Automated multimodal imaging of *Caenorhabditis elegans* behavior in multi-well

plates

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ABSTRACT

Large-scale assays of behavior in model organisms play an important role in genetic

screens, drug testing, and the elucidation of gene-behavior relationships. We have

developed an automated, high-throughput imaging and analysis method for assaying

behaviors of the nematode *C. elegans*. We use high-resolution optical imaging to

longitudinally record the behaviors of 96 animals at a time in multi-well plates, and computer

vision software to quantify the animals' locomotor activity, behavioral states, and egg laying

events. To demonstrate the capabilities of our system we used it to examine the role of

serotonin in *C. elegans* behavior. We found that egg-laying events are preceded by a period

of reduced locomotion, and that this decline in movement requires serotonin signaling. In

addition, we identified novel roles of serotonin receptors SER-1 and SER-7 in regulating the

effects of serotonin on egg laying across roaming, dwelling, and quiescent locomotor states.

Our system will be useful for performing genetic or chemical screens for modulators of

behavior.

INTRODUCTION

C. elegans behavioral assays are widely used to study biological mechanisms in diverse

areas such as aging (1, 2), sleep (3), development (4), and neurological disorders (5, 6).

Assays of worm behavior have traditionally been done by manual assays and visual

observations, which are labor intensive, subject to observer error, and low in throughput due

to examination of a single animal at a time.

To address these limitations, researchers have developed systems for analyzing worm

behaviors via video recording and software analysis (7, 8). These include methods for

imaging worms on standard agar plates (9–15), in microfluidic devices (16–21), and in multi-

well substrates (1, 22–26).

Our laboratory has been conducting behavioral screens for the effect of genetic

mutations and/or pharmacological compounds on various aspects of *C. elegans* behavior,

including locomotion, egg laying, and behavioral states such as quiescence, dwelling, and

roaming (1, 15, 21, 23, 27, 28). Toward this end, we sought to develop an efficient method

for screening a large number of conditions for multiple behaviors simultaneously.

Here, we report a method for multimodal behavioral recording and analysis of *C. elegans*

using 96-well plates. We developed a computer vision software toolbox to automate analysis

of several behavioral metrics including locomotion activity, behavioral states, locomotor

frequency, and egg laying. This automated approach is capable of continuously recording

behaviors from 96 individual animals simultaneously for several hours under controlled

conditions. We demonstrate the capabilities of this system by analyzing the roles of

serotonin signaling in locomotor and egg-laying behaviors. Our findings underscore the

extensive capabilities of longitudinal imaging systems for large-scale phenotypic assays.

RESULTS

System design for high-content imaging of multi-well assay platform

Our imaging platform contains a 20-megapixel CMOS camera, a C-mount lens, a 30 cm

diameter LED ring illuminator, and a plate holder (Fig. 1A). One or more worms in liquid

NGM media are prepared in each well of a 96-well plate and the plate is imaged under dark

field illumination (Figs. 1 A and B). The platform components are positioned to visualize

worms and embryos in each well while minimizing stray light from well edges (Fig. 1B).

Figure 1. System design and behavioral quantification. (A) Schematic of the imaging system and image of a

96-well assay plate containing one worm per well. (B) Detail of a well containing a single 1-day adult and multiple

eggs. (C) Activity is calculated as the sum of the number of pixels whose pixel value intensities change above a

threshold. The change in the pixel value intensity is calculated by the pixel-by-pixel difference of temporally

adjacent images. (D) Activity over time of two individual wild-type animals. (E) Locomotor frequency over time of

two wild-type animals. (F) Egg detection via Mask R-CNN from the original video frame (*Left*). The egg objects

are annotated with masks inferred by the model (*Right*). (G) Number of eggs laid for two wild-type animals.

Computer vision automates multimodal behavioral measurements

We developed image analysis software for quantifying animal locomotory and egg-laying

behaviors within each well. Using a combination of computer vision algorithms and

convolutional neural network (CNN), the software analyzes images to measure behavioral

parameters, including locomotion activity, locomotor frequency, and egg-laying rate (see

Methods).

