1 **Muscle-directed mechanosensory feedback activates egg-laying circuit activity**

2 **and behavior in *C. elegans***

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Abstract

Mechanosensory feedback of internal state regulates numerous bodily processes including feeding, defecation, and reproduction. However, how mechanosensory feedback signals to modulate neural circuits and coordinate these behaviors is incompletely understood. Here, we use the egg-laying circuit of *C. elegans* to test our hypothesis that mechanosensory feedback of egg accumulation promotes the active reproductive behavior state. Using an acute gonad microinjection technique to mimic changes in pressure and stretch resulting from germline activity and egg accumulation, we find that injection rapidly stimulates Ca^{2+} activity in both neurons and muscles of the egg-laying circuit. Injection-induced vulval muscle Ca^{2+} activity requires L-type Ca^{2+} channels but is independent of presynaptic input. Direct mechanical prodding activates the vulval muscles, suggesting they are the proximal targets of the stretch-dependent stimulus. Our results show that egg-laying behavior in *C. elegans* is regulated by a stretch-dependent homeostat that scales postsynaptic muscle responses with egg accumulation in the uterus.

INTRODUCTION

The ability to sense and convert physical stimuli into chemical signals that are then integrated and used to perform behavioral decisions is a conserved process that allows animals to survive and reproduce (Goodman and Sengupta, 2019). Mechanosensory feedback of internal reproductive state is crucial in shaping decisions about when to reproduce and where to rear offspring. For instance, the reduction in sexual receptivity of *Drosophila* following copulation is mediated by mechanosensory feedback (Shao et al., 2019). Following mating, the stretch produced from accumulated eggs in the reproductive tract is sufficient to induce an attraction to acetic acid to ensure oviposition occurs in favorable environments (Gou et al., 2014). Because artificial distention of the reproductive tract is sufficient to induce this attraction to acetic acid, feedback of egg accumulation itself drives the observed remodeling of sensory signaling. Likewise, mechanical stretch of the uterus is involved in initiating parturition or driving specific maternal behaviors like bonding or infanticide in various mammalian systems (Hayes and De Vries, 2007; Kendrick et al., 1991; Wray, 1993). Thus, while mechanical feedback of internal reproductive state exerts profound short- and long-term changes in neural circuit activity, the mechanosensory feedback mechanisms and circuits that mediate these processes are incompletely understood.

The *C. elegans* egg-laying circuit serves as an ideal system to study how different forms of mechanosensory feedback regulate reproductive behaviors. Previous work has shown that *C. elegans* egg laying is a stochastic, two-state behavior consisting of ~20 minute inactive states in which animals produce and retain eggs in the uterus punctuated by ~2 minute active states in which ~4-6 eggs are laid (Waggoner et

al., 1998). Egg laying is controlled by two motoneuron types, the serotonergic

hermaphrodite-specific neurons (HSNs; Desai and Horvitz, 1989; Waggoner et al.,

1998), and the cholinergic ventral type C (VC) neurons, both of which synapse onto the

vulval muscles to promote contraction and egg laying (Bany et al., 2003; Collins et al.,

2016; Shyn et al., 2003; White et al., 1986; Zhang et al., 2008). The cellular Ca^{2+} activity

of several cells in the egg-laying circuit is regulated by mechanosensory feedback. For

example, external vibrations or gentle touches on the tail inhibit egg laying (Sawin,

1996), possibly by activating mechanoreceptors on the PLM neurons that signal to

inhibit HSN activity (Zhang et al., 2008). The VC neurons are mechanically activated by

the contraction and opening of the vulval muscles, releasing acetylcholine to enhance

vulval opening for egg release (Kopchock et al., 2021). The uv1 neuroendocrine cells sit

between the vulval canal and uterus, are mechanically deformed and activated in

response to passage of eggs through the vulval canal (Collins et al., 2016; Jose et al.,

2007), and provide inhibitory feedback following egg laying through the release of

tyramine and neuropeptides that inhibit HSN activity (Alkema et al., 2005; Banerjee et

al., 2017; Ravi et al., 2021; Zhang et al., 2010). Whether other cells in the egg-laying

circuit are mechanosensitive and how their feedback signals to modulate discrete steps

in egg laying is not clear.

Our previous work demonstrated that feedback of egg accumulation regulates

Ca^{2+} activity in the egg-laying circuit (Ravi et al., 2021, 2018a). Young adults or animals

lacking eggs in the uterus have reduced Ca^{2+} activity in the HSNs, with the HSNs

showing infrequent Ca^{2+} transients. Conversely, animals recovering from an acute

blockage of egg laying show greatly increased Ca^{2+} transient activity and egg laying

(Ravi et al., 2018a). This homeostatic feedback to the HSNs depends on the

postsynaptic vulval muscles, as presynaptic HSN Ca^{2+} bursting activity is lost in Notch

receptor mutants (Li et al., 2013) lacking postsynaptic connection to the HSNs or when

the vulval muscles are electrically silenced (Ravi et al., 2018a). Together, these data

suggest that feedback of egg accumulation activates a stretch-dependent homeostat

that regulates circuit activity and serotonin release that sustains the egg-laying active

state. Interestingly, genetic ablation or electrical silencing of the HSNs delays, but does

not abolish, the onset of egg laying (Ravi et al., 2021, 2018a; Waggoner et al., 1998)

with animals recovering vulval muscle Ca^{2+} transient activity upon egg accumulation

(Collins et al., 2016). These results show that while feedback of egg accumulation can

promote HSN Ca^{2+} activity, HSN may not be its only target. However, the cellular and

molecular mechanisms underlying this putative stretch response remains unknown.

Here, we tested whether a stretch-dependent mechanism activates the *C.*

elegans egg-laying behavior circuit. Using acute microinjections to mimic feedback of

germline activity and embryo accumulation, we show that injection is sufficient to drive

both egg-laying circuit activity and behavior. Surprisingly, we find that animals deficient

in synaptic vesicle or peptidergic transmission still show an acute injection response.

This suggests that egg laying is at least partially driven by direct sensing of internal

stretch by the egg-laying vulval muscles. Furthermore, we show that the vulval muscles

themselves are receptive to direct mechanical stimulation and that L-type voltage-gated

calcium channels are required for Ca^{2+} influx. Together, our data reveal how

mechanosensory feedback, detected by the muscle target-cells, informs the circuit

    whether there are eggs to lay that acts alongside synaptic input to induce egg-laying

    behavior.

    RESULTS

        Microinjections induce egg-laying behavior and circuit activity

    While microinjection into the gonad of *C. elegans* is a common technique for generating

    transgenic strains (Berkowitz et al., 2008; Mello et al., 1991), we noticed this procedure

    often led to vulval opening and egg release. While we feel this phenomenon is widely

    known among *C. elegans* researchers, injection-induced egg laying is not well-

    described in the literature. To determine that microinjection does stimulates egg laying,

    we inserted a needle into the gonad syncytium of wild-type animals and performed a

    brief (3 s) injection delivering ~250 pL of standard buffer lacking DNA while monitoring

    egg release (**Figure 1A**). Microinjection drove egg laying in nearly half (~46 ± 9%) of

    injected animals (**Figure 1B**). Egg-laying behavior in *C. elegans* is driven by Ca^{2+}

    activity in the vulval muscles that drives contraction (Collins and Koelle, 2013; Shyn et

    al., 2003; Zhang et al., 2008). To determine if egg release was a passive consequence

    of injection or an active process driven by cellular activity, we performed ratiometric

    Ca^{2+} recordings of the vulval muscles in animals expressing GCaMP5 (Collins et al.,

    2016). Gonad injections triggered a strong and rapid induction of vulval muscle Ca^{2+}

    activity which peaked on average 5.6 s after the onset of injection (**Figure 1C; Movie**

    1). Direct contact with the injected buffer did not seem to be required for a robust

    muscle response, as vulval muscle Ca^{2+} activity was induced immediately upon injection

    while buffer reached the vulva a few seconds later (**Movie 1**). Egg-laying events were

    coincident with peak vulval muscle Ca^{2+} activity (**Figure 1C**), similar to that seen

previously in behaving animals (Collins et al., 2016; Collins and Koelle, 2013). On

average, injection-induced vulval muscle Ca^{2+} transients decayed to 37% of their peak

value in 23 s. While the kinetic features of vulval muscle Ca^{2+} transient activity were

significantly longer than that seen in behaving animals (Collins et al., 2016), we

presume this is a consequence of the animals being immobilized during the injection

procedure as observed in previous studies (Shyn et al., 2003). Injections into *unc-*

54(e190) muscle-specific myosin mutants, in which the vulval muscles are unable to

contract, still triggered vulval muscle Ca^{2+} transients (**Figure 1 – figure supplement**

1A), but this activity was unable to drive egg release (**Figure 1B**), indicating that

microinjection does not simply force eggs out through the vulva. Together, these results

show that microinjection causes an active response, triggering a rapid onset of vulval

muscle Ca^{2+} activity whose magnitude can drive contractility and egg release.

To determine if the magnitude of stretch induced by injections affected the vulval

muscle Ca^{2+} response, we estimated the flowrates across multiple injections to

determine total volume delivered per injection. Injection flowrates ranged between ~10

and ~366 pL/s with a median of 82 pL/s, corresponding to a total volume delivered

ranging between 30 pL – 1 nL with a median of 246 pL for each 3 s injection (**Figure**

1D). We estimated the volume of one embryo to be ~25 pL, as such, our injections

corresponded to an equivalent stretch produced by the addition of 1.2 – 40 eggs (with a

median of ~10 egg-volumes per injection). To determine if this range of injection

volumes reflects a physiologically relevant number of eggs required to activate the

stretch-dependent homeostat, we determined the number of eggs accumulated in the

uterus at the onset of egg laying. Wild-type animals begin laying eggs at ~6 hours after

reaching adulthood, having accumulated ~8 eggs in the uterus (**Figure 1E**). We have

previously shown that the onset of egg laying is delayed in *egl-1(dm)* animals lacking

the HSN command neurons (Ravi et al., 2018a) and in animals with strongly reduced

HSN activity (Ravi et al., 2021). In HSN-deficient animals, the onset of egg laying is

delayed to ~20 hours after adulthood, a point when they have accumulated an average

of 45 eggs in their uterus (**Figure 1E**). We interpret this difference in ~37 eggs required

to activate egg laying in the absence of HSNs as providing a threshold estimate of how

much volume increase (~925 pL) is required to induce the stretch-dependent

homeostat. As such, the volumes typically injected in our experiments are quantitatively

similar to the volume changes that accompany egg production and induce egg laying *in*

vivo.

