1

Sensory experience controls dendritic structure and behavior by distinct pathways involving degenerins

Sharon Inberg, Yael Iosilevskii and Benjamin Podbilewicz*

Department of Biology, Technion-Israel Institute of Technology, 3200003 Haifa, Israel

* Benjamin Podbilewicz
Department of Biology, Emerson Building, Room 4-31
Technion-Israel Institute of Technology, 3200003 Haifa, Israel
Tel +972 4 8293454
Email: podbilew@technion.ac.il

Author Contributions: SI and BP conceived and designed the experiments. SI performed the
experiments. YI conceived, designed and performed the gait experiments. SI, YI and BP analyzed the
data and wrote the paper.

Competing Interest Statement: None

Classification: Biological Sciences. Neuroscience

Keywords: Dendritic plasticity, *Caenorhabditis elegans,* Epithelial sodium channels(degenerins)

This PDF file includes:

Main Text
Figures 1 to 6
20

Abstract

Dendrites are crucial for receiving information into neurons. Sensory experience affects the structure of these tree-like neurites, which, it is assumed, modifies neuronal function, yet the evidence is scarce, and the mechanisms are unknown. To study whether sensory experience affects dendritic morphology, we use the *Caenorhabditis elegans'* arborized nociceptor PVD neurons, under natural mechanical stimulation induced by physical contacts between individuals. We found that mechanosensory signals induced by conspecifics affect the dendritic structure of the PVD. Moreover, developmentally isolated animals show a decrease in their ability to respond to harsh touch. The structural and behavioral plasticity following sensory deprivation are functionally independent of each other and are mediated by an array of evolutionarily conserved mechanosensory amiloride-sensitive epithelial sodium channels (degenerins). Our genetic results, supported by optogenetic, behavioral, and pharmacological evidence, suggest an activity-dependent homeostatic mechanism for dendritic structural plasticity, that in parallel controls escape response to noxious mechanosensory stimuli.

Significance Statement

Little is known about how neuronal activity and sensory experience influence the structure and function of dendritic trees. Furthermore, how dendritic structures affect neuronal functions remains obscure despite their fundamental functions in neuronal sensory and synaptic activities in health and diseases. Here we show that complex dendritic trees of the nociceptive and proprioceptive PVD neuron in *C. elegans* display a dynamic nature where they undergo pronounced dendritic modifications during adulthood. These modifications are determined by the received sensory signals generated by conspecific worms in the plate. We revealed functions for degenerins/Epithelial sodium channels in this phenomenon, using genetic and optogenetic approaches. We found that degenerins serve to translate environmental mechanical signals into structural and functional modifications in the PVD.

Main Text

Introduction

The general structure of the nervous system has been known for over a century. Groundbreaking studies on synaptic plasticity and its underlying mechanisms have shown that before birth and in adult animals, neuronal activity is needed for synaptic remodeling (1-5). In contrast, the molecular mechanisms responsible for structural remodeling of dendritic trees, as a result of different sensory inputs (experience), especially during adulthood, are less understood (6-8).

Mechanistic understanding of experience-dependent structural plasticity is primarily focused on activity sensation by calcium channels and N-methyl-D-aspartate (NMDA) receptors. These are known to induce downstream signaling cascades affecting, among others, the Rho family of small GTPases, calcium metabolism and microtubule stability (9-12). Several neurological conditions including autism, Down syndrome, fragile X syndrome, and schizophrenia are characterized by abnormal dendritic spine structures (13-16). Uncovering the molecular basis of dendritic tree instability during development and adulthood, may shed light on neurological disease mechanisms and elucidate their behavioral phenotypes.

The dendrite morphology of the *Caenorhabditis elegans'* PVD bilateral neurons is composed of repetitive, stereotypical and spatially organised structural units that resemble candelabra (Fig. 1A), making it a useful platform to study dendritic morphogenesis (17). While some of the genetically-programmed molecular mechanisms responsible for the morphogenesis and regeneration of PVD's dendritic trees are known (17-25), the influence of nurture, e.g. sensory experience, on its structure and function during development and in adulthood remain unexplored. The PVD mediates three sensory modalities (reviewed in (26)): response to harsh mechanical stimuli (nociception) (27), response to low temperatures (27) and proprioception (28, 29). While the PVD response to low temperatures is mediated by transient receptor potential (TRP) channels (27), nociception and proprioception are mediated by degenerins/epithelial Na^+ channels (DEG/ENaCs) expressed in the PVD (27, 30), which form homo- and hetero-trimers and are involved in force sensing. In mammals, some DEG/ENaCs such as ASIC1a participate in synaptic plasticity and cognitive functions such as learning and memory (31-38). As sensory and social isolation affect the behavior and fitness of diverse animals (39-42), including primates (43), studying adult nematode somatosensory neurons can reveal possibly-conserved mechanisms of dendritic plasticity, which are induced by sensory stimuli.

In gentle touch circuits, which are distinct from nociception (17, 44, 45), Rose et al (46) found that deprivation of mechanosensory stimulation generated by colliding conspecifics in the growing plate, resulted in modified glutamatergic signalling and reduced response to tap stimulation. Here, we adapted this mechanosensory stimulation paradigm (46), where the crowded worms are thought to represent the natural 'default' enriched mechanosensory state, to look into nociceptive circuits and

identify the mechanism that couples mechanosensory experience to structural and functional dendritic plasticity. We focused on how mechanosensory experience, perceived through DEG/ENaCs, affects structural plasticity of the PVD dendritic trees in adult *C. elegans*, and whether this entails behavioral consequences. We find that mechanosensory experience not only alters the PVD's dendritic structure in the adults, but also affects associated behavioral outputs. However, and in contrast to the prevalent hypothesis, these structural and behavioral properties are not correlated.

Results

Sensory isolation induces behavioral plasticity

Rose et al., (46) has shown that isolation of wildtype (WT) *C. elegans* causes a decreased response to gentle touch circuits when comparing to worms raised in a crowded setting. We utilized a similar paradigm to study nociception, a behavior associated with PVD neuron activation (17, 47), using a behavioral assay that registers escape following prodding with a platinum wire (harsh touch assay; Fig. 1A) (17, 44, 45). To study whether mechanosensory deprivation affects the nociceptive functions of the PVD, we isolated embryos into single plates where they grew 72 h to adulthood and compared their behavioral response to harsh touch against same-aged adults that were grown on crowded plates (Fig. 1B). We found that ~40% of isolated WT animals responded to harsh touch, compared with ~80% of animals grown in crowded plates (Fig. 1C). To test whether gentle touch neurons are involved in this behavioral difference, we studied *mec-4(e1611)* mutants, in which gentle touch neurons are degraded (44, 48-51), and obtained similar results (Fig. 1C). Given that *mec-4(e1611)* exhibits the same experience-dependent behavioral plasticity as WT, we conclude that this phenomenon is independent from the *mec-4* gentle-touch neurons. As a negative control, we used *mec-3(e1338)* mutants, that are harsh-touch-insensitive (47) and found no responses for both groups (Fig. 1C). Thus, isolation reduces the response to noxious stimuli, in a process that is independent of gentle touch circuits.

To determine whether the effect of isolation on nociception is related to the mechanosensory deficit itself (like friction (52) and collisions (27), in contrast to chemosensory stimuli), we used the *mec-4* strain to compare responses of isolated worms to responses of isolated worms grown in the presence of glass beads (resembling a method used by (53)). Worms grown in isolation with beads had a similar response compared to animals grown in crowded plates (Fig. S1A). While the beads are sufficient to increase isolated animals' responses, they do not fully recapitulate the crowded state (Fig. S1A). To study whether the effect was chemosensory-mediated, we tested plates pre-stimulated with pheromones as well as *osm-6* mutants (defective in olfactory sensory cilia (54)). We found that isolation induced a reduction in the response to harsh touch, regardless of plate 'odour' (Fig. 1D) or chemosensory function (Fig. S1B). We note that the chemosensory defective *osm-6* mutants also have a defective ciliated mechanosensory PDE neuron (54) (which mediates posterior harsh touch responses (44)). These results suggest that adult worms display a behavioral plasticity

in PVD-related harsh touch circuits, which is dependent on mechanosensory
experience, and is independent of the PDE neuron, olfactory and gentle touch neurons.

To provide further evidence to the involvement of PVD-related neuronal circuitry,
we have examined a second behavioral output, associated with the PVD's modality of
proprioception (position in space) (28, 29). By recording and analyzing adult worms'
movement patterns, we found that isolated animals showed a significant increase in
crawling amplitude and wavelength compared with crowded counterparts (Fig. S2A and
B; Movies S1 and S2). To determine whether gentle touch neurons are involved in this
behavioral difference, we tested *mec-4(e1611)* mutants and obtained similar results
(Fig. S2A and B). In contrast, *mec-3(e1338)* mutants, which are harsh-touch-
insensitive, showed no significant difference in crawling amplitude and a decrease in
wavelength and speed in isolated worms compared to crowded conditions (Fig. S2).
Thus, isolation affects the gait by increasing the amplitude and wavelength, in a process
that is independent of gentle touch circuits.

