Title: Chronic high-sugar diet in adulthood protects *Caenorhabditis elegans* from 6-OHDA induced
dopaminergic neurodegeneration

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Abstract

Background: Diets high in saturated fat and sugar, termed 'western diets', have been associated with
several negative health outcomes, including increased risk for neurodegenerative disease. Parkinson's
Disease (PD) is the second most prevalent neurodegenerative disease and is characterized by the
progressive death of dopaminergic neurons in the brain. We build upon previous work characterizing
the impact of high sugar diets in *Caenorhabditis elegans* to mechanistically evaluate the relationship
between high sugar diets and dopaminergic neurodegeneration.

Results: Non-developmental high glucose and fructose diets led to increased lipid content and shorter
lifespan and decreased reproduction. However, in contrast to previous reports, we found that non-
developmental chronic high-glucose and high-fructose diets did not induce dopaminergic
neurodegeneration alone and were protective from 6-hydroxydopamine (6-OHDA) induced
degeneration. Neither sugar altered baseline electron transport chain function, and both increased
vulnerability to organism-wide ATP depletion when the electron transport chain was inhibited, arguing
against energetic rescue as a basis for neuroprotection. The induction of oxidative stress by 6-OHDA is
hypothesized to contribute to its pathology, and high sugar diets prevented this increase in the soma of
the dopaminergic neurons. However, we did not find increased expression of antioxidant enzymes or
glutathione levels. Instead, we found evidence suggesting alterations to dopamine transmission that
could result in decreased 6-OHDA uptake.

Conclusion: Our work uncovers a neuroprotective role for high sugar diets, despite concomitant
decreases in lifespan and reproduction. Our results support the broader finding that ATP depletion alone
is insufficient to induce dopaminergic neurodegeneration, whereas increased neuronal oxidative stress
may drive degeneration. Finally, our work highlights the importance of evaluating lifestyle by toxicant
interactions.

Keywords:

Glucose, Fructose, Neurodegeneration, Oxidative Stress, C. elegans

Background:

In 2019 the average American consumed 50.0 g (190 calories) of refined cane or beet sugar and

29.3 g (111 calories) of high-fructose corn syrup per day in addition to other added caloric sweeteners

and naturally occurring sugars (1). Despite a small 0.71% decrease in caloric sweetener consumption

since 2016, this still often exceeds the World Health Organization recommendation of less than 10% of

total caloric intake (2). Glucose and fructose are the most consumed sugars, as the majority of sugar

intake in the United States comprises refined cane or beet sugar, high-fructose corn syrup, and foods

naturally containing glucose and fructose (3). Referred to as high-glycemic-index diets for their

propensity to raise blood glucose levels, high sugar diets have been linked to the increase in obesity with

particularly strong evidence for the consumption of sugary beverages (4).

Obesity is defined as a body mass index (BMI) greater than 30 and is a non-monolithic disease

caused by metabolic, genetic, socioeconomic, and environmental factors. It doubled in prevalence in

more than 70 countries between 1980 and 2015 and is epidemiologically linked to the increased

prevalence of type 2 diabetes, cardiovascular diseases, some neurodegenerative diseases, and surgical

complications including infections (5, 6). In one such neurodegenerative disease, Parkinson's disease

(PD), it has been reported that patients show higher total sugar and added sugar consumption than

healthy controls (7). Despite evidence of higher disease-concurrent intake in diagnosed individuals, it is

less clear how sugar diets influence the onset of PD (8).

PD is a late-onset neurodegenerative disorder characterized by loss of function and death in the

dopaminergic neurons of the substantia nigra region of the brain. PD impacts 1-3% of the global

population over age 65. Oxidative stress and mitochondrial dysfunction have both been identified as

potential causes or critical steps in the pathology of the disorder (9). Epidemiological studies

consistently find relationships between blood glucose levels, insulin intolerance, and PD. Though the

causal nature is unclear, increased blood glucose levels have been identified in drug-naïve patients and

those showing cognitive decline (10), and elevated blood glucose is a predictor of cognitive decline (11).

Increased added sugar intake has been associated with increased frequency of developing PD and

greater symptom severity and medication requirements post diagnosis (12).These same studies and

others have further found that decreased levels of insulin and increased insulin resistance were

associated with cognitive decline in PD patients (10, 11, 13). It has not been clearly established if

increased sugar intake and elevated blood glucose are causal or secondary to decreased insulin levels

and sensitivity to insulin.

To expand understanding of the complex relationship between high sugar diets, obesity, and

susceptibility to dopaminergic neurodegeneration, we turned to the nematode *Caenorhabditis elegans*.

C. elegans has been widely used as a model in biomedical research in general and to explore the impacts

of high-sugar diets in particular, because of its high genetic homology to humans, short life cycle, and

conservation of key pathways including insulin signaling (14). *C. elegans* fed high-glucose diets generally

demonstrate slower growth, decreased reproduction, shortened lifespan, neuronal and mitochondrial

dysfunction, decreased anoxia survival, and increased oxidative stress (15-19). High-fructose diets,

though less explored, have been shown to decrease lifespan and health span, induce mitochondrial

swelling, and decrease anoxia survival of worms (19, 20).

C. elegans has also been employed for studies of PD. Possessing 8 dopaminergic neurons and

high genetic tractability, several transgenics have been generated to assist with visualization of

dopamine neuron morphology (21, 22). High glucose exposure studies in *C. elegans* showed increased

susceptibility to organophosphate pesticide-induced neurodegeneration in dopaminergic, GABAergic,

and cholinergic neurons (17, 18, 23). These studies, however, were mostly performed with acute,

developmental exposures to glucose.

Here, we present evidence from worms fed chronic, not acute, 100 mM D-glucose or fructose

from day 1-day 5 of adulthood on the mechanistic relationships between high-sugar diets and

dopaminergic neurodegeneration. With this strategy, we have avoided the potential for confounding

effects of bioenergetic remodeling resulting from developmental mitochondrial stress (24-28). Doses

were selected to closely match the large body of literature in *C. elegans* studying high sugar diets, in

which 100 mM consistently produces clear effects but is non-lethal (Table 1). To improve upon the

common use of decreased fluorescence of the cell bodies within the cephalic (CEP) neurons in the head

of the worm as a proxy for degeneration, we employ a neurodegeneration scoring methodology with

improved ability to detect subtle changes to the neuronal processes. We not only assess whether high

sugar diets induce dopaminergic neurodegeneration, but whether they enhance susceptibility to the

canonical dopaminergic neurotoxicant 6-hydroxydopamine (6-OHDA). Upon entering the cell, 6-OHDA

increases oxidative stress partly through auto-oxidation, and partly through inhibition of mitochondrial

electron transport chain Complexes I and IV, resulting in decreased ATP levels, akin to two other PD

toxicant model toxicants, rotenone and MPP+ (29). Utilizing this method, we report that chronic, non-

developmental high glucose or high fructose diets resulted in neuroprotection from 6-OHDA exposure.

