Classification: BIOLOGICAL SCIENCES: Genetics

Title: CaMK (CMK-1) and O-GlcNAc transferase (OGT-1) modulate
mechanosensory responding and habituation in an interstimulus interval-dependent
manner in *Caenorhabditis elegans*

Authors: Tiffany A. Timbers[1], Evan L. Ardiel[1], Troy A. McDiarmid[1], Kirsten C. Y. Lee[1], Javad
Safaei[3], Steven L. Pelech[4], and Catharine H. Rankin[1,2]

1. Djavad Mowafaghian Centre for Brain Health, University of British Columbia, 2211 Wesbrook
   Mall, Vancouver, British Columbia, V6T 2B5 Canada
2. Department of Psychology, University of British Columbia, 2136 West Mall, Vancouver,
   British Columbia, V6T 1Z4 Canada
3. Department of Computer Science, University of British Columbia, 2366 Main Mall, Vancouver,
   British Columbia, V6T 1Z4 Canada
4. Department of Medicine, University of British Columbia, 2775 Laurel Street, Vancouver,
   British Columbia, V5Z 1M9 Canada
   Kinexus Bioinformatics Corporation, Suite 1, 8755 Ash Street, Vancouver, British Columbia,
   V6P 6T3 Canada

Short Title: CaMK and OGT modulate mechanoresponding and learning

Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to: Catharine H. Rankin
Djavad Mowafaghian Center for
Brain Health and Department of
Psychology
University of British Columbia
2136 West Mall,
Vancouver, British Columbia
Canada, V6T 1Z4
email: crankin@psych.ubc.ca
phone: 604-822-5449
fax: 604-822-7299

Keywords:

Learning, O-GlcNAc, OGT, CaMK1, CaMK4, CMK-1, *C. elegans*, Non-associative learning,
Habituation, Mechanosensation, Calmodulin-dependent kinase

Abstract (250 words)

Many aspects of neural physiology, including processes that underlie learning (*e.g.* neurotransmitter

release and long-lasting changes in synaptic strength), are regulated by brief and local changes in [μm]

levels of free intracellular Ca^{2+}. On this scale, changes in $[Ca^{2+}]$ are known to activate many Ca^{2+}-

sensors, including the Ca^{2+}/calmodulin-dependent kinases (CaMKs). Although CaMK4 is known to

function in long-term memory and its paralog, CaMK1, in nervous system development, there is no

evidence indicating that they function in learning acquisition. Here we reveal that the *Caenorhabditis*

elegans ortholog of CaMK1/4, CMK-1, regulates responses to mechanical stimuli and learning,

specifically habituation, a conserved form of non-associative learning. The habituation phenotypes of

cmk-1 mutants are sensitive to interstimulus interval (ISI), such that cmk-1 mediates habituation rate at

short ISIs and habituation level at long ISIs. This is the first *in vivo* evidence that CaMK1/4 functions

to modulate learning acquisition in awake, behaving animals and provides direct evidence to support

the hypothesis that different mechanisms mediate habituation learning at different ISIs. From catalytic

site analysis of the human and *C. elegans* CaMKs, we predicted potential CaMK phosphorylation

targets and, through mutation studies, identified one of these, O-linked N-acetylglucosamine (O-

GlcNAc) transferase, OGT-1, as also being necessary for wild-type responses to mechanical stimuli

and learning. Detailed behavioral analysis of single and double mutants suggests that CMK-1 and

OGT-1 function in parallel pathways that may converge on a common substrate to modulate the tap

response. Our results provide the first evidence of a role for CaMK and O-GlcNAc post-translational

modification in responding to mechanical stimuli and learning, which are fundamental biological

processes present in all animals.

23
Introduction

Learning is a fundamental biological process by which organisms update and modify their

behavioral output to sensory stimuli based on past experience. This important phenomenon allows

organisms to adapt their behavior to best suit the current conditions in the inconstant environment.

Brief and local changes in micromolar concentration levels of free intracellular Ca^{2+} play a critical role

in modifying many aspects of neural physiology such as learning. Changes in $[Ca^{2+}]$ on this scale are

known to activate many Ca^{2+}-sensors, including the important and ubiquitously expressed protein

calmodulin (CaM). Once bound with four Ca^{2+} ions, CaM (Ca^{2+}/CaM) is known to regulate many

different signaling proteins, including the CaM-kinase (CaMK) family of protein-serine/threonine

kinases, which are highly expressed in the nervous system. Within the larger CaMK group (consists of

~ 23 kinase families) the CaMK1 family (consisting of CaMKK, CaMK1 and CaMK4; reviewed in 1)

has been shown to play important roles in the context of nervous system development and plasticity.

CaMKK is purported to function upstream of both CaMK1 and CaMK4 by phosphorylating Thr

residues in the activation site of these kinases to increase their Ca^{2+}/CaM-dependent

phosphotransferase activities (2, 3). The substrate recognition motifs of numerous protein kinases have

significant overlap and correct target specificity is thought to also be regulated by localization of the

kinase and its substrates within the cell (4); this has been established for CaMK1 and CaMK4 (5).

CaMK4's expression is usually restricted to the nucleus (6-8), where it has been shown to

regulate gene transcription during the induction of long-term synaptic plasticity and long-term memory

in rodents (9-11). In contrast, CaMK1's expression has been observed to be cytoplasmic in most cases

(12). Many studies have demonstrated an important role for CaMK1 in the developing mammalian

nervous system, specifically regulating axonal growth cone motility and axonal outgrowth (13),

dendritic arborization (14-16), and formation of dendritic spines and synapses (17).

More recent studies have attempted to ascertain whether CaMK1 plays a role in plasticity of the

nervous system; Schmitt *et al.* (18) investigated the role of CaMKK, CaMK1 and CaMK4 in long-term

potentiation (LTP) and demonstrated that CaMKK and CaMK1, but not CaMK4, play a role in

activating Ras-extracellular signal-regulated protein kinase (Ras-ERK) signaling during early-phase

LTP in hippocampal neuron cultures. Using the same experimental preparation, Guire *et al.* (19) went

on to demonstrate that CaMK1 also functions during LTP to recruit calcium permeable AMPA

receptors. These studies indicate that similar to CaMK4, CaMK1 might also function in plasticity and

perhaps learning and memory, but unlike CaMK4 it most likely functions near the synapse and in

shorter forms of plasticity. To date, no one has directly tested whether CaMK1 plays a role in plasticity

or learning and memory in any organism *in vivo.*

The nematode *Caenorhabditis elegans* responds to a non-localized mechanosensory stimulus, a

tap to the side of the Petri plate it inhabits, by performing a reversal (changing from forward to

backward locomotion). In wild-type worms, repeated administration of the tap stimulus results in

habituation, a form of non-associative learning, which can be observed as a decrease in both the size of

the reversal (response magnitude) and the likelihood of responding (response probability) (20, 21).

Ca^{2+} has been shown to be an important modulator of tap habituation in *C. elegans* (22, 23).

Repeated mechanical stimulation resulted in an attenuation of the Ca^{2+} transient that followed each

mechanical stimulus (23). Chelation of the tap-induced Ca^{2+} transient resulted in more rapid

habituation, as did mutations in the genes encoding the calcium signaling molecules calreticulin (*crt-1*)

and the inositol triphosphate receptor (*itr-1:* 22). Despite the obvious importance of Ca^{2+} signaling in

this phenomenon, components of the CaMK cascade have yet to be tested for their role in habituation.

The catalytic activity of proteins in this signaling cascade are dependent upon increases in intracellular

Ca^{2+} concentration (which occurs in response to tap), are highly expressed in the nervous system, and

have been shown to be important for cellular models of plasticity and long-term memory (reviewed in

24). Thus we hypothesized that this cascade may also function in learning in *C. elegans*, specifically in

tap habituation.

