Pharmacological inhibition of MCL-1 disrupts mitochondrial cristae and depletes the human neural progenitor cell pool

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Abstract

Myeloid Cell Leukemia-1 (MCL-1) is canonically an anti-apoptotic protein that is crucial for early neurodevelopment. Loss of MCL-1 results in embryonic-lethal neurodevelopmental defects that cannot be rescued by other anti-apoptotic proteins of the B-cell lymphoma 2 (BCL-2) family. Here, we pharmacologically inhibit MCL-1 in human neural stem cells and find non-apoptotic roles for MCL-1 in sustaining mitochondrial cristae integrity, fatty acid oxidation, and neural progenitor identity. MCL-1 inhibition disrupts mitochondrial ultrastructure, leading to swollen mitochondria with disorganized cristae and destabilization of the OPA1-MICOS machinery that maintains inner membrane architecture. These structural defects are accompanied by impaired lipid droplet accumulation and altered expression of β-oxidation enzymes, revealing a tight link between cristae architecture and metabolic competence. Functionally, in the absence of caspase-mediated cell death, MCL-1 inhibition selectively depletes intermediate progenitor cells without affecting proliferation, indicating a direct role in lineage progression. Together, our findings identify MCL-1 as a modulator of cristae organization, linking lipid metabolism to neural progenitor fate. This work establishes mitochondrial inner membrane architecture as an instructive determinant of human neurogenesis and highlights the non-canonical MCL-1 functions as critical regulators of human brain development.

Introduction

Neurodevelopment relies on the precise coordination of cellular processes that determine the fate of multipotent *PAX6*-expressing radial glial cells (RGCs)[1–3]. RGCs are the major neural stem cells (NSCs) that give rise to glia and neurons in the human cortex[4,5]. The fate of these NSCs relies on their ability to undergo symmetric or asymmetric division, a process that ultimately determines whether they self-renew or differentiate into specialized cell types[4,5]. NSCs give rise to intermediate progenitor cells (IPCs)[6,7], which are *EOMES* (TBR2)-expressing[8,9] cortex-specific transit amplifying cells[10] committed to producing glutamatergic projection neurons of cortical layers two through six[11,12]. Given the high bioenergetic demands and metabolic complexity of NSCs, disruption of mitochondrial morphology and function can impair critical stem cell transitions during neurogenesis[13–15]. Despite this, the precise role of mitochondrial morphology and function in these intricate transition states is incompletely understood.

Myeloid cell leukemia-1 (MCL-1) is a mitochondrial membrane protein identified as a regulator of mitochondrial morphology through mechanisms that are independent of its canonical anti-apoptotic function[16–20]. Initially recognized only as a member of the B-cell lymphoma 2 (BCL-2) family for its BCL-2 homology-3 (BH3) domain and role in preventing cell death at the outer mitochondrial membrane (OMM)[21], MCL-1 has been well-established to have non-apoptotic functions[17,18,22–26]. Disruption of MCL-1 causes mitochondrial dysfunction in human cardiomyocytes[20,23], as well as improper development of hematopoietic stem cells[27], B cell and T cell progenitors[28], activated B cells[29], and the central nervous system[30]. MCL-1 has also been found to localize to the inner mitochondrial membrane (IMM), where it may interact with cristae-shaping proteins, such as optic atrophy type 1 (OPA1)[18,19,23]. However, the function of MCL-1 at the IMM remains poorly delineated. Inhibition of MCL-1 has been explored as a promising treatment for chemo-resistant tumors but has not advance beyond Phase I/II in clinical trials due

to potential cardiotoxicity. Inhibition of MCL-1 with existing small molecule inhibitors results in

impaired cardiomyocyte function and disruption of mitochondrial morphology[31], but more

investigation is needed to determine whether this applies to other bioenergetically demanding cell

types. Like cardiomyocytes, NSCs are bioenergetically demanding cells; however, the effects of

MCL-1 pharmacological inhibition on human NSCs (hNSCs) remain unknown.

Previous work has reported a close association between MCL-1, mitochondrial morphology, and

pluripotent stem cell identity of human embryonic stem cells (hESCs)[17]. Knockdown of *MCL-1*

(*MCL-1^KD^*) in hESCs[17] results in an elongated mitochondrial network, a phenotype linked to

differentiation[32]. Moreover, *MCL-1^KD^* hESCs exhibited loss of key pluripotent transcription factors

and identity markers, including *OCT4* and *NANOG*[33,34]. Other studies have established a

postmitotic period of fate plasticity, controlled by mitochondrial morphology, during mouse brain

development[35,36]. When mitochondria remain elongated (low fission), NSCs divide symmetrically,

thus expanding the pool of progenitor cells. Conversely, if fission increases, this drives NSCs

toward differentiation[35,36]. *In vivo* mouse studies highlight the importance of MCL-1 in mouse

embryonic survival and proper fetal neurodevelopment[26]. A gene swap approach in which the

coding sequence of the *Mcl-1* gene was replaced with other anti-apoptotic genes, *BCL-2* (*Mcl-*

*1^BCL-2^*), *BCL-XL* (*Mcl-1^Bcl-xL^*), or *A1* (*Mcl-1^A1^*), resulted in neurodevelopmental defects that could

not be rescued by anti-apoptotic functions alone, providing evidence that the noncanonical

functions of MCL-1 are indispensable for proper neurodevelopment[26]. Studies in the field have

shown that disruption of the fatty acid oxidation (FAO) pathway promotes asymmetric

differentiation of adult mouse NSCs, highlighting the role of FAO in regulating NSC fate

decisions[37–40].

Work from the Opferman and Walensky groups revealed an unexpected link between MCL-1

and FAO in cancer cells[22,24,25]. Inhibition of MCL-1 results in decreased oxidation of long-chain

fatty acids (LCFAs) in cancer cells[22,24], likely due to the disrupted interaction between MCL-1

and the BH3-like domain of acyl-CoA synthetase long-chain family member 1 (ACSL-1). This

suggests that MCL-1 is a direct modulator of FAO in cancer cells[25]; however, this has not been

mechanistically investigated in the context of human neurodevelopment.

