MCL-1 inhibition by selective BH3 mimetics disrupts mitochondrial dynamics in iPSC-derived cardiomyocytes

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26 27 28 29 30	Running Title: MCL-1 inhibition disrupts mitochondrial dynamics in hPSC-CMs
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39 Summary

MCL-1 is a well characterized inhibitor of cell death that has also been shown to be a regulator of mitochondrial dynamics in human pluripotent stem cells (hPSCs). We used cardiomyocytes derived from hPSCs (hPSC-CMs) to uncover whether MCL-1 is crucial for cardiac function and survival. Inhibition of MCL-1 by BH3 mimetics, resulted in the disruption of mitochondrial morphology and dynamics as well as disorganization of the actin cytoskeleton. Interfering with MCL-1 function affects the homeostatic proximity of DRP-1 and MCL-1 at the outer mitochondrial membrane, resulting in decreased functionality of hPSC-CMs. BH3 mimetics targeting MCL-1 are promising anti-tumor therapeutics. Cardiomyocytes display abnormal functional cardiac performance even after caspase inhibition, supporting a non-apoptotic activity of MCL-1 in hPSC-CMs. Progression towards using BCL-2 family inhibitors, especially targeting MCL-1, depends on understanding not only its canonical function in preventing apoptosis, but also in the maintenance of mitochondrial dynamics and function. Keywords: Apoptosis, MCL-1, pluripotent stem cells, cardiomyocytes, mitochondria, DRP-1, OPA1, BH3, cancer, mitochondrial dynamics

65 Introduction

66 Myeloid cell leukemia-1 (MCL-1) was originally identified as an early-induced gene in human myeloid leukemia cell differentiation (Kozopas et al., 1993; Reynolds et al., 1996; Yang et al., 67 1996). MCL-1 is structurally similar to other anti-apoptotic BCL-2 (B cell lymphoma-2) family 68 69 proteins (*i.e.* BCL-2, BCL-XL (B cell lymphoma extra-large)) (Chipuk et al., 2010). However, its larger, unstructured N-terminal domain and shorter half-life likely indicated that MCL-1 was not 70 completely functionally redundant with other anti-apoptotic proteins (Perciavalle and Opferman, 71 72 2013). Supporting this idea, MCL-1 has been shown to be essential for embryonic development and for the survival of various cell types, including cardiomyocytes, neurons, and hematopoietic 73 stem cells (Rinkenberger et al., 2000; Thomas et al., 2010; Wang et al., 2013; Opferman, 2016). 74 75 MCL-1 is one of the most amplified genes in human cancers and is frequently associated 76 with resistance to chemotherapy (Beroukhim et al., 2010; Perciavalle and Opferman, 2013). 77 Earlier work demonstrated that MCL-1 genetic deletion is peri-implantation lethal in embryogenesis, not due to defects in apoptosis, but rather due to a combination of an embryonic 78 79 developmental delay and an implantation defect (Rinkenberger et al., 2000). However, the non-80 apoptotic mechanism by which MCL-1 functions in normal and cancerous cells is still unclear. We 81 previously reported that MCL-1 regulates mitochondrial dynamics in human pluripotent stem cells (hPSCs, which refers to both human embryonic stem cells (hESCs) and induced pluripotent stem 82 83 cells (hiPSCS)) (Rasmussen et al., 2018). We found that MCL-1 maintains mitochondrial network homeostasis in hPSCs through interactions with Dynamin related protein-1 (DRP-1) and Optic 84 85 atrophy type 1 (OPA1). In this study, we investigated whether this non-apoptotic role of MCL-1 remains as stem cells differentiate, using cardiomyocytes derived from human induced pluripotent 86 stem cells (hiPSC-CMs). 87

Mitochondrial fusion promotes elongation of the mitochondrial network, which is key for mitochondrial DNA (mtDNA) homogenization and efficient assembly of the electron transport chain (ETC) (Westermann, 2010; Friedman and Nunnari, 2014). Loss of mitochondrial fusion has

been implicated as a mechanism for the onset of dilated cardiomyopathy (Dorn, 2013).
Mitochondria also regulate cardiomyocyte differentiation and embryonic cardiac development
(Kasahara et al., 2013; Kasahara and Scorrano, 2014; Cho et al., 2014). However, there is limited
information about the mechanisms used by cardiomyocytes to minimize the risks for apoptosis,
especially in cells derived from highly sensitive stem cells (Imahashi et al., 2004; Murriel et al.,
2004; Gama and Deshmukh, 2012; Dumitru et al., 2012; Walensky, 2012).

97 Ultrastructural changes have long been observed in response to alterations in oxidative metabolism (Hackenbrock, 1966; Khacho et al., 2016). It has become increasingly clear that 98 individual mitochondrial shape changes can also have dramatic effects on cellular metabolism. 99 Mitochondrial morphology and cristae structure are influenced by fission and fusion events: 100 subsequently, ETC complexes that reside on the inner mitochondrial membrane are disrupted 101 102 upon aberrant fission (Chan, 2007). Several human diseases, such as MELAS (Muscle atrophy, 103 Encephalopathy, Lactic Acidosis, Stroke-like episodes) and Dominant Optic Atrophy (DOA), are 104 associated with mutations in the mitochondrial dynamics and mitochondrial metabolism machineries (Chan, 2007; Hsu et al., 2016). Likewise, many neurological conditions, including 105 106 Parkinson's disease, Huntington's disease, and Charcot-Marie Tooth Type 2 syndrome, can originate from alterations in mitochondrial dynamics and metabolic regulation (Itoh et al., 2013; 107 Burté et al., 2015). Besides neurological conditions, several studies in the heart suggest that 108 109 alterations in mitochondrial dynamics causes abnormal mitochondrial quality control, resulting in the buildup of defective mitochondria and reactive oxygen species (ROS) (Galloway and Yoon, 110 111 2015; Song et al., 2017). Interestingly, it has been shown that modulating the production of ROS can favor or prevent differentiation into cardiomyocytes (Buggisch et al., 2007; Murray et al., 112 2014). Thus, specific metabolic profiles controlled by mitochondrial dynamics are likely critical for 113 114 hiPSC-CMs, since they can influence cell cycle, biomass, metabolite levels, and redox state 115 (Zhang et al., 2012).

