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Touch-induced Mechanical Strain in Somatosensory Neurons is Independent of Extracellular

Matrix Mutations in *C. elegans*

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Running Head: Mechanical strain in sensory neurons

Abbreviations:

TRN: touch receptor neuron

ECM: extracellular matrix

Abstract

Cutaneous mechanosensory neurons are activated by mechanical loads applied to the

skin, and these stimuli are proposed to generate mechanical strain within sensory neurons. Using

a microfluidic device to deliver controlled stimuli to intact animals and large, immobile, and

fluorescent protein-tagged mitochondria as fiducial markers in the touch receptor neurons

(TRNs), we visualized and measured touch-induced mechanical strain in *C. elegans* worms. At

steady-state, touch stimuli sufficient to activate TRNs induce an average strain of 3.1% at the

center of the actuator and this strain decays to near zero at the edges of the actuator. We also

measured strain in animals carrying mutations affecting links between the extracellular matrix

(ECM) and the TRNs but could not detect any differences in touch-induced mechanical strain

between wild-type and mutant animals. Collectively, these results demonstrate that touching the

skin induces local mechanical strain in intact animals and suggest that a fully intact ECM is not

essential for transmitting mechanical strain from the skin to cutaneous mechanosensory neurons.

Introduction

Touch and proprioception are essential to the daily lives of all animals, including humans. Classical examples of mechanotransduction, both of these senses depend on activation of mechano-electrical transduction (MeT) channels arrayed within somatosensory neurons (Katta et al., 2015) and are thought to activate following physical deformation of sensory cells during touch and movement. Consistent with this inference, neurons innervating stretch receptor organs in vertebrates (Bewick and Banks, 2015) and arthropods (Suslak and Jarman, 2015) are activated by experimentally applied mechanical strain (stretch). High-speed volumetric imaging reveals that proprioceptors deform in crawling Drosophila larvae (He et al., 2019; Vaadia et al., 2019) and that physical deformations are correlated with calcium transients. Similarly, movement induces localized calcium transients in the tertiary dendrites of the *C. elegans* PVD proprioceptors that depend on expression of a DEG/ENaC/ASIC protein (Tao et al., 2019). These studies reinforce the idea that physical deformation of sensory neurons during movement is critical for activation of native MeT channels, but do not address whether or not similar deformations occur in response to touch or measure the extent of mechanical strain that occurs within the sensory neurons themselves.

Using *C. elegans* touch receptor neurons (TRNs), we investigated the quantitative relationship between touch and physical deformation of sensory neurons in intact living animals. The ready availability of transgenic animals expressing TRN-specific markers and their transparent body make *C. elegans* an especially useful animal for investigating touch-evoked sensory neuron deformation. Adult animals have six TRNs, consisting of two bilaterally symmetric pairs of touch receptor neurons (ALM and PLM) and two neurons that run along the ventral midline (AVM and PVM) (Goodman, 2006). These six neurons extend long, unusually straight sensory neurites (Krieg et al., 2017) that are embedded in epidermal cells and have a distinctive, electron-dense extracellular matrix or ECM as well as hemidesmosome structures attaching the TRNs to the cuticle (Chalfie and Sulston, 1981; Chalfie and Thomson, 1979).

All of the TRNs express the MEC-4 channel, which is required for touch-evoked calcium transients (Suzuki et al., 2003) and touch-evoked MeT currents (O'Hagan et al., 2005). The MEC-4 channels localize to puncta arrayed along the entire length of wild-type TRN sensory

neurites (Chelur et al., 2002; Cueva et al., 2007; Emtage et al., 2004; Katta et al., 2019), but are

disrupted in ECM mutants (Emtage et al., 2004).

Touch-evoked behavior (Petzold et al., 2013) and MeT channel activation (Eastwood et

al., 2015) depend on body indentation rather than the force applied. Slow stimuli fail to activate

MeT currents and their size increases with stimulus frequency, indicating that activation of MeT

channels in their native environment depends on tissue viscoelasticity (Eastwood et al., 2015;

Katta et al., 2019; Sanzeni et al., 2019). Although slow, movement-induced physical

deformations of the worm's body and its neurons are too slow to activate MeT currents in the

TRNs (Eastwood et al., 2015; Katta et al., 2019), these undulatory movements produce

mechanical strains of up to 40% (Krieg et al., 2017; Krieg et al., 2014), indicating that TRNs can

withstand significant mesoscale extension and compression *in situ*. The ability to withstand

movement-induced strain is shared by mammalian nerves that experience up to 30% strain

during limb movement (Phillips et al., 2004).

Here, we sought to determine whether or not body indentations sufficient to evoke

calcium transients in TRNs also generate local strain. To achieve this goal, we visualized steady-

state, touch-induced strain in TRNs in living animals restrained within a microfluidic stimulation

device equipped with the ability to deliver mechanical stimuli (Fehlauer et al., 2018; Nekimken

et al., 2017a). Our approach benefits from large, immobile mitochondria distributed within TRN

sensory neurites (Sure et al., 2018), exploits the ability to tag these mitochondria with a red

fluorescent protein (Zheng et al., 2014), and borrows analytic principles from traction force

microscopy (Ribeiro et al., 2016). Although mitochondria have been used to evaluate neuronal

mechanics in culture (O'Toole et al., 2015), we believe this study is the first to make use of

mitochondria as mechanical fiducial markers in living animals. We show that body indentation

increases local steady-state mechanical strain in the TRNs in a manner that is robust to mutations

known to affect attachment of the TRN to the extracellular matrix and to epidermal cells.

