# In vivo visualization of intestinal stem cell and crypt dynamics

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#### COLOFON

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Title pages: 3D rendering in Imaris of intestinal stem cells (marked by Lgr5) at the bottom of crypts.

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# *IN VIVO* VISUALIZATION OF INTESTINAL STEM CELL AND CRYPT DYNAMICS

*IN VIVO* VISUALISATIE VAN STAMCEL- EN CRYPTDYNAMIEK IN DE DARM (met een samenvatting in het Nederlands)

## Proefschrift

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door

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## THESIS SCOPE AND OUTLINE

To cope with the hazardous environment in the lumen, the intestinal epithelium is renewed every 3-5 days. This rapid tissue turnover is fueled by stem and progenitor cells at the bottom of crypts – small invaginations into the intestinal wall – that proliferate approximately once a day. The proliferation pushes postmitotic cells upward towards the lumen where they get shed. In this thesis, we use intravital microscopy to visualize this highly dynamic intestinal epithelium in real time. We aim to understand the dynamics that underlie stem cell competition at the base of small and large intestinal crypts and how stem cell and crypt dynamics in the healthy epithelium can affect mutation accumulation and ultimately turnor initiation.

In **Chapter 1** we highlight how over the recent years live cell and intravital microscopy have contributed to the understanding of stem cell dynamics and plasticity during development, homeostasis, regeneration and tumor formation.

In **Chapter 2** we give our perspective on how intestinal stem cell and crypt dynamics minimize the retention of mutations in the intestinal epithelium by ensuring that most mutated cells get lost.

In **Chapter 3** we describe the differences in stem cell dynamics in small and large intestinal crypts. We find that the amount of retrograde movement of the cells within the crypt determines which cells can act as long-term stem cells, as this allows gaining a favorable position in the niche center. While in the small intestine we do observe retrograde movement resulting in functional stemness of cells further away from the crypt base, this retrograde movement is (near) absent in the large intestine. Therefore, only cells at the center of the crypt can function as long-term stem cells in the large intestine, while cells further away from the crypt base are destined to be lost.

In **Chapter 4** we investigate how Wnt ligands influence tumor initiation by controlling the number of intestinal stem cells. We show that when Wnt secretion is reduced using a Porcupine inhibitor, stem cells located further away from the crypt base are lost, resulting in a smaller pool of competing stem cells. When APC is deleted in this scenario, APC mutated stem cells can take over the crypt more rapidly, leading to accelerated tumorigenesis.

In **Chapter 5** we study the effects of enlarging the stem cell pool by a calorie restricted diet. We demonstrate that a larger stem cell pool induced by this diet results in a lower retention of mutated cells, since there are more wild-type stem cell competitors that can outcompete mutated cells.

In **Chapter 6** we uncover the previously unobserved phenomenon of crypt fusion. We show that in addition to crypt duplication through crypt fission, two crypts can fuse together to form one daughter crypt. We propose that crypt fission and crypt fusion can function as counterbalancing processes.

In **Chapter 7** I summarize the results described in this thesis, discuss the findings in the light of the current literature, and propose future research directions.



# Chapter I

Capturing Stem Cell Behavior Using Intravital and Live Cell Microscopy

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\* Equal contribution

#### ABSTRACT

Stem cells maintain tissue homeostasis by driving cellular turnover and regeneration upon damage. They reside within specialized niches that provide the signals required for stem cell maintenance. Stem cells have been identified in many tissues and cancer types, but their behavior within the niche and their reaction to microenvironmental signals were inferred from limited static observations. Recent advances in live imaging techniques, such as live cell imaging and intravital microscopy, have allowed the visualization of stem cell behavior and dynamics over time in their (near) native environment. Through these recent technological advances, it is now evident that stem cells are much more dynamic than previously anticipated, resulting in a model in which stemness is a state that can be gained or lost over time. In this review, we will highlight how live imaging and intravital microscopy have unraveled previously unanticipated stem cell dynamics and plasticity during development, homeostasis, regeneration, and tumor formation.

#### INTRODUCTION

Decades ago, clonogenic assays suggested that adult tissues are composed of heterogeneous cells that are hierarchically organized. Long-lived and self-renewing adult stem cells (SCs) are at the top of the hierarchy, whereas short-lived progenitors and differentiated cells with limited clonogenic capacity are at the bottom. Over the years, various techniques confirmed the existence of SC populations that maintain the dynamic equilibrium of tissue homeostasis in adult organs. In this review, we will highlight recent advances in the SC field, focusing on the new insights provided by live cell imaging and intravital microscopy (IVM). First, we will briefly describe the history of techniques used to study SCs and the advantages that live cell imaging brings to the field. Next, we will highlight how live imaging has revealed previously unanticipated dynamics and plasticity of SCs during development, homeostasis, and regeneration. Last, we will touch on the role of SCs in tumor initiation and progression.

#### **REVEALING THE PRESENCE OF SCs – A PLETHORA OF TECHNIQUES**

For a long time, clonogenic assays were used as the gold standard to identify adult SC populations *in vitro*<sup>1,2</sup>. Similarly, transplantation studies enabled the first identification of adult SCs *in vivo*<sup>3,4</sup>. These methods proved the capacity of specific subpopulations of cells, that is the SCs, to give rise to progeny (form cell colonies *in vitro*) or repopulate organs (*in vivo*). Although powerful, these methods were based on repopulation of ablated or damaged niches, or introduction of cells in ectopic environments. These non-physiologic contexts might affect and alter the behavior of the transplanted cells, triggering regeneration-like responses, rather than recapitulating homeostatic cell turnover.

The advent of lineage tracing contributed to resolve tissue hierarchy in an unperturbed tissue or tumor. Lineage tracing is the identification of all the progeny of a single cell by a heritable mark such as (multi) color fluorescent reporters, Brainbow<sup>5</sup>, or Confetti<sup>6,7</sup>. When crossed with a line expressing an inducible Cre-recombinase under a promoter of choice (e.g., tissue or cell-type-specific promoters), expression of the reporter construct can be precisely induced through the activation of the Cre-recombinase by Tamoxifen injection. In contrast to transplantation-based or *in vitro* approaches, static lineage tracing provides quantitative information on the number, localization, and differentiation status of the progeny of a mother cell in its intact and native *in vivo* environment at a specific chosen time. Nevertheless, most lineage-tracing approaches rely on static images that fail to describe the full dynamics of a complex tissue.

The implementation of fluorescent probes together with high-resolution microscopy technologies (such as confocal, multiphoton, and light-sheet microscopy) opened a whole world of opportunities to study real time (stem) cell dynamics in living organisms (**Figure 1a**). Live cell imaging and IVM are unique compared with any other technique because they allow tracking of the same cells over time, thereby collecting coupled spatial and temporal information. For this reason, these techniques have made a strong contribution to the SC field, revealing SC dynamics in development, homeostasis, as well as in regeneration and cancer. Over the years, live cell imaging has been widely applied to *in vitro* 2D culture systems to study SC maintenance and differentiation. However, cell lines cultured in 2D fail to recapitulate the complexity of cell–cell interactions within living tissues. During the last decade, *in vitro* 3D cultured organoids allowed for the application of live cell imaging in more organotypic settings<sup>8</sup>. Organoids represent miniature reconstructions of epithelial tissues that can be propagated indefinitely *in* 

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*vitro*, whereby the epithelial hierarchy of the tissue of origin is maintained (i.e., adult SCs generate all the tissue-specific differentiated cells)<sup>9</sup>. Although very useful to study cell–cell interactions over time, these 3D *in vitro* studies are largely lacking the context and natural niches in which the SCs reside.

The development of IVM marks a huge step forward in the need to visualize cells in their native environment. Most IVM studies make use of microscopes equipped with a multiphoton laser that generates long wavelengths (i.e., within the infrared spectrum) and ultra-short, high-energy laser pulses, which confine excitation (by simultaneous absorption of two photons) to the focal plane, creating optical sectioning while minimizing light scattering and allowing high-imaging quality up to 1 mm imaging depth<sup>10,11</sup>. In addition, the usage of low energy wavelengths and excitation only at the focal plane reduces photobleaching and phototoxicity. Although the imaging quality of multiphoton excitation is not hampered as much as single-photon excitation at great imaging depth, the anatomical location of many different organs is too deep in the animal to obtain high-resolution images. To image these organs, tissues of interest can be surgically exposed; however, this does not allow imaging over multiple days (**Figure 1b**). To overcome this, different optical imaging windows have been developed; small devices equipped with a cover glass that can be surgically implanted onto the organ of interest to reach deeper tissues and to image for longer times. This approach allows visual access to the mammary gland, intestine, liver, pancreas, kidney, spleen, lungs, and brain, enabling visualization of the dynamic behavior of individual cells in their natural environment (**Figure 1c**;<sup>12-17</sup>).

#### FILMING ORGAN DEVELOPMENT AND THE ORIGIN OF SCs

Tissue-specific SCs and their niches are formed during organogenesis in the developing embryo. Starting from the multipotent blastula, cells proliferate and migrate while undergoing a sequence of developmental decisions that force them in more and more differentiated lineages. This ultimately results in the formation of adult SCs that sustain the tissue for the lifetime of the organism. Although static analysis can reveal different (stem) cell populations at different embryonic stages, live imaging enables linking these populations over time. An early example of this is the imaging of hematopoietic stem cell (HSC) generation from the aortic hemogenic endothelial cells. Although it had been postulated before, live imaging in zebrafish embryos showed that HSCs emerge from the aortic floor into the subaortic space through a process called endothelial hematopoietic transition. This live imaging allowed for direct visualization of the emergence of HSCs in the embryo that had not been possible through static analyses<sup>18,19</sup>. The recently developed adaptive light-sheet technology now enables to even follow every single cell, and its fate in a developing postimplantation mouse embryo in real time<sup>20</sup>. These emerging techniques have the power to reveal the role of SC dynamics and plasticity during organogenesis and adult SC formation.

An excellent example showing that cell dynamics play a crucial role in the formation of SC niches can be found in the fetal intestine, which consists of a continuous sheet of nonproliferative Lgr5– villi and proliferative Lgr5+ intervillus regions. Adult crypts harboring the intestinal Lgr5+ SCs arise from these intervillus regions<sup>21</sup>. However, how these crypts form and multiply while the developing intestine elongates remained unknown. Only recently, live imaging of intestinal explants from E16.5 mouse embryos showed that fetal villi undergo gross remodeling and fission thereby increasing intestinal length (**Figure 2a**)<sup>22</sup>. These fission events bring the nonproliferative villus cells into the proliferative intervillus region where they are exposed to SCs-inducing factors and become a new intestinal SC pool. As a

result of this cellular plasticity, villus and intervillus cells have similar capacity to contribute to the growth of the intestinal epithelium during development, as shown by lineage-tracing experiments<sup>22</sup>. Thus, live imaging showed that adult intestinal SCs arise from equipotent precursors that get into the right niche through villus fission<sup>22</sup>.

Because adult SCs are dedicated to sustain tissue renewal for the entire lifetime of an organism, quality control mechanisms take place in the developing embryo to select and optimize tissue and organ development, including cell competition. This protective mechanism of cell competition, in which more fit "winner" cells actively sense and eliminate less fit "loser" cells was originally discovered in Drosophila (for review, see<sup>23</sup>). Live embryo imaging, in combination with lineage tracing and single-cell transcriptomics, revealed two distinct modes of cell competition during skin development in mice (Figure 2b)<sup>24</sup>. In the early single-layered epithelium, loser cells are actively killed and subsequently engulfed by neighboring winner progenitors. Later, when the tissue begins to stratify, loser cells are expelled from the proliferative basal layer from which later the epidermal SCs will arise through differentiation. Loser cells more often divide perpendicular to the basal layer than their winner counterparts, a mechanism that also has



Figure 1. Overview of techniques for live cell imaging and intravital microscopy. a. Confocal and light-sheet technologies to visualize stem cell dynamics in 3D organoids and embryo explants enabling high-throughput and high-resolution time-lapse imaging. **b**,**c**. Intravital microscopy combined with multiphoton excitation allows in vivo stem cell imaging at great imaging depth at high resolution over time, either by surgically exposing the tissue for multiple hours (**b**) or by implantation of optical imaging windows for multiple days to weeks (**c**).

been shown to play a role in SC competition in the aging skin<sup>25</sup>. Together, these mechanisms serve as quality control for the barrier function of the skin<sup>24</sup>. Future live imaging studies will have to show how cell competition plays a role in the development of other mammalian organs.

Another developmental process during which cell dynamics is key, is branching morphogenesis. Branching morphogenesis leads to epithelial expansion generating extensively branched but compact organs, like the kidney, pancreas, lungs, and glands, including the salivary, mammary, and prostate glands (for review, see<sup>26</sup>). An organ where branching morphogenesis can be followed by IVM is the

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mammary gland as it occurs after birth. During embryonic development, a rudimentary tree is formed by multipotent progenitors that give rise to both basal and luminal cells<sup>27,28</sup>. After birth, multipotent progenitors are rapidly replaced by lineage-restricted progenitors but these cells are quiescent until puberty. During puberty, the lineage-restricted developmental progenitors that drive branching morphogenesis are localized in the terminal end buds<sup>29,30</sup>. IVM revealed that cells in the terminal end buds are the driving forces of ductal extension, whereas cells appeared to be static along the ducts (**Figure 2c**)<sup>29</sup>. Cells in the terminal end buds were shown to continuously proliferate and intermix, resulting in an equipotent pool of developmental progenitors in the terminal end buds equally contributing to ductal growth. Because of the proliferation in the end bud, cells at the edge are left behind to elongate the duct while the end bud



**Figure 2. Intravital microscopy of organ development and the origin of stem cells. a**. Live imaging of intestinal explants (E16.5) shows the dynamics of crypt formation through extensive remodeling and fission events. Fission event is indicated with the red star, white circles indicate villi. Scale bar, 50 µm. (Photos in panel A are reprinted from Guiu et al. 2019, with permission, from Springer Nature © 2019.) b. Live embryo imaging reveals that embryonic skin development is regulated by a process of cell competition. During early skin development, less fit cells (depicted in green) are actively eliminated and engulfed by neighboring more fit cells (depicted in magenta). Scale bar, 10 µm. (Photos in panel **b** are reprinted from Ellis et al. 2019, with permission, from Springer Nature © 2019.) **c**. Intravital microscopy of the developing mammary gland uncovers the terminal end bud (TEB) cells as the driving forces of ductal extension and bifurcation, in contrast to the ductal cells that stay static and nonproliferative. (Photos in panel **c** are reprinted from Scheele et al. 2017, with permission from the authors.)

is pushed further<sup>29</sup>. From these dynamic insights, together with static analysis of the branching networks in the mammary gland, kidney, and human prostate, a simple parameter-free model for branching morphogenesis could be deducted. Branched organs self-organize into a network of ducts following three rules: (1) equipotent ductal tips proliferate and stochastically branch, (2) they randomly explore their environment, and (3) they become proliferatively inactive when they come into close proximity with neighboring ducts<sup>31</sup>.

#### IMAGING SC PLASTICITY DURING TISSUE HOMEOSTASIS

Over the past few years, lineage tracing and clonal analysis have enabled quantitative modeling of SC behavior in adult organs, resulting in precise models of SC behavior of the different SC compartments. However, these analyses relied on static views of very dynamic processes, urging for techniques that allow for dynamic measures of SC fate<sup>32</sup>. In this section, we will highlight how *in vivo* imaging exemplified the role of SC plasticity in space and time under homeostatic conditions.

In the skin, lineage-tracing studies have led to a detailed model of tissue turnover, with distinct unipotent SC populations driving the homeostatic turnover in their specific compartment<sup>33-39</sup>. However, this dogma of static SC compartments has been challenged by several studies. IVM of individual SCs over multiple generations revealed that each hair follicle SC has an equal potential to differentiate or divide<sup>40</sup>. More recently, it was shown in mouse ear and paw skin that SC fate decisions (division or differentiation) are a direct consequence of neighboring cell behavior<sup>41</sup>. Differentiation of an SC and the subsequent transit into the upward layers of the skin, thereby leaving the niche partially vacant, is the trigger for neighboring SCs to divide symmetrically<sup>41</sup>. These two in vivo imaging studies clearly show that SC fate (symmetric or asymmetric division) is not a hard-wired intrinsic feature, but a flexible trait defined by the environment of an SC. Similarly, in the mouse hair follicle, in vivo imaging revealed that hair follicle SC fate is dictated by its location in the hair follicle niche42. During the hair growth cycle (anagen), in vivo imaging with high spatial and temporal resolution uncovered what dynamic cellular processes take place, including long-range migration and major reorganization of epithelial SC progeny, that could not have been observed in static analyses<sup>43</sup>. By tracking the same SC and their progeny over multiple days, it was shown that hair follicle SC location changes during the hair follicle growth cycle<sup>44</sup>. As each hair follicle SC moves along its niche, it produces distinct differentiated cell types based on its location, indicating that hair follicle SCs have a flexible fate and differentiation potential determined by the direct environment (Figure 3a)<sup>44</sup>. Upon hair follicle regression, the same SCs can act as phagocytes to clear the dying neighboring cells and this mechanism was shown to be essential to maintain tissue homeostasis and prevent overgrowth after hair follicle regression<sup>45</sup>. In conclusion, these studies show a previously unanticipated plasticity of SC commitment in the homeostatic hair follicle and interfollicular epidermis of the skin, enabling them to respond to changing conditions in the tissue.

Such plasticity of cellular identity has also been observed in the testis during spermatogenesis. Sperm SCs mainly undergo incomplete divisions generating syncytia of undifferentiated spermatogonia. Classically, spermatogonia are subclassified into differentiated and undifferentiated subpopulations, based on relative expression levels of GFRo1 (SC marker) and receptor tyrosine kinase KIT (differentiated spermatogonia (mainly expressing GFRo1), whereas more differentiated spermatogonia (mainly expressing Kit) irreversibly lost SC potential<sup>46</sup>. However, *in vivo* time-lapse imaging unraveled that these



**Figure 3. In vivo imaging of stem cell plasticity during tissue homeostasis. a**. Intravital microscopy of the hair follicle stem cells reveals a previously unanticipated plasticity of the stem cells dictated by their positioning in the stem cell niche. Clones of progeny arising from a single stem cell are depicted in red. Scale bar, 20 μm. (Photos in panel **a** are reprinted from Xin et al. 2018, with permission, from Nature Publishing Group © 2018.) **b**. Intravital microscopy of whole crypt dynamics reveals the presence of crypt fusion, as a counteracting mechanism for crypt fission. Scale bar, 20 μm. (Photos in panel **b** are reprinted from Bruens et al. 2017 courtesy of the Creative Commons CC BY-NC-ND 4.0 License.) **c**. Intravital microscopy of the hematopoietic stem cells (indicated by white arrows) shows that the localization of the hematopoietic stem cells and its niche is dynamically regulated depending on the environmental cues (upper panel: normal conditions, lower panel: irradiation). Bone collagen is depicted in blue (second harmonics generation), osteoblasts in green, and vascularization in red. Scale bar, 50 μm. (Photos in panel **c** are reprinted from Lo Celso et al. 2009, with permission from the authors.)

syncytia are not irreversibly committed, and can undergo fragmentation and subsequently cells can regain stemness (measured by reexpression of the GFRa1 SC marker)<sup>47</sup>. Although cellular plasticity is rare in homeostatic spermatogenesis, it increases when the tissue is damaged upon administration of busulfan, a drug toxic to spermatogonia including SCs, leading to regeneration<sup>47,48</sup>. In conclusion, these *in vivo* imaging studies point toward a revised model of sperm SC dynamics, in which stemness is more flexible than previously anticipated.

In the intestine, an epithelial system with high-cellular turnover driven by SCs at the bottom of the crypt, live imaging has also greatly contributed to our understanding of the SC niche dynamics and plasticity. In contrast to the skin, only a single SC compartment is fueling tissue renewal. Lineagetracing studies have been crucial to determine the SC identity and dynamics in the intestine. After the identification of the specific SC marker Lgr5 in the intestine, lineage-tracing studies revealed that these Lgr5+ cells at the base of the intestinal crypts generate all the differentiated cell types of the intestine along the crypt villus axis<sup>49</sup>. Further modeling of the clonal dynamics showed that the intestinal SCs in each crypt are equipotent, and by undergoing symmetric cell divisions they neutrally compete for niche space<sup>6,50</sup>. Through this neutral competition, SC clones can be lost over time eventually leading to monoclonal crypts. Although the static lineage-tracing measurements revealed the long-term potential of the intestinal SCs, the short-term crypt dynamics were not resolved. To this end, multiday IVM was used to investigate the dynamic competition between different SCs within their niche. Strikingly, in vivo imaging revealed that positioning in the niche space is an important determinant of SCs to win the competition, and that this potential is reversible. Monitoring fluorescently labeled SCs (expressing the recombined Confetti construct) in the same crypts over multiple days revealed that "central" Lgr5+ SCs (i.e., residing at bottom of the crypt base) are likely to stay within the niche and give rise to progeny that will colonize the entire crypt and villus. In contrast, Lgr5+ SCs residing in the upper part of the crypt base (called "border cells") are more susceptible to be displaced into the above transient-amplifying compartment<sup>51</sup>. Moreover, IVM showed that SCs can change position within the niche over time, so that cells at a favorable position in the niche center can lose their potential when entering the border of the crypt, and vice versa<sup>51</sup>. In addition, manipulation of the SC niche by, for example, reducing Wnt secretion (e.g., with administration of the porcupine inhibitor LGK974) down-regulates the expression of Lgr5 in the crypt base. Thereby, the number of SCs decreases leading to less competitors resulting in faster competition<sup>52</sup>.

Live cell imaging of intestinal organoids was used to further elucidate cell dynamics and fate decisions in the intestine. Time-lapse phase contrast imaging combined with fluorescent lineage tracing confirmed that small intestinal organoids contain crypt-like buds harboring functional Lgr5+ SCs resembling the *in vivo* intestine<sup>8</sup>. Lgr5+ SCs give rise to a wide range of specialized cell types that intermix into one intestinal epithelial lining, thus creating a mosaic pattern of cell types. Time-lapse imaging of organoids revealed that postmitotic positioning predicts long-term placement along the crypt axis and subsequent differentiation potential of the daughter cells<sup>53</sup>. This positioning occurs during cytokinesis on the apical surface of the epithelium (toward the lumen) in an actin-dependent manner<sup>54</sup>. During this process, neighboring cells can intrude within the cytokinetic furrow as a consequence of the elongated cell shape. Thus, neighboring cells can position themselves in between the daughter cells. Interference with cell shape abrogated cell intermixing, indicating that cell shape differences and apicobasal positioning are essential determinants of correct spatial organization of the intestinal epithelium<sup>54</sup>.

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Another crucial factor determining tissue patterning is symmetry breaking, the process in which a pool of identical cells change their differentiation potential with respect to neighboring cells creating asymmetric tissue structures, such as the intestinal SC niche and crypt–villus axis. Large-scale quantitative light-sheet imaging of intestinal organoid development, combined with single-cell genomics, identified heterogeneity in YAP1 expression between identical cells as the driver of symmetry breaking in intestinal spheres<sup>55</sup>. Cell-to-cell variability in YAP1 activation promotes lateral inhibition through Notch and DLL1, which in turn leads to the emergence of the first Paneth cell and subsequent organoid asymmetry and crypt-like bud formation<sup>55</sup>. Together, these intravital and live imaging studies start to reveal the intricate and dynamic interplay between SCs and its niche, and show that previously unnoticed features such as cell shape, cell-to-cell variability, and relative cell position are crucial determinants of SC potential.

Cell dynamics in the intestine are further complicated by dynamics involving whole crypts. In the epithelium, crypts can be found in a bifurcating shape, which has been interpreted as crypts undergoing a fission event, during which one crypt splits into two. However, a recent IVM study revealed the presence of a counteracting mechanism called crypt fusion during which two independent crypts fuse into one (**Figure 3b**)<sup>56</sup>. Although producing opposite outcomes, crypt fission and fusion appear as morphologically identical in static images, highlighting the importance of *in vivo* imaging in studying dynamic processes. High-resolution live imaging in intestinal organoids was used to follow the cellular dynamics of crypt fission. This imaging showed that upon the initiation of fission, the more rigid Paneth cells form two clusters at either side of the crypt flanking a more flexible Lgr5+ SC cluster. Subsequently, an invagination is formed at this Lgr5+ site, which splits the crypt into two in a zipper-like fashion<sup>57</sup>. Together, these observations point toward a model in which the distribution and proportion of stiff cells determines the likelihood of *in vivo* tissue deformation events such as crypt fission<sup>58</sup>. In conclusion, these studies emphasize the dynamic nature of SC potential and fate, and illustrate the power of live cell and IVM approaches to unravel new mechanisms of tissue organization and SC dynamics, otherwise indistinguishable when inspecting fixed tissue sections.

#### FOLLOWING SCs DURING REGENERATIVE PROCESSES

In many tissues, regenerative potential relies on the presence of SCs that respond to cues from the damaged niche by producing new cells repairing the damage. This response is highly dynamic as it relies on cell–cell interactions, microenvironmental changes, cell migration, and proliferation. Therefore, tissue regeneration is another example in which live cell imaging approaches can add important insights that cannot be captured using static models.

The bone marrow harboring the HSCs represents a highly dynamic SC niche that rapidly responds to various stress-inducing signals. Although the location of the HSC niche had been previously identified by immunohistochemistry, it still remained unknown how this niche was established. Live imaging experiments of the mouse calvarium revealed that HSCs injected in nonirradiated mice reside close to the vasculature but further away from the endosteum (**Figure 3c**)<sup>59</sup>. However, when the HSCs were injected in an irradiated setting or in a niche with impaired endogenous HSCs (carrying a c-Kit mutation) they localized more closely to endosteum. This position within the niche correlated with the differentiation state; long-term and proliferative HSCs localized closest to the endosteum and osteoblasts, whereas more mature subsets resided progressively further away<sup>59</sup>. Upon stress, however (such as acute infection), quiescent HSCs become motile and interact with wider osteoblastic regions, indicating that

the location and behavior of the HSCs dynamically respond to the environmental cues<sup>60</sup>.

In the skeletal muscle, the SCs - called satellite cells - are reactivated upon damage and proliferate and differentiate to replace damaged muscle fibers. Although this is a relatively simple repair mechanism, only recently the dynamics of the response within the SC niche and the necessary cues have been studied by IVM. Under homeostasis, the satellite cells were found to be nondividing and immobile. However, upon injury remnants of the extracellular matrix of damaged fibers, called ghost fibers, guide satellite cells to proliferate and migrate along them. This results in the spreading of progenitors, which then form nascent myofibers replacing the damaged fibers. These findings show that the regeneration



Figure 4. Following stem cells during regenerative processes by intravital microscopy. **a**. Intravital microscopy reveals the dynamics of satellite cell-mediated repair of injured muscle fibers. Remnants of damaged fibers form ghost fibers, which are used by satellite cells as guides for proliferation and migration. Scale bar, 50  $\mu$ m. (Photos in panel **a** are reprinted from Webster et al. 2016, with permission, from Elsevier © 2016.) **b**. Imaging of the cell dynamics during wound healing in the skin reveals the migratory and proliferative dynamics of the cells repairing the wound (migratory and proliferative cells are shown in red). Scale bar, 50  $\mu$ m. (Photos in panel **b** are reprinted from Park et al. 2017, with permission, from Springer Nature © 2017.) **c**. Multiday intravital microscopy shows the highly plastic nature of the intestinal cells. After ablation of all the stem cells, transit-amplifying cells fall back into the stem cell niche, adopt a stem cell fate, and repopulate the stem cell zone. Repopulating transit-amplifying cells are depicted in green. Scale bar, 20  $\mu$ m. (Photos in panel **c** are adapted from Ritsma et al. 2014, with permission from the authors.)

response in the skeletal muscle is not solely an SC intrinsic reaction but that the wound itself, in this case the ghost fibers, orchestrate the repair (**Figure 4a**)<sup>61</sup>.

In contrast to skeletal muscle, the skin is easily accessible for IVM. Laser ablation of SCs during the hair growth cycle (anagen) combined with multiday IVM showed that the position of a hair follicle SC is predictive for its differentiation potential into an uncommitted, committed, or differentiated cell type <sup>42</sup>. When hair follicle SCs are ablated, more differentiated epithelial cells can repopulate the SC compartment and sustain hair growth<sup>42</sup>. In addition, *in vivo* timelapse imaging has been used to study the cellular dynamics during the repair of a punch wound. During wound repair, directed division, differentiation, and migration are balanced to effectively repair the wound while maintaining tissue homeostasis <sup>62</sup>.. Static analysis has shown that two zones appear after wounding: a migratory front that surrounds the wound edge surrounded by a ring of rapidly proliferation cells<sup>63-65</sup>. However, IVM revealed that these zones spatially overlap, with some cells performing both behaviors simultaneously (**Figure 4b**)<sup>62</sup>. These zones do not only serve as a source for new cells for wound closure, they also restrict the area of unwounded epithelium that is used for re-epithelialization<sup>62</sup>. Together, this shows how homeostasis after damage.

As in many other tissues, stemness in the intestine has been shown to be highly plastic. When Lgr5+ SCs are ablated, cells from higher up in the crypt can fall back into the SC niche where they dedifferentiate and reexpress the SC marker Lgr5<sup>66</sup>. Multiday IVM revealed that on ablation of all SCs, repopulation is a sporadic event. Individual cells transfer from the transit-amplifying zone into the SC niche border where they clonally expand and refill the SC niche (**Figure 4c**)<sup>51</sup>. When only one Lgr5+ SC is ablated, preexisting SCs rearrange to restore the alternation in pattern between Paneth and SCs within 2 hours and without cell division. Simultaneously, the damaged cell is forced out of the crypt by peristalsis-like motion of the crypt lumen<sup>67</sup>. Thus, the intestinal crypt is highly dynamic and plastic, and the location within it defines stemness.

#### IMAGING OF SCs DURING TUMOR INITIATION AND PROGRESSION

Mechanisms used to maintain tissue homeostasis and regeneration, such as cell competition and cellular plasticity, are hijacked by cancer cells in the attempt to survive and infiltrate healthy tissues<sup>68-70</sup>. IVM experiments have unraveled differences and similarities between healthy tissues and cancers, and provided unexpected findings to increase understanding of cancer initiation, tumor maintenance, and spreading, and possibly contribute to fine tune treatment strategies.

#### Tumor Initiation

The human body has developed robust mechanisms to resist tumor growth and most of the time healthy tissues succeed in outcompeting mutant cells and reestablishing homeostasis. Both in intestine and in skin, it has been shown that tissue architecture and cellular turnover present protective mechanisms to oncogene-induced abnormalities. In the hair follicle, normal tissue dynamics lead to upward movement of the healthy hair follicle progenitor cells, resulting in relocation and subsequent differentiation of the mutant progenitor cells<sup>44</sup>. Similarly, clonal analysis and *in vivo* imaging of cell fate choices in epidermal SCs harboring oncogenic Pik3ca mutations showed that oncogene-induced differentiation restricts clonal expansion of mutant cells, and eventually leads to the loss of oncogenic



**Figure 5. Imaging of stem cells during tumor initiation and progression. a.** Repeated intravital imaging of a hair follicle harboring an oncogenic  $\beta$ -catenin mutation shows ectopic hair follicle outgrowth. Counteracting mechanisms result in encapsulation of the mutant cells, thereby actively eliminating them from the tissue. Mutant cells are depicted in red, wild-type cells are depicted in green. (Photos in panel a are reprinted from Brown et al. 2017, with permission, from Springer Nature © 2017.) **b**. Time-lapse intravital microscopy in the intestine shows that transformed cells (RasV12 mutant cells depicted in green) are actively expelled from the healthy intestinal epithelium. (Photos in panel **b** are reprinted from Kon et al. 2017, with permission, from Springer Nature © 2017.) **c**. Multiday intravital microscopy of labeled tumor cells in a growing mammary carcinoma shows different growth patterns. Only a small population of the tumor cells (cancer stem cells) drives the outgrowth of clones. Analysis of the clonal growth patterns reveals that cancer stem cell properties are plastic, and can be lost and gained over time. Scale bars, 50 µm. (Photos in panel **c** are reprinted from Zomer et al. 2013, with permission from John Wiley & Sons © 2013.)

epithelial cells<sup>71</sup>. In addition, the skin has been shown to exploit regeneration processes that actively exclude potentially harmful cancer cells. Cre-induced activation of oncogenic β-catenin in the hair follicle SCs of a genetic mouse model produces benign deformations (i.e., new axes of hair growth), which expand in a way reminiscent of early-stage embryonic hair follicle formation. IVM showed that wild-type

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(WT) cells are recruited to these new hair follicle branches and that Wnt signaling is activated in WT cells on the expression of Wnt ligands by neighboring mutant  $\beta$ -catenin cells, influencing the behavior of the WT<sup>72</sup>. Nevertheless, healthy tissue is able to counteract this ectopic growth by encapsulating the mutant cells ( $\beta$ -catenin or Hras) and actively eliminate them from the tissue (**Figure 5a**)<sup>73</sup>. Together, these *in vivo* studies present a strong case for tissue autonomous mechanisms, such as tissue architecture and cell dynamics, that actively protect against the fixation of oncogenic mutations.

