A robotic system for automated genetic manipulation and analysis

of *Caenorhabditis elegans* on agar media

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Abstract

The nematode *C. elegans* is one of the most widely studied organisms in biology

due to its small size, rapid life cycle, and easily manipulated genetics. Research with

C. elegans depends on labor-intensive and time-consuming manual procedures.

Here we describe WormPicker, a robotic system capable of performing complex

genetic manipulations and other tasks by imaging, phenotyping, and selectively

transferring *C. elegans* on standard agar media.   Our system uses a motorized

stage to move an imaging system and a robotic arm over an array of plates. Machine

vision algorithms identify worms and assay their phenotypes, and the robotic arm

transfers worms between plates using an electrically self-sterilized wire loop. We

developed software to enable the system to autonomously carry out complex

protocols. We validated the effectiveness and versatility of our methods by

automating a collection of common *C. elegans* procedures, including genetic

crossing, genetic mapping, and genomic integration of a transgene.

Introduction

Classical genetics, which investigates the heritability of traits across generations,

usually requires manipulating reproductive behaviors of organisms and inferring their

genetic properties by assaying their traits. The microscopic nematode *C. elegans* is

one of the most widely used genetic models in the life sciences due to its easy

maintenance, optical transparency, and rapid life cycle[1,2]. Studies in *C. elegans* have

pioneered major fundamental advances in biology, including those in programmed

cell death[3], aging[4], RNA interference[5], and axon guidance[6]. Work with worms has

pioneered important techniques in modern biology including genome sequencing[7],

cell lineage tracing[3], gene editing[8], electron microscopic reconstruction of neural

connectivity[9], demonstration of green fluorescent protein[10], and optogenetic

manipulation of neural activity[11].

Genetic manipulations in *C. elegans* are performed by manual procedures,

involving identification of animals under a microscope and transfer of worms or

embryos from one plate to another using a wire pick[12].   While manual procedures

are reliable and technically simple, they have important limitations.

Manual methods are labor intensive since they require animals to be

manipulated individually.   This presents challenges to experiments that require

thousands of groups to be managed, for example conducting genetic screens[13],

working with collections of wild isolates[14], or dealing with mutagenized strains of the

Million Mutation Project[15].

During design of lab experiments, the use of manual procedures creates

practical limits to the number of conditions and the number of replicates for each

condition, weakening statistical power. Standard population sizes used for *C.*

elegans lifespan experiments have been shown to be underpowered for moderate

differences in lifespan between groups[16].

Finally, manual approaches require training and are prone to errors. This

reliance on investigator-learned skills imposes a barrier to entry for scientists without

C. elegans experience wishing to use this system.

To address the limitations of manual methods, automated high-throughput

genetic manipulations have been reported for bacteria and single cells in the field of

synthetic biology[17] and for adult *Drosophila*[18]. For work with *C. elegans*, methods for

automated imaging and sorting have been reported, including microfluidic devices[19-]

[23] and flow-cell based sorting methods[24,25]. However, to our knowledge no methods

for automated genetic manipulations in *C. elegans* have been reported.

Here we present WormPicker, a general-purpose robotic system allowing

automated phenotyping and genetic manipulation of *C. elegans* on agar substrates,

using comparable technique to current manual methods. Our method contains a 3D

motorized stage carrying a robotic arm and an optical system. The robotic arm

manipulates animals using a thin, electrically-sterilizable platinum wire loop.

Analogous to manual methods, the robotic arm picks worms by performing spatially

and temporally controlled motions above and on the agar surface, using food

bacteria to encourage the worm to adhere to the loop. Contact between the platinum

wire loop and the agar surface is perceived by a capacitive touch sensing circuit,

providing feedback along with the imaging system for fine adjustment of the pick

trajectory relative to the animal.

The optical system is capable of monitoring animals over an entire plate at low

magnification (6 cm diameter circular field of view (FOV)) while simultaneously

imaging individual animals at high magnification (1.88 mm x 1.57 mm FOV) to obtain

more detailed morphological and/or fluorescence information. Using machine vision

methods, worms can be recognized and tracked over the plates in low magnification

and undergo detailed phenotyping in high magnification across different attributes,

including developmental stage, morphology, sex, and fluorescence expression. We

developed system control software (WormPickerControl) through which the user can

specify multi-step genetic procedures to be performed by the automated system.

Using these automated tools, we successfully carried out three genetic

procedures commonly performed in *C. elegans* research.　　First, we generated a

genetic cross between transgenic and mutant animals using a classic genetic

hybridization scheme. Second, we performed genetic mapping of a genome-

integrated fluorescent transgene. Finally, we integrated an extrachromosomal

transgenic array to the genome, creating a stable transgenic line. Successful

completion of these complex genetic procedures demonstrates WormPicker's

effectiveness and versatility as a general-purpose automated tool for *C. elegans*

genetics.

Results

Overview of WormPicker system design

Our system contains a robotic picking arm, optical imaging system, lid

manipulators, and other elements, mounted on a 3-dimensional motorized stage to

work with an array of up to 144 plates (Fig. 1a-b, Supplementary Fig. 1).

The array of agar plates is housed on a platform (Fig. 1b), containing 8 trays that

can be prepared separately and then slid into the automated system (Methods,

Supplementary Fig. 2a,b). Each plate on the tray is labeled with an adhesive bar

code and text (Fig. 1a, Supplementary Fig. 2c-d). We developed software to track

plates during experiments using their barcode identifiers (Methods,　Supplementary

Fig. 2g-i).

The imaging system is designed for bright-field and fluorescence imaging through low- (0.035X) and high-magnification (10X) optical pathways. The low-magnification stream is of a 6 cm diameter circular field of view (FOV), capable of imaging one 6 cm diameter plate; the high-magnification has a 1.88 mm x 1.57 mm FOV, capable of imaging individual animals in detail. For bright-field imaging, light is collected by the main objective and divided into low and high magnification imaging streams by a beam splitter (Supplementary Fig. 3a). For fluorescence imaging, collimated excitation LEDs (center wavelengths 470 nm and 565 nm) and a fluorescence optics (Supplementary Fig. 3b-c) enable imaging in green (503 – 541 nm wavelength) and red (606 – 661 nm wavelength) channels (Supplementary Video 1) in the high magnification pathway.

To quickly bring a plate into focus, we use a laser-based autofocusing system (Fig. 1a, Methods, Supplementary Fig. 3d). A 532 nm laser pointer with a cylindrical lens generates a line projected onto the agar surface from an oblique angle, providing feedback for the motorized stage to bring the imaging system to the correct position.

Plate lids are manipulated by a vacuum gripping system (Fig. 1a, Methods, Supplementary Fig. 3e). Two lid handlers are mounted to either side of the main motorized gantry, for manipulating lids for a source plate and a destination plate separately (only one shown in Fig. 1a). Each vacuum lid gripper is raised and lowered by a motorized linear actuator (Supplementary Video 2).

The robotic picking arm (Fig. 1a, Supplementary Fig. 3f) contains a motorized

linear actuator for fine adjustment of the pick's height and three servo motors to

provide rotational degrees of freedom. The 3D-printed pick contains a platinum wire

loop attached to its end (Fig. 1c), for manipulating *C. elegans* in a manner analogous

to manual methods[12].

Conventional pick sterilization prior to manipulating *C. elegans* on agar

substrates requires an open flame, which poses safety risks in an automated

system. We adopted an electric sterilization approach (Fig. 1c) in which a current is

passed through the wire loop to sterilize it via resistive heating (Supplementary

Video 3).

Picking up *C. elegans* requires very fine control of the position of the pick to

avoid damage to the worm or the agar surface.   While the horizontal position of the

pick can be monitored by the imaging system, its height relative to the agar surface

is more difficult to determine.   To address this problem, we developed a capacitive

touch sensing circuit (Supplementary Fig. 3g), that monitors contact between the

platinum wire and agar surface and provides feedback for fine tuning the pick's

movements.

To pick up a worm (Fig. 1d), the wire pick is positioned above the agar (IP), with

a horizontal offset to the target worm.   The linear stepper actuator lowers the pick

until contacting the agar surface (TP) as perceived by the capacitive touch sensor

(Phase A).   Next, Servo 2 horizontally swipes the pick on the agar surface (Phase

B).   Servos 1 and 3 act simultaneously to perform a curved motion (Phase C) for

picking up the target animal using the outer side of the wire loop. To release the

worm from the pick to the substrate (Fig. 1e), the pick is positioned above the

substrate (IP); the linear stepper actuator vertically lowers (Phase A) the pick until it

touches the agar (TP); the Servo 2 horizontally swipes (Phase B) the pick on the

agar surface horizontally, to release the worm from the pick. Supplementary Video 4

depicts these operations as observed by the imaging system.

Machine vision enables automated identification and phenotyping

We developed machine vision analysis software for the low- and high-

magnification streams.

We analyze the low-magnification images (Fig. 2a) using a combination of a

convolutional neural network (CNN) and motion detection for tracking worms and the

pick in real time. High-magnification bright-field images (Fig. 2b) are analyzed by a

set of Mask-Regional CNNs (Mask-RCNNs)[26] capable of performing pixel-wise

object segmentations. Contours of individual animals are segmented by a Mask-

RCNN (Fig. 2b), and the contour geometries are analyzed for developmental stage

and morphology.   In addition, we trained separate networks for sex determination

and embryo detection.   Inferences from multiple Mask-RCNNs are integrated for

assaying phenotypes for individual animals over different attributes.

For high-magnification fluorescence imaging (Fig. 2c), we first apply intensity analysis, through which valid fluorescence regions are extracted from the background. To analyze fluorescence expression the fluorescence images are correlated with the animal contours segmented using the bright-field images, (Fig. 2c).

For details of machine vision approaches see Methods and Supplementary Fig. 5.

Automated throughput is comparable to that of experienced researchers

To compare the speeds of automated and manual picking, we evaluated the rates at which the robot and human researchers perform a fluorescent animal sorting task.   We used a strain in which some but not all worms carry a *myo-2::GFP*-labeled fluorescent extrachromosomal array (YX256); the task was to sort these worms into two plates containing fluorescent and nonfluorescent animals.

The robotic system sorted the animals (mixed stages) with a throughput of 3.21 ± 0.66 (mean ± SD) animals per minute (APM).

We recruited a group of *C. elegans* researchers (N = 21) to perform the same task using standard methods. The mean and median of the years of experience were 7.61 and 5 years. We tasked each volunteer to sort approximately 20 animals (of mixed stages) using a regular platinum wire pick[12] under a fluorescence stereo

microscope. The measured throughputs are plotted versus years of experience in

Supplementary Fig. 6. The manual picking throughput was 3.56 ± 1.67 (mean ± SD)

APM.   Both WormPicker and the researchers picked individual worms and sterilized

the pick between transfers.These results show that the throughput of our robotic

system for this fluorescence worm sorting task is comparable to that of experienced

human researchers.

