Oligodendrocytes depend on MCL-1 to prevent spontaneous apoptosis and

white matter degeneration

Running title: MCL-1 is required for oligodendrocytes

Abigail H. Cleveland[1,2], Alejandra Romero-Morales[3], Laurent Alfonso Azcona[2],

Melisa Herrero[4], Viktoriya D. Nikolova[5,6], Sheryl Moy[5,6], Orna Elroy-Stein[4,7], Vivian

Gama[3,8,9] and Timothy R. Gershon[2,10,11]

[1]UNC Cancer Cell Biology Training Program, University of North Carolina, Chapel

Hill, North Carolina 27599, USA

[2]Department of Neurology, UNC School of Medicine, University of North Carolina,

Chapel Hill, North Carolina 27599, USA

[3]Vanderbilt University, Cell and Developmental Biology, Nashville, Tennessee

37232, USA

[4]Shmunis School of Biomedicine and Cancer Research, Faculty of Life Sciences, Tel

Aviv University, Tel Aviv, Israel

[5]UNC Carolina Institute for Developmental Disabilities

[6]Department of Psychiatry, UNC School of Medicine, University of North Carolina,

Chapel Hill, North Carolina 27599, USA

[7]Sagol School of Neuroscience, Tel Aviv University, Tel Aviv, Israel

[8]Vanderbilt University, Vanderbilt Center for Stem Cell Biology, Nashville,

Tennessee 37232, USA

[9]Vanderbilt University, Vanderbilt Brain Institute, Nashville, Tennessee 37232, USA

[10]UNC Neuroscience Center, University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill, North

Carolina 27599, USA

[11]Lineberger Comprehensive Cancer Center, University of North Carolina, Chapel

Hill, North Carolina 27599, USA

Co-corresponding authors: Vivian Gama (vivian.gama@vanderbilt.edu) and

Timothy R. Gershon (gershont@neurology.med.unc.edu)

Abstract

Neurologic disorders often disproportionately affect specific brain regions, and different apoptotic mechanisms may contribute to white matter pathology in leukodystrophies or gray matter pathology in poliodystrophies. We previously showed that neural progenitors that generate cerebellar gray matter depend on the anti-apoptotic protein BCL-xL. Conditional deletion of *Bcl-xL* in these progenitors produces spontaneous apoptosis and cerebellar hypoplasia, while similar conditional deletion of *Mcl-1* produces no phenotype. Here, we show that, in contrast, postnatal oligodendrocytes depend on MCL-1. We found that brain-wide *Mcl-1* deletion caused apoptosis specifically in mature oligodendrocytes while sparing astrocytes and oligodendrocyte precursors, resulting in impaired myelination and progressive white matter degeneration. Disabling apoptosis through co-deletion of *Bax* or *Bak* rescued white matter degeneration, implicating the intrinsic apoptotic pathway in *Mcl-1*-dependence. *Bax* and *Bak* co-deletions rescued different aspects of the *Mcl-1*-deleted phenotype, demonstrating their discrete roles in white matter stability. MCL-1 protein abundance was reduced in *eif2b5*-mutant mouse model of the leukodystrophy vanishing white matter disease (VWMD), suggesting the potential for MCL-1 deficiency to contribute to clinical neurologic disease. Our data show that oligodendrocytes require MCL-1 to suppress apoptosis, implicate MCL-1 deficiency in white matter pathology, and suggest apoptosis inhibition as a leukodystrophy therapy.

Introduction

Apoptosis is a highly conserved process across metazoans, with an increasing diversity of homologous regulatory proteins in more complex

organisms. This diversity allows different types of cells to set different thresholds for

apoptosis according to physiologic needs. In the brain, differentiated neurons, which

are not replaceable through proliferation, down-regulate key apoptotic regulators

such as *Apaf*, to become highly resistant to apoptosis (1, 2). In contrast, CNS

progenitor cells, which are abundant and readily replaced through proliferation,

rapidly undergo apoptosis in response to genotoxic stress. Genetic deletion studies

show that specific brain progenitor populations are primed for apoptosis and depend

on specific anti-apoptotic proteins to prevent spontaneous triggering of cell death

mechanisms. Deletion of either of the anti-apoptotic homologs *Mcl-1* or *Bcl-xL*

(gene/transcript name BCL2L1) causes spontaneous apoptosis in multi-potent

precursor cells of the prenatal brain (3). In the postnatal brain, *Bcl-xL* dependence is

associated with the neural lineage; deletion causes spontaneous apoptosis in

differentiating cortical neural progenitors, resulting in microcephaly (4), and in

cerebellar granule neuron progenitors, resulting in cerebellar hypoplasia (5). MCL-1

incompletely compensates for BCL-xL in cerebellar progenitors, as co-deletion of

Bcl2l1 and *Mcl-1* accelerates cerebellar growth failure, but isolated *Mcl-1* deletion in

cerebellar granule neuron progenitors does not cause apoptosis or impair growth

(6). Thus different types of brain cells, at different times and in different regions,

show different mechanisms of apoptosis regulation, with specific developmental

consequences.

Considering the importance of MCL-1 in the prenatal brain, and the BCL-xL-

specific dependence of neural-committed cerebellar granule neuron progenitors in

the post-natal brain, we investigated whether specific cells in the post-natal brain

showed MCL-1 dependence. We deleted *Mcl-1* conditionally, using GFAP-Cre or

NESTIN-Cre transgenic lines to target CNS stem cells in the prenatal brain that give

rise to both neurons and glia. We found that the resulting *Mcl-1*-deleted mice

showed normal brain anatomy and neurologic function through postnatal day 7 (P7)

but then developed progressive postnatal white matter degeneration and increasing

ataxia. The symptoms, white matter specificity, and early postnatal onset *of the Mcl-*

1 deletion phenotype resembled clinical leukodystrophies observed in patients.

Genetic co-deletions that blocked the intrinsic apoptotic pathway rescued the *Mcl-1*

deletion phenotype, confirming the role of apoptosis in the pathogenesis of MCL-1-

deficient white matter degeneration, and suggesting that impaired apoptosis

regulation through MCL-1 may contribute to clinical white matter disorders.

Methods

Mice

We generated *Mcl-1^{cKO}* mice with conditional, brain-specific *Mcl-1* deletion, by

crossing *GFAP-Cre* mice (Jackson Labs, stock # 004600) that express Cre

recombinase in neuro-glial stem cells of the brain with *Mcl-1$^{LoxP/LoxP}$* mice (7),

generously shared by Dr. You-Wen He. We interbred GFAP-Cre, *Mcl-1$^{loxP/loxP}$*, and

Bax$^{LoxP/LoxP}$/Bak$^{-/-}$ (Jackson Labs, stock # 006329) to generate *Mcl-1;Bax^{dKO}*, *Mcl-*

1;Bak^{dKO}, and various heterozygous controls. All mice were of species *Mus*

musculus and crossed into the C57BL/6 background through at least five

generations. All animal studies were carried out with the approval of the University

of North Carolina Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee under protocols (19-

099).