FAO is a metabolic process critical for energy production and cellular homeostasis that occurs

within the mitochondrial matrix and requires LCFAs to pass the OMM and IMM. Starting at the

OMM, LCFAs are first activated to acyl-CoA derivatives by ACSL1 and then catalyzed by carnitine

palmitoyltransferase I (CPT1) into a fatty acylcarnitine. At the IMM, carnitine palmitoyltransferase

II (CPT2) functions to cleave the fatty acylcarnitine and catalyze the fatty acid back to fatty acyl-

CoA for β-oxidation by Very Long Acyl-CoA Dehydrogenase (VLCAD) at the matrix. The

enzymatic breakdown of LCFAs is a multistep process that produces acetyl-CoA, a metabolic

byproduct which enters the tricarboxylic acid (TCA) cycle where it generates citrate that exits

the mitochondria and can be used for histone acetylation[41,42]. Disruption of the FAO pathway

promotes asymmetric differentiation of pluripotent and neural stem cells, suggesting a role of

FAO in stem cell fate decisions[37–40,43]. Although FAO modulates neurodevelopment and MCL-

1 is known to play a role in cancer cell FAO, the role of MCL-1 in FAO during human

neurodevelopment has not been explored. Here, we report the non-apoptotic effects of MCL-1

inhibition on mitochondrial and cristae morphology and FAO in hNSCs. Our findings provide

evidence that MCL-1 maintains the integrity of mitochondrial cristae and neural progenitor cell

identity.

Results

MCL-1 inhibition disrupts mitochondrial architecture and inner membrane organization in human neural stem cells

MCL-1 is known for its canonical function as an anti-apoptotic member of the BCL-2 family and is indispensable for the survival of human induced pluripotent stem cells[17], hematopoietic stem cells[27,44], and cardiomyocytes[23]. Similarly, embryonic neural precursor cells depend on MCL-1, as conditional knockout murine models display widespread apoptosis upon MCL-1 loss[45]. These findings suggest a general dependency on MCL-1 for the survival of neural precursor cells across developmental stages. To examine the effect of MCL-1 inhibition on hNSCs, we differentiated hESCs with SMAD inhibitors, as previously described[46], and treated them with S63845, a selective BH3 mimetic inhibitor of MCL-1, for 24 or 48 hours (**Figure 1A**).

Previous studies reported an increase in MCL-1 protein levels upon MCL-1 inhibition, which is speculated to be due to the stabilization of MCL-1 whereby MCL-1 is protected from degradation by proteases when its BH3 domain is occupied[47]. Using RT-qPCR, we observed a downregulation of *MCL-1* at 24 hours of inhibition but not 48 hours (**Supplementary Figure 1A**). Co-treatment with Q-VD-OPh (QVD), a potent pan-caspase inhibitor, did not result in downregulation of *MCL-1* expression (**Supplementary Figure 1B**). As previously reported, we also observed an increase in MCL-1 protein levels in hNSCs at both timepoints (**Supplementary Figures 1C-D**) despite the downregulation of *MCL-1* expression at 24 hours. This increase in MCL-1 protein levels serves as an internal control that the S63845 small molecule inhibitor is effectively inhibiting MCL-1 in hNSCs. However, this upregulation was not observed when hNSCs were co-treated with QVD (**Supplementary Figures 1E-F**).

The mitochondrial network of hNSCs treated with S63845 at both timepoints exhibited a swollen

mitochondrial network with greater volume and surface area as revealed by super-resolution

microscopy (**Figure 1B**). MCL-1 inhibition at 48 hours resulted in a significant reduction in

mitochondrial content. The maximum mitochondrial volume and equatorial diameter revealed an

expanded mitochondrial network at both timepoints (**Supplementary Figure 2A**). hNSCs co-

treated with QVD do not exhibit these mitochondrial network changes (**Supplementary Figure**

2B).

Due to the critical role of mitochondrial cristae in metabolism regulation, we interrogated whether

the effects of MCL-1 inhibition on mitochondrial morphology extended to the ultrastructure of the

cristae using transmission electron microscopy (TEM) (**Figure 2A**). The hNSCs treated with MCL-

1 inhibitor exhibited an atypical cristae morphology at 48 hours (**Figure 2B**). Three-dimensional

reconstruction of focused ion beam-scanning electron microscopy (FIB-SEM) images further

revealed an increase in cristae volume and surface area (**Figures 2C-D**) but not mitochondrial

branching index (MBI) or sphericity (**Supplementary Figure 3A**). MCL-1 inhibition led to

extensive loss of cristae organization in S63845-treated cells (**Figure 2A–E**). Compared to the

densely folded membranes of control mitochondria, those from MCL-1–inhibited cells exhibited

swollen matrices and sparse, disordered cristae. Volumetric analyses revealed a sharp increase

in both cristae surface area and volume, underscoring the significance of MCL-1 for maintaining

inner membrane complexity and structural integrity.