Scripting toolsets enable complex genetic manipulations

In order for WormPicker to be useful for practical laboratory work, the basic

elements of identifying and transferring worms need to be combined to form complex

genetics procedures. To that end, we developed system control software,

WormPickerControl (Supplementary Fig. 7a). An Application Programming Interface

(API) enables the user to write scripts for specifying *C. elegans* procedures to be

carried out by the automated system. We developed a library of source scripts, each

responsible for a specific task ranging from simple to complex. We constructed a

database through which the automated system is able to catalog a set of plates

throughout the experiments based on the machine vision readable unique barcode

identifiers (Fig. 1a, Supplementary Fig. 2).

Using WormPickerControl, we developed and tested a collection of genetic

procedures commonly undertaken in *C. elegans* labs (Fig. 3, 4, and 5). These are

209   not intended to be a complete set of genetic protocols, but rather to provide a useful

210   initial framework that can be modified and adapted to other experiments as needed.

Automated genetic cross

The genetic cross, by which two or more mutations or transgenes are combined,

is performed by placing males together with hermaphrodites on the agar surface of a

Petri dish[27]. While monitoring the plates, researchers pick cross-progeny with

desired phenotypes. Most genetic crosses require manipulating animals over

multiple generations.

We automated a genetic cross between two *C. elegans* strains: *dop-1p::GFP*

fluorescent transgenic (LX831) and a *dpy-5(e61)* mutant (CB61) (Fig. 3). The LX831

strain contains an integrated transgene *vsIs28 [dop-1p::GFP]* and has a green

fluorescent phenotype: GFP expressed in several cell types including some neurons

and muscles (Fig. 3a). The *dpy-5* mutant has a Dumpy (Dpy) phenotype,

characterized by a morphology that is shorter and stouter than wild-type animals

(Fig. 3b). The *vsIs28* transgene is dominant (i.e. both heterozygotes and

homozygotes show green fluorescence) whereas the *dpy-5* mutation is recessive

(i.e. only the homozygotes show the Dpy phenotype). The resulting hybridized strain

displays both phenotypes of two parental strains, i.e., it is both Green and Dpy (Fig.

3c).

[Fig. 3](#)d depicts the genetic cross. WormPicker picked 17 L4 males from an N2

wild-type population that consisted of a mixture of males and hermaphrodites. It also

picked 4 L4 hermaphrodites from the LX831 strain to the same plates. Green males

were visible in the progeny, indicating that the mating was successful. Next, six

Green L4 *vsIs28* heterozygous males and two *dpy-5* homozygous L4

hermaphrodites were picked onto a plate for mating. We consider this mating the

parental (P0) generation.

Filial generation 1 (F1) progeny included animals that were Green and not Dpy.

These were the desired worms heterozygous for both *vsIs28* and *dpy-5* and were

therefore transferred by WormPicker to fresh plates. The automated system

screened over the plate and singled two F1 hermaphrodites with the wanted

phenotypes.

Four phenotypes were observed in the F2 generation, including Dpy-Green,

Dpy-non-Green, non-Dpy-Green, and non-Dpy-non-Green. The frequency of desired

Dpy-Green phenotype was ~10%. WormPicker inspected the F2 populations and

singled 3 Dpy-Green animals.

F3 populations descending from each of the three F2s were 100% Dpy but only

75% Green indicating that they were homozygous for *dpy-5* but heterozygous for

vsIs28. WormPicker then singled 11 Dpy-Green worms.

The automated system screened for percentages of Green F5s descending from

each of eleven F4s and identified one line displaying homozygous fluorescent, i.e.,

100% of F5s were Green.

The results were verified manually by an experienced *C. elegans* researcher by

noting that the resulting strain was positive for both Green and Dpy phenotypes, and

that these phenotypes bred true in subsequent generations.

Automated genetic mapping of a transgene

The identification of the genotype causing a particular phenotype usually

requires genetic linkage analysis. The first step in such analysis is the identification

of the chromosomes harboring the genetic change.

C. elegans has six chromosomes, of which five are autosomes and one is the X

chromosome. Hermaphrodites are diploid for all of six chromosomes, while males

are diploid for five autosomes and haploid for the X chromosome.

Genetic mapping in *C. elegans* can be performed by setting up genetic crosses

between the strain of interest and a set of marker strains, and measuring the

segregation pattern between the marker phenotypes and the phenotype of interest.

We used WormPicker to perform an automated genetic mapping of an integrated

red fluorescent transgene *vsIs33 [dop-3p::RFP]* (LX811) (Fig. 4). This strain has a

Red phenotype, i.e. RFP is expressed in cells expressing the DOP-3 dopamine

receptors (Fig. 4a).

We evaluated the linkage of *vsIs33* to autosomes by setting up crosses between

our strain of interest (LX811) and a set of balancer strains. These balancer strains

are labeled by *myo-2::GFP* markers and have a Green phenotype (GFP expressed

in pharyngeal muscles) (Fig. 4b). We used the reciprocal translocations *hT2*[28] *[qIs48]*

(I;III), *eT1*[29,30] *[umnIs12] (III;V)*, and *nT1*[31-33] *[qIs51] (IV;V)* to test for linkage to large

portions of chromosomes I and III, III and V, and IV and V, respectively. We used the

inversion *mIn1*[34] *[mIs14] (II)*, to test for linkage to chromosome II (Fig. 4c,

Supplementary Fig. 8-11, Methods).

WormPicker picked L4 Green males from the balancer strains and

hermaphrodites from the strain of interest (LX811) for mating. WormPicker then

screened for F1 Red-Green hermaphrodites, a few of which were subsequently

singled. The double-fluorescent F1 hermaphrodites self-fertilized and produced F2s,

where the percentages of Red among non-Green animals were assessed to test for

linkage between *vsIs33* and particular autosomes. According to classic genetic

theory, linkage of the transgene to the tested balancer chromosomes would yield

100% of non-Green animals to be Red, whereas non-linkage of the transgene to the

balancer would be reflected by 75% Red among non-Green progeny.

For testing linkage to the X chromosome, WormPicker generated a genetic cross

between LX811 hermaphrodites and wild-type males harboring a dominant

extrachromosomal transgene *qnEx615 [myo-2p::GFP]* (NQ1155) (Methods), which

helped us to identify F1 cross-progeny. As shown in Fig. 4c, F1 Red-Green males

were picked out for mating with N2 (wild-type) hermaphrodites. F2s were screened

by the robotic system, and the observed percentage of Red among males was used

for quantifying the degree to which *vsIs33* is linked to the X chromosome. The theory

predicts that none of the F2 males would be Red if X-linked, and that 50% of the F2

males would be Red if not X-linked (Supplementary Fig. 12).

To quantify the strength of linkage we defined a linkage Index ranging from -1 to

1, where 1 implies the strongest possible linkage and 0 the weakest (Fig. 4d). Our

data indicated strong linkage of *vsIs33* both to *eT1* and *nT1*, and no linkage to *hT2*,

to *mIn1*, or to the X chromosome. Since both *eT1* and *nT1* balance a large portion of

chromosome V, our results imply that the RFP transgene is located on chromosome

V.

Genomic integration of a transgene

Transgenic *C. elegans* are usually generated by microinjection, through which

cloned DNAs can be delivered to the distal gonadal arm, forming extrachromosomal

transgenic arrays[35,36]. To provide stable inheritance and expression the transgenic

arrays can be integrated to the genome. A proven method for genomic integration

is to irradiate the strain of interest, causing breakage in chromosomes, which

triggers DNA repair, a process through which the transgenic arrays can be ligated to

the chromosomes by chance[35]. Due to the low frequency of integration events,

identifying animals with transgene integrated requires isolating at least several

hundred individual worms and screening for 100% inheritance of the transgene in

subsequent generations, a highly labor-intensive task[37]. In particular, the need to

single hundreds of animals can consume a substantial amount of time, even for

experienced *C. elegans*.

Using WormPicker, we performed a genomic integration of an *acr-2p::DOP-3*

extrachromosomal array labeled by a green fluorescent marker *unc-47p::GFP*

(YX293) (Fig. 5). The strain displayed approximately 65% transmission of the

transgenic arrays to the next generation. To create the P0 worms, we irradiated 68

L4s with ultraviolet light (254 nm, 30 mJ/cm^2). WormPicker isolated 216 F1s to

individual plates.   From these plates, the automated system isolated 612 of their

progeny (F2s) to individual plates. The F2 animals were manually screened for

100% transmission of the transgene to F3s and F4s. Among those, two lines were

identified as true independent integrants.

Discussion

In this work, we have demonstrated that WormPicker can automate a variety of

C. elegans genetics procedures usually performed by manual methods. In addition,

our user-friendly scripting tools provide flexibility for carrying out customized

experiments as well as integrating the robotic system into diverse genetic screens

and analyses, potentially including pharmacological screening[38,39], screening for

aging phenotypes[4,40,41], and studies of natural genetic variation[42].

The deep-learning-aided machine vision methods we developed here, capable of segmenting individual animals and assaying them across different attributes, may find other applications for *C. elegans* studies, for example in analyses of locomotion[43,44], aging[45,46], and sleep[47].

Our self-sterilizing loop design can be used for automatically manipulating other microscopic organisms, for example other nematodes, *Drosophila* larvae, bacteria, and fungi.

It Is important to acknowledge the limitations of our work. For a simple fluorescent animal sorting task, the throughput achieved by WormPicker with a single robotic arm was somewhat smaller than the average of that of experienced researchers. However, it has the advantage of being able to work continuously without fatigue and to conduct a large number of operations in parallel.

Worms sometimes cluster together in a way that makes it difficult to pick a single individual. We have demonstrated that WormPicker's machine vision is able to segment individual animals in high-resolution images on highly populated plates (Supplementary Fig. 6d). For the experiments presented here, we programmed the robot to perform intermediate picking (Methods) before transferring worms to their destinations, as a method of handling clusters of animals. In addition, brief blue light illumination[45,49] or plate vibration could be used to disperse clusters of animals.

Although WormPicker's machine vision system works well for worm recognition and tracking for the wild-type and dumpy strains involved here, the current

algorithms trained on wild-type worms may not be effective for some mutants with

unusual morphologies.

We expect all worm manipulations will continue to involve some degree of

manual work in conjunction with the automated system. The researcher must

prepare plates, load and unload them on the trays, and select the appropriate

operations. The effective integration of WormPicker to lab work will require

determining which genetic operations are most amenable to automation and which

are better left to manual work. The goal of our work is not to fully automate

experiments, in the sense that the human is no longer needed, but rather to provide

tools to increase the productivity of the researcher.

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Methods

Mechanical setup

The frame for our robotic system consists of a 1.5 m x 1 m rectangular framing system constructed from aluminum extrusions (OpenBuilds V-Slot 20 x 20 mm, 20 x 40 mm, and C-Beam 40 x 80 mm).

WormPicker's optical system and picking arm are moved by a motorized stage along 3 axes: X (1 m long), Y (1.5 m long), and Z (0.3 m long), In addition, there is a linear carriage under the plate tray that moves the illumination and plate tracking system. All axes are driven by stepper motors. For the X and Y axes, motors mounted to the carriage drive motion via a belt attached to both ends of the rail. For the Z axis, a stepper motor drives motion through rotation of a lead screw.