The removal of aberrant cells from the epithelium has also been shown to occur in the intestine. As in the skin, differentiated cells are thought to be incapable of inducing tumor formation because normal tissue dynamics push them upward to the tip of the villus where they undergo apoptosis giving them no time to form aberrant clones<sup>74</sup>. In addition, neutral competition in the intestinal SC niche may be a protective mechanism against the acquisition of mutations, and subsequent tumor initiation<sup>75</sup>. Several studies have investigated the effect of specific mutations on the SC competition in the niche<sup>76,77</sup>. Indeed, introduction of sporadic mutations, such as Apc loss, Kras activation, or p53 mutations in the SC compartment, leads to a bias in the competition between WT and mutant SCs. As a result, the mutant clones have a slightly increased chance to expand and colonize a crypt<sup>76,77</sup>. Nevertheless, because the number of WT SCs exceeds the number of mutant SCs, many mutated SCs are still replaced by the progeny of WT SCs, confirming the hypothesis that intestinal tissue architecture protects against mutation accumulation. This notion was further confirmed by a recent IVM study using a porcupine inhibitor to reduce the Wnt secretion, resulting in a reduction of the number of Lgr5+ SCs. Lineage tracing in an Apc-deficient background showed that the fixation speed of Apc-deficient SCs was increased, leading to accelerated adenoma formation<sup>52</sup>. Together these studies show that clonal drift and SC competition are protective against mutation fixation in the SC compartment.

In addition to SC competition in the crypt, it has been shown that cell competition – discussed in the section "Filming Organ Development and the Origin of SCs" – plays a role in eliminating transformed cells from the villus epithelium. Time-lapse IVM in the intestine showed that normal epithelial cells can recognize RasV12 transformed cells resulting in active elimination of the transformed cells (**Figure 5b**)<sup>78</sup>. Upon contact with neighboring normal cells, the actin-binding protein epithelial protein lost in neoplasm (EPLIN) accumulates in transformed cells during a process called EDAC (epithelial defense against cancer<sup>78,79</sup>. EDAC induces Warburg-effect-like metabolic changes in the transformed cells via up-regulation of pyruvate dehydrogenase kinase 4 (PDK4), leading to enhanced aerobic glycolysis and down-regulation of mitochondrial function. This PDK-mediated mitochondrial dysfunction results in apical extrusion of RasV12-transformed cells from the intestinal epithelium<sup>78</sup>.

Even though many transformed cells are eliminated and do not have the chance to initiate tumorigenesis, some transformed cells escape these control mechanisms and give rise to cancer. When cancer progresses, the healthy tissue inevitably succumbs and loses cell-cell competition within the niche. IVM of leukemic cell colonization in the bone marrow revealed that unlike healthy HSCs, these cells are highly motile, migrate irrespective of any bone marrow subcompartment, and do not remain cohesive after cell division<sup>80</sup>. Infiltrating leukemic cells force remodeling of the bone marrow and actively induce loss of osteoblastic SCs<sup>80,81</sup>. Thus, due to the lack of a supporting niche, the fitness of resident healthy HSCs may be dramatically reduced, possibly leading to a progressive loss of normal hematopoiesis<sup>81</sup>. Together, these studies highlight the importance of the interaction between the SCs and their niche during cancer initiation and progression.

#### Tumor Maintenance by Cancer Stem Cells

Although SCs are believed to be the tumor-initiating cells in most tissues, it still remains unclear whether SCs are driving tumor progression and metastasis. At premalignant stages, lineage tracing studies have shown that tissue hierarchy is largely maintained; cells with stem-like properties drive clonal expansion leading to multiclonal tumors, supporting the cancer SC (CSC) hypothesis<sup>82,83</sup>. According to the CSC theory, the majority of tumor cells within a tumor mass have limited proliferative potential and die after a few rounds of cell divisions, although a small proportion of tumor cells, the CSCs, can self-renew and sustain tumor (and metastasis) growth<sup>84</sup>. In line with this hypothesis, a recent lineage-tracing study in human primary colon cancer xenografts showed evidence for a small subpopulation of CSCs, driving long-term tumor growth and progression<sup>85</sup>. These CSC clones were predominantly found at the tumor edge in close proximity to osteopontin-producing cancer-associated fibroblasts<sup>85</sup>. CSC behavior, however, changed over time depending on the location of the CSC within the tumor, indicating that functional CSC properties can be defined by microenvironmental factors<sup>85</sup>.

What remains unclear from these static lineage-tracing studies is whether CSCs show a similar degree of plasticity compared with their healthy SC counterparts and how CSC plasticity contributes to tumor growth, progression, and resistance. To understand the role of plasticity in tumor maintenance, several live imaging studies have been conducted to follow CSC dynamics in their intact environment. For example, multicolor *in vivo* Confetti tracing of unperturbed mammary tumors (MMTV-PyMT tumor model) revealed that most cancer cells provide lineages that disappear over time and that only a minor population of cancer cells (i.e., CSCs) is able to generate large, long-lived single-colored Confetti clones during both adenoma and carcinoma stages (**Figure 5c**)<sup>86</sup>. In addition, analysis of the clonal dynamics over time showed that cancer cells can form clones with delayed onset of growth or clones that suddenly undergo regression. This indicated that stem-like characteristics are highly dynamic and can be either acquired (upon plasticity) or lost (with differentiation) over time<sup>86</sup>. Another study, in which human colorectal cancer organoids were followed by multiday confocal imaging, showed that non-CSCs (identified by the lack of expression of the fluorescent ASCL2-specific SC reporter STAR) were able to form organoids, and underwent cellular plasticity, gaining SC identity (visualized by reexpression of the STAR reporter) to further fuel organoid growth<sup>87</sup>.

CSC plasticity not only plays a role in tumor growth, but also in the metastatic cascade. It has been extensively reported that cells that undergo epithelial-to-mesenchymal transition (EMT) may gain selfrenewal potential (i.e., stemness), which enables them to efficiently fuel metastatic growth at distant sites<sup>88</sup>. This view was recently challenged by static lineage-tracing experiments showing that metastases are not seeded by cells that have expressed specific mesenchymal markers (e.g., Fsp1)<sup>89,90</sup>. However, it remains unknown whether all mesenchymal cells express the classical mesenchymal markers (such as N-cadherin, vimentin, fibronectin, and Fsp1), especially in light of recent findings revealing the existence of multiple EMT stages in skin and in mammary tumors, ranging from epithelial to completely mesenchymal states<sup>91</sup>. Cells can be in different hybrid EMT states leading to differences in cellular plasticity, invasiveness, and metastatic potential<sup>91</sup>. IVM of EMT and mesenchymal-to-epithelial-transition (MET) in mammary tumors using a fluorescent E-cadherin expression reporter showed that only a small population of cells undergoes EMT in an unperturbed system<sup>92</sup>. This small population of mesenchymal cells is motile and able to disseminate to a distant site, both in early- and late-stage tumors<sup>92,93</sup>. However, at the distant site, mesenchymal cells switch back to an epithelial state already after a few cell divisions, rendering potential differences in self-renewal capacity between seeding epithelial and mesenchymal cells irrelevant92.

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CSC identity and plasticity are also important in the context of treatment efficiency and treatment resistance. A recent study in basal cell carcinoma showed that these tumor cells can escape targeted therapy (smoothened inhibitor Vismodegib) by adopting a different cellular identity<sup>34</sup>. Normally, basal cell carcinoma cells have an identity that closely resembles hair follicle bulge cells. However, on treatment with Vismodegib, a subset of basal cell carcinoma cells initiates a transcriptional program that resembles that of interfollicular and isthmus SCs<sup>34</sup>. This involves transcriptional changes leading to a rapid Wnt activation, which renders these cells insensitive to the Smoothened inhibitor<sup>94</sup>. Thus, cell identity switches may be a common way for tumor cells to escape drug-induced cell death.

To systematically understand cell identity switches as an escape mechanism in different tumor types and identify new potential drug combinations, more high-throughput methods are required. Now, with proper culture conditions, organoids can be efficiently generated from patient biopsies. The recent establishment of human tumor organoid libraries represents a breakthrough in cancer biology and expands the possibilities to look at tumor genetic heterogeneity<sup>95-97</sup>. Moreover, these patient-derived biobanks offer large platforms to test the response to old and new (combinations of ) drugs. For example, a panel of human colorectal cancer organoids in combination with confocal live cell imaging was used to link appearance of chromosomal instability to specific colorectal cancer mutations, by looking at segregation errors over time in human colorectal cancer organoids carrying increasing mutational load<sup>98,99</sup>. Similar approaches were used to monitor drug responses on a panel of KRAS-mutant versus KRAS-WT patient-derived colorectal cancer organoids and revealed that KRAS-mutant organoids are significantly less sensitive to EGFR inhibitors<sup>100</sup>. Together with the development of new high-throughput screening platforms and microscopy, organoids systems will provide a powerful tool to understand cancer progression and mechanisms of cellular drug resistance<sup>101</sup>. Moreover, human tumor-derived organoids can be engineered with fluorescent markers, and subsequently be transplanted orthotopically into animals, providing a unique opportunity to track human CSC dynamics at a cellular resolution by IVM. The relevance of this unique combination of tools was recently shown by a study using engineered human colorectal cancer organoids to elucidate the contribution of defined mutations to metastasis formation<sup>102</sup>. The authors found that metastatic ability is directly caused by mutations that allow growth independent of certain niche signals, thereby identifying the cellular mechanisms of key drivers of progression in colorectal cancer<sup>102</sup>.

#### CONCLUDING REMARKS

The combination of *in vitro* live cell imaging, lineage tracing, and IVM has been essential to define the SC dynamics of healthy and tumorigenic tissues in the murine setting. Overall (*in vivo*), live cell imaging studies challenge the concept of fixed SCs populations with a determined and hardwired selfrenewal capacity. It now appears that instead of a static one-way route, cellular hierarchy is much more plastic than previously thought, and stemness is a state that can be gained or lost, especially during regeneration responses and tumor growth.

Because most IVM data is based on imaging in animal models, the next challenge will be to understand whether these dynamics reflect the human situation. *In vitro*, the advent of organoid technology has allowed mapping cell dynamics of primary human cells in a 3D cellular organization, closely resembling the tissue of origin. However, these cultures are mostly limited to the epithelial component, and do not allow to study the interactions between cells and their microenvironment. Recent efforts have succeeded in integrating some components of the microenvironment such as mesenchymal stroma<sup>103-106</sup> and immune cells<sup>107,108</sup> together with patient-derived organoids. To go one step further, orthotopic transplantation of human (tumor) organoids can be combined with *in vivo* live cell imaging techniques. For instance, healthy human colon organoids – derived from either iPS cells or adult tissues – can engraft and reconstruct the human colon epithelium in a mouse, allowing to study human tissue dynamics in an orthotopic environment using IVM<sup>106,109</sup>. In addition, orthotopic transplantation of human tumor-derived organoids will open new avenues to study the dynamic processes occurring during tumor progression including the metastatic cascade. In conclusion, the combination of state-of-the-art live imaging techniques will have the unique potential to ultimately resolve the intricate dynamics of SCs and their niches.

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# Chapter 2

Cellular Dynamics that Minimize the Accumulation of Mutations in the Intestinal Epithelium

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#### ABSTRACT

The epithelial lining of the intestine is constantly exposed to a hostile environment containing a mixture of gastric acids, consumed harmful substances, and microbes. It is widely accepted that the dynamic nature of the intestinal epithelium protects against tissue damage. Here, we review three mechanisms that protect intestinal tissue against accumulation of somatic mutations: the conveyer belt-like structure, stem cell competition and crypt fusion. We highlight the events that can perturb these mechanisms, and their impact on accumulation of oncogenic mutations. Lastly, we review the potential of *in vitro* and intravital microscopy techniques to study the dynamics of these protection processes. These studies may identify new targets that can be used to manipulate the dynamics of the intestinal epithelium in such a way that accumulation of new mutations can be reduced. Importantly, reducing mutation accumulation has the potential to delay aging, and the initiation and progression of diseases such as colorectal cancer.

#### INTRODUCTION

The lumen of the intestine is a hostile environment and the intestinal epithelium is constantly challenged by intrinsic and extrinsic factors, such as gastric acids, consumed harmful substances, and pathogenic microbes. These challenges can result in damage, such as disruption of the epithelial lining and loss of stem cells. Under homeostatic conditions the intestine has an impressive capacity to protect itself against tissue damage. The very dynamic nature of the intestinal epithelium enables a fast regenerative response that can maintain epithelial integrity. Here we review how this dynamic nature of the intestinal epithelium also minimizes the accumulation of new mutations in the intestine, thereby protecting against aging and development of colorectal cancer. In addition, we focus on challenges that can perturb this protection against mutation accumulation.

#### CONVEYER BELT-LIKE ORGANIZATION

#### The vast majority of intestinal epithelial cells are short-lived

One way the intestine is protected against the accumulation of mutations is by imposing a short lifetime on the vast majority of intestinal cells. This is a result of the morphology of the intestinal epithelium, which is a repetitive sheet of crypt-villus units (**Figure 1**)<sup>1</sup>. Intestinal stem cells that reside at the bottom of so-called crypts of Lieberkühn - little invaginations into the intestinal epithelium – fuel the fast turnover of the intestinal epithelium<sup>1</sup>. These stem cells give rise to progenitor cells in the transit amplifying (TA) compartment, located a bit higher up the crypt-villus-axis, that subsequently differentiate into all specialized lineages while traveling upwards along the villus in a conveyer belt-like fashion (**Figure 1**)<sup>1</sup>. The differentiated cells in the villus fulfill the physiological functions of the intestine, including nutrient uptake by enterocytes, hormone production by enteroendocrine cells and mucus production for protection and lubrication by goblet cells. Upon arrival at the tip of the villus, ~5 days after birth of the cells, differentiated cells are shed into the lumen<sup>1</sup>. Only these short-lived differentiated villus cells are exposed to the hazardous environment of the intestinal lumen<sup>2</sup>. Since they get shed into the lumen within a week, any genomic damage that occurs in these cells cannot manifest or be propagated. Of note, the colonic epithelium does not contain villi, but does function as a conveyer belt as differentiated cells are shed at the surface of the colonic epithelium.

#### Long-lived intestinal stem cells can accumulate new mutations

The small pool of long-lived stem cells that maintain the epithelium are positioned in the intestinal crypts, away from the lumen, which minimizes possible harm to these cells (**Figure 1**)<sup>2</sup>. The fact that these multipotent stem cells can accommodate the fast turnover of the intestinal epithelium has been known for decades<sup>3</sup>. However, their exact identity remained uncertain for a long time. Already in the early 70s, Cheng and Leblond identified the proliferative crypt base columnar (CBC) cells residing at the bottom of the crypt interspersed between Paneth cells<sup>4</sup>. However, their functional role as stem cells was only confirmed relatively recently after leucine-rich repeat-containing G protein-coupled receptor 5 (Lgr5) was found to mark these CBC stem cells<sup>5</sup>. Lineage tracing experiments in which these cells are labeled with markers that are inherited by daughter cells showed that Lgr5+ CBC cells give rise to all differentiated cell types present in the intestine and that they can do so over prolonged periods of time<sup>5</sup>. Moreover, when single Lgr5+ cells are isolated and placed in defined culture conditions, they can form

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mini-guts (i.e. organoids) that contain crypt-villus units and harbor all intestinal cell types<sup>6</sup>. Together, these findings show that Lgr5+ CBC cells are multipotent and have the capacity to self-renew, indicating that these cells are bona fide stem cells in the intestine.

Since the Lgr5+ stem cells are long-lived, while the differentiated cells in the intestine only have a short lifetime, the Lgr5+ stem cells are vulnerable for accumulation of mutations in, for example, cancer driver genes. In 2009, Barker *et al.* showed that Lgr5+ stem cells can indeed function as cells-of-origin for intestinal adenoma<sup>7.8</sup>. Mice only developed intestinal adenomas when an *Apc* mutation was introduced in the long-lived Lgr5+ stem cells but not when the same mutation was introduced in the short-lived differentiated cells. Thus, the fast turnover of the intestine and its conveyer belt-like structure can protect against the accumulation of mutations in the vast majority of intestinal epithelial cells that are exposed to the hazardous environment of the lumen. Only a small pool of long-lived stem cells located at the bottom of shielded crypts can accumulate damage and mutations, and therefore have the potential to act as cells-of-origin for intestinal cancer.

#### The stem cell pool can be replenished upon tissue damage

Under homeostatic conditions, the chance to accumulate mutations depends on the lifetime of a cell, and this therefore happens, as discussed above, predominately in Lgr5+ stem cells. However, a large body of work suggests the existence of a pool of "reserve" stem cells that are in a relative quiescent state and characterized by DNA label-retention<sup>9</sup> and the expression of Lrig1, Bmi1, mTert, Hopx, and Mex3a<sup>10-15</sup>. Since many of these proposed markers are enriched at the border of the stem cell niche, 4 cell diameters from the crypt bottom (+4 position), these cells are often referred to as +4 cells (Figure 1). However, the identity and even the very existence of quiescent "reserve" stem cells have been controversial and heavily debated<sup>16</sup>. It has been suggested that instead of being dedicated reserve stem cells, +4 cells are progenitors that can repopulate the Lgr5+ stem cell pool through dedifferentiation (for an review see<sup>17</sup>). This notion is supported by lineage tracing experiments that show that damage can induce the reversion of committed progenitors to Lgr5<sup>+</sup> stem cells, including secretory progenitors<sup>18,19</sup>, enterocyte precursors<sup>20</sup>, Paneth cells<sup>21</sup>, and a population of goblet cells<sup>22,23</sup>. This dedifferentiation is, at least in part, mediated by chromatin remodeling, which can make genomic regions important for stemness more accessible<sup>23</sup>. The thought that there is no dedicated "reserve" stem cell pool is further strengthened by two independent studies that show that a key marker of the reserve stem cell pool (Bmi1) actually marks mature enteroendocrine cells and that these cells can be recalled into the stem cell compartment upon damage<sup>22,23</sup>. Other studies show that the +4 markers do not mark a specific population of cells, but are expressed in cells throughout the crypt, including in Lgr5+ stem cells<sup>11,13,16,24,25</sup>. This data indicates that, similar to mammary tissue<sup>26</sup>, the identity, behavior, and fate of cells cannot always be linked to a single molecular profile or specific marker. Since cells are highly plastic and can gain or lose stem cell traits, it may be better to define a stem cell by its function then through markers.

#### Tissue damage drives progenitor dedifferentiation and affects accumulation of mutations

Regardless of the identity or state of stem cells, the current literature agrees on the existence of a pool of cells that has the potential to replenish Lgr5+ stem cells upon tissue damage. Consequently, mutations that are acquired in cells just above the stem cell zone can persist when these cells revert back to a stem cell state, which prevents cells from being transported to and lost at the tip of the



Figure 1. Cell and crypt dynamics that minimize the accumulation of mutations. Cartoon of the crypt-villus units of the small intestine. Shown are the three dynamic processes that minimize the retention of mutated cells: the conveyer belt-like structure, stem cell competition and crypt fusion.

villus. The activation of NFkB signaling seems to be required for this dedifferentiation<sup>27,28</sup>. An activating mutation in the proto-oncogene  $\beta$ -Catenin in non-stem cells only leads to adenoma formation when NFkB signaling is simultaneously enhanced<sup>27</sup>. In addition, *Apc* mutations in Dclk1+ tuft cells do not induce tumorigenesis under homeostatic conditions<sup>29</sup>. However, when NFkB signaling is enhanced by dextran sulphate sodium-induced colitis, APC loss in tuft cells does lead to intestinal tumors<sup>28</sup>. Thus, enhanced NFkB signaling may result in dedifferentiation of committed progenitors, thereby unmasking oncogenic events that can potentially lead to tumor initiation.

The route of cancer initiation via NFkB-induced dedifferentiation of committed progenitors may not be surprising. In colorectal cancers, and also pancreatic and gastric carcinomas, this pathway if often activated by inflammation or through mutations. NFkB signaling can for instance be enhanced by activating mutations in *Kras*, which occur in ~40% of all human colorectal cancers<sup>30</sup>. In mice, simultaneous induction of  $\beta$ -catenin and *Kras* mutations within differentiated villus cells induces the reexpression of stem cell markers, and leads to dedifferentiation and stem cell potential<sup>27</sup>. Moreover, in these mice lesions are often formed at these villus regions suggesting that WNT and KRAS-mediated dedifferentiation enables cells to function as cells-of-origin<sup>27</sup>. This phenomenon may explain the so-called 'top-down' adenomas that are observed in the clinic, where adenomas on the surface of the colorectal lumen form on top of "normal"-looking crypts<sup>31</sup>. However, it should be noted that these studies are predominantly performed in mouse models, in which whole populations of cells are transformed by oncogenic mutations. Future studies are required to indicate whether the route of dedifferentiation also occurs in human colorectal cancers, where adenomas arise from an oncogenic event in a single cell.

Taken together, the short life-time of the vast majority of cells is a strong protection mechanism in intestinal tissue since it results in loss of most newly acquired mutations. Therefore, mutations can only manifest in long-lived stem cells or in more differentiated cells that dedifferentiate into cells with stem cell characteristics that live long enough to induce a tumor.

#### STEM CELL COMPETITION

#### Most stem cells are lost over time due to stem cell competition

Although the geometry of the crypt-villus unit protects long-lived stem cells better than shortlived differentiated cells against harmful substances present in the intestine<sup>2</sup>, new mutations can get introduced in the stem cells upon proliferation. Fortunately, not all mutations that arise in stem cells are propagated due to a second protection mechanism present in the crypt: stem cell competition<sup>32,33</sup>. The crypt contains ~14-16 Lgr5+ stem cells that are interspersed with Paneth cells, which together with the stroma, function as a niche for stem cell maintenance<sup>34</sup>. On average, Lgr5+ stem cells proliferate symmetrically every 21.5 hours<sup>35</sup>, and as soon as stem cells lose touch with a Paneth cell, they get primed for differentiation and move up along the crypt-villus axis (Figure 1). This process was illustrated by lineage-tracing experiments in Lgr5-multi-color 'confetti-mice'32. In these mice, injection of tamoxifen results in recombination of a confetti-construct, which stochastically induces expression of one of four confetti colors specifically in Lgr5+ stem cells, and this color is inherited by all daughter cells<sup>32</sup>. Despite induction of different confetti colors in different individual Lgr5+ stem cells within the same crypt, most crypts contain stem cells of a single confetti color after 1-6 months (Figure 1). This data led to the neutral drift stem cell competition model: upon each stem cell division, the number of stem cells exceeds the available positions within the niche, which is counterbalanced by loss of a stem cell from the niche. This constant stem cell division and stem cell loss leads to the expansion or extinction of stem cell clones and ultimately to clonality of all stem cells in the niche (Figure 1). By multi-day intravital microscopy, we directly visualized this process and showed that stem cells can be passively displaced from the stem cell niche after the division of proximate cells implying that stem cell fate can be uncoupled from division<sup>36</sup>. Moreover, our experiments showed that all Lqr5+ stem cells (~14-16) are able to contribute to the stem cell competition. However, cells at the border are more susceptible to be passively displaced from the niche than those located at the center<sup>36</sup>. Since cells constantly gain or lose favorable positions by changing position, they function as a single stem cell pool with a combined output equal to ~5-7 equipotent functional stem cells as was predicted by mathematical modeling<sup>32,36,37</sup>. Importantly, similar data have been obtained in human intestinal tissue<sup>38</sup>.

#### Stem cell competition can eradicate mutant cells

The model of stem cell competition predicts that a mutation can only remain in a crypt long-term
when it is present in the one stem cell that wins the competition; mutations in the other stem cells will get lost. To test this, two independent studies were done using sporadic induction of oncogenic mutations often found in colorectal cancer (*Apc, Kras* or *TP53*) in combination with lineage tracing and demonstrated that oncogenic clones can indeed get lost from the stem cell niche<sup>39,40</sup>. However, the stem cell competition is not always completely neutral. For example, instead of having a 50% chance of displacing a neighboring stem cell in neutral competition, *Apc*<sup>het</sup> and *Kras*<sup>G12D</sup> mutations lead to a respectively 62% and 78% chance to outcompete a neighbor<sup>39,40</sup>. Interestingly, a *TP53* mutation does not affect stem cell competition under homeostatic conditions, while it gives a competitive advantage (58%) when colitis is induced<sup>39</sup>. Mutations can potentially also give a disadvantage in the competition. Using time-lapse microscopy of organoids, it has recently been shown that Ras<sup>V12</sup>-transformed cells have an altered metabolism that promotes active extrusion of these cells from non-transformed epithelial tissues<sup>41</sup>. Obviously, if this also holds true for Ras<sup>V12</sup>- transformed intestinal stem cells, this mechanism decreases the strength of these cells in stem cell competition and therefore the ability of the Ras<sup>V12</sup> mutation to be maintained in intestinal epithelial tissues.

Even in a non-neutral competition, a stem cell that acquires a mutation is likely to be outcompeted by one of the ~15 wild-type stem cells, and as a consequence this mutant cell will be repelled from the niche and transported to and lost at the villus  $tip^{39,40}$ . Thus, acquisition of an oncogenic mutation may influence the fitness of a cell in the stem competition, but is not deterministic, and can be eradicated due to stem cell competition.

#### Perturbation of niche factors alters stem cell niche and stem cell competition

Stem cell competition can be quite accurately described by a relatively simple one-dimensional stochastic model based on only two parameters: the number of stem cells per crypt and the rate at which they are replaced by a neighbor and get lost<sup>32,33,37</sup> (for more information see review <sup>17</sup>). The number of stem cells determines the chance of an individual stem cell to win the competition, while both parameters determine the speed of the competition. These parameters are tightly controlled by the stem cell niche. The niche provides cues to accurately balance stem cell proliferation and differentiation, controlling the number of stem cells and therefore also the protection potential of stem cell competition<sup>42</sup>. The niche factors that control stem cell numbers are produced by Paneth and mesenchymal cells and include WNT ligands (e.g. Wnt3a), Notch ligands (Dll1, Dll4), BMP antagonists (e.g. Noggin and Gremlin) and epidermal growth factor (EGF)<sup>34,43-48</sup>. Importantly, the stem cell zone, and therefore stem cell competition, is altered when these signals are perturbed. For example, blocking Delta-Notch signaling between stem and Paneth cells results in quick differentiation of stem and progenitor cells into postmitotic Goblet cells<sup>44,49</sup>. Moreover, inhibition of BMP signaling by Gremlin or Noggin leads to hyperproliferative crypts and the formation of ectopic crypts at the villus compartment<sup>50,51</sup>. In addition, when WNT signaling is reduced by manipulating WNT proteins directly or by manipulating a regulator of WNT signaling R-spondin, the number of stem cells is decreased (described in Chapter 4)<sup>52</sup>. As predicted by the onedimensional stochastic model for stem cell competition described above, lineage tracing experiments showed that reducing the number of Lgr5+ stem cells results in faster stem cell competition, observed as accelerated drift of stem cells toward monoclonality<sup>52</sup>. Together these studies shows that niche factors tightly control the number of stem cells and the composition of the crypt, thereby controlling stem cell competition and its ability to minimize the accumulation of new mutations.

# **CRYPT DYNAMICS**

## Crypt fission and fusion can influence stem cell dynamics

As a result of stem cell competition, stem cells within crypts become monoclonal over time. However, this is not a static situation: crypts can undergo fission and fusion events (**Figure 1**). During crypt fission one crypt divides into two crypts<sup>53</sup>, and this process mostly takes place during postnatal intestinal elongation and during regenerative responses<sup>54–57</sup>. In adulthood, crypt fission remains present during homeostasis, although at lower levels<sup>58–60</sup>. Using intravital microscopy, we recently uncovered crypt fusion, which seems to be an almost exact reverse phenomenon of crypt fission where two crypts fuse into one daughter crypt<sup>61</sup> (**Figure 1**). At homeostatic conditions, crypt fission and fusion occur at near similar frequencies and on average a crypt should at least undergo a fission or fusion event every 3 months<sup>58,61</sup>.

Crypt fission has the potential to spread monoclonal mutant crypts over the epithelium, and has been shown to be a mechanism through which mutant cells can expand beyond crypt borders <sup>62</sup>. This spread creates fields of genetically altered crypts that can predispose a tissue for cancer development (field cancerization)<sup>63,64</sup>. In the human intestine, fields of KRAS-mutated crypts have been observed surrounding colorectal cancers, indicating that this can be an initiating event in cancer development<sup>65,66</sup>. In addition, fields of APC-deficient crypts have been found that may play an important role in adenoma formation and expansion<sup>67-69</sup>. Thus, crypt fission can induce the spread of mutated cells over the epithelium which may enhances tumor initiation.

In contrast to the spread of mutations via crypt fission, crypt fusion has the potential to eradicate mutations from the epithelium, since it enables stem cell competition to eradicate mutant cells even in the situation where all stem cells in a crypt contain a particular mutation. When a crypt containing mutant stem cells fuses with a wild-type crypt, the stem cell competition "restarts" and the mutant cells can be outcompeted by the wild-type cells (**Figure 1**). Therefore, crypt fusion may be a third mechanism that could protect against accumulation of mutations, and has the potential to counteract the spread of mutations by crypt fission. Since crypt fission and fusion significantly influence stem cell competition, it will important to investigate the stem cell dynamics during crypt fission and fusion. Moreover, both processes should be incorporated into models describing stem cell competition in the intestine.

#### Tissue damage alters crypt dynamics

As mentioned before, crypt fission and fusion can influence stem cell competition. Because of its recent discovery, the molecular mechanisms underlying crypt fusion are yet unknown, while more is known about crypt fission. For example, it has been found that crypt fission occurs more frequently in response to damage, including intestinal resection, irradiation and chemotherapy treatment<sup>54,55,70,71</sup>. This response may (partly) function through the TGF $\beta$  signaling pathway, since loss of TGF $\beta$ R2 significantly reduces crypt fission events<sup>72</sup>. Interestingly, increased crypt fission is also observed in diseased colonic epithelia from patients with Crohn's disease and ulcerative colitis<sup>73</sup>, which both induce an inflammatory response and lead to an increased risk of colorectal cancer. Thus, damage and inflammation induce crypt fission may also be induced by genetic mutations. For example, in the mouse small intestine, the number of crypts monoclonal for the KRAS<sup>G12D</sup> mutation can expand by crypt fission with an increased rate compared to wild type crypts (>30-fold), and this creates fields of KRAS<sup>G12D</sup> mutated crypts<sup>40</sup>. As

mentioned before, activating KRAS mutations can enhance NFkB signaling, which is associated with inflammation, again suggesting a link between inflammation and colorectal tumor initiation.

# **FUTURE PERSPECTIVES**

In this review we have given an overview of the current knowledge about how the dynamics of the intestinal epithelium minimize accumulation of new mutations, including the conveyer belt-like structure, stem cell competition and crypt fusion. Future research is required to reveal the exact dynamics of these processes and how each of them contributes to the protection against the accumulation of mutations. Interestingly, once we understand these processes in more detail, one could think about manipulating them to optimize their protective capacity. For example, inhibition of crypt fusion may lead to decreased spread of new mutations over the epithelium. On the other hand, induction of crypt fusion may result in the depletion of mutant crypts and a reduced spread of oncogenic mutations. In addition, expanding the number of stem cells per crypt may increase the chance that a mutant stem cell will be repelled from the niche and be depleted from the tissue.