116 It is not completely understood how dynamic changes in metabolism affect cardiomyocyte 117 function. Deletion of MCL-1 in murine heart muscle resulted in lethal cardiomyopathy, reduction of mitochondrial DNA (mtDNA), and mitochondrial dysfunction (Wang et al., 2013). Inhibiting 118 apoptosis via concurrent BAK/BAX knockout allowed for the survival of the mice; conversely, the 119 120 mitochondrial ultrastructure abnormalities and respiratory deficiencies were not rescued. These 121 results indicate that MCL-1 also has a crucial function in maintaining cell viability and metabolic 122 profile in cardiomyocytes. Despite these efforts, the non-apoptotic mechanism by which MCL-1 123 specifically functions in cardiomyocytes is still unknown. Furthermore, a role for MCL-1 in the 124 regulation of mitochondrial dynamics in cardiac cells has not yet been defined. Here we describe findings that MCL-1 is essential for the survival of hiPSC-CMs by maintaining mitochondrial 125 morphology and function. 126

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128 Results and Discussion

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130 MCL-1 inhibition causes severe defects in hiPSC-CM mitochondrial network.

131 Recently published small molecule inhibitors of MCL-1 have been anticipated as potent anti-132 tumor agents against MCL-1-dependent cancers with limited cardiotoxicity in mouse models (Cohen et al., 2012; Kotschy et al., 2016; Letai, 2016). Thus, we chose to use hiPSC-CMs (Figure 133 1A) to examine the effects of MCL-1 inhibition on mitochondrial morphology, using the small 134 molecule inhibitor S63845 (Kotschy et al., 2016), combined with structured illumination 135 136 microscopy (SIM) to observe mitochondria at high-resolution (Figure 1B). Cardiomyocytes were images after 4 days of treatment with vehicle (DMSO) or MCL-1 inhibitor (MCL-1i/S63845) and 137 the caspase inhibitor Q-VD-OPh (QVD) (Figure 1B). We found that MCL-1 inhibition had 138 139 significant effects on iPSC-CM mitochondrial morphology. Mitochondrial networks in S63845-140 treated cells were severely disrupted, with individual mitochondria becoming more fragmented and globular, as opposed to elongated and interconnected networks in control cells (Figure 1C). 141

142 In a previous report, MCL-1 inhibition using RNAi also resulted in mitochondria morphology 143 defects including severe cristae disruption and remarkable vacuolation in the mitochondrial matrix (Guo et al., 2018). Recent reports have determined that MCL-1 functions not only as an apoptosis 144 regulator but also as a modulator of mitochondrial morphology and dynamics (Perciavalle et al., 145 146 2012; Morciano et al., 2016; Rasmussen et al., 2018). Thus, we hypothesized that inhibiting MCL-147 1 with BH3 mimetics would affect the functionality of human cardiomyocytes, due to the disruption of crucial MCL-1 interactions with the mitochondrial dynamics machinery, which ultimately will 148 149 lead to cell death.

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151 MCL-1 inhibition affects contractility of iPSC-CMs and myofibril assembly in a caspase-152 independent manner.

153 MCL-1 inhibition by S63845 was shown to have minimal effects on murine ejection fraction 154 (Kotschy et al., 2016) and on overall cardiac function in human cardiomyocytes (Guo et al., 2018). These results are intriguing considering previous studies reporting that MCL-1 deletion from 155 murine cardiomyocytes has severe effects on mitochondrial morphology and cardiac function, 156 157 which were not rescued by co-deletion of BAK and BAX (Wang et al., 2013). We treated human 158 iPSC-CMs with S63845, while inhibiting caspase activity, and measured spontaneous beating using phase-contrast live-cell imaging. We observed lower numbers of beating cells when treated 159 with 1-2 µM MCL-1*i* (S63845), and the cells that were beating appeared to beat more slowly 160 (Figure S1A-C). To assess these defects more rigorously, we plated cells on a multi-electrode 161 162 array (MEA) plate and examined cardiac function using the Axion Biosystems analyzer (Clements and Thomas, 2014) (Figure 2A). We observed that MCL-1 inhibition caused severe defects in 163 cardiomyocyte functionality after just 18 hours of the first treatment (Figure 2B-D). In particular, 164 165 beat period irregularity was significantly increased (Figure 2B), while spike amplitude and spike 166 slope means were decreased (Figure 2C-D). The differences between beat period mean and conduction velocity mean at this time point were not significant (Figure S1D-E); however, at just 167

168 two days of treatment with MCL-1 inhibitor, cardiomyocytes became guiescent and stopped 169 beating altogether (Figure S1F-J). These results implicate tachycardia and arrhythmia phenotypes in cardiomyocytes exposed to S63845. To probe whether these cells are also 170 sensitive to BCL-2 inhibition, we also treated hiPSC-CMs with the BCL-2 inhibitor Venetoclax 171 172 (ABT-199) (Souers et al., 2013). In the same treatment paradigm, ABT-199 had no effect on 173 hiPSC-CM functionality compared to control cells (Figure S1C-G). These results suggest that 174 hiPSC-CMs are highly dependent on MCL-1, but not BCL-2, for function and survival. Intriguingly, 175 we also observed significant changes in the structure and integrity of the actin network and 176 subsequent myofibril organization in cells treated with MCL-1 inhibitor (Figure 2E). hiPSC-CMs displayed poor Z-line organization, lower density of F-actin, and increased presence of stress 177 fibers (Figure 2E). Blinded quantification of F-actin organization revealed that MCL-1 inhibitor-178 179 treated cells had significantly less organized myofibril structure (Figure 2F).