MCL-1 activity preserves OPA1 proteostasis and MICOS complex stability

Given the pronounced inner membrane defects, we examined the proteins responsible for cristae

shaping and junction formation (**Figure 3A**). The cristae structure is maintained by the

mitochondrial contact site and cristae-organizing system (MICOS) complex, composed of the

MIC60 subcomplex (MIC60, MIC19, MIC25) and the MIC10 subcomplex (MIC10, MIC26, MIC27)

bridged together by MIC13/QIL[48]. The MICOS complex is responsible for establishing junctions

that are required for cristae biogenesis in the IMM to increase its surface area for synthesis of

adenosine triphosphate (ATP) via oxidative phosphorylation through the electron transport

chain[16,49]. The large GTPase, OPA1, contributes to the stabilization of the MICOS and cristae

architecture[50]. The long form of OPA1 (OPA1-L) has a well-established role in IMM fusion[51] and

is also critical for the maintenance of cristae lumen width[52]. Cooperatively, the short forms of

OPA1 (OPA1-S1/2) maintains the length of the cristae lumen[52]. We first examined whether MCL-

1 inhibition alone or in combination with QVD alters the expression of *MIC60* or *OPA1* mRNA and

found no significant fold change (**Figure 3B-D**). We detected a decrease of OPA1-S1 protein

levels at 24 and 48 hours and of OPA1-S2 at 48 hours of MCL-1 plus caspase inhibition, but not

with MCL-1 inhibition alone (**Figures 3C-E**). Thus, MCL-1 inhibition disrupts the balance between

long (fusion-competent) and short OPA1 isoforms, hindering proteolytic cleavage of OPA1-L into

smaller fragments. Immunoblotting analysis for MIC60 and MIC10, the core components of the

MICOS subcomplexes, revealed a similar reduction in abundance of MIC10 protein levels at 48

hours of MCL-1 inhibition (**Figure 3C**). Co-treatment with the caspase inhibitor QVD did not

rescue the levels of MIC10 (**Figure 3E**), indicating that OPA1 processing and MICOS

destabilization are not a consequence of caspase activation. We did not observe a change in

other MICOS protein levels (**Figure 3C and Supplementary Figure 3B**). These data identify

MCL-1 as a critical regulator of mitochondrial inner membrane organization, acting upstream of

OPA1- and MICOS-dependent cristae maintenance.

MCL-1 inhibition impairs FAO and metabolic coupling

We predict that the FAO transmembrane enzymes and transport proteins heavily rely on the

proper assembly and structure of the OMM and IMM (**Figure 4A**). Previous investigations have

shown a close interaction between MCL-1 and FAO enzymes in cancer cells[22,25], and mouse

studies have also established the importance of FAO for maintenance of embryonic

neurodevelopment and adult NSCs[26,38,43]. To explore whether the mitochondrial structural

perturbations extend to mitochondrial function, we assessed key regulators of fatty acid β-

oxidation. Expression analyses revealed no changes in FAO enzyme transcripts with MCL-1

inhibition alone (**Figure 4B**), but a significant downregulation of *CPT2* transcripts at 24 hours

following MCL-1 and caspase inhibition, while *ACSL1* and *CPT1a* expression remained stable

(**Figure 4C**). Increased protein levels of CPT1a were detected at 48 hours following inhibition of

MCL-1 (**Figure 4D**). Furthermore, co-treatment with caspase inhibition revealed an increase of

CPT1a levels earlier at 24 hours, along with a decrease of CTP2 at 48 hours and VLCAD at both

timepoints (**Figure 4E**). The alteration in β-oxidation components persisted despite caspase

inhibition, confirming a direct metabolic effect of MCL-1 loss. These findings suggest that MCL-1

supports mitochondrial lipid utilization by sustaining the expression of enzymes critical for fatty

acid transport and oxidation.

Fatty acids get stored in lipid droplet organelles when they are not utilized for β-oxidation.

Accumulation of lipid droplets upon MCL-1 inhibition was previously reported in cancer cells and

murine liver as a marker of fatty acid β-oxidation disruption[25]. To further investigate the impact of

MCL-1 inhibition on FAO, hNSCs were cultured in nutrient-deficient DMEM media supplemented

only with palmitate during treatment with MCL-1 inhibitor, followed by a 2-hour starvation period

in HBSS and S63845 (**Figure 5A**). Consistent with impaired β-oxidation, S63845-treated hNSCs

accumulated excess neutral lipids when challenged with palmitate as their only resource for fuel

(**Figure 5B**). Quantitative imaging revealed increased the average and maximum volume of lipid

droplets (**Figure 5C**), indicative of reduced lipid turnover and a shift toward storage. These data

suggest that MCL-1 sustains metabolic flux as fatty acids fail to import to the matrix and

accumulate in lipid droplets.

MCL-1 maintains neural progenitor identity and supports neuronal differentiation

Given the role of MCL-1 in FAO and the mitochondrial and metabolic perturbations triggered by

MCL-1 inhibition, we investigated the effects of S63845 treatment on neurogenic progression.

Although we did not detect changes in global protein levels of hNSC identity markers

(**Supplementary Figure 4A**), we observed a significant downregulation of *PAX6* (a marker of

neural stem cell identity) and *EOMES* (the gene encoding TBR2, a marker of IPCs) at 24 hours

that was not rescued by QVD co-treatment and persisted into 48 hours with co-treatment

(**Supplementary Figure 4B**). Immunofluorescent imaging revealed a small population of IPCs

(PAX6$^-$/TBR2$^+$) in the culture of hESCs induced with dual SMAD inhibition. IPCs are committed

progenitor cells that give rise to glutamatergic projection neurons. MCL-1 inhibition selectively

reduced the proportion of PAX6$^-$/TBR2$^+$ IPCs while sparing PAX6$^+$ RGC-like progenitors (**Figure

6A**). This loss of IPCs persisted under caspase inhibition (**Figure 6B**), suggesting that MCL-1 is

critical for maintaining the identity of this progenitor pool through non-apoptotic mechanisms. To

determine how these effects on IPCs impact neuronal differentiation, we first examined the ability

of the cells to proliferate using EdU labeling and found no significant changes in late or early S-

phase (**Supplementary Figure 5A&B**). To further investigate the potency of neural

stem/progenitor cells, we examined their ability to differentiate and give rise to newborn neurons

using βIII-tubulin staining (**Figure 7**). Control cells formed dense neurite networks with extensive

βIII-tubulin labeling, whereas MCL-1–inhibited neurons displayed sparse and truncated

processes, reflecting defective neurite extension and maturation (**Figure 7**). When treated with

MCL-1 inhibitor, neural stem/progenitor cells gave rise to less newborn neurons; however, this

phenotype was rescued upon co-treatment with QVD. This sheds light on the importance of MCL-

1 for the potency of neural stem/progenitor cells to undergo proper differentiation and for newborn

neurons to undergo proper maturation (**Figure 7B**). The absence of overt cytotoxicity suggests

that MCL-1 directly supports neuronal commitment rather than survival alone.

