MTG16 (CBFA2T3) represses E protein-dependent transcription to regulate colonic secretory cell differentiation, epithelial regeneration, and tumorigenesis

Rachel E. Brown[1,2], Justin Jacobse[3,4,5], Shruti A. Anant[6], Koral M. Blunt[5], Bob Chen[7,8], Paige N. Vega[8,9], Chase T. Jones[5], Jennifer M. Pilat[1], Frank Revetta[3], Aidan H. Gorby[5], Kristy R. Stengel[10], Yash A. Choksi[1,5,11,12], Kimmo Palin[13,14,15], M. Blanca Piazuelo[5], M. Kay Washington[3], Ken S. Lau[8,9,16], Jeremy A. Goettel[1,3,5,12], Scott W. Hiebert[10,16], Sarah P. Short[1,5,12], and Christopher S. Williams[1,2,5,11,12]

[1] Program in Cancer Biology, Vanderbilt University School of Medicine, Nashville, Tennessee, 37232, USA
[2] Medical Scientist Training Program, Vanderbilt University School of Medicine, Nashville, Tennessee, 37232, USA
[3] Department of Pathology, Microbiology, and Immunology, Vanderbilt University, Nashville, TN, USA
[4] Willem-Alexander Children's Hospital, Leiden University Medical Center, Leiden, The Netherlands
[5] Department of Medicine, Division of Gastroenterology, Hepatology, and Nutrition, Vanderbilt University Medical Center, Nashville, Tennessee, 37232, USA
[6] Vanderbilt University, Nashville, Tennessee, 37232, USA
[7] Program in Chemical and Physical Biology, Vanderbilt University School of Medicine, Nashville, Tennessee, 37232, USA
[8] Epithelial Biology Center, Vanderbilt University Medical Center, Nashville, Tennessee, 37232, USA
[9] Department of Cell and Developmental Biology, Vanderbilt University School of Medicine, Nashville, Tennessee, 37232, USA
[10] Department of Biochemistry, Vanderbilt University School of Medicine, Nashville, TN 37232, USA
[11] Veterans Affairs Tennessee Valley Health Care System, Nashville, Tennessee, 37232, USA
[12] Center for Mucosal Inflammation and Cancer, Vanderbilt University Medical Center, Nashville, Tennessee, 37232, USA
[13] Department of Medical and Clinical Genetics, University of Helsinki, Helsinki, Finland
[14] Applied Tumor Genomics Research Program, Research Programs Unit, University of Helsinki, Helsinki, Finland
[15] iCAN Digital Precision Cancer Medicine Flagship, University of Helsinki, Helsinki, Finland
[16] Vanderbilt-Ingram Cancer Center, Vanderbilt University Medical Center, Nashville, Tennessee, 37232, USA

Grant Support

This work was supported by the National Institutes of Health (F30DK120149 to REB, F31DK127687 to PNV, F31CA232272 to JMP, R01DK103831 to KSL, U01CA215798 to KSL, R03DK123489 to JAG, R01CA178030 to SWH, K01DK123495 to SPS, F32DK108492 to SPS, R01DK099204 to CSW, P30DK058404 to the Vanderbilt Digestive Disease Research Center [DDRC], P50CA236733 to the Vanderbilt-Ingram Cancer Center [VICC] Spore in Gastrointestinal Cancer, and T32GM00734 to the Vanderbilt Medical Scientist Training Program), the U.S. Department of Veterans Affairs Office of Medical Research (1I01BX001426 to CSW and IK2BX004648 to YAC), the Crohn's and Colitis Foundation (623541 to CSW and 662877 to SPS), the Royal Netherlands Academy of Arts and Sciences (Academy Ter Meulen Grant to JJ), and the Prince Bernhard Cultural Foundation (Cultural Foundation Grant to JJ). KP was supported by grants from Academy of Finland (Finnish Center of Excellence Program 2018–2025, 312041), the iCAN Digital Precision Cancer Medicine Flagship (320185), and the Sigrid Jusélius Foundation.

52 YAC was also supported by the P30DK058404 Vanderbilt DDRC Pilot and Feasibility grant. The
53 Vanderbilt Translational Pathology Shared Resource (TPSR) was supported by NCI/NIH Cancer
54 Center Support Grant 2P30CA068485-14 and the Vanderbilt Mouse Metabolic Phenotyping
55 Center Grant 5U24DK059637-13.
56

57 **Correspondence**
58 Christopher S. Williams; Mailing: 1075 Light Hall/MRBIV, 2215-B Garland Ave., Nashville, TN
59 37232; Tel: 615-322-3642; Fax: 615-343-6229; Email: christopher.s.williams@vumc.org
60

61 **Disclosures**
62 The authors declare no competing interests.
63

Author Contributions
REB designed experiments, performed experiments, and analyzed data. SAA, KMK, CTJ, JMP,
and AHG performed experiments and analyzed data. JJ and REB designed and performed bulk
RNA-sequencing (RNA-seq) data analysis, respectively. KSL, BC, and PNV designed, collected,
and analyzed human and murine colon single cell RNA-seq. FR validated antibodies for and
performed immunohistochemical staining. MBP and MKW performed histological analyses and
provided expertise in gastrointestinal pathology. JJ, RB, and KP analyzed RNA-seq from human
tumors. CSW, SPS, SWH, KSL, JAG, KRS, and YAC provided expertise regarding experimental
models and experimental design. REB wrote the manuscript. All authors edited and approved the
manuscript.
74

Acknowledgments
We thank Barbara Fingleton, Stephen Brandt, Matthew Stier, and other members of the Williams
and Hiebert Labs for their critical insights into this manuscript. We would also like to thank the
TPSR, Digital Histology Shared Resource (DHSR), Vanderbilt Technologies for Advanced
Genomics (VANTAGE), and Advanced Computing Center for Research and Education (ACCRE)
for aid with histology, imaging, RNA-seq, and data storage/processing, respectively. Additional
computational resources were provided by the ELIXIR node, hosted at the CSC–IT Center for
Science, Finland.

Abstract

Aberrant epithelial differentiation and regeneration pathways contribute to colon pathologies including inflammatory bowel disease (IBD) and colitis-associated cancer (CAC). MTG16 (also known as CBFA2T3) is a transcriptional corepressor expressed in the colonic epithelium. MTG16 interaction partners include E box-binding basic helix-loop-helix transcription factors (E proteins). MTG16-deficient mice exhibit worse colitis and increased tumor burden in inflammatory carcinogenesis. In this study, we sought to understand the role of MTG16 colonic epithelial homeostasis and the mechanisms by which MTG16 protects the epithelium in colitis and CAC. We demonstrated that MTG16 deficiency enabled enteroendocrine cell differentiation from secretory precursor cells at the expense of goblet cells. Transcriptomic analysis implicated dysregulated E protein function in MTG16-deficient colon crypts. Using a novel mouse model with a point mutation that disrupts MTG16:E protein complex formation ($Mtg16^{P209T}$), we established that enteroendocrine:goblet cell balance was dependent on MTG16:E protein interactions and that the shift in lineage allocation was associated with enhanced expression of $Neurog3$, the central driver of enteroendocrine lineage specification. Furthermore, $Mtg16$ was upregulated in the previously described $Ascl2^{+}$, de-differentiating cells that replenish the stem cell compartment in response to colon injury. $Mtg16$ expression was also increased in dextran sulfate sodium (DSS)-treated mouse colon crypts and in IBD patients compared to unaffected controls. We determined that the effects of MTG16 in regeneration are also dependent on its repression of E proteins, as the colonic epithelium failed to regenerate following DSS-induced injury in our novel mutant mouse model. Finally, we revealed that uncoupling MTG16:E protein interactions contributes to the enhanced tumorigenicity in $Mtg16^{-/-}$ colon in the azoxymethane(AOM)/DSS-induced model of CAC. Collectively, our results demonstrate that MTG16, via its repression of E protein targets, is a key regulator of cell fate decisions during colonic differentiation and regeneration.

Introduction

The colonic epithelium is a complex, self-renewing tissue comprised of specialized cell types with diverse functions, including: stem cells, which self-renew and generate all epithelial lineages; colonocytes, which absorb water and electrolytes; goblet cells, which secrete mucus to protect from luminal insults; and enteroendocrine cells, which secrete hormones[1–3]. The complexity and diverse functions of the secretory lineage, including goblet and enteroendocrine cells, has only recently been appreciated[4–13]. Secretory lineage dysregulation now been implicated in inflammatory bowel disease (IBD), colorectal cancer (CRC), obesity, diabetes, and the gut-brain axis[9,14–20]. Furthermore, recent studies have demonstrated that colonic epithelial regeneration in response to injury occurs through the opposite process: de-differentiation of committed precursor cells[21–23]. Aberrant regenerative programs may lead to uncontrolled cell proliferation and dysplasia[24]. Thus, these processes must be tightly controlled by coordinated networks of transcriptional activators and repressors[3].

