Developmental oligodendrocytes regulate brain function through the

mediation of synchronized spontaneous activity

Short title

Developmental oligodendrocytes regulate brain maturation

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Abstract:

Synchronized spontaneous neural activity is a fundamental feature of developing central

nervous systems and is thought to be essential for proper brain development. However,

the mechanisms that regulate this synchronization and its long-term impact on brain

function remain unclear. Here, we identify a previously unrecognized role of

oligodendrocytes in orchestrating synchronized spontaneous activity during a critical

developmental window, with lasting consequences for adult behavior. Using

oligodendrocyte-specific genetic manipulation in the mouse cerebellum, we

demonstrate that oligodendrocyte deficiency during early postnatal development, but

not after weaning, disrupts the synchronization of Purkinje cell activity both during

development and in adulthood. The early disruption produced persistent deficits in

cerebellar-dependent behaviors, including anxiety, sociality, and motor function.

Optogenetic re-synchronization in adulthood restored motor and social functions but not

anxiety-like behavior, demonstrating that reduced Purkinje cell synchrony specifically

drives the motor and social impairments. Our findings establish a causal link between

developmental oligodendrocyte-regulated neural synchrony and the emergence of

complex brain functions, which depend on the proper developmental trajectory

necessary for driving brain function.

Introduction

Even before sensory inputs are fully established, immature animals can respond to environmental cues and generate diverse outputs, implying that complex neural networks are pre-organized. This organization relies on robust developmental processes, among which spontaneous activity plays a central role in shaping neural circuits. During early postnatal development, spontaneous activity is highly correlated across neural populations in various species and systems (Kirkby *et al.*, 2013; Ackman & Crair, 2014). The widespread occurrence of correlated spontaneous activity suggests a universal principle of brain maturation, facilitating the formation of precise sensory maps and large-scale networks required for sensory processing and behavioral output.

In the developing central nervous system, correlated spontaneous activity initially manifests as synchronized patterns in localized or extensive regions (Adelsberger *et al.*, 2005; Good *et al.*, 2017; Babola *et al.*, 2018; Mizuno *et al.*, 2018; Murakami *et al.*, 2022; Fujimoto *et al.*, 2023). These patterns gradually transition to desynchronized states, as observed in the cortex, cerebellum, and olfactory bulb (Good *et al.*, 2017; Mizuno *et al.*, 2018; Fujimoto *et al.*, 2023). Despite extensive documentation of these patterns, the mechanisms that generate synchronized activity and their functional significance remain poorly understood. Oligodendrocytes are strong candidates for regulating synchronized spontaneous activity because they control myelination and conduction velocity (Pajevic *et al.*, 2014; Pajevic *et al.*, 2023). Myelin formation continues throughout life, but the majority occurs during postnatal development in many brain regions (de Faria *et al.*, 2021). However, how developmental oligodendrocytes contribute to brain maturation remains largely unknown.

Here we tried to determine the causal relationships among developmental

oligodendrocytes, synchronized spontaneous activity, and brain function in the mouse

cerebellum. The developing cerebellum is a suitable model, as the developmental

trajectory of synchronized activity is well characterized (Good *et al.*, 2017). To

manipulate oligodendrocytes during development, we used an adeno-associated virus

(AAV) vector with high oligodendrocyte specificity, enabling precise spatiotemporal

reduction of these cells in the developing cerebellum. We found that reducing

oligodendrocytes during the second to third postnatal week disrupted Purkinje cell (PC)

synchrony. Behavioral analyses further revealed that perturbing developmental

oligodendrocytes and synchronized activity led to lasting impairments in adult

cerebellar function, including anxiety-like behaviors, reduced social interactions, and

impaired motor coordination. Optogenetic re-synchronization in adulthood restored

motor and social functions but not anxiety-like behavior. These results suggest that

oligodendrocytes act as key regulators of synchronized spontaneous activity and are

essential for the proper development of brain function.

Materials and methods

Experimental animals

This study was conducted under the recommendations of the Regulations for Animal

Experiments and Related Activities at Tokyo Medical and Dental University. All animal

experiment were approved by the Committees on Gene Recombination Experiments

and Animal Experiments of Tokyo Medical and Dental University. All animals were

group housed and maintained on a 12hr:12hr light dark cycle. All efforts were made to

reduce the number of animals used and to minimize the suffering and pain of animals.

WT mice (C57BL6N, 6 days -16 weeks, Sankyo labo service) were used in this study.

Plasmids.

The human MAG gene promoter sequences were amplified by PCR from human

genomic DNA using primer pairs (Table. 1) and inserted into sites of hSyn promoter in

AAV-U6-sgRNA-hSyn-mCherry (a gift from Alex Hewitt, Addgene plasmid # 87916)

(AAV-hMAG-mcherry). hSyn promoter was removed by ApaI and BaMH1. The

promoter was cloned using the Gibson Cloning Assembly Kit (New England BioLabs)

following standard procedures. For AAV-hMAG-DTA, we amplified the DTA coding

sequence from the pAAV-mCherry-flex-dtA (a gift from Naoshige Uchida, Addgene

plasmid # 58536) using primer pairs (Table. 1) and cloned it into AAV-MAG-mcherry.

The sequences of jGCaMP7f gene and jGCaMP7s were amplified by PCR from pGP-

AAV-syn-jGCaMP7f-WPRE and pGP-AAV-syn-jGCaMP7s-WPRE (a gift from

Douglas Kim & GENIE Project, Addgene plasmid #104488 and #104487) and inserted

into sites of GFP in pAAV/L7-6-GFP-WPRE (a gift from Hirokazu Hirai, Addgene

plasmid # 126462) (pAAV-L7-6-jGCaMP7f and pAAV-L7-6-jGCaMP7s) and into sites

of GFP in pAAV-TRE-EGFP (a gift from Hyungbae Kwon, Addgene plasmid # 89875)

(pAAV-TRE-jGCaMP7f and pAAV-TRe-jGCaMP7s). For AAV-TRE-Kir2.1-T2A-

GFP, we amplified the sequences of Kir2.1-T2A-GFP from the pAAV hSyn FLEx-loxp

Kir2.1-2A-GFP (a gift from Kevin Beier & Robert Malenka, Addgene plasmid #

161574), and cloned it into sites of GFP in pAAV-TRE-EGFP. For AAV-TRE-

jGCaMP7f-T2A-Kir2.1, we amplified the sequences of jGCaMP7f and Kir2.1 from the

pGP-AAV-syn-jGCaMP7f-WPRE and pAAV hSyn FLEx-loxp Kir2.1-2A-GFP, and

cloned it into sites of GFP in pAAV-TRE-EGFP. For pAAV-TRE-rsChRmine-oScarlet,

we amplified the sequences of rsChRmine-oScarlet from the pAAV -CaMKIIa-

rsChRmine-oScarlet (a gift from Karl Deisseroth, Addgene plasmid # 183522) (Kishi *et*

al., 2022), and cloned it into sites of GFP in pAAV-TRE-EGFP. For pAAV-L7-6-tTA,

tTA was inserted into sites of GFP in pAAV/L7-6-GFP-WPRE.

AAV packaging and injection.

The AAVs were produced using standard production methods. HEK293 cells were

transfected with Polyethylenimine. AAV9, PHPeB (Chan *et al.*, 2017) and Olig001

(Powell *et al.*, 2016) were used. Virus was collected after 120 h from both cell lysates

and media. Purification Kit (Takara) was used for viral particle purification. All batches

produced were in the range 10^{10} to 10^{11} viral genomes per milliliter. The procedure for

viral vector injection has been modified from the previous lentivirus protocol(Uesaka *et*

al., 2014). 1-1.5 µL of viral solution were injected into the cerebellum of C57BL/6N

mice at 100 nl / min.