Results

Mechanical stimulation in a microfluidic device

To directly observe touch-induced deformation of the TRNs, we sought to develop a method that combines the delivery of controlled mechanical stimuli and three-dimensional optical imaging. To reach this goal, we applied mechanical stimuli to adult worms confined in a microfluidic device (Nekimken *et al.*, 2017, Figure 1A). Our device has pneumatic actuators that consist of a thin flexible wall that separates a channel filled with air from a worm in the trap channel. When air pressure in the actuator channel is increased using a pressure controller, the thin wall expands like a balloon, deforming the trapped worm and generating indentations sufficient to activate the TRNs (Nekimken et al., 2017a). Other devices that deliver mechanical stimuli to restrained (Cho et al., 2018) or moving (McClanahan et al., 2017) worms in microfluidic chambers have been reported, but they use larger actuator channels and are thus not well-matched to our goal of investigating local deformation of the TRNs.

Our device is designed to increase the probability that animals will enter the trap with either their left or right sides in contact with the bottom of the chamber and their ventral and dorsal sides near the actuator (Nekimken et al., 2017a). Consistent with this expectation and the position of the AVM and ALM neurons within the worm's body, previous experiments using this device resulted in a higher frequency of AVM activation compared to ALM (Nekimken et al., 2017a). However, the rotational orientation of each worm was variable. We took advantage of this variation to select animals oriented such that ALM (rather than AVM) was near the actuator and used only ALM neurons for this study. In all cases, this variation in worm positioning leads to variation in the size of the effective stimulus. To ensure that all animals received a deforming stimulus, we limited our analysis to animals whose TRNs were deformed enough to observe visually during the experiment.

Mitochondria as fiducial markers for inferring strain

We used fluorescent protein-tagged mitochondria as fiducial markers to measure strain, an approach that uses particle tracking with large (~1μm), immobile mitochondria in the TRNs (Sure et al., 2018) serving as natural fiducial markers. We imaged mitochondria position before

and after mechanical stimulation (Figures 1B and 1C). Next, we used the displacement between

adjacent mitochondria to quantify one-dimensional mechanical strain along the long axis of the

TRN (Figure 1D) according to: $\varepsilon = \Delta L/L_0$, where L_0 is the resting, undeformed length of an

object, and ΔL is the change in length of the object when deformed. For clarity, we refer to this

as longitudinal strain. As shown in Figure 1, mitochondria adjacent to the actuator moved more

than those anterior and posterior to the actuator (Figures 1B and 1C) and the inferred strain was

greatest near the center of the actuator (Figure 1D). This method enables direct observation of

touch-evoked strain in *C. elegans* TRNs in a single dimension aligned with the TRN's longest

dimension.

We note that this method is not suitable for detecting shear strain or bending strain. To

derive these measurements, we would need to detect angular changes (shear) or relative position

(bending) of the mitochondria within the TRNs. Given that the diameter of each mitochondrion

is only ~100 nm and the TRN is diameter is not much larger than this (200-300 nm, see Figure

3C, Cueva et al., 2007), such movements cannot be resolved because these objects are similar in

size to the estimated lateral resolution of 254 nm and axial resolution of 632 nm of our imaging

system. What about strain in directions orthogonal to the long axis of the TRN dendrite?

Although our image stacks contain three-dimensional position data (Figures 2A and 2B), the

initial distance between adjacent pairs of mitochondria in the *x* and *z* directions is small

compared to the resulting displacement. Thus, measurement resolutions lead to large

uncertainties in the strain calculation for these dimensions. Both limitations can be attributed to

the confinement of the mitochondria within the narrow caliber of the TRN and the fact that the

TRNs lie primarily within a single focal plane. Thus, the size of mitochondria, the geometry of

the TRNs and the optical resolution of the spinning-disk confocal limit this measurement to one-

dimensional strain along the *y*-dimension that traces the main axis of the TRN.

Local indentation induces local mechanical strain in TRNs

Next, we estimated the spatially averaged distribution of touch-induced strain in the

TRN. The mitochondria are sparsely distributed in the TRN and strain is a pairwise measurement

between adjacent mitochondria, so our strain measurements result in a series of discontinuous

step functions for a single trial rather than a smooth curve (Figure 1D). Each segment of the plot

indicates the average strain between two markers, so the maximum local strain on each interval

may be larger than our measured strain. The average distance between mitochondria in control

jsIs1073 animals was 26 μm (min: 5 μm; max: 64 μm) and we were able to analyze an average

of 8.9 intervals per trial (Table S1). To obtain averages across trials, we plotted deformation

against position in the longitudinal or *y* direction, fit this profile with a Gaussian function and

defined the position of the maximum as the center of the actuator and *y=0*. (see dotted line in

Figure 1C). In this coordinate system, positions anterior to *y=0* are negative and positions

posterior to *y=0* are positive. Finally, we determined the average strain at each longitudinal

position along the neurite across actuation trials (see Figure 2C). Note that the average strain is

both larger and noisier for anterior (negative) positions. This is likely to reflect the fact that the

head is less constrained in the microfluidic channel than other parts of the body and suggests that

displacement and strain on the anterior side of the actuator include both touch- and movement-

induced mechanical strain on the neuron.

