SARM1 Activation Promotes Axonal Degeneration Via a Two-Step Liquid-to-Solid Phase Transition

Abstract

SARM1 protein plays a central role in axonal degeneration, a key process in many neurodegenerative diseases and nerve injuries. It mediates this by depleting axonal NAD+ through its NADase activity, catalyzed by the TIR domain. Normally, this activity is kept in an inactive state and becomes activated in response to various neuronal damage signals. However, the molecular mechanism behind SARM1 activation, particularly how activation is restricted to damaged axons, remains to be fully elucidated. In this study, using a class of pyridine-containing compounds that induce SARM1-dependent cell death and axonal degeneration, we reveal a two-step process of SARM1 activation. The first step involves sub-lethal "priming" activation of SARM1 mediated by the NAD+ precursor NMN, leading to the formation of covalent conjugates between the hydrolyzed product of NAD^+, adenosine diphosphate ribose (ADPR), and the compounds catalyzed by the intrinsic base exchange activity of SARM1. In the second step, these ADPR-conjugates act as molecular glues, promoting the formation of self-proliferating superhelical filaments. On these filaments, SARM1's

TIR domains adopt an active NADase configuration. As the superhelical

filaments rapidly reach their limit of solubility, they precipitate out of the

liquid phase as condensates with stable, fully activated NAD hydrolysis

activity. Interestingly, we found that a series of reported SARM1

inhibitors currently under clinical development, which target the TIR

enzymatic domain, can paradoxically activate SARM1's NADase activity

via this mechanism. These findings provide new insights into how

SARM1 activation is spatially restricted to damaged axons and offer

important implications for the development of therapeutics targeting

SARM1.

Main

SARM1 (Sterile Alpha and TIR Motif Containing 1) protein is known as a

key mediator of axon degeneration during nerve injury[1,2]. It comprises an

auto-inhibitory N-terminal armadillo repeat domain (ARM), followed by two

tandem sterile alpha motif domains (SAM), and a toll-interleukin receptor

homology domain (TIR) that possess the NAD^+ glycohydrolase (NADase)

activity required for axon degradation. SARM1 is the founding member of a

family of TIR-domain containing enzymes that catalyze the cyclization

reaction of NAD^+ to produce ADP-ribose (ADPR) and cyclic ADP-ribose

(cADPR). Its activation leads to cellular NAD^+ depletion, resulting in

metabolic failure and axon fragmentation[3–6]. Loss of SARM1 in animal models

protects axons in various neurodegenerative conditions including

chemotherapy-induced peripheral neuropathy (CIPN), traumatic central and

periphery nerve injury, and glaucoma[7–13]. Additionally, activating mutations in

SARM1 have been found in patients with amyotrophic lateral sclerosis

(ALS)[14–16], indicating a general and conserved neural degenerative function of

the protein.

The SARM1 ARM domain contains an allosteric pocket in which the

binding of NMN disrupts the ARM-TIR interactions, leading to TIR domain

self-association and the formation of functional catalytic sites capable of

cleaving NAD^+[17–19]. Conversely, NAD^+ can bind to the same site, competing

with NMN to prevent SARM1 activation[20,21]. Thus, the cellular ratio of

NMN/NAD^+, which is increased due to the diminishing of a fast-turnover

NMN to NAD^+ converting enzyme NMNAT2 (Nicotinamide Nucleotide

Adenylyltransferase 2) in the proximal portion of the injured nerves, has been

proposed to be the key determinant controlling SARM1 activation[22]. The

NMN/NAD^+ ratio model of SARM1 activation is supported by the fact that

NMN accumulates prior to axon degeneration after injury, and SARM1 can be

directly activated by adding NMN to purified SARM1[19,23]. However, the

concentration of NMN required for SARM1 activation *in vitro* exceeds that of

the cellular concentration[24]. Moreover, in addition to axon degeneration,

SARM1 activation in cultured cells causes necrotic cell death[25]. We thus

believe that the current NMN-mediated SARM1 activation model is not

complete.

By observing that a group of pyridine-containing compounds, such as

SIR3 (Figure 1A), activated SARM1 NADase and induced SARM1-dependent

cell death and axon degeneration, we deduced a two-step activation process of

SARM1 mediated by those compounds. In the first step, SARM1 catalyzes a

base exchange reaction between the SARM1-activating compounds and the

nicotinamide moiety of NAD^+, resulting in the formation of ADPR conjugates.

Then the Compound-ADPR conjugates induce SARM1 condensates formation

as it promotes the self-proliferating assembly of parallel, intertwined

superhelical structures in which numerous functional catalytic sites of the TIR

domains are stably formed. This mechanism reconciles the previously

proposed NMN activating model and provides a mechanistic explanation for

how SARM1 activation is spatially restricted to damaged axons.

Unexpectedly, we found that this activation mechanism is shared by a

class of potent SARM1 NAD^+ hydrolase inhibitors currently under clinical

development, including DSRM-3716, NB-3, NB-7, and related molecules[26–28],

raising concerns about their clinical usage.

Results

SIR3 induces SARM1 activation differently from NMN mimics

To investigate the cell death mechanism mediated by SARM1, a

HEK-293T cell line with its endogenous SARM1 knocked out was used to

stably express SARM1 (dN-SARM1) lacking the mitochondrial localization

sequence (residues 1-27). The morphology and proliferation rate of those cells

were similarly to that of the parental HEK-293T cells (Figure S1A). When

treated with the NMN-mimicking SARM1 activator CZ-48 or NMN mimic

metabolic precursors 3-AP and Vacor[29,30], SARM1-dependent cell death

occurred (Figures S1B-1D). Using this cell line for a screening assay for

similar cell killing chemicals, we identified a novel compound SIR3 that

promoted SARM1-dependent cell death as well (Figure 1A). Interestingly, the

SARM1-dependent cell death induced by SIR3 was not in a linear

dose-dependent fashion but rather a "U-shaped" curve (Figure 1B), contrasting

with the linear dose-dependent effect observed with NMN mimetics (Figures

S1B-1D). Notably, SIR3 reduced intracellular NAD^+ while elevated cADPR

levels, indicative of SARM1 NADase activation (Figure 1C)[31]. The

morphology of cell death induced by SIR3 was necrotic in nature, similar to

that caused by NMN mimics (Figures 1D and S1E). Also similar to the NMN

mimics, the cell death was inhibited by the NADase enzymatic product,

nicotinamide (NAM) (Figure 1E)[17].

To investigate the mechanism of SARM1 activation induced by SIR3, we

prepared cell lysates from the dN-SARM1 expressing cells and treated the

lysates with different concentrations of SIR3 and measured the SARM1

activity with a styrylpyridine derivative PC6[32]. Interestingly, unlike NMN,

adding SIR3 to the cell lysates was unable to activate SARM1 directly (Figure

S1F). One possibility for this observation is that SIR3 needs to be metabolized

into a NMN mimic similar to 3-AP and Vacor. Both compounds are

metabolized to 3-AP mononucleotide (3-APMN) and Vacor mononucleotide

(VMN) by nicotinamide phosphoribosyl transferase (NAMPT) before gaining

ability to bind and activate SARM1. As such, the NAMPT inhibitor FK866

protects cells against 3-AP- and Vacor-mediated cell toxicity[29,30]. However,

treatment of cells with FK866 did not block SIR3-induced cell death but rather

promoted it (Figures 1F and S1G). It is worth noting that unlike in cultured

cells, co-treatment of SIR3 and FK866 of cell lysates still failed to activate

SARM1 (Figure S1H). It is thus clear that SIR3-induced SARM1 activation

and ensuing cell death is different from that induced by 3-AP and Vacor.

All the previously known SARM1 activators, including NMN, CZ48,

3-APMN, and VMN, activate SARM1 by binding to the ARM domain

allosteric pocket of SARM1[22]. Mutations in this domain including W103A,

R157A, and K193R rendered the host cells resistant to those NMN mimics

(Figures S1I-S1K). However, treatment of those cells with SIR3 still caused a

significant increase in cellular cADPR levels and decrease in NAD^+ (Figures

1G and 1H).

Overall, our data suggest that SIR3-induced activation of SARM1 was

inconsistent with the NMN/NAD^+ ratio model with NMN binding to the ARM

domain of the allosteric pocket to achieve SARM1 NADase activation.

SIR3-activated SARM1 forms condensates in cells

To dissect the molecular mechanism underlining SIR3-induced SARM1

activation, we treated HEK-293T cells stably expressing dN-SARM1 with

SIR3 for indicated time and then fractionated the cell lysate into different

cellular fractions through differential centrifugation before subjecting them to

PC6-based NADase assay (Figure S2A). As shown in Figure 2A, compared to

the vehicle (DMSO-treated) cells, the SARM1 activity was detected in the P13

fraction (13000 g centrifugation pellet) of the SIR3-treated cells, and the

activity in the P13 fraction could not be further activated by NMN, indicating

the SARM1 in the P13 fraction was already fully activated by the SIR3

treatment. Since such a fractionation procedure normally collected heavy

membrane organelles like mitochondria and lysosomes in P13, it was a

surprise that SIR3-activated SARM1 ended up there (Figure 2B). In contrast,

all SARM1 protein stayed in the S13 fraction of the DMSO-treated cells and

adding NMN to this fraction robustly promoted SARM1 NADase activity,

confirming that SARM1 is in a much more soluble form before SIR3 treatment.

