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3 NMNAT1 facilitates energy metabolism and gene regulation in developing retinal neurons
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ABSTRACT

Despite mounting evidence that the mammalian retina is exceptionally reliant on proper NAD^+

homeostasis for health and function, the specific roles of subcellular NAD^+ pools in retinal

development, maintenance, and disease remain obscure. Here, we show that deletion of the

nuclear-localized NAD^+ synthase nicotinamide mononucleotide adenylyltransferase-1

(NMNAT1) in the developing murine retina causes early and severe degeneration of

photoreceptors and select inner retinal neurons via multiple distinct cell death pathways. This

severe phenotype is associated with extra-nuclear metabolic disruptions to retinal central carbon

metabolism, purine nucleotide synthesis, and amino acid pathways. Furthermore, large-scale

transcriptomics reveals dysregulation of a collection of photoreceptor and synapse-specific genes

in NMNAT1 knockout retinas prior to detectable morphological or metabolic alterations.

Collectively, our study furthers understanding of subcellular NAD^+ metabolism in vision, reveals

previously unrecognized complexity in NMNAT1-associated retinal degeneration, and suggests a

yet-undescribed role for NMNAT1 in genetic regulation of photoreceptor terminal

differentiation.

INTRODUCTION

Nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide (NAD^+) is a ubiquitous cellular metabolite with an ever-

expanding palette of biological functions across all kingdoms of life. In addition to serving a

central role in redox metabolism as an electron shuttle, NAD^+ has well-defined roles as a

substrate for a host of enzymes including sirtuins (SIRTs), mono- and poly- ADP-ribose

polymerases (PARPs), and glycohydrolases (CD38, CD157, and SARM1), whose collective

functions implicate NAD^+ metabolism in phenomena as diverse as aging, cell proliferation,

immunity, neurodegeneration, differentiation, and development (Houtkooper et al., 2010; Canto

et al., 2015; Nikiforov et al., 2015; Cambronne and Kraus, 2020; Navas and Carnero, 2021). A

relatively recent advance in the field is the notion of compartmentalized NAD^+ metabolism—that

production, utilization, and regulation of NAD^+ in distinct subcellular compartments dictates

function in tissue and process specific manners (Canto et al., 2015; Nikiforov et al., 2015;

Cambronne and Kraus, 2020; Navas and Carnero, 2021). While many aspects of this

compartmentalization remain to be explored, it is now known that spatiotemporal NAD^+

regulation plays prominent roles in processes including axon degeneration, circadian regulation,

and adipogenesis (Cambronne and Kraus, 2020).

Among mammalian tissues, the retina appears particularly reliant on proper NAD^+ homeostasis

for survival and function. This is evidenced first and foremost by over 30 mutations to the

ubiquitous, nuclear-localized NAD^+-synthesizing enzyme NMNAT1 which cause the severe

blinding disease Leber congenital amaurosis type 9 (LCA9) and related cone dystrophy (Perrault

et al., 2012; Falk et al., 2012; Chiang et al., 2012; Koenekoop et al., 2012; Coppieters et al.,

2015; Nash et al., 2018). Although many of these mutations reduce NMNAT1 catalytic activity

or stress-associated stability (Falk et al., 2012; Koenekoop et al., 2012; Sasaki et al., 2015),

patients with these disorders rarely report extra-ocular phenotypes, and two NMNAT1 mutant

mouse models recapitulate this puzzling observation (Greenwald et al., 2016). Further supporting

the importance of NAD^+ metabolism to vision are associations between retinal NAD^+ deficiency

and pathology in diverse models of retinal dysfunction (Lin et al., 2016) as well as multiple

mutations to NAD^+- or $NADP^+$-utilizing enzymes which also cause blindness in humans (Bowne

et al., 2006; Aleman et al., 2018; Bennett et al., 2020). Indeed, a crucial role for retinal NAD^+

was recently described through characterization mice conditionally lacking the rate-limiting

NAD^+ pathway enzyme NAMPT in photoreceptors (Lin et al., 2016). While Lin et al. shed light

on potential links between NAD^+ and mitochondrial metabolism in photoreceptors, the

significance of compartmentalized NAD^+ in vision—suggested by the fact that NMNAT1 is the

only NAD^+-pathway enzyme to date linked to blindness—remains poorly understood.

In mammals, NAD^+ is synthesized through four principal routes: *de novo* from tryptophan, from

diet-supplied nicotinic acid (NA) or nicotinamide riboside (NR), or from nicotinamide (NAM).

The final step of NAD^+ synthesis—common to all four pathways—is catalyzed by members of

the nicotinamide mononucleotide adenylyltransferase (NMNAT) family, which transfer an

adenylyl group from ATP to nicotinamide mononucleotide (NMN) or nicotinic acid

mononucleotide (NaMN) to form NAD^+ (Nikiforov et al., 2015). There are three NMNAT

isoforms in mammals (NMNAT1, 2, and 3) which differ in relative expression, activity, and

subcellular localization and maintain organelle-specific NAD^+ pools under various conditions

(Mori et al., 2014; Cambronne and Kraus, 2020). Among these isoforms, NMNAT1 and

NMNAT2 show relatively high gene expression in the retina (Kuribayashi et al., 2018) and

NMNAT1, which is localized to the cell nucleus, has gained considerable attention due to the

aforementioned links to disease as well as described roles in neuroprotection (Brazill et al.,

2017).

Current results point to multiple, potentially distinct roles for NMNAT1 in the mammalian

retina—*ex vivo* studies suggest that NMNAT1 supports retinal sirtuin function to facilitate the

survival of retinal progenitors (Kuribayashi et al., 2018), while ablation of NMNAT1 in mature

mice results in rapid death of photoreceptors mediated by the neurodegenerative NAD^+

glycohydrolase SARM1 (Sasaki et al., 2020a). Global deletion of NMNAT1 in mice is

embryonically lethal (Conforti et al., 2011), suggesting non-redundant roles for nuclear NAD^+

synthesis during development. Consistent with this notion, pan-retinal NMNAT1 deletion is

shown to cause rapid and severe retinal degeneration in mice shortly after birth (Wang et al.,

2017; Eblimit et al., 2018). While these studies suggest diverse functions of retinal NMNAT1

beyond its canonical role in redox metabolism, the degree to which these functions overlap—as

well as the mechanistic basis for the severity of NMNAT1-associated retinal dystrophy in animal

models and patients—have not been comprehensively explored.

In this study, we investigate the roles of NMNAT1-mediated NAD^+ metabolism in the retina by

generating and characterizing a retina-specific NMNAT1 knockout mouse model. Utilizing

histological and transcriptomic approaches, we demonstrate that NMNAT1 deletion causes

severe and progressive retinal degeneration affecting specific retinal cell types beyond

photoreceptors, and that this severe degeneration likely results from activation of multiple

distinct cell death pathways. Comprehensive metabolomics analysis reveals extra-nuclear

metabolic defects in NMNAT1 knockout retinas and suggests impaired central carbon, purine

nucleotide, and amino acid metabolism as a cause for severe degeneration. Unexpectedly,

transcriptomics analyses of knockout retinas reveal a cluster of photoreceptor and synapse-

specific genes which are downregulated before the onset of degeneration, suggesting a yet-

undescribed role for NMNAT1 in gene regulation during late-stage retinal development. Overall,

our results reveal a previously unappreciated complexity in NMNAT1-associated retinal

degeneration, provide possible explanations for the retina-specific manifestations of NMNAT1

deficiency, and lay the foundation for further study of compartmentalized NAD$^+$ metabolism in

vision.

