Leukodystrophy resembling Vanishing White Matter Disease is

recapitulated by brain-specific depletion of apoptosis regulator MCL-1

Running title: MCL-1 is required for white matter integrity

Abigail H. Cleveland[1,2], Alejandra Romero[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)

SUMMARY

Diverse mutations cause leukodystrophies through unresolved processes. Developing leukodystrophy therapies requires identifying mechanisms that operate downstream of causative mutations to produce white matter degeneration. We have identified the apoptosis regulator MCL-1 as required for white matter stability and depleted by leukodystrophy-causing mutations. Brain-specific deletion of *Mcl-1* in mice recapitulates progressive leukodystrophy, with MRI changes, decreased oligodendrocytes, and astrocytic and microglial changes typical of Vanishing White Matter Disease (VWMD). Disabling apoptosis through co-deletion of *Bax* or *Bak* rescued white matter *Mcl-1*-dependence, broadly implicating the intrinsic apoptotic pathway in leukodystrophy pathogenesis. *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 mice that model VWMD, suggesting a mechanistic relationship between MCL-1 and VWMD. Our data show that oligodendrocytes require MCL-1 to suppress apoptosis, implicate MCL-1 loss in VWMD pathogenesis, and suggest inhibiting apoptosis for leukodystrophy therapy.

Introduction

Leukodystrophies are a heterogeneous group of severe neurodegenerative disorders marked by progressive white matter disruption (Raymond, 2017, van der Knaap and Bugiani, 2017). The age of onset varies in each leukodystrophy, but patients typically become symptomatic during childhood, after a latent, asymptomatic period (Kohler et al., 2018, Kohlschutter and Eichler, 2011). Patients with leukodystrophies may experience progressive symptoms including ataxia,

dementia, hallucinations, seizures, coma, and death (Vanderver et al., 1993). There

is currently no specific targeted therapy that has been clinically implemented to

arrest the progression of any leukodystrophy.

Diverse pathogenic mutations have been linked to different leukodystrophies

(van der Knaap and Bugiani, 2018), but the mechanistic processes through which

specific mutations cause white matter degeneration are incompletely understood.

Mutations in the apoptotic regulator *APOPT1* (aka *COA8*) cause Progressive

Cavitating Leukoencephalopathy, suggesting a role for inappropriate apoptosis in

this disease (Melchionda et al., 2014, Yasuda et al., 2006). However, it is not clear

why this mutation specifically affects cells of the white matter. Mutations in *eIF2B*

subunits result in Vanishing White Matter Disease (VWMD), another leukodystrophy

similarly marked by white matter cavitation (Bugiani et al., 2018, van der Knaap et

al., 1997, van der Knaap et al., 1993). The causative role of *eIF2B* mutations

implicates impaired mRNA translational regulation in VWMD pathogenesis,

associated with activation of the Integrated Stress Response (ISR) (van der Knaap

et al., 2006, Fogli et al., 2002, Leegwater et al., 2001, Bugiani et al., 2010, Abbink et

al., 2019, Kantor et al., 2005). Prior studies have not identified a role for apoptosis

in VWMD causation, as seen in Progressive Cavitating Leukoencephalopathy, and

whether a common pathogenic process unites these similar phenotypes is unclear.

Studies in *eIf2b5* [R132H/R132H] mice provide insight into the disproportionate

effect of *eIF2B* mutations on white matter. These mice develop leukodystrophy

resembling VWMD and show impaired mitochondrial function in fibroblasts,

astrocytes, and oligodendrocytes (Herrero et al., 2019, Raini et al., 2017, Geva et

al., 2010). These studies suggest that *eIF2B* mutations disproportionately affect

white matter because glia are more dependent than other types cells on accurate

translational regulation and mitochondrial function (Elroy-Stein, 2017). However,

several unresolved steps are required to connect the biological processes that have

been found to be disrupted in Progressive Cavitating Leukoencephalopathy and

VWMD to the observed disease process of progressive leukodystrophy.

Identifying proteins that are both required for white matter integrity and

affected by *eIF2B* mutations may show specific mechanisms that link VWMD

genotype and phenotype. Defining these mechanistic links may show why diverse

leukodystrophy mutations produce the final common pathology of white matter

degeneration. Identifying proximal mediators of white matter degeneration may also

provide important insight into leukodystrophy pathogenesis and treatment.

Here we report that mice with conditional deletion of the anti-apoptotic

regulator *Mcl-1* targeted to brain stem cells develop progressive postnatal white

matter degeneration that recapitulates the phenotype of human leukodystrophies,

particularly VWMD. MCL-1 promotes the survival of different cell lineages through

its ability to inhibit the pro-apoptotic proteins BAK and BAX, the main effectors of

cell death in mammalian cells. Importantly, MCL-1 is a mitochondrial protein that is

translationally suppressed by ISR activity (Fritsch et al., 2007), while VWMD

disrupts mitochondria and activates the ISR, raising the possibility the MCL-1

deficiency could play a role in the VWMD phenotype.