Locomotion activity is computed through pixel-by-pixel subtraction of consecutive video

frames, with the activity defined by the number of pixels exhibiting intensity changes

between subsequent frames (Figs. 1 C and D) (3). To measure locomotor frequency we

used an algorithm based on analysis of image invariants (Fig. 1E) (29). The image analysis

software also employs a Mask-Region Convolutional Neural Network (Mask-RCNN) to

automatically annotate and enumerate worm embryos in each well (Figs. 1 F and G) (30,

31).

Evaluation of automated measurements

We tested the accuracy of our software in analyzing the locomotor frequency and egg-laying

events by comparing the software's measurements with those obtained through human

observation.

We evaluated the accuracy of automated frequency analysis by comparing it to manual

counts of head bends in 480 video clips (each 6 s long) of individual wild-type worms across

all 96 wells. The automated frequency results demonstrated good agreement with manual

data with an overall root mean squared error of 0.097 Hz and an R-squared value of 0.964

(29). We found that locomotion activity is also highly correlated with locomotor frequency by

comparing it with the ground-truth data (Fig. 2A).

To assess the accuracy of the egg-detector RCNN model, we applied it to identify and

count eggs across all 96 wells of the plate. The collected well images contained 1-day-old

adult wild-type worms alongside the eggs they laid, captured at 2 and 5 hours after animals

were transferred into the assay plate. We found that the egg counts inferred by the model

were in good agreement with those counted manually (Fig. 2B).

Together, the automated methods of our system accurately measure locomotion activity,

locomotor frequency, and embryo numbers through longitudinal imaging.

Figure 2. Evaluation of automated behavioral measurements. (A) Locomotion activity compared with the

frequencies calculated by manual observation of recorded videos. (B) Egg numbers inferred by the Mask-RCNN

model compared with those counted manually.

Automated tracking of locomotion, behavioral states, and egg laying

C. elegans locomotory and egg-laying behaviors are modulated by serotonergic,

dopaminergic, and peptidergic signaling (32–34). The *C. elegans* nervous system uses

serotonin (5-HT) to modulate both its locomotory and egg-laying behaviors, and external

serotonin has been found to inhibit locomotion and stimulate egg-laying activity (23, 35–37).

To evaluate our system's reliability and capability for large-scale assays, we tracked the

locomotion and egg-laying behaviors of wild-type and mutant *C. elegans* individuals under

controlled serotonin conditions (see *Methods* and Figs. 3 A-F). Animals were individually

housed in wells of an assay plate filled with liquid NGM and defined serotonin concentrations

(5-HT-: 0 mM; 5-HT+: 6.5 mM). In each experiment, we monitored up to 96 animals for 5 h,

which yielded 151 video clips with 5 fps and 20 s duration.

Both wild-type and mutant animals under serotonin-free conditions showed relatively

active locomotion (Figs. 3 A and B) and low egg-laying rates (Fig. 3C). In contrast, the

administration of exogenous serotonin induced diverse behavioral dynamics across the

tested strains (Figs. 3 D-F).

We defined parameters for quantifying each animal's locomotory states (38). We

calculated the mean of each animal's top 5% activity values across the experiment, and

used this value to define a normalized activity. This data allowed us to identify sedentary and

active bouts of locomotion using an empirical threshold (Fig. 3G) (23). We focused on

assessing the average locomotion activity, the fraction of time spent in the active state, and

the average locomotor frequency during the active state.

Wild-type and mutant animal populations exhibited diverse locomotion activity levels and

active locomotory states across genotypes and different levels of exogenous serotonin (Figs.

3 I and J). Both wild-type and mutant animals generally exhibited high activity levels and

spent the majority of time (over 78%) in the active state under the serotonin-free condition

(Figs. 3 I and J). With the addition of exogenous serotonin, activity levels and active state

fractions decreased in wild-type animals and in *egl-1* mutants (which lack HSN serotonergic

neurons that innervate egg-laying muscles) (Figs. 3 I and J). In contrast, *ser-1* and *ser-7*

mutants (deficient in G protein-coupled metabotropic receptors SER-1 and SER-7) exhibited

resistance to the effects of serotonin on locomotion activity and active state fractions, while

ser-1;ser-7 double mutants showed enhanced resistance to exogenous serotonin (Figs. 3 I

and J). This result suggests that the SER-1 and SER-7 receptors play a role in mediating

inhibitory effects of external serotonin on locomotor behavior.