The *C. elegans* genome encodes a single homolog each of CaMKK, *ckk-1,* and CaMK1/4, *cmk-*

1 (25). Both genes are expressed in the nervous system and strains with mutations in these genes appear

superficially wild-type (26), however several exciting studies have recently characterized molecular

mechanisms underlying behavioral deficits related to experience-dependent thermotaxis and heat

avoidance (27; 28; 29). We found that *C. elegans* strains carrying mutations in *cmk-1,* but not *ckk-1,*

exhibited larger responses to mechanical stimuli and a higher final habituated level of responding than

wild-type animals when stimuli were presented every sixty seconds. Intriguingly, the initial response

and final habituated level phenotypes of *cmk-1* mutants were genetically dissociable and sensitive to

the interstimulus interval (ISI) at which the mechanosensory stimuli were presented. This is the first *in*

vivo evidence that CaMK1/4 functions to modulate learning acquisition in awake, behaving animals

and provides direct evidence to support the hypothesis that different mechanisms mediate habituation

learning at different ISIs (Rankin and Broster, 1992). A screen for downstream targets of CMK-1

predicted from bioinformatics analysis of the human and *C. elegans* CaMK catalytic domains led to the

identification of the *C. elegans* O-linked N-acetylglucosamine (O-GlcNAc) transferase homolog, OGT-

1, as also functioning in responding to mechanical stimuli and tap habituation. Thus, we demonstrate

novel roles for posttranslational O-GlcNAc modification of proteins in responding to mechanical

stimuli and *in vivo* learning.

Results

CMK-1 Modulates the Rate of Habituation at Short Interstimulus Intervals (10s) and the Final

Habituated Level of Responding at Long Interstimulus Intervals (60s)

To determine whether CaMKs function in learning we examined habituation to repeated tap

stimuli by the *C. elegans* putative null mutants of mammalian CaMK1/CaMK4, *cmk-1(oy21)*, and

CaMKK, *ckk-1(ok1033),* homologs. Wild-type worms habituate to repeated tap stimuli by decreasing

the distance they reverse (20, 21). *ckk-1(ok1033)* mutant worms responded initially and habituated

similarly to wild-type worms at both 10 and 60 s ISIs (pNS for all, Fig. 1A-B). In contrast, *cmk-1*

mutant worms displayed larger initial responses to tap (p<0.001, Fig. 1A) and habituation deficits

dependent on the rate at which stimuli were delivered. If stimuli were administered at a 60 s ISI, a

larger tap response was apparent across training (p<0.001; Fig. 1A), however if stimuli were presented

every 10 s, the *cmk-1* mutant habituated faster (greater rate of response decrement) than wild-type, but

to an asymptotic level indistinguishable from wild-type (pNS; Fig. 1B). Therefore, the elevated final

reversal distance habituation level in *cmk-1* mutants (Fig. 1A) is not caused by a general increase in

responding, but instead is specific to the stimuli being delivered at a 60s ISI. Wild-type habituation to

tap stimuli presented at a 60s ISI was restored in *cmk-1(oy21)* mutant worms expressing wild-type

CMK-1 cDNA under control of its endogenous promoter (N2 *vs.* rescue pNS; Fig. 1C); confirming

oy21 as the causative allele.

Age is an important factor that modulates habituation (30), but the habituation phenotype of

cmk-1 mutants was unlikely to be due to differences in growth or aging, as the mutant worms began

egg-laying at a similar time as wild-type worms (data not shown). Additionally, the difference in

habituation between *cmk-1* mutant and wild-type worms at a 60s ISI was present regardless of which

day of adulthood the worms were tested on (p<0.05; Fig. S1 and S2). Note that in younger adults, the

initial responses are of normal size, but the habituated responses are larger (Fig. S1), dissociating the

initial and final response metrics. This further suggests that *cmk-1* modulates habituation in an ISI-

dependent manner, as the *cmk-1* mutant displayed an altered final habituated level of responding at a

60s ISI and altered rate of habituation at a 10s ISI, even at an age where the increased initial response

phenotype of *cmk-1* mutants is not present (Fig. S1).

Loss of CMK-1 phosphorylation site (T179) recapitulates null allele

Although previous studies suggested that CaMKK stimulates the kinase activity of CaMK1/4,

our results indicate that CMK-1, but not CKK-1, functions in habituation. Consistent with this

assertion, the expression pattern of *cmk-1* is broader than *ckk-1* (26) and we found that *cmk-1*, but not

ckk-1, was expressed in the touch receptor neurons and interneurons of the tap withdrawal circuit (Fig.

S3). This suggests that either *(i)* activation of CaMK by calmodulin alone may be sufficient to activate

the kinase in the context of some biological signaling, and/or *(ii)* CaMK is activated via

phosphorylation by another unidentified kinase. To test these hypotheses we took advantage of a *cmk-1*

point mutant *(gk691866)* whose conserved CaMKK phosphorylation site, Threonine-179 (T179; 2, 3),

was mutated to an isoleucine (I) and could therefore no longer be phosphorylated. We performed a

complementation test between the *cmk-1(gk691866)* point mutant, T179I, and the *cmk-1(oy21)* null

mutant and reasoned that if these alleles complemented in the context of habituation it would indicate

that phosphorylation of T179 was not required for wild-type habituation. Interestingly, we observed

that compared to wild-type worms and *cmk-1(oy21/+)* heterozygotes, *cmk-1(oy21/gk691866)*

heterozygote mutants showed significantly increased responding to the initial tap (p=0.05 and p<0.001,

respectively) and a higher final level of habitation to tap stimuli (p<0.01 and p<0.001, respectively);

indicating that these alleles failed to complement (Fig. 2). Thus, these data support a role for

phosphorylation of T179 as being necessary for wild-type responding to mechanical stimuli and

habituation. Furthermore, because we demonstrated above that CKK-1 does not function in habituation,

CMK-1 must be activated via T179 phosphorylation by another, as yet unidentified, kinase.

Genetic dissociation of initial response and habituation phenotypes

In mammals, the orthologs of CMK-1, CaMK1 and CaMK4, localize to different subcellular

compartments (the cytoplasm and the nucleus, respectively). Consistent with previous reports (Schild et

al., 2014), we found that CMK-1::GFP fusion proteins localize to the cytoplasm in cell bodies and

neurites and are largely excluded from the nucleus (Fig. 3A). In a screen for noxious heat avoidance

defects, Schild et al. (2014) isolated a *cmk-1* gain-of-function allele, *pg58*, which encodes a truncated

protein lacking most of its regulatory domain and a nuclear export sequence (NES), but with an intact

kinase catalytic domain. As had been observed with a similar mutation in mammalian CaMKI

(Stedman et al., 2004), Schild et al. (2014) found that truncated CMK-1(1-304) abnormally

accumulated in the nucleus. In their model, CMK-1 shuttles between cytoplasm and nucleus to

modulate noxious heat avoidance. To test whether a similar process mediated habituation to tap, we

evaluated learning in the *cmk-1*(*pg58*) mutant. Although they had a large initial response to tap

(p<0.05; Fig. 3B) the final habituated response size of *cmk-1*(*pg58*) was indistinguishable from wild-

type (pNS; Fig. 3B), suggesting appropriate subcellular localization is essential for setting naïve

responsivity to tap, but not necessarily modulating it. By dissociating the initial response and

habituation phenotypes of the *cmk-1* mutant, results from this allele confirm they are independent

metrics.

