Mechanisms of surface and volume light scattering from

***Caenorhabditis elegans* revealed by angle-resolved measurements**

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SUMMARY

The use of the model roundworm *Caenorhabditis elegans* in has enabled pioneering discoveries

in biology in part due to its optical accessibility. Optical imaging of *C. elegans* primarily relies on

light scattering to generate contrast. However, the mechanisms of light scattering by *C.*

elegans, and how they influence image contrast, are not well understood. We measured

scattering and image contrast from *C. elegans* under varied illumination angles, wavelength,

substrate composition, bacterial seeding, and index matching conditions. Combining

experiments with ray-tracing simulations, we show that scattering arises from two interacting

components: volume scattering within the body and surface scattering at interfaces between the

worm and its surroundings. Surface scattering dominates at low angles and enhances animal

boundaries, whereas volume scattering becomes more prominent at higher angles and

improves visibility of internal structures. We identify practical conditions that optimize image

contrast, including low-angle off-axis illumination, longer-wavelength (red) light, and low-

scattering substrate media. Our work establishes a framework for understanding light scattering

from small animals.

KEYWORDS

Light scattering, *C. elegans, Caenorhabditis elegans,* Imaging, Microscopy, Biomedical Optics

INTRODUCTION

The microscopic nematode *C. elegans* is one of the most widely studied model

organisms in biology due to its short life cycle, genetic accessibility, and compact anatomy [1,

2]. Its optical accessibility, fully mapped connectome [3], and rich repertoire of behaviors [4]

have made it a valuable system for *in vivo* imaging of neural activity [5-7], behavioral dynamics

[8-10], and genetic perturbations [10, 11]. Recent advances in automation [11-16] have enabled

high-throughput genetic and pharmacological screening using *C. elegans*.

One of the strengths of *C. elegans* is its amenability to optical imaging. Many assays of

behavior, morphology, aging, and development rely on obtaining images of worms with high

contrast relative to their surroundings [17-21]. Since like most biological tissues, *C. elegans*

exhibits relatively low optical absorption over optical wavelengths, most of the optical contrast is

provided by scattering, i.e. changes in direction of incident light rays [22].

In any imaging system, lenses or other optical elements are configured to focus light

collected from a certain range of angles. Two imaging modes can be differentiated by whether

the illumination angles are within the range of collection by the optical system [23, 24]. In a

bright field imaging configuration, the illumination rays are within the collection angle of the

optics. Optical scattering by the object diverts some of the light away from the collection angles,

causing the object to appear darker than its surroundings. By contrast, in a dark field imaging

configuration, the illumination light is outside the collection angle of the optical system;

scattering by the object causes some of this light to be collected, and the object appears bright

against a dark background.

The amount and angular distribution of light scattering are highly sensitive to illumination

angle, wavelength, and the optical properties of the object and background medium. In practice,

many imaging systems rely on empirically chosen parameters, without a systematic

understanding of how these variables affect image contrast.

Light scattering in biological tissues has previously been studied primarily in the context

of biomedical imaging [22, 25]. Prior theoretical descriptions of light scattering in biological

tissues include those applying Mie theory [26, 27] which describes scattering from spheres as a

function of diameter and refractive index, and the Henyey–Greenstein phase function [28, 29],

which describes the degree of anisotropy occurring during scattering. Numerical simulations

using the discrete dipole approximation and discrete source method have been used to model

light scattered by red blood cells [30, 31]. Angle-dependent scattering profiles have been

characterized for tissue sections [32-34], tissue-mimicking phantoms [35], and single cells [34,

36]. Cell structure has been shown to be an important factor modulating optical scattering from

unicellular marine organisms [37]. However, to our knowledge mechanisms of light scattering

from intact multicellular living organisms with specific geometries, such as *C. elegans*, have not

been examined in detail.

Although high-resolution imaging methods such as Differential Interference Contrast

(DIC) and fluorescence microscopy are widely used for detailed anatomical phenotyping, many

C. elegans assays, such as high-throughput screening [16, 18, 19, 38] and behavioral tracking

[4, 10, 39], rely on label-free bright field or dark field imaging, where image contrast largely

depends on optical scattering from the animals. Therefore, establishing a mechanistic and

quantitative description of how intact *C. elegans* scatters light as a function of various imaging

parameters is important for image optimization.

In this study, we sought to understand the mechanisms of light scattering from *C.*

elegans and explore the imaging conditions that optimize optical contrast. We first quantify

scattering functions and image contrast as a function of illumination angle, revealing a

pronounced contrast maximum at around 12°. We then test the wavelength dependence of

scattering and show that longer wavelengths increase image contrast. To explain these

empirical trends, we proposed a model that optical scattering from *C. elegans* arises from a

combination of volume scattering within the animal body and surface scattering due to the

refractive index mismatch at the interface between the worm and its surroundings. Next, we

perform empirical index-matching analysis and computational ray tracing to verify our model.

Our computational model successfully reproduces the angular and spatial distribution of optical

scattering observed from experimental measurements. We find that surface scattering

dominates at low angles whereas volume scattering becomes more prominent at higher angles.

Furthermore, we demonstrate how these mechanisms translate to practical choices of

illumination in *C. elegans* microscopy: low-angle illumination produces images emphasizing

body boundaries whereas high-angle illumination produces images that better resolve internal

anatomy. Finally, we test how substrate composition affects image contrast. We find that

compared with conventional substrates based on agar, optical contrast is much higher on

substrates based on low-scattering biopolymers gelatin and gellan gum.

Our work provides a mechanistic framework for understanding light scattering in intact

organisms and offers practical guidance for optimizing quality in *C. elegans* imaging. Moreover,

the physical principles outlined here will inform optimization strategies for imaging other

organisms.

RESULTS

Angle dependence of scattering functions and image contrast

To establish a quantitative description of light scattering and optical contrast from *C. elegans*, we first measured scattering magnitude and image contrast as a function of illumination angle.