Live imaging of the intestinal epithelium, such as organoid imaging and intravital microscopy, will greatly help in understanding the cellular protection mechanisms and in finding ways to manipulate them. In contrast to techniques that draw a static picture of the dynamic nature of intestinal tissues, live microscopy can be used to visualize intestinal tissues, cells and processes over time. Organoid imaging will be instrumental in monitoring intestinal dynamics at subcellular resolution (e.g. 41,74,75). However, it is important to realize that organoids - as any other 3D culture model - lack the in vivo microenvironment, such as the surrounding stroma and immune cells. Recent advantages in high resolution intravital microscopy, and the development of a variety of imaging windows<sup>76</sup>, enable the visualization of the fate and behavior cells and lineages in living mice for several days<sup>77-79</sup>. We recently developed the abdominal imaging window<sup>80,81</sup>, which was used to study intestinal tissue homeostasis<sup>36,61</sup> and intestinal tumor progression<sup>82</sup>. In addition, it enabled us to uncover new aspects of epithelial dynamics, such as the identification of crypt fusion, which on static images cannot be discriminated from crypt fission<sup>61</sup>. In the future, live imaging technologies will be instrumental in understanding whether and how manipulating intestinal cell and crypt dynamics affects tissue homeostasis and how this affects the fate of cells that have acquired mutations in for example cancer driver genes. We believe that manipulation intestinal cell and crypt dynamics gives us the ability to reduce the accumulation of new mutations, which provides great potential to influence aging and the induction and progression of diseases such as cancer. With new microscopy techniques, we expect to make big steps in this direction in the near future.

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# Chapter 3

Retrograde Movement Determines the Number of Cells with Stem Cell Potential in Small and Large Intestinal Crypts

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## ABSTRACT

Homeostasis in the intestinal epithelium is the consequence of neutral competition of dividing stem cells at the base of each crypt. Although markers, such as Lgr5, have been identified that label cells with stem cell properties, these markers do not necessarily label all or exclusively cells with stem cell potential. Here, we used a combination of intravital microscopy and modeling to reveal what determines the ability of cells to function as a stem cell in the small and large intestine. Repetitive intravital microscopy showed that most cell movements go along the crypt-lumen axis, following a conveyor belt-like dynamics fueled by proliferation at the crypt bottom. In parallel to this upward advection, we observed random cell relocation resulting in retrograde movement towards the crypt base. Surprisingly, while we observed this retrograde cell movement in the small intestine, it was near absent in the large intestine. We found that the scale of retrograde movement determines the size of the stem cell compartment, as this enables cells to away from the bottom of the crypt to continuously reposition to the base region. From our study we concluded that stem cell behavior is not a cell-intrinsic property, but rather a potential that can be gained or lost, and that random relocations resulting in retrograde movement determines the number of cells that possess stem cell potential.

# INTRODUCTION

The intestinal tract consists of multiple compartments with different functions, which together ensure digestion and uptake of nutrients, absorption of water and expelling remainders of food intake. The small intestinal (SI) region comprises villi and invaginations, called crypts. In the large intestine (LI, comprising cecum and colon) the surface is flat, but a similar architecture of mitotic stem cell compartments at the bottom of crypts and more differentiated epithelial towards the intestinal lumen is found in all regions of the intestinal tract. The entire intestinal tube is lined with a single layer of epithelial cells that get renewed every few days. This high turnover has been shown to be the consequence of diving stem cells that compete neutrally for niche space at the base of each crypt<sup>1,2</sup>. At each cell division, a cell gets displaced from the base moving up along the crypt-lumen axis to differentiate into specialized cells such as goblet cell and enterocytes. Markers, such as Lgr5, have been identified that label cells with the ability to generate all differentiated cells along the crypt-lumen axis<sup>3</sup>. However, such markers do not necessarily label all or exclusively cells that have the potential to function as a stem cell4-8. Here, we use a combination of intravital microscopy and modeling to compare the cellular dynamics at the base of small and large intestinal crypts and how these dynamics determine functional stemness. We reveal that different scales of retrograde movement result in different sizes of the stem cell pool in small and large intestinal crypts.

#### RESULTS

## Distribution of proliferating Lgr5+ cells in crypts along the intestinal tract

Cells at the crypt base express Leucine-rich repeat-containing G-protein coupled receptor 5 (Lgr5) (Figure 1a,b)<sup>3</sup>. These cells have been shown to function as stem cells, since they can give rise to all differentiated cells along the crypt-lumen axis<sup>3</sup>. Moreover, the position of Lgr5+ cells within the base of the crypt is important for their ability to displace other Lgr5+ cells (i.e. competitive strength)9. Therefore, we first determined the total average number of Lgr5+ cells at the base of the crypts of the SI and LI of Lgr5eGFP-Ires-CreERT2 mice, dividing populations into two regions: the centre and border region (Figure 1c,d). In both regions, we observed comparable numbers of Lgr5-expressing cells, with a total of approximately 20 Lgr5+ cells per crypt (Figure 1c,d). In addition to the number and distribution of Lgr5+ cells, the proliferation rate and the position of proliferating cells are important contributors to the dynamics of stem cell competition, since together they determine the rate at which stem cells are replaced in the niche. We compared the presence of proliferating cells in the different intestinal compartments by quantifying the number of cells in S-phase (measured through short-term EdU incorporation) and the number of cells in mitosis (positive for phospho-histone H3), both showing similar results. Although comparable numbers of proliferating cells were found in the central crypt region in the SI and LI, our analyses revealed that more cells in the border of the SI crypt were proliferating compared to those in the LI (Figure 1e-g). Together, this resulted in a slightly higher fraction of proliferative cells in the SI. Of note, the transit-amplifying zone, the proliferative zone above the Lgr5+ zone, is significantly less pronounced in the colonic epithelium, compared to the SI, when looking at BrdU incorporation (Supplementary Figure 1). Together, these results show that the distribution of Lgr5+ cells within crypts was comparable between the different intestinal compartments, but in the LI crypts proliferation predominantly takes place in the centre, whilst in the SI crypts proliferation takes place both in the centre and border regions of the Lgr5+ zone.

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## Not all Lgr5+ cells in LI function as stem cells

We have previously shown in the SI that the location within the crypt base determines the chance that Lrg5+ cells become displaced from the niche and lost<sup>9</sup>. Since we observed that proliferation in the LI crypts was predominantly localized in the centre, we hypothesized that the border cells of the LI crypts get displaced more often and potentially have lower competitive fitness than border cells in SI crypts. To test our hypothesis, we performed repetitive intravital imaging in lineage-traced Lqr5eGFP-Ires-CreERT2;R26R-Confetti/LSL-tdTomato mice (Figure 2a). We could retrace crypts in the SI and LI in large overviews images by using vasculature and patchiness of Lgr5 expression as landmarks (Figure **2b-d**). This allowed us to record the location of clones in the crypt base 48 hour after onset of tracing and trace their fate 8 weeks later. Quantification of clonal persistence (i.e. the percentage of clones that remained present in the Lgr5+ zone) showed that centre clones were more likely to persist than border clones, as expected based on previous research<sup>9</sup>. Strikingly, no border-derived clones in the LI remained in the stem cell niche 8 weeks after onset of tracing while ~15% of border-derived clones continued to persist in the SI (Figure 2e). Dissection of the different positions within the crypt base showed that the gradient of positional advantage (decreasing from centre to border) was remarkably stronger in the LI as compared to SI (Figure 2e). These results indicate that not all Lgr5+ cells in the LI function as stem cells, since the cells higher up on the crypt base do not participate in the stem cell competition because they are displaced and lost.

# Modelling of stem cell dynamics: the stochastic conveyor belt

Given this striking difference between the positional retention advantage of Lgr5+ cells in crypts of the SI versus LI, we turned to a statistical modelling-based approach to address the mechanism underlying these differences. In contrast to previous studies that have sought to model the neutral drift dynamics of clones around the crypt circumference using a minimal one-dimensional scheme<sup>1,2,10</sup>, we developed a model that took into account the two-dimensional organization and potential cellular rearrangements at the crypt base to capture the positional dependence of survival probability (see Supplemental Theory). In particular, we modeled the intestinal crypts as a regular two-dimensional cylindrical grid (denoting +0,+1,+2,+3,... as the cell position along the crypt axis). Through numerical analyses, we found that a more faithful geometry that captured the tapered organization of the stem cell compartment at the crypt base did not change significantly our findings. Our modeling strategy was then based on two core processes (sketched in Figure 2f): 1) the upward transfer of cells along the crypt axis arising from cell division at rate  $k_{a}$  (with random division orientation and leading to symmetric fate outcome), and 2) a process of random relocation of cells to adjacent rows at rate k, leading to an exchange of cells either within or between adjacent rows. Notably, since the lateral dispersion of cells through division or exchange involves represents a neutral process, the relative survival advantage of cells along the crypt axis could be captured by considering the effective one-dimensional dynamics along the crypt axis, which we term the stochastic conveyor belt model. This dynamics is a particular case of an Ornstein-Uhlenbeck process with positive drift<sup>11,12</sup>. Importantly, predictions of this model were found to be insensitive to details of how cell relocation was implemented.

Consistent with the results of the repetitive imaging, the model predicts a decrease in the probability that clones are retained over the long-term as a function of their position along the crypt axis at the time of induction. In particular, an analysis of the clone dynamics shows that this probability takes the form of a simple and Gaussian-like distribution (**Figure 2g**). In particular, the retention probability, and thus stem



**Figure 1. Comparing crypt morphology and proliferation in small and large intestine. a.** Cartoon of a single crypt, side and bottom view, with Lgr5-expressing cells in green, niche cells in black and cells outside the stem cell zone in white. **b**. Lgr5-eGFP expressing cells in crypts of SI (left panel) and LI (right panel). Scale bar, 50 µm. **c**, Morphology of the stem cell zone in individual crypts (dotted outline) with Lgr5+ cells in green and nuclei (DAPI) in grey. Lower panels show centre region of crypts, top panels show border regions of crypts in SI (left), cecum (middle) and colon (right). Scale bar, 20 µm. **d**. Graph shows quantification of the number of Lgr5-eGFP+ cells in centre, border and total crypt bottom. **e.** Confocal images of Lgr5+ cells (green), in which proliferating cells were identified by EdU-incorporation (cells in S-phase, grey) and by phospho-histone H3 labeling (cells in mitosis, magenta, arrow head) in single crypts in SI (top) and LI (bottom). Scale bar, 20 µm. **f**, Graphs showing proliferating Lgr5-eGFP+ cells as a percentage of the total stem Lgr5+ stem cell pool in SI and LI, analyzed by quantification of cells in S-phase (4h EdU pulse) (**f**) and cells in mitosis (PH3+) (**g**). n>22, crypts for Lgr5+ cells and EdU and n>3 image fields per intestinal region (represented as single dots). Data are presented as mean +/- standard error of the mean (s.e.m.).

cell potential, depends only on the dimensionless ratio between  $k_r$  (the rate of random relocation) and  $k_d$  (the rate of upward transfer due to cell proliferation). This single free parameter provides a measure of spatial competition, quantifying the relative strength of cell relocation within the niche over advection

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away from the niche centre. From a fit of the predicted Gaussian-like distribution of the clone persistence at the 8 week time point (**Figure 2g**), the ratio of  $k/k_d$  could be extracted in both the SI and LI ( $k/k_d=0.3$ in LI and  $k/k_d=2$  in SI). The higher value of  $k/k_d$  in the SI, combined with a near equal rate of cell division and therefore upward cell movement ( $k_d$ ), implies that there is more random repositioning ( $k_f$ ) in SI crypts than in LI crypts. Due to random repositioning, cells can move down in SI crypts, thereby (re-)gaining a more favorable position for survival in the niche, increasing the stem cell renewal potential. Thus, our modeling shows that the self-renewal potential of cells within the crypt is determined by the retrograde movement of cells (i.e. downward movement in the crypt), implying that stem cell potential is not a binary property, but varies continuously along the axis of the crypt.

## Correctly predicted short-term behavior and fate of cells at various positions in the crypt

To test whether there is indeed more retrograde movement of cells in SI crypts than in LI crypts as predicted by our modeling, we performed short-term multi-day intravital microscopy to follow the movement of individual cells over time in living Lgr5eGFP-Ires-CreERT2/R26R-Confetti or Lgr5eGFP-Ires-CreERT2/R26-LSL-tdTomato mice (**Figure 3a**). Injection of a low-dose of tamoxifen resulted in Cremediated recombination and activation of one of the Confetti colours (CFP, YFP and RFP, respectively) or tdTomato, respectively, in individual Lgr5-expressing cells. Using intravital imaging on consecutive days, we monitored cell movement and clonal evolution of cells originally located at central or border locations over time in both the SI and LI (**Figure 3b,c**). The position and clone persistence were determined and quantified. As expected, many clones became lost from the Lgr5-zone over time (**Figure 3b,c**). Moreover, as predicted by our modeling, we observed retrograde movement of labelled cells in crypts of the SI, which was near absent in the crypts of the LI (**Figure 3d**). In line with the differences in retrograde

tracing of SI and LI. The vasculature was used as a landmarks to retrace previously recorded images. Dotted lines represent the same areas in SI and LI. Asterisk shows Peyers patch and grey line indicates boundary between SI and LI. Scale bar, 5 mm. d. Intravital images showing fields of individual Lgr5-expressing crypts. Patterning of Lgr5 expression was used to retrace the same clones 8 weeks (right panels) after the first imaging session (left panels) (retraced areas are indicated by dotted lines). Lgr5-expressing stem cells are marked with eGFP (green). Clones are randomly marked with YFP (yellow), RFP (red) or CFP (blue) driven from the R26R-Confetti locus. Scale bar, 500 µm. e. Quantification of clone maintenance after 8 weeks of tracing starting from different positions within the stem cell niche in SI and LI. Note that clones starting from large intestinal border cells are lost at 8 weeks of tracing, whereas a fraction of border-started SI clones is still present. SI: n=267 clones in 6 mice; LI: n=294 clones in 6 mice. f. Schematic representation of the model parameters used to study the dynamics underlying clone behaviour in epithelial tissue. The geometry of the intestine crypt is abstracted as a cylinder coupled to a hemispheric region. Each cube represents a cell. 1. A cell is labelled for the study at t=0. Its position, z=3, in units of cell length, describes the distance to the bottom of the crypt along the coordinate through which advective force due to duplication is exerted. 2. This cell duplicates at rate k, and its daughter cells can either occupy a position up in the organ and push up the column over the labelled cell or 3. its daughter cell moves to one side of the labelled cells at the same 'level' and it, in turn, pushes up the column of cells located above. 4. Finally, random relocations of cells are expected at rate k, and this may imply that, in spite the dominant advection dynamics due to duplication, retrograde movements are possible, thereby giving a non-zero probability for lineages belonging to cells located away from the bottom of the crypt to eventually colonize the entire crypt. g. Normalized retention probability over 8 weeks for cells at different starting position. Lines represent the Gaussian-predictions (~exp[-k/2k\_]) of the model, shaded regions represent the 95% confidence interval, necessary due to the finite size of data, and dots represent data. Predictions have been obtained from numerical simulations using a grid with periodic boundary conditions. For the SI (blue), we estimate  $k/k_a \sim 2$ , whereas for the LI (red)  $k/k_a \sim 0.3$ .



movement, we observed that clones were lost faster from border positions of the LI (cell positions +2 and +3) than from border positions of the SI (**Figure 3e-g**). Importantly, when comparing the dynamics to the predictions of our modelling scheme, with values of  $k/k_d$  determined from the previous fit to the long-term persistence probabilities, we observed a good quantitative agreement at all time points for both the SI and LI (**Figure 3h,i**). Note that the short-term dynamics depends both in the ratio  $k/k_d$  and on the absolute value of the cell division rate, which was slower than expected in SI with a symmetric division every 3 days. In addition, the model and data showed an excellent quantitative agreement when looking at the movement of clones between centre and border compartments, arguing that (differences in) both short and long-term dynamics in SI and LI can be captured by this simple model (**Figure 3j**). Thus, the analysis of the short-term dynamics corroborate the findings of long-term data and the values of  $k/k_d$  extracted above, again showing more cellular rearrangement and thus retrograde movement in the SI compared to LI.

## The consequence of retrograde movement on monoclonal conversion

The more stem cells compete for space at the base of the crypt, the longer it takes for one clone to outcompete all other cells. Since we observed fewer cells that can function as a stem cell in the LI crypts compared to SI crypts due to less retrograde movement, we hypothesized that monoclonality is reached faster in the LI than in the SI. To test this, we used whole mount preparations of Lgr5eGFP-Ires-CreERT2/R26R-Confetti mice sacrificed at different time points after onset of lineage tracing (**Figure 4a,b**). As predicted from our modeling, we observed differences in clonal expansion over time within the Lgr5+ zone of SI and LI crypts, with faster evolution (growth) of LI clones than SI clones (**Figure 4c**). The observed growth patterns showed that monoclonality was reached faster in the LI than in the SI. Whereas only ~40% of SI crypts was monoclonal at 6 weeks after onset of tracing, the vast majority of large LI crypts were already monoclonal at that time. Importantly, this evolution was quantitatively predicted by the two-dimensional stochastic conveyer belt model (**Figure 4d**), with only the measured ratio  $k/k_d$  (i.e. stochastic rearrangement/division rate) differing between the regions (while the geometry and average division rate were assumed the same), arguing that the process of crypt monoclonal drift

Figure 3. Intravital imaging of short-term stem cell dynamics in small and large intestine. a. schematic representation of experimental setup. Tamoxifen injection induces tdTomato or Confetti labeling of individual Lgr5expressing cells and their progeny. Implantation of an abdominal imaging window enables intravital monitoring of clonal evolution of labeled cells on multiple consecutive days. b,c. Intravital images of clonal evolution of Lgr5-expressing labeled cells (dotted line) starting from central and border positions in crypts of SI (b) and LI (c). Bottom panels show cells in central region, top panels show cells in border regions. Lgr5-expressing stem cells are marked with eGFP (green). Clones are pseudo-colored (red). Scale bar, 25 µm. d. Quantification of retrograde movement from border to centre region in SI and LI. Mean +- S.E.M. and dots represent individual mice. e. Representation of different cell positions within crypt base. Position 0 and 1 represent centre region, while position 2 and 3 represent the border region. f,g. Quantification of intravital imaging of clone survival within the stem cell niche of labelled Lgr5 cells starting from different positions in the niche in SI (f) and LI (g). SI: n=281 clones in 8 mice; LI: n=350 clones in 5 mice. h,i. Probability of a clone to retain in the Lgr5+ zone for the different starting positions (x-axis) over time (solid lines) in SI (h) and LI (i). Solid lines represent theoretic model predictions, shaded regions represent the 95% confidence interval and dots represent real data. j. Probability in percentage of a clone starting either in niche centre (pos. 0 and 1, left panel) or at the niche border (pos. 2 and 3, right panel) to be present in the niche centre, niche border or to be lost from the Lgr5+ zone over time. Data (left bar) and theory (right bar) are compared.

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is faster in the LI due to reduced cellular rearrangements, and thus reduced retrograde movement, at the crypt base.

# FINAL REMARKS

Stem cells are defined by their potential to self-renew and give rise to differentiated progenies. Traditionally, stem cell potential has been thought to be intrinsic property, characterized by signature expression of molecular markers. However, stem cell potential does not translate to stem cell function<sup>9</sup>. For example, whilst Lgr5+ cells in the intestinal crypt have the intrinsic capacity to give rise to all differentiated cell types, and to form *in vitro* organoid cultures, Lgr5 expression does not necessarily



**Figure 4. Comparing clonal evolution and fixation speed between small and large intestine. a.** Schematic representation of experimental setup. Animals are sacrificed at different time points after induction of lineage tracing. Whole mounts of small and large intestines were imaged to determine clone sizes. **b.** Examples of maximum projections of confocal images of crypt bottoms at 8 weeks after induction of sporadic tracing in SI and LI (SI on the left and LI on the right). Lgr5-expressing stem cells are marked with eGFP (green). Clones are randomly marked with YFP (yellow), RFP (red) or CFP (blue) driven from the R26R-Confetti locus. Scale bar, 200 µm. **c.** Heat map showing clonal expansion in stem cell zones of SI and LI over time. Data is presented as percentages of clones with clones sizes indicated above the heat map for each time point. **d.** Quantification of monoclonal crypts (100% labeled) in SI and LI at different time points after induction of labeling. Lines represent theoretic model predictions and dots represent real data. Mean +-standard deviation and n>150 clones in >3 mice per time point.

overlap with the ensemble of cells showing functional stem cell activity<sup>4-8</sup>. Here we have shown that the balance between the rate of random cell repositioning (resulting in retrograde cell movement) and the rate of cell proliferation provides a determinant of the range of functional stem cell potential in the intestinal crypt. We find that, due to a lack of retrograde movement in the LI, Lgr5+ cells at the border of the crypt base (cell positions +2 and +3) are already destined to be displaced irreversibly from the Lgr5+ zone, thereby preventing their long-term self-renewal and production of differentiated progenies. This shows that, in the LI, Lgr5+ border cells do not function as long-term stem cells. By contrast, due to the presence of retrograde movement in the SI, cells at the border of the crypt base, including those outside of the Lgr5 zone, can relocate the crypt base, albeit with diminishing probability, self-renew and give rise to differentiated progenies. We therefore conclude that stem cell identity is not cell-intrinsic that is marked by molecular signatures, but rather a potential that can be gained or lost, and which is highly dependent on the retrograde movement of cells within the crypts.

Based on our experimental data and mathematical modeling, we observed the importance of random cell relocation resulting in retrograde movement for stem cell potential. In our study, we developed a mathematical framework that captures the two-dimensional organization of the crypt, mimicking the mechanism of a conveyor belt with stochastic rearrangements. Our model is based on only a single dimensionless parameter involving the ratio between random cell repositioning and the movement away from the crypt base due to cell division ( $k_l/k_d$ ). We found that the differential rate of cell repositioning and retrograde movement was the sole factor explaining the differential dynamics underlying competition for niche space in the SI and LI. These differences in stem cell dynamics eventually lead to faster clonal evolution and shorter fixation times in LI compared to SI. In conclusion, despite similarities in crypt architecture, different parts of the intestinal tract not only serve different functions, but also display different stem cell dynamics regulating epithelial turnover as predicted by our modelling. Longitudinal movement of cells is a critical determinant for the acquisition of stem cell potential, allowing cells to gain positions favorable for long-term maintenance and self-renewal capacity. These differences may provide crucial clues to understand known differences in susceptibility to disease along the intestinal tract.

# MATERIALS AND METHODS

## Mice

All experiments were carried out in accordance with the guidelines of the animal welfare committee of the Netherlands Cancer Institute. For lineage tracing experiments Lgr5<sup>eGFP-Ires-CreERT2</sup>/R26R-Confetti and Lgr5<sup>eGFP-Ires-CreERT2</sup>/LSL-tdTomato mice were used. Random double heterozygous male and female mice mixed or Bl6 background were housed under standard laboratory conditions and received standard laboratory chow and water ad libitum. Male and female mice between 8 and 50 weeks of age were used for static lineage tracing and IVM experiments. For whole mount imaging and imaging of isolated crypts, intestines from 8–50 week-old male and female mice were used.

#### Surgery

All surgical procedures were performed under  $\sim 2\%$  isoflurane (v/v) inhalation anesthesia. Before and 8-12 hours after surgery, the mice were treated with a dose of buprenorphine (subcutaneous, 100 ug/kg mouse, Temgesic; BD Pharmaceutical System). Rimadyl (64 µg/ml, Carprofen; Zoetis B.V.) was given in drinking water for 3 days after the surgery. For short-term intravital imaging an AIW was placed as described previously<sup>13</sup>. In short, the left lateral flank of the mouse was shaved and disinfected. An incision was made through the skin and peritoneum of the mouse and a purse string suture was placed along the edge of the wound. The ilium (SI) or cecum (LI) was exposed and a disinfected abdominal imaging window (AIW) (>1h in 70% (v/v) ethanol) was placed on top. In case of the ilium, the mesentery was fixed to the cover glass using Cyanoacrylate Glue (Pattex) and CyGel (BioStatus Limited) was added on top to prevent liquid accumulation. In case of the cecum, it was fixed to the titanium ring of the AIW using Cyanoacrylate Glue (Pattex). After these substances were dry, the intestine and AIW were placed back in the abdominal cavity and the skin and abdominal wall were placed into the groove of the AIW. Subsequently, the suture was tightened. After surgery, the mice were closely monitored daily for reactivity, behavior, appearance and defecation. For repetitive long-term imaging, parts of the intestine that were imaged were exteriorized through a midline abdominal incision. Tissue hydration was maintained by creating a wet chamber, covering the mice with parafilm and the exposed tissue with PBS drenched gauze. After the imaging session placed back in the abdomen and the abdomen was closed using vicryl absorbable sutures (GMED Healthcare BVBA).

#### Intravital imaging

For every imaging session, mice were sedated by using isoflurane inhalation anesthesia (~1.5% isoflurane/O2 mixture), and placed in a custom-designed imaging box. For short-term imaging, mice were imaged once a day for a maximum of 3 h. For long-term imaging, mice were imaged 2-3 d after label-induction and 8 weeks thereafter. Z-stacks and overview images were recorded using the Navigator function from Leica. The patchy pattern of the Lgr5 knock-in allele, in combination with specific landmarks such as blood vessels, allowed repeated identification of imaged areas over consecutive days. After imaging, the acquired images were analyzed using basic functions in ImageJ software.

#### Whole mount preparation

For whole mount imaging, intestines were harvested and the lumen was flushed with ice-cold PBSO. The tissues were opened longitudinally and for the ileum, villi were removed from the luminal

surface using a cover glass. The tissues were washed in ice-cold PBSO and fixed for 30 min in 4% formaldehyde solution (w/v) (Klinipath)) or periodate-lysine-4% paraformaldehyde (PLP) overnight at 4°C<sup>14</sup>. For antibody labeling, the tissues were permeabilized in 3% BSA, and 0.8% Triton X-100 in PBS. Subsequently, stretches of ~2 cm of fixed tissue, were mounted between 2 coverslips and embedded in Vectashield HardSet Antifade Mounting Medium (Vector Laboratories). Crypts were imaged from the bottom using the same equipment and settings as for intravital microscopy described below. For storage, PLP fixed tissues were incubated in sucrose for >6 hours and frozen in OCT at -80°C.

#### Crypt isolation

For crypt isolation, intestines were harvested and lumen was flushed with ice-cold PBS. Tissue was opened longitudinally, villi were removed from the luminal surface of distal ileum. Parts of approximately 3 cm of ileum and intact but opened cecum were incubated with 30mM in EDTA in HBSS at room temperature for 20 minutes. After vigorously shaking the release of the epithelium from the mesenchyme was checked using a microscope. Suspensions were filtered (100um) before spinning down (5 minutes at 4°C, 88 rcf). Pellets containing isolated crypts were washed with cold PBS, fixed in 4% PFA (30 minutes at room temperature), permeabilized in 1% triton X-100 (45 minutes at room temperature), blocked in blocking buffer for 30 minutes at room temperature (1% BSA, 3% horse serum, 0.2% Triton X-100 in PBS) before antibody labeling.

# Cell proliferation and antibody labeling

To label cells in S-phase, 1 mg of 5-ethynyl-2-deoxyuridine (EdU, 200 ul in PBS) or 2 mg bromodeoxyuridine (BrdU, 200 ul in PBS) was injected intraperitoneally 4 hours prior to sacrifice. Tissues were processed for whole mount analysis or crypt isolation as described above. Click-it staining reaction was performed according to the manufacturer's protocol (Click-it EdU, ThermoFisher/invitrogen). For lableling of BrdU incorporation, crypts were incubated in 2N HCl at 37°C for 15 minutes to denature the DNA followed by 15 minutes in 0.1 M sodium borate for neutralization before incubation with BrdU antibody (Abcam, 3626) and GFP-antibody (Abcam, 6673) overnight. To label cells in mitosis phospho-Histone H3 antibody was used (Milipore, 06-570). Stainings were finalized by incubation with alexa secondary antibodies (Invitrogen) combined with DAPI followed by mounting in antifading mounting medium (Vectashield, Vector laboratories).

## Microscopy equipment and settings

Tissues were imaged with an inverted Leica TCS SP8 confocal microscope. All images were collected in 12 bit with 25X water immersion objective (HC FLUOTAR L N.A. 0.95 W VISIR 0.17 FWD 2.4 mm).

# **AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS**

SIJE, LB, EH, HJS and JvR conceived the study. SIJE, LB and SJAL performed the experiments. BCM, BDS, and EH performed the mathematical modeling. All authors contributed to writing and have approved the manuscript.

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**Supplementary Figure 1. Visualizing the transit amplifying compartment in SI and LI. a.** Confocal images of isolated crypts of SI (left), and LI (right) in which proliferating cells were identified by BrdU-incorporation (cells in S-phase, red). Nuclei were labeled using DAPI (blue). Scale bar, 50 µm. **b.** Quantification of the height of the proliferative zone. Dots represent individual crypts.

#### SUPPLEMENTAL THEORY

#### **Basic dynamics**

The simplest abstraction of our system is composed by a column of cells arranged in a finite segment [0, *N*], in which the length unit is scaled to the average length of a cell. Each cell divides at constant rate  $k_d$ . We consider that the system can only grow towards the positive axis and that the density of cells remains constant. This division creates a positive push up force because newly born cells occupy upper adjacent positions in the array, pushing the cells that were there to higher positions. As long as a cell reaches the position *N* and is pushed, it disappears from the system. The coordinate *x* or *z* through which the dynamics take place will depict only the distance to the origin of the organ, without assumptions on the global movement of it: In the crypt that will represent the distance to the bottom. In addition, the position of the cells can fluctuate stochastically at rate  $k_r$  (either via local cell-cell rearrangements, or more global movements of cells relative to the niche, see sections below for more details). Importantly, the results that we derive, as described below, are highly generic to different types of assumptions on the microscopic dynamics, as long as the basis features of advection and rearrangements exist in a system.

#### Single cell dynamics

This process is a mixture of Brownian motion with a given amplitude  $k_r$  and a drift parameter that depends on the position. In the continuous limit, the position of the cell, x, can be described as a random variable satisfying the following stochastic equation:

$$dx = k_d x dt + \sqrt{k_r} dW \quad , \tag{1}$$

being *dW* the differential of the standard Wiener process with mean 0 and variance 1. In other words, we are describing a kind of *Ornstein-Uhlenbeck* process, with positive drift  $k_a^{1,2}$ . The above described stochastic process has no stationary solutions, which is in agreement to the conveyor belt-like dynamics of the systems under study: all cells will sconer or later be pushed out from the system. One can still compute the time-dependent solutions, considering initial conditions  $t_0 = 0$ ,  $x_0 = \delta(x - k)$  and natural boundary conditions<sup>\*</sup> as follows: First we observe that:

<sup>\*</sup> A rigorous approach to this problem would require a reflecting boundary condition at x = 0. Imposing such boundary condition would make the whole problem much more difficult and, eventually intractable. The reason by which we adopted natural boundary conditions is due to the fact that the dynamics in this system is extremely imbalanced and runs essentially in only one direction. If one takes equation (5) at x = 0 we observe that the probability of being at x = 0 decays as  $\sim e^{-\tau}$ , for any starting point k > 0, as it is the case in our system. This tells us that the probability of visiting regions x < 0 is, to our purposes, negligible.

$$d(e^{-k_d t}X(t)) = dX(t)e^{-k_d t} - k_d e^{-k_d t}X(t)dt \quad .$$

Then, multiplying both sides of equation (1) by  $e^{-k_d t}$ , and after some algebra, one finds that:

$$d(e^{-k_d t}X(t)) = \sqrt{k_r}e^{-k_d t}dW$$

leading to:

$$X(t) = x_0 e^{k_d t} + \int_0^t \sqrt{k_r} e^{k_d (t-s)} dW \quad .$$
 (2)

The integral is a standard stochastic integral with respect to a *Wiener process*. According to *Ito's isometry*<sup>8</sup> one has that the law governing the random variable described by the integral is a normal distribution  $N(0, \sigma^2(t))$ . In our case this reads:

$$\int_0^t e^{k_d(t-s)} \sqrt{k_r} dW \sim N\left(0, \int_0^t \left|\sqrt{k_r} e^{k_d(t-s)}\right|^2 ds\right) \quad ,$$

which means that he explicit form of  $\sigma^2(t)$ , is thus given by:

$$\sigma^{2}(t) = \int_{0}^{t} \left| \sqrt{k_{r}} e^{k_{d}(t-s)} \right|^{2} ds = \frac{k_{r}}{2k_{d}} (e^{2k_{d}t} - 1) \quad . \tag{3}$$

Finally, from equation (2), we conclude that the time dependent mean,  $\mu(t)$ , is:

$$\mu(t, x_0) = x_0 e^{k_d t} \quad .$$

By setting

$$\tau \equiv k_d t \quad , \tag{4}$$

and  $x_0 = k$  as the starting position, one gets the time evolution of the probability distribution of for the position of the random walker which started at *k*:

$$p_k(x,\tau) = \sqrt{\frac{k_d}{2\pi k_r (e^{2\tau} - 1)}} \exp\left\{-\frac{k_d}{2k_r} \frac{(x - ke^{\tau})^2}{(e^{2\tau} - 1)}\right\}.$$
(5)

In words, the solution is given by random variable following a normal distribution whose mean and variance run exponentially fast in time through the positive axis. In **Figure 1a** of this SI, we plotted some snapshots of this time dependent probability.