As expected, strain at the center of the actuator (*y=0*) increases with TRN deformation

(Figure 2D), but the dependence on TRN deformation was weak. The observed, but modest

variation in TRN deformation arises from two aspects of our method. First, because the actuator

is fixed to the surrounding material of the device on all sides, its center is the location of

maximum deformation. Second, although most animals are trapped with either their left or right

side in contact with the coverslip at the bottom of the device, some are rotated along their

anterior-posterior axis such that the position of the imaged TRN varies with respect to the

actuator (Figure 2A). Thus, the average strain induced between the pair of mitochondria at the

center of the actuator was 0.031±0.005 (mean ± SEM, *n* = 61 trials, *N*=15 animals) in transgenic

jsIs1073 TRN neurons. Although additional studies exploring a wider range of deformations will

be needed to determine the nature relationship between TRN deformation and strain, to our

knowledge, these are the first *in vivo* measurements of touch-induced longitudinal strain in touch

receptor neurons, and they link local body indentation to local cellular deformation.

Do tagged mitochondria affect TRN function?

We used classical touch assays to address this question (Chalfie et al., 2014; Nekimken et

al., 2017b) by measuring touch sensitivity in wild-type (N2) and transgenic worms carrying the

transgenic mitochondria marker, *jsIs1073*. In blinded assays of three independent cohorts of 25

animals for each genotype, wild-type and *jsIs1073* animals had touch response rates of 0.869 and

0.865, respectively. The difference between the means was 0.00667 [95% CI (-0.0347, 0.048)].

Thus, the *jsIs1073* transgene does not decrease touch sensitivity.

Selected ECM mutants and their touch sensation and anatomical phenotypes

Having measured touch-induced mechanical strain in control TRNs, next we measured

longitudinal strain in four existing ECM mutants: *him-4(e1267), mec-1(e1738)*, *mec-1(e1066)*,

and *mec-5(u440)*. One of these mutants, *him-4(e1267),* has a partial defect in touch-sensitivity,

and the others are touch-insensitive (Du et al., 1996; Emtage et al., 2004; Vogel and Hedgecock,

2001). We reproduced these previous results using a ten-touch assay (Table 1). Whereas *him-4*

mutants retain MEC-4 puncta that are grossly wild-type, TRN neurites in *mec-1* and *mec-5*

mutants lack prominent MEC-4 puncta (Emtage et al., 2004). In *him-4* and in *mec-1(e1738)*

mutants analyzed here, the ALM and PLM neurons are displaced from their normal body

position near the lateral midlines and are not properly embedded in the epidermis (Emtage et al.,

2004; Vogel and Hedgecock, 2001). This effect is inferred to arise from a defective TRN-ECM

attachment (Vogel and Hedgecock, 2001). Consistent with this idea, the electron-dense ECM is

not detected in *mec-1* mutants (Chalfie and Sulston, 1981). Analyzing these four mutants enables

us to evaluate the relationship, if any, between touch-induced longitudinal strain and three other

phenotypes: behavioral responses to touch, the distribution of MEC-4 puncta, and TRN-ECM

attachment.

The *him-4* gene encodes hemicentin, a conserved ECM protein that is rich in Ig and EGF

domains and is expressed by body wall muscles (Vogel and Hedgecock, 2001). The *him-4* locus

is >30 kb, which complicated determination of the molecular defect encoded by *e1267* using

classical sequencing methods. We used whole-genome sequencing to circumvent this limitation

and found that *e1267* encodes a single base indel in the third intron of the *him-4* gene,

introducing a shift in the reading frame of the encoded protein (Figure S1). A second

polymorphism was detected in the intron following the 48th exon. Thus, the *e1267* allele is a null

allele and animals carrying this mutant are likely to lack the HIM-4 protein. The *mec-1* gene

encodes a large secreted protein rich in kunitz-like domains, is expressed by the TRNs, and many

alleles of this gene were found in forward genetic screens for touch-insensitive animals (Chalfie

and Au, 1989; Chalfie and Sulston, 1981). The *e1066* allele is a null and animals carrying this

allele are likely to lack the MEC-1 protein, whereas the *e1738* allele encodes a premature stop

codon and is proposed to express a truncated MEC-1 protein. Both *mec-1* mutants are touch

insensitive, but only *e1066* lacks proper TRN-ECM attachments (Emtage et al., 2004). *mec-5*

encodes an atypical collagen and, unlike *mec-1*, it is not made by the TRNs (Du et al., 1996).