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181 MCL-1 co-localizes with mitochondrial dynamics proteins in hiPSC-CMs, and S63845 182 disrupts MCL-1:DRP-1 co-localization.

183 Since MCL-1 inhibition disrupted mitochondrial network integrity in hiPSC-CMs and MCL-1 184 depletion affects mitochondrial dynamics proteins (Rasmussen et al., 2018), we next examined the effects of MCL-1 inhibition on the expression levels of key mitochondrial proteins. MCL-1 185 inhibitor-treated cells had a significant increase in the expression levels of DRP-1 (Figure 3A-B) 186 and MCL-1 (Figure 2C-D). Previous studies using S63845 (Kotschy et al., 2016) also reported 187 188 the induction of MCL-1 expression. There were no significant changes in the expression levels of phospho-DRP-1 (pDRP-1 S616), OPA1 or TOM20 (Figure 2C-D and Figure S3A). We then 189 assessed whether MCL-1 interacts with these GTPases responsible for maintaining mitochondrial 190 191 morphology and dynamics using in situ proximity ligation assay (PLA). Our data shows that MCL-192 1 is in close proximity to both DRP-1 and OPA1 (Figure 3E-H). PLA puncta were quantified and normalized to the number of puncta in the control sample (Figure S2B). The co-localization of 193

MCL-1 with DRP-1, but not OPA1, was disrupted upon inhibition of MCL-1 with S63845 (Figure 3E-F), suggesting that MCL-1 interacts with DRP-1 through its BH3 binding groove. Since the interaction with OPA1 was not disturbed (Figure 3G-H), it is possible that MCL-1 interacts with OPA1 either through a different domain, or with a different isoform of OPA1 in hiPSC-CMs than in hPSCs (Rasmussen et al., 2018). Another possibility is that, upon differentiation, the small molecule can no longer penetrate the inner mitochondrial membrane.

200 DRP-1 is shuttled to the outer mitochondrial membrane upon activation. In our previous study, we showed that MCL-1 depletion decreases the activity of DRP-1 and promotes 201 202 mitochondrial elongation (Rasmussen et al., 2018). Since MCL-1 inhibition with S63845 appeared to cause mitochondrial fragmentation in cardiomyocytes, we hypothesized that more DRP-1 203 would be activated and brought to the mitochondria to initiate fission. However, levels of active 204 205 DRP-1 (pDRP-1 S616) that co-localized with mitochondria decreased in S63845-treated hiPSC-206 CMs (Figure S3A-B). To further assess the disruption of the mitochondrial network caused by MCL-1 inhibition, we employed an assay using a photo-convertible plasmid (mito-tdEos) to assess 207 connectivity and fusion/motility of mitochondria. After photo-conversion, we saw that both the 208 209 initial converted area and the spread of the converted signal after 20 minutes were significantly 210 decreased (Figure 4A-D). This fragmentation caused by MCL-1 inhibition was also DRP-1 dependent, since knockdown of DRP-1 rescued the increased fragmentation in S63845-treated 211 cells (Figure 4E-F and Figure S3C). The recruitment of DRP-1 to the mitochondria has been 212 proposed to be a critical inducer of mitophagy (Lee et al., 2011; Kageyama et al., 2014; Burman 213 214 et al., 2017). Thus, an interesting possibility is that inhibition of MCL-1 is decreasing clearing of damaged mitochondria in cardiomyocytes due to the decrease in recruitment of active DRP-1. 215

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217 MCL-1 inhibition results in iPSC-CM death

To examine whether iPSC-CMs treated with MCL-1 inhibitor were still sensitive to caspasemediated cell death, we treated the cells with increasing doses of S63845 and examined the 220 activation of caspase-3 and caspase-7 in the absence of QVD. Cells responded to S63845 in a dose-dependent manner after 48 hours, with 1-2 µM MCL-1*i* inducing the most caspase activity 221 (Figure 5A). To examine the possibility that cardiomyocytes were dying independently of caspase-222 223 3 activation, we used the Incucyte live cell imaging system and indeed found similar levels of cell 224 death with and without caspase inhibition (Figure S4A-B). These results indicate that iPSC-CMs 225 are committing to a caspase-independent cell death in response to MCL-1 inhibition. Previous 226 reports have established that iPSC-derived cardiomyocytes are more similar to immature 227 progenitor cells. To test the possibility that the effects were caused by this immature state, we 228 used a previously published hormone-based method for cardiomyocyte maturation (Figure 5B-C) (Parikh et al., 2017). We tested for caspase-3/7 activation after 24 hours of treatment with 229 increasing doses of S63845 and detected similar effects of MCL-1 inhibition in hormone-matured 230 231 hiPSC-CMs and vehicle-treated hiPSC-CMs. (Figure 5D-E). These results together with previous 232 work from other groups (Thomas et al., 2013; Wang et al., 2013) highlight the importance of extended and rigorous testing of safety and potential off-target effects of MCL-1 inhibitors on 233 234 human cardiomyocytes.

