; binary n = 29; -3°C:

uniform n = 36; binary n = 35). Linear regression identified a significant positive correlation between

rearing temperature and locomotion speed in both chambers. (C) Differences in speed (Δspeed)

across temperature-shift conditions. Linear regression analysis revealed no significant relationship

between Δspeed and temperature shift. Data are shown as mean ± SEM.

Fig. 4–Supplement 1. GCY-18 primarily localizes to AFD dendritic endings and remains detectable

in *kcc-3* and *ttx-1* mutants. GCY-18 was visualized using a split-GFP strategy (GCY-18::GFP11x7

complemented by GFP1-10). (A-C) Representative images of the head region of wild type (A), *kcc-3*

mutant (B), and *ttx-1* mutant (C) worms. Left panels show brightfield images overlaid with GFP

fluorescence. Middle panels (A′-C′) show GFP fluorescence alone. Right panels show higher-

magnification views of the distal dendritic ending (nose region; A′′-C′′) and regions near the AFD

soma and axon (A′′′-C′′′). Dashed boxes in the middle panels indicate the approximate regions shown

at higher magnification in the right panels.

Figure 4–Supplement 2. (A) AFD-ablated and *gcy-18* mutant worms that experienced different

exploration zones show impaired locomotion speed adjustment when confined to the assay zone by a

removable barrier. Δspeed values for wild type N2 (matching: n = 25; non-matching: n = 28), *gcy-18*

mutants (matching: n = 22; non-matching: n = 17), and AFD-ablated worms (matching: n = 26; non-

matching: n = 26). Data are presented as mean ± SEM, with each point representing the mean

locomotion speed value of worms within a single chamber. (B) Locomotion rates of wild type (n = 15),

gcy-18 mutants (n = 10), and AFD-ablated worms (n = 18) are comparable on NGM plates. (C) Body

lengths of wild type, *gcy-18* mutant, and AFD-ablated worms are not significantly different. Data are

shown as Mean ± SEM, with each point representing an individual animal (Dunnett's test, *p < 0.05;

n.s., p > 0.05).

 S1. Table: Strains used in this study

Strain	Genotype	Source
CX2065	*odr-1(n1936) X*	CGC
VC3024	*gcy-2(ok3721) II*	CGC
VC2796	*gcy-3(gk1154) II*	CGC
VC20038	*gcy-4(gk152604) II*	CGC
VC20321	*gcy-6(gk245152) V*	CGC
RB1000	*gcy-5(ok921) II*	CGC
VC20321	*gcy-6(gk245152) V*	CGC
VC20451	*gcy-12(gk142661) II*	CGC
VC3242	*gcy-13(gk3189) V*	CGC
JN1194	*gcy-14(pe1102) V*	CGC
VC2675	*gcy-15(gk1102) II*	CGC
VC2450	*gcy-17(gk1155) I*	CGC
VC30137	*gcy-18(gk423024) IV*	CGC
RB1935	*gcy-20(ok2538) V*	CGC
VC40920	*gcy-21(gk882422) II*	CGC
RB924	*gcy-23(ok797) IV*	CGC
VC2375	*gcy-25(gk1187) IV*	CGC
RB2622	*gcy-27(ok3653) IV*	CGC
VC20193	*gcy-29(gk162111) II*	CGC
CZ3714	*gcy-31(ok296) X*	CGC
RB1048	*gcy-32(ok995) V*	CGC
CZ3715	*gcy-33(ok232) V*	CGC
CX6448	*gcy-35(ok769) I*	CGC
AX1297	*gcy-36(db66) X*	CGC
RB626	*gcy-37(ok384) IV*	CGC
PR694	*tax-2(p694) I*	CGC
PR678	*tax-4(p678) III*	CGC
FX31482	*cng-2(tm4267) IV*	NBRP, Japan
VC40261	*cng-3(gk541751) IV*	CGC
VC20290	*cng-4(gk195496) IV*	CGC
IK800	*gcy-8(oy44) IV*	CGC
IK429	*gcy-18(nj38) IV*	CGC
VC20451	*gcy-12(gk142661) II*	CGC
BJH2598	*cng-3(gk541751) IV; ttTi5605 II*	This study
BJH2596	*gcy-18(gk423024) IV; ttTi5605* II	This study
BJH3481	*pekSi609[gcy-18p::gcy-18::sl2::mNeonGreen::rab-3 3'utr; vha-6p::mScarlet; hygR(+)] ttTi5605 II; gcy-18(gk423024) IV*	This study
BJH3527	*pekSi655[srtx-1Bp::cng-3::sl2::mNeonGreen::rab-3 3'utr; vha-6p::mScarlet; hygR(+)] ttTi5605 II; cng-3(gk541751) IV*	This study

