

Quantitative Mapping of a Digenic Behavioral Trait Implicates Globin Variation in *C. elegans* Sensory Behaviors

Patrick T. McGrath,¹ Matthew V. Rockman,^{2,3} Manuel Zimmer,¹ Heeun Jang,¹ Evan Z. Macosko,¹ Leonid Kruglyak,³ and Cornelia I. Bargmann^{1,*}

¹Howard Hughes Medical Institute, Laboratory of Neural Circuits and Behavior, The Rockefeller University, New York, NY 10065, USA

²Department of Biology and Center for Genomics and Systems Biology, New York University, New York, NY 10003, USA

³Howard Hughes Medical Institute, Lewis-Sigler Institute for Integrative Genomics and Department of Ecology and Evolutionary Biology, Carl Icahn Laboratory, Princeton University, Princeton, NJ 08544, USA

*Correspondence: cori@rockefeller.edu

DOI 10.1016/j.neuron.2009.02.012

SUMMARY

Most heritable behavioral traits have a complex genetic basis, but few multigenic traits are understood at a molecular level. Here we show that the *C. elegans* strains N2 and CB4856 have opposite behavioral responses to simultaneous changes in environmental O₂ and CO₂. We identify two quantitative trait loci (QTL) that affect this trait and map each QTL to a single-gene polymorphism. One gene, *npr-1*, encodes a previously described neuropeptide receptor whose high activity in N2 promotes CO₂ avoidance. The second gene, *glb-5*, encodes a neuronal globin domain protein whose high activity in CB4856 modifies behavioral responses to O₂ and combined O₂/CO₂ stimuli. *glb-5* acts in O₂-sensing neurons to increase O₂-evoked calcium signals, implicating globins in sensory signaling. An analysis of wild *C. elegans* strains indicates that the N2 alleles of *npr-1* and *glb-5* arose recently in the same strain background, possibly as an adaptation to laboratory conditions.

INTRODUCTION

Genetic variation contributes to individual differences in many behaviors, including psychiatric conditions in humans and behavioral traits in animals (Kendler, 2001; Kendler and Greenspan, 2006; Flint, 2003), but only a few behavioral traits have been traced to discrete molecular changes (de Bono and Bargmann, 1998; Osborne et al., 1997; Yalcin et al., 2004). The complex genetic structure of natural variation poses challenges for gene identification: most traits are thought to be affected by a few polymorphic genes with moderate effects, and many genes with small effects (Flint, 2003; Mackay, 2004; Kendler and Greenspan, 2006). A molecular understanding of multigenic traits is essential to determine how genetic changes arise, what genes they affect, how these genes interact, and how they influence behavior.

A common approach used to dissect complex genetic traits is QTL analysis, in which two strains are intercrossed, F2 progeny or inbred lines of progeny are characterized by genotype and pheno-

type, and quantitative genetics is used to find linkage to traits of interest. Classical QTL analysis has associated chromosomal regions with traits like anxiety, aggression, drug preference, and learning, but since a well-defined QTL in *Drosophila* or mouse typically covers 300–500 genes, moving from a QTL to the causative mutation is very difficult (Mackay, 2004; Mott and Flint, 2008; Flint, 2003). Indeed, the association of the G protein regulator *Rgs2* with anxiety may be the only established single-gene behavioral QTL in mice (Yalcin et al., 2004). Developing methods to address the QTL-to-genetic-alteration problem is a major goal of the field. For example, new methods of interest combine QTL analysis with complementary approaches such as gene expression analysis or association studies of outbred strains (Mackay, 2004; Wang et al., 2008; Toma et al., 2002).

The resolution of QTL mapping has been greatly improved by whole-genome sequences and inexpensive resequencing, which allow strains to be genotyped at thousands of polymorphic loci. To take advantage of these high-resolution DNA maps, it is optimal to have chromosomes with many recombination breakpoints for fine genetic mapping. Recombinant inbred advanced intercross lines, or RIALs, are modified inbred lines with many crossover points per chromosome that should allow rapid mapping of QTLs to individual genes (Darvasi and Soller, 1995; Rockman and Kruglyak, 2008). A set of high-resolution *C. elegans* RIALs has been generated by intercrossing the standard laboratory strain (N2) with a strain isolated in a Hawaiian pineapple field (CB4856, henceforth “HW”) for ten generations, inbred by selfing for ten generations, and genotyped at 1455 loci (Rockman and Kruglyak, 2009). The resulting RIALs have been used to map several single-gene QTLs for reproductive traits and pathogen resistance (Hodgkin and Doniach, 1997; Seidel et al., 2008; Palopoli et al., 2008; Reddy et al., 2009). Here we use the RIALs to identify two QTLs that affect a behavioral trait, and map both QTLs to single genetic changes.

C. elegans has strong behavioral responses to the gases O₂ and CO₂, which are highly variable in its natural soil and compost environments due to metabolic activity (Sylvia et al., 1998; Greenway et al., 2006). Previous studies have identified the neuropeptide receptor gene *npr-1* as a regulator of O₂ and CO₂ responses that differs between N2 and HW *C. elegans* strains (de Bono and Bargmann, 1998). N2 has a high activity *npr-1* allele (215 valine) and as a result has weak responses to

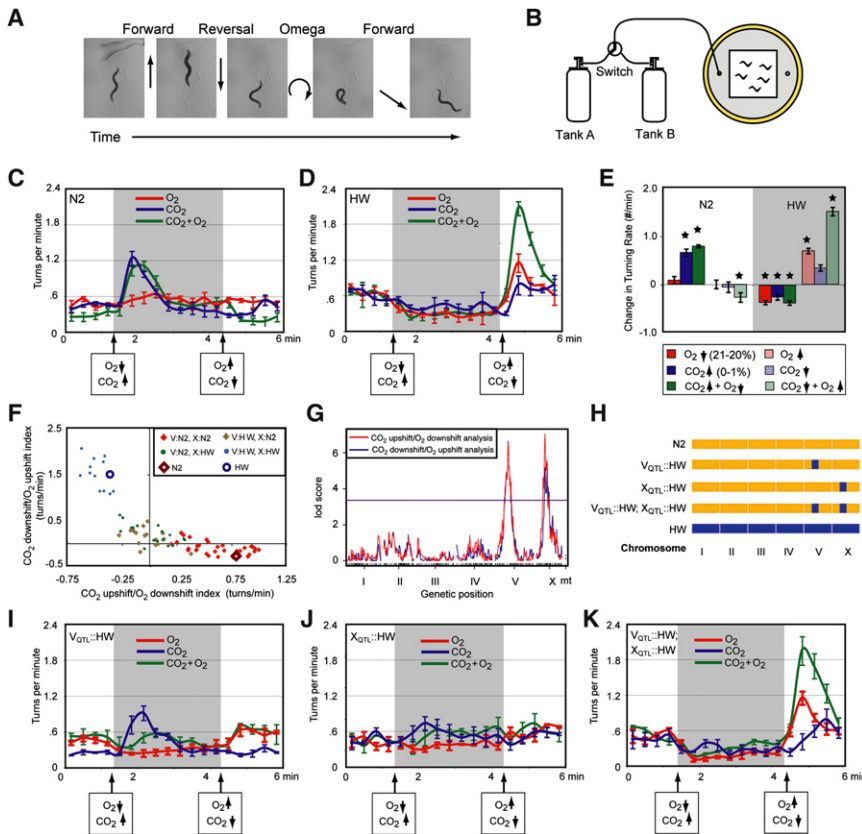


Figure 1. Quantitative Genetic Analysis of O₂ and CO₂ Responses in Two *C. elegans* Strains

(A) Forward movement interrupted by a reversal and omega turn.