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Long-term MCL-1 inhibition, but not BCL-2 inhibition, causes defects in cardiomyocyte functionality

MCL-1 inhibition has significant effects on hiPSC-CM contractility and functionality when 238 used at higher doses (Figure 2B-D and Figure S1C-G). To test if MCL-1 inhibition still depletes 239 240 cardiac functionality at lower doses, we treated hiPSC-CMs for two weeks (with treatments every two days) with 100 nM S63845. We also treated the cells with the BCL-2 inhibitor ABT-199 (100 241 nM) and a combination of S63845 + ABT-199 (100 nM each). While there were no significant 242 243 differences between treatments in the spike slope mean (Figure 6B) and beat period mean (Figure 244 S5A), either MCL-1 inhibition alone or the combination treatment significantly disrupted hiPSC-CM spike amplitude mean (Figure 6A), conduction velocity mean (Figure 6C), max delay mean 245

246 (Figure 6D), propagation consistency (Figure 6E), and field potential duration (Figure S5B). Cells treated with ABT-199 appeared healthy and were functionally similar to control cells throughout 247 the experiment (Figure 6A-E and Figure S5A-B). Cells displayed mitochondrial network and actin 248 249 disruption in the S63845-treated condition, and even more severe phenotypes were observed in 250 cells treated with both inhibitors when compared to control cells (Figure 6F-I and Figure S5C-F). 251 BCL-2 inhibition had little effect on mitochondrial network organization and virtually no effect on myofibril organization (Figure 6H and Figure S5E). These results further support the idea that 252 253 MCL-1 plays an important role in the mitochondrial homeostasis of cardiomyocytes. It would be 254 of interest to determine whether MCL-1 function in mitochondrial dynamics affects the maturation of iPSC-CMs or heart development in vivo (Kasahara et al., 2013; Feaster et al., 2015; Parikh et 255 al., 2017). We speculate that other determinants of mitochondrial homeostasis, including 256 257 mitochondrial biogenesis and mitophagy, may be affected by MCL-1 deficiency in these cells as 258 they mature.

Whether the function of MCL-1 in mitochondrial dynamics is critical for maintaining the 259 metabolic profile of iPSC-CMs is not known. Studies from our laboratory show that inhibition of 260 261 MCL-1 induces the differentiation of iPSCs (Rasmussen et al., 2018), which is likely associated with changes in metabolism to support cell-type specific processes (Folmes et al., 2016). Since 262 mitochondrial morphology is tightly coupled to cellular respiration via integrity of the ETC, future 263 studies will aim to investigate the metabolic changes that occur when MCL-1 is deleted in iPSC-264 265 CMs. Cardiac contractions depend on energy from these metabolic pathways, and thus cardiac 266 mitochondria are forced to work constantly and likely require strict quality control mechanisms to maintain a functioning state (Dorn et al., 2015). This guality control process could depend in part 267 on MCL-1. In support of this idea, our studies indicate that MCL-1 activity is essential for iPSC-268 269 CM viability and maturation, which could be linked to MCL-1's non-apoptotic function at the 270 mitochondrial matrix. Our results emphasize the need for a more complete molecular understanding of MCL-1's mechanism of action in human cardiomyocytes as it may reveal new 271

- 272 approaches to prevent potential cardiac toxicities associated with chemotherapeutic inhibition of
- 273 MCL-1.
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275 Materials and Methods

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- 277 Cell Culture

Human induced pluripotent stem cell-derived cardiomyocytes (iCell Cardiomyocytes²) were 278 obtained from Cellular Dynamics International (#CMC-100-012-000.5). Cells were thawed 279 according the manufacturer protocol in iCell Plating medium. Briefly, cells were thawed and plated 280 on 0.1% gelatin at 50,000 cells/well in 96-well plates. Cells were maintained at 37°C and 5% CO₂ 281 and fed every other day with iCell Cardiomyocyte Maintenance medium (Cellular Dynamics 282 283 International #M1003). For knockdown experiments, wells were coated with 5 µg/mL fibronectin 284 (Corning #354008) 1 hour prior to plating. For functional experiments using the Axion bioanalyzer. cells were plated on 50 µg/mL fibronectin in a 48-well CytoView MEA plate (Axion Biosystems 285 #M768-tMEA-48B). For imaging experiments, cells were re-plated on glass-bottom 35 mm dishes 286 287 (Cellvis #D35C4-20-1.5-N) coated with 10 µg/mL fibronectin. For live-cell imaging, cells were maintained at 37°C with 5% CO² in a stage top incubator (Tokai Hit). 288

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290 Cell Treatments

All treatments were added directly to cells in iCell Cardiomyocyte Maintenance media. The pancaspase inhibitor Q-VD-OPh (SM Biochemicals #SMPH001) was added to cells at a concentration
of 25 µM. The small molecule MCL-1 inhibitor derivative (S63845) was a gift from Joseph
Opferman (St. Jude's Children Hospital). ABT-199 was purchased from Active Biochemicals (#A1231). All stock solutions were prepared in DMSO.