Myeloid translocation gene 16 (MTG16, also known as CBFA2T3) is a transcriptional corepressor crucial for the regulation of stem cell dynamics, differentiation, and cancer[25–29]. MTG16 bridges transcription factors and epigenetic regulators such as histone deacetylases to repress transcription of target loci[27,30,31]. While MTG16 may be expressed in a given cell type, its repression targets vary depending on the expression gradients of other components of the repression complex[25]. Indeed, MTG16 may even be displaced resulting in an activation complex and gene transcription[32]. MTG16 has previously been shown to repress stem cell genes and pan-secretory genes in the homeostatic small intestine (SI)[33]. Furthermore, our group has determined the effects of global MTG16 deficiency in colonic phenotypes, including increased injury in dextran sulfate sodium (DSS)-induced colitis[34] and increased tumor burden in the azoxymethane (AOM)/DSS model of inflammatory carcinogenesis[35,36]. However, the precise mechanisms by which MTG16 controls colonic homeostasis, regeneration, and tumorigenesis remain unknown.

One family of transcription factors repressed by MTG16 are basic helix-loop-helix (bHLH) transcription factors[25,28,37–39]. Ubiquitously expressed (class I) and tissue-specific (class II) bHLH transcription factors homo- and heterodimerize to control stem cell dynamics, lineage allocation, and differentiation[40–42]. The class I bHLH transcription factors, also known as E proteins because they bind to consensus Ephrussi box (E box) DNA sequences, are E12 and E47 (splice variants of *E2A*), HEB, and E2-2[28,38,40]. However, the functions of E proteins have mainly been described outside of the colon[40,42–49].

In this study, we define the topology of *Mtg16* expression in the colon and discover novel functions of MTG16 in the colonic epithelium. We identify marked upregulation of E protein transcriptional signatures in the setting of MTG16 deficiency and use a novel point mutant mouse model to determine that uncoupling MTG16:E protein interactions drives these phenotypes. We investigate this regulatory relationship in homeostatic secretory lineage allocation and test its functional impact on epithelial regeneration in murine models of IBD, where *Mtg16* expression is increased, and colitis-associated carcinoma (CAC). Analogously, *MTG16* expression is upregulated in biopsies from patients with active IBD but returns closer to baseline with disease remission. Overall, we demonstrate novel, context-specific roles for MTG16 in the colon dependent on its interaction with E proteins.

Materials and Methods

Mouse models and animal care. *Mtg16^{-/-}* mice were previously generated and validated[26]. *Mtg16[P209T]* mutant mice were CRISPR-generated as recently described[38]. Littermate-matched wild type (WT) and *Mtg16^{-/-}* and littermate-matched WT and homozygous *Mtg16[P209T]* mutant (*Mtg16[T/T]*) mice were bred using heterozygous x heterozygous breeding schemes and housed in the same facility throughout the duration of the experiments. Mice were provided standard rodent chow (#5L0D, LabDiet) *ad libitum* and kept on a 12:12 light-dark cycle. All animal experiments were carried out in accordance with protocols approved by the Vanderbilt Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee (IACUC). Approximately equal numbers of 8-12-wk-old male and female mice were used for all experiments.

Single-cell RNA-sequencing (scRNA-seq) and analysis. InDrop scRNA-seq and analysis were performed on 2 independent (discovery and validation) cohorts of human colon samples as previously described[24]. These data are publicly available through the Human Tumor Atlas Network (https://data.humantumoratlas.org/)[50]. scRNA-seq of colon crypts isolated from WT mice was performed as previously described[51–53]. These data (#GSE145830, #GSE114044) are available in the Gene Expression Omnibus (GEO)[54,55].

RNAscope *in situ* hybridization. RNAscope[56], high-resolution RNA *in situ* hybridization, was performed using the RNAscope Multiplex Fluorescent V2 Assay (#323100, ACDBio) according to the manufacturer's protocol. Slides were boiled in Target Retrieval Reagents for 15 min and treated with Protease IV for 30 min. Probes were specific for Mm-*Cbfa2t3* (#43601-C2, ACDBio), Mm-*Muc2* (#315451, ACDBio), and Mm-*Neurog3* (#422401, ACDBio). 1:750 TSA Cy3 (#NEL704A001KT, PerkinElmer) and TSA Cy5 (#NEL75A001KT, Perkin Elmer) were used for probe visualization.

Chromogenic and immunofluorescent immunohistochemistry (IHC). SI and colon were dissected, Swiss-rolled, and fixed in 10% neutral-buffered formalin (NBF) for 24 h at RT. Formalin-fixed tissue was paraffin-embedded (FFPE) by the Vanderbilt Translational Pathology Shared Resource (TPSR). For baseline WT and $Mtg16^{-/-}$ analyses, the TPSR constructed 2 tissue micro-arrays (TMAs) using the TMA Grand Master automated arrayer (PerkinElmer). Briefly, 2-mm cores were punched from individual FFPE blocks containing WT and $Mtg16^{-/-}$ SI and colon (4 cores per Swiss roll). Following construction, H&E slides were cut from the TMAs and evaluated for quality. The TPSR also performed all hematoxylin and eosin (H&E) and periodic acid-Schiff (PAS) staining.

For chromogenic and immunofluorescent IHC, 5-µm FFPE sections were deparaffinized, rehydrated in graded ethanol concentrations, and permeabilized using TBS-T (Tris-buffered saline with 0.05% Tween-20) followed by antibody-specific antigen retrieval (**Table S1**). Next, for chromogenic IHC, endogenous peroxidases were quenched in 0.03% H_2O_2 with sodium azide for 5 min. Slides were then incubated in primary antibody (**Table S1**) O/N at RT. Detection was performed by 30-min. incubation with Dako Envision+ System HRP-Labeled Polymers (#K4003, Agilent) followed by a 5-min incubation with DAB. For immunofluorescent staining, slides were blocked in 5% normal goat serum (#01-620-1, ThermoFisher), incubated in primary antibody (**Table S1**) O/N at 4 °C, washed in TBS-T, and incubated in the appropriate secondary antibodies (# A-11011, #A-11077, #A-21131, Invitrogen**)** for 2 h at RT. 5-Ethynyl-2'-deoxyuridine (EdU) was visualized using the Click-iT EdU Cell Proliferation Kit for Imaging (#C10037, ThermoFisher). Nuclear counterstaining was performed using ProLong Gold Antifade Mountant with DAPI (#P36931, ThermoFisher).

Imaging and quantification. Slides were imaged using a Nikon Eclipse E800 microscope with NIS-Elements Basic Research Software or by the VUMC Digital Histology Shared Resource (DHSR). For chromogenic IHC, whole slides were imaged by the DHSR using a Leica SCN400

Slide Scanner (Leica Biosystems). For fluorescent staining, whole slides were imaged by the

DHSR using an Aperio Versa 200 automated slide scanner (Leica Biosystems) and visualized

using Aperio ImageScope (v12.4.3) (Leica Biosystems). Quantification was performed by an

observer blinded to genotype by counting positive cells in well-oriented crypts or crypt-villus units.

Colon crypt isolation. Murine colon was harvested, splayed longitudinally, and divided into

proximal colon (defined as the first 3 cm from the cecum) and distal colon (defined as the first 3

cm from the anus). Colon segments were washed in phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) without

calcium or magnesium and minced. Tissue fragments were incubated in chelation buffer (2 mM

EDTA in PBS without calcium or magnesium) with nutation for 90 min at 4 °C and washed with

PBS followed by 2-min cycles of gentle shaking in shaking buffer (43.3 mM sucrose and 54.9 mM

sorbitol in PBS without calcium or magnesium) to free colon crypts. Intact crypts were collected

by centrifugation at 150 x g, 4 °C for 12 min for RNA isolation and bulk RNA-sequencing (RNA-

seq) as described below.

Murine colitis models. The DSS colitis model of epithelial injury and regeneration was performed

as previously described[57]. Briefly, littermate-matched WT and mutant mice were co-housed from

the time of weaning when possible. At 8-12 wk old, bedding was mixed to normalize microbiome

2 wk prior to experiments. Lixits were capped to accustom mice to drinking from water bottles 1

wk prior to experiments. Water bottles were replaced with 2% (w/v) DSS (#DS1004, Gojira Fine

Chemicals) for 5 days and then replaced with water for 4 days of recovery prior to sacrifice. Mice

were weighed daily. For histologic analysis, colons were dissected, Swiss-rolled, fixed in 10%

NBF, and processed by the Vanderbilt TPSR as described above. H&Es were scored for

histologic injury and regeneration by a gastrointestinal pathologist blinded to genotype (MKW) as

described in **Table S2**. Distal colon crypts were collected as described above for RNA isolation

and RNA-seq as described below. For EdU experiments, mice were intraperitoneally (*i.p.*) injected

with 50 mg/kg EdU (#NE08701, Biosynth Carbosynth) dissolved in PBS 1 h prior to sacrifice.