The impact of 6-OHDA on redox state, not its effect on ATP levels, was abrogated by high sugar,

suggesting that redox alterations, not energetic alterations, underlie the dopaminergic neurotoxicity of

6-OHDA in *C. elegans*. In absence of alterations to glutathione levels, redox tone, and antioxidant

enzyme expression, we suggest altered dopamine neurotransmission leads to decreased 6-OHDA uptake

and prevents toxicity.

Results:

Non-developmental high sugar diets decrease lifespan and fecundity while increasing adiposity

C. elegans has been used extensively to evaluate the impacts of dietary paradigms on lifespan and

reproduction. In the case of high sugar diets, previous work in *C. elegans* has focused largely on

exposures beginning in early development. To discern how non-developmental (adult) glucose and

fructose exposures impact key biological functions, and permit comparison to previously published

developmental exposure studies, we first evaluated the impact of our adult exposure paradigm on

adiposity, lifespan, and fecundity. In concurrence with the effects observed with developmental sugar

exposures, worms transferred as young adults to nematode growth media (NGM) plates supplemented

with 100 mM glucose or 100 mM fructose show increased lipid accumulation represented by an 85.6%

and 46.2% increase in fluorescence intensity of an mCherry::mdt-28 fusion protein localized primarily to

lipid droplets (Fig 1A). Increased lipid stores were particularly concentrated throughout the intestine,

around the vulva, and to a lesser extent in the head. The effect was more intense in glucose fed worms

than fructose fed worms (Fig 1B). Similarly, and again in agreement with observations from

developmental exposures, worms fed glucose and fructose had a modest decrease in their average

brood size from 297.7±7.9 eggs per worm to 247.9±7.9 and 272.7±4.8 respectively (Fig 1C). Beyond total

brood size, the time course of egg laying was altered such that both high sugar diets caused egg laying to

be distributed more evenly over days 1-3 of adulthood as opposed to most being laid the first 2 days

with a sharp decrease on the third (Fig 1D), which is the typical pattern on control plates. Finally, both

sugars led to a significantly decreased median lifespan (Fig 1E), with a greater decrease on fructose (6

days shorter than control diet) than glucose (2 days shorter).

High sugar diets protect from 6-OHDA induced dopaminergic neurodegeneration

To define the role of high sugar diets in age-related and toxicant-induced neurodegeneration, we

compared dendritic degeneration in worms exposed to high sugar diets throughout reproductive

adulthood and subsequently exposed to either 25 mM or 50 mM 6-hydroxydopamine (6-OHDA). 6-

OHDA is a well-validated dopaminergic neurotoxicant transported into the dopaminergic neurons via

the DAT-1 transporter. The CEP neurons in *C. elegans* are easily visualized within the head of the worm

and have a well characterized damage phenotype including dendritic blebbing and breaking (21, 22, 30-

32). Using a qualitative scale in which increasing score represents increasing damage, we found that high

sugar diets did not increase age related neurodegeneration. In response to both 25 mM and 50 mM 6-

OHDA exposure, glucose and fructose fed worms were protected from neurodegeneration, with fewer

instances of broken and fully deteriorated sections of dendrite (Fig 2A, 2B).

Neuroprotection by high sugar diets is not explained by alterations in mitochondrial amount or

morphology

Next, we worked to understand the mechanism for the observed glucose and fructose

neuroprotection. As the 6-OHDA exposure paradigm is acute (one hour), we reasoned that the

mechanism of protection resulting from the chronic high sugar diet must be present when the exposure

begins. Both high glucose and high fructose diets have been previously associated with increased

mitochondrial swelling and fragmentation (20, 33). Increases or decreases in mitochondrial fission and

fusion dynamics are vital to cellular response to dietary and toxicant exposures (34, 35). Mitochondrial

fission is required for the increase in reactive oxygen species and induction of cell death by high glucose

diets in some cell types (36). Therefore, we evaluated mitochondrial morphology and number in the CEP

neuron dendrites and mitochondrial area in muscle cells to determine if clear differences in

mitochondrial dynamics were present prior to 6-OHDA exposure. No differences were apparent in the

muscle cell mitochondrial area (SFig 1) or in neuronal cell mitochondrial number (Fig 3A); however, high

glucose diets altered mitochondrial morphology within the CEP neurons (Fig 3B-3D). In CEP neurons,

high glucose diets resulted in small but significant elongation of the mitochondria from 1.832±0.04

micrometers to 2.005±0.05 micrometers in length (Fig 3A-B). Similarly, the maximum length of

mitochondria increased from 3.98±0.11 to 4.50±0.16 (Fig 3C). This resulted in an increase of total

mitochondrial length per dendrite from 16.45±0.32 micrometers to 18.64±0.45 micrometers (Fig 3D).

However, high-fructose diets did not result in any significant alterations to mitochondrial number or

morphology within the dendrites, indicating that even if glucose-mediated increased mitochondrial

length contributed to protection from 6-OHDA, fructose's protective effect could not be explained by

this mechanism. Continuing to assess mitochondrial mechanisms that could confer protection, we

moved to evaluate cellular and organismal bioenergetics.

High sugar diets do not rescue ATP depletion caused by electron transport chain inhibition

It has been theorized that ATP depletion may incite a negative feedback loop resulting in and enhancing

neurodegeneration (37, 38). Therefore, we next assessed whether the high sugar diets protected from

dopaminergic neurodegeneration by improving energetics at baseline, or upon challenge. On an

organismal level, we assessed mitochondrial bioenergetic function by whole worm respirometry. We

found a small increase in basal oxygen consumption rate (SFig 2); however, this is accounted for by

larger worm size. After accounting for worm size, we found no alterations to electron transport chain

function or non-mitochondrial oxygen consumption (Fig 4A). We also assessed whole-worm ATP levels

by luminescent assay and observed no baseline differences (Fig 4B). To assess energetic status upon

challenge, we exposed worms to the complex I inhibitor rotenone. This acute (1-hour) challenge

decreased whole-body ATP levels of sugar-fed worms 40% more than controls (Fig 4B). To determine if

energetic responses in the CEP neurons follow the same trend as the whole-organism responses, and

assess whether that susceptibility would manifest in the context of the 6-OHDA challenge that we used

for neurodegeneration, we exposed worms expressing the PercevalHR ATP:ADP ratio reporter in

dopaminergic neurons to 50 mM 6-OHDA and vehicle controls of ascorbic acid. Surprisingly, ATP:ADP

ratio within the CEP neuron soma was not different across diets before or after 6-OHDA exposure (Fig

4C). Notably, ascorbic acid, the vehicle for 6-OHDA, induced significant ATP depletion. As ascorbic acid

does not induce neurodegeneration, and both sugars protected from neurodegeneration without

protecting from ATP depletion, our results are inconsistent with ATP depletion causing degeneration of

the CEP neurons.

