Extracellular vesicles aid in the transfer of long-term associative memory between

Caenorhabditis elegans

Monmita Bhar[1,*], Tanumoy Nandi[1], Hari Narayanan[1,2], Kamal Kishore[1], Kavita Babu[1,*]

1. Centre for Neuroscience, Indian Institute of Science (IISc), Bangalore, Karnataka, India

2. Present address: University of Konstanz, Germany

*Correspondence: kavitababu@iisc.ac.in and monmitabhar@gmail.com

14 Running title: Transfer of memory through extracellular vesicles

17   **Keywords:**

18 Long-term associative memory, extracellular vesicles, *C. elegans*, *C. briggsae*

Abstract:

Memory formation is necessary for the survival of animals across phyla. Here, we elucidate the mechanism underlying the formation of long-term associative memory (LTAM) formed by treating *Caenorhabditis elegans* with a volatile chemoattractant and heat. Previous work has shown that training animals with a paradigm involving heat and isoamyl alcohol (IAA) simultaneously, causes *C. elegans* to lose their attraction to IAA. In this study, we elaborate on the mechanism behind this LTAM formation and suggest that during training with heat and IAA, *C. elegans* release extracellular vesicles (EVs) that upon being taken up by the same trained animals or their untrained counterparts causes the organism to lose attraction to IAA. Our data suggests that the vesicles are highly specific to the training paradigms used and differ with differing cues. Finally, we show that this mechanism of transfer of LTAM appears to be conserved between *C. elegans* and *C. briggsae* allowing for both intra and interspecies transfer of memory.

Introduction

Native preferences and innate behaviours are essential for the survival of living organisms. Many innate behaviours represent the hardwired neural circuitry put in place during the development of an animal (Bateson & Mameli, 2007; Tierney, 1986). *Caenorhabditis elegans* has been widely used to study behavioural plasticity because of its ability to learn and modify its innate behaviour (reviewed in (Ardiel & Rankin, 2010)). With a nervous system consisting of 302 neurons, these animals show a variety of robust and adaptable behaviours like chemotaxis and thermotaxis (reviewed in (Ardiel & Rankin, 2010; Hart, 2006)). These behaviours allow *C. elegans* to move towards food sources, avoid toxic bacteria, and find mates, all of which rely heavily on chemosensation by the animal and innate preferences for certain odours ((Ballestriero *et al*, 2016) and reviewed in (Ferkey *et al*, 2021)). For example, under well fed naïve condition, *C. elegans* are attracted to odorants like isoamyl alcohol (IAA), which can be sensed by the AWC neuron (reviewed in (Bargmann, 2006)). However, this odour to behaviour relationship can be modified if the animal is exposed to periods of starvation along with IAA (Pereira & van der Kooy, 2012). Similarly, neutral concentrations of butanone can be turned attractive when repetitively paired with food. These modified behaviours can persist for up to forty hours post training (Kauffman *et al*, 2011). The above examples indicate the formation of associative memory, that is brought about as a result of the animals interaction with two simultaneous cues.

Associative memory in *C. elegans* can be classified as short-term or long-term associative memory, depending on how long it can last. Previous studies have shown that pairing cues for a single conditioning period (mass training) forms short-term associative memory (STAM) in *C. elegans*, that last for around 2 hours. However, multiple conditioning along with periods of rest in between forms long-term associative memory (LTAM), which can last from 20 to 40 hours (Kauffman *et al.*, 2011). LTAM formation in *C. elegans* has largely been examined by pairing the presence/absence of food (unconditioned stimulus) with a variety of cues (Amano & Maruyama, 2011; Kauffman *et al.*, 2011; Nishijima & Maruyama, 2017). We had shown in a previous study that changes in innate behaviours using the chemoattractive odorant IAA and an aversive heat stimulus leads to loss of attraction to IAA, that lasts more than twenty

hours after training, hence giving rise to LTAM formation (Dahiya *et al*, 2019). Here, we

propose a novel mechanism for LTAM formation and show that the effect of training *C.*

elegans with a chemoattractant and heat may lead to the release of training cue specific

extracellular vesicles (EVs). Further, these EVs may then be taken up by the same or

untrained counterparts that in turn allows naïve animals to gain LTAM, resulting in

impaired attraction to the chemoattractant.

Caenorhabditis elegans can release EVs environmentally through sensory ciliary

neurons, which can act as a mode of communication. Previous studies have shown the

involvement of EVs in inter-animal communication in the context of mating ((Wang *et al*,

2014) and reviewed in (Wang *et al*, 2024a)). There are 27 ciliated EV releasing neurons

(EVNs), 21 of these are male-specific neurons in the head and tail, and 6 are inner labial

type 2 (IL2) neurons which are present in both males and hermaphrodites (O'Hagan *et*

al, 2017; Wang *et al*, 2015). It has been previously reported that CIL-7, a myristoylated

protein regulates EV biogenesis and is known to be an EV cargo. The kinesin-3 protein,

KLP-6, is required for the release of EVs into the environment. Both these genes, *cil-7*

and *klp-6*, are expressed in the IL2 neurons of hermaphrodite *C. elegans* (Kahn-Kirby &

Bargmann, 2006; Maguire *et al*, 2015; Morsci & Barr, 2011; Peden & Barr, 2005; Wang

et al, 2021). Here we report that EVs facilitate the transfer of LTAM from trained animals

to both naïve and memory-defective *C. elegans*. We also show that *creb1/crh1* mutant

animals that show no LTAM formation in this IAA and heat-based paradigm (Dahiya *et*

al., 2019), show LTAM from exposure to the extrinsic factors (likely EVs) released by

trained wild-type (WT) animals. This work adds to the growing body of literature

describing the role of EVs in multiple processes including cell death, neurodegenerative

diseases and therapeutics (Mohamed *et al*, 2025; Wang *et al*, 2025; Wiersema *et al*,

2024; Wright *et al*, 2025).

Lastly, we report that LTAM can be transferred across species of *Caenorhabditis*, where

C. elegans and *C. briggsae* can transfer LTAM from trained animals of one species to

naïve animals of the other species. Like most previous studies involving LTAM formation

in *C. elegans* and across phyla, we had speculated that the mechanism of LTAM

formation as a result of IAA and heat training, was intrinsic to the organism (Dahiya *et*

al., 2019). Contrary to this hypothesis, our findings in this study indicate that LTAM can

be transferred from one *C. elegans* to another through environmentally released

extracellular vesicles (EVs), thus challenging the conventional notion of LTAM being only

intrinsic to an organism.