MEC-10 and other mechanosensory channels mediate isolation-induced
behavioral plasticity before adulthood

To study the genetic mechanisms behind the nociceptive response plasticity, we
performed a candidate gene screen for degenerins (DEG/ENaC) and transient receptor
potential (TRP) channels that are expressed in the PVD, where degenerins mediate
mechanosensation and proprioception, while TRPs sense low temperatures. In all these
signal transduction pathways some of the outcomes are behavioral responses (27, 55).
We found that the WT-like isolation-induced reduction in harsh touch response was also
present in *degt-1* DEG/ENaC and *gtl-1* TRP channel mutants, suggesting that these
channels are not directly involved in behavioral plasticity following isolation (Fig. 1E). In
contrast, for *del-1*, *asic-1* and *mec-10* DEG/ENaC mutants the difference between
isolated and crowded conditions was undetectable, indicating that they are required for
such behavioral plasticity. Interestingly, while the harsh touch response of *asic-1*
mutants was consistently high, and similar to crowded WT worms, the response for
mec-10 mutants was consistently low, similar to isolated WT animals, regardless of
sensory experience (Fig. 1E). To test whether the response to harsh touch is dependent
on DEG/ENaC activity, we used the DEG/ENaC blocker amiloride (32, 56) on WT
worms that were grown in crowded plates. We found that the response to harsh touch
was not affected by continuous growth in the presence of amiloride (Fig. S1C). This
result possibly supports the idea that different amiloride-sensitive epithelial sodium
channels may have positive and negative effects on the response to harsh touch, which
are masked by global inhibition (Fig. 1E). This is further evident by the plasticity
consequences of some double and triple DEG/ENaC mutant combinations, which are
difficult to align into an epistatic genetic model (Fig. S9).

The DEG/ENaC MEC-10 is expressed in the PVD and responds to
mechanosensory signals (27) including shear forces (52, 57). Since crowded *mec-10*
mutants seem isolated-like in their behavioral response (Fig. 1E), we asked how *mec-*
10 mediates the behavioral plasticity in crowded conditions. To test whether the activity

of MEC-10 is required autonomously in the PVD, we expressed MEC-10 under a PVD-specific promoter in a *mec-10* mutant background (17, 58) 22, 49, 58). We found that expression of MEC-10 in the PVD rescues the low response to harsh touch in crowded *mec-10* mutants, indicating that it acts cell autonomously to modulate behavioral plasticity (Fig. 1F).

To determine whether isolation affects the response to harsh touch during development or in adults, we isolated crowded-raised young adults for 24 h and found no difference in their response to harsh touch (Fig. 1G). Thus, isolation-induced reduction in mechanosensation is determined before young adults, is PVD cell-autonomous, and *mec-10*-dependent. To determine whether the proprioceptive differences noted following isolation also depend on *mec-10*, we repeated the movement analysis in *mec-10* mutants. We found that in *mec-10* mutants the amplitude and wavelength were similar in isolated and crowded conditions (Fig. S2; Movies S3 and S4), suggesting that MEC-10 influences both nociceptive and proprioceptive plasticity following isolation.

Experience affects PVD morphology via *mec-10* in adulthood

Sensory experience (such as stimuli deprivation) is known to drive synaptic plasticity in the nervous system (3, 4, 59). However, little is known about the effects of mechanosensory deprivation on the architecture of sensory neurons. To study whether reduced mechanosensory experience can alter the dendritic structure of the PVD we followed the isolated growth paradigm (Fig. 1B) and examined two morphological features of the PVD (Fig. 2A): The fraction of ectopic (excessive, disordered) branches out of non-ectopic branches (those that form the 'ideal' candelabrum), and the percentage of straight 4th order (quaternary) branches, which form the terminal processes of the candelabrum.

When quantifying the branching pattern of the PVD in adulthood, WT (or WT-like *him*-5 background) animals which were isolated as embryos showed an increase in ectopic branching compared with crowded age-matched worms (Fig. 2B) and the quaternary branches assumed a more rippled shape (fewer straight 4ry branches, Fig. 2C), regardless of the neuron marker utilized (see Fig. S3).

To determine whether chemical stimulation plays a role in the observed morphological plasticity, animals were isolated onto pheromone-conditioned plates (60). Similarly to the response to harsh touch (Fig. 1D), chemical stimulation of the plates did not rescue the isolation-induced increase in the fraction of ectopic branching or the decrease in percentage of straight quaternary branches (Fig. S4). Additionally, we looked at *mec-4* gentle-touch-insensitive mutants (46, 51) and found that isolation caused a similar change to PVD structure as in the WT (Fig. S5, compare with Fig. 2B and 2C). In summary, these results suggest that mechanosensory experience controls morphological plasticity of PVD dendritic trees independently of *mec-4* and chemical stimulation.

We next sought to determine whether DEG/ENaCs mediate these experience-
driven morphological alterations, by examining PVD morphology in crowded and
isolated *mec-10* mutants. We found that crowded *mec-10* animals were different from
WT crowded worms, and appear more isolated-like in terms of morphological features
(more ectopic branches and fewer straight quaternary branches, compared to crowded
him-5 control animals; Fig. 2B and 2C). These results suggest that PVD dendritic
morphology is affected by sensory experience in a *mec-10*-dependent pathway.
Importantly, these results confirm a role for the mechanosensory channel MEC-10, but
not other degenerins (such as ASIC-1), in the plasticity of both the dendritic structure
and the nociceptive function of the PVD in the crowded background.

To study whether *mec-10* acts cell autonomously to mediate morphological
plasticity, we again utilized PVD-specific MEC-10 expression in a *mec-10* mutant
background and found it reduced the fraction of ectopic branches and increased the
percentage of straight quaternary branches, compared to age-matched crowded *mec-*
10 animals without the rescue array (Fig. 2D-I). Thus, MEC-10 acts in the PVD to
mediate morphological plasticity.

Having identified an isolation-induced morphological plasticity in adults (observed
at 72 h from embryo), we next sought to establish the temporal dependence of the
effect by comparing animals after only 48 h, as young adults (see Fig. S6A). Isolated
worms showed a small but significant difference for the percentage of straight
quaternary branches, but not in ectopic branching (Fig. S6B-E) when compared with
age-matched crowded worms, suggesting that isolation induces some morphological
alterations during morphogenesis while some relate to adult-stage maintenance of the
neuron. We then isolated animals grown for 48 h in crowded conditions, and found that
isolation of young crowded adults for 24 h induced changes in both measured
parameters (Fig. S6F-I), recapitulating isolation of embryos (Fig. 2B-C). Thus, isolation
of adults for 24 h is sufficient to affect PVD dendritic tree architecture, in contrast to the
developmentally-established behavioral response (Fig. 1G).

To further determine whether the morphological effect on PVD structure is solely
mediated by mechanical cues, we used glass beads under isolated conditions. We
found that while the presence of glass beads did not reduce the fraction of ectopic
branching, it significantly increased the number of straight quaternary branches
(compared with isolated animals without beads, Fig. 2J-K). Thus, the mechanosensory
stimuli of inert beads can partially rescue isolation-induced morphological changes to
the PVD.

Isolation triggers dynamic plasticity of the dendritic tree

To pinpoint the precise time interval required to mediate dendritic arborization changes
in adulthood, we examined the effect of varying isolation times on the PVD morphology
of crowded-raised young adults. We found that isolation of adults for 2 h had no
significant consequence on the structure of the PVD, while isolation of adults for 5 h or

more significantly increased the proportion of ectopic branches and reduced the
percentage of quaternary straight branches compared to crowded worms (Fig. 3A-B).

To further study plasticity at the individual level, we compared the dendritic tree
of individual worms grown under crowded conditions before and after 4 h isolation. This
revealed isolation induced more events of ectopic branch growth and fewer events of
branch retraction (Fig. 3C). Furthermore, this period was sufficient to induce an increase
in ectopic branching and a decrease in percentage of straight quaternary branches
(Figs. 3D, 3E, and S7). Thus, 4 h of isolation are sufficient to induce changes in the
architecture of the adult PVD.

Since the geometry of quaternary branches shows rapid response to the amount
of mechanosensory stimulation (Fig. 3A-E), we next asked how dynamic is this
experience-dependent morphological change. We performed a 3 h time lapse imaging
in crowded and isolated animals anesthetized with 1% tricaine (Movies S5 and S6). We
found that while the number of straight quaternary branches in the isolated worms
remained low and stable (~8%), for the crowded animals, we observed a gradual
reduction in straight quaternary branches, starting after ~2 h of isolation of individual
worms on the slide (Fig. 3F,G).

In summary, isolation-induced morphological plasticity is apparent within 2-3 h
from the switch from crowded conditions to growth in the absence of mechanical stimuli.
This dynamic process involves simultaneous increase in ectopic branching and
decrease in straight terminal branches.