RESULTS

Generation and validation of NMNAT1 conditional knockout mouse model

To establish a retinal-specific NMNAT1 knockout model, we crossed transgenic mice

homozygous for a loxP-targeted *Nmnat1* locus (*Nmnat1*$^{fl/fl}$) with mice expressing Cre

recombinase under a *Six3* promoter (*Nmnat1*$^{wt/wt}$ *Six3-Cre*), which activates throughout the retina

around embryonic day 9.5 (E9.5) and shows robust activity by E12.5 (Furuta et al., 2000). After

several crosses, mice inheriting *Six3-Cre* and a targeted *Nmnat1* locus (*Nmnat1*$^{fl/fl}$ *Six3-Cre*,

hereafter referred to as "knockouts") exhibit Cre-mediated excision of the first two exons of

Nmnat1—which contain important substrate binding domains—in the embryonic retina (**Figure**

1A). We determined that retinal *Nmnat1* expression in postnatal day 4 (P4) knockout mice was

reduced by 75.6% compared to littermate controls (**Figure 1B**). We further verified that retinal

NMNAT1 protein levels were drastically reduced in P0 knockout mice using a custom-made

polyclonal antibody against NMNAT1 (**Figure 1C** and **Figure 1—Supplement 1**). Finally, we

confirmed that embryonic *Six3-Cre* expression alone does not cause gross retinal abnormalities

by staining for several well-characterized cell type markers in mature *Nmnat1*^{wt/wt} *Six3-Cre*

by staining for several well-characterized cell type markers in mature *Nmnat1*$^{wt/wt}$ *Six3-Cre*

retinas and littermate controls (**Figure 2—Supplement 1**; markers discussed below).

Figure 1. Loss of NMNAT1 leads to early and severe retinal degeneration. (A) schematic
depicting retina specific *Six3-Cre* mediated excision of a segment of the *Nmnat1* gene. (**B**)
relative *Nmnat1* expression in retina from P4 knockout (-/-) and littermate control (+/+) mice as
assessed by RT-qPCR (grey bars represent mean, ***p<0.0005 using Student's t-test, n=3
biological replicates). (**C**) representative western blot showing levels of NMNAT1 and β-tubulin
loading control in retinal lysate from P0 knockout and control mice. (**D-G**) representative
hematoxylin and eosin (H&E)-stained retinal cross sections from knockout and control mice at
indicated ages. (**H-J**) spider plots depicting mean retinal thickness at P0, P4, and P10. Data are
represented as mean ± SD. *p<0.05 using Student's t-test. Abbreviations: LP, loxP site; E1-4,

exon 1-4; P, postnatal day; GCL, ganglion cell layer; NBL, neuroblastic layer; IPL, inner
plexiform layer; OPL, outer plexiform layer; INL, inner nuclear layer; ONL, outer nuclear layer;
IS/OS, photoreceptor inner segment/outer segment layer.
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161 **Early-onset and severe morphological defects in the NMNAT1-null retina**
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As a first step towards characterizing the effects of NMNAT1 ablation on the retina, we

performed retinal histology using hematoxylin and eosin (H&E) staining. H&E-stained retinal

cross sections from P0 knockout and control mice reveal no obvious morphological differences

(**Figure 1D,H**); however, by P4, knockout retina are markedly thinner than controls and exhibit

disrupted lamination and evidence of large-scale cell death in the inner and outer nuclear layers

(**Figure 1E**). Degeneration is most severe in the central retina, with a ~45% reduction in central

retinal thickness (but unaffected peripheral retinal thickness) in P4 knockout mice (**Figure 1I**).

By P10, knockouts show a ~62% reduction in central retinal thickness and ~27% reduction in

peripheral retinal thickness compared to controls (**Figure 1J**). Degeneration of the entire inner

and outer nuclear layers is nearly complete by P30 (**Figure 1G**), while remaining inner retinal

structures persist until approximately P60 (data not shown). Proper segregation of inner and

outer retinal neurons appears disrupted in P4 knockouts, but this segregation is established in

P10 knockouts despite severe degeneration (**Figure 1F**). Interestingly, formation of the outer

plexiform layer (containing photoreceptor and bipolar neuron synaptic structures) appears

disrupted in P4 and P10 knockout retinas (**Figure 1E,F**).

NMNAT1 loss affects survival of retinal bipolar and amacrine neurons

Histological examination suggests severe photoreceptor degeneration in NMNAT1 knockout

retinas but also indicates loss of specific inner retinal neuron populations. To further characterize

these effects, we quantified populations of several major inner retinal cell types in our knockout

by staining retinal sections with well-characterized antibody markers of retinal ganglion cells

(anti-BRN3A), amacrine cells (anti-calretinin), and bipolar cells (anti-CHX10) (**Supplemental**

Table 2). We performed this analysis at P4 and P10—representing early and late stages of

degeneration, respectively—revealing an interesting cell type-dependent sensitivity to NMNAT1

loss (**Figure 2**). At both tested ages, relative numbers of BRN3A-positive retinal ganglion cells

are not significantly different between knockout and control retina (**Figure 2B-E, P**), while

numbers of calretinin-positive amacrine cells are unchanged at P4 but reduced by ~51% in P10

knockout retinas (**Figure 2G-J, Q**). Numbers of CHX10-positive bipolar cells are similarly

unchanged at P4 but reduced by ~75% in P10 knockout retinas (**Figure 2L-O, R**). These results

identify retinal bipolar and amacrine neurons as targets of NMNAT1-associated degeneration

and suggest that bipolar neurons are more sensitive to NMNAT1 loss than amacrine neurons.

Interestingly, while BRN3A-positive retinal ganglion cells do eventually degenerate at

timepoints past P30 (data not shown), they appear largely agnostic to NMNAT1 loss in the

young postnatal retina.

Figure 2. NMNAT1 loss affects survival of retinal bipolar and amacrine cells.
Representative retinal sections from knockout (-/-) and floxed littermate control (+/+) mice at the indicated ages labelled with antibodies against BRN3A (**B-E***)*, Calretinin (CALR) (**G-J***)*, and CHX10 (**L-O***)*. Schematics in (**A**), (**F**), and (**K**) depict retinal neuron subtypes labelled by each respective antibody. Quantification of BRN3A- (**P***)*, Calretinin- (**Q***)*, and CHX10-positive cells (**R**) are shown. In (**Q**), only calretinin-positive cells on the outer side of the IPL (layer indicated by arrowheads) were counted. Data is represented as mean ± SD. n=3 biological replicates for all panels; significance determined using Student's t-test. Scale bars, 30 μm.

Loss of NMNAT1 impairs photoreceptor gene expression and severely perturbs early

postnatal photoreceptor survival

Turning our attention to photoreceptors, we repeated the above approach with antibodies against

the photoreceptor markers recoverin (anti-RCVRN) and rhodopsin (anti-RHO). While anti-

RCVRN cleanly labels developing photoreceptor somas in P4 and P10 control retinas (**Figure**

3B, Figure 3—Supplement 1, panel D), we observe a complete lack of recoverin staining in

knockout retinas at both ages (**Figure 3C, Figure 3—Supplement 1, panel E).** Barring a small

amount of non-specific staining likely originating from the secondary antibody (**Figure 3—**

Supplement 1, panels A,B), rhodopsin staining at P4 and P10 showed an identical trend to that

of recoverin (**Figure 3D,E, Figure 3—Supplement 1, panels H,I**).

Intrigued by the magnitude of this effect, and hypothesizing a role for NMNAT1-synthesized

nuclear NAD^+ in retinal gene regulation, we comprehensively profiled the transcriptomes of

knockout and control retinas at two timepoints—during degeneration (P4) and pre-degeneration

(E18.5)—using RNA-sequencing. At P4, this analysis reveals 2,976 differentially-expressed

genes in NMNAT1 knockout retinas (**Figure 3—Supplement 2, panel B**), several of which we

validated using RT-qPCR (**Figure 3—Supplement 1, panel C**). Consistent with the lack of

recoverin and rhodopsin staining at this age, gene set enrichment analysis (GSEA) of P4

differentially-expressed genes reveals several large, highly-overrepresented clusters of

downregulated genes associated with phototransduction and the cilium, including both recoverin

and rhodopsin (**Figure 3—Supplement 2, panel C**). Strikingly, among 815 differentially-

expressed genes in E18.5 knockout retinas, a similar cluster of downregulated genes associated

with visual perception and the photoreceptor outer segment was observed (**Figure 3—**

Supplement 3, panels B, C). Combining both RNA-sequencing datasets reveals a group of 365

genes which are differentially expressed in knockout retinas at both timepoints (**Figure 3F**).