We calculated the average locomotor frequency of each animal during its active state.

The average active locomotor frequency of wild-type and all tested mutant strains showed

little or no change in response to exogenous serotonin (Fig. 3K). Therefore, unlike the active

state fraction, the active locomotor frequency remained largely constant, independent of

exogenous serotonin. This experiment suggests that external serotonin on locomotion

primarily affects initiation of activity rather than alteration of an established locomotor

rhythm.

To characterize the egg-laying dynamics of each animal, we calculated the average egg-

laying rate and the midpoint egg-laying time t_{50}, the time taken to reach half of the total

number of eggs laid during the experiment (Fig. 3H). Under serotonin-free conditions, wild-

type animals averaged an egg-laying rate of 1.2 eggs/h (Fig. 3L). The population's t_{50}

values exhibited a biphasic distribution, with the majority displaying early midpoint egg-laying

times (Fig. 3M). Compared to the wild type, the mutant animals tested had similar egg-laying

rates but displayed different distributions in t_{50} (Figs. 3 L and M).

In the presence of exogenous serotonin, wild-type and *egl-1* mutant animals showed

significant increases in egg-laying rates and decreases in t_{50} values (Figs. 3 L and M). The

ser-1 and *ser-7* mutants had a moderate increase in egg-laying rates in response to

exogenous serotonin, while *ser-1;ser-7* double mutants maintained low egg-laying rates

(Figs. 3L). The high degree of variation in the t_{50} distribution observed in the *ser-1*, *ser-7*,

and *ser-1;ser-7* double mutants remained largely consistent with the addition of exogenous

serotonin (Figs. 3M). This result indicates that SER-1 and SER-7 receptors may be

necessary for normal serotonin-mediated egg laying involving both egg-laying rates and

temporal patterns.

In summary, our behavioral findings qualitatively agree with previously reported results

for each strain, encompassing behavioral parameters like locomotory state, locomotor

frequency, and egg-laying rate, as well as the effects of exogenous serotonin (4, 22, 27, 35,

37, 39–41). These experiments demonstrate our system's reliability, scalability, and

efficiency in concurrently and longitudinally assessing multi-metric behavioral dynamics.

Figure 3. Automated large-scale tracking of locomotory and egg-laying behaviors. (A-C) Heat maps of

activity (A), locomotor frequency (B), and egg-laying rate (C) for wild-type and mutant individuals (n = 32 for each

strain group). Each row in the heatmap shows the behavioral dynamics of a single animal. (D-F) Same as (A-C),

but for animals in an exogenous serotonin environment. (G) Normalized activity over time for an individual. The

data is normalized by the mean value of the 95th to 100th percentile of all activity values observed during the

experiment. Color represents the locomotor frequency of the individual. Gray dashed line indicates the threshold

value of normalized activity above which locomotion bouts are labeled as active states. (H) Cumulative number of

eggs released by two individuals. Red asterisk indicates midpoint egg-laying time (t_{50}), the time taken to reach

one-half of the total egg number accumulated at t = 5 h. (I) Locomotion activity of wild-type and mutant

individuals. (J) Fraction of time during active state of wild-type and mutant individuals. (K) Mean locomotor

frequency during active state of wild-type and mutant individuals. (L) Egg-laying rate of wild-type and mutant

animals. (M) Midpoint egg-laying time (t_{50}) of wild-type and mutant individuals. In (I-M), each point represents an

animal, red and blue indicate groups in the respective serotonin conditions, black bars represent population

mean ± SEM. *p < 0.05, **p < 0.01, ***p < 0.001.