Activity affects morphology

It has been shown that activity and sodium influx via the DEG/ENaC UNC-8 promotes
synapse elimination in *C. elegans* (61). To test how global inhibition of DEG/ENaCs
affects the morphology of the PVD neuron, we evaluated crowded worms that were
grown on plates with amiloride compared to control worms. We found that blocking
DEG/ENaCs by amiloride increased the fraction of ectopic branching and decreased the
percentage of straight quaternary branches (Fig. S8A-D). Thus, unlike harsh touch
response, which is independent of sensory-level global inhibition (Fig. S1C), global
inhibition at the sensory level alters dendritic morphology. These results suggest that
activity via degenerins modulates the structure of the PVD.

To test whether manipulations of other neuromodulators can affect the branching
dynamics of the PVD, we utilized two anesthetics: tetramisole, which activates the
nematode nicotinic acetylcholine receptors inducing muscle contraction (62) and
tricaine, which modulates neuronal activity by blocking sodium channels (63) and
analyzed their effects during 2-3 h of time lapse movies of crowded and isolated
animals. We first tested the commonly used mixture of 0.1% tricaine and 0.01%
tetramisole (the racemic mixture of the enantiomer levamisole) (21) and found that it
induces more growth than retraction of ectopic branches in crowded animals (Fig. S8E-
G). In contrast, 1% tricaine alone has the opposite effect- more retractions of ectopic
branches (Fig. S8H-I; Movies S5 and S6). In addition, 1% tricaine induces more growth

for isolated compared to crowded worms, indicating that there are activity-dependent
intrinsic factors that are different for the two experience states. These results suggest
that modulating neuronal activity triggers structural modifications in the PVD, indicating
a possible structural sensitivity to the amount of neuronal activity. In summary, we found
that mechanosensory experience, DEG/ENaC protein presence and activity, and
pharmacological targeting of activity dynamically affect the structure of the PVD.

PVD structure and function are independent

After establishing that mechanosensory experience induces both a behavioral and a
structural plasticity of the PVD, we asked whether there is a causal link between the
morphology of the dendritic tree of the PVD and its function as a nociceptor (64). We
followed the isolation protocol described in Fig. 1B for seven combinations of
DEG/ENaC mutants and analyzed their response to harsh touch (Fig. S9) and their
PVD structure (Fig. S10). In order to compare the morphological properties of the
different DEG/ENaC genotypes under different sensory experience (crowded, isolated;
Fig. S10), we used discriminant analysis. This provides a supervised classification
method to combine all the analyzed morphological phenotypes, including loss of self-
avoidance between adjacent candelabra (Fig S11), into a certain value characterizing
the PVD morphological state (Fig. 4A). We then superimposed the behavioral results of
the DEG/ENaC mutants' response to harsh touch (Fig. S9) on the morphological
clustering, as a binary-like property (<45% responding for isolated WT versus >65% for
crowded WT, as shown in Fig. S9*). We found no correlation between the morphology of
the PVD and the response to harsh touch when testing the different combinations of
genotypes and treatments. For example, isolated *mec-10;degt-1* double mutants show
crowded-like morphology with isolated-like behavioral response (Fig. 4A and Fig. S9,
S10). These findings suggest that while degenerins are required for isolation-induced
plasticity of both traits, response to harsh touch is independent of the structural
alteration of the PVD.

An additional line of evidence supporting the independence of the behavioral and
morphological phenotypes was demonstrated by isolation of young adult worms for 24 h
(Fig. 3). This isolation affects the structure of the PVD (Fig. S6) but has no effect on the
response to harsh touch (Fig. 1G). Amiloride also has no effect on harsh touch
response (Fig. S1C) but does alter dendritic morphology (Fig S8 A-D). Finally, to directly
demonstrate that these two features are independent, we assayed harsh touch
responses of isolated animals and then analyzed each individual animal for its PVD
morphology. We then compared the dendritic morphology of responding and non-
responding worms, and found that the morphological parameters were similar (Fig. 4B-
E). Thus, analysis at the level of individual worms failed to demonstrate a correlation
between the morphology and the response to harsh touch. In summary, the
morphological and behavioral phenotypes were independently affected by sensory
experience via degenerins. We cannot exclude the possibility that other functions of the
PVD, like the response to low temperatures (27) and proprioception (28) are more tightly
associated to the structure of the PVD, nor that the morphological changes induced by
isolation are too minor to constitute a difference in neuronal function.

In addition to the isolation-induced changes in the number of ectopic branches and the percentage of straight quaternary branches, we found that worms raised in isolation are also more likely to lose the self-avoidance between two adjacent menorahs (candelabra). This effect is also *mec-10*-dependent, but appears to act cell non-autonomously. In addition, it is chemosensory and amiloride independent (Fig. S11).

MEC-10 and DEGT-1 localization is experience-dependent

Differential localization of degenerins can affect both the behavioral response to harsh touch and the structural properties of the neuron. When considering the effect of isolation, we hypothesized that changes in the localization patterns of DEG/ENaC can account for plasticity at both the behavioral (Fig. 1) and the structural level (Figs. 2, 3). Since MEC-10 and DEGT-1 tend to co-localize within the PVD (27)·we analyzed the interaction between these two proteins, under different mechanosensory experiences. We found that MEC-10 localization in the plasma membrane, in intracellular vesicular compartments of the axon and in the quaternary branches was reduced after isolation (Fig. 5A-D, Movies S7 and S8). In contrast to MEC-10 (Figs. 5A-D), DEGT-1 localization is reduced only in the cell body following isolation (Fig. 5E-H). Furthermore, *degt-1* mutants reduced the overall amount of MEC-10, and more importantly, abrogated the isolation-induced reduction in MEC-10 localization at the quaternary branches and the axon (Fig. 5A-D). In the reciprocal experiment, DEGT-1 localization was affected in *mec-10* mutants, as isolated worms exhibit increased localization to the cell body compared with WT isolated worms (Fig. 5E-H). Thus, mechanosensory experience also induces plasticity in the localization pattern of MEC-10 and DEGT-1. We propose this differential localization may be part of the mechanism that independently and locally modulates dendritic and axonal properties, to affect both the structure and the function of the PVD, respectively.

Optogenetic stimulation suggests behavioral plasticity is post-sensory

We have shown that sensory deprivation (isolation) affects the localization of two different mechanoreceptors, the degenerins MEC-10 and DEGT-1 in the dendrites, axon and soma of the PVD. It is conceivable that the differential localization of degenerins in different domains of the PVD may affect the morphology and function of the PVD. Thus, we decided to stimulate the PVD independently of the endogenous mechanoreceptors and study whether the escape behavior following harsh touch is similar in isolated and crowded animals. We hypothesized that if we circumvent the normal degenerin-mediated mechano-stimulation, exciting the PVD downstream to sensory activity, the animals grown in isolation will respond to the same degree as if they were in crowded conditions and independently of the dendritic tree morphology. Optogenetic stimulation is an elegant way to bypass the sensory perception mediated by receptors and transduced by diverse signal transduction pathways (30). Thus, to investigate whether the isolation-induced decreased response to harsh touch is a PVD-dependent function, we used optogenetic stimulation with Channelrhodopsin (ChR2) expressed in the PVD (30). We found that isolation significantly reduced the percentage of worms responding to optogenetic stimulation of the PVD (Fig. 5I), indicating that the

plasticity in the response is acting downstream to PVD activation, mechanosensory
channels and signal transduction pathways. This activation is sensitive to isolation
probably because it is acting pre- or post-synaptically. To determine whether
optogenetic stimulation of isolated animals can reverse the morphological changes
induced by the absence of mechanical stimuli in PVD, we used optogenetic stimulation
of the PVD and found no significant difference between isolated and isolated-
optogenetically-stimulated animals in terms of any measured PVD structural
characteristic (data not shown). Thus, optogenetic stimulation on isolated animals is not
sufficient to convert their dendritic trees to crowded-like. In addition, isolated animals
respond to optogenetic stimulation in a reduced way suggesting that the escape is not
dependent on the dendritic trees but on pre- or post-synaptic pathways. In summary,
genetic, pharmacological and optogenetic evidence show that dendritic structural
plasticity is an autonomous activity-dependent homeostatic mechanism. The
mechanosensory dendritic tree morphology is independent from pre- or post-synaptic
degenerin-mediated processes that affect behavioral escape in response to harsh
touch.

Discussion
From the evolutionary point of view, dendritic trees and their structural complexity
remain mysterious objects, despite many efforts to understand the contribution of
arborization complexity to dendritic physiology and function (65).

Previous research has demonstrated both cell autonomous (17, 18, 66) and cell
non-autonomous (19, 20) mechanisms that regulate the PVD's dendritic morphogenesis
during development. Some studies have also focused on regeneration and aging effects
on the tree structure of the PVD, revealing plasticity in the adult stage (21, 22), similar to
what has been shown for *Drosophila* sensory neurons (67). We found, by using mutants
for degenerins, chemosensory stimulation controls, pharmacology, optogenetics and
glass beads, that the dendritic structure of the PVD and the behavioral response to
harsh touch are activity- and mechanosensory-dependent, but appear to be
chemosensory-independent. It is still conceivable that chemosensation can affect
nociception and proprioception, in some sort of a cross modal plasticity mechanism, but
at the moment we do not have evidence for this scenario in the PVD, where we show
that mechanosensory channels (DEG/ENaCs) affect the architecture of the PVD.

