The *C. elegans* uv1 neuroendocrine cells provide direct mechanosensory

feedback of vulval opening

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<u>Abstract (250 words)</u>

Neuroendocrine cells react to physical, chemical, and synaptic signals originating from

tissues and the nervous system, releasing hormones that regulate various body

functions beyond the synapse. Neuroendocrine cells are often embedded in complex

tissues making direct tests of their activation mechanisms and signaling effects difficult

to study. In the nematode worm *C. elegans*, four uterine-vulval (uv1) neuroendocrine

cells sit above the vulval canal next to the egg-laying circuit, releasing tyramine and

neuropeptides that feedback to inhibit egg laying. We have previously shown uv1 cells

are mechanically deformed during egg laying, driving uv1 Ca^{2+} transients. However,

whether egg-laying circuit activity, vulval opening, and/or egg release triggered uv1 Ca^{2+}

activity was unclear. Here we show uv1 responds directly to mechanical activation.

Optogenetic vulval muscle stimulation triggers uv1 Ca^{2+} activity following muscle

contraction even in sterile animals. Direct mechanical prodding with a glass probe

placed against the worm cuticle triggers robust uv1 Ca^{2+} activity similar to that seen

during egg laying. Direct mechanical activation of uv1 cells does not require other cells

in the egg-laying circuit, synaptic or peptidergic neurotransmission, or TRPV and Piezo

channels. EGL-19 L-type Ca^{2+} channels, but not P/Q/N-type or Ryanodine Receptor

Ca^{2+} channels, promote uv1 Ca^{2+} activity following mechanical activation. L-type

channels also facilitate the coordinated activation of uv1 cells across the vulva,

suggesting mechanical stimulation of one uv1 cells cross-activates the other. Our

findings show how neuroendocrine cells like uv1 report on the mechanics of tissue

deformation and muscle contraction, facilitating feedback to local circuits to coordinate

behavior.

Significance Statement

Neuroendocrine cells respond to diverse physical and chemical signals from the body, releasing hormones that control reproduction, gut motility, and fight or flight responses. Neuroendocrine cells are often found embedded in complex tissues, complicating studies of how they are activated. Using the genetic and experimental accessibility of *C. elegans*, we find the uv1 neuroendocrine cells of the egg-laying motor behavior circuit respond directly to mechanical stimulation and vulval opening. We show that L-type voltage-gated Ca^{2+} channels facilitate uv1 mechanical activation and also coordinate cell activation across the vulval opening. In contrast to other mechanically activated cells, uv1 activation does not require Piezo or TRPV channels. This work shows how neuroendocrine cells relay critical mechanosensory feedback to circuits that control reproduction.

Introduction

How activity in neural circuits is coordinated to drive animal behaviors is a fundamental question in neuroscience. Neuroendocrine cells play essential, but understudied, roles in neural circuits. Neuroendocrine respond to physical, chemical, and synaptic signals from both tissues and the nervous system, produce action potentials and secrete hormones that act extrasynaptically to control body functions (Watson and Breedlove, 2016). For example, Enterochromaffin Cells in the gastrointestinal system respond to physical stretch via mechanoreceptors including Piezo channels, releasing serotonin that has a myriad of physiological functions (Alcaino et al., 2018; Linan-Rico et al., 2016). Pulmonary neuroendocrine cells in the lung respond to fluctuations in oxygen

levels and release bioactive neuropeptides (Bordon, 2016). Disruption of

neuroendocrine cell function can cause human disease. For example, dysfunction of

pulmonary neuroendocrine cells is related to several debilitating airway diseases

including acute hypoxia, asthma, and congenital diaphragmatic hernia (Bordon, 2016;

Cutz et al., 2007). How neuroendocrine cells respond to sensory and mechanosensory

signals, and how this regulates secretion of neurotransmitters and neuropeptides that

modulate downstream circuits and physiology, is not well understood. Neuroendocrine

cells express mechanosensitive ion channels that contribute to their mechanical

activation (Alcaino et al., 2017), but direct genetic tests exploring which physiologically

relevant signals contribute to neuroendocrine cell activation and signaling are lacking.

Since many neuroendocrine cells are found embedded in complex tissues, direct

experiments to manipulate and investigate the function of these cells can be technically

challenging. The uv1 neuroendocrine cells of the *C. elegans* vulval egg-laying

apparatus provide a convenient, genetically accessible model to investigate conserved

features of neuroendocrine cell signaling. Egg-laying behavior of *C. elegans* is driven by

a simple neural circuit (Collins et al., 2016). A pair of Hermaphrodite-Specific command

Neurons (HSNs) synapse onto vulval muscles, releasing serotonin and neuropeptides

that stimulates the contractility of the postsynaptic vulval muscles (Brewer et al., 2019;

Olson et al., 2023). The coordinated contraction of vulval muscles vm1 and vm2 open

the vulva and allow egg release (Brewer et al., 2019; Li et al., 2013). The vulval muscles

are also innervated by the female-specific cholinergic Ventral C (VC) motor neurons

(Pereira et al., 2015) which are mechanically activated during by muscle contraction,

facilitating serotonin-induced egg laying and its coordination with locomotion (Collins et

al., 2016; Kopchock et al., 2021).The circuit also has a set of neuroendocrine cells, the

uv1s, that are mechanically deformed and subsequently activated following passage of

eggs through the vulva and egg release (Collins et al., 2016). Once activated, the uv1

cells release tyramine and neuropeptides that signal to inhibit HSN activity and

terminate the egg-laying behavior active state (Alkema et al., 2005; Banerjee et al.,

2017; Collins et al., 2016). Whether uv1 activation is direct, or instead mediated by

other, rhythmic and sequential activity in the egg-laying circuit (Medrano and Collins,

2023), has not been explored. uv1 expresses three different TRPV channels that might

function as heteromers to facilitate their mechanical activation (Jose et al., 2007;

Upadhyay et al., 2016), but there have been no direct tests of their function in uv1

mechanical activation.

Here, we developed optogenetic and direct prodding methods to investigate how the

uv1 cells are mechanically activated. We found that optogenetic stimulation of vulval

muscle contraction, bypassing ongoing egg-laying circuit activity, triggers uv1

mechanical activation independent of egg passage. Direct mechanical prodding of uv1

similarly induced a strong and reproducible Ca^{2+} transient in uv1 cells. We show this

mechanical activation of uv1 cells is independent of other cells in egg-laying circuit,

neurotransmission, and candidate mechanically activated channels including TRPV and

Piezo (Bai et al., 2020; Jose et al., 2007). We find the L-type Ca^{2+} channel EGL-19

promotes uv1 activation independent of other voltage-gated and store-operated

channels. L-type Ca^{2+} channels also facilitate the coordinated activation of uv1 cells

across the vulval opening, suggesting uv1 mechanical interactions *in trans*

communicate feedback to the rest of the egg-laying behavior circuit.

Results

uv1 cells are mechanically activated in response to egg release.

Egg-laying behavior of *C. elegans* is driven by a simple neural circuit (Fig. 1A) (Collins et al., 2016). The uv1 cells sit at the dorsa-lateral surface of the vulval canal, adjacent to the HSN and VC presynaptic termini that release neurotransmitters onto the vm2 vulval muscle arms (Collins and Koelle, 2013; Ravi et al., 2018a). We developed ratiometric Ca^{2+} imaging methods to record *in vivo* cell activity in the circuit by using the calcium reporter GCaMP5 co-expressed with the Ca^{2+}-insensitive red fluorescent protein mCherry (Ravi et al., 2018b). Our previous uv1 Ca^{2+} reporter based on the *ocr-2* promoter/enhancer expressed rather weakly in the uv1 cells and with strong additional co-expression in head and tail sensory neurons along with the uterine seam (utse) cells (Collins et al., 2016; Jose et al., 2007). Combining the *tdc-1* promoter (Alkema et al., 2005) with the *ocr-2* 3' untranslated region (see methods), we improved the signal to noise of our uv1 Ca^{2+} imaging while reducing reporter expression in other cells. Ratiometric Ca^{2+} imaging with this new reporter in behaving worms shows the uv1 neuroendocrine cells were mechanically deformed by egg release leading to strong Ca^{2+} transient activity (Fig. 1B-C), as previously shown with the previous reporter (Collins et al., 2016).