Serotonin is required for preparatory movement decline during egg-laying

One advantage of our system is that it is capable of capturing locomotor and egg-laying

behaviors simultaneously. We examined the temporal correlation between locomotion and

egg-laying by extracting the locomotion pattern before and after each egg-laying event

throughout the recording period (Figs. 4 A and B). The average locomotor activity of wild-

type animals was found to decrease approximately 10 min prior to egg-laying events, with

the minimum activity reached roughly at the time the egg(s) were laid and subsequently

recovering to a baseline value within about 10 min (Fig. 4C). Observation of the video clips

revealed that the activity of individual animals during egg-laying events was consistently

lower than during adjacent periods during which no eggs were laid (individual traces in Fig.

4C). Notably, nearly every egg-laying event was preceded by a decline in activity, although

the magnitude and timing of the maximal activity drop varied substantially both within

individual animals and among different animals (Fig. 4C).

Since serotonin functions in circuits that control *C. elegans* locomotion and egg laying (4,

35, 37, 38, 42), we examined the effects of serotonin and the neurons regulating egg-laying

behavior on the control of locomotion. We asked how exogenous serotonin might modulate

the observed correlation between locomotion and egg-laying. In the presence of exogenous

serotonin the decline in movement around egg-laying events was more pronounced.

Furthermore, the timing of the activity decline and subsequent recovery occurred

approximately 4 min earlier than without exogenous serotonin (Fig. 4D).

Next, we explored the effects of endogenous serotonin signaling on the coordination

between egg-laying and locomotion. We analyzed mutant animals deficient in serotonin due

to a mutation in the biosynthetic enzyme tryptophan hydroxylase (TPH-1). While the overall

locomotion of *tph-1* mutants appeared normal (14), these mutants did not exhibit a decline in

movement around egg-laying events (Fig. 4E). The introduction of exogenous serotonin

restored this coordination deficit (Fig. 4F). Together, these results show that serotonin

signaling is required for the observed decline in movement during egg-laying events.

We further investigated the effects of neurons that regulate egg-laying behavior on the

coordination with locomotion, focusing on the role of HSNs, a pair of serotonergic neurons

crucial for a normal egg-laying process. We observed the behavior of *egl-1* mutants, which

specifically lack HSNs. While *egl-1* mutants did exhibit a decline in movement around egg-

laying events, the timing of their minimum activity was delayed, occurring consistently after

egg-laying (Fig. 4G). Administering exogenous serotonin to these groups restored the timing

delay (Fig. 4H). These results suggest that HSNs may play a modulatory role in coordinating

the interaction between egg laying and locomotion.

Figure 4. Serotonin is required for preparatory movement decline during egg laying. (A and B) Locomotion

activity and egg-laying dynamics for two individual wild-type animals in either the absence (A) or presence (B) of

exogenous serotonin (B). Black curves represent activity trajectories. Red dots indicate egg-laying events scored

by automated method, and dot size is used to visualize the egg-laying rate. (C and D) Average normalized

activity change around egg-laying events (red dashed line, aligned at $t = 0$) of wild-type animals (n = 32) in either

the absence (C) or presence (D) of exogenous serotonin. Blue line and shaded area indicate population mean ±

SEM. Gray dashed curves represent 20 randomly selected individual trajectories for each group. (E and F) Same

as (C and D), but for *tph-1* mutant animals (n = 32). (G and H) Same as (C and D), but for *egl-1* mutant animals

(n = 32).

The metabotropic serotonin receptors SER-1 and SER-7 regulate serotonin effects on reproduction in separate locomotory states

Our analyses of *C. elegans* locomotion activity and behavioral states showed that animals occasionally alternated between sedentary and active states (Figs. 3 A, D, and G). This alternation between states was influenced by exogenous serotonin and seemed to happen at a frequency similar to that of egg-laying events (Figs. 4 A and B). We asked whether there is a correlation between *C. elegans* egg-laying behavior and behavioral states and whether one is influenced or modulated by the other.