Murine inflammatory carcinogenesis model. Bedding was mixed, and 8-12-wk old mice were

co-housed and accustomed to drinking from water bottles as described above. Mice were

intraperitoneally injected with 10 mg/kg AOM and exposed to three 4-day cycles of 3% DSS

(#DB001, TdB Labs). Each DSS cycle was followed by a 16-day recovery period. Mice were

weighed daily throughout the experiment. At sacrifice, colons were dissected, flushed with PBS,

splayed longitudinally, and imaged using a Nikon SMZ1270 dissecting scope. Tumors were

identified by vascular, non-dimpled appearance from these images in conjunction with direct

visualization. Tumors were measured macroscopically in 2 perpendicular dimensions using

calipers, and tumor volume was calculated using the previously validated formula $W^2 * L/2$, where

W was the shorter caliper measurement, and L was the longer caliper measurement[58].

Representative tumors from each colon were dissected, incubated in RNA*later* (#R0901, Sigma-

Aldrich) at 4 °C for 24 h, and stored at -80 °C. Histologic injury was assessed by MKW (**Table

S2**). Tumor number and degree of dysplasia was evaluated as previously described[59] by a

gastrointestinal pathologist blinded to genotype (MBP).

RNA isolation, bulk RNA-seq, and analysis. Murine colon crypts were collected as described

above followed by resuspension in TRIzol Reagent (#15596018, Invitrogen) and homogenization

by 5x shearing through a 25G needle. Murine tumors were mechanically homogenized in TRIzol.

Samples were centrifuged for 10 min at 16,200 x *g*, 4 °C to remove insoluble material. Cleared

homogenate was chloroform-extracted. RNA was isolated from the aqueous layer using the

RNeasy Mini Kit (#74106, Qiagen) with on-column DNase treatment (#79254, Qiagen). Library

preparation and paired-end 150 bp RNA-seq using the Illumina NovaSeq6000 were performed

by Vanderbilt Technologies for Advanced Genomics (VANTAGE). Raw reads in FASTQ format

were trimmed with fastp (v0.20.0) with default parameters[60]. Quantification was performed using

Salmon (v1.3.0)[61] against a decoy transcriptome generated from *Mus musculus* GENCODE

(v21)[62]. Further analysis was done in R (v3.6.3) as described previously[63]. Briefly, quantification

files were imported with tximeta (v1.4.5)[64]. Genes with counts $\leq$ 1 were omitted. Differential

expression analysis (DEA) was performed on raw transcript counts using DESeq2 (v1.26.0)[65] and

annotated with AnnotationDbi (v1.46.1)[66]. Gene Set Enrichment Analysis (GSEA)[67] was

performed on DESeq2-normalized transcript counts using the GSEA software (v4.1.0) with 1,000

gene permutations and gene set randomization. Gene sets were found in the Molecular

Signatures Database (MSigDB) (v7.2)[68] or derived from the literature (**Table S3**). Figures were

generated using GSEA (v4.1.0), the R packages pheatmap (v1.0.12), RColorBrewer (v1.1-2), and

ggplot2 (v3.2.1), Meta-Chart (https://www.meta-chart.com/venn#/display), and Inkscape (v1.0.1).

***In silico* analysis of chromatin immunoprecipitation-sequencing (ChIP-seq) data, IBD**

datasets, and TCGA data. Raw and processed ChIP-seq data from Baulies *et al.*[33]

(#GSE124186) and Murata *et al.*[21] (#GSE130822) were retrieved from the GEO[54,55]. Data were

visualized and 5'-CATNNG (E box) sequences were annotated using the Broad Institute

Integrated Genomics Viewer (v2.9.1)[69].

270   Metadata for rectal biopsies from treatment-naïve pediatric UC patients (n = 206) and

unaffected controls (n = 20) in the Predicting Response to Standardized Pediatric Colitis Therapy

(PROTECT) study[70,71] (#GSE109142) were also retrieved from the GEO[54,55]. SRR files were

downloaded using the NCBI SRA Toolkit and the Advanced Computing Center for Research and

Education (ACCRE) and processed as described above for bulk murine RNA-seq, with the reads

quantified against a decoy-aware transcriptome generated from the GENCODE human reference

genome (v29)[62]. DEA was performed on raw counts using DESeq2 (v1.26.0)[65].

277   Raw counts from RNA-seq of biopsies from adult UC patients (n = 14 with active disease,

14 in remission) and unaffected patients (n = 16)[72] (#GSE128682) were downloaded from the

GEO[54,55]. Pairwise DEA was performed on raw counts using DESeq2 (v1.33.1)[65]. Microarray data

from adult IBD patients (n = 5 UC, 20 Crohn's colitis, 8 unaffected controls)[73] (#GSE9686) were

analyzed using limma in Geo2R[55].

Raw feature counts generated from The Cancer Genome Atlas (TCGA) PanCancer

Atlas[74,75] by Rahman *et al.*[76] (#GSE62944) were retrieved from the GEO[54,55]. DEA (n = 41 normal

colon samples, 482 colon adenocarcinomas) was performed in R (v4.1.0) using DESeq2

(v1.33.1)[65].

Bulk RNA-seq of human CAC and CRC samples. RNA-seq of human samples collected from

9 regional hospitals in Finland was performed and analyzed as described previously[77]. Briefly,

RNA was TRIzol-extracted from human tumor samples (n = 47 CRC, 17 CAC) and underwent

HiSeq LncRNA-Seq library preparation and paired-end sequencing using Illumina HiSeqXTen.

Raw sequences were mapped onto the human transcriptome (Ensembl release 79) using Salmon

(v0.12.0)[61]. Gene-level quantification with variance stabilization was performed using DESeq2

(v1.18.1)[65] followed by limma (v3.34.9) correction of sequencing batch effects[78].

Statistical methods. Statistical analyses of human CRC vs. CAC data were performed using

limma (v3.34.9)[78]. Statistical analyses of all other bulk RNA-seq were performed using DESeq2

(v1.26.0, v1.33.1)[65]. Statistical analyses of microarray data were performed using limma in

Geo2R[55]. In these studies, $p_{adj} < 0.05$ was considered significant. Statistical analyses for GSEA

were performed using the GSEA program (v4.1.0). A false discovery rate (FDR) q-value < 0.25

was considered significant. All other statistical analyses for all other data were performed in

GraphPad Prism (v9.0.1) as indicated in each figure legend. Data are displayed as arithmetic

mean ± SEM unless otherwise noted, and $p < 0.05$ was considered significant.

Data availability. All code is available upon reasonable request.

Results

MTG16 **is predominantly expressed in secretory cells in human and murine colon.** To

understand the topography of *MTG16* expression in the human colon, we queried single-cell RNA-

seq (scRNA-seq) datasets generated from 2 independent cohorts of normal human colon

samples[24]. Interestingly, we observed that *MTG16* was predominantly expressed in secretory

cells (**Fig. 1A, S1**). To understand if this expression pattern was evolutionarily conserved, we

queried our inDrop scRNA-seq generated from WT murine colon crypts[52,53] and similarly found

that *Mtg16* was expressed in the goblet and enteroendocrine cell clusters (**Fig. 1B**). Confirming

these findings, RNAscope for *Mtg16* and *Muc2* (the predominant mucin expressed by colonic

goblet cells[11]) mRNA demonstrated co-localization in the murine colonic epithelium (**Fig. 1C**).

Collectively, these data suggested a role for MTG16 in the colonic secretory lineage.

MTG16-deficient mice have skewed secretory lineage allocation in the colon, distinct from

the SI. Transcriptional corepressors, including MTG16, regulate differentiation and cell-fate

decisions[25–28,37–39,79,80]. Prior studies have established that *Mtg16*^{-/-} mice have fewer goblet cells

in the SI but retain normal numbers of enteroendocrine cells[33,81]. In agreement with these studies,

Mtg16^{-/-} mice had fewer goblet cells, but no increase in SYP^{+} enteroendocrine cells, in the SI (**Fig.**

S2A-B). Tuft cells, which had not previously been investigated, were decreased per crypt-villus

unit in the SI (**Fig. S2C**). We next assessed secretory lineage allocation in the colon at baseline

in WT and *Mtg16*^{-/-} mice. Similar to the SI, *Mtg16*^{-/-} mice had fewer goblet cells per colon crypt

(**Fig. 1D**). However, immunohistochemistry (IHC) for synaptophysin (SYP) demonstrated more

enteroendocrine cells per crypt in *Mtg16*^{-/-} colon (**Fig. 1E**). Tuft cells were decreased in the colons

of *Mtg16*^{-/-} mice (**Fig. 1F**). Together, these data implicated a colon-specific role for MTG16 in

orchestrating cell type allocation within the secretory lineage.