Like other ECM mutants we analyzed here, the *u440* allele is null and *u440* mutants do not

express the MEC-5 protein. The TRN neurites in *mec-5* mutants are positioned near the lateral

midlines, but are less straight than they are in wild-type animals, meandering such that some

segments of the neurite are close to the muscle and other parts closer to the lateral midline

(Emtage et al., 2004).

Touch-induced longitudinal strain in TRNs with ECM mutants

To analyze transmission of mechanical energy from the skin in animals lacking proper

TRN-ECM attachment, we introduced the *jsIs1073* transgene into *him-4* and *mec-1* mutants and

applied mechanical stimuli to animals trapped in our pneumatic microfluidic device. Touch-

induced longitudinal mechanical strain in *him-4(e1267)* TRNs was indistinguishable from that

observed in control animals (Figure 3A, Table 2). Touch-induced longitudinal strain was

likewise similar to control in both *mec-1* mutants (Figure 3B) and in *mec-5* mutants (Figure 3C).

Figure 3D shows that the average longitudinal strain profiles for control, *him-4*, *mec-1*, and

mec-5 mutants are similar across the entire 200 μm segment of the TRN neurite analyzed here.

Values for strain measured at the actuator center ($y=0$) had similar mean values and distribution

for all genotypes tested (Figure 4A) and estimation graphics (Ho et al., 2019) indicate that the

mean values for all genotypes are not different than control values (Figure 4B). Except for *mec-5*

mutants, the number of mitochondria available for tracking and the average distance between

mitochondria was similar in control transgenic and mutant animals (Table S1). *mec-5* mutants

had fewer, more widely spaced mitochondria than control animals, an effect would be expected

to impair the spatial resolution of longitudinal strain measurements. Collectively, these findings

suggest that neither severe nor mild defects in TRN-ECM attachment play a significant role in

the generation of touch-induced longitudinal mechanical strain at steady-state. Future studies

and techniques will be needed to resolve dynamic changes in local strain that are expected to
occur on the millisecond timescale of MEC-4-dependent MeT channel activation.

Discussion

Using mitochondria as natural fiducial markers in *C. elegans* TRNs, we showed for the
first time that body indentation sufficient to activate the TRN causes an increase in longitudinal
strain. The magnitude of this strain increases with TRN displacement. In wild-type animals, the
touch-induced strain closest to the point of maximum indentation was roughly 3% (Figure 3,
Table 2). This change in strain is unlikely to damage these sensory neurons, since they are
subjected to mechanical strain on the order of 40% during locomotion (Krieg et al., 2017; Krieg
et al., 2014). Such global changes in strain are too slow to activate the TRNs (Eastwood et al.,
2015; Katta et al., 2019).

The 3% strain we measured may be a lower bound on the true value for longitudinal
strain. Simulations predicted an elongated strain field with a peak value of 12% for longitudinal
strain (Sanzeni et al., 2019). Unlike our measurements, which used a wide (50µm), flexible
PDMS membrane to indent the worm's body and have limited spatial resolution, the simulations
employed a stiff spherical bead (10µm diameter) to deliver touch stimuli and a continuous
deformation function. The simulations (Sanzeni et al., 2019) predict strains are present in the
other two dimensions (along the direction of the stimulus and tangential to the circumference of
the worm at the point of the stimulus). Due to the nature of our measurement, however, we were
only able to measure one-dimensional strain along the length of the TRN. Nevertheless, these
measurements of touch-induced strain can be incorporated into future models of *C. elegans* touch
sensation to improve understanding of the mechanical state of the TRN and mechano-sensitive
ion channel complex upon touch stimulation.

Origins of mechanical coupling between the skin surface and somatosensory neurons

We tested the idea that strain transmission would depend on TRN-ECM attachment, be
correlated with impaired touch sensation, and be independent of the proper distribution of
MEC-4 channels. To our surprise, we found that touch-induced longitudinal mechanical strain

was similar in control TRNs and all ECM mutants tested here, including the *him-4(e1267)* and

mec-1(e1066) mutants exhibiting severe defects in TRN-ECM attachments. Thus, touch-induced

longitudinal strain we observed in the ALM neurons is independent of their attachment to other

tissues or the expression of ECM proteins MEC-1 and MEC-5, at least at steady state.

This finding implies that mechanical coupling between the skin and sensory neurons

persists in mutants with ECM defects. Friction is one alternative source of mechanical coupling

between TRNs and surrounding tissues. In this scenario, all of the worm's tissues are compacted

together by a high hydrostatic pressure and this would elevate friction between tissues. Further

compression applied to the outside of the worm during touch stimulation could lead to stiffening

of the worm's body that might be caused by internal structures jamming together (Gilpin et al.,

2015). When we and others immobilize worms in microfluidic devices, we fabricate channels

small enough to apply gentle compressive forces that the worm cannot overcome. As a result, the

worm is compressed on all sides except the nose and tail when in the microfluidic trap,

potentially jamming the TRNs against surrounding tissues and further increasing friction.