Materials and Methods

Strains maintenance and transgene generation

All strains were cultured on nematode growth medium (NGM) plates, inoculated with

OP50 *E. coli* bacteria, and maintained under standard conditions at 22°C, following

established protocols outlined in previous literature (Brenner, 1974). The N2 Bristol strain

served as the standard wild-type (WT) control for comparative analyses across all

experimental procedures. A synchronous population of young adult *C. elegans* was

obtained using previously established protocols (Porta-de-la-Riva *et al*, 2012). The list

of strains used in this study is tabulated in Supplementary Table 1 (S1) and primers used

for genotyping the strains are tabulated in Supplementary Table 2 (S2). The *klp-6* rescue

construct P*klp-6*::GFP::KLP-6 (gift from Maureen Barr, details in (Wang *et al.*, 2014))

was microinjected in the *klp-6* mutant *C. elegans* to prepare transgenic lines as

previously described (C. Mello and Fire 1995; C. C. Mello et al. 1991).

Assay to study long-term associative memory in *C. elegans*

All assays were performed as previously described in (Dahiya *et al.*, 2019) with minor

modifications. Briefly, the training paradigm involves simultaneous exposure of *C.*

elegans or *C. briggsae* young adults to two cues; heat and a chemoattractant (isoamyl

alcohol (IAA)/ Diacetyl (depending on the experiment)), for two minutes followed by ten

minutes of rest period at 22°C. This cycle is repeated five times, and the animals are

then kept at 22°C for 20 hours (illustrated in Figure 1A). This leads to the formation of

long-term associative memory (LTAM), seen in the form of reduced attraction towards

the chemoattractant, which can last for as long as 24 hours. LTAM is quantified at 20-24

hours from the time of training, using a readout called the chemotaxis index (CI), where

CI= Displacement along IAA, heptanone or diacetyl (depending on the odorant used)

gradient/Total distance traversed. The concentrations of the odorants used are as

previously published (Dahiya *et al.*, 2019; Zhang *et al*, 2016). CI is calculated by

analysing the videos of the *C. elegans* undergoing chemotaxis with respect to the

chemoattractant. The videos were analysed using FIJI, and an associated plugin,

Trackmate (Ershov *et al*, 2022; Schindelin *et al*, 2012). Each plot indicates a set of 3-6

replicates with all conditions/genotypes in the graph performed at the same time over

multiple days. Each replicate was performed using 8-10 *C. elegans*. A detailed

experimental protocol can be found in the Supplementary section.

Exchange assays

Naïve animals were transferred to an empty plate, followed by trained animals being

transferred to the plate that previously had naïve *C. elegans.* The final step involved

transferring the naïve animals to the plate that had had trained *C. elegans* (illustrated in

Figure 2A). This exchange protocol was completed within 30 minutes from the end of

training. After exchange, *C. elegans* were kept in a 22°C incubator and LTAM was tested

using the chemotaxis assay 20-24 hours after training. The exchange assays were

performed between *C. elegans* and *C. briggsae* in a similar manner with naïve *C.*

elegans transferred to plates that had contained trained *C. briggsae* and naïve *C.*

briggsae transferred to plates that had had trained *C. elegans*. All plates used for

training and transfer were 60 mm in diameter.

Imaging experiments

Freshly trained young adult hermaphrodite *C. elegans* were used for imaging as

previously described with minor modifications (Tikiyani *et al*, 2018). Briefly, *C. elegans*

were mounted on 1% agarose pads with 34 mg/ml 2,3-Butanedione Monoxime (BDM)

solution in M9 medium. Images were acquired as Z-stacks on a Zeiss Apotome

microscope using the 63X oil objective within four hours of the training paradigm. The

order of imaging of trained and control animals was changed for each of the three

replicates. For processing and analysis of images, FIJI (Schindelin *et al.*, 2012) was

used to quantify fluorescence intensity of cell body and number of puncta in each

condition by selecting specific regions of interest. A threshold was set for analyzing

particles of each *C. elegans* to separately quantify cell body intensity and punctal

number across the neuronal processes. The summation of mean grey values using

"Analyze Particles" from each cell body per worm and the punctal number along each

neuronal process was counted using "Analyze Particles". Both cell body intensity and

punctal numbers were plotted as independent graphs. Each replicate had 4-7 *C.*

elegans that were imaged per condition over three replicates and each dot on the plots

indicates a single animal.

Liquid Chromatography-Mass Spectrometry (LC-MS)

The protocol used was modified from a previous study (Nikonorova *et al*, 2022). Sample

collection involved four 60 mm plates with approximately 70 *C. elegans*/plate for each

sample. Freshly trained WT animals were washed with M9 buffer and collected as one

sample. This was repeated for every group of *C. elegans*; naïve, trained, only IAA and

only heat. Next differential centrifugation was performed. Firstly, the *C. elegans*

suspension was centrifuged at 3,000 g for 15 minutes at 15°C to pellet the animals and

bacteria. This supernatant was transferred to fresh tubes and then centrifuged at 10,000

g for 30 minutes at 4°C. This step was repeated thrice. Lastly, the collected supernatant

was sent to the IISc LC-MS facility for identification of extrinsic factor(s). Samples were

similarly collected from the EV release defective mutants as naïve and trained animals

as well as empty plates with and without *E. coli*. Each sample was processed in triplicate

over multiple days.

Statistical analysis

198 All statistical analyses were performed using GraphPad Prism 8. Outliers were identified

199 using Grubbs method ($\alpha = 0.05$). For all plots, the mean values were compared using

200 one-way ANOVA with Dunnett's correction. The level of significance was set as $p \leq 0.05$.

201   The statistical analyses used for each plot is indicated in the figure legends.

Results

Long-term Associative memory in *C. elegans* requires extrinsic factor(s) released

by the animals

We have previously published a training paradigm to study long-term associative memory (LTAM) in wild-type (WT) *C. elegans* using isoamyl alcohol (IAA) and heat ((Dahiya *et al.*, 2019) and illustrated in Figure 1A). Using this paradigm, we replicated the data showing that unlike naïve animals, their trained counterparts showed a significantly lower chemotaxis index (CI) to IAA (Figure 1B, tracks indicated in Figure S1A). To investigate the underlying molecular mechanism of LTAM formation we planned to perform RNA sequencing experiments using naïve and trained WT animals.

In order to perform this experiment optimally, adult *C. elegans* had to be synchronized (without eggs and L1 animals) at 20 hours post training for RNA extraction ((Brenner, 1974) and illustrated in Figure S1B)). To remove eggs and L1s from the population, the *C. elegans* were separated from eggs twice (at 12 and 8 hours) during the twenty-hour resting stage after training and a similar protocol was followed for naïve animals (illustrated in Figure S1B). We initially gently washed the *C. elegans* and eggs with M9 to remove the *C. elegans* from the eggs on the plate at both time points. However, upon testing the animals for LTAM after the washes, we found the animals no longer showed LTAM (Figure S1C). This prompted us to pick animals at the standardized 12-hour time point during the 20-hour resting period to circumvent the effects of washing. Again, we found that the animals removed from the plates at the 12-hour time-point no longer showed LTAM (Figure 1F). This prompted us to hypothesize that trained *C. elegans* may be releasing factor(s) onto the plate that could allow for LTAM formation. In order to test the time-point at which the animals may be releasing unknown factor(s) we tested the animals by picking them from the plate within a few minutes of training (t_0), 6 hours after training (t_6), 12 hours after training (t_{12}), and keeping some animals in the original plate

(illustrated in Figure 1C). We found that only the animals on the original plate showed

LTAM formation (Figure 1B), while all other animals lost LTAM associated with heat and

IAA (Figures 1D-F).