Mcl-1-deleted mice were born with normal brain anatomy and show normal

motor control and behavior at postnatal day 7 (P7), but then develop increasingly

severe ataxia, abnormal motor responses, and extensive white matter atrophy. This

white matter-predominant neurodegenerative process closely matches the course of

human leukodystrophies with similar postnatal onset of symptoms, MRI changes,

progressive white matter degeneration, reduced oligodendrocyte populations,

astrocytic abnormalities, and microglial accumulation. Mutations that block the

intrinsic apoptotic pathway rescued the phenotype of *Mcl-1* deletion, implicating

apoptosis in leukodystrophy pathogenesis, and suggesting a potential approach to

therapy.

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-1$^{loxP/loxP}$* mice that harbor loxP sites around exon 1 of the *Mcl1* locus

(Dzhagalov et al., 2007), 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 (Supp fig. 1A-B) (Zhuo et al., 2001, Kuang et al., 2012).

The resulting *hGFAP-Cre/Mcl-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.

Examination of the brains of *Mcl-1^{cKO}* 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. 1,

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. 1). Replacing *Gfap-Cre* with *Nestin-Cre* which similarly drives

recombination in multipotent glio-neuronal stem cells, generating mice with the

genotype *Nestin-Cre/Mcl-1^loxP/loxP*, similarly resulted in white matter-specific

degeneration (Supp Fig. 2). 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 and gained weight similarly to

controls but by P14, *Mcl-1^{cKO}* mice showed reduced weight gain (Fig. 2A) and

progressive neurologic impairment. *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).

Test	WT	*Mcl-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

Table 1. Neonatal behavior testing showed no effects of *Mcl-1^{cKO}* genotype

at P7. Each test was performed on 48 replicate WT pups and 13 replicate *Mcl-*

1^{cKO} pups at P7. Measures included latency to turn on a tilted screen in a test for

geotaxis, and latency to turn over in a righting test. Pivots were counted by an

experimenter during a 3-min open field test. One-way ANOVA found no

statistically significant differences.

In contrast to the similar behaviors at P7, by P14 *Mcl-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; Supp fig. 1C). P18 *Mcl-1^cKO* mice also 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 (Guyenet et al., 2010, Nakamura et al., 2016). 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). By P21, when motor function was significantly impaired, the amplitude of acoustic startle response was markedly diminished compared to controls. *Mcl-1^cKO* mice thus show reduced inhibition in response to sensory stimuli at P14, and reduced motor responses at later ages. The motor and sensory tests show progressive behavior abnormalities that correspond temporally with the white matter degeneration, beginning at P12 and worsening by P18-21.

Figure 2. *Mcl-1* deletion causes progressive motor impairment and white matter degeneration. (**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.

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

To determine if white matter degeneration in *Mcl-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, or at

P14, after white matter loss was evident (data not shown). However, TUNEL

staining, performed at P11 when white matter loss was developing, demonstrated

increased cell death in *Mcl-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-1^{cKO}* phenotype.

We repeatedly intercrossed *Mcl-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-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. (**D**) Representative
images of the corpus callosum in P14 mice of the indicated genotypes shows mild
white matter rarefaction in *Mcl-1/Bax^{dKO}* mice, not seen in *Mcl-1^{cKO}/Bak$^{+/-}$* mice. *, **
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. Compared to *Mcl-1^{cKO}* mice, *Mcl-1/Bax^{dKO}* mice showed
greatly reduced neurologic deficits; however, we noted that by 200 days, *Mcl-*
1/Bax^{dKO} showed a slight delay in movement on opening the cage that was not seen
in *Mcl-1^{cKO}/Bak$^{+/-}$* mice. The extensive white matter loss in *Mcl-1^{cKO}* mice was
rescued in *Mcl-1/Bax^{dKO}* mice (Fig. 3B). Close examination of brain sections from
Mcl-1/Bax^{dKO} mice, however, showed mild white matter loss (Fig. 3D). 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. The mild neurologic deficits and white matter loss in *Mcl-*
1/Bax^{dKO} mice showed that co-deletion of *Bax* and *Bak* do not have identical effects
in *Mcl-1*-deleted animals.

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.

Mcl-1 deletion phenocopies human leukodystrophies

Leukoencephalopathies in patients produce characteristic MRI findings,

including high water signal in white matter tracts (Vanderver et al., 1993), and the

replacement of white matter by cerebrospinal fluid (van der Knaap et al., 1993). We

analyzed whether *Mcl-1^cKO* mice showed similar white matter changes on MRI.

Similar to VWMD patients, *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).

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

showed that myelination required MCL-1 specifically to regulate BAK. 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 affecting white matter maintenance,

and only BAK affecting 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 marker SOX10 in *Mcl-1*^{cKO} and control mice (Fig. 5A). SOX10

marks the oligodendrocyte lineage from the initial fate commitment in

oligodendrocyte precursors to the maturation of myelinating oligodendrocytes

(Glasgow et al., 2014, Nishiyama et al., 2016); SOX10 cell counts thus reflect the

total oligodendrocytic population across the differentiation spectrum. 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 (Fig. 5B), indicating a global decrease in oligodendrocytic cells. At

P21, oligodendrocytic populations remained reduced in the cerebellum, corpus

callosum, and superior colliculus, but were not statistically significantly reduced in

the hippocampus and cerebral cortex, raising the possibility of a dynamic,

homeostatic response in these gray matter regions.

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 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.