We first illuminated worms (N2) on agar plates at specific angles θ, using a ring of light-emitting diodes (LEDs) and captured images using a camera, an iris, and a lens (Fig. 1A(i), Materials and Methods). Using a ring of LEDs creates azimuthally uniform illumination. We set the collection angle of the system to be low (numerical aperture, NA = 0.031) to optimize measurements of scattering angle (Fig. 1A(ii), Discussion) at the cost of lower spatial resolution.

Fig. 1A(ii) depicts the geometries of illumination and detection for representative θ values. It also demonstrates how the image mode changes with θ. For θ near 0º, the illumination rays are nearly vertical, and the light collected by the optics consists of mainly forward transmission. The worm scatters portion of the light out of the collection angle of the optics, causing the animal to appear darker than the background. As a result, for θ near 0º, the animal is imaged in a bright field mode, in which the background appears brighter than the worm. For larger values of θ, for example 45º, the illumination rays form an oblique angle with the vertical optical axis. The forward transmission is outside of the collection angle and only the portion of the light scattered by the worm can be collected by the optics. In this scenario, the animal appears brighter than the background and the imaging is in a dark field mode. For θ larger than 90º, for example 135º, the illumination is at the same side of the lens and the camera. In this case, only the light

scattered backward by the worm can be collected by the optics and therefore the animal is also

imaged in dark field.

As described above, under illumination at variable θ angles, animals on agar seeded with

food bacteria can be imaged in either bright field or dark field mode (Fig. 1B). We also found

that *C. elegans* exhibits distinct spatially inhomogeneous scattering patterns across different

illumination angles (Fig. 1B). The contrast of the animal against its background also changes

with θ (Fig. 1B).

Using the images recorded with different illumination angles, we calculated the scattering

function p(θ), which has units of sr^{-1} (inverse steradian) and describes the probability per solid

angle of a photon scattering by a polar angle θ relative to its original trajectory (Fig. 1A) [40, 41].

Note that the scattering function p(θ) measured using the setup depicted in Fig. 1A(i) is

azimuthally symmetric because the illumination is applied across all azimuthal angles. The

value of the scattering function at θ = 0º represents the probability of a ray to be transmitted

without scattering.

We measured scattering functions under red light illumination (peak wavelength 629 nm) for

C. elegans, agar, and bacteria-coated (seeded) agar (Fig. 1C). For both *C. elegans* and agar

backgrounds, the scattering function is highest at θ = 0º, decreases from 0º to 62º ($p \leq 0.001$),

and increases modestly from 128º to 172º ($p \leq 0.003$).

To determine the effect of scattering angle θ on image contrast, we defined a contrast index

equal to the difference in irradiance between worm and background, both measured at the

camera, divided by the sum of irradiance of the worm and background (see Materials and

Methods). We calculated the contrast index as a function of θ (Fig. 1D). For θ = 0º, the contrast

indices are negative for worms on both seeded and unseeded agar plates ($p < 0.001$). This is

because at θ = 0º, the system is in the bright field regime (Fig. 1A(ii)), in which the worm

appears darker than its surroundings. For $\theta > 0°$, in the dark field imaging regime (Fig. 1A(ii)),

the contrast index increases sharply with θ and reach a maximum at 12° ($p < 0.001$, Fig. 1D).

For θ close to 180°, we observe a negative contrast index for worms on seeded plates ($p <$

0.001, Fig. 1D). These results suggest that optimal image contrast can be obtained by applying

illumination around 12° relative to the optical axis.

Fig. 1. Angle-resolved, wavelength-dependent scattering functions and image contrast for *C. elegans* on agar substrate. (A) (i) Experimental setup, showing illumination applied at specific polar angles θ. (ii) Detection geometry and imaging modes for different illumination angles θ. FT: forward transmission; IL: illumination; SL: scattered light. The illumination is applied across all azimuthal angles. (B) Representative images of worms and background at different illumination angles (FOV: 1.11 × 0.56 mm). (C) Scattering functions for *C. elegans* on seeded and unseeded agar substrate under red light illumination. Maximum standard error to mean ratio (SMR) is 14% for seeded agar and 9% for all other categories. (D) Image contrast as a function of illumination angle θ for *C. elegans* on seeded and unseeded agar plate under red light illumination. (E) Scattering functions for *C. elegans* on seeded agar plates under red, green, and blue light illumination. Maximum SMR is 9%, 6%, 12% for worms, and 14%, 22%, 11% for seeded agar, under red, green, and blue illumination. (F) Image contrast index for *C. elegans* on seeded agar as a function of illumination angle and wavelength. For (D) and (F), the error bars represent standard error. For (C) and (E), error bars are not shown due to the high density of the datapoints and the small SMR. Statistical details are provided in Table S1. For (C) – (F), each datapoint represents the mean of measurements across N = 3 to 5 animals. For (B) – (F), all the animals are *C. elegans* N2 at day-1 adulthood.

Wavelength dependence of scattering functions and image contrast

Having found that illumination angle is an important modulator of optical scattering and contrast, we next asked whether other illumination settings also play important roles. We reasoned that scattering from *C. elegans* would vary with illumination wavelength, since optical scattering from biological tissue typically shows a strong wavelength dependence [42, 43].

To determine the wavelength dependence, we measured the angle-resolved scattering

functions for *C. elegans* on seeded agar plates under red (peak wavelength 629 nm), green

(516 nm), and blue (447 nm) LED illumination (Fig. 1E). We found that the scattering functions

for green and blue light show similar overall trends as that of red light.

For θ = 0º, the scattering functions of *C. elegans* are higher for red than green (p =

0.005), and higher for green than blue (p < 0.001) (Fig. 1E). It indicates that the proportion of

the light that is forward transmitted without scattering increases with wavelength, consistent with

results from prior studies that the optical reduced scattering coefficient (μ_s') generally decreases

with wavelength [42].