Importantly, GSEA on this gene set reveals highly-overrepresented clusters of photoreceptor and

synapse associated genes (**Figure 3G**), and further analysis identifies a core set of 21

photoreceptor-associated genes which are significantly downregulated in E18.5 and P4

NMNAT1 knockout retinas (**Figure 3H,I**). Notably, this set includes rod-specific (e.g. *Gngt1*),

cone-specific (e.g. *Opn1sw*, *Cnga3*) and photoreceptor-specific (e.g. *Prph2*, *Rcvrn*, *Aipl1*) genes

of diverse function, many of which have important roles in photoreceptor development and

function. Consistent with a specific transcriptional effect on photoreceptors, we confirmed that

expression of several well-known ganglion cell, amacrine/horizontal cell, and bipolar cell

specific genes was largely unchanged in NMNAT1 knockout retinas at either tested age (**Figure**

3—Supplement 4). Altogether, these results implicate NMNAT1 in gene regulation during late-

stage retinal development, and suggest predominantly photoreceptor-specific transcriptional

dysregulation as a driver of the severe photoreceptor phenotype in NMNAT1 deficient retinas.

Beyond affecting photoreceptor-specific gene expression, we also note downregulation of 6

synapse-associated genes (*Stx3*, *Syngr1*, *Cln3*, *Scamp5*, and *Sv2b*) in both E18.5 and P4 knockout

retinas (**Figure 3—Supplement 5, panels C,D**), consistent with disruptions to outer plexiform

layer formation in P4 knockout retinas on histology and on staining with the synapse marker

synaptophysin (anti-SYPH) (**Figure 3—Supplement 5**).

Figure 3. NMNAT1 loss severely affects early postnatal photoreceptor gene expression and survival. Representative retinal sections from knockout (-/-) and floxed littermate control (+/+) mice at the indicated ages labelled with antibodies against recoverin (RCVRN) (**B-C**) or rhodopsin (RHO) (**D-E**). Schematic in (**A**) depicts retinal neuron subtypes labelled by recoverin antibody. (**F**) comparison of differentially-expressed genes in E18.5 and P4 knockout retinas as assessed by RNA-sequencing. (**G**) GSEA of differentially-expressed genes present in E18.5 and P4 knockout retinas. (**H,I**) relative expression of indicated genes in P4 and E18.5 knockout retinas as assessed by RNA-sequencing. n=3 biological replicates for (**B-E**), n=5 biological replicates for (**H**), n=3 biological replicates for (**I**). Corresponding zoom panels are indicated with dotted rectangles. Scale bars, 30 μm.

Loss of NMNAT1 during retinal development triggers multiple cell death pathways

As NMNAT1 deficiency drastically impairs the postnatal survival of photoreceptor, bipolar, and amacrine neurons, we sought to determine the mechanisms by which these cells degenerate. To this aim, we began by staining retinal sections with an antibody against activated caspase-3 (AC3). While P0 knockout retinas show little AC3 staining compared to controls—consistent with grossly normal retinal morphology at this age—P4 knockout retinas show robust AC3 immunoreactivity in the inner and outer nuclear layers (**Figure 4A-D**). As expected, most AC3-positive cells display nuclear chromatin condensation ('pyknosis') characteristic of dying cells; however, staining also reveals a population of pyknotic nuclei not immunoreactive to AC3 (**Figure 4A'-D', arrows**). Interestingly, these pyknotic, AC3-negative cells were sparsely present in P0 and P4 control retinas (**Figure 4A,C**) and to a larger extent in P0 and P4 knockout retinas (**Figure 4B,D**). Quantification (**Figure 4E**) reveals a general trend of cell death consistent with our histology and cell-marker investigations: nuclear pyknosis is slightly elevated in P0 knockout retinas compared to controls, peaks at P4 where we observe robust retinal degeneration, and is virtually absent by P10, by which time the majority of outer and inner nuclei in the knockout are lost (**Figure 1D**). Interestingly, we observe roughly equal amounts of AC3-positive and AC3-negative pyknotic cells in P0 knockout retinas, whereas by P4 AC3-negative pyknotic cells constitute ~30% of pyknotic cells in knockout retinas (**Figure 4E**). In addition to being present at all tested ages and following the same general trend as AC3-

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Figure 4. NMNAT1 loss causes activation of multiple cell death pathways in the retina. (A-
D) representative retinal sections from knockout (-/-) and floxed littermate control (+/+) mice at
the indicated ages labelled with an antibody against active Caspase-3 (AC3). Corresponding
zoom panels are indicated with dotted rectangles. Arrows denote pyknotic, AC3-negative nuclei.
(**E**) quantification of pyknotic nuclei in sections from knockout and control mice at the indicated
ages, grouped by presence (AC3+) or absence (AC3-) of active Caspase-3 labeling. Relative
expression of several apoptotic (**F**), pyroptotic (**G**), and necroptotic (**H**) genes in P4 knockout
retinas as assessed by RNA-sequencing. (**I**) relative expression of *Sarm1* in P4 knockout and
control retinas as assessed by RNA-sequencing. (**J**) relative abundance of cyclic-ADP-ribose
(cADPR) in P4 knockout and control retinas as measured by mass spectrometry (grey bars
represent means). Data are represented as mean ± SD. Significance determined using Tukey's
multiple comparisons test for (**E**), DESeq2 for (**F-I**) (see methods), or Student's t-test for (**J**).
n=3 biological replicates per condition for (**A-E**), n=5 biological replicates for (**F-I**), n=6
biological replicates (one outlier removed) for (**J**). Scale bars, 30 µm.
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positive pyknotic cells, AC3-negative pyknotic cells often appear in distinct clusters (**Figure**

4D'), distinguishable from the more evenly dispersed AC3-positive pyknotic cells.

These results suggest the activation of at least two distinct cell death pathways in NMNAT1

knockout retinas between P0 and P4. To more comprehensively characterize NMNAT1-

associated cell death and identify possible caspase 3-independent cell death pathways in our

knockout, we leveraged the E18.5 and P4 RNA-sequencing datasets mentioned above. This

allowed us to systematically assay the expression of a collection of genes associated with several

major cell death pathways (**Figure 4—Supplement 2**). Consistent with AC3 staining, we

observe deregulation of a collection of apoptosis-related genes in P4 knockout retina, including

significant increases in *Noxa* and *Fas*, two pro-apoptotic genes previously associated with cell

death in NMNAT1-deficient retinas (Kuribayashi et al., 2018) (**Figure 4F**). Notably, two of

these genes—*Noxa* and *Chop*—are also significantly deregulated at E18.5, prior to significant

retinal degeneration (**Figure 4—Supplement 1, panel A**).

In addition to transcriptional signatures of apoptosis, we identified upregulation of a collection of

genes associated with pyroptosis in P4 NMNAT1 knockout retinas (**Figure 4G**). Pyroptosis is

characterized by assembly of a multi-protein complex called the 'inflammasome,' which

ultimately cleaves and activates the pore-forming members of the gasdermin family of proteins

to elicit lytic cell death in response to a variety of perturbations (McKenzie et al., 2020).

Interestingly, we find upregulation of all three classical inflammasome components—*Nlrp3*,

Casp1, and *Pycard* (ASC)—in P4 knockout retinas (**Figure 4G**), with *Nlrp3* upregulation at

E18.5 as well (**Figure 4—supplement 1, panel B**). In addition, we observe significant increases

in *Irf2*, a transcriptional activator of gasdermin D (Kayagaki et al., 2019), as well as pyroptosis-

associated proteins *Ripk1* and *Tlr2* at P4 (**Figure 4G**). Notably, expression of *Tlr2* and related

protein *Tlr4* is significantly elevated in E18.5 knockout retinas (**Figure 4—Supplement 1, panel**

B). Finally, we also observed dysregulation of several genes associated with necroptosis (**Figure**

4H) and ferroptosis (**Figure 4—Supplement 2, panel D**) in P4 knockout retinas; however, none

of these genes were significantly upregulated at E18.5, although we do observe an early

induction of necroptosis-associated protein *Nox2* at this age (**Figure 4—Supplement 1, panel**

C).