A time-dependent translocation of SARM1 from the S13 (soluble) fraction to

the P13 (insoluble) fraction in SIR3 treated cells further confirmed that SIR3

treatment caused SARM1 precipitation (Figure 2C). In contrast, such a

SARM1 translocation was not observed after treatment with 3-AP (Figures

S2B and S2C). Additionally, when subjecting the P13 fraction of SIR3-treated

cells to non-reducing SDS-PAGE, large SARM1 molecular complexes were

detected (Figure 2D). Those data suggested that unlike NMN mimics, SIR3

activated SARM1 by promoting the formation of large SARM1 protein

complexes with active NADase activity. Those SARM1 protein complexes are

"super-heavy" that they could be effectively pelleted using a centrifugation

force of only 500 g (Figure S2D).

To visualize those SARM1 complexes in cells, we performed

immunostaining of SIR3-treated cells using antibodies against SARM1 and

other organelle markers. The result showed that SARM1 formed puncta

structures in those cells after treated with SIR3. Notably, these cytoplasmic

puncta did not co-localize with TOM20, LAMP1, DAPI, the respective cellular

marker of mitochondrial, lysosome, and nuclear (Figures 2E and S2E). In

contrast, those SARM1 condensates were not detected in cells treated with

3-AP (Figure S2F). The SARM1 condensates were also detected in the cytosol

of SIR3-treated cells as clustered gold particles by immune-electron

microscopy (Figure S2G).

Consistently, the allosteric pocket mutants of SARM1 still formed active

condensates in response to SIR3 treatment. The TIR mutant, E642A, did not

show such a response (Figures S2H-S2L). These results further indicate that

SIR3 activates SARM1 differently than all the previously reported NMN

mimics.

SIR3-induced SARM1 activation through a NAD$^+$-dependent

liquid-to-solid phase transition

We further attempted to reconstitute SIR3-induced SARM1 activation *in*

vitro. To our surprise, SIR3 alone could not activate and precipitate SARM1 in

the cell lysate like it did in cells (Figure 3A). However, in the present of NAD$^+$,

SIR3 robustly activated SARM1 in the cell lysate by promoting the formation

of active condensates, which could not be further activated by NMN (Figures

S3B and S3C). These data indicated that the SIR3-mediated SARM1 activation

was driven by a phase transition process, and NAD$^+$ is essential for such

reaction. The SIR3-induced SARM1 condensates collected by 13,000 *g*

centrifugation effectively preserved the NAD$^+$ hydrolyzing activity *in vitro*.

Even after 24 hours incubation at 37 □, the NADase activity of SARM1

condensates remained unchanged, while the SARM1 in the S13 fraction from

the vehicle-treated cells completely lost its ability to response to NMN after 5

hours, indicating that once activated by SIR3, SARM1 remained in a very

stable form (Figures S3D-3F). Similarly, SIR3 precipitated and activated

purified SARM1 in the present of NAD^+ (Figures 2F and 2G). Once

precipitated, the SARM1 condensates maintained their active form even after

extensive washing with a buffer no longer containing SIR3 and NAD^+,

confirming that the condensates, once formed with their NADase activated,

were irreversible. To visualize the condensates directly, we further purified

recombinant GFP-fused SARM1 protein and activated it with NAD^+ and SIR3

before observation under a confocal microscope. The image showed the

clumps of GFP-SARM1 protein in the presence of NAD^+ and SIR3 (Figure

2H). Consistent with this observation, FRAP assays demonstrated relatively

low dynamics of GFP-SARM1, indicating that GFP-SARM1 proteins formed

solid-phase condensates (Figures 2I and S3G). In addition, 1,6-hexanediol, a

compound able to break reversible liquid-to-liquid phase transition, did not

affect the condensation and activity of SARM1 (Figures S3H and S3I)[33–35]. All

these experiments suggest that SIR3 activates SARM1 through an irreversible

liquid-to-solid phase transition.

SARM1-catalyzed NAD^+ base exchange is required for SARM1 activation

208 In addition to its NAD^+ hydrolysis activity, the same enzymatic site of

209 SARM1 is able to catalyze base-exchange between the nicotinamide moiety of

210 NAD^+ and molecules containing pyridyl group to form an ADPR-conjugates

211 (Figure S4A)[36]. Since SIR3 is a pyridyl-group-containing molecule and its

212 activation of SARM1 requires the presence of NAD^+, we thus hypothesized

213 that the SARM1 base-exchange product SIR3-ADPR-conjugates but not SIR3

214 itself was the molecule that directly induced SARM1 phase transition and

215 activation. Indeed, significant amount of SIR3-ADPR was observed in a

216 time-dependent fashion in cells treated with SIR3 (Figure 3A). To verify this

217 hypothesis directly, we generated and purified SIR3-ADPR, then added it into

218 the SARM1-expressing cell lysate. Indeed, the SARM1 in the lysate underwent

219 phase transition and activation, a process no longer required the presence of

220 additional NAD^+ (Figures 3B, 3C and S4B, S4C). Meanwhile, when analyzed

221 by a non-reducing SDS-PAGE, SARM1 protein was found to be in high

222 molecular weight complexes after incubation with SIR3-ADPR, similar to

223 what happened to SARM1 when SARM1-expressing cells were treated with

224 SIR3 (Figures 2D and S4D). These experiments indicated that once

225 SIR3-ADPR conjugate is formed, it is sufficient to activate SARM1 through

226 phase transition.

227 We subsequently subjected the purified SARM1 incubated with

228 SIR3-ADPR to analytical size-exclusion chromatography. Compared with

229 SARM1 alone, SARM1 incubated with SIR3-ADPR eluted from the column as

high molecular weight aggregates (Figure 3D). Furthermore, electron

microscopy images showed that these aggregates exhibited a distinct filament

morphology, unlike the octameric structure of native SARM1 (Figure 3E).

Notably, unlike the SARM1 octamers that can be activated by NMN, those

high molecular weight SARM1 aggregates induced by SIR3-ADPR was

already in a fully activated state and cannot be further activated by NMN

(Figures 3F and S4E). These findings suggest that SIR3-ADPR-conjugates

directly activate SARM1 by inducing the formation of large molecular

condensates.

Moreover, the generation of SIR3-ADPR conjugate was detected in cells

expressing SARM1 NMN/NAD$^+$ allosteric binding pocket mutants following

the treatment with SIR3 (Figure 3G). Therefore, it is not surprising that

SIR3-ADPR still induced SARM1 W103A condensation and activation

(Figures 3H and 3J). This finding further validated that the induction of

SARM1 phase transition by SIR3-ADPR is independent of the NMN/NAD$^+$

allosteric binding pocket. Conversely, SIR3-ADPR did not induce the

condensation of SARM1 E642A mutant (Figures 3I and 3J), indicating that the

E642 site of SARM1 is not only crucial for its base-exchange and NADase

activity but also essential for phase transition induced by SIR3-ADPR.

SIR3-induced cell death of endogenous SARM1-expressing cells and axonal degeneration requires a priming step

Surprisingly, unlike HEK-293T cells ectopically expressing dN-SARM1, the parental HEK-293T cells and the dorsal root ganglia (DRG) neurons isolated from mice were not able to undergo cell death and axonal degeneration when treated with SIR3 (Figures S5A-S5C).

To study the reason behind such a difference, we first generated a HEK-293T cell line stably expressing full length SARM1 (FL-SARM1) with the endogenous SARM1 knocked out, allowing better control of SARM1 expression levels. Interestingly, even when FL-SARM1 was expressed at the similar level as dN-SARM1, the treatment of those cells with SIR3 did not induce much cell death (Figures 4A and S5D), despite a decrease of NAD$^+$ and increase of cADPR were detected in the treated cells (Figures S5E and S5F). Furthermore, the generation of SIR3-ADPR in those FL-SARM1 expressing cells was also observed, indicating the occurrence of the base-exchange reaction (Figure S5G). However, the amount of SIR3-ADPR generated in FL-SARM1 expressing cells was much lower than that in cells expressing dN-SARM1 under the same treatment duration (Figure 3A). This discrepancy can be attributed to the lower basal base-exchange activity of FL-SARM1 compared to dN-SARM1 (Figures 4B, S5H and S5I). This observation suggested that in order to achieve full activation of FL-SARM1 by SIR3, a

"priming" event, i.e., increased SARM1 NAD$^+$ hydrolysis and base exchange

activity may be required for the generation of sufficient SIR3-ADPR for the

condensate formation and activation for the native FL-SARM1 whereas

SARM1 without its mitochondrial targeting sequence (dN-SARM1) already

has enough basal level activity to by-pass this step. To test this hypothesis

directly, we co-treated those cells with sub-lethal concentrations of CZ48 or

3-AP with SIR3 and observed a substantial incidence of cell death. Again, the

cell death induced by CZ48/3-AP and SIR3 displayed a U-shape concentration

curve (Figures 4C and S5J-S5L).

Interestingly, 3-AP alone was also unable to induce cell death in the

parental HEK-293T cells even at 10 mM concentration compared to 1/100 that

amount required for SIR3 priming (Figures S5M and S5N). Similarly, in DRG

neurons, treatment with CZ48 alone, even at a concentration as high as 400 μM,

which exceeds the cellular NMN level by two orders of magnitude, did not

cause axonal degeneration (Figures 4D, S5O and S5P)[22]. However, when

co-treated with SIR3, CZ48 and 3-AP both induced a robust axonal

degeneration in DRG neurons and cell death in HEK-293T cells. Notably, the

axonal degeneration and cell death also followed a U-shaped concentration

curve of SIR3 (Figures 4D-4F and S5N). DRG neurons isolated from the

SARM1 knockout mice were totally resistant to such treatment, indicating that

axon degeneration in DRG neurons induced by CZ48 and SIR3 was

SARM1-dependent (Figures S5Q AND S5R). The SARM1 in the DRG

neurons treated with CZ48 and SIR3 showed obvious condensates, whereas

treatment with SIR3 alone resulted in fewer condensates, and CZ48 treatment

showed no observable condensates when immune-stained with an anti-SARM1

antibody (Figures 4G and 4H). SIR3, therefore, is able to induce cell death of

endogenous SARM1-expressing cells like the parental HEK-293T cells and

axonal degeneration of DRGs, but doing so needs a priming event carried out

by NMN mimics.