Do injections with greater volumes elicit a stronger vulval muscle Ca^{2+} response

and more frequent egg laying? To answer this question, we analyzed the correlation

between injection flowrate, injected at a range of 30 – 40 psi, and the resulting vulval

muscle Ca^{2+} peak amplitudes and probability of egg release. Linear and logistic

regressions showed no correlation between injection flowrate and vulval muscle Ca^{2+}

transient amplitude, nor between flowrate and egg release, respectively (**Figure 1 –**

figure supplement 1B – C). This lack of correlation indicates that the range of

flowrates in our 3 s injection protocol does not significantly affect the observed vulval

muscle Ca^{2+} transient responses. We observed that egg-laying events correlated with

larger vulval muscle Ca^{2+} peaks (**Figure 1F**), a result consistent with our previous

observations of *in vivo* Ca^{2+} imaging of the vulval muscles (Collins et al., 2016; Collins

and Koelle, 2013). Interestingly, the number of eggs accumulated in animals prior to

injection also correlated significantly with the resulting vulval muscle Ca^{2+} peak

amplitude elicited by injections (**Figure 1G**). This result suggests that animals with

greater egg accumulation at the time of injection were more likely to have stronger

vulval muscle Ca^{2+} transients, and therefore more likely to lay eggs, independent of

injection volume delivered (**Figure 1 – figure supplement 1C**). We explored additional

parameters that affected the injection response (**Figure 1 – figure supplement 1D – G;**

see Methods). Additional attempts to inject at low flowrates, with lower injection

pressures (25 psi instead of 30 – 40psi), while tracking liquid delivery with a fluorescent

reporter, revealed that the vulval muscle Ca^{2+} response was weaker when liquid

delivery was slow, independent of total volume delivered (**Figure 1 – figure**

supplement 2E). Injection pressures >30 psi used in all subsequent microinjection

experiments were above this threshold, allowing for rapid fluid delivery of >30 pL (~2

eggs) within 3 s and a reliable Ca^{2+} response (**Figure 1 – figure supplement 1B**).

Together, these results show that acute microinjection triggers rapid vulval muscle Ca^{2+}

activity that drives egg release. These results further suggest that microinjection may

activate the same homeostatic mechanism engaged by feedback of egg accumulation

in the uterus which promotes the egg-laying active state (Ravi et al., 2018a).

The vulval muscle injection response is independent of egg availability and

neural circuit development

As worms mature from juveniles to adults, the pattern of activity in the egg-laying circuit

also matures into clear active and inactive states. We have previously shown that

mature patterns of neural activity are dependent on the temporal development of the

worm as well as the presence of fertilized embryos (Ravi et al., 2018a). To test if the

vulval muscle Ca^{2+} response to acute injection was similarly dependent on egg

availability, we injected into adult worms lacking fertilized embryos or into L4 juvenile

worms that had not yet begun egg production. As shown in **Figure 2A**, we eliminated

fertilized egg accumulation either genetically using a sperm-deficient *fog-2* mutant

(Schedl and Kimble, 1988) or chemically with floxuridine (FUDR; Mitchell et al., 1979)

which disrupts proper formation of oocytes. We observed a strong induction of vulval

muscle Ca^{2+} activity following injections into either *fog-2* mutant or FUDR-sterilized

adults (**Figure 2B)**. While *fog-2* sperm-deficient mutant worms did not show any

significant differences compared to similarly injected wild-type control animals, Ca^{2+}

transient amplitudes in FUDR-sterilized animals were significantly increased (**Figure**

2C). Although these animals lacked embryos to lay, gonad injection still induced strong

contraction of the vulval muscles and vulval opening (data not shown). These results

show that adult animals lacking endogenous feedback of egg production and/or

accumulation in the uterus are still capable of mounting a robust vulval muscle Ca^{2+}

response to injection.

To determine if developmental age influenced vulval muscle activation, we

compared injection responses of juvenile animals at the late 4th larval (L4) stage to egg-

laying adults (picked 1 day earlier). Injections into late-L4 or adult animals showed

similar acute vulval muscle Ca^{2+} transient responses (**Figure 2D**) that were not

significantly different in amplitude (**Figure 2E**), although this Ca^{2+} activity in late-L4

juveniles was unable to drive vulval opening. Late-L4 juvenile animals showed a greater

variety of vulval muscle Ca^{2+} responses that led to a significant decrease in average

Ca^{2+} activity decay time (**Figure 2F**). We saw a similar heterogeneity in spontaneous

vulval muscle Ca^{2+} responses as they develop from L4 animals into adults, coincident

with induction of ERG K^+ channel expression in the vulval muscles (Ravi et al., 2018a).

Together, these results show that juvenile animals, prior to the onset of egg production,

or even sterile adults remain responsive to acute changes in internal pressure and/or

stretch that follow gonad microinjection.

Microinjection induces sequential Ca^{2+} activity in other cells of the egg-laying

behavior circuit

214   Egg laying in behaving animals is driven by a stereotypical pattern of rhythmic

and sequential cell Ca^{2+} activity. The HSN command neurons go first, with Ca^{2+}

transients peaking ~2 s before each egg-laying event when Ca^{2+} activity is seen to peak

in both the VC motor neurons and vulval muscles (Collins et al., 2016). uv1 Ca^{2+} activity

is last, typically peaking ~2 s after each egg-laying event (**Figure 3A**). To determine if

injection drives a similar, sequential pattern of Ca^{2+} activity, we performed injections in

animals expressing GCaMP reporters in either the HSNs, VCs, or uv1 cells. We found

that all cells of the circuit showed a robust induction of Ca^{2+} activity in response to

injection, but their order and kinetics of onset differed significantly from that seen in

behaving animals. The vulval muscles and uv1 neuroendocrine cells which sit proximal

to the vulval muscles showed the most rapid injection response (**Movie 2**), reaching

half-maximal Ca^{2+} levels at 2.4 ± 1.2 and 3.4 ± 3.3 s (mean ± SD), respectively, after the

onset of injection (**Figure 3B and 3C**). The VC neurons were next, showing a half-max

Ca^{2+} activity at 4.0 ± 1.5 s (**Figure 3D**; **Movie 3**). Surprisingly, the HSNs showed the

slowest response with half-max Ca^{2+} activity observed 6.4 ± 4.0 s (**Figure 3E and 3F**;

Movie 4). Injection-induced Ca^{2+} responses typically lasted longer and decayed more

slowly compared to those seen in freely behaving animals which may result from the

absence of rhythmic phasing of Ca^{2+} activity that accompanies locomotion (Collins et

al., 2016). The robust and rapid onset of vulval muscle Ca^{2+} activity upon acute

microinjection, and the out-of-sequence onset of activity seen in other cells in the circuit

(**Figure 3F**), suggests microinjection acts directly on the vulval muscles with Ca^{2+}

activity in the other cells of the circuit being a consequence of vulval opening and/or egg

laying.

The vulval muscle microinjection Ca^{2+} response does not require synaptic or

peptidergic input

To test the hypothesis that the vulval muscles respond to mechanical stretch cell-

autonomously, we removed synaptic and peptidergic input into the vulval muscles and

tested their Ca^{2+} response to microinjection. Specifically, we tested *egl-1(dm)* mutant

animals lacking HSNs and in which we blocked synaptic transmission from the VC

neurons through transgenic expression of Tetanus Toxin (**Figure 4A**). Despite lacking

most synaptic input and showing strong defects in egg laying, the vulval muscles of

these animals showed strong injection-induced Ca^{2+} activity and egg laying (**Figure**

4B). We observed no significant differences in the vulval muscle Ca^{2+} response time,

peak amplitude, decay time, or efficiency of injection-induced egg release when

compared to injected wild-type worms (**Figure 4C – F**). These results indicate the main

synaptic inputs into the vulval muscles are not required for the vulval muscle injection

response, consistent with previous work showing that worms lacking HSNs and/or VCs

still enter egg-laying active states (Waggoner et al., 1998) with robust vulval muscle

Ca^{2+} activity (Collins et al., 2016; Kopchock et al., 2021; Shyn et al., 2003; Zhang et al.,

2008).

To account for the possibility that other cells, including those outside the egg-

laying circuit, respond to acute injection and signal to activate the vulval muscles, we

injected into *unc-13(s69)* mutants lacking synaptic vesicle transmission (Richmond et

al., 1999) and *unc-31(e928)* mutants with defective dense core vesicle release (Ann et

al., 1997). Both mutants showed essentially normal vulval muscle Ca^{2+} responses after

acute microinjection (**Figure 4B – E**). In addition, these neurotransmission mutants

were just as likely to lay eggs in response to injection as wild-type animals (**Figure 4F**).

Together, these results show that the vulval muscles can respond to acute

microinjection independent of synaptic or peptidergic input. This suggests that the

injection-induced activation of egg-laying circuit activity is not simply a consequence of

nociceptive neuron activation but may instead represent a muscle-dependent

mechanism that detects acute changes in internal pressure or stretch that accompany

germline activity and egg accumulation.

The vulval muscles are receptive to direct mechanical stimulation

If the vulval muscles are direct targets of stretch being activated in response to acute

microinjection, they may respond to other forms of mechanical stimulation. We used a

glass capillary probe to prod either the anterior or posterior vulval muscles while

recording changes in muscle Ca^{2+} activity (**Figure 5A**). Mechanical stimulation of the

vulval muscles triggered a strong and immediate Ca^{2+} transient in the prodded vulval

muscles (**Figure 5B; Movie 5**). To determine optimal displacement distances, we

exposed animals to a train of prodding events in which each subsequent prodding event

displaced the vulval muscles by an additional 10 µm (ranging from 10 – 60 µm; **Figure**

5C, top). From this, we found that the vulval muscles responded most efficiently to 50

µm displacements (**Figure 5C, bottom**). We then applied 1 s, 50 µm prodding

stimulations and compared the induced Ca^{2+} responses in pairs of vulval muscles

where one set of muscles on either side of the vulval slit either did or did not receive the

prodding stimulus. We observed a significantly greater induction of Ca^{2+} in the vulval

muscles that were prodded (**Figure 5D – E**). Prodded muscles showed a half-maximal

Ca^{2+} response of 0.7 ± 0.4 s (mean ± SD). This response was faster than the observed

injection-induced response (2.4 ± 1.2 s), likely reflecting the difference in how the

mechanical stimulation is applied: direct (prodding) vs. indirect (injection). However,

unlike microinjections, direct vulval muscle prodding stimulations never led to egg-laying

events. This is consistent with previous work showing that successful egg-laying events

require coordinated contractions from both anterior and posterior vulval muscle groups

(Li et al., 2013). Together, these results demonstrate that the vulval muscles are

receptive to direct mechanical stimulation.