Recently, photoreceptor cell death in a postnatally-induced global NMNAT1 knockout mouse

was shown to depend heavily on the activity of the pro-degenerative axonal protein SARM1

(Sasaki et al., 2020a). Suspecting SARM1 as the culprit behind the caspase 3-independent cell

death in our model, we checked *Sarm1* expression in our RNA-seq data and assayed SARM1

activity by measuring levels of its catalytic product cyclic ADP-ribose (cADPR) using targeted

mass spectrometry in P4 and E18.5 NMNAT1 knockout and control retinas. Surprisingly, we

found no significant changes in SARM1 expression (**Figure 4I, Figure 4—Supplement 1, panel**

D) or activity (**Figure 4J, Figure 4—Supplement 1, panel E**) at either tested age. Overall, these

data reveal that activation of multiple cell death pathways underlies the rapid and severe

degeneration observed in NMNAT1 knockout retinas, and suggest pyroptosis—rather than

SARM1—and apoptosis as drivers of this degeneration.

Global metabolic consequences of retinal NMNAT1 ablation

To identify possible mechanisms for the severe and cell type-specific retinal degeneration in our

model, we sought to characterize global metabolic consequences of deleting NMNAT1 in the

retina. To this end, we used targeted liquid chromatography-tandem mass spectrometry (LC-

MS/MS) to quantify levels of ~112 cellular metabolites spanning many essential biochemical

pathways in NMNAT1 knockout and control retinas at pre- and post-degenerative timepoints

matching that of our RNA-sequencing analyses (E18.5 and P4). While LC-MS/MS analysis

reveals no significant changes in E18.5 knockout retinas compared to controls, analysis at P4

reveals significantly altered levels of 39 metabolites in knockout retinas (**Figure 5, Figure 5—**

Supplement 1). Metabolite set enrichment analysis (MSEA) identifies potential disruption of

several diverse biochemical pathways including amino acid metabolism,

glycolysis/gluconeogenesis, nicotinate and nicotinamide metabolism, and purine metabolism

(**Figure 5B**).

Retinal NMNAT1 loss causes disruption of NAD biosynthetic pathways and central carbon

metabolism

As a first step in our metabolomics analysis, we characterized changes to retinal NAD^+

biosynthetic pathways upon NMNAT1 ablation (**Figure 5C,D**). At P4, knockouts show a ~40%

reduction of total retinal NAD^+ levels and levels of nicotinic acid adenine dinucleotide (NaAD),

the other catalytic product of NMNAT1 (**Figure 5C,D**). Levels of the downstream metabolites

NADP and nicotinamide (NAM) were decreased by ~25% and ~55%, respectively, while levels

of NADH were decreased but not significantly (**Figure 5C**). As expected, we observe significant

accumulation of NAD precursors nicotinamide riboside (NR) and nicotinamide mononucleotide

(NMN) in P4 knockout retinas (**Figure 5C**). Interestingly, we observe no significant changes in

levels of tryptophan, the starting point for de novo NAD synthesis, at this age (**Figure 5C,D**).

Figure 5. Loss of NMNAT1 impairs retinal central carbon metabolism. (**A**) schematic
illustrating metabolomics experimental approach. (**B**) results of metabolite set enrichment
analysis (MSEA) on significantly changed metabolites in P4 knockout retinas. (**C**) relative
abundance of NAD^+ pathway metabolites in P4 knockout retinas as assessed by mass
spectrometry. (**D**) schematic illustrating the major mammalian NAD^+ synthesis pathways colored
according to metabolite changes in (**C**); NMNAT1-catalyzed steps are indicated with asterisks.
(**E**) relative abundance of glycolysis, TCA cycle, and creatine metabolites in P4 knockout retinas
as assessed by mass spectrometry. (**F**) schematic depicting abbreviated glycolysis/TCA cycle
pathway colored according to metabolite changes in (**E**); aldolase-catalyzed step is indicated by a
single asterisk, while GAPDH-catalyzed step is marked with a double asterisk. (**G**) heatmap of
log-transformed relative expression of a set of glycolysis/TCA cycle genes in P4 knockout (-/-)
and control retinas (+/+) as assessed by RNA-sequencing. (**H**) relative abundance of pentose-
phosphate pathway (PPP) metabolites in P4 knockout retinas as assessed by mass spectrometry.
Data are represented as mean ± SD. n=6 biological replicates for (**B,C,E,H**), n=5 biological
replicates for (**G**).
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Interestingly, the set of significantly changed metabolites in P4 knockout retinas is enriched for

metabolites associated with glycolysis, gluconeogenesis, and the Warburg effect (**Figure 5B**).

Closer examination of these pathways reveals large relative increases in levels of the upstream

glycolytic metabolites glucose, glucose 6-phosphate (G6P) and fructose 1,6-bisphosphate

(F16BP), as well as significant decreases in levels of dihydroxyacetone phosphate (DHAP) and

glucose 3-phosphate (G3P) (**Figure 5E, F**), strongly suggesting a disruption to forward

glycolytic flux. Consistent with such an effect, levels of the TCA cycle intermediates alpha-

ketoglutarate (a-KG) and succinate are decreased by ~30% in P4 knockout retinas (**Figure 5E,**

F). Further in line with disruptions to downstream mitochondrial metabolism, we observe

reduction of several acylcarnitine species at this age as well (**Figure 5—Supplement 1, panel**

A). Interestingly, although we observe decreased levels of the ATP-recycling metabolites

phosphocreatine and creatine at P4, retinal ATP levels at this age are slightly but not

significantly reduced (p = 0.5) (**Figure 5F**).

To further investigate possible glycolytic disruptions in P4 knockout retinas, we assayed the

expression of a collection of glycolysis and TCA cycle enzymes in P4 knockout and control

retinas using our RNA-sequencing dataset. Indeed, this analysis reveals broad transcriptional

changes in 16 glycolytic and 4 TCA cycle enzymes in P4 knockout retinas (**Figure 5G**).

Notably, two of these changes—upregulation of the aldehyde dehydrogenase *Aldh8a1* and

downregulation of the TCA cycle enzyme *Ogdhl*—are also present in RNA-sequencing results

from the pre-degenerative (E18.5) timepoint (**Figure 5—Supplement 1, panel B**). Finally,

consistent with disruption of glycolytic flux and reduced NADP levels in knockout retinas, mass

spectrometry suggests possible disruption of the pentose phosphate pathway (PPP) evidenced by

decreased levels of erythritol at this age (**Figure 5H**).

NMNAT1 loss disrupts retinal purine metabolism and a subset of amino acids

As MSEA also indicated possible disruptions of purine metabolism and several amino acid

pathways in P4 NMNAT1 knockout retinas (**Figure 5B**), we closely examined levels of a

collection of metabolites representing most major nucleotide and amino acid metabolites in P4

knockout and control retinas (**Figure 5—Supplement 2**). Interestingly, while levels of the

pyrimidine nucleotide derivatives uracil, UDP, and cytidine were unchanged at this age, levels of

the purine nucleotide precursor xanthine, guanine, and GMP were increased by ~150%, ~147%,

and ~58%, respectively (**Figure 5—Supplement 2, panel A**). The sole affected pyrimidine

nucleotide was cytosine, which showed an impressive ~352% increase in P4 knockout retinas as

compared to controls (**Figure 5—Supplement 2, panel A**). In addition to defects in purine

metabolism, we observe significant changes in a subset of 10 amino acids and amino acid

derivatives in P4 knockout retinas including acetyl-asparagine and acetyl-lysine (**Figure 5—**

Supplement 2, panel B).

Overall, these metabolomics results reveal that NMNAT1 is likely responsible for maintaining

~40% of the total retinal NAD^+ pool. Furthermore, they suggest specific disruptions to central

carbon, purine nucleotide, and amino acid metabolism as potential causes for severe retinal

degeneration in the absence of NMNAT1.