Moreover, chemotherapy-induced peripheral neuropathy (CIPN) is a

common complication during cancer treatment. Previous studies have indicated

that axonal degeneration induced by two commonly used chemotherapeutic

agents, vincristine (VCR) and bortezomib (BTZ), is attributed to SARM1

activation[37,38]. Indeed, we observed the formation of SARM1 condensates in

isolated mouse DRG neurons treated by these chemotherapy drugs, further

emphasizing the significance of SARM1 condensate formation in its activation

(Figures 4I and 4J).

The SARM1 condensates are parallel, intertwined superhelixes

As shown in Figure 2H, the precipitated SARM1 condensates exhibited

clump aggregates under microscope. However, these images of the precipitated

SARM1 condensates did not give much structural information about how those

condensates were formed and how they remain functional as NADase. To

address this question, we subjected what still remained in the soluble fraction

after purified SARM1 protein was treated with SIR3-ADPR, a fraction should

contain the intermediates of those higher-order of condensates, to cryo-EM

analysis. Previous size-exclusion chromatography confirmed that SARM1 in

those fractions were large complexes with active NADases activity (Figure 3F).

The 2D classification of those intermediates showed that SARM1 protein

bound to SIR3-ADPR possessed the curved double-stranded TIR domains with

the octameric SAM or SAM-ARM rings attached to the convex surface

(Figures S6A and 6B). From the dataset of SARM1 bound to SIR3-ADPR, we

obtained a cryo-EM structure of the double-stranded octameric TIR domain

with well-defined density for SIR3-ADPR at 3.85 Å resolution (Figures 5A-5C,

S6B, S6C and S7A). The two strands are arranged in an anti-parallel direction,

with each strand aligned in a head to tail fashion (Figure 5B). SIR3-ADPR

occupies the catalytic site and function as a molecular glue to facilitate the

assembly of each strand (Figures 5D, 5E and S7B). In addition, SIR3-ADPR

strengthens the interactions between the two strands by forming a hydrogen

bond with E686 on the EE loop of the opposite strand via the benzoxazolinone

group that is attached to the pyridine (Figure 5E). This group also makes a

hydrogen bond with N679 on the EE loop. In contrast, these hydrogen bond

interactions are absent for 1AD or NAD$^+$.

To further confirm the importance of SARM1/SIR3-ADPR interaction in

the condensate formation and activation of SARM1, we systematically mutated

those ADPR conjugates binding site and measured the effect on SARM1

activation. The alanine mutations of R569, that interacts with the diphosphates

of SIR3-ADPR; F603 and L607 that interact with the pyridine moiety; and

W662 that interacts with the adenine moiety, all abolished the ability of

SIR3-ADPR to induce the condensate formation and activation of SARM1 as

well as cell death (Figures 5E, 5F and S7B-S7F). Furthermore, the residues

H685 and Y687 in the EE loop, which are involved in two-stranded TIR

domain assembly (Figures 5E and S7B), are crucial for the activation of

SARM1 by ADPR conjugates (Figures S7G and S7H). These findings

validated the essentiality of SIR3-ADPR binding in inducing condensate

formation and activation of SARM1.

To further elucidate the higher-order oligomerization structure of the TIR

domain induced by SIR3-ADPR, we purified the TIR domain of SARM1 and

subject it to cryo-EM analysis. As expected, addition of SIR3-ADPR into the

purified TIR domain resulted in the detection of a superhelical filamentous

structure with variable helical pitch, indicating the conformational flexibility of

the oligomerization interface of the TIR domain (Figure 5G). Interestingly, the

superhelical structures are intertwined with each other and appeared in parallel

arrays (Figures 5G and 5H). Single particle cryo-EM analysis yielded the

reconstructions of the TIR domains with two parallel, intertwined superhelical

structures at about 15 Å overall resolution (Figure S6C). Despite the low

resolution due to conformational heterogeneity, the cryo-EM structure of the

double-stranded TIR domain bound to SIR3-ADPR could be docked into the

map (Figure 5I). The overall structure is characterized by a left-handed

superhelical solenoid with 22 nm diameter and a 12 nm helical pitch. 48 TIR

monomers are present in each turn of the superhelical structure. Therefore, we

reasoned that the formation of intertwined superhelical structure of the TIR

domain could facilitate condensate formation and contribute to SARM1

activation. Notably, the intertwined superhelical structure was also observed in

the FL-SARM1 bound to SIR3-ADPR (Figure S6A). Due to the resolution

limitations, the inter-helical contact cannot be precisely located but is limited

to the solvent-exposed residues on αB, αB□βC loop, βC□αC loop or βD□αD

loop (Figure 5J). While mutations of D605, Q609 and M612 (mutαB) on αB or

R615 on the αB□βC loop showed minimal effect on SIR3-mediated cell death,

mutations of Q631, H633, D634 and K636 (mutβC□αC) on the βC□αC loop

partially but not completely inhibited SIR3-induced cell death and prevented

condensation process in cells (Figures 5K and 5M). This is likely because the

formation of individual superhelical solenoids is sufficient to activate SARM1,

while interactions between multiple superhelical solenoids can further promote

SARM1 protein phase separation, enhancing the reaction rate. Taken together,

the intertwined superhelical structures of SAMR1 bound to SIR3-ADPR are

critical in determining phase separation of SARM1 that leads to the formation

of numerous functional catalytic sites for NAD^+ hydrolysis.

Inhibitors of SARM1 TIR domain activate its NADase through phase

transition.

The fact that loss-of-enzymatic-function mutants of SARM1 confer

neuroprotection has prompted great interest in developing SARM1 enzyme

inhibitors for the treatment of neurodegenerative disorders[39,40]. A class of

potent and selective pyridine-derived small molecule inhibitors of SARM1,

targeting its TIR domain, have been recently reported with some of them

advanced to phase I clinical trials[26–28]. Interestingly, all of them could be the

substrates for the SARM1 catalyzed base-exchange reaction with NAD^+. We

therefore hypothesized that they also have the ability to activate SARM1 by

inducing its phase transition. Indeed, molecules such as DSRM-3716, NB3,

and NB7 all induced SARM1-dependent cell death at certain concentrations

(Figures 6A, S8A and S8B). Notably, the induction of cell death by those

compounds was also in a U-shaped concentration curve with optimal

concentrations being at 4 μM, 4 μM, and 10 μM, respectively. When added to

the SARM1-expressing cell lysate, all three compounds caused

NAD^+-dependent condensation and activation of SARM1 (Figures 6B, 6C and

S8C-S8F). It is worth noting that continuous presence of high concentrations

of those inhibitors did suppress the NADase activity of activated SARM1,

effective masked their SARM1 activating capability.

We also analyzed the condensates induced by DSRM-3716-ADPR by

immunofluorescent staining in cells and negative stain-EM/cryo-EM analysis

in vitro. The immunostaining revealed many intracellular puncta (Figure 6D)

and the negative stain-EM and cryo-EM images showed the similar structure of

activated human SARM1 filaments induced by SIR3-ADPR (Figures 6E and

S8G).

Discussion

Our study has unveiled a previously unknown mechanism of SARM1

activation. During this process, pyridine-containing compounds like SIR3 are

exchanged for the NAM moiety in NAD^+ to form conjugates with the ADPR

moiety of NAD^+ by the inherent SARM1 base-exchange activity. Those ADPR

conjugates, previously thought to be innocuous by-products of SARM1

NADase, have emerged as SARM1 activators. They facilitate the continuous

polymerization of SARM1 proteins via their TIR domain, resulting in their

transition to an active dimeric configuration and the subsequent formation of

super-helical filaments with the TIR domains. The formation of those

superhelical filaments is rapid and irreversible with the growth of those

filaments would eventually exceed the solubility limit of the liquid phase and

transit to solid phase that manifested in condensation *in vitro* and puncta

formation in axons and cells. The condensation and activation of SARM1 by

the pyridine-containing compounds leads to cellular NAD^+ depletion and

ensuing cell death as well axon degeneration in DRG neurons (Figure 6F).

Moreover, the self-proliferating nature of superhelical SARM1 should

effectively deplete the soluble SARM1 in the environment thus restricts

SARM1 mediated axon degeneration locally.

In previous studies, the mechanism underlying SARM1 activation has

been primarily attributed to the regulation of the NMN/NAD^+ ratio[22]. However,

it has been challenged by the fact that the concentration of NMN required for

SARM1 activation *in vitro* surpasses physiological levels. Moreover, the

substantial difference between NMN and NAD^+ levels in cell, spanning over

two orders of magnitude, raises concerns regarding the precise modulation of

SARM1 activity through ratio manipulation[21,24]. Additionally, both our

investigations and prior studies have demonstrated that administration of the

NMN analogue CZ48, even at levels far exceeding cellular NMN content, fails

to elicit noticeable robust axon degeneration in DRG neurons[22]. We therefore

propose a two-step activation process of SARM1 uncovered by current study:

the first step only requires NMN to slightly activate SARM1 activity. This

activation step is not sufficient to cause cell death or axonal degeneration per

se. In the second step, the NAD^+ hydrolysis and base-exchange activity of

SARM1 generates pyridine-ADPR conjugates, such as SIR3-ADPR, leading to

complete and irreversible activation of SARM1 NADase through phase

transition. Since the fully activated SARM1 is in a solid state, its NAD^+

hydrolysis activity is restricted locally, a property in line with axon

degeneration.