To determine if apoptosis mediates the decline in the oligodendrocyte populations in *Mcl-1*-deleted mice, we examined the effect of *Bax* or *Bak* co-deletion

in *Mcl-1^{cKO}/Bak$^{+/-}$* and *Mcl-1/Bax^{dKO}* mice. Heterozygous *Bak* co-deletion in *Mcl-*

1^{cKO}/Bak$^{+/-}$ mice normalized oligodendrocyte population size, but homozygous *Bax*

deletion in *Mcl-1/Bax^{cKO}* mice did not (Fig. 5B). *Bak* co-deletion thus rescued the

effects of *Mcl-1* deletion on white matter volume, myelination, and total

oligodendrocyte populations. In contrast, *Bax* co-deletion rescued only white matter

volume, but myelination and oligodendrocyte numbers remained affected in *Mcl-*

1/Bax^{dKO} mice. The discordant effects of *Bak* and *Bax* co-deletions suggest that

MCL-1 discretely controls BAK-dependent apoptosis or BAX-dependent apoptosis

in different types of white matter cells.

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 their known involvement in VWMD (Dooves et al., 2016),

and 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 (Hatten, 1990, Rakic, 1971). 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 alters the astrocytic populations

While *Mcl-1^{cKO}* mice contained fewer Bergmann glia*,* we noted increased

numbers of GFAP+ astrocytic processes throughout the brain, that was most

conspicuous 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). 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 (Eddleston

and Mucke, 1993, Dahl and Bignami, 1974).

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

reactive astrocytes (Tamagno and Schiffer, 2006, Schmidt-Kastner et al., 2005,

Sahin Kaya et al., 1999, Clarke et al., 1994), and prior studies report increased

Nestin-expressing astrocytes in white matter from humans with VWMD (Bugiani et

al., 2011). Similarly, *eIF2B5* $^{R191H/R191H}$ mice show increased astrocytes expressing

both Nestin and GFAP in the corpus callosum, compared to wildtype controls

(Dooves et al., 2016, Geva et al., 2010). To determine if *Mcl1*-deleted mice also

showed similar astrocytic changes, 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 5E), with a trend

toward increased fractions in other white matter regions, consistent with astrocytic

changes in VWMD patients and *eIF2B5* ^R191H/R191H^ mice. *Mcl-1^cKO* mice thus

recapitulated both the astrocytic and oligodendrocytic abnormalities seen in VWMD

in patients and the VWMD mouse models.

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.

Mcl-1 deletion causes neuroinflammation

Brains of *Mcl-1^cKO* mice contained increased cells expressing the myeloid

marker IBA1 (Fig. 7A), indicating microglial activation (Ito et al., 1998, Imai et al.,

1996). 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-neuronally restricted GFAP lineage induced

inflammatory changes in myeloid cells.

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^/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.

399   Decreased brain MCL-1 protein in a VWMD mouse model

Based on the similarity of the *Mcl-1^cKO* phenotype to VWMD, the role of the ISR in

VWMD, and the regulation of MCL-1 abundance by the ISR, we investigated

whether changes in MCL-1 protein might mediate the effect of mutant eIF2B on glial

cells. To begin to test this possibility, we compared MCL-1 abundance in brain

lysates from wildtype and *eIF2B5* $^{R132H/R132H}$ mice at 7 and 10 months old (Fig. 7C).

We found that by 10 months, *eIF2B5* $^{R132H/R132H}$ mice expressed reduced MCL-1

protein in the brain, indicating that the *eIF2B5* $^{R132H/R132H}$ mutation results in reduced

MCL-1 expression over time. In *eIF2B5* $^{R132H/R132H}$ mice, the temporal course of

reduced brain MCL-1 protein correlated with the development of VWMD symptoms.

Thus, along with our finding that MCL-1 deficiency in *Mcl-1* ^{cKO} mice was sufficient to

cause a VWMD phenotype, we found declining MCL-1 expression in *eIF2B5*

$^{R132H/R132H}$ mice that model VWMD.

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.

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 (Fogarty et al., 2019,
Hasan et al., 2013, Malone et al., 2012), our data show that brain-wide *Mcl-1*
deletion produces postnatal brain white matter degeneration that closely resembles
the human leukodystrophy VWMD. Although MCL-1 mutations have not been
described in any human leukodystrophy, the mechanisms of white matter injury in
human leukodystrophies are unresolved. Our studies show that disruption of MCL-
1-dependent apoptosis control in the entire brain specifically impacts white matter
and is sufficient to produce leukodystrophy.

The *Mcl-1^{cKO}* phenotype presented striking similarities to human
leukodystrophies, and most specifically to VWMD. Brain function and white matter
appeared normal in *Mcl-1^{cKO}* mice until after P7, when mice showed motor and
sensory impairment, delayed myelination, and rarefaction of the periventricular
white matter and corpus callosum, eventually leading to white matter loss and
hydrocephalus *ex vacuo*. Similar to VWMD, mature myelinating oligodendrocytes
were markedly reduced, Bergmann glia of the cerebellum were also affected, and
astrocytes showed reactive changes that are also seen in astrocytes in VWMD,
including up-regulation of GFAP and NESTIN. The similarity of the *Mcl-1^{cKO}* and

VWMD phenotypes, including the overall histopathology of vanishing white matter

and the specific loss of terminally differentiated oligodendrocytes and Bergmann

glia, show that *eIF2B* mutations and *Mcl-1* deletion affect specific cells of the brain

in a similar manner.