Immunohistochemistry.

Mice were perfused with 4% paraformaldehyde in 0.1 M phosphate buffer, and

processed for parasagittal microslicer sections (100 µm in thickness). After

permeabilization and blockade of nonspecific binding, the following antibodies were

applied for 2 days at 4 °C: an antibody against Car8 (Car8-GP-Af500 or Car8-Go-

Af780, diluted 1:300, Nittobo Medical) to visualize PCs; an antibody against S100b

(S100b-GP-Af630, 1:300, Nittobo Medical); an antibody against Iba (Wako 019-19741,

1:1000), an antibody against RFP (390004, 1:1000, Synaptic Systems or PM005, 1:500,

MBL), an antibody against MBP (NBP2-50035, 1:1000, Novus), an antibody against

ASPA (ABN16986, 1:1000, Merck), an antibody against vGluT2 (MSFR106290, 1:300,

Nittobo Medical), and/or an antibody against GFP (#06083-05, 1:1000, Nacalai

Tesque). After incubation with secondary antibodies (an anti-rat Alexa Fluor 488, an

anti-guinea pig Cy3, an anti-goat Alexa Fluor 488, an anti-goat Alexa Fluor 647, an

anti-mouse Cy5, an anti-rabbit Cy3, an anti-rabbit Alexa Fluor 488), the immunolabeled

sections were washed and then examined under a fluorescent microscope (BZ-X700 or

BZ-X800, Keyence).

In vivo calcium imaging.

Animals were put on a warm blanket and anesthetized with a mixture of midazolam (4 mg/kg body weight (BW)), butorphanol (5 mg/kg BW), and medetomidine (0.3 mg/kg BW). The depth of anesthesia was constantly monitored by observing pinch-induced forelimb withdrawal reflex. The skin and muscles over the skull were removed and a metal plate was fixed with dental acrylic cement over the lobule 5-7 of the cerebellar vermis. A craniotomy of 3 mm diameter was made and the dura mater was carefully removed. A sterile circular 3mm diameter glass coverslip (#CS01078 3mm diameter, Matsunami) was put directly on the dura mater and was secured in place with surgical adhesive (Alon-Alpha A, Sankyo). A custom-made metal headplate with a 5 mm circular imaging well was fixed to the skull over the cranial window with dental cement (Super-Bond, Sun-medical, Japan). The head of the mouse was immobilized by attaching the head plate to a custom-made stage. We then administered atipamezole (0.3mg/kg, anti-sedan) (100 μg/g of body weight, intraperitoneal injection) for anesthesia reversal. After a 10 - 15 minutes waiting period, in vivo calcium imaging was performed using an Olympus MVX10 fluorescence microscope or a two-photon microscope (Nikon, AX R MP) equipped with a ×16 objective lens (Nikon, CFI75 LWD 16X W) and an ultrafast laser (Axon 920-2 TPC). During the recordings, the animals were laid on a warm blanket to keep the body temperature at 37°C. Laser power for the two-photon microscope was maintained <20 mW at the sample. Images were obtained in a 2D plane (2048 x 2048 pixels) using Andor SOLIS software (Oxford Instruments, frame rate 5 Hz) or in a 2D plane (512 × 512 pixels) using Nikon NIS-Elements software (frame rate, 1 Hz) for the two photon microscope. Data were saved as TIFF files.

We resized raw calcium imaging videos (TIFF format) to a resolution of 512 x 512 pixels with an 8-bit depth using ImageJ (JAVA-based processing program, USA). We cropped out the unwanted areas. Regions of interest (ROIs) corresponding to the active PC dendrites were detected using the Suite2p software (Marius Pachitariu, GitHub). This software executed a two-dimensional phase-correlation-based non-rigid image registration in the XY plane, extracted the ROIs considered as PC dendrites, and calculated the fluorescence intensity changes in each ROI. ROIs were extracted using the parameters shown in Tanigawa et al., 2024 (Tanigawa *et al.*, 2024). We exported

these data as MAT files. The MAT files were imported into MATLAB R2023b

(MathWorks, USA) for further analysis using custom-made MATLAB routines. The

fluorescence intensity (F) was converted to $\Delta F/F0$ wave, expressed as $\Delta F/F0 = (F - $

$F0)/(F0)$, where F0 is the baseline fluorescence in the absence of calcium transients. F0

was defined as follows. First, we calculated a threshold as mean + 1 SD of the F wave

of each ROI, and then the F wave below the threshold was averaged to obtain F0.

Parameters such as amplitude, frequency, half-width, and area of each calcium transient

were quantified by the custom-made MATLAB routines. The correlation coefficient

among all ROI pairs was calculated as previously described (Tsutsumi *et al.*, 2015). The

resulting correlation matrix captured relationships among all ROI pairs in the dataset.

Behaviors.

Male mice from 2 to 3 months of age 6-7 days after AAV injection were used for

behavioral tests. Before the experiments, the mice were habituated in the testing areas

for at least 30 min. Mice behavior was recorded through the video camera set in the

experimental room. The open field test was performed in a 50 cm x 50 cm x 40 cm (W

x D x H) open field box for 10 min. Total distance mice traveled and the time in the

center and peripheral regions were automatically analyzed by the ImageJ software

(MouBeAT) (Bello-Arroyo *et al.*, 2018).

The sociality test was performed in the open field apparatus (50 x 50 x 40 cm,

W x D x H). The test consisted of a 10-min habituation session and a 10-min test

session. In the habituation session, mice were allowed to explore the open field freely.

In the test session, two quadrangular cages with slits (8 cm x 8 cm, 18 cm high) were

placed in two adjacent corners. One cage contained a novel mouse (8-week-old male

C57BL6N) and the other was a mouse doll, and a test mouse was first placed in the

outer regions of open field arena at the longest distance from these cages. The times

spent around the two cages areas (12 cm in diameter) were analyzed automatically with

the ImageJ software (MouBeAT). Social preference was assessed by the following

equation: Sociality index = $(T_{mouse})/(T_{doll})$ where T_{mouse} and T_{doll} are the staying time

around the mouse cage and that around the doll cage, respectively.

To assess motor coordination and motor learning, mice were subjected to a

rotarod test. Mice were placed on a resting state rotarod (model LE8205, Panlab) for

three consecutive days with two trials per day spaced 10 min apart (30 min and 40 min

after CNO injection). For each trial, the rotarod was accelerated linearly from 4 rpm to

40 rpm over 300 s. Latency to fall from the start of rotation was measured.

Optogenetic stimulation.

To manipulate PC synchrony, we expressed a red-shifted channelrhodopsin variant

selectively in PCs of control and DTA mice by stereotaxic injection of pAAV-TRE-

rsChRmine-oScarlet and pAAV-L7-6-tTA into the cerebellar vermis 2 weeks before

behavior tests. Mice were subjected to behavioral assays at P60-70. For light delivery,

we used a wireless optogenetic system (Teleopto; Bio Research Center Co., Ltd., Aichi,

Japan) equipped with a brain-surface LED probe (TeleLP-c, 590 nm). After making a

small midline skin incision, the LED probe was placed directly above the cerebellar

vermis on the intact skull and secured with dental cement (Super-Bond C&B). The

cement was coated with black nail polish to minimize light leakage. This approach

allowed stable illumination of the cerebellar surface without penetrating the tissue.

Probe placement was verified after the completion of behavioral experiments. During

behavioral testing, 590-nm light pulses (10 ms, 1 Hz) were delivered throughout the

task sessions using a Teleopto Remote Controller via an infrared emitter. Stimulation

was applied during open-field, three-chamber social interaction, and rotarod assays.