## Lineage dynamics

The Fokker-Planck equation accounting for the probability that a given random walker starting at k will be at x at a given time  $\tau$  –as defined in equation (4)–, for the stochastic process described by equation (1),  $p_k(x, \tau)$ , is given by:

$$\frac{\partial p_k}{\partial \tau} = -\frac{\partial}{\partial x} (xp_k) + \frac{k_r}{2k_d} \frac{\partial^2 p_k}{\partial x^2} \quad . \tag{6}$$

If we want to study the density of cells of the lineage started by cell k in a given position,  $\rho_k(x,\tau)$ , we have to take into account that, in a given time step,  $\rho_k(x,\tau)$  new cells of the lineage will emerge in such a position. Therefore, to describe the whole process, we need a diffusive part, given by the differential operator  $-\frac{\partial}{\partial x}x + \frac{k_r}{k_d}\frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2}$  of equation (6) and a reactive part, given by  $\rho_k(x,\tau)$ . To derive the reactive part, we take into account the following reasoning: If the density of a given lineage at position x at time  $\tau$  is  $\rho_k(x,\tau)$ , one expects that, in average, new  $\rho_k(x,\tau)$  cells will emerge within this interval in a time unit –as it is standard in the exponential growth. So, one has that the equation accounting for the time evolution –in units of  $\tau = k_d t$  of such density is:

$$\frac{\partial \rho_k}{\partial \tau} = -\frac{\partial}{\partial x} (x\rho_k) + \frac{k_r}{k_d} \frac{\partial^2 \rho_k}{\partial x^2} + \rho_k \quad . \tag{7}$$

The above equation is a reaction diffusion equation whose diffusive part observes a Ornstein-Uhlenbeck processes with positive drift and whose reaction part is given by an standard exponential growth. Knowing that the solution of equation (6) is given by  $p_k(x, \tau)$  as defined in equation (5), the solution of equation (7), with initial conditions  $\rho_k(x, 0) = \delta(k - x)$ , is given by:

$$\rho_k(x,\tau) = A \cdot e^\tau p_k(x,\tau) \quad . \tag{8}$$

We observe that, according to equation (8), the term  $e^{\tau}p_k(x,\tau)$  can be safely approximated by

$$e^{\tau}p_k(x,\tau) \approx \sqrt{\frac{k_d}{2\pi k_r}} \exp\left\{-\frac{k_d}{2k_r} \left(\frac{x-ke^{\tau}}{e^{\tau}}\right)^2\right\} \quad . \tag{9}$$

## Determination of the integration constant

We observe that, even though random fluctuations in cell positions are allowed, epithelial tissues remain confluent <sup>4</sup>, and maintain a constant density at homeostasis. This imposes that, in the limit of a continuous array of cells and for  $\tau \to \infty$ , the overall density of cells of the site *x* must stabilize to 1, and must not depend on the position *x*. We will call that condition the *confluent tissue condition*. Consistent with the above reasoning, we observe that:

$$\int_0^N e^\tau p_x(x',\tau) dx \to c \in \mathbb{R}^+$$

To determine the constant *A* of equation (8), we impose the *confluent tissue condition*. According to the above equation, this is satisfied by:

$$A \equiv \frac{1}{c}$$
 .

Let us remark that we consider  $x \in [0, N]$ . Then, knowing that, in this case:

$$\lim_{\tau\to\infty}\int_0^N e^\tau p_x(x',\tau)dx = \int_0^N \lim_{\tau\to\infty} \{e^\tau p_x(x',\tau)\}dx$$

we compute the limit, taking into account equation (9):

$$\lim_{\tau\to\infty} e^{\tau} p_x(x',\tau) = \sqrt{\frac{k_d}{2\pi k_r}} exp\left\{-\frac{k_d}{2k_r}x^2\right\} \quad ,$$

which is a gaussian with zero mean and  $\sigma^2 = k_r/k_d$ . so that:

$$c = \int_{0}^{N} \sqrt{\frac{k_{d}}{2\pi k_{r}}} exp\left\{-\frac{k_{d}}{2k_{r}}x^{2}\right\} dx$$
$$= \frac{1}{2} erf\left(N\sqrt{\frac{k_{d}}{2k_{r}}}\right)$$
$$\approx \frac{1}{2} ,$$

where erf(x) is the *error function*. The approximation  $c \approx 1/2$  holds as soon as  $N \gg 1$ . Therefore, in that approximation, A = 2.

By setting the integration constant A = 2, the process fills up space in a correct manner that is: The density of cells is always conserved as 1 cell×length unit, as expected for a confluent homeostasic tissue. The final expression for  $\rho(k, \tau)$  will thus be:

$$\rho_k(x,\tau) \approx \sqrt{\frac{2k_d}{\pi k_r}} \exp\left\{-\frac{k_d}{2k_r} \left(\frac{x-ke^{\tau}}{e^{\tau}}\right)^2\right\} \quad . \tag{10}$$

In Figure 1b of this SI we plotted some snapshots of this time dependent density.

## Lineage survival probability

The first task is to demonstrate that the above dynamics leads, in the long term, to a system composed by descendants of the same cell, i.e. that only a single lineage is present in the system for  $\tau \gg 1$ . In the case of a 1D system defined over the interval [0, N] with  $k_r = 0$ , this result is trivial, since the lineage of the cell located at the bottom of the system will occupy the whole system whenever it has divided enough times to cover all the positions from 0 to *N*. In the case  $k_r > 0$ , the strategy to see that it runs towards monoclonality is the following: Let  $\Omega_N$  be all the potential configurations the system can have in terms of lineage configuration whenever the system has 2,3,...,*N* lineages alive. That is  $\sigma \in \Omega_N$  will be a sequence of *N* numbers each labelling the lineage the cell in a given position belongs to:

$$\sigma = \sigma^1, \dots, \sigma^N ; \quad \sigma^k \in \{0, 1, \dots, N\}$$

In units of  $\tau$  and given a configuration  $\sigma$  of lineages, for  $\Delta \tau > \frac{1}{k_d} \log_2 N$  all the cells will potentially have produced more than N new cells. Therefore, the probability that a lineage has been expelled by the system will be larger than zero. Let us call this probability  $p(\downarrow, \Delta \tau)$ . Let us define  $\tilde{p}_{\alpha}$  as:

$$\widetilde{p}_{\Omega} = \min_{\sigma \in \Omega} \{ p(\downarrow, \Delta \tau) \}$$

,



**Figure 1 - Temporal evolution of the stochastic conveyor belt dynamics** (black to grey indicates time). **a.** Evolution in time of the probability for cells starting at a given position to occupy the location *x* according to the theoretical prediction given by equation (5). Observe that the dynamics does not run to a stationary state, so all cells will eventually abandon the system with probability 1 as long as time grows. **b.** Evolution in time of the density of a lineage starting in the same position across all positions, according to the solution of the reaction diffusion equation (7) given in equation (10). Observe that the reaction diffusion dynamics displays a front that runs exponentially towards the outside of the system. However, we observe that the density reaches a non-zero stationary value, that is proportional to the probability of the lineage to remain and colonize the whole system. The initial black, elongated triangle at position 1 shows the initial conditions i.e., k = 1 and  $k_r = 1$ ,  $k_d = 1$ . These values have been chosen only for the sake of clarity.

that is, the configuration for which the probability of losing a lineage after  $\Delta \tau$  steps is minimum. By construction, we know that from whatever configuration containing more than a single lineage has a non-zero probability of losing at least one of them after  $\Delta \tau$ , so:

$$\widetilde{p}_{\Omega} > 0$$

The probability of not losing any lineage whatever the configuration of the system after n steps of duration  $\Delta \tau$ ,  $p(=, n\Delta \tau)$  will be bounded as:

$$0 \le p(=, n\Delta\tau) \le \left(1 - \tilde{p}_{o}\right)^{n}$$

and the probability of losing at least one lineage will be bounded as well as:

$$1 \ge p(\downarrow, \Delta \tau) \ge 1 - \left(1 - \widetilde{p}_{\Omega}\right)^n$$
.

In consequence,

$$p(=, n\Delta\tau) \to 0$$
  
$$p(\downarrow, \Delta\tau) \to 1 \quad .$$

Since the loss of a lineage is a completely irreversible process, the above equation tells us that it is expected that the system will lose lineages until only one survives. Note that for a 2D geometry but  $k_r = 0$ , the system reduces to the stochastic voter model along a 1D ring (the  $N_0$  cells at position 0) which was proposed and tested experimentally in Ref. 5, and where the process of monoclonal conversion is diffusive, occurring on time scales of  $N_0^2/k_d$ .

Now that we know that the system will reach monoclonality, the next question is to ask which lineage will win the competition. In particular, we are interested in the probability that a given lineage colonizes the whole system as a function of the position of the cell that defined the lineage at t = 0. To that end, we first compute the asymptotic lineage density,  $\rho_k(\infty)$ , that reads:

$$\rho_k(\infty) \equiv \lim_{\tau \to \infty} \rho_k(x,\tau) = \sqrt{\frac{2k_d}{\pi k_r}} e^{-\frac{k_d}{2k_r}k^2} \quad . \tag{11}$$

We observe that this density is independent of x -see **Figure 1b** of this SI. Now we make the following assumption: The competition between cells at different levels term is absorbed in a mean field approach by the drift push-up force. In this context, we conclude that the probability of lineage survival  $p(c_k)$  -that is, the probability that the whole tissue from 0 to *N* will be occupied by cells of the lineage k- can be derived directly from the normalization of the asymptotic densities  $\rho_k(\infty)$ :

$$p(c_k) \propto \frac{\rho_k(\infty)}{\sum_j \rho_j(\infty)} \ ,$$

which leads to:

$$p(c_k) = \frac{1}{Z_N} exp\left\{-\frac{k_d}{2k_r}k^2\right\} \quad , \tag{12}$$

being  $Z_N$  the normalization constant, namely,  $Z_N \equiv \sum_{j \le N} exp \left\{ -\frac{k_d}{2k_r} j^2 \right\}$ .

# Time dependent clone survival probability

We work under the assumption that the exclusion principle governing site positions and the correlations arising from the duplication dynamics vanish if we take an ensemble picture. In that frame, the strength of a given lineage is assumed to be proportional to the density. Therefore, the probability for a lineage k to survive after time  $\tau$ ,  $p(c_k, \tau)$  will observe the following relation:

$$\frac{p(c_k,\tau)}{p(c_0,\tau)} = \int_0^L \rho_k(x,\tau) dx \left( \int_0^L \rho_0(x,\tau) dx \right)^{-1} \quad . \tag{13}$$

#### Dynamics in more general geometries

In general we will assume that there is a coordinate z over which the displacement induced by the division takes place. All the dynamics will be, in consequence, studied from its projection over this coordinate –see **Figure 2** of this SI for the special cases of hemispheric and spheric geometries. In the case of a 1D-system, as the one described above, this coordinate is the length, *x*. In the case of a hemisphere, assuming that the push-up force is exerted from the bottom pole, this coordinate is the arc length defined from the position of the cell to the bottom pole itself –see **Figure 2a** of this SI. To gain intuition, consider the surface of the hemisphere with radius *R*: The cells at the bottom pole divide and push the ones on top of them up through the surface. The cell under consideration is located at whatever position defining an arc from the bottom pole equal to  $z = R\varphi_k = z_k$ , where  $\varphi_k$  is the polar angle, meaning that there is an arc of *k* cells from the given cell to the pole of the hemisphere –see **Figure 2a** 

of this SI. The successive divisions of cells located at  $z_i < z_k$  will result into a net displacement along the angular coordinate  $\varphi$  of the cell located initially at  $z_k = R\varphi_k$ , going from  $z_k = R\varphi_k$  to  $z_{k'} = R\varphi_k'$ , with  $\varphi_k' > \varphi_k$ . The linear displacement along the surface will be  $\Delta z = R(\varphi_k' - \varphi_k)$ . Displacements along the other coordinate will have no effect in the push up force.

Drift term

The push-up force or drift term will be described by the function h(z), and will be defined as:

$$h(z) = \frac{dz}{dt} \quad . \tag{14}$$

In the case of a 1D-system, as the one described by equation (7), one has that  $h(z) = k_d z$ . To properly study these dynamics over more general geometries, let us consider a Riemannian manifold equipped with a metric tensor g, with components  $g_{ij}$  <sup>6</sup>. Crucial to our purposes is the property of *local flatness* <sup>6,7</sup>. Roughly speaking, this implies that, for small enough regions of the manifold, the geometry has euclidean properties. Let us consider that the push up force due to duplications has an origin and is exerted along the direction of a single coordinate z as well. As we did above, the surface/volume units are given such that an average cell has a surface/volume of 1 in the corresponding units. Consider the starting position of our cell to be  $z_k$  along the coordinate z along which the displacement due to the push up force takes place. If the other coordinates are given by  $x_1, \ldots, x_{n-1}$ , the surface/volume encapsulated below this position is given by:

$$S_k = \int \dots \int_0^{z_k} \sqrt{g} \, dx_1 \dots dz$$

where g is the determiner of the metric tensor, i.e.:

Cells are assumed to divide at rate  $k_d$ . That implies that  $k_d S_k$  new cells will be produced below the cell located at  $z_k$ . This will create an extra surface/volume of:

$$\frac{dS_k}{dt} = k_d S_k$$

that will project into the coordinate z. Using that:

$$\frac{dS_k}{dt} = \frac{dS_k}{dz}\frac{dz}{dt}$$

and, then, equation (14), one can find the general expression for this projection, which reads:

$$h(z) = k_d \left(\frac{dS_k}{dz}\right)^{-1} S_k \quad . \tag{15}$$

## Projection of the fluctuations

We are only interested on the projection of the dynamics over the coordinate z along which the system grows, as in the other coordinates the competition is neutral and has no net effect in the lineage survival statistics. If the reported fluctuations are  $k_r$ , we will refer to the projection to the coordinate z as  $k_r^z$ . In general,  $k_r^z$  will be a function  $k_r^z = f(k_r, z)$ . According to the above results, we will have that the general equation for the evolution of cell lineage densities along the coordinate z will read:

$$\frac{\partial \rho_k}{\partial t} = -\frac{\partial}{\partial z} (h(z)\rho_k) + \frac{k_r^2}{2} \frac{\partial^2 \rho_k}{\partial z^2} + \rho_k \quad . \tag{16}$$

In the case h(z) can be approached as a linear function, i.e.,  $h(z) \sim ak_d z$  and  $k_r^z$  as  $k_r^z = bf(k_r)$ , one can reproduce the reasoning provided to derive the lineage survival probability, equation (12), and obtain:

$$p(c_k) \propto exp\left\{-\frac{a}{2b}\frac{k_d}{f(k_r)}k^2\right\}$$

To gain intuition, imagine that we report experimental fluctuations of amplitude  $k_r$  -see **Figure 3** of this SI. That is, in a time unit, the cells move randomly over the manifold  $k_r$  steps. We are in a 2D isotropic, locally flat surface with generic orthogonal coordinates y, z -for example,  $R \times$  the azimuthal angle  $\theta$  and  $R \times$  the polar angle  $\varphi$  over a sphere surface. The amplitude of the fluctuations after time t is known to be  $\sim \sqrt{k_r t}$ , a distance defined over the surface. In the case we consider the projection over the coordinate z, thanks to the local flatness<sup>7</sup>, assuming that  $\sqrt{k_r} \ll R$  and using only symmetry reasonings, one has that since the displacement is given by  $(\Delta y, \Delta z) = (\sqrt{k_r^y}, \sqrt{k_r^z})$ :

$$\sqrt{(\sqrt{k_r^y})^2 + (\sqrt{k_r^z})^2} = \sqrt{k_r}$$



**Figure 2 - Schematic representation of the crypt a.** Schematic characterization of the structure of the crypt as a hemispherical region H coupled to a cylinder region of the same radius, R. b. The expansion of the tissue in a 3D abstract setting where there is radial symmetry. The growing of the inner cells creates a push up force. In addition, the stochastic fluctuations in the position determine the probability of lineage survival as a function of the starting point, as in the case of low dimensional approaches.

and the fluctuations are isotropic, then:

$$k_r^z = k_r^y$$
 ,

and the only solution to the above problem is that:

$$k_r^z = \frac{k_r}{2} \quad . \tag{17}$$

In the case we are dealing with a spherical surface, we are projecting the fluctuations over the polar angle  $z = R\varphi$  –see **Figure 3** of this SI. The stochastic differential equation that will describe the movement of a single cell in this manifold will be, for  $z \leq \frac{\pi}{2}R$ :

$$dz = h(z)dt + \sqrt{\frac{k_r}{2}}dW$$

where dW is the differential of the standard Brownian motion with average 0 and variance 1 in one dimension.

#### Evolution of densities: Hemispherical approach

Let us now consider a detailed version of the geometry of the crypt. This consists in a half sphere, H, whose arc length from the bottom pole to the end is is  $z_R = \frac{\pi}{2}R$  coupled to a cylinder C of length L and radius R. The cells populate both the surface of the hemisphere and the cylinder. The push-up force is directed towards the top of the cylinder –see **Figure 2a** of this SI. In the arc that goes from the bottom pole to the end of the hemisphere there are  $z_R$  cells. Again, the units are given considering the average size of the cell as the length/surface/volume unit. Therefore, the cells will be labelled in terms of the geodesic distance over the hemisphere to the bottom pole. The density of the lineages will be given by:

$$(\rho_0, \rho_1, \rho_2, \dots, \rho_{z_{R-1}}, \rho_{z_R})$$
.

Since the coordinate R is constant, the only dynamically relevant information will come from the angle  $\varphi$ . Each position k in the arc  $(0,1,2,\ldots,z_k,\ldots,z_R-1,z_R)$  describing the initial point of a cell lineage can be rewritten as:

$$z_k = R\varphi_k$$
,  $\varphi_k \in \left(0, \frac{\pi}{2}\right)$ .

i.e.,  $\varphi_k = \frac{z_k}{R}$ . The metric tensor for this hemispheric surface is:

$$g = \begin{pmatrix} R^2 & 0\\ 0 & R^2 \sin^2(\varphi) \end{pmatrix}$$

Computing the determiner of g, g:

$$g = \begin{vmatrix} R^2 & 0\\ 0 & R^2 \sin^2(\varphi) \end{vmatrix} = R^4 \sin^2 \varphi \quad .$$

one can compute the surface element as 7:

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Figure 3 – Constructing the dynamical equation for a general kind of manifold and projecting it onto the 1D coordinate system along which the push-up force is exerted. **a.** A cell is located in a point in a manifold –in that case, a hemisphere–, described by two orthogonal coordinates  $y_k$ ,  $z_k$ . In this case  $y_k = R\theta_k$ , where  $\theta$  is the azimuthal angle, and  $y_k = R\varphi_k$ , where  $\varphi$  is the polar angle. **b.** the push up force due to duplication is only exerted along the z coordinate. **c.** h(z) is the drift term that enters the equation, and refers to the amount of new surface that has been created below the point  $z_k$  in the z coordinate that results in pushing up the cells above. **d.** the same point  $y_k$ ,  $z_k$  also observes fluctuations due to random noise. In particular, the rate of these fluctuations is externally reported as  $k_r$ . **e.** Thanks to the local flatness property, if  $\sqrt{k_r} \ll R$ , then the fluctuations take place locally in a flat space, and the average distance from the starting point, after a unit time interval, will be  $\sqrt{k_r}$ . Since the coordinate system y, z is orthogonal and locally flat, and the random fluctuations occur isotropically in space, the projection of the fluctuations for this projection is that,  $k_r^2 = k_r/2$ , as described in (f). **g.** Combining (**c**) and (f) we have that the growing process can be described along the z coordinate as a Ornstein-Ühlenbeck process with push up force h(z) and random fluctuations  $\sqrt{\frac{k_r}{k_r}} dW$ , where dW is the standard Brownian motion with mean 0 and variance 1.

$$dS = \sqrt{g} d\theta d\varphi$$

In consequence, the area under the position of the cell k in the in the hemisphere H, located at the arc position  $z_k$ , will be:

$$S_k^H = \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^{\frac{2k}{R}} \sqrt{g} \, d\theta d\varphi = 2\pi R^2 \left( 1 - \cos\left(\frac{z_k}{R}\right) \right)$$

By direct application of equation (15), we have that the push-up force inside the hemisphere *H* is given by:

$$h^{H}(z) = k_{d} R \left[ \frac{1 - \cos\left(\frac{z_{k}}{R}\right)}{\sin\left(\frac{z_{k}}{R}\right)} \right] \quad .$$
(18)

Finally, from equation (17) we know that -see also Figure 3 of this SI:

$$k_r^z = \frac{k_r}{2} \quad ,$$

leading, according to equation (16) to the general dynamical equation for  $0 \le z \le \frac{\pi}{2}R$  in a hemispherical surface to be:

$$\frac{\partial \rho_k}{\partial t} = -k_d R \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \left( \frac{1 - \cos\left(\frac{z_k}{R}\right)}{\sin\left(\frac{z_k}{R}\right)} \rho_k \right) + \frac{k_r}{4} \frac{\partial^2 \rho_k}{\partial z^2} + \rho_k \quad . \tag{19}$$

The above equation is difficult to deal with. However, we observe that in the region of interest,  $z \in \left[0, \frac{\pi}{2}R\right]$ , equation (18) can be approximated as:

$$\widetilde{h}(z) \sim \frac{2k_d}{\pi} z \quad , \tag{20}$$

leading to an error bounded as:

$$\max_{z \in \left[0, \frac{\pi}{2R}\right]} \left| \left| h(z) - \frac{2k_d}{\pi} z \right| \right| < 0.09k_d R \quad ,$$

according to numerical tests. With this approximation, we have that equation (19) can be rewritten approximately as:

$$\frac{\partial \rho_k}{\partial t} \approx -\frac{2k_d}{\pi} \frac{\partial}{\partial z} (z\rho_k) + \frac{k_r}{4} \frac{\partial^2 \rho_k}{\partial z^2} + \rho_k \quad , \tag{21}$$

which is the general kind of Ornstein-Uhlenbeck equations we have been working so far.

#### Coupling to a cylinder

In the case the cell is at the position k in the cylindric region C, the area under it will be given by  $S_{\frac{\pi}{2}R}^{H}$ , the area of the whole hemisphere, and the remaining surface due to the cell is the cylinder. Knowing that for the cylindric coordinates  $\sqrt{g} = R$ , then:

$$S_{k}^{C} = S_{\frac{\pi}{2}R}^{H} + \int_{0}^{2\pi} d\theta \int_{\frac{\pi}{2}R}^{z_{k}} \sqrt{g} \, dz = S_{\frac{\pi}{2}R}^{H} + 2\pi R \left( z_{k} - \frac{\pi}{2} R \right)$$

Completing the picture, the push force felt by a cell in the cylindric region C is given by:

$$h^{c}(z) = k_{d}\left(z_{k} + \left(1 - \frac{\pi}{2}\right)R\right)$$
 (22)

It is easy to check that:

$$\begin{split} &\lim_{z\to \frac{\pi}{2}R^+}h^H(z) &= \lim_{z\to \frac{\pi}{2}R^-}h^C(z)\\ &\lim_{z\to \frac{\pi}{2}R^+}\frac{d}{dz}h^H(z) &= \lim_{z\to \frac{\pi}{2}R^-}\frac{d}{dz}h^C(z) \end{split} .$$

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Therefore, one can define a function, h(z) as:

$$h^{H,C}(z) = \begin{cases} h^{H}(z) \ if \ z \le \frac{\pi}{2}R \\ h^{C}(z) \ if \ z > \frac{\pi}{2}R \end{cases}$$
(23)

which is always well defined. In addition, the projection of the fluctuations will be the same in both regions, since the only relevant property is the local dimension, which in both cases is 2, leading to a  $k_r^z = k_r/2$ . Consequently, equation (16) can be rewritten consistently for all the hemisphere/cylinder system as:

$$\frac{\partial \rho_k}{\partial t} = -\frac{\partial}{\partial z} (h^{H,C}(z)\rho_k) + \frac{k_r}{4} \frac{\partial^2 \rho_k}{\partial z^2} + \rho_k \quad .$$
(24)

## Lineage survival: Detailed geometry approach

To guess the probability of lineage survival, we restrict ourselves to the hemispheric region H of the crypt. As discussed in section 'Dynamics in more general geometries' of this SI, the existence of linear functions approximating the drift and fluctuation parameters of the general reaction-diffusion equation (16) leads to gaussian-like lineage survival probabilities. According to the approximations leading to equation (21), we have that, considering the hemispheric region of the crypt:

$$p(c_k) \propto \exp\left\{-\frac{2}{\pi}\frac{k_d}{k_r}k^2\right\} \quad . \tag{25}$$

#### Coupling to a cluster with different $k_d$

In this section we deal with the case where the duplication rate is not constant throughout the organ. Specifically, we consider the case where the cells located at  $(0, \ell)$  duplicate at rate  $k_d$  and the cells located at positions  $(\ell + 1, L)$  duplicate at rate  $k_d'$ . We consider that  $k_d' < k_d$ . The push-up force sensed by these cells corresponds to the division of the first cluster, resulting into  $\ell k_d$  and the push up force caused by the cells belonging to the second cluster yet under the cell under study, namely  $(z - \ell)k_d'$ , with  $z > \ell$ . In this region, the stochastic dynamics will be governed by the following Langevin-like equation:

$$\frac{dZ}{dt} = \ell k_d + (Z - \ell) k_d' + \sqrt{k_r} \frac{dW}{dt} \quad . \tag{26}$$

To solve this equation, we perform the following coordinate change:

$$Z \rightarrow U = \ell \left( \frac{k_d}{k_d'} - 1 \right) + Z$$
 ,

one observes that:

$$\frac{dU}{dt} = \frac{dZ}{dt}$$
since the term  $\ell\left(\frac{k_d}{k_{d'}}-1\right)$  is constant. Therefore, one can rewrite equation (26) as:

$$\frac{dU}{dt} = k_d' U + \sqrt{k_r} \frac{dW}{dt}$$

In this context, the reaction-diffusion equation accounting for the lineage density at the region  $z > \ell$ , implying  $u > \ell \left(\frac{k_d}{k_{d'}}\right)$ , reads:

$$\frac{\partial \rho_k}{\partial t} = -k_d' \frac{\partial \rho_k}{\partial u} (u\rho_k) + \frac{k_r}{2} \frac{\partial^2 \rho_k}{\partial u^2} + k_d' \rho_k \quad . \tag{27}$$

We need to also rescale the starting position k into the new coordinate system. In this new frame:

$$k \to k_u = k + \ell \left( \frac{k_d}{k_d'} - 1 \right)$$

Then, the solutions of equation (27) are of the form:

$$\rho_k(u,t) \propto e^{k_d/t} \sqrt{\frac{k_d'}{2\pi k_r (e^{2k_d/t} - 1)}} \exp\left\{-\frac{k_d'}{2k_r} \frac{(u - k_u e^{k_d/t})^2}{e^{2k_d/t} - 1}\right\}$$

Notice that the above equation is defined in the space defined by the coordinate  $u = z + \ell \left(\frac{k_d}{k_{d'}} - 1\right)$ .

#### The coupling to a non-diving cluster

A case of particular interest is corresponding to the  $k_d' \rightarrow 0$ , which would describe a non-dividing cluster. In this frame, the dynamics would correspond to a Brownian motion with drift parameter  $k_d \ell$ . Indeed, let us use the following approach for small x:

$$e^x = 1 + x + \dots$$

and the following identity, derived from the coordinate change:

$$\begin{array}{lll} u - k_u(1 + k_d{}'t) &=& \ell\left(\frac{k_d}{k_d{}'} - 1\right) + z - \ell\left(\frac{k_d}{k_d{}'} - 1\right) - \\ && -k - k_d \ell t + (z - \ell)k_d{}'t \\ &=& z - k - k_d \ell t + (z - \ell)k_d{}'t \ , \end{array}$$

which leads to:

$$\lim_{k_{d'} \to 0} (u - k_u (1 + k_d' t)) = z - k - k_d \ell t \quad .$$
<sup>(28)</sup>

With the above result one is led, after some algebra, to:



**Figure 4 – a.** Schematic of the model of stochastic conveyor belt with two regions: a dividing region (red) with rate  $k_r$  and a non-dividing region (black). Both regions experience random intercalation at the same rate  $k_r$ , assumed constant. **b.** Numerical simulations of the steady state survival probability of a lineage as a function of its starting position, for the non-dividing starting either at position n \* = 3 (crosses and blue dashed lines), or at position n \* = 9 (dots and orange dashed lines). Full lines display the fit of the model (Gaussian distribution in the dividing region and exponential distribution in the non-dividing region), showing excellent agreement.

$$\lim_{k_d \to 0} \rho_k(u,t) = \sqrt{\frac{1}{4\pi k_r t}} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{4k_r t}(z-k-k_d \ell t)^2\right\}$$

The above equation corresponds, as expected, to a Brownian motion with drift parameter  $k_d \ell$ . In particular:

$$\frac{p(c_k,\infty)}{p(c_\ell,\infty)} = exp\left\{-\frac{k_d}{2k_r}(k-\ell)\ell\right\} \quad . \tag{29}$$

Under the assumption of continuity, one has that, if the dynamics runs until position  $\ell$  with the  $k_d$ :

$$\frac{p(c_{\ell},\infty)}{p(c_{0},\infty)} = exp\left\{-\frac{k_{d}}{2k_{r}}\ell^{2}\right\}$$

leading to a prediction for the survival of the lineages from the non-dividing cluster –i.e.,  $k > \ell$ – of:

$$\frac{p(c_k,\infty)}{p(c_0,\infty)} = exp\left\{-\frac{k_d}{2k_r}k\ell\right\} \quad . \tag{30}$$

In Figure 4 of this SI we confront the above result with numerical simulations, obtaining an excellent fit.

#### Noise in the stochastic conveyor-belt from "tectonic" epithelial movements

In this section, we explore an alternative source for noise in determining the number of functional stem cells, i.e. the possibility of global rearrangements of the epithelium relative to the optimal position (bottom of the crypt/edge of the tip -see **Figure 5a** of this SI for a sketch. This is motivated by observations in experiments in intestinal morphogenesis.



**Figure 5** – **a.** Schematic of the model of stochastic conveyor belt with tectonic movements: cell division can occur for every cell, which pushes all cells above, but repositioning relative to the bottom of the crypt/tip can only occur via global movements of the layer, at rate  $k_r$  (two clones shown competing before and after a movement). **b.** Computational predictions of the 1D stochastic conveyor belt dynamics in the presence of tectonic movements, with increasing rates  $k_r$  (purple to blue), in terms of survival probability as a function of starting position of the clone. All curves are very well fitted by normal distributions, as expected by our model. **c.** Variance of survival probability as a function of starting position (i.e. functional stem cell number) as a function of the tectonic movements rates normalized by division rate  $k_r/k_a$  (dots), and theoretical prediction ( $\sqrt{k_r/k_a}$ , continuous line) from the stochastic conveyor belt model, showing that the system undergoes the same dynamics as for random stochastic intercalations.