Identification of Candidate CMK-1 Target Proteins Through Analysis of Evolutionarily

Conserved Predicted CaMK Phosphosites

Protein kinases recognize the specific Ser/Thr/Tyr amino acid residues that they phosphorylate

on their target substrates based upon the sequence of residues that flank the phosphoacceptor site

(comprises the kinase consensus sequence). This is due to kinase-substrate binding following a lock

and key model, whereby the peptide sequence flanking the phosphosite on the target protein fits into

the catalytic domain of the kinase, because of the presence of specificity-determining residues located

there which often directly interact with the side chains of amino acid sequences surrounding

phosphosites in substrates (32). These principles have been previously used to predict the kinase

substrate specificities of 492 human protein kinases in silico (33).

The computational methods have now been further improved with refinements of the original

algorithms and training data from over 10,000 kinase-protein phosphosite pairs and 8,000 kinase-

peptide phosphosite pairs. We used these updated methods to generate a kinase substrate specificity

prediction matrix (KSSPM) for *C. elegans* CMK-1 based on the primary amino acid sequence of its

catalytic domain, and then used this KSSPM to query all of the 20,470 known *C. elegans* protein

sequences to identify those proteins that featured the top 600 highest scoring predicted phosphosites

(Table S1). Next, we identified the closest human cognate proteins that featured similar phosphosites,

and then scored the human phosphosites with KSSPMs for all four human CaMK1 isoforms and

CaMK4 (which share 65% and 44% sequence identity, as measured by Blastp, with the *C. elegans*

CMK-1 protein, respectively; Fig. S4). Of particular interest were those *C. elegans* protein and

phosphosites that were highly conserved in *Homo sapiens* and predicted to be targeted by human

CaMK1 isoforms and CaMK4. Such high evolutionary conservation would support important

functional roles for these kinase-substrate pairs. More information about the predicted phosphorylation

of these human phosphosites by human protein kinases and their evolutionary conservation in over 20

other species is available in the PhosphoNET website at www.phosphonet.ca.

The above-generated list of 600 phosphosites in 373 *C. elegans* proteins predicted to be CMK-1

targets was used to prioritize candidates. Candidates that had been previously shown to interact with

CaMKs for which testable knockout mutant alleles were available were of highest interest, as well

those ranked within the top 20 by p-site score and assayed them for habituation at a 60 s ISI. Out of the

22 mutants tested to date, 17 were observed to show an initial response and/or habituation phenotype

(Fig. S5, S6 and (Table 1). A Venn diagram was generated that grouped genes that when mutated

showed similar behavioral phenotypes (Fig. 4).

O-GlcNAc transferase, OGT-1, Functions in Habituation and is Expressed in the Nervous

System, including the Touch Receptor Neurons

ogt-1 mutants showed an initial mechanosensory response and habituation phenotype that was

strikingly similar to *cmk-1* mutants; *ogt-1(ok430)* mutants were significantly more responsive to the

initial tap (p<0.001), and showed significantly higher final level of habituation to stimuli delivered at a

60s ISI (p<0.001; Fig. 5A, Table 1). Because of this we further investigated the role of this protein in

habituation by assaying whether OGT-1 was also similar to CMK-1 in its ISI dependency (*i.e.* whether

it mediated distinct aspects of habituation at a 10s ISI versus a 60s ISI). When we habituated *ogt-*

1(ok430) mutants at a 10s ISI instead of a 60s ISI, we observed that they were still more responsive to

the initial tap (p<0.001), but they habituated more rapidly and to the same final level as wild-type

worms in the measure of reversal distance (pNS; Fig. 5B). Thus, *ogt-1* mutants robustly phenocopy

cmk-1 mutants in all measures tested. Importantly, Hanover *et al.* (34) has demonstrated that the *ogt-*

1(ok430) allele is a true null and results in the complete loss of function of this transferase; in *ogt-*

1(ok430) mutants O-glycNAc is absent. This was shown via direct measurement of O-GlcNAcitol

released after alkaline β-elimination and by O-GlcNAc antibody staining (34).

We next confirmed that the mutation in *ogt-1*, *ok430*, was indeed the mutation which caused the

mechanoresponding and habituation phenotypes observed above by testing a second null allele of *ogt-*

1, *tm1046*. Tm1046 is a 466 bp deletion, resulting in a frameshift and an early stop after 392 amino

acids. *ogt-1(tm1046)* mutants displayed an initial response (p<0.001) and habituation phenotype

(p<0.001) similar to *ogt-1(ok430)* null mutants (Fig. 5; data not shown), thus demonstrating that OGT-

1 function is critical for wild-type responses to tap and habituation.

To evaluate the expression pattern of *ogt-1* we created a transcriptional reporter that consisted

of ~2 kb of the *ogt-1* promoter fused to GFP (P*ogt-1*::GFP) and injected this into wild-type worms.

Imaging of this reporter revealed that OGT-1 is expressed quite broadly across the nervous system,

including the touch cells, in addition to muscles and seam cells (Fig. 5C).

***cmk-1* and *ogt*-1 Exhibit a Complex Genetic Interaction**

To test whether *cmk-1* and *ogt-1* interact genetically we assayed the habituation of *cmk-1(oy21)*;

ogt-1(ok430) double mutants. When these double mutants were habituated at a 60s ISI they acted

additively to give significantly larger initial responses (p<0.001 for both) and larger reversal distance

habituation phenotypes than that of either single mutant (p<0.01 for both; Fig. 6A). The most

parsimonious explanation of this data is that each mutation contributes to the habituation phenotype

through disruption of independent genetic pathways. This result was surprising given that the

individual mutant phenotypes were so strikingly similar and that the mammalian homologues of these

proteins have been shown to interact (35, 36). Because the response distance variable is actually

composed of two different measures, reversal speed and reversal duration, we decided to further

analyze their relationship by breaking reversal distance down into these two components and

examining their habituation (Fig. 6B and 6C).

For the initial response to tap, the *cmk-1* single mutant exhibited significantly faster reversals

(Fig. 6B) of increased duration (Fig. 6C) compared to wild-type. In contrast, the *ogt-1* mutant reversed

at a speed similar to wild-type (Fig. 6), but with a duration longer than even the *cmk-1* mutant (Fig.

6C). Thus, the single mutant data indicate that the similar reversal distance phenotype of unhabituated

cmk-1 and *ogt-1* mutants was caused by distinct processes, with CMK-1 primarily influencing speed of

reversals and modestly influencing reversal duration, and OGT-1 influencing duration, but not speed.

However, *cmk-1; ogt-1* double mutants performed significantly slower reversals than *cmk-1* single

mutants (p<0.001), almost indistinguishable from wild-type (p=0.04), indicating that *ogt-1* may act as a

suppressor of *cmk-1* for reversal speed in naïve animals (Fig. 6B). Thus, in the context of responding to

an initial mechanical stimulus, there appears to be some interaction between the *cmk-1* and *ogt-1*

pathways.

In the case of habituated animals, both *cmk-1* and *ogt-1* single mutants exhibited significantly

faster reversals compared to wild-type and a consistent, but not significant trend towards increased

duration, phenotypes which were additive, giving the rapid and long-lasting final responses of the *cmk-*

1; ogt-1 double mutant.

Discussion

We report here that the *C. elegans* CMK-1, but not CKK-1, mediates habituation to

mechanosensory stimuli in an ISI-dependent manner. Through catalytic site analysis of CaMKs we

predicted and screened potential CaMK phosphorylation targets to identify the null OGT mutant, *ogt-1*,

as also functioning in this form of learning. We showed that similar to *cmk-1*, *ogt-1* mutants altered

habituation in an ISI-dependent manner. Finally, we assayed the tap habituation of *cmk-1(oy21)*; *ogt-1(430)* double mutants and found that these two genes have a complex genetic interaction in the context

of naïve responding, yet exhibit an additive habituation phenotype.

