Harnessing Microbial Tools: *Escherichia coli* as a Vehicle for

Neuropeptide Functional Analysis in *Caenorhabditis elegans*

Elizabeth M. DiLoreto[1], Shruti Shastry[1], Emily J. Leptich[2], Douglas K. Reilly[1,3], Rachel N.

Arey[2], Jagan Srinivasan[1,4]*

[1] Department of Biology and Biotechnology, Worcester Polytechnic Institute, 100 Institute

Drive, Worcester, MA, USA, 01609

[2] Department of Molecular and Cellular Biology, Baylor College of Medicine, 6450 E Cullen

St, Houston, TX, USA 77030

[3] Current Position: Department of Biology, Tufts University, Medford, MA, USA

[4] Neuroscience Program, Worcester Polytechnic Institute, Worcester, MA, USA

* Corresponding author email: jsrinivasan@wpi.edu

<u>Running head (50 characters)</u>

Testing neuropeptide function by feeding *E. coli t*o *C. elegans*

<u>Keywords</u>

Caenorhabditis elegans, neuropeptides, behavioral rescue, neuropeptide receptor

Abstract

Animals respond to changes in their environment and internal states via neuromodulation.

Neuropeptides modulate neural circuits with flexibility because one gene can produce

either multiple copies of the same neuropeptide or different neuropeptides. However, with

this architectural complexity, the function of discrete and active neuropeptides is muddled.

Here, we design a genetic tool that facilitates functional analysis of individual peptides. We

engineered *Escherichia coli* bacteria to express active peptides, fed loss-of-function

Caenorhabditis elegans, and rescued the activity of genes with varying lengths and

functions: *pdf-1, flp-3, ins-6*, and *ins-22*. Some peptides were functionally redundant, while

others exhibit unique and previously uncharacterized functions. The mechanism of

peptide delivery is reminiscent of mRNA uptake observed in RNA interference, suggesting

convergent mechanisms of gene regulation in organisms. We postulate our rescue-by-

feeding approach can elucidate the functional landscape of neuropeptides, identifying the

circuits and complex peptidergic pathways that regulate different behavioral and

physiological processes.

Article summary

Studying individual neuropeptides opens new avenues for exploring neuromodulation at

a finer resolution. The researchers developed a method to create DNA vectors that

encode an endogenous peptide sequence with enzyme-binding sites in *Caenorhabditis*

elegans. The researchers transformed these vectors into bacteria and fed them to *C.*

elegans, which restored wild-type behavior in neuropeptide loss-of-function mutants. The

researchers also discovered that neuropeptides from the same gene perform distinct

functions, opening a new research area.

Graphical Abstract

Introduction

The modulation of neural circuits is essential for life, as appropriate responses to
environmental stimuli depend on precise neural tuning. Neuropeptides, which are
relatively short amino acid chains, play a crucial role in this process by regulating neural
circuits while also functioning as neurotransmitters or neurohormones [1, 2]. They are
widely used across the animal kingdom, even in organisms that possess only secretory
cells without neurons [3]. Neuropeptides can also have conserved structure across
species while serving a variety of functions. Oxytocin-like and vasopressin-like peptides

are neurohormones that regulate social attachment, lactation, and blood pressure by

contracting muscles in mammals, dating back 600-700 million years [4-9]. However, in the

Echinoderm sea star, *Asterias rubens*, vasopressin-like and oxytocin-like neuropeptide

ortholog asterotocin serves instead to in relax muscles in the cardiac stomach during

fictive feeding [9]. The *Caenorhabditis elegans* vasopressin ortholog, nematocin, interacts

with serotonin and dopamine signaling to modulate gustatory associative memory and

male mating behaviors [4, 10].

Neuropeptides act in conjunction with neurotransmitters, typically binding to G-

protein coupled receptors, where they modulate synaptic activity more slowly and over a

longer duration than neurotransmitters alone [2, 11]. Multiple modulators allow neurons to

serve unique functions within discrete neural circuits [12]. Beyond the nervous system,

neuropeptides also regulate immune and endocrine functions [13, 14]. These small

proteins, typically less than 50 amino acids long, modulate neurotransmitters activity

intracellularly and act as neurohormones extracellularly [1, 2, 11].

Despite their biological significance, neuropeptides are largely inaccessible for

study due to their complexity. In humans, some studies report 90 neuropeptide precursor

genes while others have reported 131, yet all studies agree that there are likely more

neuropeptides in the 900 other peptide genes[15-18]. Post-transcriptional modifications

can give rise to an even greater number of functional neuropeptides numbering into the

1000s [15-19]. This complexity is even seen in a "simpler" model organism, the round

worm *Caenorhabditis elegans*. *C. elegans* are a microscopic nematode that displays

robust behaviors driven by just over 300 neurons [20, 21]. The *C. elegans* genome

encodes three classes of neuropeptides: FMRFamide-like peptides (FLP), insulin-like

peptides (INS), and non-FLP/insulin neuropeptide-like peptides (NLP) [22-24], encoding

over 300 individual neuropeptides through 160 identified genes that modulate the

functional connectome [1, 19, 25, 26]. The complexity of the neuropeptide genome,

combined with extra-synaptic neuropeptide signaling, makes elucidating the role of

individual peptides difficult, as canonical studies often rely on null mutations and

transgenic rescues [27-30]. A major limitation to neuropeptide research is the lack of

technology capable of precisely dissecting the function of individual peptides in a high-
throughput manner. As such, these studies are often incomplete, as full gene rescue
restores complete preproproteins and makes discrimination of discrete peptide function
impossible [1, 31]. Here, we present a strategy that rescues neuropeptides synthesized
endogenously within the worm genome via engineered bacteria expressing individual
peptides.

Development of Rescue-by-Feeding Paradigm

Current methods of genetic rescue in *Caenorhabditis elegans* are not ideal for
understanding the function of individual peptides; whether by cost inhibition or equipment
limitations [32, 33], or due to whole gene rescue not being ideal for studying discrete
peptides [34-37]. Traditional transgenic worm strain generation [38] often does not allow
for single neuropeptide resolution since a precursor gene can make multiple active
peptides, is cumbersome for generating mutants deficient in each neuropeptide, and
requires expertise in microinjections [33]. Previous approaches to study individual
endogenous neuropeptide function involved using synthetic peptides applied by soaking
the nervous system of the worm [39] or injecting the peptide into the worm [40]. The use
of synthetic peptides can be costly as pure peptide must by synthesized, often outsourced,
for every neuropeptide experiment. Interestingly, feeding of peptides via *E. coli* has proven
successful in manipulating *C. elegans* biological function. Previous researchers found that
feeding the scorpion venom protein, mBmKTX, expressed in *E. coli* to *C. elegans*
modulated lifespan and egg laying behaviors [41]. However, this type of *E. coli* feeding of
peptides has not been accomplished with endogenous neuropeptides.

Here we report an approach that allows us to manipulate neuropeptide activity by
feeding, enabling the delivery of individual neuropeptides to large populations of animals
simultaneously. Our gain-of-function approach of feeding bacteria containing the
neuropeptide macromolecule provides ease of application and cost saving measures to
deliver endogenous peptide to *C. elegans* [41]. Once the neuropeptide vector is
assembled and transformed into *E. coli*, delivery of the peptide is simply requires feeding

the worms. This method allows for temporal control of peptide delivery, animals can be

fed at any life stage, and the number of animals treated is readily flexible.

Neuropeptide rescue-by feeding, outlined here, expands on RNA interference

(RNAi) feeding paradigms, which have been successfully used to test gene function [42,

43], wherein a plasmid encoding the RNA of interest is driven by isopropyl-β-D-

thiogalactoside (IPTG) -induction. Wherein RNAi employs paired T7 promoters facing one

another to produce double-stranded RNA, our protocol uses one T7 promoter to generate

mRNA encoding the peptide of interest. The use of Gateway Cloning to develop

expression vectors allows for the development of high-throughput experiments targeting

individual peptides, or combinations thereof [44, 45]. RNA produced by bacteria in the gut

microbiota can be transported across the intestinal epithelium [46, 47] and our vector for

neuropeptide delivery is modeled after RNA interference (RNAi) feeding [34, 47-49].

Previous research delivering exogenous scorpion venom peptide expressed the peptide

information was expressed in a pDest-527 vector transformed into *E. coli* designed to

produce peptide, Rosetta BL21 DE3 derivative [41]. We have selected this pDest-527

vector for most of our studies. Additionally, this technique is readily accessible compared

to traditional transgenic rescue approaches.

The paradigm rescues individual, processed neuropeptides, leveraging the genetic

amenability of the *C. elegans* food source, *Escherichia coli*, to circumvent the need for

transgenic development and enable high-throughput rescue and elucidation of individual

neuropeptide function [50]. We demonstrate the application of this paradigm by rescuing

behaviors driven by neuropeptides synthesized from *pdf-1*, *ins-6*, and *ins-22*, and expand

upon the previously established behaviors of *flp-3* [49].

Materials and Methods

C. elegans strains

C. elegans strains were maintained on nematode-growth media (NGM: 51 mM NaCl, 10

mM peptone, 51 mM agar, 1 mM $CaCl_2$, 1 mM $MgSO_4$, 25 mM KPO_4 (pH 6.0), 13 μM

Cholesterol) plates seeded with *E. coli* OP50 at 15 – 20°C, according to standard

procedures [51]. Strains used are listed in **Table S1**. For *pdf-1* (UR954) the control strain

was *him-5* (CB4088), for *flp-3* (JSR99) the control strain was *him-8* (CB1489), and for *ins-*

6 (IV302) and *ins-22* (RB2594), the control strain was wildtype (N2).

