

# A carbon dioxide avoidance behavior is integrated with responses to ambient oxygen and food in *Caenorhabditis elegans*

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Homeostasis of internal carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>) and oxygen (O<sub>2</sub>) levels is fundamental to all animals. Here we examine the CO<sub>2</sub> response of the nematode *Caenorhabditis elegans*. This species inhabits rotting material, which typically has a broad CO<sub>2</sub> concentration range. We show that well fed *C. elegans* avoid CO<sub>2</sub> levels above 0.5%. Animals can respond to both absolute CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations and changes in CO<sub>2</sub> levels within seconds. Responses to CO<sub>2</sub> do not reflect avoidance of acid pH but appear to define a new sensory response. Sensation of CO<sub>2</sub> is promoted by the cGMP-gated ion channel subunits TAX-2 and TAX-4, but other pathways are also important. Robust CO<sub>2</sub> avoidance in well fed animals requires inhibition of the DAF-16 forkhead transcription factor by the insulin-like receptor DAF-2. Starvation, which activates DAF-16, strongly suppresses CO<sub>2</sub> avoidance. Exposure to hypoxia (<1% O<sub>2</sub>) also suppresses CO<sub>2</sub> avoidance via activation of the hypoxia-inducible transcription factor HIF-1. The *npr-1 215V* allele of the naturally polymorphic neuropeptide receptor *npr-1*, besides inhibiting avoidance of high ambient O<sub>2</sub> in feeding *C. elegans*, also promotes avoidance of high CO<sub>2</sub>. *C. elegans* integrates competing O<sub>2</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> sensory inputs so that one response dominates. Food and allelic variation at NPR-1 regulate which response prevails. Our results suggest that multiple sensory inputs are coordinated by *C. elegans* to generate different coherent foraging strategies.

carbon dioxide sensing | natural variation | oxygen sensing

CO<sub>2</sub> is an important sensory cue for many organisms. Insects can use elevated CO<sub>2</sub> as part of an alarm signal or to find food (1–3). In fungi, high CO<sub>2</sub> can induce filamentation (4) and regulate sporulation (5). Nematode parasites of plants and animals can follow CO<sub>2</sub> gradients to locate their hosts (6, 7). Internal CO<sub>2</sub> levels also provide important signals. For example, insects and mammals monitor internal CO<sub>2</sub> to modulate respiratory exchange (8–10). This homeostatic function prevents respiratory poisoning and pH changes in body fluids, which can occur if CO<sub>2</sub> levels rise above 5% (11).

Several mechanisms have been implicated in sensing CO<sub>2</sub>. In *Drosophila*, avoidance of high CO<sub>2</sub> is mediated by a pair of odorant receptors (2, 12, 13). Artificially activating neurons expressing these receptors elicits the escape response (14). Less is known about how insects monitor internal CO<sub>2</sub> to control opening of spiracles (15). In mammals internal CO<sub>2</sub> levels regulate breathing, diuresis, blood pH, and blood flow (8). In most cases the molecular sensors involved are unclear although pH changes associated with hydration of CO<sub>2</sub> are thought to be important. Carbonic anhydrases, which catalyze the hydration of CO<sub>2</sub> to produce H<sup>+</sup> and HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>−</sup>, are widely expressed in mammals. HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>−</sup> has been shown to regulate the activity of a family of adenylate cyclases that is conserved from bacteria to man (16). However, the role of these enzymes in CO<sub>2</sub> signaling in animals is unclear. In fungi an HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>−</sup>-regulated adenylate cyclase modulates development in response to elevated CO<sub>2</sub> (4).

*Caenorhabditis elegans* belongs to the Nematoda, one of the largest phyla. Little is known, at a mechanistic level, about how these animals respond to CO<sub>2</sub>. Nematodes lack specialized respi-

ratory structures, and gaseous exchange is thought to occur through their cuticle. Previous studies have described *C. elegans* chemotaxis to HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>−</sup> but have not examined responses to gradients of CO<sub>2</sub> (17, 18). *C. elegans* thrives in compost, mushroom beds, and decaying fruit, where it feeds on bacteria (19, 20). Broad ranges in O<sub>2</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations exist in such environments depending on microbial growth, temperature, aeration, and moisture, and CO<sub>2</sub> levels can rise to 10% (21, 22). Here we investigate how *C. elegans* responds to CO<sub>2</sub>.