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298 RNAi and Plasmid Transfection

299 Commercially available siRNA targeting DRP-1 (Thermo Fisher Scientific # AM51331) was used to generate transient knockdowns in hiPSC-CMs. Cells were seeded at 50,000 cells per well in a 300 96-well plate coated with 5 µg/mL fibronectin. Cells were transfected as per the manufacturer 301 302 protocol using TransIT-TKO Transfection Reagent (Mirus Bio #MIR2154) in iCell maintenance 303 media containing 25uM Q-VD-OPh. To increase knockdown efficiency, the transfection was 304 repeated 48 hours later. Cells were left to recover for an additional 24 hours in fresh media 305 containing 25uM Q-VD-OPh. Cells were lysed for Western blot or re-plated on glass-bottom 35 mm dishes and fixed for analysis by immunofluorescence. Silencer Select Negative Control No. 306 1 (Thermo Fisher Scientific #4390843) was used as a control. 307 Plasmid encoding mito-tdEos (Addgene #57644) was transfected using ViaFect (Promega 308

#E4981) as described in the manufacturer protocol. Cells were maintained until optimal
 transfection efficiency was reached before cells were imaged.

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312 Immunofluorescence

313 For immunofluorescence, cells were fixed with 4% paraformaldehyde for 20 min and 314 permeabilized in 1% Triton-X-100 for 10 min at room temperature. After blocking in 10% BSA, cells were treated with primary and secondary antibodies using standard methods. Cells were 315 316 mounted in Vectashield (Vector Laboratories #H-1000) prior to imaging. Primary antibodies used include Alexa Fluor-488 Phalloidin (Thermo Fisher Scientific #A12379), mouse anti-mtCO2 317 (Abcam #ab110258), rabbit anti-pDRP-1 S616 (Cell Signaling Technologies #3455S). For 318 Incucyte experiments, nuclei were visualized using NucLight Rapid Red Reagent (Essen 319 Bioscience #4717). Alexa Fluor-488 (Thermo Fisher Scientific #A11008) and Alexa Fluor-568 320 321 (Thermo Fisher Scientific #A11011) were used as secondary antibodies. MitoTracker Red 322 CMXRos (Thermo Fisher Scientific #M7512) added at 100 nM was used to visualize mitochondria in PLA experiments. 323

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325 Western blot

Gel samples were prepared by mixing cell lysates with LDS sample buffer (Life Technologies,
#NP0007) and 2-Mercaptoethanol (BioRad #1610710) and boiled at 95°C for 5 minutes. Samples
were resolved on 4-20% Mini-PROTEAN TGX precast gels (BioRad #4561096) and transferred
onto PVDF membrane (BioRad #1620177). Antibodies used for Western blotting are as follows:
DRP-1 (Cell Signaling Technologies #8570S), pDRP-1 S616 (Cell Signaling Technologies
#4494), OPA1 (Cell Signaling Technologies #67589S), MCL-1 (Cell Signaling Technologies
#94296S), TOM20 (Cell Signaling Technologies #42406S), and α-Tubulin (Sigma # 05-829).

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334 Impedance assays

The Axion Biosystems analyzer was used to measure contractility and impedance in iPSC-CMs. Cells were plated on 48-well CytoView MEA plates and maintained for 10 days before treatment and recordings. Recordings were taken for 5 minutes approximately two hours after media change.Cells were assayed using the standard cardiac analog mode setting with 12.5 kHz sampling frequency to measure spontaneous cardiac beating. The Axion instrument was controlled using Maestro Pro firmware version 1.5.3.4. Cardiac beat detector settings are as follows:

Beat Detection Threshold	300 µV
Min. Beat Period	250 ms
Max. Beat Period	5 s
Synchronized Beat Maximum Propagation Delay	30 ms
Minimum Active Channels Ratio	50.00%
Running Average Beat Count	10

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343 Proximity Ligation Assay (PLA)

Cells were seeded onto fibronectin-coated 8-chamber MatTek glass slides (#CCS-8) at 10,000 cells/chamber. After treatments, cells were fixed in 4% PFA for 20 min and permeabilized in 1% Triton-100-X for 10 min at room temperature. Following fixation, the DuoLink proximity ligation assay (Sigma #DUO92014) was performed as per manufacturer protocol. The primary antibodies were incubated overnight at 4°C and are as follows: mouse anti-MCL-1 (Proteintech # 66026-1lg), rabbit anti-DRP-1 (Cell Signaling Technologies #8570S), rabbit anti-OPA1 (Cell Signaling Technologies #67589S), and control containing no primary antibody.

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352 **Photoconversion experiments**

Mitochondrial network connectivity and fusion was assayed using photo-conversion of 353 354 mitochondria tagged with Mito-tdEos. Photo-conversion was performed on a Nikon Eclipse Ti 355 inverted widefield microscope equipped with a 1.45 NA 100X Oil objective. Briefly, a stimulation region was closing down the field diaphragm and using the filter to shine 405 nm light for 6 356 357 seconds. Images for the converted (TxRed) and unconverted (FITC) were acquired before and 358 after stimulation. The TxRed image before stimulation was used to subtract background from the 359 post-stimulation images, followed by thresholding and automated measurement in Fiji (Schindelin 360 et al., 2012). The initial converted area immediately after stimulation was used as a measure of 361 connectivity, while the spread of the converted signal after 20 minutes was used as a measure of fusion/motility. The initial converted area (TxRed channel) was normalized to the total 362 363 unconverted area (FITC channel) to account for any initial variation in the total mitochondrial area.

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365 **Image acquisition**

Super-resolution images for Figures 1 and 2 were acquired using a GE DeltaVision OMX microscope equipped with a 1.42 NA 60X Oil objective and a sCMOS camera. Super-resolution images for Figure 6 were acquired using a Nikon SIM microscope equipped with a 1.49 NA 100x Oil objective an Andor DU-897 EMCCD camera. Images for Figures S3, 4, and S5 were acquired on a Nikon Eclipse Ti inverted widefield microscope equipped with a 1.45 NA 100X Oil or 1.40 NA 60X Oil objective. Image processing and quantification was performed using Fiji. Measurement of cell number to assay cell death was performed on a Incucyte S3 live cell imaging system (Essen Bioscience) equipped with a 10X objective. Images for the PLA experiments were acquired on a Nikon spinning disk confocal microscope equipped with a 1.40 NA 60X Oil objective.