L-type voltage-gated calcium channels are required for the vulval muscle

injection response

Previous work has shown the mechanosensory neurons in *C. elegans* depend on Ca^{2+}

entry mediated by EGL-19, the sole L-type voltage-gated Ca^{2+} channel in *C. elegans*

(Frøkjær-Jensen et al., 2006; Suzuki et al., 2003). EGL-19 channels are expressed in

the vulval muscles and are required for proper egg laying (Kwok et al., 2006; Schafer et

al., 1996; Shyn et al., 2003; Trent et al., 1983). To test if the acute injection response

requires L-type voltage-gated Ca^{2+} channels, we recorded the vulval muscle Ca^{2+} in

animals where channel function was blocked genetically or pharmacologically (**Figure**

6A). Injection into *egl-19(n582)* loss-of-function mutants triggered vulval muscle Ca^{2+}

transients with significantly reduced amplitude (**Figure 6B – C**). Treatment of animals

with 25 µM nemadipine, a specific blocker of L-type Ca^{2+} channels (Kwok et al., 2006),

caused a dramatic and significant decrease in vulval muscle Ca^{2+} transient amplitude

following injection when compared to 0.1% DMSO controls (**Figure 6B – E; Movie 6**).

Injections were also less likely to elicit egg laying in nemadipine-exposed animals when

compared to DMSO-treated worms (**Figure 6F**). Interestingly, a small level of residual

Ca^{2+} activity that localized to the vm1 muscles was still observed in nemadipine-treated

animals (**Movie 6**). Whether this residual Ca^{2+} activity is caused by insufficient blocking

by nemadipine, differential expression of EGL-19 channels in the vm1 vs. vm2 vulval

muscles, or is mediated by other molecules, for example, Ca^{2+} influx mediated by

mechanoreceptors, is not yet clear. Nonetheless, these results indicate that L-type

voltage-gated Ca^{2+} channels are required for the normal injection-induced vulval muscle

response.

TMC and PIEZO mechanosensitive channels are not required for the injection-

induced vulval muscle Ca^{2+} response

PIEZO mechanosensitive ion channels have been previously shown to be expressed in

the reproductive system of *C. elegans*, including the vulva (Bai et al., 2020). To test if

Piezo channels mediate the injection-induced response we injected into *pezo-1(av149)*

mutants while recording vulval muscle Ca^{2+} activity. As shown in **Figure 7A**, injection

into *pezo-1* mutants led to robust vulval muscle Ca^{2+} responses with no significant

differences in peak amplitude (**Figure 7B**) or egg laying (**Figure 7C**) when compared to

wild-type animals. Thus, Piezo channels are not strictly required for the injection-

induced Ca^{2+} response seen in the vulval muscles.

Next, we sought to determine if TMC channels, a different class of ion channels

that contribute to mechanosensory responses (Pan et al., 2018), were mediating the

vulval muscle injection response. Within the egg-laying circuit of *C.* elegans, TMC-1 has

been previously shown to be expressed in both the HSNs and vulval muscles while

TMC-2 expression has only been found in the vulval muscles (Yue et al., 2018). Loss of

one or both channels leads to an egg-laying defective phenotype (Yue et al., 2018),

while *tmc-1* mutants have impaired inhibition of egg laying in response to harsh touch

(Kaulich et al., 2021), making these channels promising candidates for mediating a

stretch response. We injected into *tmc-1; tmc-2* double mutants while recording the

vulval muscle Ca^{2+} activity and egg-laying responses. Injections into *tmc-1; tmc-2*

mutants still led to a robust Ca^{2+} response (**Figure 7D**) which did not differ significantly

in peak amplitude (**Figure 7E**) or egg laying (**Figure 7F**) when compared to wild type

animals. Overall, these results indicate that neither Piezo nor TMC channels are

required for the vulval muscle injection-induced response.

DISCUSSION

DISCUSSION

We developed a quantitative microinjection technique to test whether acute

changes in mechanical stretch that might accompany egg accumulation drive the

activation of egg-laying behavior in *C. elegans*. We found that acute microinjection

induces Ca^{2+} activity in each cell of the egg-laying circuit along with efficient egg laying.

Surprisingly, we found that the vulval muscles, the final synaptic targets in the egg-

laying circuit, showed the strongest and most rapid Ca^{2+} responses. Injection-induced

vulval muscle Ca^{2+} activity did not require input from the HSNs or VC neurons and was

still observed in *unc-13* and *unc-31* mutant animals lacking synaptic or peptidergic

transmission, respectively. Direct prodding of the vulval muscles similarly induced Ca^{2+}

transient activity, suggesting the vulval muscles themselves are direct targets of a

stretch-homeostat that regulates egg laying. While the mechanosensory mechanism

that mediates the injection-induced response remains unclear, loss of TMC or PIEZO

channels did not significantly affect injection-induced vulval muscle Ca^{2+} responses.

However, we found vulval muscle Ca^{2+} transient responses were significantly

diminished by genetic or pharmacological inhibition of EGL-19 L-type voltage-gated

Ca^{2+} channels known to regulate egg laying *in vivo* (Schafer et al., 1996; Trent et al.,

1983). Together, these results support a model in which feedback of egg accumulation

in the uterus activates vulval muscle mechanoreceptors and L-type Ca^{2+} channels,

driving Ca^{2+} transient activity, contractility, and egg laying.

While there are numerous similarities between patterns of egg-laying circuit

activity seen in behaving animals and the acute injection response, the differences are

interesting and may help reveal the nature of the stretch-dependent homeostat.

Analysis of circuit Ca^{2+} activity in behaving animals shows frequent, rhythmic 'twitch'

Ca^{2+} transients in the vm1 vulval muscles phased with each body bend of locomotion

and stronger 'egg-laying' Ca^{2+} transients that contract both the vm1 and vm2 vulval

muscles (Brewer et al., 2019; Collins and Koelle, 2013). Injection-induced Ca^{2+}

transients are much longer (~20 s) than those seen in behaving animals (~2 s; Collins et

al., 2016). Similarly long Ca^{2+} transients have been previously reported in mechanically

activated neurons of immobilized animals (Suzuki et al., 2003) as well as from cells of

the egg-laying circuit (Shyn et al., 2003; Zhang et al., 2008). We propose that

locomotion provides additional negative feedback onto the egg-laying circuit, possibly to

reset activity in the circuit to allow subsequent bouts of egg release when the vulva can

open fully at a specific phase of the body bend (Collins and Koelle, 2013). In behaving

animals, Ca^{2+} activity in the HSN command neurons peaks about ~2 s before each egg-

laying event (Collins et al., 2016). In response to injection, we first observe Ca^{2+} activity

in the vulval muscles and the uv1s, followed by the VCs, and then finally in the HSNs.

We propose that serotonin and NLP-3 signaling from HSNs normally acts to increase

the electrical excitability of the vulval muscles already sensitized by stretch, as

optogenetic stimulation of the HSNs induces significantly weaker vulval muscle Ca^{2+}

responses in sterile animals (Ravi et al., 2018a). Injection bypasses HSNs, directly

activating a stretch signal on the vulval muscles that can drive contraction and egg

laying. Contraction of the vulval muscles then opens the vulva, activating tyramine and

neuropeptide release from the uv1 cells (Alkema et al., 2005; Banerjee et al., 2017;

Collins et al., 2016) which signal to inhibit HSN Ca^{2+} activity (Ravi et al., 2021). In this

model, rebound from fast-acting tyramine inhibition would allow subsequent egg-laying

events within each active state, while uv1-released neuropeptides drive long-term

inhibition to terminate the active state. Consistent with this idea, we see delayed onset

of HSN Ca^{2+} transient activity after injection, and vulval muscle Ca^{2+} transients in

subsequent injections are weaker in amplitude (**Figure 1 – supplementary Figure 1D**).

The robust injection response suggests the egg-laying circuit is primed to

respond to acute changes in embryo accumulation in the uterus. In support of this, *C.*

elegans typically lays 3 – 5 eggs about every 20-minutes (Waggoner et al., 1998) while

producing one egg from each gonad arm every 10 minutes (McCarter et al., 1999).

Thus, the egg-laying rate is matched by the rate of egg production and, as such,

dramatic swings in egg accumulation are normally small and likely averaged out over

the 12-15 eggs found in the uterus at steady-state. Deposition of one or more eggs into

the uterus from the spermatheca (McCarter et al., 1999), or detection of some critical

stretch threshold by unidentified cells, may serve as an acute stretch signal to induce

the active state. This is supported by our analyses of the effects of flowrate on Ca^{2+}

transient amplitude and egg-laying responses. We find a wide range of flowrates are

equally as likely to induce a strong vulval muscle Ca^{2+} transient sufficient to drive egg

release (**Figure 1 – figure supplement 1B**), indicating that stretch induced by our

injections is above a critical threshold. Future studies will focus on establishing a stretch

threshold for egg-laying behavior while identifying the molecular basis for this threshold.

The ability of the vulval muscles to respond to the injection stimulus independent

of synaptic input suggests a bottom-up control of egg laying wherein stretch caused by

egg accumulation activates the vulval muscles and egg laying. This mechanism of

control is commonly found in various autonomic functions such as the myogenic reflex

that detects stretch in the gut (Alvarez, 1922; Mercado-Perez and Beyder, 2022),

baroreceptor reflex that maintains arterial pressure (Guyton, 1976; Kandel et al., 2012),

and micturition reflex that detects bladder stretch (Guyton, 1976). Decoupling of

feedback from these cells to higher control centers does not abolish the reflex but

removes the ability of higher control centers to regulate and maintain homeostasis. For

example in micturition, damage to the spinal cord above the sacral region leads to loss

of faciliatory inputs from the brain and causes an initial suppression of the micturition

reflex that is eventually restored over time (Guyton, 1976). A strikingly similar pattern

occurs in the egg-laying circuit of *C. elegans* as removal of the HSN command neurons

leads to a marked reduction in the frequency of egg-laying active states (Waggoner et

al., 1998) and a dramatic delay in the onset of egg laying (Ravi et al., 2018a) which is

restored only after the accumulation of 45 eggs (**Figure 1E**) when vulval muscle Ca^{2+}

activity resumes active / inactive state behavior transitions. Similarly, injection can

bypass the absence of synaptic input from the HSN command neurons, although we

expect that sensory feedback onto the HSNs ensures that eggs are normally laid in

favorable environmental conditions (Fenk and de Bono, 2015; Hallem and Sternberg,

2008; Ringstad and Horvitz, 2008). Thus, it is likely that feedback from a similar bottom-

up mechanism informs the HSNs of egg availability to ensure a transition into and out of

egg-laying active states.