Mechanosensitive TRPV channel subunits OCR-2, OCR-4, OSM-9 have previously been shown to be expressed in the uv1 cells (Jose et al., 2007). These heteromeric channels are thought to promote cell excitability (Upadhyay et al., 2016) and tyramine and release (Jose et al., 2007) to inhibit egg-laying behavior (Collins et al.,

2016). To better understand how TRPV channels regulate uv1 Ca^{2+} activity during egg

release, we performed ratiometric Ca^{2+} imaging in freely behaving *ocr-2(ak47), ocr-*

4(vs137) double mutants and *ocr-2(ak47), ocr-4(vs137), osm-9(cx10)* triple mutants

alongside wild-type control animals (Fig. 1C). We found that egg-laying events still

triggered strong uv1 Ca^{2+} activity in TRPV double and triple mutants (Fig. 1D-E).

Quantitation of uv1 Ca^{2+} transient peak amplitudes following egg-events were not

significantly different (Fig. 1F), suggesting no gross defects in uv1 cell activation. As

seen in wild-type animals, not all egg-laying events in TRPV mutants induced a Ca^{2+}

transient. While there was a significant increase in this failure rate in *ocr-2, ocr-4* double

mutants, this was not shared in the *ocr-2, ocr-4, osm-9* triple mutant animals (Fig. 1G).

These data show that while TRPV channels may regulate uv1 responses to egg-laying

events, they are not strictly required.

Figure 1: uv1 cells are mechanically activated in response to egg release

(**A**) Graphical representation of egg-laying circuit in *C. elegans* (Collins et al., 2016). (**B**) Micrographs of uv1 GCaMP5 and mCherry fluorescence and the GCaMP5/mCherry ratio before and after egg laying. Arrowheads indicate uv1 position and increase in GCaMP5 fluorescence; scale bar, 10μm. (**C**) Representative traces (10 min) of the uv1 GCaMP5/mCherry ratio in wild-type (black), *ocr-2 ocr-4* (red), and *ocr-2 ocr-4 osm-9* (blue) TRPV channel mutant animals; egg-laying events are indicated by arrowheads. (**D**) Scatterplots of uv1 Ca^{2+} transient amplitudes following egg-laying event in wild type (black), *ocr-2, ocr-4* (red), and *ocr-2, ocr-4, osm-9* (blue) mutant animals. Points represent each transient from 10 animals; bar indicates mean from X animals; n.s. represents $p > 0.05$; one-way ANOVA with Bonferroni's correction for multiple comparisons. (**E**) Bar graphs (±95% confidence interval for the proportion) comparing percentage of egg-laying events that fail to induce uv1 Ca^{2+} activity in wild-type (black), *ocr-2, ocr-4* (red), *ocr-2, ocr-4, osm-9* (blue). ** indicates $p < 0.01$ (Fischer's exact test).

Optogenetic vulval muscle stimulation triggers uv1 Ca^{2+} activity in response to vulval opening but not egg release.

Egg laying in *C. elegans* is a two-state behavior where 3-5 eggs are laid within ~2 min active states separated by ~20 min inactive states where no eggs are laid (Waggoner et al., 1998). As uv1 Ca^{2+} transient activity occurs when other cells in the egg-laying circuit are active (Collins et al., 2016), whether vulval opening and/or egg release mechanically activates uv1 directly or if the uv1 cells instead respond to signaling from other cell(s) in the circuit (or both) is not clear. To address whether vulval opening and/or egg release are sufficient to activate the uv1 cells, we transgenically expressed Channelrhodopsin-2 (ChR2) in the vulval muscles which allows for the optogenetic stimulation of the vulval muscles and egg release following exposure to blue light (Kopchock et al., 2021). As above, we co-expressed GCaMP5 and mCherry in the uv1 cells to record changes in uv1 Ca^{2+} activity following optogenetic vulval muscle stimulation (Fig. 2A). Vulval muscle stimulation was sufficient to trigger a rapid separation of the uv1 cells (Fig. 2B) which was accompanied by a sharp increase in uv1 cell Ca^{2+} activity (Fig. 2D) and egg laying. Analysis of distance between anterior and posterior uv1 cells showed a clear and significant separation starting ~2 s before egg release, confirming that optogenetic stimulation of the vulval muscles drove contraction (Fig. 2C). Interestingly, uv1 separation decreased almost immediately upon egg release, despite ongoing vulval muscle optogenetic stimulation (Fig. 2D). To test whether egg release was required for uv1 activation, we sterilized animals with Floxuridine (FUDR), which prevents generation of embryos (Mitchell et al., 1979). Importantly, sterilization does not impede optogenetic activation of the vulval muscles

(data not shown). Optogenetic vulval muscle stimulation induced robust uv1 Ca^{2+}

activity, even in sterilized animals (Fig. 2D). These results show that uv1 mechanically

responds to vulval opening, not by the deformation or passage of eggs *per se*, and is

separable in part from circuit activity normally associated with the egg-laying active

state.

Figure 2: Optogenetic stimulation of the vulval muscles drives uv1 activation in
response to vulval opening.
(A) Diagram of optogenetic method with Channelrhodopsin-2 expressed in vulval
muscles (orange) and GCaMP5/mCherry in the uv1 cells (purple). Arrowheads
represents blue light exposure and predicted uv1 GCaMP5 Ca^{2+} response (green). **(B)**
Micrographs of uv1 Ca^{2+} transient activity before and during ChR2 activation of vulval
muscles and egg laying. Arrowheads indicates position of uv1 cells following contraction
and vulval opening. **(C)** Average distance between anterior/posterior uv1 cells 5 s
before and after egg-laying events (n=50 egg-laying events from 13 animals). Grey area
indicated 95% confidence interval for the mean. Red dotted line indicates when eggs

got laid. **(D)** GCaMP5/mCherry ratio ($\Delta R/R$) trace of uv1 Ca^{2+} activity following ChR2
activation in animals with all-*trans* retinol (ATR; top, purple), with both ATR and
following FUDR sterilization (middle, blue), and in animals grown without ATR, a
necessary cofactor for ChR2 activity or FUDR (bottom, black). Egg-laying events are
indicated by red arrowheads. Blue horizontal lines represent continuous blue light
exposure.
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The uv1 cells are activated by direct mechanical stimulation.

While optogenetic stimulation of the vulval muscles bypasses activity in some

cells in the egg-laying circuit (Dhakal et al., 2022), it also induces activity in others like

the VC neurons (Kopchock et al., 2021). Vulval muscle activity can also promote

downstream Ca^{2+} transient activity in other cells of the circuit including the HSNs

(Medrano and Collins, 2023; Ravi et al., 2018a). To test whether direct stimulation of

uv1 cells is sufficient to induce Ca^{2+} activity, we used a pulled glass capillary probe to

deliver a mechanical stimulus to the uv1 cells in intact animals (Fig. 3A). We used a

motorized stage to move the worm body 50 μm towards the probe for 1 s. Direct

prodding of uv1 triggered a strong and reproducible Ca^{2+} transient (Fig. 3B-C), similar to

that seen during egg-laying events in freely behaving animals and following vulval

muscle optogenetic stimulation. Direct stimulation of one uv1 cell triggers Ca^{2+} activity in

the paired uv1 cell as well with no significant difference of Ca^{2+} transient amplitude (Fig.

3B and data not shown). In freely behaving worms, time from egg release to uv1 Ca^{2+}

transient peak takes ~3.2 s compared to that seen following prodding (5.6 s) or following

optogenetic triggering (5.7s) (data not shown). To optimize the direct stimulation

approach, we varied the displacement and stimulus duration. There was no detectable

uv1 Ca^{2+} response at 10 μm displacement while we found nearly 100% of prodded uv1

cells showed significant Ca^{2+} responses upon 40 μm displacement (Fig. 3D). While only

half of uv1s showed Ca^{2+} response following 20 μm displacement, when a Ca^{2+}

transient was observed, the amplitudes were equivalent (Fig. 3E). Changes in stimulus

duration also did not significantly affect whether the uv1 cells showed a Ca^{2+} transient

with 0.5, 1 and 2 s showing equivalent responses (Fig. 3E). Interestingly, a second uv1

stimulation induced a significantly weaker Ca^{2+} response (Fig. 3C and 3F). This was not

merely a consequence of delay on the stage, as animals waiting 2 min before

stimulation showed similar uv1 Ca^{2+} transient amplitudes compared to those animals

that were stimulated immediately (Fig. 3F). This suggests the uv1 cells lose their

sensitivity to subsequent mechanical stimulations. Together, these data show the uv1

Ca^{2+} transients to prodding are all-or-none: small displacements fail to activate uv1 cells

to a detectable degree while sufficiently large displacements trigger similar activity.