Our results suggest that 'nurture', manifested as mechanosensory experience,
activates mechanotransduction signaling, via DEG/ENaCs amiloride-sensitive activity,
to stabilize the homeostatic structure of the dendritic tree in adults. The sensory
experience induced when one body side of the worm is in contact with the agar plate is
not sufficient for this purpose (data not shown); however, other worms on the plate, or
the presence of glass beads, elicit significant structural alterations. Moreover, the cell
autonomous activity of MEC-10 in the PVD was found to be both necessary and
sufficient to preserve the crowded-experience phenotype in terms of the simplified
structure of the PVD. While there are other multiple plausible explanations, our failure in
remodeling the isolated-state arbor by repeated optogenetic activation of the PVD may
provide further evidence for the necessity of degenerins in this structural plasticity, since

neuron activation by ChR2 bypasses the activation of mechanically-gated degenerin
channels. Figure 6 depicts our working model, where the amount of mechanosensory
stimulation, in crowded or isolated conditions, affects the expression and localization of
MEC-10 and DEGT-1 in different compartments of the PVD. Localization of MEC-10,
probably by forming higher-order complexes with other DEG/ENaCs, can affect the
structure of the PVD at the level of the dendritic tree. The morphological and behavioral
phenotypes shown here were rescued by a PVD-specific expression of MEC-10,
supporting such a cell autonomous mechanism. The experience-induced structural
plasticity seems homeostatic at the individual branch dynamics level in the adult. In
contrast, we show that the behavioral response to harsh touch is modulated by
mechanosensory experience during development and by the presence of degenerins,
and perhaps involves other neurons downstream. Based on optogenetic stimulation, we
presume that the behavioral plasticity is a pre- and/or post-synaptic property, mediated
by DEG/ENaC (36) and related to neurotransmission modulation, independently of the
structure of the PVD dendritic tree. These structural and behavioral plasticity are
separated in time (adulthood vs. development) and space (dendrite vs. axon; Fig. 6).
We found no correlation or causation between the structure and the nociceptive function
of the PVD. It is possible that such a link exists, but our physiological and behavioral
outputs are not sensitive enough to detect it.

Isolation induces changes to crawling gait by increasing crawling amplitude and
wavelength. Such changes may be related to the proprioceptive role of the PVD, and
are in partial agreement with the effects of PVD ablation on crawling gait (28). This
experience-mediated movement alteration persists in a *mec-4(e1611)* background, but
is absent in *mec-10* mutants (Fig. S2), leading us to propose this is an independent,
behavioural, *mec-10*-mediated plasticity.

Tao et al., (29) supports the role of MEC-10 in PVD-mediated proprioception,
however has some discrepancies with our results with regard to harsh touch response,
which may be related to the different methodologies used, as well as to the animals' age
and mechanosensory experience.

Somatosensory activation in vertebrates plays a prominent role in shaping the
structural and functional properties of dendritic spines, mainly studied in the central
nervous system (68-71). In contrast to mammalian cortical neurons, much less is known
about sensory neurons' degree of plasticity and the molecular mechanisms utilized
during adulthood. Here we suggest that degenerins mediate mechanosensation-
induced dendritic growth in sensory dendrites. The dendritic plasticity we described
bears resemblance to the activity-dependent effect of glutamatergic signaling and
NMDA receptors. Activity via NMDA affects dendritic spines as an upstream mechanism
of cell signaling, resulting in structural modifications (72-75). It is possible that
degenerins mediate mechanosensory signaling sensation, by activating cationic
gradients (76), leading to activation of downstream intracellular signaling pathways (9-
12), which in turn stabilize local, actin-mediated (3, 77, 78) structural plasticity in the
PVD dendritic branches. In parallel, DEG/ENaCs may also modulate pre- and post-

synaptic homeostatic signaling in the harsh touch circuit, as has been shown in
neuromuscular junctions (79).

In summary, we propose that the combinatorial actions of DEG/ENaCs have
mechano-signaling functions mediating plasticity in sensory dendritic trees, and provide
mechanistic insights into dendritic structural responses to sensory experience in
adulthood and the behavioral consequences of such adaptations during development.
470

Materials and Methods
471

Strains
472

Nematode strains were maintained according to standard protocols (80). The list of the
strains is presented in Supplementary Table 1. Strains of the DEG/ENaCs family
obtained from the CGC (JPS282: *asic-1*(*ok415*) I; ZB2551: *mec-10*(*tm1552*) X; VC2633:
degt-1(*ok3307*) V) were crossed with BP709: *hmnIs133[ser-2Prom3::kaede]*. The
validation of F2 homozygotes for the DEG/ENaCs deletions (including single, double
and triple mutants) was performed by PCR amplification of the genomic area containing
the deleted region.

Primers for Multiplex PCR
480

481 The list of the primers used is presented in Supplementary Table 2.

Spinning disk confocal microscopy
482

Prior to imaging, the worms were mounted on a 10% agar pad placed on a microscope
glass slide, in 1µl polystyrene beads (100 nm diameter; *Polysciences,* Inc.) for their
mechanical restraint, and sealed with a coverslip for complete physical immobilization
(81). The PVD neuron was visualized using a Yokagawa CSU-X1 spinning disk, Nikon
eclipse Ti inverted microscope and iXon3 camera (ANDOR). Images were captured with
MetaMorph, version 7.8.1.0. For each worm, a sequential z-series image stack (step
size of 0.35 µm) was obtained with an oil Plan Fluor 40X (NA 1.3) lens around the PVD
cell body, encompassing approximately 50-100 µm segments both anteriorly and
posteriorly.

Data analysis
492

The analysis of the PVD structure was performed for the area surrounding the cell body.
All images were analysed with ImageJ, version 1.48 (NIH), in TIFF format, by producing
a maximal intensity z-series projection and converting it to negative form (invert lookup
table) for improved visibility. Ectopic branching was defined as described previously
(65). Briefly, non-ectopic branches form the 'ideal' WT candelabrum of the late L4 stage,
whereas excess branches, which create non-quaternary terminal ends, are considered
ectopic, as illustrated with dashed lines for ectopic branching in Fig. 2A. The total
number of ectopic and non-ectopic branches was quantified for each image, and
presented as a fraction (ectopic/non-ectopic branches).
The geometry of each quaternary branch ("candle") was defined in the following
manner: Straight geometry- all the pixels that constitute the branch are positioned on a
straight line generated with ImageJ. The width of the line (1 pixel) was constant for the

entire sets of experiments. The number of straight quaternary branches were divided by
the total quaternary branches in the image for each worm and presented as a
percentage. The analysis was done only for worms which did not move through the Z
series. Moving worms were excluded from the experiment. Self-avoidance defects- the
number of events where two adjacent candelabra overlapped (no gap formation), was
divided by the total number of gaps between the candelabra within the frame (Fig. 2A).
The self-avoidance values are presented as percentage.

Behavioral procedures

Harsh touch assay
After 72 h, adult worms (both isolated and those from the crowded plate as described
below) were transferred using an eyelash each to a new agar plate, freshly seeded with
150 µl OP50 (about 16 h after seeding). This step is required to avoid a thick edge of
the bacterial lawn, which might interfere with harsh touch response measurement. After
~45 minutes in the plate, the worms were prodded with a platinum wire posterior to the
vulva, above the interface between worm's body and the agar plate (47), every 10
seconds, and the number of responses to harsh touch was counted. More than one
response constitutes a responsive animal. The non-responding worms were defined if
two prodding events were observed sequentially without response. The percentage of
responding worms was calculated for each genotype and treatment. The experimenter
was blind to both the genotype and the treatment- crowded or isolated.

Isolation of embryos
The worm isolation procedure was based on previous work (46) with a few
modifications, as indicated. Isolated animals were grown on 6 cm agar plate with 150 µl
of OP50 *E. coli*, while crowded plate worms were grown on 600-700 µl OP50 to prevent
starvation. The embryos and adult worms were isolated with platinum wire. The plates
were sealed with one layer of Parafilm M and placed into a plastic box, at 20 ºC, for the
entire experiment.
Three experimental groups were used for the 72 h (96 h of experiment was performed
only for *mec-4* worms, since they were L4- very young adults at 72 h) isolation
experiment: **(1)** Single isolated embryos **(2)** Crowded worms - the progeny of 30 young,
non-starved, adults (approximately, 7,000-9,000 worms in different developmental
stages, without approaching starvation) **(3)** Crowded adult worms that were isolated for
a certain amount of time as adults.
After 48/72/96 h (according to the experiment), age-matched worms from each group
were transferred to 10% agar pad slides for imaging, as described above (46).

Isolation of adults for 2, 5, 15 or 24 hours
Crowded plates were prepared as described above, with progeny from 30 adult
hermaphrodites. Animals were separated into individual plates for the desired time
window before 72 h have passed (*i.e.* after ~70 h for 2 h isolation, ~67 h for 5 h isolation
etc.). Worms were isolated using an eyelash into new plates containing 150 µl of OP50.
At 72 h, the PVD of isolated animals was imaged and compared with age-matched
animals which remained in the crowded plate of origin (see Fig. 1B).