Wild type (C57BL/6 strain) and *eIF2B5$^{R132H/R132H}$* mice (8) were generated,

bred, and housed in Tel Aviv University animal facility (Lab Products Inc., Seaford,

DE, USA). All experimental procedures were approved by the Tel Aviv University

Animal Care Committee according to national guidelines (permit #04-17-022).

Breeding and genotyping were performed as previously described. (8) Each

generation was established by back cross of homozygous $eIF2B5^{R132H/R132H}$ mice

with WT C57BL/6J (Harlan Labs, Jerusalem, Israel) to prevent genetic drift.

Histology and immunohistochemistry (IHC)

Mouse brains were processed and immunostained as previously described (9-12).

In brief, mice were decapitated under isoflurane anesthesia and brains were

harvested and drop fixed in 4% formaldehyde for 24 hours, then transferred to

graded ethanol series embedded in paraffin and sectioned. Eyes were processed

and fixed as previously described (13). In brief, eyes were harvested after

decapitation, injected with 4% formaldehyde, and then drop fixed, embedded in

paraffin and sectioned.

Primary antibodies used were: BAK diluted 1:200 (Cell Signaling, #12105),

MBP diluted 1:1000 (Abcam, #ab7349), SOX10 diluted 1:100 (Santa Cruz, #sc-

17342), cleaved-Caspase 3 (cC3) diluted 1:400 (Biocare Medical, #CP229C), glial

fibrillary acidic protein (GFAP) diluted 1:2000 (Dako, Z0334), PDGFRA diluted

1:200 (Cell Signaling, #3174), SOX2 1:200 (Cell Signaling, #4900S), SOX9 1:200

(R&D Systems, #AF3075), NESTIN 1:500 (Cell Signaling, #4760), IBA1 1:2000

(Wako Chemicals, #019-19741). Stained images were counterstained with DAPI,

digitally imaged using an Aperio Scan Scope XT (Aperio) and subjected to

automated cell counting using Tissue Studio (Definiens).

Magnetic resonance imaging

For MRI studies, brains from P7, P14, and P21 mice were harvested after

decapitation, fixed in 4% formaldehyde in PBS for 48hrs, then transferred to PBS.

Brains were then embedded in 2% agarose in 15mL plastic vials and imaged in

pairs as previously described (14).

Western blot

Whole brains or cerebella were harvested and homogenized in lysis buffer (Cell

Signaling, #9803). Lysate protein concentrations were quantified using a

bicinchoninic acid (BCA) protein assay kit (Thermo scientific, #23225). Equal total

protein concentrations were resolved on SDS-polyacrylamide gels (BioRad, #

4561105, # 4568094) and transferred onto polyvinylidene difluoride membranes.

Membranes were blotted using a SNAP i.d. 2.0 Protein Detection System

(Millipore). Membranes were imaged using a chemiluminescent SuperSignal West

Femto Maximum Sensitivity Substrate (34095, Thermo Fisher Scientific) and the C-

DiGit blot scanner (LI-COR Biosciences). Signal was quantified using the Image

Studio Lite software (LI-COR). The following antibodies were used for Western blot:

MCL-1 (Cell Signaling, #94296; 1:500 dilution), BAX (Cell Signaling, #14796; 1:500

dilution), β-actin (Cell Signaling, #3700; 1:5000 dilution), Actin (Sigma #A3853;

1:240000 dilution), Anti-rabbit IgG, HRP-linked antibody (Cell Signaling, #7074;

1.5:1000 dilution), Anti-mouse IgG, HRP-linked antibody (Cell Signaling, #7076;

1.5:1000 dilution). For the eIF2B5$^{R132H/R132H}$ studies, cerebrums were harvested

from 7 and 10 month old mice and protein was extracted using a lysis buffer

containing 1% triton, 0.5% NaDOC, 0.1% SDS, 50 mM Tris pH 8, 100 mM NaCl, 10

mM β-glycerophosphate, 5 mM NaF, 1 mM DTT, 1 mM vanadate, and EDTA-free

complete TM protease inhibitor cocktail (#11-836-170-001; ROCHE). Protein was

quantified using a BCA protein assay kit (#23227 Pierce), diluted in 1X sample

buffer (0.05 M HEPES pH 7.4, 2% (w/v) SDS, 10% (v/v) Glycerol, traces of

Bromophenol Blue, 100 mM Dithiothreitol (DTT)), and separated on a 10% SDS-

PAGE gel. Blots were imaged using an AI600 Imager (Amersham) and quantified by

ImageQuant TL (GE Healthcare, Pittsburgh, PA, United States).

Behavioral studies

Animals included. Subjects were $Mcl-1^{cKO}$ mice or littermate controls with intact

$Mcl-1$, including genotypes $Mcl1^{f/+}$ without Cre, $Mcl1^{f/f}$ without Cre, and Gfap-

Cre/$Mcl1^{f/+}$. A total of 8 litters were needed to generate all of the replicates. Day of

birth was considered postnatal day 0 (P0). Subject numbers at the beginning of the

study (P7) were 13 (21%) $Mcl-1^{cKO}$ and 48 (79%) control. All litters completed the

first 2 weeks of testing. Three litters (n=23) were removed from the study for

histology assays during the third week of testing: one on P15, after the second open

field test; one on P16, after the first acoustic startle test; and one on P21, after the

tail suspension test.

Behavioral testing regimen

Developmentally-calibrated behavioral tests: For motor tests at P7, mice were

removed from the home cage and maintained in a beaker warmed to 35°C. Mice

were then subjected to the neurobehavioral negative geotaxis, righting, and open

field tests, adapted from published studies (15).

Negative geotaxis. A 20 cm × 20 cm screen with 0.5 cm wire mesh squares was

set at a 25° angle. Each pup was placed downward on the screen with its head

facing toward the bottom, allowed to grip the mesh, and then released. The time it

took for each pup to turn 180° (head and upper torso vertical), was recorded, with a

30 s maximum and each pup was tested 3 times.

Righting. Each pup was placed onto its back on a flat Plexiglas surface. The experimenter gently held the pup in place for 2 s and then released it. The latency to righting (all 4 feet on the ground) was timed, with a maximum of 30 s.

Open field activity and pivoting. Each pup was placed into the center of a Plexiglas chamber (PhenoTyper; 30.5 cm × 30.5 cm × 43.5 cm; Noldus Information Technology, Wageningen, The Netherlands). A dim yellow light (30 lx) at the top of the PhenoTyper box was illuminated throughout the 3 min trial. Measures were taken of distance traveled and time in the center region (4 cm × 4 cm square in the center of the arena) by an image-tracking system (EthoVision, Noldus Information Technology). In addition, the experimenter recorded the number of vertical rearing movements and number of pivots (circling or lateral movement, as opposed to forward locomotion).

