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Genetic screens identified dual roles of microtubule-associated serine threonine kinase and CREB within a single thermosensory neuron in the regulation of *Caenorhabditis elegans* thermotaxis behavior

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Abstract

Animals integrate sensory stimuli presented at the past and present, assess the changes in their surroundings and navigate themselves toward preferred environment. Identifying the neural mechanisms of such sensory integration is pivotal to understand how the nervous system generates perception and behavior. Previous studies on thermotaxis behavior of *Caenorhabditis elegans* suggested that a single thermosensory neuron AFD plays an important role in integrating the past and present temperature information and is essential for the neural computation that drives the animal toward the preferred temperature region. However, the molecular mechanisms by which AFD executes this neural function remained elusive. Here we report multiple forward genetic screens to identify genes required for thermotaxis. We reveal that *kin-4*, which encodes the *C. elegans* homolog of microtubule-associated serine threonine kinase, plays dual roles in thermotaxis and can promote both cryophilic and thermophilic drives. We also uncover that a thermophilic defect of mutants for *mec-2*, which encodes a *C. elegans* homolog of stomatin, can be suppressed by a loss-of-function mutation in the gene *crh-1*, encoding a *C. elegans* homolog CREB transcription factor. Expression of *crh-1* in AFD restored the *crh-1*-dependent suppression of the *mec-2* thermotaxis phenotype, indicating that *crh-1* can function in AFD to regulate thermotaxis. Calcium imaging analysis from freely moving animals suggest that a stomatin family protein can control the dynamics of neural circuitry through the CREB-dependent transcriptional regulation within a sensory neuron.

Keywords: Caenorhabditis elegans; thermotaxis; AFD; MAST kinase; stomatin

Introduction

Information processing in the nervous system is essential for animals to survive and reproduce in response to changes in their environments. Research in the past decades have identified basic principles of the neural circuit operation that enable several functions of neural computations such as gain control of sensory stimuli and integration of multiple sensory stimuli (Dunn and Rieke 2006; van Atteveldt *et al.* 2014). Identifying the site of such neural computations and deciphering the molecular and circuit mechanisms thereof are critical steps toward understanding how the nervous system generates perception and behavior.

Integration of sensory stimuli presented at different time points allows the animals to assess the changes in the environment and underlies decision making in the nervous system.

Studies of the thermotaxis behavior of the nematode *Caenorhabditis elegans* provides a unique opportunity in which to study the neural mechanism of such computation. The wild-type

animals that have been cultivated at a certain temperature with food migrate toward that cultivation temperature when placed on a thermal gradient (Hedgecock and Russell 1975). Thus, the C. elegans nervous system apparently compares the past and the present temperature information and executes the appropriate behavior that drives the animal toward the cultivation temperature (Luo et al. 2014; Ikeda et al. 2020). Neural circuitry required for thermotaxis has been extensively studied (Mori and Ohshima 1995; Kuhara et al. 2008; Beverly et al. 2011; Ikeda et al. 2020). Central to this circuitry is the thermosensory neurons AFD and its postsynaptic interneurons AIY (White et al. 1986; Cook et al. 2019). The AFD neurons respond to temperature stimuli and increase intracellular calcium (Ca²⁺) level upon warming (Kimura et al. 2004; Clark et al. 2006, 2007; Ramot et al. 2008; Takeishi et al. 2016; Tsukada et al. 2016). The increase in the Ca²⁺ level of the AFD neurons reflects the information of the previous

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cultivation temperature and occurs within a temperature range with its lower bound determined by the previous cultivation temperature. Analysis of a primary cultured AFD neurons indicated that the temperature range of the AFD response is an intrinsic property of AFD and does not require the connection to the neural circuits (Kobayashi et al. 2016). Recent studies also suggested that in addition to these temperature-evoked Ca²⁺ responses, the AFD neuron modulates its neuronal outputs such that it evokes distinct responses in its postsynaptic neuron AIY (Hawk et al. 2018; Nakano et al. 2020). Thus, the single AFD neurons integrate the past and present temperature information and execute single-cell computation to achieve thermotaxis behavior. A similar neural operation has been also reported in the circuitry required for salt chemotaxis in C. elegans (Sato et al. 2021; Hiroki et al. 2022), suggesting that a single-cell integration is prevalent in the C. elegans nervous system. However, the molecular mechanisms by which the AFD neurons execute this modulation remain elusive.

To further understand the molecular basis of the single-cell computation during *C. elegans* thermotaxis, we here conducted forward genetic screens for mutants defective in thermotaxis. We show that kin-4, which encodes the *C. elegans* homolog of microtubule-associated serine threonine (MAST) kinase (Walden and Cowan 1993), plays dual roles in thermotaxis and suggest that KIN-4 is a critical regulator of the single-cell computation within AFD. Our genetic screen also indicated that a thermotaxis defect of a stomatin homolog, *mec-2* (Huang *et al.* 1995; Nakano *et al.* 2020), was suppressed by a loss-of-function mutation in *crh-1*, which encodes the *C. elegans* homolog of CREB transcription factor (Kimura *et al.* 2002). Our results suggest that a stomatin family protein controls the integration of the temperature information in AFD via transcriptional regulation.