High sugar diets do not alter organismal antioxidant gene expression or alter glutathione

concentrations

The third mechanism we tested for sugar-mediated dopaminergic neuroprotection was upregulation of

antioxidant defenses. Acute high sugar diets have been demonstrated to increase oxidative stress;

however, more chronic exposure in young adults increased expression of the proteins glucose-6-

phosphate 1-dehydrogenase and glutathione disulfide reductase, which should allow for accelerated

reduction of glutathione and confer protection from oxidant exposures (39). We hypothesized that

chronic high-sugar diets might cause similar compensatory and protective upregulation of antioxidant

systems, which could combat redox stress induced by 6-OHDA exposure. First, we assessed if our

chronic high sugar diets altered organismal redox state using a whole-animal reduction oxidation

sensitive GFP (roGFP) construct that reports on the ratio of oxidized to reduced glutathione. Due to the

increase in autofluorescence at 405nm driven primarily by gut autofluorescence (Supp Fig 2A-B), we

restricted our analysis to the head region from the tip of the head of the worm to the end of the

terminal pharyngeal bulb. High sugar diets induced no differences in the redox tone of the glutathione

pool on an organismal level (Fig 5A). To ensure that the lack of alteration in glutathione redox state was

not due to differences in total glutathione pool sizes, we quantified total glutathione levels and found no

statistically significant difference (Fig 5B). To determine if this result, which was contrary to findings

from acute exposures, was due to altered antioxidant gene expression, we evaluated the mRNA

expression levels of multiple antioxidant enzymes. Again, we observed no significant differences (Fig 5C,

SFig 4). Finally, to test the redox state specifically within the mitochondria of the CEP neurons that were

targeted by 6-OHDA in our neurodegeneration studies, we utilized a CEP neuron-specific mitochondrial-

targeted roGFP. In accordance with the organismal result, no difference was observed as a result of the

high sugar diets. However, sugar-fed worms had a significantly smaller increase in oxidation state after

6-OHDA exposure (Fig 5D). This result is consistent with protection from neurodegeneration and is

supportive of oxidative stress as a driver of neurodegeneration. However, it could be explained either by

a cell-specific increase in antioxidant defenses, not detectable by our whole-organism measurements, or

by a decrease in 6-OHDA uptake by the dopaminergic neurons. We next tested the latter possibility.

High sugar diets modulate the dopamine transport system to decrease dopamine reuptake

6-OHDA is actively transported into the dopaminergic neurons by the DAT-1 transporter. Each worm has

only 4 CEP neurons, which makes direct quantification of the uptake of 6-OHDA impractical. Therefore,

we instead we measured proxies for the quantity and activity of the DAT-1 transporter. We assessed

mRNA expression of *dat-1*, the re-uptake transporter responsible for 6-OHDA transport into the CEP

neurons; *cat-2*, which encodes tyrosine hydroxylase, the rate limiting step in dopamine synthesis; and

the dopamine receptor *dop-3* (Fig 6A). With no alterations in expression levels observed, we next

investigated the functional status of dopaminergic neurotransmission, using a swimming induced

paralysis (SWIP) assay. Release of dopamine into the neuro-muscular junction dictates the ability of the

muscle cells in worms to contract and relax. When too much dopamine enters the junction, or not

enough is cleared via re-uptake, the worms are temporarily paralyzed. After 10 minutes of swimming,

glucose and fructose fed worms were five and two times more likely to SWIP (Fig 6B). Increased SWIP

activity may indicate decreased dopamine reuptake by the CEP neurons, which would protect against 6-

OHDA uptake.

Discussion:

Table 1: Summary of previous research on high glucose and high fructose diets in *C. elegans*									
Article	Sugar	Dose (mM)	Exposure paradigm	Lifespan	Brood Size	Oxidative Stress	Locomotion	Lipid Content	Neurodegeneration

Alcantar-Fernandez (2018)(15)	G	20, 40, 80, 100	L1-L4	↓26-52%	↔ F0 ↓ F1, F2	↑	-	↑2-3 fold	-
Salim (2014)(17)	G	111	L1-L4	↓32%	↓30%	-	↓18%	-	↑
Garcia (2015)(19)	G	3.5-111	D1 adults to end of assay	↓ (anoxic conditions)	-	-	-	↑	-
	F	3.5-111	D1 adults to end of assay	↓ (anoxic conditions)	-	-	-	-	-
Schlotterer (2009)(40)	G	40	D1 adult to end of life	↓ 2 days	-	↑ D15 adults	-	-	-
Lodha (2020)(20)	F	277.5	L4 to end of life	↓ 5%	-	-	↓ 52% D10 adults	-	-
Tauffenberger (2014)(41)	G	277.5	L4 to end of life	↓F0 ↔ F1 and F2	↓ F0, F1, F2	↓ F0 F1 (enhanced juglone survival)	-	-	↑ F0
Zhu (2015)(42)	G	100, 200	L1-L4	↓29.0% and 30.8%	-	↑	-	↑ (strain VS29)	-
Seung-Jae Lee (2009)(43)	G	111	D1 adult to end of life	↓ 20%	-	-	-	-	-
Liggett (2015)(44)	G	250	L4 to end of life	↓30-40% hermaphrodite ↑10% males	-	-	↓ 43% hermaphrodites, 7% males (D14)	-	-
Teshiba (2016)(45)	G	10, 50, 100	L4 to end of life	-	↔ 100	-	-	-	-
Alcantar Fernandez (2019)(16)	G	20, 40, 80, 100	L1 to L4	-	-	↑ in all	-	-	-