## Results

***C. elegans* Avoids Elevated CO<sub>2</sub>.** To investigate how *C. elegans* responds to CO<sub>2</sub>, we first exposed N2 (Bristol) wild-type animals to spatial CO<sub>2</sub> gradients. Gas gradients were set up over worms on agar surfaces using microfluidic chambers connected to defined gas mixtures (Fig. 1 *A* and *B* and ref. 23; see *Methods*). Within these chambers laminar flow operates such that a linear gas gradient is generated by simple diffusion between the two ends of the chamber. Unless otherwise indicated, O<sub>2</sub> was kept at 21% in these mixtures: CO<sub>2</sub> was increased at the expense of N<sub>2</sub>. When only air was pumped into the chamber, N2 animals distributed equally to both sides of the chamber space (Fig. 1*A*). However, on introduction of a 5% to 0% CO<sub>2</sub> gradient, animals rapidly (<10 min) vacated areas of the chamber where CO<sub>2</sub> levels were high (Fig. 1*B*). To examine the concentration dependence of *C. elegans* CO<sub>2</sub> avoidance, we also assayed animals in gradients of 0.25% to 0%, 0.5% to 0%, 1% to 0%, and 3% to 0% CO<sub>2</sub>. Avoidance of CO<sub>2</sub> was concentration-dependent, and animals avoided high CO<sub>2</sub> both in the presence and in the absence of a lawn of *Escherichia coli* food [Fig. 1 *C* and *D* and [supporting information \(SI\) Fig. S1](#)]. However, bacteria slightly but significantly reduced the strength of the avoidance response (Fig. 1 *C* and *D* and [Fig. S1](#)). The significance threshold for *C. elegans* CO<sub>2</sub> response was 1% CO<sub>2</sub> on food and 0.5% CO<sub>2</sub> off food at the 0.01% significance level (Fig. 1 *C* and *D* and [Fig. S1](#)). Thus, CO<sub>2</sub> is a potent repellent for N2 animals.

To provide a simple measure for the CO<sub>2</sub> response we calculated a chemotaxis index by subtracting the number of animals in the low CO<sub>2</sub> half of the chamber from the number in the high CO<sub>2</sub> half and dividing by the total number of animals in the assay. Chemotaxis indices of +1, 0, and −1 indicate perfect attraction, indifference, and perfect avoidance of CO<sub>2</sub>, respectively. The chemotaxis indices for CO<sub>2</sub> gradients of 1% to 0%, 3% to 0%, and 5% to 0% were

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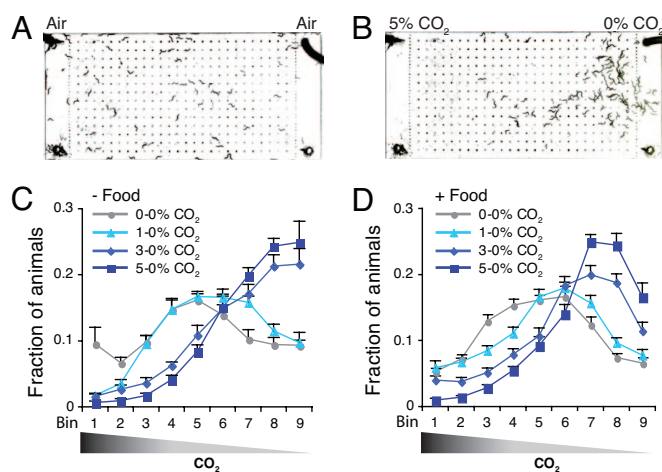
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**Fig. 1.** *C. elegans* avoids elevated levels of CO<sub>2</sub>. (A and B) Distribution of N2 animals in microfluidic devices after 10 min without a CO<sub>2</sub> gradient (A) or with a 5% to 0% CO<sub>2</sub> gradient (B). Assays are in the absence of food. Gases pumped into the chamber are indicated at the top. (C and D) Distribution of N2 animals in CO<sub>2</sub> gradients in the absence (C and Table S1) or presence (D) of *E. coli* food (see also Fig. S1). Bin numbers refer to different portions of the microfluidic chamber. High CO<sub>2</sub> is to the left, as indicated by the wedge. Distribution of animals in all CO<sub>2</sub> gradients shown was significantly different from 0–0% CO<sub>2</sub> ( $P < 0.0001$ ). Distribution of animals in all CO<sub>2</sub> gradients shown on food was significantly different from that off food ( $P < 0.0001$ ). In this and all subsequent figures measurements were taken 10 min after the assay began.

–0.28, –0.66, and –0.80, respectively (see Fig. S1C, Assays without food).