Materials and methods Caenorhabditis elegans strains

The *C. elegans* strains were cultured on NGM plates with the OP50 *Escherichia coli* as food (Brenner 1974). All strains were cultured at 20°C unless otherwise indicated. N2 (Bristol) was used as the wild-type strain. Germline transformation was performed by microinjection as previously described (Mello *et al.* 1991). CRISPR-Cas9-mediated genome editing was performed as previously described (Dickinson *et al.* 2013; Dokshin *et al.* 2018). Mutations, extrachromosomal arrays, integrated transgenes used in this study were described in Supplementary File 1.

Thermotaxis assay

Thermotaxis assays were performed as previously described (Ito *et al.* 2006). Two hermaphrodite animals at the fourth larval stage were placed onto a NGM plate and were allowed to lay eggs. Their F_1 progeny from 2 NGM plates were collected, were washed with NG buffer and were transferred onto the center of a thermotaxis assay plate that had been placed onto a temperature gradient from 17° C to 23° C with the gradient steepness of 0.5° C/cm. The animals were allowed to freely move on the temperature gradient for 1 h. The assay plate was divided into 8 sections along the temperature gradient. The number of animals in each section was counted. Each plot in the figures represents an independent assay result.

Genetic screens for mutants defective in thermotaxis behavior

Wild-type animals were mutagenized by ethyl methansulfonate (EMS). We incubated L4 hermaphrodites in M9 buffer containing 47 mM EMS for 4 h. The mutagenized animals were recovered onto NGM plates and were allowed to lay eggs. The F_2 progeny were cultivated at 17°C or 23°C and were subjected to thermotaxis assays on a temperature gradient from 17°C to 23°C. Animals that had migrated to the 17°C region when cultivated at 23°C or to the 23°C region when cultivated at 17°C were picked as mutant candidates and were recovered onto NGM plates. We allowed each candidate animal to lay eggs and retested 8–12 lines from each F_2 candidate for thermotaxis behaviors.

To screen for mutations that can suppress the thermophilic phenotype of mec-2(nj89gf), we mutagenized mec-2(nj89gf) animals with EMS, and their F₂ progeny cultivated at 20°C were subjected to thermotaxis assay on a temperature gradient from 17°C to 23°C. Animals that had migrated to the 17°C region were picked as mutant candidates, and their progeny were retested for the suppression of the mec-2(nj89gf) thermophilic phenotype.

Calcium imaging of the AFD neurons in immobilized animals

We generated animals expressing the calcium indicator YCX1.6 (Madisen et al. 2015) in the AFD and AIY neurons. The YCX1.6 in AFD was localized to the nucleus to separate the signals from AFD and AIY. The animals were cultivated at 20°C and were immobilized by placing on a 10% agarose pad with polystyrene beads (Polysciences), which were then covered by a cover slip. The samples were placed on a Peltier device used for the temperature control, and the YFP and CFP images were captured using epi-fluorescent microscope equipped with SOLA light engine (Lumencore) as a light source and were recorded at 1 frame per second with 400 ms exposure. Image processing was performed by MetaMorph software (Molecular Devices), and the fluorescent intensities of YFP and CFP were determined. The ratio change was calculated as (R_t – R_0)/ R_0 , where R_t represents the ratio of YFP to CFP of each frame, and R_0 the mean ratio of the first 10 frames.

Calcium imaging of the AFD and AIY neurons in freely moving animals

Animals expressing YCX1.6 in the AFD nucleus and the AIY neurons were cultivated at 20°C and were placed on a 2% agarose pad and were covered with a cover glass. The samples were placed on a motorized stage (HawkVision Inc.) with a transparent temperature-control device (TOKAI HIT Co. Ltd). We initiated the tracking and recording of the animals as soon as the sample was set and the focus was adjusted. The animals were allowed to freely move on the agarose pad and were subjected to a temperature ramp. The YFP and CFP images were captured at 1 frame per second (30 ms exposure time) for 40 s under epi-fluorescent microscope with SOLA light engine as a light source. The animals were kept under the field of view by controlling the stage movement, which was achieved by real-time analysis of transmitted infrared light images.

The image processing was first performed by DeepLabCut (Mathis *et al.* 2018; Nath *et al.* 2019) to extract the x-y coordinates of the region of the interest (ROI) for the fluorescent analysis of AFD and AIY. The image analysis was further performed by a custom-written program in MATLAB, and the positions of the ROI predicted by DeepLabCut were manually inspected for each frame. The AFD intensity was analyzed from its nucleus, and the

AIY intensity was measured from a part of its neurite that makes a dorsal turn (White *et al.* 1986; Nakano *et al.* 2020). The ratio of fluorescence intensities (YFP/CFP) was used to calculate the standardized ratio change of AFD and AIY, which was defined as $(R_t-R_{min})/(R_{max}-R_{min})$. The baseline standardized ratio, which was the mean of the standardized ratio values of the frames before the temperature was increased, was subtracted from the standardized ratio change of each frame. We calculated the area under the curve of the AIY standardized ratio change for the entire time window after the temperature stimulus was applied.