Illumination parameters were selected to evoke population-wide synchronous PC

spiking while minimizing nonspecific effects on locomotor activity.

Statistical analysis

All data are presented as mean ± SEM. Statistical significance was assessed by Mann-

Whitney U test for the comparison of two independent samples. To compare the two

different categorical independent samples on one dependent variable, Two-way

ANOVA with post-hoc test (Bonferroni correction) was used as indicated in the text.

For datasets in which multiple measurements were obtained from the same animal (e.g.,

multiple fields of view or recordings), statistical dependence within animals was

accounted for by performing nested ANOVA or nested t-tests, treating animal identity

as the nesting factor. This ensured that repeated measurements within the same animal

were not treated as independent replicates. Because the nested models yielded

comparable effect sizes to the Mann–Whitney tests, we have retained the mean $\pm$ SEM

for ease of comparison with prior literature but now also report all values for each

mouse in Table 1. Statistical analysis was conducted with GraphPad Prism program.

Differences between groups were judged to be significant when p values were smaller

than 0.05. *, **, ***, **** and ns represents $p < 0.05$, $p < 0.01$, $p < 0.001$, $p < 0.0001$

and not significant, respectively.

Results

Developmental oligodendrocytes regulate synchronized spontaneous activity

We tested the role of developmental oligodendrocytes in regulating synchronized spontaneous activity and brain function. We generated an oligodendrocyte-specific AAV (OL-AAV) containing a human myelin associated glycoprotein (hMAG) promoter and an oligodendrocyte-tropic capsid (Figure 1A). We focused on the developing mouse cerebellum in which synchronized spontaneous activity and its transition were observed during postnatal development (Good *et al.*, 2017). Myelination in the cerebellum appeared by postnatal day 5 (P5) and P7 (Figure supplement 1A-B).

Injection of OL-AAVs expressing mCherry into the cerebellum of P7 mice resulted in robust and selective labeling of cerebellar oligodendrocytes by P21, with >98% of mCherry-positive cells co-expressing the mature oligodendrocyte marker ASPA (Figure 1B-D). In contrast, mCherry was not detected in Olig2-positive but ASPA-negative immature oligodendrocyte-lineage cells, confirming specific targeting of mature oligodendrocytes (Figure supplement 1C-D). mCherry expression was restricted to the cerebellum and was not detected in extracerebellar regions (Figure 1E-G), confirming the regional specificity of this approach.

To selectively ablate oligodendrocytes, we injected OL-AAVs carrying Diphtheria toxin A (DTA) into the cerebellum of P7 mice. This manipulation resulted in a significant reduction of oligodendrocyte density (ASPA$^+$ cells) and myelin coverage (MBP staining) by P10 and P14 (Figure 1H-K and Figure supplement 1E). The density and coverage returned to control levels by P21 and remained normal in adulthood, indicating a transient but robust disruption of oligodendrocytes and myelination during

a defined developmental window. This temporal profile provided the opportunity to test

how developmental oligodendrocytes regulate PC activity synchrony and its maturation.

Despite the transient loss of mature oligodendrocytes, gross cerebellar morphology

remained indistinguishable from controls (Figure supplement 1F-G).

To determine whether other cell types were affected (Mathis *et al.*, 2003), we

examined microglia, astrocytes, PCs, and molecular layer interneurons in DTA-ablated

mice. IBA1 staining showed no differences in microglial density and IBA1 intensity

between DTA and control mice at both of P14 and P21 (Figure supplement Fig. 2A-D).

S100β staining showed no differences in Bergmann glia density and S100β intensity

(Figure supplement Fig. 2E-H). Parvalbumin (PV) immunostaining demonstrated that

PC density and dendritic arborization were preserved in DTA mice (Figure supplement

Fig. 2I-K). PV-positive interneurons in the molecular layer were present at normal

density in DTA mice (Figure supplement Fig. 2L). The same results were obtained at

P21 (Figure supplement Fig. 2M-P). Together, these results indicate that transient

developmental ablation of oligodendrocytes does not induce compensatory gliosis or

neuronal loss.

We next tested whether oligodendrocyte deficit affected synchronized

spontaneous activity in the cerebellar PC population (Figure 2A-B). Here, spontaneous

activity refers to neural events occurring in the absence of external sensory stimulation.

Developmental PCs display highly synchronized CF–driven activity in newborn mice

and undergo progressive desynchronization as development advances (Good *et al.*,

2017). In our imaging paradigm, regions of interest were restricted to the dendritic arbor

of PCs where calcium signals are dominated by climbing-fiber (CF) synaptic inputs

(Ramirez & Stell, 2016; Good *et al.*, 2017). In vivo calcium imaging of PCs revealed a

marked reduction in synchrony of spontaneous activity among PCs at P13-15 following

oligodendrocyte reduction in DTA mice (Figure 2C-F). This effect was observed across

both proximal and distal PC populations (Figure 2E-F), indicating a widespread

disruption of neural activity synchronization. Notably, other parameters such as

frequency, amplitude, and area of calcium transients remained unchanged (Figure 2G-I),

suggesting a specific effect on PC activity synchrony rather than general neural activity.

Having found that developmental oligodendrocyte loss decreases PC synchrony,

we next examined whether this effect originated from altered CF activity. We imaged

CF population activity by expressing jGCaMP7f in inferior olive neurons (Figure 3A).

Correlation analysis of CFs revealed that CF–CF synchrony, but not amplitude,

frequency, area, width, was significantly reduced in DTA mice at P13-15 (Figure 3B–

D), indicating that impaired CF coordination contributes to the reduction of PC

synchrony. Electrophysiological analyses showed that parallel-fiber EPSCs and

inhibitory synaptic inputs onto PCs were not significantly altered (Figure 3E–H),

making it unlikely that reduced synchrony results from altered excitatory or inhibitory

drive other than CF inputs. Together, these findings demonstrate that developmental

oligodendrocytes are required to maintain CF-driven PC synchronization during a

critical window of cerebellar maturation.

Developmental oligodendrocyte affects brain function

We next examined whether developmental oligodendrocytes and synchronized

spontaneous activity affect adult brain function. We first investigated the long-term

effects of oligodendrocyte reduction during cerebellar development on the synchrony of

PC activity in the adult cerebellum. We selectively ablated oligodendrocytes in early

postnatal mice and monitored PC activity as the animals matured. Developmental

reduction of oligodendrocytes caused persistent hyposynchrony of PC activity in

adulthood, whereas other parameters of PC activity remain unaffected (Figure 4). These

findings suggest that disturbances in oligodendrocyte function during development have

lasting consequences for brain function, underscoring the role of developmental

oligodendrocytes in sustaining neuronal synchrony across the lifespan.

328   Because developmental oligodendrocyte loss disrupted PC synchrony in

adulthood, we next asked how this perturbation impacts brain function at the behavioral

level. The cerebellum contributes not only to sensory-motor functions, including

chewing, postural control, tone, movement, the coordination of balance, eye

movements, and reflexes (Stoodley & Schmahmann, 2018; Algin *et al.*, 2023), but also

to cognitive, social, and emotional processes (Depping *et al.*, 2018; Schmahmann, 2019;

Van Overwalle *et al.*, 2020). To examine roles of developmental oligodendrocytes in

these brain function, we injected OL-AAVs with hMAG-mCherry or hMAG-DTA at

P6-7 into distinct cerebellar compartments (left, center, right) (Figure supplement Fig.

3) corresponding to functional domains (Manni & Petrosini, 2004; Guell *et al.*, 2018).