Study	Type	Conc.	Stage	Col5	Col6	Col7	Col8	Col9	Col10
Zheng (2017)(46)	G	111	L1 to end of life	↓	-	-	-	↑	-
	F	55, 111, 555	L1 to end of life	↑ at 55 and 111 ↓ at 555	-	-	-	↺ at 55 and 111 ↑ at 555	-
Ke (2021)(47)	F	55.5	L4 to assay or end of life	↓	-	-	↓	↑ D1 adults	-
Gatrell (2020)(48)	G	250	L4 to assay or end of life	↓	↺	-	↓	-	↺ polyQ aggregation
Beaudoin-Chabot (2022)(49)	G	111	Adult D1 or D5 to end of life	↓ D1 ↑ D5	-	↑ D1 and D5, measured at D10	↓ D1 ↑ D5 Measured after 24-hour exposure	-	-
Engstrom (2022)(50)	G	333	Either only as L4 or adult, or both	-	↓ if fed glucose as adult ↺ if only fed glucose as L4	-	-	-	-
Mondoux (2011)(51)	G	100, 200, 300, 400, 500	L4 to assay	-	↓at all but 200 ↺ at 200	-	-	-	-
Xiong Wang (2020)(52)	G	5 50 400 500 520	L1 to end of life for lifespan L4 to end of life for brood size	↑ 14.36-27.55% from 5-500 ↓ 35.69% at 520	↺ 5-50 ↓ 400-520	-	-	-	-
	F	5 50 400 500 550	L1 to end of life for lifespan L4 to end of life for brood size	↑ 1.52-23.36% from 5-400 ↓ 0.36-1.15% at 500-550	↑ from 5-50 ↓ 400-550	-	-	-	-

Study	Sugar								
Gusarov (2019)(39)	G	111	L4 to assay	↓ 28%	-	⌀ at baseline ↓ as it protects from oxidants	-	↑ at D3 adult	-
This work	G	100	D1-D5 of adulthood	↓	↓	⌀ at baseline ↓ as it protects from 6-OHDA	↓	↑	⌀ at baseline ↓ as it protects from 6-OHDA
	F	100	D1-D5 of adulthood	↓	↓	⌀ at baseline ↓ as it protects from 6-OHDA	↓	↑	⌀ at baseline ↓ as it protects from 6-OHDA

Summary of previous and current work studying the impact of high glucose and high fructose diets in *C. elegans*. Sugar: glucose (G) or fructose (F); ↓ represents a decrease, ↑ represents an increase, and ⌀ represents no detected difference

Sugars such as glucose and fructose are essential for animal life, but diets containing excessive

sugar can increase neurodegeneration in mammalian models and *C. elegans* (18, 23, 48, 53). We expand

on previous investigations of high sugar diets in C. elegans to investigate mechanistic links between high

sugar, mitochondrial disfunction, and dopaminergic neurodegeneration (Table 1). Our exposure

paradigm begins in early adulthood, but like previous work still leads to decreased lifespan, increased

lipid accumulation, and decreased reproduction. Despite these similarities, our results were inconsistent

with previous findings in which high glucose induced degeneration of dopaminergic neurons, decreased

dopamine levels, and exacerbated monocrotophos-induced neurotoxicity (18, 54). In this study we did

not find a change in neurodegeneration after chronic, non-developmental high-glucose and high-

fructose diets. Rather, we found that these diets protected from 6-OHDA-induced dopaminergic

neurodegeneration. After assessing a number of potential mechanisms of protection, we propose that

the protective effect is mediated by decreased 6-OHDA uptake via the DAT-1 transporter.

Counter to previous work showing electron transport chain impairment and severe

mitochondrial dysfunction (16, 20, 53), we only identified a slight elongation of the mitochondria in

dopaminergic neurons of glucose fed worms, and no change in those fed fructose. No difference in

mitochondrial function was detected with whole worm respirometry, total ATP levels, or ATP:ADP ratio

within the CEP neurons. The only apparent indication of bioenergetic dysfunction induced by the high

sugar paradigm was in response to challenge by the Complex I inhibitor rotenone, which caused nearly

40% greater ATP depletion in sugar-fed worms. 80 mM and 100 mM glucose dose-dependently

decreased the activity of Complex I in a previous *C. elegans* study, without alteration to ATP, ADP, or

AMP concentrations (16). It is plausible that lower Complex I activity decreased the dose of rotenone

required to completely inhibit Complex I function, or that glycolysis is already enhanced by the high

sugar diets, preventing further transition to glycolytic metabolism. We previously demonstrated the

upregulation of glycolysis in rotenone-treated worms (55) , though not in the context of high-sugar

diets. Because different cell types rely on different bioenergetic pathways, we next tested whether the

increased susceptibility to acute electron transport chain inhibition we observed on the organismal level

would also be observed within the CEP neurons. Remarkably, sugar-fed worms showed no discernable

difference in ATP:ADP ratio after 6-OHDA exposure, which is inconsistent with energetic deficit causing

neurodegeneration, since the same sugar exposures protected against 6-OHDA-induced

neurodegeneration. Furthermore, as the vehicle in our neurodegeneration experiments also decreases

ATP:ADP ratio but did not cause neurodegeneration, it is improbable ATP depletion is the mechanistic

step responsible for 6-OHDA induced dopaminergic neurodegeneration. Earlier work characterizing

rotenone similarly noted that redox stress, not ATP depletion, is critical for its induction of

neurodegeneration (56, 57).

Numerous studies with acute sugar exposure models have detected increased antioxidant

enzyme expression or increased total glutathione levels (15, 39), which would protect from the oxidative

stress induced by 6-OHDA. However, we found no differences in total glutathione, redox tone of the

glutathione pool, or expression of antioxidant enzymes in the glutathione-related, superoxide

dismutase, catalase, peroxiredoxin, or thioredoxin families. It is possible that differences in mRNA

and/or protein levels specifically within the CEP neurons existed but were not detected in our whole-

organism gene expression analysis. However, many previous studies that detected upregulated

antioxidant defenses after acute exposures also employed whole-organism measures, making this

explanation less likely. Our chronic exposure paradigm may result in adaptations across the lifetime of

the worm in glucose uptake, transport, and utilization culminating in a loss of the acute-phase oxidative

stress response, explaining our lack of effects. Despite finding a decreased oxidative response to 6-

OHDA in the CEP neurons of sugar-fed worms, it is unlikely a result of enhanced antioxidant defenses.

Having ruled out redox changes and bioenergetic inhibition as the mechanism for neuroprotection, we

next considered the possibility of altered 6-OHDA uptake in high-sugar fed worms.