Figure 3: uv1 cells are strongly activated in response to manipulated direct mechanical stimulation.
(A) Cartoon (top) of uv1 cells and micrograph demonstrating the mechanical prodding technique. A glass probe (arrowhead, black outline) is used to stimulate uv1 cells (purple). Brightfield micrograph (bottom) of the direct prodding method. Red arrow indicates the vulval position. The probe on the right points to the position of uv1 cells. The stage moves toward the needle, delivering the mechanical stimulus. **(B)** Micrographs of uv1 GCaMP5 and mCherry fluorescence and the GCaMP5/mCherry ratio before, during, and after direct prodding to uv1 cells. Arrowheads show uv1 position and induced GCaMP5 fluorescence following stimulation. **(C)** Averaged GCaMP5/mCherry ratio trace of uv1 Ca^{2+} transient activity in response to mechanical stimulation (n=20 animals). Red dots indicate prodding which lasts for 1 s. The stage displacement moves the worm 50 μm toward the probe which is placed opposed to the uv1 cells. A second stimulation occurs 2 minutes after first prodding event. Arrowheads indicate the Ca^{2+} transient peak. Blue open circles indicate the time of decay from Ca^{2+} transient peak down to 36.8%. **(D)** Box and whisker plot showing the percentage of uv1 cells showing Ca^{2+} transient activity relative to stage moving distance. Error bars represent ±95% confidence interval for the mean proportion. **(E)** Scatterplot of uv1 Ca^{2+} transient amplitude at different stage displacements (left) and stimulus durations (right). Error bars represent ±95% confidence interval for the mean. There are no significant differences between any bars. **(F)** Scatterplot of uv1s Ca^{2+} transient amplitude after first (red) and second (blue) stimulation and when only stimulated animal once after 120 s. Error bars represent ±95% confidence interval for the mean. A second stimulation induced a significantly weaker Ca^{2+} response compared to the first stimulation (p=0.0004, one-way ANOVA with Bonferroni's correction for multiple comparisons). uv1 Ca^{2+} transient amplitudes in animals only receiving a single stimulus after 120 s are slightly increased relative to animals stimulated immediately (p=0.0203, one-way ANOVA with Bonferroni's correction for multiple comparisons).

uv1 activation is independent of synaptic transmission.

Even though the timing of uv1 Ca^{2+} activity following stimulation suggested the

uv1 cells responded directly to mechanical input, it remained possible that signals from

other cells contribute to the response. We first tested the role of the HSN and/or VC

neurons (Fig. 4A). We prodded the uv1 cells in animals bearing the *egl-1(n986dm)*

mutation that causes the premature death the HSN command neurons (Conradt and

Horvitz, 1999) or animals transgenically expressing Tetanus Toxin in the VC neurons

(Kopchock et al., 2021). We found mechanical stimulation of uv1 cells in these animals

triggered strong uv1 Ca^{2+} transients like wild type (Fig 4.B-C). Loss of HSNs, but not

transmission from VCs, led to a modest but significant decrease in uv1 Ca^{2+} transient

amplitude (Fig 4F), there was no difference in peak onset or decay time (data not

shown). Overall, these results show direct mechanical stimulation activates uv1 without

HSN or VC input.

To determine if uv1 activity in response to mechanical stimulation requires cells

outside egg-laying circuit, we prodded *unc-13(s69)* mutants defective in synaptic vesicle

exocytosis (Richmond et al., 1999) and *unc-31(e928)* CAPS mutants defective in dense

core vesicle exocytosis (Speese et al., 2007). Both mutants showed similarly strong uv1

Ca^{2+} activity after mechanical stimulation compared to wild type worms (Fig 4D-E).

Notably, uv1 Ca^{2+} transient amplitudes were significantly reduced in *unc-31(e928)*

mutants (Fig. 4F), like that seen in *egl-1(n986dm)* mutants lacking HSNs. These results

show that neurotransmitter or neuropeptide signaling is not strictly required for

prodding-induced uv1 Ca^{2+} transient activity, although neuropeptide signaling, possibly

from HSNs (Brewer et al., 2019), may modulate uv1 mechanosensory responses.

Figure 4: uv1 activation is independent of synaptic transmission
(A) Cartoon of the egg-laying circuit in *C. elegans* (top) and presynaptic neuronal exocytosis (bottom) **(B-E)** Averaged prodding-induced uv1 Ca^{2+} transient responses in wild-type, *egl-1(n986dm)* mutant animals **(B),** transgenic animals expressing Tetanus Toxin in the VC neurons **(C)** *unc-13(s69)* **(D)**, or *unc-31(e928)* **(E)** animals. n indicates number of animals tested and pooled (>20 per mutant with age-matched wild-type animals tested on same day). **(F)** Scatterplot showing uv1 Ca^{2+} transient amplitudes. ** represents $p < 0.01$; *** represents $p < 0.001$; n.s. represents $p > 0.05$ (one-way ANOVA with Bonferroni's correction for multiple comparisons).

uv1 mechanical activation can proceed without vulval muscle activity and

contractility.

Coordinated contraction of the vulval muscles opens the vulva for egg release

(Brewer et al., 2019; Li et al., 2013; Olson et al., 2023). We have previously shown that

the vulval muscles themselves respond to direct mechanical stimulation (Medrano and

Collins, 2023), raising the possibility that vulval prodding stimulates vulval muscle

activity and/or contractility that subsequently activates the uv1 cells. To test this, we

prodded *unc-54(e190)* muscle myosin mutants with defective muscle contractility and

egg laying (Moerman et al., 1982), but with strong injection-induced vulval muscle Ca^{2+}

activity (Medrano and Collins, 2023). Prodding triggered strong uv1 Ca^{2+} transients in

unc-54(e190) mutants (Fig. 5A), showing muscle contractility is not required. To test the

role of vulval muscle electrical excitability, we transgenically expressed the histamine-

gated Cl^- channel into the vulval muscles, allowing for potent silencing and egg-laying

blockade following acute treatment with histamine (Ravi et al., 2018a). Prodding vulval

muscle-silenced animals had no effect on prodding-induced uv1 Ca^{2+} activity (Fig. 5B).

To separately test how vulval muscle electrical silencing affects uv1 mechanical

activation, we transgenically expressed the A331T gain-of-function ERG channel mutant

which strongly inhibits vulval muscle excitability and egg laying (Collins and Koelle,

2013). Prodding of uv1 cells in ERG gain-of-function mutants still triggered robust uv1

Ca^{2+} activity, although it was significant reduced in amplitude (~35%; Fig. 5C, 5E),

resembling results seen in animals lacking HSNs or CAPS neuropeptide signaling. ERG

A331T is driven from a single-copy MosSCI transgene (Dhakal et al., 2022) using the

vulval muscle-expressed *unc-103e* promoter/enhancer (Reiner et al., 2006), but we

cannot exclude effects from expression in other cells. To eliminate the vulval muscles

entirely, we prodded uv1 cells in *egl-17(n1377)* mutants with defects in sex myoblast

migration (Burdine et al., 1997). We focused our prodding on the anterior uv1 cells since

we previously showed that over 90% of *egl-17(n1377)* mutant animals lack anterior

vulval muscle development and/or differentiation (Medrano and Collins, 2023). Direct

prodding in these animals still triggered a strong uv1 Ca^{2+} transients (Fig. 5D) showing

the vulval muscles are not required for uv1 mechanical activation. Together, our data

show that vulval muscle activity and contractility are not required for the uv1 mechanical

response to direct stimulation.

Figure 5: uv1 activation is independent of the vulval muscles.
(A-D) Averaged prodding-induced uv1s Ca^{2+} responses of wild-type, *unc-54(e190)* **(A),**
VM::HisCl worms with (red) or without (black) Histamine on the plates **(B)**, *unc-*
103(A331T) gain of function mutants **(C)**, or *egl-17(n1377)* mutants lacking vulval
muscle development / differentation **(D)**. **(E)** Scatterplot of uv1 Ca^{2+} transient peaks
after direct stimulation in wild type (black) and *unc-103(A331T)* gain-of-function mutants
(red). **** indicates p<0.0001 (Mann-Whitney test); n indicates number of animals
tested per genotype or condition.
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uv1 mechanical activation does not require Piezo or TRPV channels.