Behavioral assessments in adulthood unveiled that oligodendrocyte reduction during

development induced anxiety-like behavior specifically when targeted to the central

cerebellar region, without altering distance travelled, underscoring the compartment-

specific contribution to anxiety regulation (Figure 5A-C). Across all regions,

oligodendrocyte reduction led to reduced social interaction and impaired motor

coordination, as shown by reduced social approach to novel mouse and shorter latency

to fall in the Rotarod test, respectively (Figure 5D-G). These data indicate that developmental oligodendrocytes are essential for mental states, sociality, and motor function in adult stages.

Developmental oligodendrocytes during specific time windows affect brain functions

We next examined whether oligodendrocytes influence cerebellar function within specific developmental time windows. To address this, we administrated hMAG-DTA to the central cerebellum at postnatal week 3 (3W_DTA mice), shortly after weaning. In these mice, oligodendrocytes in the cerebellum were significantly reduced at 4 weeks (1 week after AAV injection) compared with control mice with only hMAG-mCherry, but returned to near-control levels by 2 months old (Figure 6A-C), indicating that the ablation was temporary. Calcium imaging of 3W_DTA mice at 4weeks old revealed no significant alteration for correlation coefficient and activity (Figure 6D-J). These results suggest that oligodendrocytes before and after the weaning exert distinct influences on PC activity. Behavioral assessments in adulthood of these mice uncovered no significant changes in anxiety or sociality (Figure 6K-O). However, 3W_DTA mice showed a subtle motor impairment as evidenced by shorter latency to fall at day3 in the Rotarod test (Figure 6P). These data suggest that oligodendrocytes before and after weaning make temporally distinct contributions to neural activity and brain function.

Synchronized spontaneous activity during development regulates brain functions

To test the causal link between synchronized PC activity during developmental stage and cerebellar function, we used an experimental strategy that selectively manipulated CF activity, which drives PC calcium transients. We reduced synchronized spontaneous activity of PC population by expressing Kir2.1, a potassium channel that reduces neuronal excitability, in a subset of CFs projecting to PCs. Co-injection of AAVs with EGFP or Kir2.1-T2A-GFP under the control of TRE promoter and AAVs with tetracycline transactivator (tTA) under the control of Htr5b promoter (Dorgans *et al.*, 2022) into the inferior olive at P7 labeled a subset of CFs in the cerebellum at P22 (Figure 7A-C). We quantified the proportion of PCs that received labeled CFs and found that PCs with GFP-labeled CFs were detected in 19.3 ± 11.9 % (mean ± S.D.) for control and 26.2 ± 11.8 % (mean ± S.D.) for Kir2.1 groups (Figure 7D). In vivo calcium imaging of CFs showed that activity of CFs with Kir2.1-T2A-jGCaMP7 was lower than that for CFs with only jGCaMP7 at P13-15 (Figure supplement 4A-D). In vivo calcium imaging of PC populations revealed that synchrony among distal PCs was unchanged, whereas synchrony among proximal PCs receiving Kir2.1-expressing CF inputs was significantly reduced at P13–15 compared with controls (Figure 7E-H). The frequency, amplitude and area of calcium transients were not significantly altered by Kir2.1 expression in a subset of CFs (Figure 7I-K). These results indicate that kir2.1 expression in a subset of CFs leads to reduced synchrony of proximal PC population activity.

Because Kir2.1 expression reduced PC synchrony during development, we next asked whether this manipulation also affected adult behavior. Behavioral testing at

2 months revealed that Kir2.1-expressing mice (injection of AAVs with Kir2.1 at P7)

showed a trend toward decreased distance travelled and percentage time spent in center

(Figure 7L-N). Kir2.1-expressing mice also exhibited reduced social interaction and

impaired motor coordination, as shown by reduced social approach to a novel mouse

and shorter latency to fall in the Rotarod test, respectively (Figure 7O-Q). These results

indicate that the behavioral consequences of developmental oligodendrocyte ablation

are phenocopied by experimentally reducing synchrony during development.

To directly test whether restoring PC synchrony in adulthood can rescue

behavior, we expressed a red-shifted opsin (AAV-L7-rsChRmine) selectively in PCs of

control and DTA mice and applied 590-nm light pulses (10 ms, 1 Hz) to the cerebellar

vermis during behavioral testing (Figure 8A–B). Periodic optogenetic re-

synchronization did not alter locomotor activity and anxiety-like behavior, as distance

traveled and open-field center time remained low in DTA mice (Figure 8C-D).

Unexpectedly, in control mice the same stimulation reduced center time (Figure 8E),

indicating that artificially elevating activity synchrony and firing rate of PCs can

enhance anxiety-like responses. In contrast, motor and social deficits in DTA mice were

significantly improved. Optogenetic stimulation rescued sociability, as measured by the

time spent interacting with a novel mouse (Figure 8F–G). The same stimulation restored

rotarod performance to control levels (Fig. 8H). On day 1 without light stimulation,

DTA mice with rsChrrmine expression performed similarly to DTA mice without

rsChrmine and showed reduced latency to fall compared with control mice with

rsChrmine. On day 2 and day 3 with light stimulation, DTA mice with rsChrmine

showed longer latency to fall than DTA mice without rsChrmine, reaching values

comparable to controls. These results demonstrate that reduced PC synchrony is the

primary driver of the observed motor and social impairments, whereas anxiety-like

behavior likely involves additional mechanisms. Together, these findings establish a

causal link between PC synchrony and specific behavioral domains and show that

periodic re-synchronization can normalize motor and social functions in adult mice that

experienced developmental oligodendrocyte loss.

420 Discussion

This study provides compelling evidence that oligodendrocytes play a crucial role

beyond their traditional functions in myelination, extending to the regulation of

synchronized spontaneous activity, and emphasizing the complexity of glial-neuronal

interactions in the developing brain. Moreover, our research illuminates the significance

of brain development following a proper course in brain function integrity

The interpretation of our synchrony measurements depends critically on the

cellular sources of PC calcium signals. Our calcium imaging approach was designed to

capture dendritic transients in PCs, which are overwhelmingly driven by CF complex

spikes (Good *et al.*, 2017). Previous work has shown that simple-spike (SS) bursts can

evoke modest Ca^{2+} rises, but these are restricted to the soma and proximal dendrites of

adult PCs and do not propagate into the distal dendritic arbor where our regions of

interest were defined (Ramirez & Stell, 2016). Consistent with these, in vivo imaging

showed that oligodendrocyte ablation reduced CF–CF synchrony at P14, directly

linking oligodendrocytes to impaired CF coordination and PC hyposynchrony. While

SS-dependent Ca^{2+} signals may still influence long-term circuit function, they likely do

not contribute to the synchrony observed here. Future somatic imaging and

electrophysiology will clarify whether oligodendrocytes also modulate SS activity.

438   In adult brain, adaptive myelination can induce and maintains synchrony of

spontaneous activity among neural populations (Kato *et al.*, 2020; Bonetto *et al.*, 2021;

Pajevic *et al.*, 2023). Developmental oligodendrocytes have been also speculated to

regulate the synchrony of neuronal activities (Jang *et al.*, 2019), and our study now

provides direct evidence for this role. Oligodendrocytes regulate synchrony in part

through myelin formation and plasticity, which modulate axonal conduction velocity,

while reciprocal neuronal signals drive myelination (Fields, 2015). Thus, bidirectional

oligodendrocyte–neuron interactions can shape the timing of circuit activity, and

alterations in these interactions may lead to desynchronization. Mechanistically,

oligodendrocytes can regulate synchrony through at least two complementary routes.