DISCUSSION

NMNAT1-deficiency is associated with early and severe retinal degeneration involving multiple cell types

In this study, we demonstrate that retinal NMNAT1 deficiency in mice leads to severe degeneration of photoreceptor, bipolar, and amacrine neurons soon after birth. In general, this phenotype is consistent with several recent studies reporting partial or complete ablation of retinal NMNAT1. One such study deletes NMNAT1 pan-retinally during development using *Chx10-Cre* and reports degeneration of the ONL and INL starting after P2 and largely complete by P15 (Eblimit et al., 2018). In a recent study which reported global ablation of NMNAT1 in mature mice using a tamoxifen-inducible actin-Cre, while it took ~23 days post-tamoxifen administration for retinal degeneration to begin, this degeneration was largely complete 10 days thereafter (Sasaki et al., 2020a). Finally, two models featuring NMNAT1 ablation in developing photoreceptors using *Crx-Cre* have been reported, both of which show a similar albeit slower degeneration of the ONL and INL beginning around P6 and nearly total by P28 (Wang, et al., 2017; Eblimit et al., 2018). While the present study supports a relatively rapid timeline of NMNAT1-associated retinal degeneration, it furthers the characterization of this phenotype in two important ways: first, by assessing the survival of specific retinal neuron subpopulations, and second, by systematically examining retinal cell death pathways triggered by NMNAT1 deletion.

Examination of specific cell type markers in NMNAT1 knockout retinas reveals that, while photoreceptors are likely the primary targets of NMNAT1-associated pathology, retinal bipolar

and amacrine cells are also sequentially and significantly affected by loss of NMNAT1 during

retinal development, while ganglion cells appear unaffected until later stages. Interestingly, this

differential sensitivity is mirrored in our transcriptomics analyses, which demonstrate robust

deregulation of a cluster of photoreceptor and several bipolar cell-specific genes but relatively

few changes in amacrine or ganglion specific genes. These results stand partially in contrast to a

recent study reporting *ex vivo* knockdown of NMNAT1 in retinal explant cultures, which

reported thinner INLs but no changes in numbers of HuC/D-expressing amacrine cells or PKCa-

expressing bipolar cells in NMNAT1-deficient explants (Kuribayashi et al., 2018). However, this

study did report reduced numbers of PNR-positive photoreceptor cells in NMNAT1-deficient

explants, and we believe that differences regarding amacrine and bipolar cell effects can be

explained by the fact that NMNAT1 expression in explants was knocked down relatively late in

development (E17.5) as compared to the E9.5 activation of Six3-Cre (Furuta et al, 2000).

While we were unable to successfully determine retinal NMNAT1 distribution using our

polyclonal NMNAT1 antibody, previously published results showing RT-qPCR of *Nmnat1*,

Nmnat2, and *Nmnat3* levels in whole retinal lysate and flow-sorted Cd73$^+$ rod photoreceptors

suggest that NMNAT1 is the predominantly expressed NMNAT isoform in rod photoreceptors

(Kuribayashi et al., 2018). Combined with our data confirming a lack of transcriptional

upregulation of either *Nmnat2* or *Nmnat3* in NMNAT1 knockout retinas (**Figure 3—**

Supplement 1), one possible explanation for the cell-type specific degeneration we observe is

that relatively higher levels of NMNAT2 in inner retinal neurons can partially compensate for

the NAD$^+$ deficit caused by loss of NMNAT1. Overall, our results demonstrate that NMNAT1 is

crucial for the early survival of photoreceptors, bipolar cells, and amacrine cells, and facilitates

future work in identifying possible retinal cell-type specific requirements of NAD$^+$ metabolism.

The severity of NMNAT1-associated retinal degeneration is associated with activation of

multiple cell death pathways

Previous reports of cell death in NMNAT1-deficient retinas center on two potentially contrasting

mechanisms: the aforementioned *ex vivo* study outlined a role for *Noxa* and *Fas*-associated,

caspase-3 dependent apoptosis in NMNAT1-deficient explants (Kuribayashi et al., 2018), while

a more recent study found the death of mature photoreceptors after global NMNAT1 deletion to

be exquisitely dependent on the neuronal NADase SARM1 (Sasaki et al., 2020a). Using both

histological and comprehensive transcriptomic approaches, we demonstrate involvement of

caspase-3 associated apoptosis in NMNAT1 knockout retinas characterized by an early and

sustained upregulation of *Noxa* and deregulation of several other apoptosis-pathway genes. We

extend these results by showing histological evidence of a distinct, caspase-3 independent cell

death pathway which constitutes a significant portion of observed cell death and closely follows

caspase-3 dependent apoptosis throughout the timepoints tested in our model. Interestingly,

utilizing a recently validated and highly-touted metabolic marker of SARM1 activity (Sasaki et

al., 2020b), as well as assessing baseline *Sarm1* levels, we do not find evidence of SARM1

involvement at either pre- or post-degenerative timepoints in our model. Instead, our

transcriptomics results indicate deregulation of several pyroptosis and necroptosis-related genes,

notably including the entire "canonical inflammasome" (*Casp1*, *Nlrp3*, and *Pycard*), as well as

the toll-like receptors *Tlr2* and *Tlr4*, at pre- and post-degenerative timepoints (**Figure 4**).

Although cell death pathways are largely interconnected and notoriously complex (Vandenabeele

et al., 2010; Newton et al., 2014; Preyat and Leo 2015; Muller et al., 2017; Swanson et al.,

2019;), several lines of evidence support the potential involvement of pyroptosis in our model

over alternative pathways. Included among these is the distinct presence of nuclear pyknosis

(chromatin condensation) in caspase-3 negative dying cells, which is generally incompatible with

necroptosis but has been observed in pyroptotic cells (Vandenabeele et al., 2010; Murakami et

al., 2012; Miao et al., 2011). In addition to observing upregulation of a collection of pyroptosis-

associated genes, a relatively large upregulation of *Nlrp3* in E18.5 NMNAT1 knockout retinas is

consistent with a well-characterized transcriptional "priming" step of pyroptosis (Swanson et al.,

2019). Curiously, while we do not detect proteolytic cleavage of gasdermin D—a common

marker of pyroptosis—in P4 NMNAT1 knockout retinas (**Figure 4—Supplement 1**), we do

observe transcriptional upregulation of the related gasdermin C4 (*Gsdmc4*), for which no

commercial antibody is currently available. Furthermore, recent results indicate that NLRP3 is,

under certain circumstances, capable of being activated independently of gasdermin D (Gutierrez

et al., 2017). With regard to several changes to ferroptosis-associated genes, their relatively small

number and presence only at post-degenerative timepoints argues for involvement as secondary

to other cell death pathways. Finally, considering a very recent report suggesting involvement of

the PARP1-associated 'parthanatos' cell death pathway in NMNAT1 mutant retinas (Greenwald

et al., 2021), we did not detect accumulation of poly ADP-ribose (PAR) in caspase-3 negative

pyknotic nuclei (data not shown), arguing against involvement of this pathway under these

conditions.

That we do not find evidence of SARM1 involvement, even in the presence of increased levels

of its potent activator NMN (Zhao et al., 2019; Figley et al., 2021) is unexpected but not

implausible, especially considering the fact that the report implicating SARM1 in NMNAT1-

associated degeneration deleted NMNAT1 in mature mice (Sasaki et al., 2020a). Indeed, the

phenomenon of age-dependent susceptibility of the retina to different cell death pathways is

well-documented—in particular, many apoptosis effectors (*Casp3*, *Casp9*, *Apaf1*, *Bcl* family

members) active in the developing mammalian retina are subsequently downregulated in mature

retinas, necessitating alternative death pathways for handling pathological insults at these ages

(Donovan and Cotter 2002; Doonan et al., 2003; Donovan et al., 2006). Considering these

results, it is wholly possible that in mature retinas with insufficient expression of necessary

apoptotic and/or pyroptotic machinery, NMNAT1-associated retinal degeneration proceeds

through SARM1—in such a case, it is important to note that model systems with embryonic or

germline deletion or mutation of NMNAT1 are typically more representative of patients with

disease-linked mutations in NMNAT1. On the other hand, it cannot be conclusively ruled out

that excess cADPR produced by an active SARM1 in our model is rapidly metabolized, and

recently described links between SARM1 and both pyroptosis and apoptosis (Mukherjee et al.,

2015; Carty et al., 2019) leave open the possibility of cooperation between these cell death

pathways in NMNAT1 knockout retinas.