Our experiments indicated that removal of *C. elegans* to new plates immediately after

training led to a loss of LTAM allowing us to conclude that *C. elegans* may be releasing

unknown factor(s) during training or immediately after training. We then decided to test if

these factor(s) could impart LTAM to naïve animals.

Naïve *C. elegans* on trained plates gain LTAM

To investigate if the factor(s) released by *C. elegans* during training were indeed required

for LTAM formation, we decided to expose naïve *C. elegans* to the factor(s) released by

the animals during training. For this, we performed an exchange assay, where naïve

animals were transferred to plates that previously had trained animals, and vice versa

(illustrated in Figure 2A). This exchange was performed within 30 minutes of training.

Intriguingly, we observed that naïve *C. elegans* that were transferred to plates that had

had trained animals showed LTAM, similar to what we observed in trained control animals

(Figure 2B, , tracks indicated in Figure S2A). Consistent with our previous results, trained

animals that were transferred to plates that had had naïve *C. elegans*, showed a loss of

LTAM (Figure 2B, tracks indicated in Figure S2A). This led us to conclude that these

factor(s) released by *C. elegans* during training are sufficient to induce LTAM in naïve

animals.

Next, to make sure that the factor(s) released on the plate were not produced by bacteria

on the plate as the animals are well fed with OP50 *E. coli* throughout their training and

resting phases, we performed the same experiments with heat-killed *E. coli*. The *E. coli*

were heat-killed as previously described (Qi *et al*, 2017). We observed the same results

as previously seen with live *E. coli* (Figure 2C). To confirm the associative nature of the

transferred LTAM, we tested WT *C. elegans* with heat and IAA in an unpaired assay. In

order to perform this experiment, we exposed naïve *C. elegans* to heat and IAA one after

the other as illustrated in Figure S2B and found that in neither case could the animals form

LTAM. Further, the plates that had had trained *C. elegans* did not allow for naïve *C.*
elegans placed on them to gain LTAM (Figures S2C and D).

Our data so far indicates that the associative training paradigm allows *C. elegans* to
release factor(s) onto its surroundings that may be taken up by naïve animals which then
go on to show LTAM. Next, we wanted to understand the specificity of these released
factor(s).

The training cue lends specificity to factor(s) released by trained *C. elegans*

Our results so far indicate that naïve animals show LTAM when transferred to a plate that
had previously contained trained animals. We wanted to understand the specificity of the
released factor(s). Different odours can be sensed by largely distinct neurons in *C.*
elegans (reviewed in (Chou et al, 1996)). IAA is known to be sensed by the AWC neurons,
that can also sense heptanone ((Colbert & Bargmann, 1995; Zhang *et al.*, 2016) and
illustrated in Figure S3). In order to test the specificity of the secreted factor(s) we took
animals trained using the IAA and heat paradigm, along with naïve animals transferred to
plates that had contained trained *C. elegans* and tested their chemoattraction towards
heptanone. We observed that these *C. elegans* showed no LTAM formation with respect
to heptanone (Figure 3A). These results indicate a specificity of the released factor(s) that
allow for LTAM formation only with respect to the odour used for training.

We next decided to test LTAM formation with respect to another chemoattractive odour
sensed by a different neuron. Diacetyl is an odour that is sensed by the AWA neuron
((Sengupta *et al*, 1996; Sengupta *et al*, 1994) and illustrated in Figure S3). We trained
animals with heat and IAA and found that trained animals and naïve animals transferred
to plates that had contained trained animals did not show any defects in chemotaxis with
respect to diacetyl (Figure 3B). Our previous work has shown that the heat and
chemoattractant based training paradigm may be used with diacetyl and heat in a process
similar to that performed with IAA and heat (Dahiya *et al.*, 2019). We next trained the
animals with heat and diacetyl and found that they showed LTAM towards diacetyl (Figure
3C). Further, naïve animals placed on a plate that had had trained *C. elegans* showed

LTAM towards diacetyl (Figure 3C). This experiment indicates that a release of factor(s)
occurs independent of whether the odour is IAA or diacetyl; the nature of these factor(s),
however, appears to be extremely specific to the odorant used during training. Finally, we
trained animals with diacetyl and tested them with IAA and found no LTAM formation
towards IAA (Figures 3D). These data together indicate a high degree of specificity of the
factor(s) released for allowing LTAM formation only with respect to the cue present in the
training paradigm.

We next wanted to study the role of these factor(s) in animals that are known to be
defective in memory formation.

LTAM defective *C. elegans* show LTAM from exposure to plates that had contained
trained WT animals

A plethora of literature has implicated CREB1 (cAMP Response Element Binding protein
1) in long-term memory formation across phyla ((Bartsch *et al*, 1998; Timbers & Rankin,
2011; Yin *et al*, 1995; Yin *et al*, 1994) and reviewed in (Flavell & Greenberg, 2008;
Johannessen *et al*, 2004; Silva *et al*, 1998; Yin & Tully, 1996)). We have shown that the
mutants of the ortholog of mammalian *creb1*, *crh-1* in *C. elegans,* show LTAM defects in
the heat and IAA paired assay (Dahiya *et al*., 2019). We decided to test if *crh-1* mutants
allowed for LTAM formation when transferred to a plate that had contained trained WT
animals (illustrated in Figure 4A). Our data indicates that *crh-1* mutants that basally show
no LTAM, show LTAM when transferred to a plate which had had WT trained animals. We
also found that WT trained animals transferred to a plate that had contained trained *crh-1*
mutant *C. elegans* do not show LTAM (Figure 4B and tracks indicated in Figure S4). These
data allowed us to conclude that *crh-1* mutants may have defects in the synthesis or
release of the factor(s) that allow for LTAM formation but appear to be able to uptake these
factor(s) to show LTAM.

We next wanted to gain insight into the mechanism of secretion of the factor(s) during
training of *C. elegans*.