Statistics

Normality of the data was assessed by Shapiro–Wilk test. Equal variance among data sets was assessed by Bartlett test. When both normality and equal variance were assumed, we used 1-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) with Tukey–Kramer test or Dunnett test for multiple comparisons. Otherwise, we used Wilcoxon rank sum test or Steel–Dwass test.

Results and discussion

A genetic screen for mutants defective in thermotaxis recovered 21 mutant isolates

To identify genes important for the regulation of thermotaxis, we conducted a genetic screen. We mutagenized the wild-type animals and looked for mutants that migrated toward the 23°C region when cultivated at 17°C or toward the 17°C region when cultivated 23°C (Fig. 1a). From this screen, we isolated 21 mutant strains, which were classified into 3 groups based on their thermotaxis phenotypes: 9 mutants—nj85, nj89, nj97, nj98, nj102, nj104, nj108, nj111, and nj113-displayed thermophilic phenotypes and migrated toward the higher temperature region when cultivated at 20°C (Fig. 1b: hereafter, the cultivation temperature was set at 20°C unless otherwise indicated); 6 mutants—nj87, nj90, nj91, nj92, nj94, and nj100-showed athermotactic phenotypes and distributed evenly on the temperature gradient (Fig. 1c); and 6 mutants—nj86, nj95, nj96, nj107, nj110, and nj112 exhibited cryophilic phenotypes and preferred the colder temperature region (Fig. 1d). We have previously reported that nj89 is a gain-of-function allele of the gene mec-2, which encodes a C. elegans homolog of stomatin (Nakano et al. 2020) and that nj90, nj94, and nj100 are alleles of kcc-3, which encodes a potassium/ chloride cotransporter that functions in a glial-like cell (Yoshida et al. 2016). In this study, we further characterize some of the thermophilic isolates, as described below.

nj98 and nj111 are alleles of pkc-1

We observed that nj98 and nj111 failed to complement each other for their thermotaxis defects. To identify the gene responsible for the thermotaxis defects of these mutants, we mapped nj111 into a 2.7 Mb interval on chromosome V (Fig. 2a). This region contains the pkc-1 gene, which encodes a *C. elegans* homolog of protein kinase C-epsilon/eta. Our previous study indicated that pkc-1, also known as ttx-4, is required for thermotaxis (Okochi et al. 2005). We therefore asked whether nj98 and nj111 are alleles of pkc-1. We conducted DNA sequence analyses of these mutants and identified mutations in pkc-1:nj98 carries a G-to-A transition mutation that is predicted to alter the glycine 1338 codon of pkc-1c to an aspartic acid codon; nj111 is associated with a C-to-T transition mutation that would alter the arginine 80 codon to an opal stop codon (Fig. 2a). Introduction of genomic fragments that harbor the pkc-1 locus rescued the thermophilic phenotype of nj98 animals (Fig. 2b). These results indicated that nj98 and nj111 are alleles of pkc-1.

nj97 is an allele of pkc-2

To identify the gene responsible for the thermophilic defect of nj97 animals, we mapped nj97 into a 1.9 Mb region of chromosome X. This region contains the gene pkc-2, which encodes a *C. elegans* homolog of protein kinase C beta (Fig. 3a). A previous study indicated that pkc-2 is required for thermotaxis and that pkc-2 functions in the AFD thermosensory neuron to regulate thermotaxis (Land and Rubin 2017). We therefore asked whether nj97 is an allele of pkc-2. We identified a G-to-A transition mutation in the pkc-2 locus of nj97 animals that is predicted to alter the tryptophan 248 codon of pkc-2a to an amber stop codon (Fig. 3b). Introduction of a genomic clone that harbors the pkc-2 locus rescued the thermophilic phenotype of nj97 animals (Fig. 3c). These results indicated that nj97 is an allele of pkc-2.

nj104 and nj108 are alleles of plc-1

nj104 and nj108 failed to complement each other for the thermotaxis defect. To identify the gene responsible for their thermotaxis defects, we mapped nj108 into a 180 kb interval of chromosome X (Fig. 4a). This region contains the plc-1 locus (Kunitomo et al. 2013), which encodes a C. elegans homolog of phospholipase C (PLC). PLCs cleaves phosphatidylinositol 4,5-bisphosphate (PIP₂) into inositol 1,4,5-triphosplhate (IP₃), and diacyl glycerol (DAG), the latter of which is known to act as a second messenger and can bind to and regulate diverse intracellular signaling proteins, including protein kinase C (Brose et al. 2004). We conducted DNA sequencing analyses of the plc-1 locus in nj104 and nj108 animals and observed that these mutants carry mutations in plc-1:nj104 is associated with a C-to-T transition mutation that is predicted to alter the glutamine 1,112 codon of *plc-1d* to an ocher stop codon; *nj*108 harbors a G-to-A transition mutation in the splice acceptor sequence within the 5th intron of plc-1d. Introduction of genomic fragments that harbor the plc-1 locus partly rescued the thermophilic phenotype of nj104 animals (Fig. 4b). These observations suggested that nj104 and nj108 are alleles of plc-1.