Each mouse was screened through the 3 assays in the order presented here. After finishing the neonatal motor screen, each pup was weighed, marked with a non-toxic Sharpie, and placed back into the warm beaker. The litter was returned to the home cage after all pups had been tested.

Open field activity at P14 and P19. Additional open field activity tests were performed at P14 and P19. The distance traveled, the number of vertical rearing movements, and time spent in the center region was recorded in each 10 min test.

Acoustic startle responses. This test was used to assess auditory function, reactivity to environmental stimuli, and sensorimotor gating. Mice were evaluated at 2 time points, P14 and P21. The procedure was based on the reflexive whole-body flinch, or startle response, that follows exposure to the acoustic stimuli. Measures were taken of startle magnitude and prepulse inhibition, which occurs when a weak stimulus leads to a reduced startle in response to a subsequent louder noise.

Mice were placed into individual Plexiglas cylinders within larger, sound-

attenuating chambers. Each cylinder was seated upon a piezoelectric transducer,

which allowed vibrations to be quantified and displayed on a computer (San Diego

Instruments SR-Lab system). The chambers included a ceiling light, fan, and a

loudspeaker for the acoustic stimuli. Background sound levels (70 dB) and

calibration of the acoustic stimuli were confirmed with a digital sound level meter

(San Diego Instruments). Each session began with a 5-min habituation period,

followed by 42 trials of 7 different types: no-stimulus (NoS) trials, trials with the

acoustic startle stimulus (AS; 40 msec, 120 dB) alone, and trials in which a prepulse

stimulus (20 msec; either 74, 78, 82, 86, or 90 dB) occurred 100 ms before the

onset of the startle stimulus. Measures were taken of the startle amplitude for each

trial across a 65-msec sampling window, and an overall analysis was performed for

each subject's data for levels of prepulse inhibition at each prepulse sound level

(calculated as 100 - [(response amplitude for prepulse stimulus and startle stimulus

together / response amplitude for startle stimulus alone) x 100].

Limb clasping. At P18-21, a subset of mice (n=39) was assessed for limb clasping

during a tail-suspension test. Each mouse was lifted by the base of the tail, and

suspended above cage bedding for 15 sec, with ventral (stomach) side facing the

experimenter. Response to tail suspension was coded using the following scoring

system:

Forepaw movement

-2 = paws are clasped together, little movement, may be drawn up against

chest

0 = paws move quickly in periodic flailing or kicking motions

2 = vigorous movement, may resemble rapid digging

Hindlimb placement and movement

-4 = both hindlimbs are retracted inwards toward abdomen, with little

movement

-2 = hindlimbs are partially or intermittently retracted inwards toward abdomen

0 = hindlimbs are splayed outward from the abdomen. Moderate kicking behavior

2 = vigorous rapid kicking

Statistical analysis of behavioral tests

All testing was conducted by experimenters blinded to mouse genotype. Statview

(SAS, Cary, NC) was used for data analyses. To reduce the number of $Mcl\text{-}1^{cKO}$

subjects required, behavioral data from males and females were combined. One-

way or repeated measures analysis of variance (ANOVA) were used to determine

effects of genotype. Post-hoc analyses were conducted using Fisher's Protected

Least Significant Difference (PLSD) tests following a significant ANOVA F value.

For all comparisons, significance was set at $p < 0.05$.

Results

Conditional _Mcl-1_ deletion in the CNS causes progressive white matter

degeneration.

We generated mice with conditional, brain-specific _Mcl-1_ deletion by

breeding $Mcl\text{-}1^{loxP/loxP}$ mice that harbor loxP sites around exon 1 of the _Mcl1_ locus

(7), with _GFAP-Cre_ mice that express Cre recombinase in stem cells that give rise

to the neurons and glia of the cerebrum and cerebellum, excluding the Purkinje cells

(Supplementary fig. 1A-B) (16, 17). The resulting $hGFAP\text{-}Cre/Mcl\text{-}1^{loxP/loxP}$ (_Mcl-_

1^{cKO}) mice were born at the expected Mendelian ratio. We compared $Mcl-1^{cKO}$ mice

to littermate controls, including $Mcl-1^{loxP/loxP}$ mice without Cre and heterozygously

deleted $hGFAP$-$Cre/Mcl-1^{loxP/+}$. We found no differences between control genotypes

and therefore pooled them for analysis. In contrast, $Mcl-1^{cKO}$ mice appeared normal

at P7 but developed increasing ataxia, could not be weaned, and died between

P20-23.

262   Examination of the brains of $Mcl-1^{cKO}$ mice showed progressive white matter

degeneration, that began after the first week of life, with relative sparing of gray

matter. At P7, $Mcl-1^{cKO}$ brains showed no abnormalities and appeared similar to

controls (Fig. 1A, P7). At P14, $Mcl-1^{cKO}$ mice showed white matter rarefaction and

ventricular dilation and these changes were more pronounced at P21 (Fig. 1A,

P14&21). In addition to white matter loss, we also noted migration abnormalities in

the cerebellum, with ectopic cerebellar granule cells in the molecular layer of the

cerebellum (Fig. 1A, P14&21). Replacing $Gfap$-Cre with $Nestin$-Cre, which similarly

drives recombination in multipotent glio-neuronal stem cells, generated mice with

the genotype $Nestin$-$Cre/Mcl-1^{loxP/loxP}$ which displayed similar white matter-specific

degeneration (Supplementary Fig. 1C). Deletion of $Mcl-1$ throughout the brain thus

resulted in progressive white matter pathology that began in the early postnatal

period and increased over time.

Figure 1. *Mcl-1* deletion causes progressive white matter degeneration. Brains of representative *Mcl-1^cKO^* mice shown in H&E-stained sagittal sections appear similar to controls at P7. By P14, *Mcl-1^cKO^* mice develop white matter degeneration with ventricular enlargement (*) and abnormal migration of cerebellar granule neurons (arrows). White matter loss increases by P21.

Consistent with the onset of neuropathology after P7, *Mcl-1^cKO^* mice showed

no behavioral deficits during the first week of life, then showed failure to thrive in the

second week of life (Fig. 2A). Concurrent with reduced weight gain, *Mcl-1^cKO^* mice

demonstrated progressive abnormalities of motor function. We used developmentally

adjusted tests to compare behavior of *Mcl-1^cKO^* mice and controls at P7, P14, and

P18. To examine behavior at P7, when mice do not yet have open eyes and do not

venture from the nest, we used a test of geotaxis by placing mice on a tilted screen

and measuring latency to turn. We also measured latency to turn over in a righting

test, and we counted pivots during a 3-min open field test. We found no genotype-

specific differences at P7 (Table 1). As P7 pups are beginning to gain control of hind

limb function, open field testing allowed us to compare the number of pivots and

distance traveled, which were similar in $Mcl\text{-}1^{cKO}$ and control mice (Fig. 2B).