Importantly, performing full stochastic simulations of this process in one-dimensions revealed a strikingly similar paradigm compared to the version of the model with higher dimensions, with survival probabilities decaying as normal distributions away from the central, optimal position for survival –see **Figure 5b** of this SI. Moreover, the variance of these probabilities, which define the number of functional stem cells, also scale as  $k_r/k_d$  as expected in the model –see **Figure 5c** of this SI.

This confirms that such tectonic movements can also be described in our coarse-grained model, simply renormalizing in long-term dynamics the intensity of the noise term  $k_r$  in the system (although one would expect tectonic movements to significantly change the short-term dynamics). Interestingly, this allows for the system to be "noisy", i.e. many functional stem cells to contribute to the long-term dynamics, without any clonal dispersion, showing that one must be careful in equating the two directly. This would in particular be relevant for the dynamics of intestinal crypts, where cells away from starting position 0 have been shown experimentally to still contribute long-term, but where little clonal

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fragmentation was observed (raising the possibility that such tectonic collective movements could occur to reposition cells towards/away from the best location).

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## Chapter 4

Wnt Ligands Influence Tumour Initiation by Controlling the Number of Intestinal Stem Cells

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## ABSTRACT

Many epithelial stem cell populations follow a pattern of stochastic stem cell divisions called 'neutral drift'. It is hypothesised that neutral competition between stem cells protects against the acquisition of deleterious mutations. Here we use a Porcupine inhibitor to reduce Wnt secretion at a dose where intestinal homoeostasis is maintained despite a reduction of Lgr5+ stem cells. Functionally, there is a marked acceleration in monoclonal conversion, so that crypts become rapidly derived from a single stem cell. Stem cells located further from the base are lost and the pool of competing stem cells is reduced. We tested whether this loss of stem cell competition would modify tumorigenesis. Reduction of Wnt ligand secretion accelerates fixation of Apcdeficient cells within the crypt leading to accelerated tumorigenesis. Therefore, ligand-based Wnt signalling influences the number of stem cells, fixation speed of Apc mutations and the speed and likelihood of adenoma formation.

## INTRODUCTION

The intestinal epithelium is constantly renewing and new epithelial cells are continuously produced by a small number of intestinal stem cells (ISCs) located at the base of the crypt<sup>1,2</sup>. These crypt columnar stem cells exhibit the highest levels of Wnt signalling demonstrated by nuclear β-catenin staining and high expression of a number of Wnt target genes including Lgr5. The expression of Lgr5 within these cells amplifies Wnt ligand signalling as R-spondin binds to the LGR5 receptor to agonise Wnt signalling<sup>3</sup>. Wht ligands are produced by the epithelium (Wht3 from the Paneth cells) and the mesenchyme<sup>4</sup>, which also produces R-spondin. Although excellent evidence exists showing that Lar5+ cells can act as functional stem cells in the adult intestinal epithelium, these cells are dispensable for homoeostasis (over the measured time period of 10 days), though they are required for regeneration post irradiation<sup>5,6</sup>. Over recent years it has been accepted that these Lgr5+ ISCs are not long lived but rather replace each other in a stochastic fashion termed 'neutral drift'. Functionally, the progeny of one stem cell displaces all other stem cells from the niche and becomes fixed in the crypt<sup>7,8</sup>. This stochastic replacement also explains stem cell dynamics in other proliferating tissues like skin or during spermatogenesis9. Through this process it is hypothesised that cells that have acquired deleterious mutations would be likely displaced by their neighbouring wild-type ISCs. In vivo imaging studies have monitored this competition in real time. These studies have shown that stem cells at border regions (higher up from the base of the crypt) can be pushed into the transit amplifying zone of the crypt, while stem cells at the centre/base of the crypt are more likely to be retained. Importantly border stem cells can also return to the centre position and regain functional stem cell properties<sup>1</sup>. The Wht signalling pathway has been shown to be required for intestinal homoeostasis. Genetic loss of the Wnt transcription factor Tcf4/β-catenin or suppression of Wnt ligand-based signaling via Dkk overexpression led to rapid loss of small intestinal crypts<sup>10–12</sup>. Additionally, R-spondins are essential for ISCs and crypt maintenance, since complete inhibition by blocking their Lgr5 and Znrf3/Rnf43 binding domains results in crypt death. However, inhibition of only one of the binding domains results in a reduced number of Lgr5+ cells but otherwise normal crypt homoeostasis. This reduction in Lgr5+ cells resulted in a rapid fixation of the remaining ISCs in the crypt<sup>13</sup>. This model where stem cells compete with each other has also been applied to examine oncogenic events that might confer advantages to ISCs carrying that mutation. Common mutations in CRC (KrasG12D mutation and Apc deletion) have been targeted to ISCs in the mouse and have been shown to influence the neutral drift. In both cases there was a greater chance for these mutated stem cells to replace other wild-type cells in the crypt<sup>14,15</sup>. One technical caveat to these studies is the methodology used to mark crypts in the mouse and determine ISC dynamics. The studies comparing the advantages of a specific mutation relied on cre-mediated expression of KRASG12D mutation or Apc gene deletion within ISCs. Tracking of mutant clones were all performed using a reporter gene from the Rosa26 promoter (e.g. Rosa26-Lox-Stop-Lox-tdTomato) allele rather than assaying recombination at the Kras or Apc locus itself. Importantly previous studies have suggested there may be discordance between reporter alleles<sup>16</sup>; therefore, there is a possibility that the precise rates of advantages of these alleles may be different if there are clones that fail to recombine the gene of interest and only the reporter gene (and vice versa). Moreover, it is important to realise that even if mutations are non-neutral, these mutations are not deterministic: mutated stem cells are still surrounded by nonmutated stem cells and therefore have a high chance to be replaced by wild-type cells. Instead of complete inhibition, reduction of Wnt signalling by Wnt ligand inhibitors in adult mice and humans has shown that these inhibitors can

be well tolerated, though do result in dramatically fewer stem cells<sup>17</sup>. Here we have used a Porcupine inhibitor to reduce Wnt secretion and test the consequences of lowering the number of functional stem cells per crypt and its effect on stem cell competition. We find that crypts are rapidly derived from a single stem cell and using *in vivo* imaging we show the reason for this is that stem cells at border regions are rapidly lost. To test the functional relevance of this reduction of stem cell competition for tumorigenesis, we examined whether this would accelerate the fixation of *Apc*-deficient cells in the intestine. Importantly, we discovered that the widely used R26tdTomato reporter poorly reports efficient recombination of the two Apc alleles *in vivo*. Using RNA in situ and immunohistochemistry to report loss of *Apc* we show that reduction of Wnt ligands results in more efficient tumorigenesis due to the rapid fixation of *Apc*-deficient crypts. Together our data suggest neutral drift and stem cell competition require an optimal level of ligand driven Wnt signaling that has evolved to allow the rapid loss of deleterious mutation but also to protect against the acquisition of advantageous tumour-promoting mutations.

#### RESULTS

#### Wnt inhibition only has minor effects on homeostasis

We assessed intestinal homoeostasis after treatment with a Porcupine inhibitor LGK974, otherwise known as WNT97417. Consistent with previous studies targeting Porcupine and other strategies to dampen Wnt ligand-based signalling<sup>18</sup>, reduction of Wnt ligand secretion did not change rates of crypt proliferation (**Figure 1a,b**). Although the total number of proliferating cells per crypt did not change, there was a small yet significant alteration in the distribution of the proliferative cells. Following porcupine treatment all the proliferative cells are found lower in the crypt compared to the vehicle/untreated mice (**Supplementary Figure 1**). The most striking impact of Wnt inhibition was the marked downregulation of several ISC genes, e.g. *Lgr5, Olfm4* and *Lrig1* (**Figure 1a,c**). Interestingly, there was no change in *Bmi1* expression (**Figure 1c**). We performed RNA sequencing from whole intestine to analyse the effect of reduced Wnt signalling on global gene expression (**Supplementary Figure 2a**), which revealed only a small number of significantly deregulated genes (22 upregulated, 44 downregulated). Among the downregulated genes was the canonical Wnt target gene *Axin2*, and the ISC genes *Olfm4* and *CD133*. We observed a reduced number of Paneth cells only after long-term treatment (~30 days), which indicates the requirement of Wnt ligands for the generation of new Paneth cells (**Supplementary Figure 2b**).

Given this relatively mild effect on homoeostasis we wanted to test if intestinal regeneration following irradiation was affected as this is a Wnt regulated process and requires Lgr5+ cells<sup>11,19</sup>. We observed an inhibition of intestinal regeneration after irradiation (**Supplementary Figure 2c**) consistent with previous studies<sup>18</sup>. We also investigated whether Porcupine inhibition could suppress hyperproliferation and increase crypt number induced by oncogenic mutations (either *Braf*<sup>*V600E/+*</sup> or *Braf*<sup>*V600E/+*</sup> *Pten*<sup>*I/H*</sup>) and again saw a marked impact on these phenotypes (**Supplementary Figure 3**). Finally given the previous genetic studies showing that complete Wnt ligand inhibition caused the loss of crypts<sup>12</sup>, we examined if Porcupine inhibitor at the used dosage is well tolerated and mice can be treated for several weeks. Mice with reduced expression of β-catenin are viable and display no phenotype throughout their life. However, a reduction of β-catenin expression by 50% renders these mice sensitive to the Porcupine inhibitor and resulted in rapid crypt loss within 8–12 days (**Figure 1d,e**). Together these data highlight

that the intestinal epithelium can tolerate a reduction in Wnt ligand signalling but further reduction of  $\beta$ -catenin causes a complete loss of crypts. This is consistent with previous work using higher doses of Porcupine inhibitors<sup>17,18</sup>.

#### Reduced Wnt ligand secretion decreases crypt fixation time

Given the very selective effect of Wnt ligand reduction via Porcupine inhibition upon Lgr5 and other ISC genes, we wanted to assess the impact this had upon ISC dynamics. To do this we used wellestablished techniques examining the ability of single stem cells (labelled by tomato) to repopulate entire crypts.

This was achieved using the Lgr5-EGFP-CreER (Lgr5CreER) mouse crossed to the R26R-LoxStopLoxtdTomato (tdTom<sup>ff</sup>) mouse. Induction with a previously established low tamoxifen concentration resulted in recombination of very few Lgr5+ cells per crypt which are then permanently labelled by expression of the tdTom reporter. The fate of these stem cells can be monitored to see if they are lost or take over the full crypt. Lgr5CreER tdTom<sup>ff</sup> mice were induced and treated from 24 h post induction with either LGK974 or vehicle. After treatment with LGK974 we observed a reduction in the Lgr5-GFP signal consistent with our previous gRT-PCR and ISH data (Figure 2a). Importantly, we saw a dramatic increase in the average clone size after administration of the Porcupine inhibitor. This was observable 4 days post induction and further increased during the time course (Figure 2b.c). This resulted in a striking increase in the number of fully fixed clones (Figure 2d), with more than 80% of crypts fully fixed after 3 weeks (<20% in the vehicle control), a process which usually takes about 2-4 months<sup>7,8</sup>. The competition between labelled and unlabelled cells within a crypt resulted in many crypts losing the tdTom label, in accordance with neutral drift. The vehicle treatment resulted in a progressive decline in the number of tdTom+ crypts, whereas treatment with LGK974 accelerated this process and the final number of tdTom+ crypts was reached after 10 days (Figure 2e). This analysis also confirmed that an equal number of crypts were recombined before the start of the treatment (Figure 2e, day 4). To investigate clonal dynamics using a system that is not limited to recombination in only Lgr5-positive stem cells, we repeated this experiment using another inducible cre (AhCre<sup>ER</sup>, not driven by Lgr5), which has previously been used for stem cell dynamic studies<sup>14</sup>. Using an established low dose induction of AhCre<sup>ER</sup> mice, crossed to the *Rosa26* tdTom<sup>//</sup>mice, we observed a similar increase in the average clone size after LGK974 treatment compared to vehicle treatment 10 days after induction (Supplementary Figure 4a).

#### Border stem cells are lost after reduction of Wnt ligand secretion

The dramatic increase in clone size at early time points following Porcupine inhibitor treatment gave us an excellent opportunity to image the *Lgr5Cre<sup>ER</sup> tdTom<sup>II</sup>* mice *in vivo* to elucidate why the stem cell dynamics were altered. The in situ hybridisation analysis for Lgr5 and Olfm4 showed that there is a reduction in the expression of these ISC markers. These data imply that either ISCs reduce expression of these genes, while still participating in the competition, or that there is a decrease in the number of functional stem cells per crypt.

To investigate this, we tracked the fate of single Lgr5+ cells via multiphoton intravital microscopy through an abdominal imaging window<sup>1</sup>. The *Lgr5Cre<sup>ER</sup> tdTom<sup>II</sup>* mice were induced with a low dose of tamoxifen and tdTom+ clones were followed over a period of 4 days (**Figure 3a**). On average, an increase of clonal progeny (tdTom+) derived from the Lgr5+ cells was observed in both treatment groups with similar kinetics (**Figure 3b**). It has been previously established that the fate of individual



Figure 1. Homoeostasis is unperturbed after LGK974 treatment. a. C57BL/6 mice were treated with LGK974 for 4.5 days. The small intestine showed no toxicity and no difference in proliferation (BrdU). Treatment of LGK974 leads to downregulation of the intestinal stem cell genes Lgr5 and Olfm4 as confirmed by RNA in situ hybridisation. Note only a few cells at the bottom of the crypt still express Olfm4 after LGK974 treatment (N = 3 for both groups). **b.** Quantification

stem cells is determined by its position in the crypt. Depending on the position, Lgr5+ cells can be grouped as 'border stem cells' at the upper part of the stem cell niche and 'centre stem cells' positioned at the bottom of the crypt<sup>1</sup>. Despite loss of Lgr5-GFP expression after LGK974 treatment, originally labelled centre stem cells persisted at the centre and proliferated similar to the control cells (**Figure 3c,d**). In contrast, following the fate of labelled clones at the border of the stem cell niche, we observed a reduction in the number of tdTom+ clones that remained after treatment with LGK974 (**Figure 3e,f**). This suggests that reduction of Wnt ligand secretion leads to specific loss of stem cell activity at the upper part of the stem cell niche. The cells at the bottom of the crypt show no difference in clonal growth, despite downregulation of the ISC gene *Lgr5*. Thus, Wnt ligand inhibition is reducing the number of stem cells in the niche. Due to the resulting decreased competition, cells at the centre have a higher chance of repopulating the crypt quickly when compared with vehicle or untreated mice.

## Reduced stem cell pool facilitates adenoma formation

The neutral drift of the ISCs is defined by two parameters, the number of stem cells and the stem cell replacement rate<sup>14</sup>. We observed that reduction of Wnt ligand secretion led to a reduction in the number of stem cells, namely the border stem cells, but otherwise normal kinetics of the centre stem cells. This is accompanied by an acceleration of single clones to become fixed. We next examined if these changes have consequences for tumour initiation.

Colorectal cancer is characterised by loss of the tumour suppressor gene APC and our previous studies have shown that this is sufficient to result in Wnt deregulation and adenoma initiation *in vivo*<sup>20</sup>. Importantly, organoid cultures from *Apc*-deficient cells grow as spheres and do not require R-Spondin, suggesting they are independent of Wnt ligand<sup>21</sup>. We tested if Apc-deficient cells are truly independent of secreted Wnt ligands *in vivo*. *VillinCre<sup>ER</sup> APC<sup>WI</sup>* mice were induced and treated with either vehicle or LGK974. As expected, we saw no impact of the crypt progenitor phenotype after LGK974 treatment, with marked hyperproliferation in both vehicle and LGK974-treated mice (**Figure 4a, Supplementary Figure 4b**).

It has been reported that certain mutations (e.g. *Kras<sup>G12D/+</sup> or Apc<sup>-/+</sup>*) impart an advantage on ISCs when compared with their neighbouring wild-type stem cells. This advantage is reflected in an increased probability for a mutant stem cell to replace its neighbour and ultimately become fixed so that all cells in the crypt derive from the same mutant clone<sup>14,15</sup>. Our data suggest that a reduction of the stem cell pool also led to a dramatic acceleration in the time it takes for crypts to become monoclonal. This leads to the prediction that LGK974 might accelerate the rate of adenoma initiation through altering stem cell dynamics, despite not having an impact on *Apc*-deficient cells.

Previous studies have assumed an equivalent level of recombination between the *R26R-LSL-tdTomato* and the gene of interest. However in our experience we only obtain a robust tumorigenic

of BrdU+ cells/half-crypt (at least 30 crypts per mouse were analysed). Each dot represents the average per mouse, red bar = mean per group. Vehicle (VEH) N = 3, LGK974 (LGK) N = 4. **c**. qRT-PCR confirms downregulation of several stem cell genes, whereas expression of Bmi1 is unchanged. Each dot represents single mouse sample, black bar indicates mean per group, N = 3 per group. **d**. Uninduced Catnb<sup>lox(ex3)/lox(ex3)</sup> are hypomorphs with about 50% reduced expression of  $\beta$ -catenin (Ctnnb1), as confirmed by qRT-PCR (N = 3). **e**. Reduced expression of  $\beta$ -catenin results in hyper-sensitivity to LGK974 and loss of the (small) intestinal crypts within 10 days (mean survival), N = 8. Scale bar = 50 \mum



**Figure 2. Stem cell replacement rate is accelerated after LGK974 treatment.** Mice were induced with 0.15 mg tamoxifen to induce tdTom<sup>fl</sup> recombination in few Lgr5-CreER-EGFP+ cells. **a.** Mosaic expression of the Lgr5-eGFP (green) and the recombined tdTom+ cells (red). Nuclei were stained with DAPI (blue). Representative pictures at day 10, note the loss of GFP expression and clones are fully labelled by tdTom+ cells in Porcupine inhibitor-treated mice (LGK974). Scale bar = 100 µm. **b.** Clone size was counted in <code>-eighths-</code>, at time indicated after induction. At least 200 clones per mouse were counted, vehicle (VEH) N = 3, 3, 4, 4, 3, 3 and LGK974 (LGK) N = 2, 4, 3, 5, 3, 3 for each timepoint, respectively. Heatmap shows all counted clones per timepoint/group. Note that LGK974 has an increased clone size at day 4 and the mean clone size from day 7 is almost at its maximum. Graph shows the mean clone size (**c**) or the number of fully fixed crypts (**d**) at different time points as shown in **b**. Error bars, s.e.m. **e.** Number of tdTom+ clones per field. The number of crypts with at least one tdTom+ cell were counted per field,  $\geq$ 19 images per mouse, error bars = s.e.m. Note the similar number of clones at day 4 but the greater reduction in clones after LGK974 treatment at day 10. Vehicle (VEH) N = 3, 3, 4, 4, 3, 3 and LGK974 (LGK) N = 2, 4, 3, 5, 3, 3 for each timepoint respectively.

phenotype in *Lgr5Cre<sup>ER</sup> Apc<sup>um</sup>* mice with a single injection of high concentration tamoxifen22 ( $\geq$ 2mg tamoxifen, **Supplementary Figure 4c**). We therefore first decided to test whether LGK974 could lead to tumour formation following low-level deletion (0.15 mg) in *Lgr5Cre<sup>ER</sup> Apc<sup>um</sup>*. Mice were induced with the low-level tamoxifen and treated 24 h after induction, which assures recombination of the same number of cells before treatment. We observed that LGK974 treatment resulted in a number of macroscopic adenomas, whereas none of the vehicle or untreated mice had any visible adenomas (**Figure 4b**). We then examined if microscopically there were more lesions on the intestines dissected from these mice. These can be visualised by immunohistochemistry for β-catenin (as *Apc* is deleted). Histological analysis of an intestinal 'swiss roll' showed that the majority of vehicle and untreated mice had no lesions (3/5 and 4/7, respectively) with the other mice containing only a single microadenoma. In contrast, almost all the LGK974-treated mice had several adenomas per section (6/7 mice, **Figure 4c**). These data suggest that Porcupine inhibition does affect tumorigenesis in this murine model of colorectal cancer.

However, the low number of histological lesions in the control mice did not match the high number of recombined tdTom+ crypts, we would expect based on our clonal analysis with the same low tamoxifen induction (**Figure 2e**). We thought of two possibilities that could explain this discrepancy: 1. both copies of *Apc* are deleted in a large number of crypts, but only few of them accumulate  $\beta$ -catenin and progress to adenoma formation; 2. That loss of *Apc* was occurring at a much lower frequency than the tdTom reporter would suggest.



Figure 3. In vivo live imaging shows specific loss of border stem cells after LGK974 treatment. a. Graphical representation of the experimental setup. One day before LGK974 treatment, Lgr5Cre<sup>ER</sup>tdTom<sup>11</sup> mice were injected with 0.05 mg tamoxifen IP to induce recombination in single cells. Mice (N = 4) were treated with LGK974 and daily intravital imaging was performed starting 1 day after first LGK974 treatment and compared to control mice (N = 5). b. Graph shows mean clone size (43 crypts, control; 56 crypts, LGK974 on day 1) of surviving clones (clones with at least one cell in centre or border) over time within the centre and border. Note that cells in the transit amplifying (TA) cell region are not counted. **c,e** Intravital images of the same crypt on days 1–4 following a clone starting in the centre (**c**) and a clone starting in the border (**e**). **d,f** Graphs show the percentage of clones that still have at least one cell in the centre cell (17 crypts, control; 36 crypts, LGK974) (**d**) or from border cell (26 crypts, control; 20 crypts, LGK974) (**f**). Error bars = s.e.m. Scale bar, 20µm.

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Figure 4. Reduced Wnt ligand secretion does not affect Apc-deficient cell growth but accelerates tumorigenesis. a. VilCre<sup>ER</sup>Apc<sup>fl/fl</sup> mice were induced and treated with LGK974 starting the following day. Mice were sampled at day 4 post induction, and proliferation assessed by BrdU staining. Scale bar = 50 µm. b. Lgr5Cre<sup>ER</sup>Apc<sup>fl/fl</sup> mice induced with 0.15 mg tamoxifen and treated with LGK974/vehicle 1 day p.i. The number of macroscopic adenomas was scored when mice showed signs of intestinal adenomas or at 100/130 day timepoint. Each dot represents one mouse, untreated N = 5, vehicle N = 7 and LGK974 N = 9, black dot = mean, error bars = s.e.m., Mann-Whitney U test: untreated vs. LGK974 p = 0.002639, vehicle vs. LGK974 p = 0.0006014. c. Immunohistochemistry for β-catenin showed only small microadenomas in the vehicle group, in contrast to adenomas found after LGK974

To test the latter possibility, we utilised the latest in situ hybridisation technology 'Basescope'. This technology allows accurate detection of RNA transcripts by use of short RNA detection probes. We designed probes that enabled the detection of exon 14 (117 bp) of *Apc*, which is deleted following recombination. We confirmed the specificity of the RNA in situ probes on established adenomas from *Lgr5Cre<sup>ER</sup> Apc<sup>IVII</sup>* mice, both for the unrecombined and the recombined Apc allele (**Supplementary Figure 5a,b**). Using these probes, we examined the level of *Apc* deletion after a single injection of high concentration tamoxifen (3 mg *Lgr5Cre<sup>ER</sup> Apc<sup>IVIII</sup>*). Surprisingly we found very few crypts that had recombined *Apc*, despite being positive for the tdTom reporter (**Supplementary Figure 5c**). This is not due to leakiness of the reporter since we observed crypts which had partially recombined for *Apc*, whereas almost the entire crypt is positive for tdTom apart from the Paneth cells which have a longer turnover time (**Figure 4d**).

The asynchronous expression of the tdTom reporter and loss of Apc also holds true with a lower induction of 0.15 mg tamoxifen in *Lgr5Cre<sup>ER</sup>* Apc<sup>1//II</sup> and with a similar low-level induction in *AhCre<sup>ER</sup>* Apc<sup>1//II</sup> mice (**Supplementary Figure 5d**). Furthermore, serial sections revealed that if the *Apc* gene is lost, this coincides with accumulation of nuclear  $\beta$ -catenin in the *Apc*-deficient cells (**Supplementary Figure 5e**).

To analyse the stem cell dynamics of *Apc*-deficient cells without use of the tdTom reporter, we analysed  $Lgr5Cre^{ER}$   $Apc^{i\eta\eta}$  mice using a higher concentration of tamoxifen induction (3 mg) by immunohistochemistry for  $\beta$ -catenin. We could differentiate between partially recombined crypts and fully recombined crypts (**Figure 4e**), thus allowing us to perform a similar analysis on stem cell dynamics using nuclear  $\beta$ -catenin as a surrogate.

The first detection of nuclear  $\beta$ -catenin+ cell clones was between 4 and 7 days. We observed a shift towards fully recombined crypts from day 4 to day 21 in vehicle-treated mice, suggesting that the  $\beta$ -catenin+ clones replace the WT stem cells and become fixed in the crypt. This shift is accelerated after LGK974 treatment, where at day 7 most of the crypts are fully populated by  $\beta$ -catenin+ clones (**Figure 4e,f**). This confirms our observation in wild-type mice that treatment with the Porcupine inhibitor accelerates the stem cell dynamics. The reduction in partially populated crypts could either result in a fully populated crypt or the removal of these clones from the crypt. Interestingly, when treated with the Porcupine inhibitor, crypts appeared to be fully clonal by day 7 - resulting in loss of partial crypts while the number of full crypts remained comparable from day 7 through day 21 (**Figure 4f**). The accelerated fixation time of Apc-deficient crypts was confirmed when we aged *Lgr5Cre*<sup>ER</sup> Apc<sup>t/M</sup> mice induced with 3

treatment. Scale bar = 100µm. **d.** Example image of Lgr5Cre<sup>ER</sup>Apc<sup>fl/fl</sup>tdTom<sup>fl/+</sup> mouse 10 days post induction (3mg, LGK974 treatment). Immunohistochemistry for tdTomato (RFP) shows fully labelled crypt. Arrow marks unlabelled cell (probably Paneth cell), suggesting a newly labelled crypt. RNA in situ for Apc exon 14 shows that only half of the crypt has recombined (dashed area). Scale bar = 50 µm. **e.** Lgr5CreER Apc<sup>fl/fl</sup> mice were induced with 3mg tamoxifen and treated with LGK974/vehicle starting at day 1 p.i. Crypts were scored based on immunohistochemistry for  $\beta$ -catenin and categorised into partial and full crypts. The ratio of full crypts is in relation to the sum of full and partial crypts. **f.** Scoring of partial and full crypts at different timepoints in absolute numbers. N = 3 mice for each timepoint and each group, error bars = s.e.m. **g.** Lgr5CreER Apc<sup>fl/fl</sup> mice induced with 3mg tamoxifen were treated with LGK974 or vehicle starting at day 1 p.i. Mice were sampled when signs of intestinal tumour burden were apparent. Untreated N = 5, vehicle (VEH) N = 7, LGK974 N = 9 mice, log-rank test: vehicle vs. LGK974 p = 0.00019, untreated vs. LGK974 N = 9 mice. Each dot represents number of lesions per mouse; box indicates mean ± standard deviation. Mann–Whitney U test for LGK974 vs. control mice (untreated and vehicle) p = 0.02496.

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mg of tamoxifen and treated with Porcupine inhibitor. Here, we observed a dramatic decrease in the time to intestinal tumorigenesis (**Figure 4g**). Histological analysis revealed that these mice had numerous intestinal adenomas (**Figure 4h**). Interestingly, we observed many lesions in the proximal small intestine, whereas the majority of lesions in control mice were confined to the distal part of the small intestine (**Supplementary Figure 6a**). This tumour distribution is also reflected in the ratio of *Apc* deletion. Whereas the tdTom reporter would suggest a higher number of recombined crypts in the proximal compared with the distal small intestine (**Supplementary Figure 6b**), we observed the opposite in terms of Apc deletion. Analysis of several mice revealed that about 70% of the tdTom+ crypts still expressed Apc based on the RNA in situ probe signal in the proximal small intestine (duodenum). Only a small fraction of crypts (<5%) were positive for the tdTom reporter and had lost *Apc* exon 14 expression in the majority of cells. In the distal part (ileum) we observed a higher fraction of tdTom+ cells that had also lost Apc (>20%) (**Supplementary Figure 6c**). This correlates with the high number of adenomas in the distal small intestine compared to the proximal part.

To show that our finding is not simply a reflection of the *Lgr5Cre<sup>ER</sup>*-mediated deletion we treated *VilCre Apc<sup>11/+</sup>* mice with the Porcupine inhibitor, similarly induced with a low concentration of tamoxifen. Again, we observed a decreased survival of treated mice, whereas control mice showed no signs of intestinal adenoma burden within 100 days p.i (**Supplementary Figure 7a**). We saw a high frequency of adenomas within the proximal small intestine, whereas no macroscopic adenomas were found in control mice (**Supplementary Figure 7b**). Microscopic analysis revealed that control mice only had few small lesions, compared to numerous adenomas in mice after treatment with LGK974 (**Supplementary Figure 7c**).

#### DISCUSSION

In summary, we show that the number of ISCs is regulated by secreted Wnt ligands. Reduction of Wnt ligand secretion reduced the stem cell pool and led to a faster fixation of a single ISC clone, probably due to reduced competition for the stem cell niche (Supplementary Figure 8). Despite downregulation of several stem cell genes (e.g. *Lgr5*), the cells at the centre of the crypt are functional stem cells and maintain intestinal homoeostasis.

Reducing Wnt ligand secretion led to a reduced number of ISCs. If the ISCs carry a mutation in *Apc*, this decreased cell competition results in faster population of the crypt by the *Apc*-deficient cells and hence accelerated tumorigenesis. Importantly we see this across multiple different models of *Apc* loss (Lgr5 mediated deletion of both copies of *Apc*, and in *VilCre<sup>ER</sup> Apc<sup>II/+</sup>* followed by loss of heterozygosity of the remaining wild-type allele).

Our work raises an important technical consideration for previous work looking at selective advantages/disadvantages of particular alleles using the tdTom reporter. It may be that the problem of overestimating the recombination efficiency is unique to the *Apc<sup>580S</sup>* allele in combination with the *R26-LSL-tdTom* allele. In this case, a total of three alleles need to be recombined to turn on the reporter and achieve homozygous deletion of *Apc*. However previous studies have shown discordant recombination even if two reporter alleles are at the R26 locus<sup>16</sup>.

It should be noted that, as the *Apc<sup>580S</sup>* mouse is a hypomorph, any changes in previously published work might be down to the reduced expression of *Apc* compared to wild-type mice. Moreover, it raises important questions on work suggesting that *Apc* loss does not lead to Wnt signalling activation and

there may be existence of occult *Apc*-deficient crypts. Using the RNA in situ probes, we do not observe deleted *Apc* crypts that have not accumulated nuclear  $\beta$ -catenin and the associated phenotypes.

The low efficiency of *Apc* loss in 3mg tamoxifen-treated mice is also reflected in the distribution of adenomas in these models. However, we believe the most likely way to explain this phenotype is via differences in the Wnt gradient along the small intestine and maybe partly due to different recombination efficiencies. Previous studies have suggested that the mouse proximal small intestine may have a higher levels of basal Wnt signalling, making it suboptimal for tumorigenesis with certain Apc mutations, e.g. *Apc<sup>Min/+ 23</sup>*. Here by using a Wnt inhibitor we make the proximal intestine more permissive for tumorigenesis following *Apc* loss, again reinforcing the 'just right' hypothesis of Wnt signalling.

A recent study found a similar role in limiting the number of ISCs by blocking the R-spondin ligands. Inhibition of R-spondins also led to disappearance of Lgr5+ ISCs, despite normal homoeostasis. Similarly the authors observed a shorter time to monoclonality, suggesting that reduction of Wnt ligands or R-spondin can lead to the observed stem cell dynamic changes<sup>13</sup>.