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376 Statistical Analysis

All experiments were performed with a minimum of 3 biological replicates. Statistical significance was determined by unpaired, two-tailed Student's t-test or by one- or two-way ANOVA as appropriate for each experiment. GraphPad Prism v8.1.2 was used for all statistical analysis and data visualization.

Error bars in all bar graphs represent standard error of the mean or standard deviation as described for each figure, while Tukey plots were represented with boxes (with median, Q1, Q3 percentiles), whiskers (minimum and maximum values within 1.5 times interquartile range) and solid circles (outliers). No outliers were removed from the analyses.

For MEA experiments, means from triplicate biological replicates (each with three technical replicate wells) for each measurement were plotted and significance was determined by two-way ANOVA.

For PLA experiments, images were quantified using Fiji. Briefly, background noise levels were
subtracted, and number of puncta per ROI was normalized to mitochondrial area. ROIs in at least
5 cells per condition were quantified in three independent experiments.

391 Quantification of actin organization was performed in a blinded fashion and percentages of each 392 category are displayed. Cell viability measured using the Incucyte live cell imaging system was 393 performed by automatic segmentation of nuclei in Fiji, followed by subtraction of dead cells as 394 indicated by fragmented nuclei and rounded phenotype.

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- 403
- 404 The authors declare no competing financial interests.
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406 Author contributions

V. Gama, M. Rasmussen and N. Taneja conceived the study, designed experiments, interpreted data, and wrote the manuscript. M. Rasmussen and N. Taneja designed and carried out all the cell biology experiments, with input from D. Burnette, A. Neininger, L. Wang, and L. Shi. V. Gama designed and supervised the project. The manuscript was prepared by M. Rasmussen and V. Gama, and revised by N. Taneja and D. Burnette. D. Burnette and B. Knollmann provided vital reagents and critical expertise.

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414 The authors declare no competing interests.

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421 Figure Legends

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Figure 1: MCL-1 inhibition causes mitochondrial fragmentation. (A) Maximum intensity projection 423 424 showing mitochondria (mt-CO2) and myofibril (F-actin) organization in an untreated hiPSC-CM. 425 Rainbow LUT shown to denote Z-depth. Scale: 10 µm. (B) Schematic of cell treatment paradigm 426 used throughout this study. Structured Illumination Microscopy (SIM) was used for acquisition of 427 all super-resolution images. (C) hiPSC-CMs were treated with vehicle (DMSO) or 2 µM S63845 428 and Q-VD-Oph (QVD). Vehicle-treated cells have elongated mitochondria assembled in networks: 429 MCL-1 inhibition causes mitochondria to become fragmented and disorganized. Insets show magnification of individual mitochondria morphology. Scale: 10 µm. Representative images are 430 shown for all panels. 431

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433 Figure 2: MCL-1 inhibition causes disruption of myofibrils and functional defects. (A) Schematic of Axion Biosystems MEA paradigm for recording cardiac performance in live cells. hiPSC-CMs 434 were plated on a CytoView MEA plate (Axion Biosystems) and treated with either vehicle (DMSO) 435 436 or .5 µM MCL-1*i* (S63845) and QVD. Live-cell activity was recorded at 18 hours-post-treatment 437 for 5 minutes; (B) beat period irregularity was increased in MCL-1*i*-treated cells, while spike amplitude mean and spike slope mean were decreased (C-D). (E) Vehicle-treated hiPSC-CMs 438 439 have organized myofibril structure as shown by maximum intensity projections. hiPSC-CMs treated with 2 µM MCL-1i (S63845) and QVD have myofibrils that are unorganized and poorly 440 441 defined Z-lines. Scale: 10 µm. Representative images are shown for all panels. (F) Quantification of myofibril structure phenotypes represented in Figure 2E (n=~80 cells from 3 separate 442 experiments). 443

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Figure 3: MCL-1 interacts with mitochondrial dynamics proteins. (A) Western blot showing DRP1 activity in hiPSC-CMs treated with S63845 + QVD. (B) Quantification of DRP-1 and pDRP-1

447 S616 band density relative to α-tubulin. (C) Western blot showing OPA1, MCL-1, and TOM20 448 levels in hiPSC-CMs treated with S63845 + QVD. (D) Quantification of OPA1 and MCL-1 band 449 density relative to α-tubulin. Images from PLA showing representative ROIs showing MCL-1:DRP-450 1 (E) or MCL-1:OPA1 (G) puncta in vehicle- or S63845-treated hiPSC-CMs (Scale: 5 μ m). 451 Quantification of PLA puncta from MCL-1:DRP-1 (F) or MCL-1:OPA1 (H) interactions (n = 10-15 452 images per condition from 3 independent experiments). All error bars indicate ±SD.

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Figure 4: MCL-1 inhibition results in mitochondrial fragmentation through a DRP-1 dependent 454 manner. (A) Vehicle- and (B) S63845-treated hiPSC-CMs were transfected with Mito-tdEos and 455 a small area was photo-converted (see methods). Cells were imaged for 20 minutes-post-456 conversion to assess mitochondrial network connectivity. Quantification of (C) initial converted 457 458 area normalized to total unconverted area and (D) fold change in converted area after 20 minutes 459 from Figure 4A-B. (E) Quantification of initial converted area normalized to total unconverted area in hiPSC-CMs treated with si-Control (si-Cont) ±MCL-1*i* (2 µM) and si-DRP-1 ±MCL-1*i* (2 µM). (F) 460 Quantification of fold change in converted area after 20 minutes in same treatments from Figure 461 462 4E. Boxplots show Tukey whiskers.