Loss of MTG16 distorts the transcriptomic balance of enteroendocrine and goblet cell lineages. Prior studies have demonstrated subtle differences in secretory cell differentiation along the length of the colon[6,11,82–84]. Thus, we stratified our human scRNA-seq datasets by proximal and distal colon and examined *MTG16* expression. *MTG16* was consistently expressed in goblet cells, but its expression pattern in other secretory cell types varied between proximal and distal colon and between each cohort (**Fig. S3**). We next queried the *Tabula Muris*, a publicly available murine colon scRNA-seq dataset that specifies whether certain clusters originate from the proximal or distal colon[85], for *Mtg16* expression (**Fig. S4A-B**). In the proximal colon, *Mtg16* was enriched in all goblet cell clusters. In the distal colon, *Mtg16* was enriched in *Lgr5*+ amplifying, undifferentiated cells and most goblet cells, except those located at the top of the crypt (**Fig. S4B**). Bulk RNA-seq of proximal and distal WT colon revealed higher expression of *Mtg16* in the proximal colon, potentially reflecting the higher density of goblet cells in the proximal colon (**Fig. S4C**). We confirmed this *Mtg16* expression pattern by RNAscope (**Fig. S5**).

Due to these differences, we performed bulk RNA-seq of colon epithelial isolates from the proximal and distal colon separately. In both colon segments, goblet-associated genes were downregulated, and enteroendocrine-associated genes were upregulated (**Fig. 1G-H**). However, goblet cell-associated gene downregulation was more pronounced in the proximal colon (**Fig. 1G**), while enteroendocrine cell-associated gene upregulation was more striking in the distal colon (**Fig. 1H**). Closer inspection of the distal *Mtg16*-/- colon revealed marked upregulation of key enteroendocrine cell bHLH transcription factors (*Neurog3*, *Neurod1*) and hormone products (e.g., *Chga, Gcg, Sct*) (**Fig. 2A**). Due to this novel phenotype, we chose to further investigate the distal colon RNA-seq by Gene Set Enrichment Analysis (GSEA) using gene sets derived from the literature (**Table S3**). GSEA demonstrated significant enrichment of all stages of enteroendocrine cells during differentiation, except the earliest enteroendocrine progenitor cells in which *Neurog3* expression has not yet been induced[86], in *Mtg16*-/- distal colon crypts (**Fig. 2B**). Concurrently, the goblet cell gene signature was significantly de-enriched in the absence of MTG16 (**Fig. 2B**).

Notably, our RNA-seq did not show significant differences in the stem cell genes *Lgr5* and

Ascl2, distinct from *Mtg16*^{-/-} SI[33]. GSEA for gene sets representing stem cells and other

undifferentiated early progenitor cells showed enrichment of signatures representing *Bmi1*^{+} "label-

retaining" stem cells and *mTert*^{+} stem cells, recently shown to be enteroendocrine cells expressing

Chga[3,8] (**Fig. 2C**). As one of the genes driving these enrichment scores was *Chga*, we used

immunofluorescent IHC to stain for CHGA. While CHGA^{+} cells were increased overall, they were

not localized to the crypt base (including the +4/+5 cell position) (**Fig. 2D**). Additionally, we did

not observe enrichment of any gene sets derived from the literature (**Table S3**) or the MSigDB[68]

representing *Lgr5*^{+} crypt base columnar (CBC) cells (**Fig. 2C**, **Fig. S6A**). Altogether, these data

indicate that MTG16 exerts control over the balance between goblet and enteroendocrine cells

during secretory lineage allocation in the colon.

MTG16 is required for attenuation of E protein activity in the colon. We next sought to

illuminate potential mechanisms by which MTG16 promotes the goblet lineage and restricts the

enteroendocrine lineage. We and others have previously shown that MTG16 negatively regulates

major transcription factor effectors of the WNT and Notch pathways in the hematopoietic

system[29,32] and SI[33]. We thus performed GSEA for pathways important in colonic epithelial

homeostasis, including WNT and Notch. However, GSEA did not identify global canonical WNT

or Notch pathway upregulation in *Mtg16*^{-/-} colon crypts, despite upregulation of the Notch ligand

Dll3 (**Fig. 1H, 2A, S6B**). Additionally, several WNT pathway inhibitors (e.g., *Wif1*, *Cxxc4*) and the

Notch pathway inhibitor, *Neurl1a,* were significantly upregulated (**Fig. 2A**). Thus, it appeared

unlikely that the effects of MTG16 on colonic differentiation were due to interactions with canonical

WNT and Notch effectors.

We then investigated whether target genes of known MTG16-interacting factors, including

E proteins[25,28,37–39], were dysregulated in *Mtg16*^{-/-} colon crypts. E proteins coordinate lineage-

specific differentiation by interacting with cell type-specific bHLH transcription factors[40].

Furthermore, E proteins such as E2A and HEB are known to be expressed in SI crypts and

adenomas[87]. Here, we observed enrichment of all E protein gene signatures, including E2A, its

splice variants E12 and E47, and HEB, by GSEA (**Fig. 2E**). Gene sets associated with

upregulation of ID1 and ID2, HLH factors that counteract E protein activity and increase stemness

in intestinal homeostasis and cancer[40,88–93], were not enriched. These data demonstrated a strong

induction of E protein-mediated transcription in the absence of repression by MTG16.

MTG16-driven goblet cell differentiation is dependent on its repression of the E protein

transcription factors E2A and HEB. We hypothesized that MTG16 drives goblet cell

differentiation from secretory progenitors by attenuating E protein-mediated enteroendocrine cell

differentiation. We tested this hypothesis *in vivo* by selectively disrupting the MTG16:E protein

interface. To do so, we leveraged a CRISPR-generated mouse with a point mutation resulting in

a proline-to-threonine substitution in MTG16 (*Mtg16^{P209T}*) that impairs MTG16:E2A and

MTG16:HEB binding and transcriptional repression[38]. We then characterized colonic secretory

cell populations in homozygous *Mtg16^{P209T}* mutant (*Mtg16$^{T/T}$*) mice compared to WT littermate-

matched controls (**Fig. 3A-C**). Similar to *Mtg16$^{-/-}$* mice, *Mtg16$^{T/T}$* mice had fewer PAS$^+$ goblet cells

and more CHGA$^+$ enteroendocrine cells per crypt (**Fig. 3A-B**). However, unlike in the *Mtg16$^{-/-}$*

mouse colon, the number of tuft cells per crypt was unchanged (**Fig. 3C**). We next performed bulk

RNA-seq on proximal and distal colon crypt isolates. In both colon segments, goblet cell genes

were downregulated, while enteroendocrine cell genes were upregulated, in a pattern resembling

that of *Mtg16$^{-/-}$* colon (**Fig. 3 D-E**). The distal colon exhibited significant upregulation of *Neurog3*

(**Fig. 3E**). Additionally, GSEA of the overall enteroendocrine signature, key enteroendocrine

progenitor genes, *Bmi1$^+$* and *m-Tert$^+$* reserve stem cell signatures, and E protein signatures all

largely phenocopied the *Mtg16$^{-/-}$* distal colon (**Fig. 3F-H**). As expected, we also observed

upregulation of E2A and HEB transcriptional targets (**Fig. 3H**).

We next compared results obtained from *Mtg16⁻ᐟ⁻* and *Mtg16ᵀᐟᵀ* distal colon crypts. Here,

we observed that 22 of the 30 genes upregulated in *Mtg16ᵀᐟᵀ* distal colon crypts were also

upregulated in *Mtg16⁻ᐟ⁻* colon (**Fig. 4A-B, Table S4**). Many of these genes (e.g., *Neurog3, Insm1,*

Insrr, Pex5l, Syt13, Syngap1, Kcnh6, and Agt) were enteroendocrine-associated genes. A publicly

available MTG16 ChIP-seq dataset from SI crypts[33] exhibited significant MTG16 occupancy

proximal to 11 of the 22 genes (**Fig. 4A-B, Table S4**), including a large peak at a site enriched

with E box motifs upstream of *Neurog3* (**Fig. 4C**), suggesting these genes are repressed by

MTG16. Finally, *Neurog3*⁺ enteroendocrine progenitor cells were markedly increased in *Mtg16⁻ᐟ⁻*

and *Mtg16ᵀᐟᵀ* colon crypts by RNAscope (**Fig. 4D**). Altogether, these data indicate a newly

discovered MTG16:E protein-dependent mechanism of colonic secretory lineage allocation,

specifically at the stage of NEUROG3-mediated commitment to the enteroendocrine cell lineage.