One question that arises from our study is why we observed only a minor impact in homoeostasis in long-term porcupine inhibitor-treated intestines. Our current hypothesis is that even reduced Wnt signalling at the base of the crypt is sufficient to maintain epithelial homoeostasis, despite a reduction in the number of ISCs. A recent study in intestinal organoids may also support this paradigm. Here, Wnt3 did not freely diffuse but is bound to the membrane and spreads passively due to cell division<sup>24</sup>. In this case, we could imagine that a reduction of the Wnt ligands bound to the membrane are sufficient for the ISCs in the centre of the niche, but since proliferation is not changed the cells further away receive less Wnt ligands and are therefore lost from the ISC pool. Therefore, further reduction of Wnt signalling with higher doses of Porcupine inhibitor or lowering  $\beta$ -catenin expression can then affect the stem cells in the centre as well, leading to their differentiation and loss of the intestinal crypts.

Our work has also shown that the increase in the number of crypts per circumference after MAPK pathway activation is Wnt ligand dependent. Here, we were able to stop the additional crypt fission by treatment with the Porcupine inhibitor (**Supplementary Figure 3**). Therefore, Wnt inhibition may prevent tumours developing from more serrated routes, which are often associated with a lack of *APC* mutation and carry *BRAF* or *KRAS* mutations.

## MATERIALS AND METHODS

#### Mice and treatment

All experiments were performed following the UK Home Office guidelines. All mice were maintained under non-barrier conditions and given a standard diet and water ad libitum. The following mouse strains were used: *VilCre<sup>ER</sup>* (ref. 25), *Lgr5CreER* (ref. 26), *AhCre<sup>ER</sup>* (ref. 27), *R26R LSL-tdTomato* (*tdTom'*) (ref. 28), *Apc'*<sup>(I)</sup> (ref. 29), *Catnb*<sup>(ox(ex3)</sup> (ref. 30), *Braf*<sup>V600E</sup> (ref. 31), *PTEN*<sup>(I)</sup> (ref. 32). The *Lgr5Cre<sup>ER</sup> Apc'*<sup>(I)</sup> and *VilCre<sup>ER</sup> Apc'*<sup>(I)</sup> mice were on a C57/B6 background (backcrossed ≥10 generations). The Porcupine inhibitor LGK974 (also referred to as WNT974) was administered in a concentration of 5 mg/kg BID (oral) in a vehicle of 0.5% Tween-80/0.5% methylcellulose. *AhCre<sup>ER</sup>* mice were induced with 1 mg β-naphthoflavone (Sigma) and 0.15 mg tamoxifen (Sigma) IP. *VilCre<sup>ER</sup>* and *Lgr5Cre<sup>ER</sup>* mice were induced with tamoxifen (Sigma) IP at the concentrations indicated throughout the manuscript.

#### Immunohistochemistry/RNA in situ hybridisation

Standard immunohistochemistry techniques were used throughout this study. The following primary antibodies were used: BrdU (1/200, #347580, BD Biosciences),  $\beta$ -catenin (1/50 #610154, BD Biosciences), lysozyme (1/200, DAKO #A0099), RFP (1/200, Rockland #600-401-379). RNA in situ hybridisation (RNAscope) was performed according to the manufacturer's protocol (ACD RNAscope 2.0 High Definition–Brown) for Lgr5 and Olfm4. BaseScope (also ACD) Apc EX14 #701641 (detects wild-type APC exon 14) and Apc E14E16 #703011 (detects floxed APC) were used according to the manufacturer's instructions. Staining for nuclear  $\beta$ -catenin and RNA in situ hybridisation was performed on tissue samples fixed at 4 °C for less than 24 h in 10% formalin prior to processing. RNAseq. Whole tissue from the small intestine was used for RNA purification. The RNA Integrity was analysed with a NanoChip (Agilent RNA 6000 Nanokit #5067- 1511). A total of 2 µg of RNA per sample was purified via Poly-A selection. The count matrix returned from the SAM tools was analysed with the R-package DESeq<sup>33</sup> which returned differentially expressed genes with threshold of the adjusted p-value (padj) of <0.1. A heatmap of the significantly deregulated genes was created based on the shape of gene expression by Pearson correlation.

#### In vivo imaging

The *in vivo* imaging was performed as previously described<sup>1</sup>. *Lgr5Cre<sup>ER</sup> R26R-LSL-tdTomato* mice (*tdTom<sup>f</sup>*) were induced with 0.05 mg tamoxifen. After placing the abdominal imaging window (AIW), mice were kept under anaesthesia and were imaged once a day. After the imaging sessions the mice were allowed to wake up to maintain their body temperature. After imaging, acquired z-stacks were corrected for z and xy shifts using a customdesigned VisualBasic software program and further processed and analysed using basic functions in ImageJ software (linear contrasting, blurring, median filtering).

#### Clonal counting

*Lgr5Cre<sup>ER</sup> tdTom<sup>n</sup>* mice were induced with 0.15 mg tamoxifen (IP) as previously described<sup>14</sup>. *AhCre<sup>ER</sup> tdTom<sup>n</sup>* mice were induced with 1 mg  $\beta$ -naphthoflavone and 0.15 mg tamoxifen (IP). The small intestines of mice were sampled at different time points and fixed with 4% paraformaldehyde for 3 h at room temperature. The small intestinal tissue was then incubated with DAPI (10ug/ml) in 0.1% PBS-Tween20 (PBS-T) overnight. Whole mount sections were then imaged using a Zeiss 710 confocal microscope.

## Regeneration

C57/B6 mice were irradiated with 10 Gy and treated with LGK974/WNT974 (Porcupine inhibitor) or vehicle 6 h after irradiation. The mice were sampled 72 h after irradiation. The number of regenerating crypts per circumference (10 per mouse) of the small intestine was scored and the average of regenerating crypts per mouse represented in the graph.

#### Statistics

All data were analysed with R<sup>34</sup> and the use of the ggplot2 package<sup>35</sup> and the survival package<sup>36</sup>.

#### Data availability

Microarray data that support the findings of this study have been deposited in the ArrayExpress database (www.ebi.ac.uk/arrayexpress) under accession number E-MTAB-4178.

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## **AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS:**

DJH and OJS contributed to study design; DJH, LB, MCH, PC, ADC, DMG, MSA, CN, LBZ and R.A.R. to acquisition of data; DJH, MCH, DJW, EM, LB, MEM, WJF, JvR, HJS and OJS to analysis and interpretation of the data; and DJH, MCH and OJS to drafting the manuscript.

**Supplementary Data 1** can be found at https://www.nature.com/articles/s41467-018-03426-2 Raw reads of the significantly deregulated genes between vehicle and Porcupine inhibitor treated mice.

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**Supplementary Figure 1.** Porcupine Inhibition changes size of proliferative zone. a. Although the number of BrdU+ cells per crypt did not change, there is a reduction in the height of the proliferative zone (TA zone). The last BrdU+ cell in vehicle treated mice is about +13, whereas after LGK974 treatment the last positive BrdU+ cell is at position +10 (N=3 mice per group). b. Scoring of BrdU+ cells per position reveals the distribution of the proliferative cells along the crypt-villus axis. For example, whereas 50% of all proliferative cells in the vehicle mice are found until position +8, 50% of all the proliferative cells are found until position +5 (N=3 mice, at least 30 crypts per mouse analysed).



Continued on next page



**Supplementary Figure 2. Changes of Porcupine treatment on homeostasis and regeneration. a.** Heatmap of Pearson correlation of significantly de-regulated genes after LGK974 treatment. Whole small intestinal tissue (proximal small intestine) was analysed. There were 22 genes upregulated (red), and 44 genes downregulated (blue), N=2 vehicle, N=3 LGK974 (see also Supplementary Table 1) **b,c.** The number of Paneth cells were scored by lysozyme IHC. Graph depicts mean per mouse of lysozyme+ cells per crypt (100 crypts per mouse scored, N=5 vehicle (treated for 4 days), N=4 LGK974 (treated for 4 and 30 days), statistics: Mann-Whitney U. Scale bar = 50 μm. **d,e.** Whole body irradiation (10Gy) was performed and treatment with LGK974 started after 6 hrs, mice were sampled 72h post irradiation. Regenerating crypts (arrow) per small intestinal circumference were scored, at least 10 circumferences per mouse were analysed. Each dot represents the mean per mouse; the red line indicates the mean per group. N=5 mice per group, Scale bar = 50 μm.



## Supplementary Figure 3. Increased crypt number in BRAF and BRAF PTEN mice is dependent on Wnt ligands.

The number of crypts per circumference in the small intestine was quantified. At least 10 circumferences per mouse were scored; each dot represents mean per mouse. Wildtype (WT), VilCre<sup>ER</sup> Braf <sup>VEODE/+</sup> (BRAF), VilCreER Pten <sup>IMI</sup> (PTEN) and VilCre<sup>ER</sup> Braf <sup>VEODE/+</sup> (Pten <sup>IMI</sup> (BRAF PTEN) were sampled 30 days after induction. The H&E show the circumference of a BRAF PTEN mouse untreated (control) or treated with LGK974 (starting 1 day after induction). The red arrow indicates difference in crypt diameter. Scale bar = 100 µm. Statistics: Mann-Whitney U test between CNTRL and LGK treatment, WT (CNTRL: N=10, LGK: N=5): p=0.371, PTEN, BRAF and BRAF PTEN (N=4 in each group): p=0.02857 (\*).



**Supplementary Figure 4. Effect of Porcupine treatment on stem cells and proliferation. a.** AhCre<sup>ER</sup> tdTom<sup>III+</sup> Apc<sup>III+</sup> mice were induced with 1mg β-Naphthoflavone and 0.15 mg tamoxifen and treated with Vehicle/LGK974 24hrs after induction until sampling. The base of the crypt was analysed 10 days after induction. For each mouse, >=60 clones from the proximal small intestine were scored for the average clone size. Each red dot represents the mean for each mouse (N=3); the crossbar is mean per group +/- s.e.m. Representative images, tdTom (red), DAPI (blue), scale bar = 100 μm. **b.** The number of BrdU+ cells per half-crypt (at least 30 crypts per mouse) was scored. Each dot represents the mean of one mouse, red bar indicates mean per group. N=3 for each group. Mann-Whitney U test, p=1. **c.** Lgr5Cre<sup>ER</sup> Apc<sup>III+</sup> (untreated) were induced with different concentrations of tamoxifen (IP) and sampled at 100 days p.i. or when signs of intestinal adenomas were apparent. Data show the number of lesions on a single H&E section of the full length of the small intestine. Each dot represents a single mouse, the box is constructed by the mean +/- standard deviation.

**Supplementary Figure 5. RNA in situ probe to detect recombined Apc allele. a.** RNA in situ probe for the wildtype Apc exon 14 allele (red dots) and **b.** RNA in situ probe (red dots) for the recombined allele ( $\Delta$ 14) in an established adenoma of a Lgr5Cre<sup>ER</sup> Apc<sup>IVII</sup> (3mg tamoxifen). Inserts show specificity of probes between adenoma (A) and normal tissue (N). **c.** Immunohistochemistry for tdTom (RFP) staining and RNA in situ for the deletion of Apc on serial sections from Lgr5Cre<sup>ER</sup> Apc<sup>IVII</sup> mice induced with 3mg tamoxifen, day 10 p.i. **d.** Low-level induction in AhCre<sup>ER</sup> Apc<sup>IVII</sup> tdTom <sup>IVII</sup> mice with 0.15mg tamoxifen and 1mg β-naphthoflavone at day 21. Scale bars = 50μm. **e.** Loss of Apc exon 14 coincides with accumulation of nuclear β-catenin (arrow - Lgr5Cre<sup>ER</sup> Apc<sup>IVII</sup> day 10 p.i. 3mg tamoxifen).

a Apc exon 14

















Chapter 4



Supplementary Figure 6. Effect of Porcupine treatment on adenoma distribution and discrepancy between tdTom reporter and Apc recombination. a. Lgr5Cre<sup>ER</sup> Apc<sup>IMI</sup> mice were induced (3mg tamoxifen) and sampled when signs of intestinal adenoma burden were apparent. The small intestine was equally divided into 3 sections, from proximal to distal (duodenum, jejunum and ileum) and the number of adenomas per section was quantified microscopically. Note the increased number of adenomas specifically in the duodenum after LGK974 treatment. b. Lgr5CreER tdTom<sup>III</sup> mice induced with 3mg tamoxifen (IP) were analysed at day 3 p.i. All Lgr5-GFP positive crypts were fully labelled by tdTom. Scale bar = 100  $\mu$ m. c. Lgr5Cre<sup>ER</sup> Apc<sup>IMI</sup> mice, induced with 3mg tamoxifen and sampled day 10 p.i. Serial sections were stained for tdTom (RFP) and RNA in situ for Apc loss show that the majority of tdTom+ crypts still express Apc. Note, the increased efficiency of Apc deletion in the distal SI (Ileum). N=3 mice with >=100 crypts scored per region per mouse, error bars = s.e.m.



Supplementary Figure 7. Increased tumourigenesis in VilCre<sup>ER</sup> Apc<sup>IV+</sup> mice after Porcupine treatment. VilCre<sup>ER</sup> Apc<sup>IV+</sup> mice were induced with 0.15mg tamoxifen (IP) and treated with LGK974 or vehicle from day 1 p.i. continuously. a. Mice were sampled when signs of intestinal adenoma burden were apparent. All remaining mice were finally sampled at day 100-105 p.i. **b**. The small intestine was arbitrarily divided in 3 equal parts and the number of macroscopically visible adenomas per mouse was counted. Only LGK974 treated mice had visible adenomas. **c**. Microscopic analysis showed only very few small adenomas in vehicle treated mice, whereas LGK974 had several adenomas per section. N=5 for untreated and vehicle treated mice, N=4 for LGK974 treated mice The boxplots show the median (black line) and the first and third quartiles (box).



**Supplementary Figure 8.** Overview of changed stem cell dynamics after Porcupine inhibition. After recombination in a limited number of intestinal stem cells, treatment with Porcupine inhibitor LGK974 reduced the number of functional stem cells in the crypt. The labelled intestinal stem cell competes with the reduced number of intestinal stem cells, which have lost Lgr5 expression, resulting in a quicker fixation of the tdTom+ clone. The same principle applies to loss of Apc in few intestinal stem cells instead of tdTom labelling.



# Chapter 5

Calorie Restriction Decreases Retention of Intestinal Mutations by Increasing the Number of Wild-type Stem Cell Competitors

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## ABSTRACT

Calorie restriction (CR) is known to extend lifespan by several mechanisms including increased DNA repair leading to less DNA mutations that cause age-related pathologies such as cancer. Here, by intravital microscopy of intestinal stem cells, we identify an additional mode of action of CR that affects DNA mutation retention in intestinal tissues. We visualized in real time how dividing Lgr5+ stem cells at the base of crypts compete for niche space, and showed that mutations can only retain long-term in intestinal tissues if the mutated stem cell outcompetes all wild-type stem cells. We observed that CR leads to enlarged crypts and increased number of stem cells. Consequently a mutant cell competes with more wild-type cells resulting in slower competition and higher chance to be replaced. Thus, in addition to lowering the acquisition of DNA mutations, our study shows that CR lowers the retention of mutations that have been acquired, as CR enhances the number of wild-type competitors that can outcompete mutant stem cells.
# INTRODUCTION

Aging, and age-related pathologies such as cancer, are the consequence of deleterious changes in cells and tissues over time, including the progressive accumulation of DNA mutations<sup>1</sup>. Calorie restriction (CR) can prevent many of these age-related changes resulting in extended lifespan and reduced age-related pathologies through a reduction of dietary calories while maintaining adequate nutrition<sup>2-4</sup>. Several mechanisms through which calorie restriction can reduce the accumulation of mutations have been identified, including attenuating oxidative stress and enhancing DNA repair<sup>5</sup>. However, additional mechanisms may be at play, especially in tissues exposed to hostile environments which potentiates mutation incidence, such as intestinal tissues.

The intestinal epithelium is curved into a single-cell layered sheet of crypt-villus units where proliferative cells are located at the bottom of the crypt, giving rise to more differentiated cells that travel upwards in a conveyor belt-like fashion<sup>6</sup>. As a protective barrier against the external environment, this epithelial sheet is constantly exposed to potentially DNA-damaging substances. However, most mutated cells are eliminated due to the highly dynamic self-renewing nature of the epithelium. This imposes a short life time on the majority of the cells as they are shed at the tip of villi within a few days, preventing manifestation or propagation of genomic damage<sup>7</sup>. Lgr5+ stem cells at the bottom of the crypt are long-lived and can thus accumulate mutations<sup>8</sup>. However, these Lgr5+ stem cells compete for niche space resulting in loss of most stem cells<sup>8-10</sup>. As a result, the progeny of one stem cell will ultimately replace all other stem cells meaning that mutations will only be retained if they occur the stem cell winning the stem cell competition<sup>7</sup>. Even in the case of non-neutral mutations, a mutant stem cell is outnumbered by wild-type cells and is likely outcompeted and expelled from the niche to be transported and lost at the villus tip<sup>11,12</sup>.

We and others have recently shown that the chance that a mutated cell wins the stem cell competition can be manipulated by decreasing the number of stem cells through pharmacologically inhibiting Wnt gradients<sup>13,14</sup>. We showed that with fewer wild-type competitors, Apc-deficient cells can take over crypts more rapidly, leading to faster tumorigenesis<sup>13</sup>. Thus, mutated stem cells can more rapidly spread in the crypt when there are fewer competing stem cells. Interestingly, calorie restriction (CR) has been shown to increase the number of stem cells. Whether the reverse, increasing the strength of SC competition by increasing stem cell numbers, leads to slower competition and reduce spread of mutations, is unknown. Therefore, in this study, we use CR to enlarge the stem cell pool and investigate whether this results in slower, but stronger stem cell competition.

#### **RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

To study the effect of CR on stem cell competition in the intestinal epithelium, we set up a CR protocol resulting in 40% reduced calorie intake while maintaining adequate nutrition<sup>15</sup>. After 8 weeks on CR, animals showed a 25.1+/-7.4% reduced bodyweight compared to animals on control food, while intestine width and length were unaltered (**Figure 1a-c**). In line with previous reports<sup>16,17</sup>, we found that this CR protocol resulted in increased numbers of Lgr5<sup>+</sup> stem cells and their niche cells (i.e. Lysozyme<sup>+</sup> Paneth cells), resulting in larger crypt diameters (**Figure 1d-g**). Interestingly, this phenotype was fully reversible when diets were reverted (**Figure 1h**).



Figure 1. Calorie restriction reversibly alters crypt morphology. Upon CR, (a) bodyweight is reduced compared to control fed mice (n > 15 mice per group), while (b) small intestinal width (n=7 mice) and (c) length are unaltered (n > 12 mice per group). (c) Staining for Lgr5\* stem cells and Lysozyme\* Paneth cells (scale bar = 100µm) shows that (e,f) both cell populations are bigger under CR (e, n > 14 mice per group) (f, n=28 mice), which (g) results in a larger crypt diameter (n > 31 per group). (h) After change of the diets (8-16 weeks on first diet, 8 weeks on second diet), crypt diameter (n > 9 mice per group) is reversed. Mean +- s.e.m. Dots represent individual mice.

We previously demonstrated the existence of crypt fusion during which two separate crypts can fuse into one, counterbalancing crypt fission<sup>18</sup>. Therefore, the expansion of the number of stem cells per crypt can be the result of an increased number of stem cells in each crypt, but also the results of a redistribution of the same number of stem cells over a lower number of crypts by altering the balance of crypt fission and fusion. To distinguish between these two possibilities, we performed repetitive intravital microscopy (IVM) experiments in which we imaged the same crypts before and after diet change *in vivo* (**Figure 2a**). We used landmarks such as vessels, confetti-colored crypts and patchy pattern of Lgr5-

GFP expression to validate successful retracing of the imaging areas (**Supplementary Figure 1**). After the first imaging session, the diet was reversed in half of the mice resulting in 4 experimental groups: control to control diet, control to CR diet, CR to CR diet and CR to control diet. Eight weeks after the first imaging session, we did not observe a significant number of crypts that were gained or lost (**Figure 2b,c**), confirmed by the finding that the same number of crypts feed into one villus (**Supplementary Figure 2**). However, we did observe the expected increase in crypt diameter when diet was changed from control to CR, and decrease in crypt diameter with the reverse dietary change (from CR to control diet) (**Figure 2d**). Together, these data indicates that the number of crypts is not altered upon CR, but that the number of stem cells is increased in each crypt rather than that the same number of stem cells are redistributed over a smaller number of crypts.

Previously, we have shown that decreasing the number of Lgr5+ stem cells concomitantly lowers the chance of mutant stem cells to be outcompeted by wild-type cells<sup>13</sup>. To investigate whether the reverse



Figure 2. Calorie restriction does not affect crypt numbers. Repetitive intravital microscopy experiment (schematic representation in **a**) was performed to see whether crypt density is changed upon CR. A high dose of tamoxifen was injected to create a recognizable crypt pattern. After 12 weeks, the crypt pattern was imaged after which the diet was reversed for half the mice. 8 weeks later the same pattern was imaged. (**b**,**c**) No significant chance was found in crypt pattern showing that crypt density is unaltered upon CR (n > 13 positions in 6 mice per group, based on >3000 crypts per group) (scale bar = 100µm). (**d**) Diet reversal did result in reversal of the crypt diameter phenotype (n > 6 mice per group). Mean +- s.e.m. Dots represent individual mice, except in **d** each dot represents single imaging field.



holds true when increasing the number of Lqr5+ stem cells upon CR, we performed lineage tracing experiments in Lgr5eGFP-IRES-CreERT2; confetti mice (Figure 3a,b). In either control or CR mice, we injected a low dose of tamoxifen to activate Cre in one stem cell every ~10 crypts. The DNA recombination activity of Cre induces a defined mutation in the confetti locus leading to expression of one of four confetti colors. Each of the four DNA mutations (i.e. confetti color) is inherited by all progeny resulting in clonal tracing. By visualizing the confetti-labelled stem cells over time, we could observe mutant stem cells that were outcompeted by wild-type cells (i.e. clones that were lost), mutant stem cells that were still in competition with wild-type cells (crypts in which a part of the stem cells were confetti labelled), and mutant stem cells that outcompeted all wild-type cells (crypts in which all stem cells were confetti labelled) (Figure 3c.d). When we analyzed the stem cell clones that were still in competition, as expected for neutral competition, we observed a drop in the number of confetti clones over time (Figure 3c). Consequently, the remaining clones became larger (Figure 3e). Strikingly, the average size of confetti mutant clones was smaller in CR animals than in control animals, which illustrated that it takes longer to outcompete the wild-type stem cells (Figure 3e). This slower stem cell competition in CR mice was significantly correlated with a larger crypt size (Figure 3f). Slower stem cell competition can be both caused by higher number of stem cells that compete, or by slower proliferation rate of the competing stem cells. Importantly we found that proliferation was not altered upon CR, as EdU incorporation to mark S-phase and the number of Phospho-Histone H3 positive cells (marking mitosis) was not different for the crypts in the CR and control animals (Figure 3g,h). Taken together, this shows that the reduced speed of monoclonal conversion is the consequence of an increased number of competitors in enlarged crypts.

To investigate the consequence of increased number of stem cell competitors and stronger competition, we again made use of the power of our repetitive intravital imaging to follow the fate of mutated stem cells in control and CR crypts. We induced confetti mutations by Cre activation and imaged the same mutated clones 48 hours and 8 weeks after induction using our repetitive imaging approach described above (**Figure 4a-c**). This enabled us to determine how many mutations remained in the epithelium after 8 weeks. While in control crypts 15.21% of all mutations (96 out of 631 clones) were still present, only 11.82% of all mutations were present after 8 weeks in CR crypts (**Figure 3d**). This shows that mutations in crypts of CR mice have 22.29% less chance to remain in the epithelium than mutations in control mice. Taken together, we show that CR leads to enlarged crypts with more stem cells that compete for niche space. This results in slower but stronger competition and a higher chance for a mutation to be outcompeted by wild-type stem cells.

**Figure 3. Lineage tracing shows slower and stronger stem cell competition under calorie restriction.** Lineage tracing was performed as schematically depicted in (**a**). Mice were put on diet for 8 weeks to let the phenotype manifest before starting lineage tracing by tamoxifen injection. Mice were clonally induced (max. 1 cell per crypt). (**b**) Representative images of 48 hours and 8 weeks of tracing (scale bar =  $200\mu$ m). (**c**,**d**) When looking at the same clones 48 hours and 12 weeks after induction using intravital imaging, clones can be found that are lost (top panel), still in competition (middle panel), or clones that have taken over the whole crypt, which is schematically represented in **d**. (**e**) When looking at the average clone size of clones still present in the crypt (% of crypt labeled with confetti color) at different time points after tracing, it could be observed that SC competition was more slowly resolved under CR (n >3 mice per time point). (**f**) Clone size correlates with crypt diameter. (**g**,**h**) Slower SC competition is not explained by altered proliferation upon CR as shown by a 4 hour EdU pulse to measure S-phase or PH3 staining labeling mitosis. Representative image in left panel (scale bar =  $40\mu$ m) and quantification in right panel (n > 12 mice per group). Mean +- s.e.m. Dots represent individual mice.

CR has been shown to reduce the formation of DNA mutations that cause ageng, and age-related pathologies such as cancer. For example, CR reduces tumor initiation and progression in many tumor models, including intestinal polyp formation in APC<sup>min</sup> mice<sup>19</sup>. While mechanisms such as reduced DNA damage and improved DNA repair may reduce the acquisition of mutations under CR, CR may also have other modes of action. Indeed, here we showed that when a mutation occurs, the chance that this mutation retains in intestinal tissues is smaller upon CR, since mutant stem cells have a higher chance to be outcompeted by the higher number of wild-type stem cells. This newly identified mode of action of CR may explain previous reported observations. A prior study reported that mutation frequencies in the *LacZ* gene in CR mice demonstrated reduced accumulation of mutations in the stem cells of small intestinal epithelium, but not in organs (i.e. liver and spleen) where stem cell competition does not take place<sup>20</sup>. This further illustrates the importance of the here identified mode of action of CR to eliminate DNA mutations by altering stem cell competition.



Figure 4. Repetitive intravital imaging reveals that less mutations are remained in CR crypts than in control crypts. Clonal persistence was measured using repetitive intravital imaging as schematically depicted in (a). After 8 weeks on control or CR diet, clones were induced by tamoxifen injection and imaged 48h after induction. The same clones were imaged 12 weeks later (b,c), and the number of clones that got lost and clones that remained were determined (c) (n > 7 mice per group).

# MATERIALS AND METHODS

## Mice

All experiments were carried out in accordance with the guidelines of the animal welfare committee of the Netherlands Cancer Institute. Lgr5<sup>EGFP-ires-CreERT2</sup> and Lgr5<sup>EGFP-ires-CreERT2</sup>::R26-confetti (double) heterozygous male and female mice (BI6 background) were housed under standard laboratory conditions and received standard laboratory chow and water ad libitum prior to start of the experiment. Mice entered the experiment between 8-12 weeks of age.

#### Diet

Calorie restriction in mice was performed according to established protocols <sup>15</sup>. All mice were fed a AIN-93M control diet (Plexx B.V.; F05312) ad libitum for 2 weeks to get used to the food. The third week, mice were housed individually and food intake was measured three times. The forth week, mice were randomly divided into two groups: CR mice received 80% of their ad libitum food intake using AIN-93M 20% CR diet (Plexx B.V.; F06298), while control mice received 90% of their ad libitum food intake using the AIN-93M control diet. After one week, CR mice were switched to AIN-93M 40% CR diet (Plexx B.V.; F06298), while control mice received 90% of their ad libitum food intake using the AIN-93M control diet. After one week, CR mice were switched to AIN-93M 40% CR diet (Plexx B.V.; F05314) and fed 60% of their ad libitum food intake, while control mice received 90% of their ad libitum food intake using the control diet. For diet switching experiments, diets were switched from control to CR and from CR to control after 8-16 weeks with a transition period of 1 week for both groups on 80% of ad libitum food intake of AIN-93M 20% CR diet. The mice were then on the diet for 8 weeks.

## Lineage tracing

For lineage tracing experiments, mice received an intraperitoneal injection with 1 mg / 30 g bodyweight tamoxifen (Sigma, T5648) dissolved in oil resulting in maximally 1 labeled cell per crypt. For crypt pattern experiments, mice received 5 mg / 30 g bodyweight tamoxifen. Mice were sacrificed at specified time points.

#### Repetitive in vivo imaging

Before and 8-12 hour after surgery mice received buprenorphine (subcutaneous, 100 ug/kg mouse, Temgesic; BD Pharmaceutical System). In addition, mice received Rimadyl (64 µg/ml, Carprofen; Zoetis B.V.) in the drinking water from 1 day prior to surgery till 3 days post-surgery. For surgery, mice were anesthetized through inhalation of 2% isoflurane (v/v). The abdomen was shaved and sterilized using povidone-iodine solution (Betadine). A midline abdominal incision was made and the small intestine was exposed and placed on sterile, PBS drenched gauze. The animal was placed in a custom made imaging box and tissue hydration was maintained by creating a wet chamber, covering the mice with parafilm and the exposed tissue with PBS drenched gauze. During imaging, anesthesia was maintained with 1.5% isoflurane (v/v). The mice were imaged 12 weeks after clone induction for crypt density experiment to create a recognizable pattern and 48 h after clone induction for persistence experiment. The second imaging session was 8-12 weeks after the first session. Images were recorded using an inverted Leica TCS SP8 multiphoton microscope. All images were collected in 12 bit with 25X water immersion objective (HC FLUOTAR L N.A. 0.95 W VISIR 0.17 FWD 2.4 mm). Overview images were recorded using a color camera and the Navigator function in the Leica LasX software. After imaging, the intestine was placed back and the abdomen was closed using resorbable sutures (GMED Healthcare BVBA). For diet

switching experiments, the day after the first imaging session the diets were switched for half the mice in the control and CR groups.

#### Whole mount preparation

To prepare intestinal whole mounts, the distal small intestine was harvested and directly put on ice. After flushing three times with ice cold PBSO and it was cut open along its length. Using a cover glass, the villi were scraped off and the tissue was washed in ice cold PBSO. After fixing the tissue for 30 min in 4% formaldehyde solution (w/v) (Klinipath), the tissue was washed and either directly mounted between two coverslips using Vectashield HardSet Antifade Mounting Medium (Vector Laboratories) or further processed for immunofluorescence (see below). For long-term storage while maintaining endogenous fluorescence, tissues were fixed in periodate-lysine-4% paraformaldehyde (PLP) buffer <sup>21</sup> overnight at 4°C, incubated in 30% sucrose >6h at 4°C and embedded in Tissue Freezing medium (Leica Biosystems).

## Immunofluorescence

Stainings were performed on either 4% formaldehyde (w/v) (Klinipath) fixed or PLP fixed whole mounts. Tissues were blocked and permeabilized using a 3% bovine serum albumin (w/v) (BSA) and 0.8% Triton X-100 in PBS. The stainings were performed with the following primary antibodies: anti-GFP (Abcam, cat. no. ab6673), anti-RFP (Rockland, cat. no. 600-401-379), anti-lysozyme (DAKO, A0099) and anti-Phospho-Histone H3 (Ser10) (Millipore, 06-570). Secondary antibodies were combined with DAPI and/or phalloidin (Life Technologies, A-22287) and the tissue was mounted using Vectashield HardSet Antifade Mounting Medium (Vector Laboratories). To visualize the whole crypt-villus axis, tissues were cleared using FUnGI as described in Rios et al. 2019<sup>22</sup>. Whole mounts were imaged with TCS SP8 confocal and multiphoton microscopes (Mannheim, Germany). All images were collected with 20X dry (HCX IRAPO N.A. 0.70 WD 0.5 mm) or 25X water immersion (HC FLUOTAR L N.A. 0.95 W VISIR 0.17 FWD 2.4 mm) objectives in 12 bit. Images were only if necessary, corrected for bleed through, cropped, smoothened, rotated and contrasted linearly in Fiji. Quantification was performed in Fiji.

## Cell proliferation

To label cells in S-phase, 1 mg of 5-ethynyl-2-deoxyuridine (EdU, 200 ul in PBS) was injected intraperitoneally. After 4 hours, the intestine was isolated and whole mounts were prepared as described above. Click-it staining reaction was performed according to the manufacturers protocol (Click-it EdU, cat. no. C10340; ThermoFisher). The tissues were incubated with a GFP (Abcam, cat. no. ab6673) and lysozyme (DAKO; cat. no. A0099) primary antibody. DAPI was combined with the secondary antibodies after which the tissues were mounted using Vectashield HardSet Antifade Mounting Medium (Vector Laboratories).