JSR188 was generated by mating UR954 and UR930 animals. The cross was

monitored using validated primers from Wormbase.org; *pdf-1(tm1996)* external left

(CCGTGGAGGTACCAGGTTAA),   *pdf-1(tm1996)*   external   right

(TCAAGGTCTCGCCTCTAGGA),   *pdfr-1(ok3425)*   external   left

(CGTGGAATCATCGCTACCTT),   and   *pdfr-1(ok3425)*   external   right

(TTTATGCAGGCTTATTGCCC). The final generated strain was confirmed by sequencing

using the primers *pdf-1(tm1996)* internal left (CCATTCCGATGAGTCCGTTG) and *pdfr-*

1(ok3425) internal left (TTTACTCCTTGACGGGAACG).

<u>Neuropeptide plasmid design and feeding</u>

<u>*Peptide plasmid design* and *generation*</u>

DNA sequences encoding individual peptides were identified via <u>www.wormbase.org</u>.

Sequences were flanked with the endogenous cleavage sites for the EGL-3 processing

enzyme, which cleaves dibasic resides. Sequences encoding MRFGKR and KRK-STOP

codons were therefore placed prior to, and following the peptide codon sequences,

respectively. Finally, Gateway Cloning sites attB1 and attB2 sites were attached to the

ends   of   the   sequences.   These   final   sequences   (comprised   of

attB1::MRFGKR::peptide::KRK-STOP::attB2)   were   ordered   from   Integrated   DNA

Technologies (IDT) using their DNA Oligo and Ultramer DNA Oligo services, depending

on the size of the oligo ordered. Both forward and reverse sequences were ordered (**Table**

S2).

Lyophilized oligos were prepared following IDT Annealing Oligonucleotides

Protocol   (<u>https://www.idtdna.com/pages/education/decoded/article/annealing-</u>

<u>oligonucleotides</u>). In short, they were resuspended in Duplex Buffer (100 mM Potassium

Acetate; 30 mM HEPES, pH 7.5; available from IDT), preheated to 94 °C to a final

concentration of 40 μM. Complimentary oligo sequences were then mixed in equimolar

ratios, and placed in a thermocycler at 94 °C for 2 minutes, prior to a stepwise cooling to

room temperature.

Annealed oligos were used to perform a BP reaction with pDONR p1-2 donor

vector to generate pENTRY clones (Gateway Cloning, ThermoFisher). Entry clones were

then recombined with pDEST-527 (a gift from Dominic Esposito (Addgene plasmid #

11518)) in LR reactions generating expression clones. The scramble control was

generated in an identical manner, with the sequence between the cleavage sites being

amplified from pL4440 (provided by Victor Ambros, University of Massachusetts Medical

School, MA) (**Table S2**). Purified plasmids were stored at -20 °C or -80 °C for long term

storage.

For the *ins-22* experiments, the DNA coding sequence for the peptide was

identified as described above, without the Gateway Cloning sites. These sequences were

codon-optimized and cloned in pET-21a(+) cloning vector via XhoI/XhoI strategy by

GenScript . The SCRAMBLE control sequence and plasmid were generated using the

same cloning strategy by GenScript. Plasmids arrived lyophilized and were re-suspended

in nuclease-free H_2O to a concentration of 100 ng/μL and stored at -20 °C.

The plasmid maps displayed in **Figure S2** were rendered by SnapGene® software

(from Dotmatics; available at snapgene.com).

Peptide feeding bacterial preparation

The expression clone for both the peptide of interest and the control was transformed into

competent DH5α cells (NEB® [New England Biolabs] 5-alpha Competent *E. coli* (High

Efficiency) Cat# C2987I). Peptide-expressing cultures on LB agar plates (10 g/L NaCl, 10

g/L Tryptone, 5 g/L Yeast Extract, 5 g/L Agar) containing 100 μg/mL ampicillin (AMP), were

stored at 4 °C for up to 2 months. From this plate, single colonies were selected for growth

in 5 mL of LB media containing ampicillin at 37 °C for 16 hours. The optical density of the

grown cultures (OD_{600}) was adjusted to 1.0. 75 μL of 1.0 OD_{600} peptide-expressing culture

was plated onto 60 mm NGM agar plates containing 100 μg/mL AMP and 1 mM isopropyl-

β-D-thiogalactoside (IPTG) at room temperature for at least 8 hours prior to use, for no
longer than 1 week.

Competent iOP50 (*E. coli*, rnc14::(delta)Tn10, lacz(gamma)A::T7pol camFRT)
obtained from *Caenorhabditis* Genetics Center was created using previously described
methods [52]. Briefly, iOP50 stocks were streaked out onto plates containing 50 µg/mL
tetracycline and LB and grown at 37 °C overnight. Then, single colonies of iOP50 were
isolated and used to inoculate 2.0 mL LB containing 50 µg/mL tetracycline and placed in
a 37 °C shaker overnight. 0.5 mL of each culture was used to inoculate 3.0 mL of LB
without antibiotics and grown for 2 hours in a 37 °C shaker. Each culture was then
aliquoted in 0.75 mL increments into four 1.5 mL tubes and cooled for 10 minutes on ice.
Next, the cells were harvested by centrifugation at 6,000 rpm for 5 minutes at 4 °C. The
resulting supernatant was discarded, and cells were placed back on ice and re-suspended
in 1.0 mL 100 mM ice-cold $CaCl_2$ solution. Cells were kept on ice for 20 minutes and then
harvested by centrifugation as in the previous step. After discarding the supernatant, cells
were re-suspended in 150 µL of ice-cold $CaCl_2$ solution and placed on ice to be
immediately used for transformation.

Expression clones were transformed into competent iOP50 cultures using the New
England Biolabs protocol (C2987H/C2987I). Single colonies of transformed cells were
isolated and cultured in 3.0 mL of LB containing 50 µg/mL tetracycline (TET) and 17 µg/mL
chloramphenicol (CAM) overnight in a 37 °C shaker. Cultures were frozen down as
glycerol stocks and stored at -80 °C. Successful transformation was verified by isolating
plasmids from cultures using a Zyppy Plasmid Miniprep Kit (Zymo Research #D4019) and
sending samples for whole-plasmid sequencing.

For plating the bacteria containing *pdf-1* and *flp-3*, LB containing 50 µg/mL AMP,
50 µg/mL TET, and 17 µg/mL CAM was inoculated with iOP50 expressing either the
peptide of interest or the control peptide and cultured for 16-20 hours in a 37 °C shaker.
75 µL of peptide was plated onto 60 mm NGM plates containing 50 µg/mL AMP, 50 µg/mL
TET, and 17 µg/mL CAM, and 1 mM IPTG. For all peptides, seeded plates were left to dry

at least 8 hours at room temperature before plating worms and were used no longer than
1 week after plating.

For *ins-22,* LB containing 50 µg/mL tetracycline and 50 µg/mL carbenicillin was
inoculated with iOP50 expressing either the peptide of interest or the control peptide and
cultured for 18-20 hours in a 37 °C shaker. 100 mm NGM plates containing 50 µg/mL
tetracycline, 50 µg/mL carbenicillin, and 1 mM IPTG were plated with 1.0 mL of
corresponding culture. Seeded plates were left to dry at least 24 hours at room
temperature and never kept longer than 72 hours before use. Approximately one hour
before transferring worms to peptide or scramble control plates, 200 µL of 0.1 M IPTG
was added to each plate and left to dry.

Peptide Feeding

All animals were maintained on bacterial lawns of OP50 *E. coli*, at 20 °C, on NGM agar
plates until the start of experiments. Mutant or control animals were transferred onto lawns
of DH5α or iOP50 *E. coli*. Animals were reared on the peptide-expressing lawns for at
least 48 hours at 20 °C before assaying for rescue of mutant phenotype at the appropriate
developmental stage. See each section of the behavioral assay methods for the exact
peptide feeding parameters.

<u>Behavioral Assays</u>

Excursion Assay (pdf-1)

The mate searching behavior of *pdf-1* mutants was quantified in a food leaving assay. *him-*
5 animals were used as wild-type control to ensure the presence of males. *him-5* and *pdf-*
1 animals were fed OP50, scramble peptide, PDF-1A, PDF-1B, or a 1:1 mixture of PDF-
1A and PDF-1B cultures. Four to six larval L4 hermaphrodites were passed onto peptide
containing plates. These worms were grown at 20 °C for about 4 days until the male
progeny of the initial L4 worms were young adults. The day prior to the assay, young adult
male *pdf-1* or *him-5* worms were singled onto 60 mm plates containing lawns of either
OP50 or appropriate peptide cultures.

To determine the mate searching effects of *pdf-1*, we performed a food-leaving

assay as described previously [53-55], with modifications. In this assay, individuals were

placed on a small food spot, and track patterns were scored at the indicated times. Assay

plates were prepared one day prior to assaying on 100 mm plates with 10 mL of Leaving

Assay media (25 mM KPO_4 (pH 6.0), 1 mM $MgSO_4$, 1 mM $CaCl_2$, 50 mM NaCl, 2.5 g/L

Peptone, 17 g/L Agar). On center of plate, 7 µL of OP50 was added. In assays using iOP50

assay plates, 7 µL of iOP50 containing the appropriate peptide (ex. SCRAMBLE iOP50

assay plates made for animals fed SCRAMBLE iOP50) was added. Plates were lightly

covered and stored at room temperature overnight (~20^0C, < 40% humidity).

On the day of the assay, a single male was plated on the assay plate and placed in

a dark, 20°C incubator. At 2, 6, and 24 hours after the worms are plated, plates were

scored for male worm tracks. Scored were separated into binned ranges [53]. "Never left

food" indicates the absence of tracks outside the food spot. "Minor excursion" indicates

that tracks were observed not beyond 10 mm from the food. "Major excursion" indicates

the presence of tracks past the 10 mm boundary. We quantified the food leaving behavior

at three different time points (2, 6, and 24 hours) [54].