Our genetic screen identified 3 genes, *pkc-1*, *pkc-2*, and *plc-1*, all of which were shown to be involved in the DAG signaling pathway: the PKC-1 and PKC-2 proteins contain the C1 and C2 domains that can bind to DAG (Corbalán-García and Gómez-Fernández 2014), and the PLC-1 protein promotes the production of DAG. Previous studies focusing on the *C. elegans* salt chemotaxis also indicated the importance of the DAG signaling in the ASER chemosensory neurons (Ohno *et al.* 2017). These observations suggest that the DAG signaling plays an important role in the single-cell computation within the *C. elegans* sensory neurons.

nj102 is an allele of kin-4

To identify the gene mutated in *n*j102 animals, we mapped this mutation into a 300-kb interval of chromosome IV. This region contains the gene kin-4, which encodes the *C. elegans* homolog of MAST kinase (Fig. 5a). DNA sequencing analysis revealed that *n*j102 animals carry a C-to-T transition mutation that alters the glutamine 1,480 of kin-4d to an amber stop codon. We found that the introduction of a genomic clone carrying the kin-4 locus rescued the thermophilic defect of *n*j102 mutants (Fig. 5b). These results indicated that *n*j102 is an allele of kin-4.

To further characterize the role of the kin-4 gene in the regulation of thermotaxis, we analyzed other alleles of kin-4. As we previously reported (Nakano *et al.* 2020), 2 deletion alleles of kin-4, *tm*1049, and *n*j170, displayed phenotypes distinct from that of



Fig. 1. A forward genetic screen identified mutants defective in *C. elegans* thermotaxis. (a) Schematic of the forward genetic screen and the formulas for TTX and Dispersion indices. We mutagenized the wild-type animals and screened their F_2 progeny for mutants defective in thermotaxis. Animals that had migrated to the 23°C or 17°C region after cultivation at 17°C or 23°C, respectively, were isolated as mutant candidates. Thermotaxis behavior was quantified by counting the number of animals in each of the 8 sections along the temperature gradient. We calculated TTX and dispersion indices according to the formulas shown. Thermotaxis behaviors of thermophilic (b), athermotactic (c), and cryophilic (d) mutant isolates. Distributions of the animals in each section of the thermotaxis assay plate are shown as means \pm SEM. TTX and dispersion indices are shown as dots. *P*-values were determined by 1-way ANOVA with Tukey–Kramer test.

nj102 animals: kin-4(tm1049) and kin-4(nj170) mutants displayed bimodal distributions on the temperature gradient, with the majority of animals migrating toward the colder temperature region, while a minor population stayed around the cultivation temperature region (Fig. 5c). These results indicated that the majority of the kin-4 null mutant animals display the cryophilic phenotype and that kin-4 null phenotype is distinct from that of kin-4(nj102) animals.



Fig. 2. *n*/98 and *n*/111 are alleles of *pkc*-1. (a) A chromosomal region to which *n*/111 was mapped is indicated. The gene structure of *pkc*-1*c* is shown. The black boxes indicate exons, and the lines between the black boxes represent introns. Mutations identified in *n*/98 and *n*/111 are shown. The nucleotides correspond to the sequence in the sense strand. (b) Thermotaxis behaviors of the wild-type, *n*/98 and *n*/98 carrying genomic fragments containing the *pkc*-1 locus. Distributions of animals on the temperature gradient are indicated as means ± SEM. TTX indices are shown as dots. P-values were determined by 1-way ANOVA with Tukey–Kramer test.



Fig. 3. nj97 is an allele of pkc-2a. (a) A chromosomal region to which nj97 was mapped is indicated. The gene structure of pkc-2a is shown. The black boxes indicate exons, and the lines between black boxes represent introns. A mutation identified in nj97 is shown. (b) Thermotaxis behaviors of the wild-type, nj97 and nj97 carrying a genomic clone containing the pkc-2 locus. Distributions of animals on the temperature gradient are indicated as means \pm SEM. TTX indices are shown as dots. P-values were determined by 1-way ANOVA with Tukey–Kramer test.



Fig. 4. *nj*104 and *nj*108 are alleles of *plc*-1. (a) A chromosomal region to which *nj*108 was mapped is indicated. The gene structure of *plc*-1*d* is shown. The black boxes indicated exons, and the lines between the black boxes represent introns. Mutations identified in *nj*104 and *nj*108 animals are shown. (b) Thermotaxis behaviors of the wild-type, *nj*104 and *nj*104 carrying genomic fragments containing the *plc*-1 locus. Distributions of animals on the temperature gradient are indicated as means ± SEM. TTX indices are shown as dots. P-values were determined by 1-way ANOVA with Tukey–Kramer test.