Taken together, reduced MBP and SOX10 demonstrate that within global

oligodendrocyte depletion of *Mcl-1^{cKO}* mice, mature, myelinating oligodendrocytes

are particularly affected. Studies in VWMD patients and mouse models show that

while mature oligodendrocyte populations are reduced, immature oligodendrocyte

precursors may actually be increased (Herrero et al., 2019, Bugiani et al., 2013). A

similar increase in immature oligodendrocytes may occur in the *Mcl-1^{cKO}* mice and

would not be inconsistent with the observed overall reductions in SOX10+ brain

cells and brain myelination.

The similarity of the *Mcl-1^{cKO}* phenotype to VWMD raises the possibility that

reduced MCL-1 protein abundance specifically contributes to VWMD pathology. The

known activation of the ISR in VWMD (Abbink et al., 2019, Kantor et al., 2005) and

the suppression of MCL-1 translation by the ISR together provide a potential

molecular mechanism to link the *Mcl-1^{cKO}* phenotype to VWMD. Consistent with this

proposed mechanism, we found reduced MCL-1 protein in *eIF2B5 $^{R132H/R132H}$* mice,

which correlated with the development of white matter pathology. While studies in

patient-derived samples could potentially test whether MCL-1 abundance is altered

in VWMD patients, these studies would require samples that preceded fulminant

white matter loss, in order to include oligodendrocyte populations that may be lost

through apoptosis. Our data show that MCL-1 deficiency is sufficient to reproduce

the VWMD phenotype in mice. Studies of *Bax* and *Bak* deletion in *eIF2B5* $^{R132H/R132H}$

mice would allow testing of whether apoptosis is required for VWMD.

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

apoptosis in the causation of white matter loss in *Mcl-1^{cKO}* mice. We previously

found that conditional *Mcl-1* deletion in cerebellar granule neuron progenitors does

not produce a phenotype of gray matter loss as these cells regulate BAX via the

homologous anti-apoptotic protein BCL-xL *(Crowther et al., 2013).* The specific

dependencies of different cell types on different anti-apoptotic factors is also seen

outside the nervous system, as in the myeloid lineage where neutrophils undergo

spontaneous apoptosis when *Mcl-1* is deleted, but macrophages survive

(Dzhagalov et al., 2007). Different cell types within broad lineages may thus require

different anti-apoptotic family proteins to regulate apoptosis, and the survival of

neurons and astrocytes in *Mcl-1^{cKO}* mice shows that within the broad lineage

derived from glio-neuronal stem cells, MCL-1 protein is specifically required by a

subset of cells at some point along the more narrow lineage of the

oligodendrocytes.

In addition to demonstrating the requirement for apoptosis in white matter

degeneration in *Mcl-1^{cKO}* mice, the *Bax* and *Bak* rescue studies demonstrate that

myelination defects and white matter loss can be dissociated. Co-deletion of *Bak*

rescued both myelination, oligodendrocyte populations, and white matter loss. In

contrast co-deletion of *Bax* reduced white matter loss without rescuing myelination

and oligodendrocyte populations. These differences show that different cell types

that can be differentiated by their apoptosis regulation contribute to different aspects

of the *Mcl-1^{cKO}* phenotype.

The possibility that BAX and BAK act in different cells with different

sensitivities does not require differential expression patterns. For example, prior

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

neuron progenitors, but under different conditions. BAX-dependent apoptosis in

these cells can be engaged either by radiation-induced DNA damage (Chong et al.,

2000), or by chromosomal fragmentation in the setting of *Atr* deletion (Lang et al.,

2016). In contrast, BAK-dependent apoptosis is not engaged by radiation, as

radiation induced apoptosis is blocked by *Bax* deletion(Crowther et al., 2013, Chong

et al., 2000); BAK-dependent apoptosis requires the more intense trigger of *Atr*

deletion and resulting chromosomal fragmentation (Lang et al., 2016). These prior

studies show that cells in the CNS that express both BAX and BAK can show

different mechanisms and 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, with

different, cell-type specific sensitivities and dependencies on MCL-1.

The rescue myelination by co-deletion of *Bak* but not *Bax* shows that

myelinating oligodendrocytes or their precursors regulate apoptosis specifically

through MCL-1:BAK interactions. The different rescue pattern with *Bax* co-deletion,

which prevented white matter degeneration without normalizing myelination, shows

that a different type of cell regulates white matter loss and requires both BAK and

BAX to be present for *Mcl-1* deletion to produce phenotype changes. Clearly,

diverse cell types are affected in both *Mcl-1*^{cKO} mice and VWMD patients (Bugiani et

al., 2018, Zhou et al., 2019). Our genetic rescue studies show that different types of

glial cells depend on MCL-1 to regulate different pro-apoptotic proteins, and that

loss of this regulation in different types of cells reproduces different aspects of the

overall pathology. The loss of multiple subsets of glial cells may similarly contribute

to different aspects of the overall VWMD phenotype.