Previously, it has been reported that the SARM1-TIR domain undergoes a

liquid-to-solid phase transition and activate its NADase activity in the presence

of sodium citrate precipitant[41]. This study focused solely on the SARM-TIR

domain and was recently challenged by other studies[27]. We also found that

sodium citrate only led to a minor increase in NADase activity when

dN-SARM1 was used (Figure S3J)[42], suggesting that the phase transition to

induced full activation of SARM1 is regulated by specific molecules and

cannot be solely achieved by altering the environmental conditions.

Recently, it has been demonstrated that bacterial and plant

TIR-domain-containing proteins exhibit NAD^+ hydrolase activity[43,44].

Intriguing research on bacterial TIR-STING or TIR-SAVED, integral

components of the cyclic oligonucleotide-based antiphage signaling system

(CBASS), has provided insight into the essential role of nucleotide-regulated

large molecular complexes or protein filament assembly in the activation

process of these TIR enzymes[45,46]. Additionally, recent study on plant antiviral

proteins containing TIR domains reveals that these proteins can induce the

formation of condensates, presenting both liquid and solid phases, through

their endogenous substrates NAD^+/ATP. This phase transition process

activates their NADase activity[47]. Those observation implies a highly

conserved mechanism whereby small molecules to facilitate the activation of

TIR enzymes NAD^+ hydrolase through super-helical filament/condensate

formation.

Finally, given the significant involvement of SARM1 in various acute and

chronic neurodegenerative diseases, including CIPN, ALS, multiple sclerosis

(MS), traumatic brain injury (TBI), Parkinson's disease (PD), and Huntington's

disease (HD), coupled with the negligible impact of SARM1 knockout on

normal growth and development in mice, the inhibition of SARM1 activity has

emerged as an attractive therapeutic strategy for these neurodegenerative

conditions[7,10,14,48–52]. However, our findings reveal an unexpected aspect: these

TIR-targeting inhibitors also possess notable SARM1 activation capabilities.

Moreover, although constant presence of high concentrations of inhibitors

appear to fully suppress the activity of SARM1, the activation of SARM1

induced by the ADPR conjugates is irreversible. Therefore, it raises concerns

regarding the potential adverse consequences arising from excessive SARM1

activation, which contradicts the intended therapeutic outcome. A recent

preprint study by Genentech also observed this inhibitor-induced SARM1

activation phenomenon, although they did not elucidate its mechanism[53].

Based on the aforementioned experimental results, we rationalized that any

SARM1 inhibitor generated through similar mechanisms may not completely

avoid the activation side effects. This is attributable to the fact that these

inhibitor-ADPR conjugates are analogs of NAD^+, and their binding sites nearly

overlap with NAD^+ but exhibit significantly higher affinity. Consequently,

these inhibitors inevitably promote conformational change and phase transition

of SARM1, ultimately leading to the formation of stable and nonreversible

activated SARM1 filament, whose activity will cause undesired effect,

especially in neurodegenerative disease patients whose SARM1 might already

be partially activated.

The current study also suggests the existence of endogenous

pyridine-containing molecules that participate in the activation of SARM1 in

damaged axons. Identifying those molecules could be important to understand

how a variety of neuronal damaging signals activate SARM1 to cause axonal

degeneration.

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Material and Methods

Antibodies and other reagents

The antibodies used in this study included: Rabbit polyclonal anti-SARM1 antibody

(abcam, ab226930), monoclonal anti-SARM1 antibody produced in mouse (made by

ourselves), anti-Flag M2 antibody (Sigma-Aldrich F1804), anti-DYKDDDDK

(Invitrogen MA1-91878), LAMP1 antibody (Santa Cruze sc- 20011), anti-NfM

(Proteintech 25805-1-AP), anti-Tom20 (Santa Cruze sc-17764), anti-β-Actin-HRP

(MBL, D291-7), anti-DDDDK-HRP (MBL, D291-7), Goat anti-Mouse IgG (H+L)

Cross-Adsorbed Secondary Antibody, Alexa Fluor™ 488(Invitrogen A-11001), Goat

anti-Rabbit IgG (H+L) Cross-Adsorbed Secondary Antibody, Cyanine3 (Invitrogen

A10520)

Chemical reagents used in this study included: DSRM-3716 (MCE, HY-W021879),

CZ48 (MCE, HY-129522) , 3-AP (Sigma-Aldrich, A21207), Vacor (Greyhound

Chromatography) , NMN (Selleck, S5259), NAD+ (Selleck, S2518), FK866 (Selleck,

S2799), NAM (Sigma-Aldrich, 72340), PC6 (kind gift of SINOREX), DAPI

(Invitrogen, D1306), propidium iodide (MCE, HY-D0815), Protease Inhibitor

Cocktails (Merck, 04693132001)

Cell Culture and Stable Cell Lines

HEK 293T, HEK 293T $SARM1^{-/-}$ and Hela cell lines were all grown in DMEM with

10% fetal bovine serum (Gibco) at 37°C under 5% CO2. All cell lines were initially

purchased from the American Type Culture Collection (ATCC) and cultured

according to the ATCC's instructions. HEK-293T $SARM1^{-/-}$ cells were infected with

virus encoding Flag tag $SARM1$ (dN-SARM1 (residues 28-724) WT and mutant) and

GFP-positive live cells were sorted to establish the 293T/dN-SARM1 (WT and

mutant) cell lines. HEK-293T $SARM1^{-/-}$ cells were infected with virus encoding Flag

tag $SARM1$ (full length WT and mutant) and GFP-positive live cells were sorted to

establish the 293T/FL-SARM1 (WT and mutant) cell lines. Hela cells were infected

with virus encoding flag tag $SARM1$ (dN-SARM1 (residues 28-724)) and

GFP-positive live cells were sorted to establish the Hela/dN-SARM1 cell lines.

Primary DRG cultures

C57BL/6J mice were obtained from Vital River Laboratory Animal Technology Co.

and SARM1 knockout mice were generated by the animal facility of the National

Institute of Biological Sciences, Beijing. All animal housed in a specific

pathogen-free animal facility. Mice were housed on a 12 hr light/dark cycle with ad

libitum access to food and water. Primary mouse dorsal root ganglia (DRG) was

obtained as described before (Sasaki et al., 2016). Briefly, DRGs were dissected from

embryonic day 13.5 mouse embryos and incubated with 0.05% Trypsin solution

containing 0.02% EDTA (Gibco) at 37°C for 30 min, and then neutralized by Fetal

bovine serum. Then, DRGs was triturated by gentle pipetting and filtered through 40

µm cell strainer (Falcon). After 2 min gentle centrifugation, trypsin solution was

removed and replaced for DRG growth medium (Neurobasal medium; ThermoFisher)

containing 2% B27 (ThermoFisher), 50 ng/ml 2.5S NGF (Sigma), 10 µM uridine

(Sigma), 10 µM 5-fluoro-20- deoxyuridine (Sigma), 50 U/ml penicillin, and

streptomycin (Gibco). DRGs were resuspended in DRG growth medium at 500

DRGs/ml. The cell density of these suspensions was adjusted to $1x10^7$ cells/mL. Cell

suspensions were seeded at 100,000 cells/well as a 10 µL spotted culture in the center

of 24 well plates coated with poly-D-Lysine (0.1mg/mL; Sigma) and laminin (3

µg/mL; ThermoFisher), and placed in a humidified CO_2 incubator for 15 min. After

allowing for cells to adhere, culture media was added gently to a final well volume of

1 mL/well. Culture media was changed every 2 days and DRG were allowed to

extend for 7 days before treatment.

METHOD DETAILS

DNA constructs

psPAX2, pMD2.G construct were obtained from Addgene (#12260, #12259), pX458

and pWPI construct were kept in our lab. Full-length cDNAs for human SARM1 was

a gift from SIRONAX (uniprot Q6SZW1). Using this full-length cDNAs, SARM1

lacking the mitochondrial localization sequence (residues 28-724, dN-SARM1) were

subcloned into pGEM-T vector and pWPI vector (GFP tagged) by using KOD

polymerase (TOYOBO) to generate dN-SARM1 construct. Using Quickchange

Site-Directed Mutagenesis Kit, we generate several dN-SARM1 mutants, include

W103A, R157A, K193R, E642A, F603A, L607A, R569A, W662A, N679A, H685A

and Y687A. In addition we also made several FL-SARM1 mutant constructs, include

the full-length W103A, R157A, K193R and E642A. all the mutations were inserted

into pWPI vector (GFP tagged) to generate the pWPI-dN-SARM1 (WT and mutants)

and pWPI-FL-SARM1 (WT and mutants) Flag construct. 2 sgRNA targeting

SARM1was subcloned to pX458 vector (PX458-GFP-SARM1#1/2).

CRISPR/Cas9 knockout cells

To construct SARM1 knockout HEK-293T cell line, 5 μg of each

pX458-GFP-SARM1 plasmid was transfected into $1*10^7$ 293T cells using the

transfection reagent Lipofectamine 3000 (Thermo Fisher) following the

manufacturer's instructions. 2 days after the transfection, GFP-positive live cells were

sorted into single clones by using a BD FACSFusion cell sorter. The single clones

were cultured in 96-well plates for another 2 or 3 weeks or a longer time dependent

upon the cell growth rate. HEK 293T *SARM1*$^{-/-}$ cell was determined by DNA

sequencing and western blotting.