Despite leaving open questions regarding the specific pathways involved in retinal degeneration

following embryonic NMNAT1 deletion, our results support and extend previously reported *ex*

vivo findings of a central role for *Noxa-* and *Fas-* associated apoptosis in NMNAT1-deficient

retinas and contest the SARM1-dependent photoreceptor death described in mature NMNAT1-

deficient retinas. A more comprehensive, transcriptomics-guided approach in the present study

reveals previously unknown complexity in NMNAT1-associated retinal degeneration; in

particular, activation of multiple distinct cell death pathways following NMNAT1 deletion may

explain the severity of the resulting phenotype. Future work will focus on definitively addressing

potential SARM1 involvement as well as systematically interrogating non-apoptotic cell death

pathways to gain a more complete phenotypic understanding of the NMNAT1-deficient retina.

Finally, we note that although the model presented here differs in important ways from

NMNAT1-mutant LCA animal models, it does recapitulate some aspects of NMNAT1-linked

LCA including particularly severe central retinal defects (Kumaran et al., 2017). As recent

studies have discovered noncoding mutations, copy number variations, and exon duplications in

NMNAT1 causing severe downregulation of NMNAT1 in patients with ocular and extra-ocular

pathologies (Coppieters et al., 2015; Bedoni et al., 2020), understanding the mechanisms of

retinal dysfunction in an NMNAT1 knockout model is of clinical significance.

Metabolic defects in NMNAT1 knockout retinas

While several recent studies examine levels of isolated metabolites in mature NMNAT1-

deficient retinas (Sasaki et al., 2020a), or more broadly examine tissue metabolomes after

perturbation of the NMN-synthesizing enzyme NAMPT (Lin et al., 2016; Oakey et al., 2019;

Lundt et al., 2021), the present study is—to our knowledge—the first to comprehensively define

global metabolic defects in any tissue after deletion of NMNAT1. Our metabolomics results

approximate that NMNAT1 is responsible for synthesizing ~40% of the total retinal NAD^+ pool,

a figure which is generally consistent with a previous model (Sasaki et al., 2020a). In addition,

our results strongly suggest that—via specific disruptions to central carbon, nucleotide, and

amino acid metabolism—depletion of NAD$^+$ synthesized in the nucleus by NMNAT1 has

distinct extra-nuclear effects in the retina. This is consistent with studies describing some level of

coordination between cytosolic, mitochondrial, and nuclear NAD$^+$ pools in non-retinal tissues

(Cambronne et al., 2016); however, whether these observations reflect a direct export of nuclear

NAD$^+$ to cytosolic and mitochondrial retinal compartments versus an indirect effect on cytosolic

and mitochondrial cellular processes (by way of NAD$^+$-dependent gene regulation, for instance)

is a topic for further study.

The existence of the aforementioned metabolomics studies on tissues deficient in NAMPT,

which catalyzes the NAD$^+$ synthesis step immediately prior to the NMNAT1-catalyzed step and

exhibits dynamic subcellular localization (Svoboda et al., 2019), permits identification of

potential NMNAT1-specific metabolic changes. Impaired glycolytic flux appears to be a more

general feature of tissue NAD$^+$ depletion, as studies reporting NAMPT inhibition or deletion in

projection neurons and skeletal muscle myotubes report accumulation of glycolytic metabolites

upstream of GAPDH (Oakey et al., 2019; Lundt et al., 2021). Furthermore, utilizing stable

isotope tracers, Lundt et al. present evidence that glycolysis blockage reverses glycolytic flux in

NAMPT-inhibited myotubes, an effect which we believe may explain decreased levels of G3P

and DHAP in our model. Notably, unbiased LC-MS/MS and GC-MS analyses of rod-

photoreceptor-specific NAMPT knockout retinas showed signatures of mitochondrial metabolic

defects—which we observe in our model as well—but detected limited evidence of glycolytic

impairment (Lin et al., 2016). This raises the possibility that retinal NMNAT1 and NAMPT

depletion, despite both lowering total retinal NAD$^+$ levels, produce distinct metabolic

phenotypes.

Retinal neurons—and retinal photoreceptors in particular—are relatively unique in their

dependence on aerobic glycolysis (the "Warburg Effect") during both proliferative and

differentiated states (Agathocleous et al., 2012; Ng et al., 2015; Chinchore et al., 2017). Our

finding that retinal NMNAT1 loss is detrimental to glycolysis thus offers a potential explanation

for the cell type-specific degeneration which we observe: in particular, results indicating that

differentiation induces an increased reliance on mitochondrial OXPHOS relative to glycolysis in

the retina might explain why ganglion and amacrine cells, which differentiate relatively early in

retinogenesis, are less sensitive to NMNAT1 loss in our model than the later born bipolar and

photoreceptor cells (Agathocleous et al., 2012). Indeed, even in mature retinas, perturbations to

glycolysis robustly and specifically affect photoreceptor health and survival (Chinchore et al.,

2015; Zhang et al., 2020; Sinha et al., 2021). Interestingly, we find no significant change in

retinal ATP levels at P4, arguing against the parsimonious assumption of bioenergetic collapse as

the cause of the severe cell death which we observe. Furthermore, recent results implicating

glycolytic flux impairment in NLRP3 activation provide a potential link between metabolic

defects and non-apoptotic cell death which we observe in NMNAT1 knockout retinas (Sanman

et al., 2016).

In addition to glycolytic impairment, we note specific defects in purine nucleotide and amino

acid metabolic pathways in NMNAT1 knockout retinas. As a particularly proliferative tissue—

owing primarily to photoreceptors' continuous renewal of their light-sensing 'outer segment'

organelles—the retina is thought to be particularly reliant on adequate nucleotide and amino acid

pools to support transcription and translation of outer segment machinery (Etingof 2001; Ng et

al., 2015). Some of the metabolic changes which we observe—for instance, accumulation of the

purine precursor xanthine and the amino acid aspartate—appear to be more widely associated

with NAD$^+$ insufficiency or retinal degeneration (Du et al., 2014; Lin et al., 2016; Oakey et al.,

2019). On the other hand, we also identify a collection of metabolic changes in these pathways

which are not reported in NAMPT-deficient retinas (Lin et al., 2016), potentially explaining

differences in retinal phenotypes between these two models. Further investigation in this

direction should include metabolite flux analyses and spatial metabolomics methods to clarify

the mechanisms involved.

A potential role for NMNAT1 in photoreceptor terminal differentiation

The tightly coordinated and stereotypical differentiation of retinal neuron subtypes from a

common progenitor pool has been extensively studied—complementing classical birth-dating

studies, recent high-profile investigations have begun to explore the massive epigenetic

regulation necessary for the development of the mammalian retina (Swaroop et al., 2010;

Raeisossadati et al., 2021). One of the most surprising findings of the present study is an early

and sustained transcriptional downregulation of a relatively small set of photoreceptor- and

synapse-specific genes in NMNAT1 knockout retinas. Beyond these transcriptional disruptions,

we show near complete absence of rhodopsin and recoverin protein in P4 NMNAT1 knockout

retinas. While NMNAT1 has previously been implicated in gene regulation through direct

interaction with SIRT1 and PARP1 at gene promoters (Zhang et al., 2012; Song et al., 2013) and

NMNAT1 knockdown was shown to influence apoptotic gene expression by potentially

modulating histone acetylation (Kuribayashi et al., 2018), no *in vivo* role for NMNAT1 in retinal

developmental gene regulation has yet been described.