To examine how *C. elegans* avoids CO<sub>2</sub>, we exposed N2 animals to temporal CO<sub>2</sub> gradients by pumping defined gas mixtures at set rates into a behavioral arena. We subjected animals to both increases (0% to 3% or 5%) and decreases (from 3% or 5% to 0%) in CO<sub>2</sub>. Animals subjected to a 0–3% rise in CO<sub>2</sub> responded within 10 s of the gas switch; forward movement briefly ceased, animals reversed, and by ≈25 s after the switch most animals had committed a near to 180° turn (Movie S1, Animals on food). To quantify this response we took a reversal to be backward movement of an animal by greater than one-quarter of its body length and a turn to be when an animal brings its head close to its tail to create the shape of the Greek letter omega ( $\Omega$ ). Raising CO<sub>2</sub> levels transiently stimulated reversals and turns both in the presence and absence of bacterial food (Fig. 2A–D). Reversals were sustained for longer in the presence of food, suggesting that bacterial signals modify *C. elegans* CO<sub>2</sub> response pathways (Fig. 2A–D). Because the responses do not persist after CO<sub>2</sub> levels plateau at 3%, they are likely evoked by a neural circuit that responds to changes in CO<sub>2</sub> concentration rather than absolute concentrations.

### CO<sub>2</sub> Stimulates *C. elegans* Locomotory Activity on Food but Not off Food.

The speed an animal moves at influences how rapidly it can escape an aversive cue. This led us to examine whether elevated CO<sub>2</sub> stimulated movement in *C. elegans*. Raising CO<sub>2</sub> from 0% to 5% led to a doubling of the average speed of feeding N2 animals, from 46 to 92  $\mu\text{m/s}$  (Fig. 2E). Unlike the increase in reversals and turns, which lasted for only 1–2 min (Fig. 2A–D), the increased rate of movement was sustained as long as CO<sub>2</sub> levels remained high (>30 min; Fig. 2F). This perdurance suggests that absolute levels of CO<sub>2</sub>, rather than change in its concentration, can signal to control speed of movement.

When returned from 5% CO<sub>2</sub> to 0%, feeding animals showed a further transient increase in speed before slowing down to the speed they exhibited before the CO<sub>2</sub> rise (Fig. 2E). In contrast to our observations in the presence of food, raising CO<sub>2</sub> levels from 0% to

5% in the absence of food caused a decrease in the average speed of movement, from 235 to 183  $\mu\text{m/s}$  (Fig. 2G). Returning animals to atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> levels reversed this inhibition. In summary, our data suggest that *C. elegans* can respond both to absolute levels of CO<sub>2</sub>, which can regulate speed, and to changes in CO<sub>2</sub> levels, which modulate reversals and turns and, to some extent, speed too.

**CO<sub>2</sub> Avoidance Is Distinct from Avoidance of Acid pH.** CO<sub>2</sub> is potentially a complex sensory stimulus. *C. elegans* lives in aqueous films and responds to chemical stimuli dissolved in these films. CO<sub>2</sub> is highly soluble in water, reacting to form carbonic acid that dissociates to yield H<sup>+</sup> and HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>–</sup> (Fig. 2H). HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>–</sup> can dissociate further to yield H<sup>+</sup> and CO<sub>3</sub><sup>2–</sup>, but CO<sub>3</sub><sup>2–</sup> concentrations are negligible at physiological pH. Thus at the air–water interface an equilibrium is set up between gaseous CO<sub>2</sub> and its solvation products (Fig. 2H).