(B) Behavioral arena for turning assay. Twenty to thirty animals were recorded in the presence of OP50 bacteria as O₂ and CO₂ concentrations were controlled by regulated gas flow.

(C and D) Average turn rates of N2 and CB4856 (HW) strains across nine 6 min pulse sequences (see Experimental Procedures). In all figures, O₂ changes were 21% O₂→20% O₂→21% O₂, CO₂ changes were 21% O₂→21% O₂/1% CO₂→21% O₂, and simultaneous O₂ and CO₂ changes were 21% O₂→20% O₂/1% CO₂→21% O₂. The balance in all mixtures was N₂.

(E) Average change in turning rate before and after the indicated step change (data in [C] and [D]). Stars denote significant effects of the step change ($p < 0.05$, t test).

(F) Behavioral responses of 78 RIALLs to simultaneous O₂ and CO₂ step changes. y axis, difference in turning frequency after CO₂ downshift/O₂ upshift; x axis, difference in turning frequency after CO₂ upshift/O₂ downshift. N2 and HW reference strains are included; each RIALL is color coded by genotype at the QTLs on chromosome V and X.

(G) QTL analysis of data from (F), showing significant QTL peaks on the left arms of V and X. Horizontal line represents the genome-wide significance threshold ($p = 0.05$).

(H) Schematic of three introgression strains with small regions of HW DNA around the QTLs on V and X introduced into an N2 background.

(I–K) Turning responses of introgression strains, as in (C) and (D).

In all figures, error bars indicate standard error of mean (SEM), and Tables S1 and S2 have full datasets and statistics.

O₂ on food and strongly avoids CO₂ (Gray et al., 2004; Bretscher et al., 2008; Hallem and Sternberg, 2008). HW has a low-activity *npr-1* allele (215 phenylalanine) and as a result strongly avoids high O₂ levels on food and is not repelled by CO₂. Two other behaviors observed in HW strains, aggregation into feeding groups and accumulation at the border of a bacterial lawn, are in part caused by avoidance of high O₂ conditions (Gray et al., 2004; Cheung et al., 2005). Using QTL mapping, we find that *npr-1* cooperates with another variable gene, the globin homolog *glb-5*, to affect behavioral responses to O₂ and CO₂. Using genetic studies of 203 wild strains, we trace the history of these mutations in *C. elegans*.

RESULTS

O₂- and CO₂-Evoked Responses of Two *C. elegans* Isolates

C. elegans increases its frequency of spontaneous reversals and high-amplitude turns when exposed to repulsive stimuli and suppresses reversals and turns when exposed to attractants (Chalasani et al., 2007; Ryu and Samuel, 2002). To learn more about O₂ and CO₂ responses of *C. elegans*, we scored turning behaviors (Figure 1A) in freely moving adult animals on a thin lawn of OP50 bacteria, while switching the chamber between two different gas mixtures every 3 min for 60 min (Figure 1B).

Video recordings were analyzed using automated tracking software that recorded instantaneous speed, reversals, and turns (Ramot et al., 2008). We focused on omega turns, which are high-amplitude forward turns that reorient movement by >90°.

Strikingly, N2 and HW hermaphrodites, both nominally wild-type, had opposite turning responses to simultaneous changes in CO₂ and O₂ concentrations (Figures 1C and 1D). When N2 animals were shifted from a mixture of 21%O₂/79%N₂ to 1%CO₂/20%O₂/79%N₂, they generated a burst of turns that peaked after ~30 s and fell to baseline ~60 s later (Figures 1C and 1E). The reciprocal switch back to 21%O₂/79%N₂ suppressed turning. By contrast, HW animals shifted from 21%O₂/79%N₂ to 1%CO₂/20%O₂/79%N₂ suppressed turning, and the reciprocal switch back to 21%O₂/79%N₂ caused a burst of turning that peaked after ~30 s and fell to baseline ~60 s later (Figures 1D and 1E). Since transient bursts of turning accompany the appearance of a repellent, these results suggest that HW and N2 have opposite preferences for the two gas mixtures.

To determine which gas was most important for turning behavior, CO₂ and O₂ levels were changed separately. Upon a shift from 0% to 1% CO₂, N2 responded with a burst of turning but HW did not respond; a reciprocal shift from 1% to 0% CO₂ had no effect on N2, but stimulated turning slightly in HW (Figures 1C–1E). These results suggest that N2 avoids CO₂ and that HW is weakly attracted to CO₂. A shift from 21% to

20% O₂, or from 20% to 21% O₂, had little effect on turning in N2 (Figures 1C and 1E). By contrast, HW showed a transient 2-fold increase in turning upon a 20% to 21% O₂ upshift and reduced turning upon the reciprocal O₂ downshift, suggesting a preference for 20% O₂ (Figures 1D and 1E).

Quantitative analysis of the behaviors revealed significant interactions between the gas responses (Tables S1 and S2 available online). The N2 turning response in the mixture was dominated by CO₂ and was consistent with the known avoidance of CO₂ by N2 (Bretscher et al., 2008; Hallem and Sternberg, 2008). The turning response in HW was dominated by a preference for 20% over 21% O₂ and was significantly stronger when both CO₂ and O₂ were changed simultaneously, suggesting a slight attraction to CO₂ and an interaction between the responses.

Two Genetic Loci Control the Difference in CO₂/O₂ Behavior between HW and N2

The genetic basis of the behavioral response to simultaneous changes in O₂ and CO₂ was determined by characterizing 78 RIALs (Figure 1F). Based on their turning behaviors, the RIALs fell into a nearly continuous distribution with three general groups: (1) HW-like lines that turned upon simultaneous O₂ increases/CO₂ decreases and suppressed turning upon simultaneous O₂ decreases/CO₂ increases; (2) N2-like lines that turned upon O₂ decreases/CO₂ increases and suppressed turning upon O₂ increases/CO₂ decreases; (3) intermediate lines that did not turn much in response to either change. The continuous distribution of phenotypes and the existence of a novel intermediate behavioral class indicate that this is a complex genetic trait, i.e., that multiple loci influence the behavior.