The maximum speed for the X axis was set to 146.67 mm/s, Y axis 146.67 mm/s, and Z axis 8.33 mm/s. The maximum acceleration for the X axis was set to 120 mm/s^2, Y axis 120 mm/s^2, and Z axis 10 mm/s^2. Stepper motors' motions are controlled through a PC via an OpenBuilds BlackBox motion control system using GRBL firmware.

All aspects of the robotic system were controlled by an Origin PC with an Intel(R) Core i9-10900K CPU at 3.7 GHz and 64 GB of RAM, running Windows 10.

Plate tray platform

We constructed a plate tray platform for housing an array of agar plates. The platform holds eight slide-in trays (Supplementary Fig. 2a), each of which is made of two laser-cut transparent acrylic boards (upper layer 3 mm thick, lower layer 4.5 mm thick) sandwiching a 16.26 µm-thick aluminum foil layer (Supplementary Fig. 2b). The function of the foil layer is to increase the capacitance change detected by the capacitive touch sensing circuit (Supplementary Fig. 3g) when the picking arm contacts the agar surface. Each tray is held by the framing rails, enabling the user to remove or replace the plate trays by sliding in and out (Supplementary Fig. 2a). Each plate tray is locked into place by a turn latch (McMaster, 1579N12). Coordinates of individual wells on the platform are calibrated and stored in a configuration file.

Plate tracking system

We developed methods for tracking agar plates throughout the experiment. A printed adhesive label containing a machine-readable barcode and human-readable text (Supplementary Fig. 2c) was attached to the side of each agar plate.

We designed the barcode label to contain 24 black bars, each representing one bit by its thickness (Supplementary Fig. 2c): a thick bar encodes 1, and a thin one 0. The thickness of each white space between the bits is the opposite of that of the bar to its left, such that every bit has the same length. Starting from the left, the first 20

bits encode the barcode's number as a 20-bit positive binary integer; the next 3 bars

encode the MOD-8 checksum of the number, used by the algorithm to verify its

decoding result. The final bar is always thin, and it functions as a checkpoint as the

algorithm searches for its presence and stops decoding when the 24th bar is found.

We built a machine vision system for imaging and reading the barcode from

beneath the plate tray (Supplementary Fig. 2d). A camera acquires label images

through two lenses, and two LEDs provide uniform illumination onto the label

(Supplementary Fig. 2e-f).

We developed machine vision algorithms (Supplementary Fig. 2g-i) for reading

the barcode identifier. We train a barcode-finding Mask Regional Convolutional

Neural Network[26] (BcMRC) for identifying the barcode in the image. We curated a

training dataset containing 520 648-pixel x 486-pixel images, in which the contours

of individual barcodes were manually labeled. The BcMRC was adapted from a

pretrained ResNet-50-FPN[26] backbone, and imported through the PyTorch library.

The training was performed with a Stochastic Gradient Descent (SGD) optimizer at a

CPU (i7-10750H) and the model converged after 9 epochs. The model generates

contour segmentation for the object most likely to be the barcode in the image

(Supplementary Fig. 2g) (we assume there is only one barcode visible in the image).

The mean Intersection over Union (IoU) score of the mask prediction and the ground

truth is 0.942 (N = 120).

The BcMRC-predicted mask is split into 10 bins in the horizontal direction, and a

scanning line is generated by connecting the centroids of each bin (Supplementary

Fig. 2g). For each point on the scanning line, intensities of pixels lying in 10% FOV

height upper and lower than the point are averaged for calculating the local intensity.

From the left to right, the local intensity can be plotted along the scanning line

(Supplementary Fig. 2h). Then, the local intensity profile is binarized by a threshold

$H = (p_{0.1} + p_{0.9})/2$ (Supplementary Fig. 2i), where $p_{0.1}$ and $p_{0.9}$ are the 10 and 90

percentile values of the intensity profile. After thresholding, a bit is decoded as "1" if

the width of the black portion is larger than its complementary white portion right next

to it, otherwise, "0". The 20-bit number and the 3-bit checksum (red and blue in

Supplementary Fig. 2i) are then converted from binary to decimal to obtain the

unique identification number associated with the plate of interest T and its

checksum C. If the checksum test passes, i.e., $T \bmod 8 = C$, then the barcode is

decoded successfully; otherwise, an error is reported.

We constructed a database for cataloging a set of plates throughout the

experiments (Methods). Information of individual plates can be looked up from the

database through their unique identifiers. The database stores the key information

including but not necessarily limited to the positions on the tray, strain names,

genotypes, phenotypes, and histories. The database is arranged in a human- and

machine-readable .csv format.

Dual-magnification multimodal optical imaging system

To implement bright-field imaging we constructed an illumination system under the platform, in which light from a white LED is diffused by a ground glass and collimated by a Fresnel condenser lens (Supplementary Fig. 3a). The low and high-magnification imaging paths share a single objective lens (achromatic doublet, focal length 100 mm). Light from the plate is collected by the main objective, then divided into the low and the high magnification imaging streams by a beamsplitter (ratio of transmission : reflection is 90% : 10%). The low-magnification image is relayed to a machine vision camera by a camera lens, while the high-magnification image is formed at a CMOS camera through a set of teleconverter lenses and a tube lens. The high-magnification pathway is an infinity-corrected microscopy system that can support both bright-field and fluorescence imaging.

For fluorescence imaging (Supplementary Fig. 3b-c), two collimated excitation LEDs (center wavelengths 470 nm and 565 nm) and a set of dual-band fluorescence optics (Chroma 59022) are built in the infinity space in the high-magnification pathway. The spectra of the fluorescence optics were selected to enable both GFP and RFP imaging.

Switching between the imaging modes can be achieved by digital relay circuits controlling the excitation LEDs and the under-platform illumination (Supplementary Fig. 3a-c, Supplementary Video 1). The specifications of the optics used in the imaging system are listed in Supplementary Table 1.

Imaging focus control

The distance between the main objective lens and the agar surface is monitored by a custom-built laser-based level monitor (Fig. 1a, Supplementary Fig. 3d). A 532 nm laser containing a cylindrical lens generates a line lying in the y axis that is focused by a lens and projected onto the agar surface at an oblique angle (Supplementary Fig. 3d). Then, the distance between the objective lens and the agar surface then can be monitored by the position of the laser line observed by the imaging system. The 3D motorized stage brings the objective to the correct position, at which the agar surface lines up with its focal plane, by aligning the observed laser line to a previously calibrated position.

Lid handler

Lids are manipulated by two custom-built vacuum handlers mounted to the carriage of the 3D motorized stage (Fig. 1a, Supplementary Fig. 3e). Each handler consists of two 3D-printed sliding sockets holding a silicone tube, motorized by a micro linear actuator (Actuonix, PQ12-30-12-S). A tube fitting is attached to the end of the vacuum line. The height of the vacuum interface is controlled by the linear actuator and the vacuum is switched on or off by a solenoid valve (GRANZOW, H2U29-00Y).

To remove a lid, the main moving gantry positions the vacuum interface above the lid, the solenoid valve activates the vacuum, the linear actuator lowers the vacuum holder, the lid becomes attached by suction to the holder, and the linear

actuator raises the holder and the lid (Supplementary Video 2). To restore a lid, this

process is reversed.

Robotic picking arm

We custom-built a robotic arm (Supplementary Fig. 3f) for manipulating *C. elegans* on agar media using a wire loop. The robotic picking assembly consists of a linear stepper actuator, three stepper servo motors, and a custom-designed 3D-printed worm pick (Fig. 1c). The linear stepper actuator fine tunes the z height of the picking arm through a linear carriage. The stepper servo motors are chained orthogonally to provide 3 degrees of freedom in rotation, i.e., θ, ω, φ (Fig. 1a), for the worm pick. The 3D-printed worm pick is mounted to the Servo S1. The design allows two copper wires to fit into the pick stem from the proximal end, and these two wires are connected by a portion of looped platinum wire (90% Pt, 10% Ir, 254 µm diameter) at the distal end of the pick (Fig. 1c). The platinum wire is crimped to copper contact pins for attaching to the end of the pick.

To sterilize the pick, the platinum wire loop is connected to the heating power supply (5V DC) by closing Relay 1 and 2, which is controlled by a LabJack (Supplementary Fig. 3g). The resulting 4.5 A DC current sent through the wire heats the loop to a temperature we estimate to exceed 1,000 ºC (Fig. 1c, Supplementary Video 3).

We used the wire loop as a capacitive touch sensor (Supplementary Fig. 3g) to monitor contact between the wire and the agar surface and provide feedback for

picking trajectories. For capacitive touch sensing, the platinum wire loop is first cut

off from the heating circuit by opening Relay 2 (disconnecting the wire loop from the

heating wires is essential for the capacitive touch sensing to function properly). The

capacitive change due to the contact between the wire loop and the agar surface is

sensed by a capacitive touch sensor chip. The capacitive touch sensor is powered

by the LabJack, which also monitors its voltage output.

Pick focus control

For centering the pick tip to the high-magnification FOV, the user specifies the

coordinates of the target point (x_f, y_f) in the low-magnification images to the system,

and the system moves the pick tip to this position for the pick tip to be visible in the

high-magnification FOV (see Methods for pick tracking). For estimating the z height

for the pick tip to be in optimal focus in the high-magnification pathway, the system

monitors the mean intensity of the top 20% darkest pixels $\overline{I_{20}}$ of the high-

magnification image as a measure of focus (Supplementary Fig. 4). The system sets

the z height z_f at which the $\overline{I_{20}}$ is minimized as the pick tip focus height. The

system records the positions read out from the linear stepper actuator and the three

servos, i.e., $(l_f, s_{f1}, s_{f2}, s_{f3})$, when the pick tip is at the focus position (x_f, y_f, z_f).

To pick a worm, the system positions the pick tip right above the remembered

focus position, i.e., $(x_f, y_f, z_f - \Delta z)$, where Δz is a predefined small amount of

height offset (approximately 2 mm). We set the position $(x_f, y_f, z_f - \Delta z)$ to be the

initial position (IP in Fig. 1d and e), prior to carefully lowering the pick until touching

the agar (Phase A in Fig. 1d and e).

We measured the precision of moving the pick tip to the remembered focus

position in x and y axes. The mean deviation between the target focus position

and the actual position of the pick tip is 290 μm (SD = 161 μm) in x and 250 μm

with (SD = 173 μm) in y (N = 342). This precision allows the system to move the

pick tip to the focus position directly by setting the $(l_f, s_{f1}, s_{f2}, s_{f3})$ to the linear

actuator and the servos, without any closed-feedback-loop centering procedures,

improving the worm picking speed.

Pick motion trajectories for manipulating *C. elegans*

To pick up a worm (Fig. 1d), the wire pick is positioned above the agar, with a y-

offset to the target worm (IP).   The linear stepper actuator vertically lowers (phase

A, change in z) the pick until contacting the agar surface (TP) as perceived by the

capacitive touch sensor.   Next, Servo 2 horizontally swipes (phase B, change in ω)

the pick on the agar surface in $+y$.   Next, Servo 1 and 3 act simultaneously to

perform a curved motion (phase C, change in θ and φ) for picking up the target

animal using the outer side of the wire loop (FP). During phases A-C, the motor

speeds are maximized.