Test	WT	$Mcl\text{-}1^{cKO}$
Negative geotaxis (latency, s)		
Trial 1	15.4 ± 2	14.3 ± 3
Trial 2	15.1 ± 2	16.7 ± 3
Trial 3	15.3 ± 2	20.9 ± 3
Righting (latency, s)	8.2 ± 1	10.0 ± 3
Number of pivots	1.7 ± 0.3	1.3 ± 0.5

In contrast to the similar behaviors at P7, by P14 $Mcl\text{-}1^{cKO}$ mice showed

decreased rearing when placed in an open field and spent more time in the center

of the open field, while traveling similar distances compared to controls (Fig. 2B;

Supplementary Fig. 2A). Considering the differences in open field avoidance at P14,

we examined whether $Mcl\text{-}1$ deletion in $Mcl\text{-}1^{cKO}$ mice produced retinal pathology

that might confound behavioral analysis. We found no detectable pathology in the

retinas or optic nerves of P15 $Mcl\text{-}1^{cKO}$ mice (Supplementary Fig. 2B), and loss of

vision was thus unlikely to explain reduced open field avoidance in $Mcl\text{-}1^{cKO}$ mice.

By P18, $Mcl\text{-}1^{cKO}$ mice showed a marked increase in limb clasping when vertically

suspended (Fig. 2C), a commonly used marker of disease progression in a number

of mouse models of neurodegeneration and ataxia (4, 18).

Figure 2. *Mcl-1* deletion causes progressive neurologic impairment. (**A**)
Reduced weight gain in *Mcl-1^{cKO}* mice compared to controls. (**B**) *Mcl-1^{cKO}* mice
show normal motor function at P7, with altered motor function by P14 and (**C**)
increased hind-limb clasping at P18. (**D**) *Mcl-1^{cKO}* mice show increased startle in
response to auditory stimuli at P14, and reduced elicited movement at P21. *, ** and
*** denote $p<0.05$, $p<0.01$ and $p<0.001$ respectively, relative to controls.

Responses to sensory input were also abnormal in *Mcl-1^{cKO}* mice and

changed over time. At P14, mice showed increased amplitude of acoustic startle

response (Fig. 2D); these exaggerated responses demonstrated intact hearing but

abnormal processing. By P21, when motor function was significantly impaired, the

amplitude of acoustic startle response was markedly diminished compared to

controls, and it is possible that impaired hearing may have contributed to this late

abnormality. These motor and sensory tests showed progressive behavior

abnormalities that correspond temporally with the white matter degeneration,

beginning at P12 and worsening by P18-21.

Blocking apoptosis prevents white matter degeneration in *Mcl-1*-deleted mice.

To determine if white matter degeneration in $Mcl\text{-}1^{cKO}$ mice resulted from

increased apoptosis, we examined cell death through cleaved caspase-3

immunohistochemistry and TUNEL assays. We did not detect an increase in

cleaved caspase-3-stained cells at P7, prior to the onset of white matter loss (data

not shown), or at P11, when white matter loss was on-going (Supplementary Fig. 3,

middle column). However, TUNEL+ nuclei of apoptotic cells are cleared more slowly

than cC3+ apoptotic bodies and TUNEL may therefore be more sensitive for

detecting increased cell death. TUNEL staining at P11 demonstrated increased cell

death in $Mcl\text{-}1^{cKO}$ brains, consistent with a pro-apoptotic effect of *Mcl-1* deletion

(Fig. 3A).

To determine whether the increased cell death in *Mcl-1*-deleted mice was

causally related to the white matter degeneration, we tested whether blocking

apoptosis through co-deletion of either *Bax* or *Bak* rescued the $Mcl\text{-}1^{cKO}$ phenotype.

We repeatedly intercrossed $Mcl\text{-}1^{cKO}$ mice with $Bax^{loxP/LoxP}/Bak^{-/-}$ mice to generate

animals with conditional deletion of *Mcl-1* and heterozygous or homozygous

deletion of *Bax* or *Bak*. We then raised pups of each genotype and analyzed

survival, neurologic function, and neuropathology.

We found that co-deletion of *Bax* or *Bak* significantly suppressed the *Mcl-*

1^{cKO} phenotype, but resulted in different, mitigated phenotypes. *Mcl-1*-deleted mice

with heterozygous co-deletion of *Bak*, with the genotype *hGFAP-*

$Cre/Mcl1^{loxP/loxP}/Bak^{-/+}$ ($Mcl\text{-}1^{cKO}/Bak^{-/+}$), showed normal survival without overt

neurologic deficits and normal white matter and cerebellar migration (Fig. 3B). In

contrast, *Mcl-1*-deleted mice with heterozygous co-deletion of *Bax*, with the

genotype *hGFAP-Cre/Mcl1*$^{loxP/loxP}$*/Bax*$^{loxP/+}$ (*Mcl-1*^{cKO}*/Bax*$^{fl/+}$), showed a progressive

leukoencephalopathy phenotype similar *Mcl-1*^{cKO} mice (Fig. 3B).

Immunohistochemistry demonstrated markedly lower BAK protein in *Bak*$^{+/-}$ animals

(Fig. 3C), indicating that that heterozygous *Bak* deletion was sufficient to alter BAK

expression. The rescued phenotype of *Mcl-1*^{cKO}*/Bak*$^{-/+}$ mice therefore demonstrated

reducing BAK protein expression was sufficient to prevent white matter

degeneration.

Figure 3. *Mcl-1* deletion causes white matter degeneration by increasing
apoptosis. (**A**) TUNEL demonstrates increased cell death in *Mcl-1*^{cKO} brains. For
cell counts, one sagittal section from each replicate was scanned at 20x and
TUNEL+ cells were counted across the entire portion of each designated region that
was contained within the section. (**B**) Representative H&E sections show that
heterozygous *Bak* co-deletion and homozygous *Bax* co-deletion both rescue the
white matter loss with ventricular enlargement (*) and cerebellar abnormalities
caused by *Mcl-1* deletion. (**C**) Quantification of BAK immunohistochemistry in corpus
callosum shows that heterozygous *Bak* deletion significantly reduces the number of
BAK+ cells. Quantification of western blot of whole cerebella shows that

homozygous *Bax* deletion reduces BAX protein abundance. *, ** and *** denote
p<0.05, p<0.01 and p<0.001 respectively, relative to controls.