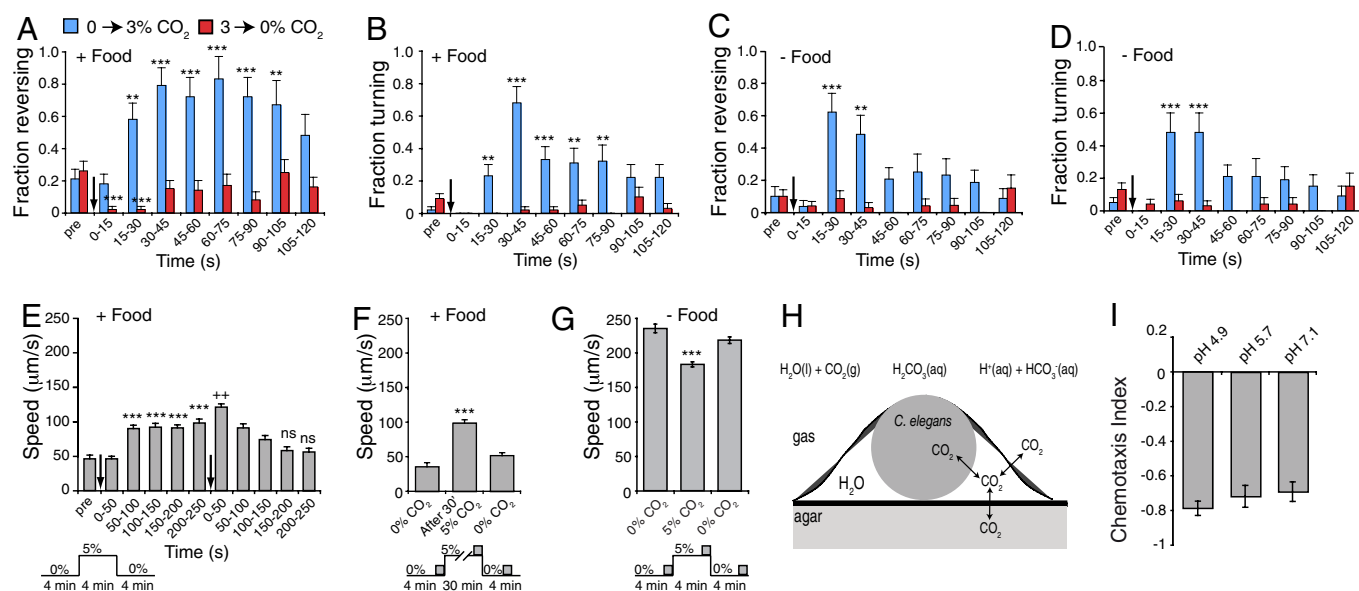
Previous studies have indicated that *C. elegans* avoids acid pH (24). This raised the possibility that CO<sub>2</sub> avoidance reflects escape from acid pH. We therefore examined how a 5% to 0% CO<sub>2</sub> gradient changed agar pH across the microfluidic chamber (Fig. S2). We observed a pH change of <0.1 pH units across the chamber, from pH 6.22 to pH 6.29. The small size of the pH change was expected because the agar substrate is buffered (see Methods). This small pH change and the previous observation that *C. elegans* avoids acid only below pH 4 (24) suggest that changes in external pH are unlikely to explain CO<sub>2</sub> avoidance.

*C. elegans* could also avoid CO<sub>2</sub> by responding to changes in HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>–</sup> levels in the medium. To test this we examined CO<sub>2</sub> responses on agars buffered at different pH values, from 4.9 to 7.1. The concentrations of HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>–</sup> generated by any given partial pressure of CO<sub>2</sub> should vary 100-fold across this pH range. We saw no substantial differences in avoidance of 5% CO<sub>2</sub> at different pH values (Fig. 2I). These data suggest that changes in external H<sup>+</sup> and HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>–</sup> are unlikely to be the sensory stimuli that trigger CO<sub>2</sub> avoidance. However, the permeability of CO<sub>2</sub> across lipid bilayers is high ( $\approx 0.35 \text{ cm s}^{-1}$ ) (25), and the *C. elegans* genome encodes several genes with homology to carbonic anhydrases, the enzymes that catalyze hydration of CO<sub>2</sub> (www.wormbase.org). *C. elegans* could therefore sense CO<sub>2</sub> fluctuations by monitoring internal (extracellular or intracellular) H<sup>+</sup> or HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>–</sup> levels. Alternatively, *C. elegans* could respond to molecular CO<sub>2</sub>.

### Signaling Through cGMP-Gated Ion Channels Contributes to CO<sub>2</sub> Avoidance.

Two major chemosensory pathways have been defined in *C. elegans*. One is mediated by a cGMP-gated ion channel encoded by the *tax-2* and *tax-4* genes (26, 27). A second is mediated by transient receptor potential V-like (TRPV-like) ion channels encoded by *osm-9* and its associated subunits encoded by *ocr* genes (28, 29). We tested whether mutations in these genes disrupted CO<sub>2</sub> avoidance. Loss of *osm-9* did not cause a carbon dioxide avoidance defective (Cdad) phenotype in the presence or absence of food (Fig. 3A). In contrast, mutations in *tax-2* or *tax-4* completely disrupted CO<sub>2</sub> avoidance on food but only partially disrupted avoidance off food (Fig. 3A). Thus, cGMP pathways contribute to CO<sub>2</sub> avoidance, but other signal transduction pathways may also be important.