To put down the worm to the substrate (Fig. 1e), the pick is positioned above the

substrate (IP).   The linear stepper actuator vertically lowers (phase A, change in z)

the pick until touching (TP), monitored by the capacitive touch sensor.   Next, Servo

2 horizontally swipes (phase B, change in ω) the pick on the agar surface in $-y$,

during which the worm detaches from the wire in $+y$; for some cases the worm stick

to the inner side of the wire loop, the moving stage swipes (phase C, change in x)

the pick in $-x$.   Finally, Servo 1 vertically raises (phase D, change in φ) the pick

from the substrate (FP). Motor speed is tuned down to lower levels for different

phases, and waiting times were added between transitions between phases.

Parameters for the pick motion trajectories are listed in Supplementary Table 2,

with the sign convention depicted in Fig. 1a.

Machine vision

C. elegans tracking in the low-magnification imaging stream

We used a combination of machine learning and motion detection for tracking *C.*

elegans over the plate in the low-magnification imaging stream.

We trained WormCNN, a convolutional neural network (CNN) for making a

binary prediction of whether a 20-pixel x 20-pixel region of interest (ROI) contains

one or more worms. The structure of the WormCNN is depicted in Supplementary

Fig. 5a. We curated a training dataset containing 43,568 training images, 50%

worms, and 50% backgrounds (Supplementary Fig. 5b). With a batch size of 24 and

an SGD optimizer (momentum = 0.9), the model converged after 10 epochs. The

accuracy of the network is 97.23% on 10,784 test images (balanced test set, i.e.,

half worms and half backgrounds). The trained network was saved as a .onnx file,

which is imported to the system control software through the OpenCV DNN module.

In addition to the results from machine learning, we integrated motion

information for identifying worms over the plate. For a 20-pixel x 20-pixel ROI, we

constructed a simple motion detector by taking two frames Δt seconds apart,

subtracting the pixel values, and summing up the pixel differences Δp within the

ROI. If the Δp is higher than a threshold p_h, i.e., $\Delta p > p_h$, then is it highly likely that

the ROI contains worms. To determine the threshold, the automated system

measured the pixel change for a group of animals (Mixed stages, N > 150) in its

individual ROI in the past Δt seconds $(p_1, p_2, p_3, \dots, p_N)$, and we set the threshold as

the mean value of the observation, i.e., $p_h = \frac{\sum_1^N p_N}{N}$.

We programmed the machine vision for *C. elegans* tracking functioning in two

modes: Finding mode and Tracking mode. With the purpose of rapidly identifying

worms over the agar plate, the Finding mode functions in a two-step manner: first it

runs the motion detector over the entire image, then feeds the 20-pixel x 20-pixel

ROI of the spots with movement detected, i.e., $\Delta p > p_h$ to the WormCNN, which

generates a binary decision to indicate whether any animals present in the ROI. The

coordinates of the ROI passing the criteria above are set to be the coordinates of the

worms identified.

In contrast to the Finding mode that relies on both motion detection and machine

learning, the Tracking mode is able to track the worms solely using the WormCNN,

supplemented by subpixel processing. For a worm having a known coordinate

$C_{n-1} = (X_{n-1}, Y_{n-1})$ in the image for the frame $n-1$, the Tracking mode updates the

worm coordinate in the frame n by a few steps.

First, it constructs an 80-pixel x 80-pixel rectangular tracking region, centering at

C_{n-1}. Second, it splits the tracking region image into multiple 20-pixel x 20-pixel ROIs

separated by a constant step size in x and y direction, and each of those is fed to

the WormCNN to generate a confidence score wcs for each ROI. The confidence

score is the output of the final fully connected layer of the WormCNN, indicating the

likelihood of the input ROI containing any worms. Third, it calculates the centroid of

the wcs for all the WormCNN ROIs in the tracking region, and sets it to be the worm

coordinate in the frame n, i.e., $C_n = (X_n, Y_n)$. Assuming that there are a total number

of m WormCNN ROIs in the tracking region, X_n and Y_n are obtained by

733
$$X_n = \frac{1}{WCS} \sum_{i=1}^{m} wcs_i x_i \; ; \; Y_n = \frac{1}{WCS} \sum_{i=1}^{m} wcs_i y_i$$

where wcs_i, x_i, and y_i are the confidence score, x, and y coordinates of centroid

of the i-th WormCNN ROI, $WCS = \sum_{i=1}^{m} wcs_i$, the total confidence score of all the

WormCNN ROIs.

The worm tracking region centers at $C_{n-1} = (X_{n-1}, Y_{n-1})$ and the WormCNN

ROIs are constructed from the tracking region; this means x_i, and y_i are dependent

on the coordinate of the worm in the frame $n-1$, i.e., C_{n-1}, the last known

coordinate of the worm being tracked. Therefore, x_i and y_i can be written as $x_{n-1,i}$

and $y_{n-1,i}$ for indicating the temporal dependency. In short, the Tracking mode

updates the coordinates of worms (X_n, Y_n) in the current image by the last seen

coordinates (X_{n-1}, Y_{n-1}) by

744
$$(X_n, Y_n) = \left(\frac{1}{WCS} \sum_{i=1}^{m} wcs_i x_{n-1,i} \, , \frac{1}{WCS} \sum_{i=1}^{m} wcs_i y_{n-1,i} \right)$$

Using a combination of the Finding and Tracking mode, WormPicker is able to

rapidly identify and move induvial animals to some target points in the image, e.g.,

the high-magnification FOV, preparing for imaging and manipulation. This process

involves a few steps.

First, the system runs the Finding mode to identify the coordinates of worms in

the image, i.e., (X_w, Y_w). Then, the main gantry moves the image of the animal to the

target point by translating by ΔX_g and ΔY_g in x and y direction, where ΔX_g and

ΔY_g are calculated by

753
$$\Delta X_g = \frac{X_t - X_w}{dp/dG}; \Delta Y_g = \frac{Y_t - Y_w}{dp/dG}$$

Where X_t and Y_t are the initial x and y coordinates of the target point in the

image, dp/dG the amount of the pixel shift corresponding to one unit movement in

the main gantry. By making the gantry movement above, the worm is viewed in

proximity to the target point.

The worm can be kept centered at the target point by running the Tracking mode

while the gantry is continuously making small-step jogging motions in x and y. The

movements of the jogging in x and y are given by

761
$$dX_g = \frac{X_t - X_{n,w}}{|X_t - X_{n,w}|} S; dY_g = \frac{Y_t - Y_{n,w}}{|Y_t - Y_{n,w}|} S$$

762   where $X_{n,w}$ and $Y_{n,w}$ are x and y coordinates of the worm in the current frame n,

763   and S the predefined step size for the gantry jogging.

Pick wire loop tracking in the low-magnification imaging stream

We applied machine learning for tracking the pick wire loop in the low-

magnification imaging stream. We trained PickCNN, a CNN for determining whether

a 20-pixel x 20-pixel ROI contains the pick tip. The backbone of the PickCNN is the

same as WormCNN (Supplementary Fig. 5a). We curated a training dataset

containing 872,550 images, 50% containing the pick tip and 50% the background

(Supplementary Fig. 5c). With an SGD optimizer, the model was trained on a GPU

(NVIDIA GeForce GTX 1660). The accuracy of the network is 99.36% on 50,400 test

images (balanced test set, i.e., half pick tips and half backgrounds).

We applied the PickCNN, supplemented with subpixel processing, to track the

pick tip in real time. A 640-pixel x 480-pixel (2 cm x 1.5 cm) rectangular region

centered at the low-magnification image is defined for tracking the pick tip inside that

region. This tracking region then is split into multiple 20-pixel x 20-pixel ROIs with a

constant skip step in x and y direction, each of those is fed to the PickCNN for

generating a confidence score pcs for each ROI. The confidence score pcs is the

output of the final fully connected layer of the PickCNN, indicating the likelihood of

the ROI containing the pick tip.

Assuming there is only one picking arm visible, among all the PickCNN ROIs,

the one with the highest pcs is considered the closest to the actual pick tip position.

By performing subpixel processing surrounding the ROI with the highest pcs and

the centroid coordinate of (x_h, y_h), the coordinate of the pick tip position (X_p, Y_p)

can be inferred by

$$\left(X_p, Y_p\right) = \left(\frac{1}{PCS}\sum_{i=1}^{n} pcs_i x_i, \frac{1}{PCS}\sum_{i=1}^{n} pcs_i y_i\right); \forall (x_i, y_i): \sqrt{(x_i - x_h)^2 + (y_i - y_h)^2} < r$$

where pcs_i, x_i, and y_i are the confidence score, x and y coordinates of the

centroid of the i-th PickCNN ROI, $PCS = \sum_{i=1}^{n} pcs_i$, the total confidence score of the

PickCNN ROIs. The equation above indicates that all the PickCNN ROIs having

pixel distance to (x_h, y_h) less than a threshold r are taken into subpixel processing

for determining the pick tip position (X_p, Y_p). We set the threshold $r = 60$ pixel

(1.85 mm).

We measured the precision of tracking the pick tip in x and y axes. The mean

deviation between the tracked position and the actual position of the pick tip is 94.9

μm (SD = 43.0 μm) in x and 284.5 μm (SD = 147.2 μm) in y (N = 225).

C. elegans segmentation in the high-magnification imaging stream

We trained a Worm-finding Mask Regional Convolutional Neural Network[26]

(WorMRC), for pixel-wise segmentation of individual animals in the high-

magnification FOV. We curated a training dataset containing 2,697 images, each

612 x 512 pixels, over different developmental stages, ranging from L1 larvae to

adults, in which the contours of individual animals were manually labeled. The

WorMRC was adapted from a pretrained ResNet-50-FPN[26] backbone, and imported

through the PyTorch library. With an SGD optimizer (momentum = 0.9), the model

was trained at a GPU (NVIDIA GeForce GTX 1660 Ti) and converged after 10

epochs. The model outputs bounding boxes for the objects that are likely to be

worms and generates contour segmentation for the object within each bounding box.

WorMRC robustly segments individual animals over complex backgrounds

(Supplementary Fig. 5d). Contour areas of individual animals (of mixed stages, L1 –

Adults) segmented by WorMRC verse manual segmentation gold standard are

plotted in Supplementary Fig. 5e. The areas of WorMRC predicted worm contours

present high consistency with the ground truth, R^2 = 0.972 (N = 690).

Developmental stage determination

The developmental stages of the animals in the high-magnification images are

inferred by their lengths. The centerline of the individual worm contour can be

obtained by the methods previously reported[50]. We obtained the lengths for different

developmental stages from the literature[51] and obtained the decision boundaries for

approximately identifying developmental stages: L1s are < 370 µm, L2s 370 – 500

µm, L3s 500 – 635 µm, L4s 635 – 920 µm, adults > 920 µm.

Morphological analysis

To perform the genetic cross between the *dpy-5* mutant and *dop-1p::GFP*

transgenic (Fig. 3) we developed an algorithm for assaying the Dumpy (Dpy)

phenotype. The *dpy-5* mutant displays shorter and stouter morphology than control

animals.   We measured the aspect ratio AR of the animal, $AR = \frac{A}{L^2}$, where A is the

area of the contour segmented by the WorMRC and L the length of the centerline of

the worm contour[50]. We used the automated system to acquire images of *dpy-5*

mutants (CB61) and wild-type animals (N2) (N = 190).