Extracellular vesicle are required for LTAM formation

A well-studied mechanism of social behaviour in *C. elegans* is through secreted small molecule signalling by ascarosides (reviewed in (Yang *et al*, 2023)). Pre-exposure to different ascarosides can change the chemotaxis of *C. elegans* to different odours (Wu *et al*, 2023). We decided to test for LTAM formation in the *daf-22* mutant *C. elegans* that are defective in ascaroside biosynthesis (Golden & Riddle, 1985). We found that *daf-22* mutants showed no defects in LTAM formation (Figure 5A). These data indicate that the secreted factor(s) may not be *daf-22* dependent. Apart from ascarosides, sensory signalling allowing for behaviours like mate sensing through chemoattraction requires extracellular vesicle (EV) release from *C. elegans* (reviewed in (Wang *et al.*, 2024a)). We next tested mutants in EV biogenesis (*cil-7*) and release (*klp-6*) for LTAM formation (Wang *et al.*, 2021). We found that both mutants showed no LTAM formation (Figure 5B and C). In order to further confirm the role of EVs in the process of LTAM, we attempted to rescue the loss of LTAM phenotype in *klp-6* mutants by expressing KLP-6 specifically in the IL2 neurons where KLP-6 has been shown to be expressed in hermaphrodites (Peden & Barr, 2005; Wang *et al*, 2024b). We observed that expressing KLP-6 in the mutant *klp-6* animals rescued the loss of LTAM phenotype where both trained *C. elegans* as well as naïve animals transferred to plates that had contained trained animals now showed LTAM formation (Figure 5D). We next decided to test if *klp-6* mutants allowed for LTAM formation when transferred to a plate that had trained WT animals. We found that trained *klp-6* mutants transferred to a plates which had had trained WT animals showed LTAM, while trained WT animals transferred to plates that had contained trained *klp-6* mutant *C. elegans* did not show LTAM (Figure 5E and tracks indicated in Figure S5). These data allow us to conclude that EV release may be the basis for LTAM formation in a chemoattractant and heat-based associative training paradigm.

We next investigated changes in EV expression in the nervous system upon training *C. elegans* with heat and IAA.

Changes in EV biogenesis marker expression upon heat and IAA training

Previous work has elegantly shown that an EV cargo, CIL-7, is released from the IL2 neurons into the external region around *C. elegans* (Wang *et al.*, 2024b). We tested the same line for changes in fluorescence expression in the IL2 neurons and found that the *cil-7 (my61[cil-7::mNG])I; him-5(e1490)* line showed increased fluorescence in the IL2 cell bodies and an increase in fluorecent puncta along the IL2 neuronal processes in trained WT animals when compared to the control *C. elegans* that were either naïve or trained with only IAA or only heat (Figure 6A). With these data indicating the involvement of EVs in LTAM transfer, we decided to perform a Liquid Chromatography-Mass Spectrometry (LC-MS) experiment to study the differences in the released products upon heat and IAA training when compared to control animals. The experiment allowed us to find 9 consistent hits that were only present in the heat and IAA trained *C. elegans* plates (Figure 6B and S6). These data suggest that multiple ions are differentially released onto the plates upon heat and IAA training. These ions may allow for LTAM formation in *C. elegans*. Hence, studies on these ions may allow us to get better insight into LTAM formation using heat and IAA.

Finally, we wanted to test if LTAM formation is conserved across *Caenorhabditis* species. In order to perform this experiment, we investigated LTAM formation in *Caenorhabditis briggsae.*

Caenorhabditis show interspecies transfer of LTAM

We first tested the *C. briggsae* strain for LTAM formation to heat and IAA and found that *C. briggsae* were surprisingly not attracted to IAA even in naïve conditions (Figure S7A and B). This precluded us from studying LTAM formation in *C. briggsae* using the IAA and heat based associative paradigm. However, since *C. briggsae* naïve animals behaved like *C. elegans* trained animals (Figure S7B), we went on to transfer *C. briggsae* naïve animals to a plate that had contained *C. elegans* trained animals and found that there was no change in *C. briggsae* chemotaxis index. We also transferred trained *C. elegans* to a plate that had contained naïve *C. briggsae* (exchange assay) and found that these animals behaved like naïve *C. elegans* (Figure S7B). These data could not allow us to make many conclusions other than the fact that *C. briggsae* was not attracted to IAA in the naïve condition unlike *C. elegans*.

We next tested if *C. briggsae* was attracted to diacetyl. We found that *C. briggsae* was
both attracted to, and formed LTAM with heat and diacetyl (Figure 7A). We went on to
transfer *C. briggsae* naïve animals to a plate that had contained *C. briggsae* trained
animals and vice versa. We found that *C. briggsae* naïve animals acquired LTAM from the
plate that had contained trained *C. briggsae*, and surprisingly the trained *C. briggsae* did
not lose LTAM from being on a plate that had had naïve *C. briggsae* (Figure 7B). These
data indicate that a similar mechanism may allow for LTAM transfer in *C. briggsae* as is
seen in *C. elegans*, however the LTAM appears to be more stable in *C. briggsae* when
compared to *C. elegans*. Finally, we tested if interspecies transfer of LTAM could occur.
For this experiment we transferred naïve *C. briggsae* to a plate that had contained trained
C. elegans and transferred naïve *C. elegans* to a plate that had contained trained *C.*
briggsae and found that both sets of animals showed LTAM (Figure 7C). We also
transferred trained *C. elegans* to a plate that had contained naïve *C. briggsae* and
unsurprisingly found no LTAM formation (Figure 7C). Together, our data indicates the role
of extracellular vesicles in LTAM formation and transfer in *C. elegans* and its possible role
in this phenomenon across species.

Discussion

In this study we report three novel findings that have broad implications. First, *C. elegans*
form long-term associative memory (LTAM) through environmentally released
extracellular vesicles (EVs) from the IL2 neurons when the animals undergo training with
heat and a chemoattractant. Further, these EVs appear to be cue specific and allow for
LTAM formation only with respect to the cue used in the initial training paradigm. Second,
LTAM can be transferred to naïve as well as memory-defective mutant animals possibly
through EVs. Third, there appears to be conservation of this behaviour across
Caenorhabditis species with EVs from *C. elegans* being able to elicit LTAM formation in
C. briggsae and vice versa. These findings are illustrated in Figure 8. Below, we discuss
the significance of these findings.

Novel mechanism for transfer of LTAM from one *Caenorhabditis elegans* to another

Although previous studies have shown that a form of non-associative memory can be transferred from one *Aplysia* to another by injecting RNA extracted from the trained animal into the naïve counterpart (Bedecarrats *et al*, 2018), there appear to be no studies showing the organic transfer of memory from one organism to another without active communication between the animals. In this study, we show that *C. elegans* when trained using an IAA and heat-based associative learning paradigm may release extrinsic factor(s). Removal of trained animals from these plates results in loss of LTAM, indicating that these factor(s) are responsible for the process of LTAM formation. Our results also show that these factor(s) are likely released during training. Naïve animals exposed to the factor(s) released by trained animals also show LTAM formation, similar to that seen in the original trained animals. This work uncovers a novel mechanism for transfer of LTAM through secreted EVs from one *Caenorhabditis elegans* to another, irrespective of whether the animals have been trained with the associative learning paradigm. Further, our work suggests that EVs released due to training appear to carry extremely specific cargo with respect to the odorant cue used during training. The cargo may dynamically change with changing training cues allowing for cue specific LTAM formation.

