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Sterol scarcity primes p38 immune defenses through a TIR-1/SARM1 phase transition

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ABSTRACT

Intracellular signaling regulators can be concentrated into membrane-free, higher-ordered protein

assemblies to initiate protective responses during stress — a process known as phase transition.

Here, we show that a phase transition of the *C. elegans* Toll/interleukin-1 receptor domain protein

(TIR-1), a homolog of the mammalian sterile alpha and TIR motif-containing 1 (SARM1), primes

host immune defenses when dietary sterols are limited to handle subsequent bacterial infection.

TIR-1/SARM1 is an upstream component of the p38 PMK-1 pathway in intestinal cells, an innate

immune defense and stress response pathway in metazoans. Under conditions of low cholesterol

availability, multimerization and precipitation of TIR-1/SARM1 potentiates the intrinsic NAD^+

glycohydrolase activity of this protein complex, increases p38 PMK-1 phosphorylation, and

promotes pathogen clearance from the intestine. Dietary cholesterol is required for *C. elegans* to

survive infection with pathogenic bacteria and to support development, fecundity, and lifespan.

Thus, activation of the p38 PMK-1 pathway in sterol-deficient animals is an adaptive response

that allows a metazoan host to anticipate environmental threats under conditions of essential

metabolite scarcity.

SIGNIFICANCE STATEMENT

The nematode *C. elegans* must consume dietary sterols to support growth and reproduction.

However, access to dietary sterols in its natural habitat is not guaranteed and thus, nematodes

have evolved mechanisms to promote survival in sterol-poor environments. Here, we demonstrate

that activation of the p38 PMK-1 innate immune pathway in response to low sterol availability

promotes clearance of a bacterial pathogen from the intestine. Pre-emptive activation of innate

immune defenses occurs through a phase transition of TIR-1/SARM1, an upstream component

of the p38 PMK-1 pathway, which activates its intrinsic NAD^+ glycohydrolase activity. Thus,

nematodes anticipate threats from infectious pathogens during a time when the animal is relatively

susceptible to infection.

INTRODUCTION

Access to essential dietary metabolites alters the life history traits of metazoans. For example, *Caenorhabditis elegans* lack the ability to synthesize cholesterol *de novo* and must acquire dietary sterols from its environment to support development, fecundity, lifespan, and resistance against pathogen infection (1-7). *C. elegans* larvae that encounter sterol-scarce environments are primed to enter an alternative developmental program, called dauer diapause, which promotes animal survival, in part, by altering their metabolism and growth to conserve energy (8-12). Interestingly, only a fraction of sterol-starved *C. elegans* larvae enter dauer diapause and the remaining animals develop to adulthood (10, 13). Thus, *C. elegans* that do not enter dauer diapause must adapt during sterol scarcity to develop and reproduce.

The p38 mitogen-activated protein kinase (MAPK) pathway is a key regulator of stress responses and innate immune defenses in metazoans. The *C. elegans* p38 homolog PMK-1 is part of a classic MAPK signaling cascade that is activated by the MAPKKK NSY-1 and MAPKK SEK-1, which are the nematode homologs of mammalian ASK and MKK3/6, respectively (14). *C. elegans* Toll/interleukin-1 receptor domain protein (TIR-1), which is homologous to mammalian sterile alpha and TIR motif-containing 1 (SARM1), acts upstream of NSY-1 to control p38 PMK-1 activation (15, 16). As in mammals, the *C. elegans* p38 PMK-1 pathway regulates the expression of secreted innate immune effectors and is required for survival during pathogen infection (14, 17-19). However, the mechanisms that activate the NSY-1/SEK-1/p38 PMK-1 signaling cassette in *C. elegans* intestinal epithelial cells are poorly defined.

Intracellular signaling regulators can be compartmentalized in membrane-less, higher-ordered protein assemblies with liquid droplet-like properties (20-26). Cytoplasmic de-mixing or phase transition of proteins in this manner concentrates signaling regulators to facilitate rapid and specific activation of protective defenses during stress (20, 21, 27). Here, we show that TIR-1/SARM1 undergoes a phase transition to potentiate its intrinsic NAD^+ glycohydrolase activity and activate innate immune defenses in intestinal epithelial cells via the p38 PMK-1 pathway. By

promoting aggregation of TIR-1/SARM1 with macromolecular crowding agents *in vitro*, we

demonstrate that a phase transition of TIR-1/SARM1 is required for its catalytic activity.

Accordingly, TIR-1/SARM1 containing mutations that specifically either prevent the phase

transition or impair NAD^+ hydrolysis have decreased enzymatic activity *in vitro* and are unable to

activate the p38 PMK-1 pathway *in vivo*. Importantly, we show that limiting dietary sterols primes

p38 PMK-1 immune defenses, in a manner dependent on a phase transition of TIR-1/SARM1, to

promote clearance of a bacterial pathogen from the intestine. Availability of dietary cholesterol is

required for *C. elegans* to survive infection with pathogenic bacteria (6). Thus, activation of the

p38 PMK-1 pathway through a TIR-1/SARM1 phase transition during conditions of sterol scarcity

is an adaptive response in animals that fail to enter dauer diapause. Immune activation, in this

manner, primes host immune defenses to promote clearance of a bacterial pathogen from the

intestine during a period of relative vulnerability to infection.

RESULTS

Cholesterol scarcity activates intestinal innate immune defenses.

C. elegans are sterol auxotrophs and require dietary cholesterol for development, lifespan,

fecundity, and resistance to pathogen infection (1-7). As such, 5 μg/mL of cholesterol is a standard

additive in *C. elegans* laboratory growth medium (28). We found that *C. elegans* grown in the

absence of cholesterol supplementation activated GFP-based transcriptional reporters for two

putative immune effector genes, T24B8.5p::*gfp* and *irg-5*p::*gfp* (Fig. 1*A* and *B*). T24B8.5 and *irg-*

5 are expressed in the intestine, induced during infection with multiple pathogens—including

Pseudomonas aeruginosa, and controlled by the p38 PMK-1 innate immune pathway (17, 29, 30).

qRT-PCR studies confirmed that *C. elegans* in a low cholesterol environment upregulate T24B8.5

and *irg-5,* as well as other innate immune effector genes (*irg-4* and K08D8.4) (Fig. 1*C*). These

data suggest that host defense pathways are activated in the absence of pathogen infection when

environmental sterols are scarce.

The nuclear hormone receptor, NHR-8, a homolog of mammalian liver X receptor (LXR)

and pregnane X receptor (PXR), is required for the transport, distribution, and metabolism of

cholesterol in *C. elegans* (13, 31). We used two previously characterized *nhr-8* loss-of-function

mutant strains as genetic tools to study conditions of low sterol content: *hd117*, which contains a

570 base pair deletion that removes the entire first exon (13), including the start codon, and *ok186*,

a strain that contains a 1366 base pair deletion that removes most of the ligand-binding domain

(31). The *nhr-8(hd117)* loss-of-function mutant has lower total cholesterol levels and is unable to

develop under conditions of cholesterol deprivation (13). Interestingly, both *nhr-8(hd117)* and *nhr-*

8(ok186) animals grown under standard conditions (*i.e.*, in the presence of 5 μg/mL cholesterol)

induce a transcriptional response, which mimics wild-type *C. elegans* infected with the bacterial

pathogen *P. aeruginosa* (Fig. 1*D* and S1*A*). RNA-sequencing (RNA-seq) revealed that the

differentially expressed genes in uninfected *nhr-8(hd117)* (Fig. 1*D* and Table S1) and *nhr-*

8(ok186) (Fig. S1*A* and Table S1) mutants (each versus wild-type animals) significantly correlated

with genes that are differentially expressed in wild-type animals during infection with *P.*

aeruginosa (r = 0.311 and r = 0.370, respectively). These correlations increase when comparing

only the genes whose transcription are significantly differentially regulated (r = 0.763 and r =

0.849, respectively) and those genes that are also involved in innate immunity (r = 0.677 and r =

0.703, respectively) (Fig. 1*D* and S1*A*). Among the immune effectors that are upregulated in *nhr-*

8(hd117) and *nhr-8(ok186)* mutants are T24B8.5, *irg-4*, *irg-5*, and K08D8.4, the same genes

whose transcription are also induced during cholesterol deprivation (Fig. 1*C*, 1*D* and S1*A*).

122   Two different supplementation experiments using the T24B8.5p::*gfp* immune reporter

demonstrated that immune effector activation in *nhr-8(hd117)* mutants is due to sterol deficiency

in these animals. First, supplementation of exogenous cholesterol at an increased concentration

(80 μg/mL) fully suppressed T24B8.5p::*gfp* activation in the *nhr-8(hd117)* mutant (Fig 1*E*).

Second, supplementation with the non-ionic detergents Tergitol or Triton X-100, which solubilize

hydrophobic, amphipathic compounds, including sterols, suppressed T24B8.5p::*gfp* activation in

nhr-8(hd117) animals, in a manner that was dependent on the presence of added cholesterol in

the growth media (Fig. 1*F-G* and S1*B*). Nematode growth media without supplemented

cholesterol is not entirely devoid of sterols, owing to sterol contamination from agar. However,

growth media solidified with agarose, rather than agar, contains markedly fewer contaminating

sterols (2, 10, 13). Interestingly, on agarose, the addition of Tergitol to the growth media

suppressed T24B8.5p::*gfp* activation in the *nhr-8(hd117)* mutant, but only in the presence of 5

μg/mL of cholesterol (Fig. 1*G*). These data establish that solubilization of cholesterol by Tergitol

in standard nematode growth media suppresses immune activation in the *nhr-8(hd117)* mutant

background. Suppression of T24B8.5p::*gfp* activation in the *nhr-8(hd117)* background by Tergitol

and Triton X-100 was dose-dependent (Fig. S1*B*). Supporting these findings, Tergitol suppressed

activation of the immune effector genes T24B8.5, *irg-4*, *irg-5* and K08D8.4 in the *nhr-8(hd117)*

animals as measured by qRT-PCR (Fig. 1*H-K*). Of note, activation of immune defenses in *nhr-*

8(hd117) animals is specific to cholesterol deprivation in this genetic background, as

supplementation with individual unsaturated, mono- and polyunsaturated fatty acids, which are

also mis-regulated in the *nhr-8(hd117)* mutant background (13), failed to suppress activation of

T24B8.5p::*gfp* (Fig. S1*C*). Together, these data demonstrate that cholesterol deprivation in the

nhr-8(hd117) mutant activates immune effector transcription independent of bacterial infection.

C. elegans raised on media without supplemented cholesterol are hypersusceptible to

killing by *P. aeruginosa*, as are *nhr-8(hd117)* mutants on media with standard cholesterol

supplementation (5 µg/mL) (6). We found that 80 µg/mL of cholesterol fully complemented the

enhanced susceptibility of *nhr-8(hd117)* mutants to *P. aeruginosa* infection (Fig. 1*L*). In addition,

solubilizing cholesterol in nematode growth media containing 5 µg/mL of added cholesterol with

two different detergents restored pathogen resistance to the *nhr-8(hd117)* mutant (Fig. 1*M*).

Consistent with a prior report, we found that *nhr-8* is required in the intestine for resistance to

pathogen infection (6). Knockdown of *nhr-8* only in intestinal epithelial cells enhanced the

susceptibility of *C. elegans* to pathogen infection (Fig. S1*D*). In addition, expression of *nhr-8* either

under the control of its own promoter (Fig. S1*E*) or under the control of a promoter (*ges-1*) that

drives expression specifically in intestinal epithelial cells complemented the pathogen

susceptibility of *nhr-8(hd117)* animals (Fig. S1*F*). We showed that expression of *nhr-8* only in

neurons, under the control of the *sng-1* promoter, failed to rescue the susceptibility of *nhr-*

8(hd117) animals to *P. aeruginosa* infection (Fig. S1*G*). Taken together, these data demonstrate

that defects in cholesterol metabolism in intestinal epithelial cells specifically causes *C. elegans*

to be more susceptible to killing by a bacterial pathogen.