We also found that illumination wavelength has a prominent effect on the image contrast

(Fig. 1F). The peak contrast indices for red illumination are higher than green (p < 0.001), and

green higher than blue (p = 0.009). These results suggest that red illumination is better than

green or blue in terms of generating contrast in images.

Empirical analysis of volume and surface scattering

The empirical measurements of scattering from *C. elegans* led us to ask what

mechanisms contribute to the observed angle dependence of the scattering functions. We

reasoned that light scattering from *C. elegans* could arise from two sources: (1) volume

scattering within the animal body due to refractive index variations and (2) surface scattering

from refractive index mismatch at the boundaries between the worm and the air and/or the

substrate (Fig. 2A).

To help distinguish between these two types of scattering, we first isolated the volume

scattering by minimizing the surface scattering via approximate refractive index matching. Most

biological tissues have an index of refraction slightly higher than that of water [44]. The *C.*

elegans cuticle has been measured to have a refractive index about n = 1.35-1.37, only slightly

higher than that of water [45]. To achieve approximate index matching, we placed a gelatin pad

(n ≈ 1.36) on the agar plate in order to eliminate the worm-to-air interface and surround the

animals with media with similar refractive index to that of the worm (Fig. 2B). After index

matching, the observed scattering function should be almost entirely due to volume scattering.

Fig. 2C depicts the scattering functions for *C. elegans* and bacteria-seeded agar in the

index-matching experiment. For θ = 0º, scattering functions for the index-matched case are

higher than for the non-index-matched case for both worm (p = 0.007) and background (p <

0.001), implying that index matching increases the forward transmission.

We calculated the contrast indices due to the volume scattering only, for the worm and

background (Fig. 2D). For θ = 0º, in the bright field imaging regime, the image contrast for index

matching is not significantly different to non-index matching (p = 0.753). For θ > 0º, in the dark

field imaging regime, the image contrast reaches maximum around 10º for index matching. The

peak contrast index for index matching is lower than non-index matching (p < 0.001, Fig. 2D),

implying that surface scattering helps to increase image contrast.

As in the non-index matched case, we observed that volume scattering in *C. elegans* is

dependent on wavelength (Fig. S1A). Besides, red light generates peak image contrast higher

than green (p = 0.005), and green higher than blue (p = 0.032) (Fig. S1B). Taken together, our

results show that optimal image contrast for *C. elegans* in an index-matched environment can

be obtained by applying red illumination with an angle of 10º-15º relative to the optical axis.

These findings inform useful guidelines for optimizing image quality for *C. elegans* in liquid-

based assays [19, 46, 47] or other high-index environments.

Mechanisms of volume and surface scattering

The experimental observations of optical scattering in the non-index matched and index

matched scenarios lead us to pose several questions. What mechanisms contribute to the

angular dependence of the optical scattering from *C. elegans* and how does it shape the

nonlinear change of the image contrast (Fig. 2C and D)? What is the interplay between the

volume and the surface scattering and how do they contribute to the overall scattering? Why

does the optical scattering exhibit spatially inhomogeneous patterns across the worm's body,

sometimes appearing to highlight the outline of the animal (Fig. 1B)?

To explore the mechanisms underlying the angle-dependent scattering, we created a

simple computational model of the worm and its surroundings (Fig. 2A). We modeled the adult

C. elegans as a cylinder (diameter = 50 μm, length = 1000 μm, n = 1.33) on the surface of a

rectangular cuboid (n = 1.33), representing the substrate. A concave shaped film (n = 1.33)

formed at the either side of the cylinder (Fig. 2A and Fig. S2), representing the capillary water

film that forms near the points of contact between the worm and the agar substrate [48]. We set

the volume scattering within the cylinder to follow the Henyey-Greenstein phase function [28],

which is widely used to model light scattering within biological tissues [29]. The anisotropy

parameter g is set to 0.83 and the scattering mean free path set to 12 μm (optimization of free

parameters is described in Materials and Methods). To simulate the index matched case, we

eliminated the worm-to-air interface by adding a medium (n = 1.33), representing the index

matching pad, to the model (Fig. 2B).

Using these models, we simulated scattering functions for both the index matched and

non-index matched cases. We observed that the simulated scattering functions show broad

agreement with the experimental observations for both the index matched and non-index

matched cases (Fig. 2E). For θ = 0º, simulated scattering function for index matching is higher

than non-index matching ($p < 0.001$), suggesting that index matching increases the forward

transmission, which is consistent with the experimental observation (Fig. 2C and E). The

simulated scattering functions are highest at θ = 0º, decrease from 0º to 65º ($p < 0.001$), and

increase from 150º to 180º ($p < 0.001$), showing an overall trend broadly consistent with the

experimental results (Fig. 2E). We also observed that the index-matching model does not fit the

experimental data well for θ between 90° and 180°. We attribute this discrepancy to scattering

from the bacteria-seeded agar, which is not included in the simulation. To account for this effect,

we summed the index-matching model and the experimental measurements of seeded agar

(Fig. 2C). This improved the agreement between the model and the experimental data for θ

between 90° and 180° (Fig. 2E).

In the simulation, the back scattering detected at θ = 180º (Fig. 2E) is due to Fresnel

reflection (i.e. that occurring at interfaces between media of different refractive index) (Fig. 2A

and B) [49]. In the index matched case, the flat horizontal upper surface of the index-matching

medium (Fig. 2B) creates a Fresnel reflection collected by the detector at θ = 180º (Fig. 2E).

The Fresnel reflection created by the convex surface of the simulated worm (Fig. 2A) in the non-

index matched case is weaker than that of the index matched scenario ($p < 0.001$, Fig. 2E).