While multiple mutations can cause leukodystrophies, for many of these

genetic diseases, the mechanistic steps from mutation to white matter loss remain

to be specified in detail. Our findings that MCL-1 deletion in neuro-glial stem cells

produces white matter degeneration, and that this degeneration is rescued by co-

deletion of *Bax* or *Bak* implicates the process of apoptosis in the causation of

leukodystrophy. Moreover, our rescue experiments show that apoptosis in multiple

cell types derived from neuro-glial stem cells contribute to different aspects of white

matter pathology. Treatments that inhibit the intrinsic apoptotic pathway in the

postnatal brain may provide an avenue for reducing the impact of diverse

leukodystrophies.

Acknowledgments: supported by R01NS088219 (TRG), R01NS102627 (TRG), and
R01NS1062 (TRG), T32CA071341 (AHC), 4R00CA178190 (VG), R35GM128915
(VG), and R21CA227483 (VG), U54 HD079124 (VDM,SM).
532

Author Contributions: Conceptualization, T.R.G. and V.G.; Methodology, A.H.C.,
V.D.M., S.M, T.R.G., V.G. and O.E-S.; Investigation, A.H.C, V.D.M., A.R., L.A.A.,
M.H.,; Writing – Original Draft, A.H.C. and T.R.G.; Writing – Review & Editing, O.E-
S., S.M., V.G. and T.R.G; Funding Acquisition, V.G., and T.R.G.;; Resources, O.E-
S., V.G., and T.R.G.; Supervision, S.M.,O.E-S., V.G., and T.R.G.

Methods

Mice

We generated *Mcl-1^{cKO}* mice, by crossing *GFAP-Cre* mice (Jackson Labs, stock #

004600) with *Mcl-1$^{LoxP/LoxP}$* mice (Dzhagalov et al., 2007), 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. We generated $EMX1-Cre/Mcl-1^{loxP/loxP}$ mice by breeding

EMX1-Cre mice, generously provided by Dr. William Snide, into the *Mcl-1 f/f* line. 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).

551   Wild type (C57BL/6 strain) and $eIF2B5^{R132H/R132H}$ mice (Geva et al., 2010)

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. (Geva et al., 2010) 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 (Ocasio

et al., 2019, Tech et al., 2017, Lang et al., 2016, Crowther et al., 2016). 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), 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 and 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 (Williams et al., 2015).

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 PD16, 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 (Cheh et al., 2006).

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 PD18-21, 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

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

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

Supplementary Figures

Supplementary Figure 1. *hGFAP-Cre* **conditionally deletes** *Mcl-1* **in regions throughout the brain. 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)** *Mcl-1^{cKO}* mice displayed decreased rearing at both P14 and P18.

Supplementary Figure 2. ***Nestin-Cre/Mcl-1$^{f/f}$*** **mice develop white matter degeneration similar to that of** ***Mcl-1^{cKO}*** **mice.** Similar to GFAP-Cre, Nestin-Cre targets cells of both the neural and glial lineage. Brains harvested from *Nestin-Cre/Mcl-1$^{f/f}$* mice showed ventricular dilation and white matter rarefaction by P30. Deletion of one copy of *Bak* rescued this phenotype in *Nestin-Cre/Mcl-1$^{f/f}$/Bak $^{-/+}$* mice.

References

ABBINK, T. E. M., WISSE, L. E., JAKU, E., THIECKE, M. J., VOLTOLINI-GONZALEZ, D., FRITSEN, H., BOBELDIJK, S., TER BRAAK, T. J., POLDER, E., POSTMA, N. L., BUGIANI, M., STRUIJS, E. A., VERHEIJEN, M., STRAAT, N., VAN DER SLUIS, S., THOMAS, A. A. M., MOLENAAR, D. & VAN DER KNAAP, M. S. 2019. Vanishing white matter: deregulated integrated stress response as therapy target. *Ann Clin Transl Neurol,* 6**,** 1407-1422.

BUGIANI, M., BOOR, I., POWERS, J. M., SCHEPER, G. C. & VAN DER KNAAP, M. S. 2010. Leukoencephalopathy with vanishing white matter: a review. *J Neuropathol Exp Neurol,* 69**,** 987-96.

BUGIANI, M., BOOR, I., VAN KOLLENBURG, B., POSTMA, N., POLDER, E., VAN BERKEL, C., VAN KESTEREN, R. E., WINDREM, M. S., HOL, E. M., SCHEPER, G. C., GOLDMAN, S. A. & VAN DER KNAAP, M. S. 2011. Defective glial maturation in vanishing white matter disease. *J Neuropathol Exp Neurol,* 70**,** 69-82.

BUGIANI, M., POSTMA, N., POLDER, E., DIELEMAN, N., SCHEFFER, P. G., SIM, F. J., VAN DER KNAAP, M. S. & BOOR, I. 2013. Hyaluronan accumulation and arrested oligodendrocyte progenitor maturation in vanishing white matter disease. *Brain,* 136**,** 209-22.

BUGIANI, M., VUONG, C., BREUR, M. & VAN DER KNAAP, M. S. 2018. Vanishing white matter: a leukodystrophy due to astrocytic dysfunction. *Brain Pathol,* 28**,** 408-421.

CHEH, M. A., MILLONIG, J. H., ROSELLI, L. M., MING, X., JACOBSEN, E., KAMDAR, S. & WAGNER, G. C. 2006. En2 knockout mice display neurobehavioral and neurochemical alterations relevant to autism spectrum disorder. *Brain Res,* 1116**,** 166-76.