What is the molecular mechanism mediating the injection-induced vulval muscle

response? While L-type calcium channels mediate mechanosensory responses in

mechanosensitive neurons of *C. elegans*, these channels have not previously been

shown to be mechanosensitive in *C. elegans*. However, in the human GI tract, $Ca_v1.2$ L-

type voltage-gate Ca^{2+} channels have been shown to be activated by increases in

intracellular pressure and by mechanical shear stress (Alcaino et al., 2017; Farrugia et

al., 1999). Mechanosensitivity was retained by the α_{1c} subunit of $Ca_v1.2$ during

heterologous expression in HEK-293 or CHO cells (Lyford et al., 2002). L-type calcium

channels have also been shown to be required for the mechanosensitive response of

rat cardiomyocytes (Takahashi et al., 2019). Given the expression of EGL-19 L-type

Ca^{2+} channels in the vulval muscles and other cells of the egg-laying circuit (Taylor et

al., 2021), stretch produced by accumulation of eggs may directly modulate the opening

of L-type Ca^{2+} channels to excite the vulval muscles. However, this work cannot rule out

previously proposed models in which serotonin-mediated activation of EGL-19

channels, through a $G\alpha_q$-signaling pathway, indirectly promotes egg laying via an

increase in the excitability of the vulval muscles (Dhakal et al., 2022; Schafer, 2006;

Waggoner et al., 1998). This model would predict that lack of an injection-induced

response after L-type Ca^{2+} channel block is a consequence of reduced vulval muscle

excitability. As such, future work should focus on determining the role of EGL-19 L-type

voltage-gated calcium channels in regulating vulval muscle excitability and their

potential mechanosensitive role in *C. elegans*.

Gap junctions may also be important molecules driving the vulval muscle

injection-induced Ca^{2+} response. The vulval muscles show extensive electrical coupling

via gap junctions among themselves and with other cells (Cook et al., 2019; White et al.,

1986), with the vm2 vulval muscles making gap junctions both with the uterine muscles

and the vm1 muscles where we observe rhythmic input during locomotion (Collins et al.,

2016). In this model, egg accumulation activates mechanoreceptors on the uterine

muscles, leading to the spread of electrical excitation through gap junctions into the vm2

vulval muscle 'hub' to induce the active state, as seen previously for the extensively

gap-junctioned RMG neurons that facilitate pheromone attraction (Macosko et al.,

2009). Once eggs are laid and the stretch signal is lost, excitation is shunted out of the

vulval muscles, making it harder for the circuit to remain in the active state, similar to the

electrical shunting mechanism that mediates touch perception in the nose touch hub-

and-spoke circuit of *C. elegans* (Rabinowitch et al., 2013). Egg-induced stretch signals

may also feedback onto the egg-laying neurons as the HSN and VC neurons express

several innexins (Altun et al., 2009; Taylor et al., 2021) and make gap junctions among

themselves, between each other, and with VC3 making a gap junction with the vm2

muscles (White et al., 1986). Interestingly, UNC-7 innexins have been recently shown to

function as mechanosensitive hemichannels (Walker and Schafer, 2020), suggesting a

possible mechanosensory role for other innexins expressed in the egg-laying circuit.

469   *C. elegans* egg-laying behavior is regulated by a variety of external sensory cues

including environmental CO_2 (Fenk and de Bono, 2015; Hallem and Sternberg, 2008),

male pheromones (Aprison and Ruvinsky, 2019), mechanical stimulation (Sawin, 1996),

food availability (Trent, 1982), and osmolarity (Zhang et al., 2008). The regulation of egg

laying via changes in osmotic conditions is particularly interesting in the context of our

results. While the molecular and cellular mechanisms by which osmolarity regulates egg

laying are unclear, it is interesting that osmotic regulation of egg laying might have the

same physical consequences as acute injection. Shifting *C. elegans* into hypoosmotic or

hyperosmotic environments results in inhibition or promotion of egg laying, respectively

(Zhang et al., 2010, 2008). Given that *C. elegans* is hydrostatically pressurized (Avery

and Thomas, 1997; Gilpin et al., 2015; Harris and Crofton, 1957), and vulval opening is

sufficient for egg expulsion from the uterus (Kopchock et al., 2021), changes in osmotic

conditions may reflect a physical regulation of egg-laying behavior. Acute shifts of

animals to hypoosmotic conditions drives a rapid influx of water into animals (Lamitina

et al., 2004) that presumably increases the hydrostatic pressure inside the animal, thus

promoting circuit activity and egg-laying based on a physical model. Conversely, a

decrease in hydrostatic pressure would similarly be predicted to inhibit egg-laying circuit

activity and behavior, as previously observed (Zhang et al., 2010, 2008). Our data

shows that the initial level of egg accumulation is a primary predictor for vulval muscle

Ca^{2+} transient amplitude and the probability for an egg-laying response. Future work

should test whether the hydrostatic pressure gradient is used to drive physical expulsion

of eggs in response to vulval opening.

Overall, our work reveals a new model by which egg laying is regulated in *C.*

elegans. Sensory feedback converges at the HSN command neurons, regulating

serotonin and neuropeptide release, informing the circuit about favorable environmental

conditions, e.g., the external state. This top-down processing decides 'when' and

'where' egg laying should occur. Feedback of germline activity and egg accumulation

directly stimulates the vulval muscles, communicating information to the circuit about

the internal state, namely that the animal has eggs to lay. This 'bottom-up' processing

determines 'if' and 'for how long' eggs can be laid. These distinct forms and sources of

modulatory input help drive optimal patterns of circuit activity that allow animals to

adjust their behavior to a changing environment.

Materials and Methods

Nematode culture and staging

Caenorhabditis elegans strains were grown at 20°C on Nematode Growth Medium

(NGM) agar plates with *E. coli* OP50 grown in B broth as a food source (Brenner, 1974).

All assays involving adult animals were performed using adult hermaphrodites staged

24 h past the late L4 larval stage. For assays involving L4 animals, late-stage L4 worms

were picked 30 minutes prior to the assay. A list of strains, mutants, and transgenes

used in this study can be found in **Table 1**.

Calcium reporter transgenes and strain construction

Vulval muscle Ca^{2+}

Vulval muscle Ca^{2+} activity was recorded in adult animals using LX1918 *vsls164 [unc-*

103e::GCaMP5::unc-54 3'UTR + unc-103e::mCherry::unc-54 3'UTR + lin-15(+)], lite-

1(ce314), lin-15(n765ts) X, as described (Collins et al., 2016). Because the *unc-103e*

promoter does not express strongly in the vulval muscles of younger L4 animals (Ravi

et al., 2018a), MIA51 *keyls12 [ceh-24::GCaMP5::unc-54 3'UTR ceh-24::mCherry::unc-*

54 3'UTR lin-15(+)] IV, lite-1(ce314), lin-15(n765ts) X, as described (Ravi et al., 2018a)

was used in experiments comparing injection responses in late L4 animals.

   To image vulval muscle Ca^{2+} activity in animals defective for muscular

contractions, MIA206 [*unc-54(e190) I; vsls164 X lite-1(ce314) lin-15(n765ts) X*] strain

was generated. To generate this strain, LX1918 males were crossed with CB190 [*unc-*

54(e190) I] myosin heavy chain null mutant hermaphrodites (Brenner, 1974; Dibb et al.,

1985). Offspring were allowed to self and uncoordinated, mCherry(+) F2 progeny were

then selected and allowed to self for multiple generations until both phenotypes were

observed to be homozygous.

To record Ca^{2+} activity from the vulval muscles of animals lacking fertilized

embryos, BS553 [*fog-2(oz40) V)*] spermatogenesis mutant (Schedl and Kimble, 1988)

males were crossed with LX1918 hermaphrodites. Cross-progeny hermaphrodites were

picked and were crossed back to BS553 *fog-2* males to generate mCherry(+), *fog-2/+*

males and mCherry(+), *fog-2* hermaphrodites which were identified from single

mCherry(+) L4 hermaphrodites that then developed into sterile, *fog-2* adults. Male and

hermaphrodite progeny continued to be crossed until the *fog-2*, mCherry(+) phenotypes

were homozygous. The resulting strain, MIA34 [*fog-2(oz40) V; lite-1(ce314) lin-15(n765)*

vsIs164 X], was then maintained by male and female self-progeny.

To determine if injection-induced vulval muscle Ca^{2+} responses were dependent

on input from the HSNs or VC neurons, a strain lacking HSNs while simultaneously

expressing Tetanus Toxin in the VC neurons was generated. To do this, N2 males were

crossed with the HSN-deficient LX1938 *egl-1(n986dm) V; lite-1(ce314) vsIs164 lin-*

15(n765ts) X hermaphrodites (Collins et al., 2016). Resulting male cross-progeny were

then mated with MIA144 *keyIs33; lite-1(ce314) lin15(n765ts) X* hermaphrodites

(Kopchock et al., 2021) expressing Tetanus Toxin in the VC neurons from a minimal *lin-*

11 enhancer (Bany et al., 2003) which imparts a mild uncoordinated reversal

phenotype. Resulting cross-progeny L4s were then picked, allowed to self, and were

then selected for mCherry(+), Egl, and Unc reversal phenotypes. Animals were then

positively genotyped for *egl-1(n986dm)* using the following oligos: 5'-CTC TGT TCC

AGC TCA AAT TTC C-3' (forward) and 5'-GTA GTT GAG GAT CTC GCT TCG GC-3'

(reverse) followed by NciI enzyme digestion. Confirmed homozygous animals were kept

as strain MIA289 *keyIs33; egl-1(n986dm) V; vsIs164 lite-1(ce314) lin-15(n765ts) X*.

To eliminate neuropeptide signaling while monitoring injection-induced Ca^{2+}

activity in the vulval muscles, the dense core vesicle release mutant, CB928 *unc-*

31(e928) IV (Brenner, 1974), was crossed with LX1918 males. *vsIs164* mCherry(+)

hermaphrodite cross-progeny were allowed to self and were then selected for

mCherry(+), Unc*,* and Egl phenotypes, resulting in strain MIA312 [*unc-31(e928) IV;*

vsIs164 X; lite-1(ce314) lin-15(n765ts) X]. Similarly, to eliminate neurotransmitter

release while monitoring injection-induced Ca^{2+} activity from the vulval muscles, the

neurotransmitter release mutant, EG9631 [*unc-13(s69) I*] (Rose and Baillie, 1980), was

crossed with *vsIs164* mCherry(+) males. mCherry(+) hermaphrodite cross-progeny

were picked as L4s, allowed to self, and mCherry(+), Unc F2 progeny were kept,

resulting in strain MIA316 *unc-13(s69) I; vsIs164 lite-1(ce314) lin-15(n765ts) X*.