Cell transfection, virus packaging and protein expression

Complementary DNA transfection was carried out using Lipofectamine3000 (Thermo

Fisher) by following the manufacturer's instructions. To prepare the virus, HEK293T

cells in the 10-cm dish were transfected with 20 μg of pWPI-dN-SARM1 (WT and

mutants) or pWPI-FL-SARM1 (WT and mutants) construct DNA together with 11.25

μg of psPAX2 and 3.75 μg of pMD2.G. Forty-eight hours after transfection, the

lentivirus was collected, filtered through a 0.44 μm filter, and used to infect HEK

293T *SARM1*$^{-/-}$ cells. Forty-eight hours after infection, the virus-containing medium

was removed and GFP-positive live cells were sorted into single clones by using a BD

FACSFusion cell sorter. The protein expression was confirmed by western blotting.

Purification of SARM1

HEK293T Flag-tagged dN-SARM1 cells were cultured to 80% confluence in 10

15-cm culture dishes. Cells were collected by scraping. The collected cell pellet was

washed with cold PBS three times to remove any residual culture medium and

resuspended in lysis buffer [PBS, 10% glycerol, protease inhibitor cocktail], followed

by two cycles of freezing and thawing using liquid nitrogen. The cell lysate was

centrifuged at 13,000 g for 30 minutes and the cleared supernatant was incubated with

anti-Flag M2 agarose (60 µl) overnight at 4°C. The Flag agarose was washed with

lysis buffer three times and eluted by Flag peptide (0.1 mg/ml) for 6 hours. Proteins

were further purified by a

Superdex 6 increase column (Cytiva) run in akta system. Peak fractions were pooled,

concentrated and the purified SARM1 protein was subjected to in vitro fraction and

PC6-based SARM1 NADase assays.

Purification of SARM1-TIR

hSARM1TIR (His-Sumo-ULP1-SARM1-560-700/pET28a) were produced in E. coli

(BL21C43 (DE3)) cells. Step1. Expression: hSARM1TIR-pET28a colonies were

picked and grown overnight, 37℃, 200 rpm. 10 mL LB culture were inoculated to 1L

LB，37℃，250rpm until reached to OD600=0.6-0.8, cooled to appropriate

temperature(18℃), inducer (IPTG，0.3mM) was added and grown overnight (14~16h).

Then, cells were collect at 4℃, 4000rpm centrifuge for 10min. Step2. Purification :1L

cell was resuspended with 35ml lysis buffer (25 mM Tris, pH 7.4, 150 mM NaCl, 20

mM Imidazole), with 100U/ml DNAse I, 1000U/ml Lysozyme, 10mM MgCl2, 6mM

CaCl2, 1mM PMSF and send to sonication (amplitudes 35 %, sonicate 3s, intervals 7s,

total 5 min). After sonication, cell was centrifuged at 4℃, 13500rpm, for 45min, to

get the supernatant and pellet. Load the supernatant collected onto the Pre-equilibrate

Ni-NTA column. Wash the Ni-NTA column with 20 CVs wash buffer. ULP1 Protease

was applied to the column (0.15mg ULP1 per 1L culture) and incubated overnight at

4℃, collect the flow-through sample. The target protein was concentrated and further

purified by a Superdex 75 increase column (Cytiva) run in SEC buffer (25 mM Tris,

pH 7.4, 150 mM NaCl, 1mM TCEP). Peak fractions were pooled, concentrated to a

final concentration of approximately 3.5 mg/mL, flash-frozen as 10 μL aliquots in

liquid nitrogen, and stored at -80℃.

Preparation of SARM1 Lysate

HEK 293T dN-SARM1 (WT and mutants) or FL-SARM1 (WT and mutants) cells

were cultured to confluence of 80% in 15-cm culture dishes, washed twice with cold

PBS and harvested by scraping. After centrifugation at 500 x g for 5 minutes, the cell

pellet was resuspended in 2 volumes of hypotonic buffer A [20 mM Tris-HCl pH7.5,

10 mM KCL, protease inhibitor cocktail] and put on ice. Cells were homogenized by

passing the lysate through a 22 gauge needle 20 times. This cell lysate was saved as

total lysate and applied to PC6-based SARM1 NADase assays. The cell total lysate

was further centrifuged at 500 g for 10 minutes. The supernatant was centrifuged at

13,000 g for 10 minutes. The resulting supernatant was centrifuged again at 100,000 g

for 60 minutes and the supernatant was saved as S100 lysate for later use in the in

vitro SARM1 Lysate fraction assay.

Cell fraction assay

HEK 293T dN-SARM1 (WT and mutants) cells were cultured to confluence of 70%

in 10-cm culture dishes, treated by different compounds for 4-7 hours, after treatment,

the cell were lysed and centrifuged at 13,000 g for 10 minutes, the supernatant (S13)

and precipitant (P13) fractions were collected and applied to western blotting and

PC6-based SARM1 NADase assays.

SARM1 Lysate or purified SARM1 protein fraction assay

dN-SARM1 S100 lysate with a final concentration of 2 mg/ml or purified SARM1

protein with a final concentration of 0.2 mg/ml was incubated with the respective

compound in the present of 10 mM $MgCl_2$ at 37 ℃ for indicated time, DSRM-3716

for 1 hour or NB3/NB7 for 3 hours. After incubation, the S100 lysate or purified

SARM1 protein were further centrifuged at 13,000 g for 10 minutes, the supernatant

(S13) and precipitant (P13) fractions were collected and applied to western blotting

/coomassie blue staining and PC6-based SARM1 NADase assays. The supernatant

S13 and P13 fractions of purified SARM1 were also applied to electron microscopy

negative stain assay.

PC6-based SARM1 NADase assays

The reaction buffer includes 10 μM PC6, 250 μM NAD with/out 200 μM NMN in

Dulbecco's PBS buffer in a final assay volume of 60 μl. Kinetic fluorescence reading

(Ex/Em: 390 nm/510 nm) was immediately started after mixing the lysate containing

SARM1 or purified SARM1 protein with the reaction buffer in a 96-well microplate,

reading in the Infinite M200 PRO microplate reader (Tecan). The slopes of initial

fluorescence kinetics (RFU/min) were calculated for the NADase activities of

SARM1.

FRAP assay

FRAP of SARM1-TIR condensates in vitro was conducted with samples in slices using Olympus FV4000 confocal microscope using a ×40 objective. Puncta were bleached with a 488 nm laser pulse. The recovery time was recorded for the indicated time as mentioned. Image analysis was made by Cellsene software. Data were plotted by using Prism8.

Immunofluorescent staining

Hela flag-tagged dN-SARM1 Cells were seeded on poly-D-lysine -coated cell culture dish (NEST 801001) and treated with DSRM-3716. Wild-type and SARM$^{-/-}$ DRG neurons were isolated and seeded as described above, and treated with CZ-48 and/or DSRM-3716 at DIV 7. The cells were immunostained as the following procedure. The cells were fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde (BIORIGIN) for 30 minutes followed by gentle PBS-T rinse, and permeabilized with 0.1% Triton X-100 in PBS for 30 min. After blocking with skim milk (5% in PBST) for 30 minutes, the cells were incubated overnight in primary antibody at 4°C. The following primary antibodies were used: anti-NfM (Proteintech 25805-1-AP; 1: 300), anti-flag (Invitrogen MA1-91878; 1:200), anti-Tom20 (Santa Cruze sc-17764; 1:200), and anti-SARM1 (home-made; 1:200). Samples were gently washed 3 times with PBST. The fluorescence was developed by incubating with Alexa Fluor 488 or Cyanine3-conjugated secondary antibody (Invitrogen A-11001/A10520; 1:300), and images were acquired with a confocal microscope (Nikon A1) and a super-resolution microscope (Nikon N-SIM) with a 20× object (for DRG neurons) and a 100× oil object (for Hela cells). NIS-Elements AR analysis (Nikon) software were used for the image analysis.

Quantification of axon degeneration

DRG neurons were cultured in 24 well plates with cell bodies sequestered to allow

imaging of axons by automated microscopy. Bright-field images per well of live

axons were acquired at indicated time points using a confocal microscope (Nikon A1)

with a 20× object (for DRG neurons). Axon degeneration index, which is quantified

based on axon morphology using an ImageJ-based script, has been extensively

described elsewhere (Sasaki et al., 2009a).

Metabolite extraction and measurement

Intracellular metabolites were extracted by addition of 1mL iced (vol:vol) 70%

acetonitrile in 30% ddH$_2$O. After brief vortexing and incubation on ice for 5 min,

samples were centrifuged at 4 °C for 15,000 rpm 10 min to pellet precipitated

proteins. The clear aqueous phase was transferred into a microfuge tube and

lyophilized under vacuum. Lyophilized samples were stored at −20 °C until

measurement. Metabolites (1AD, NAD$^+$, cADPR) were measured using LC-MS/MS

as described previously (Shi et al., 2022, Molecular Cell 82, 1643–1659)

Electron microscopy negative stain assay

The 200 mesh formvar-carbon coated EM grids (Beijing XXBR Technology Co.,ltd;

T10044) were Glow-discharged for 1 min by plasma cleaner to increase their

hydrophilicity. Then, 5 μL dN-SARM1 (0.2 mg/ml) Proteins were deposited on

formvar-carbon coated EM grids for 30 sec. After side blotting, the grid was

immediately stained with 2% uranyl acetate (UA) and then blotted again from the side.