Importantly, the robust transcriptional induction of immune effectors observed in the *nhr-*

8(hd117) mutant (Fig. 1*A-B* and 1*D*) promotes clearance of *P. aeruginosa* from the intestine even

though these mutant animals are more susceptible to pathogen killing (Fig. 1*N*). These data

suggest that *C. elegans* activates host immune defenses when environmental sterols are limited

to anticipate subsequent lethal challenges from bacterial pathogens.

Cholesterol scarcity activates the p38 PMK-1 innate immune pathway.

C. elegans propagated in the absence of cholesterol engage the transcription of genes

that are targets of the p38 PMK-1 innate immune pathway (Fig. 1*C*). Consistent with this

observation, the levels of active, phosphorylated PMK-1 were higher in wild-type animals grown

on media without supplemented cholesterol than in animals grown under standard culture

conditions (*i.e.*, with 5 µg/mL cholesterol), as assessed by immunoblotting with antibodies that

detect the doubly phosphorylated TGY motif of PMK-1 (active PMK-1) and the total PMK-1 protein

(32) (Fig. 2*A* and *B*). These data demonstrate that cholesterol deprivation activates p38 PMK-1.

The p38 PMK-1 pathway is also activated in *nhr-8* loss-of-function mutants. A gene set

enrichment analysis of the *nhr-8(hd117)* and *nhr-8(ok186)* transcriptome profiling experiments

revealed that the transcriptional targets of the p38 PMK-1 innate immune pathway were strongly

enriched among the genes upregulated in each *nhr-8* mutant (Fig. 2*C* and S2*A*), including the

immune effectors T24B8.5, *irg-4*, *irg-5*, and K08D8.4. Consistent with these data, the *nhr-*

8(hd117) and *nhr-8(ok186)* mutants had an increased ratio of phosphorylated PMK-1 relative to

total PMK-1 compared to wild-type controls (Fig. 2*D* and 2*E*). In addition, RNAi-mediated

knockdown of *tir-1*, the most upstream component of the p38 signaling cassette (15, 16), fully

suppressed hyperactivation of T24B8.5p::*gfp* in *nhr-8(hd117)* animals (Fig. 2*F*). Consistent with

these data, the *tir-1(qd4)* loss-of-function mutation completely suppressed the induction of

T24B8.5, *irg-4*, *irg-5*, and K08D8.4 in the *nhr-8(hd117)* background (Fig. 2*G-J*). The transcription

factors ATF-7 and SKN-1 link PMK-1 activity to its transcriptional outputs (33, 34). In *nhr-8(hd117)*

animals, knockdown of *atf-7*, but not *skn-1,* abrogated T24B8.5p::*gfp* activation (Fig. 2*F* and S2*B*).

Finally, to further support our observation that cholesterol scarcity induces immune defenses

upstream of p38 PMK-1, we used the MAPK phosphatase *vhp-1*, a negative regulator of PMK-1

(35). Solubilization of cholesterol with Tergitol was unable to suppress activation of T24B8.5p::*gfp*

induced by knockdown of *vhp-1* (Fig. 2*K*). Thus, the TIR-1-p38 PMK-1-ATF-7 signaling axis is

activated in the *nhr-8* mutant background.

The c-JUN N-terminal kinase MAPK homolog *kgb-1*, the insulin signaling pathway

forkhead box O family (FOXO) transcription factor, *daf-16*, and the G protein-coupled receptor

(GPCR), *fshr-1*, each function in parallel to the p38 PMK-1 pathway to regulate immune and stress

responses in *C. elegans* (17, 35-37). However, knockdown of each of these genes in *nhr-8(hd117)*

animals failed to suppress T24B8.5p::*gfp* activation (Fig. S2*B*) and RNAi-mediated knockdown of

nhr-8 did not induce nuclear localization of DAF-16::GFP (Fig. S2*C*). Thus, cholesterol scarcity

induces *C. elegans* innate immune responses through specific activation of p38 PMK-1 immune

pathway signaling.

Activation of the p38 PMK-1 pathway by cholesterol deprivation requires TIR-1

oligomerization and NAD$^+$ glycohydrolase activity.

C. elegans TIR-1, which is homologous to mammalian SARM1, functions upstream of the

MAPKKK NSY-1; MAPKK SEK-1; MAPK p38 PMK-1 signaling cassette in the intestine to control

innate immune defenses (15, 38). Accordingly, *tir-1* loss-of-function mutants are more susceptible

to killing by *P. aeruginosa* than wild-type animals (15). The TIR-1 protein has three characterized

domains: a Heat/Armadillo repeat domain, a sterile alpha motif (SAM) domain, and a Toll-

interleukin receptor (TIR) domain (38) (Fig. 3*A*). *C. elegans* TIR-1 oligomerizes *in vitro* through

interactions of its SAM domains (39). In addition, oligomerization of SARM1 is essential for its

function in plants and mice (39, 40). As such, we examined if oligomerization of *C. elegans* TIR-

1 is required to activate the p38 PMK-1 immune pathway in the intestine. We used CRISPR-Cas9

to delete both SAM domains in *tir-1* (*tir-1*$^{\Delta SAM}$) (Fig. 3*A*). We also generated point mutants in two

residues within the *C. elegans* TIR domain that are important for the self-association and activity

of mammalian SARM1 (*C. elegans tir-1*^{G747P} and *tir-1*^{H833A}) (39) (Fig. 3*A*). Interestingly, the *C.*

elegans tir-1$^{\Delta SAM}$, *tir-1*^{G747P} and *tir-1*^{H833A} mutants prevented activation of the p38 PMK-1-

dependent immune reporter T24B8.5p::*gfp* in *nhr-8(RNAi)* animals (Fig. 3*B*). Importantly,

induction of T24B8.5p::*gfp* during cholesterol scarcity was also absent in these mutants (Fig. 3*C*).

Consistent with these data, the *tir-1*$^{\Delta SAM}$, *tir-1*^{G747P} and *tir-1*^{H833A} mutants have reduced levels of

active, phosphorylated p38 PMK-1, equivalent to the *tir-1(qd4)* null allele (29) (Fig. 3*D* and *E*).

Additionally, they abrogate the induction of the T24B8.5 (Fig. 3*F*) and *irg-4* (Fig. S3*A*) immune

effectors in *nhr-8(RNAi)* animals and are each markedly hypersusceptible to *P. aeruginosa*

infection (Fig. 3*G*).

The TIR domain of *C. elegans* TIR-1 and its mammalian homolog SARM1 possess

intrinsic NADase activity (39, 41, 42). Importantly, oligomerization of mammalian SARM1 and *C.*

elegans TIR-1 is required for maximal NADase activity *in vitro* (39). The NADase activity in the

TIR domain of mammalian SARM1 requires a putative catalytic glutamate residue (42). We used

CRISPR-Cas9 to mutate the homologous catalytic glutamate residue in *C. elegans tir-1* (*tir-1*^{E788A})

and found that it was required for the immunostimulatory activity of *tir-1. tir-1*^{E788A} mutants were

unable to induce T24B8.5p::*gfp* both following knockdown of *nhr-8* (Fig. 3*B*) and also during

cholesterol scarcity (Fig. 3*C*). Likewise, the *tir-1*^{E788A} mutant animals had less active,

phosphorylated p38 PMK-1 (Fig. 3*D* and *E*), completely suppressed the induction of T24B8.5

(Fig. 3*F*) and *irg-4* (Fig. S3*A*), and were more susceptible to *P. aeruginosa* infection (Fig. 3*G*). We

confirmed that the *tir-1*^{E788A}, *tir-1*$^{\Delta SAM}$, *tir-1*^{G747P} and *tir-1*^{H833A} mutants are translated and not

degraded by introducing a 3X FLAG tag at the C-terminus of each of these mutants using

CRISPR-Cas9 (Fig. S3*B* and *C*). A western blot with an anti-FLAG antibody yielded a band of the

expected size for each of the *tir-1* mutants (Fig. S3*B*). Collectively, these data provide genetic

evidence that oligomerization of TIR-1 and its intrinsic NADase activity are required to activate

the p38 PMK-1 innate immune pathway.

The NAD$^+$ glycohydrolase activity of TIR-1/SARM1 is activated by a phase transition

To characterize further the mechanism of TIR-1/SARM1 activation, we recombinantly

expressed and purified from *E. coli* the TIR domain of the TIR-1 protein (called TIR) and evaluated

its NADase activity *in vitro* using an etheno-NAD$^+$ (ε-NAD) activity assay, in which hydrolysis of

the nicotinamide ring of ε-NAD leads to an increase in fluorescence. Interestingly, purified TIR

only shows very modest NADase activity even at high protein concentrations (>15 µM) (Fig. 4*A*).

Notably, the NADase activity of TIR increased parabolically with increasing TIR concentrations

rather than linearly, suggesting that multimerization of TIR-1 potentiates its NADase activity (Fig.

4*A*).

250   Given that high concentrations of TIR are required to observe NADase activity, we

hypothesized that molecular crowding might activate the enzyme and therefore assessed the

effect of several macro- and microviscogens on TIR activity. Macroviscogens reduce the free

volume available for protein movement and thus promote aggregation of protein complexes that

are capable of self-association (43, 44). Importantly, macroviscogens have minimal impact on the

rate of diffusion of small molecules. By contrast, microviscogens, which are much smaller than

most enzymes, affect the diffusion of substrates in solution and thus, the frequency at which

enzymes encounter their substrate (44). Interestingly, macroviscogens (polyethylene glycol [PEG]

3350 and PEG 8000), but not microviscogens (sucrose or glycerol), dramatically increased the

NADase activity of TIR (Fig. 4*B*). PEGs 3350 and 8000 increase TIR activity in a concentration-

dependent manner (Fig. 4*C*). These effects were most pronounced with higher molecular weight

PEGs as treatment with smaller molecular weight PEGs (e.g., PEG 1500 and PEG 400) or dextran

did not increase the enzymatic activity of TIR (Fig. 4*C*). Crowding agents also increase the activity

of the TIR domain of human SARM1, as well as plant TIR domains (39, 45), suggesting that the

mechanism of TIR regulation is strongly conserved.

265   Treatment with macroviscogens enabled the characterization of the enzyme kinetics of

TIR. Incubation with 25% PEG 3350 markedly enhances TIR activity at each enzyme

concentration (Fig. S4*A*). Consequently, lower amounts of enzyme (2.5 µM TIR) can be used to

obtain robust kinetic data. Using these conditions, we determined the steady-state kinetic

parameters (k_{cat}, K_M, and k_{cat}/K_M) with 2.5 µM TIR in the presence of increasing concentrations of

PEG 3350 (Fig. 4D). The K_m of TIR increases and then decreases to level off at ~500 µM of ε-

NAD with increasing concentration of PEG 3350 (Fig. 4E). On the other hand, k_{cat} increases near

linearly with increasing concentrations of PEG 3350 (Fig. 4F). In addition, the catalytic efficiency

(k_{cat}/K_m) followed the same trend as k_{cat}, indicating that increased TIR activity is due to increased

substrate turnover by the enzyme and not tighter substrate binding (Fig. 4G).