We discerned sedentary and active periods from the locomotion activity trajectories of individual animals and registered these periods with their respective egg-laying rates (Figs. 5 A and B). We noted that in serotonin-free environments, wild-type animals spent the majority of their time in the active state (Fig. 5A) and laid more eggs during these active periods (Fig. 5C). Conversely, in environments with exogenous serotonin, animals spent nearly equal amounts of time on sedentary and active states (Fig. 5B), with more eggs being laid during the sedentary states (Fig. 5C).

To compare the egg-laying activity between different locomotory states, we calculated the egg laying rate by dividing the total egg count during each state with the corresponding state duration. The data revealed that, irrespective of exogenous serotonin, wild-type animals consistently exhibited higher egg-laying rates during sedentary locomotor state (Fig. 5D).

The observed dual role of serotonin in regulating both locomotory states and egg-laying behavior (as shown in Figs. 5 A and B) prompted a closer examination of serotonin signaling in modulating the observed dependence of egg-laying behavior on locomotory states (Figs. 4C and 5D). We revisited the behavioral recordings of HSN-defective mutants (*egl-1*) and serotonin receptor mutants (*ser-1*, *ser-7*, and *ser-1;ser-7*), with a particular focus on the effects of exogenous serotonin on the egg-laying rate during distinct locomotory states. By

registering the egg-laying rate over time for each mutant individual and correlating it with the

respective locomotory states, we observed that both wild-type and *egl-1* mutant animals

experienced a significant increase in egg-laying rate during both sedentary and active states

when exposed to exogenous serotonin (Figs. 5 E and F). Interestingly, the *ser-1* and *ser-7*

mutants resisted the effects of exogenous serotonin on their egg-laying rates, but each

during one of the two states (Figs. 5 E and F). Meanwhile, the *ser-1;ser-7* double mutants

resisted the egg-laying effects of exogenous serotonin during both states (Figs. 5 E and F).

In summary, our findings suggest that *C. elegans* preferentially lay eggs during the

sedentary state, with serotonin receptors SER-1 and SER-7 distributing the effects of

serotonin on egg-laying behavior across distinct locomotory states.

Figure 5. Receptors SER-1 and SER-7 regulate serotonin effects on reproduction in separate locomotory

states. (A and B) Histogram of normalized activity (orange stairstep curve, right-side y-axis) and scatter plot

showing egg-laying rate versus normalized activity value (blue dot, left-side y-axis) for wild-type animals in either

the absence (A) or presence (B) of exogenous serotonin. In histograms, the height of the stairstep denotes the

relative probability of each of 20 bins of normalized activity, red dashed line indicates the threshold value of

normalized activity above which locomotion is flagged as active state, green and orange shaded areas represent

proportions of sedentary and active states. In scatter plots, each point represents a 20-sec bout of an individual

animal (n = 4832 bouts from 32 animals for each condition). (C) (*Upper*) Total number of eggs released by wild-

type animals during sedentary or active states in either the absence or presence of exogenous serotonin. (*Lower*)

Fraction of time of sedentary versus active states in respective serotonin conditions. (D) Egg-laying rate of wild-

type animals during sedentary or active states in either the absence or presence of exogenous serotonin. (E and

F) Egg-laying rate of wild-type and mutant individuals during sedentary (E) or active (F) state in either the

absence or presence of exogenous serotonin. In (C-F), each point represents an animal, black bars represent

population mean ± SEM. ***$p < 0.001$.

267 DISCUSSION

Our automated image recording and analysis system, set within the conventional 96-well

plates, yielded substantial benefits in throughput, preservation of animal individuality, multi-

metric behavioral output, and manageable and controlled external conditions. Our system

facilitates the individual evaluation of parameters involving locomotion activity, behavioral

states, and egg-laying behavior. This allows for the identification of diverse locomotion and

reproduction characteristics across individuals and populations.

We obtained large-scale longitudinal behavioral recordings of individual animals through

high-resolution imaging. The integrated computer-vision software toolkit automates

quantifying various behaviors, leveraging accurate assessments of animal motility,

locomotor rhythmicity, and egg laying. Applications enabled by our method included

pharmacological screens (43), screening genes essential for diverse neural functions (44),

and studies of complex behavioral patterns and states (45).