CHONG, M. J., MURRAY, M. R., GOSINK, E. C., RUSSELL, H. R. C., SRINIVASAN, A., KAPSETAKI, M., KORSMEYER, S. J. & MCKINNON, P. J. 2000. Atm and Bax cooperate in ionizing radiation-induced apoptosis in the central nervous system. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences,* 97**,** 889-894.

CLARKE, S. R., SHETTY, A. K., BRADLEY, J. L. & TURNER, D. A. 1994. Reactive astrocytes express the embryonic intermediate neurofilament nestin. *Neuroreport,* 5**,** 1885-8.

CROWTHER, A. J., GAMA, V., BEVILACQUA, A., CHANG, S. X., YUAN, H., DESHMUKH, M. & GERSHON, T. R. 2013. Tonic activation of Bax primes neural progenitors for rapid apoptosis through a mechanism preserved in medulloblastoma. *The Journal of neuroscience : the official journal of the Society for Neuroscience,* 33**,** 18098-108.

CROWTHER, A. J., OCASIO, J. K., FANG, F., MEIDINGER, J., WU, J., DEAL, A. M., CHANG, S. X., YUAN, H., SCHMID, R., DAVIS, I. & GERSHON, T. R. 2016. Radiation Sensitivity in a Preclinical Mouse Model of Medulloblastoma Relies on the Function of the Intrinsic Apoptotic Pathway. *Cancer Res,* 76**,** 3211-23.

DAHL, D. & BIGNAMI, A. 1974. Heterogeneity of the glial fibrillary acidic protein in gliosed human brains. *J Neurol Sci,* 23**,** 551-63.

DOOVES, S., BUGIANI, M., POSTMA, N. L., POLDER, E., LAND, N., HORAN, S. T., VAN DEIJK, A. L., VAN DE KREEKE, A., JACOBS, G., VUONG, C., KLOOSTER, J., KAMERMANS, M., WORTEL, J., LOOS, M., WISSE, L. E., SCHEPER, G. C., ABBINK, T. E., HEINE, V. M. & VAN DER KNAAP, M. S. 2016. Astrocytes are central in the pathomechanisms of vanishing white matter. *J Clin Invest,* 126**,** 1512-24.

DZHAGALOV, I., ST JOHN, A. & HE, Y. W. 2007. The antiapoptotic protein Mcl-1 is essential for the survival of neutrophils but not macrophages. *Blood,* 109**,** 1620-6.

760 EDDLESTON, M. & MUCKE, L. 1993. Molecular profile of reactive astrocytes--implications for
761    their role in neurologic disease. *Neuroscience,* 54, 15-36.
762 ELROY-STEIN, O. 2017. Mitochondrial malfunction in vanishing white matter disease: a
763    disease of the cytosolic translation machinery. *Neural Regen Res,* 12, 1610-1612.
764 FOGARTY, L. C., FLEMMER, R. T., GEIZER, B. A., LICURSI, M., KARUNANITHY, A., OPFERMAN,
765    J. T., HIRASAWA, K. & VANDERLUIT, J. L. 2019. Mcl-1 and Bcl-xL are essential for
766    survival of the developing nervous system. *Cell Death Differ,* 26, 1501-1515.
767 FOGLI, A., WONG, K., EYMARD-PIERRE, E., WENGER, J., BOUFFARD, J. P., GOLDIN, E., BLACK,
768    D. N., BOESPFLUG-TANGUY, O. & SCHIFFMANN, R. 2002. Cree leukoencephalopathy
769    and CACH/VWM disease are allelic at the EIF2B5 locus. *Ann Neurol,* 52, 506-10.
770 FRITSCH, R. M., SCHNEIDER, G., SAUR, D., SCHEIBEL, M. & SCHMID, R. M. 2007. Translational
771    repression of MCL-1 couples stress-induced eIF2 alpha phosphorylation to
772    mitochondrial apoptosis initiation. *J Biol Chem,* 282, 22551-62.
773 GEVA, M., CABILLY, Y., ASSAF, Y., MINDROUL, N., MAROM, L., RAINI, G., PINCHASI, D. &
774    ELROY-STEIN, O. 2010. A mouse model for eukaryotic translation initiation factor 2B-
775    leucodystrophy reveals abnormal development of brain white matter. *Brain,* 133,
776    2448-61.
777 GLASGOW, S. M., ZHU, W., STOLT, C. C., HUANG, T. W., CHEN, F., LOTURCO, J. J., NEUL, J. L.,
778    WEGNER, M., MOHILA, C. & DENEEN, B. 2014. Mutual antagonism between Sox10
779    and NFIA regulates diversification of glial lineages and glioma subtypes. *Nat*
780    *Neurosci,* 17, 1322-9.
781 GUYENET, S. J., FURRER, S. A., DAMIAN, V. M., BAUGHAN, T. D., LA SPADA, A. R. & GARDEN,
782    G. A. 2010. A simple composite phenotype scoring system for evaluating mouse
783    models of cerebellar ataxia. *J Vis Exp.*
784 HASAN, S. M., SHEEN, A. D., POWER, A. M., LANGEVIN, L. M., XIONG, J., FURLONG, M., DAY,
785    K., SCHUURMANS, C., OPFERMAN, J. T. & VANDERLUIT, J. L. 2013. Mcl1 regulates the
786    terminal mitosis of neural precursor cells in the mammalian brain through p27Kip1.
787    *Development,* 140, 3118-27.
788 HATTEN, M. E. 1990. Riding the glial monorail: a common mechanism for glial-guided
789    neuronal migration in different regions of the developing mammalian brain. *Trends*
790    *Neurosci,* 13, 179-84.
791 HERRERO, M., MANDELBOUM, S. & ELROY-STEIN, O. 2019. eIF2B Mutations Cause
792    Mitochondrial Malfunction in Oligodendrocytes. *Neuromolecular Med,* 21, 303-313.
793 IMAI, Y., IBATA, I., ITO, D., OHSAWA, K. & KOHSAKA, S. 1996. A novel gene iba1 in the major
794    histocompatibility complex class III region encoding an EF hand protein expressed in
795    a monocytic lineage. *Biochem Biophys Res Commun,* 224, 855-62.
796 ITO, D., IMAI, Y., OHSAWA, K., NAKAJIMA, K., FUKUUCHI, Y. & KOHSAKA, S. 1998. Microglia-
797    specific localisation of a novel calcium binding protein, Iba1. *Brain Res Mol Brain Res,*
798    57, 1-9.
799 KANTOR, L., HARDING, H. P., RON, D., SCHIFFMANN, R., KANESKI, C. R., KIMBALL, S. R. &
800    ELROY-STEIN, O. 2005. Heightened stress response in primary fibroblasts expressing
801    mutant eIF2B genes from CACH/VWM leukodystrophy patients. *Hum Genet,* 118, 99-
802    106.
803 KOHLER, W., CURIEL, J. & VANDERVER, A. 2018. Adulthood leukodystrophies. *Nat Rev*
804    *Neurol,* 14, 94-105.
805 KOHLSCHUTTER, A. & EICHLER, F. 2011. Childhood leukodystrophies: a clinical perspective.
806    *Expert Rev Neurother,* 11, 1485-96.