We found that the NAD hydrolase activity of TIR is also activated by the precipitant sodium

citrate, providing an orthologous method to characterize the enzymatic activity of the TIR domain

(Fig. S4A and B). Notably, the response to increasing citrate concentration was switch-like, where

a concentration of at least 250 mM sodium citrate was needed to observe enzyme activity (Fig.

S4B and S4C). By contrast, activation with PEG 3350 was more dose-dependent (Fig. 4C and

D). Nevertheless, the kinetic parameters obtained in the presence of citrate displayed similar

trends to those found with PEG 3350: K_m decreased to level off at ~400 µM of ε-NAD (Fig. S4D),

k_{cat} increases with increasing sodium citrate concentration (Fig. S4E), and k_{cat}/K_m follows the k_{cat}

trends (Fig. S4F).

In the cytoplasm, high concentrations of macromolecules (proteins, nucleic acids, lipids,

carbohydrates) cause molecular crowding and induce phase transitions of signaling proteins (46).

To determine if TIR undergoes a phase transition and whether NADase activity correlates with

the transition, we incubated purified TIR with different concentrations of PEG3350 or citrate,

centrifuged the sample, and evaluated TIR NADase activity in the soluble and insoluble fractions

(Fig. 4H and S4G). At low concentrations of both PEG and citrate, TIR protein was present in the

supernatant. However, at high concentrations of both PEG and citrate, TIR was principally located

in the pelleted (insoluble) fraction, as visualized by Coomassie staining on an SDS-PAGE gel

(Fig. 4H and S4G). Importantly, NADase activity was not detected in the supernatant of samples

treated with high concentrations of PEG or citrate, whereas robust NADase activity was observed

in the pelleted fraction (Fig. 4*H* and S4*G*). Taken together, these data demonstrate that

precipitation of TIR is required to activate the intrinsic NADase activity of TIR-1/SARM1.

TIR phase transition and NAD⁺ glycohydrolase activity requires TIR oligomerization.

To determine whether TIR-1 oligomerization is also required for a phase transition and the

NADase activity of TIR, we recombinantly expressed and purified from *E. coli* the TIR domain of

TIR-1 containing mutations in residues required for oligomerization (TIR^{G747P}) and NAD⁺ catalysis

(TIR^{E788A} and TIR^{E788Q}). Notably, the catalytic efficiency (k_{cat}/K_m) of TIR^{G747P}, TIR^{E788A} and TIR^{E788Q}

mutants was decreased 10-fold compared to TIR^{WT} (Fig. 4*I*). Kinetic analysis of the recombinant

TIR mutants in 25% PEG 3350 revealed that the K_m of ε-NAD increases 2-fold and the k_{cat}

decreases 4-fold compared to TIR^{WT} (Fig. 4*I*). These data demonstrate that the decreased activity

of the TIR mutants is due to a combination of both decreased substrate binding and decreased

substrate turnover. Similarly, kinetic analysis of TIR oligomerization and catalytic mutants in 500

mM citrate revealed that the catalytic efficiency (k_{cat}/K_m) decreases by 4-12-fold, similar to trends

we observed in experiments conducted with PEG 3350 (Fig. S4*H*).

To further characterize the TIR phase transition, we evaluated the precipitation capacity

of TIR oligomerization and catalytic mutants in the presence of PEG 3350 and citrate. Consistent

with our genetic data, TIR^{G747P}, which contains a mutation that prevents oligomerization of TIR,

was unable to precipitate as readily as TIR^{WT} (Fig. 4*J*). Compared to TIR^{WT}, the TIR^{G747P} mutant

in the presence of PEG 3550 demonstrated a 25% decrease in the amount of precipitated protein

(Fig. 4*J*). We observed similar results in the presence of citrate, in which compared to TIR^{WT}, the

TIR^{G747P} mutant demonstrated a 22% decrease in precipitated protein compared to TIR^{WT} (Fig.

S4*I*). Importantly, TIR proteins with two different mutants in the catalytic glutamate required for

NAD⁺ catalysis, TIR^{E788A} and TIR^{E788Q}, precipitated to a similar extent as TIR^{WT} (Fig. 4*J-K* and S4*I-*

J), but had minimal NADase activity (Fig. 4*I* and S4*H*). Collectively, these data demonstrate that

a phase transition of TIR-1 is required for its NADase activity.

A phase transition superactivates the intrinsic NAD$^+$ glycohydrolase activity of TIR.

During phase separations, macromolecules partition into distinct biochemical

compartments characterized by a higher concentration dense phase and a lower concentration

dilute phase (23, 24, 26). The dense compartment can have either liquid-like properties in liquid-

to-liquid phase separations or solid-like properties in liquid-to-solid phase transitions (24, 25, 27,

47). To determine whether TIR undergoes a liquid-to-liquid or a liquid-to-solid phase transition,

we assayed the enzyme activity of TIR in the presence of 1,6-hexanediol, an aliphatic alcohol that

interferes with hydrophobic interactions prominent in liquid-to-liquid separations. Thus, 1,6-

hexanediol disrupts liquid-like compartments, but not solid-like compartments (23, 26, 27). In the

presence of either PEG 3350 or citrate, we observed that 1,6-hexanediol decreases the NADase

activity of TIR by <2-fold, yet the activity of 1,6-hexanediol-treated TIR remains two orders of

magnitude higher than the activity of TIR without PEG 3550 or citrate addition (Fig. 5*A*). While

significant, this modest effect suggests that the NADase activity of TIR is predominantly

associated with a solid, rather than a liquid, state (Fig. 5*A*). Notably, in the absence of PEG 3350

or citrate, the low-level TIR NADase activity can be inhibited by 1,6-hexanediol (Fig. 5*A*),

suggesting that this activity is driven by hydrophobic interactions. Importantly, 1,6-hexanediol

does not interfere with TIR precipitation in the presence of PEG or citrate, regardless of whether

it is added before or after precipitate formation (Fig. S5*A* and *B*).

Next, we determined if this liquid-to-solid phase transition of TIR is reversible. The

insoluble fraction following treatment of TIR with PEG 3350 or citrate was resuspended in either

buffer alone or buffer plus the respective additive (PEG 3350 or citrate). If the phase transition is

reversible, resuspension of precipitated TIR in buffer alone should disrupt enzymatic activity.

However, if the phase transition is irreversible, activity should be detected when the pellet is

resuspended in buffer alone. Notably, we observed some TIR enzymatic activity when the pellet

was resuspended in buffer (Fig. 5B). With PEG 3350, the activity was lower than that observed in

the pre-centrifugation control or when the pellet was resuspended in buffer with PEG 3350. By

contrast, with citrate, the activity was similar to both control conditions (pre-centrifugation or when

the pellet was resuspended in buffer and citrate). These data indicate that the phase transition of

TIR is partially reversible in PEG 3350 and irreversible in sodium citrate. To confirm these findings,

we centrifuged the resuspended samples to examine the fractions visually by SDS-PAGE. In the

sample initially prepared with PEG 3350 and resuspended in buffer alone, a faint band was

present in the supernatant fraction. However, this band was absent in the sample initially prepared

with sodium citrate (Fig. 5C). These data confirm that the TIR phase transition is partially

reversible in PEG 3350 and irreversible in sodium citrate, at least under these conditions.

Next, we evaluated the effect of pH on TIR precipitation and NADase activity. There was

virtually no increase in TIR precipitation in the absence of PEG. However, in the presence of 25%

PEG, TIR precipitation increased with increasing pH (Fig. 5D). Under these same conditions, no

activity was apparent below pH 6. K_m remained constant (Fig. 5E) and k_{cat} increased from pH 6.5

to pH 8.5 (Fig. 5F). A corresponding increase in k_{cat}/K_m was responsible for the increase in

catalytic efficiency above pH 7 (Fig. 5G). Notably, the increase in k_{cat}/K_m correlated with

precipitation (Fig. 5D and G), again indicating that a phase transition increases TIR activity.

We performed negative stain electron microscopy to directly visualize TIR aggregation *in*

vitro. Protein visualization is not possible with PEG because macroviscogens themselves are

stained, confounding image analysis. Therefore, we performed this experiment with citrate. In the

absence of citrate, we observed borderline fibrillar structures and protein aggregates, but overall,

there were no consistent structures (Fig. 5H). In the presence of citrate, however, circular particles

emerged (Fig. 5I). These results indicate that, *in vitro*, TIR aggregates into higher-order, ring-like

structures.

Taken together, these data demonstrate that the TIR domain undergoes a phase

transition, which superactivates its NADase activity to initiate the p38 PMK-1 innate immune

pathway.

Sterol scarcity primes p38 PMK-1 immune defenses.

C. elegans require cholesterol to survive bacterial infection. However, nematodes lack the

ability to synthesize cholesterol *de novo*, and therefore must obtain this essential metabolite from

their diet. Thus, we hypothesized that, when environmental sterols are limited, activation of the

p38 PMK-1 pathway represents an evolutionary adaptation that primes immune effector

expression to anticipate challenges from bacterial pathogens. To test this hypothesis, we

examined the expression of innate immune effector genes during bacterial infection in the

presence and absence of cholesterol supplementation. Interestingly, the induction of *irg-4*p::*gfp*

(Fig. 6*A*), *irg-5*p::*gfp* (Fig. 6*B*) and T24B8.5p::*gfp* (Fig. 6*C*) during *P. aeruginosa* infection was

enhanced when nematodes were infected on media that did not contain supplemented

cholesterol. Consistent with these data, *P. aeruginosa* infection also led to increased activation of

*irg-4*p::*gfp* (Fig. 6*D*) and *irg-5*p::*gfp* (Fig. 6*E*) when *nhr-8* was depleted by RNAi. These data

suggest that cholesterol scarcity primes p38 PMK-1 immune defenses for subsequent pathogen

encounter.

To provide further support for this hypothesis, we analyzed the expression pattern of p38

PMK-1-dependent transcripts in *nhr-8(hd117)* mutant animals during *P. aeruginosa* infection. Of

the 472 genes that were induced in wild-type animals during *P. aeruginosa* infection, 184 were

also differentially regulated (either induced or repressed) in *nhr-8(hd117)* animals that were

infected with *P. aeruginosa*. To perform this analysis in an unbiased manner, we scaled the

expression level in each condition for each of these 184 genes by calculating a row z-score and

performed hierarchical clustering (Fig. 6*F*). We observed that these 184 genes group into two

clusters: Cluster I had 139 genes and Cluster II contained 45 genes (Table S3). Cluster I was

comprised mostly of genes whose expression in the absence of infection was higher in *nhr-*

8(hd117) mutants than wild-type animals (129 of 139 genes). In addition, the majority of Cluster I

genes were more strongly induced during *P. aeruginosa* infection in *nhr-8(hd117)* animals than

wild-type animals. Cluster II, on the other hand, contained genes whose induction on *P.*

aeruginosa were dependent on *nhr-8*. Interestingly, p38 PMK-1-dependent genes were strongly

enriched among Cluster I, but not Cluster II, genes (Fig. 6*G*). Thirty-three of the 139 genes in

Cluster I are known targets of the p38 PMK-1 immune pathway (24.17-fold enriched,

hypergeometric p-value = 7.68 x 10^{-37}), a group that includes the immune effectors T24B8.5 (Fig.

6*H*), *irg-4* (Fig. 6*I*), *irg-5* (Fig. 6*J*) and K08D8.4 (Fig. 6*K*). By contrast, only three genes in Cluster

II are p38 PMK-1 dependent transcripts (6.95-fold enriched, hypergeometric p-value = 0.01) (Fig.

6*F* and 6*G*).

These data demonstrate that sterol scarcity primes the induction of innate immune

effectors by activating the p38 PMK-1 immune pathway (Fig. 6*L*). Subsequent challenge by *P.*

aeruginosa further drives immune activation in a manner that promotes clearance of pathogenic

bacteria from the intestine (Fig. 1*N*).