While many previous studies have suggested that CaMK1/4 and CaMKK can function in the

same pathway, our results indicate that CMK-1, but not CKK-1, functions in responses and habituation

to mechanical stimuli are not the first findings to indicate that CaMK1/4 can function independently of

CaMKK. In *C. elegans,* Kimura *et al.* (26) found that CMK-1 is expressed in more neurons than is

CKK-1 and that although CKK-1 enhanced the CMK-1- dependent phosphorylation of a transcription

factor (CREB), CMK-1 was able to phosphorylate CREB in the absence of CKK-1. Similarly, Satterlee

et al. (37) found that CMK-1, but not CKK-1, functioned to regulate AFD sensory neuron specific gene

expression in *C. elegans.* These findings also appear to be consistent with studies in vertebrate

organisms where CaMK1 is known to have a wider expression profile than CaMKK (reviewed in 38).

These data indicate that either in some cases *(i)* activation of CaMK1/4 by calmodulin alone may be

sufficient to activate the kinase in the context of some biological signaling or *(ii)* CaMK1/4 is activated

via phosphorylation by another unidentified kinase. Although these possibilities are not necessarily

mutually exclusive, our results that showed that the *cmk-1(gk691866)* point mutant, T179I, and the

cmk-1(oy21) null mutant fail to complement in the context of naïve mechanosenory responding and

habituation indicate that, at least in this organism and these phenotypes, CMK-1 is activated via

phosphorylation by another as yet unidentified kinase. Future work is aimed at identifying the cellular

and subcellular site of action for CMK-1 and OGT-1. A mutant with mislocalized CMK-1 responded

initially with large reversals, but habituated normally, suggesting a shuttling of CMK-1 into the nucleus

does not mediate tap habituation, as it does heat avoidance (28).

To find downstream targets of CMK-1 in *C. elegans* we used a novel bioinformatics approach

to generate a list of protein candidates predicted to be phosphorylated by CMK-1 to screen for tap

response and habituation phenotypes, similar to those observed in *cmk-1* mutants. Our bioinformatics

approach to generate a list enriched in proteins that were likely to function in either responding to

mechanical stimuli and/or mechanosensory habituation used an effective kinase substrate prediction

algorithm developed by Safaei and colleagues (33). Behaviorally screening strains with mutations in

our top candidates, we found that this list was indeed enriched for mutations which cause tap response

and/or habituation deficits, as 17/22 strains deviated from wild-type in some aspect of these behaviors.

Thus this approach appears to be an effective method to identify downstream candidates for

phosphorylation targets of kinases in the context of mechanosensory responding and learning.

By screening knockout mutants from among the top candidates of the CaMK phosphosite

substrate prediction, we found that the *C. elegans* O-GlcNAc transferase (OGT) mutants, *ogt-1*,

displayed strikingly similar phenotypes compared to *cmk-1* mutants. O-GlcNAc glycosylation is a

unique and dynamic cytosolic and nuclear carbohydrate post-translational modification in which β-N-

acetylglucosamine is covalently attached to serine or threonine residues of proteins. In contrast to other

forms of glycosylation, O-GlcNAc glycosylation occurs intracellularly, is rapid (occur as quickly as 1-

5 min after cellular stimulation; 35, 39) and is not further modified into complex glycans. Hence, it is

thought to be more akin to phosphorylation than to other forms of glycosylation. Interestingly, O-

GlcNAc glycosylation sometimes occurs on or near serine or threonine residues that are also known to

undergo phosphorylation (reviewed in 40). Both OGT and O-GlcNAcase (enzyme that functions in

opposition to OGT to remove β-N-acetylglucosamine residues; OGA) are highly expressed in the brain

(41, 42) and enriched at synapses within neurons (43,44).

In *C. elegans,* although OGT-1 is expressed in the embryonic nervous system (45) no role has

yet been described for this protein in responding to mechanosensory stimuli or learning. Instead,

studies have shown that it functions in macronutrient storage (34), dauer formation (46), lifespan (47),

the glucose stress response (48) and proteotoxicity in *C. elegans* neurodegenerative disease models

(49). In other species a role for O-GlcNAc glycosylation has yet to be demonstrated *in vivo* for learning

acquisition, but it has been shown to function in long-term memory (50) and in cellular models of

plasticity such as: long-term potentiation (LTP), long-term depression (51) and paired-pulse facilitation

(52). Thus, our evidence of an *in vivo* requirement for OGT-1 in learning in *C. elegans* will very likely

be conserved in learning in other species, including mammals.

Epistasis experiments measuring reversal distance revealed the *cmk-1(oy21)*; *ogt-1(430)*

double mutant phenotype to be additive for both naïve and habituated states. Additivety is most often

thought to be suggestive of a sign of the absence of a functional relationship between the mutated genes

under study but in some cases it may be due to both gene products converging on the same downstream

target(s), and/or non-linear dynamics of regulatory networks (53).

Although, clearly, the most parsimonious explanation for the additive genetic interaction

between null mutations in *cmk-1* and *ogt-1* is that each mutation contributes to the habituation

phenotype through disruption of at least two contributing independent linear biochemical pathways;

data from previous studies have revealed that there is much complex cross talk between O-GlcNAc and

phosphorylation signaling, and thus it is tempting to speculate that the relationship between CMK-1

and OGT-1 may be more intimate. Given that *(i) cmk-1* and *ogt-1* mechanosensory responding and two

different habituation phenotypes were so strikingly similar, *(ii)* mammalian CaMK4 and OGT interact

(CaMK4 phosphorylates OGT (35), and OGT can add O-GlcNAcs to CaMK4 (36)), *(iii)* mammalian

CaMK4 and OGT are known to share several common substrates (CREB, serum response factor, the

CREB-binding protein, and OGT itself; 36, 54, 55-57), and *(iv)* virtually every other O-GlcNAcylated

protein identified (> 250) has also been shown to be a phosphoprotein (i.e. it is phosphorylated by a

kinase; 58, 59) we hypothesized that the additive phenotypes of *cmk-1; ogt-1* double mutants may be

caused by CMK-1 and OGT-1 sharing a downstream substrate and/or functioning in a non-linear

genetic pathway.

To test this hypothesis, we further analyzed this genetic interaction by separating reversal

distance into its two components, reversal speed and reversal duration, for both naïve and habituated

mechanosensory responses. The clearest conclusion can be drawn from the double mutant data in the

context of responding to tap stimuli. When naïve reversal speed is measured, *cmk-1; ogt-1* double

mutants perform significantly slower reversals than *cmk-1* single mutants, very similar to wild-type,

indicating that *ogt-1* acts as a suppressor of *cmk-1*. Because the *cmk-1(oy21)* allele used in these

experiments is very likely a null allele, these data support the existence of *ogt-1* functions downstream

of *cmk-1* to negatively regulate the pathway in wild-type animals. When naïve reversal duration is

measured, the *cmk-1; ogt-1* double mutant phenotype is synergistic. Synergy in double mutants

affected in two non-homologous genes can be a consequence of genes disrupting steps of pathways that

converge at some node of a regulatory network, such as sharing a common substrate (reviewed in 60),

suggesting that CMK-1 and OGT-1 share a common downstream target(s).

Additionally, a synergistic phenotype is also observed for the baseline locomotory speed in

cmk-1; ogt-1 double mutants measured before mechanosensory stimuli were administered (Fig. S7);

providing additional phenotypic support to our hypothesis that these genetic pathways intersect. In the

context of habituation, the additive habituation phenotypes regardless of the measure in *cmk-1; ogt-1*

double mutants indicate that in this context *cmk-1* and *ogt-1* function in two parallel pathways, which

may converge on a common downstream substrate.