We additionally quantified the mate searching defect of *pdf-1* as a Probability of

Leaving per hour (P_L/hr) [55]. In this method, we reduce the analysis of the leaving

behavior to a single value, by scoring the worms leaving the food lawn as Leavers

(traveling beyond 35 mm from the food source) or Non-Leavers (did not travel further

than 35 mm from center of food). Worm in the > 35 mm from the center of food bin were

scored as "Leavers" [55]. The probability of leaving per hour (Probability of Leaving (P_L))

was calculated using an R script developed in [54], first cited in [55], with assistance by

(Personal Communications to Barrios, 2020). P_L was calculated by the "hazard obtained

by fitting an exponential parametric survival model to the censored data using maximum

likelihood" [55].

Avoidance Assay (flp-3)

Avoidance drop assays were performed as described previously [49, 56]. Fifty to sixty L4

male worms were segregated by sex and stored at 20 °C for at least 5 hours to overnight

to be assayed as young adults. One to four hours prior to the assay, the lids of unseeded

plates were tilted to allow any excess moisture to evaporate off the plates. At the time of

the assay, 10 or more animals were transferred onto each of the dried, unseeded NGM

plates. A drop of either water or 1 µM ascr#8 (a nonvolatile *C. elegans* mating odor) was

placed on the tail of forward moving animals, and their response was scored as either an

avoidance response, or no response. The avoidance index was calculated as:

Avoidance Index $= \frac{(\# \, of \, worms \, avoiding \, drop)}{total \, \# \, of \, worms \, tested}$

Chemotaxis Assay (ins-6)

A salt chemotaxis assay was performed as previously described in [57]·[58], to test the

functionality of *ins-6* after rescue-by-feeding. Wild-type (N2) and *ins-6* worms were fed

either scramble or INS-6 peptide passing 4-6 L4 larval onto an NGM plate containing 100

µg/µL AMP and 1 mM IPTG with 75 µL of peptide OD_{600} = 1.0. These worms were grown

at 20 °C for about 4 days until the progeny of the initial L4 worms were young adults.

The day prior to testing, a thin, 10 mL layer of agar was added to 100 mm petri

dishes to generate a 100 mm Chemotaxis Plates (5 mM KPO_4 (pH 6.0), 1 µM $MgSO_4$, 1

µM $CaCl_2$, 20 g/L agar, and 8 g/L Difco Nutrient Broth). To prepare the "high salt" plates,

750 mM NaCl was added prior to plate pouring. The high salt plate were stored at 4 °C for

up to one month, while the Chemotaxis Plates were made one day prior to testing. To

create the high and low salt plugs, the back end of a Pasteur pipette was used to punch a

5 mm plug out of each plate. These 2 plugs were placed on opposite edges of the plate.

A 10 mm radius was be drawn around the location of the plugs. Plates were stored, lightly

covered, overnight at room temperature (~20 °C, < 40% humidity).

On the day of the assay, young adult worms, either control worms fed OP50 *E. coli*

or peptide-fed worms, were washed off peptide plates with M9. Worms were allowed to

settle by gravity for 4 minutes before removing the supernatant, washing the worms.

Worms were then washed with Chemotaxis Buffer (5 mM KPO_4 (pH 6.0), 1 mM $MgSO_4$, 1

mM $CaCl_2$) three times.

To prepare the Chemotaxis plates for the assay, high and low salt plugs were

removed with forceps, and the plates spotted with 1 µL of 0.5 M sodium azide (NaN_3).

Approximately 30 µL of worms in Chemotaxis Buffer were spotted onto the edge of the

agar, between the location of the high and low salt gradient. Worms were left to chemotax

for 1 hour before scoring the number of worms within the 10 mm radii of high and low salt

areas using the below choice index:

Choice Index $= \frac{(\text{\# of worms high salt} \quad \text{\# of worms low salt})}{\text{total \# of worms on both spots}}$

Olfactory Chemotaxis Assay (ins-22)

Chemotaxis assays were performed using worms that were transferred at the L4 stage to

plates seeded with iOP50 containing a plasmid expressing either a SCRAMBLE control

sequence or the peptide of interest sequence. After 48 hours of exposure, we tested the

naïve chemosensory preference of Day 2 Adults using a protocol based on previously

published assays [56]. Briefly, assays were performed on unseeded 100mm NGMs. On

the back of each plate, two marks were made on opposite sides of the plate, approximately

5mm from the edge. 1 µL of sodium azide (Thermo Fisher) was placed on both spots and

allowed to dry before adding 1 µL of 0.1% or 10% butanone (Sigma Aldrich) diluted in

ethanol on one mark and ethanol on the other. Using M9 buffer, worms were washed off

their plates and subsequently washed three times to eliminate any leftover bacteria that

could impact baseline behavior. Then, worms were placed near the bottom center of the

plate, equidistant between the two marks, and allowed to chemotax for an hour.

Chemotaxis indices were calculated as follows:

Chemotaxis Index $= \frac{(\text{\# of worms butanone} - \text{\# of worms ethanol})}{\text{total \# of worms}}$

Statistical Analysis

Power analysis

Prior to the study, a post-hoc power analysis (ClinCalc LLC., Chicago, IL, USA) was

performed using preliminary data from OP50 *E. coli* fed worms to determine the number

of samples required to establish a difference between the wildtype controls and the

neuropeptide loss of function mutants. This was performed using a 0.05 alpha rate.

For the excursion assay comparing *pdf-1 lof* animals in a *him-5* background

compared to *him-5* males, a dichotomous power analysis was used to compare non-

leavers (< 35 mm) to leavers (35 mm <). n = 39 (where n = 1 is one male on one assay

plate) was required for 100% powered experiment and 13 for power > 80%. A sample size

of n = 50 samples per genotype and feeding condition was selected.

For avoidance behavior towards ascr#8 comparing wildtype control *him-8* animals

to *flp-3 lof* males in a *him-8* background, n = 3 samples (n = 1 is one plate of ten worms)

was appropriate to have a 100% powered test, using a continuous power test. A sample

size of N = 10 was selected. Points plotted on graphs represent n = 1.

For the salt chemotaxis assay with *ins-6 lof* animals, n = 4 samples (n = 1 is one

plate of 100-200 worms) were required for power > 80% and 13 for 100% power. A sample

size of n = 10 was selected. Points plotted on graphs represent n = 1.

For chemotaxis behavior of *ins-22* animals, the behavior of SCRAMBLE fed iOP50

animals towards 10% butanone was used to determine that 20 samples (n = 1 is one plate

of 100-200 worms) were required for 97.5% power and 11 samples were required for

power > 80%. A sample size of n > 15 was selected. Points plotted on graphs represent n

= 1.

Reproducibility

In all experiments, the investigators were blinded to genotype. Young adult animals were

tested in all behavioral assays. For the behavioral tests of *flp-3* and *ins-6*, the assay was

repeated over at least 3 days, with no more than 3 replicates in a day, until at least 10

plates have been tested. For *ins-22*, the assays included testing 5 plates per day, for a total

of three biological replicates (n = 15). For *pdf-1, t*he assay was performed across at least

two days per condition, with at least n = 50, wherein each assay plate with one male is

equal to n = 1. When possible, the results of an individual n are displayed on the graphs.

Statistical Comparison

Statistical analysis was performed in GraphPad Prism (version 10.4.1). Prior to any

statistical comparison, the normality and frequency distribution was assessed for each of

the groups. If these tests showed normal distributions, a Student's unpaired two-tailed t-

test followed by Bonferroni's correction was applied; this was used for *ins-6* and *ins-22*

results. If the data was non-parametric, as was the case with most of the *flp-3* data, a

Mann-Whitney test was performed followed by Bonferroni's correction. For the *pdf-1* tests

where animals were fed different types of peptides, a One-way ANOVA with Dunnett's

post-hoc test was used to compare within genotype results. For all graphs, the average

was plotted with the standard error of the mean (SEM).

Results and Discussion

<u>Bacterial Delivery of Neuropeptide Vectors Rescues Behavior in Loss of Function Mutants</u>

To demonstrate the efficacy of the neuropeptide delivery by bacterial feeding, we tested

the behavior of loss of function (*lof*) animals from each of the three neuropeptide classes

in *C. elegans*. Each of these behavioral assays was paired with the appropriate wildtype

control. For male animal behavior, *him-5* or *him-8* lines were used to produce a higher

incidence of males (him) than the wildtype population of 0.1% males [59, 60]. The choice

of which *him* mutant to use depended on the neuropeptide being tested.

Male Excursion Behavior (pdf-1)

Wild-type males display a characteristic exploratory behavior when left on a lawn of food,

as well-fed males leave food in search of mates [54, 55]. The pigment dispersing factor

pdf-1 (also known as *nlp-74*) neuropeptide plays a significant role in male mate-searching

behavior, balancing the neural circuits controlling two predominant male interests, finding

food and finding mates [54, 61]. The *pdf-1* precursor encodes two neuropeptides: PDF-

1A (SNAELINGLIGMDLGKLSAVG-NH$_2$) and PDF-1B (SNAELINGLLSMNLNKLSGAG-

NH$_2$) [62, 63]. *pdf-1 lof* males did not leave food as readily as wild-type worms, suggesting

that these worms do not display exploratory behavior, as previously described (**Figure**

S1A, B) [54]. When fed either DH5α *E. coli* containing individual PDF-1 peptide (or a 1:1

combination of both), *pdf-1 lof* males had a higher P$_L$ compared to SCRAMBLE fed *pdf-1*

lof males (**Figure 1A, S1C**). However, PDF-1B and a 1:1 ratio of both peptides resulted in

a significantly different P$_L$ from *pdf-1* males fed PDF-1A alone. While the P$_L$ of peptide-fed

males were significantly higher than *pdf-1 lof* males fed scramble, they were still

significantly lower than wild-type males fed scramble peptide (**Figure 1A**).