To image Ca^{2+} activity in the vulval muscles of animals lacking the EGL-19, L-

type voltage-gated Ca^{2+} channel (Trent et al., 1983), LX1918 males were crossed with

MT1212 *egl-19(n582) IV* hermaphrodites. Cross-progeny were isolated and allowed to

self and resulting mCherry(+) non-Egl progeny were picked and allowed to self until

homozygous for mCherry(+) and Egl phenotypes. The resulting strain MIA185 (*egl-*

19(n582) IV; lite-1(ce314) lin-15(n765ts) vsIs164 X) was used in this study.

To monitor Ca^{2+} activity in the vulval muscles of mechanosensory mutants,

vsIs164 males were crossed with *pezo-1* mutants provided by Drs. Xiaofei Bai and Andy

Golden (Bai et al., 2020). This resulted in the generation of the AG527 strain [*pezo-1*

(av149) IV; vsIs164 lite-1(ce314) lin-15(n765ts) X.

To visualize vulval muscle Ca^{2+} activity in *tmc-1*, *tmc-2* mechanosensory

mutants, N2 males were crossed with LX1919 *vsIs165 [unc-103e::GCaMP5::unc-54*

3'UTR + unc-103e::mCherry::unc-54 3'UTR + lin-15(+) ; lite-1(ce314) lin-15(n765ts) X]

hermaphrodites (Collins et al., 2016; Ravi et al., 2021). mCherry(+) *vsIs165/+* male

cross-progeny were then crossed with RB1546 *tmc-1(ok1859) X* hermaphrodites.

mCherry(+) cross-progeny hermaphrodites were then picked and allowed to self.

mCherry(+) cross-progeny were then genotyped for *tmc-1(ok1859)* using a duplex PCR

strategy with the following primers: 5'-CGA CTA CTG CAA TTC TCT TTA AGG-3'

(outside forward), 5'-GTT TAC AGT ATA CAA AAT TAG GAC TCT G-3' (inside

reverse), 5'-GTG CAG TAC ATT CTC CGC CAC C-3' (outside reverse), generating

MIA486 *vsIs165*; *tmc-1(ok1859) X* strain used in this study. To generate MIA487

vsIs165 tmc-2(ok1302) X, the same approach was used but the RB1237 *tmc-2(ok1302)*

X hermaphrodites was used instead when crossed with *vsIs165/+* males. mCherry(+)

progeny were confirmed to be homozygous for *tmc-2(ok1302)* using the following

primers: 5'-CAA TCG TCG TGG GAC CTT ATC ATC-3' (outside forward), 5'-CTA CAG

TGT CAT TAC TGA TGT TCT TC-3' (inside forward), 5'-CTC TTC TGT CCG TTC CTG

GAA ATG-3' (outside reverse). During construction of MIA486 and MIA487, we noticed

the loss of the *lite-1(ce314) X* mutation present in the original LX1919 starting strain as

tmc-1 and *tmc-2* genes, both of which are near *lite-1*, were being homozygosed. To

account for any changes in vulval muscle Ca^{2+} activity that arise from blue light

illumination rather than acute injection, a control strain MIA485 *vsIs165* was generated

by crossing N2 males with LX1919 hermaphrodites. Heterozygous cross-progeny

hermaphrodites with mCherry expression were selected, selfed, and loss of *lite-*

1(ce314) in the progeny was confirmed through genotyping.

MIA494 *vsIs165*; *tmc-1(ok1859) tmc-2(ok1302) X* was generated to image vulval

muscle Ca^{2+} activity in animals lacking both TMC-1 and TMC-2. Briefly, N2 males were

mated to RB1546 *tmc-1(ok1959)* hermaphrodites, and the resulting hemizygous (*tmc-*

1/Ø) males were then crossed with MIA487 hermaphrodites. The resulting cross-

progeny were then allowed to self until *tmc-1* and *tmc-2* mutations were confirmed to be

homozygous through genotyping.

<u>uv1 neuroendocrine cell Ca^{2+}</u>

Ca^{2+} activity of uv1 neuroendocrine cells was monitored in adult animals using MIA136

keyIs34 lite-1(ce314) lin-15(n765ts) X which expresses GCaMP5 and mCherry from the

tdc-1 promoter (Alkema et al., 2005) which provides stronger uv1 expression compared

to the *ocr-2* promoter previously used (Collins et al., 2016). To generate this strain, the

ocr-2 promoter was replaced with a 1.5 Kb region of the *tdc-1* promoter amplified from

Ptdc-1::ChR2 generously provided by Mark Alkema using oligonucleotides Ptdc-1new-

fwd: GCG GCA TGC CAC CTA ACT TCG TCG GTC and Ptdc-1-new-rev: GCG CCC

GGG GAT CCT TGG GCG GTC CTG, digested with SphI/XmaI, and ligated into

similarly digested pKMC281 [*Pocr-2::mCherry::ocr-2(3'UTR)*] or pKMC284 [*Pocr-*

2::GCaMP5::ocr-2(3'UTR)], generating pAB5 [*Ptdc-1::mCherry::ocr-2(3'UTR)*] and pAB6

[*Ptdc-1::GCaMP5::ocr-2(3'UTR)*]. pAB5 [*Ptdc-1::mCherry* (5 ng/µL)], pAB6 [*Ptdc-*

1::GCaMP5 (20 ng/µL)], and pL15EK (50 ng/µL) were injected into LX1832 *lite-*

1(ce314), lin-15(n765ts) animals, generating the extrachromosomal transgene *keyEx28*

which demonstrated bright and specific expression in the uv1 cells along with dim

expression in the RIM neurons. This transgene was then integrated to chromosomes

using UV/TMP to generate four independent integrants *keyIs34–37*, of which *keyIs34*

was used for this study.

<u>VC Ca^{2+}</u>

Ca^{2+}activity in the VC neurons was monitored in adult animals using strain LX1960

vsIs172; lite-1(ce314) lin-15(n765ts) X, as described (Collins et al., 2016). Ca^{2+} activity

levels were averaged from all VC cell bodies and process (VC1-VC6). However, due to

expression patterns, differences in focus, and the position of worms during recording,

not all VCs were captured in all experiments, especially VC1 and VC6 which are more

distant from the vulval-proximal VC4 and VC5.

<u>HSN Ca^{2+}</u>

Ca^{2+} activity in the HSNs was monitored in adult animals using LX2004 *vsIs183 lite-*

1(ce314) lin-15(n765ts) X, as described (Collins et al., 2016; Ravi et al., 2018b).

Egg accumulation at onset of egg laying

To determine the extent of egg accumulation at onset of egg laying, both wild-type and

MIA26 *egl-1(n986dm)* mutant animals were staged following the L4 molt as previously

described (Ravi et al., 2018a). Animals were observed for the first instance of egg laying

every 30 minutes (after a 4 h period for wild type and after a 16 h period for *egl-1(dm)*

mutants). Once an animal had laid its first egg, it was dissolved in a 20% bleach

solution, and the eggs in the uterus were counted as described (Chase and Koelle,

2004). The number of eggs in the uterus plus the number of eggs laid on the plate were

considered the total number of eggs accumulated at the onset of egg laying.

Microinjection protocol and flowrate estimate

To induce acute increases in pressure within *C. elegans* worms, we performed

microinjections essentially as described (Berkowitz et al., 2008). To create

microinjection needles, filamented glass capillaries (4", 1.0 mm outer diameter; World

Precision Instruments, 1B100F-4) were pulled using a Sutter P-97 Flaming/Brown type

micropipette puller using a custom program with the following parameters: Pressure =

500, Heat = 632 (ramp test value), Pull = 45, Velocity = 75, Delay = 90. Needles were

back-filled with injection buffer (2% polyethylene glycol, 20 mM potassium phosphate, 3

mM potassium citrate, pH 7.5) and then placed into a Narishige HI-7 injection holder.

Worms were injected using a Narishige IM-300 pneumatic microinjector with injection

pressure between 30 – 40 psi, unless otherwise noted. Injections were programmed for

a 3 s injection pulse and initiated manually using a foot pedal. To synchronize injection

onset with captured brightfield and fluorescence micrographs, the 'sync' voltage signals

of the microinjector were controlled and/or monitored using an Arduino Uno

microcontroller running the Firmata library in Bonsai (Lopes et al., 2015). Injections (3 s)

were triggered either using a foot-pedal or a TTL digital pin, and the timing of injection

onset was recorded using an analog pin. To assess consistency of injection needles,

the average flowrate of needles was calculated from brightfield recordings by measuring

the volume of a spherical drop of injection buffer injected into halocarbon oil. The

volume was calculated by measuring the expanding diameter of the drop in the first 20

frames of a three second injection (10 msec exposures recorded at 20 Hz). The

average flowrate of multiple needles pulled using this protocol was calculated to be 47

pL/s with a standard deviation of 15 pL/s (n = 10).

To perform microinjections, worms were placed into a small drop of halocarbon oil on a

2% agarose pad to immobilize them (Berkowitz et al., 2008). Animals were then placed

onto an inverted Zeiss Axio Observer.Z1 fluorescence microscope for imaging. A

Narishige coarse manipulator (model MMN-1) and a Narishige three-axis oil hydraulic

micromanipulator (model MMO-203) were used to position the tip of the needle next to

the gonad of the worm. Needles were then introduced along the dorsal surface into

either anterior or posterior gonad of the worm before initiating the recording (see

fluorescence imaging). The first 3 s injection was triggered 30 seconds after the onset of

synchronous brightfield and fluorescence recording. Subsequent injections were

performed in one-minute intervals. Before the end of the recording, the injection needle

was withdrawn from each animal, and the flowrate of the needle was once again

recorded to determine if the flowrate had changed materially during the injection. The

median flowrate from a subsample of 104 animal injections was 82 pL/s and ranged

between 10 and 365 pL/s. Such variation was seen to result from either needle tips

clogging or being open further as a consequence of injection, but this variability did not

seem to alter injection-induced responses (see optimization of microinjection protocol).

Brightfield and fluorescence recordings

To record egg-laying behavior during injections, a Grasshopper 3 camera (FLIR) was

used to capture 2 x 2 binned, 1,024 x 1,024 8-bit JPEG image sequences. Vulval

muscle, HSN, VC, or uv1 Ca^{2+} responses were recorded as described (Collins et al.,

2016; Ravi et al., 2018b). GCaMP5 and mCherry fluorescence was excited at 470 nm

and 590 nm, respectively, for 10 msec using a Colibri.2 LED illumination system.