MTG16 is upregulated in IBD patients with active disease. There has been considerable

interest in the role of secretory cell lineage misallocation and dysfunction in the pathogenesis of

IBD, a condition defined by continuous epithelial injury and regeneration[9,11,19,94–97]. Additionally,

several large RNA-seq studies of human UC biopsies have recently been published, including

rectal biopsies from treatment-naïve pediatric UC patients compared to unaffected patients in the

PROTECT study[70,71] and mucosal biopsies from adult UC patients with active disease, UC

patients in remission, and healthy control patients[72]. We found that *MTG16* was upregulated in

UC patients in both datasets (**Fig. 5A-B**). *MTG16* expression decreased with remission, although

remained elevated compared to unaffected control patients (**Fig. 5B**). Lastly, we analyzed a

microarray dataset of adult unaffected, UC, and Crohn's colitis patients and observed significant

upregulation of *MTG16* in both UC and Crohn's colitis (**Fig. 5C**). Collectively, these data

demonstrate that increased *MTG16* expression is tightly correlated with active injury and

regeneration in patients with IBD.

MTG16 contributes to colon crypt regeneration following DSS-induced colitis. As stated previously, MTG16 deficiency has been shown to increase disease severity in DSS-induced colitis[34], a murine model widely used to study IBD, as it recapitulates many histologic features of human UC[98]. To see if this mouse model would recapitulate the increased *MTG16* expression in human IBD, we first assessed *Mtg16* expression following DSS-induced injury and regeneration (**Fig. 5D**). Because DSS treatment largely affects the distal colon[98], we compared distal WT colon crypt epithelial isolates post-DSS-induced injury and regeneration to WT distal colon crypts at baseline. Indeed, *Mtg16* expression was increased in regenerating colon crypts (**Fig. 5E**), similar to our observations in human IBD. Thus, we posited that MTG16 expression may be part of a critical defense and/or repair mechanism in the context of colitis and colonic regeneration.

The cellular sources of intestinal repair have been a major focus of the field over the last several decades. Recently, Murata *et al.* elegantly demonstrated a unified pathway by which any CBC progeny cell, whether a secretory or absorptive precursor, can repopulate ablated CBC cells by inducing expression of the WNT target gene and stem cell master regulator *Ascl2* to mediate de-differentiation[21]. After CBC cell ablation, 238 significantly upregulated genes defined the de-differentiating ASCL2+ cells compared to resting CBC cells. Interestingly, *Mtg16* was markedly (4.1x) upregulated in these cells. Furthermore, ASCL2 ChIP-seq data in the de-differentiating population yielded a peak at a second transcription start site of *Mtg16*, suggesting that ASCL2 induces *Mtg16* expression during colonic epithelial regeneration (**Fig. 5F**).

To confirm that the ASCL2-driven regeneration program was relevant to crypt regeneration following DSS-induced injury, we constructed a gene set consisting of the 238 genes upregulated in *Ascl2*+ regenerating cells, performed GSEA, and observed a highly significant enrichment of this signature in WT distal colon crypt epithelial isolates after DSS-induced regeneration (**Fig. 5G**). Conversely, the *Ascl2*+ regeneration signature was significantly de-enriched in *Mtg16*-/- colon crypts following DSS-induced injury, despite enrichment of other gene signatures associated with intestinal epithelial regeneration in the literature (**Fig. 5H-I**, **Table S3**).

Altogether, these data implicate MTG16 as a central component of ASCL2-driven regeneration

and repair in the colon. Similar to our findings in colon homeostasis, E protein signatures were

enriched in post-DSS $Mtg16^{-/-}$ colon by GSEA (**Fig. 5J-K**), leading us to hypothesize that the

contribution of MTG16 to colon crypt regeneration occurs via repression of E protein transcription

factors.

MTG16-mediated colonic epithelial regeneration is dependent on its repression of E

protein transcription factors. To test whether MTG16-dependent regeneration occurs via an E

protein-dependent mechanism, we next analyzed colonic epithelial regeneration following DSS-

induced injury in $Mtg16^{T/T}$ mice (**Fig. 6A**). Like $Mtg16^{-/-}$ mice, $Mtg16^{T/T}$ mice exhibited significantly

worse weight loss, shorter colons, and increased histologic injury (**Fig. 6B-D, Table S2**). We also

observed increased extent of injury along the length of the $Mtg16^{T/T}$ colon (**Fig. 6E**). Next, we

injected mice with EdU 1 h prior to sacrifice following DSS injury-regeneration and found that

$Mtg16^{T/T}$ mice had fewer S-phase cells in injury-adjacent crypts (**Fig. 6F**), which actively

regenerate the ulcerated colonic epithelium following DSS-induced colitis[99]. Finally, like $Mtg16^{-/-}$

mice, bulk RNA-seq of $Mtg16^{T/T}$ distal colon crypt epithelial isolates following DSS injury-repair

was de-enriched for the $Ascl2^{+}$ de-differentiating cell signature by GSEA, again despite

enrichment of other gene signatures associated with intestinal epithelial regeneration in the

literature (**Fig. 6G-H, Table S3**). These data showed that MTG16 repression of E protein-

mediated transcription is required for ASCL2-mediated colonic epithelial regeneration.

MTG16 expression is decreased in dysplasia. We previously observed decreased *MTG16*

expression in sporadic CRC and CAC compared to normal colon tissue[35], but had not directly

compared expression levels of *MTG16* between these different neoplastic origins. Because

MTG16 expression was upregulated in IBD, we wondered whether *MTG16* expression would be

increased in IBD-driven colon cancer (CAC) compared to sporadic CRC. To do so, we first

confirmed our previous findings of decreased *MTG16* expression in sporadic CRC using DESeq2

on raw counts generated from TCGA[74–76] (**Fig. 7A**). Next, we analyzed *MTG16* expression in bulk

RNA-seq of CRC and CAC tumors[100] and found no significant difference in *MTG16* expression

between sporadic CRC and CAC tumors (**Fig. 7B**), indicating that *MTG16* expression is lost in

colon dysplasia regardless of whether it is driven by IBD.

MTG16-mediated protection from CAC is partially dependent on its repression of E protein

transcription factors. We previously showed that *Mtg16*$^{-/-}$ mice have increased mortality, tumor

burden, tumor grade, and tumor cell proliferation and apoptosis when subjected to the AOM/DSS-

induced inflammatory carcinogenesis CAC model[35,36]. We tested whether the mechanism driving

these phenotypes was E protein-dependent by treating *Mtg16*$^{T/T}$ mice with AOM/DSS (**Fig. 7C**).

Mtg16$^{T/T}$ mice did not have significantly higher mortality, weight loss, or colon shortening (**Fig.**

7D-F). However, *Mtg16*$^{T/T}$ mice did exhibit increased tumor multiplicity and size (**Fig. 7G-J**).

Interestingly, *Mtg16*$^{T/T}$ mice had more tumors and larger tumors in the middle and proximal

colon than their WT counterparts (**Fig. 7I-K**). This was consistent with a greater extent of DSS-

induced injury (**Fig. 6E**), suggesting that this phenotype could be driven by increased injury in the

proximal colon. Although *Mtg16*$^{T/T}$ mice had more severe histologic injury (**Fig. 7N**), dysplasia

severity did not differ (**Fig. 7O**). Additional characterization of *Mtg16*$^{T/T}$ tumors (**Fig. S7**)

demonstrated no difference in proliferation (**Fig. S7A**), dissimilar to the *Mtg16*$^{-/-}$ AOM/DSS

phenotype. We did observe a subtle increase in apoptotic epithelial cells per tumor (**Fig. S7B**).

These phenotypes were recapitulated in tumoroids derived from distal, but not proximal, WT and

Mtg16$^{T/T}$ tumors (**Fig. S8**). Overall, these data indicate that MTG16:E protein uncoupling

recapitulates some, but not all, of the *Mtg16*$^{-/-}$ phenotypes, suggesting potential anti-tumorigenic

functions of other MTG16 domains.

Discussion

In this study, we investigated the mechanism underlying context-specific functions of the

transcriptional corepressor MTG16. We establish that MTG16 is a critical regulator of secretory

cell differentiation and identify a previously unappreciated role for MTG16 in enteroendocrine

lineage specification in the colon. MTG16 was also upregulated in active IBD, characterized by

repeated cycles of injury and regeneration, and likely contributes to murine colon regeneration

following DSS-induced injury. To investigate the mechanism underlying these phenotypes, we

utilized a novel mouse model with a single point mutation in MTG16, $Mtg16^{P209T}$, that disrupts

MTG16 binding to the E proteins E2A and HEB[38]. $Mtg16^{T/T}$ mice homozygous for this MTG16:E

protein uncoupling mutation largely recapitulated $Mtg16^{-/-}$ lineage allocation and regeneration

phenotypes, although the effect of MTG16 loss in dysplasia appears to only partially be due to

increased E protein activity. Thus, these data indicate a novel role for MTG16:E protein

complexes in the colonic epithelium.