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Figure 5: hiPSC-CMs commit to intrinsic apoptosis after MCL-1 inhibition. (A) iCell hiPSC-CMs were treated with increasing doses of S63845 for 48 hours before caspase activity was measured by CaspaseGlo 3/7 assay (Promega). (B) Schematic of maturation protocol for hiPSC-CMs shown in Figure 1C. (C) hiPSC-CMs treated with Dex (dexamethasone) and T3 (triiodothyronine) display more mature phenotype compared to vehicle-treated control cells. (D) Vehicle- or (E) Dex+T3treated hiPSC-CMs were exposed to S63845 at increasing doses for 24 hours. Caspase activity was measured as in Figure 1A.

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Figure 6: Chronic inhibition of MCL-1, but not BCL-2, results in cardiac activity defects. hiPSC-472 473 CMs were treated every 2 days with DMSO (blue), 100 nM S63845 (orange), 100 nM ABT-199 (green), or both inhibitors (magenta) for 14 days. MEA plate was recorded 2 hours-post-treatment 474 for 5 minutes and results were normalized to baseline recording for each respective well. Results 475 476 of recordings for spike amplitude mean (A), spike slope mean (B), conduction velocity mean (C), max delay mean (D), and propagation consistency (E) are shown. P-values show significance as 477 follows: * = DMSO vs. S63845, † = DMSO vs. Combination, # = S63845 vs. ABT-199, ‡ = S63845 478 vs. Combination, \bullet = ABT-199 vs. Combination. One symbol indicates p = <0.05, two symbols 479 indicate p = <0.01. Error bars indicate ±SEM. (F-I) Mitochondria and F-actin were imaged at the 480 end of the treatment paradigm in Figure 6A-E. Representative images are shown of cells treated 481 with DMSO (F), 100 nM MCL-1i (S63845) (G), 100 nM BCL-2i (ABT-199) (H), and 100 nM MCL-482 483 1i + 100 nM BCL-2i (Combination) (I). Scale: 10 µm.

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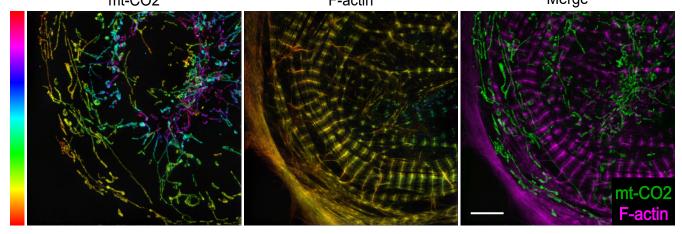
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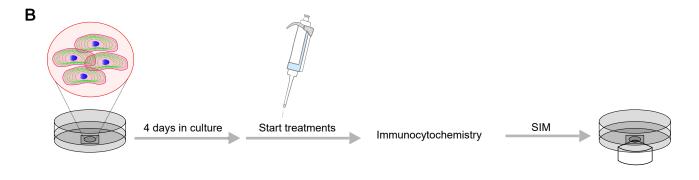
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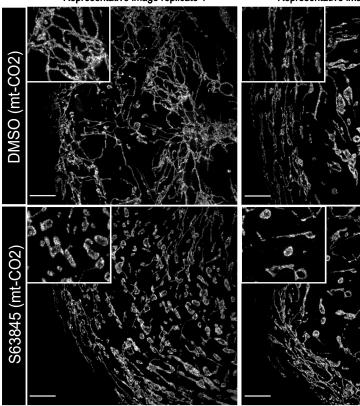