LTAM formation in memory defective animals

Apart from allowing for LTAM formation in naïve animals, we show that the factor(s) (EVs) secreted by wild-type (WT) *C. elegans* also show LTAM in memory defective *creb1/crh-1* and EV biogenesis/cargo defective animals using multiple previously described mutants (Dahiya *et al.*, 2019; Maguire *et al.*, 2015; Wang *et al.*, 2021; Wang *et al.*, 2024b). These animals gain LTAM to the specific isoamyl alcohol (IAA) cue by being placed on a plate that had had WT animals trained with heat and IAA. This intriguing finding may allow for a better understanding of the factor(s) released and the mechanism of EV uptake/action that appear to be intact in these mutants that show defects in LTAM formation. Future work may allow for a better understanding of the involvement of CREB/CRH-1 in the observed LTAM formation and transfer phenomenon.

LTAM transfer between *Caenorhabditis briggsae* and *Caenorhabditis elegans*

We show that *C. briggsae*, a relative of *C. elegans*, with a divergence of tens of millions of years (Butler *et al*, 1981) also show LTAM formation through released factor(s) that are

likely to be EV dependent. We found that *C. briggsae* do not appear to be attracted to IAA

in a manner similar to *C. elegans*, likely due to the high divergence in the olfactory

pathways of these animals (Jovelin *et al*, 2009). However, both animals showed attraction

towards diacetyl. We show that LTAM can transfer from trained *C. briggsae* to naïve *C.*

elegans and trained *C. elegans* to naïve *C. briggsae*, indicating a conserved mechanism

of LTAM transfer across *Caenorhabditis,* likely through EVs.

The one interesting difference we found was that unlike *C. elegans*, *C. briggsae* does not

seem to lose LTAM when removed from the plates that they were trained on. This could

be because of two possibilities; *C. briggsae* release the extrinsic factor(s) continuously for

a period of time, long enough for LTAM consolidation, or these factor(s) (EVs) are stable

and functional for longer periods of time in *C. briggsae.* Further studies may allow for

parsing out these differences between the two species.

Our work leads to multiple outstanding questions that may allow for a better understanding

of the process of LTAM transfer across organisms. We briefly discuss some of these

unanswered questions below.

Neuronal circuitry allowing for EV release by IL2 neurons for LTAM formation

Studies have shown that CIL-7, a myristoylated protein regulates EV biogenesis along

with being an EV cargo and the kinesin-3 protein KLP-6 is required for the release of EVs.

Both these genes, *cil-7* and *klp-6,* are expressed in the IL2 neurons in *C. elegans*

hermaphrodites (Kahn-Kirby & Bargmann, 2006; Maguire *et al.*, 2015; Morsci & Barr,

2011; Peden & Barr, 2005; Wang *et al.*, 2021). Here we report that *cil-7* and *klp-6* mutant

animals are LTAM defective, uncovering a previously unreported role of the IL2 neurons

in LTAM formation.

This raises important questions in understanding the neuronal circuitry involved. Different

neurons are responsible for sensing different odorants in *C. elegans*. Our experiments

indicate that animals trained with IAA (sensed by the AWC neurons) and heat versus

diacetyl (sensed by the AWA neurons) and heat release EVs with different cargo causing

cue-specific   LTAM   formation.   Understanding   the   neuronal   circuitry   between

chemosensory neurons and IL2 neurons may allow for a better understanding of the
specificity of LTAM formation.

Dynamic EV cargo for cue-specific LTAM

C. elegans show LTAM formation and transfer, specific to the odorant cue used during training. For examining the extrinsic factor(s) released by trained animals, we performed LC-MS to identify candidate molecules present exclusively on the plates of trained animals (Figure 6B). One of these molecules 4-methylaminobutanal, might be of potential interest. IAA is chemically 3-methylbutanol, and a biological pathway for the conversion of 3-methylbutanol to 4-methylaminobutanal may exist. The steps would include oxidation of 3-methylbutanol to 3-methylbutanal through an alcohol dehydrogenase (Illikoud *et al*, 2018), followed by a transamination step producing 3-methylbutylamine (Encyclopedia of Sensors and Biosensors, 2023). This intermediate could potentially result in 4-methylaminobutanal through additional reactions. This and the other molecules that are released during training (Figures S6), may allow for a better understanding of LTAM formation in *C. elegans*. Since we see specificity of LTAM formation to the odorant used in the training paradigm, it is plausible that different odorants may allow for release of cue-specific cargo. This in turn may give rise to the specificity of the observed LTAM phenomenon.

Uptake of EV cargo for LTAM transfer

Transfer of LTAM from one *C. elegans* to another entails factor(s) (EVs) released by trained animals, and its uptake by naïve animals. This uptake could occur through a variety of mechanisms. Is the cargo released through EVs retained within the EV structure after release into the environment? Are the individual components of vesicles dispersed onto the plates? Further, does the uptake mechanism involve only neurons/glia or could other tissues like cuticles/hypodermis be involved? Understanding these aspects of the uptake mechanism may shed more light on the process of LTAM transfer across *Caenorhabditis*.

492 In summary, we report a novel mechanism of LTAM transfer through environmentally

493 released EVs. This, to the best of our knowledge, is the first report of organic transfer of

494 memory between organisms and across species.

Acknowledgements

The authors are grateful to Maureen Barr, Abhishek Bhattacharya, Björn Brembs, Sean Curran, Yogesh Dahiya, Aurnab Ghose, Sandhya Koushika, Piali Sengupta and Juan Wang for experimental suggestions. The authors thank Deepak Nair and Shrivallabh Shankar for help with the imaging experiment and the IISc Mass Spectrometry Facility at the Division of Biological Sciences for the LC-MS data and analyses. We also thank Shrinithi Natarajan for help with the RNA sequencing experiment. We thank Maureen Barr for reagents. Some strains were provided by CGC, which is funded by NIH Office of Research Infrastructure Programs (P40 OD010440). We also thank NBRP, Japan for providing the *cil-7 (tm5848)* allele. All illustrations were created in BioRender. Lastly, we thank Palagiri Suresh for routine help and the members of Kavita Babu's lab for suggestions and critique on the manuscript.

Funding:

The work was supported by an MoE STARS Grant [no. MoE/STARS-1/454] awarded to KB and part funded by the DBT/Welcome Trust India Alliance Fellowship [grant number IA/S/19/2/504649 awarded to KB] and the DBT Janaki Ammal National Women Bioscientist Award [no. BT/HRD-NBA-NWB/38/2019-20] to KB. The authors are also grateful to IISc and the DBT IISc partnership program for intramural funding. MB was supported by IISc funds, TN was supported by a Bayer MEDHA Fellowship, HN was supported by a KVPY Fellowship, and KK was supported by CSIR-JRF and CSIR-SRF fellowships. The funders had no role in experimental design, data collection or analysis, decision to publish, or preparation of the manuscript.