Staining was repeated twice with a 30 sec incubation with 2% UA in the final staining

step. EM images were collected on a TECNAI spirit G2 (FEI; Eindhoven,

Netherlands) transmission electron microscope at 120 kV.

Immunoelectron microscopy (IEM)

Hela dN-SARM1 cells grown on sapphire discs were cryo-immobilized by HPF (HPF

COMPACT 01, Engineering office M. Wohlwend; Sennwald, Switzerland) and

freeze-substituted in anhydrous acetate containing 0.1% UA. Then the cells were

infiltrated and embedded in LR White resins according to the instructions. 90 nm

thick slices were mounted on nickel grids for immunolabeling. Grids were incubated

in solutions by floating section side down on a drop of solution and transferred

sequentially from drop to drop to complete the immunolabeling. To cover a grid, 5–50

μL drops of solution are placed on a piece of Parafilm in a Petri dish kept in a moist

chamber to avoid drying of the solution. Sections were incubated in blocking buffer (2%

(w/v) bovine serum albumin in PBS buffer) for 10 min and then incubated overnight

at 4℃ in a moist chamber with primary antibody (Monoclonal anti-Flag M2 antibody

produced in mouse, F1804, Merck) diluted in blocking buffer. Following 5×1 min

washes in PBS buffer they were incubated in species-specific 10 nm gold conjugate

(polyclonal goat anti-mouse antibody, G7652, Sigma) diluted 1:100 in blocking buffer.

Following washing buffer and distilled water washes, the grids were pecessed by gold

enhance kit (GoldEnhance-EM plus 2114, Nanoprobes, Inc.) to enlarge the colloidal

gold particles for 3 min. After rinsing with distilled water, the sections were

contrasted with uranyl acetate and lead citrate. Images were aquired on a TECNAI

spirit G2 (FEI; Eindhoven, Netherlands) transmission electron microscope at 120 kV.

Cryo-EM specimen preparation and data collection

To prepare the specimen of SARM1 (TIR)-SIR3-ADPR complex, 1mM SIR3-ADPR

was added to the SARM1 (TIR) protein sample and incubated for 0.5 to 1 hour.

Glow-charged 300-mesh holey carbon grids (Quantifoil R1.2/1.3 Au) were loaded

into a Vitrobot Mark IV chamber (Thermo Fisher Scientific) set at 8°C in temperature

and 100% in humidity. 3.0 μl of sample was applied to the grid, blotted for 5.0 s and

plunged into liquid ethane for rapid freezing. All the grids were stored in boxes in

liquid nitrogen prior to Cryo-EM data collection. Cryo-EM movies were captured

using EPU on a Titan Krios G4 microscope (Thermal Fisher Scientific) equipped with

a Falcon 4 direct electron detector operating at 300 kV and ×96,000 magnification

with a pixel size of 0.808 Å.

Cryo-EM data processing

A total of 3,567 movie stacks were subjected to MotionCor2 for motion-correction,

followed by patch-based CTF estimation in CryoSPARC. A total of 383,397 particles

were picked with blob picker, extracted with a box size of 600 pixels and subjected to

2D classification, which yielded two major classes: ring-like structure and

superhelical structures. Due to the large size of the superhelical structures, we picked

particles using Template Picker with the superhelical structure as a template and

extracted particles with a larger box size of 1,200 pixels. The particles were binned 4

times to a box size of 300 pixels. Two rounds of 2D classification were performed to

select particles with the superhelical structure. Finally, 69,935 particles were

subjected to ab-initio reconstruction. The particles showing superhelical structures

were re-extracted with a box size of 1,200 pixels and binned 2 times to 600 pixels,

and subjected to heterogeneous refinement, resulting in a final map of intertwined

superhelical structure with a global resolution of 15.5 Å.

Measuring cell survival and cell death

Cell survival was measured with Cell Titer-Glo (Promega, G7570) luminescent

viability assay according to the manufacturer's instructions. Membrane leakage of

necroptotic cells was measured by Cyto Tox-Glo (Promega, G9292) luminescent

assay according to the manufacturer's instruction. Briefly, cells were plated in 96-well

culture plate at 5000 cells per well 24 hours before the assay. After compounds

treatment, plates were allowed to reach room temperature. A total of 30 μl of either

CellTiter-Glo or CytoTox-Glo reaction solution was added into each well and mixed

with cell culture medium by pipetting. The reaction was carried out on a horizontal

shaker at room temperature for 15 minutes. Luminescent signals were measured in a

plate reader (PerkinElmer, EnSpire). Necrotic cell death was also measured in live

cells by applying propidium iodide in culture medium and imaging by spinning disk

confocal microscope.

Statistical analysis

Statistical analysis was performed with Prism8 software (GraphPad). Enzyme reaction

rate, intracellular metabolite content, cell death or cell survival rate were shown as

means $\pm$ SD. Differences between means were assessed by Student's t test (two-tailed,

unpaired), $***p < 0.001$.

Figure S1

Figure S2

Figure S3

Figure S5

Figure S6

A

B SARM1/FL bound to SIR3-ADPR

Topaz Train

3,049 Movies

Motion correction
Patch CTF   *Template Picker*   *Topaz Extract*

366,938 particles

Round1
2D classification

13,798 particles

137,604 particles

Round2
2D classification

46,409 particles

Ab-initio reconstruction
Heterogenous refinement

16.5 %   21.3%   34.3 %   27.9 %

C2 symmetry
NU refinement
Local refinement

3.85 Å
(28,854 particles)

C SARM1/TIR bound to SIR3-ADPR

3,567 Movies

Motion correction   *Manual Picker*
Patch CTF   *Template Picker*

Box size: 600 px   Box size: 1200 px
down sample: 300 px

20 nm   20 nm

69,935 particles

Ab-initio reconstruction

20.3 %   53.2 %   26.5 %

Extraction, box size: 1200 px
down sample: 600 px

35,710 particles

heterogeneous refinement

17.4 %   40.2 %   42.4 %
15.5 Å

D   GSFSC Resolution: 3.85 Å

- No Mask (7.5 Å)
- Loose (4 Å)
- Tight (3.8 Å)
- Corrected (3.8 Å)

FSC=0.143

DC   8.1   4   2.7   2
Resolution (Å)

Figure S7

Figure S8

Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3

Figure 4

Figure 5

Figure 6

A

B

C

D

E

F

Figure 1. SIR3 triggers SARM1-dependent cell death

(A) Chemical structure of the hit compound, SIR3.

(B) SARM1$^{-/-}$ and SARM1^{dN}-overexpressing HEK-293T cells were treated with varying concentration of SIR3 as indicated. Cell viability was measured with the CellTiter-Glo assay.

(C) SARM1^{dN}-overexpressing HEK-293T cells were treated with SIR3 (7 µM). NAD$^+$ and cADPR were quantified by LC/MS at indicated times and normalized to 0 hr after treatment.

(D) SARM1^{dN}-overexpressing HEK-293T cells were treated with SIR3 (7 µM) for 5 hours and cell membrane disruption was visualized with propidium iodide (PI) staining. Scale bars, 15 µm.

(E) SARM1^{dN}-overexpressing HEK-293T cells were treated with SIR3 (7 µM) plus different concentration of NAM as indicated. Cell viability was measured with the CellTiter-Glo assay.

(F) SARM1^{dN}-overexpressing HEK-293T cells were treated with FK866 (200 nM), 3-AP (100 µM), Vacor (10 µM), SIR3 (7 µM) and a combination of FK866 with 3-AP, Vacor, or SIR3 for 12 hours. Cell viability was measured with the CellTiter-Glo assay.

Images are representative of three independent experiments. Data with error bars are presented as the means ± SD from three independent experiments.

(G and H) HEK-293T cells overexpressing SARM1 mutant (W103A, R157A, K193R, and E642A) were treated with SIR3 (7 µM). Metabolites (G) cADPR and (H) NAD$^+$ were quantified by LC/MS at indicated times after treatment.

Images are representative of three independent experiments. Data with error bars are presented as the means ± SD from three independent experiments. Statistical analysis was performed using Student's t test.

Figure 2. SIR3 facilitates the activation of SARM1 through a liquid-to-solid phase separation process

(A and B) HEK-293T dN-SARM1 cells were treated with DMSO or SIR3, followed by lysing and centrifugation. (A) The PC6 assays were performed in both S13 (supernatant) and P13 (precipitant) in the presence or absence of 200 μM NMN. (B) The western blots were also performed in both S13 and P13 using the indicated antibodies.

(C) HEK-293T dN-SARM1 cells were treated with SIR3 for the indicated time period, followed by lysing and centrifugation, the supernatant and precipitant fractions were subjected to western blot to assess SARM1 levels.

(D) Cell lysates were immunoblotted under non-reducing conditions using the indicated antibodies.

(E) HEK-293T dN-SARM1 cells were treated with SIR3 (7 μM) for 4 hours and, then fixed, and stained for SARM1 (anti-SARM1 antibody, Green), TOM20 (anti-TOM20 antibodies, red), and chromosome (DAPI, Blue). Scale bars as indicated.

(F and G) Purified dN-SARM1 protein were treated with DMSO, NAD$^+$ (100 μM), SIR3 (100 μM) and SIR3 + NAD$^+$ for 1 hour in vitro followed by centrifugation. After that, both S13 and P13 were applied to (F) coomassie blue staining and (G) the PC6 assay in the absence or presence of 200 μM NMN.

(H) SIR3/NAD$^+$ induces liquid-to-solid transition of the GFP-SARM1 proteins. SIR3/NAD$^+$ was incubated with GFP-SARM1 at 37 °C for 1 hour in vitro. Scale bars, 40 μm.