297   The DAT-1 transporter is required for 6-OHDA uptake into the CEP neurons and inhibition of

DAT-1 is protective from 6-OHDA induced degeneration (31, 32).   *dat*-1 mutants were among the

earliest to be identified as sensitized to swimming induced paralysis (SWIP), and synaptic localization of

DAT-1 is required for to prevent SWIP (58). Our account of the increased tendency towards SWIP after

sugar exposure is consistent with modified dopamine transport in these worms. This could be an

attempt to maintain dopamine in the synaptic cleft despite lower total dopamine levels, a possibility

bolstered by recent evidence that high glucose diets decrease dopamine levels (54). Though little work

has explored the relationship between DAT-1 and high sugar diets, recent work in *C. elegans*

demonstrated 80% decreased fluorescence of *dat-1* promoter driven GFP after high-glucose exposure

(54). In mammalian models, high glucose diets activate PKC, which drives DAT endocytosis, opening the

possibility for a similar high sugar driven effect in worms (59-61). Notably, alterations to SWIP were not

associated with increased neurodegeneration.

Beyond the toxicant-induced neurological impacts, we also deepen understanding of how the two most

consumed sugars compare in their biological effects. High-glucose and high-fructose diets in our study

produced similar but non-identical effects in nearly all experiments. Only glucose-fed worms exhibited

elongated neuronal mitochondria, and in general, apart from lifespan, fructose-fed worms typically

showed a less significant departure from controls than glucose-fed worms. These discrepancies may be

explained by differences in the metabolism of these sugars, but it remains clear that the pathways

driving alterations in dopaminergic function, lifespan, reproduction, and ATP production are impacted in

very similar ways. This may indicate that in models with more complex organ systems, where stronger

differences between sugar types have been observed, those differences are driven by tissue-specific

metabolism and responses. For example, fructokinase, fructose bisphosphate aldolase-B, and

dihydroxyacetone kinase, the three enzymes responsible for fructose metabolism, are only found in the

liver and kidney of rats (62). In *C. elegans*, hexokinases (HXK-1,2,3) predicted to be the first step in

fructose metabolism, are expressed ubiquitously (63). Thus, the reported mitochondrial swelling and

respiratory dysfunction induced only by fructose in rat livers may be a result of specific mitochondrial

dynamics and concentrated fructose metabolites in the liver and kidneys, versus the potentially non-

tissue-specific metabolism in worms (64). It should be noted, in the same study in rats, high sugar diets

had generally similar effects on fatty acid oxidation and mitochondrial protein acetylation in isolation,

but divergent effects when supplemented on top of a high fat diet (64). Thus, further examination of

dietary components in isolation and combination will be required to understand the complex dynamics

governing effects of different sugars and how they relate to other model organisms.

The interaction between diet and toxicant exposure remains an active area of investigation due

to the plethora of dietary alterations and chemicals (65-70). High sugar diets elucidate several metabolic

and oxidative stress pathway alterations, depending on the exposure paradigm, leading to interactions

with toxicants that target the same pathways. In *Drosophila melanogaster*, high glucose enhances

Bisphenol A toxicity by exacerbating downregulation of testis-specific genes and upregulation of

ribosome-associated genes (70). In *C. elegans*, high sugar diets increase susceptibility to monocrotophos

and parathion, including increasing the damage inflicted on dopaminergic neurons (17, 18, 71). We

show that both high-glucose and high-fructose decrease susceptibility to 6-OHDA induced

neurodegeneration but enhance susceptibility to rotenone induced ATP depletion. Together, these data

highlight the critical need to continue assessing toxicant by diet interactions for multiple endpoints, as

the outcomes are likely highly specific to the tissue of interest and toxicokinetics of each chemical used.

340   There are also limitations to our study. We do not address how ecologically relevant

neurotoxicants would interact with high sugar consumption. Due to the unique toxicokinetic effect of

DAT-1 on 6-OHDA uptake, which would not generally be conserved for other dopaminergic toxicants,

impacts of high sugar should be examined not only with ecologically relevant pollutants, but toxicants

with varied mechanisms of toxicity. It is also possible the mechanisms we observe are limited to our

exposure paradigm. As shown in Table 1, previous investigations often rely on developmental acute

exposures and show different neurodegenerative results. Further work is required to understand the

patterns of redox, bioenergetic, and dopaminergic transmission changes that occur both as a function of

age and sugar consumption.

Conclusions:

Non-developmental high-glucose and high-fructose diets are protective against 6-OHDA induced

dopaminergic neurodegeneration, potentially due to their modifications of dopamine transmission

processes decreasing 6-OHDA uptake. Intriguingly, this protection occurs despite decreased lifespan,

decreased fecundity, and increased lipid storage. As demonstrated by the lack of neurodegeneration

induced by ATP depletion, the induction of oxidative stress appears to be more important in the

induction of dopaminergic neurodegeneration by 6-OHDA. This study highlights the important

interactions between lifestyle factors such as diet, oxidative stress, and susceptibility to toxicant induced

dopaminergic neurodegeneration.

Materials and Methods:

Strains and Culture

The wild-type CGC (N2), LIU2, BY200, JMN080(pdat-1::MLS::GFP), SJ4103, JV2, PE255 (*feIs5*), and
PHX2923 (pdat-1::PercevalHR), PHX2867 (pdat-1::MLS::roGFP), were maintained at 20 C on K-agar plates
seeded with OP50 *E. coli*. For experiments, worms were synchronized through egg-lays as in which
worms were transferred onto new plates, allowed to lay eggs for 3 hours, then washed to remove
adults. They were aged to adulthood on K-agar plates seeded with OP50 *E. coli*. As D1 adults (72 hours
post egg lay), worms were evenly split between NGM, NGM + 100 mM glucose, or NGM + 100 mM
fructose plates freshly seeded with OP50 E. coli. They were transferred daily to freshly seeded plates to
discount effects of plate acidification. All worms were reared from D1-D5 of adulthood on their
respective group plate (control, glucose, or fructose). On D8 assays were run, initiated, or worms were
returned to K-agar OP50 plates as described for individual assays.