First, we demonstrated a novel role for the transcriptional corepressor MTG16 in colonic

epithelial homeostasis. MTG16 has been shown to repress stem, goblet, and enteroendocrine

cell genes to drive enterocyte differentiation in the SI[33]. However, consistent with numerous

studies showing important differences in SI and colon biology[3,4,11,21,101–103], $Mtg16^{-/-}$ colon did not

exhibit increased stem cell signatures or a pan-secretory defect as observed in the SI. Instead,

we observed attenuation of the goblet cell lineage and upregulation of the enteroendocrine

lineage. *Neurog3*, a bHLH transcription factor required for enteroendocrine cell

differentiation[86,104–106], was consistently upregulated in $Mtg16^{-/-}$ colon. Using GSEA with gene sets

for homeostatic epithelial cell types, including cells at different stages of enteroendocrine cell

differentiation, we determined that $Mtg16^{-/-}$ colon demonstrated enrichment of all enteroendocrine

cell progenitor signatures *except* the earliest enteroendocrine precursor in which *Neurog3*

expression has not yet been induced[86]. Finally, $Mtg16^{-/-}$ colon exhibited increased *Neurog3*+

enteroendocrine progenitor cells by RNAscope. Although *Neurog3*+ progenitor cells in the SI may

still differentiate into goblet and Paneth cells[102,106], they are thought to be fully committed to the

enteroendocrine lineage in the colon[102]. Thus, MTG16 functions as a nexus of cell fate control in

colonic enteroendocrine:goblet lineage assignment.

538  *In vitro* studies and studies of the hematopoietic system have shown that MTG16 binds

and represses various transcription factors relevant to colon biology, including N1-ICD, CSL, and

TCF7L2[25,29,32]. However, in this study, we were surprised to find that the homeostatic $Mtg16^{-/-}$

colon did not exhibit upregulation of WNT or Notch pathways by bulk RNA-seq. Instead, $Mtg16^{-/-}$

colon had significant enrichment of E protein-mediated transcriptional signatures. E proteins, also

known as type I bHLH transcription factors, homo- and heterodimerize with each other and

heterodimerize with tissue-specific type II bHLH transcription factors to initiate transcription of a

cascade of lineage-specific transcription factors[40–42]. *Tcf4* (E2A) and *Tcf12* (HEB) expression has

been detected in intestinal stem cells and adenomas[87]; however, the functions of E2A and HEB

have not been established in colon homeostasis. Furthermore, enteroendocrine cell lineage

commitment is dependent on a cascade of type II bHLH transcription factors[107,108], including

NEUROG3 and its downstream target NEUROD1[104,109], which is known to heterodimerize with

E12 and E47 in other systems[110]. Additionally, E2A homodimers promote neural lineage

commitment by inducing transcription of *Neurog1-3* in neurogenesis[47,49]. Thus, we hypothesized

that MTG16 attenuated enteroendocrine lineage allocation by repressing E protein-mediated

transcription of enteroendocrine bHLH transcription factors. We tested this hypothesis using a

highly specific mouse model with a point mutation, $Mtg16^{P209T}$, that partially disrupts MTG16:E

protein binding and repression[38]. Indeed, $Mtg16^{T/T}$ mice homozygous for this point mutation had

downregulated goblet cell genes and upregulated enteroendocrine cell genes in the colon

epithelium, a pattern phenocopying $Mtg16^{-/-}$ colon. $Mtg16^{T/T}$ mice also had upregulated *Neurog3*

by RNA-seq, increased *Neurog3*⁺ progenitors by RNAscope, and enrichment of all gene

signatures representing enteroendocrine progenitors following NEUROG3 induction[86].

Additionally, mutant ($Mtg16^{P209T}$) transcript was upregulated in $Mtg16^{T/T}$ distal colon crypts,

consistent with autoregulation previously demonstrated in the hematopoietic system[111], potentially

increasing MTG16-mediated repression of other (non-E protein) transcription factors in $Mtg16^{T/T}$

colon crypts. One such potential non-E protein-mediated pathway that was increased in $Mtg16^{-/-}$,

but not $Mtg16^{T/T}$ colon crypts, is the WNT-planar cell polarity (PCP) pathway, a non-canonical, β-

catenin-independent pathway regulating cell polarity and organogenesis[112]. This could be

responsible for the slight differences between $Mtg16^{-/-}$ and $Mtg16^{T/T}$ phenotypes, as it was recently

shown that enteroendocrine cells may differentiate directly from "unipotentially-primed" intestinal

stem cells by the WNT-PCP pathway[113].

An area of considerable interest in gastrointestinal biology is the link between epithelial

differentiation and regeneration[21,114,115]. Although it was long thought that dedicated "reserve"

stem cells at the +4/+5 region, marked by expression of genes such as *Bmi1* and *mTert*,

replenished the stem cell compartment in intestinal epithelial regeneration, recent data have

indicated that these cells are most likely enteroendocrine cells with the ability to de-differentiate

into stem cells following injury[8,22]. Another recent study identified a "revival" stem cell

characterized by high *Clu* expression responsible for replenishing the stem cell compartment[116].

However, "committed" progenitors from both the secretory and absorptive lineages have been

demonstrated to share this ability[21,117–119]. A recent study used a novel mouse model expressing

FLAG-tagged ASCL2 and a fluorescent reporter from the native *Ascl2* locus, allowing the isolation

of *Ascl2*+ de-differentiating cells from the colonic epithelium following CBC cell ablation[21].

Interestingly, RNA-seq and ASCL2 ChIP-seq showed that these cells were not enriched for *Clu*

or fetal epithelial genes previously thought to enhance intestinal epithelial response to injury[120,121].

In fact, *Mtg16* was one of the few genes upregulated in these regenerating cells[21]. Additionally,

ChIP-seq demonstrated an ASCL2 peak at a second TSS in the *Mtg16* locus in regenerating

colon epithelium[21]. Demonstrating relevance to DSS-induced colon regeneration, both *Mtg16* and

the *Ascl2*+ regenerating cell signature were upregulated in regenerating WT colon epithelium

compared to baseline. Mirroring this upregulation of *Mtg16* in murine colitis, *MTG16* was

upregulated in IBD-affected colon, compared to normal colon, in multiple large patient cohorts.

MTG16 expression decreased in patients in remission, during which the colon epithelium is closer

to homeostatic renewal. Finally, RNA-seq and GSEA of *Mtg16$^{-/-}$* and *Mtg16$^{T/T}$* colonic epithelial

isolates following DSS-induced injury demonstrated enrichment of "revival" stem cell signatures

and fetal epithelial signatures, but de-enrichment of the *Ascl2$^+$* regenerating cell signature. These

data indicate an active, E protein-mediated role for MTG16 in colon regeneration and provide a

potential explanation for why *Mtg16$^{-/-}$* mice exhibit defective colonic epithelial regeneration despite

an apparent enrichment of *Bmi1$^+$* and *m-Tert$^+$* "reserve" stem cells at baseline. Future

investigations will determine which E protein targets are being repressed by MTG16 in the *Ascl2$^+$*

de-differentiating cells. One possibility is that MTG16 represses *Neurog3* in these de-

differentiating cells to prevent them from reversing course and committing to the enteroendocrine

cell lineage.

Finally, we investigated the role of MTG16:E protein complexes in the setting of

inflammatory carcinogenesis. We have previously shown that *Mtg16$^{-/-}$* mice develop greater tumor

burden than their WT counterparts with AOM/DSS treatment[35]. Although E proteins maintain

lineage commitment in homeostasis, they have been shown to be both anti-tumorigenic and pro-

tumorigenic in colon cancer[122,123]. Thus, we postulated that MTG16-mediated protection from

tumorigenesis was mechanistically due to repression of E protein activity. We did observe an

increase in histologic injury, tumor burden, and tumor size in *Mtg16$^{T/T}$* mice compared to WT mice

following AOM/DSS treatment. It is notable, however, that while *Mtg16$^{-/-}$* tumors exhibited much

higher grade of dysplasia[35], *Mtg16$^{T/T}$* tumors did not. Thus, disabling one known function of

MTG16 was not sufficient to fully replicate the *Mtg16$^{-/-}$* phenotype. Indeed, our group recently

showed that MTG16-dependent effects on CAC development is dependent on ZBTB33 (also

known as Kaiso)[36]. Mouse models with different mutations in MTG16 could be used to determine

additional MTG16 binding partners and repression targets responsible for suppressing

carcinogenesis.