First, multilamellar myelin shortens membrane time constants and accelerates

conduction velocity, thereby reducing temporal dispersion of CF inputs and sharpening

coincidence detection in PCs. Second, mature oligodendrocytes provide metabolic

support—including lactate, cholesterol, and mitochondrial intermediates—that sustains

high-frequency axonal firing. Loss of this trophic support can prolong refractory periods

and promote excessive desynchronization, even in the absence of overt demyelination.

454   Our findings reveal that the timing of PC desynchronization coincides with the

initial appearance of oligodendrocytes and myelin in the cerebellum, with synchrony

declining from P3–P5 (Good *et al.*, 2017), just as myelin sheaths begin to emerge

(Figure supplement Fig. 1A-B). However, we found that genetic ablation of

oligodendrocytes and myelin during P7-P21 declined PC synchrony, indicating that

myelination could be not the trigger for desynchronization. Instead, these results suggest

that the loss of synchrony from P3-P5 is mediated by other mechanisms, such as

transient gap junction coupling or shared afferent drive, and that the onset of

myelination later serves to counterbalance these processes. In this view,

oligodendrocytes are not required to initiate the desynchronization of PC activity but

rather become essential afterward, once axons are ensheathed, to stabilize and maintain

the mature low-synchrony state. Based on these observations, we propose a two-phase

model. Phase I (P3–P7): High early synchrony is generated by non-myelin mechanisms,

including transient gap junctions and shared climbing-fiber input. Phase II (P7 onward):

As oligodendrocytes proliferate and ensheath axons, they fine-tune conduction velocity

and provide metabolic support, thereby stabilizing the network and maintaining the

mature low-synchrony state.

Correlated spontaneous activity has been shown to play a pivotal role in neural

development and the establishment of functional neural circuits especially in the

developing visual system (Kirkby *et al.*, 2013; Ackman & Crair, 2014). Retinal waves

observed in various species, play a fundamental role in developing interconnections

within the visual system including topographic maps. Recent study demonstrates that

retinal wave is not merely random but possesses an intrinsic directionality that prefig

the optic flow patterns encountered after eye opening. However, the effects of

correlated spontaneous activity during development on adult brain function remain

largely unknown. Our study suggests that synchronized spontaneous activity during

development play a crucial role in the subsequent brain function. These studies provide

new insights into specific information content carried by correlated spontaneous activity

and their influence on the development of brain functions including higher-order

function, extending beyond the previously understood role of these activity in neural

circuit maturation.

Our findings demonstrate that the impact of oligodendrocyte loss on cerebellar

synchronized activity and behavior is not merely transient but is gated by a narrow

developmental window. Ablating oligodendrocytes during the second postnatal week—

when myelination is beginning—produced a reduction in PC synchrony that was

already evident at P14 and persisted unchanged into adulthood (P60–P70), even though

oligodendrocyte density and MBP-positive myelin had fully recovered. The same early

manipulation also led to lasting anxiety-like behavior, impaired motor coordination, and

reduced sociability. By contrast, an equally robust ablation initiated after the third

postnatal week (from P21) caused only a transient fall in oligodendrocyte numbers and

had no measurable effect on synchrony or behavior. These results indicate that

developmental myelination and/or the associated metabolic support provided by

oligodendrocytes is indispensable for locking in the low-synchrony, high-fidelity state

of mature cerebellar circuits, whereas the disruption outside this critical period confers

little impact. Thus, the lasting network and behavioral consequences we observe stem

from a time-limited developmental requirement for oligodendrocyte function rather than

from chronic hypomyelination per se.

There is growing evidence that oligodendrocytes and myelin affect learning,

memory, and cognitive function (de Faria *et al.*, 2021; Munyeshyaka & Fields, 2022).

Moreover, numerous studies have reported the changes of white matter,

oligodendrocyte, and myelin in schizophrenia, autism spectrum disorders, depression,

and anxiety, suggesting that the deficit of oligodendrocytes and myelin may underlie

multiple brain disorders (Edgar & Sibille, 2012; de Faria *et al.*, 2021). However, it is

unclear when, where, and how oligodendrocytes and myelin are involved in the

functionalization of brain and the pathogenesis of these brain disorders. Our data

showing that synchronized spontaneous activity during development, controlled by

oligodendrocytes, is a precursor to the maturation of functional neural circuits and brain

functions provides a novel lens through which to examine the etiology of disorders

characterized by synaptic imbalances and dysregulation of neural activity. Supporting

this view, we found that reduced PC synchrony persists into adulthood after

developmental oligodendrocyte loss, and that optogenetic restoration of synchrony

rescues social and motor behaviors. Importantly, this effect cannot be explained by a

mere increase in firing frequency. PC calcium event rates did not differ between control

and DTA mice, and optogenetic stimulation of control mice did not further enhance

social interaction or rotarod performance. Thus, oligodendrocyte and myelination

abnormalities, and the resulting disruption of synchronized activity in neuronal

populations, may be new therapeutic targets for multiple brain disorders.

Mounting evidence indicates that even subtle shifts in the temporal

coordination of PC ensembles can cascade through cerebello–thalamo–cortical

pathways and reshape distributed brain dynamics underlying motor planning, emotional

regulation, and social cognition (Guell *et al.*, 2018; Stoodley & Schmahmann, 2018;

Lindeman *et al.*, 2021; McAfee *et al.*, 2021). Complex-spike synchrony is organized by

aldolase-C module boundaries, generating modular timing channels within the

cerebellar cortex (Tsutsumi *et al.*, 2015), and disrupting synchrony in a single module is

sufficient to alter behavior in real time (Tsutsumi *et al.*, 2019). During reinforcement

learning, these modules reorganize their synchrony into a handful of low-dimensional

components that track motor initiation, error prediction, and reward valuation (Hoang *et*

al., 2023), highlighting flexible coupling between cerebellar timing and higher-order

cognitive circuits. To test the behavioral relevance of this persistent hyposynchrony we

used optogenetics to transiently resynchronize PC ensembles in adult mice with DTA

during development. This manipulation restored sociability and motor coordination but

did not normalize anxiety-like behavior. These findings indicate that different

behavioral domains vary in their dependence on cerebellar synchrony, with motor and

social functions strongly reliant on precise Purkinje cell activity timing while anxiety

involves additional circuit mechanisms. More broadly, neural synchrony does not

operate in isolation within a single structure but propagates through cerebello–thalamo–

cortical loops to influence prefrontal, limbic and parietal networks. Thus, even localized

perturbations in Purkinje synchrony can acquire system-level significance and shape

distributed brain states that support cognition, affect and social interaction.

Given the pivotal role of oligodendrocytes in neural circuit maturation, future

research should aim to further dissect the molecular and cellular mechanisms

underpinning their influence on synchronized spontaneous activity. Understanding the

signaling pathways and interaction networks involved could open new therapeutic

avenues for addressing developmental brain disorders and enhancing neural repair after

injury.

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Materials availability

All unique/stable reagents generated in this study are available from the lead contact

upon request with a completed Materials Transfer Agreement.

Data and code availability

Requests for behavioral and/or calcium imaging data reported in this paper will be

shared by the lead contact upon reasonable request.

Any additional information required to reanalyze the data reported in this paper is

available from the lead contact upon reasonable request.

Figure captions

Figure 1 | DTA expression by oligodendrocyte-specific AAVs deletes oligodendrocytes in

the mouse cerebellum during the specific developmental period.

A, Diagram illustrating the injection of AAV-hMAG-mCherry and AAV-hMAG-DTA into the

mouse cerebellum at early postnatal days (P6-7). **B**, Fluorescence microscopy image showing

mCherry expression (red) in the section of cerebellum at P14 following AAV-hMAG-mCherry

injection at P7. Scale bar, 300 μm. **C**, Specificity of mCherry expression (red) in ASPA-positive

oligodendrocytes (green) at P14 by AAV-hMAG-mCherry injection at P7. Scale bar, 100 μm.