Using all available published data on CaMK1/4 and OGT as well as from the experiments

performed in this study, we have a devised a model for this non-linear genetic network in *C. elegans*

(Fig. 7). Biochemical studies, outside of the scope of this work, will be required to validate this

hypothesis.

To our knowledge, *cmk-1* and *ogt-1* represent the first reported mechanosensory hypersensitive

mutants in *C. elegans* despite several pioneering genetic screens characterizing harsh and soft touch

mechanosensory defective mutants by Chalfie and colleagues (61,62). Further, we have shown that

cmk-1(pg58) mutants also display mechanosensory hyperesponsivity, suggesting that wild-type

shuttling of cmk-1 between the cytoplasm and the nucleus is necessary for setting response level to

mechanical stimuli – similar to it's effects on thermotaxis and heat avoidance (27, 28, 29, 37). Further

characterization of *cmk-1* interacting proteins may identify additional mechanosensory hypersensitive

mutants, an as yet largely uncharacterized family of genes regulating mechanosensation.

Finally, our findings identify the first proteins that specifically alter habituation differently at

different ISIs: CMK-1 and OGT-1. Early detailed parametric studies of *C. elegans* mechanosensory

habituation found that the rate and asymptotic level of habituation differed depending on what ISI

stimuli were presented; mechanosensory stimuli which were presented at a 10s ISI resulted in faster

and deeper habituation than stimuli presented at a 60s ISI (20). These experiments led to the hypothesis

that habituation at different ISIs may recruit/require different molecular mechanisms. Our findings that

cmk-1 and *ogt-1* modulate the final level of habituation at a 60s ISI and the rate of habituation but not

the final level at a 10s ISI are the first published evidence to support this hypothesis.

It is important to note that the 60s ISI tap habituation phenotype of *cmk-1* mutants could be

interpreted as a general hyperesponsivity to stimuli throughout the training session, rather than an

alteration in habituation – which is the ability of animals to learn to decrement their responding to

repeated stimulation (63). However, several lines of evidence from this work suggest that CMK-1 alters

habituation. First, when worms were tested at 72 hours post egg lay (Fig. S1; as opposed to 96 hours)

cmk-1 mutants displayed wild-type initial responses to mechanical stimuli, but a higher final level of

responding at a 60s ISI, dissociating these metrics. Second, *cmk-1* mutants display a normal habituated

final level when trained at a 10s ISI – a general hyperesponsive phenotype should be present regardless

of the stimulus interval used (Fig. 1 A-B). Third, the *cmk-1(pg58)* mutant displayed larger initial

responses, but wild-type habituated responses, genetically dissociating these response metrics (Fig.

3B). Taken together, these results suggest that initial and final habituated levels of mechanosensory

responding to tap stimuli are independent metrics and that CMK-1 mediates habituation in an ISI-

dependent manner.

In conclusion, our results provide the first *in vivo* evidence of a role for CaMK and O-GlcNAc

post-translational modification in responding to mechanosensory stimuli and learning. Additionally,

our work provides the first direct evidence in support of the hypothesis that multiple mechanisms

mediate habituation at different ISIs and underscores the importance of detailed behavioral genetic

analysis to dissect multiple mechanistically independent components of a seemingly simple learned

behavior. Finally, our findings will help draw much-needed attention to a common form of post-

translational modification that is required for mechanosensory responding and learning, two

fundamental biological processes present in all animals.

Methods

Strains and maintenance. Worms were cultured on Nematode Growth Medium (NGM) seeded with

Escherichia coli (OP50) as described previously(64). The following strains were obtained from the

Caenorhabditis Genetics Center (University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, MN): N2 Bristol, PY1589

cmk-1(oy21), VC691 *ckk-1(ok1033),* RB1468 *dkf-2(ok1704),* VC567 *arf-1.2(ok796)*, VC127 *pkc-*

2(ok328), KG532 *kin-2(ce179)*, RB918 *acr-16(ok789)*, RB818 *hum-1(ok634)*, RB781 *pkc-1(ok563)*,

RB1447 *chd-3(ok1651)*, RB830 *epac-1(ok655)*, HA865 *grk-2(rt97)*, NW1700 *plx-2(ev773)*; *him-*

5(e1490), PR678 *tax-4(p678)*, KG744 *pde-4(ce268)*, RB758 *hda-4(ok518)*, RB1625 *par-1(ok2001)*,

DA596 *snt-1(ad596)*, XA406 *ncs-1(qa406)*, CB109 *unc-16(e109)*, RB653 *ogt-1(ok430)*, BC10002 *dpy-*

5(e907) and VC40557 (which harbors *cmk-1(gk691866)* among many other mutations (65)). The

following strains were obtained from the National Bioresource Project for the nematode (School of

Medicine, Tokyo Womens Medical Hospital, Shinjuku-ku, Japan): FX01046 *ogt-1(tm1046),* FX01282

T23G5.2(tm1282), FX03075 *pdhk-2(tm3075),* FX00870 *nhr-6(tm870),* FX04733 *syx-6(tm4733),*

FX05136 *R11A8.7(tm5136)*, and FX02653 *rab-30(tm2653).*

Transgenic strains. The transgenic *C. elegans* strain VH905 hdIs30[*Pglr-1*::DsRed2] was a gift from

H. Hutter (Simon Fraser University, Burnaby, BC). The plasmid containing *Pmec-7*::mRFP was a gift

from J. Rand (University of Oklahoma Health Sciences Center, Oklahoma City, Oklahoma). The

transgenic *C. elegans* strains YT1128 *lin-15(n765);* tzEx[*Pckk-1*::GFP; *lin-15*(+)] and YT2016

tzIs2[*Pcmk-1*::GFP; *rol-6(su1006)*] and plasmids containing *cmk-1* cDNA were gifts from Y. Kimura

(Mitsubishi Kagaku Institute of Life Sciences, Japan). Please see supplemental methods for the primer

sequences for PCR fusion constructs generated for this study.

The following strains were created for this work: VG183 yvEx64[*Pcmk-1*::GFP; *Pmec-*

7::mRFP], VG12 hdIs30[*Pglr-1*::DsRed2]; tzIs2[*Pcmk-1*::GFP; rol-6(su1006)], VG19 tzEx[*Pckk-*

1::GFP; *lin-15*(+)]; hdIs30[*Pglr-1*::DsRed2], VG92 *cmk -1(oy21)*; yvEx49[*Pcmk-1*::CMK-1; *Pmyo-*

2::GFP], VG100 *cmk -1(oy21)*; yvEx57[*Pcmk-1*::CMK-1; *Pmyo-2*::GFP], VG260 yvEx73[P*ogt-*

1::GFP; P*mec-7*::RFP; *rol-6(su1006)*], VG214 yvEx70[P*ogt-1*::GFP; *rol-6(su1006)*] and

VG261 yvEx74[P*ogt-1*::GFP; P*mec-7*::RFP; *rol-6(su1006)*], VG271 *cmk-1(oy21); dpy-5(e907),*

VG279 *cmk-1(gk691866); dpy-5(e907),* VG245 *cmk-1(oy21); ogt-1(ok430).*

Imaging procedures. Adult worms were anesthetized in 100 mM NaN_3 dissolved in M9 buffer

containing sephadex beads (G-150-50, Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO) on glass microscope slides, and

then covered with a 1.5 thick coverslip. An Olympus Fluoview 1000 Confocal microscope was used for

imaging. GFP was excited using a 488 nm wavelength laser setting with light emitted collected through

a 491-515 nm bandpass filter. dsRed and mRFP were excited using a 543 nm wavelength laser setting

with light emitted collected through a 600-630 nm bandpass filter. Optical sections of 0.5 μm thickness

were collected using a 60x oil immersion lens (Olympus). Final figures were generated using Image J

version 1.41o (National Institutes of Health, Bethesda, MD) and Adobe Photoshop 7.0 (Adobe

Systems, San Jose, CA).