Piezo channels are mechanically gated and involved in many physiological

processes in mammals (Coste et al., 2010). PEZO-1 is the sole ortholog of the Piezo

protein in *C. elegans* and is expressed in vulval cells (Bai et al., 2020). *pezo-1(av149)*

knockout mutants have deficiencies in brood size and ovulation (Bai et al., 2020),

suggesting they may be involved in reproductive behaviors like egg laying. Previous

patch clamp experiments from embryonic *C. elegans* cells have shown

mechanosensitive PEZO-1 currents (Millet et al., 2022). To test if Piezo channels

mediate uv1 mechanical activation, we prodded *pezo-1(av149)* mutants and measured

uv1 Ca^{2+} activity. Prodding of *pezo-1(av149)* mutants still show strong uv1 Ca^{2+}

transients (Fig. 6A) with no significant differences in Ca^{2+} transient kinetics or amplitude

(Fig. 6E), indicating that Piezo channels are not required for the uv1 prodding response.

uv1 expresses other channels including TRPV channel that have been shown to

facilitate mechanosensory responses (Birder et al., 2002). Prodding of *ocr-2(vs29)*

mutant animals which show strongly hyperactive egg-laying behavior consistent with

altered uv1 function showed similarly strong uv1 Ca^{2+} transient activity compared to

wild-type control animals (Fig. 6B and 6E). Prodding of *ocr-2(ak47), ocr-4(vs137)* TRPV

double mutants or *ocr-2(ak47), ocr-4(vs137), osm-9(cx10)* triple mutants triggered

strong uv1 Ca^{2+} transients (Fig 6D-E). We found no differences in uv1 Ca^{2+} peak

amplitude (Fig. 6E) or the timing of peak onset or decay time (data not shown). These

data indicate that TRPV mechanosensitive channels are not required for uv1

mechanical activation.

Figure 6: uv1 activation is independent of mechanosensitive channels.
(A-D) Averaged prodding-induced uv1s Ca^{2+} responses of wild-type (black); *pezo-1* **(A)**
ocr-2(vs29) TRPV mutant **(B)**; *ocr-2(ak47), ocr-4(vs137)* TRPV double mutants **(C)**, or
ocr-2(ak47), ocr-4(vs137), osm-9(cx10) TRPV triple mutants **(D)**. **(E)** Scatterplot
showing uv1 Ca^{2+} transient peaks after direct stimulation. n.s. indicates p>0.05 (one-
way ANOVA with Bonferroni's correction for multiple comparisons). n indicates number
of animals tested alongside age-matched wild-type control animals.

uv1 activation requires the EGL-19 L-type Ca^{2+} channel.

L-type voltage-gated Ca^{2+} channels mediate Ca^{2+} entry and all-or-none action

potential membrane depolarizations in *C. elegans* neurons and muscle cells (Gao and

Zhen, 2011; Jospin et al., 2002; Liu et al., 2018). *C. elegans* has a single gene, *egl-19*,

which encodes L-type Ca^{2+} channels (Lee et al., 1997). To test whether L-type Ca^{2+}

channels are required for uv1 mechanical activation, we tested uv1 Ca^{2+} responses in

animals where channel function was altered pharmacologically or genetically through

loss- and gain-of-function mutations. Prodding *egl-19(n582)* mutants with reduced L-

type Ca^{2+} channel function (Jospin et al., 2002; Lee et al., 1997) triggered uv1 Ca^{2+}

transients with significantly reduced peak amplitude compared to wild-type worms (Fig.

7B). Conversely, prodding of *egl-19(n2368)* gain-of-function mutant animals in which L-

type Ca^{2+} channel activity is increased (Laine et al., 2014) showed similarly strong uv1

Ca^{2+} transients (Fig. 7C), and these transients decayed more slowly, increasing from 43

s in wildtype to 74 s in *egl-19(n2368(gf))* mutant animals (Fig. 7D). These results show

that EGL-19 L-type voltage-gated Ca^{2+} channels promote uv1 Ca^{2+} activity in response

to direct mechanical stimulation.

Since *egl-19* null mutations are lethal (Jospin et al., 2002), we used the specific

chemical inhibitor nemadipine to block channel function acutely in otherwise wild-type

animals (Kwok et al., 2006). Animals treated with 25 or 75 μM nemadipine showed

significantly reduced uv1 Ca^{2+} transient amplitudes following direct prodding compared

to 0.25% DMSO control animals (Fig. 7E). We found no significant differences between

25 μM and 75 μM nemadipine treatments (Fig. 7F), suggesting the remaining uv1 Ca^{2+}

activity is not caused by insufficient channel inhibition. Subsequent experiments used

25 μM nemadipine treatment in wild-type worms with a higher sample size to further

determine the role of L-type Ca^{2+} channels in in uv1 mechanical activation. Treatment

with 25 μM nemadipine caused a 50% reduction in uv1 Ca^{2+} transient amplitude

following prodding (Fig. 7F). We also found nemadipine reduced the coordinated uv1

response following prodding. In untreated animals, 90% of uv1 cells on both the anterior

and posterior side of the vulva show activation, no matter which side of uv1 cells were

initially prodded. This coordinated uv1 Ca^{2+} activity was reduced to 30% following

treatment with 25 μM nemadipine (Fig. 7G). The reduction in uv1 Ca^{2+} transient

amplitude observed was not a result of impaired coordination, as nemadpine reduced

uv1 Ca^{2+} transient responses even in those uv1 cells that showed a Ca^{2+} response

when they were measured separately. Nemadipine treatment reduced, but did not

eliminate, the observed uv1 Ca^{2+} transient peak amplitude compared DMSO-treated

control animals, suggesting EGL-19 L-type Ca^{2+} channels facilitate the full Ca^{2+}

transient response following uv1 mechanical activation.

Figure 7: uv1 activation requires EGL-19 voltage-gated Ca^{2+} channels.
(A) Averaged prodding-induced uv1s Ca^{2+} responses of wild-type (black) and *egl-19(n2368)* gain-of-function mutant animals (red). **(B)** Scatterplot of Ca^{2+} transient decay times. Bar indicates mean ±95% confidence interval, circles indicate prodding responses (n>20 animals). **** represents $p<0.0001$ (Mann-Whitney test). **(C)** Averaged prodding-induced uv1s Ca^{2+} responses of wild-type (black) and *egl-19(n586)* loss-of-function mutants (red). **(D)** Scatterplot of Ca^{2+} transient amplitudes. Bar indicates mean ±95% confidence interval; circles indicate prodding responses (n>20 animals); * indicates $p<0.05$ (Mann-Whitney test). **(E)** Averaged prodding-induced uv1 Ca^{2+} responses of wild-type worms treated with 0.25% DMSO (black), 25 μM nemadipine (blue) or 75 μM nemadipine (red). **(F)** Scatterplot showing uv1 Ca^{2+} transient amplitudes. Bar indicates mean ±95% confidence interval; circles indicate prodding responses (n>20 animals); ** represents $p<0.01$. n.s. represents $p>0.05$ (one-way ANOVA with Bonferroni's correction for multiple comparisons). **(G)** Left, bar graphs (±95% confidence interval for the proportion) comparing percentage of animals showing Ca^{2+} transient responses in both anterior and posterior uv1 cells following treatment with 0.25% DMSO (black) or 25 μM nemadipine (red); $p<0.0001$ (Fischer's exact test). Right, micrographs showing single and both uv1 response before and after direct prodding. Scale bar =10 μm.

uv1 activation is independent of UNC-2 P/Q/N-type Ca^{2+} channel and UNC-68 ryanodine receptor.

C. elegans expresses other voltage-gated channels (Bargmann, 1998). *unc-2* encodes the sole P/Q/N-type voltage-gated calcium channel (Mathews et al., 2003) which is expressed in the HSN and VC neurons (Mathews et al., 2003). *unc-2(e55)* mutants show hyperactive egg-laying behavior (Schafer and Kenyon, 1995) and altered egg laying in response to serotonin (Schafer et al., 1996). Prodding and uv1 Ca^{2+} imaging in *unc-2(e55)* mutant showed strong Ca^{2+} transients (data not shown). In *C.elegans*, L-type (EGL-19) and P/Q/N-type (UNC-2) channels localize differentially in synapses and mediate distinct pools of vesicle release (Mueller et al., 2023). To test if EGL-19 and UNC-2 channel function together in uv1 mechanical activation, we treated *unc-2(e55)* mutants with 25 μM nemadipine and performed direct prodding. Loss of both UNC-2 and EGL-19 channel function failed to reduce uv1 Ca^{2+} activity further (Fig. 8A,

444 8B), suggesting these two channels do not act in parallel to facilitate uv1 Ca^{2+} activity

445 following mechanical stimulation.