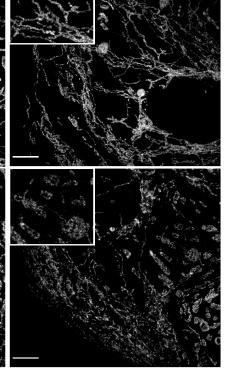


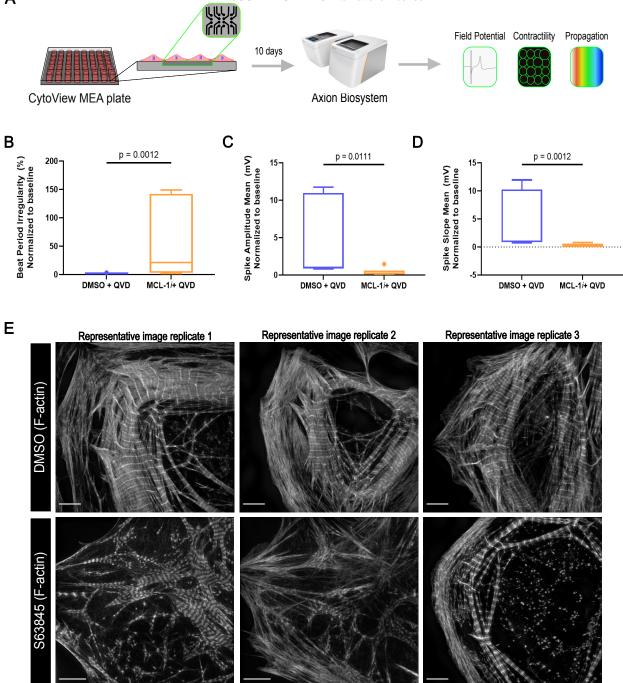
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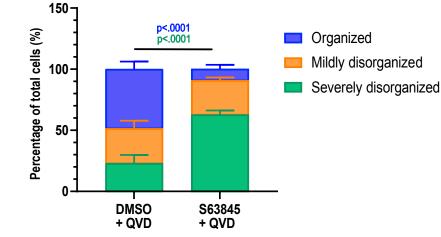
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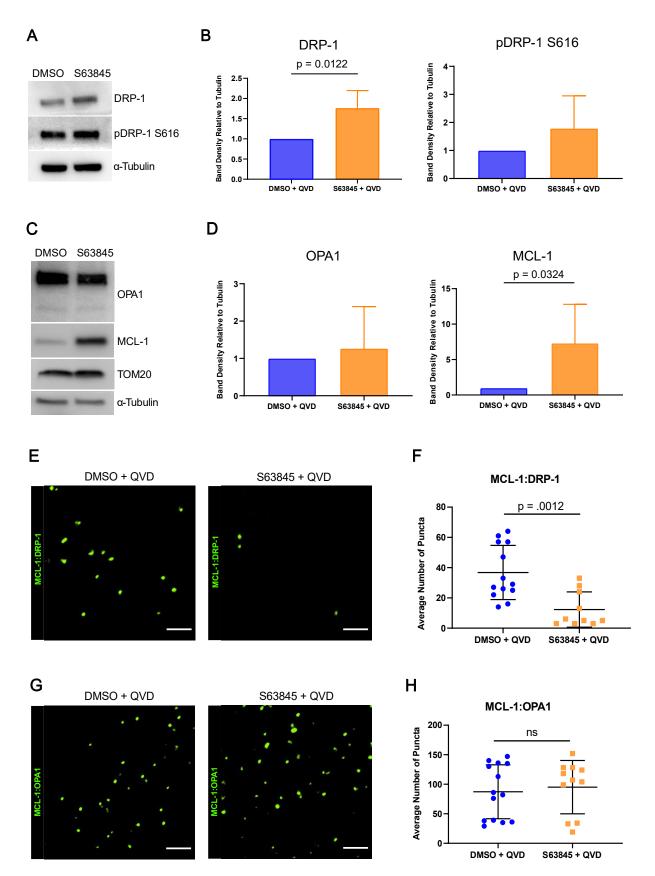






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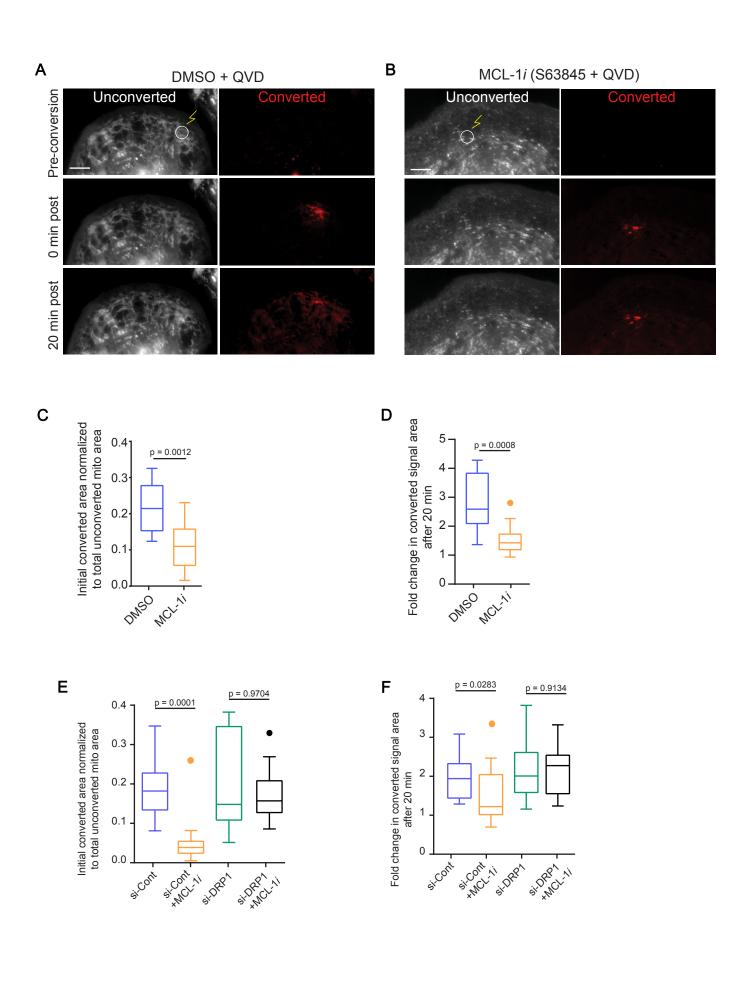
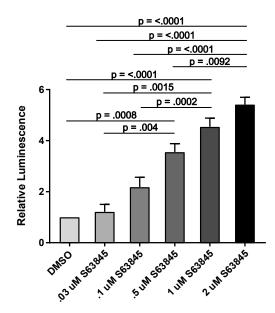


Figure 5

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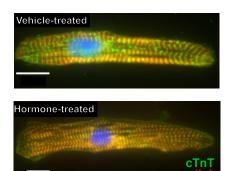


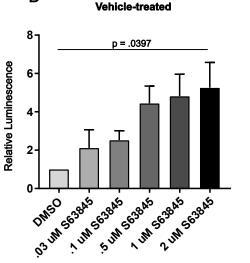
В

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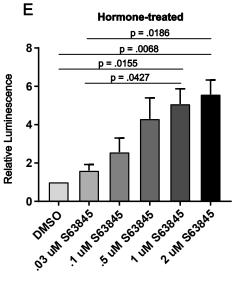


Figure 6