Behavioral testing of mutant strains. Worms were synchronized for behavioral testing by picking 5

gravid adults onto a Petri plate containing nematode growth media (NGM) seeded with 50 µl of a

liquid culture of OP50 *E. coli* 12-24 hours earlier and letting them lay eggs for 3-4 hours before they

were removed. These eggs were allowed to develop for 96 hours (unless otherwise stated) in a 20°C

incubator. Plates of worms were placed into the tapping apparatus (66) and covered with an optically

transparent lid constructed from a Petri plate lid, non-fogging cover-glass and wax. After a 100s

acclimatization period, 30 taps were administered at either a 60s or a 10s ISI.

For CMK-1 rescue strains twelve hours prior to testing, 40-60 worms carrying the selection

marker were transferred using a platinum pick to a fresh NGM plate. Plates were seeded with 50 µl of a

liquid culture of OP50 *E. coli* 16-20 hours beforehand.

Complementation test. Wild-type or *cmk-1(oy21)* males were mated with *dpy-5(e907)* hermaphrodites

homozygous for one of the three *cmk-1* alleles (wild-type, *oy21*, or *gk691866*). Tap habituation

behavior of non-*dpy* F1 progeny was evaluated.

Image acquisition of behavior, Behavioral scoring and statistical analysis. Stimulus delivery and

image acquisition to record the behavior of the worms was done using the Multi-Worm Tracker

(version 1.2.0.2) (66) as described previously (30). Offline data analysis was performed using

Choreography analysis software (version 1.3.0_r1035 software package) (66) as described previously

(30).

Reversal distances and durations in response to tap were compared across strains by statistical

analysis of variance and Tukey honestly significant difference (HSD) tests. Genotype was modeled as a

fixed effect. Petri plate (on which the worms were tested; minimum of 3 Petri plates of ~ 50 worms per

experimental condition) was modeled as a random effect nested within the fixed effect. For all

statistical tests an alpha value of 0.05 was used to determine significance. All analysis was performed

using the statistical software programming language, R, and the following R packages: tidyverse,

stringr, nlme, broom and multcomp.

Analysis code can be accessed here: https://github.com/ttimbers/CaMK_and_OGT-

1_modulate_mechanoresponding_and_learning/tree/master/src

Kinase and phosphosite prediction and evolutionary analyses. The kinase substrate specificity

prediction matrices (KSSPM) for *C. elegans* CMK-1, human CaMK1 isoforms and human CaMK4

were generated using an updated version of the algorithm originally described in Safaei *et al*. (33). The

C. elegans CMK-1 KSSPM was used to score all of the hypothetical peptides predicted surrounding

each of the serine and threonine residues in the 20,470 known *C. elegans* protein sequences. The top

597 scoring phosphopeptides were examined for their conservation in humans using the algorithm

described in Safaei *et al*. (33). The identified human phosphosites were then scored with the KSSPMs

for human CaMK1 isoforms and human CaMK4.

Acknowledgements

We would like to thank Angela Leong, Jing Xu and Savannah Nijeboer for help running experiments

and Andrew C. Giles for useful advice and discussions regarding this research. This work was

supported by a Natural Sciences and Engineering Research Council Alexander Graham Bell Canada

Graduate Scholarship to TAT, and by a Natural Sciences and Engineering Research Council Alexander

Graham Bell Canada Graduate Scholarship to ELA, and by a Natural Sciences and Engineering

Research Council Discovery Grant to CHR.

466
467   **References**
468

1.   Soderling TR (1999) The Ca-calmodulin-dependent protein kinase cascade. *Trends Biochem Sci*

24(6):232-236.

2.   Haribabu B*, et al.* (1995) Human calcium-calmodulin dependent protein kinase I: cDNA

cloning, domain structure and activation by phosphorylation at threonine-177 by calcium-

calmodulin dependent protein kinase I kinase. *EMBO J* 14(15):3679-3686.

3.   Kitani T, Okuno S, & Fujisawa H (1997) Studies on the site of phosphorylation of

Ca2+/calmodulin-dependent protein kinase (CaM-kinase) IV by CaM-kinase kinase. *J Biochem*

121(4):804-810.

4.   Tsui J, Inagaki M, & Schulman H (2005) Calcium/calmodulin-dependent protein kinase II

(CaMKII) localization acts in concert with substrate targeting to create spatial restriction for

phosphorylation. *J Biol Chem* 280(10):9210-9216.

5.   Lee JC, Kwon YG, Lawrence DS, & Edelman AM (1994) A requirement of hydrophobic and

basic amino acid residues for substrate recognition by Ca2+/calmodulin-dependent protein

kinase Ia. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 91(14):6413-6417.

6.   Jensen KF, Ohmstede CA, Fisher RS, & Sahyoun N (1991) Nuclear and axonal localization of

Ca2+/calmodulin-dependent protein kinase type Gr in rat cerebellar cortex. *Proc Natl Acad Sci*

U S A 88(7):2850-2853.

7.   Lemrow SM*, et al.* (2004) Catalytic activity is required for calcium/calmodulin-dependent

protein kinase IV to enter the nucleus. *J Biol Chem* 279(12):11664-11671.

8.   Kotera I*, et al.* (2005) Importin alpha transports CaMKIV to the nucleus without utilizing

importin beta. *EMBO J* 24(5):942-951.

9.   Ho N*, et al.* (2000) Impaired synaptic plasticity and cAMP response element-binding protein

activation in Ca2+/calmodulin-dependent protein kinase type IV/Gr-deficient mice. *Journal of*

Neuroscience 20(17):6459-6472.

10.   Kang H, *et al.* (2001) An important role of neural activity-dependent CaMKIV signaling in the

consolidation of long-term memory. *Cell* 106(6):771-783.

11.   Wei F, *et al.* (2002) Calcium calmodulin-dependent protein kinase IV is required for fear

memory. *Nat Neurosci* 5(6):573-579.

12.   Picciotto MR, Zoli M, Bertuzzi G, & Nairn AC (1995) Immunochemical localization of

calcium/calmodulin-dependent protein kinase I. *Synapse* 20(1):75-84.

13.   Wayman G, Kaech S, Grant W, Davare M, & Impey S (2004) Regulation of Axonal Extension

and Growth Cone Motility by Calmodulin-Dependent Protein Kinase I. *Journal of*

Neuroscience.

14.   Wayman G, *et al.* (2006) Activity-dependent dendritic arborization mediated by CaM-Kinase I

activation and enhanced CREB-dependent transcription of Wnt-2. *Neuron* 50(6):897-909.

15.   Takemoto-Kimura S, *et al.* (2007) Regulation of dendritogenesis via a lipid-raft-associated

Ca2+/calmodulin-dependent protein kinase CLICK-III/CaMKIgamma. *Neuron* 54(5):755-770.

16.   Wayman GA, *et al.* (2008) An activity-regulated microRNA controls dendritic plasticity by

down-regulating p250GAP. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 105(26):9093-9098.

17.   Saneyoshi T, *et al.* (2008) Activity-dependent synaptogenesis: regulation by a CaM-kinase

kinase/CaM-kinase I/betaPIX signaling complex. *Neuron* 57(1):94-107.