Pheromone Avoidance (flp-3)

C. elegans produce and release pheromones as a means of chemical communication to

signal a variety of features to other animals, such as food or mate presence [64]. One

such pheromone ascaroside #8 (ascr#8) [65]. We have previously worked to characterize

the behavior of animals towards this hermaphrodite produced pheromone and have found

that wildtype hermaphrodites avoid ascr#8 while males are attracted to it [49]. We have

further identified that males deficient in the neuropeptide gene *flp-3* lose their attraction

towards ascr#8 and start to avoid the cue (**Figure S1D**) [49]. The *flp-3* neuropeptide

precursor creates 10 different neuropeptides, yet only 2 are involved in the male behavior

towards ascr#8 [49]. Both the second and the ninth peptide (FLP-3-2 and FLP-3-9)

produced by *flp-3* are involved with suppressing the basal avoidance behavior seen in *flp-*

3 lof males, yet only FLP-3-9 is necessary for restoring the attraction towards ascr#8

[49{Salama, 2023 #963]}. When we fed male *flp-3 lof* animals DH5α *E. coli* expressing

FLP-3-9 (NPENDTPFGTMRFG-NH$_2$), we saw a significant suppression of avoidance

behavior towards ascr#8 (**Figure 1B**).

Salt Chemotaxis (ins-6)

Insulin and insulin-like peptides serve signaling functions in *Drosophila* and *C. elegans*

homologous to the human insulin-like growth factor (IGF), which regulates FOXO activity

[66]. In *C. elegans, ins-6* encodes only one processed INS-6 peptide

(VPAPGETRACGRKLISLVMAVCGDLCNPQEGKDIATECCGNQCSDDYIRSACCP-NH$_2$)

[67, 68], though the gene was originally postulated to encode two putative proteins [1, 23].

The formation of a single longer peptide is common in the insulin-like class of peptides

[38]. *ins-6* functions in dauer formation [38, 67] and sensory modulation of large

fluctuations in salt concentration, with loss of *ins-6* causing dysfunction of NaCl attraction

[69]. While wildtype hermaphrodite worms were attracted to high concentrations of salt

(750 mM), there was a significant decrease in attraction in *ins-6* mutant animals (**Figure**

S1E) [69]. Wildtype and *ins-6 lof* animals fed SCRAMBLE peptide also had significantly

different levels of salt chemotaxis (**Figure 1C**). Feeding of DH5α *E. coli* expressing INS-6

peptide to *ins-6 lof* animals resulted in a complete restoration of attraction to high salt

concentration (**Figure 1C**).

Different *E. coli* food sources lead to Neuropeptide Behavior Rescue

While the previous experiments in this study have used DH5α *E. coli* expressing peptides

to shape neuropeptide related behaviors, there are cases when using different *E. coli*

strains may be desirable. Given the differences in nutrient composition of the different *E.*

coli strains and worms preferring more nutritious bacteria [70], expressing peptides in

HB101 or HB115 strains offers viable alternatives. To most closely compare to other

laboratory studies, the ability to use the widely used uracil deficient OP50 *E. coli* strain as

the neuropeptide delivery system is desirable [51]. Recently an IPTG inducible strain of

OP50 has been created, iOP50, which can be cultured to create chemically competent

cells [52]. All constructs presented in this section were transformed into iOP50 before

being fed to the *C. elegans*.

When testing male *pdf-1* associated leaving behavior, we first feed the animals on

iOP50 peptide plates before transferring them to an OP50 assay plate that contains no

peptide. Under these conditions, male *pdf-1 lof* animals fed PDF-1 peptides from iOP50

left food at a higher rate than *pdf-1 lof* animals fed a SCRAMBLE peptide from iOP50

(**Figure 2A**). However, the extent of food leaving by males after being fed iOP50 with

peptide was lower than observed when animals were fed DH5α *E. coli* (**Figure 1A**). This

may be because animals are tested over the course of 24 hours and the level of peptide

in their bodies may decrease over time. To address this, we tested animals fed iOP50 with

peptide and then transferred them to iOP50 assay plates seeded with the same peptide

they were previously fed (**Figure 2B**). By doing this, the trend of *pdf-1 lof* animals fed PDF-

1 leaving food at a higher rate continued, and the overall rates of leaving food also

increased (**Figure 2B**).

flp-3 lof males exposed to ascr#8 after being fed FLP-3-9 in iOP50 lacked

avoidance to the cue while males fed the SCRAMBLE peptide continued to avoid it

(**Figure 2C**). These results matched the observed behavior of animals fed FLP-3-9 in

DH5α *E. coli* (**Figure 1B**). For *flp-3*, males are transferred directly from iOP50 peptide

plate onto an unseeded NGM assay plate for no more than 30 minutes during the testing.

Due to this, it was not necessary to reapply the iOP50 peptide during testing.

Additionally, we tested a more streamlined construction of the peptide. To

circumvent the use of Gateway Cloning with the pDest-527 vector (**Figure S2A**), the

peptide endogenous peptide sequence flanked by the peptide cut sites was ordered as a

complete plasmid in a pET-21 vector (**Figure S2B**). This vector was used to test the

behavior of INS-22

(MHTTTILICFFIFLVQVSTMDAHTDKYVRTLCGKTAIRNIANLCPPKPEMKGICSTGEYPSITE

YCSM-NH_2). Unlike INS-6, INS-22 antagonizes the DAF-2 neuropeptide receptor [71, 72].

We discovered that animals lacking *ins-22* exhibit increased naive chemotaxis towards a

neutral concentration of 10% butanone compared to wildtype animals (**Figure S2C**). This

behavior persists in animals fed the SCRAMBLE peptide in iOP50 *E. coli* (**Figure 2D**).

When fed the INS-22 peptide, the *ins-22 lof* animals displayed naive chemotaxis similar to

wild-type animals, indicating that peptide feeding rescued normal naive chemotaxis

towards 10% butanone (**Figure 2D**).

Neuropeptide Rescue by Feeding Requires the Cognate Neuropeptide Receptor

To ensure that the observed behavior is resulting from the neuropeptide being fed to the

animal, activating the neuropeptide receptor, we tested the behavior of animals deficient

in the neuropeptide receptor. Pairing neuropeptides ligands to their cognate receptors is

an ongoing effort in peptidomic research. Recent efforts have uncovered many of the

individual neuropeptide pairings and the range over which these connections functions

[26, 73, 74]. For the current study, we were interested in studying the function of

neuropeptides and receptors that primarily function in a 1:1 ratio. This would eliminate the

class of insulin-like peptides which bind to DAF-2 from this current study [23, 71].

PDF-1 peptides binds primarily to one neuropeptide receptor PDFR-1 [54, 75].

Though PDFR-1-1 also binds to peptides produced by *pdf-2* (also known as *nlp-37*), these

ligands are not involved in behavior of males leaving food to search for mates [54, 74].

PDFR-1 mutants do not leave food to search for mates (**Figure S3A,B**), even when fed

excess peptide (**Figure 3A, S3C**). The double mutant males of the PDFR-1 receptor and

pdf-1 neuropeptide, partially left food to search for mates when fed PDF-1A but not when

fed the other peptides (**Figure 3A**). This probability of leaving food of *pdf-1;pdfr-1* males

was not to the rate of *pdf-1* males leaving food when fed a SCRAMBLE peptide (**Figure**

3A). The absence of food leaving to search for mates, even when receptor mutants are

fed the neuropeptide, suggests that there are no off-target effects of the neuropeptide

impacting other receptors.

The *flp-3* neuropeptide gene makes 10 different peptides that bind to 4 different

receptors [49, 74]. Neuropeptide receptors DMSR-1-2 and DMSR-7-1 bind to many of the

flp class of neuropeptides including *flp-3*, while FRPR-16-1 binds *flp-3* and *nlp-23* peptides

and NPR-10-1 binds *flp-3* and *nlp-23* peptides [74]. We have previously identified that the

receptors FRPR-16 and NPR-10 are involved in the *flp-3* male behavior towards ascr#8

[49]. The FLP-3-9 neuropeptide binds activates the FRPR-16 receptor at lower

concentrations than the NPR-10 receptor [49], so we elected this as our neuropeptide

receptor candidate for FLP-3-9. We have previously demonstrated that without FRPR-16

males will avoid ascr#8 [49]. When we generated a double mutant of *flp-3;fprpr-16* we

observed avoidance of ascr#8 in animals fed OP50 *E. coli* without peptide (**Figure S3D**).

When fed FLP-3-9 peptide in DH5α *E. coli*, the avoidance behavior is sustained (**Figure**

3B). This data shows that while FLP-3-9 binds to multiple receptors, FRPR-16 loss of
function is sufficient to alter male behavior towards ascr#8.

Behavioral Impacts of Neuropeptide Overexpression Depend on the Peptide Identity

One question that arises with this feeding method is, how much neuropeptide makes its
way into the worms and what would happen if there were an overexpression of
neuropeptide? Quantifying the amount of neuropeptide produced endogenously is a
difficult open question in the peptidomics field. One indication of how much of a particular
neuropeptide is required is by looking at the neuropeptide precursor gene. Some
neuropeptides are encoded multiple times in the same gene, like *flp-6* encoding
KSAYMRFG-NH$_2$ six times [76]. One method used to detect the presence of
neuropeptides is liquid chromatography mass spectrometry (LC-MS) [19, 77-79]. While
this method is extremely precise for detecting known and novel neuropeptides, it lacks
the ability to quantify the amount of each neuropeptide present *in vivo* (personal
communication with Sven Van Bael and Lisabet Timmermann, KU Leuven). One way to
test the effects of what is likely an overexpression of neuropeptide is by feeding the
neuropeptide-containing DH5α bacteria to wildtype animals.