D, Scatter plot graph depicting the percentage of mCherry and ASPA double-positive cells

among mCherry-positive populations (8 regions from 2 mice). **E**, Low-magnification image

showing the distribution of MAG-mCherry expression across sagittal brain sections at P14 after

AAV-hMAG-mCherry injection at P7. Expression is confined to the cerebellum and absent in

extracerebellar regions. Scale bar, 500 μm. **F**, Higher-magnification views of regions indicated

in panel E. Robust mCherry expression is observed in the cerebellum (1), whereas no detectable

expression is found in the midbrain (2) or cerebral cortex (3). Scale bar, 200 μm. **G**,

Quantification of the regional specificity of MAG-mCherry expression. Scatter plots indicate

the percentage of mCherry-positive cells detected in the cortex, medulla, pons, and midbrain (4

regions from 2 mice). There was no mCherry-positive cell in these regions. **H**, Sequential

visualization of oligodendrocyte reduction over time, indicated by ASPA staining in cerebellar

sections from control (AAV-hMAG-mCherry) and DTA-treated (AAV-hMAG-DTA) mice at

P10, P14, P21, and P78. Scale bar, 100 μm. **I**, Quantification of ASPA-positive cell density at

each stage (from 4 mice per group per each stage). Bars and dots indicate mean and data from

individual fields of view, respectively. Adulthood data were collected at P60-P94. **** $p <$

0.0001 (Nested t-test). **J,** Representative images of MBP immunostaining (green) in the

cerebellar white matter of control and DTA-treated mice at P10, P14, P21, and adulthood (P60).

Scale bar, 100 μm. **K**, Quantification of MBP-positive bundle area at each stage (from 4 mice

per group per stage). Bars and dots indicate mean and data from individual fields of view,

respectively. $p < 0.05$, **** $p < 0.0001$ (Nested t-test).

Figure 2 | Cerebellar oligodendrocyte ablation reduces the synchrony of PC population

activity during mouse cerebellar development.

A, Experimental timeline showing AAV injection at P7 and in vivo calcium imaging at P13–

P15 in control and DTA-expressing mice with jGCaMP7f expressed in PCs. **B**, Schematic of in

vivo one photon calcium imaging and a representative frame from a field scan in lobule

VII/VIII of a control mouse at P14 with analyzed ROIs. Scale bar, 0.5 mm. **C-F**, Decrease in correlation coefficients (CCs) indicating reduced synchrony of spontaneous activities among PC population at P13-15 following DTA-mediated oligodendrocyte ablation. **C**, Representative traces of spontaneous calcium transients ($\Delta F/F0$) extracted from 25 regions of interest (ROIs) in the cerebellum of control and DTA mice at P14. Scale bar, 20 s. **D**, Correlation coefficient matrices of spontaneous calcium activity across 300 ROIs in control (top) and DTA (bottom) mice at P14. Color scale indicates the strength of pairwise correlations. **E**, Mean correlation coefficients between calcium traces from pairs of ROIs plotted against the distance of separation between pairs of ROIs in control (n = 5 mice) and AAV-hMAG-DTA-injected (n = 7 mice) mice at P13-15. Error bars indicate SEM. **** $p < 0.0001$ (two-way ANOVA). **F**, Scatter plot graph of CCs for ROI pairs, categorized by separation distances of 0–80 mm and 120–200 mm (analyzed from four mice per group). Lines and plots indicate mean and data from individual separation distances, respectively. Significant group differences were observed (* $p < 0.05$, Nested t-test, 4 mice for each). **G-I**, Frequency distributions of Frequency (G), Amplitude (H), and Area (I) of calcium transients in CTL (AAV-hMAG-mCherry) and DTA-treated (AAV-hMAG-DTA) mice at P13–15. Circles and squares indicate data from individual ROIs, and bars represent SEM. There was no significant difference between groups (two-way ANOVA).

Figure 3 | Developmental oligodendrocyte ablation reduces CF synchrony but does not alter PF excitatory or inhibitory synaptic inputs to PCs.

A, Experimental scheme. AAV-hMAG-RFP or AAV-hMAG-DTA was injected into the cerebellum at P7, and AAV-TRE-jGCaMP7f was injected into the inferior olive at P10 to label CFs. CF activity was imaged in the cerebellar cortex at P13-15. **B**, Representative calcium traces of CFs from control (CTL) and DTA-treated mice at P14. Scale bars, 60 s, 5 dF/F0. **C**, Cross-correlation analysis showing reduced CF–CF synchrony in DTA mice compared to controls at P13-15. Mean correlation coefficients between calcium traces from pairs of ROIs plotted against the distance of separation between pairs of ROIs in control (n = 6 mice) and AAV-hMAG-DTA-injected (n = 5 mice) mice. Error bars indicate SEM. * $p < 0.05$ (two-). **D**, Frequency distributions of CF calcium transient properties, including amplitude, event frequency, Area, and width in CTL and DTA mice. No significant group differences were observed (two-way ANOVA). **E**, Representative traces of miniature inhibitory postsynaptic currents (mIPSCs) recorded from PCs in CTL and DTA mice at P14. Scale bars, 100 ms, 50 pA. **F**, Quantification of mIPSC amplitude and frequency showing no significant differences between groups (9 mice for control, 11 mice for DTA, Mann–Whitney U test). Bars indicate median, dots represent the data for individual animals. **G**, Representative traces of parallel

fiber–evoked EPSCs (PF-EPSCs) recorded from PCs in CTL and DTA mice at P14. Scale bars,

5 ms, 200 pA. H, Input–output curves of PF-EPSCs demonstrating no significant differences in

excitatory drive between groups at P13-15 (two-way ANOVA). Data are shown as mean ± SEM

(5 mice for each).

Figure 4 | Oligodendrocyte ablation during postnatal development diminishes neuronal

synchrony at adult stage.

A, Representative traces of spontaneous calcium transients ($\Delta F/F0$) extracted from 25 regions of

interest (ROIs) in the cerebellum of control and DTA mice at P62. Scale bar, 20 s. **B,**

Correlation coefficient matrices of spontaneous calcium activity across multiple ROIs in control

(top) and DTA (bottom) mice at P62. Color scale indicates the strength of pairwise correlations.

C, Mean correlation coefficients between calcium traces from pairs of ROIs plotted against the

distance of separation between pairs of ROIs in control (n = 6 mice) and AAV-hMAG-DTA-

injected (n = 6 mice) mice at P62-80. Error bars indicate SEM. **** $p < 0.0001$ (two-way

ANOVA). **D**, Scatter plot graph of CCs for ROI pairs, categorized by separation distances of 0–

80 mm and 120–200 mm (analyzed from four mice per group). Lines and plots indicate median

and data from individual separation distances, respectively. Significant group differences were

observed (**** $p < 0.0001$, Nested t-test, 4 mice for each). **E-G**, Frequency distributions of

Frequency (E), Amplitude (F), and Area (G) of calcium transients in CTL (AAV-hMAG-

mCherry) and DTA-treated (AAV-hMAG-DTA) mice at P62-80. Circles and squares indicate

data from individual ROIs, and bars represent SEM. There was no significant difference

between groups (two-way ANOVA).

Figure 5 | Oligodendrocyte reduction during development leads to behavioral

abnormalities.