DISCUSSION

Here, we show that the nematode *C. elegans* adapts to a sterol-deficient environment by

activating immune defenses in the intestine via the p38 PMK-1 pathway. In the absence of dietary

cholesterol, *C. elegans* are more susceptible to infection with pathogenic bacteria and have a

shortened lifespan (6, 7, 13). In addition, sterol scarce environments prime some *C. elegans*

larvae to enter dauer diapause, an alternative, stress-resistant growth form. We show that

anticipatory activation of the p38 PMK-1 pathway during conditions of low sterol availability is an

adaptive response in animals that do not enter dauer diapause.

In this study, we also define the mechanism of p38 PMK-1 immune pathway activation in

C. elegans. We show that TIR-1/SARM1 undergoes a phase transition to potentiate its intrinsic

NAD$^+$ glycohydrolase activity and activate innate immune defenses in intestinal epithelial cells via

the p38 PMK-1 pathway. Accordingly, activation of the p38 PMK-1 pathway when dietary sterols

are limited requires TIR-1/SARM1 multimerization and precipitation.

The p38 PMK-1 pathway controls the expression of innate immune effector genes. Inputs

from chemosensory neurons, bacterial density, tissue damage and nucleotide metabolism also

regulate the tonic level of p38 PMK-1 pathway activity (16, 48-52). These data suggest that p38

PMK-1 phosphorylation is adjusted in different environments to anticipate dangerous threats

during periods of vulnerability. Consistent with this hypothesis, the increased level of p38 PMK-1

phosphorylation during sterol deprivation leads to enhanced activation of immune effector genes

and promoted pathogen clearance from the intestine during a subsequent bacterial infection.

We previously demonstrated that a *C. elegans* nuclear hormone receptor, NHR-86, a

member of a family of ligand-gated transcription factors, surveys the chemical environment to

activate the expression of immune effectors (32). Interestingly, NHR-86 targets immune effectors

whose basal regulation requires the p38 PMK-1 immune pathway. However, NHR-86 functions

independently of PMK-1 and modulates the transcription of these infection response genes

directly. NHR-86 is a nematode homolog of the mammalian nuclear hormone receptor hepatocyte

nuclear factor 4 (HNF4), a family of NHRs that expanded dramatically in *C. elegans* — 259 HNF4

homologs are encoded in the *C. elegans* genome (53, 54). One potentially unifying hypothesis is

that HNF4 homologs detect pathogen- or host-derived ligands that are associated with infection

and activate pathogen-specific immune defenses. In this model, the p38 PMK-1 pathway

functions as a rheostat that receives inputs from signals associated with potentially dangerous

environmental conditions to prime host immune effector genes. Thus, upon encountering a

pathogen, immune defenses can be further augmented by mechanisms that detect pathogen

specifically.

Intracellular signaling is coordinated through the formation of membrane-less, phase-

separated compartments that concentrate signaling components and mediators to facilitate rapid

cellular responses (20-22, 24, 47). In a contemporaneous study, we uncovered that the phase

transition of the mammalian homolog of TIR-1, SARM1, also potentiates its intrinsic NADase

activity (55). Consistent with the data presented in this manuscript, mammalian SARM1 with

mutations in residues required for multimerization largely failed to undergo a phase transition and

lack NADase catalytic activity. SARM1 has a well-characterized role in promoting Wallerian

degeneration, a form of neuronal degeneration induced by axon injury (56, 57). During axon injury,

SARM1 NADase activity depletes NAD^+ and induces cell death, through a non-canonical cell

death pathway (58). Additionally, in myeloid cells, SARM1 localizes to mitochondria and causes

mitochondrial depolarization and cell death during inflammasome activation (59). Thus, the

regulation of intracellular signaling activity through phase transition of TIR-1/SARM1 and its NAD^+

glycohydrolase activity is evolutionarily ancient and is essential for diverse physiological

processes, including neuronal degeneration, cell death, and innate immune regulation in the

intestine.

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MATERIALS AND METHODS

C. elegans **and bacterial strains.** The previously published *C. elegans* strains used in this

study were: N2 Bristol (28), KU25 *pmk-1(km25)* (60), AU3 *nsy-1(ag3)* (14), ZD101 *tir-1(qd4)*

(29), AA968 *nhr-8(hd117)* (13), AE501 *nhr-8(ok186)* (31), AU78 *agIs219* [T24B8.5p::*gfp*::*unc-*

54-3'UTR; *ttx-3*p::*gfp*::*unc-54*-3'UTR] (29), AU306 *agIs44* [*irg-4*p::*gfp*::*unc-54*-3'UTR*; myo-*

*2*p::*mCherry*] (61), AY101 *acIs101* [p*DB09.1(irg-5*p::*gfp)*; pRF4(*rol-6(su1006)*)] (30), TJ356

zIs356 [*daf-16*p::*daf-16a/b*::*gfp* + pRF4(*rol-6(su1006)*)], *MGH167 sid-1(qt9); alxIs9[vha-6p::sid-*

1::SL2::GFP]. The strains developed in this study were: RPW278 *nhr-8(hd117)*;*agIs219*,

RPW317 *tir-1(qd4)*;*nhr-8(hd117)*, RPW280 *nhr-8(hd117)*;*umsEx42[nhr-8*p::*nhr-8*::3'-UTR*; myo-*

*2*p::*mCherry*), RPW281 *nhr-8(hd117)*;*umsEx43[nhr-8*p::*nhr-8*::3'-UTR*; myo-2*p::*mCherry*),

RPW288 *nhr-8(hd117)*;*umsEx50[ges-1*p::*nhr-8*::3'-UTR*; myo-2*p::*mCherry*), RPW289

*umsEx51[ges-1*p::*nhr-8*::3'-UTR*; myo-2*p::*mCherry*), RPW290 *umsEx52[ges-1*p::*nhr-8*::3'-UTR*;*

*myo-2*p::*mCherry*), RPW284 *nhr-8(hd117)*;*umsEx46[sng-1*p::*nhr-8*::3'-UTR*; myo-2*p::*mCherry*),

RPW286 *nhr-8(hd117)*;*umsEx48[sng-1*p::*nhr-8*::3'-UTR*; myo-2*p::*mCherry*), RPW287 *nhr-*

8(hd117);*umsEx49[sng-1*p::*nhr-8*::3'-UTR*; myo-2*p::*mCherry*). RPW339 *tir-*

1(ums47[E788A]);*agIs219*, RPW369 *tir-1(ums54[ΔSAM])*;*agIs219*, RPW374 *tir-*

1(ums55[G747P]);*agIs219*, RPW381 *tir-1(ums56[H833A])*;*agIs219*, RPW386 *tir-1(ums57[tir-*

1::3xFLAG]);*agIs219*, RPW387 *tir-1(ums58[tir-1[E788A]::3xFLAG])*;*agIs219*, RPW388 *tir-1*

(ums59[tir-1[ΔSAM]::3xFLAG]);*agIs219*, RPW 389 *tir-1(ums60[tir-1[G747P]::3xFLAG])*;*agIs219*.

Bacteria used in this study are *Escherichia coli* OP50, *E. coli* DH5α, *E. coli* HT115(DE3), and

Pseudomonas aeruginosa strain PA14 (62).

C. elegans **growth conditions and lipid supplementation.** *C. elegans* strains were maintained

on standard nematode growth medium (NGM) plates [0.25% bacto peptone, 0.3% sodium

chloride, 1.7% agar, 5 µg/mL cholesterol (Sigma-Aldrich, BioReagent grade), 25 mM potassium

phosphate pH 6.0, 1 mM magnesium sulfate, 1 mM calcium chloride] with *E. coli* OP50 as a food

source, as described (28). For low cholesterol medium (0 µg/mL cholesterol), NGM was prepared

without cholesterol supplementation, while 0.1% ethanol added to maintain an equivalent ethanol

concentration. For high cholesterol medium, cholesterol was dissolved in ethanol at 20 mg/mL

and added to NGM at a final concentration of 80 µg/mL immediately prior to pouring plates. For

all assays with high cholesterol medium, control NGM containing 0.4% ethanol and 5 µg/mL

cholesterol were used as control plates. Cholesterol solubilization assays were performed by

supplementing NGM containing 5 µg/mL cholesterol with either 0.1% Tergitol (Sigma-Aldrich) or

0.1% Triton X-100 (Sigma-Aldrich). For assays using media solidified with agarose, NGM plates

were prepared with 1.7% Ultrapure agarose (ThermoFisher Scientific) in place of agar. All fatty

acids were purchased from Nu-Check-Prep Inc. and supplementation performed as previously

described with modification (63, 64). Fatty acids were dissolved in 50% ethanol and added at a

final concentration of 1 mM to NGM agarose containing 0 µg/mL cholesterol and 0.1% Tergitol

immediately prior to plate pouring. Prior to all assays, plates supplemented with lipids and control

plates were seeded with *E. coli* OP50 and grown for 24 hours at room temperature. Assays were

performed by picking 10-20 gravid adult animals to either lipid supplemented or matched control

plates. Animals were maintained on the plates for 14 hours at 20ºC after which they were

removed. Eggs laid on the plate were allowed to hatch and develop to the L4 stage at 20ºC. For

low cholesterol assays, animals were grown for two generations on NGM containing 0 µg/mL

cholesterol.

C. elegans strain construction. CRISPR/Cas9 was used to generate *tir-1* mutants in both wild-

type and TIR-1::3xFLAG backgrounds, as described (65, 66). All CRISPR/Cas9 reagents were

purchased from Integrated DNA Technologies. Target guide sequences were selected using the

CHOPCHOP web tool (67). ssODN repair templates contained indicated edits, deletions or

insertions with 35 bp flanking homology arms. crRNA guide and ssODN sequences are listed in

Table S4. A mixture of 0.25 µg/µL Cas9, 0.1 µg/µL tracrRNA and 0.056 µg/µL crRNA were

incubated for 15 minutes at 37ºC. 0.11 µg/µL ssODN and 40 ng/µL pRF4(*rol-6(su1006)*) plasmid

were added to the mixture, centrifuged and microinjected into young adult animals carrying the

agIs219 transgene or *tir-1(ums57[tir-1::3xFLAG])*;*agIs219*. The F1 progeny were screened for Rol

phenotypes 3-4 days after injection and then for indicated edits using PCR and Sanger

sequencing. Primer sequences used for genotyping are listed in Table S4.

Feeding RNAi. Knockdown of target genes was performed by feeding *C. elegans E. coli* HT115

expressing dsRNA targeting the gene of interest, as previously described with modification (68-

70). In brief, HT115 bacteria expressing dsRNA targeting genes of interest were grown in

Lysogeny broth (LB) Lennox medium containing 50 µg/mL ampicillin and 15 µg/mL tetracycline

overnight with shaking (250 rpm) at 37ºC. Overnight cultures were seeded onto NGM containing

5 mM IPTG and 50 µg/mL carbenicillin and incubated at 37ºC for 16 hours after which

synchronized L1 animals were transferred to bacterial lawns and allowed to grow until the L4

stage.

C. elegans **Bacterial Infection and Colonization Assays.** "Slow killing" *P. aeruginosa* infection

experiments were performed as previously described (71, 72). Wild-type is either N2 or *agIs219*.