The KIN-4 protein contains 3 major domains: DUF1908 (domain of unknown function), serine-threonine kinase domain and PDZ domain. nj102 mutants harbor a mutation that would truncate the KIN-4 protein within the PDZ domain (Fig. 5a). To assess whether mutations that would eliminate the PDZ domain from the KIN-4 protein could cause the thermophilic phenotype similar to that of kin-4(nj102), we generated another deletion allele of kin-4, nj171. kin-4(nj171) removes a part of the coding sequence of KIN-4 polypeptide that corresponds to the PDZ domain and its carboxy-terminal end (Fig. 5a). We found that kin-4(nj102). These results suggested that mutations that would eliminate the PDZ domain and C-terminal end of KIN-4 result in thermophilic phenotypes.

kin-4(nj102) is likely a reduction-of-function mutation

To further characterize the nature of the kin-4(nj102) allele, we examined the thermotaxis phenotypes of a series of transheterozygotes as well as transgenic lines. First, both nj102/+ and tm1049/+ heterozygous animals showed the wild-type phenotype (Fig. 5d), indicating that nj102 and tm1049 cause recessive phenotypes. To ask whether kin-4(nj102) causes a gain-of-function mutation, we injected a genomic clone containing the kin-4(+) or kin-4(nj102) gene into the wild-type animals. Neither clone affected the thermotaxis phenotype (Fig. 5e), suggesting that nj102 is not a gain-of-function mutation. When we examined the transheterozygotes of nj102/tm1049, these animals displayed a thermophilic phenotype similar to that of nj102 animals (Fig. 5d).

These observations suggested that nj102 might be a reduction-offunction mutation. We therefore asked whether introduction of the kin-4(nj102) genomic clone into a kin-4(null) background can alter the thermotaxis phenotype. While introduction of the kin-4(+) clone rescued the thermotaxis defect of the kin-4(tm1049) animals, kin-4(tm1049) animals carrying the kin-4(nj102) clone displayed a thermophilic phenotype (Fig. 5f). In contrast, introduction of the kin-4(tm1049) genomic clone into kin-4(nj102) animals did not affect the thermotaxis phenotype (Fig. 5b). These results suggested that kin-4(nj102) is a reduction-of-function mutation.

Our results indicated that kin-4 can be mutated to cause either a thermophilic or a cryophilic phenotype, suggesting that kin-4 plays dual roles in regulating thermotaxis, with one activity promoting a thermophilic drive and the other a cryophilic movement. That the kin-4 null phenotype displayed a bimodal distribution on the temperature gradient is consistent with this notion. Our previous study showed that the AFD-specific expression of a wild-type kin-4 cDNA rescued the kin-4 null phenotype (Nakano et al. 2020). These observations support that KIN-4 exerts these opposing thermophilic and cryophilic controls within the AFD neurons and suggest that kin-4 would be a master regulator of single-cell computation by the AFD neuron.

What is the nature of the allele of kin-4 that causes a thermophilic phenotype? Although the gene dosage analysis of kin-4 suggested that kin-4(nj102) would be a reduction-of-function mutation, kin-4(nj102) might not be a simple reduction of function mutation, since heterozygous animals of a kin-4 null mutation, kin-4(tm1049 Δ), showed the wild-type phenotype (Fig. 5d). Our observations indicated that both thermophilic alleles of



Fig. 5. *n*j102 is an allele of kin-4. (a) A chromosomal region to which *n*j102 was mapped is indicated. The gene structure of kin-4d is shown. The boxes indicate exons, and the lines represent introns. The colored boxes denote the coding sequences corresponding to the DUF1908, the kinase and the PDZ domains. Mutations associated with each mutant are shown. Thermotaxis behaviors of kin-4 mutants. Distributions on the temperature gradients are shown as means ± SEM. TTX indices are indicated as dots. P-values were determined by 1-way ANOVA with Tukey–Kramer tests in (b), (d), (e), and (f), and by 1-way ANOVA with Dunnett test in (c).

kin-4, nj102, and $nj171\Delta$, are predicted to remove the PDZ domain from the KIN-4 protein. These results raise the possibility that the PDZ domain of KIN-4 is specifically engaged in the KIN-4 cryophilic activity but is dispensable for its thermophilic drive. We speculate that thermophilic alleles of kin-4 might result from elimination of the PDZ domain, which causes the reduction specifically in the thermophilic activity of kin-4 while maintaining the cryophilic activity. Since the PDZ domain is known to be involved in protein–protein interactions, it would be important to determine the interaction partner of KIN-4 through its PDZ domain (An *et al.* 2019). Such analysis might uncover the molecular basis underlying the dual roles of KIN-4 in the AFD thermosensory neurons for the regulation of thermotaxis.