From our experimental demonstrations, we observed that wild type animals exhibit a

decline in movement decline during the egg-laying process. This finding diverges from those

of previous analyses in which locomotion was observed to increase around egg-laying

events (23, 40). This discrepancy may stem from variations in experimental food conditions;

while our studies monitored animals in food-free environments, prior experiments involved

animals on food, potentially altering their basal neural and behavioral states.

Our automated imaging and analysis pipeline is scalable, platform-independent, and built

from off-the-shelf parts. It is compatible with other standard or customized multi-array setups

used for large-scale behavioral assays (1). Additionally, its modular analysis algorithm and

customizable hardware configuration should allow for the integration of complex image-

analysis routines specific to various screening tasks. It also presents a versatile tool

adaptable to studying not just various sizes of *C. elegans* but potentially also other small

organisms like *Drosophila melanogaster* and its larvae.

Our multi-array and multi-metric behavioral tracking automation should facilitate rapid

execution of large, complex compound or genetic screens, making it possible to detect

subtle phenotypes that are usually difficult to identify with single-metric behavioral tracking

prevalent in existing systems. By assessing both locomotory and egg-laying activities, for

example, one can screen for mutants that have altered coordination between the two

behaviors or that exhibit subtle behavioral changes that target multiple respective

neurochemical signaling systems.

METHODS

C. elegans **strains and maintenance**

C. elegans strains were cultivated on *Escherichia coli* strain OP50 at 20 °C using standard

conditions (46). The wild-type strain (Bristol N2) and mutant strains used in this work were

obtained from the NIH *Caenorhabditis* Genetics Center. Mutant trains used in behavioral

assays are the following: MT1082 *egl-1(n487)*, DA1814 *ser-1(ok345)*, DA2100 *ser-*

7(tm1325), DA2109 *ser-7(tm1325); ser-1(ok345)*. All experiments were performed with 1-

day-old adult animals. Worm populations were synchronized by timed egg lays according to

standard methods (47).

Multi-well plate assays

To study the effect of various chemicals on egg-laying and locomotion behaviors, we used

96-well microtiter assay plates (Corning 3795, round bottom), with each well containing an

indicated number of worms immersed in 60 μL of NGM buffer dissolved with the chemical of

interest. The liquid NGM buffer consists of the same ingredients as solid NGM but without

agar, peptone, or cholesterol (48).

Image data acquisition and processing

The assay plate was placed on a platform within a custom-built imaging system. Dark-field

illumination was generated by an LED light ring (outer diameter 12 inches; Sunpak) above

the platform. A video was captured using a CMOS camera (DMK 33UX183, The Imaging

Source) with a C-mount lens (Fujinon HF12.5SA-1, focal length 35 mm, f/2.8 or Nikon, focal

length 55 mm, f/3.5 F-mount lens with a C-mount adapter) for 20 sec at 5 framerate

operated with IC Capture imaging software (The Imaging Source). A whole course of

behavioral assay was performed by capturing a sequence of the 20 s videos, each of which

was taken every 2 min for 5 h of recording time. The field of view of the system was set to

display all 96 wells of the plate, which yields an 18 μm pixel resolution.

Video imaging data from the assay plate was analyzed using custom-written MATLAB

and Python software. The behavioral outcomes from the analysis include locomotion activity,

locomotor frequency, and egg-laying behavior. Locomotion activity is defined as the number

of pixels whose intensity changes between subsequent image frames due to worms'

movements (1, 3). Locomotor frequency is calculated by our automated image analysis

software capable of rapidly estimating rhythmic behaviors (29). Egg-laying behavior is

quantified by the number of eggs released into the environment. Eggs are detected by a

trained mask-regional convolutional neural network (Mask-RCNN) (31).

Measuring locomotory behavior

We calculated locomotor activity using previously described methods (3, 27). Pairs of

temporally adjacent video images were subtracted to generate difference images, which

were then divided by the average pixel intensity, yielding normalized maps of pixel value

intensity change. A Gaussian smoothing filter with a standard deviation of one pixel was

applied to decrease image noise. A binary threshold was applied to the filtered image to

determine the presence or absence of movement at each pixel location. The sum of all

pixels exhibiting movement was calculated as the locomotor activity.