In brief, a single colony of *P. aeruginosa* PA14 was inoculated into 3-mL of LB medium and grown

with shaking (250 rpm) at 37ºC for 14 hours. 10-µL of overnight culture was spread onto 35-mm

petri dishes containing 4-mL slow killing agar (0.35% peptone, 0.3% sodium chloride, 1.7% agar,

5 µg/mL cholesterol, 25 mM potassium phosphate pH 6.0, 1 mM magnesium sulfate, 1 mM

calcium chloride). Plates were incubated for 24 hours at 37ºC and for approximately 24 hours at

25ºC. Immediately prior to starting the assay 0.1 mg/mL 5-fluorodeoxyuridine (FUDR) was added

on top of the agar to prevent progeny from hatching. Animals used in all assays were grown at

20ºC with specified growth conditions. For assays involving high cholesterol or nonionic

detergents, slow killing agar plates were prepared with either 80 µg/mL cholesterol (Sigma-

Aldrich), 0.1% Tergitol (Sigma-Aldrich), or 0.1% Triton X-100 (Sigma-Aldrich). For experiments

using plates containing 80 µg/mL cholesterol, matched control plates containing the equivalent

ethanol concentration (0.4%) and 5 µg/mL cholesterol were prepared. All pathogenesis and

lifespan assays are representative of three biological replicates. Sample sizes, mean lifespan,

and p values for all trials are shown in Table S2.

Colony forming units of *P. aeruginosa* were quantified in the intestine of *C. elegans* as

previously described with modifications (73, 74). Briefly, *C. elegans* animals were exposed to

lawns of *P. aeruginosa*, which were prepared as previously described, for 24 hours. Animals were

then picked to NGM plates lacking bacteria and incubated for 10 minutes to remove external *P.*

aeruginosa. Animals were then transferred to a second NGM plate after which 10-11 animals per

replicate were collected, washed with M9 buffer containing 25 mM tetramisole (Sigma-Aldrich)

and 0.01% Triton X-100 (Sigma-Aldrich), and ground with 1.0 mm silicon carbide beads (BioSpec

Products). *P. aeruginosa* CFUs were quantified from serial dilutions of the lysate grown on LB

agar.

Gene expression analysis and bioinformatics. Synchronized L1 stage *C. elegans* of the

indicated genotypes were grown to the L4 stage and harvested by washing with M9. For

expression analysis of *C. elegans* genes during *P. aeruginosa* infection, animals at the L4 stage

animals were transferred by washing to plates containing *E. coli* OP50 or *P. aeruginosa* PA14

lawns. Animals were exposed for four hours and subsequently harvested by washing with M9.

RNA was isolated using TriReagent (Sigma-Aldrich), column purified (Qiagen), and analyzed by

100 bp paired-end mRNA-sequencing using the BGISEQ-500 platform (BGIAmericasCorp) with

>20 million reads per sample. Raw fastq reads were evaluated by FastQC (version 0.11.5), clean

reads were aligned to the *C. elegans* reference genome (WBcel235) and quantified using Kallisto

(version 0.45.0) (75). Differentially expressed genes were identified using Sleuth (version 0.30.0)

(76). Pearson correlation statistical analysis was performed using Prism 9.0. Heat-maps of

differentially expressed genes were generated using pheatmap (version 1.0.12). Gene set

enrichment analysis of RNA-seq was performed using GSEA (version 4.1.0) (77) with a custom

gene set database containing p38 PMK-1 dependent genes generated from previously published

RNA-seq of uninfected *pmk-1(km25)* animals (78). Differential gene expression was defined as a

fold change (FC) versus wild-type greater than 2 and q less than 0.01.

For the qRT-PCR studies, RNA was reverse transcribed to cDNA using the iScript™ cDNA

Synthesis Kit (Bio-Rad Laboratories, Inc.), amplified and detected using Syber Green (Bio-Rad

Laboratories, Inc.) and a CFX384 machine (Bio-Rad Laboratories, Inc.). The sequences of

primers that were designed for this study are presented in Table S4. Other primers were

previously published (17, 79-81). All values were normalized against the geometric mean of the

control genes *snb-1* and *act-3*. Fold change was calculated using the Pfaffl method (82).

Immunoblot analyses. Protein lysates from *C. elegans* grown to the L4 larval stage on *E. coli*

OP50 on NGM agar were prepared as previously described with modification (32, 83). Harvested

animals were washed twice with M9 buffer and resuspended in RIPA Buffer (Cell Signaling

Technology, Inc.) containing 1x Halt Protease and Phosphatase inhibitor (ThermoFisher

Scientific). Samples were lysed using a teflon homogenizer, centrifuged, and protein was

quantified from the supernatant of each sample using the DC protein assay (Bio-Rad

Laboratories, Inc.). NuPAGE™ LDS sample buffer (ThermoFisher Scientific) was added to a

concentration of 1X and 12.5-30 µg of total protein from each sample was resolved on NuPAGE™

4-12% BisTris (Phospho-PMK-1 and Total-PMK-1) or NuPAGE™ 3-8% TrisAcetate (TIR-

1::3xFLAG) gels (ThermoFisher Scientific), transferred to nitrocellulose membranes using a

Trans-Blot Turbo Transfer System (Bio-Rad Laboratories, Inc.), blocked with 5% milk powder in

TBST and probed with a 1:1000 dilution of an antibody that recognizes the doubly-phosphorylated

TGY motif of PMK-1 (Cell Signaling Technology, #9211), a previously characterized total PMK-1

antibody (32), a monoclonal mouse anti-FLAG antibody (Sigma-Aldrich, M2), or a monoclonal

mouse anti-tubulin antibody (Sigma-Aldrich, Clone B-5-1-2). Horseradish peroxidase (HRP)-

conjugated anti-rabbit (Cell Signaling Technology, #7074) and anti-mouse IgG secondary

antibodies (Abcam, #ab6789) were diluted 1:10,000 and used to detect the primary antibodies

following the addition of ECL reagents (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Inc.), which were visualized

using a BioRad ChemiDoc MP Imaging System. The band intensities were quantified using

ImageJ version 2.0.0, and the ratio of active phosphorylated PMK-1 to total PMK-1 was

calculated.

Generation of transgenic *C. elegans* strains. To generate *nhr-8* rescue lines, 1989 bp of the

nhr-8 promoter region upstream of the 5'-UTR, and the entire *nhr-8* coding region, including the

5'-UTR and 3'-UTR were amplified and PCR purified. Gibson assembly was used to clone PCR

products into a *Sma*I-linearized pUC19 vector. Plasmids were transformed into chemically

competent *E. coli* DH5α and selected on LB agar with 50 μg/mL ampicillin. For tissue specific

rescue of *nhr-8* expression, 1973 bp of *sng-1* promoter region (neuronal specific expression),

1936 of *ges-1* promoter region (intestinal specific expression) and the *nhr-8* coding region were

PCR amplified, purified and cloned into a *Sma*I-linearized pUC19 vector by Gibson assembly,

transformed into chemically competent *E. coli* DH5α, and selected on LB agar with 50 μg/mL

ampicillin. All plasmids were verified by Sanger sequencing. Primer sequences used for cloning

are listed in Table S4. Plasmids (50 ng/μL), the *myo-2*p::*mCherry* co-injection marker (5 ng/μL)

and pUC19 vector (155 ng/μL) were microinjected into *nhr-8(hd117)* animals to generate the

arrays for native expression (*umsEx42*, *umsEx43*), intestinal specific expression (*umsEx50*,

umsEx51, *umsEx52*), and neuronal specific expression (*umsEx46*, *umsEx48*, *umsEx49*).

Microscopy. Nematodes were mounted onto agar pads, paralyzed with 10 mM levamisole

(Sigma) and photographed using a Zeiss AXIO Imager Z2 microscope with a Zeiss Axiocam

506mono camera and Zen 2.3 (Zeiss) software.

TIR-1 TIR domain expression and purification. The recombinant *C. elegans* TIR-1 TIR domain

(TIR) was expressed in bacteria as previously described (55). Briefly, the TIR domain cloned into

the pET-30a(+) vector was transformed into chemically competent *E. coli* BL21(DE3) cells and

maintained as a glycerol stock at -80 °C. An inoculation loop was used to transfer the transformed

bacteria into 5-mL of LB media with 50 µg/mL (final concentration) of kanamycin and the culture

was grown overnight at 37 °C while rotating. The next day, the cultures were diluted 1:400 in LB

media with 50 µg/mL (final concentration) of kanamycin and grown at 37 °C while shaking at 215

rpm until an OD_{600} of 0.7-0.8 was reached. After cooling, 50 µM IPTG (final concentration) was

added to the culture to induce protein expression. The incubator temperature was decreased to

16 °C and cells were incubated for an additional 16-18 h. Bacterial cells were collected by

centrifugation at 3,000 *x g* for 15 min at 4 °C, flash frozen in liquid nitrogen, and stored at -80 °C

until purification.

For purification, bacterial pellets were thawed on ice and then resuspended in Lysis Buffer

(50 mM Tris•HCl pH 7.0, 300 mM NaCl, 10% (w/v) glycerol, 0.001% Tween 20) with Pierce™

EDTA-free protease inhibitor mini tablets (ThermoFisher Scientific). The resuspension was

incubated with 100 µg/mL lysozyme for 10 min at 4 °C and sonicated with a Fisher Scientific Sonic

Dismembrator sonicator (FB-705) in 50-mL batches at an amplitude of 30 for 20 s, pulsing for 1 s

on and 1 s off, followed by a delay period of 20 s for a series of 12 cycles. Crude lysate was

clarified at 21,000 *x g* for 25 min at 4 °C, at which point the supernatant was applied to pre-

equilibrated Strep-Tactin XT Superflow high-capacity resin (IBA Lifesciences) and allowed to

enter the column by gravity flow; the Strep-Tactin resin had been equilibrated in Strep Wash

Buffer (50 mM Tris•HCl pH 7.0, 300 mM NaCl). The column was washed with 30 column volumes

of Strep Wash Buffer and the protein was eluted with 25 column volumes of Strep Elution Buffer

(Strep Wash Buffer with 50 mM biotin). Protein eluted from the Strep-Tactin column was then

applied to pre-equilibrated TALON Metal Affinity Resin (Takara) and allowed to enter the column

by gravity flow; the TALON resin was equilibrated in His Wash 1 (50 mM Tris•HCl pH 7.0, 150

mM NaCl, 5 mM imidazole). A series of 15 column volume washes were applied (His Wash 1; His

Wash 2: 50 mM Tris•HCl pH 7.0, 150 NaCl, 10 mM imidazole) and the protein was eluted in 20

column volumes of His Elution Buffer (50 mM Tris•HCl pH 7.0, 150 mM NaCl, 150 mM imidazole).

The eluted protein was dialyzed overnight in Dialysis Buffer (50 mM Tris•HCl, pH 7.0, 150 mM

NaCl). The next day, the protein was concentrated using a 10,000 NMWL Amicon Ultra-15

Centrifugal Filter Unit at 4 °C and the protein concentration was determined by the Bradford

assay. TIR was flash frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at -80 °C in 25-µL aliquots.

Fluorescent NADase Assay. Nicotinamide 1,N^6-ethenoadenine dinucleotide (ε-NAD, Sigma-

Aldrich) is a fluorescent analog of NAD$^+$ and was utilized in kinetic assays as a TIR-1 substrate.