A genetic screen for suppressors of *mec-2(nj89gf*)

Among the thermophilic mutants we had isolated, we have previously shown that *n*j89 is a gain-of-function allele of the gene *mec-2* (Nakano *et al.* 2020), which encodes a *C. elegans* homolog of stomatin (Huang *et al.* 1995). We showed that *mec-2* functions in the AFD thermosensory neurons to regulate thermotaxis and that the *mec-2(nj89gf)* mutation affected the neural activity of the AIY interneuron (Nakano *et al.* 2020), which is directly innervated by the AFD thermosensory neurons (White *et al.* 1986; Cook *et al.* 2019). However, the molecular mechanisms by which MEC-2 regulates the AIY neural activity remained elusive.

To further understand the mechanisms by which *mec-2* controls the AIY neural activity and consequently thermotaxis behavior, we conducted another genetic screen to look for mutations that can suppress the thermophilic phenotype of *mec-*2(*nj89gf*). We mutagenized *mec-*2(*nj89gf*) animals and looked for animals that displayed cryophilic phenotypes (Fig. 6a). From this screen, we isolated 13 mutations—*nj254*, *nj255*, *nj256*, *nj257*, *nj260*, *nj262*, *nj263*, *nj268*, *nj269*, *nj270*, *nj271*, and *nj274* that altered the *mec-*2(*nj89gf*) phenotype. We have previously shown that *nj271* and *nj274* are alleles of *dgk-1*, which encodes a diacylglycerol kinase. *dgk-1* also functions in the AFD thermosensory neurons and affects the neuronal response of the AIY interneuron (Nakano *et al.* 2020).

nj260 and nj263 are alleles of ttx-3

Amongst the isolates we recovered from the mec-2(nj89gf) suppressor screen, we observed that nj260 and nj263 failed to complement each other. We mapped nj260 mutation into chromosome X and found that nj260 carries a mutation in the gene ttx-3, which encodes a LIM homeodomain transcription factor required for the cell fate specification of the AIY interneuron (Hobert et al. 1997). nj260 animals are associated with a C-to-T transition mutation that alters the proline 371 codon of ttx-3a into a serine codon (Fig. 7a). We could not identify a mutation in the ttx-3 locus of nj263. We attempted to amplify the ttx-3 locus from nj263 by polymerase chain reaction (PCR) with multiple primer sets but could not obtain PCR fragments. To assess whether nj263 is an allele of ttx-3, we introduced a genomic PCR product containing the ttx-3 locus into mec-2(nj89gf) nj263 animals and observed that the transgenic animals at least partly reverted to the thermophilic phenotype (Fig. 7b). These results indicated that nj260 and nj263 are alleles of ttx-3. We speculate that nj263 might carry a complex chromosomal rearrangement that involves the ttx-3 locus. That loss of ttx-3 function suppresses the thermophilic defect of mec-2(nj89qf) is consistent with our previous observation that mec-2(nj89qf) affects thermotaxis through the regulation of the AIY neural activity (Nakano et al. 2020).

Loss of crh-1 function can suppress the thermotaxis defect of *mec-2(nj89gf*)

To identify the gene responsible for nj257, we first outcrossed mec-2(nj89gf); nj257 animals and isolated nj257 in an mec-2(+) background by following the activity that causes the cryophilic phenotype. Using this nj257 mutant strain, we mapped the mutation into a 45-kb interval of chromosome III (Fig. 8a). This region contains the gene crh-1, which encodes a C. elegans homolog of CREB transcription factor (Kimura et al. 2002; Chen et al. 2016). We previously showed that crh-1 is required for thermotaxis and that crh-1 functions in the AFD thermosensory neurons to regulate thermotaxis (Nishida et al. 2011). DNA sequencing analysis of nj257 animals identified a G-to-A transition mutation that is predicted to alter the arginine 282 codon of crh-1a to a histidine codon (Fig. 8a). A pan-neuronal expression of a crh-1 cDNA using an unc-14 promoter rescued the cryophilic defect of nj257 animals (Fig. 8b). We also generated a deletion allele of crh-1, nj366, which is predicted to eliminate the entire DNA binding domain of CRH-1 and is thus likely a null allele of crh-1. Like nj257, crh-1(nj366) displayed a cryophilic phenotype (Fig. 8c). We also confirmed that crh-1(tz2), another deletion allele of crh-1 (Kimura et al. 2002), showed a cryophilic phenotype similar to those observed in crh-1(nj257) and crh-1(nj366) (Fig. 8c). These results established that nj257 is an allele of crh-1 and that loss of crh-1 function can suppress the thermophilic defect of mec-2(nj89qf).