Recordings were collected at 20 fps and a 256x256 pixel resolution (4x4 binning) using

a Hamamatsu Flash 4.0 V2 sCMOS camera recording at 16-bit depth through a 20x

Apochromatic objective (0.8NA). GCaMP5 and mCherry channels were separated via a

Gemini beam-splitter. Worms were recorded for 30 seconds prior to injection to

establish baseline levels of cell activity and were completed within five minutes to

reduce effects from worm desiccation after prolonged exposure to halocarbon oil. Image

sequences were imported into Volocity (Version 6.5.1, Quorum Technologies Inc.) for

GCaMP5/mCherry ratiometric analysis, image segmentation, Ca^{2+} quantitation of

GCaMP5/mCherry ratio changes ($\Delta R/R$), and Ca^{2+} transient peak finding, as described

previously (Collins et al., 2016; Ravi et al., 2018b).

Optimization of microinjection protocol

To ensure injections into control animals and the different mutants were comparable,

the correlation between flowrate and recorded calcium transient amplitudes was

analyzed. From this comparison, we found that flowrate had no significant effect on the

amplitude of the resulting vulval muscle Ca^{2+} transients **(**p-value = 0.5816; **Figure 1 –**

figure supplement 1B) and, as a result, the injection flowrate was allowed to vary.

Additionally, the correlation between flowrate and an egg-laying response was also

analyzed. This relationship also showed no significant correlation after performing a

logistic regression on the data (p-value = 0.0712; **Figure 1 – figure supplement 1C**).

Individual animals were injected multiple times to determine if subsequent responses

were comparable. We found that subsequent injections resulted in lower Ca^{2+} transient

amplitudes and were also less likely to result in an egg-laying event **(Figure 1 – figure**

supplement 1D). However, given the wide range of flowrates obtained among multiple

injections, we limited our analyses of injection-induced Ca^{2+} responses to each animal's

first injection.

To determine if the composition of the injection buffer influenced the Ca^{2+}

response, worms were injected with deionized water or Milli-Q water. Injections with

both types of water did not differ in their ability to induce comparable levels of Ca^{2+}

transient activity from the vulval muscles (p-value >0.05; **Figure 1 – figure supplement**

1E). However, we observed that when the injection buffer was made with Na^+ salts

instead of K^+ salts, a decrease in the average vulval muscle Ca^{2+} response was

observed (p-value = 0.0003; **Figure 1 – figure supplement 1E**) when compared to the

standard K^+ salt containing buffer. To ensure that the injection-induced response is not

a consequence of a disruption of the Na^+/K^+ gradient, low flowrate injections were

performed by decreasing injection pressure to 20 psi. In these low-flow experiments, we

observed that injections were more likely to fail to elicit a Ca^{2+} response even when the

'optimal' K^+ buffer was used. Injections were performed into either the anterior or

posterior gonad, with no significant difference in vulval muscle Ca^{2+} transient amplitude

or proportion of injection-induced egg laying observed (**Figure 1 – figure supplement**

1F – G). Attempts to determine if injections performed in other compartments (e.g. the

uterus) also drove vulval muscle Ca^{2+} activity were unsuccessful due to injection

needles frequently getting clogged (data not shown).

<u>Injections with bromophenol blue</u>

To visualize injections, and to determine if Ca^{2+} dynamics correlated with the rate of

liquid spread at lower flowrates (injection pressure 25 psi), a solution of 450 µM

bromophenol blue made in injection buffer was used as a fluorescent tracker (**Figure 1**

– figure supplement 2A). Bromophenol blue was excited at 590 nm alongside co-

expressed mCherry and collected through the same mCherry filter set. To determine if

the flowrate of injections influenced vulval muscle Ca^{2+} responses, worms were

manually injected (25 psi) by depression of the foot pedal until the bromophenol

fluorescence was seen by eye to reach the vulval muscles (**Figure 1 – figure**

supplement 2A). Bromophenol fluorescence was then quantified in Volocity. The Sum

of individual pixel intensities was used as a proxy of total volume delivered during the

course of each injection [(pixel area) x (16-bit fluorescence intensity for each pixel

above baseline) and with all such pixels summed].

To determine total volume injected, the maximum fluorescence intensity Sum of

all injections within a 2-minute period after injection was determined and used as a

proxy for volume injected. To ensure different injections were comparable, the lowest of

the Sum values for all injections was used to estimate a 'threshold volume injected'

value (26053363 AU). Injections in which this threshold 'volume' was reached within a

two-minute period were then analyzed. The flowrate of each injection was calculated by

measuring the slope of the injection fluorescence intensity Sum during the injection

period (**Figure 1 – figure supplement 2B**). At the same time, GCaMP5 fluorescence

intensity ($\Delta F/F$) from the vulval muscle response was quantified. From this, a significant

correlation was observed between the slope of the bromophenol blue fluorescence

intensity during injection and the vulval muscle GCaMP5 fluorescence peak amplitude

(**Figure 1 – figure supplement 2C**). Injections were then binned into two groups

depending on the median of all slopes obtained. All calculated slopes lower than the

median were categorized as a 'slow' injection while injections above the median were

categorized as 'fast' injections. From this, 'slow' injections were seen to elicit lower peak

Ca^{2+} amplitudes when compared to 'fast' injections (**Figure 1 – figure supplement 2D**).

This indicated that the rate at which an injection was performed significantly determined

the strength of the resulting vulval muscle Ca^{2+} response but only for injections

performed at these lower-than-typical injection pressures (25 psi). Since flowrate did not

significantly correlate with Ca^{2+} dynamics at injection pressures greater than 30 psi, to

optimize Ca^{2+} responses, and to reduce instances of needles clogging, injection

pressures used when testing animal responses were maintained between 30 – 40 psi.

Vulval muscle prodding protocol

To determine if the vulval muscles were receptive to mechanical stimulus, worms were

immobilized as per the microinjection protocol. A prodding needle with a 2.7 μm wide tip

was positioned next to either the anterior or posterior part of the vulva. To drive a

mechanical displacement onto the prodded vulva, a motorized stage was moved at a

range of distances (10 – 60 μm) in the direction of the needle to determine the optimum

displacement distance. Subsequent experiments used a blunt prodding probe (4.6 μm

wide tip), displaced 50 μm for one second. Image sequences were then segmented into

paired prodded and unprodded vulval muscle recordings as per the fluorescence

recording protocol. Paired Ca^{2+} responses in the 5 s period following the prodding

stimulus were averaged and analyzed.

Embryo volume estimation

To estimate the volume of an embryo, brightfield images of injection-induced egg-laying

events were collected, and embryos (n = 7) were measured for the lengths of the major

(length) and minor (diameter) axes. Measurements were averaged and the diameter

was calculated to be 27 μm while average length was 51 μm. Calculated embryo

volume was ~30 pL when approximated as a cylinder and ~20 pL when approximated

as an ellipsoid. Both measurements were averaged to estimate an approximate average

volume per embryo of 25 pL.

Pharmacological assays

Nemadipine: Nemadipine-B (Toronto Research Chemicals Inc.) was dissolved in DMSO

to 10 mM and added to melted NGM at 25 μM final concentration prior to media

solidification. Control plates containing an equivalent volume of DMSO were made on

the same day (0.1% DMSO (v/v) final concentration). Plates were seeded one day prior

to the experiment with a 10-fold concentrated OP50 bacteria cultured in B broth. Worms

were placed on nemadipine or DMSO plates for at least 1 h prior to microinjections but

no longer than 2 h to prevent excess egg accumulation.

Floxuridine: Animals were sterilized by exposure to floxuridine as described (Mitchell et

al., 1979; Ravi et al., 2018a). In this assay, L4 animals were staged onto NGM plates

seeded with OP50, 100 μL of floxuridine (10 mg/mL) was added directly on top of the

staged worms and OP50, and animals were incubated at 20 °C for 24 h. Animals were

then visually inspected for lack of embryo accumulation prior to selection for

microinjection.

Data analyses

Injection-induced Ca^{2+} transients were analyzed for the following characteristics: time to

peak, amplitude of peak, time to decay from peak, and whether egg laying occurred. We

defined 'Time to peak' as the time elapsed between the start of injection onset and

when the Ca^{2+} trace had reached its peak GCaMP5/mCherry (ΔR/R) value. 'Peak

amplitude' was defined as the peak value (ΔR/R). 'Decay time' was defined as the time

when cytosolic Ca^{2+} levels declined to 37% of their peak value. We chose 37% of the

peak value as our cutoff value to allow us to distinguish between different-order kinetics

of decay. Individual Ca^{2+} transient peaks were detected using a custom MATLAB script,

as described (Ravi et al., 2018b) and then confirmed via visual inspection of the

GCaMP5/mCherry traces from fluorescence recordings. Although multiple injections per

animal were often performed, quantitative analyses were performed only on the

responses elicited by the first injection. Data were omitted from analyses only for cases

in which liquid delivery failed (due to a clogged needle or spillage outside of animal).

Statistical analyses

Results were pooled over several days from at least 20 animals (unless otherwise

noted). No explicit power analysis was performed prior to the study, but these numbers

are in line with prior behavior experiments (Chase et al., 2004; Collins et al., 2016;

Collins and Koelle, 2013). Statistical analyses were performed using Prism 8

(GraphPad). Isogenic control animals were always tested alongside mutants to account

for possible batch effects. Animals were excluded from analyses when liquid delivery

failed to spread within the worm (visually determined from brightfield recordings). To

determine if there were any statistical differences between the Ca^{2+} responses elicited

by injections between wild-type and mutant worms, a Student's T-Test was performed.

In cases in which multiple genotypes or conditions were compared, the data were

analyzed by one-way ANOVA. The distributions of responses were tested for normality,

and in cases in which data were found to be non-normal, a nonparametric equivalence

test was performed (e.g., Mann-Whitney or Kruskal-Wallis). All tests were corrected for

multiple comparisons (Bonferroni for ANOVA, Dunn for Kruskal-Wallis). Details of which

test was performed for specific strains can be found in figure legends.

<u>Standard least squares regression for vulval muscle Ca^{2+} transient amplitude</u>

To determine which factor, as a consequence of injection, best predicted the vulval

muscle Ca^{2+} response, a standard least squares regression analysis was performed

with 'time to peak', 'decay time', 'number of eggs in uterus', and 'flowrate' as factors.

From this analysis, only 'number of eggs in uterus' significantly correlated with vulval

muscle Ca^{2+} transient amplitude ($p = 0.0095$).