Mcl-1-deleted mice with homozygous *Bax* co-deletion, with the genotype

hGFAP-Cre/Mcl1$^{loxP/loxP}$/Bax$^{loxP/loxP}$ (*Mcl-1/Bax^{dKO}*) showed normal survival, similar to

Mcl-1^{cKO}/Bak$^{-/+}$ mice. The extensive white matter loss in *Mcl-1^{cKO}* mice was rescued

in *Mcl-1/Bax^{dKO}* mice, as in *Mcl-1^{cKO}/Bak$^{-/+}$* mice (Fig. 3B). The rescued phenotypes

of *Mcl-1^{cKO}/Bak$^{-/+}$* and *Mcl-1/Bax^{dKO}* mice show that disrupting either *Bax* or *Bak* is

sufficient to prevent the severe white matter degeneration that otherwise results

from *Mcl-1* deletion, implicating apoptosis in the pathogenesis of the *Mcl-1^{cKO}*

phenotype.

Mcl-1 deletion phenocopies human leukodystrophies

Leukoencephalopathies in patients produce characteristic MRI findings,

including high water signal in white matter tracts (19), and the replacement of white

matter by cerebrospinal fluid (20). We analyzed whether *Mcl-1^{cKO}* mice showed

similar white matter changes on MRI. Similar to patients with the leukodystrophy

VWMD, *Mcl-1^{cKO}* mice showed progressive ventriculomegaly (Fig. 4A). The increase

in ventricle size was not evenly distributed, however, as the volume of the 4th

ventricle was significantly smaller in *Mcl-1^{cKO}* mice at P21 (Fig. 4B). Increased

lateral ventricles and reduced 4th ventricle was consistent with loss of periventricular

cerebral white matter and an overall reduction in intracranial pressure, indicating

hydrocephalus *ex vacuo*.

To determine whether myelination was disrupted in *Mcl-1^{cKO}* mice, we

analyzed the distribution of Myelin Basic Protein (MBP). In control brains, the MBP+

area increased markedly from P7 to P14 (Fig. 4C). In contrast, myelination was

delayed in *Mcl-1^cKO* brains, which showed significantly less MBP+ area at P14 in all

brain regions analyzed (Fig. 4D).

Figure 4. Abnormal neuroimaging and myelination in *Mcl-1*-deleted mice, with
different rescue effects caused by co-deletion of *Bak* or *Bax*. (**A**) Representative
MRIs show white matter hyperintensity in *Mcl-1^cKO* mice. (**B**) Total ventricular volume
is abnormal in *Mcl-1^cKO* mice and increases from P7-P21, while the volume of the 4th
ventricle decreases significantly by P21. (**C,D**) Representative images and
quantitative analysis of MBP IHC show that myelination is markedly decreased in
Mcl-1^cKO mice, rescued in *Mcl-1^cKO/Bak^+/-* mice, and incompletely rescued in *Mcl-*

1/Bax^dKO mice. **(D)** Graphs show MBP+ area/total area within individual sections,
normalized to the mean value in the control mice. *, ** and *** denote p<0.05,
p<0.01 and p<0.001 respectively, relative to controls.

Analysis of MBP+ area in *Mcl-1*-deleted mice with *Bax* or *Bak* co-deletions

showed that a specific role for BAK in regulating survival of myelinating cells. We

compared brains in P21 animals, when normal brains show widespread myelination.

Heterozygous *Bak* co-deletion largely rescued myelination in *Mcl-1^cKO/Bak^+/-* mice. In

these animals, MBP+ area was over 2-fold greater than in *Mcl-1^cKO* mice, although

we noted a small, statistically significant decrease in myelination compared to *Mcl-1*

intact controls. Homozygous *Bax* deletion, however, did not rescue myelination in

Mcl-1/Bax^dKO mice (Fig. 4D). The differential effects of *Bak* or *Bax* deletion on

myelination support the interpretation that BAX and BAK act in cells with different

functions, with both BAX and BAK regulating cells required for white matter

maintenance, and only BAK regulating cells required for myelination.

Mcl-1 deletion reduces oligodendrocyte and Bergmann glia populations

To determine if impaired myelination in *Mcl-1^cKO* mice resulted from

oligodendrocyte loss, we compared the numbers of cells expressing the

oligodendrocyte markers SOX10 and PDGFRA in *Mcl-1^cKO* and control mice (Fig.

5A). SOX10 marks the oligodendrocyte lineage from the initial fate commitment in

oligodendrocyte precursors (OPCs) to the maturation of myelinating

oligodendrocytes, while PDGFRA specifically marks OPCs (21, 22). SOX10 cell

counts thus reflect the total oligodendrocytic population across the differentiation

spectrum, and PDGFRA cell counts reflect the undifferentiated subset.

At P7, oligodendrocyte populations in *Mcl-1^cKO* mice were not significantly

different from controls. By P14, *Mcl-1^cKO* mice showed significantly fewer SOX10+

cells in diverse brain regions, while PDGFRA+ cells were similar between

genotypes (Fig. 5B). These data indicating a global decrease in differentiated

oligodendrocytes with preservation of OPCs. At P21, oligodendrocytic populations

remained reduced in the cerebellum, corpus callosum, and superior colliculus; the

lack of statistically significant differences in the cerebral cortex and hippocampus

likely reflect the confounding effects of severe volume loss in these regions. In

contrast to reduced SOX10+ cells, PDGFRA+ cells showed no decreases and

rather trended toward increased populations at P21. Together our studies of SOX10

and PDGFRA show that oligodendrocyte loss in $Mcl\text{-}1^{cKO}$ mice occurred specifically

with differentiation.

To determine if apoptosis mediates the decline in the oligodendrocyte

populations in $Mcl\text{-}1$-deleted mice, we examined the effect of Bax or Bak co-deletion

in $Mcl\text{-}1^{cKO}/Bak^{+/-}$ and $Mcl\text{-}1/Bax^{dKO}$ mice. Immunofluorescence using antibodies to

cC3 and SOX10 at P11 demonstrated a trend of increase in apoptosis in

oligodendrocytes (p=0.06; Supplementary Fig. 3). Heterozygous Bak co-deletion in

$Mcl\text{-}1^{cKO}/Bak^{+/-}$ mice normalized oligodendrocyte population size (Fig. 5B). In

contrast, oligodendrocyte populations decreased in $Mcl\text{-}1/Bax^{cKO}$ mice with

homozygous Bax deletion (Fig. 5B). Bak co-deletion thus rescued the effects of $Mcl\text{-}$

1 deletion on white matter volume, myelination, and total oligodendrocyte

populations. However, Bax co-deletion rescued only white matter volume, but

myelination and oligodendrocyte numbers remained affected in $Mcl\text{-}1/Bax^{dKO}$ mice.

The discordant effects of Bak and Bax co-deletions indicates that different types of

white matter cells depend on MCL-1 to control BAK-dependent or BAX-dependent

apoptosis.