In addition to calculating the scattering due to volume scattering only (via index

matching), we calculated the scattering due to surface scattering alone (by removing volume

scattering), the sum of the volume only and surface scattering only models, and finally the

scattering in the complete model incorporating both volume and surface scattering (Fig. 2F).

In the surface scattering only model, the worm and water film act as an approximately

cylindrical lens. Due to the lensing effect, the surface scattering dominates over the volume

scattering from 0º to 50º ($p < 0.01$), but weaker than the volume scattering for from 55º to 85 º (p

< 0.001), as shown in Fig. 2F. Due to the Fresnel reflection, the surface scattering is stronger

than the volume scattering from 115º to 175º ($p < 0.001$, Fig. 2F).

By comparing the sum of the volume only and surface scattering only models with the

complete model incorporating both volume and surface scattering, we can assess the degree of

interaction between volume and surface scattering. If volume and surface scattering occur

independently, we would expect the sum of the volume only and surface scattering only to

approximately equal the complete model. This is indeed the case for large angles, from about

60º to 150º (Fig. 2F), because Fresnel reflection from the upper worm surface is independent of

volume scattering occurring inside the animal. By contrast, for angles from 5º to 45º, the

complete scattering is much smaller than the surface scattering only model ($p < 0.001$). This is

because rays coming from below the worm must first go through volume scattering in the

worm's body and then surface scattering before being collected by the detector. In this case, the

incident ray directions are largely randomized by the volume scattering, causing most of them to

scatter into larger angles. On the other hand, for angles from 5º to 45º, the lensing effect of the

surface scattering in the complete model helps refracting the rays to reach the detector, causing

the complete scattering to be somewhat higher than that of the pure volume scattering ($p <$

0.02, Fig. 2F).

We asked how well other models could also describe our scattering data. Mie theory

describes scattering from spheres as a function of diameter and refractive index and is a widely

used model for studying light scattering from biological tissues [26, 27].   We applied Mie theory

to simulate the scattering function for a sphere with volume, surface area, or cross-sectional

area (Fig. S3) equivalent to that of an adult worm (diameter = 50 µm, length = 1000 µm, n =

1.33). We then compared the results from the three Mie models with the experimental data for

worms on seeded agar (Fig. S3). We found that all three Mie models overestimate the direct

transmission at 0º ($p < 0.001$) while underestimating scattering at angles greater than 90º ($p \leq$

0.002), except from 135º to 140º (Fig. S3). Compared to the three Mie models, our model shows

better agreement with the empirical data (Fig. S3).

Fig. 2. Analysis of volume and surface scattering from *C. elegans*. (A) Schematic of light

scattering from *C. elegans* on a moist substrate. SS: surface scattering; VS: volume scattering;

FR: Fresnel reflection. (B) Schematic of light scattering from *C. elegans* on the substrate

underneath an index-matching media. (C) Angle-resolved scattering functions for *C. elegans*

and seeded agar for the non-index matched (non-IM) and the index matched (IM) cases.

Maximum SMR is 14% for all the categories. Error bars are not shown due to the high density of

the datapoints and the small SMR. Statistical details are provided in Table S1. (D) Angle-

resolved image contrast of *C. elegans* on seeded agar for non-IM and IM cases. Error bars

represent standard error of the mean. (E) Simulated angle-resolved scattering functions of *C.*

elegans obtained from the computational model for non-IM and IM cases, overlaid with the

experimental results. (F) The simulated scattering functions for the volume scattering only, the

surface scattering only, the sum of the volume and surface scattering, and the complete

scattering. For (C) and (D), each datapoint represents the mean of measurements across N = 3-

5 animals. For (E) and (F), datapoints and error bars represent the mean and standard error

across N = 10 simulation trials. For (C) - (E), all the animals are *C. elegans* N2 at day-1

adulthood.

Inhomogeneous spatial distribution of light scattering

Having found that volume and surface scattering collectively shape the angle

dependence of scattering, we next asked whether these two components also contribute to the

spatially inhomogeneous patterns observed in the worm images (Fig. 1B). First, we measured

the cross-sectional scattering profile for the animal at various illumination angles (Fig. 3A-D).

We noticed that in some images the worm appeared brightest along its edges, whereas in

others it appeared brightest at its center. To quantify how much the light scattering is spatially

located around the edges of the worm body compared to the center, we defined the edge-to-

middle contrast index (EMCI) (see Materials and methods). The EMCI has a range from -1 to 1

with positive EMCI indicating the scattering is brighter around the edges than in the middle. We

measured EMCI as a function of θ for the index matched and non-index matched cases (Fig. 3E

and F).

In the non-index matched case, for θ < 6º, stronger scattering is experimentally observed

around the edges and weaker in the middle, yielding positive EMCI (p < 0.05, Fig. 3E). For θ

from 10º to 165º, scattering is weaker around the edges and stronger in the middle, yielding

negative EMCI (p < 0.02). When θ > 168º, the EMCI turns positive again (p < 0.02). By contrast,

the EMCI with index-matching is not significantly higher than zero (p > 0.80) for all the

experimentally tested θ except for 0º (Fig. 3F). These results indicate that the high scattering

observed around the edges for θ close to 0º and 180º for the non-index matched scenario are

due to the surface scattering. In comparison, the volume scattering consistently concentrates

around the middle of the animal body with different θ.

Next, we ask whether the observed spatial distribution of scattering can be reproduced

by our computational model depicted in Fig. 2A and B. The profiles of scattering across the

simulated worm for the representative θ in the scenarios of non-index matching and index

matching are shown in Fig. 3B and D, respectively. The simulated EMCIs as functions of θ for

both scenarios are respectively shown in Fig. 3E and F. The results from our simulation show

broad agreement with the experimental data, further supporting the validity of our computational

model.