Another possibility is that the generation of touch-induced local mechanical strain is dominated

by the cytoskeleton. In support of this idea, mutations that disrupt the expression of MEC-12 α-

tubulin and MEC-7 β-tubulin decrease mechanoreceptor currents and increase stimulus

amplitude needed to activate these currents (Bounoutas et al., 2009; O'Hagan, 2005). Additional

experimental work and methods with improved spatial and temporal resolution will be needed to

differentiate among these possibilities.

Spatial and temporal resolution of mechanical strain transmission

The spatial resolution of our strain measurements is limited by the average distance

between adjacent, immobile mitochondria, which was 26µm (Table S1). Thus, this method may

lack sufficient spatial resolution to detect micro- or nanoscale variations in mechanical strain

transmission at steady state. The spatial resolution of strain measurements could be improved by

using more closely spaced fiducial markers. In principle, MEC-4 channels (with an average

spacing of 2-3 µm) tagged with a very bright fluorescent protein would provide a ten-fold

increase in resolution. Independent of potential improvements in spatial resolution, the present

approach is limited to steady-state measurements because our volume imaging rate is low (15

seconds per stack). In this regard, it is important to note that wild-type *C. elegans* TRNs are

preferentially activated mostly by high-velocity stimuli (Eastwood et al., 2015; Katta et al., 2019;

Nekimken et al., 2017a; Suzuki et al., 2003). Temporal resolution could be improved using other

imaging techniques enabling rapid acquisition of imaging volumes. If volumes could be acquired

at 20 Hz or faster, it would possible to observe mechanical strain in a 10 Hz buzz stimulus that

we previously used to activate the TRNs (Nekimken et al., 2017a).

Conclusion

We performed the first *in vivo* measurements of touch-induced mechanical strain in *C.*

elegans TRNs. We used mechanically stable mitochondria in the TRNs as natural fiducial

markers to observe deformation of the TRN and found that local touch stimuli applied in a

microfluidic device induces local strain in the TRN. Defects in the ECM surrounding the TRN

did not alter the steady-state mechanical strain in the TRN, suggesting that explicit attachments

are not necessary for deformation of the TRN and that the bulk properties of tissues are sufficient

to sustain significant mechanical energy transfer from the skin surface to the embedded neurons.

In light of the temporal limitations of our measurements, however, we cannot exclude the

possibility that TRN-ECM attachments contribute to dynamic aspects of mechanical strain

transmission. Collectively, these findings provide an empirical basis for the idea that mechanical

stimuli applied to the skin stretch embedded sensory neurons that may be shared by the sensory

neurons that innervate the skin and other tissue in mammals.

Methods and Materials

Nematode strains

For all experiments measuring mechanical strain, we used animals carrying *jsIs1073*
[mec-7p::TagRFP-mito::CBunc-119], a transgene that drives expression of TagRFP in the
mitochondria in the TRNs (Zheng et al., 2014), alone or together with ECM mutants (Table 3).
We relied on visualization of the *jsIs1073* transgene and behavioral phenotypes (for *mec* genes)
or anatomical defects (for *him-4*) to perform genetic crosses. We used gene sequencing to verify
the presence of ECM mutants in all strains created for this study. The primer pairs we used to
amplify the relevant segments of each gene are:

mec-1(e1066): Forward–catcttccacgccgcaaagtc, Reverse—aatcctctctgccctcatgttcc

mec-1(e1738): Forward—tcacagtcagacgtgcctcg, Reverse—cattgcctcacaccaacttccac

mec-5(u444): Forward—cagaatactatgtacgtaacttgggatc; Reverse—ctcatgggtacgcaaatgatactc

him-4(e1267): Forward—tttcgtgatgactggtgactgtgg; Reverse—ttaaagtcaacagcaccgtgacc

Immobilization and mechanical stimulation with a pneumatic microfluidics device

To provide a repeatable mechanical stimulus that is compatible with imaging the mitochondria of
the TRN, we used a microfluidic device made of the transparent elastomer PDMS for
simultaneous mechanical stimulation and imaging of *C. elegans* (Nekimken et al., 2017a). Using
a pressure controller (Elveflow OB1), we applied 300 kPa of pressure to one of the device's
actuators to create a mechanical stimulus. We fabricated and operated devices designed for use
with young adult worms as described in our previous work (Fehlauer et al., 2018; Nekimken et
al., 2017a). Because worms immobilized in this trap are uniformly and partially deformed by the
channel, we refer to this as the rest configuration.

Sample preparation and inclusion criteria

We performed all experiments using young adult animals that were synchronized by
hypochlorite treatment (Stiernagle, 2006) and cultured for three days on NGM agar plates seeded
with OP50 bacteria for food. We transferred animals from the agar plates with a platinum wire

pick to a drop of imaging medium (see below) in a small Petri dish. After using the pick to push

away large particles that might clog the microfluidic device, we aspirated worms into

polyethylene tubing (PE50, Intramedic™ brand, Becton-Dickson) with a syringe and connected

the tubing to the device's inlet. For each trial, we pushed a worm into the trap channel using the

syringe and then evaluated whether to use this worm for an experiment based on our inclusion

criteria. We included animals that fit in the microfluidic trap with minimal movement and could

be ejected through the narrow opening at the head of the trap. When performing experiments

with *him-4* mutants, we chose animals whose gross morphology was wild-type and avoided

animals whose intestines were everted. In all cases, we only acquired images from animals

whose ALM neurons were oriented adjacent to the mechanical actuation channels.