KUANG, Y., LIU, Q., SHU, X., ZHANG, C., HUANG, N., LI, J., JIANG, M. & LI, H. 2012. Dicer1 and
MiR-9 are required for proper Notch1 signaling and the Bergmann glial phenotype in
the developing mouse cerebellum. *Glia*, 60, 1734-46.
LANG, P. Y., NANJANGUD, G. J., SOKOLSKY-PAPKOV, M., SHAW, C., HWANG, D., PARKER, J.
S., KABANOV, A. V. & GERSHON, T. R. 2016. ATR maintains chromosomal integrity
during postnatal cerebellar neurogenesis and is required for medulloblastoma
formation. *Development,* 143**,** 4038-4052.
LEEGWATER, P. A., VERMEULEN, G., KONST, A. A., NAIDU, S., MULDERS, J., VISSER, A.,
KERSBERGEN, P., MOBACH, D., FONDS, D., VAN BERKEL, C. G., LEMMERS, R. J.,
FRANTS, R. R., OUDEJANS, C. B., SCHUTGENS, R. B., PRONK, J. C. & VAN DER KNAAP,
M. S. 2001. Subunits of the translation initiation factor eIF2B are mutant in
leukoencephalopathy with vanishing white matter. *Nat Genet,* 29**,** 383-8.
MALONE, C. D., HASAN, S. M., ROOME, R. B., XIONG, J., FURLONG, M., OPFERMAN, J. T. &
VANDERLUIT, J. L. 2012. Mcl-1 regulates the survival of adult neural precursor cells.
Mol Cell Neurosci, 49**,** 439-47.
MELCHIONDA, L., HAACK, T. B., HARDY, S., ABBINK, T. E., FERNANDEZ-VIZARRA, E.,
LAMANTEA, E., MARCHET, S., MORANDI, L., MOGGIO, M., CARROZZO, R., TORRACO,
A., DIODATO, D., STROM, T. M., MEITINGER, T., TEKTURK, P., YAPICI, Z., AL-
MURSHEDI, F., STEVENS, R., RODENBURG, R. J., LAMPERTI, C., ARDISSONE, A.,
MORONI, I., UZIEL, G., PROKISCH, H., TAYLOR, R. W., BERTINI, E., VAN DER KNAAP,
M. S., GHEZZI, D. & ZEVIANI, M. 2014. Mutations in APOPT1, encoding a
mitochondrial protein, cause cavitating leukoencephalopathy with cytochrome c
oxidase deficiency. *Am J Hum Genet,* 95**,** 315-25.
NAKAMURA, A., SWAHARI, V., PLESTANT, C., SMITH, I., MCCOY, E., SMITH, S., MOY, S. S.,
ANTON, E. S. & DESHMUKH, M. 2016. Bcl-xL Is Essential for the Survival and Function
of Differentiated Neurons in the Cortex That Control Complex Behaviors. *J Neurosci,*
36**,** 5448-61.
NISHIYAMA, A., BOSHANS, L., GONCALVES, C. M., WEGRZYN, J. & PATEL, K. D. 2016. Lineage,
fate, and fate potential of NG2-glia. *Brain Res,* 1638**,** 116-128.
OCASIO, J. K., BATES, R. D. P., RAPP, C. D. & GERSHON, T. R. 2019. GSK-3 modulates SHH-
driven proliferation in postnatal cerebellar neurogenesis and medulloblastoma.
Development, 146.
RAINI, G., SHARET, R., HERRERO, M., ATZMON, A., SHENOY, A., GEIGER, T. & ELROY-STEIN,
O. 2017. Mutant eIF2B leads to impaired mitochondrial oxidative phosphorylation in
vanishing white matter disease. *J Neurochem,* 141**,** 694-707.
RAKIC, P. 1971. Neuron-glia relationship during granule cell migration in developing
cerebellar cortex. A Golgi and electronmicroscopic study in Macacus Rhesus. *J Comp*
Neurol, 141, 283-312.
RAYMOND, G. V. 2017. Leukodystrophy: Basic and Clinical. *Adv Neurobiol,* 15, 365-382.
SAHIN KAYA, S., MAHMOOD, A., LI, Y., YAVUZ, E. & CHOPP, M. 1999. Expression of nestin
after traumatic brain injury in rat brain. *Brain Res,* 840, 153-7.
SCHMIDT-KASTNER, R., AGUIRRE-CHEN, C., SAUL, I., YICK, L., HAMASAKI, D., BUSTO, R. &
GINSBERG, M. D. 2005. Astrocytes react to oligemia in the forebrain induced by
chronic bilateral common carotid artery occlusion in rats. *Brain Res,* 1052, 28-39.
TAMAGNO, I. & SCHIFFER, D. 2006. Nestin expression in reactive astrocytes of human
pathology. *J Neurooncol,* 80**,** 227-33.