Generation of transgenic strains

Generation of dat-1p::MLS::GFP

To generate the *dat-1*p::MLS::GFP plasmid, a 886 bp fragment directly upstream of the dat-1 start codon
was amplified from wildtype (N2 Bristol type) genomic DNA, using primers with overhangs that
contained homology to a plasmid containing a mitochondrial localization sequence (MLS) and GFP,
Forward Primer 5'→3': agggcgaattgggtaccCGTCTCATTCCTCATCTCCGAGC and Reverse Primer: 5'→3':
GTGCCATatcgatGGCTAAAAATTGTTGAGATTCGAGTAAACCG. The mitochondrial localization sequence was
originally amplified from Fire Vector pPD96.32. pPD96.32 was a gift from Andrew Fire (Addgene plasmid
1504 ; http://n2t.net/addgene:1504 ; RRID:Addgene_1504). The amplified dat-1 promoter was
inserted into the plasmid containing the MLS and GFP using Gibson Assembly and insertion was
confirmed by colony PCR with a nested GFP reverse primer and M13 Forward primer. The plasmid was
sequenced to check for any mutations and co-injected with 50 ng/µl unc-119 rescue DNA, 50 ng/µl
pBsSK, and 50 ng/µl EcoR1 cut salmon sperm DNA into unc-119(ed4) hermaphrodites. Once
extrachromosomal lines were established and dat-1p::MLS::GFP signal was observed, plasmid was
integrated by gamma irradiation as previously described (72). Integrated lines were outcrossed with N2
to remove possible background mutations.

Generation of dopaminergic neuron PercevalHR and mitochondrial roGFP

Worm strains expressing mitochondrial targeted reduction oxidation sensitive GFP (roGFP) and
PercevalHR within the dopaminergic neurons were generated by SunyBiotech
(https://www.sunybiotech.com). Both constructs were cloned into the pPD95.77 vector and included
890 bp of the *dat-1* promoter (ending just upstream of the start codon) amplified from genomic DNA

and the 5'UTR from the *unc-54* gene present in the pPD95.77 vector. We inserted the reporter genes
immediately downstream of the *dat-1* promoter and upstream of the *unc-54* 5'UTR. The mito-roGFP2-
Grx1 coding sequence was adapted from pUAST mito roGFP2-Grx1 (Addgene Plasmid# 64995) by codon
optimizing for expression in *C. elegans* using the *C. elegans* Codon Adapter (73) and a single intron was
added 402 bp downstream of the start codon. The Perceval-HR coding sequence was adapted from
pRsetB-his7-Perceval (Addgene Plasmid# 20336) by codon optimizing for *C. elegans* expression and a
single intron was added 444 bp downstream from the start codon. The construction of the plasmids,
verification by sequencing, microinjection into animals, integration, and isolation of individual strains
were performed by SUNY Biotech. We received three low-copy-number strains for each construct, and
all three strains were phenotypically normal.

Fluorescence Microscopy

Strain and specific image analysis details are listed below for each individual endpoint. However, all
strains were imaged with a Keyence BZX-2710 microscope. Unless otherwise specified, worms were
transferred by stainless steel pick to 2% w/v agarose pads, anesthetized with 15-20 uL 0.5 M sodium
azide, and imaged immediately. All quantitative image analysis was performed using Fiji ImageJ
software. Background subtraction was performed for all quantitative microscopy by subtracting the
equivalent measurement (mean grey value, etc) of a region in the image without a worm present.

Fat Quantification

After 5 days of dietary exposure, LIU2 worms were washed off plates and washed three times with K-
medium to remove bacterial debris. Worms were visualized in brightfield and under and EGFP or
TexasRed filter with a 10X objective. Three independent experiments were conducted, with
approximately 20 worms per treatment group imaged in each. Worm bodies were outlined as the region
of interest (ROI) and mean grey value was determined within the full body of the worm.

Lifespan

Lifespan assays were carried out with few modifications from previous descriptions (source). After 5
days of dietary exposure, 50 BY200 transgenic worms from each treatment group were transferred to 6
cm K-agar plates seeded with OP50. Worms were transferred to fresh plates every third to fourth day
and monitored daily for death. Worms were considered dead if they displayed no touch response when
poked with a steel pick and no bodily movement was observed. Animals that crawled off the plate or
died due to vulval protrusion or bagging were censored. The data is represented as starting on day 8 as
only worms that were alive on day 8 were used for subsequent analysis.

Reproduction

Single worms were transferred to individual 6 cm NGM or NGM + sugar plates as late L4. They were
transferred to a second plate 48 hours later, then were transferred every 24 hours to the remaining
plates. Progeny were counted 48 hours after the adult was removed. At least 5 worms per treatment
were utilized in each of three biological replicates.

Dopaminergic Neurodegeneration

Exposure and Imaging
On day 5 of dietary exposure, worms were washed and dosed with 25 mM or 50 mM 6-
hydroxydopamine (6-OHDA) in 10 mM or 20mM Ascorbic Acid (AA) solution [Ascorbic Acid, K+ mixture
(K-medium, Cholesterol, $CaCl_2$, $MgSO_4$)]. Control groups were incubated in an identical volume of only
the AA solution. All groups were incubated for 1 hour with rocking and subsequently washed with K-
medium solution three times to ensure complete removal of 6-OHDA. They were replated on K-agar
plates seeded with 2X OP50 and incubated at 20 C for 48 hours prior to imaging. Images were obtained
with the 40X objective in Z-stacks encompassing the full head of the worm. Images were processed by
generating maximal value Z-projections of stacks with FIJI ImageJ software and cropped to only display
the head region of a single worm per image.
441
Scoring
Images were blindly scored with the open access software Blinder, by Solibyte solutions (74). Each
dendrite of the four CEP neurons of each worm were scored on a scale of 0-4, as follows:
0- no visible damage or abnormalities
1-blebs or kinks encompassing less than 50% of the dendrite
2-blebs or kinks on encompassing more than 50% of the dendrite
3-breaks present with more than 50% of the dendrite remaining
4-breaks present with less than 50% of the dendrite remaining
To ensure scoring validity, the built-in Quality Control feature was utilized, and images were rescored
until the error was less than 15%.
452

Seahorse Analysis

On day 5 of dietary exposure, whole worm respirometry was performed with a Seahorse Xf^{e}24
Extracellular flux analyzer as previously described (75), with the following modifications: Worms were
diluted to approximately 30 worms per well to maintain optimal oxygenation of the well during the
protocol and 40 uM DCCD was utilized to obtain maximal inhibition of mitochondrial electron transport
chain Complex V. 100-500 worms were reserved from each replicate and immediately imaged on K-agar
plates for size determination. Worm volume was quantified using the WormSizer ImageJ plugin for
normalization to worm volume .

Mitochondrial Morphology

On Day 5 of adulthood, strains SJ4103 and JMN080 worms were imaged with the 60X and 40X objectives
respectively. Images were taken as z-stacks encompassing the full muscle cell and maximally projected
for analysis in ImageJ. CEP neuron mitochondria were analyzed for the number and length of each
mitochondrion within each dendrite by using the line tool to manually trace each mitochondrion. Body
wall muscle mitochondria were analyzed for mean grey value per muscle cell as a proxy for total
mitochondrial mass.