To calculate locomotor frequency we used our custom algorithm Imaginera (image

invariants ensemble for rhythmicity analysis) (29). For each video frame, our algorithm

estimates the pixel area of a worm (A_{worm}) in each well. When animals approached the

edge of wells, they were occasionally occluded such that the animals could not be easily

observed, decreasing A_{worm}. To mitigate the influence of this occlusion, we censored any

frames during which A_{worm} was smaller than a preset empirical threshold when calculating

locomotor activity or frequency.

Measuring egg-laying behavior

To evaluate egg-laying behavior, we counted the eggs that have been released into each

well in 20 s videos. Each video was sampled by 5 images that are linearly spaced across the

20 s period, with adjacent images separated by 4 sec. Following previously described

methods (30), we deployed a mask-regional convolutional neural network (Mask-RCNN) to

detect and identify eggs in each image. The Mask-RCNN model was trained, evaluated, and

deployed by PyTorch GPU (v2.0.0 + cu1.1.8) on a system equipped with a 13th Intel(R)

Core(TM) i7-13700K processor and an NVIDIA GeForce RTX 4080 GPU.

For the model training, 1653 cropped single-well images (containing eggs and worms)

from 18 videos in all 96 distinct well positions were manually annotated and saved as

training datasets using a Python annotation package. We augmented the training set using

operations including flipping, intensity adjustment, and Gaussian blurring, yielding a total of

6612 annotated images in the dataset. The model was trained for 25 epochs, during which

the training set was randomly divided into training and testing sets with an 80/20 split ratio

(5290 images for training, 1322 images for testing). We evaluated the Mask-RCNN model

using characterization metrics, including precision, recall, and average precision (AP) (49).

With the trained Mask-RCNN model, the egg number in an image was determined by

$N_{RCNN} = A_{RCNN}/a_0$, where A_{CNN} represents the pixel number of egg objects inferred by the

model, and a_0 is the pixel number of a single egg, estimated by $a_0 = \sum A_{train} N_{train}$ /

$\sum N_{train}^2$. Here, $\sum A_{train} N_{train}$ is the sum of the products of egg pixel number and egg

number manually counted from individual images in the training set, and $\sum N_{manual}$ is the

sum of egg numbers from the same set.

Mask R-CNN model characterization

We evaluated how well our model performed by calculating precision and recall as well as

average precision (AP). Precision is the proportion of true positive predictions (correctly

detected objects) among all positive predictions (correctly detected objects plus false

positives). Recall is the proportion of true positive predictions among all actual positive

instances (true positives plus false negatives). Average precision is calculated by computing

the area under the Precision-Recall curve through the following steps: (a) For each

confidence threshold, calculate precision and recall. (b) Interpolate the precision values by

taking the maximum precision for any recall value greater than the current recall value. (c)

Compute the area under the interpolated Precision-Recall curve using numerical integration.

To determine true positives (TP), false positives (FP), and false negatives (FN), we used

the Intersection-over-Union (IoU) threshold, which measures the overlap of the ground truth

bounding box and the prediction bounding box (49). An egg detection is considered a TP if

its IoU with the corresponding ground-truth bounding box is greater than or equal to the IoU

threshold. If the IoU is below the threshold, it is considered an FP. An FN is a ground-truth

bounding box that does not have a corresponding detection. An IoU threshold of 0.3 and a

confidence score threshold of 0.01 were used for our egg-detection model.

Experimental design and statistical analyses

Behavioral comparisons in locomotion activity, active state fraction, locomotor frequency,

and egg-laying rate (Figs. 3 I-L, Figs. 5 C-F) were performed using a two-tailed Student's *t*-

test. Differences in midpoint egg-laying time distributions (Fig. 3M) were compared using a

Wilcoxon rank sum test.

DATA AVAILABILITY

Strains are available upon request. The software and experimental sample data are

available at https://github.com/cfangyen/multiwell.

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