Discussion

Although MCL-1 has been traditionally studied as an anti-apoptotic BCL-2 family member[21,53], accumulating evidence supports its critical role in maintaining mitochondrial homeostasis across diverse cell types[25,26]. Our findings extend this paradigm to the developing human brain. By combining ultrastructural, molecular, and functional analyses, we report that MCL-1 sustains the integrity of mitochondrial architecture and its functional coupling to metabolic flux. Inhibition of MCL-1 leads to structural collapse of the cristae and disassembly of the MICOS complex as well as OPA1, two scaffolds required for cristae maintenance. Consequently, MCL-1 inhibition impairs FAO metabolism, as evidenced by altered FAO enzyme levels and lipid droplet accumulation. We propose that efficient FAO depends on both cristae surface area and the localization of β-oxidation enzymes to defined subdomains of the inner membrane. These perturbations are accompanied by defects in IPC maintenance and neuronal maturation. Our findings establish a non-apoptotic role for MCL-1 in sustaining mitochondrial organization and metabolic competence, which are indispensable for proper human neurogenesis. Taken together, the data suggest that MCL-1 integrates mitochondrial architecture with metabolic capacity to support progenitor identity.

While MCL-1 has been reported to influence FAO in cancer cells and to localize to the IMM, its impact on cristae integrity has remained unexplored until now. Our findings bridge this gap by revealing that MCL-1 is necessary for maintaining cristae organization and metabolic FAO competence in hNSCs. The observed reduction in mitochondrial content upon MCL-1 inhibition likely reflects a compensatory failure where mitochondria are increased in volume and surface but lose metabolic function as apparent by lipid droplet accumulation. We find this disruption to be coupled to a decline in FAO enzymes. Further investigation is required to determine whether ACSL1 localization is affected by MCL inhibition in hNSCs, as reported in cancer cells. Whether ACSL1 integrates into the OMM or needs only to be in close proximity to the OMM for the

activation of LCFAs is not known. Given that the altered FAO enzyme levels were all downstream

of ACSL1, this raises the question of whether ACSL1 is a rate-limiting step in the mitochondrial

beta-oxidation pathway. If ACSL1 is displaced from the mitochondria, this may disrupt a feedback

loop that maintains the expression and stabilization of FAO enzymes, thereby dismantling the

FAO signaling pathway and leading to lipid oxidation dysfunction. The alterations in FAO enzyme

expression and protein levels accompanied by mitochondrial swelling suggest that MCL-1

coordinates spatial coupling between lipid activation and oxidative metabolism.

Given that efficient FAO is a defining feature of the progenitor metabolic state, this association

could represent a key mechanism linking mitochondrial structure and function to the maintenance

of stem cell fate. The influence of mitochondrial function on developmental fate decisions is

increasingly recognized. *In vivo* and *in vitro* studies have identified a postmitotic window of

neurogenic plasticity directed by mitochondrial morphology[45,36,54]. Moreover, disruption of the

FAO pathway promotes asymmetric differentiation of adult mouse pluripotent and neural stem

cells, signifying a role of FAO in stem cell fate decisions[38,43]. Our data reveal that MCL-1

inhibition disrupts this balance. MCL-1 inhibition does not alter hNSC proliferation but instead

results in reduced intermediate progenitors and impaired neuronal differentiation and maturation.

Bioenergetically demanding cells must meet their metabolic needs for proper function and

survival. The metabolic intermediates of mitochondrial FAO, such as acetyl-CoA, may alter gene

expression via histone modifications (e.g., acetylation) and ultimately influence cell fate decisions.

In the delicate process of development, high-energy-demanding cells must maintain a specific

metabolic profile for survival, making metabolism a quality-control checkpoint. If a cell does not

meet the criteria for differentiation, its fate shifts to maintain tissue integrity.

A key question emerging from this study is whether MCL-1 directly regulates FAO through

physical association with lipid import enzymes or indirectly by maintaining cristae topology. We

hypothesize that MCL-1 associates with both MICOS and FAO enzymes at discrete cristae

contact points, thereby coupling membrane morphology to metabolic signaling.

Taken together, our results position MCL-1 upstream of the structural regulators OPA1 and

MICOS and define a previously unappreciated dimension of MCL-1 function in human

neurogenesis, albeit using an *in vitro* experimental paradigm. Beyond its canonical anti-apoptotic

role, MCL-1 emerges as a structural and metabolic hub that links cristae architecture, lipid

oxidation, and lineage progression. We propose a model in which MCL-1 associates with MICOS

and FAO complexes to maintain cristae organization and metabolic flux, thereby sustaining the

progenitor state and enabling efficient neuronal differentiation. Future studies dissecting the

molecular interfaces between MCL-1, MICOS proteins, and FAO enzymes will be critical for

determining whether MCL-1 acts as a scaffold that integrates mitochondrial structure and

metabolic signaling. In alignment with our observations, mutations in cristae-shaping proteins are

associated with severe neurodevelopmental disorders, reinforcing the notion that mitochondrial

ultrastructure steers fate specification. Understanding this connection could illuminate

fundamental mechanisms by which mitochondrial morphology and function influences stem cell

potency during neurodevelopment.