TIR-1 cleaves the nicotinamide moiety from ε-NAD to release nicotinamide and etheno-ADPR (ε-

ADPR), which fluoresces (λ_{ex} = 330 nm, λ_{em} = 405 nm). Enzymatic activity was assayed in Assay

Buffer (50 mM Tris pH 8.0, 150 mM NaCl; final concentration) using Corning® 96–well Half Area

Black Flat Bottom Polystyrene NBS^{TM} Microplates for a final reaction volume of 60-µL, or

Corning® 384-well Low Volume Black Round Bottom Polystyrene NBS^{TM} Microplates for a final

volume of 20-µL; reactions were initiated by the addition of ε-NAD. ε-ADPR fluorescence intensity

readings were taken in real time every 15 s for 15-30 min using Wallac EnVision Manager

software and a PerkinElmer EnVision 2104 Multilabel Reader. Fluorescence intensity readings

(λ_{ex} = 330 nm, λ_{em} = 405 nm) were converted to [ε-ADPR] with an ε-ADPR standard curve, which

was produced by incubating fixed concentrations (0-400 µM) of ε-NAD with excess ADP-ribosyl

cyclase and plotting the peak fluorescence intensity values against [ε-ADPR]. The activity was

linear with respect to time under all conditions tested.

Effect of crowding agents and sodium citrate on the activity of the TIR domain. The enzymatic activity of the TIR domain was evaluated using the Fluorescent Assay described above. First, the enzyme concentration dependence was determined. For purified protein, the enzyme (0-32.5 µM; final concentration) was added to Assay Buffer in duplicate, briefly incubated at room temperature for 10 min, and the reaction was initiated with 1 mM ε-NAD. Fluorescence intensity was monitored in real time every 15 s for 15 min.

To evaluate the effect of crowding agents and sodium citrate on TIR activity, stock solutions of the additives were made. 50% (w/v) solutions of PEGs 8000, 3500, 1500, and 400, as well as 60% (w/v) solutions of dextran, sucrose, and glycerol were prepared and filtered. Initially, the concentration dependence of TIR in the presence of PEG 3350 was determined. TIR (0-15 µM; final concentration) was added to Assay Buffer with 25% PEG 3350 (final concentration) in duplicate, incubated for 10 min at room temperature, initiated with 1 mM ε-NAD, and monitored every 15 s for 15 min. The concentration dependence of TIR in 25% PEG 3350 was used to establish that 2.5 µM TIR could be used to enable robust kinetic analyses. Next, the effect of viscogens on TIR activity was evaluated by adding 2.5 µM TIR (final concentration) in duplicate to Assay Buffer with or without 25% w/v of the viscogens (final concentration). Following a brief 10 min incubation period, the reaction was initiated with 1 mM ε-NAD and monitored every 15 s for 20 min. The dose response of 2.5 µM TIR to the viscogens (0, 10, 20, and 30% final concentrations) was evaluated in the same manner and monitored every 15 s for 15 min.

Sodium citrate was prepared as a stock solution of 2 M and filtered. The concentration dependence of TIR in the presence of 500 mM sodium citrate was determined. TIR (0-15 µM; final concentration) was added to Assay Buffer with 500 mM citrate (final concentration) in duplicate, incubated for 10 min at room temperature, and then the reaction was initiated with 1 mM ε-NAD and monitored every 15 s for 15 min. Additionally, the dose dependence of sodium citrate was determined in duplicate. 2.5 µM TIR was added to Assay Buffer with (0-1000 mM)

sodium citrate and briefly incubated at room temperature for 10 min. The reaction was initiated

with 1 mM E-NAD, and fluorescence was monitored for 15 min every 15 s.

In all cases, the fluorescence intensity was converted to ε-ADPR using the ε-ADPR

standard curve described above. Slopes of the progress curves yielded the velocities of the

reactions, which were plotted in GraphPad Prism.

Effect of PEG 3350 and sodium citrate on steady state kinetics. Steady state kinetic reactions

were carried out in Assay buffer with either PEG 3350 (0-25%; final concentration) or sodium

citrate (0-1000 mM; final concentration); a constant concentration of 2.5 μM TIR was used in these

assays. Reaction components were mixed in duplicate and incubated at room temperature for 10

min before initiating the reaction with ε-NAD (0-4000 μM, final concentration). Fluorescence

intensity was monitored for 15 min every 15 s. Using the ε-ADPR standard curve, the fluorescence

was converted to [ε-ADPR]. The velocity of the reactions was calculated from the slope of the

progress curve at each ε-NAD concentration and plotted in GraphPad Prism. Kinetic parameters

were determined by fitting these velocities to the Michaelis Menten equation (Eq. 1) at each PEG

3350 or sodium citrate concentration. K_m, k_{cat}, and k_{cat}/K_m values were plotted against PEG 3350

or sodium citrate concentration.

Eq.1 $v = \dfrac{V_{max}[S]}{K_m + [S]},$

Where V_{max} is the maximum velocity, [S] is the substrate concentration, and K_m is the substrate

concentration at half the maximum velocity.

The TIR domain precipitates in PEG3350 and sodium citrate. 5 μM TIR was incubated in

Assay Buffer with PEG 3350 (0, 10, 17.5, and 25%; final concentration) or sodium citrate (0, 125,

250, 500, 750, and 1000 mM; final concentration) in duplicate at room temperature for 15 min.

The precentrifugation control was removed and the remainder of the sample was centrifuged at

17,000 *x g* at 4 °C for 10 min. Following centrifugation, the supernatant was separated from the

pellet and the pellet was resuspended in Assay Buffer with the respective concentration of PEG

3350 or sodium citrate. Samples were diluted 1:2 with gel loading buffer and run on an SDS-

PAGE gel. Protein bands were stained by Coomassie and visualized on a BioRad Gel Doc EZ

Gel Documentation System with Image Lab^{TM} Software. Representative images are shown.

Following resuspension of the pellet, all fractions were analyzed in the Fluorescent Assay.

After the samples were aliquoted into the assay plate in duplicate, the enzymatic reaction was

initiated with 1 mM ε-NAD and monitored every 15 s for 15 min. Fluorescence intensity was

converted to ε-ADPR concentration using the ε-ADPR standard curve. Slopes of the progress

curves yielded the velocities of the reactions, which were plotted in GraphPad Prism.

Effect of 1,6-hexanediol on TIR domain activity and precipitation. To evaluate the effect of

1,6-hexanediol on TIR activity, the Fluorescent Assay was performed in triplicate in the absence

and presence of PEG 3350 or sodium citrate. For pure protein, 35 µM TIR (final concentration)

was incubated in Assay Buffer at room temperature for 10 min with or without 2% 1,6-hexanediol

(final concentration). For PEG 3350 or citrate, 2.5 µM TIR was incubated in Assay Buffer with

25% PEG 3350 or 500 mM sodium citrate (final concentrations) for 10 min at room temperature

with or without 2% 1,6-hexanediol. The reactions were initiated with 1 mM ε-NAD and monitored

for 15 min every 15 s. Using the ε-ADPR standard curve, fluorescence was converted to [ε-ADPR]

and the reaction velocities (i.e., slopes of the progress curves) obtained. Velocities were

normalized for enzyme concentration and these normalized velocities were plotted in GraphPad

Prism.

To determine whether 1,6-hexanediol can alter TIR precipitation, 1,6-hexanediol was

added either before or after TIR precipitation in duplicate. To assess whether 1,6-hexanediol

disrupts TIR precipitation, TIR precipitates were formed first by incubating 10 µM TIR (final

concentration) with 25% PEG3350 or 500 mM sodium citrate (final concentration) at room

temperature for 15 min. 1,6-hexanediol (0, 1, or 2%; final concentrations) was added to the

mixture and incubated at room temperature for an additional 10 min. The precentrifugation control

was removed and the remaining mixture was centrifuged at 21,000 $x\ g$ for 10 min at 4 °C.

Supernatant fractions were removed, and the pellet was resuspended in Assay Buffer with the

respective additive and concentration of 1,6-hexanediol. All fractions were run on an SDS-PAGE

and stained with Coomassie Blue, and gels were imaged on a BioRad Gel Doc EZ Gel

Documentation System with Image Lab™ Software. Next, we determined if 1,6-hexanediol could

prevent TIR precipitation. 10 µM TIR was incubated in Assay Buffer with 1,6-hexanediol (0, 1, or

2 %; final concentration) for 15 min at room temperature. 25% PEG 3350 or 500 mM sodium

citrate was added to the TIR-buffer-hexanediol mixture and incubated further for 10 min. Controls

were removed and the samples were centrifuged at 21,000 $x\ g$ for 10 min at 4 °C. As before,

supernatant fractions were removed, and pellet fractions were resuspended in Assay Buffer with

respective additives and hexanediol concentrations. Fractions were analyzed by SDS-

PAGE/Coomassie staining; representative images are shown.

Phase Transition Reversibility. To evaluate the reversibility of the TIR phase transition, 5 µM of

TIR was mixed with Assay Buffer and 25% PEG 3350 or 500 mM sodium citrate in duplicate (final

concentrations). Following a 15 min incubation period at room temperature, precentrifugation

controls were removed and the sample remaining was centrifuged at 17,000 $x\ g$ for 10 min at 4

°C. Supernatant fractions were separated from the pellet, which was resuspended in either Assay

Buffer alone or Assay Buffer with respective additive. All fractions were analyzed for enzymatic

activity in the Fluorescent Assay. Briefly, the precentrifugation, supernatant, and pellet fractions

were aliquoted into the assay plates in duplicate and the reaction was initiated with 1 mM ε-NAD.

Fluorescence was converted to [ε-ADPR] concentration with the ε-ADPR curve to yield the

progress curves. The velocity of the reactions was taken as the slope of the line and the velocities

were plotted in GraphPad Prism.

To validate the kinetic data, 10 µM TIR (final concentration) was incubated in Assay Buffer

with either 25% PEG 3350 or 500 mM sodium citrate (final concentration) for 15 min at room

temperature; control samples were incubated in Assay Buffer only. Samples were centrifuged at

21,000 $x\,g$ for 10 min at 4 °C, after which the supernatant was separated from the pellet. The

pellets from samples initially prepared with additives were resuspended in either Assay Buffer

alone or Assay Buffer plus the respective additive; this was not necessary for the sample initially

prepared without additive since the protein is primarily located in the supernatant in this case.

After removing another control sample (Additive lanes on gel), the resuspended samples were

centrifuged again at 21,000 $x\,g$ for 10 min at 4 °C. As before, the supernatant was removed, and

the pellet was resuspended in Assay Buffer with the respective additive. All samples were

analyzed for protein content on an SDS-PAGE gel and stained with Coomassie Blue.

Effect of pH on TIR domain precipitation and kinetics. To determine the effect of pH on TIR

precipitation, the experiments described above were carried out in duplicate at pH values from

4.5-9.0. Briefly, 5 µM TIR (final concentration) was mixed with Assay Buffer (50 mM buffer; 150

NaCl) with and without 25% PEG 3350 (final concentration); for pH 4.5-5, sodium acetate buffer

was used; for pH 5.5-6.5, MES was used; for pH 7-9, Tris was used. The samples were incubated

for 15 min at ambient temperature, at which point the samples were centrifuged at 21,000 $x\,g$ for

10 min at 4 °C. The supernatant was removed, and the pellet was resuspended in either buffer

alone or buffer with 25% PEG 3350 (final concentration); the presence or absence of 25% PEG

3350 and the buffer identity of the resuspension solution corresponded to the initial sample

preparation. 10-µL 1 M Tris, pH 6.8 was added to each sample to neutralize the buffer before

running on an SDS-PAGE gel and staining with Coomassie blue. Images of the gels were

obtained on the BioRad Gel Doc EZ Gel Documentation System with Image Lab[TM] Software.

Representative images are shown. ImageJ was used to quantify the bands, which were plotted in

GraphPad Prism.