To identify loci that contribute to the behaviors of the RIALs, quantitative trait locus (QTL) mapping was performed on the O₂ increase/CO₂ decrease response and on the O₂ decrease/CO₂ increase response using genotypes of the RIALs at 1455 SNP markers. Both analyses identified two significant QTLs (Figure 1G), one QTL on chromosome V (lod scores 6.5 and 6.6 for the O₂ decrease/CO₂ increase and O₂ increase/CO₂ decrease, respectively, genome-wide corrected $p < 0.0001$ each) and one QTL on chromosome X (lod scores 7.0 and 5.2, $p < 0.0001$ and $p = 0.0003$ for the O₂ decrease/CO₂ increase and O₂ increase/CO₂ decrease, respectively). For the O₂ decrease/CO₂ increase response, the two QTLs account for 79% of the among-line variance, explaining 33% (V) and 45% (X) of the variance with no significant interaction between them ($F_7 = 3.87$, $p = 0.053$). For the O₂ increase/CO₂ decrease response, the main effects of the two loci explain 34% (V) and 35% (X) of the variance, and a significant interaction effect between the two loci accounts for 15% of the among-line variance ($F_7 = 63$, $p < 10^{-10}$; see Experimental Procedures for further discussion).

The genotypes of the two loci on V and X in the 78 RIALs correlated with the three behavioral classes noted above (Figure 1F). Although the behavioral scores appeared to fall in a continuous distribution, most RIALs that had N2 alleles of both QTLs behaved like N2 ($n = 33$), and most RIALs with HW alleles of both QTLs behaved like HW ($n = 13$). RIALs with N2 alleles at one locus and HW alleles at the other had weak responses to either O₂/CO₂ step change ($n = 32$) (Figure 1F).

To further analyze the mixed allele strains, HW alleles of both QTLs were individually introgressed into N2 by extensive backcrossing, yielding one strain with nearly pure N2 DNA except for the QTL region on chromosome V (referred to as V_{QTL}:HW), one strain with nearly pure N2 DNA except for the QTL region on chromosome X (referred to as X_{QTL}:HW), and one strain with nearly pure N2 DNA with both V and X QTLs from HW (referred to as V_{QTL}:HW; X_{QTL}:HW) (Figure 1H). The three strains were then tested for turning responses to O₂ step changes, CO₂ step changes, and combined O₂/CO₂ step changes (Figures 1I–1K and S1). In all three conditions, V_{QTL}:HW; X_{QTL}:HW were indistinguishable from HW, confirming that two discrete loci account for most of HW behavior (Figure 1K). The V_{QTL}:HW and X_{QTL}:HW strains with one HW locus were distinguishable from each other and from both starting strains. X_{QTL}:HW had minimal responses in all six step changes (Figure 1J). V_{QTL}:HW increased turns in response to individual CO₂ increases but did not respond when these were paired with O₂ decreases (Figure 1I).

The QTL on X Is Caused by a Point Mutation in *npr-1*

The QTL on chromosome X spans the region from 4 to 5.25 Mb, centered on the *npr-1* gene. The high-activity *npr-1(215V)* allele is required for CO₂ avoidance by N2 (Bretscher et al., 2008; Hallem and Sternberg, 2008); since HW animals have the low-activity *npr-1(215F)* allele, an *npr-1* contribution was a plausible explanation for the QTL on X. To test this possibility, a plasmid containing the high-activity N2 *npr-1(215V)* allele was injected into X_{QTL}:HW animals. The resulting transgenic animals behaved like N2 (Figures 2A and S1), indicating that expression of the N2 allele of *npr-1* is sufficient for N2-like turning behavior in X_{QTL}:HW animals. Injecting a comparable low-activity HW *npr-1(215F)* plasmid did not affect the behavior of X_{QTL}:HW animals (Figures 2A and S1). Animals bearing the EMS-induced *npr-1(ad609)* loss-of-function mutant in an N2 background behaved like X_{QTL}:HW animals (Figure 2A), confirming the importance of *npr-1* in the turning assay. These results indicate that variation in the *npr-1* coding sequence can explain the QTL for CO₂ and O₂ behavior on the X chromosome.

The QTL on Chromosome V Is Caused by a Duplication/Insertion in *glb-5*

The QTL on chromosome V was bounded by markers at 5.46 and 5.62 Mb, a region of 160 kb. Nine RIALs had breakpoints between these markers, and finer breakpoint mapping of these strains narrowed the region to 90 kb, or 19 genes. Two interesting candidates in this interval, *glb-5* and *glb-6*, are predicted to encode proteins with globin domains that can potentially bind O₂ and CO₂ (Hoogewijs et al., 2008). The sequence of the coding region of *glb-6* was identical between N2 and HW, but the genomic sequence of *glb-5* contained a 765 bp duplication/insertion in N2 compared to HW (Figure 2B). *glb-5* cDNA analysis demonstrated that the DNA polymorphism resulted in substantially different mRNAs and predicted GLB-5 proteins in N2 and HW. The duplicated exon in N2 led to an in-frame stop codon in the *glb-5* cDNA, resulting in a truncation of the last 179 amino acids of the protein compared to HW, and the inclusion of 40 different residues (Figure 2B).

To ask whether *glb-5* regulates O₂/CO₂ responses, we first tested heterozygous offspring of V_{QTL}:HW; X_{QTL}:HW and

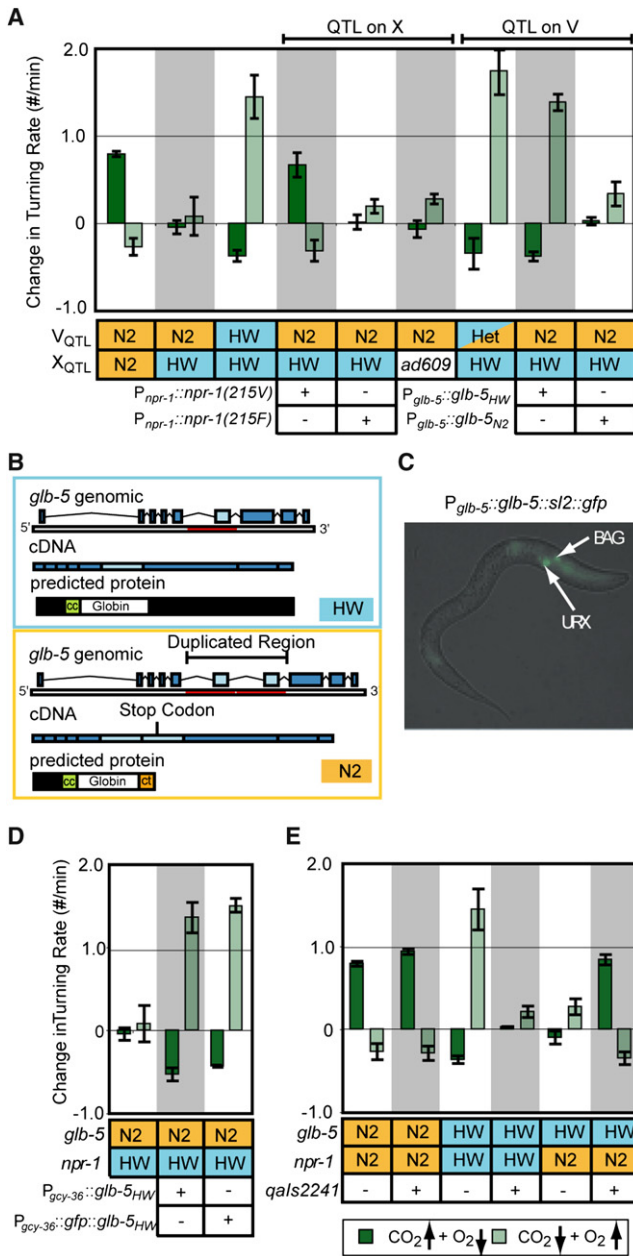


Figure 2. *npr-1* and *glb-5* Polymorphisms Account for the Two Behavioral QTLs

(A) Genetic identification of QTLs on V and X. Turning responses of strains with transgenes bearing N2 or HW alleles of *npr-1*, or N2 or HW alleles of *glb-5*; transgenes were in bicistronic transcripts followed by SL2::GFP. *ad609* is a loss-of-function allele of *npr-1* in the N2 background; “Het” indicates F1 progeny of a $X_{QTL}::HW$ and $V_{QTL}::HW$; $X_{QTL}::HW$ cross. Complete datasets are in Figure S1.