446  *C. elegans* also expresses ryanodine receptors (RyRs) which belong to family of

447 intracellular (ER) calcium channels (Maryon et al., 1996). A previous study showed that

448 UNC-68 RyRs enhance L-type Ca^{2+} channel (EGL-19)-mediated synaptic vesicle

449 release (Mueller et al., 2023). To test if RyR acts in parallel to EGL-19 in uv1 Ca^{2+}

450 transient responses following mechanical activation, we performed prodding in *unc-*

451 *68(e540)* mutants following treatment with 25 μM nemadipine. Prodding and uv1 Ca^{2+}

452 imaging in *unc-68(e540)* mutant still showed strong Ca^{2+} transients with a slight

453 decrease in transient decay time (P=0.037) (data not shown), consistent with RyR

454 channels sustaining uv1 Ca^{2+} responses following stimulation. However, loss of both

455 UNC-68 and EGL-19 channel function did not eliminate the residual uv1 Ca^{2+} activity

456 following stimulation (Fig 8C, 8D), showing that ryanodine receptor UNC-68 RyRs are

457 not required for uv1 mechanical activation in the absence of L-type Ca^{2+} channel

458 function.

Figure 8: uv1 mechanical activation does not require Piezo or TRPV channel. **(A)** Averaged prodding-induced uv1 Ca²⁺ responses in *unc-2(e55)* mutant animals following treatment with 0.25% DMSO (black) or 25 μM nemadipine (red) (n=15 animals). **(B)** Scatterplot showing uv1 Ca²⁺ transient peak amplitudes after direct stimulation in wild-type and *unc-2(e55)* mutants following treatment with 0.25% DMSO or 25μM nemadipine. Bar indicates mean ±95% confidence interval; **** indicates p<0.0001; *** indicates p-value<0.001 (one-way ANOVA with Bonferroni's correction for multiple comparisons.) **(C)** Averaged prodding-induced uv1 Ca²⁺ responses in *unc-68(e540)* mutant animals following treatment with 0.25% DMSO (black) or 25 μM nemadipine (red) (n=18). **(D)** Scatterplot showing showing uv1 Ca²⁺ transient peaks after direct stimulation in wild-type or *unc-68(e540)* mutant animals following treatment with 0.25% DMSO or 25 μM nemadipine. Bar indicates mean ±95% confidence interval; **** indicates p<0.0001 (one-way ANOVA with Bonferroni's correction for multiple comparisons).

Discussion

The mechanical activation of neuroendocrine cells reveals the intricate interplay

between physical stimuli and cellular signaling mechanisms. In this study, we

investigated how the uv1 neuroendocrine cells of the *C. elegans* egg-laying behavior

circuit are activated. Our findings demonstrated the uv1 cells are mechanically activated

by vulval muscle contraction. Importantly, our data revealed that the mechanical

activation of uv1 cells occurs independently of egg release, suggesting the uv1 cells

respond to and report instances of vulval opening. To test whether uv1 mechanical

activation is direct, we devised a prodding assay where the uv1 cells are stimulated with

glass probes. We found that mechanical stimulation triggers a strong and "all-or-none"

uv1 Ca^{2+} transient. Notably, uv1 cells respond most robustly to the first stimulation with

subsequent mechanical stimulations eliciting weaker Ca^{2+} transients. Using mutants

with specific defects in egg-laying circuit activity, development, or neurotransmission our

experiments revealed uv1 mechanical activation can be direct. While uv1 Ca^{2+}

transients were reduced in mutants lacking the HSNs, the underlying prodding response

was still observed. This resembles our results with *unc-31(e928)* CAPS mutants,

suggesting neuropeptide transmission from cells including HSN promotes the uv1

response. HSNs release serotonin and NLP-3 neuropeptides to stimulate vulval muscle

excitability (Brewer et al., 2019; Shyn et al., 2003; Waggoner et al., 1998), possibly by

activation of G protein coupled receptors to modulate activity of postsynaptic L-type

Ca^{2+} channels and/or voltage-gated K^+ channels (Lee et al., 1997; Waggoner et al.,

1998). As retrograde feedback of egg accumulation and vulval muscle Ca^{2+} activity

facilitates burst-firing in HSNs (Medrano and Collins, 2023; Ravi et al., 2018a; Ravi et

al., 2021), defects in HSN transmission may cause ancillary effects on uv1 mechanical

activation and release of tyramine that signals to terminate the egg-laying behavior state

(Collins et al., 2016).

How is uv1 mechanically activated? Previous studies showed that TRPV and

Piezo mechanosensitive channels are expressed in the uv1 cells and vulva (Bai et al.,

2020; Jose et al., 2007) suggesting these channels as candidates (O'Neil and Heller,

2005). However, we find that mutants animals lacking three uv1-expressed TRPV

channels or Piezo still showed strong uv1 Ca^{2+} transients during egg laying and in

response to direct prodding, suggesting TRPV or Piezo channels do not mediate uv1

mechanical activation. This suggests either functional redundancy among these

channels and/or the presence of additional mechanosensitive channels in uv1 cells that

detect physical stimuli and trigger uv1 cellular activation. In other *C. elegans*

mechanosensory neurons, previous work has shown that DEG/ENAC channel MEC-4

complex is essential for transducing external mechanical force into ionic currents in

touch neurons (O'Hagan et al., 2005). TRPA1 encodes for an ion channel serving as

sensor molecule in enterochromaffin neuroendocrine cells may regulating

gastrointestinal function in mammals (Nozawa et al., 2009). Its ortholog TRPA-1 is also

activated by mechanical stimulation and contributes to mechanosensory behaviors such

as nose-touch response in *C. elegans* (Kindt et al., 2007). As uv1 is not well-

represented in community-derived, cell-specific RNAseq resources, further work will be

required to identify and test the contribution of these and other candidate channels.

Our work shows an important role for the EGL-19 L-type voltage-gated Ca^{2+}

channel. Mutations that increase EGL-19 channel function sustain uv1 Ca^{2+} activity after

stimulation while chemical or genetic inhibition of EGL-19 channel function significantly

impair it. Surprisingly, UNC-68 ryanodine receptors, responsible for intracellular Ca^{2+}

release and essential for EGL-19-mediated synaptic transmission in *C. elegans* (Lanner

et al., 2010; Mueller et al., 2023), were not involved in uv1 mechanical activation.

Furthermore, our findings revealed that the P/Q/N type Ca^{2+} channel (Mathews et al.,

2003) does not cooperate alongside EGL-19 in mediating uv1 mechanical activation. At

present, the source of the Ca^{2+} transients we observe is not clear, although our work

showing a critical role for L-type Ca^{2+} channels is consistent with a significant fraction of

the observed Ca^{2+} transients coming from an extracellular source. Future work will be

required to determine whether the remaining Ca^{2+} signals we observe arises from

external sources such as mechanically activated channel(s) or internal sources (or

both). Previous study showed that voltage-gated Ca^{2+} channels can amplify

mechanosensory signals and increase mechanoreceptors sensitivity in touch neurons of

mice (Wang and Lewin, 2011). Given our data that uv1 mechanical response does not

require neurotransmission from other cells in egg-laying circuit, EGL-19 may similarly

act as amplifier of mechanosensory signals. We postulate that unidentified mechanical

receptors in uv1 cells that perceive physical stimuli and subsequently signal to the

voltage-gated Ca^{2+} channel EGL-19, initiating uv1 cellular activity.

Our findings further suggest that most or all cells of the *C. elegans* behavior

circuit are mechanically responsive. The vulval muscles are regulated by both internal

mechanosensory feedback of egg accumulation and external mechanical stimulation

(Medrano and Collins, 2023). Feedback of vulval muscle Ca^{2+} activity drives retrograde

feedback to the presynaptic HSN neurons (Ravi et al., 2018a), allowing for proper

stretch-dependent modulation of HSN activity and the egg-laying active state in animals

with sufficient eggs to lay (Ravi et al., 2021). We have also shown that the VC neurons

show peak activity coincident with vulval muscle Ca^{2+} activity and contractility (Collins et

al., 2016). Direct optogenetic stimulation of the vulval muscles similarly triggers VC Ca^{2+}

activity which is reduced in *unc-54* muscle myosin mutants (Kopchock et al., 2021).