To improve image quality by reducing reflections generated by the walls of the

microfluidic trap, we designed a non-toxic imaging medium with a refractive index similar to

PDMS (1.4). The imaging medium was a 70%:30% (vol:vol) mixture of physiological saline

and iodixanol (Optiprep™, Sigma-Aldrich), a non-toxic density-gradient medium (Boothe et al.,

2017). We used the same physiological saline as that used for electrophysiological recordings

from *C. elegans* neurons (O'Hagan et al., 2005), which contains (in mM): NaCl (145), KCl (5),

$MgCl_2$ (5), $CaCl_2$ (1), and Na-HEPES (10), adjusted to a pH of 7.2 with NaOH. The imaging

medium has an osmolality of 300-325 mOsm (Fiske Micro-Osmometer Model 210), so it does

not cause large osmotic shocks to *C. elegans*. By contrast with other fluids we tested (e.g.

glycerol, halocarbon oil), this medium has a viscosity that appeared to be similar to that of

physiological saline.

Image acquisition

Although the mechanical stimulus is mostly in the horizontal direction, there is enough

deformation in the z-direction to move the neuron out of plane during stimulation in some cases.

In initial experiments with a traditional epifluorescence microscope, the mitochondria often

moved out of focus during stimulation due to movement in the z-direction. To account for this

problem, we used a spinning disk confocal microscope (Nikon TiE, Yokogawa CSU-X1,

40x/NA 1.4 oil objective, and Photometrics Prime95B sCMOS camera) to acquire z-stacks,

which provided adequate resolution in the z-direction.

For each trial, we acquired eleven (11) z-stacks containing the neuron of interest, with

300 kPa of pressure applied during the even-numbered stacks, and 0 kPa applied during the odd-

numbered stacks. We started acquisition of a stack every 15 seconds, although the time to

acquire each given stack was approximately 12 seconds. The exact time varied depending on the

height of the z-stack, which was manually set to accommodate observed motion in the z direction

during the test actuation. During the short delay between acquisition of stacks, we toggled the

applied pressure.

Image analysis

To detect the mitochondria, we used a particle-tracking algorithm implemented in Python

(Allan et al., 2018), based on work by Crocker and Grier (Crocker and Grier, 1996). Briefly, the

algorithm involves applying a spatial band pass filter, finding peaks, refining the position of

peaks by finding their center of mass, and linking particles across timepoints into trajectories. In

some stacks, the algorithm failed to detect the mitochondria because they were too close to the

top or bottom of the stack, were not bright enough, overlapped with the mitochondria of another

TRN, or were blurred due to the motion of the worm. We discarded all stacks subsequent to a

stack where the image processing failed, because the strain measurement requires comparison to

a previous stack. Additionally, not all of the stacks from each trial were usable, since the

fluorophores bleached over time. As a result, not all actuation events yielded strain

measurements (see Supplementary Figure S2).

Due to variability across trials, we manually selected a region of interest around the TRN

and tuned parameters in the particle tracking algorithm. Primarily, we changed the minmass

threshold, which filters out particles where the sum of pixel values within the boundaries of the

particle is below the chosen threshold, and the search radius for the linking step, which specifies

how far a particle can travel between timepoints and still be identified as the same particle. Less

frequently, we changed the cutoff size for the bandpass filter or the brightness percentile

threshold, which sets a minimum value for the brightest pixel in a particle as a percentile of the

brightness of pixels in the image. We tuned these parameters until the particles found and linked

included only particles along the location of the neuron and not autofluorescent spots.

Supplemental Figure S3 shows the range of parameters we used.

Touch assays

411   To test the touch-sensitivity of the mutants used in our strain transmission experiments,
412 we performed touch assays by lightly stroking an eyebrow hair across the body of a worm and
413 scoring its behavioral response (Goodman, 2006). For each session of touch assays, we tested 25
414 worms from a plate, performing 10 touches per worm. We performed the touch assays blinded
415 with respect to genotype. For each touch event, we counted a response consisting of reversing
416 direction or speeding up to move away from the stimulus as a positive response.

Whole-genome sequencing of him-4(e1267)

419 Our whole-genome sequencing protocol involved four sub-protocols: 1) DNA extraction, 2)
420 sequencing library preparation, 3) sequencing, and 4) analysis. We isolated DNA from CB1267
421 *him-4(e1267) X* animals with a phenol chloroform isoamyl alcohol (PCI) extraction. First, we
422 washed worms off a mostly starved plate using M9 buffer, rinsed the animals twice in M9 buffer,
423 resuspended them in EN buffer (0.1M NaCl and 20 mM EDTA), removed the supernatant, and
424 flash-froze the sample in liquid nitrogen. Next, we added 450 μL of worm lysis buffer (0.1 M
425 TRIS pH 8.5, 0.1 M NaCl, 50 mM EDTA, and 1% SDS) and 40 μL of proteinase K (10 mg/ml)
426 to 50 μL of frozen worms and incubated at 62°C for 45 minutes, vortexing occasionally. Then,
427 we performed the PCI extraction in a phase lock gel tube (VWR) by adding 500 μL of PCI to the
428 sample, vortexing, spinning for 5 minutes at 10,000 rpm, and then collecting the upper phase.
429 We repeated the PCI extraction step, and then extracted twice using chloroform. We precipitated
430 the DNA by adding 40 μL of 5M sodium acetate and 1 mL of ethanol, spinning for 5 minutes at
431 10,000 rpm, removing the supernatant, washing in 70% ethanol, and resuspending in 50 μL of
432 TE buffer at pH 7.4.