Figure 5. *Mcl-1* deletion causes loss of oligodendrocytes and Bergmann glia
that is rescued with regional variation by co-deletion of *Bak* or *Bax*. (**A,B**)
Representative images and quantification of SOX10 and PDGFRA IHC in the
indicated genotypes. (**C**) Representative immunofluorescence for GFAP and SOX2
IHC identify Bergmann glia in P14 mice of indicated genotypes. (**D**) SOX2+ cells are

significantly reduced in *Mcl-1^{cKO}* mice. * and ** denote p<0.05 and p<0.01
respectively, relative to controls.

In contrast to the discordant effects of *Bax* and *Bak* co-deletions in
oligodendrocytes, Bergmann glia were rescued by either co-deletion. We examined
Bergmann glia because of the migration abnormalities in *Mcl-1^{cKO}* mice, as
Bergmann glia guide cerebellar granule neuron progenitors as they migrate to the
internal granule cell layer to become cerebellar granule neurons (23, 24). We
identified Bergmann glia as cells with SOX2+ nuclei and GFAP+ processes (Fig.
5C). At P7, the numbers of Bergmann glia in *Mcl-1^{cKO}* were similar to control mice
(data not shown), but by P14, the Bergmann glia populations in *Mcl-1^{cKO}* mice were
significantly reduced (Fig. 5D). The loss of Bergmann glia during the period of CGN
migration account for the observed cerebellar migration defects. Co-deletion of
either one copy of *Bak* in *Mcl-1^{cKO}/Bak^{+/-}* mice or both copies of *Bax* in *Mcl-1/Bax^{dKO}*
mice was sufficient to rescue cerebellar migration, indicating that MCL-1 functions in
Bergmann glia to restrict an apoptotic program that requires both BAX and BAK in
order to drive cell death.

***Mcl-1* deletion increases astrocytic populations**

While *Mcl-1^{cKO}* mice contained fewer Bergmann glia, we noted increased
numbers of GFAP+ astrocytic processes throughout the brain, most conspicuously
in the relatively hypocellular molecular layer of the cerebellum (Fig. 6A). To
determine if this increase in GFAP+ cells indicated an increase in the total number
of astrocytes or an increase in the fraction of astrocytes expressing GFAP, we
compared the number of cells expressing the astrocytic nuclear marker SOX9 in
Mcl-1^{cKO} mice and controls (Fig. 6B,C). SOX9+ cells were not significantly increased
in *Mcl-1^{cKO}* mice in any brain region at either P7 or P14, and rather were decreased

in the corpus callosum at P14 (Fig. 6B,C). The increase in GFAP+ processes in

Mcl-1^cKO mice without the increase in SOX9+ cells shows the *Mcl-1* deletion did not

increase the total astrocyte population, but rather increased the fraction of

astrocytes expressing GFAP, indicating a reactive response to injury (25, 26).

Figure 6. *Mcl-1* deletion causes reactive astrocytosis. (**A**) Representative GFAP
IHC in sections of P14 cerebella in the indicated genotypes shows Bergmann glia
processes in the control mice that are absent in the *Mcl-1^cKO*, and numerous
astrocyte processes in the *Mcl-1^cKO* mice. (**B**) Representative SOX9 IHC in sections
of P14 corpus callosum in the indicated genotypes show a significant decrease of
SOX9+ cells in the *Mcl-1^cKO* mice. (**C**) Quantification of SOX9 IHC at the indicated
ages and genotypes, showing that astrocyte numbers are not increased in *Mcl-1^cKO*
mice. (**D,E**) Nestin/GFAP IHC, with representative images and quantification in the
indicated genotypes. * and ** denote p<0.05 and p<0.01 respectively, relative to
controls.

The intermediate filament protein NESTIN is known to be up-regulated in

reactive astrocytes (27-30), and prior studies report increased Nestin-expressing

astrocytes in white matter from humans with VWMD (31), and in astrocytes of the

eIF2B5 ^R191H/R191H^ mouse model of VWMD (8, 32). To determine if astrocytes in

Mcl1-deleted mice had increased NESTIN expression, as seen in these

leukodystrophies, we compared Nestin+/GFAP+ populations in P14 *Mcl-1^cKO* mice and controls (Fig. 6D). *Mcl-1^cKO* mice demonstrated increased fractions of Nestin+/GFAP+ cells in the corpus callosum (Fig. 6E), with a trend toward increased fractions in other white matter regions. *Mcl-1^cKO* mice showed astrocytic and oligodendrocytic abnormalities that are consistent with clinical white matter disease in patients and mouse models.

Mcl-1 deletion causes neuroinflammation

Brains of *Mcl-1^cKO* mice contained increased cells expressing the myeloid marker IBA1 (Fig. 7A), indicating microglial activation (33, 34). The microglial changes in *Mcl-1^cKO* mice began later than the astrocytic and oligodendrocytic changes, beginning at the corpus callosum at P14; by P21, *Mcl-1^cKO* mice showed increased IBA+ cells in diverse brain regions (Fig. 7B). The increased IBA1+ microglia in *Mcl-1^cKO* mice demonstrates a non-cell autonomous effect in which *Mcl-1* deletion in the glio-neuronal GFAP lineage induced inflammatory changes in myeloid cells. This microglial activation is not seen in autopsy studies of VWMD patients, which are typically performed late in the disease process (35), but are seen in the VWMD mouse model, where brain samples can be studied earlier in the pathogenic process (36).

Co-deletion of either *Bak* or *Bax* prevented microgliosis in different brain regions. Heterozygous co-deletion of *Bak* in *Mcl-1^cKO/Bak^+/-* mice significantly reduced IBA1+ cells in the cerebellum, cerebral cortex, colliculus, and corpus callosum, relative to *Mcl-1^cKO* mice. In contrast, homozygous co-deletion of *Bax* in *Mcl-1^cKO/Bax^dKO* mice showed a significant decrease in IBA1+ cells in the hippocampus, relative to both *Mcl-1^cKO* and *Mcl-1^cKO/Bak^+/-* mice (Fig. 7B). The

rescue of neuro-inflammation by co-deletion of *Bax* or *Bak* implicates increased

regional apoptosis as the cause of inflammation, while the region-specific pattern of

rescue further supports the conclusion that white matter cells in different areas of

the brain alternatively regulate apoptosis through interactions of MCL-1 with either

BAX or BAK.