Swimming Induced Paralysis

On day 5 of the dietary exposure protocol approximately 10 worms were picked by flame sterilized steel
pick into 100 uL of Millipore water in one well of a 96 well plate, each well was recorded for a minimum
of 10 minutes from the time the pick was removed from the water. Videos were analyzed for the
percentage of worms paralyzed at one-minute intervals for ten minutes, starting from the time the pick

entered the water. Worms were considered paralyzed when they were completely rigid for 5 second
intervals before and after the one-minute mark.

Autofluorescence

On day 5 of dietary exposure, Bristol N2 worms were imaged with the 10X objective under brightfield,
405 nm, and 488 nm excitation. The brightfield image was used to select the entire body of the worm as
the ROI and fluorescence was quantified in each respective channel as mean grey value.

roGFP and PercevalHR imaging

On day 5 of dietary exposure, dat-1p::MLS::roGFP or JV2 worms, were paralyzed with 1 mM levamisole
HCl and imaged. PercevalHR was mounted on 5% w/v agarose pads and imaged without paralytics. JV2
was imaged with the 10X objective and both dopaminergic strains were imaged with the 40X objective
at 405 nm and 488 nm excitation. Mean grey value was quantified and compared in as a ratio or
405/488 for roGFPs and 488/405 for PercevalHR.

qPCR

On day 5 of dietary exposure RNA was extracted via the Qiagen RNeasy Mini Kit (Qiagen 74104). Briefly,
100-200 worms were collected into conical tubes in K-medium. All animals were shaken for 10 minutes
on an orbital shaker to clear gut bacteria, transferred to a 1.5 mL microcentrifuge tube, and suspended
in RLT buffer. Samples were immediately flash frozen in liquid nitrogen and thawed on ice. Disruption of
the worm cuticle was then completed by bead beating with zirconia beads for 8 cycles of 30 seconds
beating and 1 minute on ice. Homogenate was then utilized in accordance with kit instructions. cDNA
was synthesized from 2 ug total RNA with a high-capacity cDNA Reverse Transcription Kit in 20 uL
reactions (Thermo Fischer, Ref. 4368814). We carried out qPCR using diluted cDNA, Power SYBR Greeen
Master Mix (Thermo Fischer 4368702) and 0.5 µM of gene-specific primers (Sup Table 1) in a CFX96
qPCR Real-Time PCR module with C1000 Touch Thermal Cycler (BioRad). After 10 minutes at 95°C, a
two-step cycling protocol was used (15 seconds at 95°C, 60 seconds at 60°C) for 40 cycles. We calculated
relative expression using the ΔΔCt method with cdc-42 and tba-1 as reference genes. Genes only
expressed in the dopaminergic neurons, dat-1, dop-3, and cat-2, required an additional 10 cycles of PCR
amplification prior to qPCR for adequate detection.

Total GSH levels

On day 5 of dietary exposure, 200 worms from each group were suspended in 75 uL of MES buffer in 1.7
mL conical tubes. Approximately 50 uL 0.5 mm zirconium oxide beads were added to each tube. Samples
were homogenized via bead beating (8 cycles, 30s on sonication, 30s without sonication at 4 C). Next, 65
uL of homogenate was recovered, with 10 uL transferred to a new tube for protein quantification and 55
uL diluted by half with 5% w/v metaphosphoric acid for total GSH quantification. GSH quantification was
completed in accordance with instructions for tissue homogenate (Cayman Chemical Kit No.703002).
Protein quantification for each sample was conducted by BCA Assay in accordance with kit instructions
(Millipore Sigma 71285M).

Whole Worm ATP Levels

Strain PE255 worms were reared in accordance with the dietary exposure protocol, challenged with 20
uM rotenone for 1 hour, and transferred to 96-well plates for Luciferin-based ATP quantification as

previously described (76). Luminescence was normalized to number of worms per well rather than GFP
due to autofluorescence differences.

Graphing and Statistical Analysis

GraphPad Prism version 9.5.0 was used for all graph generation and statistical testing. Statistical tests
are identified in the figure legend of each graph.

Figure Legends:

Figure 1. High-sugar diets increase lipid content, decrease reproduction, and shorten lifespan. **A** Fat
quantification and **B** representative images of 8-day old LIU2 worms reared on control (n=77),100 mM
glucose (n=83), or 100 mM fructose (n=74) supplemented NGM plates with OP50 as a food source. **C**
Total number of progeny (n=15 per treatment) **D** progeny laid per day (n=15, per treatment, p-
interaction<0.0001) of individual worms plated on 6 cm control or sugar supplemented plates from late
L4 to post-reproductive age. **E** Lifespan analysis of worms treated from days 1-5 of adulthood on control
(n=141, median survival 23 days), glucose (n=146, median survival 21 days, p=0.0271), or fructose
(n=137, median survival 17 days, p=0.0001) supplemented NGM plates then transferred to K-agar OP50
plates until death. Only worms that were alive on day 5 of adulthood were utilized. For **A-D**, Shapiro
Wilks normality tests were used to confirm distribution normality of the data. One-way ANOVA followed
by Tukey's Post-Hoc was used for A and C to determine p-value. For D, a two-way ANOVA with Tukey's
post-hoc was used. For **E**, a Kaplan-Meier survival analysis was performed in conjunction with the Log-
rank test. *p<0.0332, **p<0.0021, ***p<0.0002, ****p<0.0001

Figure 2. High-sugar diets do not induce neurodegeneration and protect from the neurotoxicant 6-
hydroxydopamine (6-OHDA). **A** Representative images for each of the 5 scores used to assess
dopaminergic neurodegeneration **B** A comparison of neurodegeneration in control, glucose-fed, and
fructose-fed worms treated with a vehicle control of 5 mM Ascorbic Acid or 25 mM or 50mM of 6-
OHDA. Pairwise chi-squared analysis was run with a Bonferroni corrected p-value of < 0.003571 to
account for 14 pairwise comparisons.