Combining the results from Fig. 2F, we can describe the mechanisms underlying the

angle-dependent spatial distribution of the scattering. For θ = 0º, in the bright field imaging

regime, the light incident to the animal is scattered out of the collection angle of the detector

(Fig. 1A(ii)), causing the animal to appear darker than the background (Fig. 1B, Fig. 3A-D),

yielding negative image contrast (Fig. 1D and Fig. 2D) and positive EMCI (Fig. 3E and F). For

small θ > 0º, in the dark field imaging regime (Fig. 1A(ii)), the surface scattering is dominant

(Fig. 2F) and contributes to the brightened boundaries of the animal due to the lensing effect,

yielding positive EMCI (Fig. 3B and E). For larger scattering angles, the volume scattering is

dominant (Fig. 2F), and the scattering spatially distributes around the center, yielding negative

EMCI (Fig. 3E and F). The negative contrast index and the positive EMCI observed near θ =

180º for worm on bacteria-seeded agar (Fig. 1B, D, F, Fig. 3A, B, and E) is due to the Fresnel

reflection from the substrate.

These findings hold important implications for choosing optimal illumination angles for

different purposes. For some applications where animal tracking and the identification of small

independent objects (such as embryos and larvae) are more important, smaller angles would be

preferable since the surface scattering highlights the object boundaries and overall contrast is

highest. For cases in which resolving the internal structures of *C. elegans* is more important, the

illumination should be set to higher angles where the volume scattering is dominant.

Fig. 3. Spatial distribution of light scattering from *C. elegans*. (A) Images recorded at

representative angles for *C. elegans* on seeded agar, without an index matching media (FOV =

1.11 × 1.11 mm). The red dashed line highlights the pixels used for calculating the cross-

sectional scattering profiles at the midpoint of the animal. (B) Scattering profiles across the

midpoint of the animal for individual representative angles in the non-index matched case

shown in (A). E1, M, and E2 represent the first edge portion, the middle portion, and the second

edge portion of the profile used for calculating EMCI. (C) Images recorded at representative

angles for *C. elegans* on seeded agar underneath an index matching media. (D) Scattering

profiles across the midpoint of the animal for individual representative angles in the index

matched case shown in (C). (E) Experimental and simulated EMCIs as functions of θ for the

non-index matched (non-IM) scenario. (F) Experimental and simulated EMCIs as functions of θ

for the index matched (IM) scenario. For (B), (D), (E), and (F), datapoints and error bars for the

simulation data represent the mean and standard error of the mean, respectively, across N = 10

simulation trials. For (E) and (F), datapoints and error bars for the experimental results

represent the mean and standard error across N = 3 animals. All animals are *C. elegans* N2 at

day-1 adulthood.

Optimal illumination for microscopy

Having identified that volume scattering is dominant at high angles whereas surface

scattering is more prominent at low angles and spatially concentrated around edges, we next

asked how these findings can translate to practical guidelines to form optimal illumination for

microscopy of *C. elegans*. For this purpose, we acquired images of worms using imaging

systems with higher magnification and NA (Materials and methods), under various angles of

illumination (Fig. 4).

In bright field microscopy (Fig. 4A), the angular range of illumination θ is smaller than

that collected by the objective lens. Some of the light incident on the worm scatters out of the

collection angles, causing the worm to appear darker than its background. When θ is small, the

light collected from the animal is dominated by low-angle scattering (Fig. 4A), which is largely

contributed by surface scattering (Fig. 2F). The surface scattering helps improve the contrast of

the edges with a tradeoff of lower resolution for the internal structures (Fig. 4B), consistent with

the results from our spatial analysis (Fig. 3A, B, and E). To better visualize internal features, the

angular range of illumination should be larger so that more light scattered to high angles due to

volume scattering can be collected (Fig. 4C). Compared to an image using narrow angle

illumination (Fig. 4B), wider-angle illumination better resolves internal structures within the body,

such as pharynx, intestine, and embryos (Fig. 4C).

In dark field microscopy (Fig. 4D), the illumination is outside the acceptance angle of the

objective lens. Optical scattering diverts some of the light into the acceptance angle, and the

worm appears bright against a dark background (Fig. 4E-F). When the illumination angle is low,

more low-angle scattering (surface scattering) is collected, contributing to bright edges (Figs.

3A, B, E, and 4E) and high contrast against the background (Figs. 2D and 4E). In contrast,

larger θ causes more high-angle scattering (volume scattering) to be collected, which facilitates

the visualization of internal structures (Fig. 4F). Compared to Fig. 4E, higher-angle illumination

helps resolving the internal organs (Fig. 4F and G).

For both bright field and dark field imaging, it is important for the illumination angles to

be either inside or outside of the lens' acceptance range, but not both simultaneously.

Illuminating with a range of angles both inside or outside of the lens' acceptance range results in

a combination of bright field and dark field images, resulting in low image contrast (Fig. 4H).

Important heuristics can be translated from our findings to practical guidelines for

common microscopy in *C. elegans* labs. First, for observations of animals through stereoscopes

or high-magnification microscopes, it is preferential to use transillumination (θ < 90º) as

compared to epi-illumination (θ > 90º), because image contrast under epi-illumination is lower

(Figs. 1D, F, and 2D).

Second, illumination angles need to be tailored for different purposes. For animal

tracking and identification of embryos and larvae, illumination can be set to lower NA for

highlighting object boundaries to obtain maximum contrast. To achieve this on stereoscope, the

angle of the reflective mirror under the sample stage can be adjusted so that the illumination

light rays are nearly parallel to the optical axis. If available, the size of the illumination aperture

can be reduced. For commercial high-magnification microscopes, where Köhler illumination [50]

is commonly used, the illumination NA can be lowered by reducing the size of the condenser

aperture. In contrast, for visualization of internal structures of *C. elegans*, illumination needs to

be set to higher NA.