Conflict of Interest:

Authors declare no conflict of interests.

Figure legends:

Figure 1: Long-term associative memory (LTAM) in *C. elegans* requires the release of extrinsic factor(s) by trained animals

(A) Illustration of the long-term associative memory (LTAM) training paradigm used in this study. (B) Violin plots showing chemotaxis index (CI) in *C. elegans*. The presence of LTAM is indicated as a reduction in the chemotaxis index (CI) of trained animals. (C) Illustration of the time-point assay to test the time of release of factor(s) required for LTAM formation. (D, E, F) Violin plots showing CI of *C. elegans* that were removed at time-points t_0 (D), t_6 (E) and t_{12} (F) hours respectively from plates on which the animals were trained. Multiple comparisons were performed using one-way ANOVA and p-values were adjusted using Dunnett's correction, "***" indicates p=0.0002 and "ns" indicates not significant.

Figure 2: LTAM is gained by naïve *C. elegans* from trained plates

(A) Schematic of the exchange assay to expose naïve *C. elegans* to factor(s) released by freshly trained animals. The numbers along the arrows indicate the sequence of moving *C. elegans* across multiple plates. (B) Violin plots showing CI in naïve *C. elegans* when exposed to factor(s) released by trained animals. (C) Violin plots showing CI in *C. elegans* trained on plates with heat-killed bacteria. Multiple comparisons were performed using one-way ANOVA and p-values were adjusted using Dunnett's correction, "****" indicates p< 0.0001 and "ns" indicates not significant.

Figure 3: The factor(s) released during training are cue-specific

(A, B) Violin plots showing CI of animals trained using IAA and tested with heptanone (A) and diacetyl (B). Animals trained using IAA show no decrease in CI towards heptanone or diacetyl indicating no LTAM towards a chemoattractant not used during training. (C) Violin plots indicating diacetyl specific CI in diacetyl and heat trained *C. elegans* and naïve animals exposed to factor(s) released by trained animals. (D) Violin plots showing CI of animals trained with diacetyl and tested with IAA. Multiple comparisons were performed using one-way ANOVA and p-values were adjusted using Dunnett's correction, "****" indicates p< 0.0001 and "ns" indicates not significant.

Figure 4: LTAM can be gained by memory defective *crh-1* mutant *C. elegans* from trained plates that contained wild-type animals

(A) Schematic representation of exchange assay between wild-type (WT) and *crh-1* mutant *C. elegans.* The numbers along the arrows indicate the sequence of moving *C. elegans* across multiple plates. (B) Violin plots indicating CI in *crh-1* mutant animals (naïve and trained) when exposed to factor(s) released by trained WT animals. Multiple comparisons were performed using one-way ANOVA and p-values were adjusted using Dunnett's correction and Sidak's correction (for within group comparisons), "**" indicates p< 0.01, "***" indicates p< 0.001 and "ns" indicates not significant. Note that in the *crh-1* trained violin plot, only 16 animals are plotted across 3 replicates, although 8 *C. elegans* were taken per replicate. This is because of multiple tracks that overlapped during analyses and could not be separated out.

Figure 5: Role of extracellular vesicles released from IL2 neurons in LTAM formation and transfer

(A) Violin plots indicating CI in *daf-22* mutant animals defective in ascaroside biosynthesis. (B) Violin plots indicating CI in *klp-6* mutant animals defective in extracellular vesicle release. These animals show no LTAM formation. (C) Violin plots indicating CI in *cil-7* mutant animals defective in extracellular vesicle biosynthesis. These animals also show no LTAM formation. (D) Violin plots indicating CI in the *klp-6* rescuing strain. (E) Violin plots indicating CI in *klp-6* mutant animals when exposed to factor(s) released by WT animals, no LTAM was observed in WT animals exposed to plates that had had trained *klp-6* mutants. Multiple comparisons for all plots were performed using one-way ANOVA and p-values were adjusted using Dunnett's correction, "**" indicates p< 0.01, "****" indicates p< 0.0001 and "ns" indicates not significant.

Figure 6: EV imaging and LC-MS data

(A) The images on the left represent fluorescence imaging of the IL2 neurons using the *cil-7*::mNG marker line in naïve, trained, IAA only and heat only conditions. The panels on the right indicate violin plots showing total fluorescence intensity of cell bodies of IL2 neurons (above) and the number of puncta across the IL2 processes (below). The trained animals show increased cell body fluorescence and increased punctal number along the IL2 processes when compared to the control *C. elegans*. White arrowheads indicate cell bodies and yellow arrowheads indicate puncta in all images. Multiple comparisons were performed using one-way ANOVA and p-values were adjusted using Dunnett's correction, "***" indicates p< 0.001, "****" indicates p< 0.0001 and "ns" indicates not significant. (B) LC-MS data analysed from eight animal groups processed as three replicates per group; WT trained and controls (4 groups), *klp-6* naïve and trained *C. elegans* (2 groups) and empty plates containing NGM alone or NGM+OP50 *E. coli* (2 groups). The venn diagrams were created using the Venny 2.1 software

(https://bioinfogp.cnb.csic.es/tools/venny/). The list of molecules present exclusively on
WT trained plates in every replicate is indicated at in the bottom panel of 6B.

Figure 7: LTAM formation and transfer is conserved across *Caenorhabditis*
species

(A) Violin plots indicating CI in *C. briggsae* trained with the Diacetyl and heat associative
learning paradigm. (B) Violin plots indicating CI in *C. briggsae* that underwent exchange
from trained plates. This plot indicates conservation of the LTAM transfer phenomenon
from naïve to trained animals in *C. briggsae*. Further, no LTAM loss is seen in trained *C.*
briggsae when removed from trained plates, unlike in *C. elegans*. (C) Violin plots
indicating CI after transferring *C. briggsae* to plates that had contained trained *C.*
elegans and transferring *C. elegans* to plates that had contained trained *C. briggsae*.
This plot indicates interspecies transfer of LTAM from *C. elegans* to *C. briggsae* and vice
versa. Multiple comparisons were performed using one-way ANOVA and p-values were
adjusted using Dunnett's correction and Sidak's correction (for within group
comparisons), "*" indicates $p < 0.05$, "***" indicates $p < 0.001$, "****" indicates $p < 0.0001$
and "ns" indicates not significant.

Figure 8: Model

Illustration of the proposed mechanistic model showing that the release of EVs from IL2
in trained *C. elegans* allows for LTAM formation in naïve animals, memory defective *crh-*
1 mutant *C. elegans* and EV biogenesis defective *klp-6* mutant *C. elegans*. Further, this
transfer of LTAM is conserved across *Caenorhabditis*, with LTAM formation occurring in
naïve *C. briggsae* from EVs of trained *C. elegans* and vice versa. The numbers indicate
the order of processes including EV release followed by uptake.