Based on this dataset, we determined a AR threshold for identifying Dpy

animals for unseen worms. ARs of individual Dpy and wild-type animals are plotted

in Supplementary Fig. 5f. With an 80-20 train-test split, we constructed a one-

dimensional support vector machine (SVM) to classify Dpy and wild-type phenotypes

based on the AR. The SVM-generated decision boundary gives 100% accuracy on

both the training and the test sets (Supplementary Fig. 5f). We recorded this

threshold to classify future samples: if a worm has an AR greater than the threshold,

then the worm is classified as Dpy; otherwise it is classified as having wild-type

morphology.

Sex determination

C. elegans males and hermaphrodites display distinct tail morphologies, with a

fan structure visible in the tails of males. We trained a sex-determining Mask

Regional Convolutional Neural Network[26] (SexMRC), for determining the sexes of *C.*

elegans based on the high-magnification images. We curated a training dataset

containing 6,860 images (612 x 512 pixels), in which contours of heads, tails for

hermaphrodites, and tails for males, were manually labeled. The SexMRC was

adapted from a pretrained ResNet-50-FPN[26] backbone, and imported through the

PyTorch library. The model was trained with an SGD optimizer (momentum = 0.9) at

a GPU (NVIDIA GeForce GTX 1660 Ti) and the model converged after 7 epochs.

The model outputs bounding boxes for the objects that are likely to be *C. elegans*

heads, tails for hermaphrodites, and males, as shown in Supplementary Fig. 5g. The

network identifies males with 100% precision and 85.71% sensitivity (recall) and

identifies hermaphrodites with 92.45% precision and 92.45% sensitivity (recall) (N = 74).

Embryo detection

We trained an Embryo-finding Mask Regional Convolutional Neural Network[26] (EmbMRC), for identifying embryos in the high-magnification images. We curated a training dataset containing 454 images (612 x 512 pixels), in which the contours of unhatched embryos were manually labeled. The EmbMRC was adapted from a pretrained ResNet-50-FPN[26] backbone, and imported through the PyTorch library. The network was trained with an SGD optimizer, at a GPU (NVIDIA GeForce GTX 1660 SUPER) and the model converged after 10 epochs. The model outputs bounding boxes for the objects that are likely to be embryos and generates contour segmentation for the objects within each bounding box (Supplementary Fig. 5h). Supplementary Fig. 5h shows the image overlayed with EmbMRC segmentations when a few, a medium number of, and a larger number of embryos present in the FOV. The numbers of embryos counted by EmbMRC are highly consistent with results from manual counting ($R^2 = 0.9772$, N = 124) (Supplementary Fig. 5i).

Fluorescence phenotyping

Using the multimodal imaging system (Supplementary Fig. 3a-c), the automated system is able to observe different fluorescent markers expressed in *C. elegans*. The genetic experiments we presented in this study require determining whether the individual animals carry fluorescent markers.

To do this, the automated system moves to view individual worms in the high-

magnification FOV and captures one bright field and one fluorescence frame,

between which the elapsed time is ~250 ms. The bright field frame is then delivered

to the WorMRC for obtaining the contour segmentations for the individual worms

found in the high-magnification FOV; while the fluorescent frame is binarized by a

threshold h_i, and the bright spots obtained after the thresholding are filtered

according to their sizes, for reducing noise. The bright spots with sizes larger than a

threshold h_s are kept as true fluorescent spots; otherwise, they are discarded. Both

h_i and h_s were manually calibrated on the strains of interest, and they can vary

across different strains and imaging conditions. For each worm identified in the

bright-field image, we dilate the contour mask to compensate the potential mismatch

between the bright-field and fluorescent frames due to the worms' free-roaming

behaviors during the acquisition elapsed time, i.e. the ~250 ms. The animals cut off

by the FOV boundaries were filtered out for fluorescence phenotyping, preventing

false negatives.

For a moderately bright fluorescent transgenic strain (LX811, Fig. 4a), the

algorithm classifies fluorescence phenotypes for individual worms of mixed stages

with an accuracy of 97.16% (N = 211). Imaging and processing parameters for

fluorescence phenotyping for different experiments are listed in Supplementary

Table 3.

Intermediate picking

Depending on the application, the automated system may be required to precisely transfer a single animal with some desired phenotypes and stray animals are strictly prohibited, for example, isolating F2s for identifying a transgenic integrant (Fig. 5). For those experiments, we programmed the automated system to perform intermediate picking if multiple worms or/and unhatched embryos founded in the high-magnification FOV by the WorMRC or/and EmbMRC. The system first inspects all the animals in the high-magnification image, if none of them carries desired phenotypes, the system inspects other animals; if at least one carries the desired phenotypes, the robotic arm picks up the target animal, possibly along with surrounding ones. Then, the system puts the animals down onto a fresh intermediate plate and waits a few seconds allowing the worms to move. The system then picks up the single worm with the desired phenotypes.

Verification of the transfer results

Verifying whether the animal was successfully transferred to the destination plate is done via a two-step strategy. First, the automated system attempts to put down the worm in the high-magnification FOV, and it observes whether any worms can be found in the FOV using the WorMRC. If so, the transfer is deemed as a success, otherwise continuing with the next step. Second, it observes whether any animals crawling out from the proximity of the spot where the worm was put down in the low-magnification FOV. If there are any such animals, the operation is deemed a success.

912   Using human observation as the gold standard the verification strategy has

913   97.22% accuracy for verifying the results of transfer attempts (N = 108); the transfer

914   success rate is 94.83% (N = 58).

915 WormPickerControl and WormPickerLib

For WormPicker to perform useful work, the basic elements of identifying and

transferring worms need to be combined to form multi-step genetics procedures. For

this purpose, we developed system control software, WormPickerControl

(Supplementary Fig. 7a).   This software is written in Python for the frontend and

C++ for the backend. The frontend is an Application Programming Interface (API),

enabling the user to write scripts for specifying tasks to be performed by the

automated system. We developed utilities in the API for initiating resources,

generating scripts, managing a set of scripts, and supplementing the API to send the

script commands to the C++ backend.

To further improve speed, we set up multiple threads in the C++ backend for

separately handling image acquisition, image processing, hardware control, and

script execution. We developed a library of source scripts, WormPickerLib, in the

C++ backend, executing each of which enables the hardware to perform specific

tasks. The user has full access to WormPickerLib through the Python API, by which

the user has the flexibility to combine a set of scripts for generating custom

protocols.

We bridged up channels connecting the Python API, WormPickerLib, and the hardware for script execution management and data transfer.

We constructed a database, storing information in .csv format, through which the automated system is able to catalog a set of plates throughout the experiments. The API and WormPickerLib interact with the database, i.e., data reading and writing.

We constructed a Mask-RCNN segmentation server, written in Python, responsible for making Mask-RCNN inferences on the images acquired from different cameras. The segmentation server loads the multiple Mask-RCNN models from the saved .pth files, including WorMRC, SexMRC, EmbMRC, and BcMRC. We built client-server sockets connecting WormPickerLib to the Python segmentation server, through which images acquired by the C++-controlled hardware are sent to the corresponding Mask-RCNN models, and the inference results are sent back to the software for subsequent processing (Supplementary Fig. 7a).

WormPickerLib contains commands for performing a set of common *C. elegans* genetics procedures, which are categorized into low-, mid-, and high-level scripts. Elements in the library, along with their names and descriptions are tabulated in Supplementary Table 4. We arranged the call stack architecture in a hierarchy (Supplementary Fig. 7b).

The low-level scripts enable the system to execute individual basic actions, such as sterilizing the pick, finding a worm with some desired phenotypes, picking, and putting down the worm. The mid-level scripts are composed of multiple low-level

scripts chained in series, for example, picking multiple animals with some desired

phenotypes from a source to a destination. The high-level scripts are one iteration

above the mid-level scripts, enabling the system to carry out complete *C. elegans*

genetic procedures. The high-level scripts consist of a group of mid-level scripts

arranged in a timed and conditional manner. The user has the flexibility to develop

custom mid-level or high-level procedures using elements in WormPickerLib.

Taking the genetic mapping experiment (Fig. 4c) as an example, Supplementary

Fig. 7b depicts the representative scripts, along with their key input arguments, used

for generating a genetic cross between two strains JK2810 and LX811. The user

wrote high-level scripts, CrossWorms, SingleWorms. ScreenPlates, for instructing

WormPicker to set up the mating of P0, singling F1s, and screening F2s,

respectively (Fig. 4c). Execution of CrossWorms relied on calling the mid-level script

PickNWorms twice, each time for picking a certain number of males or

hermaphrodites to a plate for mating. Then, each time PickNWorms was executed

by iterating a set of low-level scripts, combining the set of basic actions of imaging

and manipulation.

Strains

We cultivated all the *C. elegans* strains used in this study in the dark at 20°C on

nematode growth medium (NGM) plates with OP50 bacteria using standard

methods[52]. The strains used are described in Supplementary Table 5. All

experiments were carried out at room temperature.

Theory of the genetic mapping experiment

Using the automated methods, we performed genetic mapping of an RFP transgene *vsIs33 [dop-3p::RFP]* using classic genetics. The linkage of *vsIs33* to different chromosomes is revealed by setting up genetic crosses between the strain of interest (LX811) and a set of genetic balancers having *myo-2::GFP* markers.

The first genetic balancer strain we used was JK2810, carrying *hT2*[28] reciprocal translocation in I and III, for determining linkage to I and III. As shown in Supplementary Fig. 8, WormPicker crossed JK2810 males with LX811 hermaphrodites and picked out F1 cross-progeny that were both Red and Green. According to the theory, the F2 self-progeny descending from these double-fluorescent F1s would display a segregation pattern for the Red and Green, as shown in the Punnett squares (Supplementary Fig. 8). If *vsIs33* is on neither I nor III, the theory predicts 75% of non-Green animals would be Red, i.e., P (Red | non-Green) = 0.75 (Supplementary Fig. 8a); while if *vsIs33* is on either I or III, 100% of non-Green would be Red, i.e., P (Red | non-Green) = 1 (Supplementary Fig. 8b).

Using the same scheme, to determine linkage to other autosomes, the automated system performed genetic crosses between LX811 and other GFP-labeled genetic balancers, picked double-fluorescent F1 cross-progeny, and screened for the segregation pattern of Red and Green in F2s. These balancer strains include VC170, carrying *mIn1*[34] inversion in II (Supplementary Fig. 9), CGC34, carrying *eT1*[29,30] reciprocal translocation in III and V (Supplementary Fig. 10), JK2958, carrying *nT1*[31-33] reciprocal translocation in IV and V (Supplementary

). For all the autosomal genetic balancers, the theory predicts 75% of non-

Green F2s would be Red if unsuccessfully balanced, and 100% if successfully

balanced.