Fig. 4. Effects of illumination angle on bright field and dark field microscopy. (A)

Schematic diagram of bright field microscopy. LAS: low-angle scattering; HAS: high-angle

scattering. (B) A bright field image of *C. elegans* under narrow-angle illumination ($\theta < 1.7°$) FOV:

1.0 x 0.5 mm. (C) A bright field image of *C. elegans* under wider-angle illumination ($\theta < 8.7°$). (D)

Schematic diagram of dark field microscopy. (E) A dark field image of *C. elegans* under low-

angle illumination ($\theta = 20°$). (F) A dark field image of *C. elegans* under higher-angle illumination

($\theta = 57°$). (G) Computationally inverted version of F yields an image similar to bright field

illumination. (H) A combination of bright field and dark field images of *C. elegans* under

illumination applied both inside and outside of the collection angle range of the objective lens (θ

$< 20°$). The NA of the objective lens is 0.3 for (B) and (C), and 0.14 for (E) – (H). All the animals

shown in this figure are *C. elegans* N2 at day-1 adulthood.

Substrate-dependent image contrast

In addition to illumination geometry and wavelength, image contrast is influenced by the

amount of scattering in the substrate background. While *C. elegans* is commonly cultured on

agar media, other gelling agents may also be used instead of agar [9, 51, 52]. We asked how

the composition of the substrate might affect image contrast. We prepared three substrates

including agar, gelatin, and gellan gum (Materials and methods), at concentrations that yielded

similar gel strengths, and measured scattering functions and image contrast for animals on

these substrates (Fig. 5).

Our results show that the scattering functions for all three substrates decrease with θ

from 6° to 62° ($p \leq 0.005$) but show different magnitudes (Fig. 5A). Overall scattering from

gelatin ($p \leq 0.001$) and gellan gum ($p \leq 0.003$) is smaller than from agar for θ from 10° to 62°.

Lower background scattering results in the peak image contrast for animals on gelatin ($p <$

0.001) and gellan gum ($p < 0.001$) higher than agar (Fig. 5B).

We observed that the scattering functions for all the substrates are dependent on

illumination wavelength (Fig. S4) and longer-wavelength illumination generates higher peak

image contrast ($p \leq 0.011$, Figs. 5B and S4).

We also notice that the imprint due to animal's movement causes significant scattering

on gellan gum for θ < 10º (Fig. S4F), which leads to reduced image contrast (Figs. 5B and S4F).

These imprints may not be favorable for animal identification or tracking but could be helpful for

studying locomotion trajectories.

Fig. 5. Scattering functions and image contrast for different substrate polymers. (A)

Angle-resolved scattering functions for *C. elegans* on unseeded media made with agar, gelatin,

and gellan gum, under red illumination. Each datapoint and error bar represents the mean and

standard error across N = 3 to 7 animals. Maximum SMR for worms are 6.8% on agar, 7.3% on

gelatin, and 8.0% on gellan gum. Some error bars are not shown due to the high density of the

datapoints and the small SMR. Statistical details are provided in Table S1. (B) Image contrast

for *C. elegans* on unseeded agar, gelatin, and gellan gum under red, green, and blue

illumination. Each dot represents the mean of measurements across N = 3 to 7 animals for an

individual illumination angle. Error bars represent the standard error across N = 10 illumination

angles. All the animals are *C. elegans* N2 at day-1 adulthood.

464   DISCUSSION

In this work, we investigated the mechanisms of light scattering from the nematode *C.*

elegans using angle-resolved measurements and computational modeling. Our findings reveal

that the light scattering from *C. elegans* arises from two primary sources: volume scattering

within the animal body and surface scattering at the interfaces between the animal, air, and the

moist substrate. These two types of scattering exhibit distinct angular and spatial profiles and

contribute differently to the overall scattering. Surface scattering is more prominent at small and

large angles, while volume scattering dominates at intermediate angles (Fig. 2). Volume

scattering is highest at the central region of the animal (Fig. 3) and helps resolve internal

anatomical structures (Fig. 4). On the other hand, surface scattering enhances the animal's

boundaries (Fig. 3), which may aid animal detection and tracking but obscure internal features

(Fig. 4). The interplay between the volume and surface scattering suggests that the optimal

imaging configuration should be tailored to the specific applications, for example, behavioral

tracking versus anatomical visualization.

We found that the image contrast is highly sensitive to multiple parameters, including the

illumination angle, wavelength, and the type of imaging substrates. These findings inform a set

of imaging parameters that enhance image contrast. The simple strategy we provided here does

not require specialized optics and labels, and therefore it is readily adaptable to many systems,

for example, microscopy [17, 53-56], high-throughput screening setups [10, 18, 19, 38, 39],

microfluidic chambers [46, 57, 58], and automation systems [12, 38, 59, 60].

Together, this study provides a biophysical understanding for the light–tissue interactions

in multiple-scattering organisms and offers physically informed strategies for optimizing the

image quality in a wide range of imaging systems. Our findings hold immediate value for

researchers using *C. elegans* as a model system, and broader relevance for biological imaging

across disciplines, such as genetics, neuroscience, and pharmacology.

Limitations of the study

It is important to acknowledge the limitations of our work. First, some sources of error

may affect the accuracy of the scattering function measurements. For example, the imperfect

alignment of the components to the optical axis would also contribute to the discrepancy in the

measurements of the angle. The LEDs, the FOV of the camera, and the iris of the lens have

non-zero sizes, such that the scattered lights we collected are from a finite range of angles.

Therefore, in order to minimize the angular uncertainty, we selected lights for particular angles

by intentionally setting the NA of the lens to be low (F-number f/16, NA = 0.031), with an

acceptable cost of lower spatial resolution of the images (Fig. 1B, Fig. 3A and C).