Figure 7. Progressive neuroinflammation in *Mcl-1^cKO* mice and reduced MCL-1
protein in mice with VWMD. (**A,B**) a representative image of IHC, with
quantification in the indicated genotypes, showing a progressive increase in
microglia in *Mcl-1^cKO* mice, beginning in the corpus callosum at P14 and expanding
to include diverse regions by P21. Co-deletion of *Bak* or *Bax* variably rescue
microgliosis with different effects in different regions. *, ** and *** denote p<0.05,
p<0.01 and p<0.001 respectively, relative to controls. (**C**) Western blot comparing
MCL-1 protein abundance in brain lysates of 7- and 10-months old WT and
eIF2B5^R132H/R132H mice, demonstrating reduced MCL-1 in 10-month old mutant mice.
* denotes p<0.03, relative to controls.

Decreased brain MCL-1 protein in a VWMD mouse model

Based on the similarity of the *Mcl-1^cKO* phenotype to human leukodystrophies, we

investigated whether MCL-1 expression is altered in the *eIF2B5* ^R132H/R132H^ mouse

model of VWMD. We focused on this leukodystrophy model because MCL-1

abundance is known to depend on translational regulation and activation of the

integrated stress response (ISR) (37), and both translation and ISR activation are

abnormal in *eIF2B5* $^{R132H/R132H}$ mice (36, 38, 39). We compared MCL-1 abundance

in brain lysates from wildtype and *eIF2B5* $^{R132H/R132H}$ mice at the pre-symptomatic

time point of 7 months old and at 10 months old, when these mice begin to show

phenotypic changes. At 7 months, MCL-1 abundance was similar, but at 10 months

eIF2B5 $^{R132H/R132H}$ mice showed reduced MCL-1 protein (Fig. 7C). The temporal

correlation of reduced MCL-1 protein with the onset of brain pathology, suggests

that MCL-1-regulated apoptosis may contribute to white matter pathology in *eIF2B5*

$^{R132H/R132H}$ mice. Studies of Bak deletion in *eIF2B5* $^{R132H/R132H}$ mice will be needed to

test directly for a role of apoptosis in VWMD pathology, as these data suggest.

Discussion

Our data show that conditional deletion of anti-apoptotic *Mcl-1* in neuro-glial

stem cells results in a progressive encephalopathy with post-natal white matter

degeneration. While prior studies have shown increased apoptosis in embryonic

and adult neural progenitors resulting from *Mcl-1* deletion (3, 40, 41), our data show

that mice with brain-wide *Mcl-1* deletion are viable at birth and show normal brain

anatomy through P7. In the postnatal brain of *Mcl-1^{cKO}* mice, however,

differentiating oligodendrocytes underwent spontaneous apoptosis, resulting in

impaired myelination and white matter degeneration, with preserved astrocyte

populations. Bergmann glia also degenerated, disrupting granule neuron migration;

the presence of both appropriately guided granule neurons in the IGL and ectopic

granule neurons confirms that Bergmann glia were present in the early postnatal

period and lost during the granule neuron migration period. While astrocyte

populations were not decreased, astrocytes showed altered phenotypes, with

increased expression of NESTIN and GFAP. Microglia were also increased and the

microglial and astrocytic changes together suggest a reactive process, set in motion

by apoptosis of MCL-1-dependent cell types.

The rescue of the $Mcl-1^{cKO}$ phenotype by co-deletion of Bak or Bax implicate

apoptosis as the process causing white matter loss in $Mcl-1^{cKO}$ mice. These studies

show that oligodendrocytes are primed for apoptosis and depend on MCL-1 protein

to prevent inappropriate triggering of cell death programs. This apoptotic priming

may contribute to the pathogenesis of diverse disorders that disproportionately

affect CNS white matter.

Our data show that MCL-1 dependence is not homogeneous across glial

subtypes, as $Mcl-1$-deleted astrocyte and OPC populations remain stable in size.

Moreover, the different rescue effects seen with co-deletion of Bax or Bak in $Mcl-1$-

deleted mice demonstrate that myelination defects and white matter loss can be

dissociated. Co-deletion of Bak rescued both myelination, mature oligodendrocyte

populations, and white matter loss. In contrast co-deletion of Bax reduced white

matter loss without rescuing myelination or mature oligodendrocyte populations.

These differences show that different types of glial cells with different, MCL-1-

dependent mechanisms of apoptosis regulation, contribute to white matter

development and stability and to the pathology of the $Mcl-1^{cKO}$ phenotype.

Maintaining different thresholds for BAK-dependent and BAX-dependent

apoptosis does not require different patterns of Bak and Bax expression. Prior

studies show that both BAX and BAK drive apoptosis in cerebellar granule neuron

progenitors, under different conditions. These cells undergo BAX-dependent

apoptosis after radiation-induced DNA damage (42), but BAK-dependent apoptosis

requires the more intense trigger of *Atr* deletion and resulting chromosomal

fragmentation (11). Thus brain cells that express both BAX and BAK can show

different sensitivities for triggering BAX-dependent or BAK-dependent apoptosis.

Similarly, specific subsets of glia may regulate BAX-dependent and BAK-dependent

apoptosis through different mechanisms. Our BAK rescue studies show that

myelinating oligodendrocytes regulate apoptosis specifically through MCL-1:BAK

interactions. The more limited rescue pattern with *Bax* co-deletion, which prevented

white matter degeneration without normalizing myelination, demonstrates that a

different type of glial cell requires both BAK and BAX to be present for *Mcl-1*

deletion to produce phenotype changes. Thus, different types of glial cells depend

on MCL-1 to regulate different pro-apoptotic proteins, and the loss of this regulation

reproduces different aspects of the overall pathology. The loss of multiple subsets

of glial cells may similarly contribute to different aspects of the leukodystrophy

pathology.

Oligodendrocyte-specific apoptosis is observed in diverse leukodystrophies,

including Pelizaeus-Merzbacher Disease (43), Pelizaeus-Merzbacher-like Disease

(44), VWMD (45), and in the *twitcher* mouse model of globoid cell leukodystrophy

(46). In each of these disorders, different mutations trigger different pathogenic

processes with a final common result of inducing apoptosis in the oligodendrocyte

lineage. Moreover, in these diverse disorders, apoptosis occurs as oligodendrocyte

precursors differentiate into myelinating oligodendrocytes, as we found in *Mcl-1^{cKO}*

mice. We propose that MCL-1 dependence contributes to the vulnerability of

differentiating oligodendrocytes in diverse white matter disease states. In this

611 context, our rescue studies show that blocking BAK or BAX can enhance

612 oligodendrocyte survival, suggesting that treatments that inhibit the intrinsic

613 apoptotic pathway in the postnatal brain may provide an avenue for reducing the

614 impact of diverse leukodystrophies. Recent studies in the jimpy mouse model of

615 Pelizaeus-Merzbacher disease support the potential for blocking apoptosis to block

616 disease progression, as blocking ferroptosis through iron chelation improved

617 myelination (43). Similarly, intracerebral treatment of jimpy mice with antisense

618 oligonucleotides that inhibit PLP1 expression rescued white matter degeneration

619 (47) and blocking BAK and BAX expression with similar methods may treat diverse

620 white matter-specific disorders.