<u>Nominal logistic fit for egg laying</u>

A similar analysis was performed to determine which factor best predicted egg release

following injection. The predictors used were 'vulval muscle Ca^{2+} transient amplitude',

'flowrate', 'time to peak', 'decay time', and 'number of eggs in uterus'. Only 'vulval

muscle Ca^{2+} transient amplitude was a significant predictor ($p < 0.0001$).

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Figure 1: Acute microinjection triggers vulval muscle Ca²⁺ activity and egg-laying behavior.

(A) Cartoon of *C. elegans* and micrograph demonstrating the injection technique. A microinjection needle (arrowhead; red outline) is inserted into the gonad (yellow outline) of an immobilized *C. elegans* worm (top). A 3 s pulse is applied to inject a standard microinjection buffer into the gonad syncytium. Unlaid eggs (cyan asterisks) are then monitored for injection-induced egg release through the vulva (white bracket). **(B)** Bar graphs showing the percent of wild-type or *unc-54(e190)* muscle myosin mutants animals laying eggs in response to injection. Error bars represent ±95% confidence interval for proportions; asterisks indicate p-value < 0.0001 (Fisher's exact test, n indicates number of animals injected per genotype). **(C)** Representative vulval muscle Ca²⁺ trace, determined from GCaMP5/mCherry fluorescence ratio, following a 3 s injection pulse (vertical cyan bar). Key features observed from a typical injection response are egg release (inverted triangle), peak amplitude (ΔR/R; open green circle), and decay time (s; filled red circle; time from peak amplitude to 37%). **(D)** Distribution of estimated injection flowrates obtained by measuring the change in diameter over time of injection buffer drops (yellow vertical line in inserted micrograph) into halocarbon oil immediately following needle withdrawal after worm injection. Error bars represent ±95% confidence interval for the mean proportion across 96 injections. **(E)** Scatterplot of time to egg-laying onset and number of eggs accumulated at egg-laying onset in wild-type (black) and *egl-1(n986dm)* HSN-deficient mutant animals (brown). Asterisks indicate p-value < 0.0001 (unpaired t-tests for differences in egg-laying onset and in egg accumulation). **(F)** Bar graphs comparing mean vulval muscle Ca²⁺ transient amplitudes

(±95% confidence interval) after injections that did not (black) and those that did (red)
result in egg release. Points in scatterplot show responses in individual animals.
Asterisks indicate p-value < 0.0001 (unpaired t-test). **(G)** Scatter plot, with a bivariate
linear regression comparing the relationship between the number of eggs accumulated
inside the uterus at the time of injection and the peak vulval muscle Ca^{2+} response
following injection (p-value = 0.0095; standard least squares regression for vulval
muscle Ca^{2+} transient amplitude; see 'statistical analyses' in methods).

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Figure 1 – figure supplement 1: Optimization of the injection protocol.
(A) Bar graphs comparing the mean injection-induced vulval muscle Ca^{2+} transient
amplitudes following injection into wild-type or *unc-54(e190)* muscle myosin mutant
animals (± 95% confidence intervals). Points in scatterplot show responses in individual
animals. Asterisks indicate p-value = 0.0004 (unpaired t-test). **(B)** Scatterplot with linear
regression (red line) of relationship between injection flowrate and resulting vulval
muscle Ca^{2+} transient amplitude; p-value = 0.4860 (not significant; standard least
squares regression for vulval muscle Ca^{2+} transient amplitude; see 'statistical analyses'
in methods). **(C)** Logistic regression comparing the relationship between injection
flowrate and egg release. Binomial responses with successful egg release (y) and no
egg release (n); p-value = 0.1665 (nominal logistic fit for egg laid; see 'statistical
analyses' in methods). **(D)** Representative Ca^{2+} trace after sequential injections into a
single animal. Vertical yellow lines represent injection pulses and orange trace indicates
resulting vulval muscle Ca^{2+} activity. A single egg-laying event following the first
injection is indicated with an inverted triangle. **(E)** Bar graph with scatterplot showing
mean vulval muscle Ca^{2+} transient amplitude (±95% confidence intervals) after a 3 s
injection with K^+ buffer (black, n = 19), Na^+ buffer (green, n = 18), deionized water (blue,
n = 7), or Milli-Q water (cyan, n = 8). Asterisks indicate p-value = 0.003; n.s. indicates p-
value > 0.05 (Kruskal-Wallis test with Dunn's correction for multiple comparisons).
Average bar graphs with scatterplot showing vulval muscle Ca^{2+} transient amplitude **(F)**
or percent of injection-induced egg laying **(G)** when injections were performed into
either anterior or posterior gonad.

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Figure 1 – figure supplement 2: Quantifying correlation of injection flowrate and vulval muscle Ca²⁺ responses using bromophenol blue.
(A) Cartoon of *C. elegans* and micrograph demonstrating injection with bromophenol blue reporter (magenta). Dashed yellow lines represent ventral and dorsal border of animal injected with bromophenol blue (magenta) and the resulted GCaMP5 (green) fluorescence in the vulval muscles (vm). **(B)** Representative traces of vulval muscle GCaMP5 (green; left axis) and bromophenol blue fluorescence (magenta; right axis) after injection used to estimate flowrate and volume delivered. Yellow vertical bar represents time of injection and dotted line represents the change in bromophenol blue fluorescence used to estimate volume injected per 3 s injection time (slope). **(C)** Scatterplot showing significant correlation between injection fluorescence intensity slope and the resulting vulval muscle Ca²⁺ transient peak amplitude across 35 injected animals (p-value = 0.0442). **(D)** Distribution of all injection fluorescence intensity slopes obtained. Slopes were binned as 'slow' (highlighted in orange) or 'fast' depending on whether they were below or above the median slope, respectively. **(E)** Bar graphs with scatterplot showing the mean vulval muscle Ca²⁺ transient peak amplitudes seen with 'slow' or 'fast' injections binned based on slope. Asterisks indicate p-value = 0.0012 (unpaired t-test, n ≥ 17 per group).

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Figure 2: Vulval muscle injection response is independent of egg availability or reproductive maturation.

(A) Diagram of experimental rationale. Floxuridine (FUDR)-treated wild-type or *fog-2(oz40)* sperm-deficient mutant animals were injected and vulval muscle Ca^{2+} activity was followed using GCaMP5. Orange ovals represent fertilized embryos in the uterus of control animals. **(B)** Representative injection-induced vulval muscle Ca^{2+} responses of control wild-type (black), wild-type sterilized with FUDR (red), and *fog-2(oz40)* mutant animals (green). **(C)** Bar graphs with scatterplot showing mean vulval muscle Ca^{2+} transient amplitudes following microinjection. Asterisk indicates p-value = 0.0105, and n.s. indicates p-value > 0.05 (Kruskal-Wallis with Dunn's correction for multiple comparisons; n ≥ 20 animals per condition). **(D)** Injection-induced Ca^{2+} responses for 1-day old adult (top; black trace) and late-L4 (bottom; orange trace) animals. Solid lines show the average Ca^{2+} responses, and lighter lines show responses from individual animals (adults, n = 19; L4 juveniles, n = 15). **(E-F)** Bar graphs with scatterplots showing mean vulval muscle Ca^{2+} amplitudes **(E)** and decay times **(F)**. Asterisk

1164   indicates p-value = 0.0139; n.s. indicates p-value > 0.05 (Mann-Whitney test). Vertical

1165   cyan bars show timing of 3 s microinjection. To facilitate comparisons, one data point

1166   with vulval muscle Ca^{2+} transient amplitude value of 2.99 ($\Delta R/R$) from an adult animal is

1167   not visible in D and E.

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Figure 3: Acute microinjection induces sequential Ca²⁺ activity across the entire egg-laying behavior circuit.

(A) Connectivity of the *C. elegans* egg-laying circuit (adapted from Collins et al., 2016). **(B-E)** Egg laying and normalized Ca²⁺ responses of the vulval muscles **(B)**, uv1 neuroendocrine cells **(C)**, VC motoneurons **(D)**, and HSN command motoneurons **(E)**, before and after a 3 s microinjection. Vertical lines show timing of egg-laying events pooled from all injected animals. Micrographs show Ca²⁺ activity in cell bodies (outlined in white) before and after injection; rainbow scale indicates GCaMP5/mCherry ratio in responding cells; blue indicates low Ca²⁺ and red indicates elevated Ca²⁺. White scale bar indicates 10 µm. Black solid line is a trace of the average Ca²⁺ response; colored bands indicate the 95% confidence interval (n ≥ 19 animals per trace). Vertical cyan line shows 3 s injection period. **(F)** Bar graphs with scatter plots showing time of half-max Ca²⁺ responses. **** indicates p-value < 0.0001, ** indicates p-value = 0.0013, and n.s. indicates p-value > 0.05 (Kruskal-Wallis test with Dunn's correction for multiple comparisons).

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Figure 4: The vulval muscle Ca²⁺ and egg-laying response to microinjection does not require synaptic or peptidergic input.

(A) Diagram highlighting the synaptic connections between cells of the *C. elegans* egg-laying circuit. Red "x" symbol on top of the HSNs represents the genetic removal of any input from the HSNs cells through use of *egl-1(n986dm)* mutants which lack HSN neurons. Tetanus Toxin (TeTx) was also transgenically expressed in the VC neurons to block neurotransmitter release. **(B)** Representative injection-induced vulval muscle Ca²⁺ responses of wild-type (black), HSN-deficient *egl-1(dm)* mutants co-expressing Tetanus Toxin in the VCs (brown), *unc-13(s69)* mutants with defective synaptic transmission, (magenta), and *unc-31(e928)* mutant animals with defective peptidergic transmission (blue). Vertical cyan bar represents the 3 s gonad injection. **(C-E)** Bar graphs with scatter plot showing mean time to vulval muscle Ca²⁺ transient peak (**C**), Ca²⁺ transient peak amplitude (**D**), and Ca²⁺ transient decay times (**E**) following injections (error bars represent mean ±95% confidence intervals). n.s. indicates p-value > 0.05 (one-way ANOVA with Bonferroni's correction for multiple comparisons). **(F)** Bar graphs showing percent of injections that resulted in an egg-laying event (mean ±95% confidence intervals for the proportion); n.s. indicates p-value > 0.05 (Fisher's exact test with Bonferroni's correction for multiple comparisons). Numbers inside bar graph indicate sample sizes; n ≥ 19 animals for all conditions.