A-C, Assessment of exploratory behavior and locomotor activity in control at P60 (CTL,

orange, 12 mice for each injection site) and DTA-injected at P60 (DTA, cyan, 12 mice for each

injection site) mice in a novel environment, with trajectories of mouse exploratory behavior (**A**),

distance traveled (**B**), and time spent in center (**C**) for mice with the injection of AAVs into

distinct compartments (left, center, right) of the cerebellum (LCH, CBV, RCH) at P60-80. Bars

and dots indicate median and data from individual mice, respectively. **D-F,** Representative

images and quantitative analysis of sociality in CTL and DTA mice with the injection of AAVs

into distinct compartments (LCH, CBV, RCH). Diagram in (**D**) shows the method of sociality

test; (**E**) displays the heatmap of mouse exploratory behavior, and (**F**) shows the percentage of

time spent around strange mouse with data points representing individual mice at P60-80. Bars

and dots indicate median and data from individual mice, respectively (CTL, 12 mice for each

site, DTA, 12 mice for each site). **G,** Line graph showing the median of latency to fall in the

rotarod test over a three-day period for CTL and DTA mice at P60-80, with separate graphs for

mice with the injection of AAVs into distinct compartments (LCH, CBV, RCH). Error bars

indicate 95 % CI. Statistical significance is indicated by asterisks (*$p < 0.05$, **$p < 0.01$, *** p

< 0.001, **** $p < 0.0001$, Mann-Whitney U tests).

Figure 6 | Oligodendrocyte reduction after 3 weeks old in mice does not affect PC activity

synchrony and mouse behaviors except for motor learning.

A, B, Fluorescence microscopy images comparing ASPA expression in the cerebellum of

control (CTL) and 3-week DTA-treated (3W_DTA) mice at 4 weeks (**A**) and 8 weeks (**B**) old.

ASPA-positive oligodendrocytes appear in pink. Scale bar, 50μm. **C,** Quantification of the

number of ASPA-positive cells per mm² in the cerebellum of CTL and 3W_DTA mice at 4 and

8 weeks old, with data points for each field of view overlaid on the bar graphs (mean, 4 mice for

each group at 4 weeks, 5 mice for each group at 8 weeks). *** $p < 0.001$ (Nested t-test). **D,**

Representative calcium imaging traces from PCs in the cerebellar cortex of control (CTL) and

3-week DTA injected (3W_DTA) mice at 4weeks old, showing 25 regions of interest (ROIs). **E,**

Correlation coefficient matrices of calcium transients between ROIs from CTL and 3W_DTA

mice at 4 weeks old, indicating the level of synchrony, with warmer colors representing higher

correlation coefficients. **F,** Line graph depicting mean correlation coefficients with increasing

inter-ROI distance for CTL and 3W_DTA mice at 4 weeks old. Error bars indicate SEM. No

significant group differences were observed (two-way ANOVA, 5 mice for each group). **G,**

Scatter plot comparing the correlation coefficients of calcium transients in PCs between

adjacent ROIs in CTL and 3W_DTA mice. No significant group differences were observed

(Nested t-test, 5 mice for each). **H-J,** Frequency distributions of Frequency (H), Amplitude (I),

and Area (J) of calcium transients in CTL (AAV-hMAG-mCherry) and 3W_DTA (AAV-

hMAG-DTA) mice at 4 weeks. Circles and squares indicate data from individual ROIs, and bars

represent SEM. There was no significant difference between groups (two-way ANOVA).

K-M, Assessment of exploratory behavior and locomotor activity in control (CTL, orange, 11

mice) and 3 weeks DTA-injected (3W_DTA, cyan, 10 mice) mice in a novel environment, with

trajectories of mouse exploratory behavior (**K**), distance traveled (**L**), and time spent in center

(**M**) at P60-80. Bars and dots indicate median and data from individual mice, respectively. No

significant group differences were observed (Mann-Whitney U tests). **N, O,** Representative

images and quantitative analysis of sociality in CTL and 3W_DTA mice. A stranger mouse is

present in the right cage and a doll is in the left cage. **N** displays the heatmap of mouse

exploratory behavior, and (**O**) shows the percentage of time spent around strange mouse at P60-

80 (11 mice for control, 10 mice for 3W_DTA). Bars and dots indicate median and data from

individual mice, respectively. No significant group differences were observed (Mann-Whitney

U tests). **P,** Line graph showing the median of latency to fall in the rotarod test over a three-day

period for CTL and 3W_DTA mice at P60-80. Error bars indicate 95 % CI. Statistical

significance is indicated by asterisks (**$p < 0.01$, Mann-Whitney U tests).

Figure7. | Kir2.1 expression in CFs reduces the synchrony of PC population spontaneous

activity and leads to abnormal behaviors similar to the phenotype of mice with

developmental oligodendrocyte reduction.

A, Experimental scheme. AAV-Htr5B-tTA & AAV-TRE-GFP or AAV-Htr5b-tTA & AAV-

Tre-kir2.1_T2A_GFP were injected into the cerebellum at P7, and AAV-L7-jGCaMP7f was

injected into the inferior olive at P10 to label CFs. CF activity was imaged in the cerebellar

cortex at P13-15. **B**, Fluorescent images of sagittal cerebellar sections showing Car8

immunoreactivity (Purkinje cells, magenta) and GFP expression (Climbing fibers (CFs), green).

Scale bar, 200 μm. **C,** Higher magnification of the boxed area in **A** showing detailed GFP-

labeled CF morphology. Scale bar, 100 μm. **D,** Scatter plot graph depicting the percentage of

PCs with GFP-positive CFs among PC populations in CTL and Kir2.1 mice (17 sections from

10 mice for CTL and). **E,** Representative time-course of spontaneous calcium transients from

regions of interest (ROIs) in the mouse cerebellum at P13 showing spontaneous PC activity in

control mice (CTL, top) and mice expressing Kir2.1 in a subset of CFs (kir2.1, bottom). Scale

bar, 20 s. Y-axis is $\Delta F/F0 = (F - F0)/(F0)$. **F,** Correlation matrices for spontaneous PC activity

between ROIs in control (top) and kir2.1-expressing (bottom) mice at P13. The color scale

indicates correlation strength. **G**, Graph displaying the correlation coefficient of Ca^{2+} transients

among PCs as a function of distance between adjacent PCs in CTL and Kir2.1 groups at P13-15

(4 mice for CTL, 8 mice for Kir2.1). Data points indicate the mean ± SEM. **H,** Scatter plot

comparing correlation coefficients for ROI pairs within 0-80μm and 120-200μm separation

distance ranges in CTL (orange) and kir2.1-expressing (cyan) mice at P13-15, with lines

representing average values. Statistical significance is indicated by asterisks (*$p < 0.05$, Nested

t-test, 4 mice for CTL, 8 mice for Kir2.1). **I-K**, Frequency distributions of Frequency (I),

Amplitude (J), and Area (K) of calcium transients in CTL and Kir2.1 mice at P13-15. Circles

and squares indicate data from individual ROIs, and bars represent SEM. There was no

significant difference between groups (two-way ANOVA).

L-N, Analysis of exploratory behavior and locomotor activity in CTL (orange) and Kir2.1-expressing (green) mice at P60-80 with distance traveled (**L, M**) and percentage of time spent in the center (**N**) in an open-field test (14 mice for CTL, 18 mice for Kir2.1). Bars and dots indicate median and data from individual mice, respectively. **O, P,** Representative images and quantitative analysis of sociality in CTL and Kir2.1-expressing mice at P62-80. (**O**) displays the heatmap of mouse exploratory behavior, and (**P**) shows the percentage of time spent around strange mouse. Bars and dots indicate median and data from individual mice, respectively. **Q,** Rotarod test. The line graph shows the median latency to fall across three days for CTL and Kir2.1-expressing mice at P64-80. Error bars indicate 95 % CI. Statistical significance is indicated by asterisks (**p < 0.01, *** p < 0.001, Mann-Whitney U tests).