To identify the site of *crh*-1 action for the suppression of the thermophilic phenotype conferred by *mec*-2(*n*)89*g*), we conducted a cell-specific rescue experiment. We expressed a *crh*-1 cDNA specifically in the AFD or the AIY neurons of *crh*-1(*n*)257); *mec*-2(*n*)89*g*) animals and observed that animals expressing *crh*-1 in AFD reverted to the thermophilic phenotype, while animals expressing *crh*-1 in AIY did not (Fig. 8d). We note that the thermotaxis phenotype of *crh*-1(*n*)257); *mec*-2(*n*)89*g*) animal was not completely rescued by the expression of *crh*-1 in AFD, suggesting that *crh*-1 might also function in a cell(s) other than the AFD neuron. These results indicated that loss of *crh*-1 function in AFD can suppress the thermotaxis defect of *mec*-2(*n*)89*g*) and suggested that *crh*-1 acts downstream of, or in parallel to, *mec*-2 in AFD to regulate thermotaxis.

crh-1(nj257) suppressed the defect of the AIY calcium response of *mec*-2(nj89gf)

We previously showed that the AIY neurons exhibit bidirectional neural responses that correlate with the valence of thermal stimuli: AIY is excited when temperature is increased toward the cultivation temperature, while AIY is inhibited when temperature is increased away from the cultivation temperature. While the temperature-evoked Ca²⁺ responses in the AFD thermosensory neurons are normal in *mec-2(nj89gf)* mutants, they showed a defect in this bidirectional AIY response. The AIY neurons of *mec-2(nj89gf)* animals displayed excitatory responses even when temperature was increased away from the cultivation temperature (Nakano et al. 2020).

To investigate the neural mechanisms underlying the *crh*-1dependent suppression of *mec-2(gf)*, we conducted Ca^{2+} imaging experiments. We first examined temperature-evoked Ca^{2+} responses of the AFD thermosensory neurons in immobilized animals. The AFD neurons respond to warming stimuli by increasing the intracellular Ca^{2+} level (Kimura *et al.* 2004; Clark *et al.* 2006; Ramot *et al.* 2008; Kobayashi *et al.* 2016; Takeishi *et al.* 2016; Tsukada *et al.* 2016). We previously showed that the Ca^{2+} responses of the AFD neuron in *mec-2(nj89gf)* animals were



Fig. 6. A genetic screen identified mutations that suppressed the thermophilic defect of *mec-2(nj89gf)*. (a) Schematic of the genetic screen. We mutagenized *mec-2(nj89gf)* animals, and their F_2 progeny cultivated at 20°C were subjected to thermotaxis assays. Animals that had migrated toward the 17°C region were isolated as mutant candidates. (b–c) Thermotaxis behaviors of mutant strains isolated from the *mec-2(nj89gf)* suppressor screen. Distributions of animals on the temperature gradients were shown as means ± SEM. TTX indices were indicated as dots. P-values were determined by 1-way ANOVA with Tukey–Kramer test. P-values indicate the comparison of the wild-type and each suppressor isolates to *mec-2(nj89gf)*.



Fig. 7. Mutations in ttx-3 suppressed the thermophilic defect of mec-2(nj89gf). (a) A gene structure of ttx-3*a* and a mutation found in *nj263* are shown. The black boxes indicate exons, the white box untranslated sequence, and the lines introns. (b) Thermotaxis behaviors of mec-2(nj89gf) and mec-2(nj89gf) *nj260* animals with or without a transgene containing a genomic fragment of the ttx-3 locus. Distributions of animals on the temperature gradients were shown as means \pm SEM. TTX indices were indicated as dots. *P*-values were determined by 1-way ANOVA with Tukey–Kramer test.

indistinguishable from that of the wild-type animals (Nakano et al. 2020). When crh-1(nj257); mec-2(nj89gf) animals were subjected to temperature ramps, the AFD neurons increased the Ca^{2+} levels similarly to those observed in mec-2(nj89gf) animals (Fig. 9a). These results indicate that crh-1 affects a process downstream of the Ca^{2+} influx in the AFD neurons to suppress the thermotaxis phenotype of mec-2(nj89gf).

We next asked whether crh-1 regulates the neuronal activity of the AIY interneuron. Since physical immobilization can cause the prolongation of the reversal state in the nervous system (Kato et al. 2015), and the AIY neural activity is likely influenced by the motor states of the animal (Li et al. 2014; Luo et al. 2014), we conducted the imaging from freely moving animals (see Nakano et al. 2020 for further discussion). We cultivated animals at 20°C and conducted simultaneous Ca²⁺ imaging of the AFD and AIY neurons from freely moving animals. We subjected the animals to a temperature ramp that increases from 20.2°C to 21.2°C. As previously reported (Nakano et al. 2020), the majority of the wild-type AIY neurons displayed inhibitory responses under this condition, while the AIY neurons of mec-2(nj89gf) animals predominantly exhibited excitatory responses (Fig. 9b). We observed that a significant fraction of the AIY neurons from crh-1(nj257); mec-2(nj89gf) animals displayed inhibitory responses (Fig. 9b). The AFD neurons from both mec-2(nj89gf) and crh-1(nj257); mec-2(nj89qf) animals showed increases in the Ca²⁺ concentrations upon the warming stimuli. These results suggest that crh-1 functions in the AFD neurons and regulates the bidirectional responses of the AIY interneurons to regulate thermotaxis.