(B) Sequence polymorphisms in *glb-5* between N2 and HW. In N2, a 765 bp duplication covering the sixth exon truncates the predicted GLB-5 protein. cc, coiled-coil domain; ct, alternate C-terminal domain caused by the duplicated exon.

(C) Expression of bicistronic $P_{glb-5::glb-5::SL2::gfp}$ transgene in L1 animal.

(D) Rescue of $X_{QTL}::HW$ animals by expressing the HW allele of *glb-5* in URX, AQR, and PQR neurons ($P_{gcy-36::glb-5_{HW}}$ in bicistronic SL2::GFP clone; $P_{gcy-36::gfp::glb-5_{HW}}$, N-terminally GFP-tagged *glb-5_{HW}*).

$X_{QTL}::HW$ animals to determine which allele of the QTL on V was dominant when *npr-1* genotype was held constant. These offspring behaved like $V_{QTL}::HW$; $X_{QTL}::HW$ (Figure 2A), indicating that the HW variant on chromosome V was dominant. To ask whether the QTL corresponded to *glb-5*, a *glb-5* cDNA encoding the HW allele of *glb-5* driven by its own promoter was injected into $X_{QTL}::HW$ animals. The resulting transgenic animals behaved like HW animals, indicating that *glb-5* transgene can mimic the presence of the HW locus on V (Figures 2A and S1). Injection of a similar transgene bearing the N2 allele of *glb-5* did not affect $X_{QTL}::HW$ turning behavior (Figures 2A and S1). These results indicate that the 765 bp duplication/insertion in *glb-5* is the likely cause of the QTL on chromosome V.

***glb-5* Acts in URX, AQR, and PQR O_2 -Sensing Neurons**

The expression of *glb-5* was characterized with a bicistronic transgene that encoded the active HW allele of *glb-5* followed by the coding region of GFP. In first larval stage (L1) animals, GFP was expressed prominently in the URX and BAG sensory neurons, with weaker and inconsistent expression in the ASG and ADF sensory neurons, the pharynx, and a few intestinal cells (Figure 2C). In older animals, GFP fluorescence was also observed in AQR and PQR sensory neurons. URX, AQR, and PQR are O_2 -sensing neurons that are required for *npr-1* mutants to avoid high O_2 on food (Chang et al., 2006; Cheung et al., 2005; Gray et al., 2004), suggesting a possible functional link between *glb-5* and the O_2 response. Indeed, expressing the HW allele of *glb-5* in $X_{QTL}::HW$ animals under the *gcy-36* promoter, which is selectively expressed in the URX, AQR, and PQR neurons, was sufficient for HW-like behavior (Figures 2D and S1).

The role of URX, AQR, and PQR in turning responses was confirmed using a strain in which the URX, AQR, and PQR neurons are selectively killed by the BH3 protein *egl-1* (the transgene *qals2241*) (Chang et al., 2006). AQR, PQR, and URX were essential for the O_2 and O_2/CO_2 responses in the $V_{QTL}::HW$; $X_{QTL}::HW$ background, but they were not required for turning responses in N2 (Figures 2E and S1). An interesting result was observed in the $V_{QTL}::HW$ animals with *glb-5_{HW}* and *npr-1_{N2}*. Killing URX, AQR, and PQR in this strain resulted in an N2-like turning response, although the parent strain only responded to CO_2 alone (Figures 2E and S1). Thus, the cell ablations uncovered a neuronal function that depends on the specific genetic background: URX, AQR, and PQR neurons with the *glb-5_{HW}* allele inhibited N2-like O_2/CO_2 responses in $V_{QTL}::HW$ animals, but enhanced HW-like O_2 and O_2/CO_2 responses in animals with HW alleles of both *glb-5* and *npr-1*.

***glb-5* Sensitizes URX Responses to Small O_2 Changes**

Animals from the HW strain aggregate into feeding groups and accumulate strongly at the border of a bacterial lawn; these behaviors require the URX, AQR, and PQR neurons, low *npr-1* activity, and high O_2 levels (Coates and de Bono, 2002; Gray et al., 2004). To ask whether *glb-5* contributes to these more complex O_2 -dependent behaviors, aggregation and bordering

(E) Killing URX, AQR, and PQR with *qals2241* eliminates the effects of *glb-5_{HW}*. In panels (A), (D), and (E), control strains from Figure 1 are included for reference.