Figure 8 | Optogenetic re-synchronization of PC activity rescues social and motor deficits but not anxiety-like behavior in adult mice with developmental oligodendrocyte ablation.

A, Representative fluorescence images of cerebellar sagittal sections showing rsChrmine expression (magenta) in PCs and nuclear counterstain (DAPI, blue). Middle and right are the magnified images of dot region in left. Scale bars, 500 μm (left), 200 μm (middle, right). **B**, Bar graphs showing the distribution of PCs expressing rsChrmine in individual cerebellar lobules of control (CTL, orange, 3 mice) and DTA (cyan, 3 mice) mice. The number of rsChrmine-positive PCs in each lobule was evaluated using a semi-quantitative 4-point scale (0 = none, 1 = few, 2 = moderate, 3 = abundant). Data are presented as mean values across lobules, with individual dots indicating scores from each animal. **C**, Representative trajectories of exploratory behavior in the open-field test from DTA and control (CTL) mice with or without LED stimulation at P60. **D**, Quantification of total distance traveled in the open-field at P60-65. Each dot represents an individual mouse (7 mice for each). **E**, Quantification of percentage time spent in the center of the open-field. LED stimulation did not alter anxiety-like behavior in DTA mice, whereas in CTL mice it reduced center time, indicating increased anxiety-like responses. **F**, Representative heat maps of social exploration during the sociality test in DTA and CTL mice at P64 with or without LED stimulation. **G**, Quantification of sociability, measured as the percentage of time spent around a novel mouse at P64-68 (8 mice for each). Optogenetic stimulation rescued sociability in DTA mice to control levels. **H**, Rotarod test performance across three days at P66-70 (9 mice for CTL-LED, 8 mice for DTA-noLED, 8 mice for DTA-LED). Optogenetic stimulation restored motor coordination in DTA mice to control levels. Data represent median ± 95% CI. Statistical significance is indicated by asterisks (*p < 0.05, **p < 0.01, ***p < 0.001, ++p < 0.01, +++p < 0.001; Mann–Whitney U test). + shows the significant difference between DTA_noLED and DTA_LED.

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Supporting Information for

Developmental oligodendrocytes regulate brain function through the mediation of synchronized spontaneous activity

Short title

Developmental oligodendrocytes regulate brain maturation

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This PDF file includes:

Figures S1 to S4

Fig. S1. Targeted myelin disruption by oligodendrocyte-specific AAVs.

A, Representative images of MBP immunostaining in sagittal sections of control mice at P5 and P7, shown at low magnification (left) and higher magnification of the white matter (right). Scale bars, 500 μm (low magnification), 50 μm (high magnification). **B**, Bar graphs showing the mean fluorescence intensity of MBP at P5 and P7, derived from three mice in each group.
C, Representative immunofluorescence images showing the specificity of MAG-mCherry

expression at P14. mCherry (magenta) co-localizes with ASPA-positive oligodendrocytes (cyan) and Olig2-positive oligodendrocyte lineage cells (green). Notably, mCherry was absent in ASPA-negative, Olig2-positive immature oligodendrocytes. Scale bar, 50 μm. **D**, Quantification of the proportion of mCherry+ cells that were ASPA- and Olug2+ cells in total mCherry+ cells (5 mice). Dots represent individual mice. **E**, Quantification of the thickness of MBP bundle in CTL and DTA mice at P10, P14, P21, and adulthood (P60–P94). The thickness was significantly reduced at P10 and tended to be reduced at P14 (p = 0.13) but recovered to control levels by P21 and adulthood (n = 4 mice per group). Bars indicate mean, dots represent individual fields of view. ****p < 0.0001 (nested t-test). **F**, Low-magnification images of parvalbumin-stained sagittal sections showing overall cerebellar morphology and foliation in CTL and DTA mice at P14 and P21. No gross abnormalities were observed. Scale bar: 1 mm. **G**, Quantification of total cerebellar area measured from sagittal sections at P14 (n = 8 mice for control, n = 6 mice for DTA) and P21 (n = 10 mice for control, n = 9 mice for DTA). No significant differences were found between CTL and DTA mice (Mann–Whitney U test). Bars indicate median, dots represent the data for individual animals.

Fig. S2. | Oligodendrocyte ablation does not alter other glial or neuronal populations in the developing cerebellum.

A, B, Representative images at P14 and quantification of Iba1 immunostaining at P13-15 showing microglial density and mean fluorescence intensity in control (CTL) and DTA mice (8 mice for each). Scale bar, 50 µm. Bars indicate median, dots represent the data for individual animals. No significant differences were found between CTL and DTA mice (Mann–Whitney U test). **C, D,** Representative images at P21 and quantification of Iba1 immunostaining at P21-28. Bars indicate median, dots represent the data for individual animals. No significant differences were observed between CTL and DTA groups (13 mice for CTL, 15 mice for DTA, Mann–Whitney U test). **E, F,** Representative images at P14 and quantification of S100β immunostaining at P13-15 showing Bergmann glial density and mean fluorescence intensity (9 mice for CTL, 8 mice for DTA). Scale bar, 50 µm. Bars indicate median, dots represent the data for individual animals. No significant differences were found between CTL and DTA mice (Mann–Whitney U test). **G, H,** Representative images at P21 and quantification of S100β immunostaining at P21-28 (13 mice for CTL, 15 mice for DTA). Scale bar, 50 µm. Bars indicate median, dots represent the data for individual animals. No significant differences were found between CTL and DTA mice (Mann–Whitney U test). **I–L,** Parvalbumin (PV) immunostaining at P14. Quantification includes PC number, PC dendritic arbor size, and molecular layer PV+ interneuron density (13 mice for CTL, 15 mice for DTA). Scale bar, 50 µm. Bars indicate median, dots represent the data for individual animals. No significant differences were found between CTL and DTA mice (Mann–Whitney U test). **M–P,** PV immunostaining at P21. Quantification includes PC number, PC dendritic arbor size, or PV+ interneuron density (13 mice for each). Scale bar, 50 µm. Bars indicate median, dots represent the data for individual animals. No significant differences were found between CTL and DTA mice (Mann–Whitney U test).

Fig. S3. | **Timeline of AAV injection and behavioral assessment for mice with the injection into distinct cerebellar regions.**

A

B

A, Schematic timeline illustrating the experiments from birth to behavioral assessment, with AAV injections performed at P6–P7 and subsequent behavioral assessments conducted at around P60.
B, Representative whole-cerebellum images of mCherry expression highlighting three different regions: left cerebellar hemisphere (LCH), cerebellar vermis (CBV), and right cerebellar hemisphere (RCH). Scale bars, 2 mm.

Fig. S4. | Kir2.1 expression in CFs reduces the CF activity.

A, Schematic timeline of the experimental protocol. At P7, AAV injections are administered to either overexpress kir2.1 and GFP for Kir2.1 or only GFP for control (CTL). Ca^{2+} imaging is conducted at P13-15. **B**, Representative image of jGCaMP7s-labeled CFs in the Kir2.1 experimental group, captured using two-photon laser scanning microscopy. Scale bar, 50 μm. **C**, Representative traces of calcium transients in CTL and kir2.1-overexpressing CFs. Each tick mark represents a single transient. Scale bar, 20 s. **D**, Bar graph showing the median frequency of calcium transients in CTL and Kir2.1-overexpressing CFs, with data points of individual cells. ***p < 0.001 (Mann-Whitney U tests).