Our previous study indicated that *crh*-1 controls the excitability of the AFD thermosensory neurons in response to certain thermal stimuli (Nishida *et al.* 2011). Our observations indicated that in addition to this role in regulating the AFD neural activity, *crh-1* controls the neuronal outputs from AFD, thereby governing the bidirectional AIY activity. We suggest that *crh-1* might regulate transcription of a set of genes in AFD, some of which adjust the excitability of the AFD neurons while others control the AFD neuronal output to its postsynaptic neurons AIY. Our results together with our previous observations thus highlight the dual roles of *crh-1* within the AFD neurons for the regulation of thermotaxis.

Our results also suggested that mec-2 could act upstream of crh-1 in the AFD thermosensory neurons to regulate thermotaxis. Since crh-1 is a transcriptional regulator, these observations raised a possibility that mec-2 would regulate thermotaxis by controlling transcription of genes within AFD that either directly or indirectly affect the neuronal outputs from the AFD neurons. Previous studies indicated that when the cultivation temperature was shifted, the wild-type animals required certain time to adjust their thermotaxis behavior (Hedgecock and Russell 1975; Mohri et al. 2005; Aoki et al. 2018; Hawk et al. 2018). The adaptation to new cultivation temperature involves transcriptional reconfiguration of genes expressed in the AFD thermosensory neurons (Yu et al. 2014). Our previous observations also indicated that crh-1 is required to promote the adaptation to new cultivation temperature (Nishida et al. 2011). These findings thus suggest that the AFD neurons in mec-2 mutants might be defective in setting the level of gene expression appropriate for the cultivation temperature. Since the AFD neurons apparently compute its neuronal outputs based on the cultivation temperature and current thermal context (Hawk et al. 2018; Nakano et al. 2020), such a defect in



Fig. 8. crh-1(nj257) suppressed the thermophilic defect of mec-2(nj89gf). (a) A chromosomal region to which nj257 was mapped is indicated. The gene structure of crh-1a and mutations associated with each mutant are shown. The black boxes indicate exons, the lines introns, and the white boxes untranslated sequences. (b–d) Thermotaxis behaviors of crh-1 mutants. Distributions of animals on the temperature gradients were shown as means \pm SEM. TTX indices were indicated as dots. P-values were determined by 1-way ANOVA with Tukey–Kramer test.

AFD of *mec-2* mutants would result in an abnormal neuronal output from AFD, leading to a defect in the bidirectional AIY activity. Thus, in contrast to previous studies that indicated the roles of the stomatin family proteins in regulating the ion channels

(Goodman *et al.* 2002; Price *et al.* 2004), our genetic screens suggest a new mode of the MEC-2/stomatin action that involves the transcriptional regulation in controlling the dynamics of a neural circuitry.



Fig. 9. *crh*-1 regulates the AIY neuronal activity. (a) Calcium imaging of the AFD thermosensory neurons in immobilized animals expressing the calcium indicator, YCX1.6. Animals were cultivated at 20°C. The temperature stimulus is shown in the blue lines. Individual calcium responses are shown as the ratio changes of YFP/CFP in gray lines. The mean responses are indicated in the red lines. The box and dot plots of the maximum ratio change, the half maximum temperature, and the area under the curve are shown. The boxes display the first and third quartiles, the lines inside the boxes are the medians, and the whiskers extend to 1.5-time interquartile range from the boxes. P-values were determined by Wilcoxon rank sum test for the comparisons of the maximum ratio change and the half maximum temperature and by student t-test for the area under the curve. n = 20 and 18 for mec-

Data availability

Caenorhabditis elegans strains and plasmids are available upon request. Supplementary File 1 contains descriptions of the strains used in this study. Supplementary File 2 contains numeric data of imaging analyses from freely moving animals. Supplementary Files 3–10 contain the raw data of the thermotaxis assays shown in Figs. 1–8, respectively. The authors affirm that all data necessary for confirming the conclusions of the article are present within the article, figures, and supplemental materials. The custom scripts for the Ca²⁺ imaging analysis of freely moving animals are available from the GitHub at the following URL: https://github.com/ShunjiNakano/AIY_tracking.

Supplemental material is available at G3 online.

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Conflicts of interest

None declared.

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Fig. 9. Continued

2(n)89gf) and crh-1(n)257; mec-2(n)89gf) animals, respectively. (b) Calcium imaging from freely moving animals expressing YCX1.6 in the AFD and AIY neurons. Animals were cultivated at 20°C. The heatmaps indicate the standardized ratio change of the AFD and AIY calcium dynamics. The baseline standardized ratio change, which corresponds to the mean of the standardized ratio changes for the first 10 s, was subtracted from the standardized ratio change of each frame. A representative of the temperature stimulus is shown. The areas under the curve of the AIY standardized ratio changes were calculated for the time after the temperature increase was applied and were shown in the box and dot plots. The boxes indicate the first and third quartiles, the lines inside the boxes are the medians, and the whiskers extend to 1.5-time interquartile range from the boxes. P-values were determined by Steel–Dwass test. n = 17, 17, and 20 for the wild-type, mec-2(n)89gf and crh-1(n)257; mec-2(n)89gf animals, respectively.

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