Optogenetics stimulation for harsh touch

Crowded and isolated worms (ZX819: *lite-1(ce314) X; xIs12[pF49H12.4::ChR2::mCherry; pF49H12.4::GFP*]) were grown on OP50 with 100 µM All Trans Retinal (ATR, Sigma R2500), in order to obtain functional Channelrhodopsin (30) (as a control we tested the response of worms that were grown on ethanol alone, no response was detected for these worms). After 72 h the worms were singly mounted with eyelash on a chunk (1cm X 1cm) of agar that was mounted on a microscope glass slide. The agar contained fresh but dry OP50, with 100 µM ATR. About 30 minutes following the transfer the worms were tested for the response to light. Worms were stimulated at 488 nm wavelength, with laser intensity of 40% and exposure time of 100 ms, with 10X Plan Fluor (NA 0.3) for ~1 second and the forward acceleration response was measured. The microscope system is as described above. The experimenter determined the presence or the absence of forward acceleration in response to light activation.

Optogenetics stimulation of isolated worms

Isolated eggs were grown as described at the 'Isolation of embryos' section. Isolated worms (ZX819: *lite-1(ce314) X; xIs12[pF49H12.4::ChR2::mCherry; pF49H12.4::GFP*]) were grown on 150 µM OP50 with 100 µM ATR (30) or 0.3% ethanol as control. After 72 h both the crowded and isolated worms were singly mounted with eyelash onto a cube (with surface area of about approx.1cm^2, depth of 0.5 cm) of agar layered with fresh, fully dried, OP50 with 100 µM ATR or 0.3% ethanol as a control group. The worms were stimulated with 488 nm wavelength, with laser intensity of 40% and exposure time of 100 ms, with 10X Plan Fluor (NA 0.3) for ~60 seconds, every 5 min during 4 h. Stimulation and recording was performed with the microscope system described above.

As a control, before each experiment, crowded ZX819 worms were tested for forward acceleration as a positive control to the functionality of the ChR2. After the end of 4 h stimulation, the worms were mounted for imaging of the PVD at 40X as described under "Spinning disk confocal microscopy" section.

Isolation with chemical stimulation

The *glp-4(bn2)* mutants which are sterile at 25 °C were used (~40 worms for each plate), in order to prepare conditioned/chemically stimulated plates (60) prior to growing isolated animals. The *glp-4* mutants were transferred at early larval stage (L1, L2) to a new agar plate for 96 h at 25 °C. After the removal of the *glp-4* mutants, the embryo isolation procedure was used, as described before at 20 °C.

Isolation with glass beads

Single embryos were isolated to agar plates with 150 µl OP50 and 2.5 g of glass beads (1 mm diameter) were placed on the OP50 lawn in the middle of the plate. The worms were isolated for 72 h and tested for response to harsh touch as described above.

Pharmacology

Amiloride hydrochloride hydrate (Sigma, #A7410) 1 M stock solution in DMSO was stored at -20°C. A final concentration of 3 mM amiloride in 0.03 % DMSO was prepared

in OP50 bacteria (LB medium) and seeded on NGM plates. 650 µl of the OP50 mixture
was seeded on each plate. As a control, 0.03 % DMSO was added to OP50 bacteria.
For each plate (control 0.03% DMSO or 3 mM amiloride) 30 non-starved adult worms
were added. After 72 h at 20 °C the progeny of the 30 adults were tested as young
adults for their PVD morphology and their response to posterior harsh touch, as
described in the previous sections.

Anesthetics and long-term imaging
In addition to immobilization of worms with 100 nm polystyrene beads as described in
the "Spinning disk confocal microscopy" section above, two additional methods for long
term imaging and pharmacological effects assays were used: 1% tricaine (Sigma,
A5040) in M9 buffer or a mixture of 0.01% tetramisole (Sigma, T-1512) and 0.1%
tricaine in M9 buffer were utilized.
Worms were exposed to the anesthetics (in a glass well) for ~20 min until paralyzed,
then transferred to 3% agar pads with 1 µl of the anesthetics. Sequential z-axis image
series (0.6 µm step-size) were taken, as described above, every 5 min for 2-3 h.

Imaging individual worms- crowded to isolated
Worms were grown at crowded conditions, as described above. At ~24 h of adulthood,
individual worms were placed in a 1% tricaine solution in M9 buffer for 10 min until
paralyzed and transferred to 3% agar slides with 1 µl 1% tricaine. Following a short
PVD imaging session, the worms were recovered from the slide with M9 and isolated to
a new plate for 4 h. Each 4 h-isolated animal was anesthetized once again with 1%
tricaine for 10 min prior to PVD imaging.

Analysis of DEG/ENaCs localization in the PVD
Two DEG/ENaCs protein constructs, pF49H12.4::MEC-10::mCherry and
pF49H12.4::DEGT-1::mCherry (plasmids kindly provided by W. Schafer's lab, (27))
were analysed for their localization in the PVD, by comparing worms expressing the co-
injection marker *punc-122*::GFP raised in crowded or isolated conditions, in a similar
behavioral assay as described in Fig. 1B. A z-series (step size of 0.35 µm,
immobilization performed with polystyrene beads, as described in the microscopy
section) of the area around the cell body of the PVD was obtained with a 60X
Apochromat (NA 1.4) lens. The images (after maximal intensity projection of the Z-
series) were encoded so the analysis was performed in a blind manner. The presence
or absence of fluorescent signal was examined in three compartments: The cell body,
the quaternary branches and the axon of the PVD.

Rescue strains
Worms from BP1022 (*mec-10(tm1552)* X; *hmnIs133[ser-2Prom3::Kaede]*; *him-5(e1490)*
V) were injected into the gonad with a rescuing plasmid for *mec-10,* with a PVD specific
promoter (pWRS825: *ser-2Prom3::mec-10* genomic) kindly provided by W. Schafer's
lab·(27). The injection mix contained *myo-2p::GFP* (20 ng/µl) as a co-transformation
marker and pWRS825 (80 ng/µl). For both behavioral and structural characterization,
the *him-5;mec-10* strains, with and without rescuing plasmid, shared the same crowded
plate and were differentiated by the presence or absence of the co-injection marker.

Crawling gait analysis

Crowded and isolated animals were grown for 72 h to young adults as described above in 'Isolation of embryos'. Four to six hours prior to the experiment, NGM plates were seeded with 100-120 µl OP50 and dried to a transparent matte finish (seeking to avoid a darkened circle edge when recording). Six to eight worms at a time were transferred using an eyelash to the test plates, left to recover for five minutes, and videotaped for 10-12 minutes on an illuminator table (MBF Bioscience, Williston, VT, USA) at 7.5 frames/second with a resolution of 2592x1944 using an overhanging fixed lens (Nikon AF Micro-Nikkor 60 mm f/2.8D) focused at 10 µm/pixel.

From each video, recorded in monochrome AVI (Audio Video Interleaved) format, a section of three minutes was subsequently analyzed using the WormLab software (MBF Bioscience) to recover average values of worm length, crawling speed, wavelength and amplitude. The three-minute section was taken from the beginning of the video, unless worms were lost, absent, or stuck, at which case a later section was analyzed. Providing for segments of poor tracing, which were manually removed, each worm was tracked for 100-180 seconds in total. Excepting *mec-3(e1338)*, animals which left the OP50 patch for longer than 30 s or whose analyzed average speed was lower than 50 µm/s were excluded from the analysis, as these behaviors are likely to skew the results. *mec-3* animals, which were inherently markedly slower, were kept in the analysis even if their speed was lower than 50 µm/s.

Statistics and data plotting

At least two independent experiments constitute the data set described in each figure. For the morphological characterization of the PVD the results are expressed as means (blue circle) ± standard error of the mean (s.e.m.). In the boxplot (first, third quartiles) the upper whisker extends from the hinge to the highest value that is within 1.5 * IQR (inter-quartile range), the distance between the first and third quartiles. The lower whisker extends from the hinge to the lowest value within 1.5 * IQR of the hinge. The statistical analyses were performed with SPSS software (IBM, version 20) and "R package". Two-tailed tests were performed for the entire data sets. Since for many experiments the distribution of the data was not normal, nonparametric tests were used: Mann-Whitney test for comparison between two independent groups. Kruskal-Wallis test was used for multiple comparisons for more than two groups. For proportions (percentage worms) ± standard error of proportion was calculated. Fisher's exact test was used for analysis of differences in proportions. To estimate the variability in proportion we calculated the Standard Error of Proportion: $\sqrt{\frac{(1-p) \cdot p}{n}}$

The dot plot figures were prepared with "R package", the bar charts with Microsoft Excel software. Final figures were prepared with Adobe Illustrator CS version 11.0.0.

Discriminant analysis

Eight different strains (WT and seven DEG/ENaCs), with two treatments (crowded, isolated worms) for each strain were analyzed for Linear discriminant analysis for morphological characteristics, to evaluate similarity between different strains and treatments. Each worm in the data set was characterized by the three morphological

characteristics (the fraction of ectopic branching, the percentage straight quaternary
branches and the percentage of self-avoidance defects). The centroid for morphological
characterization was calculated for each condition and represented by a square. Data
from independent harsh touch experiments are shown for each group. The analysis was
performed using SPSS 20.