We tested the appropriate wildtype controls for each previously assessed behavior.
We observed an increase in the leaving behavior of *him-5* male worms fed PDF-1B and a
decrease when fed PDF-1A in DH5α *E. coli* (**Figure 4A, S4A**). This behavioral difference
disappears when both peptides are fed in combination (**Figure 4A**). These data suggest
that different PDF-1 peptides play varying roles in mating behavior. Next, we examined
the effects of this behavior using the iOP50 *E. coli* delivery. When males were fed an
excess of iOP50 peptide and subsequently placed on an iOP50 assay plate, their rates of
leaving food (**Figure 4B, S4B**) did not increase. Wildtype animals fed PDF-1 peptides
produced by iOP50 also did not show an increased leaving rate of food when tested on
an OP50-containing assay plate (**Figure S4C, D**). These data suggest that male excursion
rates are not impacted by an overexpression of PDF-1 peptides delivered by microbial
feeding.

When *him-8* male animals were fed FLP-3-9, their lack of ascr#8 avoidance was
not changed compared to animals fed SCRAMBLE (**Figure 4C**). Together these data
indicate that there are no obvious behavioral deficits across all neuropeptides being
delivered in excess. Wildtype males fed FLP-3-9 iOP50 *E. coli* continued their non-
avoidance of ascr#8 (**Figure 4D**).

We then tested different insulin ligands for their overexpression phenotypes. When
wildtype N2 animals was fed INS-6 in DH5α *E. coli*, there was no difference in the choice
index of high salt taxis (**Figure 4E**). These data suggest that INS-6 overexpression by
microbial feeding does not impact the behavior of animals towards high NaCl. There has
been evidence that overexpression of some insulin like peptides may impact other
behaviors like dauer formation [66].

When wildtype animals were fed an excess of INS-22 iOP50 *E. coli*, their behavior
towards 10% butanone was slightly but not significantly decreased (**Figure 4F**). Yet, when
exposed to a highly attractive concentration of 0.1% butanone, wildtype animals fed INS-
22 in iOP50 *E. coli* significantly reduced their attraction towards the cue (**Figure 4G**). While
differences in behavior towards varying concentrations of butanone have been previously
established [80, 81], the impact of INS-22 on these behaviors has not been implicated in
detail. Differences between the overexpression effects of the *ins* peptides may be due to
the different interactions with the DAF-2 receptor, INS-6 is a strong agonist and INS-22 is
an antagonist [71, 72].

<u>Conclusions</u>

We present a novel method of neuropeptide rescue that utilizes bacterial expression to
deliver individual peptides for behavioral rescue phenotypes. Our novel technology is
advantageous over transgenic studies, as it allows for functional characterizing individual
peptides.   This   tool   readily   allows   for   testing   newly   de-orphanized
neuropeptide/neuropeptide receptor pairings [74]. This genetic tool is built off the
principles of RNAi feeding techniques to supply worms with the peptide of interest through

their food source as previously shown for the scorpion venom peptide mBmKTX to alter

lifespan and egg-laying behavior in *C. elegans* [41].

Based on our results, we propose that the neuropeptide rescue-by-feeding strategy

delivers mRNA that is ready for translation by the *C. elegans* cellular machinery, rather

than supplying *C. elegans* with fully translated and processed peptides. The plasma

membrane of a cell is an intricate complex of multiple lipid and protein molecules. Small

molecules with moderate polarity diffuse through the cell membrane passively, but most

metabolites and short peptides require specialized membrane transporters for

translocation [82]. Given the large number of neuropeptides encoded in the genome of *C.*

elegans [1], having specialized transporters for peptide transport is not feasible [83]. The

most substantial evidence for this statement is that the processed INS-6 peptide is 54

amino acids in length: the *C. elegans* intestine expresses peptide transporters that only

uptake smaller, inactive di- and tri-amino acid peptide chains [83]. Thus, rescue of

chemotaxis behavior by INS-6 peptide feeding (**Figure 1C**) and INS-22 (**Figure 2D**)

suggests that the mechanism of rescue may be similar to double stranded RNA (dsRNA)

uptake, rather than peptidergic transport across the intestinal membrane [84, 85].

Furthermore, previous studies have shown that dsRNA exhibits transgenerational

inheritance [86], despite degradation rates. Our rescue of the exploratory behavior of *pdf-*

1 lof males even in the 24-hour timescale (**Figure 1A, 2B**) suggests that our feeding

paradigm exploits similar mechanisms, allowing peptide-encoding mRNAs to remain

present throughout the assay. We propose that if peptides were taken up, their

degradation rates would likely impede rescue efficiency at later timepoints, unlike what

we observe in our experiments, suggesting that the mechanism is similar to dsRNA

feeding, with mRNA uptake driving rescue rather than peptide uptake.

Understanding neuropeptide function is essential from both the perspective of

regulating neuronal (synaptic and non-synaptic) channels of communication and from a

broader view of general neuronal functions throughout the brain. Revealing how a specific

neuropeptide acts at both the cellular and subcellular receptor levels is a critical link in

comprehending the role of neuromodulation in circuits. An enhanced experimental
pipeline for investigating peptide function will facilitate progress toward understanding
how neural circuit activity within the network is modulated by neuropeptides in its various
states, resulting in flexible decision-making during behaviors.

Data Availability

Strains (**Table S1**) and plasmids (**Table S2**) are available upon request. The authors affirm
that all data necessary for confirming the conclusions of the article are present within the
article, figures, and tables. The raw data or a summary containing the average, n, standard
error measure, and associated statistical tests for all figures are available upon request.

Acknowledgments

We thank Prof. Frank Schroeder, Cornell University, for providing ascr#8 and Prof. Victor
Ambros for reagents. We want to thank Dr. Arantza Barrios for help in executing the
leaving assay analysis in R. We extend our thanks to Dr. Sreekanth H. Chalasani and Dr.
Douglas Portman for their insights and updates to the method for testing the phenotypes
related to *ins-6* and *pdf-1*, respectively. pDest-527 was a gift from Dominic Esposito
(Addgene plasmid # 11518; http://n2t.net/addgene:11518 ; RRID:Addgene_11518). We
thank the *Caenorhabditis* Genetics Center for supplying some strains; the CGC is funded
by NIH Office of Research Infrastructure Programs (P40 OD010440).

Funding

This work was funded by NIH R01DC016058 (JS).

Conflict of Interest

EMD, DKR, and JS would like to disclose the filing of Utility Patent US-20220380430-A1
from May 20, 2022, which covers details of the neuropeptide vector and feeding.

Figures

Figure 1: Behavioral of neuropeptide associated behavior in loss of function mutant

background

A) *pdf-1 lof* mutant males fed a SCRAMBLE peptide have a significantly lower probability

of leaving food when compared to wildtype control *him-5* males ($^{####}$p ≤ 0.0001, unpaired

t-test). When fed any of the *pdf-1* produced peptides in a DH5α *E. coli* vehicle, the

probability of leaving is significantly higher than the SCRAMBLE fed *pdf-1* males (****p ≤

0.0001, One-way ANOVA with Dunnett's post-hoc test).

B) When exposed to a water solvent control (ascr#8 -), both *him-8* and *flp-3* males act the same. When exposed to ascr#8 (ascr#8 +), wildtype *him-8* males do not avoid the cue while *flp-3 lof* males do. When fed FLP-3-9 peptide in a DH5α *E. coli* vehicle, the avoidance towards ascr#8 by *flp-3 lof* males is significantly decreased (****$p \leq 0.0001$, Mann-Whitney test with Bonferroni correction, new p-value ****$p \leq 0.00005$).

C) Wildtype N2 animals are more attracted to high 750 mM NaCl than *ins-6 lof* animals. When fed INS-6 in a DH5α *E. coli* vehicle, the attraction of *ins-6 lof* animals to NaCl is significantly increased (*$p \leq 0.05$, ***$p \leq 0.001$, unpaired t-test with Bonferroni correction, new p-value *$p \leq 0.025$, ***$p \leq 0.0005$).

Figure 2: Neuropeptide rescue by feeding can be accomplished in different *E. coli* vehicles

A) *him-5* males fed a SCRAMBLE peptide in iOP50 *E. coli* leave food at a higher rate than *pdf-1* males (####p ≤ 0.0001, unpaired t-test). *pdf-1 m*ales fed PDF-1 peptides in iOP50 and then plated on an assay plate containing OP50 *E. coli* without peptide, do leave food at a higher rate than *pdf-1* SCRAMBLE iOP50 *E. coli* fed animals (****p ≤ 0.0001, One-way ANOVA with Dunnett's post-hoc test).

B) *him-5* males fed SCRAMBLE peptide in iOP50 *E. coli* and then placed on an assay plate seeded with SCRAMBLE peptide in iOP50 *E. coli* leave food at a higher rate than *pdf-1*

males ($^{####}p \leq 0.0001$, unpaired t-test). pdf-*1 m*ales fed PDF-1 peptides in iOP50 and then

plated on an assay plate containing iOP50 *E. coli* with the corresponding peptide, leave

food at a higher rate than *pdf-1* SCRAMBLE iOP50 *E. coli* fed animals and at a higher rate

than animals on assay plates without peptide (****$p \leq 0.0001$, One-way ANOVA with

Dunnett's post-hoc test).

C) When exposed to a water solvent control (ascr#8 -), both *him-8* and *flp-3* males act the

same. When exposed to ascr#8 (ascr#8 +), wildtype *him-8* males do not avoid the cue

while *flp-3 lof* males do. When fed FLP-3-9 peptide in iOP50 *E. coli*, the avoidance towards

ascr#8 by *flp-3 lof* males is significantly decreased (****$p \leq 0.0001$, Mann-Whitney test

with Bonferroni correction, new p-value ****$p \leq 0.00005$).

D) Animals deficient in *ins-22* have a significantly higher rate of chemotaxis towards 10%

butanone than *ins-22 lof* animals fed INS-22. The *ins-22 lof* animals fed INS-22 have a

chemotaxis index no different than wildtype animals ($^{ns}p \geq 0.05$, ***$p \leq 0.001$, unpaired t-

test wildtype SCRAMBLE to INS-22, Mann-Whitney test comparisons to *ins-22* fed

SCRAMBLE with Bonferroni correction (new p-value $^{ns}p \geq 0.025$, ****$p \leq 0.00005$).