References:

Amano H, Maruyama IN (2011) Aversive olfactory learning and associative long-term memory in Caenorhabditis elegans. *Learn Mem* 18: 654-665

Ardiel EL, Rankin CH (2010) An elegant mind: learning and memory in Caenorhabditis elegans. *Learn Mem* 17: 191-201

Ballestriero F, Nappi J, Zampi G, Bazzicalupo P, Di Schiavi E, Egan S (2016) Caenorhabditis elegans employs innate and learned aversion in response to bacterial toxic metabolites tambjamine and violacein. *Sci Rep* 6: 29284

Bargmann CI (2006) Chemosensation in C. elegans. *WormBook*: 1-29

Bartsch D, Casadio A, Karl KA, Serodio P, Kandel ER (1998) CREB1 encodes a nuclear activator, a repressor, and a cytoplasmic modulator that form a regulatory unit critical for long-term facilitation. *Cell* 95: 211-223

Bateson P, Mameli M (2007) The innate and the acquired: useful clusters or a residual distinction from folk biology? *Dev Psychobiol* 49: 818-831

Bedecarrats A, Chen S, Pearce K, Cai D, Glanzman DL (2018) RNA from Trained Aplysia Can Induce an Epigenetic Engram for Long-Term Sensitization in Untrained Aplysia. *eNeuro* 5

Brenner S (1974) The genetics of Caenorhabditis elegans. *Genetics* 77: 71-94

Butler MH, Wall SM, Luehrsen KR, Fox GE, Hecht RM (1981) Molecular relationships between closely related strains and species of nematodes. *J Mol Evol* 18: 18-23

Chou JH, Troemel ER, Sengupta P, Colbert HA, Tong L, Tobin DM, Roayaie K, Crump JG, Dwyer ND, Bargmann CI (1996) Olfactory recognition and discrimination in Caenorhabditis elegans. *Cold Spring Harb Symp Quant Biol* 61: 157-164

Colbert HA, Bargmann CI (1995) Odorant-specific adaptation pathways generate olfactory plasticity in C. elegans. *Neuron* 14: 803-812

Dahiya Y, Rose S, Thapliyal S, Bhardwaj S, Prasad M, Babu K (2019) Differential Regulation of Innate and Learned Behavior by Creb1/Crh-1 in Caenorhabditis elegans. *J Neurosci* 39: 7934-7946

Ershov D, Phan MS, Pylvanainen JW, Rigaud SU, Le Blanc L, Charles-Orszag A, Conway JRW, Laine RF, Roy NH, Bonazzi D *et al* (2022) TrackMate 7: integrating state-of-the-art segmentation algorithms into tracking pipelines. *Nat Methods* 19: 829-832

Ferkey DM, Sengupta P, L'Etoile ND (2021) Chemosensory signal transduction in Caenorhabditis elegans. *Genetics* 217

Flavell SW, Greenberg ME (2008) Signaling mechanisms linking neuronal activity to gene expression and plasticity of the nervous system. *Annu Rev Neurosci* 31: 563-590

Golden JW, Riddle DL (1985) A gene affecting production of the Caenorhabditis elegans dauer-inducing pheromone. *Mol Gen Genet* 198: 534-536

Hart AC (2006) Behavior. *WormBook*

Illikoud N, Klopp C, Roulet A, Bouchez O, Marsaud N, Jaffres E, Zagorec M (2018) One complete and three draft genome sequences of four Brochothrix thermosphacta strains, CD 337, TAP 175, BSAS1 3 and EBP 3070. *Stand Genomic Sci* 13: 22

Johannessen M, Delghandi MP, Moens U (2004) What turns CREB on? *Cell Signal* 16: 1211-1227

Jovelin R, Dunham JP, Sung FS, Phillips PC (2009) High nucleotide divergence in developmental regulatory genes contrasts with the structural elements of olfactory pathways in caenorhabditis. *Genetics* 181: 1387-1397

Kahn-Kirby AH, Bargmann CI (2006) TRP channels in C. elegans. *Annu Rev Physiol* 68: 719-736

Kauffman A, Parsons L, Stein G, Wills A, Kaletsky R, Murphy C (2011) C. elegans positive butanone learning, short-term, and long-term associative memory assays. *J Vis Exp*

Maguire JE, Silva M, Nguyen KC, Hellen E, Kern AD, Hall DH, Barr MM (2015) Myristoylated
CIL-7 regulates ciliary extracellular vesicle biogenesis. *Mol Biol Cell* 26: 2823-2832
Mohamed AH, Abaza T, Youssef YA, Rady M, Fahmy SA, Kamel R, Hamdi N, Efthimiado E,
Braoudaki M, Youness RA (2025) Extracellular vesicles: from intracellular trafficking molecules to
fully fortified delivery vehicles for cancer therapeutics. *Nanoscale Adv* 7: 934-962
Morsci NS, Barr MM (2011) Kinesin-3 KLP-6 regulates intraflagellar transport in male-specific
cilia of Caenorhabditis elegans. *Curr Biol* 21: 1239-1244
Nikonorova IA, Wang J, Cope AL, Tilton PE, Power KM, Walsh JD, Akella JS, Krauchunas AR,
Shah P, Barr MM (2022) Isolation, profiling, and tracking of extracellular vesicle cargo in
Caenorhabditis elegans. *Curr Biol* 32: 1924-1936 e1926
Nishijima S, Maruyama IN (2017) Appetitive Olfactory Learning and Long-Term Associative
Memory in Caenorhabditis elegans. *Front Behav Neurosci* 11: 80
O'Hagan R, Silva M, Nguyen KCQ, Zhang W, Bellotti S, Ramadan YH, Hall DH, Barr MM (2017)
Glutamylation Regulates Transport, Specializes Function, and Sculpts the Structure of Cilia. *Curr
Biol* 27: 3430-3441 e3436
Peden EM, Barr MM (2005) The KLP-6 kinesin is required for male mating behaviors and
polycystin localization in Caenorhabditis elegans. *Curr Biol* 15: 394-404
Pereira S, van der Kooy D (2012) Two forms of learning following training to a single odorant in
Caenorhabditis elegans AWC neurons. *J Neurosci* 32: 9035-9044
Porta-de-la-Riva M, Fontrodona L, Villanueva A, Ceron J (2012) Basic Caenorhabditis elegans
methods: synchronization and observation. *J Vis Exp*: e4019
Qi B, Kniazeva M, Han M (2017) A vitamin-B2-sensing mechanism that regulates gut protease
activity to impact animal's food behavior and growth. *Elife* 6
Schindelin J, Arganda-Carreras I, Frise E, Kaynig V, Longair M, Pietzsch T, Preibisch S, Rueden
C, Saalfeld S, Schmid B *et al* (2012) Fiji: an open-source platform for biological-image analysis.
Nat Methods 9: 676-682
Sengupta P, Chou JH, Bargmann CI (1996) odr-10 encodes a seven transmembrane domain
olfactory receptor required for responses to the odorant diacetyl. *Cell* 84: 899-909
Sengupta P, Colbert HA, Bargmann CI (1994) The C. elegans gene odr-7 encodes an olfactory-
specific member of the nuclear receptor superfamily. *Cell* 79: 971-980
Silva AJ, Kogan JH, Frankland PW, Kida S (1998) CREB and memory. *Annu Rev Neurosci* 21:
127-148
Tierney AJ (1986) The evolution of learned and innate behavior: Contributions from genetics and
neurobiology to a theory of behavioral evolution. *Anim Learn Behav* 14: 339-348
Tikiyani V, Li L, Sharma P, Liu H, Hu Z, Babu K (2018) Wnt Secretion Is Regulated by the
Tetraspan Protein HIC-1 through Its Interaction with Neurabin/NAB-1. *Cell Rep* 25: 1856-1871
e1856
Timbers TA, Rankin CH (2011) Tap withdrawal circuit interneurons require CREB for long-term
habituation in Caenorhabditis elegans. *Behav Neurosci* 125: 560-566
Wang J, Barr MM, Wehman AM (2024a) Extracellular vesicles. *Genetics* 227
Wang J, Kaletsky R, Silva M, Williams A, Haas LA, Androwski RJ, Landis JN, Patrick C, Rashid
A, Santiago-Martinez D *et al* (2015) Cell-Specific Transcriptional Profiling of Ciliated Sensory
Neurons Reveals Regulators of Behavior and Extracellular Vesicle Biogenesis. *Curr Biol* 25:
3232-3238
Wang J, Nikonorova IA, Silva M, Walsh JD, Tilton PE, Gu A, Akella JS, Barr MM (2021) Sensory
cilia act as a specialized venue for regulated extracellular vesicle biogenesis and signaling. *Curr
Biol* 31: 3943-3951 e3943
Wang J, Saul J, Nikonorova IA, Cruz CN, Power KM, Nguyen KC, Hall DH, Barr MM (2024b)
Ciliary intrinsic mechanisms regulate dynamic ciliary extracellular vesicle release from sensory
neurons. *Curr Biol* 34: 2756-2763 e2752