Acknowledgments

We thank current and former lab members for their intellectual and technical support.
Veronika Kravtsov, Sagi Levy, Anna Meledin, Meital Oren-Suissa, Tom Shemesh, Shay
Stern, Yehuda Salzberg and Alon Zaslaver for critically reading and commenting on the
manuscript. Ehud Ahissar, Dan Cassel, Michel Labouesse and Kang Shen for fruitful
discussions. William Schafer, Max Heiman and Alexander Gottschalk for plasmids and
strains. Some strains were provided by the Caenorhabditis Genetics Center (CGC),
which is funded by NIH Office of Research Infrastructure Programs (P40 OD010440).
This work was supported by grants from the Israel Science Foundation (442/12 and
257/17), Adelis Fund (2023479), and the Ministry of Science and Technology (3-13022).

References

1. L. C. Katz, C. J. Shatz, Synaptic activity and the construction of cortical circuits. *Science*
274, 1133-1138 (1996).
2. C. S. Goodman, C. J. Shatz, Developmental mechanisms that generate precise patterns
of neuronal connectivity. *Cell* **72 Suppl**, 77-98 (1993).
3. Y. Zuo, G. Yang, E. Kwon, W. B. Gan, Long-term sensory deprivation prevents dendritic
spine loss in primary somatosensory cortex. *Nature* **436**, 261-265 (2005).
4. K. Fox, R. O. Wong, A comparison of experience-dependent plasticity in the visual and
somatosensory systems. *Neuron* **48**, 465-477 (2005).
5. T. Wiesner *et al.*, Activity-Dependent Remodeling of Synaptic Protein Organization
Revealed by High Throughput Analysis of STED Nanoscopy Images. *Front Neural*
Circuits **14**, 57 (2020).
6. G. Tavosanis, Dendritic structural plasticity. *Dev Neurobiol* **72**, 73-86 (2012).
7. B. Kolb, I. Q. Whishaw, Brain plasticity and behavior. *Annu Rev Psychol* **49**, 43-64
(1998).
8. R. O. Wong, A. Ghosh, Activity-dependent regulation of dendritic growth and patterning.
Nat Rev Neurosci **3**, 803-812 (2002).
9. W. C. Sin, K. Haas, E. S. Ruthazer, H. T. Cline, Dendrite growth increased by visual
activity requires NMDA receptor and Rho GTPases. *Nature* **419**, 475-480 (2002).
10. A. E. Ghiretti *et al.*, Rem2 is an activity-dependent negative regulator of dendritic
complexity in vivo. *J Neurosci* **34**, 392-407 (2014).
11. Z. Zhou *et al.*, Brain-specific phosphorylation of MeCP2 regulates activity-dependent
Bdnf transcription, dendritic growth, and spine maturation. *Neuron* **52**, 255-269 (2006).
12. A. R. Vaillant *et al.*, Signaling mechanisms underlying reversible, activity-dependent
dendrite formation. *Neuron* **34**, 985-998 (2002).
13. Y. N. Jan, L. Y. Jan, Branching out: mechanisms of dendritic arborization. *Nat Rev*
Neurosci **11**, 316-328 (2010).

14. H. T. Hu, T. N. Huang, Y. P. Hsueh, KLHL17/Actinfilin, a brain-specific gene associated
with infantile spasms and autism, regulates dendritic spine enlargement. *J Biomed Sci*
27 (2020).
15. J. L. Huebschman, K. S. Corona, Y. Guo, L. N. Smith, The Fragile X Mental Retardation
Protein Regulates Striatal Medium Spiny Neuron Synapse Density and Dendritic Spine
Morphology. *Front Mol Neurosci* **13** (2020).
16. H. Tendilla-Beltran, R. Antonio Vazquez-Roque, A. Judith Vazquez-Hernandez, L.
Garces-Ramirez, G. Flores, Exploring the Dendritic Spine Pathology in a Schizophrenia-
related Neurodevelopmental Animal Model. *Neuroscience* **396**, 36-45 (2019).
17. M. Oren-Suissa, D. H. Hall, M. Treinin, G. Shemer, B. Podbilewicz, The fusogen EFF-1
controls sculpting of mechanosensory dendrites. *Science* **328**, 1285-1288 (2010).
18. Y. Salzberg, N. J. Ramirez-Suarez, H. E. Bulow, The proprotein convertase KPC-1/furin
controls branching and self-avoidance of sensory dendrites in *Caenorhabditis elegans.*
PLoS Genet **10**, e1004657 (2014).
19. Y. Salzberg *et al.*, Skin-derived cues control arborization of sensory dendrites in
Caenorhabditis elegans. *Cell* **155**, 308-320 (2013).
20. X. Dong, O. W. Liu, A. S. Howell, K. Shen, An extracellular adhesion molecule complex
patterns dendritic branching and morphogenesis. *Cell* **155**, 296-307 (2013).
21. V. Kravtsov, M. Oren-Suissa, B. Podbilewicz, The fusogen AFF-1 can rejuvenate the
regenerative potential of adult dendritic trees by self-fusion. *Development* **144**, 2364-
2374 (2017).
22. M. Oren-Suissa, T. Gattegno, V. Kravtsov, B. Podbilewicz, Extrinsic Repair of Injured
Dendrites as a Paradigm for Regeneration by Fusion in *Caenorhabditis elegans.*
Genetics **206**, 215-230 (2017).
23. X. Dong, K. Shen, H. E. Bulow, Intrinsic and extrinsic mechanisms of dendritic
morphogenesis. *Annu Rev Physiol* **77**, 271-300 (2015).
24. C. J. Smith *et al.*, Time-lapse imaging and cell-specific expression profiling reveal
dynamic branching and molecular determinants of a multi-dendritic nociceptor in *C.*
elegans. *Dev Biol* **345**, 18-33 (2010).
25. S. Inberg *et al.*, Lessons from Worm Dendritic Patterning. *Annu Rev Neurosci* **42**, 365-
383 (2019).
26. M. B. Goodman, P. Sengupta, How *Caenorhabditis elegans* Senses Mechanical Stress,
Temperature, and Other Physical Stimuli. *Genetics* **212**, 25-51 (2019).
27. M. Chatzigeorgiou *et al.*, Specific roles for DEG/ENaC and TRP channels in touch and
thermosensation in *C. elegans* nociceptors. *Nat Neurosci* **13**, 861-868 (2010).
28. A. Albeg *et al.*, *C. elegans* multi-dendritic sensory neurons: morphology and function.
Mol Cell Neurosci **46**, 308-317 (2011).
29. L. Tao *et al.*, Parallel Processing of Two Mechanosensory Modalities by a Single Neuron
in *C. elegans*. *Dev Cell* **51**, 617-631 e613 (2019).
30. S. J. Husson *et al.*, Optogenetic analysis of a nociceptor neuron and network reveals ion
channels acting downstream of primary sensors. *Curr Biol* **22**, 743-752 (2012).
31. Y. Chen, S. Bharill, E. Y. Isacoff, M. Chalfie, Subunit composition of a DEG/ENaC
mechanosensory channel of *Caenorhabditis elegans*. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* **112**,
11690-11695 (2015).
32. L. Bianchi, M. Driscoll, Protons at the gate: DEG/ENaC ion channels help us feel and
remember. *Neuron* **34**, 337-340 (2002).
33. M. J. Welsh, M. P. Price, J. Xie, Biochemical basis of touch perception: mechanosensory
function of degenerin/epithelial Na+ channels. *J Biol Chem* **277**, 2369-2372 (2002).