## Quantification and statistical analysis

A Mann-Whitney test was performed using GraphPad Prism (GraphPad Software, LA Jolla, CA) to determine statistical significant differences between two means. Differences were considered statistical significant when p < 0.05. R<sup>2</sup> was determined using linear regression in GraphPad Prism (GraphPad Software, LA Jolla, CA).

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## AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

LB, HJS and JvR perceived the conceptual ideas, designed the experiments, and LS, SIJE, HJS and JvR wrote the manuscript. LB, SIJE, SJES, AJH, and PT performed experiments.

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Supplementary Figure 1. Repetitive intravital microscopy to find back the same crypt region. (a) Schematic overview of repetitive intravital microscopy experiment, where the same crypts are imaged with an 8/12 week interval. The same regions are found back using (b) the vessel structure imaged with a color camera overview in the Leica Navigator software (scale bar = 5mm) and (c) the patchy pattern of Lgr5-eGFP expression recorded using the multiphoton (MP) laser (scale bar =  $500\mu$ m).



Supplementary Figure 2. 3D imaging of crypt-villus axis shows same number of crypts per villus in CR compared to control (a) Representative image of an overlay of crypts (grey) feeding into a villus (magenta) from a cleared whole mount sample (scale bar =  $100\mu$ m). (b) the number of crypts feeding into a villus is unaltered by CR (n > 7 mice per group).



*In Vivo* Imaging Reveals Existence of Crypt Fission and Fusion in Adult Mouse Intestine

Bruens L, Ellenbroek SIJ, van Rheenen J, Snippert, H Adapted from Gastroenterology 153: 674-677 (2017)

# ABSTRACT

The intestinal epithelium is a repetitive sheet of crypt and villus units with stem cells at the bottom of the crypts. During postnatal development, crypts multiply via fission, generating two daughter crypts from one parental crypt. In the adult intestine, crypt fission is observed at a low frequency. Using intravital microscopy in Lgr5EGFP-Ires-CreERT2 mice, we monitored individual crypt dynamics over multiple days with single-cell resolution. We discovered the existence of crypt fusion, an almost exact reverse phenomenon of crypt fission, in which two crypts fuse into one daughter crypt. Examining 819 crypts in 4 mice, we found that 3.5%–0.6% of all crypts were in the process of fission, whereas 4.1–0.9% of all crypts were undergoing crypt fusion. As counteracting processes, crypt fission and fusion could regulate crypt numbers during the lifetime of a mouse. Identifying the mechanisms that regulate rates of crypt fission and fusion could provide insights into intestinal adaptation to altered environmental conditions and disease pathogenesis.

# MAIN TEXT

Crypts of Lieberkühn are central elements of the self-renewing nature of the intestine because they harbor active cycling stem cells at their base and progenitor cells along the flanks. During postnatal development, crypts are dynamic structures that undergo multiple rounds of replication via a process called crypt fission to accommodate the elongation of the intestinal tract<sup>1</sup>. In general, this process occurs through bifurcation of individual crypts where branching starts at the base and elongates toward the villus in a zipper-like fashion. This bifurcation is thought to be completed within 1 week<sup>2</sup>. In addition to elongation of the intestinal tract, this process has been shown to play an essential role in the regenerative response after irradiation and tissue resection<sup>3,4</sup>.

Interestingly, generation of new crypts does not completely disappear in adulthood, where fission remains continuously present<sup>2,5</sup>. Intriguingly however, the relative high number of crypt fission events<sup>2,5</sup> seems to be at odds with the observation that small intestinal length only slightly increases during aging, while both small intestinal width and crypt density remain constant (**Supplementary Figure 1**). In addition, analyses of crypt ancestry by Cre-induced lineage tracing<sup>6</sup> or mutation-induced marker systems<sup>7</sup> also indicate that fewer crypt fission events have occurred than the frequency of crypt branching events suggest. Previously, the concept of the crypt cycle has been proposed to describe the continuous growth and bifurcation of crypts analogous to the cell cycle<sup>8</sup>. Mechanisms that counterbalance the continuous production of new crypts have been postulated, including crypt death, but direct evidence has never been reported.

Recently, we developed intravital microscopy (IVM) techniques that enable us to monitor intestinal stem cells, crypt size, composition, and dynamics over multiple days with single-cell resolution<sup>9</sup>. To identify mechanisms that have the ability to counterbalance the continuous production of new crypts, the small intestine of mice was positioned behind an abdominal imaging window and imaged over multiple consecutive days. Using Lgr5EGFP-Ires CreERT2 knock-in mice (See Materials and Methods), we took advantage of the fluorescent marking of intestinal stem cells at the crypt bottom, ie, Lgr5+ crypt base columnar cells. Following crypt morphology over time using IVM, we indeed observed crypts undergoing fission in line with previous observations<sup>5,10</sup>.

Surprisingly, in addition to previously described crypt fission, we observed crypt fusion events where two independent crypts merge together to form one daughter crypt with one central lumen (**Figure 1a**). Intriguingly, based on the evolving crypt morphology during the process, a fusion event seems to be an almost exact reversal phenomenon of a crypt fission process (**Figure 1b,c**). As such, crypt fusion has the potential to act as a counterbalancing mechanism for the continuous birth of crypts via crypt fission.

To confirm that crypt fusion involves two autonomous and independent crypts rather than being a reversal of incomplete crypt fission, we crossed Lgr5EGFP-ires-CreERT2 mice with the Crereporter mouse strain LSL-tdTomato. In this mouse model, the LSL-tdTomato allele recombines at very low background levels (0.86% ± 0.31% of all Lgr5+ crypts, 4 mice; **Supplementary Figure 2a**), thereby occasionally giving rise to individual, fully tdTomato-labeled crypts as a result of neutral drift<sup>11,12</sup>. As expected, we found tdTomato-labeled crypts with an 8-shaped crypt circumference that is representative of the intermediate state of either crypt fission or fusion (**Figure 2a**). The distribution pattern of tdTomato-labeled cells within 8-shaped crypts allowed us to discriminate between these two processes (**Supplementary Figure 2b**). Crypt fission events were scored when 8-shaped crypts were fully labeled because the chance of independent labeling events in two neighboring crypts before

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fusion could be neglected because of the low labeling frequency. In contrast, 8-shaped crypts in which labeling was restricted to one half were scored as crypt fusion events because fissions of non-clonal crypts were not observed (for further explanation see **Supplementary Figure 2b**). After examining 819 fully labeled crypts (4 mice), we found that  $3.5\% \pm 0.6\%$  of all labeled crypts were in the process of crypt fusion, while  $4.1\% \pm 0.9\%$  of all labeled crypts were in the process of crypt fusion (**Figure 2a,b**; **Supplementary Figure 2c**).

Next, using IVM we monitored a substantial amount of sporadically tdTomato-marked crypts and identified a fusion event between two independent Lgr5EGFP+ crypts (**Figure 2a**). Interestingly, 24 hours after central lumen formation, tdTomato+ cells started to intermingle with non-marked cells, indicating that both stem cell pools are now united and participate within the same neutral drift toward clonality<sup>11,12</sup>.



*Figure 1. Crypt dynamics includes both crypt fission and crypt fusion. a. Crypt fusion event where 2 separate crypts* (day 0) merged into 1 *crypt* (day 4). *Overview panels* (middle) show crypt pattern to confirm crypt identity. Outer *panels show enlargement of imaging planes at center and border of stem cell zone.* **b.** *Representative examples of crypt fusion and* (**c**) *fission where a single event is followed over 5 consecutive days by IVM. Arrows point at separate lumen. Dotted lines indicate outlines of*  $Lgr5^{EGF_+}$  (green) crypts and lumen. *Cartoons illustrate process at beginning* (left) and end (right). Scale bars: 20 mm.





Our ability to monitor evolving crypt morphology over time provided the opportunity to identify the existence of crypt fusion during homeostatic conditions in adulthood. Because crypt fission and fusion occur at approximately similar frequency, it can be speculated that, as counteracting mechanisms, they are involved in regulating crypt numbers. However, many variables concerning fission and fusion are poorly understood, underscoring why both frequencies are not exactly in line with the slight increase of intestinal length during aging. For instance, minor deviations in duration of both processes or differences in frequencies per region along the gastrointestinal tract or during aging might explain the discrepancy. Moreover, other non-discovered counterbalancing mechanisms cannot be excluded.

Although opposite processes, crypt fission and fusion are morphologically nearly identical, explaining why crypt fusion has not been identified with conventional analyses of fixed tissue. Identification of immunohistochemistry markers to discriminate between fission and fusion would facilitate studies on human samples. One way to identify such markers would be by combining laser capture microdissection with genomic approaches. Indeed, laser capture microdissection on bifurcating human crypts has

already been performed to study methylation patterns<sup>13,14</sup>. Intriguingly, adjacent crypts in human colon, and even 2 arms of a bifurcating crypt, can be as dissimilar to one another as two unrelated distantly located crypts<sup>14,15</sup>. The presence of crypt fusions could very well explain these counterintuitive observations.

Crypt fusion exists in adulthood during homeostasis and is a counterbalancing process for the continuous birth of new crypts (**Figure 2c**). It is well known that crypt fission underlies the regenerative response of the intestinal epithelium. Identifying the mechanisms that modulate the rates of crypt fission and fusion is of high interest to understand intestinal adaptation to altered environmental conditions in health and disease.

# MATERIALS AND METHODS

## Mice

Lgr5<sup>EGFP-ires-CreERT2</sup> and Lgr5<sup>EGFP-ires-CreERT2</sup>:LSL-tdTomato male and female mice (mixed background between C57BL/6 and 129/Ola) were housed under standard laboratory conditions and received standard laboratory chow and water ad libitum. Random (double) heterozygous mice were used for the experiments. Male and female mice between 12–14 weeks old were used for IVM. For whole mount imaging intestines from 8–79-week-old male and female mice were used. Background recombination frequency was determined in 4 mice. Quantification of crypt fission and crypt fusion in whole mount samples was based on 819 fully labeled crypts in 4 mice. All experiments were carried out in accordance with the guidelines of the Animal Welfare Committee of the Royal Netherlands Academy of Arts and Sciences.

#### Whole mount preparation

To prepare whole mounts, the small intestine was harvested and directly put on ice. It was flushed 3 times with ice-cold PBSO and cut open along its length. The villi were removed using a cover glass and the tissue was washed in ice-cold PBSO. After fixing the tissue for 30 min in 4% formaldehyde solution (w/v) (Klinipath), it was mounted between 2 coverslips using Vectashield HardSet Antifade Mounting Medium (Vector Laboratories). Crypts were imaged from the bottom using the same equipment and settings as for intravital microscopy described below.

## Abdominal imaging window surgery

The abdominal imaging window (AIW) surgery was performed as previously described.<sup>9</sup> In short, before surgery buprenorphine (100 ug/kg mouse; Temgesic, BD Pharmaceutical Systems) was administered via a subcutaneous injection. All surgical procedures were performed under anesthesia via 2% isoflurane (v/v) inhalation. At the start of the surgery, the skin of the mouse was shaved and disinfected with 70% (v/v) ethanol and a left lateral flank incision was made through skin and peritoneum of the mouse. Next, a purse string suture was placed along the wound edge. The ileum was taken out of the abdominal cavity and placed on top of a disinfected AIW (>1 h in 70% [v/v] ethanol) that was positioned glass-side down. The mesenterium was fixed to the cover glass using Cyanoacrylate Glue (Pattex) and CyGeI (BioStatus Limited) was added on top of the ileum to reduce peristaltic movement. After allowing the Ultra Gel and CyGeI to dry for 1 min, the AIW, together with the ilium, was inverted and placed into the mouse, ensuring that the skin and abdominal wall were placed into the groove of the AIW. Next, the suture was tightened to secure the AIW into the mouse. After surgery, the mice were closely monitored daily for reactivity, behavior, appearance, and defecation. The mice were provided with food and water ad libitum.

# Equipment and settings

Intravital microscopy was performed as previously described<sup>9</sup>. An inverted Leica TCS SP5 AOBS 2-photon microscope was used with a chameleon Ti:Sapphire pumped optical parametric oscillator (Coherent) equipped with 4 non-descanned detectors (NDDs) and a ×25 (HCX IRAPO NA0.95 WD 2.5mm) water objective. The NDDs collect the wavelengths: NDD1 (HyD1): 555–680 nm, NDD2 (HyD2): 505–550 nm, NDD3 (PMT1): 455–505 nm, NDD4 (PMT2): <455 nm. Scanning was performed

at 940nm wavelength. Re-identification of the same crypts over multiple days was accomplished by storing *xy* coordinates of different positions using the 'multiple position' function in the LAS-AF software and using the vasculature and the typical patchy Lgr5<sup>+</sup> crypt pattern as visual landmarks.

# Multi-day crypt imaging

Following the AIW surgery, mice were kept under anesthesia with isoflurane (1% [v/v]) for imaging and placed in a custom-designed imaging box as previously described<sup>9</sup>. After each imaging session mice were allowed to recover before being placed back in their cage. The following 3–4 days, mice were imaged daily for a maximum of 4 h. The climate chamber around the microscope was kept at 36°C and body temperature of the animals was monitored using a rectal probe. The patchy pattern of the Lgr5 knock-in allele, in combination with specific landmarks such as blood vessels, enabled us to discriminate individual crypts that could be repeatedly identified over consecutive days. After imaging, the acquired z-stacks were further processed and analyzed using basic functions in ImageJ software.

# **AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS**

JvR and HJS conceived the study and designed the experiments. LB and SIJE performed experiments and analyses. All authors contributed to the writing and have approved the final manuscript. JvR and HJS contributed equally to this work.

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Supplementary Figure 1. Dimensions of small intestine during aging. a. Frequency of all crypts with a bifurcation phenotype in mice of different ages, counted in whole mounts of distal intestine. **b,c.** Length (b) and (c) width of small intestine from mice of different ages. **d.** Crypt density, measured as average distance between centers of neighboring crypts, in mice of different ages.





(dashed box).

Supplementary Figure 2. Discrimination between crypt fission and fusion. a. Representative image of whole mount sample of a field of Lgr5<sup>EGFP+</sup> crypts (green) and a single tdTomato<sup>+</sup> crypt (red). Scale bar: 100  $\mu$ m. b. Schematic diagram illustrating the possible processes (fission and fusion) that can yield the 2 distribution patterns of tdTomato<sup>+</sup> cells over 2 branches of an 'intermediate' 8-shaped crypt. Number of observations of a and  $\beta$  pattern are indicated. Crypt fission contributes equally to both labeling patterns. Because a pattern is not observed, we deduced that crypt fusion is responsible for the 33 scored events of the  $\beta$  pattern. c. Images of all 33 observed fusion events. Scale bar: 20  $\mu$ m.

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Summarizing discussion

In this thesis, we investigated the role of stem cell competition in the elimination of mutations that arise in long-lived intestinal stem cells. In contrast to for instance stem cells in the hematopoietic system, intestinal stem cells are highly proliferative. This characteristic is inherent to the dual function of the intestine: taking up metabolites while functioning as a protective barrier against environmental insults. These tasks are carried out by a single-cell layer of postmitotic cells lining the villi that protrude into the intestinal lumen, thereby enlarging the absorptive area, but also exposing the epithelium to a hazardous environment. To minimize exposure to this harsh environment, the whole epithelial lining is replaced every 3-5 days, imposing a very short lifetime on the majority of epithelial cells<sup>1</sup>. To achieve this, stem and progenitor cells at the bottom of the crypts proliferate approximately once a day pushing postmitotic cells upwards<sup>2</sup>.

Crypts form invaginations in the intestinal wall where they are well protected from the hazardous environment. A narrow opening of ~6 µm between the crypt and the lumen limits diffusion, preventing direct contact of stem cells with the digestive process. In addition, stem cells secrete fluids to flush the crypt lumen, and Paneth cells produce antimicrobial products that, together with the mucus produced by Goblet cells, form a barrier to the intestinal lumen that ensures mucosal immunity<sup>3,4</sup>. This architecture ensures the protection of stem cells from the harmful environment in the intestinal lumen.

Even though stem cells are well protected within their niche, mutations can still arise, for instance due to spontaneous processes<sup>5,6</sup>. Somatic mutations can result in senescence or cell death and thereby contribute to ageing<sup>7</sup>. Alternatively, Fearon and Vogelstein described that accumulation of subsequent mutations can results in the initiation and progression of colorectal cancer<sup>8</sup>. However, the morphology of the intestinal epithelium is designed to minimize the retention and spread of mutations in the epithelium after they appear. For instance, compartmentalization of stem cells in crypts results in physical hindrance limiting the spread of mutated cells throughout the epithelium<sup>9</sup>. In addition, limited niche space at the bottom of these compartments and the proliferative capacity of stem cells result in stem cell competition leading to the loss of most mutated stem cells<sup>10,11</sup>. In this thesis, we use intravital imaging to investigate intestinal stem cell and crypt dynamics and explore how this may affect the accumulation of mutations in the epithelium. We reviewed how live cell and intravital microscopy over the recent years have contributed to the understanding of stem cell dynamics and plasticity (Chapter 1) and we gave our perspective on how the dynamic nature of the intestinal epithelium results in expulsion of many mutated cells (Chapter 2). In addition, we explored the dynamics that underlie stem cell competition at the bottom of crypts in different parts along the intestinal tract (Chapter 3) and show that niche size affects this competition (Chapter 4 & 5). We also described the discovery of the phenomenon of crypt fusion that influences stem cell and crypt dynamics (Chapter 6). In this last chapter, I will summarize our findings and discuss them in the light of current literature.

# Modeling the dynamics of stem cell competition

In **Chapter 3**, we described the stem cell dynamics that underlie stem cell competition in the distal small intestine (SI) and large intestine (LI). During stem cell competition, stem cells compete for niche space: upon each stem cell division, the number of stem cells exceeds the available positions within the niche, which is counter-balanced by loss of a stem cell from this niche. This constant stem cell division and stem cell loss leads to the expansion or extinction of stem cell clones and ultimately to clonality of all stem cells in the niche<sup>12,13</sup> (**Chapter 2**, Figure 1). Many labs, including ours, have studied the dynamics of this process in the SI. Multi-day intravital microscopy has shown that all Lgr5<sup>+</sup> stem cells

can contribute to the competition (14 and Chapter 3). However, cells at the border of the niche are more susceptible to displacement into the transit amplifying compartment than those located at the center. Since cells constantly gain or lose favorable positions by changing position, they function as a single stem cell pool with a combined output equal to 6 equipotent functional stem cells as was predicted by mathematical modeling<sup>14,15</sup>. In the SI, all Lgr5<sup>+</sup> cells participate in the stem cell competition. However, there is a gradient going from the bottom to the border of the stem cell zone with decreasing likelihood that a stem cell replaces all other stem cells in the niche. Already in 1995, it was shown that the process of stem cell competition is faster in the colon than in the SI, meaning that crypts reach a monoclonal state quicker<sup>16</sup>. In this study, a primitive form of lineage tracing was performed; the mutagen ethyl nitrosourea (ENU) was used to induce mutations in the enzyme glucose-6-phosphate dehydrogenase (G6PD) that could phenotypically be scored after histochemistry. While in the SI monoclonality was reached after ~12 weeks, is was reached between 4.6 and 7 weeks in the colon. Park et al. explain their observations by differences in the frequency of crypt fission<sup>16</sup>. They studied monoclonal conversion in mice at 6 weeks of age, when fission occurs frequently to accommodate the elongation of the intestine during postnatal development (more about crypt fission below). They found that the higher crypt fission frequency in the colon correlates with the faster drift towards monoclonality. Based on this, they propose that crypt fission speeds up the competition by segregating mutated and non-mutated cells into separate daughter crypts. However, we observe similar differences in fixation speed between small intestine and colon of adult mice in which fission rates are very low (see below: What is the role of crypt fission and fusion?). In collaboration with Ben Simons and Edouard Hannezo, we found that these low levels of crypt fission and fusion do not significantly affect stem cell competition during homeostasis (data not shown in this thesis). Therefore, we investigated alternative mechanisms to explain the differences in stem cell competition between small and large intestine.

Using our state-of-the-art intravital imaging techniques allowed direct and real-time visualization of the stem cell dynamics at the various sites of the intestinal tract. We found that in addition to cell movement along the crypt-lumen axis, there is also retrograde movement resulting in positional rearrangement of border and center cells within the niche. We found that this retrograde movement plays a pivotal role in the process of monoclonal conversion and that this is a crucial determinant of fixation speed (Chapter 3). Since there is a relative large amount of retrograde movement in the distal SI, both border and center stem cells can participate in the competition for niche space resulting in relatively slow drift. In the large intestine however, we observed an extremely low degree of retrograde movement suggesting only active participation of the stem cells at the bottom of the niche. Using repetitive intravital imaging we confirmed that large intestinal Lgr5<sup>+</sup> cells at the border of the niche formed long-term clones with a very low frequency (undetectable in our experiments), uncoupling Lgr5 expression and stemness in this part of the intestine. Our results show that stemness is not a cell-intrinsic fate, but rather a potential that can be gained or lost, and that the retrograde movement determines the number of cells with such stem cell potential. In summary, due to low rates of retrograde movement in crypts of the large intestine, less cells have the potential to participate in stem cell competition for niche space. Ultimately this results in faster drift to clonality, compared to the SI where a higher rate of cellular mixing results in more competitors and therefore slower drift.

Interestingly, our findings seem in contrast with results obtained by the Winton group. Using a continuous clonal labeling approach, in combination with a simple mathematical model, they concluded that in the distal SI, the stem cell pool functions as 6 stem cells with equal stem cell potential, while in

the colon the stem cell pool functions as 7 equal stem cells<sup>15</sup>. The rate that a stem cell is replaced per day was calculated to be 0.2 in the SI and 0.3 in the large intestine, meaning once every 5 days versus once every 3.3 days. Thus, they concluded that more stem cells replace each other at a faster rate in the colon and less stem cells replace each other at a slower rate in the SI. However, from Ritsma *et al.* and **Chapter 3**, we know that stem cells at the bottom of the crypt do not have equal stem cell potential; location within the niche determines the chance that a cell can function as a stem cell<sup>17</sup>. In the SI, border cells have for instance 3 times less chance to function as a stem cell than center cells. Therefore, a one dimensional model assuming equal stemness of all cells may not capture the full complexity of stem cell dynamics at the bottom of the crypt. In collaboration with the labs of Ben Simons and Edouard Hannezo, we are currently attempting to reconcile the findings by the Winton group and our own findings described in **Chapter 3**.

# The effect of the number of stem cells

Our data in **Chapter 3** showed that the number of cells with stem cell potential is different for the small and large intestine. This difference affected the dynamics of stem cell competition in the crypt which could potentially affect the accumulation of mutations in these tissues. When investigating this effect, multiple factors should be considered, including the number of cells with stem cell potential that can participate in the competition. The neutral drift model of stem cell competition predicts that a mutation can only remain in a crypt long-term when it is present in the one stem cell that wins the competition; mutations in the other stem cells will get lost. This has indeed been shown for mutations in the oncogenes APC and KRAS<sup>18</sup>. Therefore, participation of more competitors in a larger stem cell zone increases the chance that a mutation is lost from the crypt, thus favoring a larger number of stem cells over a smaller number of stem cells to ensure protection against mutation accumulation. In addition, a mutation can fix more rapidly when a smaller number of stem cells compete, potentially speeding up tumor initiation (as shown in **Chapter 4**), while it takes more time in a larger stem cell zone (as shown in **Chapter 5**).

While a bigger stem cell pool may be protective against mutation accumulation, it also comes at a cost. For instance, bigger crypts harboring more stem cells can maintain a larger part of the epithelium. Therefore, when a mutation takes over a large crypt, it can take over a larger fraction of the epithelium creating a larger field of mutated cells. In addition, a larger stem cell zone can exert more selective pressure<sup>19</sup>. Since competition is slower in a larger stem cell zone, differences in stem cell fitness (e.g. effects on proliferation) have more time to manifest themselves. Mutations that result in increased fitness may therefore have a higher chance to take over the crypt. Interestingly however, it has been shown that the majority of mutations is neutral or reduces stem cell fitness<sup>20</sup>. These mutations include many oncogenic mutations as these cause may delays in chromosomal segregation and therefore slow down proliferation. Both neutral mutations and mutations resulting in reduced fitness therefore have a higher chance to be outcompeted by wild-type neighbors in a larger stem cell zone. Thus, to minimize the accumulation and spread of mutations in the epithelium, an optimal stem cell number may balance the speed of competition and the chance to accumulate mutations (for which more stem cells are more beneficial), and the size of the clone once a mutation is fixed in a crypt (for which less stem cells are more beneficial). Of course, this is a simplistic view and other factors may play a role. For instance, the total number of stem cells and the mutation rate will impact the number of mutations that accumulate in the intestinal epithelium (discussed below).

Interestingly, in **Chapter 4** we found a correlation between the number of cells with stem cell potential and tumor initiation. In this chapter, we reduced the number functional of stem cells by inhibiting WNT with a porcupine inhibitor. Using intravital microscopy, we showed that in this scenario there is no retrograde movement of border cells and that only stem cells at the very bottom of small intestinal crypts can win the stem cell competition. Thus, porcupine inhibitor treatment resulted in less cells with stem cell potential, thereby speeding up stem cell competition. The total number of clones was not altered by porcupine inhibitor treatment, since the loss of clones originating in the crypt border, is balanced by the higher chance of clones in the crypt center to win the stem cell competition. When we introduced an APC mutation in Lar5+ cells one day before porcupine treatment, we also saw that cells harboring this mutation take over crypts more rapidly. Interestingly, we found more APC-mutant clones in mice treated with the porcupine inhibitor than in untreated mice, which resulted in more adenomas (Chapter 4, figure 4f-h). This means that on top of speeding up the stem cell competition and mutant clone formation, porcupine inhibitor treatment results in a more permissive environment for adenoma formation. Remarkably, upon porcupine inhibitor treatment, adenomas started to form in the proximal SI (duodenum), while under control or vehicle conditions adenomas mainly form in the distal SI (ileum). This may be explained by differences in the WNT gradient along the SI. Previous studies have suggested that higher basal levels of WNT signaling in the proximal SI are suboptimal for certain APC mutations to initiate tumorigenesis<sup>21</sup>. By reducing WNT signaling, we may make the proximal intestine more permissive for tumorigenesis following APC loss. Thus, more factors than stem cell competition alone may be at play to enhance tumor initiation upon WNT inhibition.

Calorie restriction (CR) has been shown to reduce adenoma formation in APC<sup>min</sup> mice<sup>22</sup>. These mice harbor a germline mutation in one APC allele and upon aging lose the second copy due to loss of heterozygosity resulting in adenoma growth. Although the decreased adenoma formation upon CR can in part be due to reduced mutation accumulation as a result of various types of DNA protection and repair systems<sup>23</sup>, it could also be the result of enhanced expulsion of APC deficient cells through stronger stem cell competition. Remarkably, CR has been shown to increase the number of stem cells and reduce mutation accumulation in the SI, but not in the liver an in the spleen, organs without stem cell competition<sup>24</sup>. Therefore, in **Chapter 5**, we used a CR diet to increase the number of cells with stem cell potential (opposed to decreasing the number of stem cells as in Chapter 4) and investigated the effect on stem cell competition. As expected, we found that a larger stem cell pool upon CR slows down stem cell competition (Chapter 5, Figure 3e). In addition, we showed that clones have a lower chance to remain in the crypt, and that less clones persist as a consequence of more competitors (Chapter 5, Figure 4d). This means that under CR there is a lower chance of clones to remain in the crypt. Thus, while reduced stem cell numbers speed up the stem cell competition potentially promoting mutation accumulation (Chapter 4), increased stem cell numbers slow down stem cell competition and may protect against mutation accumulation (Chapter 5).

While stem cell numbers per crypt affect the strength of stem cell competition and therefore the chance that a mutation can take over a crypt, the size of the total stem cell pool along the whole intestine should also be considered when looking at mutation accumulation. The total number of stem cells in the organ determines the number of cells that could potentially acquire a mutation. If a certain number of stem cells is distributed over a fewer but larger crypts, the number of cells that can acquire a mutation stays the same but the chance that a mutated cell will win the stem cell competition and remain in the crypt is reduced. Alternatively, when the number of crypts is unaltered but crypts become larger, the

resulting increase in the number of cells that can acquire a mutation is balanced by the lower chance that this mutation can remain in the crypt. Therefore, in **Chapter 5**, it was important to see whether an increased number of stem cells per crypt under CR led to a larger overall stem cell pool or whether stem cells were redistributed over less but larger crypts. When investigating this, we initially observed a lower crypt density in whole mount samples of CR mice compared to control mice (data not shown). However, repetitive intravital microscopy showed that crypt numbers did not change upon CR meaning that the observed changes in crypt density must have been an effect of sample preparation (**Chapter 5**, Figure 2b,c). Thus, CR increased the number of stem cells per crypt, but this was not accompanied by rearrangement of crypts. Therefore, under CR there are more stem cells that can acquire a mutation, but this is balanced by a lower chance that a mutated cell can persist in the crypt. Yet, as described above, when a mutation arises in the crypt, it has a lower chance to remain a larger crypt.

In addition to CR, several other diets have been shown to affect crypt size. For instance, high-fat diets or other diets increasing cellular cholesterol increase intestinal stem cell numbers and proliferation, while decreasing Paneth cell numbers<sup>25,26</sup>. A ketogenic diet rich in proteins and fat increases the number of stem cells per crypt, while a diet supplemented with glucose decreases stem cell numbers<sup>27</sup>. In addition, diets low in vitamin D compromise the function of Lgr5<sup>+</sup> stem cells<sup>28</sup>. Since dietary intake is linked to overall health, it is interesting to investigate in future studies whether these altered stem cell zones affect mutation accumulation and how dietary changes affect stemness in tumors, and hence tumor growth.

One important side note should be placed about dietary studies. Selecting the right control diet is crucial for correct interpretation of the results. Many studies use normal rodent chow as a control diet, while the composition of this diet is highly variable and thus non-controllable.

# (Non-)stem cells as cells-of-origin

As mentioned before, already in 1990 Fearon and Vogelstein postulated that colorectal cancer is caused by the accumulation of subsequent mutations that result in tumor initiation and progression<sup>8</sup>. In this thesis, we focused on the long-lived stem cells of the intestine, as they are the cells that can accumulate mutations. But does this mean that these cells are the only cells that can act as cells-of-origin of colorectal cancer? It has indeed been shown that in the SI of mice, loss of APC in Lgr5<sup>+</sup> stem cells results in the formation of large adenomas (also shown in **Chapter 4**), while the same mutation in short-lived more differentiated cells does not<sup>29</sup>. Interestingly, APC loss in transit amplifying cells just above the stem cell zone results in a number of small lesions that rarely progress towards an adenoma.

Other processes may allow oncogenic cells arising outside the stem cell zone to remain in the epithelium, for instance by creating an ectopic stem cell niche. In mice, it has been shown that simultaneous induction of *Kras* and  $\beta$ -catenin mutations within differentiated villus cells induces the re-expression of a stem cell signature which leads to dedifferentiation. As a result, differentiated cells regain stemness, resulting in the emergence of lesions in the villus, suggesting that KRAS and WNT-mediated dedifferentiation enables cells in the villus to function as cells-of-origin<sup>30</sup>. Similar observations have been done in mice overexpressing the mesenchymal bone morphogenetic protein antagonis, Grem1<sup>31</sup>. Also this overexpression results in ectopic crypt formation in which somatic mutations can accumulate that can initiate intestinal neoplasia. Together, these observation may explain the clinical phenomenon of so-called "top-down" adenomas, where adenomas form on top of "normal" looking crypts on the surface of the colorectal lumen<sup>32</sup>. However, it has to be noted that in most studies, whole

Summarizing discussion

populations of cells were transformed. Whether or not transformed single cells can overcome getting shed from the villus will have to be shown.