**Starvation Suppresses CO<sub>2</sub> Avoidance.** *C. elegans* thrives in decaying organic matter where microbial activity can significantly raise local CO<sub>2</sub> levels (21, 22). It was therefore surprising that N2 animals avoided CO<sub>2</sub>. Studies of other nematodes, both free-living bacteriophagous species (e.g., *Panagrellus silusiae*) and plant (e.g., *Meloidogyne incognita*) and animal (e.g., *Steinernema* sp.) parasites, have reported chemoattraction not chemorepulsion to CO<sub>2</sub> (6, 30, 31). This led us to examine whether *C. elegans* avoidance of CO<sub>2</sub> is context-dependent. We began by asking whether starvation alters CO<sub>2</sub> avoidance. We removed N2 animals from food for 1, 3, or 5 h and then tested their responses in a 5% to 0% CO<sub>2</sub> gradient off food. Food deprivation suppressed CO<sub>2</sub> avoidance: N2 animals



**Fig. 2.** Behavioral mechanisms involved in avoidance of CO<sub>2</sub>. (A–D) Fraction of animals reversing (A and C) or executing a turn (B and D) after a switch in CO<sub>2</sub> concentration. A and B show responses on food, and C and D show responses off food. Events are binned into 15-s time intervals. Gas switches (indicated by an arrow) occur at time 0. Blue bars represent animals subjected to an increase in CO<sub>2</sub> from 0% to 3%; red bars represent animals subjected to a decrease in CO<sub>2</sub> from 3% to 0%. “pre” indicates responses in a 15-s interval immediately before the gas switch. Asterisks indicate significances compared with responses before the gas switch (pre). In this and all subsequent figures, \*\*\* or +++ indicates  $P < 0.001$ , \*\* or ++ indicates  $P < 0.01$ , and \* or + indicates  $P < 0.05$ . (E) Feeding N2 animals respond to high CO<sub>2</sub> by increasing their movement. Animals were subjected to a rise in CO<sub>2</sub> (indicated by the first arrow) from 0% to 5% followed by a fall in CO<sub>2</sub> (indicated by the second arrow) from 5% to 0%. “pre” refers to speed before the first gas switch. The gas stimulus regime is indicated below the graph. Speed was measured for each animal every second and then binned into 50-s intervals. Asterisks indicate the significance compared with speed before the up step (“pre”). + indicates significance compared with the 50-s interval before the down step. (F) The average speed of feeding N2 animals exposed to 5% CO<sub>2</sub> remains elevated as long as CO<sub>2</sub> levels are high. Animals were exposed to 0% CO<sub>2</sub> for 4 min, switched to 5% CO<sub>2</sub> for 30 min, and then returned to 0% CO<sub>2</sub> for 4 min. Bars represent the average speed of animals during 50-s intervals just before increasing CO<sub>2</sub> levels, just before decreasing CO<sub>2</sub> levels, and 3 min after return of CO<sub>2</sub> levels to 0%. Fifty-second intervals are indicated by shaded boxes in the gas stimulus regime displayed below the graph. Asterisks indicate significance compared with speed at 0% CO<sub>2</sub>. (G) In the absence of food, N2 animals respond to a rise in CO<sub>2</sub> by reducing their speed. Speeds were averaged over the 50-s intervals indicated by shaded boxes in the gas stimulus regime displayed below the graph. (H) CO<sub>2</sub> is potentially a complex stimulus. Aqueous CO<sub>2</sub> as well H<sup>+</sup> and HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> could be sensory cues for the nematode. Because nematodes are gas-permeable, CO<sub>2</sub> detection could involve both external and internal sensors. Double-headed arrows indicate equilibration of CO<sub>2</sub> among gas, liquid, worm, and agar phases. (I) Avoidance of 5% CO<sub>2</sub> persists with little or no change in magnitude across a broad range of external pH. All pairwise comparisons of chemotaxis indices at different pH values are not significantly different.

showed no significant CO<sub>2</sub> avoidance after 3 h without food and weak attraction toward CO<sub>2</sub> after 5 h without food (Fig. 3B). Thus, whereas well fed or feeding animals strongly avoid CO<sub>2</sub>, starved animals do not.

**Insulin-Like Signaling Sustains CO<sub>2</sub> Avoidance.** Several neuroendocrine pathways signal feeding state in *C. elegans* (32–35). These include the *daf-2* insulin-like receptor pathway: high DAF-2 signaling is associated with the well fed state, whereas low signaling is associated with food deprivation. We speculated that starvation might suppress CO<sub>2</sub> avoidance by inhibiting DAF-2 signaling. This hypothesis predicts that mutants in this pathway would behave like starved wild-type animals even when they are well fed. Consistent with this, mutants in the insulin-like signaling pathway, including the *daf-2* insulin-like receptor, the 3-phosphoinositide-dependent kinase *pdk-1*, and the protein kinase B serine/threonine kinase *akt-1* showed reduced CO<sub>2</sub> avoidance or even weak attraction (Fig. 3C and D). Insulin-like signaling thus sustains avoidance of high CO<sub>2</sub>.