Steady state kinetic analyses were also performed at each pH in 25% PEG 3350. A

constant concentration of 2.5 µM TIR was used in these assays. Reaction components were

mixed in quadruplicate and incubated at room temperature for 10 min before initiating the reaction

with 0-2000 µM of ε-NAD (final concentration). Fluorescence intensity was monitored for 15 min

every 15 s. Using the ε-ADPR standard curve, the fluorescence was converted to [ε-ADPR]. The

velocity of the reactions was calculated from the slope of the progress curve at each ε-NAD

concentration. Kinetic parameters were determined by fitting these velocities to the Michaelis

Menten equation (Eq. 1) at each pH. The log of K_m, k_{cat}, and k_{cat}/K_m values were determined and

plotted in GraphPad Prism.

Negative Stain Electron Microscopy. Negative stain EM on TIR (270 µg/mL) was performed in

Assay Buffer (50 mM Tris, pH 8; 150 mM NaCl) with or without 500 mM sodium citrate. Samples

were applied to glow-discharged, carbon- and formvar-coated copper grids and allowed to sit for

1 min and 30s before blotting excess liquid away. 1% uranyl acetate was used to fix the samples

before image. Samples were images on a FEI Tecnai Spirit 12 microscope. The diameter of

particles in the samples with citrate were analyzed in ImageJ.

TIR domain mutants. TIR domain mutants were made using PCR based methods. The pET30a+

TIR-1 TIR domain construct was used as a template (0.2-2 ng/µL; final concentration). The

manufacturer's protocol for iProof™ High-Fidelity DNA Polymerase (Bio-Rad Laboratories, Inc.)

was followed using iProof HF buffer supplemented with 3% DMSO. 50-µL reaction volumes were

used in the following protocol: initial denaturation for 3 min at 98 °C, denaturation for 45 s at 98

°C, annealing for 1:30 min at 45-72 °C, extension for 6 min at 72 °C, final extension for 10 min at

72 °C. Denaturation, annealing, and extension steps were repeated 30 times. The following day,

*Dpn*I was added to the PCR reactions and incubated at 37 °C for 2 h to digest the template DNA.

The digest was transformed into chemically competent *E. coli* XL1-Blue cells. Transformants were

grown overnight in LB media with 50 µg/mL kanamycin and mini-prepped (Promega).

Mutagenesis was validated by Sanger sequencing (Genewiz). The mutants were expressed and

purified as described for WT TIR.

Steady state kinetic analyses of the mutants were carried out in Assay Buffer with 25%

PEG 3350 or 500 mM sodium citrate with 2.5 µM of the mutants (final concentrations). Reaction

components were mixed in triplicate and incubated at room temperature for 10 min before

initiating the reaction with 0-2000 µM of ε-NAD for PEG 3350 or 0-4000 µM for citrate.

Fluorescence intensity was monitored for 17.5 min every 15 s. Using the ε-ADPR standard curve,

the fluorescence was converted to [ε-ADPR]. The velocity of the reactions was calculated from

the slope of the progress curve at each ε-NAD concentration and plotted in GraphPad Prism.

Kinetic parameters were determined by fitting these velocities to the Michaelis Menten equation

(Eq. 1) for each mutant.

To evaluate the precipitation capacity of TIR mutants, 10 µM (WT, G747P, E788Q, and

H833A) or 3 µM (WT, E788A) of the enzyme was mixed with Assay Buffer (50 mM Tris, pH 8.0;

150 NaCl) with and without 25% PEG 3350 or 500 mM sodium citrate (final concentrations).

Precipitation of the TIR^{E788A} mutant was evaluated at 3 µM due to low yields of the protein; WT

TIR at 3 µM was included as the proper control. The samples were incubated for 15 min at ambient

temperature, at which point the samples were centrifuged at 21,000 x g for 10 min at 4 °C. The

supernatant was removed, and the pellet was resuspended buffer with the respective additive

(final concentration). Samples were diluted 1:1 with water before running on an SDS-PAGE gel.

Stain free images of the gels were obtained on the BioRad Gel Doc EZ Gel Documentation

System with Image Lab^{TM} Software. Representative images are shown. ImageJ was used to

quantify the bands, which were plotted in GraphPad Prism.

Statistical Analyses. Differences in survival of *C. elegans* in the *P. aeruginosa* pathogenesis

assays were determined with the log-rank test after survival curves were estimated for each group

with the Kaplan-Meier method. OASIS 2 was used for these statistical analyses (84). qRT-PCR

studies, intestinal CFU quantification, western blot band intensity quantification, TIR NADase

activity, and TIR protein precipitation are presented as the mean ± standard error of the mean.

Statistical hypothesis testing was performed with Prism 9 (GraphPad Software) using methods

indicated in the figure legends. Sample sizes, mean lifespan, and p-values for all trials are shown

in Table S2.

Data Availability. The mRNA-seq dataset is available from the NCBI Gene Expression Omnibus

using the accession number GSE178572. All other data are available in the manuscript.

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Figure 1. Cholesterol scarcity activates intestinal innate immune defenses. Images of

T24B8.5*p::gfp* **(A)** and *irg-5*p::*GFP* **(B)** transcriptional immune reporters in wild-type animals

growing on standard nematode growth media (+5 µg/mL cholesterol) and in the absence of

supplemented cholesterol (+0 µg/mL cholesterol). **(C)** qRT-PCR data of the indicated innate

immune effector genes in wild-type *C. elegans* growing in the presence (+5 µg/mL) and absence

(+0 µg/mL) of supplemented cholesterol. * equals $p<0.05$ (unpaired t-test). **(D)** Data from an

mRNA-seq experiment comparing genes differentially regulated in uninfected *nhr-8(hd117)*

mutants versus wild-type animals (y-axis) are compared with genes differentially expressed in

wild-type animals during *P. aeruginosa* infection (x-axis). All genes are shown in gray. Genes that

are differentially expressed in both datasets are shown in black (Fold change > 2, q<0.01). Genes

that are annotated as innate immune genes are shown in red. The location of the representative

genes T24B8.5, *irg*-5, irg-*4*, and K08D8.4, whose expression is examined throughout this

manuscript are shown. See also Table S1. **(E, F, G)** Images of T24B8.5*p::gfp* animals of the

indicted genotypes, grown under the indicated conditions are shown. In Fig. 1*G*, *C. elegans* were

grown on media solidified with agarose, rather than agar. **(H, I, J, K)** qRT-PCR data of the

indicated genes in wild-type and *nhr-8(hd117)* mutant animals grown on standard nematode

growth media (+5 µg/mL cholesterol) in the presence or absence of 0.1% Tergitol, as indicated.

For the qRT-PCR studies in Fig. 1*C, 1H, 1I, 1J, and 1K*, data are the average of three independent

biological replicates, each normalized to a control gene with error bars representing SEM, and

are presented as the value relative to the average expression from all replicates of the indicated

gene in wild-type animals on standard nematode growth media (+5 µg/mL cholesterol). * equals

$p<0.05$ (two-way ANOVA with Tukey multiple comparison testing). **(L, M)** *C. elegans*

pathogenesis assay with *P. aeruginosa* and *C. elegans* of indicated genotypes at the L4 larval

stage is shown and exposed to the indicated conditions. Data are representative of three trials.

The Kaplan-Meier method was used to estimate the survival curves for each group, and the log

rank test was used for all statistical comparisons. Sample sizes, mean lifespan and p-values for

all trials are shown in Table S2. **(N)** *P. aeruginosa,* isolated from the intestines of animals with the

indicated genotypes, were quantified after 24 hours of bacterial infection. Data are colony forming

units (CFU) of *P. aeruginosa* and are presented as the average of 10 separate biological

replicates with each replicate containing 10-11 animals. * equals $p < 0.05$ (unpaired t-test). Scale

bars in all images equals 200 μm. See also Fig. S1.

Figure 2. Cholesterol scarcity activates the p38 PMK-1 innate immune pathway. (A) An

immunoblot analysis of lysates from wild-type *C. elegans* grown on standard nematode growth

media in the presence (+5 µg/mL cholesterol) and in the absence (+0 µg/mL cholesterol) of

supplemented cholesterol using antibodies that recognize the doubly phosphorylated TGY motif

of PMK-1 (phospho-PMK-1), total PMK-1 protein (total PMK-1) and tubulin (α-tubulin) is shown.

PMK-1 is a 43.9 kDa protein and tubulin is a 50 kDa protein. **(B)** The band intensities of four

biological replicates of the Western blot shown in Fig. 2*A* were quantified. * equals p<0.05

(unpaired t-test) **(C)** Gene set enrichment analysis (GSEA) of p38 PMK-1 targets in the mRNA-

seq experiment. Fold change in expression of significantly differentially expressed genes (fold-

change > 2 and q<0.01) in *nhr-8(hd117)* mutants vs. wild-type (in the absence of pathogen

infection) are ranked from higher expression (red) to lower expression (blue) in the *nhr-8(hd117)*

mutant. Normalized enrichment score (NES) and q-value are indicated. p38 PMK-1 targets found

in the transcriptional profile are indicated by hit number (112) in the left margin and black lines.

(D, **E)** Western blot experiment and quantification of four biological replicate experiments as

described in Fig. 2*A*. and Fig. 2*B* with the strains of the indicated genotypes. In Fig. 2*A*. and Fig.

2*D***,** *pmk-1(km25)* and *nsy-1(ag3)* and loss-of-function mutants are the controls, which confirm

specificity of phospho-PMK-1 and total PMK-1 probing. * equals p<0.05 (one-way ANOVA with

Dunnett multiple comparison testing). **(F)** Images of T24B8.5*p::gfp* transcriptional immune

reporter animals in wild-type animals and *nhr-8(hd117)* mutants growing on control RNAi, *tir-*

1(RNAi) or *atf-7(RNAi)* bacteria, as indicated. **(G, H, I, J)** qRT-PCR data of the indicated genes in

the indicated mutant animals grown on standard nematode growth media (+5 µg/mL cholesterol).

Data are the average of three to seven independent replicates, each normalized to a control gene

with error bars representing SEM and are presented as the value relative to the average

expression from all replicates of the indicated gene in wild-type animals. * equals p<0.05 (one-

way ANOVA with Dunnett multiple comparison testing) **(K)** Images of T24B8.5*p::gfp*

transcriptional immune reporter animals of the indicated genotypes growing in the presence or

absence of 0.1% Tergitol. Scale bars in all images equals 200 μm. See also Fig. S2.

Figure 3. Activation of the p38 PMK-1 pathway by cholesterol deprivation requires TIR-1

oligomerization and NADase activity. (A) Model of *tir-1* showing the domains and the mutations

that were introduced using CRISPR-Cas9. **(B, C)** Expression of the innate immune effector

T24B8.5p::*gfp* in *tir-1* mutants with predicted defects in oligomerization (*tir-1*$^{\Delta SAM}$*, tir-1*^{G747P} and *tir-*

1^{H833A}) and NADase catalytic activity (*tir-1*^{E788A}) in the indicated genetic backgrounds and

conditions. Scale bars in all images equals 200 μm. **(D)** Immunoblot analysis of lysates from the

indicated genotypes probed with antibodies targeting the doubly phosphorylated TGY epitope in

phosphorylated PMK-1 (phos-PMK-1), total PMK-1, and tubulin. *nsy-1(ag3)* and *pmk-1(km25)*

loss-of-function mutants are the controls, which confirm the specificity of the phospho-PMK-1

probing. **(E)** The band intensities of three biological replicates of the Western blot shown in **(D)**

were quantified. * equals p<0.05 (one-way ANOVA with Dunnett multiple comparison testing). **(F)**

qRT-PCR data of T24B8.5 in wild-type and mutant animals of the indicated genotypes grown on

standard nematode growth media (+5 μg/mL cholesterol). Data are the average of three

independent replicates, each normalized to a control gene with error bars representing SEM and

are presented as the value relative to the average expression from all replicates in wild-type

animals. * equals p<0.05 (two-way ANOVA with Tukey multiple comparison testing). **(G)** *C.*

elegans pathogenesis assay with *P. aeruginosa* and *C. elegans* of indicated genotypes at the L4

larval stage are shown. Data are representative of three trials. The Kaplan-Meier method was

used to estimate the survival curves for each group, and the log rank test was used for all

statistical comparisons. Sample sizes, mean lifespan and p-values for all trials are shown in Table

S2. See also Fig. S3.