Figure 3: Neuropeptide receptor required for neuropeptide feeding

A) *pdfr-1 lof* animals do not leave food more than 35mm, even if fed PDF-1 peptides in DH5α *E. coli*. Double mutants of *pdf-1;pdfr-1* in a *him-5* background also did not leave food at the rate of *pdf-1* animals fed SCRAMBLE, though *pdf-1;pdfr-1* animals fed PDF-1A DH5α *E. coli* do have a higher incidence of leaving food than SCRAMBLE fed animals ([ns]p ≥ 0.05, ****p ≤ 0.0001, One-way ANOVA within genotypes with Dunnett's post hoc test).

648   **B)** Double mutant *flp-3;frpr-16* males avoid ascr#8 to the same level as SCRAMBLE DH5α

649   *E. coli* fed animals ([ns]$p \geq 0.05$, Mann-Whitney test with Bonferroni correction, new p-value

650   [ns]$p \geq 0.025$).

Figure 4: Behaviors resulting from overexpression of neuropeptides depend on the neuropeptide

A) *him-5* males fed PDF-1A in DH5α *E. coli* had a significant decrease in their probability of leaving food rate compared to animals fed SCRAMBLE peptide. PDF-1B *him-5* animals had a significant increase in P_L/hr when compared to SCRAMBLE fed animals. When PDF-1A and -1B were fed to animals in equal combination, their probability of leaving food was no different from SCRAMBLE fed animals (****p $\leq$ 0.0001, One-way ANOVA with Dunnett's post-hoc test).

B) *him-5* males fed PDF-1 peptides in iOP50 *E. coli* and then tested on iOP50 assay plates containing a corresponding peptide, do not have excursions leaving food more than 35 mm at higher rates than SCRAMBLE fed males males (**p $\leq$ 0.01,****p $\leq$ 0.0001, One-way ANOVA with Dunnett's post-hoc test).

C) *him-8* males exposed to ascr#8 had no difference in their avoidance behavior whether they were fed SCRAMBLE of FLP-3-9 in DH5α *E. coli* (ns p $\geq$ 0.05, Mann-Whitney test).

D) *him-8* males fed SCRAMBLE or FLP-3-9 in iOP50 *E. coli* avoid ascr#8 at the same rate and behave the same towards the water solvent control as the previous studies (ns p $\geq$ 0.05, Mann-Whitney test).

 Supplemental Material

Figure S1: Neuropeptide gene deficient animals exhibit different behaviors than

they wildtype counterparts

A) *pdf-1* males fed OP50 without peptide have a significantly lower rate of leaving food

beyond 35 mm compared to wildtype *him-5* animals (****p $\leq$ 0.0001, unpaired t-test).

B) The location of males can be traced across time and binned as animals who never left

food (0 mm), those that had a minor excursion (10 mm >), and those with a major

excursion (10 mm <). This is then converted to a percentage and plotted across time.

These values contribute to the probability of leaving rate. *pdf-1* animals fed OP50 without

peptide have lower rates of major excursions compared to wildtype *him-5* animals.

C) SCRAMBLE DH5α *E. coli* fed *pdf-1 lof* males have a lower percentage of animals

making major excursions off of food than *him-5* animals.

D) Compared to wildtype *him-8* males, *flp-3 lof* males fed OP50 *E. coli* without peptide

avoid ascr#8 at a significantly higher rate (****p $\leq$ 0.0001, Mann-Whitney test).

E) Compared to wildtype animals, *ins-6* animals fed OP50 *E. coli* without peptide have a

lower choice index towards high 750 mm NaCl (****p $\leq$ 0.0001, unpaired t-test).

Figure S2: Plasmid maps of old Gateway cloning and new constructions

A) pDest-527 vector used in Gateway cloning. Created in SnapGene

B) pET-21a(+) vector used in Genscript XhoI/XhoI construction. Created in SnapGene

C) Chemotaxis values of wildtype (N2) and *ins-22 lof* animals towards 10% butanone. (***p ≤ 0.001, Mann-Whitney test).

Figure S3: Neuropeptide receptor _lof_ animals behavior without peptide feeding

A) Single mutant *pdfr-1* neuropeptide receptor males fed OP50 *E. coli* leave food at much

lower rates than *pdf-1* animals alone. *pdf-1;pdfr-1 lof* in a *him-5* background do leave food

greater than 35 mm at a higher rate than *pdfr-1 lof* males (****p ≤ 0.0001, unpaired t-test).

B) Excursion rates of *pdfr-1* single and double mutants fed OP50 *E. coli* do not readily

leave food or have a major excursion 10 mm <*.*

C) *pdf-1* neuropeptide receptor mutants fed PDF-1 peptides in DH5αa *E. coli* do not have

excursions off food at high rates like *him-5* males.

D) *flp-3;frpr-16* double mutants in a *him-8* background avoid ascr#8 at a higher rate than

the solvent control (****p ≤ 0.0001, Mann-Whitney test).

Figure S4: Overexpression of wildtype animals fed neuropeptide in DH5α or iOP50
E. coli

A) Most *him-5* males fed SCRAMBLE or PDF-1 peptides in DH5α *E. coli* made a major excursions traveling < 10 mm from food by 2 hours after plating.

B) *him-5* males do not remain on food at the rates of *pdf-1* animals fed PDF-1 peptides in iOP50 *E. coli* and tested on iOP50 assay plates containing peptides. *pdf-1* males fed PDF-1 peptides in iOP50 *E. coli* have excursions off food at higher rates than SCRAMBLE-fed animals.

C) *him-5* males fed PDF-1 peptides in iOP50 *E. coli* and then tested on OP50 assay plates not containing peptide, do not have excursions leaving food more than 35 mm at higher rates than SCRAMBLE fed males (*$p \leq 0.05$, **$p \leq 0.01$,****$p \leq 0.0001$, One-way ANOVA with Dunnett's post-hoc test).

716 **D)** *him-5* males do not remain on food at the rates of *pdf-1* animals fed PDF-1 peptides in

717 iOP50 *E. coli* and tested in OP50 assay plates not containing peptides.

719 **Table S1:** *C. elegans* **Strains Used in Current Study**

Strain Name	Genotype	Source Lab	Used in Paper
N2	Bristol Wildtype isolate	CGC	1C, S1E, 2D, S2C, 4E-G
CB1489	*him-8(e1489)IV*	CGC	1B, S1D, 2C, 3B, S3D, 4C,D
CB4088	*him-5(e1490)V*	CGC	1A, S1A-C, 2A,B, 3A, S3A-C, 4A, B, S4
IV302	*ins-6(tm2416)II; kyEx2595[str-2p::GCaMP2.2b + unc-122p::GFP]*	Shreekanth Chalasani	1C, S1E, 4E
JSR99	*flp-3(pk361)X; him-8(e1489)IV*	Jagan Srinivasan	1B, S1D, 2C, 3B, S3D, 4C,D
JSR152	*flp-3(pk361)X; frpr-16(gk5305[loxP + Pmyo-2::GFP::unc-54 3' UTR + Prps-27::neoR::unc-54 3' UTR + loxP]II)*	Jagan Srinivasan	3B, S3D
JSR188	*pdf-1(tm1996)III; pdfr-1(ok3425)III; him-5(e1490)V*	Jagan Srinivasan	3A, S3A-C
UR930	*pdfr-1(ok3425)III; him-5(e1490)V*	Douglas Portman	3A, S3A-C
UR954	*pdf-1(tm1996)III; him-5(e1490)V*	Douglas Portman	1A, S1A-C, 2A,B, 3A, S3A-C, 4A, B, S4
RB2594	*ins-22(ok3616)III*	CGC	2D, S2C, 4F,G

 Table S2: Neuropeptide Oligo Sequences Ordered for Individual Peptide Feeding

723 Neuropeptide DNA sequence indicated in lowercase.

Peptide	Animo Acid (C-x-N)	Sequence Ordered
SCRAMBLE	NSKLHRGGGRSRTSGSTGSMASHARGSPGLQ	For:GGGGACAAGTTTGTACAAAAAAGCAGGCTGGATGCGCTTTGGAAAACGTaattcgagctccaccgcggtggcggccgctctagaactagtggatccaccggttccatggctagccacgcgcgtggatcccccgggctgcaggAAACGTAAATAACACCCAGCTTTCTTGTACAAAGTGGTCCCC
		Rev:GGGGACCACTTTGTACAAGAAAGCTGGGTGTTATTTACGTTTcctgcagcccgggggatccacgcgcgtggctagccatggaaccggtggatccactagttctagagcggccgccaccgcggtggagctcgaattACGTTTTCCAAAGCGCATCCAGCCTGCTTTTTTGTACAAACTTGTCCCC
PDF-1A	VQFVKRSNAELINGLIGMDLGKLSAVGKR	For:GGGGACAAGTTTGTACAAAAAAGCAGGCTGGGTTCAGTTCGTaaaacgcagcaacgccgagcttatcaacggactcatcggaatggatttgggaaaattgtcagctgtcggaAAACGCTGACACCCAGCTTTCTTGTACAAAGTGGTCCCC
		Rev:GGGGACCACTTTGTACAAGAAAGCTGGGTGTTATTTACGTTTtcagcgttttccgacagctgacaattttcccaaatccattccgatgagtccgttgataagctcggcgttgctgcgttttacgaactgaacACGTTTTCCAAAGCGCATCCAGCCTGCTTTTTTGTACAAACTTGTCCCC
PDF-1B	VQFVKRSNAELINGLLSMNLNKLSGAGRR	For:GGGGACAAGTTTGTACAAAAAAGCAGGCTGGGTTCAGTTCGTAAAACGCTcaaacgcggaacttatcaacggtcttctcagcatgaacctcaacAAATTGTCTGGAGCTGGTCGACGATGACACCCAGCTTTCTTGTACAAAGTGGTCCCC
		Rev:GGGGACCACTTTGTACAAGAAAGCTGGGTGTTATTTACGTTTtcatcgtcgaccagctccagacaatttgttgaggttcatgctgagaagaccgttgataagttccgcgtttgagcgttttacgaactgaacACGTTTTCCAAAGCGCATCCAGCCTGCTTTTTTGTACAAACTTGTCCCC
FLP-3-9	NPENDTPFGTMRFG	For:GGGGACAAGTTTGTACAAAAAAGCAGGCTGGATGCGCTTTGGAAAACGTaatcctgagaacgacacaccattcggaacaatgagatttggaAAACGTAAATAACACCCAGCTTTCTTGTCAAAGTGGTCCCC
		Rev:GGGGACCACTTTGACAAGAAAGCTGGGTGTTATTTACGTTTtccaaatctcattgttccgaatggtgtgtcgttctcaggattACGTTTTCCAAAGCGCATCCAGCCTGCTTTTTTGTACAAACTTGTCCCC
INS-6	VPAPGETRACGRKLISLVMAVCGDLCNPQEGKDIATECCGNQCSDDYIRSACCP	For:GGGGACAAGTTTGTACAAAAAAGCAGGCTGGATGCGCTTTGGAAAACGTgttccagcaccaggagaaactcgtgcctgcggaagaaaactcatctctttagtcatggctgtctgtggagatctttgcaacccacaagaaggaaaggacattgcgactgaatgctgcggaaatcagtgttctgatgactacataagatctgcttgttgtccaAAACGTAAATAACACCCAGCTTTCTTGTACAAAGTGGTCCCC
		Rev:GGGGACCACTTTGTACAAGAAAGCTGGGTGTTATTTACGTTTtggacaacaagcagatcttatgtgagtcatcagaacactgatttccgcagcattcagtcgcaatgtcctttccttcttgtgggttgcaaagatctccacagacagccatgactaaagagatgagttttcttccgcaggcacgagtttctcctggtgctggaacACGTTTTCCAAAGCGCATCCAGCCTGCTTTTTTGTACAAACTTGTCCCC