433   We created a sequencing library according to manufacturer instructions (Nextera DNA
434 Library Prep Kit, Illumina). Briefly, this includes tagmentation of the DNA using the Illumina
435 Tagment DNA Buffer and Enzyme, clean-up of the tagmented DNA using a Zymo DNA Clean
436 and Concentrator Kit, PCR to add the library indices to the tagmented DNA, and PCR cleanup
437 by gel extraction using a Qiagen MinElute Kit. We did a quality control step to confirm that the
438 average length of DNA fragments was in the expected range of 300-500 bp using the Agilent

Bioanalyzer at the Stanford Protein and Nucleic Acid Biotechnology Facility. Sequencing was

completed on an Illumina NextSeq sequencer in the Stanford Functional Genomics Facility.

We analyzed the sequencing data using the computing cluster of the Stanford Center for

Genomics and Personalized Medicine. Briefly, we mapped reads using Bowtie2, used Picard to

sort reads, mark duplicates, and prepare read groups, then used GATK to select high quality

SNPs and INDELs, and SnpEff to annotate the results.

Code availability

447 Two kinds of data were analyzed using custom code: image analysis (Python,
448 https://github.com/anekimken/SSN_ImageAnalysis) and whole-genome sequence analysis
449 available (scripts, https://github.com/wormsenseLab/whole_genome_sequencing).

Acknowledgments

We thank Chloe Girard, Chantal Akerib, Melissa Pickett, and Anne Villenueve for the gift of

their training and assistance in whole genome sequencing; Michael Nonet for NM3573, the strain

with labeled mitochondria in the TRNs; Ehsan Rezeai for help with software testing; Michael

Lin for the loan of a spinning disk confocal for pilot experiments. Some of the experiments were

performed at Stanford core facilities, including the Cell Sciences Imaging Facility, Functional

Genomics Facility (funded in part by a Shared Instrumentation Grant, NIH S10OD018220), the

Genetics Bioinformatics Service Center, and the nano@Stanford labs (supported by the National

Science Foundation as part of the National Nanotechnology Coordinated Infrastructure under

award ECCS-1542152). This work was funded by an NIH fellowship to ALN (F31NS100318)

and grant to MBG (R35NS105092).

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Figure Legends

Figure 1: Touch-induced mechanical strain measured using mitochondria as fiducial
markers in *C. elegans* TRNs *in vivo*.

A) Brightfield image of worm in the microfluidic device. Scale bar 20 μm. B) Maximum
projection image of TRN mitochondria before (magenta) and during (green) mechanical
stimulus. Mitochondria that did not move appreciably appear white due to the overlap of
magenta and green. Image intensity and contrast was adjusted to improve visualization. Scale bar
20 μm. C) Displacement in the direction of actuation before (magenta) and during (green)
stimulation. The smooth line (green) is a Gaussian fit used to infer the center of actuator. D)
Distribution of touch-induced strain in the TRN for a single actuation trial.

Figure 2: Indentation induces local longitudinal strain in *C. elegans* TRNs.

A) Three-dimensional diagram the positioning of the worm in the microfluidics trap, the animal-
centric coordinate system used to characterize strain, and the consequences of trapping animals
in different orientations. TRN is red, and muscles are included in brown as visual aid. B) Touch-
induced displacement in three dimensions. C) Touch-induced strain, anterior is to the left and
posterior is to the right. $y=0$ is the center of the actuator. n=61 trials from N=15 worms. D)
Mechanical strain at $y=0$ as a function of maximum neuron displacement. The line is a linear fit
to the data: $\varepsilon = 0.0061x - 0.0067$, where ε is the strain and x is the maximum displacement. The
shaded area indicates 95% confidence intervals of the fit. $R^2 = 0.04$.

Figure 3: Touch-induced mechanical strain profiles are similar in control animals and

ECM mutants.

A) Spatially averaged strain in control ALM neurons with normal TRN attachment (15 animals)

and *him-4(e1267)* with attachment defects (16 animals). The data for control animals are the

same data as Figure 2. B) Spatially averaged strain in *mec-1* mutants. 14 independent animals for

mec-1(1066) and 16 animals for *mec-1(e1738)*. C) Spatially averaged strain in *mec-5(u444)*

mutants (17 animals). D) Overlay of all spatially averaged strain profiles. Smooth lines are the

averages across all trials and shaded areas show the error (95% confidence intervals). One ALM

neuron tested in each animal.