Processes from the VC neurons extend ventrally along the vulval opening and dorsally

where they make synapses onto the vulval muscles near the HSNs. The uv1 cells are

situated even more laterally, just dorsal to the VC and HSN synapses (Ravi et al.,

2018a), extending processes down to the VulF vulval epithelial cells and dorsally to the

utse uterine seam cell (Newman et al., 1996). Based on this anatomy, we predict VC

mechanically responds to smaller scale vulval openings while uv1 only responds when

the vulva opens completely, deforming uv1 cellular connections. This model mirrors

results seen in vertebrates, where different touch receptor neurons detect different kinds

of mechanical stimuli including touch and pressure, contributing to the perception of

tactile sensations while maintaining sensitivity to stimulus (Geffeney and Goodman,

2012). The cells in the egg-laying circuit may be providing both functions: sensing acute

changes in egg accumulation, releasing serotonin and neuropeptides to drive sufficient

vulval contraction for egg release, but not allowing too much activity that animals are

unable to maintain vulval integrity (Gianakas et al., 2023).

We also find that EGL-19 channels facilitate the coordination of uv1 Ca^{2+}

activity across the vulva. We consistently observe synchronized Ca^{2+} activity in both

anterior and posterior uv1 cells in response to both vulval opening and direct prodding

stimuli. Notably, blocking L-type Ca^{2+} channels led to Ca^{2+} transients only in the prodded

uv1 with the opposite uv1 failing to show a robust Ca^{2+} transient. Such coordination may

be mediated by adherens and/or gap junctions. uv1 extends processes that mediate

contact between the utse uterine seam cell and the VulF cells of the vulval lumen

(Newman et al., 1996). Such contacts may also be sites of gap junctions, connecting

cells electrically and biochemically through diffusion of ions (such as Ca^{2+}), second

messengers, and small metabolites (Mese et al., 2007; Simonsen et al., 2014). Previous

work showed that UNC-7 and UNC-9 innexin gap junctions are required for gap junction

in electrically coupled networks (Walker and Schafer, 2020). Furthermore, UNC-7 can

form hemichannels that drive gentle mechanosensation within touch neurons, as well as

in harsh touch sensation within the PVD polymodal nociceptors (Walker and Schafer,

2020). These findings suggested innexins like UNC-7 and/or UNC-9 may be candidate

uv1 mechanoreceptors. However, the direct prodding results of *unc-7* and *unc-9*

mutants show normal uv1 prodding responses, indicating they are not strictly required

(data not shown). In *C. elegans*, there are 25 identified innexin genes which are

expressed widely in neurons or tissues (Simonsen et al., 2014). As nearly all cells in

both the egg-laying circuit and the somatic gonad make gap junctions (White et al.,

1986), we predict innexins coordinate cellular Ca^{2+} activity in uv1 and other cells during

egg laying.

585   In conclusion, our study provides a comprehensive exploration of uv1

neuroendocrine mechanical activation, uncovering novel aspects of the regulatory

mechanisms. Our work suggests vulval opening activates unidentified

mechanoreceptors, facilitating subsequent activation of L-type Ca^{2+} channels. Future

work determining what molecules facilitate cellular communication and synchronized

cellular activity will benefit further understanding of cell coordination and innexins

functions.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Worm culture

C. elegans worms were maintained at 20°C on Nematode Growth Medium (NGM) agar plates with *E. coli* OP50 as a source of food as described previously (Brenner, 1974). All experiments involving adult animals were performed using adult hermaphrodites staged 24 h past the late L4 larval stage. A list of strains, mutants, and transgenes used in this study can be found in **Table 1**.

Calcium reporter transgenes and strain construction

uv1 Ca^{2+} activity

Ca^{2+} activity of uv1 neuroendocrine cells was recorded in adult animals using MIA136 [*keyIs34 lite-1(ce314) lin-15(n765ts) X*] expressing GCaMP5 and mCherry from the *tdc-1* promoter. Oligos Ptdc-1new-fwd: GCG GCA TGC CAC CTA ACT TCG TCG GTC and Ptdc-1-new-rev: GCG CCC GGG GAT CCT TGG GCG GTC CTG were used to amplify *tdc-1* promoter from a ChR2 plasmid. The amplicons were digested with SphI and XmaI to generate a 1.5 kb PCR product which was then ligated into similarly digested pKMC281 (mCherry) and pKMC284 (GCaMP5) plasmids, generating pAB5 (*tdc-1p::mCherry*) and pAB6 (*tdc-1p::GCaMP5*). 20 μg/ml of pAB6 (*tdc-1p::GCaMP5*) and 5 μg/ml of pAB5 (*tdc-1p::mCherry*) along with 50 μg/ml of pLI5EK (*lin-15* rescue plasmid) were injected into LX1832 [*lite-1(ce314) lin-15(n765ts) X*] hermaphrodites. The extrachromosomal arrays were integrated using UV and trimethylpsoralen, and strains carrying an integrated version of the GCaMP5/mCherry transgene were then

backcrossed six times to LX1832 animals to generate MIA136 [*keyIs34 lite-1(ce314) lin-*

15(n765ts) X].

To image uv1 Ca^{2+} activity in HSN-deficient mutant, MIA468 [*egl-1(n986dm)* V; *keyIs34*

lite-1(ce314) lin-15(n765ts) X] was generated. MIA136 males were crossed with MIA123

[*egl-1(n986dm); lite-1(ce314), lin-15(n765ts)*] hermaphrodites lacking HSNs (Conradt and

Horvitz, 1999). Fluorescent cross-progeny L4s were then cloned and allowed to self-

fertilize. Egl, mCherry+ hermaphrodites were then selected, and the *egl-1(n986dm)*

mutation was confirmed by genotyping using the oligos: 5'-CTC TGT TCC AGC TCA AAT

TTC C-3' (forward) and 5'-GTA GTT GAG GAT CTC GCT TCG GC-3' (reverse) followed

by NciI enzyme digestion.

To image uv1 Ca^{2+} activity in neurotransmission defective worms, MIA473 [*unc-31(e928)*

IV; *keyIs34 lite-1(ce314) lin-15(n765ts)* X] and MIA475 [*unc-13(s69) I*; *keyIs34* X; *lite-*

1(ce314) lin-15(n765ts) X] were generated. To generate these strains, MIA136 males

were crossed with uncoordinated CB928 [*unc-31(e928) IV*] CAPS (Charlie et al., 2006)

or EG9623 [*unc-13(s69) I*] (Richmond et al., 1999) hermaphrodites. Resulting mCherry+

hermaphrodites were picked and allowed to self-fertilize. Uncoordinated, mCherry+ F2

progeny were then and allowed to self-fertilize until both the uncoordinated and uv1

fluorescence were homozygous. *lite-1(ce314)* was confirmed to be homozygous by

genotyping.

To image uv1 Ca^{2+} activity in L-type calcium-gated channel EGL-19 mutants, MIA476

[*egl-19(n582) IV*; *keyIs34 lite-1(ce314) lin-15(n765ts)* X] and MIA490 [*egl-19(n2368) IV*;

keyIs34 lite-1(ce314) lin-15(n765ts) X] strains were generated. MIA136 [*keyIs34 lite-*

1(ce314) lin-15(n765ts) X] males were crossed with MT6129 [*egl-19(n582) IV*] (Jospin et

al., 2002) loss-of-function or MT1212 [*egl-19(n2368) IV*] gain-of-function mutant (Laine et

al., 2014) hermaphrodites. Cross-progeny were selected and self-fertilized until uv1

fluorescence and *egl-19* defects were homozygous by phenotype. *lite-1(ce314)* was

confirmed to be homozygous by genotyping.