INS-22	MHTTTILICFFIFLVQ VSTMDAHTDKYVRT LCGKTAIRNIANLCP PKPEMKGICSTGEY PSITEYCSM	ATGAGGTTTGGAAAAAGAatgcacactacaacgatcctgatttgtttttttcatcttct tggtccaggttagcaccatggatgctcacaccgataaatacgtgcgcaccctgtgcggcaa gaccgcaattcgtaatattgcgaacctgtgtccgccaaaaccggaaatgaagggcatctg ctctactggtgagtatccgagcattaccgagtactgctccatgggttttagcgactcgcaaat caagttcatgtgctgcgacaaccagAAACGTAAATAA

References

1. Li, C. and K. Kim, *Neuropeptides.* WormBook : the online review of C. elegans biology, 2008: p. 1-36.
2. Dale Purves, G.J.A., David Fitzpatrick, William C Hall, Anthony-Samuel LaMantia, Richard D Mooney, Michael L Platt, Leonard E White, *Neuroscience*. 6 ed. 2018, Sunderland, MA: Oxford University Press.
3. Yañez-Guerra, L.A., D. Thiel, and G. Jékely, *Premetazoan Origin of Neuropeptide Signaling.* Mol Biol Evol, 2022. **39**(4).
4. Beets, I., et al., *Vasopressin/oxytocin-related signaling regulates gustatory associative learning in C. elegans.* Science, 2012. **338**(6106): p. 543-5.
5. Gruber, C.W., *Physiology of invertebrate oxytocin and vasopressin neuropeptides.* Experimental Physiology, 2014. **99**(1): p. 55-61.
6. Insel, T.R. and L.J. Young, *The neurobiology of attachment.* Nature Reviews Neuroscience, 2001. **2**(2): p. 129-136.
7. Willets, J.M., et al., *Regulation of oxytocin receptor responsiveness by G protein-coupled receptor kinase 6 in human myometrial smooth muscle.* Molecular endocrinology (Baltimore, Md.), 2009. **23**(8): p. 1272-1280.
8. Lukas, M., et al., *The Neuropeptide Oxytocin Facilitates Pro-Social Behavior and Prevents Social Avoidance in Rats and Mice.* Neuropsychopharmacology, 2011. **36**(11): p. 2159-2168.
9. Odekunle, E.A., et al., *Ancient role of vasopressin/oxytocin-type neuropeptides as regulators of feeding revealed in an echinoderm.* BMC Biology, 2019. **17**(1): p. 60.
10. Garrison, J.L., et al., *Oxytocin/vasopressin-related peptides have an ancient role in reproductive behavior.* Science, 2012. **338**(6106): p. 540-3.
11. Frooninckx, L., et al., *Neuropeptide GPCRs in C. elegans.* Frontiers in Endocrinology, 2012. **3**(167).
12. Nusbaum, M.P., D.M. Blitz, and E. Marder, *Functional consequences of neuropeptide and small-molecule co-transmission.* Nat Rev Neurosci, 2017. **18**(7): p. 389-403.
13. Souza-Moreira, L., et al., *Neuropeptides as pleiotropic modulators of the immune response.* Neuroendocrinology, 2011. **94**(2): p. 89-100.
14. Nässel, D.R. and M. Zandawala, *Endocrine cybernetics: neuropeptides as molecular switches in behavioural decisions.* Open Biol, 2022. **12**(7): p. 220174.
15. Tai, K.Y., et al., *Selected neuropeptide genes show genetic differentiation between Africans and non-Africans.* BMC Genetics, 2020. **21**(1): p. 31.

760   16.   *PeptidesDB*. 2008 April 30 2008 [cited 2022; Available from: /www.peptides.be.
761   17.   Burbach, J.P.H., *Neuropeptides from concept to online database*
762   *www.neuropeptides.nl.* European Journal of Pharmacology, 2010. **626**(1): p. 27-
763   48.
764   18.   Russo, A.F., *Overview of Neuropeptides: Awakening the Senses?* Headache,
765   2017. **57 Suppl 2**(Suppl 2): p. 37-46.
766   19.   Van Bael, S., et al., *Mass spectrometric evidence for neuropeptide-amidating*
767   *enzymes in Caenorhabditis elegans.* J Biol Chem, 2018. **293**(16): p. 6052-6063.
768   20.   White, J.G., et al., *The structure of the nervous system of the nematode*
769   *Caenorhabditis elegans.* Philos Trans R Soc Lond B Biol Sci, 1986. **314**(1165): p.
770   1-340.
771   21.   Sammut, M., et al., *Glia-derived neurons are required for sex-specific learning in*
772   *C. elegans.* Nature, 2015. **526**(7573): p. 385-390.
773   22.   Li, C., K. Kim, and L.S. Nelson, *FMRFamide-related neuropeptide gene family in*
774   *Caenorhabditis elegans.* Brain Res, 1999. **848**(1-2): p. 26-34.
775   23.   Pierce, S.B., et al., *Regulation of DAF-2 receptor signaling by human insulin and*
776   *ins-1, a member of the unusually large and diverse C. elegans insulin gene family.*
777   Genes Dev, 2001. **15**(6): p. 672-86.
778   24.   Nathoo, A.N., et al., *Identification of neuropeptide-like protein gene families in*
779   *Caenorhabditiselegans and other species.* Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A, 2001.
780   **98**(24): p. 14000-5.
781   25.   Hobert, O., *The neuronal genome of Caenorhabditis elegans.*, in *WormBook: The*
782   *Online Review of C. elegans Biology*. 2005-2018: Pasadena, CA.
783   26.   Watteyne, J., et al., *Neuropeptide signaling network of Caenorhabditis elegans:*
784   *from structure to behavior.* Genetics, 2024. **228**(3).
785   27.   Barrios, A., et al., *PDF-1 neuropeptide signaling modulates a neural circuit for*
786   *mate-searching behavior in C. elegans.* Nature Neuroscience, 2012. **15**(12): p.
787   1675-1684.
788   28.   Hussey, R., et al., *Oxygen-sensing neurons reciprocally regulate peripheral lipid*
789   *metabolism via neuropeptide signaling in Caenorhabditis elegans.* PLoS genetics,
790   2018. **14**(3): p. e1007305-e1007305.
791   29.   Nath, R.D., et al., *C. elegans Stress-Induced Sleep Emerges from the Collective*
792   *Action of Multiple Neuropeptides.* Current biology, 2016. **26**(18): p. 2446-2455.
793   30.   Nelson, M.D., et al., *FRPR-4 Is a G-Protein Coupled Neuropeptide Receptor That*
794   *Regulates Behavioral Quiescence and Posture in Caenorhabditis elegans.* PLoS
795   One, 2015. **10**(11): p. e0142938.
796   31.   Van Bael, S., et al., *Identification of Endogenous Neuropeptides in the Nematode*
797   *C. elegans Using Mass Spectrometry.* Methods Mol Biol, 2018. **1719**: p. 271-291.
798   32.   TC, E., *Transformation and microinjection. .* WormBook: The Online Review of C.
799   elegans Biology, 2006.
800   33.   Rieckher, M. and N. Tavernarakis, *Caenorhabditis elegans Microinjection.* Bio-
801   protocol, 2017. **7**(19): p. e2565.
802   34.   Conte, D., Jr., et al., *RNA Interference in Caenorhabditis elegans.* Current
803   protocols in molecular biology, 2015. **109**: p. 26.3.1-26.3.30.