34.   P. G. Gillespie, R. G. Walker, Molecular basis of mechanosensory transduction. *Nature*
413, 194-202 (2001).
35.   J. P. Baldin, D. Barth, M. Fronius, Epithelial Na(+) Channel (ENaC) Formed by One or
Two Subunits Forms Functional Channels That Respond to Shear Force. *Front Physiol*
11, 141 (2020).
36.   A. S. Hill, Y. Ben-Shahar, The synaptic action of Degenerin/Epithelial sodium channels.
Channels (Austin) **12**, 262-275 (2018).
37.   D. Mango, R. Nistico, Role of ASIC1a in Normal and Pathological Synaptic Plasticity.
Rev Physiol Biochem Pharmacol **177**, 83-100 (2020).
38.   M. N. Gobetto, C. Gonzalez-Inchauspe, O. D. Uchitel, Histamine and Corticosterone
Modulate Acid Sensing Ion Channels (ASICs) Dependent Long-term Potentiation at the
Mouse Anterior Cingulate Cortex. *Neuroscience* **460**, 145-160 (2021).
39.   N. W. Bailey, A. J. Moore, Evolutionary Consequences of Social Isolation. *Trends Ecol*
Evol **33**, 595-607 (2018).
40.   L. Wilbrecht, A. Holtmaat, N. Wright, K. Fox, K. Svoboda, Structural plasticity underlies
experience-dependent functional plasticity of cortical circuits. *J Neurosci* **30**, 4927-4932
(2010).
41.   S. J. Kuhlman, D. H. O'Connor, K. Fox, K. Svoboda, Structural plasticity within the barrel
cortex during initial phases of whisker-dependent learning. *J Neurosci* **34**, 6078-6083
(2014).
42.   X. Yu, Y. Zuo, Spine plasticity in the motor cortex. *Curr Opin Neurobiol* **21**, 169-174
(2011).
43.   H. F. Harlow, R. O. Dodsworth, M. K. Harlow, Total social isolation in monkeys. *Proc*
Natl Acad Sci U S A **54**, 90-97 (1965).
44.   W. Li, L. Kang, B. J. Piggott, Z. Feng, X. Z. Xu, The neural circuits and sensory channels
mediating harsh touch sensation in *Caenorhabditis elegans*. *Nat Commun* **2**, 315 (2011).
45.   M. Chalfie, J. Sulston, Developmental genetics of the mechanosensory neurons of
Caenorhabditis elegans. *Dev Biol* **82**, 358-370 (1981).
46.   J. K. Rose, S. Sangha, S. Rai, K. R. Norman, C. H. Rankin, Decreased sensory
stimulation reduces behavioral responding, retards development, and alters neuronal
connectivity in *Caenorhabditis elegans*. *J Neurosci* **25**, 7159-7168 (2005).
47.   J. C. Way, M. Chalfie, *mec-3*, a homeobox-containing gene that specifies differentiation
of the touch receptor neurons in *C. elegans*. *Cell* **54**, 5-16 (1988).
48.   E. M. Hedgecock, J. E. Sulston, J. N. Thomson, Mutations affecting programmed cell
deaths in the nematode *Caenorhabditis elegans*. *Science* **220**, 1277-1279 (1983).
49.   M. Driscoll, M. Chalfie, The *mec-4* gene is a member of a family of *Caenorhabditis*
elegans genes that can mutate to induce neuronal degeneration. *Nature* **349**, 588-593
(1991).
50.   M. Caneo, V. Julian, A. B. Byrne, M. J. Alkema, A. Calixto, Diapause induces functional
axonal regeneration after necrotic insult in *C. elegans*. *PLoS Genet* **15**, e1007863
(2019).
51.   H. Suzuki *et al.*, In vivo imaging of *C. elegans* mechanosensory neurons demonstrates a
specific role for the MEC-4 channel in the process of gentle touch sensation. *Neuron* **39**,
1005-1017 (2003).
52.   S. Shi, C. J. Luke, M. T. Miedel, G. A. Silverman, T. R. Kleyman, Activation of the
Caenorhabditis elegans Degenerin Channel by Shear Stress Requires the MEC-10
Subunit. *J Biol Chem* **291**, 14012-14022 (2016).

53.   E. R. Sawin, R. Ranganathan, H. R. Horvitz, *C. elegans* locomotory rate is modulated by
the environment through a dopaminergic pathway and by experience through a
serotonergic pathway. *Neuron* **26**, 619-631 (2000).
54.   J. Collet, C. A. Spike, E. A. Lundquist, J. E. Shaw, R. K. Herman, Analysis of osm-6, a
gene that affects sensory cilium structure and sensory neuron function in *Caenorhabditis*
elegans. Genetics **148**, 187-200 (1998).
55.   M. Huang, M. Chalfie, Gene interactions affecting mechanosensory transduction in
Caenorhabditis elegans. Nature **367**, 467-470 (1994).
56.   Y. Ben-Shahar, Sensory functions for degenerin/epithelial sodium channels
(DEG/ENaC). *Adv Genet* **76**, 1-26 (2011).
57.   S. Shi, S. M. Mutchler, B. M. Blobner, O. B. Kashlan, T. R. Kleyman, Pore-lining
residues of MEC-4 and MEC-10 channel subunits tune the *Caenorhabditis elegans*
degenerin channel's response to shear stress. *J Biol Chem* **293**, 10757-10766 (2018).
58.   E. L. Tsalik *et al.*, LIM homeobox gene-dependent expression of biogenic amine
receptors in restricted regions of the *C. elegans* nervous system. *Dev Biol* **263**, 81-102
(2003).
59.   V. A. Alvarez, B. L. Sabatini, Anatomical and physiological plasticity of dendritic spines.
Annu Rev Neurosci **30**, 79-97 (2007).
60.   T. J. Maures *et al.*, Males shorten the life span of *C. elegans* hermaphrodites via
secreted compounds. *Science* **343**, 541-544 (2014).
61.   T. W. Miller-Fleming *et al.*, The DEG/ENaC cation channel protein UNC-8 drives activity-
dependent synapse removal in remodeling GABAergic neurons. *Elife* **5** (2016).
62.   J. Aceves, D. Erlij, R. Martinez-Maranon, The mechanism of the paralysing action of
tetramisole on Ascaris somatic muscle. *Br J Pharmacol* **38**, 602-607 (1970).
63.   E. M. Katz *et al.*, The Stability and Efficacy of Tricaine Methanesulfonate (MS222)
Solution After Long-Term Storage. *J Am Assoc Lab Anim Sci* **59(4)**, 393-400 (2020).
64.   D. H. Hall, M. Treinin, How does morphology relate to function in sensory arbors?
Trends Neurosci **34**, 443-451 (2011).
65.   M. Hausser, B. Mel, Dendrites: bug or feature? *Curr Opin Neurobiol* **13**, 372-383 (2003).
66.   C. Aguirre-Chen, H. E. Bulow, Z. Kaprielian, *C. elegans bicd-1*, homolog of the
Drosophila dynein accessory factor Bicaudal D, regulates the branching of PVD sensory
neuron dendrites. *Development* **138**, 507-518 (2011).
67.   L. DeVault *et al.*, Dendrite regeneration of adult Drosophila sensory neurons diminishes
with aging and is inhibited by epidermal-derived matrix metalloproteinase 2. *Genes Dev*
32, 402-414 (2018).
68.   B. A. Gyorffy *et al.*, Local apoptotic-like mechanisms underlie complement-mediated
synaptic pruning. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* **115**, 6303-6308 (2018).
69.   A. Holtmaat, K. Svoboda, Experience-dependent structural synaptic plasticity in the
mammalian brain. *Nat Rev Neurosci* **10**, 647-658 (2009).
70.   T. Xu *et al.*, Rapid formation and selective stabilization of synapses for enduring motor
memories. *Nature* **462**, 915-919 (2009).
71.   G. Yang, F. Pan, W. B. Gan, Stably maintained dendritic spines are associated with
lifelong memories. *Nature* **462**, 920-924 (2009).
72.   E. N. Star, D. J. Kwiatkowski, V. N. Murthy, Rapid turnover of actin in dendritic spines
and its regulation by activity. *Nat Neurosci* **5**, 239-246 (2002).
73.   U. V. Nagerl, N. Eberhorn, S. B. Cambridge, T. Bonhoeffer, Bidirectional activity-
dependent morphological plasticity in hippocampal neurons. *Neuron* **44**, 759-767 (2004).

74. Y. Zhang, R. H. Cudmore, D. T. Lin, D. J. Linden, R. L. Huganir, Visualization of NMDA
receptor-dependent AMPA receptor synaptic plasticity in vivo. *Nat Neurosci* **18**, 402-407
(2015).
75. I. S. Stein, D. K. Park, N. Claiborne, K. Zito, Non-ionotropic NMDA receptor signaling
gates bidirectional structural plasticity of dendritic spines. *Cell Rep* **34**, 108664 (2021).
76. S. Kellenberger, L. Schild, Epithelial sodium channel/degenerin family of ion channels: a
variety of functions for a shared structure. *Physiol Rev* **82**, 735-767 (2002).
77. S. Halpain, Avoiding Sibling Conflict: Lessons from Dendrite Self-Avoidance in *C.*
elegans. *Neuron* **98**, 864 (2018).
78. L. Luo, Actin cytoskeleton regulation in neuronal morphogenesis and structural plasticity.
Annu Rev Cell Dev Biol **18**, 601-635 (2002).
79. M. A. Younger, M. Muller, A. Tong, E. C. Pym, G. W. Davis, A presynaptic ENaC
channel drives homeostatic plasticity. *Neuron* **79**, 1183-1196 (2013).
80. S. Brenner, The genetics of *Caenorhabditis elegans*. *Genetics* **77**, 71-94 (1974).
81. E. Kim, L. Sun, C. V. Gabel, C. Fang-Yen, Long-term imaging of *Caenorhabditis elegans*
using nanoparticle-mediated immobilization. *PLoS One* **8**, e53419 (2013).
875