(I) Dynamics analysis of GFP-SARM1 aggregates by FRAP.

Images or Blots are representative of three independent experiments. Data with error bars are presented as the means ± SD from three independent experiments. Statistical analysis was performed using Student's t test.

Figure 3. SIR3-ADPR adduct was identified as the genuine activator of SARM1.

(A) Production of SIR3-ADPR in SARM1^{dN}-overexpressing HEK-293T cells treated with SIR3 (7 μM). SIR3-ADPR were quantified by LC/MS at indicated times after treatment.

(B and C) dN-SARM1 containing lysates were treated with DMSO, SIR3 (100 μM) and SIR3-AD (100 μM) for 1 hour in vitro, followed by centrifugation. After that, both S13 and P13 were applied to (B) western blots and (C) the PC6 assay in the absence or presence of 200 μM NMN.

(D) Analytical size-exclusion chromatography analyses of dN-SARM1 and dN-SARM1+SIR3-ADPR (100 μM). Curves are representative of three independent experiments.

(E) Representative EM negative stain image of SARM1 dN-SARM1 incubated with SIR3-ADPR (100 μM) from (D). Scale bars, 100 nm.

(F) The PC6 assays were performed in fractions from (E) in the presence or absence of 200 μM NMN.

(G) Production of SIR3-ADPR in SARM1 W103A, R157A, K193R, and E642A mutants' cells.

(H-J) SARM1 WT, W103A, and E642A mutant's lysate were treated with DMSO, SIR3 (100 μM) + NAD$^+$ (100 μM) or SIR3-ADPR (100 μM), followed by centrifugation. After that, both S13 and P13 were applied to (H and I) the PC6 assay in absence or presence of 200 μM NMN and (J) western blots using the indicated antibodies.

Images or Blots are representative of three independent experiments. Data are presented as the means ± SD. n = 3 independent experiments. Statistical analysis was performed using Student's t test.

Figure 4. SIR3 can induce SARM1-dependent axon degeneration.

(A) SARM1$^{-/-}$, 293T dN-SARM1 and 293T FL-SARM1 were treated with DMSO, SIR3 (7 µM) for 12 hours. Cell viability was measured with the CellTiter-Glo assay.

(B) SARM1 activity in lysates with the same concentrations of 293T dN-SARM1 and 293T FL-SARM1 was evaluated by PC6 assay.

(C) 293T SARM1$^{-/-}$ and FL-SARM1 cells were treated with CZ48 (10 µM) or a combination of CZ48 with different doses of SIR3 as indicated. Cell viability was measured with the CellTiter-Glo assay.

(D) cADPR level from wild-type embryonic DRG neurons treated with CZ48 (200 µM) or a combination of CZ48 with SIR3 (0.2 µM), measured by LC-MS/MS.

(E and F) Representative images of embryonic DRG neuron axons after treatment with different compounds, as indicated, for 72 hours. Binarized images (ImageJ) are displayed to enhance the visualization of axonal integrity during the analysis of the degeneration index. (F) Quantification of DRG axonal degeneration corresponding to (E). Scale bars, 50 µm.

(G) Immunofluorescent staining with antibodies against SARM1(green) or neurofilament (red) of embryonic DRG neuron axons from WT mice in which the DRG were treated with DMSO, SIR3 (0.2 µM), CZ48 (200 µM) or a combination of CZ48 with SIR3. Scale bars, 10 µm.

(H) Number of SARM1 condensates per axon area from (G).

(I) Immunofluorescent staining with antibodies against SARM1(green) or neurofilament (red) of embryonic DRG neuron axons from WT mice in which the DRG were treated with DMSO, Vincristine or Bortezomib (BTZ). Scale bars, 10 µm.

(J) Number of SARM1 condensates per axon area from (I).

Images are representative of three independent experiments. Data are presented as the means ± SD. n = 3 independent experiments. Statistical analysis was performed using Student's t test.

Figure 5. SARM1 condensates involve the assembly of intertwined superhelical structures.

(A) Cryo-EM map of the SARM1 TIR domain bound to SIR3-ADPR reconstructed from the dataset of SARM1 FL bound to SIR3-ADPR. SAM and ARM domains are not visible due to their high flexibility relative to the TIR domain.

(B) Cryo-EM structure of the SAMR1 TIR domain bound to SIR3-ADPR.

(C) EM density map for SIR3-ADPR.

(D) Superposition of the structures of SIR3-ADPR and 1AD in the TIR domain.

(E) Detailed interactions between SIR3-ADPR and the TIR domain.

(F) SARM1$^{-/-}$, SARM1$^{-/-}$ 293T cells stably expressing SARM1 orthostatic-site mutations were treated with DMSO or SIR3 for 12 hours. Cell viability was measured with the CellTiter-Glo assay.

(G and H) Representative cryo-EM micrograph (G) and 2D class averages (H) of the TIR domain of SARM1 in complex with SIR3-ADPR.

(I) Cryo-EM map of the TIR domain bound to SIR3-ADPR reveals two parallel intertwined superhelical structures. Structure of the octameric TIR domain bound to SIR3-ADPR (b) are docked in the map.

(J) Residues that are potentially involved in interactions between two neighboring superhelical structures are shown as sticks. The orientation of the model is orthogonal to that shown in (B).

(K and L) Effects of mutations in the TIR domain on SARM1-mediated cell death. SARM1$^{-/-}$ 293T cells stably expressing SARM1 WT or mutants were treated with increasing concentrations of SIR3. Cell viability was measured with the CellTiter-Glo assay. Data are presented as the means ± SD from three independent experiments.

(M) Mutations of residues possibly involved in the formation of intertwined superhelical structures prevent condensates formation in cells.

Images are representative of three independent experiments. Data are presented as the means ± SD. n = 3 independent experiments. Statistical analysis was performed using Student's t test.

Figure 6. SARM1 TIR domain inhibitors have the ability to activate its NADase activity through a liquid-to-solid phase transition.

(A) SARM1^{dN}-overexpressing HEK-293T cells were treated with varying concentration of DSRM-3716 as indicated. Cell viability was measured with the CellTiter-Glo assay.

(B and C) dN-SARM1-containing lysates were incubated with NAD$^+$ (500 μM) and different doses of DSRM-3716 as indicated, followed by centrifugation. After that, (B) The PC6 assays were performed in all S13 and P13 in the presence or absence of 200 μM NMN. (C) S13 and P13 were also applied to western blots to assess SARM1 levels. Blots are representative of three independent experiments.

(D) 293T dN-SARM1 cell were treated with DSRM-3716 (5 μM) for 5 hours and, then fixed, and stained for SARM1 (anti-SARM1 antibody, Green), TOM20 (anti-TOM20 antibodies, red), and chromosome (DAPI, Blue). Scale bars as indicated.

(E) Representative EM negative stain image of purified dN-SARM1 incubated with DMSO or DSRM-ADPR (100 μM). Images are representative of three independent experiments. Scale bars, 200 nm.

(F) Diagram of SARM1 two-step activation mechanism.

Images or Blots are representative of three independent experiments. Data are presented as the means ± SD. n = 3 independent experiments. Statistical analysis was performed using Student's t test.

Supplemental figure legends

Figure S1. SIR3-induced SARM1-dependent cell death was different from NMN mimics, related to Figure 1.

(A) The morphology of HEK-293T WT, SARM1$^{-/-}$, and SARM1^{dN}-overexpressing cells. Scale bars, 15 μm.

(B-D) SARM1^{dN}-overexpressing HEK-293T cells were subjected to treatment with varying concentrations of (B) CZ48, (C) 3-AP, and (D) Vacor, as indicated. Cell viability was measured with the CellTiter-Glo assay.

(E) SARM1^{dN}-overexpressing HEK-293T cells were treated with CZ48 (100 μM), 3-AP (100 μM), Vacor (10 μM) for 8 hours and cell membrane disruption was visualized with propidium iodide (PI) staining. Scale bars, 15 μm.

(F) 293T dN-SARM1 cell lysates (2 mg/mL) were incubated with NMN and different doses of SIR3 as indicated, NADase activities were measured by PC6 assay.

(G) SARM1^{dN}-overexpressing HEK-293T cells were treated with indicated concentrations of SIR3 (low, medium, and high) as well as FK866 in combination with these varying concentrations of SIR3. Cell viability was measured with the CellTiter-Glo assay.

(H) 293T dN-SARM1 cell lysates were incubated with DMSO, NMN (200μM), FK866 (100μM), SIR3 (100μM), or FK866 + SIR3, NADase activities were measured by PC6 assay.

(I) Western blot of the expression of dN-SARM1 and mutants (W103A, R157A, K193R, and E642A) in HEK-293T SARM1$^{-/-}$ cells.

(J and K) SARM1 mutant cells were treated with CZ48 (100 μM). Metabolites (J) NAD^{+} and (K) cADPR were quantified by LC/MS at indicated times after treatment.

Images or Blots are representative of three independent experiments. Data are presented as the means ± SD. n = 3 independent experiments. Statistical analysis was performed using Student's t test.

Figure S2. SIR3-induced SARM1 phase separation, related to Figure 2.

(A) A schematic diagram of the integration of cellular assays and in vitro PC6 NADase assays.

(B and C) HEK-293T dN-SARM1 cell were treated with DMSO, 3-AP (100 μM) or SIR3 (7 μM), followed by lysing and centrifugation. (B) The western blots were performed in both S13 and P13 using the indicated antibodies. (C) The PC6 assays were also performed in both S13 and P13 in the presence or absence of 200 μM NMN.