In conclusion, we discovered novel functions of MTG16 in the colonic epithelium

dependent on its repression of E proteins using a novel mouse model with a point mutation that

disrupts MTG16:E protein interactions. We show that MTG16:E protein complexes direct

secretory lineage allocation, regeneration in response to injury, and tumorigenesis. Confirming

translational relevance, we determined that *MTG16* is upregulated in patients with active IBD, but

returns closer to baseline in remission. Thus, *MTG16* may be a candidate biomarker for disease

activity or a target to modulate secretory lineage differentiation, in addition to its function in

promoting epithelial regeneration.

<u>Figures</u>

Figure 1. MTG16 is expressed in a subset of colonic secretory cells, and its deficiency alters lineage allocation. (A) *MTG16* expression in cell populations generated from inDrop scRNA-seq of normal human colon biopsies (discovery cohort, n = 30,374 cells sequenced from 35 samples) (validation cohort in Fig. S1). **(B)** *Mtg16* expression in inDrop scRNA-seq of WT mouse colon (n = 3). EE, enteroendocrine. The average *MTG16* expression level in each cell population is represented using the color gradient, while the percentage of cells expressing *MTG16* in each cell population is represented using dot size. **(C)** RNAscope *in situ* hybridization of *Mtg16* and *Muc2* in WT mouse colon. Scale bar = 50 μm. Goblet cells are outlined in the insets at right. **(D-F)** WT and *Mtg16*^{-/-} mouse colon (n = 10 WT, 9 *Mtg16*^{-/-}) stained for **(D)** goblet cells by periodic acid-Schiff (PAS) stain, **(E)** enteroendocrine cells by IHC for synaptophysin (SYP), and **(F)** tuft cells by IHC for doublecortin-like kinase 1 (DCLK1). Representative images at left. SYP[+] and DCLK1^{+} cells are indicated with white arrows. Scale bars = 100 μm. $^*p < 0.05$, $^{****}p < 0.0001$ by Mann-Whitney test. **(G-H)** Volcano plots demonstrating differentially expressed genes in bulk RNA-seq of colon epithelial isolates from **(G)** proximal (n = 2 WT, 2 *Mtg16*^{-/-}) and **(H)** distal (n = 4 WT, 4 *Mtg16*^{-/-}) mouse colon. Horizontal dashed line indicates $p_{adj} < 0.05$ by DESeq2. Vertical dashed lines indicate fold change = 1.5. Goblet-associated-genes are shown in blue, enteroendocrine (EE)-associated genes are shown in red, and secretory-associated genes are shown in black.

641
642
Figure 2. MTG16 deficiency is associated with increased enteroendocrine cell markers,
reserve stem cell gene signatures, and E protein target upregulation in the distal colon.
(A) Unsupervised hierarchical clustering of differentially expressed genes in distal colon RNA-
seq (n = 4 WT, 4 *Mtg16*^{-/-}). Gene expression in individual samples is displayed by Z-score
(normalized count). Genes of interest are labeled at right. **(B)** GSEA of distal colon RNA-seq
using gene sets representing epithelial cell types, derived from the literature (Table S3). EE,
enteroendocrine. Individual GSEA plots of enteroendocrine and goblet cell signatures displayed
at right. FDR q-value < 0.25 is considered significant. Tag % is defined as the percentage of
gene hits before (for positive enrichment scores) or after (for negative enrichment scores) the
peak in the running enrichment score, indicating the percentage of genes contributing to the
enrichment score. NES, normalized enrichment score. **(C)** GSEA of distal colon RNA-seq using
gene sets representing stem and progenitor cell populations, derived from the literature (Table
S3). **(D)** Staining and quantification of CHGA⁺ cells/crypt (top) stratified by location along the
crypt axis (bottom). Scale bar = 50 μm. n = 10 WT, 9 *Mtg16*^{-/-}. *$p < 0.05$, **$p < 0.01$ by Mann-

Whitney test. **(E)** GSEA of distal colon RNA-seq using MSigDB gene sets representing E protein
and ID protein transcriptional signatures. Individual GSEA plot of the E47 target gene signature
at right.

660
661

Figure 3. MTG16-driven colonic epithelial lineage allocation is dependent on its repression of the E protein transcription factors E2A and HEB. (A) WT and *Mtg16^{T/T}* mouse colon (n = 11 WT, 10 *Mtg16^{T/T}*) stained for **(A)** goblet cells by periodic acid-Schiff (PAS) stain, **(B)** enteroendocrine cells by IHC for synaptophysin (SYP), and **(C)** tuft cells by IHC for doublecortin-like kinase 1 (DCLK1). Representative images at left. Scale bars = 100 μm. *$p <$ 0.05, **$p <$ 0.01 by Mann-Whitney test. **(D-E)** Volcano plots demonstrating differentially expressed genes in bulk RNA-seq of colon epithelial isolates from **(D)** proximal (n = 2 WT, 2 *Mtg16^{T/T}*) and **(E)** distal (n = 4 WT, 4 *Mtg16^{T/T}*) mouse colon. Horizontal dashed line indicates $p_{adj} <$ 0.05 by DESeq2. Vertical dashed lines indicate fold change = 1.5. Goblet-associated-genes are shown in blue, enteroendocrine (EE)-associated genes are shown in red, and secretory-associated ("Sec.-associated") genes are shown in black. Genes that are similarly

dysregulated (upregulated or downregulated in the same direction) in *Mtg16*$^{-/-}$ colonic epithelium
("Dysreg. In *16*$^{-/-}$") are outlined in orange. **(F-G)** GSEA of distal colon RNA-seq using gene sets
derived from the literature to represent epithelial cell types (Table S3). **(H)** GSEA of distal colon
RNA-seq using MSigDB gene sets representing E protein and ID protein transcriptional
signatures. **(F-H)** FDR q-value < 0.25 is considered significant. Tag % is defined as the
percentage of gene hits before (for positive enrichment scores) or after (for negative enrichment
scores) the peak in the running enrichment score, indicating the percentage of genes
contributing to the enrichment score. NES, normalized enrichment score.

Genes up in distal colon	$Mtg16^{-/-}$ vs. WT (Log$_2$FC)	$Mtg16^{T/T}$ vs. WT (Log$_2$FC)	ChIP-seq peak (nearest TSS)?
Agt	1.55	1.29	No
Ces1c	2.77	2.85	No
Dbn1	2.07	0.95	No
Dll3	2.73	2.25	Yes
Dmpk	1.80	1.26	Yes
Gfra3	1.07	0.89	No
Gnao1	1.42	1.20	No
Guca2b	1.14	0.79	Yes
Id4	1.92	1.19	No
Insm1	1.49	0.65	No
Insrr	4.30	3.22	Yes
Kcnh6	1.94	1.17	Yes
Neurog3	**2.35**	**1.09**	**Yes**
Ooep	2.83	2.66	No
Pex5l	2.65	2.02	No
Prss23	2.52	1.59	Yes
Rbp4	1.66	0.88	No
Spon2	2.84	1.93	No
Stxbp1	1.04	0.87	Yes
Syngap1	3.02	3.16	No
Syt13	1.97	0.83	No
Tff3	0.72	0.92	Yes

Figure 4. MTG16 represses E protein-mediated transcription of *Neurog3*. (A) Venn diagram of upregulated (p_{adj} < 0.05) genes from bulk RNA-seq of distal colon crypt isolates (n = 4 WT, 4 *Mtg16$^{-/-}$*, orange; (n = 3 WT, 4 *Mtg16$^{T/T}$*, purple) and genes with transcription start sites (TSS) nearest to MTG16 ChIP-seq peaks[33] (green). **(B)** Table of the 22 genes upregulated in both *Mtg16$^{-/-}$* and *Mtg16$^{T/T}$* colon RNA-seq indicating their log$_2$(fold change) (Log$_2$FC) in each dataset (*Mtg16$^{-/-}$* vs. WT distal colon and *Mtg16$^{T/T}$* vs. WT distal colon) and whether they have a TSS nearest to an MTG16 ChIP-seq peak[33]. A searchable version of this table is provided in Table S4. **(C)** MTG16 occupancy of an E box (5'-CATNNG)-rich region 5' to *Neurog3*[33]. Scale: 0-2. **(D-**

690 **E)** Staining and quantification of *Neurog3*$^+$ cells by RNAscope. **(D)** n = 10 WT, 9 *Mtg16*$^{-/-}$ and **(E)**
691 n = 5 WT, 4 *Mtg16*$^{T/T}$. *p < 0.05, **p < 0.01 by Mann-Whitney test.