The effects of food deprivation on CO<sub>2</sub> responses occurred over several hours (Fig. 3B), a timescale consistent with a transcriptional reconfiguration of CO<sub>2</sub>-sensing circuits. Reduced DAF-2 signaling activates the DAF-16 Forkhead transcription factor (32, 36). We therefore asked whether DAF-16 was responsible for suppressing CO<sub>2</sub> avoidance in *daf-2* mutants. Consistent with such a scenario, *daf-2; daf-16* double mutants strongly avoided high CO<sub>2</sub> and behaved indistinguishably from N2 animals (Fig. 3C). Together these data are consistent with a model in which starvation reconfigures CO<sub>2</sub> responses, at least in part, by down-regulating insulin-

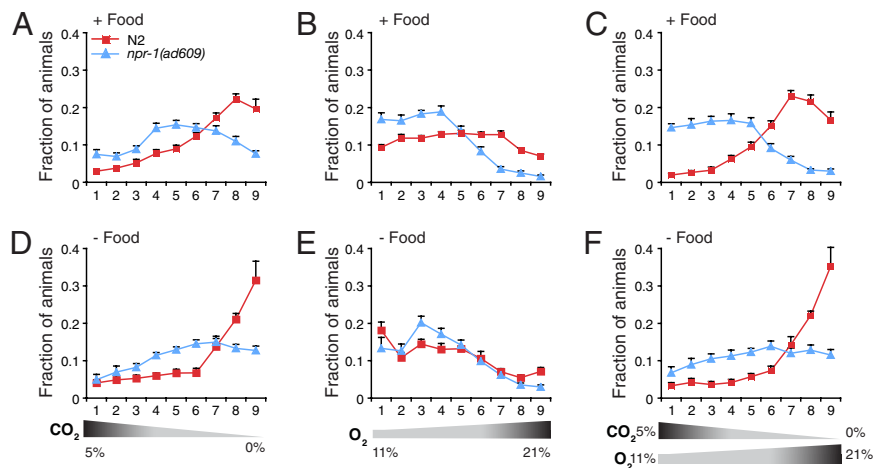
like signaling and activating the DAF-16 forkhead transcription factor.

**Hypoxia Suppresses CO<sub>2</sub> Avoidance via Activation of HIF-1.** Because CO<sub>2</sub> is the by-product of aerobic respiration, we speculated that O<sub>2</sub>-sensing pathways might regulate CO<sub>2</sub> responses. One pathway regulated by O<sub>2</sub> is the hypoxia-inducible pathway. In both *C. elegans* and mammals, severe hypoxia (<1% O<sub>2</sub>) induces hypoxia-inducible factor (HIF) transcription factors. In high O<sub>2</sub> HIFs are targeted for degradation by prolyl hydroxylases. These enzymes use molecular O<sub>2</sub> as a cosubstrate and are active in high, but not low, O<sub>2</sub>. *C. elegans* encodes a single HIF, called HIF-1 (37), which is targeted for degradation by the prolyl hydroxylase EGL-9 (38). Loss of *egl-9* leads to high levels of HIF-1 irrespective of ambient O<sub>2</sub>. *egl-9* mutants were attracted to CO<sub>2</sub> (Fig. 3E). To investigate whether this reversal of CO<sub>2</sub> chemotaxis was due to high HIF-1 activity, we examined the behavior of *egl-9; hif-1* double mutants. Loss of *hif-1* restored strong CO<sub>2</sub> avoidance to *egl-9* mutant animals (Fig. 3E). Finally, we asked whether wild-type animals suppress CO<sub>2</sub> avoidance after experiencing hypoxia. After 1 h in 1% O<sub>2</sub>, N2 animals, but not *hif-1* mutant animals, suppressed CO<sub>2</sub> avoidance (Fig. 3F). Taken together, these data suggest that hypoxia signals through HIF-1 to reconfigure CO<sub>2</sub>-sensing circuits, leading to indifference or even attraction to high CO<sub>2</sub>.