(D) HEK-293T dN-SARM1 cell were treated with DMSO or SIR3 (7 μM) for 7 hours. After treatment, cell fractionation was performed by differential centrifugation, followed by western blot analysis using the indicated antibodies.

(E) HEK-293T dN-SARM1 cells were treated with SIR3 (7 μM) for 4 hours, then fixed, and stained for SARM1 (anti-SARM1 antibody, Green), LAMP1 (anti-LAMP1 antibodies, red), and chromosome (DAPI, Blue). Scale bars as indicated.

(F) HEK-293T dN-SARM1 cells were treated with 3-AP (100 μM) for 6 hours, then fixed, and stained for SARM1 (anti-SARM1 antibody, Green), TOM20 (anti-TOM20 antibodies, red), and chromosome (DAPI, Blue). Scale bars as indicated.

(G) Cells were immunolabeled with M2-FLAG antibodies, followed by observation of the subcellular localization of SARM1 using electron microscopy. Scale bars, 1 μm.

(H) SARM1 mutant cells (W103A, R157A, K193R, and E642A) were treated with SIR3 (7 μM), followed by lysing and centrifugation, the supernatant and precipitant fractions were subjected to western blot to assess SARM1 levels.

(I-L) The PC6 assays were also performed in both S13 and P13, in the presence or absence of 200 μM NMN, in SARM1 (I) W103A, (J) R157A, (K) K193R and (L) E642A mutants.

Images or Blots are representative of three independent experiments. Data are presented as the means ± SD from three independent experiments. Statistical analysis was performed using Student's t test.

Figure S3. SIR3 triggers the formation of active SARM1 condensates, related to Figure 2.

(A) dN-SARM1 containing lysates were treated with DMSO or difference concentration of SIR3 as indicated for 1 hour in vitro, followed by centrifugation. After that, both S13 and P13 fractions were applied to western blots.

(B and C) dN-SARM1 containing lysates were treated with DMSO, NAD$^+$ (100 μM), SIR3 (100 μM) and SIR3 + NAD$^+$ for 1 hour in vitro, followed by centrifugation. After that, both S13 and P13 were applied to (B) western blots using the indicated antibodies and (C) the PC6 assay in the absence or presence of 200 μM NMN.

(D-F) dN-SARM1 containing lysates were treated with DMSO or SIR3 + NAD$^+$ for the indicated time period, followed by centrifugation, the S13 and P13 fractions were subjected to (D) western blot and (E-F) the PC6 assay in the absence or presence of 200 μM NMN.

(G) Image of GFP-SARM1 aggregates by FRAP at indicated time points. Scale bar = 2 μm.

(H and I) dN-SARM1 containing lysates were treated with DMSO, SIR3 + NAD$^+$ and a combination of SIR3 + NAD$^+$ with difference concentration of 1,6-hexanediol for 1 hour in vitro, followed by centrifugation. After that, both S13 and P13 were applied to (H) western blots using the indicated antibodies and (I) the PC6 assay in the absence or presence of 200 μM NMN.

(J) Purified dN-SARM1 protein were incubated with different concentration of sodium citrate as indicated for 30 minutes in vitro. NADase activities were subsequently measured using the PC6 assay in the absence or presence of 200 μM NMN.

Images or Blots are representative of three independent experiments. Data are presented as the means ± SD from three independent experiments. Statistical analysis was performed using Student's t test.

Figure S4. SARM1 base exchange product is the *bona fide* activator, related to Figure 3.

(A) SARM1 base change reaction replacing NAM with pyridine-containing molecule.

(B and C) dN-SARM1 containing lysates were treated with DMSO, SIR3-ADPR (100 μM) and SIR3-ADPR + NAD$^+$ (100 μM) for 1 hour in vitro, followed by centrifugation. After that, both S13 and P13 were applied to (B) western blots and (C) the PC6 assay in absence or presence of 200 μM NMN.

(D) dN-SARM1 containing lysates were treated with DMSO, SIR3 (100 μM) and SIR3-ADPR (100 μM) for 4 hours in vitro. After treatment, the lysates were immunoblotted under non-reducing conditions using the indicated antibodies.

(E) The PC6 assays were performed in fractions from (4D) in the presence or absence of 200 μM NMN.

Images or Blots are representative of three independent experiments. Data are presented as the means ± SD from three independent experiments. Statistical analysis was performed using Student's t test.

Figure S5. SIR3 induces sarmoptosis and axon degeneration through a two-step activation process, related to Figure 4.

(A and B) Representative images of embryonic DRG neuron axons after treatment with different concentration of SIR3, as indicated, for 72 hours. (A) These binarized images are displayed to enhance the visualization of axonal integrity during the analysis of the degeneration index. (B) Quantification of DRG axonal degeneration.

(C) 293T SARM1$^{-/-}$ and WT cells were treated with different doses of SIR3 as indicated. Cell viability was measured with the CellTiter-Glo assay.

(D) Western blot of the expression of dN-SARM1 and FL-SARM1 in HEK-293T SARM1$^{-/-}$ cells.

(E-G) 293T FL-SARM1 cells were treated with SIR3 (7 μM). Metabolites (E) NAD^{+}, (F) cADPR, and (G) SIR3-ADPR were quantified by LC/MS at indicated times after treatment.

(H and I) (H) The PC6 assay and (I) western blot analysis was employed to assess the SARM1 activity and the protein levels of SARM1, respectively, in lysates of different concentrations of 293T dN-SARM1 and 293T FL-SARM1.

(J and K) 293T SARM1$^{-/-}$ and FL-SARM1 cells were treated with varying concentrations of (J) CZ48, (K) 3-AP, as indicated. Cell viability was measured with the CellTiter-Glo assay.

(L) 293T SARM1$^{-/-}$ and FL-SARM1 cells were treated with 3-AP (100 μM) or a combination of 3-AP with varying concentration of SIR3 as indicated. Cell viability was measured with the CellTiter-Glo assay.

(M) 293T SARM1$^{-/-}$ and WT cells were treated with varying concentration of 3-AP as indicated. Cell viability was measured with the CellTiter-Glo assay.

(N) 293T SARM1$^{-/-}$ and WT cells were treated with 3-AP (900 μM) or a combination of 3-AP with varying concentration of SIR3 as indicated. Cell viability was measured with the CellTiter-Glo assay.

(O and P) (O) Representative images of embryonic DRG neuron axons after treatment with different concentration of CZ48 or CZ48 + SIR3, as indicated, for 72 hours. These binarized images are displayed to enhance the visualization of axonal integrity during the analysis of the degeneration index. (P) Quantification of DRG axonal degeneration corresponding to (O).

(Q and R) Representative images of axons from WT and SARM1 KO cultured DRG neurons at 80 hours after treatment with DMSO or CZ48 + SIR3. Immunofluorescent staining with antibodies against neurofilament (red). (R) Quantification of DRG axonal degeneration corresponding to (Q).

Images or Blots are representative of three independent experiments. Data are presented as the means ± SD from three independent experiments. Statistical analysis was performed using Student's t test.

Figure S6. Cryo-EM structure determination, related to Figure 5.
(A) Representative cryo-EM micrographs of SARM1FL incubated with SIR3-ADPR.
(B) Cryo-EM workflow for SARM1 FL bound to SIR3-ADPR. 2D averages boxed in red are subjected to 3D reconstruction.
(C) Cryo-EM workflow for SARM1 TIR domain bound to SIR3-ADPR.
(D) Gold-standard FSC curves for the final map shown in (B).

Figure S7. The formation of two antiparallel strands of the TIR domain of SARM1 is essential for SARM1 activity and consensates formation, related to Figure 5.

(A and B) Detailed interactions between 1AD and the TIR domain of SARM1 (PDB: 7NAK). The EE loop is involved in interactions between two antiparallel strands of the TIR domain.

(C-H) Effects of orthostatic-site and EE-loop mutations on hSARM1 NADase activity. SARM1 mutants' lysates were treated with DMSO, SIR3 + NAD$^+$, or SIR3-ADPR, followed by centrifugation, the S13 and P13 fractions were subjected to western blot and the PC6 assay in absence or presence of 200 μM NMN.

Data are presented as the means ± SD, n = 3 independent experiments.

Figure S8. Reported SARM1-TIR inhibitors can also induce SIR3-like SARM1 activation, related to Figure 6.

(A) SARM1^{dN}-overexpressing HEK-293T cells were treated with varying concentration of NB-3 as indicated. Cell viability was measured with the CellTiter-Glo assay.

(B and C) dN-SARM1-containing lysates were incubated with NAD$^+$ (500 μM) and different doses of NB-3 as indicated, followed by centrifugation. After that, (B) all S13 and P13 were applied to western blots to assess SARM1 levels. (C) The PC6 assays were also performed in all S13 and P13 in the presence or absence of 200 μM NMN.

(D) SARM1^{dN}-overexpressing HEK-293T cells were treated with varying concentration of NB-7 as indicated. Cell viability was measured with the CellTiter-Glo assay.

(E and F) dN-SARM1-containing lysates were incubated with NAD$^+$ (500 μM) and different doses of NB-7 as indicated, followed by centrifugation. After that, (E) all S13 and P13 were applied to western blots to assess SARM1 levels. (F) The PC6 assays were also performed in all S13 and P13 in the presence or absence of 200 μM NMN.

(G) Representative 2D class averages from cryo-EM data-sets of SARM1 incubated with DSRM-ADPR.

Images or Blots are representative of three independent experiments. Data are presented as the means ± SD from three independent experiments.