Probing the linkage to the X chromosome requires a different scheme

(). WormPicker crossed wild-type males harboring a dominant

extrachromosomal transgene *qnEx615[myo-2p::GFP]* (NQ1155) with LX811

hermaphrodites, and picked out double-fluorescent F1 males, which were

subsequently crossed with N2 (wild-type) hermaphrodites. The theory predicts none

of F2 males would be Red if the transgene of interest is X-linked, and 50% if not X-

linked.

The patterns in F2s observed by the automated system, together with the linked

and unlinked patterns in theory, are depicted in a-b.

For each autosomal linkage test described above, WormPicker screened over

F2s and obtained the number of non-Green animals that were Red, N_{A1}, and non-

Red, N_{A2}, and the total number of non-Green animals screened, $N = N_{A1} + N_{A2}$

(a). The red bars represent the observed percentages of Red

among non-Green animals, $p_{A1} = \frac{N_{A1}}{N_{A1}+N_{A2}}$, while the gray bars the percentages of

non-Red among non-Green animals, $p_{A2} = \frac{N_{A2}}{N_{A1}+N_{A2}}$. Each error bar indicates one

standard deviation SD_A higher and lower than the observed percentage under the

unlinked assumption, where $SD_A = \sqrt{\frac{p_{AUL}(1-p_{AUL})}{N}}, p_{AUL} = 0.75$.

Similarly, for testing X-linkage, the automated system screened over F2s and

obtained the number of males that were Red, N_{X1}, and non-Red, N_{X2}, and the total

number of males screened $N = N_{X1} + N_{X2}$ (Supplementary Fig. 13b). The red bar

represents the observed percentage of Red among males, $p_{X1} = \frac{N_{X1}}{N_{X1}+N_{X2}}$, while the

gray bar the percentage of non-Red among males, $p_{X2} = \frac{N_{X2}}{N_{X1}+N_{X2}}$. Each error bar

indicates one standard deviation SD_X higher and lower than the observed

percentage under the X-unlink assumption, where $SD_X = \sqrt{\frac{p_{XUL}(1-p_{XUL})}{N}}, p_{XUL} = 0.5$.

To quantify the linkage strength, we designed a quantity to measure the

similarity between the link pattern in theory and the observed pattern and name it

Linkage Index. Supplementary Fig. 13c shows the intuitive understanding of the

Linkage Index.

To derive the Linkage Index, we first vectorize the link $\boldsymbol{W}_L$ and unlink $\boldsymbol{W}_{UL}$

patterns in theory and the observed pattern $\boldsymbol{W}_{obs}$ as following,

$$\boldsymbol{W}_L = \begin{bmatrix} p_L \\ 1 - p_L \end{bmatrix}, \boldsymbol{W}_{UL} = \begin{bmatrix} p_{UL} \\ 1 - p_{UL} \end{bmatrix}, \boldsymbol{W}_{obs} = \begin{bmatrix} N_1 \\ N_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

For the autosomal linkage test, p_L and p_{UL} are the percentage of non-Green

animals that would be Red for the link and unlink pattern in theory, i.e., $p_L = 1, p_{UL} =$

0.75; N_1 and N_2 the observed count numbers of non-Green animals that were Red

and non-Red. For the X linkage test, p_L and p_{UL} are the percentage of males that

would be Red for the X-link and X-unlink pattern in theory, i.e., $p_L = 0, p_{UL} = 0.5$; N_1

and N_2 the observed count numbers of males that were Red and non-Red.

Let $\boldsymbol{e}_L$ and $\boldsymbol{e}_{UL}$ be the unit vectors pointing to the same direction as $\boldsymbol{W}_L$ and

$\boldsymbol{W}_{UL}$, i.e.,

1038
$$\boldsymbol{e}_L = \frac{\boldsymbol{W}_L}{\|\boldsymbol{W}_L\|}, \boldsymbol{e}_{UL} = \frac{\boldsymbol{W}_{UL}}{\|\boldsymbol{W}_{UL}\|}$$

1039   ($\|\ \|$ denotes the L2-norm of the vector). Then we set $\boldsymbol{e}_L$ and $\boldsymbol{e}_{UL}$ as basis vectors

1040   and $\boldsymbol{W}_{obs}$ can be expressed in terms of the basis

1041
$$\boldsymbol{W}_{obs} = v_1 \boldsymbol{e}_L + v_2 \boldsymbol{e}_{UL} = [\boldsymbol{e}_L, \boldsymbol{e}_{UL}]\boldsymbol{v}_{obs}$$

1042   where $\boldsymbol{v}_{obs} = \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \end{bmatrix}$ is the coordinate of $\boldsymbol{W}_{obs}$ with respect to the basis $\boldsymbol{e}_L$ and $\boldsymbol{e}_{UL}$.

1043 $\boldsymbol{v}_{obs}$ can be obtained by

1044
$$\boldsymbol{v}_{obs} = [\boldsymbol{e}_L, \boldsymbol{e}_{UL}]^{-1}\boldsymbol{W}_{obs}$$

1045   where $[\ ]^{-1}$ denotes the inverse of the matrix. The coordinates of basis vectors

1046   themselves are $\boldsymbol{v}_L = [\boldsymbol{e}_L, \boldsymbol{e}_{UL}]^{-1}\boldsymbol{e}_L = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$ for $\boldsymbol{e}_L$ and $\boldsymbol{v}_{UL} = [\boldsymbol{e}_L, \boldsymbol{e}_{UL}]^{-1}\boldsymbol{e}_{UL} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ for

1047 $\boldsymbol{e}_{UL}$.

1048   Next we define the Linkage Index $Lidx$ as the cosine similarity between the

1049 $\boldsymbol{v}_{obs}$ and $\boldsymbol{v}_L$:

1050
$$Lidx = cos\ \theta = \frac{\langle \boldsymbol{v}_{obs}, \boldsymbol{v}_L \rangle}{\|\boldsymbol{v}_{obs}\| \cdot \|\boldsymbol{v}_L\|}$$

where θ is the angle formed by the $\boldsymbol{v}_{obs}$ and $\boldsymbol{v}_L$ (Supplementary Fig. 13c) and

$\langle\ \rangle$ denotes the vector inner product. If the observed pattern is close to the link

pattern, then $\theta \to 0$, yielding $Lidx \to 1$, implying a strong linkage to the

chromosomes of interest.   If on the other hand the observed pattern is similar to the

unlink pattern, the $\theta \to 90°$, yielding $Lidx \to 0$, implying a weak linkage. Note that

we cannot draw any conclusions when $Lidx \to -1$ because it suggests the

observed pattern far deviated from both the link and unlink patterns in theory.

The observed Linkage Indices for *vsIs33* over different chromosomes are shown

in Supplementary Fig. 13d. We found that *vsIs33* displays strong linkage to either

III or V and, to either IV or V, suggesting the transgene of interest is linked to V (Fig.

4d).

Figures

Fig. 1 WormPicker system configuration

 Fig. 1 | WormPicker system configuration. a, WormPicker geometry. *C. elegans* is manipulated by

 a wire pick motorized by servo motors and a linear stepper actuator. Animals are imaged by an

 optical imaging stream. Lids are manipulated by a vacuum grabbing system. The imaging and

 manipulation assemblies are mounted on a 3D motorized stage. **b**, WormPicker system overview. A:

plate tray platform; B-D: x, y, z linear rails for the motorized stage. E: optical imaging system; F: lid

handler; G: robotic picking arm; H: LED illuminator. **c**, Photograph of the 3D-printed pick, captured

when the wire loop being sterilized by an electric current. **d**, **e**, Schematic of pick motion trajectories

for *C. elegans* picked up from and put down to agar substrate. TP: agar-touching position; FP: final

position. **f**. Timeline for stages throughout the automated *C. elegans* transfer. **g-j**: key frames

captured by the high-magnification camera during the Picking up (**g**, **h**) and Putting down stage (**i**, **j**).

Fig. 2 Overview of machine vision approaches

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Fig. 2 | Overview of machine vision approaches. Machine vision algorithms for analyzing frames

acquired from the low- (**a**) and high-magnification (**b**-**c**) imaging streams. The low-magnification

frames (**a**) are analyzed for tracking worms and the pick in real time. The high-magnification bright-

field images (**b**) are processed by a set of Mask-Regional CNNs (Mask-RCNNs) for close inspection

on individual animals. Worms' contours are segmented by a Mask-RCNN (pink solid-line contours),

and their developmental stages (including embryos), sexes, and morphological features can be

assayed. The high-magnification fluorescent images (**c**) are subject to intensity analysis for identifying

fluorescent markers in GFP and RFP channels. White dash-line: animal contours segmented in the

bright field.

Fig. 3 Automated genetic cross in *C. elegans*

Fig. 3 | Automated genetic cross in *C. elegans*. WormPicker generated a genetic cross between

animals carrying an integrated fluorescent transgene *vsIs28 [dop-1p::GFP]* and *dpy-5(e61)* mutants.

a-c, GFP expression in the strain carrying *vsIs28* (**a**), *dpy-5* (**b,** worm contour marked by the white

1092 dash line), and their hybridization *vsIs28*; *dpy-5* (**c**). **d**. Schematic of the genetic cross, with worms'

1093 phenotypes and events depicted by the legend.

Fig. 4 Automated genetic mapping of a transgene in *C. elegans*

Fig. 4 | Automated genetic mapping of a transgene in *C. elegans*. WormPicker performed a

genetic mapping of a red fluorescent transgene *vsIs33 [dop-3p::RFP]*. **a**. RFP expression in the

transgenic strain carrying *vsIs33* (LX811). **b**. GFP expression in the *myo-2::GFP*-labeled genetic

balancer strains. **c**. Schematic of linkage test on chromosomes with worms' phenotypes depicted by

the legend and the event code same as Fig. 3d. **d**. Linkage of *vsIs33* over chromosomes, quantified

by the Linkage Index in a heatmap. x axis: indices of the chromosomes; y axis: list of genetic

balancers on distinct set of the chromosomes.

Fig. 5 Genomic integration of a transgene

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Fig. 5 | Genomic integration of a transgene. WormPicker automated a genomic integration of a

unc-47p::GFP-labeled extrachromosomal array *qhEx265 [acr-2p::DOP-3 unc-47p::GFP]*. The image

shows the GFP expression of the array of interest. The figure depicts the schematic of the transgene

genomic integration with worms' phenotypes and events depicted in legend. WormPicker undertook

all the picking tasks throughout the experiment. Finally, two integrated lines were manually identified,

after which the transgenic alleles were given the names *qhIs12* and *qhIs13*.

Supplementary Information

Supplementary Fig. 1 WormPicker hardware architecture

Supplementary Fig. 1 | WormPicker hardware architecture. WormPicker is composed of two

modules, including a plate tray platform housing an array of agar substrates and linear carriage

assemblies built in Cartesian coordinates, i.e., X, Y, and Z. The Z linear carriage motorizes animal

imaging and manipulation assemblies, including a robotic picking arm, an optical imaging system, two

lid handlers, and an Auto-image focuser. The under-tray X linear carriage motorizes supplementary

1119   tools, including bright-field illumination and plate tracking module.