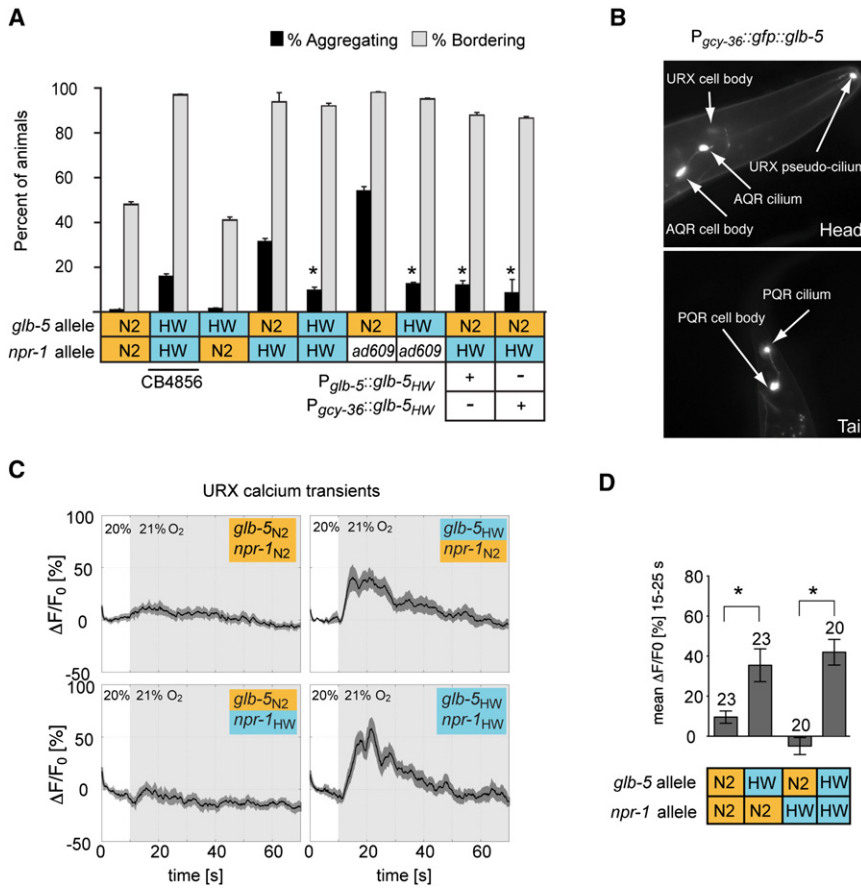


Figure 3. *glb-5* Affects Aggregation Behavior and URX Sensory Responses

(A) Aggregation and bordering behaviors in N2, HW (CB4856), introgression strains, and transgenic rescued lines. Asterisks indicate results significantly affected by *glb-5*_{HW} genotype or transgene at $p < 0.01$ compared to the appropriate *glb-5*_{N2} control. (B) GFP-tagged GLB-5_{HW} protein (Figure 2D) is enriched in AQR and PQR cilia and in the anterior tip of URX. (C) Calcium responses of URX neurons in strains with four combinations of *npr-1* and *glb-5* alleles, as indicated. Fluorescence increases in the G-CaMP indicator are caused by Ca²⁺ increases, likely associated with depolarization. Light shading indicates time at 21% O₂; dark shading indicates SEM; $n = 20-23$ animals for each genotype. (D) Average calcium increase at $t = 15-25$ s from (C). Asterisks, results different at $p < 0.01$.

were quantified in N2, HW, and introgressed strains. Indeed, aggregation in an *npr-1*_{HW} genetic background was significantly modulated by the *glb-5* allele: strains with *glb-5*_{N2} aggregated more strongly than strains with *glb-5*_{HW} (Figure 3A). *glb-5*_{HW} also suppressed the aggregation of an *npr-1*(*ad609*) loss-of-function allele, but in the *npr-1*_{N2} genetic background, there was virtually no aggregation regardless of *glb-5* genotype (Figure 3A). As expected from the dominant nature of the *glb-5*_{HW} allele, aggregation of the *glb-5*_{N2} strain was suppressed by expressing *glb-5*_{HW} under its own promoter or under another promoter expressed in URX, AQR, and PQR neurons (Figure 3A). The *glb-5* allele had relatively little effect on bordering behavior, which was largely determined by *npr-1* genotype (Figure 3A).

In principle, *glb-5* could affect O₂ sensation in URX, AQR, and PQR, or synaptic release onto other neurons, among other possibilities. A functional, GFP-tagged GLB-5 protein encoded by the HW allele of *glb-5* was highly enriched in sensory endings of URX, AQR, and PQR, with less expression in cell bodies, axons, and dendrites (Figure 3B). This localization suggests a role for GLB-5 in sensory transduction.

Previous studies with genetically encoded calcium sensors have shown that the URX neurons are activated by O₂ upshifts from 10% → 21% or 15% → 21% O₂ (Zimmer et al., 2009). The *glb-5*-dependent behaviors in HW suggest that *glb-5* might affect URX responses to smaller O₂ changes. Therefore, calcium responses of URX were monitored in response to upshifts from

the HW allele of *glb-5* sensitizes URX responses to small 20% → 21% O₂ upshifts.

N2 Alleles of *npr-1* and *glb-5* Are Rare in Wild Isolates of *C. elegans*

To assess the frequency and distribution of *glb-5* and *npr-1* alleles in the wild, each gene was characterized in 203 *C. elegans* isolates from Europe, North America, Africa, South America, Australia, and Japan (Table S3). The genotypes were highly skewed: 190 strains had HW alleles of both genes, and 12 strains had N2 alleles of both *npr-1* and *glb-5*, of which only one was isolated in the past 15 years (Figure 4A). One strain (TR389) had the N2 allele of *npr-1* and the HW allele of *glb-5*.

Additional genotyping at 1454 loci revealed that all N2-like strains were genetically similar (Figure 4B). Nine of the N2-like strains were identical in at least 1453 out of 1454 HW/N2 single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) (group 1, Figure 4B). The remaining four N2-like strains had blocks of HW SNPs on chromosome IV and V, but were otherwise N2-like (group 2, Figures 4B and 4C). The specific blocks of SNPs in these four strains, as well as the pattern of Tc1 transposon insertions (Egilmez et al., 1995), match blocks that are present in the genome of the Bergerac strain of *C. elegans* (Figures 4C and 4D). A comparison across genotypes of these strains suggests that these four strains resulted from crosses between an N2-like strain and a Bergerac-like strain (Egilmez et al., 1995).

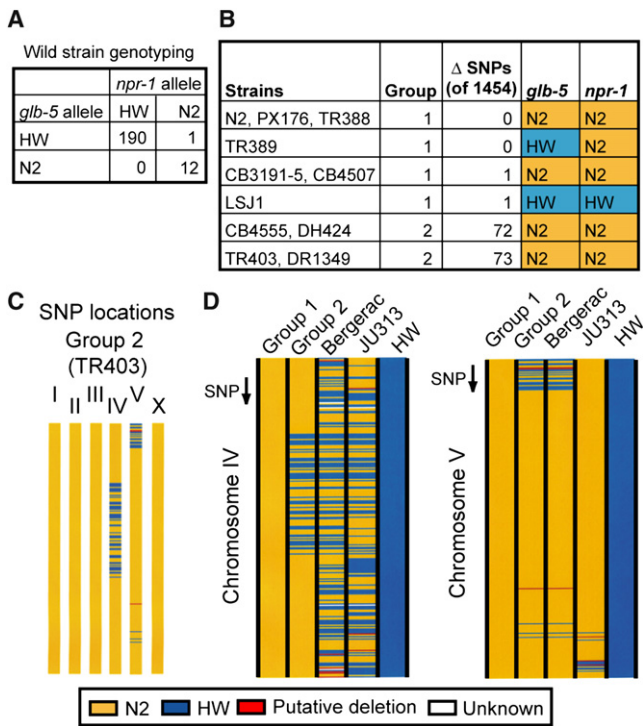


Figure 4. Analysis of Polymorphisms in Wild Strains

(A) *glb-5* and *npr-1* allele distributions in 203 wild strains.
 (B) Genotype analysis of 1454 SNPs of the strains containing N2 alleles of *npr-1* or *glb-5*, and of LSJ1; data from Rockman and Kruglyak (2009). In 110 additional wild strains genotyped at these 1454 SNPs, there were on average 358 differences from N2, with a range of 112–1452 differences.
 (C) SNP genotypes on all chromosomes in group 2 strains.
 (D) Comparison of SNPs in group 2 strains with N2, HW, and Bergerac on chromosomes IV and V. The most similar wild strain in the region shared between group 2 animals and Bergerac on chromosome IV (JU313) is shown for reference.

Since these results suggest that N2-like strains are rare in the wild, we specifically examined additional strains from the Pasadena area where nine of the thirteen N2-like strains were isolated. Fifty-five more recently isolated strains all had HW-like alleles of *npr-1* and *glb-5* (Table S3).