**The NPR-1 Neuropeptide Receptor Promotes CO<sub>2</sub> Avoidance.** We chose to extend our studies on the interplay between O<sub>2</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> sensing. Previous work has shown that natural variation in the







**Fig. 5.** *C. elegans* integrates antagonistic gradients of  $O_2$  and  $CO_2$  according to food availability and genotype at the *npr-1* locus. Data show distribution of N2 and *npr-1(ad609)* animals in simple and mixed gradients of  $O_2$  and  $CO_2$  when food is present (A–C) or absent (D–F). The gas gradients are indicated below each set of panels: 5% to 0%  $CO_2$  in A and D; 11% to 21%  $O_2$  in B and E; and a combined gradient of 5% to 0%  $CO_2$  and 11–21%  $O_2$  in C and F. N2 animals strongly avoid  $CO_2$  both on and off food, even if this requires migration to high- $O_2$  environments. In contrast, the behavior of *npr-1* mutants and animals bearing the *npr-1 215F* allele (see Fig. S3) depends on context. These animals accumulate at low  $O_2$ /high  $CO_2$  if food is present (C): an adverse  $CO_2$  gradient does not appear to affect their avoidance of high  $O_2$ . Conversely, if food is absent, they tend to migrate to high  $O_2$ /low  $CO_2$ .

animals behaved as if they were in a gradient that consisted only of  $CO_2$  (compare Fig. 5 D–F).

Thus, *C. elegans* integrates antagonistic inputs from  $CO_2$ - and  $O_2$ -sensing pathways to generate a coherent behavioral response in which one input dominates. The activity of the NPR-1 receptor reconfigures which of the two sensory responses dominates within the context of food availability.

## Discussion

Well fed *C. elegans* avoid elevated  $CO_2$ , even though they seek environments where  $O_2$  levels are between 11% and 7% (23, 40). The threshold we observed for  $CO_2$  response is  $\approx 0.5\%$ . This is  $>10$ -fold higher than atmospheric  $CO_2$  levels, but decaying organic matter can have much higher  $CO_2$  concentrations, of 10% or more. *C. elegans* can respond both to absolute levels of  $CO_2$ , by modifying speed, and to change in  $CO_2$  concentration, by altering direction of movement. Interestingly, *C. elegans* responses to  $O_2$  are also coupled to changes in both concentration and absolute levels (40).

Behavioral and genetic dissection of the *C. elegans*  $CO_2$  response reveals surprising complexity. Several observations are most easily explained if *C. elegans* has several pathways that respond to changes in  $CO_2$ . First, single mutations in known sensory transduction pathways are not sufficient to abolish  $CO_2$  avoidance under all feeding conditions. Second,  $CO_2$  responses are switched from repulsion to attraction by mutations in some genes. Third, the effects of  $CO_2$  on speed of movement are complex. Although we have not identified  $CO_2$ -responsive sensory neurons in this study, one set of candidate neurons is those expressing the TAX-2/TAX-4 cGMP-gated ion channel.

Avoidance of  $CO_2$  is modulated by contextual cues such as feeding state, exposure to hypoxia, and bacteria (Fig. 3G). Starvation completely suppresses  $CO_2$  avoidance. This may represent a tradeoff in which food-deprived animals ignore an aversive cue to explore a wider range of environments. Previous work has shown that starvation inhibits signaling from the insulin-like receptor *daf-2* and promotes entry of the DAF-16 forkhead transcription factor into the nucleus (32). Our data are consistent with high DAF-2 signaling in well fed animals sustaining avoidance of high  $CO_2$  and low DAF-2 signaling in starved animals reducing  $CO_2$  avoidance by activating DAF-16. DAF-2 has been implicated in modulating behavior previously, notably in studies of salt chemotaxis and thermotaxis (33, 35, 41). The *daf-2* pathway may therefore act

globally to reset behavioral state according to feeding conditions. Suppression of  $CO_2$  avoidance in hypoxia may enable animals to migrate through  $CO_2$ -rich environments to reach more aerobic environments. Suggestions for how HIF-1 might alter  $CO_2$  responses come from microarray studies. In both mammals and *C. elegans*, HIF regulates expression of carbonic anhydrases (42).

Bacterial signals also modulate  $CO_2$  sensing: the  $CO_2$  responses of well fed animals, both wild type and mutant, differ depending on whether food is present or not. Perhaps different combinations of sensory neurons mediate responses to  $CO_2$  on and off food. Such a scenario has been described for the response of *C. elegans* to the aversive odorant octanol (43).

Sensory responses to  $CO_2$  and  $O_2$  are integrated by the worm in ways that depend on context and genotype at the naturally varying *npr-1* locus. Previous data have shown that NPR-1 215V suppresses avoidance of high  $O_2$  in feeding animals. Here we show that NPR-1 215V also promotes  $CO_2$  avoidance. By coordinately stimulating avoidance of high  $CO_2$  and inhibiting avoidance of high  $O_2$ , *npr-1 215V* is likely to promote migration to surface environments. In contrast, the *npr-1 215F* allele permits strong avoidance of high  $O_2$  and weak avoidance of  $CO_2$ , promoting migration to subsurface environments. We speculate that these niche preferences may favor speciation.