Figures

Figure 1

Figure 1. Mechanosensory deprivation during development reduces the behavioral response of the PVD neuron. (A) The PVD neuron dendritic tree, cell body (CB) and axon. The red arrow corresponds to the contact point with a platinum wire during posterior harsh touch, while the black arrow represents the behavioral escape response of the worm. The red dashed square represents the analyzed region around the CB. One representative candelabrum is colored by branch orders: blue primary (1°), purple secondary (2°), red tertiary (3°) and green quaternaries (4°). A- anterior; P- posterior; V- ventral; D-dorsal. **(B)** Schematic of the isolation protocol followed at 72 h by posterior harsh touch assay or PVD imaging of adult worms. **(C)** Isolation of embryos reduced the percentage of worms responding to harsh touch at adulthood. Crowded- black bars, Isolated- red bars. Wildtype (WT) N2 worms (Crowded, n=32; Isolated, n=32), *mec-4* (Crowded, n=52; Isolated, n=46), *mec-3* (Crowded, n=12; Isolated, n=12). *mec-4* animals were assayed as adults after 96 h to account for their slower rate of growth. **(D)** Growth in plates with chemical cues from adult hermaphrodites did not alter the reduced response rate of isolated *mec-4* animals to harsh touch (Crowded, n=33; Isolated, n=28). **(E)** Harsh touch response in crowded and isolated conditions for mutants of different DEG-ENaCs and the TRP channel *gtl-1*. WT worms (same set of worms as in Fig. 1C. Crowded, n=32; Isolated, n=32), *asic-1* (Crowded, n=46; Isolated, n=30), *mec-10* (Crowded, n=38; Isolated, n=31), *degt-1* (Crowded, n=37; Isolated, n=31), *unc-8* (Crowded, n=18; Isolated, n=15), *del-1* (Crowded, n=31; Isolated, n=27), *gtl-1* (Crowded, n=27; Isolated, n=25). **(F)** MEC-10 expression in the PVD rescues *mec-10* mutants' crowded-specific reduction in response to harsh touch. All strains contain the *ser-2Prom3::Kaede* PVD marker construct, and were tested in the crowded conditions. (WT, n=42; *mec-4,* n=17; *him-5,* n=34 (*him-5* was used as WT background for several strains after cross); *him-5;mec-10,* n=35; *him-5;mec-10;ser2Prom3*::MEC-10, n=33). **(G)** Isolation for 24 h in adulthood did not affect the response to harsh touch. Worms grown under crowded conditions were isolated for 24 h as young adults and compared against their crowded age-matched counterparts in their response to harsh touch (Crowded, n=25; Isolated for 24 h, n=26). The proportion of responding worms (percentage) ± standard error of proportion is shown. Fisher's exact test, *$p<0.05$, **$p<0.01$, ***$p<0.001$, n.s. not significant.

Figure 2

**Figure 2. Mechanosensory deprivation and cell autonomous activity of *mec-10*
affects the architecture of the PVD. (A)** Schematic representation of the PVD
dendritic structure, marking the morphological characteristics of interest: ectopic
branches and quaternary branching geometry. Dashed lines represent ectopic
branching at each order. Colors correspond to Fig. 1A. (**B-G**) Both isolation and *mec-10*
affect the structure of the PVD: **(B)** Isolation increases the fraction of ectopic branching,
mec-10 mutation increases ectopic branching in the crowded state. **(C)** Isolation
decreases the percentage of straight quaternary branches, *mec-10* mutation decreases
the percentage of straight quaternary branches in the crowded state. Crowded- black
dots, isolated- red dots; WT (Crowded, n=28; Isolated n=26), *him-5* (Crowded, n=27;
Isolated, n=25; *him-5* was used as WT background for several strains after cross), *him-
5;mec-10* (Crowded, n=30; Isolated, n=24). **(D)** Expression of *mec-10* in the PVD on the
background of *him-5;mec-10* in the crowded state reduces ectopic branching and **(E)**
increases the percentage of straight quaternary branches. **(F-I)** Representative PVD
images of WT, *mec-10* and *mec-10*;PVD::MEC-10 in different growth conditions. (Scale
bar, 50 µm). **(J)** Embryo isolation with glass beads did not affect ectopic branching. **(K)**
Embryo isolation with glass beads increased the percentage of straight quaternary
branches (Crowded, n=28; Isolated n=26; Isolated with beads, n=22. Crowded and
isolated WT are the same set of worms as in Fig. 2B,C). Each dot represents a single
worm. The mean ± s.e.m. are shown in blue. Box plot with median and hinges for the
first and third quartile. The whiskers represent an estimated calculation of the 95%
confidence interval. Kruskal-Wallis test, # # $p<0.01$, # # # $p<0.001$, Mann Whitney test
with Bonferroni Correction α=0.0167. *$p<0.05$, ** $p<0.01$, *** $p<0.001$, n.s. not
significant.

Figure 3

Figure 3. Adult isolation for less than 4 h affects the structure of the PVD.
(A) Isolation of crowded worms induces a time-dependent increase in the proportion of
ectopic branches, and **(B)** a decrease in the number of straight quaternary branches (2
h: Crowded, n=24, Isolated, n=22; 5 h: Crowded, n=24, Isolated, n=27; 15 h: Crowded,
n=3, Isolated, n=3; 24 h: Crowded, n=20, Isolated, n=21; animals imaged using
polystyrene beads for immobilization, see Materials and Methods). **(C)** Isolation for 4 h
induces more growth of new branches than retraction of existing ones. Ectopic branch
dynamics were compared for crowded animals against their state after 4 h isolation.
Imaging used 1% tricaine, see Materials and Methods. **(D)** Isolation of crowded worms
for 4 h increases the ratio between ectopic/non-ectopic branches in individual animals
and **(E)** reduces the percentage of straight quaternary branches (Crowded, n=6;
Isolated n=6). **(F)** Crowded, but not isolated worms, show dynamic reduction in the
percentage of straight quaternary branches during a 3 h time lapse movie in 1%
tricaine; see Movies S5 and S6. **(G)** Representative time lapse frames of a crowded
worm in 1% tricaine. Thick and thin arrows represent straight and non-straight
quaternary branches, respectively. For **(D, E)** the lines connecting two points refer to the
same crowded specimen at time 0 and after 4 h isolation. Box plot representation as in
Fig. 2. For **(A-B)** Mann-Whitney test, * $p<0.05$,.*** $p<0.001$. For **(C-E)** Wilcoxon test (for
two related samples), * $p<0.05$.

Figure 4

Figure 4. Response to harsh touch and PVD morphology are independent.
(A) Discriminant analysis shows independence of harsh touch response from the PVD's
morphological classification. Squares indicate the centroids for morphological
characteristics analyzed in Fig. S10A-C. The response to harsh touch (Fig. S9) is
illustrated by its magnitude (low, <45% in yellow star; high, >65% in light blue circles).
The different genotypes are numbered in the list on the right. Crowded- black, Isolated-
red. **(B-E)** Isolated animals show similar PVD morphology regardless of their touch
response: **(B)** isolated responding and non-responding animals are not different with
regard to the fraction of ectopic branching, and **(C)** the geometry of quaternary
branches (Isolated non-responding, n=18; Isolated responding, n=20). Box plot
representation as in Fig. 2. Mann-Whitney test. n.s. not significant. **(D, E)**
Representative PVD images of responding and non-responding worms. (Scale bar, 50
μm).

Figure 5. Mechanosensory-dependent localization of degenerins and optogenetics. (A) PVD::MEC-10::mCherry localization (shown and labeled in purple, also in Fig. 7) is reduced in the quaternary branches and the axon following isolation, in a *degt-1*-dependent manner (WT: Crowded, n=31; Isolated, n=27; *degt-1* mutants: Crowded, n=23; Isolated, n=22). **(B-D)** Representative images and reconstructions for PVD::MEC-10::mCherry localization for crowded and isolated WT worms, and crowded *degt-1* worms. (Scale bar, 50 μm). **(E)** PVD::DEGT-1::mCherry localization level is reduced at the cell body, but not in the quaternary branches or the axon, following isolation, in a *mec-10*-dependent-manner (WT: Crowded, n=33; Isolated, n=21; *mec-10* mutants: Crowded, n=28; Isolated, n=22). The percentage of expressing worms ± standard error of proportion is shown. **(F-H)** Representative images and reconstructions for PVD::DEGT-1::mCherry localization for crowded and isolated WT worms and crowded *mec-10* worms. **(I)** Isolation leads to a reduced escape response following optogenetic photoactivation of Channelrhodopsin 2 in the PVD (Crowded, n=30; Isolated, n=24, grown on All Trans Retinal. No response was observed for worms grown without All Trans Retinal). Fisher exact test, *$p<0.05$, **$p<0.01$, ***$p<0.01$ n.s. not significant.

Figure 6

Figure 6. Model of experience-induced structural and behavioral plasticity. During adulthood, mechanosensory signals maintain the structure of the PVD in crowded animals, with straight quaternary branches and fewer ectopic branches. Sensory deprivation (in isolated animals) results in ectopic dendrites, wavy branches and defects in candelabra self-avoidance. During development, mechanosensory experience alters the response to harsh touch and the crawling gait of the worm, possibly through changes in MEC-10 localization in the axon and mediated by other DEG/ENaCs. Mechanosensory stimuli are a driving force for changes in the compartment specific localization of MEC-10 and DEGT-1 in the PVD, which may affect the structure of the PVD. MEC-10 is represented in blue, DEGT-1 is represented in green.