Methods

Human Embryonic Stem Cells (hESCs)

Human embryonic stem cell line, H9 (WA09), was obtained from WiCell Research Institute

(Wisconsin). H9s were maintained in mTeSR (STEMCELL Technologies, cat # 85850) media on

6-well plates coated with Matrigel (Corning, cat # 354277) at 37°C with 5% CO2. Culture medium

was changed daily. Cells were checked daily for differentiation and were passaged every 3-4 days

using Gentle cell dissociation solution (STEMCELL Technologies, cat # 07174). All experiments

were performed under the supervision of the Vanderbilt Institutional Human Pluripotent Cell

Research Oversight (VIHPCRO) Committee. Cells were periodically checked for contamination.

hESC-derived hNSC culture

H9s were cultured until reaching 70-80% confluency, ensuring minimal differentiation at the

colony edges. Cells were dissociated using 1 mL of a Gentle Cell Dissociation Reagent

(STEMCELL Technologies, cat # 100-0485) and incubated at 37°C for 8 minutes. 2 mL of DMEM-

F12 (Thermo Scientific, cat # 11320033) supplemented with 10 µM of ROCK inhibitor

(STEMCELL Technologies, cat # 72307) was added to each well. Cells were gently scraped,

pipetted for transfer into a conical tube, and centrifuged at 300 x g for 5 minutes. Cell pellet was

resuspended in STEMdiff™ SMADi Neural Induction Medium (NIM) (STEMCELL Technologies,

cat # 08581) supplemented with 10 uM ROCK inhibitor. Cell suspension was counted and plated

at a density of 2.0-2.5x10^6 cells per well in a 6-well plate. Cells were incubated at 37°C for 7 days,

with daily feeding of NIM.

Western blot

Cells were harvested in lysis buffer containing 1% Triton X-100 (Sigma, cat # T9284), 1X complete

protease inhibitor cocktail (Roche, cat # 04693159001), 1X PhosSTOP phosphatase inhibitor

(Roche, cat # 04906837001), and 0.5mM PMSF (RPI, cat # P20270). Samples were kept on ice

and vortexed for 30 seconds every 10 minutes. Lysates were centrifuged at 14,100 x g for 30

minutes at 4ºC. Supernatant was collected and protein concentrations were quantified using the

Pierce BCA Protein Assay Kit (ThermoScientific, cat # 23225). Western blotting was performed

using the Bio-Rad Mini-PROTEAN Electrophoresis System (Bio-Rad, cat # 1658036). Samples

were run on 4-20% Mini-PROTEAN TGX gels (Bio-Rad, cat # 4561095). Protein was transferred

from gels onto methanol activated PVDF membranes (Bio-Rad, cat # 1620177). All membranes

were washed in Tris-buffered saline with 0.1% Tween-20 (TBST) and blocked in TBST containing

5% milk for 1 hour at room temperature. Primary antibodies were incubated at listed dilution in

TBST containing 5% milk overnight at 4ºC. Secondary antibodies were used at listed dilution in

TBST containing 5% milk and incubated for 1 hour at room temperature. Protein signal was

developed using either Pierce ECL Western Blot Substrate (32109, ThermoScientific) or

SuperSignal West Femto (34094, ThermoScientific), depending on the sensitivity of the primary

antibody. Protein signal was visualized using the Amersham Imager 600 (29-0834-61, GE Life

Sciences). Acquired images were quantified using Thermo Fisher Scientific iBright Analysis

Software and representative images were composed using Affinity Designer 2.

Antibody	Source	Catalogue Number	RRID	Dilution	Application
Mouse anti-mitochondria	Abcam	ab92824	AB_10562769	1:200	Immunofluorescence
Mouse anti-PAX6	BD Pharmingen	561462	AB_10715442	1:200	Immunofluorescence
Rabbit anti-EMOES (TBR2)	Cell Signaling Technology	81493	AB_2799974	1:200	Immunofluorescence
Mouse anti-b-Actin	Sigma-Aldrich	A1978	N/A	1:10,000	Western blot
Rabbit anti-cleaved PARP	Cell Signaling Technology	5625S	AB_10699459	1:1000	Western blot
Rabbit anti-MCL-1	Cell Signaling Technology	94296S	AB_2722740	1:1000	Western blot

Rabbit anti-CHCHD3 (MIC19)	Proteintech	25625-1-AP	AB_2687533	1:10,000	Western blot
Rabbit anti-IMMT (MIC60)	Sigma-Aldrich	HPA036164	AB_2674979	1:5000	Western blot
Rabbit anti-OPA-1	Cell Signaling Technology	67589S	AB_2799728	1:5000	Western blot
Rabbit anti-PAX6	Cell Signaling Technology	60433S	AB_2797599	1:500	Western blot
Mouse anti-SOX2	Abcam	ab79351	AB_10710406	1:500	Western blot

RNA extraction and cDNA synthesis

Cells were collected in 1000 µl TRIzol reagent. 200 µl of chloroform was added and the samples

were incubated at room temperature for 5 minutes prior to centrifugation at 12,000 x g at 4°C.

The aqueous phase was collected and 500 µl of isopropanol was added to precipitate RNA.

Samples were incubated for 25 minutes at room temperature, followed by centrifugation at 12,000

x g for 10 minutes at 4°C. The RNA pellet was washed with 75% ethanol, semi-dried, and

resuspended in 30 µl of DEPC-treated water. Concentration was measured and 2 µg per sample

was treated with DNAse (New England Biolabs #M0303) prior to generating cDNA using the

manufacturer's protocol (Thermo Fisher #4368814).

Quantitative PCR (RT-qPCR)

363 50 ng of cDNA sample was used to run RT-qPCR using 20 µM of the primers listed in the table.

364 QuantStudio 3 Real-Time PCR machine, SYBR green master mix (Thermo Fisher #4364346),

365 and manufacturer instructions were used to set up the assay.