Photoreceptors are among the last retinal cell types to fully develop, and their developmental

programs can be split into two broad phases: an early phase comprising commitment to the

photoreceptor cell fate, mediated by several well-characterized transcription factors including

OTX2, NRL, and CRX, and a later phase comprising expression of a host of specialized

phototransduction genes and outer segment biogenesis ("terminal differentiation") (Swaroop et

al., 2010; Brzezinski and Reh, 2015; Daum et al., 2017). Interestingly, we do not observe

transcriptional changes in OTX2, NRL, CRX, or related genes in NMNAT1 knockout retinas at

either tested age. This fact, combined with grossly normal retinal morphology at P0, suggests

that NMNAT1 is required for terminal differentiation but not early specification or proliferation

of both rod and cone photoreceptor cells. Increased abundance of acetyl-lysine in knockout

retinas on mass spectrometry (**Figure 6B**) and GO enrichment of several genes associated with

DNA methylation, epigenetic regulation, and chromatin silencing in P4 knockout retinas (**Figure**

3—Supplement 2) support a potential role for NMNAT1 in the epigenetic regulation of

photoreceptor terminal differentiation, a phenomenon recently shown to feature genome-wide

methylation and acetylation events (Aldiri et al., 2017).

Many potential routes exist between NMNAT1-catalyzed nuclear NAD^+ synthesis and retinal

gene regulation—these include histone- and gene-level regulation by NAD^+-dependent SIRTs

and PARPs as well as NAD^+-dependent DNA methylation or alpha-ketoglutarate dependent

hydroxymethylation mediated by DNA-methyltransferase (DNMT) or TET family enzymes,

respectively (Chang et al., 2010; Seritrakul and Gross, 2017). While the precise mechanisms of

NMNAT1-associated retinal gene dysregulation are currently under investigation, we note that

many of the photoreceptor genes downregulated in our study are dynamically demethylated

during retinal development (Dvoriantchikova et al., 2019), and that perturbation of the DNA

methyltransferases DNMT1, DNMT3A, and DNMT3B in the retina produces similar phenotypes

to those observed in the current study (Rhee et al., 2012; Singh et al., 2017).

In conclusion, this study presents the most comprehensive evaluation of NMNAT1-associated

retinal dysfunction to date and suggests crucial roles for nuclear NAD^+ in the proper

development and early survival of the mammalian retina. While we provide evidence that the

early and severe retinal degeneration associated with NMNAT1 loss involves multiple cell types

and death pathways, it appears that this severe phenotype stems from two major problems: 1.)

metabolic defects likely caused by insufficient NAD^+ for retinal proliferative metabolism, and 2.)

gene regulation defects potentially caused by insufficient nuclear NAD^+ in developing

photoreceptors. Considering intriguing links between metabolic state and differentiation in the

retina and recently discovered roles of compartmentalized NAD^+ in non-retinal cell

differentiation (Agathocleous et al., 2012; Agathocleuous et al., 2013; Ryu et al., 2018), these

two problems may not be mutually exclusive. Further study of NMNAT1-associated retinal

dysfunction should focus on evaluating the relative contributions of metabolic and genetic

deficits to the overall pathology and testing the hypothesis that NMNAT1 functions to integrate

retinal energy metabolism and gene regulation.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Animal Model Generation, Husbandry, and Genotyping

Nmnat1^{fl/fl} mice were described previously (Conforti 2011) were thoroughly backcrossed with

wild-type 129/SV-E mice (Charles River Laboratories, Wilmington, MA) prior to analyses.

Conditional knockout mice were generated by crossing *Nmnat1*^{fl/fl} mice with transgenic mice

expressing Cre recombinase under a *Six3* promoter (*Six3-Cre*) (Christiansen et al., 2011).

Crosses yielded heterozygous *Nmnat*^{fl/wt} and *Six3-Cre Nmnat*^{fl/wt} offspring, which were further

crossed with *Nmnat1*^{fl/fl} mice to yield conditional knockout (*Six3-Cre Nmnat*^{fl/fl}) and littermate

control (*Nmnat1*^{fl/fl}) mice at approximately Mendelian ratios. Experimental animals were

periodically backcrossed with wild-type 129/SV-E mice to maintain genetic integrity. Animals

were maintained under standard 12 hour light/dark cycles with food and water provided *ad*

libitum. All experimental procedures involving animals were approved by the Institutional

Animal Care and Use Committee (IACUC) of West Virginia University.

Animals were genotyped using polymerase chain reaction (PCR) of genomic DNA from ear

punch biopsies. Primer sequences for detection of *Six3-Cre* transgene and *Nmnat1* 5' and 3' loxP

sites are listed in **Supplementary Table 1**, and primers were added to the PCR reaction at a final

concentration of 0.75 μM. The thermocycling conditions were 95ºC for 2 minutes, 35 cycles of

95ºC for 30s, 58ºC for 30s, 72ºC for 45s, and a final extension step of 72ºC for 5 minutes.

NMNAT1 Antibody Generation

A rabbit polyclonal antibody against amino acids 111-133 of mouse NMNAT1 (sequence

CSYPQSSPALEKPGRKRKWADQK) was generated by Pacific Immunology Corp. (Pacific

Immunology, Ramona, CA). The affinity-purified antibody was confirmed to recognize

NMNAT1 in cell culture and retinal lysate (**Figure 1—Supplement 1**), and did not recognize

overexpressed FLAG-NMNAT2 (data not shown).

Mammalian Cell Culture and Transfection

HEK293T cells were maintained in 1:1 DMEM/F-12 culture media (Thermo Fisher Scientific,

Waltham, MA) in a sterile incubator at 37ºC and 5% CO_2. Transient transfection of FLAG-

NMNAT1 and FLAG-NMNAT2 constructs (see Supplemental Table 2) was performed at ~60%

confluence using TransIT®-LT1 transfection reagent (Mirus Bio, Madison, WI) according to

manufacturer's instructions. Cells were harvested 48 hours after transfection on ice with 1X

Hank's balanced salt solution (HBSS) (Thermo Fisher Scientific) and cell pellets were processed

for western blotting as described below.

Retinal Histology and Thickness Quantification

To evaluate gross retinal histology, mice at the indicated ages were sacrificed and their eyes were

gently removed into 1ml Excalibur's Alcoholic z-fix (Excalibur Pathology Inc., Norman, OK).

Subsequent fixation, paraffin embedding, sectioning, and hematoxylin and eosin (H&E) staining

were performed by Excalibur Pathology. H&E-stained sections were imaged on a Nikon Eclipse

Ti microscope with DS-Ri2 camera (Nikon Instruments, Melville, NY). Retinal thickness was

measured using Nikon NIS-Elements software at 4 equidistant points along the outer retinal edge

to either side of the optic nerve, where retinal thickness is defined as the length of a line

orthogonal to the outer retinal edge and terminating at the inner retinal edge. Thickness was

quantified using 6 technical replicates per animal and 3 biological replicates per genotype.

Western Blotting

For determination of protein levels by western blot, retinas were homogenized in cold lysis

buffer (1X phosphate-buffered saline pH 7.4 (Thermo Fisher Scientific), Pierce® protease

inhibitor, EDTA-free (Thermo), Calbiochem® phosphatase inhibitor cocktail (EMD Biosciences,

La Jolla, CA)) using a Microson® ultrasonic cell disruptor. Protein concentration was determined

using a Nanodrop ND-1000 spectrophotometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific), after which Laemmli

sample buffer was added to a final concentration of 1X (2% SDS, 0.05M Tris-HCl pH 6.8, 10%

glycerol, 1% β-mercaptoethanol, 2 mM dithiothreitol (DTT), 0.001% bromphenol blue) and

samples were boiled for 5 minutes. Equal amounts of protein were separated on anykD® mini-

PROTEAN TGX polyacrylamide gels (Bio-Rad, Hercules, CA) and transferred to an

Immobilon-FL PVDF membrane (Millipore, Burlington, MA). Membranes were blocked with

Odyssey® blocking buffer (LI-COR Biosciences, Lincoln, NE) for 1 hour at room temperature

and incubated with primary antibodies diluted in 50/50 blocking buffer/1X PBST (1X PBS +

0.1% Tween-20) at 4ºC overnight on a bidirectional rotator. A list of primary antibodies, sources,

and dilutions can be found in **Supplemental Table 2**. Following primary antibody incubations,

membranes were washed in 1X PBST and incubated with goat anti-rabbit Alexa Fluor 680

and/or goat anti-mouse DyLight 800 secondary antibodies (Thermo Fisher Scientific) for 1 hour

at room temperature. Membranes were subsequently washed in 1X PBST and imaged using an

Odyssey Infrared Imaging System (LI-COR Biosciences).