BJH3539	pekSi667[gcy-18p::cng-3::sl2::mNeonGreen::unc-54 3'utr; vha-6p::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]	CGC
LX1024	kcc-3(ok228) II	Gift from the Singhvi Lab
PR767	ttx-1(p767) V	CGC
JN578	peIs578 [npr-9p::casp1; npr-9p::Venus; unc-122p::mCherry]	CGC
ZB2551	mec-10 (tm1552) X	CGC
BJH976	pekSi102[egl-44p::mec-10::unc-54 3'utr; neoR(+)] ttTi5605 II; mec-10(tm1552) X.	This study
BJH977	pekSi103[mec-18p::mec-10::unc-54 3'utr; neoR(+)] ttTi5605 II; mec-10(tm1552) X.	This study
BJH978	pekSi104[mec-10p::mec-10::unc-54 3'utr; neoR(+)] ttTi5605 II; mec-10(tm1552) X.	This study
BJH4059	pekSi102[egl-44p::mec-10::unc-54 3'utr; neoR(+)] ttTi5605 II; pekSi715[mec-18p::mec-10::unc-54 3'utr; neoR(+)] cxTi10816 IV; mec-10(tm1552) X	This study
FG927	inx-1(tm6662) X.	CGC
FG0614	inx-4 (ok2373) V	Gift from the Ferkey lab
RB1792	inx-7(ok2319) IV	CGC
RB2051	inx-10(ok2714) V	CGC
FX01896	inx-19 (tm1896) I	NBRP, Japan
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
BJH4060	pekSi717[srtx-1Bp::inx-10a(genomic)::sl2::gfp::let-858 3' UTR; vha-6p::mScarlet; HygR(+)] ttTi5605 II; inx-10(ok2714) V	This study
BJH833	muIs253[eft-3p::gfp1-10::unc-54 3'utr; Cbr-unc-119(+)]; unc-119(ed3) III; gcy-18(pek331[gcy-18::gfp11x7]) IV	This study
BJH4056	muIs253[eft-3p::gfp1-10::unc-54 3'utr, Cbr-unc-119(+)]; kcc-3(ok228) II; gcy-18(pek331[gcy-18::gfp11x7]) IV	This study
BJH4057	muIs253[eft-3p::gfp1-10::unc-54 3'utr, Cbr-unc-119(+)]; gcy-18(pek331[gcy-18::gfp11x7]) IV; ttx-1(p767) V	This study

779 CGC: Caenorhabditis Genetics Center.

780 NBRP: National BioResource Project.

782 **S2. Table: Plasmids used to generate transgenic strains in this study**

Name	Constructs

BJP-MR16	*gcy-18p::gcy-18::sl2::mNeonGreen::rab-3 3'utr; vha-6p::mScarlet::tbb-2 3'utr; hygR(+)*
BJP-MR65	*srtx-1Bp::cng-3::sl2::mNeonGreen::rab-3 3'utr; vha-6p::mScarlet::tbb-2 3'utr; hygR(+)*
BJP-MR93	*gcy-18p::cng-3::sl2::mNeonGreen::rab-3 3'utr; vha-6p::mScarlet::tbb-2 3'utr; hygR(+)*
BJP-MR96	*inx-1p::cx36::sl2::mKate::rab-3 3'utr*
BJP-MR97	*srtx-1bp::cx36::sl2::mKate::rab-3 3'utr*
BJP-A433	*mec-18p::mec-10::unc-54 3'utr; neoR(+)*
BJP-A433	*egl-44p::mec-10::unc-54 3'utr; neoR(+)*

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