Target	Forward Primer	Reverse Primer
GAPDH	ACAACTTTGGTATCGTGGAAGG	GCCATCACGCCACAGTTTC
GPI	GTGTACCTTCTAGTCCCGCC	GGTCAAGCTGAAGTGGTTGAAGC
MCL-1	GTGCCTTTGTGGCTAAACACT	AGTCCCGTTTTGTCCTTACGA

MIC19	GAGGCGGACGAGAATGAGAAC	ACCAGAATACCGCTGAGACTTC
MIC60	CGATTCAGTCGGGTCCACTAA	AGCTGGAGTATCTCCCTTTTGT
OPA1	TGTGAGGTCTGCCAGTCTTTA	TGTCCTTAATTGGGGTCGTTG
PAX6	TGGGCAGGTATTACGAGACTG	ACTCCCGCTTATACTGGGCTA
SOX2	CCATGCAGGTTGACACCGTTG	TCGGCAGACTGATTCAAATAATACAG
TBR2	GTGCCCACGTCTACCTGTG	CCTGCCCTGTTTCGTAATGAT

Immunofluorescence

Cells were plated on 35 mm glass-bottom dishes (glass thickness of 0.16-0.19 mm) for confocal spinning disk immunofluorescence. Cells were fixed with 4% paraformaldehyde for 20 min and permeabilized in 1% Triton-X-100 for 10 min at room temperature. After blocking in 10% BSA for 1 hour, cells were treated with primary and secondary antibodies using standard methods. Primary antibodies were incubated at listed dilution in 10% BSA overnight at 4ºC. Secondary antibodies were used at listed dilution in 10% BSA and incubated for 1 hour at room temperature. The nuclear stain used was HOECHST (Thermo Scientific, cat # H3570) and cells were mounted in Fluoromount-G (Electron Microscopy Sciences #17984-25) prior to imaging. Cells were labeled for EdU using the manufacturer's protocol (Thermo Fisher #C10340). Lipid droplet staining was done live using BODIPY (Cayman Chemical Company #25892). Cells were incubated at 37ºC for 15 minutes in 4 µM BODIPY prior to fixation in 4% PFA.

Spinning Disk Confocal image acquisition

Images were acquired using a Nikon Spinning Disk Confocal outfitted with a Yokogawa CSU-X1 spinning disk head, Andor DU-897 EMCCD camera, and high-speed piezo [z] stage. All 100X images were acquired with a step size of 0.2 µm, while 20X images were acquired with a step size of 2 µm. Image processing and quantification was performed using NIS Elements (Nikon) and all representative images were generated using Fiji.

For mitochondrial morphology, we segmented mitochondria in 3D and performed skeletonization

of the resulting 3D mask. Skeleton major axis length, volume, and surface area measurements

were exported into GraphPad Prism v9.

Tissue Preparation for TEM and FIB-SEM

Neural progenitor cells were plated at 1.5×10^6 cells per 35 mm dish on Matrigel. The cells were

washed with 1X PBS (3X), fixed in 2.5% glutaraldehyde in 0.1 M cacodylate prewarmed to 37ºC,

left to cool down at room temperature for 1hr, and placed at 4ºC for an additional 24-48 hour of

fixation. Cells were washed from fixative with 1X PBS (3x). Samples were sequentially post-fixed

using the OTO method: 1.5% potassium ferrocyanide, 1% OsO4 in 0.1 M cacodylate for 30

minutes on ice, then 1% thiocarbohydrazide for 10 minutes, followed by 1% OsO4 in ddH2O for

10 minutes. Samples are then enblock stained with 2% uranyl acetate followed by lead aspartate.

The samples were then dehydrated in a graded ethanol series and infiltrated with Durcupan resin

using acetone as the transition solvent. The resin was polymerized at 60ºC for 48 hours. For TEM,

sections were cut on a Leica UC7 at a nominal thickness of 50 nm with no post-section staining.

For FIB-SEM, samples were prepared as previously described[55].

TEM image acquisition and Cristae Scoring

Sections were imaged with either a ThermoFisher Scientific Tecnai T12 operating at 100 keV

using an AMT nanosprint5 CMOS camera or a JEOL 2100+ operating at 200 keV using an AMT

nanosprint15 II CMOS camera. In both cases, AMT acquisition software was used for imaging.

The TEM images were analyzed using cristae scoring (Lam et. Al, 2021)[56]. The files were first

renamed to blind the scoring process. The images were then blindly scored. A score was provided

for each mitochondrion based on the quality of the cristae. The scoring rubric was as follows: 0 -

there were no crista, 1 - more than 50% of the mitochondrial area did not have cristae, 2 - more

than 25% of the mitochondria was without cristae, 3 - lots of cristae but irregular in structure, and

4 - many cristae that are regular structures.

FIB-SEM image acquisition

Sections were imaged with Zeiss Crossbeam 550 FIB-SEM using ATLAS5 software for

automated volumetric acquisition. Sample blocked were polished with a diamond knife and coated

with platinum. Platinum pads were deposited via GIS on ROIs of interest, followed by milling in

tracking marks and coating with GIS carbon. Milling was performed using a 700 pA Ga beam at

8 nm slice depth, imaging was performed 1.5 keV electron beam using the in column ESB detector

for imaging at 8 nm pixels to make isotropic voxels. Volumetric slice alignments were performed

in ATLAS5 using the two-window alignment method.

FIB-SEM mitochondrial image analysis

FIB-SEM stacks were first cropped using Fiji is just Image J (FIJI). In the FIB-SEM stacks, none

of the cells imaged were able to be visualized completely. Therefore, the crop size and location

were selected by choosing a cell with bright, visible mitochondria. The crop was 500 x 500 pixels

with a 3,000 nm depth. The cropped image was then imported into the FIJI LabKit plugin for

segmentation[57]. For segmentation, each mitochondrion was manually traced with a separate label

ID. Quality control was then performed following each mitochondrion through the entirety of the

Z-stack and tracking all locations where the membranes connect. Any mitochondria that merged

in any of the frames were labeled with the same label ID. The cropped FIB-SEM image and the

proofread segmentation masks were imported into the IMARIS software. Ortho slices in the XY

and XZ planes were added, and the proofread mask was selected to be identified by ID. This

identifies each separate mitochondrion. Any mitochondria that were still split were manually

combined in the IMARIS software using the unify feature. A clipping plane was then added.