Why does *C. elegans* avoid  $CO_2$ ? One reason may be that high external  $CO_2$  can acidify the body fluid of *C. elegans*. However, there are other possibilities. Comparison of local  $O_2$  and  $CO_2$  levels may allow the animal to monitor aeration and escape from an environment before it becomes anaerobic.

In summary, *C. elegans*  $CO_2$  avoidance defines a novel behavior.  $CO_2$  avoidance is highly integrated with other sensory cues of natural importance to the worm, such as food and ambient  $O_2$ . One exciting challenge for the future will be to identify the neuronal substrates of  $CO_2$  avoidance in *C. elegans* and to examine how contextual changes alter cellular behavior, leading to the alterations in organismal behavior patterns that we have observed in this study.

## Methods

**Strains.** Strains were maintained at 22°C by using standard methods unless otherwise indicated (44). Strains used in this study are listed in *SI Materials and Methods*.

**Behavioral Assays.** Spatial  $CO_2$  gradients were generated by using custom-made  $33 \times 15 \times 0.4$ -mm microfluidic devices fabricated from polydimethylsiloxane

(PDMS). Design was modified from ref. 23. Devices were placed over 50–150 nematodes on nematode growth medium (NGM) agar. CO<sub>2</sub> gradients were formed by pumping a high percentage of CO<sub>2</sub> at one end of the chamber and 0% CO<sub>2</sub> at the other end with a syringe pump (PhD 2000; Harvard Apparatus). Flow rate through each inlet was 2 ml/min. A 5% to 0% CO<sub>2</sub> gradient was used in most assays; the background O<sub>2</sub> level was 21%. Assays were run for 10 min. The distribution of nematodes was recorded by counting animals in each of nine equal divisions of the chamber as well as in the two spaces at either end of the chamber (Fig. 1A). For assays in the absence of food, animals were washed with M9 Buffer before assay. Details of the wash method, which was designed to avoid giving animals a hypoxic shock, are in *SI Materials and Methods*. Assays in the presence of food were performed on NGM plates on lawns seeded 2 days earlier with OP50 (44). Defined CO<sub>2</sub>:O<sub>2</sub>:N<sub>2</sub> gas mixtures were obtained from The BOC Group.

Measurements of speed were performed by using the Digital Image Analysis System (DIAS) software as described previously (40). Each data point represents at least six assays. In all bar graphs, statistical significance was determined by using the two-tailed *t* test. In all worm distribution plots, significance was determined by pairwise comparison between different strains and conditions using Pearson's  $\chi^2$  test at the *P* < 0.0001 level. In all figures, error bars denote SEM.

**Environmental Manipulations.** In Fig. 2I, the pH of the nematode substrate was varied by using different buffers as follows: pH 4.9 (40 mM sodium acetate, pH 4.75), pH 5.7 (40 mM malate, pH 5.33), and pH 7.1 (40 mM phosphate, pH 7.2).

In starvation experiments (Fig. 3B), two culture plates of N2 animals were

washed three times in M9 before transfer to conditioning plates (6 or 9 cm of unseeded NGM). Animals were left for 0, 1, 3, or 5 h and then washed once before being assayed off food for CO<sub>2</sub> avoidance.

In the hypoxia conditioning experiments (Fig. 3F), *C. elegans* cultures were placed in a glove box (Coy Laboratory Products) at 1% O<sub>2</sub> for 1 h before being assayed off food for CO<sub>2</sub> avoidance.

In Fig. 4B three animals per plate were grown from the L2/L3 larval stage to adulthood. Pools of 25 animals were then assayed in CO<sub>2</sub> gradients in the presence of food. The position of each worm in the PDMS chamber was recorded over a 5-min period, beginning 10 min after the onset of the assay, with a CCD camera mounted on a dissecting microscope. Resulting films were analyzed, and the positions of the worms in the chamber were determined with DIAS (Soll Technologies). See *SI Materials and Methods* for further details.

**pH Measurements.** We measured CO<sub>2</sub>-induced pH changes using NGM containing 500  $\mu$ M pH-sensitive chromophore 8-hydroxyppyrene-1,3,6-trisulphonic acid (HPTS; Sigma). For the HPTS fluorescence (*F*) measurement method, see *SI Materials and Methods*.

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