In addition to the creation of an ectopic stem cell niche, mutated differentiated cells can also re-enter the stem cell niche at the bottom of the crypt through dedifferentiation. It has been shown that upon damage, cells just outside the stem cell zone can fall back and dedifferentiate<sup>17,33</sup>. For instance, loss of APC in differentiated Tuft cells can induce tumorigenesis when damage is induced through colitis<sup>34</sup>. Thus, oncogenic mutations outside the Lgr5<sup>+</sup> zone may be maintained in the epithelium and ultimately lead to tumor initiation if they are able to reposition to the bottom of the crypt. However, plasticity resulting in stemness has mostly been studied in the SI. As described in **Chapter 3**, we observed no movement of cells from the border of the Lgr5<sup>+</sup> zone back to the center in the large intestine. It is therefore of importance to investigate potential plasticity in the large intestinal stem cell zone. The number of cells that display long-term persistence (i.e. stemness) during homeostasis, and also upon damage and inflammation, may affect the incidence of tumor initiation.

## What is the role of crypt fission and fusion in homeostasis, regeneration and tumor initiation?

The intestinal epithelium is a dynamic tissue, both at the level of individual cells within crypts and at the level of individual crypts. Under homeostatic conditions, crypts can be found with bifurcating morphology. For a long time, it was thought that these crypts were all undergoing crypt fission, a process during which two daughter crypts arise from one parental crypt. This process is the main mechanism through which the intestine elongates during postnatal development<sup>35</sup>. In Chapter 6 however, we described an exact reverse phenomenon that we named "crypt fusion". During this process, two crypts fuse together in a zipper-like fashion starting at the top of the crypts ultimately resulting in one crypt. We quantified the prevalence of fission and fusion events using background recombination of the LSLtdTomato reporter allele (Chapter 6, Figure 2b) and found that at any moment, 3-4% of all crypts are undergoing crypt fission, which is balanced by the same amount of crypts is undergoing crypt fusion. Based on our multi-day intravital imaging data we estimated that both processes take approximately one week. This is in concordance with the observation made by Bjerknes in 1986<sup>36</sup>, who performed repetitive intravital imaging using transillumination with an almost closed condenser to provide the necessary contrast. He observed crypt fission in ~6% of all crypts one week after the first imaging session and in ~9% of all crypts two weeks later, also concluding that a fission event takes on average one week. Together, these results suggest that on average a crypt undergoes a fission or fusion event every 3-4 months. Based on this we can conclude that crypts in the intestinal epithelium are highly dynamic.

In **Chapter 5** we described experiments that altered our view on the prevalence of crypt fission and fusion. We performed repetitive intravital imaging similar to Bjerknes<sup>36</sup>, but with multiphoton microscopy instead of transillumination allowing for more precise quantification. In an 8-week timeframe we only observed ~1% fission and ~0.5% fusion of all crypts in control mice, of which most events were not full events starting or ending in a bifurcating shape (based on **Chapter 5**, Figure 2b,c; data not shown in this thesis). In addition, we observed static events where crypts showed a bifurcating morphology at both time points (~0.5% of all crypt). Based on these data, we concluded that during homeostasis fission and fusion are rare events and that the processes take longer than the previously anticipated period of 1 week. This notion is supported by a recent paper by Baker *et al.* investigating fission and fusion in the human intestine<sup>37</sup>. They found that a human crypt undergoes a fission or fusion event every ~45 years and that the average length of an event is ~9 weeks. Thus, during homeostasis fission and fusion are

slow and rare events in both mice and man.

The observation of more bifurcating crypts reported in **Chapter 6** than in the repetitive intravital microscopy experiment described in **Chapter 5** could be caused by different housing situations of the mice, as the first experiments were performed at the relatively dirty (i.e. low barrier level)) mouse facility of the Hubrecht Institute (experiments in **Chapter 6**), while the later experiments were performed that the cleaner facility at the Netherlands Cancer Institute (i.e. high barrier level) (part of experiments in **Chapter 5**). This could be of influence on crypt fission and fusion since higher pathogen levels may lead to more inflammation and regeneration, which affects these processes. In addition, the surgery performed by Bjerknes in 1986 may have been suboptimal, leading to a regenerative response and thereby resulting in high fission rates.

While fission is a rare process during homeostasis, it is one of the main drivers of regeneration when the intestinal epithelium is damaged. For instance, when 30% of the SI of a mouse is resected, the epithelial surface area is restored via crypt fission resulting in more crypts feeding into one villus, increasing villus height and area<sup>38</sup>. In addition, after X-ray irradiation which reduces crypt numbers by 77%, crypt fission restores the epithelium within 21 days<sup>39</sup>. Miyoshi *et al.* describe the response of crypts to mucosal damage caused by a punch wound in great detail<sup>40</sup>. Within 4 days after wounding, non-proliferative cells coming from adjacent intact crypts move into the wound bed to close it off from further harm. Subsequently, healthy crypts form wound channels into the damaged areas from which new crypts arise. Interestingly, to accommodate regeneration, the tissue transiently goes through a primitive state with fetal-like properties<sup>41</sup>. While performing the repetitive intravital microscopy experiments presented in **Chapter 3** and **Chapter 5**, we also laser-ablated patches of crypts (4-10 crypts) to investigate the recovery of the epithelium. Eight weeks later, the wound bed was closed but crypts were still undergoing fission (**Figure 1**). Thus, although the wound is closed within 4 days, restoration of normal homeostasis takes more than 8 weeks.

Inflammation, which is tightly liked to regeneration, also increases crypt fission rates. In situations of chronic inflammation, such as ulcerative colitis and Crohn's disease, up to as many as 35% of all crypts show a bifurcating morphology<sup>42</sup>. This high fission rate may contribute to the predisposition of these tissues to tumor initiation, since mutations can spread through fission resulting in field cancerization<sup>43</sup>. For instance, patches of P53-negative crypts have been found in ulcerative colitis<sup>44,45</sup>. Also, in patients with Familial Adenomatous Polyposis (FAP) - patients that lack one APC allele - higher levels of crypt fission have been observed contributing to tumor initiation and adenoma growth<sup>42,46-48</sup>. Similar observations have been done in a mouse model for FAP, the APC<sup>min</sup> mouse, that carries one wild type and one truncated copy of APC. In this model, crypt fission rates were increased by 61% in the SI and 75% in the colon. However, since there is approximately a 10-fold increase in tumor number in the SI versus colon additional factors must be influencing tumor initiation<sup>46</sup>.

Oncogenic mutations in genes other than APC can also induce crypt fission. For instance, in a KRAS<sup>G12D</sup>-inducible mouse model, KRAS-mutated crypts form large patches indicative of crypt fission, while wild type patches remain small<sup>10</sup>. In addition, in Supplementary Figure 3 of **Chapter 4**, we showed that a BRAF mutation, especially in combination with a PTEN mutation, resulted in more crypts per circumference of the intestine, indicating an induction of crypt fission. Interestingly, WNT inhibition through administration of a porcupine inhibitor reverted this phenotype. Since both KRAS and BRAF mutations resulted in increased proliferation<sup>49,50</sup>, fission may be induced by an enlarged crypt size. By blocking WNT, crypt size is reduced thereby possibly reducing the need for crypt fission. However,

whether crypt fission is induced in an enlarged crypt to balance cell numbers still needs to be shown. We did not observe a change in crypt fission and fusion in the enlarged crypts upon CR (**Chapter 5**, Figure 2b)

Taken together, although crypt fission and fusion are rare events during homeostasis, crypt

fission plays a big role during development and regeneration and can be activated by oncogenes. Future research is required to evaluate the role of crypt fusion in these processes. One can imagine that crypt regeneration is a tight balance between fission and fusion to prevent overshooting of crvpt production. In addition, when oncogenic crypts spread over the epithelium, they may create space by taking over neighboring wild type crypts using crypt fusion. Contrarily, mutated clones may be eliminated from the epithelium by restarted stem cell competition upon crypt fusion.



**Figure 1. Crypt regeneration after laser ablation. a.** A schematic overview of crypt ablation during intravital imaging. 12 weeks before the first imaging session, tamoxifen is injected into Lgr5-eGFP-IRES-CreERT2;R26-Confetti mice to create a recognizable pattern of monoclonal crypts after 12 weeks. During the first intravital imaging session a patch of ~5 crypts is ablated after which the intestine is placed back and the mouse is allowed to wake up. 8 weeks later, the same crypts are imaged and crypt regeneration can be observed. **b.** Representative images of fields of crypts before ablation, immediately after ablation and 8 weeks after ablation. Green represents Lgr5+ cells, while red and yellow randomly label crypts. The ablation area is outlined by a dotted line. Scale bar = 100 µm.

## Translation from mouse to man

In this thesis, we used the mouse as a model system for the human situation. The human small intestinal epithelium is, like its murine counterpart, compartmentalized in crypt-villus units. The morphology of these crypts is also alike as Paneth cells are intermingled by small cells expressing Lgr5. In 2014, Baker *et al.* used somatic mtDNA mutations visualized by histochemistry to trace clonal lineages in human colonic crypts<sup>51</sup>. Based on the "wiggles" of a clone along the crypt-villus axis caused by expansion and regression of clones in the crypt, they concluded that 5 or 6 functional stem cells at the bottom of the human colonic crypt conform to neutral drift dynamics<sup>51</sup>. These results verify the murine crypt as a suitable model system to study intestinal dynamics.

Recently, however, human intestinal stem cell dynamics were further characterized. Nicholson *et al.* used two separate clonal markers to deduce functional stem cell numbers and replacement rate in human colonic crypts. They found that 7 functional stem cells rarely replace each other at the crypt base (0.65-2.7 stem cell replacements/crypt/year) resulting in very slow stem cell competition where monoclonal conversion takes many years (13 years for 90% conversion, median 6.3 years)<sup>52</sup>. This was in

concordance with earlier studies that reported times to monoclonality in the order of years<sup>53-56</sup>. Reasons for this slow drift may include a larger crypt base (~23 cells per crypt circumference in mice vs. 41 cells in human<sup>57</sup>), slower proliferation (~24 hours in mice vs ~140 hours in human<sup>58</sup>) or predominantly asymmetric divisions at the human crypt base<sup>59</sup>. Together, these studies show that stem cell competition in humans may be much slower than what we observe in mice. Consequently, it may take much longer for mutant cells to be outcompeted by wild-type competitors or to outcompete their wild-type competitors. Indeed, the development of colorectal adenomas and carcinomas can take >10 years in humans<sup>60</sup> whilst it takes weeks to months in mice<sup>61</sup>. Future studies are required to further determine the relevance of stem cell competition for human disease.

# Concluding remarks

From this thesis, it became apparent that the intestinal epithelium is even more dynamic than it was previously thought to be. We added a layer of complexity to stem cell dynamics by defining that the degree of stem cell mixing determines stemness at the bottom of small and large intestinal crypts (**Chapter 3**). In addition, we showed that altering stem cell numbers affects stem cell competition (**Chapter 4 and 5**) and that crypt fusion can balance the production of crypts by crypt fission (**Chapter 6**). All these findings showed the power of intravital imaging, as static observations could not have revealed these dynamic processes. Therefore, I believe that intravital imaging holds great promise to the future and that it is even required for unraveling dynamic processes during homeostasis, tissue regeneration and cancer. The challenge will be translating these findings to the human situation. Therefore, future research and the development of new techniques should aim to study dynamic processes in human tissue.
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# NEDERLANDSE SAMENVATTING

De binnenkant van onze dunne darm is bekleed met een laag cellen die het darmepitheel wordt genoemd. Dit darmepitheel is maar één cellaag dik en wordt constant blootgesteld aan alles wat door onze darm heen gaat, zoals de zure sappen uit de maag, maar ook bijvoorbeeld alle slechte dingen die wij eten en drinken. Om hier tegen te kunnen, wordt het hele epitheel elke 3-5 dagen vervangen. Daartoe heeft het darmepitheel een speciale vorm; het bestaat uit crypt-darmvlokeenheden (**Figuur 1a**). De darmvlokken steken uit naar de binnenkant van de darm waar ze de voedingstoffen uit ons eten kunnen halen, terwijl de crypten beschermd weggestopt zitten dieper in de darmwand. In de crypten vinden de celdelingen plaats die ervoor zorgen dat het darmepitheel vernieuwd wordt. Doordat de cellen onderin de crypt ongeveer één keer per dag delen, worden alle cellen erboven richting het puntje van de darmvlok geduwd, als een lopende band (**Figuur 1a**). Wanneer een cel bovenin is aangekomen wordt hij uit het epitheel geduwd en opgenomen in de darm. Door dit mechanisme leven de meeste cellen in het darmepitheel maar heel kort en krijgen kapotte cellen niet de kans om schade aan te richten in de darm.

In tegenstelling tot het grootste deel van de epitheelcellen, leven de delende cellen onderin de crypt wel lang. Dit zijn de stamcellen van het darmepitheel. Deze zitten in een speciale niche, een plek waar ze de juiste signalen krijgen om stamcel te zijn (**Figuur 1b,c**). De niche wordt onder andere gevormd door de Panethcel. Zolang een cel naast een Panethcel zit is het een stamcel, maar zodra het contact verloren gaat zal de cel richting de darmvlok verdwijnen. Er is dus een beperkt aantal plekken in de darm waar een cel een stamcel is, namelijk de ongeveer 20 plekken naast de Panethcellen. Dit betekent dat als een stamcel deelt, er een stamcel uit de niche moet verdwijnen. Welke cel dit is, is vrij willekeurig, maar vaak is dit een stamcel net op het randje van de niche, aangezien deze het makkelijkst het



Figuur 1 - Morfologie van de darm. a. De darm bestaat uit crypt-darmvlokeenheden. b,c. Onderin de crypt bevinden zich stamcellen en Panethcellen, weergegeven als cartoon (b) en hoe ze eruit zien onder een microscoop (c).



**Figuur 2 - Stamcelcompetitie in de crypt.** In de crypt is er slechts plaats voor een beperkt aantal stamcellen, de stamcelzone. Dit kan worden weergegeven als knikkers (stamcellen) op een schaaltje (stamcelzone). Doordat het aantal plaatsen beperkt is, moet een stamcel de zone verlaten op het moment dat er een andere stamcel bijkomt door celdeling. Door constante celdeling duwen stamcellen elkaar dus uit de stamcelzone. Als je dit proces lang genoeg volgt zie je dat uiteindelijk de nakomelingen van 1 stamcel alle andere stamcellen hebben verdrongen.

contact met de Panethcel verliest. Doordat de stamcellen delen duwen ze elkaar dus uit de niche en dit wordt stamcelcompetitie genoemd (**Figuur 2**). Als je dit proces maar lang genoeg volgt, dan zul je zien dat uiteindelijk de nakomelingen van één moederstamcel de niche overnemen. Deze hebben dan alle andere stamcellen uit de crypte geduwd. Eén op de ongeveer 20 stamcellen wint dus de stamcelcompetitie.

De stamcelcompetitie is van belang als je nadenkt over het verwerven van mutaties. Dit zijn veranderingen in het DNA die tot schade kunnen leiden en bij kunnen dragen aan veroudering of

het ontstaan van kanker. Op het moment dat er een mutatie optreedt in een cel in het darmepitheel, zal deze mutatie zeer waarschijnlijk verloren gaan. De gewone cellen in het epitheel leven immers maar kort en van de 20 stamcellen verliezen er 19 uiteindelijk de stamcelcompetitie. Een mutatie kan dus alleen in het darmepitheel blijven als deze optreedt in de stamcel die uiteindelijk de stamcelcompetitie wint.

In dit proefschrift bestudeer ik de stamcelcompetitie onder normale omstandigheden, homeostase genoemd, en in situaties waarin een verstoring plaatsvindt. Omdat stamcelcompetitie een erg dynamisch proces is, is het vrijwel onmogelijk dit te bestuderen aan de hand van enkel statische plaatjes. Daarom gebruik ik intravitale microscopie, ofwel het filmen in een levend organisme. Om dit mogelijk te maken heeft het lab een raampje ontwikkeld dat op de darm geplaatst kan worden en dat zo visuele toegang geeft tot de crypten (**Hoofdstuk 1**, Figuur 1c). Hierdoor kunnen we dezelfde crypt gedurende een aantal dagen volgen en zien hoe de stamcelcompetitie verloopt. In **Hoofdstuk 1** vat ik samen hoe intravitale microscopie over de afgelopen jaren bijgedragen heeft aan ons begrip van stamceldynamiek tijdens de ontwikkeling, homeostase, herstel na schade en het ontstaan van tumoren. In **Hoofdstuk 2** geef ik mijn perspectief op hoe de darmstamcel- en cryptdynamiek ervoor zorgt dat de meeste gemuteerde cellen verloren gaan en zo mutaties in het darmepitheel worden geminimaliseerd.

Onze huidige kennis van stamcelcompetitie is voornamelijk gebaseerd op bevindingen in de dunne darm. In **Hoofdstuk 3** beschrijven we hoe we intravitale microscopie hebben toegepast om de stamcellen in zowel de dunne als de dikke darm te filmen en deze te kunnen vergelijken. Ook al verschillen de functies van de dunne en dikke darm erg – in de dunne darm worden voornamelijk voedingstoffen opgenomen terwijl in de dikke darm vooral water wordt onttrokken – zien de crypten er vergelijkbaar uit. Ze hebben een ongeveer gelijk aantal stamcellen, namelijk vier rijen van ~5 stamcellen, en deze cellen delen ook bijna even vaak. Toch vinden we grote verschillen wanneer we naar de dynamiek van deze stamcellen kijken. Terwijl in de dunne darm alle 20 stamcellen de stamcelcompetitie kunnen winnen zien we dat in de dikke darm alleen de onderste 10 stamcellen dit kunnen (**Hoofdstuk 3**, Figuur 2). De cellen daarboven gaan steevast verloren. Om te kunnen begrijpen waar dit verschil vandaan komt hebben we de hulp ingeroepen van biofysici die op basis van onze resultaten een model

hebben ontwikkeld dat de bewegingen van stamcellen in de crypt beschrijft. Met behulp van dit model werd voorspeld dat in de dunne darm stamcellen aan de rand van de niche – die op het punt staan eruit geduwd te worden – naar beneden kunnen bewegen om zo een veiligere positie in te nemen beneden in de niche. In de dikke darm zou deze beweging omlaag volgens het model afwezig zijn, waardoor alleen de stamcellen onderin de crypt de stamcelcompetitie kunnen winnen. Deze voorspellingen hebben we vervolgens getoetst door met behulp van intravitale microscopie de cellen aan het randje van de niche te volgen en te kijken of deze cellen inderdaad omlaag konden bewegen richting het centrum van de niche. Zoals door het model voorspeld, zagen we alleen stamcellen in de dunne darm naar beneden bewegen terwijl stamcellen in de dikke darm alleen omhoog bewogen en verloren gingen (**Hoofdstuk 3**, Figuur 3). We kunnen dus concluderen dat er in de dunne darm meer verschillende stamcellen zijn die de stamcelcompetitie kunnen winnen dan in de dikke darm, doordat in de dunne darm stamcellen die verder verwijderd zijn van het centrum van de niche omlaag kunnen bewegen om zo toch weer een goede positie in de niche te kunnen bemachtigen. De consequentie hiervan is dat de hele competitie sneller gaat in de dikke darm dan in de dunne darm, omdat een stamcel hier maar ~9 andere stamcellen uit de niche hoeft te duwen terwijl dit er in de dunne darm ~19 zijn.

In **Hoofdstuk 4** gaan we verder in op de stamcelcompetitie. We beschrijven hoe we het aantal stamcellen in de dunne darm verminderen door een eiwit te blokkeren dat erg belangrijk is voor stamcellen, het Wnt-eiwit. We zien dat in deze situatie de hele stamcelcompetitie sneller gaat, en dat de dunne darm door Wnt-inhibitie op de dikke darm gaat lijken wat betreft de stamceldynamiek; de stamcellen verder weg van het centrum van de niche kunnen niet meer omlaag bewegen waardoor er minder stamcellen zijn die de stamcelcompetitie kunnen winnen. Vervolgens kijken we naar het effect van deze veranderingen op tumorinitiatie. We induceren in een aantal stamcellen in de darm een kankerverwekkende mutatie in het *Apc*-gen en zien dat na Wnt-inhibitie deze gemuteerde stamcellen sneller de competitie winnen dan in de normale dunne darm. Dit leidt vervolgens sneller tot tumoren. We kunnen dus concluderen dat Wnt-eiwitten tumorinitiatie.

In **Hoofdstuk 5** beschrijven we dat we het aantal stamcellen verhogen door een dieet met een beperkt aantal calorieën te geven, namelijk 40% minder dan normaal, een effect dat al eerder in de literatuur beschreven is. We zien dat onder deze omstandigheden de stamcelcompetitie langzamer wordt doordat er meer concurrerende stamcellen zijn, wat in overeenstemming is met de resultaten in **Hoofdstuk 4** waar we snellere competitie zagen bij een verminderd aantal stamcellen. We veronderstellen dat in dit scenario het moeilijker is voor een gemuteerde stamcel om de stamcelcompetitie te winnen aangezien er meer rivalen zijn. Om dit te testen hebben we met behulp van intravitale microscopie individuele mutaties gevolgd. Dit was mogelijk doordat de door ons geïntroduceerde mutaties zorgen voor de aanmaak van een gekleurd eiwit. Zo kunnen we op dag 1 kijken welke cellen mutaties hebben en kunnen we 8 weken later zien of de cellen met mutaties nog aanwezig zijn of niet (**Hoofdstuk 5**, Figuur 4). Zoals gedacht zien we dat onder caloriebeperking er minder gemuteerde cellen de stamcelcompetitie winnen en dat er dus minder mutaties aanwezig blijven in vergelijking met de situatie bij een normaal dieet. We kunnen dus concluderen dat caloriebeperking het behoud van mutaties in de darm vermindert door het aantal concurrerende stamcellen te vergroten.

In **Hoofdstuk 6** kijken we niet naar de dynamiek van de stamcellen in de crypt, maar naar de dynamiek van de crypten zelf. Het is al lang bekend dat crypten zich in tweeën kunnen splitsen om zich zo te vermenigvuldigen. Dit proces vindt voornamelijk plaats tijdens de ontwikkeling van de darm om de

lengte te laten toenemen, en op het moment dat er schade is en een beschadigde plek moet worden vervangen. Een splitsende crypt heeft een speciale vorm; als je vanaf de buitenkant van de darm naar de bodem van deze crypt zou kijken dan heeft hij de vorm van een achtje (Figuur 3). Tot nog toe is de algemene opvatting onder wetenschappers dat zo'n achtje een zich splitsende crypt is. In Hoofdstuk 6



**Figuur 3 - Schematische weergave van cryptsplitsing en cryptfusie.** Tijdens cryptsplitsing worden er twee crypten gevormd uit een, terwijl er tijdens cryptfusie twee crypten samenkomen tot een crypt. Deze processen zijn spiegelbeelden van elkaar en verlopen via een tussenfase die wij een "achtje" noemen. Dit kan je zien als je vanaf de buitenkant van de darm naar de bodem van deze crypt kijkt (middelste panel onder de cartoon).

hebben wij het aantal achtjes geteld en we zagen dat dit aantal veel te groot was om ervanuit te kunnen gaan dat al deze achtjes splitsende crypten waren. Dan zou de muizendarm namelijk twee meter lang worden, terwijl deze in werkelijkheid ongeveer 30 centimeter lang is. Er moest dus een mechanisme zijn dat crypten weghaalt. Om dit mechanisme te vinden hebben we met behulp van intravitale microscopie door een raampje individuele crypten gevolgd gedurende 4-5 dagen. Tot onze verrassing zagen wij dat niet alle achtjes aan het splitsen waren, maar dat ongeveer de helft juist aan het fuseren was: twee crypten kwamen samen om te fuseren tot één crypt. We vonden dus een fenomeen dat de cryptvermeerdering door splitsing in balans bracht door crypten te laten fuseren. We zagen dat op het moment dat twee crypten fuseren, de stamcellen van beide crypten de competitie aangaan, die uiteindelijk door een stamcel wordt gewonnen. Dit kan ervoor zorgen dat óf de gemuteerde cellen in een crypt verloren gaan op het moment dat die crypt fuseert met een gezonde crypt en de competitie verliest, óf dat een gemuteerde crypt de plek van een gezonde crypt inneemt op het moment dat hij de competitie wint. In **Hoofdstuk 6** beschrijven we dus het nieuwe fenomeen cryptfusie dat een effect kan hebben op de verspreiding van mutaties binnen de darm.

Al met al beschrijf ik in dit proefschrift dat het darmepitheel nog dynamischer is dan eerder werd gedacht. De samenvatting en discussie zijn te vinden in **Hoofdstuk 7**. Mijn waarnemingen en conclusies hebben een laag van complexiteit toegevoegd aan het begrip stamceldynamiek door te definiëren dat stamcelbewegingen richting de bodem van de crypt bepalend zijn voor het aantal stamcellen in dunne- en dikkedarmcrypten dat de stamcelcompetitie kan winnen (**Hoofdstuk 3**). Bovendien heb ik aangetoond dat het veranderen van het aantal stamcellen per crypt de concurrentie tussen stamcellen beïnvloedt (**Hoofdstuk 4 en 5**) en dat cryptfusie de productie van crypten door cryptsplitsing kan compenseren (**Hoofdstuk 6**). Al deze bevindingen tonen de kracht van intravitale microscopie, want statische waarnemingen hadden deze dynamische processen niet kunnen onthullen. Daarom geloof ik dat intravitale microscopie uitermate veelbelovend is voor toekomstig onderzoek en dat deze methode nodig is voor het ontrafelen van dynamische processen tijdens homeostase, regeneratie en kanker. De uitdaging zal zijn om de bevindingen in muizen te vertalen naar de situatie in de mens. Daarom zal toekomstig onderzoek en de ontwikkeling van nieuwe technieken er ook op gericht moeten zijn om dynamische processen in menselijk weefsel te kunnen bestuderen.

# **CURRICULUM VITAE**

Lotte Bruens werd op 11 januari 1990 in Neuss (D) geboren. In 2008 behaalde zij haar diploma aan het gymnasium van de Trevianum Scholengroep te Sittard met het profiel Natuur en Gezondheid. In september van hetzelfde jaar begon zij met de opleiding Biologie van de Universiteit Utrecht. Na afronding van deze bachelor begon zij in 2011 aan de master Cancer Genomics and Developmental Biology bij de Graduate School of Life Sciences van dezelfde universiteit. In het kader van deze master heeft Lotte een onderzoeksstage van twaalf maanden gedaan in het Hubrecht Instituut te Utrecht in de groep van Prof. dr. Niels Geijsen. Onder begeleiding van Maaike Welling bestudeerde zij hoe embryonale stamcellen in een meer naïeve staat kunnen worden gebracht. Vervolgens is zij voor een tweede onderzoeksstage voor acht maanden naar de Verenigde Staten gegaan waar zij in het Harvard Stem Cell Institute in Cambridge, MA, werkte in de groep van prof. dr. Amy Wagers. Onder begeleiding van dr. Young Jang bestudeerde zij het effect van calorierestrictie op spierstamceltransplantaties. Na terugkomst heeft zij een extra-curriculaire minor gedaan binnen het masterprogramma Science and Business Management, genaamd Fundamentals of Business and Economics. Na het afronden van de Master is Lotte in augustus 2014 begonnen als gedeelde PhD student bij zowel de afdeling Molecular Cancer Research, UMC Utrecht, in het laboratorium van dr. Hugo Snippert als bij het Hubrecht Instituut in Utrecht in het laboratorium van prof. dr. Jacco van Rheenen. In november 2018 is zij met de groep van prof. dr. Jacco van Rheenen verhuisd naar het Nederlands Kanker Instituut in Amsterdam. De resultaten verkregen tijdens dit promotietraject staat beschreven in dit proefschrift.

# LIST OF PUBLICATIONS

## Published articles:

Fumagalli A\*, Oost KC\*, Kester L, Morgner J, Bornes L, **Bruens L**, Spaargaren L, Azkanaz M, Schelfhorst T, Beerling E, Heinz MC, Postrach D, Seinstra D, Sieuwerts AM, Martens JWM, van der Elst S, van Baalen M, Bhowmick D, Vrisekoop N, Ellenbroek SIJ, Suijkerbuijk SJE, Snippert HJ & van Rheenen J. Lgr5negative Cancer Cells Seed Metastases in Colorectal Cancer. *Cell Stem Cell.* (2020) In press

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## Manuscripts under review:

**Bruens L**\*, Ellenbroek SIJ\*, Corominas-Murtra B\*, Lafirenze SJA, Simons BD, Snippert HJ, Hannezo E and van Rheenen J. Retrograde Movements Determine Effective Stem Cell Numbers Intestinal Crypts.

**Bruens L**, Ellenbroek SIJ, Suijkerbuijk SJE, Hale AJ, Toonen P, Snippert HJ and van Rheenen J. Calorie Restriction Decreases Retention of Mutations in the Intestine by Increasing the Number of Competing Stem Cells.

\* Equal contribution

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hoe je nu op zoek gaat naar de volgende stap. Heel veel succes! Sander, we go way back. Nou ja, tot het begin van onze master toen we allebei onze stage liepen in het Geijsen lab. Volgens mij bleek toen al dat we het erg goed met elkaar konden vinden en ik vond het dus ook super dat we allebei in hetzelfde lab terecht kwamen voor onze PhD. Wat heb jij heerlijk droge humor en wat kan je goed schelden. Dat heb ik het afgelopen jaar gemist! Daniëlle, hatseflats. Je enthousiasme, lach en energie zijn aanstekelijk. Ik vind het mooi om te zien dat je je plekje nu hebt gevonden binnen de Pathologie. Lennart, wat ben ik blij dat je het van Rheenen lab bent komen versterken! Je hebt een ontzettend fijn persoon om mee samen te werken door je vriendelijkheid, kennis en geduld. Heel veel succes bij het PMC! Daniel, I really enjoyed having you in the office citing Science papers from 1996. I don't know where you store all that knowledge! Good luck in Heidelberg and keep in touch. Carrie, little crazy ball of energy. I loved being your neighbor and all the craziness that happened in and out of the office. I loved the rum on Friday afternoon, our sport sessions, dinners, coffees, gossip sessions, etc. It was really hard to see you leave and there was definitely a drop in energy in the lab. Though, I'm glad to see that you found a spot where you are happy. Amalie, it was great to have you in the lab. Thanks for your support and enjoy your time at the facility! Frank, jij bent een echte mentor. Van jou heb ik geleerd dat je ontzettend moet genieten van het doen van wetenschap en dat het geen zin heeft om te streng te zijn op je eigen resultaten. Wijze lessen! Bedankt! Spanish Maria, I admire your creativity. I think you can make great use of that at the PMC with all the fancy technologies there. **Anoek**, jij was een goed voorbeeld toen ik mijn PhD begon. Jij beheerst de kunst om veel balletjes tegelijk in de lucht te kunnen houden. Daar kan ik nog wat van leren. Pim, jouw enthousiasme werkt aanstekelijk. Wat was het fijn om jou als helpende hand te hebben bij het calorie restriction project. Ook van jou heb ik geleerd om niet te streng voor mezelf te zijn en om lol te maken. Bedankt! AJ, een van de gangmakers van het Hubrecht met je taak als beer commander. Wat een top mails stuurde jij op de vrijdagmiddag. Het was een feest om je even in ons lab te hebben. Een grote stap van de vis naar de muis, maar dat maakte helemaal niks uit. Bedankt voor je gezelligheid en je hulp! Anko, bedank voor al jouw microscopiehulp en je magische kracht om door er gewoon te zijn, alle technische problemen op te lossen.

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uitnodigende persoonlijkheid en mede hierdoor heb ik mij nog altijd onderdeel gevoeld van het Snippert lab. **Maria H** and **Yannik**, you both started when I only occasionally visited the Snippert lab but I'm still happy that I got to hang out with you on retreats and meetings. **Maria**, your eagerness makes you a great scientist. I know that your projects are not the easiest but I'm very sure you will end up with a beautiful story! **Yannik**, jouw creativiteit en doorzettingsvermogen gaan jou ver brengen! **Michiel**, **Suzanne** en **Petra**, jullie zijn alle drie bij het lab gekomen toen ik al met Jacco mee naar het NKI was verhuisd. Ik had jullie heel graag beter leren kennen, want ik heb erg genoten van alle gekkigheid afgelopen jaar op de retreat. Volgens mij zijn jullie een super aanwinst voor het Snippert lab! **Joris** en **Julian**, welkom bij het lab! Ik hoop dat jullie net zoveel lol zullen hebben in het Snippert lab als dat ik heb gehad.

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