18.   Schmitt J, Guire E, Saneyoshi T, & Soderling T (2005) Calmodulin-dependent kinase

kinase/calmodulin kinase I activity gates extracellular-regulated kinase-dependent long-term

potentiation. *Journal of Neuroscience* 25(5):1281-1290.

19.   Guire ES, Oh MC, Soderling TR, & Derkach VA (2008) Recruitment of calcium-permeable

AMPA receptors during synaptic potentiation is regulated by CaM-kinase I. *J Neurosci*

28(23):6000-6009.

20.   Rankin C & Broster BS (1992) Factors affecting habituation and recovery from habituation in

the nematode Caenorhabditis elegans. *Behav Neurosci* 106(2):239-249.

21.   Beck CD & Rankin CH (1993) Effects of aging on habituation in the nematode Caenorhabditis

519   elegans. *Behavioural Processes* 28(3):145-163.

520   22.   Kindt K*, et al.* (2007) Dopamine Mediates Context-Dependent Modulation of Sensory Plasticity

521   in C. elegans. *Neuron* 55(4):662-676.

522   23.   Suzuki H*, et al.* (2003) In vivo imaging of C. elegans mechanosensory neurons demonstrates a

523   specific role for the MEC-4 channel in the process of gentle touch sensation. *Neuron*

524   39(6):1005-1017.

525   24.   Wayman GA, Lee YS, Tokumitsu H, Silva A, & Soderling TR (2008) Calmodulin-kinases:

526   modulators of neuronal development and plasticity. *Neuron* 59(6):914-931.

527   25.   Eto K*, et al.* (1999) Ca(2+)/Calmodulin-dependent protein kinase cascade in Caenorhabditis

528   elegans. Implication in transcriptional activation. *J Biol Chem* 274(32):22556-22562.

529   26.   Kimura Y*, et al.* (2002) A CaMK cascade activates CRE-mediated transcription in neurons of

530   Caenorhabditis elegans. *EMBO Reports* 3(10):962-966.

531   27. Yu Y, *et al.* (2014). CaMKI-dependent regulation of sensory gene expression mediates experience-

532   dependent plasticity in the operating range of a thermosensory neuron. *Neuron*, *84*(5), 919-926.

533   28. Schild L, *et al.* (2014). The balance between cytoplasmic and nuclear CaM kinase-1 signaling

534   controls the operating range of noxious heat avoidance. *Neuron*, *84*(5), 983-996.

535   29. Kobayashi, *et al.* (2016). Single-cell memory regulates a neural circuit for sensory behavior. *Cell*

536   *reports*, *14*(1), 11-21.

537   30.   Timbers TA, Giles AC, Ardiel EL, Kerr RA, & Rankin CH (2013) Intensity discrimination

538   deficits cause habituation changes in middle-aged Caenorhabditis elegans. *Neurobiol Aging*

539   34(2):621-631.

540   31.   Wicks SR & Rankin CH (1997) Effects of tap withdrawal response habituation on other

541   withdrawal behaviors: the localization of habituation in the nematode Caenorhabditis elegans.

542   *Behav Neurosci* 111(2):342-353.

32.   Saunders NF, Brinkworth RI, Huber T, Kemp BE, & Kobe B (2008) Predikin and PredikinDB:

a computational framework for the prediction of protein kinase peptide specificity and an

associated database of phosphorylation sites. *BMC Bioinformatics* 9:245.

33.   Safaei J, Manuch J, Gupta A, Stacho L, & Pelech S (2011) Prediction of 492 human protein

kinase substrate specificities. *Proteome Sci* 9 Suppl 1:S6.

34.   Hanover JA*, et al.* (2005) A Caenorhabditis elegans model of insulin resistance: altered

macronutrient storage and dauer formation in an OGT-1 knockout. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A*

102(32):11266-11271.

35.   Song M*, et al.* (2008) o-GlcNAc transferase is activated by CaMKIV-dependent

phosphorylation under potassium chloride-induced depolarization in NG-108-15 cells. *Cell*

Signal 20(1):94-104.

36.   Dias WB, Cheung WD, Wang Z, & Hart GW (2009) Regulation of calcium/calmodulin-

dependent kinase IV by O-GlcNAc modification. *J Biol Chem* 284(32):21327-21337.

37.   Satterlee JS, Ryu WS, & Sengupta P (2004) The CMK-1 CaMKI and the TAX-4 Cyclic

nucleotide-gated channel regulate thermosensory neuron gene expression and function in C.

elegans. *Curr Biol* 14(1):62-68.

38.   Hook S & Means A (2001) Ca2+/CaM-Dependent Kinases: From Activation to Function.

Annual Reviews in Pharmacology and Toxicology.

39.   Golks A, Tran TT, Goetschy JF, & Guerini D (2007) Requirement for O-linked N-

acetylglucosaminyltransferase in lymphocytes activation. *EMBO J* 26(20):4368-4379.

40.   Rexach JE, Clark PM, & Hsieh-Wilson LC (2008) Chemical approaches to understanding O-

GlcNAc glycosylation in the brain. *Nat Chem Biol* 4(2):97-106.

41.   Kreppel LK, Blomberg MA, & Hart GW (1997) Dynamic glycosylation of nuclear and

cytosolic proteins. Cloning and characterization of a unique O-GlcNAc transferase with

multiple tetratricopeptide repeats. *J Biol Chem* 272(14):9308-9315.

42. Gao X, Ikuta K, Tajima M, & Sairenji T (2001) 12-O-tetradecanoylphorbol-13-acetate induces

Epstein-Barr virus reactivation via NF-kappaB and AP-1 as regulated by protein kinase C and

mitogen-activated protein kinase. *Virology* 286(1):91-99.

43. Cole RN & Hart GW (2001) Cytosolic O-glycosylation is abundant in nerve terminals. *J

Neurochem* 79(5):1080-1089.

44. Akimoto Y, *et al.* (2003) Localization of the O-GlcNAc transferase and O-GlcNAc-modified

proteins in rat cerebellar cortex. *Brain Res* 966(2):194-205.

45. Lubas WA, Frank DW, Krause M, & Hanover JA (1997) O-Linked GlcNAc transferase is a

conserved nucleocytoplasmic protein containing tetratricopeptide repeats. *J Biol Chem*

272(14):9316-9324.

46. Lee J, Kim KY, & Paik YK (2010) Regulation of Dauer formation by O-GlcNAcylation in

Caenorhabditis elegans. *J Biol Chem* 285(5):2930-2939.

47. Rahman MM, *et al.* (2010) Intracellular protein glycosylation modulates insulin mediated

lifespan in C.elegans. *Aging (Albany NY)* 2(10):678-690.

48. Mondoux MA, *et al.* (2011) O-linked-N-acetylglucosamine cycling and insulin signaling are

required for the glucose stress response in Caenorhabditis elegans. *Genetics* 188(2):369-382.

49. Wang P, *et al.* (2012) O-GlcNAc cycling mutants modulate proteotoxicity in Caenorhabditis

elegans models of human neurodegenerative diseases. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A*

109(43):17669-17674.

50. Rexach JE, *et al.* (2012) Dynamic O-GlcNAc modification regulates CREB-mediated gene

expression and memory formation. *Nat Chem Biol* 8(3):253-261.

51. Din N, *et al.* (2010) The function of GluR1 and GluR2 in cerebellar and hippocampal LTP and

LTD is regulated by interplay of phosphorylation and O-GlcNAc modification. *J Cell Biochem*

109(3):585-597.

52.   Tallent MK, *et al.* (2009) In vivo modulation of O-GlcNAc levels regulates hippocampal

593   synaptic plasticity through interplay with phosphorylation. *J Biol Chem* 284(1):174-181.

594   53.   Lehner B (2011) Molecular mechanisms of epistasis within and between genes. *Trends Genet*

595   27(8):323-331.