TECH, K., TIKUNOV, A. P., FAROOQ, H., MORRISSY, A. S., MEIDINGER, J., FISH, T., GREEN, S.
C., LIU, H., LI, Y., MUNGALL, A. J., MOORE, R. A., MA, Y., JONES, S. J. M., MARRA, M.
A., VANDER HEIDEN, M. G., TAYLOR, M. D., MACDONALD, J. M. & GERSHON, T. R.
2017. Pyruvate Kinase Inhibits Proliferation during Postnatal Cerebellar
Neurogenesis and Suppresses Medulloblastoma Formation. *Cancer Res,* 77**,** 3217-
3230.
VAN DER KNAAP, M. S., BARTH, P. G., GABREELS, F. J., FRANZONI, E., BEGEER, J. H., STROINK,
H., ROTTEVEEL, J. J. & VALK, J. 1997. A new leukoencephalopathy with vanishing
white matter. *Neurology,* 48**,** 845-55.
VAN DER KNAAP, M. S. & BUGIANI, M. 2017. Leukodystrophies: a proposed classification
system based on pathological changes and pathogenetic mechanisms. *Acta*
Neuropathol, 134, 351-382.
VAN DER KNAAP, M. S. & BUGIANI, M. 2018. Leukodystrophies - much more than just
diseases of myelin. *Nat Rev Neurol,* 14**,** 747-748.
VAN DER KNAAP, M. S., FOGLI, A., BOESPFLUG-TANGUY, O., ABBINK, T. E. M. &
SCHIFFMANN, R. 1993. Childhood Ataxia with Central Nervous System
Hypomyelination / Vanishing White Matter. *In:* ADAM, M. P., ARDINGER, H. H.,
PAGON, R. A., WALLACE, S. E., BEAN, L. J. H., STEPHENS, K. & AMEMIYA, A. (eds.)
GeneReviews((R)). Seattle (WA).
VAN DER KNAAP, M. S., PRONK, J. C. & SCHEPER, G. C. 2006. Vanishing white matter disease.
Lancet Neurol, 5**,** 413-23.
VANDERVER, A., TONDUTI, D., SCHIFFMANN, R., SCHMIDT, J. & VAN DER KNAAP, M. S. 1993.
Leukodystrophy Overview - ARCHIVED CHAPTER, FOR HISTORICAL REFERENCE ONLY.
In: ADAM, M. P., ARDINGER, H. H., PAGON, R. A., WALLACE, S. E., BEAN, L. J. H.,
STEPHENS, K. & AMEMIYA, A. (eds.) *GeneReviews((R)).* Seattle (WA).
YASUDA, O., FUKUO, K., SUN, X., NISHITANI, M., YOTSUI, T., HIGUCHI, M., SUZUKI, T.,
RAKUGI, H., SMITHIES, O., MAEDA, N. & OGIHARA, T. 2006. Apop-1, a novel protein
inducing cyclophilin D-dependent but Bax/Bak-related channel-independent
apoptosis. *J Biol Chem,* 281**,** 23899-907.
ZHOU, L., LI, P., CHEN, N., DAI, L. F., GAO, K., LIU, Y. N., SHEN, L., WANG, J. M., JIANG, Y. W.
& WU, Y. 2019. Modeling vanishing white matter disease with patient-derived
induced pluripotent stem cells reveals astrocytic dysfunction. *CNS Neurosci Ther,* 25**,**
759-771.
ZHUO, L., THEIS, M., ALVAREZ-MAYA, I., BRENNER, M., WILLECKE, K. & MESSING, A. 2001.
hGFAP-cre transgenic mice for manipulation of glial and neuronal function in vivo.
genesis, 31**,** 85-94.

895