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Figure 5: The vulval muscles are receptive to direct mechanical input.
(A) Diagram of experimental rationale. A glass capillary probe was used to mechanically stimulate either the anterior or posterior vulval muscles while observing changes in vulval muscle Ca^{2+} activity. **(B)** Representative still images of vulval muscle mCherry (magenta) and GCaMP5 (green) fluorescence prior to (top, t = 0 s) or immediately after (bottom, t = 30 s) mechanical stimulation with a stimulation probe (red outline). **(C)** Prodding protocol (top) in which the vulval muscles were prodded for 5 s every 30 s with increasing displacement distances (10 μm steps). Dose-response curve (bottom) showing the relationship between the displacement distance placed upon the vulval muscles and the percent of prodding events that resulted in a vulval muscle Ca^{2+} response (error bars represent ±95% confidence interval for proportions). **(D)** Representative vulval muscle Ca^{2+} traces following a 1 s prodding pulse (vertical cyan line) in unprodded (black, bottom trace) and prodded (red, top trace) vulval muscles. **(E)** Pair-wise comparison of the mean vulval muscle Ca^{2+} responses 5 s in the unprodded (black dots) and their adjacent prodded muscles (red dots). Asterisks indicate p-value < 0.0001 (paired t-test, n > 20 animals).

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**Figure 6: L-type voltage-gated Ca²⁺ channels are required for the vulval muscle
injection response.**

(A) Diagram (adapted from Lagoy et al., 2018) of experimental treatments. Worms were
placed on NGM plates containing either DMSO (normal condition) or 25 µM
nemadipine. **(B)** Representative injection-induced vulval muscle Ca²⁺ responses for
wild-type (black) or *egl-19(n582)* voltage-gated Ca²⁺ channel loss-of-function mutant
animals (orange), worms exposed to 0.1% DMSO (grey), and worms exposed to 25 µM
nemadipine (burgundy). Vertical cyan bar represents 3 s injection pulse. **(C)** Bar graphs
with scatterplot of mean vulval muscle Ca²⁺ transient amplitude in wild-type (black), *egl-
19(lf)* (orange), 0.1% DMSO-treated worms (grey), and nemadipine-treated animals
(burgundy) after injection. Asterisks indicates p-value < 0.0001 and n.s. indicates p-
value > 0.05 (one-way ANOVA with Bonferroni's correction for multiple comparisons; n
≥ 18 animals). **(D-E)** Heatmaps of vulval muscle Ca²⁺ before and after injections in
animals treated for ~2 hours with either 0.1% DMSO **(D)** or 25 µM nemadipine **(E)**. Each
row represents Ca²⁺ responses from an individual animal (n>20 animals). Negative time
values represent vulval muscle Ca²⁺ activity prior to the injection, vertical purple line
represents the start of the 3 s injection, and the diagram above the heatmap indicates
the 3 s injection pulse. **(F)** Bar graphs showing percent of injections that resulted in an
egg-laying event (mean ±95% confidence intervals for the proportion). Numbers inside
bar graph indicate sample sizes; n ≥ 18 animals per condition. Asterisks indicate p-
value < 0.0001; n.s. p-value > 0.05 (Pairwise Fisher's exact test).

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Figure 7: PIEZO and TMC channels are not required for the injection-induced vulval muscle Ca^{2+} and egg-laying response.

(A) Representative injection-induced vulval muscle Ca^{2+} traces after injection into wild-type (black) and *pezo-1(av149)* mutant animals (magenta). **(B)** Bar graphs with scatterplot showing mean vulval muscle Ca^{2+} responses of wild-type (black, n = 17) and *pezo-1* mutants (magenta, n = 20). Error bars indicate 95% confidence interval; n.s. indicates p-value > 0.05 (unpaired t-test). **(C)** Bar graphs showing percent of injections that resulted in an egg-laying event (mean ±95% confidence intervals for the proportion); n.s. indicates p-value > 0.05 (Fisher's exact test) **(D)** Representative injection-induced vulval muscle Ca^{2+} traces after injection into wild-type (black) and *tmc-1(ok1859); tmc-2(ok1302)* double mutant animals (blue). **(E)** Bar graphs with scatterplot showing mean vulval muscle Ca^{2+} responses of wild-type (black, n = 18) and *tmc-1; tmc-2* double mutants (blue, n = 21). Error bars indicate 95% confidence interval for the mean; n.s. indicates p-value > 0.05 (unpaired t-test). **(F)** Bar graphs showing percent of injections that resulted in an egg-laying event (mean ±95% confidence intervals for the proportion); n.s. indicates p-value > 0.05 (Fisher's exact test). Vertical cyan bars indicate 3 s injection. Numbers inside bar graphs indicate sample sizes.

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 Table 1: List of *C. elegans* strains used in this study

STRAIN	GENOTYPE	FEATURE	FIGURE(S)	REFERENCE
N2	Wild type	Bristol wild type	1	(Brenner, 1974)
CB190	*unc-54(e190) I*	Myosin heavy chain null mutant	1	(Brenner, 1974)
LX1918	*vsIs164 lite-1(ce314) lin-15(n765ts) X*	Vulval muscles expressing GCaMP5, mCherry	1 – 6, Figure 1 – supplement 2	(Collins et al., 2016)
MIA206	*unc-54(e190) I; vsIs164 lite-1(ce314) lin-15(n765ts) X*	Myosin heavy chain null mutant with GCaMP5 and mCherry reporters expressed in vulval muscles	Figure 1 – supplement 1, 1	This study
MIA26	*egl-1(n986dm) V*	No HSNs	1	(Garcia and Collins, 2019)
MIA289	*keyIs33; egl-1(n986dm) V; vsIs164 lite-1(ce314) lin-15(n765ts) X*	Lacks HSN neurons, expresses Tetanus Toxin in the VC neurons, and expresses GCaMP5/mCherry in vulval muscles	4	This study
MIA312	*unc-31(e928) IV; vsIs164 lite-1(ce314) lin-15(n765ts) X*	Dense core vesicle release mutant deficient in neuropeptide signaling. Also expresses GCaMP5 and mCherry in vulval muscles	4	This study
MIA316	*unc-13(s69) I; vsIs164 lite-1(ce314) lin-15(n765ts) X*	Synaptic vesicle fusion mutant deficient in neurotransmitter signaling. Also expresses GCaMP and mCherry in vulval muscles	4	This study
MIA136	*lite-1(ce314) lin-15(n765ts) keyIs34 X*	Expresses GCaMP5 and mCherry in uv1 neuroendocrine cells	3	This study
LX1960	*vsIs172; lite-1(ce314) lin-15(n765ts) X*	Expresses GCaMP and mCherry in VC neurons	3	(Collins et al., 2016)
LX2004	*lite-1(ce314) lin-15(n765ts) vsIs183 X*	Expresses GCaMP and mCherry in HSN neurons	3	(Collins et al., 2016)

MIA34	*fog-2(oz40) V; lite-1(ce314) lin-15(n765) vsls164 X*	Spermatogenesis mutants	2	(Schedl and Kimble, 1988)
MIA51	*keyls12; lite-1(ce314) lin-15(n765ts) X*	Expresses GCaMP5 and mCherry in vulval muscles from the *ceh-24* promoter for better expression in L4 animals.	2	(Ravi et al., 2018b)
MIA185	*egl-19(n582) IV; lite-1(ce314) lin-15(n765ts) vsls164 X*	L-type voltage-gated calcium channel loss of function mutant with vulval muscle GCaMP5 and mCherry	6	(Trent et al., 1983)
AG527	*pezo-1 (av149); lite-1(ce314) lin-15(n765ts) vsls164 X*	*pezo-1* mechanosensory channel mutant with vulval muscle GCaMP5 and mCherry	7	This study
MIA485	*vsls165*	Integrated transgenic mutant expressing vulval muscle GCaMP5 and mCherry without *lite-1* mutation normally used to prevent blue light avoidance	7	This study
MIA486	*tmc-1(ok1859) X; vsls165*	Transmembrane channel-like protein mutant with vulval muscle GCaMP5/mCherry	7	This study
MIA487	*tmc-2(ok1302) X; vsls165*	Transmembrane channel-like protein mutant with vulval muscle GCaMP5/mCherry	7	This study
MIA494	*tmc-1(ok1859), tmc-2(ok1302) X; vsls165*	Double mutant for *tmc-1* and *tmc-2* with vulval muscle GCaMP5/mCherry	7	This study

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Movie 1

Recording of vulval muscle GCaMP5 (green) and bromophenol blue (magenta)

fluorescence during microinjection overlayed over a brightfield recording of *C. elegans.*

Wild-type animals display an increase in vulval muscle (vm) Ca^{2+} activity that correlates

with the increase in injection volume (represented as traces within the video). Egg

release is coincident with peak vulval muscle GCaMP5 fluorescence.

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1272   **Movie 2**

1273   GCaMP5 to mCherry fluorescence ratio in uv1 cells of wild-type animals overlaid on top

1274   of brightfield recording during injection. Blue indicates low Ca^{2+}, and red indicates high

1275 Ca^{2+}. Red trace denotes uv1 Ca^{2+} response, triangle denotes egg release, and white

1276 horizontal bar denotes timing of the 3 s injection pulse.

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1278 **Movie 3**

1279 GCaMP5 to mCherry fluorescence ratio in VC neurons of wild-type animals overlaid on

1280 top of brightfield recording during injection. Blue indicates low Ca^{2+}, and red indicates

1281 high Ca^{2+}. Red trace denotes VC Ca^{2+} response, triangle denotes egg release, and

1282 white horizontal bar denotes timing of the 3 s injection pulse.

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1284 **Movie 4**

1285 GCaMP5 to mCherry fluorescence ratio in HSN neurons of wild-type animals overlaid

1286 on top of brightfield recording during injection. Blue indicates low Ca^{2+}, and red

1287   indicates high Ca^{2+}. Red trace denotes HSN Ca^{2+} response, triangle denotes egg

1288   release, and white horizontal bar denotes timing of the 3 s injection pulse.

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1290   **Movie 5**

1291   Recording of vulval muscle mCherry (magenta) and vulval muscle GCaMP5 (green)

1292   fluorescence during mechanical prodding of the posterior but not anterior vulval

1293   muscles. Cyan outline border of the prodding needle. White horizontal bar denotes

1294   timing of 1 s prodding stimulus.

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Movie 6

GCaMP5 to mCherry fluorescence ratio in vulval muscles of a DMSO-treated control

animal (top) and a nemadipine-treated animal (bottom) overlaid on top of respective

brightfield recording during injection. Blue indicates low Ca^{2+}, and red indicates high

Ca^{2+}. Red traces denote vulval muscle Ca^{2+} responses and white horizontal bar denotes

timing of the 3 s injection pulse. Inserts on right side of movie show a zoomed in

recording of vulval muscle Ca^{2+} response for control and Nemadipine-treated animals to

emphasize localization of Ca^{2+} activity. White arrowhead shows localization of residual

Ca^{2+} activity from vm1 muscles in nemadipine-treated animals.