To image uv1 Ca^{2+} activity after vulval muscle silencing, MIA493 [*keyIs19*; *keyIs34*;

lite-1(ce314) lin-15(n765ts) X], MIA495 [*vsSi3*; *keyIs34*; *lite-1(ce314) lin-15(n765ts)* X]

and MIA332 [*unc-54(e190), keyIs48*; *keyIs34 lite-1(ce314) lin-15(n765ts)* X] were

generated. MIA136 males were crossed with MIA71 [*keyIs19; lite-1(ce314) X; lin-*

15(n765ts)X] strain expressing HisCl in the vulval muscles (Ravi et al., 2018a).

mCherry+ cross-progeny were selected and allowed to self-fertilize. F2 progeny were

then put onto NGM plates containing 5 mM histamine for 2 h, and induced Egl worms

were selected. Subsequent rounds of phenotyping confirmed strains that were

homozygous for both uv1::GCaMP5 and vm::HisCl transgenes. To generate MIA495,

MIA136 males were crossed with LX1615 [*vsSi3 II*; *lite-1(ce314) lin-15(n765ts) X*]

(Dhakal et al., 2022) animals expressing the A331T gain-of-function ERG mutant that

leads to vulval muscle silencing and inhibition of egg laying (Collins and Koelle, 2013;

Dhakal et al., 2022). Resulting cross-progeny L4s were then picked, allowed to self-

fertilize, and then homozygous mCherry+, Egl, *lite-1(ce314)* animals were picked and

kept as MIA495. To generate MIA332, MIA298 [*unc-54 (e190) I; lite-1 (ce314), lin-15*

(n765ts) X] hermaphrodites were mated with MIA239 [*keyIs48*; *keyIs34*; *lite-1(ce314)*

lin-15(n765ts) X] males. 6 non-Unc F1 L4 progeny with uv1 fluorescence were

individually cloned and allowed to self. The presence of homozygous *unc-54* and uv1

GCaMP/mCherry was confirmed by the Unc phenotype and uv1 fluorescence.

To image uv1 Ca^{2+} activity in the *unc-2* loss of function mutant, MIA501 [*unc-2(e55)*; *lite-*

1(ce314) lin-15(n765ts) X] was generated. MIA136 males were crossed with CB55 [*unc-*

2(e55)] with hyperactive egg laying and uncoordinated locomotion (Mathews et al., 2003).

Fluorescent cross-progeny L4's was allowed to self-fertilize, and homozygous Unc,

mCherry+, and *lite-1(ce314)* animals were kept.

To image uv1 Ca^{2+} activity in TRPV mechanosensory channel mutants, MIA505 [*ocr-*

2(vs29); *keyIs34 lite-1(ce314) lin-15(n765ts)* X], MIA528 [*ocr-2(ak47) ocr-4(vs137)*;

keyIs34 lite-1(ce314) lin-15(n765ts) X], MIA548 [*ocr-2(ak47) ocr-4(vs137) osm-9(ky10)*;

keyIs34 lite-1(ce314) lin-15(n765ts) X] were created. To generate these strains, MIA136

males were crossed with LX671 [*ocr-2(vs29)*] or LX981 [*ocr-2(ak47); ocr-4(vs137)*] (Jose

et al., 2007) hermaphrodites. Resulting cross-progeny L4s were picked and allowed to

self-fertilize. *ocr-2(vs29)* were confirmed to be homozygous through the true-breeding

hyperactive egg-laying phenotype (Jose et al., 2007). Homozygous *ocr-2(ak47)* and *ocr-*

4(vs137), ocr-2(ak47) mutant animals were identified through PCR genotyping using the

following oligos: 5'-CGT TAA CAC TTG CGG CGA AAT TGG-3' (ocr-2 forward), 5'-CCC

GCC AAT ACG ATG GTT TGG-3' (wild-type reverse), 5'-GCA GCA TTT AAC TGG ACC

CCA ATT T-3' (wild-type forward). *ocr-4(vs137)* was confirmed to be homozygous using

oligos: 5'-GTG TTA CGA GAA GCA TAT AGA CTA CG-3' (forward) and 5'-CCA AGC

ATT ATG AGT AAC GTT GCG G-3' (reverse), generating MIA528 [*ocr-2(ak47) ocr-*

4(vs137); keyIs34 lite-1(ce314) lin-15(n765ts) X]. N2 males were then crossed with

MIA528 hermaphrodites and the mCherry+, heterozygous TRPV double mutant cross-

progeny were then mated with CX10 [*osm-9(ky10)*] hermaphrodites. mCherry+ cross-

progeny L4s were picked singly onto plates and allowed to self. From these, 24 mCherry+

hermaphrodites were picked singly for genotyping for *ocr-2(ak47)* by PCR as described

and *osm-9(ky10)* by Tetra-ARMS PCR using oligos: 5'-AGC TTA AAG TCT TCG GGT

AGG AAG A-3' (outside forward); 5'-CGA AAA TTT GAT CCA TCT TTT TGT TG-3'

(outside reverse); 5'-ATG GCT AGG TGG AGG GCT GAG TA-3' (inside forward); 5'-CCT

GAA ACA TTG TGT TAT CTT TAG TCC -3' (inside reverse). *osm-9(ky10)* homozygous,

ocr-2(ak47) heterozygous animals were selected and allowed to self-fertilize. From these,

eight hermaphrodites were randomly selected and genotyped for both *ocr-2(ak47)* and

osm-9(ky10). osm-9(ky10) homozygosity was then confirmed using Sanger sequencing

while *ocr-4(vs137)* was confirmed by PCR-based genotyping as above.

Ratiometric Ca^{2+} imaging and brightfield recording.

Ratiometric Ca^{2+} imaging of uv1 activity of alive worms were performed as described

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

590 nm, respectively, using a Colibri.2 LED illumination system and channels were

separated by a Hamamatsu W-View Gemini beam splitter. Ca^{2+} recordings were

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

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

objective (0.8 NA) on a Zeiss Axio Observer microscope. To record worm behaviors

during ratiometric Ca^{2+} imaging, a Grasshopper 3 camera (FLIR) was used to capture 2

x 2 binned, 1,024 x 1,024 8-bit JPEG image sequences. For prodding experiments,

each worm was recorded 20 s prior to first prodding to set up baseline levels for uv1

activity, and recordings were completed within 300 s to avoid effects of prolonged

incubation in halocarbon oil (see below). For ChR2 experiments, each worm was

recorded under the same condition for 120 s. For freely behaving animals, each worm

was recorded 5 minutes after the first egg was laid. Worm recordings that did not have

an egg-laying event in the first 30 minutes were excluded from the data analysis.

Ratiometric Ca^{2+} recordings were then imported into Volocity (Version 6.5.1, Quorum

Technologies, Inc.) for subsequent GCaMP5/mCherry ratiometric analysis. Ca^{2+}

quantitation of GCaMP5/mCherry ratio changes ($\Delta R/R$), Ca^{2+} transient peaks were

analyzed through MATLAB as described (Collins et al., 2016; Ravi et al., 2018b).

Prodding protocol

To test if direct stimulation of uv1 cells is sufficient to induce Ca^{2+} activity, uv1 cells were

stimulated using a glass probe, as previously described (Medrano and Collins, 2023).

Briefly, a motorized stage was used to move the worm body towards the immobilized

probe, varying the distance and time of movement. To create prodding probes,

filamented glass capillaries (4", 1.0 mm outer diameter; World Precision Instruments,

1B100F-4) were pulled using a Sutter P-97 Flaming/Brown type micropipette puller

using a custom program with the following parameters: Pressure = 500, Heat = 632

(ramp test value), Pull = 45, Velocity =40, Delay =250.

To perform prodding, a single worm was picked into a small drop of halocarbon oil on a

dried 2% agarose pad on a 25 by 60 mm #1 coverslip to immobilize the worm. This

immobilized worm then was placed onto an inverted Zeiss Axio Observer.Z1

fluorescence microscope for imaging. A Narishige coarse (model MMN-1) and fine

(model MMO-203) micromanipulator, or a Sutter motorized micromanipulator, was used

to position the tip of the probe next to the vulva of the worm. The first stimulation was

delivered precisely 20 s after the onset of synchronous brightfield and fluorescence

recording. A second prodding was performed two minutes after the first stimulation

while recording uv1 fluorescence.

Optogenetics

Optogenetics experiments in animals expressing Channelrhodopsin-2 in the vulval

muscles were performed as previously described. To make NGM plates with all-trans

retinal (ATR) for optogenetics experiments, ATR was added into pre-warmed OP50 *E.*

coli with a final concentration of 0.4 mM (Kopchock et al., 2021). Then 200 µL of culture

was seeded onto NGM agar plates. Late L4 worms were staged onto plates with or

without ATR 24 h prior to the experiment. Ratiometric Ca^{2+} imaging in freely behaving

animals was performed as described previously (Ravi et al., 2018b) with the same 470

nm blue light used to both activate ChR2 and excite GCaMP5 fluorescence. The

brightfield and fluorescence image acquisition was synchronized at 20 fps, and each

recording lasted 2-3 mins.