Supplementary Fig. 2 Plate tray platform

Supplementary Fig. 2 | Plate tray platform. a. Top view of WormPicker plate tray platform. The platform is composed of eight easy slide-in plate trays, with arrows indicating the slide-in directions. **b.** Each slide-in plate tray consists of two transparent laser-cut acrylics sandwiching an aluminum embedding layer. **c.** Image of barcode label. **d.** Schematic of machine vision system for barcode label reading. **e-f,** Front and side view photographs of the machine vision apparatus for reading the barcode label. **g.** Camera-captured image of the label with the highlighted BcMRC-segmented barcode region and the barcode scanning line. **h.** Profile of the pixel intensity along the barcode scanning line depicted in **g.** Red dash-line: threshold for binarizing the intensity profile. **i.** The intensity profile after being binarized by the threshold depicted in **h.** The decoded 20-bit number (red) and the 3-bit checksum (blue) are marked above.

Supplementary Fig. 3 Imaging and manipulation assemblies

Supplementary Fig. 3 | Imaging and manipulation assemblies. a-c. Schematic of the bright-field

(**a**), GFP (**b**), and RFP (**c**) imaging. BS1: beamsplitter (transmission : reflection = 90% : 10%) BS2-3:

dichroic beamsplitters. Cam1: machine vision camera. Cam2: CMOS camera. D: Optical diffuser. F1-

3: spectrum filters. L1: Fresnel lens. L2: machine vision camera lens. L3-5: achromatic doublet

lenses. L6-7: condenser lenses. LED1: white LED. LED2: 470 nm LED. LED3: 565 nm LED.

Objective: achromatic doublet lens (f = 100 mm). P: agar plate. W: worms. **d**. Schematic of the

autofocusing system. P1-3: different positions of the agar surface; A-C: positions of the laser

projected to the agar surface at different planes, i.e., P1-3. Dashed line: the optimal x position. **e**.

Schematic of the lid handler. **f**. Schematic of the robotic picking arm. **g**. Electric circuit for the pick

sterilization and the capacitive touch sensing. AT42QT1011: capacitive touch sensor; LJ: LabJack **h**.

Photograph of the imaging and manipulation assemblies.

Supplementary Fig. 4 Pick focus control

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Supplementary Fig. 4 | Pick focus control. The wellness of the wire pick focus is quantified by the

mean intensity of top 20% darkest pixels of the high-magnification images $\overline{I_{20}}$. The figure depicts how

$\overline{I_{20}}$ changes along with the height of the wire pick. The x axis is the height of the pick, where the

height at which the pick is well focused is set to zero, and the y axis the $\overline{I_{20}}$. The pictures shown

above the plot are pick images captured at different heights, with dashed line arrows pointing to the

corresponding points in the graph.

1153   Supplementary Fig. 5 Machine vision analysis

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Supplementary Fig. 5 | Machine vision analysis. a. Structure of WormCNN and PickCNN. **b**.

Representative images of worms (left) and backgrounds (right) for WormCNN training. **c**.

Representative images of pick tips (left) and backgrounds (right) for PickCNN training. **d**. Worm

segmentations by WorMRC (left: raw images; right: segmentations). FOV: 1.88 x 1.57 mm. Individual

worms are labeled with different colors. **e**. Areas of individual worm contours (of mixed stages, L1-

Adult) segmented by the WorMRC shows high consistency with the ground truth ($R^2 = 0.972$, N =

690). The black dashed line: $y = x$. **f**. Morphological analysis. The histogram shows the aspect

ratios (AR) for wild-type (N2) and Dpy (*dpy-5*) animals (N = 190). Decision boundary (black dash-line)

is shown for classifying wild-type (gray region) and dumpy morphology (white region). **g**. Sex

determination by SexMRC (left: raw images; right: segmentations). Individual heads and tails are

labeled with different colors. Recognized tail types are indicated by the texts. **h**. Embryo detection by

EmbMRC (left: raw images; right: segmentations). Individual embryos or clusters of embryos are

labeled with different colors. **i**. Number of embryos detected by the EmbMRC shows high consistency

with the ground truth ($R^2 = 0.9772$, N = 124). The black dashed line: $y = x$.

Supplementary Fig. 6 Manual and automated picking throughputs

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Supplementary Fig. 6 | Manual and automated picking throughputs. We recruited a group of *C.*

elegans researchers (N = 21) with different levels of experience to perform a fluorescent animal

sorting task. The measured picking throughput (unit: Animal per Minute, APM) are plot against the

years of experience for each participant (gray points). The mean and median of the years of

experience are 7.61 and 5 years. The mean, median, and standard deviation (SD) of the measured

manual throughput are 3.56, 3.60, and 1.67 APM. The red dash-line indicates the measured

automated throughput, 3.21 APM (SD = 0.66 APM, N = 38).

Supplementary Fig. 7 Schematic of WormPickerControl and

WormPickerLib

a

b

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Supplementary Fig. 7 | Schematic of WormPickerControl and WormPickerLib. a. Schematic of

WormPicker system control software WormPickerControl. WormPickerControl is composed of four

modules, including an Application Programming Interface (API), WormPickerLib (a library of source

scripts), a Mask-RCNN segmentation server, and a database cataloging plate information. **b**. An

example of WormPickerLib call stack for performing a specific genetic experiment in this study:

determine linkage to chromosomes I and III for an RFP transgene *vsIs33* (Fig. 4c), demonstrating the

hierarchical architecture of WormPickerLib.

Supplementary Fig. 8 Theory of I/III-linkage test

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Supplementary Fig. 8 | Theory of I/III-linkage test. a. Punnett square depicting the predicted F2s to

be observed supposing *vsIs33* linked to neither I nor III. Colors indicate types of fluorescent reporters

can be observed for each genotype: Green for GFP and Red for RFP. Gray indicates the lethality due

to homozygous *hT2*. It is anticipated to observe 75% of the non-Green F2s would be Red. **b**. Punnett

square depicting the predicted F2s to be observed supposing *vsIs33* linked to either I or III. Color

code same as **a**. It is anticipated to observe 100% of the non-Green F2s would be Red.

 Supplementary Fig. 9 Theory of II-linkage test

 Supplementary Fig. 9 | Theory of II-linkage test. a. Punnett square depicting the predicted F2s to

 be observed supposing *vsIs33* not linked to II. It is anticipated to observe 75% of the non-Green F2s

 would be Red. **b**. Punnett square depicting the predicted F2s to be observed supposing *vsIs33* linked

 to II. It is anticipated to observe 100% of the non-Green F2s would be Red. For **a** and **b**, color code

 same as Supplementary Fig. 8a.

Supplementary Fig. 10 Theory of III/V-linkage test

1205 **Supplementary Fig. 10 | Theory of III/V-linkage test. a**. Punnett square depicting the predicted F2s

1206 to be observed supposing *vsIs33* linked to neither III nor V. It is anticipated to observe 75% of the

1207 non-Green F2s would be Red. **b**. Punnett square depicting the predicted F2s to be observed

1208 supposing *vsIs33* linked to either III or V. It is anticipated to observe 100% of the non-Green F2s

1209 would be Red. For **a** and **b**, color code same as Supplementary Fig. 8a.

Supplementary Fig. 11   Theory of IV/V-linkage test

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Supplementary Fig. 11 | Theory of IV/V-linkage test. a. Punnett square depicting the predicted F2s

to be observed supposing *vsIs33* linked to neither IV nor V. It is anticipated to observe 75% of the

non-Green F2s would be Red. **b**. Punnett square depicting the predicted F2s to be observed

supposing *vsIs33* linked to either III or V. It is anticipated to observe 100% of the non-Green F2s

would be Red. For **a** and **b**, color code same as Supplementary Fig. 8a.

Supplementary Fig. 12   Theory of X-linkage test

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Supplementary Fig. 12 | Theory of X-linkage test. a. Punnett square depicting the predicted F2s to

be observed supposing *vsIs33* not linked to X. It is anticipated to observe 50% of the F2 males would

1221 be Red. **b**. Punnett square depicting the predicted F2s to be observed supposing *vsls33* linked to X. It

1222 is anticipated to observe none of the F2 males would be Red. For **a** and **b**, color code same as

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Supplementary Fig. 13   Linkage of vsls33 over chromosomes

Supplementary Fig. 13 | Linkage of *vsls33* over chromosomes. a. Theory predicted and the

observed count percentages of Red and non-Red among the non-Green F2s for determining linkage

of *vsls33* to autosomes. Error bar indicates one standard deviation higher and lower than the

observed percentage under the autosomal unlink assumption. **b**. Theory predicted and the observed

count percentages of Red and non-Red among the F2 males for determining linkage of *vsls33* to the

X chromosome. Error bar indicates one standard deviation higher and lower than the observed

percentage under the X-unlink assumption. **c**. Graphical representation of the Linkage Index. **d**.

Observed Linkage Indices for *vsIs33* over different chromosomes. The upper and lower bounds of the

error bars correspond to the Linkage Indices calculated when one standard deviation higher and

lower than the observed percentages, matching the error bars in **a** and **b**.

Supplementary Table 1   WormPicker key components list

Figure ID		Part	Description	Part Number (Vendor)
Fig. 1	**c**	Contact pin	Contact Pin 14-18AWG Crimp	N.A.
		Platinum wire loop	90% Platinum, 10% Iridium Wire	PT-9010 (Tritech Research)
Supplementary Fig. 1	**Externals**	PC	PC, Intel(R) Core i9-10900K CPU@3.7 GHz, 64 GB RAM, GPU NVIDIA QuADro P1000	(Origin)
	Motion System	Timing Belt	3GT (GT2-3M) Timing Belt	(OpenBuilds)
		Lead Screw	8mm Metric Acme Lead Screw	(OpenBuilds)
		X/Y/Z Limit Switch	Xtension Limit Switch Kit	(OpenBuilds)
		X/Y/Z Stepper Motor	NEMA 23 Stepper Motor	(OpenBuilds)
	Plate Tray	Agar Plate	60mm vented, sharp edge Petri Dishes	T3315 (Tritech Research)

Supplementary Fig. 2	b	Al embedding	Aluminum foil (16.26 µm thick)	Reynolds Wrap (Amazon)
	d	Cam	Machine vision camera	DMK33GP031 (Imaging Source)
		L1	Achromatic Doublet (f = 75 mm, Ø1")	AC254-075-A-ML (Thorlabs)
		L2	Machine vision lens (f = 8 mm)	N.A.
		LEDs	High Intensity LED Flood (Warm White 3000-3200K, 120 lm)	(Oznium)
Supplementary Fig. 3	a	BS1	UVFS Plate Beamsplitter (Ø2" 10:90 (R:T), Coating: 400-700 nm, t = 8 mm)	BSN16 (Thorlabs)
		BS2	Long-pass Dichroic beamsplitter	XF2010 (Omega Optical)
		BS3	Dual-band Dichroic beamsplitter	59022bs (Chroma)
		Cam1	Machine vision camera	DMK33GP031 (Imaging Source)
		Cam2	Monochrome CMOS Camera (Kiralux 5.0 MP, 53.2 fps Max)	CS505MU (Thorlabs)
		D	Optical diffuser (Acrylic Sheet Lucite Plexiglass, Clear P95 Frost Light Transmission 90%)	(Rock Hard Plastics)