Figure 4. The NAD$^+$ glycohydrolase activity of TIR-1/SARM1 is activated by a phase

transition that requires TIR oligomerization. (A) NADase activity of purified TIR at increasing

TIR protein concentrations is shown. Activity was assessed by incubating TIR protein with 1 mM

ε-NAD and monitoring the rate at which the fluorescent product ε-ADPR was produced. Curve

represents a nonlinear regression fit of the NADase activity data points (n=2). **(B)** NADase activity

of 2.5 µM TIR incubated in the presence of 25% (w/v) of macro- (PEG 8000, PEG 3350 and

dextran) and micro- (sucrose and glycerol) viscogens was assessed as described in Fig. 4*A* (n=2).

(C) Dose dependency of macroviscogens on the NADase activity of TIR is shown. 2.5 µM TIR

protein was incubated with the indicated PEG compound at concentrations from 0-30% (w/v).

NADase activity was assessed as described in Fig. 4*A* (n=2). **(D)** Steady-state kinetic analysis of

2.5 µM TIR incubated in 0-30% (w/v) of PEG 3350 with the ε-NAD substrate provided at

concentrations from 0-4000 µM was assessed as described in Fig. 4*A*. (n=2). From the steady-

state kinetic analysis performed in Fig. 4*D*, K_m **(E)**, k_{cat} **(F)**, and k_{cat}/K_m **(G)** were determined at

each PEG 3350 concentration. **(H)** SDS-PAGE analysis of TIR protein fractions incubated with

increasing concentrations of PEG 3350 before [precentrifugation (C)] and after centrifugation, the

soluble (S) and pellet (P) protein fractions. NADase activity of TIR protein in each fraction and at

each concentration of PEG 3350 was assessed, as described in Fig. 4*A* and is represented below

the gel image (n=2, representative image shown). **(I)** Steady-state kinetic analysis of TIR wild-

type, oligomerization mutant (TIR^{G747P}), and catalytic mutants (TIR^{E788Q} and TIR^{E788A}) in 25% PEG

3350 assessed with 0-2000 µM ε-NAD was assessed as described in Fig. 4*D*. Kinetic parameters

(K_m, k_{cat} and k_{cat}/K_m) are shown in the table below the graph (n=3). **(J, K)** SDS-PAGE analysis of

TIR: wild-type, oligomerization mutant (TIR^{G747P}) and catalytic mutants (TIR^{E788Q} and TIR^{E788A}),

precipitation in the presence of 25% PEG 3350. Gel represents the soluble (S) and pellet (P)

protein fractions of wild-type and mutant TIR following incubation with PEG 3350 and

centrifugation. TIR^{G747P} and TIR^{E788Q} were assessed with 10 µM protein in Fig. 4*J* and TIR^{E788A}

was assessed with 3 µM protein in Fig. 4*K*. Quantification of replicates represented below gel

images (n=4, representative images shown). * equals $p < 0.05$ by one-way ANOVA in Fig. 4*J* and

unpaired t-test in Fig. 4*K*. See also Fig. S4.

Figure 5. A phase transition superactivates the intrinsic NAD+ glycohydrolase of TIR. (A)

Effect of 1,6-hexanediol on TIR NADase activity is shown. TIR protein was incubated in the

presence or absence of either 25% PEG 3350 or 500 mM citrate, and treated with either 0 or 2%

1,6-hexanediol. The NADase activity of TIR for each condition was assessed using the ε-NAD

substrate assay (n=3). * equals p<0.05 (unpaired t-test). **(B)** The NADase activity of TIR protein

incubated with either 25% PEG 3350 or 500 mM citrate before (precentrifugation, n=2) and after

centrifugation, the supernatant (n=4) and precipitant (n=2) fractions. Precipitation fractions were

resuspended in buffer alone or buffer containing 25% PEG 3350 or 500 mM citrate and NADase

activity assessed. **(C)** SDS-PAGE analysis of TIR protein in the soluble (S) and pellet (P) fractions

following incubation with either PEG 3350 or citrate and centrifugation (1 spin). Pellet fractions

were subsequently resuspended in only buffer or buffer containing 25% PEG 3350 or 500 mM

citrate and centrifuged a second time to isolate the soluble (S) and pellet (P) fractions (n=2,

representative image shown). **(D)** SDS-PAGE analysis of TIR in the soluble (S) and pellet (P)

fractions incubated with or without 25% PEG 3350 at the indicated pH (n=2, representative image

shown). TIR steady state kinetic parameters [K_m **(E)**, k_{cat} **(F)**, k_{cat}/K_m **(G)**] is shown at the indicated

pH (n=2). **(H)** Negative stain electron microscopy in either the absence or presence of 500 mM

citrate (diameter of particles = 8.9 nm ± 1.2, n = 65). See also Fig. S5.

Figure 6. Sterol scarcity primes p38 PMK-1 immune defenses. (A ,B, C, D, E) Images of the

indicated transcriptional immune reporters under the indicated conditions. Scale bars in all images

equals 200 µm. **(F)** A heat map compares the expression levels of the 184 genes that were both

induced in wild-type animals during *P. aeruginosa* infection and differentially expressed (either

induced or repressed) in *nhr-8(hd117)* mutants at baseline (each greater than 2-fold, q<0.05). To

compare expression of these genes in wild-type and *nhr-8(hd117)* mutants, we scaled the

expression level in each condition by calculating a z-score for each row and performed

hierarchical clustering, which identified two main clusters (Cluster I has 139 genes and Cluster II

contains 45 genes). See also Table S3. **(G)** Enrichment of p38 PMK-1-dependent genes in Cluster

I and II genes is shown. **(H, I, J, K)** mRNA-seq data for the indicated genes from the experiment

described in 6*F* showing scaled reads per base from three biological replicates. * equals q<0.05

from RNA-seq analysis. **(L)** Model of p38 PMK-1 pathway activation during sterol scarcity.

Supplementary Figure 1. Cholesterol scarcity activates intestinal innate immune defenses.

(A) An mRNA-seq experiment as described in Fig. 1*D*, except using a different *nhr-8* mutant allele:

nhr-8(ok186). **(B)** Images of T24B8.5p::*gfp* animals as described in Fig. 1*F*. **(C)** Images of

T24B8.5p::*gfp* on agarose media with 0.1% Tergitol in the presence of supplemented fatty acids,

as indicated. **(D, E, F, G)** Pathogenesis assay with *P. aeruginosa* and *C. elegans* of indicated

genotypes at the L4 larval stage is shown. Data are representative of three trials. The Kaplan-

Meier method was used to estimate the survival curves for each group, and the log rank test was

used for all statistical comparisons. Sample sizes, mean lifespan and p-values for all trials are

shown in Table S2. Scale bars in all images equals 200 μm. See also Fig. 1.

Supplementary Figure 2. Cholesterol scarcity activates the p38 PMK-1 innate immune

pathway. (A) Gene set enrichment analysis (GSEA) of p38 PMK-1 targets in the mRNA-seq

experiment as described in Fig 2*C*, except using a different *nhr-8* mutant allele: *nhr-8(ok186)*. **(B)**

Images of T24B8.5p::*gfp* animals, as described in Fig. 2*F*. **(C)** Images of the transgenic *C.*

elegans, in which *gfp* has been fused to the DAF-16 protein under the indicated conditions. Scale

bars in all images equals 200 µm. See also Fig. 2.

Supplementary Figure 3. Activation of the p38 PMK-1 pathway by cholesterol deprivation

requires TIR-1 oligomerization and NADase activity. (A) qRT-PCR data of *irg-4* in wild-type

and mutant animals as described in Fig. 3C. **(B)** Immunoblot analysis of lysates from the indicated

genotypes probed with an antibody that recognizes the FLAG epitope. **(C)** Images of

T24B8.5p::*gfp* immune reporter containing the indicated genotypes. Scale bars in all images

equals 200 μm. See also Fig. 3.

Supplementary Figure 4. (A) Enzyme concentration dependence in presence and absence of

either 25% PEG 3350 or 500 mM sodium citrate (n=2). **(B)** Dose dependence of TIR NADase

activity on citrate concentration as described in Fig. 4*C*, except using citrate (n=2). **(C)** Steady-

state kinetic analysis of TIR as described in Fig. 4*D*, except in the presence of citrate (n=2). **(D-**

F) From the steady-state kinetic analysis performed in **(C)**, K_m **(D)**, k_{cat} **(E)**, and k_{cat}/K_m **(F)** were

determined at each citrate concentration. **(G)** Effect of citrate on TIR aggregation and associated

activity as described in Fig. 4*H* (n=2, representative images shown). **(H)** Steady state kinetic

analysis of TIR mutants as described in Fig. 4*I*, except in the presence of citrate (n=3). **(I, J)**

Precipitation of TIR mutants as described in Fig. 4*J* and 4*K*, except in the presence of citrate (n=4,

representative images shown). See also Fig. 4.

Supplementary Figure 5. (A) SDS-PAGE analysis of TIR protein soluble (S) and pellet (P)

fractions following TIR incubation first with 25% PEG 3350 or 500 mM citrate and subsequently

addition of 2% 1,6-hexanediol (n=2, representative image shown). **(B)** SDS-PAGE analysis of TIR

protein soluble (S) and pellet (P) fractions following TIR incubation first with 0 or 2% 1,6-

hexanediol and subsequently addition of 25% PEG 3350 or 500 mM citrate (n=2, representative

image shown). See also Fig. 5.

Supplementary Table S1. Genes differentially expressed in *nhr-8(hd117)* and *nhr-8(ok186)*

mutants compared to wild-type in the RNA-seq experiment presented in Fig. 1*D* and S1*A*.

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1244   **Supplementary Table S2. Sample sizes, mean lifespan, and p values for the *C. elegans***

1245   **pathogenesis assays.**

1246

1247   **Supplementary Table S3. Genes in Cluster 1 and Cluster 2 of the heat map shown in Fig.**

1248   **6*F*.**

1249

1250   **Supplementary Table S4. Primer, crRNA guide and ssODN sequences designed for this**

1251   **study.**

1252

Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3

Figure 4

Figure 5

Figure 6

Supplementary Figure 1

A Gene set enrichment analysis: *pmk-1* dependent genes

NES=1.91
q<0.008

Enrichment score

Hits (35)

Up *nhr-8(ok186)*   Down *nhr-8(ok186)*

Rank log$_2$(Uninfected *nhr-8(ok186)*/wild-type)

B

wild-type — Control RNAi

nhr-8(hd117) — Control RNAi

nhr-8(hd117) — *skn-1(RNAi)*

nhr-8(hd117) — *kgb-1(RNAi)*

nhr-8(hd117) — *daf-16(RNAi)*

nhr-8(hd117) — *fshr-1(RNAi)*

T24B8.5p::*gfp*

C

Control RNAi

daf-16(RNAi)

nhr-8(RNAi)

*daf-16*p::*daf-16a/b*::*gfp*

Supplementary Figure 2.

Supplementary Figure 3

Supplementary Figure 4

A Post-precipitant formation + 1,6-hexanediol

B Pre-precipitant formation + 1,6-hexanediol

Supplementary Figure 5