DISCUSSION

N2 and HW strains of *C. elegans* have opposite behavioral responses to small changes in O₂ and CO₂. Despite the high genetic variability between these strains (Maydan et al., 2007; Wicks et al., 2001), two QTLs, one caused by a polymorphism in *npr-1* and the other caused by a polymorphism in *glb-5*, account for most of the variation in these traits.

glb-5 is a member of the globin-domain superfamily, a widespread group of heme-binding proteins that bind O₂ and typically act in O₂-affiliated roles such as transport, storage, scavenging, or sensing (Weber and Vinogradov, 2001). There are 33 distinct globin-domain-containing proteins encoded by the *C. elegans* genome (Hoogewijs et al., 2007); most are expressed exclusively in subsets of neurons, and one, GLB-10, is enriched at synapses (Hoogewijs et al., 2008; Sieburth et al., 2005). Like mammalian

neuroglobins (Nienhaus and Nienhaus, 2007), the functions of neuronal *C. elegans* globins are largely unknown. Our results demonstrate a sensory role for GLB-5 that shapes behavioral responses to O₂, a new insight into a poorly understood chemosensory modality.

O₂ sensation in *glb-5*-expressing neurons requires a cGMP second messenger and specific soluble guanylate cyclase homologs (sGCs) that detect O₂ upshifts and downshifts (Zimmer et al., 2009). Members of this sGC subfamily can bind O₂ through a heme group and have been proposed to generate cGMP in an O₂-regulated manner (Gray et al., 2004; Zimmer et al., 2009). sGCs are essential for all O₂ sensitivity in URX, but the HW *glb-5* polymorphism has a more subtle effect: it increases URX sensitivity to a small 20%–21% O₂ upshift, suggesting that it alters the most-preferred O₂ level. This interpretation is consistent with *glb-5* modulation of O₂-dependent aggregation behavior, as aggregates have lower O₂ levels than lawn borders or open lawns (Gray et al., 2004; Rogers et al., 2006). One appealing reason to study quantitative genetic variation is the ability to discover biologically important molecules with subtle phenotypes, like *glb-5*, that might not emerge from classical forward genetic screens.

When and where did the polymorphisms in *npr-1* and *glb-5* arise? The genotyping of wild strains showed that N2-like alleles are evolutionarily recent. Only 13 of 203 *C. elegans* strains had an N2 allele of either *glb-5* or *npr-1*, and high-density analysis at 1454 SNP loci implies that the *npr-1* and *glb-5* polymorphisms arose recently in a common, N2-like genetic background, which in one case mated with a Bergerac-like strain. In this context, it is possible that the strains with N2-like *npr-1* and *glb-5* alleles are not actually independent wild strains, but reisolates of laboratory N2 or N2-derived strains. Many of the N2-like strains were isolated by procedures on exposed laboratory benches with a high potential for cross-contamination (P. Anderson, P. Phillips, and C. Johnson, personal communication). Molecular results also raise suspicions about the N2-like strains CB4555 and DR1349, whose genotypes are inconsistent with their recorded history but consistent with N2 cross-contamination (Hodgkin and Doniach, 1997). The fact that the four “group 2” strains can be explained as a cross between N2 and Bergerac is problematic, as Bergerac strains were maintained in the laboratory for over 30 years in association with N2; N2 and Bergerac were often intercrossed in the laboratory to generate strains with high transposon activity (Hodgkin and Doniach, 1997).

We suggest that the N2 alleles of *npr-1* and *glb-5* may have originated in the laboratory, where N2 was cultivated for nearly two decades before permanent frozen cultures were established in 1969. The N2 strain was originally isolated around 1951 by Warwick Nicholas (personal communication) from mushroom compost produced by L.N. Staniland; a sample was given to Ellsworth Dougherty at UC Berkeley, who sent a sample to Sydney Brenner, who isolated a single hermaphrodite whose progeny became N2 (Hodgkin and Doniach, 1997). From the outset, the Brenner strain had the nonaggregating behavior characteristic of the N2 *npr-1* allele (S. Brenner, personal communication). A second strain derived from the Dougherty lab, LSJ1, is identical to N2 at 1453 of 1454 SNPs, but has HW alleles of *glb-5* and *npr-1* (Figure 4B, Table S3). The existence of HW-like and N2-like alleles of *npr-1* and *glb-5* in one genetic background from the Dougherty

lab, and only HW-like alleles in most wild-caught strains, suggests that the N2 alleles arose after N2 and LSJ1 separated in the laboratory. *C. elegans* has a high mutation rate ($\sim 2 \times 10^{-8}$ mutations per site per generation) (Denver et al., 2004), so *npr-1* and *glb-5* mutations could have occurred without directed mutagenesis.

The N2 alleles of *glb-5* and *npr-1* could be random mutations fixed by genetic drift, but it would seem to be an unlikely coincidence that both mutations affect O₂ responses. Alternatively, one or both of these mutations might have conferred a selective advantage in the laboratory. N2 alleles of both *npr-1* and *glb-5* modify behaviors at 21% O₂, the normal condition in the laboratory, which is higher than *C. elegans*'s preferred level of 5%–10% O₂ (Gray et al., 2004). At 21% O₂, strains with the HW allele of *npr-1* spend less time than N2 on good food sources and are more easily killed by pathogenic bacteria (Gloria-Soria and Azevedo, 2008; Reddy et al., 2009; Styer et al., 2008); selection for successful behaviors at high O₂ could have contributed to the fixation of *npr-1* mutant alleles in N2. Whether the *glb-5* polymorphism has similar effects is unknown. In addition, strains with the HW allele of *npr-1* aggregate and burrow into the agar (de Bono and Bargmann, 1998), and experimentalists who isolate single animals from the agar surface would have favored solitary N2-like animals.

Behavioral adaptations are likely to have occurred in many experimental species during their cultivation in the laboratory. Domesticated animals show less aggressiveness, less fearful behavior, and better mating in captivity than their wild ancestors (Grandin and Deesing, 1998); similar selections are placed on laboratory strains. If recognized, laboratory adaptations can be addressed experimentally. For example, regardless of whether N2 alleles of *npr-1* and *glb-5* are laboratory adaptations, the predominance of HW alleles in wild strains suggests that the HW-like response to O₂ and CO₂ is more ecologically relevant. Therefore, in future studies of *C. elegans* behavior it should be worthwhile to characterize behaviors in strains with the HW alleles of *glb-5* and *npr-1*, particularly for behaviors that are sensitive to O₂ and CO₂.

EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES

Genetics and Molecular Biology

Strains were grown and maintained under standard conditions (Brenner, 1974). N2 is *C. elegans* Bristol strain N2; HW is *C. elegans* strain CB4856. Additional strains were isolated from two locations in California (see Supplementary Data) or were acquired from the CGC or from Marie-Anne Felix, Antoine Barriere, Michael Allion, Jody Hey, and Elie Dolgin. A complete strain list and details of strain construction for introgression lines are found in Supplementary Data. Standard molecular methods were used; genotyping primers are found in Supplementary Data.

Quantitative Genetics

Seventy-eight recombinant inbred advanced intercross lines from a reciprocal cross between N2 and CB4856 were analyzed. The RIALLs were inbred from a ten generation intercross employing random pair mating with equal contributions of each pair to each generation (Rockman and Kruglyak, 2008; Rockman and Kruglyak, 2009).