596   54.   Lamarre-Vincent N & Hsieh-Wilson LC (2003) Dynamic glycosylation of the transcription

597   factor CREB: a potential role in gene regulation. *J Am Chem Soc* 125(22):6612-6613.

598   55.   Reason AJ, *et al.* (1992) Localization of O-GlcNAc modification on the serum response

599   transcription factor. *J Biol Chem* 267(24):16911-16921.

600   56.   Tai HC, Khidekel N, Ficarro SB, Peters EC, & Hsieh-Wilson LC (2004) Parallel identification

601   of O-GlcNAc-modified proteins from cell lysates. *J Am Chem Soc* 126(34):10500-10501.

602   57.   Kreppel LK & Hart GW (1999) Regulation of a cytosolic and nuclear O-GlcNAc transferase.

603   Role of the tetratricopeptide repeats. *J Biol Chem* 274(45):32015-32022.

604   58.   Alfaro JF, *et al.* (2012) Tandem mass spectrometry identifies many mouse brain O-

605   GlcNAcylated proteins including EGF domain-specific O-GlcNAc transferase targets. *Proc*

606   *Natl Acad Sci U S A* 109(19):7280-7285.

607   59.   Butkinaree C, Park K, & Hart GW (2010) O-linked beta-N-acetylglucosamine (O-GlcNAc):

608   Extensive crosstalk with phosphorylation to regulate signaling and transcription in response to

609   nutrients and stress. *Biochim Biophys Acta* 1800(2):96-106.

610   60.   Perez-Perez JM, Candela H, & Micol JL (2009) Understanding synergy in genetic interactions.

611   *Trends Genet* 25(8):368-376.

612   61. Chen X *et al.* (2015). Identification of Nonviable Genes Affecting Touch Sensitivity in

613   Caenorhabditis elegans Using Neuronally Enhanced Feeding RNA Interference. *G3: Genes|*

614   *Genomes| Genetics*, *5*(3), 467-475.

615   62. Chalfie M, & Sulston J (1981). Developmental genetics of the mechanosensory neurons of

616   Caenorhabditis elegans. *Developmental biology*, *82*(2), 358-370.

63.   Rankin CH, Abrams T, Barry RJ, Bhatnagar S, Clayton DF, Colombo J, & McSweeney FK

(2009) Habituation revisited: an updated and revised description of the behavioral

characteristics of habituation. *Neurobiol Learn Mem*, *92*(2):135-138.

64.   Brenner S (1974) The genetics of Caenorhabditis elegans. *Genetics* 77(1):71-94.

65.   Thompson O*, et al.* (2013) The million mutation project: a new approach to genetics in

Caenorhabditis elegans. *Genome Res* 23(10):1749-1762.

66.   Swierczek NA, Giles AC, Rankin CH, & Kerr RA (2011) High-throughput behavioral analysis

in C. elegans. *Nat Methods* 8(7):592-598.

630   **Table 1.** Summary of mechanosensory and learning phenotypes for predicted CMK-1
631   phosphorylation targets.
632

Human Protein	*C. elegans* gene	allele	Reversal Distance			
			Initial tap		habituation asymptote	
			p-value	score	p-value	score
PRKD1	*dkf-2*	ok1704	NS		< 0.01	- -
ARF6	*arf-1.2*	ok796	< 0.001	- - -	< 0.001	- - -
PRKCG	*pkc-2*	ok328	< 0.01	+ +	NS	
PDK4	*pdhk-2*	tm3075	0.05	-	NS	
PRKAR1B	*kin-2*	ce179	< 0.001	- - -	NS	
CHRFAM7A	*acr-16*	ok789	< 0.001	+ + +	NS	
MYO1F	*hum-1*	ok634	NS		NS	
PRKCH	*pkc-1*	ok563	NS		NS	
CHD3	*chd-3*	ok1651	< 0.001	- - -	< 0.001	- - -
RAPGEF3	*epac-1*	ok655	NS		NS	
STX6	*syx-6*	tm4733	< 0.001	- - -	NS	
ADRBK2	*grk-2*	rt97	< 0.01	+ +	NS	
PLXNA3	*plx-2*	ev773	< 0.01	- -	NS	
RAB30	*rab-30*	tm2653	NS		NS	
CNGA2	*tax-4*	p678	< 0.001	- - -	NS	
PDE7A	*pde-4*	ce268	< 0.001	- - -	NS	
HDAC4	*hda-4*	ok518	NS		< 0.05	+
HUNK	*par-1*	ok2001	< 0.001	+ + +	NS	
SYT6	*snt-1*	ad596	< 0.001	+ + +	< 0.001	+ + +
CHP2	*ncs-1*	qa406	NS		NS	
SPAG9	*unc-16*	e109	< 0.001	- - -	< 0.001	- - -
OGT	*ogt-1*	ok430	< 0.001	+ + +	<0.001	+ + +

Figure Legends

Figure 1. CMK-1, but not CKK-1, modulates response to mechanosensory stimuli and habituation. Response to mechanical stimuli and tap habituation of wild-type, *cmk-1(oy21),* and *ckk-1(ok1033)* mutants. (A) Reversal distance habituation to tap stimuli presented at a 60s ISI. (B) Reversal distance habituation to tap stimuli presented at a 10s ISI. (C) Response to mechanical stimuli and tap habituation of wild-type, *cmk-1(oy21),* and genetic rescue with CMK-1 cDNA in *cmk-1(oy21)* mutants. Error bars represent 95% confidence intervals (Clopper–Pearson method for binomial data).

Figure 2. CMK-1 Thr-179 plays a role in wild-type habituation. Response to mechanical stimuli and tap habituation of wild-type, *cmk-1(oy21), cmk-1(oy21/+),* and *cmk-1(oy21/gk691866)* worms when stimuli are presented at a 60s ISI and reversal distance is measured. Error bars represent 95% confidence intervals.

Figure 3. Genetic dissociation of initial response and habituation phenotypes. (A) CMK-1::GFP fusion proteins localize to the cytoplasm in cell bodies and neurites and are largely excluded from the nucleus. (B) Reversal response distance and habituation of wild-type, and *cmk-1(pg58)* mutants to repeated tap stimuli presented at a 60s ISI.

Figure 4. Mechanosensory and habituation phenotypes of predicted CMK-1 downstream phosphorylation targets. Venn diagram grouping genes whose mutant alleles showed similar behavioral phenotypes when given 30 taps at a 60s ISI. Grouping was based on the statistical analysis presented in Table 1.

Figure 5. OGT-1 modulates response to mechanical stimuli and habituation. Response to mechanical stimuli and tap habituation of wild-type, and *ogt-1(ok430)* mutants. (A) Reversal distance habituation to tap stimuli presented at a 60s ISI. (B) Reversal distance habituation to tap stimuli

presented at a 10s ISI. (C) Mechanosensory neurons, ALMs and AVM, (visualized with *Pmec-7::mRFP)* express OGT-1 (visualized with *Pogt-1::GFP).* Anterior is at left.

Figure 6. *cmk-1* and *ogt-1* function in a genetic network. Response to mechanical stimuli and tap habituation of wild-type, *cmk-1, ogt-1* and *cmk-1;ogt-1* double mutants when stimuli are presented at a 60s ISI. (A) Reversal distance habituation to tap stimuli. (B) Reversal speed habituation to tap stimuli. (C) Reversal duration habituation. Error bars represent 95% confidence intervals.

Figure 7. CMK-1 and OGT-1 functional interaction model. Proposed functional model that explains the genetic interaction between *cmk-1* and *ogt-1* mutants. Model aspects supported by data from this study are represented in blue.

A
60s ISI