Animations were made using the animations tab in IMARIS with 50 frames per second and 1,000

frames total. Still images were captured using the screenshot feature. Volume quantification was

done by volume measurement provided in the statistics tab in IMARIS. Surface area quantification

was manually calculating using volume and sphericity measurements from the IMARIS statistics

tab using the equation: $\frac{\pi^{\frac{1}{3}}(6*Volume)^{\frac{2}{3}}}{Sphericity}$. Lastly, the mitochondrial branching index (MBI), was

calculated by obtaining the BoundingBox00 length A (longest side) and BoundingBox00 length C

(Shortest side) in the Vantage 2D tab and then dividing Length C/ Length A manually[58].

FIB-SEM cristae image analysis

The same FIB-SEM cropped images were used for the segmentation of the cristae. The cropped

images were imported into FIJI and applied Contrast Limited Adaptive Histogram Equalization

(CLAHE) to increase contrast. They were then imported into the LabKit plugin for segmentation.

Each crista was manually traced, and all the cristae within one mitochondrion were labeled with

the same label ID. Quality control was then performed, ensuring each mitochondrion had all its

cristae labeled with the same ID. The cropped FIB-SEM image and the proofread segmentation

masks were imported into the IMARIS software. Ortho slices in the XY and XZ planes were added,

and the proofread mask was selected by ID. This identifies each separate mitochondrion's cristae.

Any errors in the cristae mask were merged using the unify feature in IMARIS. A clipping plane

was then added to show the mitochondria throughout the entire z-plane. Animations were made

using the animations tab in IMARIS with 50 frames per second and with 1,000 frames total. Still

images were taken using the snapshot feature. Volume quantification was done by volume

measurement provided in the statistics tab in IMARIS. Surface Area quantification was manually

calculated using volume and sphericity measurements from IMARIS statistics tab using the

equation:$\frac{\pi^{\frac{1}{3}}(6*Volume)^{\frac{2}{3}}}{Sphericity}$. Cristae measurements were then normalized to the corresponding

mitochondria by dividing the crista measurement by the mitochondrion measurement (i.e.,

461 $\dfrac{Crista\ Volume}{Mitochonrion\ Volume}$. The mitochondria segmentation was then added to the same IMARIS file as a

462 second surface. The label was chosen by ID, and the surface type was changed to transparent

463 to show the cristae within those mitochondria. Images were taken using the snapshot function,

464 and animations were made with 50 frames per second and 1,000 frames total.

466 **Statistical analysis**

467 All experiments were performed with at least 3 biological replicates. Statistical significance was

468 determined by one-way, repeated measures one-way ANOVA, or t-test as appropriate for each

469 experiment. Significance was assessed using Fisher's protected least significance difference test.

470 GraphPad Prism v9 was used for all statistical analysis and data visualization. Error bars in all

471 bar graphs represent the standard error of the mean unless otherwise noted in the figure. No

472 outliers were removed from the analyses. For all statistical analyses, a significant difference was

473 accepted when $P < 0.05$.

Figure Legends

Figure 1. S63845 impacts mitochondrial content and morphology.

(A) Schematic detailing the neural induction of human embryonic stem cells (hESCs) using SMAD

inhibition (SMADi) for the derivation of the human neural stem cells (hNSCs) tissue culture model.

hNSCs are maintained in neural induction media (NIM) with daily media changes until they are

passaged on day 7. hNSCs are given a 24-hour acclimation period on day 8 before treatment on

day 9 with 1µm S63845 (MCL-1 inhibitor), and DMSO as the control group. Samples were then

collected at 24- and 48-hours post-treatment on days 10 and 11 after which cells were fixed and

stained for imaging on a SoRa spinning disk confocal (SDC) microscope. (B) Immunofluorescent

images of mitochondria (anti-mito in magenta) and nuclei (Hoechst in cyan) acquired on SoRA

SDC at 100X (scale bar = 40µm). Representative images (n=3) of 24- and 48-hours post-

treatment with DMSO control and S63845 (MCL-1 inhibitor). Quantification of mitochondrial

content and average measures of mitochondrial morphology. Nine images were acquired per

condition and plotted in gray. Each large, open-shape data point represents the mean per

biological replicate. Shape of data point corresponds to each biological replicate (open circle for

n=1, open square for n=2, and open triangle for n=3). Means of the biological replicates were

analyzed using a parametric two-tailed unpaired t-test with a Welch's Correction. Error bars

represent standard error of the mean.

Figure 2. MCL-1 inhibition compromises mitochondrial cristae integrity.

(A) Schematic detailing the neural induction of human embryonic stem cells (hESCs) using SMAD

inhibition (SMADi) for the derivation of the human neural stem cells (hNSCs) tissue culture model.

hNSCs are maintained in neural induction media (NIM) with daily media changes until they are

passaged on day 7. hNSCs are given a 24-hour acclimation period on day 8 before treatment on

day 9 with 1µm MCL-1 inhibitor (S63845 MCL-1i) with DMSO as the control group. Samples were

then collected at 48-hours post-treatment on day 11 after which cells were fixed and processed

for transmission electron microscopy (TEM) or focused ion beam-scanning electron microscopy

(FIB-SEM). (B) Representative TEM images (n=3) of hNSC mitochondrial cristae 48-hours post-

treatment with DMSO control and S63845 MCL-1 inhibitor. Scale bar = 600nm. (C) 3-dimensional

reconstructions of mitochondria and cristae after 48-hour treatment with S63845 (MCL1 inhibitor)

(scale bar = 0.5µm). (D) Quantification of cristae changes from 3-dimensional reconstruction.

Each cristae volume and surface area was normalized to (divided by) the corresponding

mitochondrion volume and surface area, respectively, and multiplied by 100 to get the percentage

of change. Each data point shown is an individual mitochondrion. Data were analyzed using a

parametric two-tailed unpaired t-test with a Welch's correction. (E) Volumetric still frames of

mitochondrial cristae 3-D reconstruction of NSCs at 48 hours post-treatment with DMSO control

and S63845 (MCL-1 inhibitor) segmented from FIB-SEM volume images. Scale bar = 3000 nm.