Line means plotted in Figure 1F were used as phenotypes for nonparametric interval mapping in Rqtl (Broman et al., 2003). Lod scores were computed at each marker and at intervals of 1 cM; these genetic distances are estimated from the recombination fractions in the RIALLs as though they were observed in a backcross, using the Haldane map function. Technical issues are discussed in Supplementary Data.

For the O₂ increase/CO₂ decrease response, a significant interaction effect between the two QTLs accounts for 15% of the among-line variance ($F_1 = 63$, $p < 10^{-10}$). This apparent interaction may be explained by a bounded phenotype distribution. The phenotype, turns per minute, is close to zero in an *npr-1*_{N2} background; the suppression of turning by O₂ upshift/CO₂ downshift could be masked by that low basal level, and easier to see in the more motile *npr-1*_{HW} background.

Behavioral Assays

O₂- and CO₂-evoked turning responses were monitored on an NGM plate seeded with OP50 bacteria (grown overnight), with 20–30 adult animals confined to a 28 × 28 mm region using Whatman filter paper dipped in 20 mM CuCl₂. A custom-designed Plexiglass device containing an inlet, an outlet, and a 30 × 30 × 0.3 mm behavioral arena created laminar air flow over the animals. Gas tanks were ordered at primary mixture grade from Matheson TriGas. A standard tank at 21.2%O₂/78.8%N₂ was mixed 99:1 with either 100% N₂ or 100% CO₂ to create a tank at 21%O₂/79%N₂ or 21%O₂/1%CO₂/78%N₂. A standard tank at 20.2%O₂/79.8%N₂ was similarly used to create tanks at 20%O₂/80%N₂ or 20%O₂/1%CO₂/79%N₂. Gas mixtures were bubbled through water at a flow rate of 50 cm³/min, and a Hamilton MVP was used to switch between two gas tanks every 3 min for 60 min. Animals were recorded at 3 frames/s using a Zeiss microscope and Pixelink PL-A741 Monochrome Camera, and automatically tracked using Matlab software (Chalasanani et al., 2007; Ramot et al., 2008).

Aggregation and bordering behaviors were measured using 60 young adult animals on a lawn of OP50 bacteria essentially as described (de Bono and Bargmann, 1998; Gray et al., 2004).

Calcium Imaging

Transgenic animals expressing the fluorescent calcium sensor G-CaMP1.0 in URX neurons were exposed to O₂ upshifts and downshifts while trapped in a custom-fabricated PDMS device (Zimmer et al., 2009). The two-layer device allowed rapid diffusion of gas mixtures from a flow chamber into a calibrated channel containing the trapped animal. Fluorescence intensities were measured with a Nikon CoolSnap camera attached to a Zeiss Axiocvert microscope while switching between different gas mixtures in the flow chamber and analyzed with a script written in MetaMorph programming language. $\Delta F/F_0$ was calculated as the percent change in fluorescence relative to the mean basal fluorescence (F_0) from 1 to 4 s of each recording.

SUPPLEMENTAL DATA

The Supplemental Data can be found with this article online at [http://www.neuron.org/supplemental/S0896-6273\(09\)00157-3](http://www.neuron.org/supplemental/S0896-6273(09)00157-3).

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We thank members of the Bargmann laboratory for critical help, advice, and comments on the manuscript; Phil Anderson, Jonathan Hodgkin, Carl Johnson, Nancy Lu, Warwick Nicholas, Patrick Phillips, and Sydney Brenner for sharing information about the historical isolation of *C. elegans* strains; and Marie-Anne Felix, Antoine Barriere, Michael Allion, Jody Hey, and Elie Dolgin for wild-caught strains. This work was supported by the Howard Hughes Medical Institute (C.I.B.), the NIH (R01 HG004321 to L.K. and P50 GM071508 to the Lewis-Sigler Institute), the James S. McDonnell Foundation Centennial Fellowship (L.K.), the Damon Runyon Cancer Research Foundation (P.T.M.), and the Jane Coffin Childs Foundation (M.V.R.). C.I.B. and L.K. are Investigators of the Howard Hughes Medical Institute. P.T.M. designed and performed experiments, analyzed data, and wrote the paper; M.V.R. designed and performed experiments and analyzed data; M.Z. and H.J. performed experiments; E.Z.M. created reagents; L.K. designed experiments and analyzed data; and C.I.B. designed experiments, analyzed data, and wrote the paper.