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633

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<u>Supplementary Figures</u>

Supplementary Figure 1. *hGFAP-Cre* conditionally deletes *Mcl-1* in regions
throughout the brain and conditional Mcl-1 deletion driven by *Nestin-Cre*
produces a similar phenotype. A) *hGFAP-Cre* induces expression of the
fluorescent reporter DENDRA2 in *hGFAP-cre/Pham* mice, indicating regions of
GFAP expression. *hGFAP-Cre* targets cells in diverse regions throughout the brain,
including the cerebellum, hippocampus, and cortex. **B)** MCL-1 protein levels are
significantly reduced in cerebella of *Mcl-1^{cKO}* mice. **C)** Like *Mcl-1^{cKO}* mice, *Nestin-*
Cre/Mcl-1$^{loxP/loxP}$ mice showed white matter degeneration that was rescued by
heterozygous *Bak* co-deletion.

Supplementary Figure 2. Open field rearing behavior changes and absence of retinal pathology in *Mcl-1cKO* mice. A) Decreases rearing in *Mcl-1cKO* mice at P14 and P21. **B)** Normal-appearing retina in *Mcl-1cKO* mice at P15, when brain pathology is fulminant. Scale bar = 0.1mm.

Supplementary Figure 3. Immunofluorescence for cC3 and SOX10 in *Mcl-1^{cKO}*
mice and controls at P11. SOX10 is significantly decreased, but no statistically
significant changes are noted in the total cC3+ cells or cC3+ cells within the SOX10+
subset.

<u>Figure Legends</u>

Figure 1. *Mcl-1* deletion causes progressive white matter degeneration. Brains

of representative *Mcl-1^{cKO}* mice shown in H&E-stained sagittal sections appear

similar to controls at P7. By P14, *Mcl-1^{cKO}* mice develop white matter degeneration

with ventricular enlargement (*) and abnormal migration of cerebellar granule

neurons (arrows). White matter loss increases by P21.

Figure 2. *Mcl-1* deletion causes progressive neurologic impairment. (**A**)

Reduced weight gain in *Mcl-1^{cKO}* mice compared to controls. (**B**) *Mcl-1^{cKO}* mice

show normal motor function at P7, with altered motor function by P14 and (**C**)

increased hind-limb clasping at P18. (**D**) *Mcl-1^{cKO}* mice show increased startle in

response to auditory stimuli at P14, and reduced elicited movement at P21. *, ** and

*** denote $p < 0.05$, $p < 0.01$ and $p < 0.001$ respectively, relative to controls.

Figure 3. *Mcl-1* deletion causes white matter degeneration by increasing

apoptosis. (**A**) TUNEL demonstrates increased cell death in *Mcl-1^{cKO}* brains. For

cell counts, one sagittal section from each replicate was scanned at 20x and

TUNEL+ cells were counted across the entire portion of each designated region that

was contained within the section. (**B**) Representative H&E sections show that

heterozygous *Bak* co-deletion and homozygous *Bax* co-deletion both rescue the

white matter loss with ventricular enlargement (*) and cerebellar abnormalities

caused by *Mcl-1* deletion. (**C**) Quantification of BAK immunohistochemistry in

corpus callosum shows that heterozygous *Bak* deletion significantly reduces the

number of BAK+ cells. Quantification of western blot of whole cerebella shows that

homozygous *Bax* deletion reduces BAX protein abundance. *, ** and *** denote

$p < 0.05$, $p < 0.01$ and $p < 0.001$ respectively, relative to controls.

Figure 4. Abnormal neuroimaging and myelination in *Mcl-1*-deleted mice, with

different rescue effects caused by co-deletion of *Bak* or *Bax*. (**A**)

Representative MRIs show white matter hyperintensity in *Mcl-1^{cKO}* mice. (**B**) Total

ventricular volume is abnormal in *Mcl-1^{cKO}* mice and increases from P7-P21, while

the volume of the 4th ventricle decreases significantly by P21. (**C,D**) Representative

images and quantitative analysis of MBP IHC show that myelination is markedly

decreased in *Mcl-1^{cKO}* mice, rescued in *Mcl-1^{cKO}/Bak$^{+/-}$* mice, and incompletely

rescued in *Mcl-1/Bax^{dKO}* mice. **(D)** Graphs show MBP+ area/total area within

individual sections, normalized to the mean value in the control mice. *, ** and ***

denote $p<0.05$, $p<0.01$ and $p<0.001$ respectively, relative to controls.

Figure 5. *Mcl-1* deletion causes loss of oligodendrocytes and Bergmann glia

that is rescued with regional variation by co-deletion of *Bak* or *Bax*. (**A,B**)

Representative images and quantification of SOX10 and PDGFRA IHC in the

indicated genotypes. (**C**) Representative immunofluorescence for GFAP and SOX2

IHC identify Bergmann glia in P14 mice of indicated genotypes. (**D**) SOX2+ cells are

significantly reduced in *Mcl-1^{cKO}* mice. * and ** denote $p<0.05$ and $p<0.01$

respectively, relative to controls.

Figure 6. *Mcl-1* deletion causes reactive astrocytosis. (**A**) Representative GFAP

IHC in sections of P14 cerebella in the indicated genotypes shows Bergmann glia

processes in the control mice that are absent in the *Mcl-1^{cKO}*, and numerous

astrocyte processes in the *Mcl-1^{cKO}* mice. (**B**) Representative SOX9 IHC in sections

of P14 corpus callosum in the indicated genotypes show a significant decrease of

SOX9+ cells in the *Mcl-1^{cKO}* mice. (**C**) Quantification of SOX9 IHC at the indicated

ages and genotypes, showing that astrocyte numbers are not increased in *Mcl-1^{cKO}*

mice. (**D,E**) Nestin/GFAP IHC, with representative images and quantification in the

indicated genotypes. * and ** denote p<0.05 and p<0.01 respectively, relative to

controls.

Figure 7. Progressive neuroinflammation in *Mcl-1^{cKO}* mice and reduced MCL-1

protein in mice with VWMD. (**A,B**) IBA1 IHC, with representative images and

quantification in the indicated genotypes, showing a progressive increase in

microglia in *Mcl-1^{cKO}* mice, beginning in the corpus callosum at P14 and expanding

to include diverse regions by P21. Co-deletion of *Bak* or *Bax* variably rescue

microgliosis with different effects in different regions. *, ** and *** denote p<0.05,

p<0.01 and p<0.001 respectively, relative to controls. (**C**) Western blot comparing

MCL-1 protein abundance in brain lysates of 7- and 10-months old WT and

eIF2B5^{R132H/R132H} mice, demonstrating reduced MCL-1 in 10-month old mutant mice.

* denotes p<0.03, relative to controls.

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