Figure 4: Strain at the center of the actuator is similar in control animals and ECM mutants

A) Strain at the center of the actuator. Each point is the result of a single trial. The vertical lines next to the swarm plots indicate the median and quartiles of the data. Data collected from 15, 16, 14, 16, and 17 animals (left to right). B) Difference in the mean strain between control and each mutant with a bootstrapped resampled distribution of the data. Estimation plots generated using the DABEST plotting package (Ho et al., 2019).

Table 1: Touch sensitivity of ECM mutants.

Genotype	Response probability	Mean difference from control	95% confidence interval of mean difference
control	0.742		
him-4(e1267)	0.527	-0.215	(-0.275, -0.163)
mec-1(e1066)	0.083	-0.659	(-0.698, -0.619)
mec-1(e1738)	0.237	-0.505	(-0.551, -0.461)
mec-5(u444)	0.208	-0.534	(-0.580, -0.487)

627 All mutants we tested were less sensitive to touch than control animals; effect size was smallest

628 for *him-4(e1267)* and largest for *mec-1(e1066)*. All strains tested contained the transgene

629 *jsIs1073* that tags mitochondria in the TRNs with RFP. *N*=100 worms for each genotype, tested

630 in four independent cohorts of 25 blinded to genotype.

Table 2: Touch-evoked longitudinal strain in the TRNs as a function of genotype.

Genotype	Mean strain ± SEM	Mean difference from control	95% confidence interval of mean difference	stimulation trials	animals
control	0.031 ± 0.005			61	15
him-4(e1267)	0.024 ± 0.005	-0.007	(-0.020, 0.007)	61	16
mec-1(e1066)	0.034 ± 0.007	0.003	(-0.012 0.022)	49	14
mec-1(e1738)	0.035 ± 0.005	0.004	(-0.009 0.018)	68	16
mec-5(u444)	0.026 ± 0.009	-0.005	(-0.028 0.013)	44	17

636 There was no detectable difference in the magnitude of the touch-evoked strain in control and

637 ECM mutant animals.

639 **Table 3: *C. elegans* strains**

Strain Name	Genotype	Source
N2 (Bristol)	wild-type	CGC
NM3573	*jsIs1073*	(Zheng et al., 2014)
GN885	*jsIs1073;him-4(e1267)*	this study
GN886	*jsIs1073;mec-1(e1066)*	this study
GN887	*jsIs1073;mec-1(e1738)*	this study
GN906	*jsIs1073;mec-5(u444)*	this study

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649 Figure S1: *him-4(e1267)* is likely to be a null allele. A) Map of *him-4* with *e1267* allele

650 annotated. B) Close-up of insertion in sequence as indicated by dotted lines in Panel A. C)

651 Sequences of both Indels found by sequencing. The first indel is likely to cause the null

652 phenotype because it causes a frameshift in an early exon, whereas the second indel is in a later

653 intron.

655 Figure S2: Quality control for image (z) stacks as a function of genotype. Eleven (11) image

656 stacks were collected from each TRN analyzed for touch-induced strain. This plot shows the

657 number of stacks that passed quality for each experiment. Note: The final stack was not used as

658 it was acquired in the resting configuration and could not be compared to a subsequent stack

659 collected in the indented configuration.

661 Figure S3: We tuned parameters of the particle tracking algorithm to account for variability

662 across images.

664 **Table S1: Average number of detected mitochondria and distance between adjacent**

665 **detected mitochondria as a function of genotype.**

Number of mitochondria					
Genotype	Mean number ± SEM	Mean difference from control	95% confidence interval of mean difference	Minimum	Maximum
Control	8.9 ± 0.6			5	15
him-4(e1267)	9.1 ± 0.5	0.2	(-1.5, 1.6)	6	13
mec-1(e1066)	8.8 ± 0.5	-0.1	(-1.7, 1.5)	6	13
mec-1(e1738)	8.9 ± 0.5	0.01	(-1.6, 1.5)	6	15
mec-5(u444)	7.2 ± 0.5	-1.7	(-3.3, -0.3)	5	12
Distance between adjacent mitochondria					
Genotype	Mean distance ± SEM (μm)	Mean difference from control (μm)	95% confidence interval of mean difference (μm)	Minimum (μm)	Maximum (μm)
Control	26.0± 0.4			5.4	63.7
him-4(e1267)	27.3±0.4	1.4	(-2.0, 4.8)	5.0	76.1
mec-1(e1066)	27.0±0.5	1.0	(-2.6, 4.7)	5.3	65.1
mec-1(e1738)	26.9±0.4	0.9	(-2.4, 4.3)	6.0	64.1
mec-5(u444)	31.1±0.6	5.2	(1.2, 9.3)	5.5	84.1

668 The number of detected mitochondria and distance between adjacent mitochondria in the ALM

669 neurons was similar in control and the ECM mutants, except for *mec-5(u444)* which had fewer

670 detected mitochondria and larger distances between adjacent mitochondria, on average. Number

671 of animals is the same as Table 2.

A

B

C

D