Pharmocological assays

<u>Nemadipine</u>: Nemadipine-B (Toronto Research Chemicals Inc.) was dissolved in DMSO

at 10 mM, and 10µL or 30µL was added to ~4 ml melted NGM solution, generating 25 µM

or 75 µM nemadipine plates. Control plates containing an equivalent volume of DMSO

were made on the same day (0.25% DMSO final concentration). Plates were seeded with

a 10-fold concentrated OP50 *E. coli* bacteria culture one day prior to the experiment.

Worms were placed onto nemadipine or DMSO plates for at least 2 h prior to prodding

experiments but no longer than 3 h to prevent excess egg accumulation.

Floxuridine: Worms were sterilized with floxuridine (FUDR) as previously described

(Collins et al., 2016; Ravi et al., 2018a). Briefly, L4 animals were staged onto NGM plates

seeded with OP50. 100 µL of floxuridine (10 mg/mL) was added dropwise onto the staged

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

visually inspected for lack of embryo accumulation prior to mounting for Ca^{2+} recordings.

Histamine: NGM plates containing 5 mM histamine were prepared as described (Pokala

et al., 2014) and seeded with OP50 *E. coli* bacteria. To induce acute silencing, worms

were incubated onto histamine-containing plates 2-3 h before the experiment.

Statistical analyses

Quantitative ratiometric analysis was performed after importing Ca^{2+} recordings

into Volocity and GCaMP5/mCherry mean ratio measurements were calculated.

Prodding-induced Ca^{2+} transients were analyzed for following parameters: peak

amplitude, time to peak, and time to decay. Individual Ca^{2+} transient peak amplitude was

analyzed by MATLAB script as described (Collins et al., 2016), and each peak was

confirmed by visual inspection of GCaMP5/mCherry ratio traces and the original

fluorescence recordings. Time to peak was defined as time interval between the triggered

start of prodding and when the uv1 Ca^{2+} transient reached its peak value. Time to decay

was defined as the time when the uv1 Ca^{2+} transient peak amplitude fell to 37%. In

experiments involving freely moving animals, the peak threshold for calling a uv1 Ca^{2+}

transient was 0.2 ∆R/R or greater. Weaker Ca^{2+} transients (<0.2 ∆R/R) were operationally

considered as to have not elicited a transient (no transient). For prodding experiments,

events <0.4 ∆R/R after direct stimulation were considered as not to have elicited a Ca^{2+}

transient.

Statistical analyses were performed using Prism 8 (GraphPad). Ca^{2+} peak

amplitude, time to peak, time to decay were compared with one-way ANOVA with

Bonferroni correction for multiple comparisons, and error bars indicate 95% confidence

intervals for the mean value. $p < 0.05$ interactions were considered significant and are

labeled with an asterisk. Percentage of Ca^{2+} responses was compared by Fisher's exact

test, and error bars indicate the 95% confidence intervals for the proportion.

Table 1.

Strain	Genotype	Feature	Figure(s)	Reference
N2	Wild type	Bristol wild type	1	(Brenner, 1974)
MIA136	*lite-1(ce314)* *lin-15(n765ts)* *keyIs34 X*	Expresses GCaMP5 and mCherry in uv1 neuroendocrine cells	1-8	This study
MIA468	*egl-1(n986dm) V* *keyIs34 X* *lite-1(ce314)* *lin-15(n765ts)*	No HSNs, express GCaMP5 and mCherry in uv1s	4	This study
MIA239	*keyIs34 X* *keyIs48* *lite-1(ce314)* *lin-15(n765ts)*	vulval muscle expressing Channelrhodopsin-2, uv1s expressing GCaMP5 and mCherry	2	This study
MIA198	*vsIs* *keyIs34 X* *lite-1(ce314)* *lin-15(n765ts)*	Expresses Tetanus Toxin in the VC neurons, and Expresses GCaMP5/mCherry in uv1s	4	This study
MIA475	*unc-13(s69)I* *keyIs34 X* *lite-1(ce314)* *lin-15(n765ts)*	Synaptic vesicle fusion mutant deficient in neurotransmitter signaling. Expresses GCaMP5/mCherry in uv1s	4	This study
MIA473	*unc-31(e928) IV* *keyIs34 X* *lite-1(ce314)* *lin-15(n765ts)*	Dense core vesicle release mutant deficient in neuropeptide signaling. Expresses GCaMP5/mCherry in uv1s	4	This study

MIA332	*unc-54(e190) I* *keyIs34 X* *lite-1(ce314)* *lin-15(n765ts)*	Myosin heavy chain null mutant with GCaMP5 and mCherry reporters expressed in uv1s	5	This study
MIA490	*egl-19(n2368) IV* *keyIs34 X* *lite-1(ce314)* *lin-15(n765ts)*	L-type voltage-gated calcium channel gain of function mutant with uv1 expressing GCaMP5 and mCherry	7	This study
AG526	*pezo-1 (av149)* *keyIs34 X* *lite-1(ce314)* *lin-15(n765ts)*	*pezo-1* mechanosensory channel mutant with uv1 expressing GCaMP5 and mCherry	6	This study
MIA476	*egl-19(n582) IV* *keyIs34 X* *lite-1(ce314)* *lin-15(n765ts)*	L-type voltage-gated calcium channel loss of function mutant with uv1 expressing GCaMP5 and mCherry	7	This study
MIA505	*ocr-2(vs29)* *keyIs34 X* *lite-1(ce314)* *lin-15(n765ts)*	TRPV mechanosensory channel mutant with uv1 expressing GCaMP5 and mCherry	6	This study
MIA528	*ocr-2(ak47)* *ocr-4(vs137) IV;* *keyIs34* *lite-1(ce314)* *lin-15(n765ts) X*	TRPV mechanosensory channel mutant with uv1 expressing GCaMP5 and mCherry	6	This study
MIA548	*ocr-2(ak47)* *ocr-4(vs137)* *osm-9(cx10)* *keyIs34 X* *lite-1(ce314)* *lin-15(n765ts)*	TRPV mechanosensory channel mutant with uv1 expressing GCaMP5 and mCherry	6	This study
MIA493	*keyIs19* *keyIs34 X* *lite-1(ce314)* *lin-15(n765ts)*	transgenic worms expressing Histamine-gated chloride channel under *ceh-24* promoter in vulval muscles and GCaMP5 and mCherry in uv1s	5	This study
MIA501	*unc-2(e55)* *keyIs34 X* *lite-1(ce314)* *lin-15(n765ts)*	P/Q-type voltage-gated calcium channel loss of function mutant with uv1 expressing GCaMP5 and mCherry	8	This study
MIA495	*vsSi3* *keyIs34 X* *lite-1(ce314)* *lin-15(n765ts)*	vulval muscle expressing ERG potassium channel UNC-103, uv1s expressing GCaMP5 and mCherry	5	This study
MIA582	*unc-68(e540)* *keyIs34 X* *lite-1(ce314)* *lin-15(n765ts)*	UNC-68 ryanodine receptor mutant with uv1 expressing GCaMP5 and mCherry	8	This study

MIA123	*egl-1(n986dm) V* *lite-1(ce314)* *lin-15(n765ts) X*	No HSNs		(Kopchock et al., 2021)
MIA71	*keyIs19* *lite-1(ce314)* *lin-15(n765ts)*	transgenic worms expressing Histamine-gated chloride channel under *ceh-24* promoter in vulval muscles		(Ravi et al., 2018a)
EG9631	*unc-13(s69)I*	Synaptic vesicle fusion mutant deficient in neurotransmitter signaling.		(Richmond et al., 1999)
CB928	*unc-31(e928) IV*	Dense core vesicle release mutant deficient in neuropeptide signaling.		(Charlie et al., 2006)
MT1212	*egl-19(n2368) IV*	L-type voltage-gated calcium channel gain of function mutant		(Laine et al., 2014)
MT6129	*egl-19(n582) IV*	L-type voltage-gated calcium channel loss of function mutant		(Jospin et al., 2002)
LX671	*ocr-2(vs29)*	TRPV mechanosensory channel mutant		(Jose et al., 2007)
LX981	*ocr-2(ak47)* *ocr-4(vs137)*	TRPV mechanosensory channel mutant		(Jose et al., 2007)
CX10	*osm-9(ky10)*	TRPV mechanosensory channel mutant		(Colbert et al., 1997)
CB55	*unc-2(e55)*	P/Q-type voltage-gated calcium channel loss of function mutant		(Mathews et al., 2003)
LX1615	*vsSi3*	vulval muscle expressing ERG potassium channel UNC-103		(Dhakal et al., 2022)

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