Figure 3. High-glucose diet induces mild neuronal mitochondrial elongation. **A** The number of
mitochondria per dendrite, **B** average length of mitochondria per dendrite, **C** length of the longest
mitochondria per dendrite, and **D** sum of the lengths of all mitochondria within a dendrite in worms
reared on control (n=249), 100 mM glucose (n=127), or 100 mM fructose (n=134) supplemented NGM
plates. **A-D** Shapiro-Wilks Normality tests determined all data sets were non-normally distributed.
Kruskal-Wallis test followed by Dunn's multiple comparisons was used to establish p-values for
comparisons. *p<0.0332, **p<0.0021, ***p<0.0002, ****p<0.0001

Figure 4. High sugar diets do not alter baseline bioenergetics or protect from ATP depletion from
mitochondrial inhibitors. **A** Whole worm respirometry was performed on D8 worms after high-sugar diet

exposure to quantify mitochondrial respiratory function. Oxygen consumption rate was normalized to
worm number and volume to account for differences in body size. **B** Whole worm ATP levels were
quantified after dietary exposure to either control, high-glucose, or high-fructose conditions. Control,
glucose, and fructose exposed worms were also subjected to a 1-hour 20 uM rotenone challenge to
assess organismal response to electron transport chain inhibition. **C** Worms expression dat-
1::PercevalHR were exposed to control, high-glucose, or high-fructose conditions, and assessed on day 8
under after exposure to ascorbic acid or 50 mM 6-OHDA. *p<0.0332, **p<0.0021, ***p<0.0002,
****p<0.0001

Figure 5. High-sugar diets protect from 6-OHDA induced oxidative stress without detectable alteration to
antioxidant systems. **A** The redox tone of the glutathione pool was quantified to assess organismal
oxidative stress. Worms expressing roGFP ***** were reared from day 1-5 of adulthood on NGM plates
or NGM supplemented with 100 mM glucose or fructose. Control worms were exposed to 3% H_2O_2 as a
positive control for increased oxidation. **B** Subsequently, organismal total glutathione levels were
assessed control, glucose, and fructose fed worms. **C** Alterations to mRNA levels of multiple families of
antioxidants were assessed for alterations by qPCR. **D** To examine redox response within the CEP
neurons to 6-OHDA, worms expressing *dat-1*::mls roGFP were used and exposed to control, vehicle (5
mM Ascorbic Acid) or 50 mM 5-OHDA on day 5 of adulthood. **A-B** Normality was confirmed by a
Shapiro-Wilks normality test; One-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's Post-hoc was used to determine p-
values. **C** Relative gene expression was determined by the ΔΔCt method, and each gene was analyzed by
one-way ANOVA with Tukey's Post-hoc. **D** One-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's Post-hoc was used to
determine p-values. For all panels *p<0.0332, **p<0.0021, ***p<0.0002, ****p<0.0001

Figure 6. Dopamine transmission is altered in sugar-fed animals. **A** Relative expression of dopamine
synthesis, reuptake, and transporter genes was assessed via qPCR in worms reared on control NGM or
high-glucose or high-fructose supplemented plates. A one-way ANOVA with Tukey's post hoc was used
to determine p-values. **B** The tendency of sugar fed worms to undergo swimming induced paralysis
(SWIP) was determined. A two-way ANOVA with Dunn's post hoc was used to assess significance.
*p<0.0332

Supplementary Figure 1. Muscle cell mitochondrial mean grey value. SJ4103 worms were reared in
accordance with the dietary exposure protocol and imaged on day 8. Images were obtained using a
Keyence BZ-X710 with 60X magnification (oil immersion). Z-stacks were set to encompass the entirety of
the cell, and maximum projected for analysis. Individual cells were outlined as the region of interest for
analysis in Image J. Mean grey value was used as a proxy for total mitochondrial area (One-way ANOVA).

Supplementary Figure 2. Oxygen consumption rate normalized to worm number without accounting for
worm size. Whole worm respirometry was performed with the Seahorse XF24 Bioanalyzer and reported
as oxygen consumption rate normalized to the number of worms in each well. All wells from the same
biological replicate were averaged to produce n=1 (One-way ANOVA, Tukey's Post Hoc, *p<0.0332).

Supplementary Figure 3. Autofluorescence quantification at 488 nm and 405 nm excitation wavelengths.
N2 (wild-type) worms were reared on their respective sugar diets and imaged at day 5 of adulthood to
determine if high sugar diets alter worm autofluorescence. No significant difference was detected in the

N2 strain at 488 nm, however both high glucose and high fructose diets increase autofluorescence at
405 nm excitation (One way ANOVA, Tukey's Post Hoc,**p<0.0021,****p<0.0001)

Supplementary Table 1. Primers utilized for RT-qPCR

Gene	Forward (5'-3')	Reverse (5'-3')
cat-2	GGCGTTAGAGTTCAAGTTTGGT	CCGCTGTCAAAACCTTCTCC
cdc-42	GAGAAAAATGGGTGCCTGAA	CTCGAGCATTCCTGGATCAT
ctl-1,2,3	ACTAAAGTTTGGCCACACGG	CTTGGAGCATCTTGTCTGGC
dat-1	TTTTGCCATCCGGGTAGAGTC	GACATTGCTCTTTCCCTCTTCG
dop-3	CTTCTTGCTCGCTCTCGTTG	TGGAAGAGAACGATGAATGCG
gcs-1	ACAAGCCGAAGAGCAGGTGAATG	GCAAGCGATGAGACCTCCGTAAG
gsr-1	CGGATTTGATGTGACGCTTA	AAAGTTGCACGTCCTCGAAT
gst-1	CCGTCATCTCGCTCGTCTTAATGG	AGCCTTGCCGTCTTCGTAGTTTC
gst-10	TGGGAAGAGTTCATGGCTTG	AACTTCACTAGAGCCTCCGG
gst-4	AGTTGTTGAACCAGCCCGTGATG	GCCCAAGTCAATGAGTCTCCAACG
prdx-2	TATCGCCTTCTCTGACCGTG	AAGAGTCCACGGAAAGCAATT
sod-1	AAAATGTCGAACCGTGCTGT	CCGGGAGTAAGTCCCTTGAT
sod-2	CTCGCTGCCAGATTTACCAT	TGAACTTGAGAGCTGGCTGA
sod-3	GCAATCTACTGCTCGCACTG	CAGCCTCGTGAAGTTTCTCC
sod-5	AAACGTGCTGTAGCGGTTCT	TCCATGAAGTCCTGGTGACA
trx-1	AGCGGAAGATCTTTGTTCCA	AATTGCGTCTCCATTCTTGG
tba-1	TCATCTCGCAGGTTGTGTCT	GGTAAGCCTTGTCAGCAGAG

Availability of Data and Materials: *C. elegans* strains JMN080, PHX2923, and PHX2867 are available from
the corresponding author upon request. All other strains are available from the *C. elegans* Genome
Center. All data and the source video and images are available upon request.

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