		F1	Dual-band emission filter	59022m (Chroma)
		F2	Excitation filter	XF2015 (Omega Optical)
		F3	Excitation filter	65-705 (Edmund Optics)
		L1	Fresnel lens (5" x 5", 4" Focal Length)	(Edmund optics)
		L2	Machine vision lens (f = 3.5 mm)	T3Z3510CS (Computar)
		L3	Achromatic Doublet Lens (f = 300 mm, Ø1", ARC: 400-700 nm)	AC254-300-A-ML (Thorlabs)
		L4	Achromatic Doublet Lens (f = -100 mm, Ø1", ARC: 400-700 nm)	ACN254-100-A (Thorlabs)
		L5	Achromatic Doublet Lens (f = 150 mm, Ø1", ARC: 400-700 nm)	AC254-150-A-ML (Thorlabs)
		L6	Collimation Module for LEDs with 80° to 120° Divergence Angle	SFM80 (Thorlabs)
		L7	Aspheric Condenser Lens (f=20.1 mm, Ø25 mm, NA = 0.60, ARC: 350-700 nm)	ACL2520U-A (Thorlabs)
		LED1	High Intensity LED Flood (Warm White 3000-3200K, 120 lm)	(Oznium)

		LED2	LED (470 nm)	M470L5 (Thorlabs)
		LED3	LED (565 nm)	M565L3 (Thorlabs)
		Objective	Achromatic doublet lens (f = 100 mm, Ø2", ARC: 400-700 nm)	AC508-100-A-ML (Thorlabs)
	d	Laser	Green Cross Laser LINE Generator	Quarton Laser Module VLM-532-47 LPT (Amazon)
		Lens	N-BK7 Plano-Convex Lens (Ø1", f = 100 mm)	LA1509-A (Thorlabs)
	e	Micro Linear Actuator	PQ12-S Linear Actuator with Limit Switches 30:1 12 volts	PQ12-30-12-S (Actuonix)
		Vacuum Interface	Push-to-Connect Tube Fittings	51025K196 (McMaster-Carr)
		Vacuum Tube	High-Pressure Soft Plastic Tubing for Air and Water	52375K11 (McMaster-Carr)
	f	Linear Carriage	Mini V Gantry Kit	(OpenBuilds)
		Linear Stepper Actuator	50mm S20 Stepper Actuator	S20-30-38-B (Actuonix)
		Rail	V-Slot® 20x20 Linear Rail, Length = 250 mm	(OpenBuilds)

		Servo S1-3	MX-28T Robot Actuator	RO-902-0067-000 (Trossen Robotics)
	g	AT42QT1011	Capacitive Touch Breakout	AT42QT1011 (SparkFun)
		Relay 1	SE Relays, solid state, SPST NO, 25A, Output 3-200 VDC, Input 3-32 VDC	6325AXXMDS-DC3 (Schneider)
		Relay 2	General Purpose Relay DPDT 10A 12VDC	1885-1706-ND (Digi-Key)

 Supplementary Table 2   Pick motion trajectory parameters

	Picking up									
	Lin. Step. Act.		**Servo S1**		**Servo S2**		**Servo S3**		**Main Gantry**	
Phase	Velocity in z (mm/s)	Displacem ent in z (mm)	Angular Velocity (deg/s)	Angular Displaceme nt (deg)	Angular Velocity (deg/s)	Angular Displaceme nt (deg)	Angular Velocity (deg/s)	Angular Displaceme nt (deg)	Velocity in z (mm/s)	Displacem ent in z (mm)
A	-20	-2.5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
B	0	0	0	0	274.8	1.23	0	0	0	0
C	0	0	274.8	0.44	0	0	274.8	0.44	0	0
	Putting down									
	Lin. Step. Act.		**Servo S1**		**Servo S2**		**Servo S3**		**Main Gantry**	
Phase	Velocity in z	Displacem ent in z	Angular Velocity	Angular Displaceme	Angular Velocity	Angular Displaceme	Angular Velocity	Angular Displaceme	Velocity in z	Displacem ent in z

	(mm/s)	(mm)	(deg/s)	nt (deg)	(deg/s)	nt (deg)	(deg/s)	nt (deg)	(mm/s)	(mm)
A	-20	-2.5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
A-B waiting (s)	1									
B	0	0	0	0	-274.8	-1.58	0	0	0	0
B-C waiting (s)	2									
C	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	-125	-0.4
D	0	0	274.8	39.11	0	0	0	0	0	0

Supplementary Table 3 Fluorescence imaging and processing parameters

Experiment	Purpose	Fluorescent transgene of interest	GFP imaging parameters				RFP imaging parameters			
			Exposure (ms)	Intensity threshold (a. u.)	Area threshold (pixel^2)	Iteration	Exposure time (ms)	Intensity threshold (a. u.)	Area threshold (pixel^2)	Iteration
Genetic Cross (Fig. 3)	Assay transgene expression	*vsIs28 [dop-1p::GFP]*	200	70	20	N.A.				
Genetic Mapping (Fig. 4)	Test I/III-linkage	*vsIs33 [dop-3p::RFP]*					100	80	20	N.A.

			C1	C2	C3	C4	C5	C6	C7	C8
		hT2 {qIs48 [myo-2::GFP]}	200	80	20	N.A.				
	Test II- linkage	vsIs33 [dop-3p::RFP]					100	80	50	50
		mIn1 {mIs14 [myo-2::GFP]}	200	60	50	50				
	Test III/V- linkage	vsIs33 [dop-3p::RFP]					100	60	20	100
		eT1 {umnIs12 [myo-2::GFP]}	200	130	20	100				
	Test IV/V- linkage	vsIs33 [dop-3p::RFP]					100	80	20	50
		nT1 {qIs51 [myo-2::GFP]}	200	80	20	50				
	Test X- linkage	vsIs33 [dop-3p::RFP]					100	80	20	N.A.
		qnEx615 [myo-2p::GFP]	200	80	20	N.A.				
Genomic integration of transgene (Fig. 5)	Assay transgene expression	qhEx265 [unc-47p::GFP]	200	70	1	50				

Supplementary Table 4   WormPickerLib: Script library of common

C. elegans procedures

Category	Name	Description
High-level	CrossWorms	Pick hermaphrodites and males matching specified phenotypes from two source plates into one destination plate
	ScreenPlates	Screen multiple plates for assaying population phenotypes
	SingleWorms	Pick worms matching specified phenotypes to individual plates. A single worm per plate.
Mid-level	PickNWorms	Pick multiple worms matching specific phenotypes from one plate to another
	ScreenOnePlate	Screen a single plate for assaying population phenotypes
Low-level	AutoFocus	Focus the images
	CalibOx	Calibrate how many pixel-translations in the image corresponding to one unit movement in the gantry
	CalibPick	Calibrate the pick position in the low-magnification FOV. Mapping the pick tip positions with servo coordinates
	CalibTray	Calibrate the well positions over the plate tray platform
	CenterWorm	Track worms and move individual animals to the high-magnifcation FOV
	HeatPick	Sterilize the pick
	MoveToPlate	Move the gantry above a plate
	Phenotype	Phenotype any worms found in the high-magnification images
	ReadBarCode	Read the barcode identifier on the plate, write/read the plate information to/from the database
	SpeedPick	Perform a single picking up/putting down action on the agar surface

Supplementary Table 5   Strains used in this study

Desig nation	Source or reference	Identifiers	Additional information
OP50	CGC	Fang-Yen Lab Strain Collection: OP50 RRID:WB-STRAIN:WBStrain00041971	OP50
CB61	CGC	Fang-Yen Lab Strain Collection: CB61	dpy-5(e61) I.
CGC34	Gift of D. Raizen	Fang-Yen Lab Strain Collection: CGC34	eT1 [umnIs12] III; eT1 V.
JK2810	Gift of D. Raizen	Fang-Yen Lab Strain Collection: JK2810	mcm-4(e1466) dpy-5(e61)/hT2 I; dpy-18(e364) III/hT2 [bli-4(e937) let-?(q782) qIs48] (I;III).
JK2958	Gift of D. Raizen	Fang-Yen Lab Strain Collection: JK2958	nT1 [qIs51] (IV;V)/dpy-11(e224) unc-42(e270) V.
LX811	CGC	Fang-Yen Lab Strain Collection: LX811	vsIs33 V; lin-15B&lin-15A(n765) X.
LX831	CGC	Fang-Yen Lab Strain Collection: LX831	vsIs33 V; lin-15B&lin-15A(n765) X; vsIs28.
N2	CGC	Fang-Yen Lab Strain Collection: N2	wild-type
NQ115 5	Gift of D. Raizen	Fang-Yen Lab Strain Collection: NQ1155	qnEx615 [myo-2p::GFP]
VC170	Gift of D. Raizen	Fang-Yen Lab Strain Collection: VC170	cki-1(gk132)/mIn1 [dpy-10(e128) mIs14] II.
YX256	Gift of P. McClanahan	Fang-Yen Lab Strain Collection: YX256	syEx723 [hs::LIN-3C; myo-2::GFP; pha-1(+)]
YX293	Gift of H. Ji	Fang-Yen Lab Strain Collection: YX293	dop-3(vs106); qhEx265 [acr-2p::DOP-3(+) + unc-

			47p::GFP]
YX300	Crossed LX831 with CB61	Fang-Yen Lab Strain Collection: YX300	vsIs28 [dop-1p::GFP]; dpy-5 (e61) I.
YX301	UV integration of YX293	Fang-Yen Lab Strain Collection: YX301	dop-3(vs106); qhIs12 [acr-2p::DOP-3 + unc-47p::GFP]
YX302	UV integration of YX293	Fang-Yen Lab Strain Collection: YX302	dop-3(vs106); qhIs13 [acr-2p::DOP-3 + unc-47p::GFP]

Supplementary Video 1   Automated multimodal fluorescence imaging in *C. elegans*

Supplementary Video 1 | Automated multimodal fluorescence imaging in *C. elegans*.

Transgenic (JK2958) *C. elegans* in bright-field images followed by an image from the GFP channel.

Transgenic (LX811) *C. elegans* in bright-field images followed by an image from the RFP channel.

FOV: 1.88 mm x 1.57 mm.

Supplementary Video 2   Lid manipulation

Supplementary Video 2 | Lid manipulation. Lids of agar plates on the platform are removed and replaced using two motorized vacuum actuators.

Supplementary Video 3   Pick sterilization

Supplementary Video 3 | Pick sterilization. The platinum wire loop pick is sterilized by resistive heating.

Supplementary Video 4   Automated *C. elegans* picking from the camera view

Supplementary Video 4 | Automated *C. elegans* picking from the camera view. Overlay of the high-magnification and low-magnification video streams.   A worm is automatically picked up by the wire loop pick and transferred to a different plate.

Supplementary Video 5   Automated *C. elegans* transfer between agar substrates, external view

Supplementary Video 5 | Automated *C. elegans* transfer between agar substrates. An electric current sterilizes the pick; worms are tracked and phenotyped; the robotic arm picks up a worm from a plate and transfers it to a second plate.