35. Timmons, L., D.L. Court, and A. Fire, *Ingestion of bacterially expressed dsRNAs*
can produce specific and potent genetic interference in Caenorhabditis elegans.
Gene, 2001. **263**(1-2): p. 103-12.
36. Timmons, L. and A. Fire, *Specific interference by ingested dsRNA.* Nature, 1998.
395(6705): p. 854.
37. Fire, A., et al., *Potent and specific genetic interference by double-stranded RNA*
in Caenorhabditis elegans. Nature, 1998. **391**(6669): p. 806-11.
38. Zheng, S., et al., *A functional study of all 40 Caenorhabditis elegans insulin-like*
peptides. J Biol Chem, 2018. **293**(43): p. 16912-16922.
39. Papaioannou, S., et al., *Role of a FMRFamide-like family of neuropeptides in the*
pharyngeal nervous system of Caenorhabditis elegans. Journal of Neurobiology,
2005. **65**(3): p. 304-319.
40. Ohno, H., et al., *Luqin-like RYamide peptides regulate food-evoked responses in*
C. elegans. Elife, 2017. **6**.
41. Xu, J., et al., *Feeding recombinant E. coli with GST-mBmKTX fusion protein*
increases the fecundity and lifespan of Caenorhabditis elegans. Peptides, 2017.
89: p. 1-8.
42. Fraser, A.G., et al., *Functional genomic analysis of C. elegans chromosome I by*
systematic RNA interference. Nature, 2000. **408**(6810): p. 325-330.
43. Kamath, R.S., et al., *Effectiveness of specific RNA-mediated interference through*
ingested double-stranded RNA in Caenorhabditis elegans. Genome Biol, 2001. **2**.
44. Reece-Hoyes, J.S. and A.J.M. Walhout, *Gateway Recombinational Cloning.* Cold
Spring Harb Protoc, 2018. **2018**(1).
45. Petersen, L.K. and R.S. Stowers, *A Gateway MultiSite recombination cloning*
toolkit. PLoS One, 2011. **6**(9): p. e24531.
46. Kaletsky, R., et al., *C. elegans interprets bacterial non-coding RNAs to learn*
pathogenic avoidance. Nature, 2020. **586**(7829): p. 445-451.
47. Kamath, R.S., et al., *Effectiveness of specific RNA-mediated interference through*
ingested double-stranded RNA in Caenorhabditis elegans. Genome Biol, 2001.
2(1): p. RESEARCH0002.
48. Fraser, A.G., et al., *Functional genomic analysis of C. elegans chromosome I by*
systematic RNA interference. Nature, 2000. **408**(6810): p. 325-30.
49. Reilly, D.K., et al., *Distinct neuropeptide-receptor modules regulate a sex-specific*
behavioral response to a pheromone. Commun Biol, 2021. **4**(1): p. 1018.
50. Dirksen, P., et al., *CeMbio - The Caenorhabditis elegans Microbiome Resource.*
G3 (Bethesda), 2020. **10**(9): p. 3025-3039.
51. Brenner, S., *The genetics of Caenorhabditis elegans.* Genetics, 1974. **77**(1): p.
71-94.
52. Neve, I.A.A., et al., *Escherichia coli Metabolite Profiling Leads to the Development*
of an RNA Interference Strain for Caenorhabditis elegans. G3 (Bethesda), 2020.
10(1): p. 189-198.
53. Ryan, D.A., et al., *Sex, age, and hunger regulate behavioral prioritization through*
dynamic modulation of chemoreceptor expression. Curr Biol, 2014. **24**(21): p.
2509-17.

54.   Barrios, A., et al., *PDF-1 neuropeptide signaling modulates a neural circuit for*
mate-searching behavior in C. elegans. Nat Neurosci, 2012. **15**(12): p. 1675-82.
55.   Lipton, J., et al., *Mate searching in Caenorhabditis elegans: a genetic model for*
sex drive in a simple invertebrate. J Neurosci, 2004. **24**(34): p. 7427-34.
56.   Hilliard, M.A., et al., *Worms taste bitter: ASH neurons, QUI-1, GPA-3 and ODR-3*
mediate quinine avoidance in Caenorhabditis elegans. EMBO J, 2004. **23**(5): p.
1101-11.
57.   Leinwand, S.G. and S.H. Chalasani, *Neuropeptide signaling remodels*
chemosensory circuit composition in Caenorhabditis elegans. Nature
neuroscience, 2013. **16**(10): p. 1461-1467.
58.   Bargmann, C.I. and H.R. Horvitz, *Chemosensory neurons with overlapping*
functions direct chemotaxis to multiple chemicals in C. elegans. Neuron, 1991.
7(5): p. 729-42.
59.   Phillips, C.M., et al., *HIM-8 binds to the X chromosome pairing center and*
mediates chromosome-specific meiotic synapsis. Cell, 2005. **123**(6): p. 1051-63.
60.   Meneely, P.M., et al., *Crossover distribution and frequency are regulated by him-5*
in Caenorhabditis elegans. Genetics, 2012. **190**(4): p. 1251-66.
61.   Reilly, D.K., *Neuromodulation of Sex-Specific Pheromone-Mediated Behaviors*, in
Biology and Biotechnology. 2020, Worcester Polytechnic Institute: Worcester, MA.
p. 519.
62.   Janssen, T., et al., *Functional characterization of three G protein-coupled*
receptors for pigment dispersing factors in Caenorhabditis elegans. J Biol Chem,
2008. **283**(22): p. 15241-9.
63.   Janssen, T., et al., *Discovery and characterization of a conserved pigment*
dispersing factor-like neuropeptide pathway in Caenorhabditis elegans. J
Neurochem, 2009. **111**(1): p. 228-41.
64.   Muirhead, C.S. and J. Srinivasan, *Small molecule signals mediate social*
behaviors in C. elegans. J Neurogenet, 2020. **34**(3-4): p. 395-403.
65.   Pungaliya, C., et al., *A shortcut to identifying small molecule signals that regulate*
behavior and development in Caenorhabditis elegans. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A,
2009. **106**(19): p. 7708-13.
66.   Chen, Z., et al., *Two insulin-like peptides antagonistically regulate aversive*
olfactory learning in C. elegans. Neuron, 2013. **77**(3): p. 572-585.
67.   Hung, W.L., et al., *A Caenorhabditis elegans developmental decision requires*
insulin signaling-mediated neuron-intestine communication. Development, 2014.
141(8): p. 1767-79.
68.   Hua, Q.-X., et al., *A divergent INS protein in Caenorhabditis elegans structurally*
resembles human insulin and activates the human insulin receptor. Genes &
development, 2003. **17**(7): p. 826-831.
69.   Leinwand, S.G. and S.H. Chalasani, *Neuropeptide signaling remodels*
chemosensory circuit composition in Caenorhabditis elegans. Nat Neurosci,
2013. **16**(10): p. 1461-7.
70.   Shtonda, B.B. and L. Avery, *Dietary choice behavior in Caenorhabditis elegans.* J
Exp Biol, 2006. **209**(Pt 1): p. 89-102.

71.   Zhu, R. and I.D. Chin-Sang, *C. elegans insulin-like peptides.* Mol Cell Endocrinol,
893   2024. **585**: p. 112173.
894   72.   Chen, Y. and L.R. Baugh, *Ins-4 and daf-28 function redundantly to regulate C.*
895   *elegans L1 arrest.* Dev Biol, 2014. **394**(2): p. 314-26.
896   73.   Ripoll-Sánchez, L., et al., *The neuropeptidergic connectome of C. elegans.*
897   Neuron, 2023. **111**(22): p. 3570-3589.e5.
898   74.   Beets, I., et al., *System-wide mapping of peptide-GPCR interactions in C. elegans.*
899   Cell Rep, 2023. **42**(9): p. 113058.
900   75.   Hilbert, Z.A. and D.H. Kim, *PDF-1 neuropeptide signaling regulates sexually*
901   *dimorphic gene expression in shared sensory neurons of C. elegans.* Elife, 2018.
902   **7**.
903   76.   Li, C. and K. Kim, *Family of FLP Peptides in Caenorhabditis elegans and Related*
904   *Nematodes.* Frontiers in Endocrinology, 2014. **5**.
905   77.   Van Bael, S., et al., *Identification of Endogenous Neuropeptides in the Nematode*
906   *C. elegans Using Mass Spectrometry.* Methods in molecular biology (Clifton,
907   N.J.), 2018. **1719**: p. 271-291.
908   78.   Bael, S.V., *Neuropeptidomics in C. elegans*, in *Biochemistry and Biotechnology*.
909   2018, KU Leuven: Betekom, Belgium. p. 216.
910   79.   Van Bael, S., et al., *A Caenorhabditis elegans Mass Spectrometric Resource for*
911   *Neuropeptidomics.* J Am Soc Mass Spectrom, 2018. **29**(5): p. 879-889.
912   80.   Torayama, I., T. Ishihara, and I. Katsura, *Caenorhabditis elegans integrates the*
913   *signals of butanone and food to enhance chemotaxis to butanone.* J Neurosci,
914   2007. **27**(4): p. 741-50.
915   81.   L'Etoile, N.D. and C.I. Bargmann, *Olfaction and odor discrimination are mediated*
916   *by the C. elegans guanylyl cyclase ODR-1.* Neuron, 2000. **25**(3): p. 575-86.
917   82.   Yang, N.J. and M.J. Hinner, *Getting across the cell membrane: an overview for*
918   *small molecules, peptides, and proteins.* Methods in molecular biology (Clifton,
919   N.J.), 2015. **1266**: p. 29-53.
920   83.   Meissner, B., et al., *Deletion of the intestinal peptide transporter affects insulin*
921   *and TOR signaling in Caenorhabditis elegans.* J Biol Chem, 2004. **279**(35): p.
922   36739-45.
923   84.   Rao, M. and S. Sockanathan, *Molecular mechanisms of RNAi: Implications for*
924   *development and disease.* Birth Defects Research Part C: Embryo Today:
925   Reviews, 2005. **75**(1): p. 28-42.
926   85.   Bernstein, E., et al., *Role for a bidentate ribonuclease in the initiation step of RNA*
927   *interference.* Nature, 2001. **409**(6818): p. 363-6.
928   86.   Seydoux, G. and A. Fire, *Soma-germline asymmetry in the distributions of*
929   *embryonic RNAs in Caenorhabditis elegans.* Development, 1994. **120**(10): p.
930   2823-34.