Quantitative Reverse Transcriptase-PCR (RT-qPCR)

To determine relative gene expression using RT-qPCR, retinas were collected and total RNA

was isolated as described below. cDNA was synthesized with a RevertAid® cDNA Synthesis Kit

(Thermo Fisher Scientific) per manufacturer instructions, starting with 1μg total RNA/sample

and using random hexamer primers. Primers for targets of interest were designed using NCBI

Primer-BLAST (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/tools/primer-blast/) to straddle at least one intron

of length >500bp. qPCR reactions were performed using Brilliant II SYBR® Green qPCR

master mix with low ROX (Agilent Technologies, Cedar Creek, TX) and monitored on a

Stratagene® Mx3000P cycler (Agilent Technologies). Prior to use, primers were validated (by

examining melt curves and agarose gel electrophoresis) to amplify single products of expected

size. Three technical replicates per target per animal were performed, and averages from three

animals per genotype are reported. All expression values were normalized to the geometric

average of three housekeeping genes (*Hmbs*, *Ppia*, and *Ywhaz*).

Immunofluorescent Staining

After euthanasia, eyes were gently removed, punctured, and immersed in 4% paraformaldehyde

fixative (4% paraformaldehyde in 1X PBS) (Electron Microscopy Sciences, Hatfield, PA) for 15

minutes, after which the cornea was removed and the eye was fixed for an additional 45 minutes

at room temperature with gentle agitation. Subsequently, eyes were washed in 1X PBS and

incubated in a dehydration solution (20% sucrose in 1X PBS) for at least 12 hours at 4ºC. After

dehydration, samples were incubated in a 1:1 mixture of 20% sucrose and Tissue-Tek® O.C.T.

compound (Sakura Finetek, Torrance, CA) for at least 1 hour before being transferred to 100%

O.C.T. and flash frozen. 16 μm sections were cut using a Leica CM1850 cryostat (Leica

Biosystems, Nussloch, Germany) and mounted on Superfrost Plus slides (Fisher Scientific). For

immunofluorescent staining, retinal sections were briefly rinsed with 1X PBS and incubated in

blocking buffer (10% normal goat serum, 0.5% Triton X-100, 0.05% sodium azide in 1X PBS)

for 1 hour at room temperature. Following blocking, sections were incubated with the indicated

primary antibodies (diluted in buffer containing 5% normal goat serum, 0.5% Triton X-100,

0.05% sodium azide in 1X PBS) overnight at 4ºC. The next day, sections were washed with 1X

PBST and incubated with DAPI nuclear stain (Thermo Fisher Scientific), goat anti-rabbit Alexa

Fluor-568 and/or goat anti-mouse Alexa Fluor-488 (Thermo Fisher Scientific) secondary

antibodies for 1 hour at room temperature. For antibody information and dilutions, see

Supplemental Table 2. Finally, sections were washed, cover-slipped with Prolong Gold®

antifade reagent (Thermo Fisher Scientific), and imaged on a Nikon Eclipse Ti laser scanning

confocal microscope with C2 camera (Nikon Instruments). Experimental and control sections

were imaged using identical laser intensity and exposure settings. All fluorescent images

represent maximum intensity z-projections generated using ImageJ with the Bio-Formats plugin

(https://imagej.net/Bio-Formats).

Retinal Cell Type and Caspase-Positive Cell Quantification

To estimate numbers of pyknotic and caspase-3 positive/negative cells in retinas of knockout and

control mice, pyknotic nuclei were manually counted in 212.27 x 212.27 μm² regions of

maximum intensity projection fluorescent images from the central retina. Once these pyknotic

nuclei were identified, the number also labeled with active-Caspase-3 were manually counted.

Counts from two technical replicates per animal were averaged, and averages from three animals

per genotype are reported. Counts of retinal cell subtypes were estimated by manually counting

marker-positive cells in 318.2 x 318.2 μm^2 regions of central retina, averaged between two

technical replicates per animal and three animals per genotype. All counts were obtained using

ImageJ. For antibody information, see **Supplemental Table 2**.

Retinal RNA Extraction, Sequencing, and Analysis

Following euthanasia and eye enucleation, retinae were quickly dissected and transferred into

ultra-sterile microcentrifuge tubes containing a small amount of Trizol® reagent (Thermo Fisher

Scientific), and flash frozen on dry ice. Total RNA was extracted by homogenizing thawed

samples with a handheld homogenizer and incubating for 5 min. at room temperature. 20μl

chloroform was added to each sample, samples were briefly vortexed, incubated at room

temperature for 4 min., and spun at 12,000 rpm for 10 min. at 4ºC. The aqueous layers were

removed to separate tubes containing 50μl isopropanol and incubated at room temperature for 10

min. with occasional agitation. Finally, samples were again spun at 12,000 rpm for 10 min. at

4ºC, supernatants were removed, and pellets were washed three times with 75% ethanol, dried,

and resuspended in DEPC-treated water. Whole-transcriptome sequencing was performed by

Macrogen Corp. (Macrogen USA, Rockville, MD) using an Illumina TruSeq Stranded mRNA

Library Prep Kit on a NovaSeq6000 S4 to a depth of 100M total reads per sample. Read quality

was verified using FastQC (https://www.bioinformatics.babraham.ac.uk/projects/fastqc/) and

adapters were trimmed using the Bbduk utility of the BBTools package

(http://sourceforge.net/projects/bbmap/). Read alignment was performed using HISAT2 2.1.0

(Kim et al., 2015) and transcripts were assembled and quantified using StringTie 1.3.6 (Pertea et

al., 2015; Pertea et al., 2016). Differentially expressed genes were identified using the DESeq2 R

package (Love et al., 2014).

Targeted Steady-State Metabolomics using LC-MS/MS

Following euthanasia and eye enucleation, retinae were quickly dissected into Hank's Balanced

Salt Solution (HBSS) and flash frozen on dry ice. Metabolites were extracted according to

previously described protocols (Du et al., 2015; Zhu et al., 2018). Metabolite extracts were

analyzed by a Shimadzu LC Nexera X2 UHPLC coupled with a QTRAP 5500 LC-MS/MS (AB

Sciex). An ACQUITY UPLC BEH Amide analytic column (2.1x50 mm, 1.7 μm) (Waters Corp.,

Milford, MA) was used for chromatographic separation. The mobile phase was (A) water with

10 mM ammonium acetate (pH 8.9) and (B) acetonitrile/water (95/5) with 10 mM ammonium

acetate (pH 8.2) (All solvents were LC–MS Optima grade from Fisher Scientific). The total run

time was 11 min. with a flow rate of 0.5 ml/min. and an injection volume of 5 μl. The gradient

elution was 95–61% B in 6 min, 61–44% B at 8 min, 61–27% B at 8.2 min, and 27–95% B at 9

min. The column was equilibrated with 95% B at the end of each run. The source and collision

gas was N_2. The ion source conditions in positive and negative mode were: curtain gas (CUR) =

25 psi, collision gas (CAD) = high, ion spray voltage (IS) = 3800/-3800 volts, temperature

(TEM) = 500 °C, ion source gas 1 (GS1) = 50 psi, and ion source gas 2 (GS2) = 40 psi. Each

metabolite was tuned with standards for optimal transitions. D4-nicotinamide (Cambridge

Isotope Laboratories, Tewksbury, MA) was used as an internal standard. The extracted MRM

peaks were integrated using MultiQuant 3.0.3 software (AB Sciex, Concord, ON, CA).

Statistical Analyses

Sample number (n) is defined as number of animals per genotype. Specific statistical tests and

sample sizes are indicated in figure legends. Where applicable, p-value adjustments for multiple

comparisons were performed and indicated, and reported as 'q' values. Across all figures,

statistical significance is defined as $p<0.05$ (or $q<0.05$, where applicable). Experimenters were

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COMPETING INTERESTS

The authors declare no competing interests.

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