Figure 3. S63845 and QVD co-treatment reveal altered levels of cristae-shaping proteins.

(A) Schematic detailing the neural induction of human embryonic stem cells (hESCs) using

SMADi. hNSCs are maintained in neural induction media (NIM) with daily media changes until

they are passaged on day 7. hNSCs are given a 24-hour acclimation period on day 8 before

treatment on day 9 with 1µm S63845 (MCL-1 inhibitor), plus or minus 25 µM QVD co-treatment,

with DMSO or DMSO+QVD as the control groups. Samples were then collected at 24- and 48-

hours post-treatment on days 10 and 11, respectively. Cells were collected in either Trizol for real-

time quantitative polymerase chain reaction (RT-qPCR) or protease inhibitor-containing lysis

buffer for western blot. (B) Quantified relative expression of *OPA1* and *MIC60* after 24- and 48-

hour treatments with DMSO control and S63845 (MCL-1 inhibitor). (C) Left panel: representative

images (n=3) of OPA1-L, OPA1-S1, OPA1-S2, MIC60, and MIC10 after 24- and 48-hours of

treatment with DMSO control and S63845 (MCL-1 inhibitor). Right panel: quantified band density.

(D) Quantified relative expression of *OPA1* and *MIC60* after 24- and 48-hour S63845 plus QVD

co-treatment. (E) Representative images (n=3) and quantified band density of OPA1-L, OPA1-

S1, OPA1-S2, MIC60, and MIC10 after 24- and 48- hour S63845 plus QVD co-treatment. Each

data point represents a biological replicate. Shape of data point corresponds to each biological

replicate (circle for n=1, square for n=2, and triangle for n=3). Data analyzed using a parametric

two-tailed unpaired t-test with a Welch's Correction. Error bars represent standard error of the

mean.

Figure 4. S63845 and QVD co-treatment results in downregulation of carnitine

palmitoyltransferase and altered levels of FAO enzymes.

(A) Schematic of the mitochondrial fatty acid beta-oxidation pathway (B) Quantified relative

expression of FAO enzymes after 24- and 48-hours post-treatment with DMSO and S63845

(MCL-1 inhibitor). (C) Quantified relative expression of FAO enzymes after 24- and 48-hour

S63845 plus QVD co-treatment. (D) Representative images (n=3) and quantified band density of

ACSL1, CPT1a, CPT2, and VLCAD after 24- and 48-hours of treatment with DMSO control and

S63845 (MCL-1 inhibitor). (E) Representative images (n=3) and quantified band density of

ACSL1, CPT1a, CPT2, and VLCAD after 24- and 48- hour S63845 plus QVD co-treatment. Each

data point on the graph represents a biological replicate. Shape of data point corresponds to each

biological replicate (circle for n=1, square for n=2, and triangle for n=3). Data analyzed using a

parametric two-tailed unpaired t-test with Welch's Correction. Error bars represent standard error

of the mean.

Figure 5. hNSCs supplemented with palmitate and treated with S63845 accumulate lipid

droplets.

(A) Schematic of experimental design. On day 9 post-induction, hNSCs were treated with S63845

in nutrient deficient DMEM media (-glucose, -glutamine, -pyruvate) and supplemented with

100μM of palmitate for 12 hours followed by a 2-hour starvation in HBSS. Cells were then live

stained with BODIPY and Hoechst prior to PFA fixation. (B) Representative fluorescent images

(n=3) of lipid droplets (BODIPY in magenta) and nuclei (Hoechst in cyan) were acquired on a

spinning disk confocal microscope at 100X (scale bar = 40µm). (C) Quantification of lipid droplet

content, average volume, and maximum volume. Six images were acquired per condition and

plotted in gray with shape corresponding to each biological replicate. Each open-shape data point

represents the mean per biological replicate. Shape of data point corresponds to each biological

replicate (open circle for n=1, open square for n=2, and open triangle for n=3). Means of the

biological replicates were analyzed using a parametric two-tailed unpaired t-test with a Welch's

Correction. Error bars represent standard error of the mean.

Figure 6. S63845 results in depletion of TBR2^{+}/PAX6^{-} IPCs independent of cell death.

Representative fluorescent images (n=3) of nuclear identity markers TBR2 (green), PAX6

(magenta), and nuclei (Hoechst in blue) were acquired on a spinning disk confocal microscope at

20X (scale bar = 200µm). Intermediate progenitor cells (IPCs) identified by presence of TBR2 and

absence of PAX6. (A) Quantified percentage of IPCs after 24- and 48-hour treatments with

S63845 (MCL-1 inhibitor). (B) Quantified percentage of IPCs after 24- and 48-hour S63845 plus

QVD co-treatment. Quantification of IPCs manually counted and normalized to total cell count for

final percentage output. Seven images were acquired per condition and plotted in gray. Each

large, open-shape data point represents the mean per biological replicate. Shape of data point

corresponds to biological replicate (open circle for n=1, open square for n=2, and open triangle

for n=3). Mean of biological replicates analyzed using a two-tailed paired parametric t-test.

Figure 7. S63845 results in depletion of BIII-Tubulin^{+} newborn neurons.

(A) Representative fluorescent images of each biological replicate (n=3) of hNSCs treated with

S63845 alone or with QVD co-treatment. Newborn neurons labeled with BIII-Tubulin (white) and

nuclei (Hoechst in blue) were imaged on a spinning disk confocal microscope at 60X (scale bar =

100µm).

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Author contributions

M. R. Hanna and V. Gama conceived the study, designed experiments, interpreted data, and wrote the manuscript. V. Gama supervised the research. M. R. Hanna designed, conducted, and analyzed all cell biology experiments, with technical assistance from M. Gil, M. Yarbrough, and J. Costanzo. E. Krystofiak performed TEM and FIB-SEM tissue preparation and imaging. M. Yarbrough performed 3D reconstruction and analysis of FIB-SEM data. All authors edited the document.

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A

B

Figure 2

A

B

C

A