Accepted: February 19, 2009

Published: March 11, 2009

REFERENCES

- Brenner, S. (1974). The genetics of *Caenorhabditis elegans*. *Genetics* 77, 71–94.
- Bretscher, A.J., Busch, K.E., and de Bono, M. (2008). A carbon dioxide avoidance behavior is integrated with responses to ambient oxygen and food in *Caenorhabditis elegans*. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* 105, 8044–8049.
- Broman, K.W., Wu, H., Sen, S., and Churchill, G.A. (2003). R/qtl: QTL mapping in experimental crosses. *Bioinformatics* 19, 889–890.
- Chalasan, S.H., Chronis, N., Tsubozaki, M., Gray, J.M., Ramot, D., Goodman, M.B., and Bargmann, C.I. (2007). Dissecting a circuit for olfactory behaviour in *Caenorhabditis elegans*. *Nature* 450, 63–70.
- Chang, A.J., Chronis, N., Karow, D.S., Marletta, M.A., and Bargmann, C.I. (2006). A distributed chemosensory circuit for oxygen preference in *C. elegans*. *PLoS Biol.* 4, e274.
- Cheung, B.H., Cohen, M., Rogers, C., Albayram, O., and de Bono, M. (2005). Experience-dependent modulation of *C. elegans* behavior by ambient oxygen. *Curr. Biol.* 15, 905–917.
- Coates, J.C., and de Bono, M. (2002). Antagonistic pathways in neurons exposed to body fluid regulate social feeding in *Caenorhabditis elegans*. *Nature* 419, 925–929.
- Darvasi, A., and Soller, M. (1995). Advanced intercross lines, an experimental population for fine genetic mapping. *Genetics* 141, 1199–1207.
- de Bono, M., and Bargmann, C.I. (1998). Natural variation in a neuropeptide Y receptor homolog modifies social behavior and food response in *C. elegans*. *Cell* 94, 679–689.
- Denver, D.R., Morris, K., Lynch, M., and Thomas, W.K. (2004). High mutation rate and predominance of insertions in the *Caenorhabditis elegans* nuclear genome. *Nature* 430, 679–682.
- Egilmez, N.K., Ebert, R.H., 2nd, and Shmookler Reis, R.J. (1995). Strain evolution in *Caenorhabditis elegans*: transposable elements as markers of interstrain evolutionary history. *J. Mol. Evol.* 40, 372–381.
- Flint, J. (2003). Analysis of quantitative trait loci that influence animal behavior. *J. Neurobiol.* 54, 46–77.
- Gloria-Soria, A., and Azevedo, R.B. (2008). *npr-1* regulates foraging and dispersal strategies in *Caenorhabditis elegans*. *Curr. Biol.* 18, 1694–1699.
- Grandin, T., and Deesing, M.J. (1998). Behavioral genetics and animal science. In *Genetics and the Behavior of Domestic Animals*, T. Grandin, ed. (San Diego, CA: Academic press), pp. 1–30.
- Gray, J.M., Karow, D.S., Lu, H., Chang, A.J., Chang, J.S., Ellis, R.E., Marletta, M.A., and Bargmann, C.I. (2004). Oxygen sensation and social feeding mediated by a *C. elegans* guanylate cyclase homologue. *Nature* 430, 317–322.
- Greenway, H., Armstrong, W., and Colmer, T.D. (2006). Conditions leading to high CO₂ (>5 kPa) in waterlogged-flooded soils and possible effects on root growth and metabolism. *Ann. Bot. (Lond.)* 98, 9–32.
- Hallem, E.A., and Sternberg, P.W. (2008). Acute carbon dioxide avoidance in *Caenorhabditis elegans*. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* 105, 8038–8043.
- Hodgkin, J., and Doniach, T. (1997). Natural variation and copulatory plug formation in *Caenorhabditis elegans*. *Genetics* 146, 149–164.
- Hoogewijs, D., Geuens, E., Dewilde, S., Vierstraete, A., Moens, L., Vinogradov, S., and Vanfleteren, J.R. (2007). Wide diversity in structure and expression profiles among members of the *Caenorhabditis elegans* globin protein family. *BMC Genomics* 8, 356.
- Hoogewijs, D., De Henau, S., Dewilde, S., Moens, L., Couvreur, M., Borgonie, G., Vinogradov, S.N., Roy, S.W., and Vanfleteren, J.R. (2008). The *Caenorhabditis* globin gene family reveals extensive nematode-specific radiation and diversification. *BMC Evol. Biol.* 8, 279.
- Kendler, K.S. (2001). Twin studies of psychiatric illness: an update. *Arch. Gen. Psychiatry* 58, 1005–1014.
- Kendler, K.S., and Greenspan, R.J. (2006). The nature of genetic influences on behavior: lessons from “simpler” organisms. *Am. J. Psychiatry* 163, 1683–1694.
- Mackay, T.F. (2004). The genetic architecture of quantitative traits: lessons from *Drosophila*. *Curr. Opin. Genet. Dev.* 14, 253–257.
- Maydan, J.S., Flibotte, S., Edgley, M.L., Lau, J., Selzer, R.R., Richmond, T.A., Pofahl, N.J., Thomas, J.H., and Moerman, D.G. (2007). Efficient high-resolution deletion discovery in *Caenorhabditis elegans* by array comparative genomic hybridization. *Genome Res.* 17, 337–347.
- Mott, R., and Flint, J. (2008). Prospects for complex trait analysis in the mouse. *Mamm. Genome* 19, 306–308.
- Nienhaus, K., and Nienhaus, G.U. (2007). Searching for neuroglobin’s role in the brain. *IUBMB Life* 59, 490–497.
- Osborne, K.A., Robichon, A., Burgess, E., Butland, S., Shaw, R.A., Coulthard, A., Pereira, H.S., Greenspan, R.J., and Sokolowski, M.B. (1997). Natural behavior polymorphism due to a cGMP-dependent protein kinase of *Drosophila*. *Science* 277, 834–836.
- Palopoli, M.F., Rockman, M.V., TinMaung, A., Ramsay, C., Curwen, S., Aduna, A., Laurita, J., and Kruglyak, L. (2008). Molecular basis of the copulatory plug polymorphism in *Caenorhabditis elegans*. *Nature* 454, 1019–1022.
- Ramot, D., Johnson, B.E., Berry, T.L., Jr., Carnell, L., and Goodman, M.B. (2008). The Parallel Worm Tracker: a platform for measuring average speed and drug-induced paralysis in nematodes. *PLoS ONE* 3, e2208.
- Reddy, K.C., Andersen, E.C., Kruglyak, L., and Kim, D.H. (2009). A polymorphism in *npr-1* is a behavioral determinant of pathogen susceptibility in *C. elegans*. *Science* 323, 382–384.
- Rockman, M.V., and Kruglyak, L. (2008). Breeding designs for recombinant inbred advanced intercross lines. *Genetics* 179, 1069–1078.
- Rockman, M.V., and Kruglyak, L. (2009). Recombinational landscape and population genomics of *C. elegans*. *PLoS Genet.*, in press.
- Rogers, C., Persson, A., Cheung, B., and de Bono, M. (2006). Behavioral motifs and neural pathways coordinating O₂ responses and aggregation in *C. elegans*. *Curr. Biol.* 16, 649–659.
- Ryu, W.S., and Samuel, A.D. (2002). Thermotaxis in *Caenorhabditis elegans* analyzed by measuring responses to defined thermal stimuli. *J. Neurosci.* 22, 5727–5733.
- Seidel, H.S., Rockman, M.V., and Kruglyak, L. (2008). Widespread genetic incompatibility in *C. elegans* maintained by balancing selection. *Science* 319, 589–594.
- Sieburth, D., Ch’ng, Q., Dybbs, M., Tavazoie, M., Kennedy, S., Wang, D., Dupuy, D., Rual, J.F., Hill, D.E., Vidal, M., et al. (2005). Systematic analysis of genes required for synapse structure and function. *Nature* 436, 510–517.
- Styer, K.L., Singh, V., Macosko, E., Steele, S.E., Bargmann, C.I., and Aballay, A. (2008). Innate immunity in *Caenorhabditis elegans* is regulated by neurons expressing NPR-1/GPCR. *Science* 322, 460–464.
- Sylvia, D.M., Fuhrmann, J.J., Hartel, P.G., and Zuberer, D.A. (1998). Principles and Applications of Soil Microbiology (Upper Saddle River, New Jersey: Prentice Hall).
- Toma, D.P., White, K.P., Hirsch, J., and Greenspan, R.J. (2002). Identification of genes involved in *Drosophila melanogaster* geotaxis, a complex behavioral trait. *Nat. Genet.* 31, 349–353.
- Wang, L., Dankert, H., Perona, P., and Anderson, D.J. (2008). A common genetic target for environmental and heritable influences on aggressiveness in *Drosophila*. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* 105, 5657–5663.
- Weber, R.E., and Vinogradov, S.N. (2001). Nonvertebrate hemoglobins: functions and molecular adaptations. *Physiol. Rev.* 81, 569–628.
- Wicks, S.R., Yeh, R.T., Gish, W.R., Waterston, R.H., and Plasterk, R.H. (2001). Rapid gene mapping in *Caenorhabditis elegans* using a high density polymorphism map. *Nat. Genet.* 28, 160–164.
- Yalcin, B., Fullerton, J., Miller, S., Keays, D.A., Brady, S., Bhomra, A., Jefferson, A., Volpi, E., Copley, R.R., Flint, J., and Mott, R. (2004). Genetic dissection of a behavioral quantitative trait locus shows that Rgs2 modulates anxiety in mice. *Nat. Genet.* 36, 1197–1202.
- Zimmer, M., Gray, J.M., Pokala, N., Chang, A.J., Karow, D.S., Marletta, M.A., Hudson, M.L., Morton, D.B., Chronis, N., and Bargmann, C.I. (2009). Neurons detect increases and decreases in oxygen levels using distinct guanylate cyclases. *Neuron*, in press.