Wang J, Silva M, Haas LA, Morsci NS, Nguyen KC, Hall DH, Barr MM (2014) C. elegans ciliated
sensory neurons release extracellular vesicles that function in animal communication. *Curr Biol*
24: 519-525
Wang J, Wang X, Luo H, Xie Y, Cao H, Mao L, Liu T, Yue Y, Qian H (2025) Extracellular vesicles
in Helicobacter pylori-mediated diseases: mechanisms and therapeutic potential. *Cell Commun*
Signal 23: 79
Wiersema AF, Rennenberg A, Smith G, Varderidou-Minasian S, Pasterkamp RJ (2024) Shared
and distinct changes in the molecular cargo of extracellular vesicles in different
neurodegenerative diseases. *Cell Mol Life Sci* 81: 479
Wright SS, Kumari P, Fraile-Agreda V, Wang C, Shivcharan S, Kappelhoff S, Margheritis EG,
Matz A, Vasudevan SO, Rubio I *et al* (2025) Transplantation of gasdermin pores by extracellular
vesicles propagates pyroptosis to bystander cells. *Cell* 188: 280-291 e217
Wu T, Ge M, Wu M, Duan F, Liang J, Chen M, Gracida X, Liu H, Yang W, Dar AR *et al* (2023)
Pathogenic bacteria modulate pheromone response to promote mating. *Nature* 613: 324-331
Yang B, Wang J, Zheng X, Wang X (2023) Nematode Pheromones: Structures and Functions.
Molecules 28
Yin JC, Del Vecchio M, Zhou H, Tully T (1995) CREB as a memory modulator: induced
expression of a dCREB2 activator isoform enhances long-term memory in Drosophila. *Cell* 81:
107-115
Yin JC, Tully T (1996) CREB and the formation of long-term memory. *Curr Opin Neurobiol* 6:
264-268
Yin JC, Wallach JS, Del Vecchio M, Wilder EL, Zhou H, Quinn WG, Tully T (1994) Induction of a
dominant negative CREB transgene specifically blocks long-term memory in Drosophila. *Cell* 79:
49-58
Zhang C, Zhao N, Chen Y, Zhang D, Yan J, Zou W, Zhang K, Huang X (2016) The Signaling
Pathway of Caenorhabditis elegans Mediates Chemotaxis Response to the Attractant 2-
Heptanone in a Trojan Horse-like Pathogenesis. *J Biol Chem* 291: 23618-23627

Figure 1

Figure 2

A

B

Regular OP50 *E. coli*

Chemotaxis index

**** **** ns

Naïve | Trained | Naïve to trained | Trained to naïve

C

Heat-killed OP50 *E. coli*

Chemotaxis index

**** **** ns

Naïve | Trained | Naïve to trained | Trained to naïve

Figure 3

Figure 4

B

Figure 5

Figure 6

A

B

Comparison between wild-type trained and *klp-6* groups

Comparison between wild-type trained and controls

Comparison between wild-type trained and NGM groups

Wild-type Trained-specific candidates filtered for abundance in all three replicates

1. 2,4-Xylidine
2. N~6~-[(2R)-3,4-Dihydro-2H-pyrrol-2-ylcarbonyl]-L-lysine
3. 2-Methoxy-5-methylaniline
4. 4-Methylaminobutanal
5. 6-Amino-2-methyl-2-heptanyl (1,3-dimethyl-2,6-dioxo-1,2,3,6-tetrahydro-7H-purin-7-yl)acetate
6. Imazapyr
7. Glycochenodeoxycholic Acid (sodium salt)
8. 3,6-Bis-O-(3-methylbutanoyl)-β-D-fructofuranosyl 3-O-(2-methylbutanoyl)-4-O-(3-methylbutanoyl)-α-D-glucopyranoside
9. 2-Aminooctanedioic acid

Figure 7

Figure 8

WT Naive

EV uptake by naive animal

IAA+Heat training

WT Trained

3 EV uptake back into trained animal

2 EV release into the environment

EV uptake 4

Inter and intra-species LTAM transfer in *C. elegans* and *C. briggsae*

EV release into the environment

LTAM transfer

LTAM transfer

Trained *C. briggsae*

Naive *C. elegans*

Diacetyl+Heat training

EV release into the environment

Naive *C. briggsae*

LTAM transfer

Trained *C. elegans*

Memory-defective mutants (*crh-1. cil-7. klp-6*)

cil-7, klp-6, crh-1 dependent

LTAM formation

LTAM transfer

LTAM transfer through EVs in *C. elegans*