There are a few factors that may affect the agreement of our computational model to the

experimental data. First, the animal is modeled as a simple cylinder, where the geometry of

head and tail and the bending of the body are not captured. Second, optical absorption from the

animal is not modeled. Third, we did not model the scattering due to the substrate or bacteria,

causing the background noise underestimated in the detected signal. Next, the optical

simulation is based on geometric ray tracing where the wave properties of the light, such as

diffraction, interference, and polarization, are not modeled.

This study focuses on a single developmental stage (day-1 adult) of a specific *C.*

elegans strain (N2). Variations in body morphology, internal structures, or cuticle properties

across life stages or genetic backgrounds may alter light scattering patterns [17]. Future work

could explore how scattering profiles change across developmental stages and in genetic

mutants with altered anatomy.

The calculation of the scattering function and image contrast is on an individual-animal

basis, which may neglect the variability between different organs and tissues. For example,

pharyngeal muscles are less scattering compared to embryos or intestine (Fig. 4F). Future work

will investigate the scattering profiles for different anatomical structures.

We expect the mechanisms of light scattering we identified here to have better

explanatory power for transparent, absorption-minimal biological samples, such as other

nematodes [61], fruit fly larvae [62], zebrafish larvae [63], and human organoids [64].

RESOURCE AVAILABILITY

Lead contact

521   Requests for further information and resources should be directed to and will be fulfilled

522   by the lead contact, Christopher Fang-Yen (fang-yen.1@osu.edu).

Materials availability

525   This study did not generate new materials or unique reagents.

Data and code availability

The data and code used in this study are available from https://github.com/Zihao-celegans/Worm-Scattering, including:

- Dataset S1: Raw data for this paper.
- Design File S1: Design files (in STEP format) for the 3D models representing *C. elegans* and its surroundings, generated using Autodesk Fusion.
- Software S1: Source files (in ZMX and ZPL format) for conducting the optical simulations using non-sequential mode in Ansys Zemax OpticStudio 2024 R2.
- Software S2: Source MATLAB scripts for all data analysis in this study.

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AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

Conceptualization, Z.J.L. and C.F.-Y.; methodology, Z.J.L. and C.F.-Y.; investigation, Z.J.L.; writing—original draft, Z.J.L.; writing—review and editing, Z.J.L. and C.F.-Y.; funding acquisition, C.F.-Y.; resources, C.F.-Y.; supervision, C.F.-Y.

DECLARATION OF INTERESTS

The authors declare no competing interests.

SUPPLEMENTAL INFORMATION

Document S1. Figures S1-S4 and supplemental references.

Table S1. Details of statistics (in XLSX format) for all results in this paper.

STAR★METHODS

KEY RESOURCES TABLE

REAGENT OR RESOURCE	SOURCE	IDENTIFIER
Experimental models: Organisms/strains		
Caenorhabditis elegans/N2	*Caenorhabditis* Genetics Center	https://cgc.umn.edu/strain/N2
Software and algorithms		
Fusion v.2605.1.52	Autodesk	https://www.autodesk.com/products/fusion-360/overview
Zemax OpticStudio 2024 R2	Ansys	https://www.ansys.com/products/optics/ansys-zemax-opticstudio
MATLAB R2025b	MathWorks	https://www.mathworks.com/products/matlab.html
ImageJ 1.54g	ImageJ	https://imagej.net/ij/

METHOD DETAILS

Imaging system

Our imaging system contains a LED ring comprised of 36 RGB LEDs (Qasim, 95 mm

diameter), a 3D-printed culture plate holder, a camera lens (Nikon Micro-NIKKOR, effective

focal length 105 mm, set to f/16, with C-mount adapter) and a CMOS camera (Imaging Source,

DMK 33GP031) (Fig. 1A). All optical elements are mounted to a 1.5" diameter, vertically

oriented post (Thorlabs P14) through post mounting clamps (Thorlabs C1511) and they are

aligned to be centered about a common optical axis. The distance between the lens and the

plate is 400 mm.

The illumination angle θ can be varied by translating the LED ring along the optical axis.

The LED ring can be mounted below the agar plate to provide angles <90° or above the plate to

provide angles between 90° and 180°. To obtain measurements at 0°, we positioned a single

LED (3.5 mm × 3.5 mm size) a distance 465 mm directly under the plate. Due to the constraints

of the optical mounts, some angles near 0°, 90°, and 180° were unavailable.

The LED array is programmable to emit red, green, or blue light. We measured the peak

wavelengths of the LEDs using a fiber optic coupled spectrometer (Ocean Optics FLAME-S-

XR1) to be 629, 516, and 447 nm. The spectral widths were approximately 16, 26, and 14 nm

(FWHM), respectively.

Measurement of scattering functions

The angle-resolved scattering function $p(\theta)$ describes the probability of a photon

scattering into a unit solid angle oriented at an angle θ relative to its original trajectory [40, 41].

Here we calculated $p(\theta)$ via the expression (Eq. 1)

580
$$p(\theta) = \frac{P_{cam}(\theta)}{P_{in}(\theta) \cdot \Omega}$$

581   where $P_{cam}(\theta)$ is the optical power received by the camera over the region of interest (ROI),

582    $P_{in}(\theta)$ the total optical power incident on the object, and Ω the solid angle collected by the

583   camera. We measured incident irradiance using an optical power meter (Coherent

584   FieldMate Laser Power Meter with OP-2 VIS sensor). To calculate $P_{cam}(\theta)$, we used the

585   expression (Eq. 2)

586
$$P_{cam}(\theta) = \frac{PV(\theta) \cdot A_{roi}}{k \cdot T_{exp}}$$

where A_{roi} is the area of the ROI, T_{exp} the exposure time, and k is the conversion coefficient

from irradiance to pixel value. The measured k values for our camera in response to red, green,

and blue light are 3.0, 3.3, and 3.5×10^5 $ADU \cdot mm^2 \cdot s^{-1} \cdot \mu W^{-1}$ respectively, where ADU is an

analog-to-digital unit.

Calculation of the contrast index

We defined the contrast index (CI) for an animal against its background as (Eq. 3)

594
$$CI = \frac{\overline{PV_w} - \overline{PV_{bg}}}{\overline{PV_w} + \overline{PV_{bg}}}$$

595   where $\overline{PV_w}$ and $\overline{PV_{bg}}$ are the average pixel values inside the contour of the worm and the

596   background. The contours of the animal were labeled using ImageJ (version 1.54g). The ROI for

597   its background was chosen as a 1.1 mm x 1.1 mm rectangular region adjacent to the animal.

598   Since the scattering function $p(\theta)$ is proportional to the pixel values $PV(\theta)$ (Eq. 1 and 2),

599   CI can be also expressed as (Eq. 4)

600
$$CI(\theta) = \frac{\overline{p(\theta)_w} - \overline{p(\theta)_{bg}}}{\overline{p(\theta)_w} + \overline{p(\theta)_{bg}}}$$

Computational modeling

We conducted simulations using Ansys Zemax OpticStudio 2024 R2 optical design and

analysis software in non-sequential mode. First, we constructed 3-dimensional models

representing *C. elegans* on the culture substrate in the scenarios of non-index matching and

index matching (Fig. 2A and B) using Autodesk Fusion (v.2605.1.52). The simulated animal is

illuminated by 36 collimated light sources equally spaced in the azimuthal direction and with

polar angle θ relative to the optical axis of the camera lens, which is modeled as a paraxial lens

(f = 105 mm) with an iris (6.56 mm diameter) positioned 400 mm from the animal. The lens

forms an image at an image distance of 142.37 mm. The image is captured by an incoherent

irradiance detector. For each angle tested we performed 10 trials of ray tracing, with each trial

containing 2×10^8 analyzed rays. We recorded an irradiance map for each trial. Next, we

calculated the scattering function $p(\theta)$ based on Eq. 1.

To model the volume scattering, we set the scattering within the simulated animal to

follow the Henyey-Greenstein phase function [28] (Fig. 2A and B). The two parameters, the

anisotropy factor (g) and mean free path (MFP), were chosen by minimizing the mean squared

error between the simulated scattering function and the experimental observations in the index-

matched scenario (Fig. 2B and E). The optimized value for the anisotropy parameter was g =

0.83 and the mean free path was MFP = 12 μm.

After obtaining the optimized values for g and MFP, we simulated the complete

scattering from the animal using the non-index matched model (Fig. 2A). We optimized the

surface scattering by adjusting the shape of the capillary film to minimize the mean squared

error between the simulated scattering function and the experimental data (Fig. 2E and Fig. S2).

Edge-to-middle contrast index (EMCI)

626   To calculate the EMCI for the scattering profile across the animal (Fig. 3A-D), we first

627 symmetrically divided the distribution into three portions (Fig. 3B), including the first edge

628 portion (42 μm length), the middle portion (84 μm length), and the second edge portion (42 μm

629 length). Next, we calculated the average value of the scattering function for both edge portions

630 $\overline{p(\theta)_e}$ and for the middle portion $\overline{p(\theta)_m}$. We then calculated EMCI as (Eq. 5)

631
$$EMCI(\theta) = \frac{\overline{p(\theta)_e} - \overline{p(\theta)_m}}{\overline{p(\theta)_e} + \overline{p(\theta)_m}}$$

Bright field and dark field microscopy

The bright field microscopy images of *C. elegans* (Fig. 4B and C) were obtained using

an objective lens (NA = 0.3, Leica 1× Plan Apochromat) on a stereo microscope (Leica M165

FC). The angular range of illuminations was controlled by adjusting the aperture size of the

illumination condenser.

The dark field microscopy images of *C. elegans* (Fig. 4E-H) were obtained using an

objective lens (NA = 0.14, f = 40 mm, Mitutoyo 5X Plan Apochromat) together with a tube lens (f

= 100 mm, Thorlabs TTL100-A) in a custom-built infinity-corrected microscope. Similar to Fig.

1A, the illumination angle is controlled by positioning an LED ring concentric with the optical axis

at various distances to the animal.

Preparation of imaging substrates

To prepare different culture substrates used for comparison of image contrast (Fig. 5),

we dissolve powders of agar, gelatin, and gellan gum in nematode growth medium (NGM) liquid

at 100º C and wait until they solidify at room temperature. The concentration of the agar was set

to 17 g/L according to the standard protocol [65]. In order to obtain gelatin and gellan gum

substrates suitable for maintaining *C. elegans*, we adjusted their concentrations such that the

resultant substrates have comparable mechanical strengths as the standard 1.7% agar plate.

We measured their mechanical strengths by a puncture test, where the minimum forces for an

indenter (active area 19 mm^2) causing fractures on the substrate were recorded by a precision

balance (Mettler Toledo MS1602S). After these tests we set the concentration of gelatin to be

10.1% (average strength 79.9 ± 6.7 kPa, mean ± SD, N = 10 plates) and the gellan gum 1.125%

(average strength 79.9 ± 5.7 kPa, N = 10), such that their mechanical strengths are comparable

to the standard 1.7% agar plates (average strength 85.1 ± 9.3 kPa, N = 10).

658   Preparation of *C. elegans*

The *C. elegans* N2 strain used in this study was obtained from the *Caenorhabditis*

Genetics Center and cultivated at 20°C on NGM plates with OP50 bacteria using standard

methods [65]. We performed timed egg laying assays within a 4-hour window for synchronizing

the ages of the animals. We used day 1 adults for all the experiments. All experiments were

performed at ambient temperature (approximately 20 ºC).

QUANTIFICATION AND STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

We performed statistical analyses using MATLAB. All two-sample comparisons were

conducted using Welch's t-tests, under the assumption of unequal variances. Major claims are

supported by p-values in the main text. The statistical details can be found in Results, figure

legends, and Table S1.

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