Figure 5. *Mtg16* is upregulated in experimental colitis and patients with IBD and is required for ASCL2-mediated colonic epithelial regeneration. (A) *MTG16* expression from an RNA-seq dataset generated from rectal biopsies of treatment-naïve pediatric UC patients (n = 206) vs. unaffected controls (n = 20) in the PROTECT study[70]. Transcript counts were normalized by DESeq2. ****p_{adj} < 0.0001 by DESeq2. **(B)** *MTG16* expression in an RNA-seq dataset from adult UC patients with active disease (n = 14), UC patients in remission (n = 14), and unaffected controls (n = 16)[72]. Transcript counts were normalized by DESeq2. **p_{adj} < 0.01 and ****p_{adj} < 0.0001 by pairwise DESeq2. **(C)** *MTG16* expression in a microarray analysis of

UC (n = 5) and Crohn's colitis (n = 20) patient biopsies compared to unaffected controls (n =
8)[73]. Normalized probe intensity is plotted for visualization purposes. **p_{adj} < 0.01 and ****p_{adj} <
0.0001 by limma in GEO2R. **(A-C)** The lines within each box represent the mean, the bounds of
the boxes represent 25th to 75th %-iles, and the bounds of the whiskers represent the range of
the data. All individual data points are shown. **(D)** Schematic of the DSS injury-repair model in
which mice are treated with 2% DSS for 5 days followed by 4 days of recovery. **(E)** Volcano plot
showing significantly downregulated (blue) and upregulated (red) genes in distal colon crypt
isolates from WT mice following DSS-induced injury and regeneration (n = 3) compared to distal
colon crypt isolates from WT mice at baseline (n = 3). Horizontal dashed line indicates p_{adj} <
0.05 by DESeq2. Vertical dashed lines indicate fold change = 2. *Mtg16* is significantly
upregulated in DSS-induced colitis. **(F)** ASCL2-FLAG occupancy near the *Mtg16* transcription
start site in ChIP-seq data from FACS-sorted *Ascl2*+ regenerating cells[21]. Scale: 0-800. TSS 2,
Transcription Start Site 2. **(G)** GSEA plot demonstrating significant enrichment of 238 genes
upregulated in *Ascl2*+ de-differentiating cells (shown to repopulate the colon crypt stem cell
compartment following injury[21]) in distal colon crypt isolates from WT mice following DSS-
induced injury and regeneration (n = 3) compared to distal colon crypt isolates from WT mice at
baseline (n = 3). FDR q-value < 0.25 is considered significant. **(H-K)** GSEA performed on bulk
RNA-seq of *Mtg16*$^{-/-}$ distal colon crypt isolates following DSS injury-repair (n = 3 WT, 4 *Mtg16*$^{-/-}$).
(H) Summary of GSEA for gene sets showing significant enrichment of multiple gene sets
associated with epithelial regeneration derived from the literature (Table S3), but significant de-
enrichment of the *Ascl2*+ de-differentiating cell signature in the setting of MTG16 deficiency. **(I)**
Individual GSEA plots for DSS-induced colitis regenerative epithelium (left) and *Ascl2*+ de-
differentiating cell signature (right). **(J)** Summary of GSEA for MSigDB gene sets representing E
protein and ID protein transcriptional signatures (Table S3). **(K)** Individual GSEA plot of the E12
target gene signature. **(H-K)** FDR q-value < 0.25 is considered significant. Tag % is defined as
the percentage of gene hits before (for positive enrichment scores) or after (for negative
enrichment scores) the peak in the running enrichment score, indicating the percentage of
genes contributing to the enrichment score. NES, normalized enrichment score.

Figure 6. MTG16-mediated colonic epithelial regeneration is dependent on its repression of E protein transcription factors. (A) Schematic of the DSS injury-repair model in which mice are treated with 2% DSS for 5 days followed by 4 days of recovery. **(B-D)** Colitis severity evaluated using daily weight loss **(B),** colon length **(C)**, and histologic injury score **(Table S2)** assessed by a gastrointestinal pathologist blinded to genotype **(D)**. **(E)** Percent of colon with histologic findings, estimated from the distal end, as a measure of proximal extent of disease. **(B-E)** Data are combined from 2 independent experiments (n = 15 WT, 16 *Mtg16^{T/T}*). **(F)** EdU-positive cells in injury-adjacent, regenerating crypts at the time of sacrifice on day 9 (n = 30-50 crypts from n = 5 WT, 5 *Mtg16^{T/T}* mice). Representative images at left. Dashed white line = ulcerated epithelium. Scale bar = 100 μm. **(B-F)** *p < 0.05, **p < 0.01, ***p < 0.001, ****p < 0.0001 by 2-way ANOVA followed by Sidak's multiple comparison tests **(B)** or Mann-Whitney test **(C-F)**. **(G-H)** GSEA performed on bulk RNA-seq of distal *Mtg16^{T/T}* colon crypt isolates following DSS injury-repair (n = 3 WT, 3 *Mtg16^{T/T}*) (gene sets described in Table S3). **(H)** Individual GSEA plots for DSS-induced colitis regenerative epithelium (top) and *Ascl2^+* de-

744   differentiating cell signature (bottom). **(G-H)** FDR q-value < 0.25 is considered significant. Tag
745   % is defined as the percentage of gene hits before (for positive enrichment scores) or after (for
746   negative enrichment scores) the peak in the running enrichment score, indicating the
747   percentage of genes contributing to the enrichment score. NES, normalized enrichment score.

748
749
Figure 7. MTG16-mediated protection from tumorigenesis is partially dependent on
repression of E protein activity. (A) *MTG16* expression in sporadic CRC (n = 482) compared
to normal colon tissue (n = 41) queried from TCGA data analyzed by Rahman *et al.*[76]. Counts
were normalized by DESeq2. The lines within each box represent the mean, the bounds of the
boxes represent the 25th to 75th %-iles, and the bounds of the whiskers represent the range of

the data. All individual data points are shown. *p_{adj} < 0.05 by DESeq2. **(B)** *MTG16* expression
queried from sporadic CRC (n = 47) and CAC (n = 17) tumors. *MTG16* expression was
normalized by DESeq2 and limma batch correction. The box extends from the lower to upper
quartile values of the data, with a line at the median. The lower whisker is at the lowest datum
above Q1 - 1.5*(Q3-Q1), and the upper whisker at the highest datum below Q3 + 1.5*(Q3-Q1),
where Q1 and Q3 are the first and third quartiles. **(C)** Schematic of the AOM/DSS model in
which mice are injected with AOM followed by 3 cycles of DSS-induced injury and recovery. *i.p.*,
intraperitoneal injection. **(D)** Survival curves compared using Log-rank (Mantel-Cox) test. Data
are pooled from 2 independent experiments with initial n = 45 WT, 38 *Mtg16$^{T/T}$*. **(E)** Weight loss
compared using repeated measures 2-way ANOVA (initial n = 26 WT, 25 *Mtg16$^{T/T}$*),
representative of 2 independent experiments. **(F-O)** Gross and histologic findings following
sacrifice on Day 63, including **(F)** colon length, **(G)** representative images of dissected colon
(red outlines indicate tumors), **(H)** gross tumor multiplicity (tumors/mouse visualized upon
sacrifice), **(I)** histologic tumor multiplicity (tumors/mouse visualized in H&Es), and **(J)** tumor
volume (average mm^3/mouse measured using calipers at sacrifice). **(K)** Individual tumors
graphed by size and distance from anus normalized to colon length (distance from anus/colon
length*100%). **(L)** Average tumor position (distance from anus) per mouse normalized to colon
length. **(M)** Percent of tumors located in the middle and proximal colon (proximal two-thirds
colon) by tumor size divided into quartiles. **(L)** Histologic injury scores (scoring described in
Table S2). **(O)** Percent of tumors in each grade of dysplasia. **(F-O)** Data are pooled from 2
independent experiments with n = 35 WT, 26 *Mtg16$^{T/T}$* remaining at sacrifice. *p < 0.05 by
Mann-Whitney test **(D, F-J, L)**, least-squares regression **(I)**, or Chi-square test **(K, M)**.

References

1. Allaire JM, Crowley SM, Law HT, et al. The Intestinal Epithelium: Central Coordinator of
Mucosal Immunity. Trends Immunol 2018;39:677–696.

2. Kiela PR, Ghishan FK. Physiology of Intestinal Absorption and Secretion. Best Pract Res Clin
Gastroenterology 2016;30:145–159.

3. Beumer J, Clevers H. Cell fate specification and differentiation in the adult mammalian
intestine. Nat Rev Mol Cell Bio 2021;22:39–53.

4. Beumer J, Puschhof J, Bauzá-Martinez J, et al. High-Resolution mRNA and Secretome Atlas
of Human Enteroendocrine Cells. Cell 2020;181:1291-1306.e19.

5. Fothergill LJ, Callaghan B, Hunne B, et al. Costorage of Enteroendocrine Hormones
Evaluated at the Cell and Subcellular Levels in Male Mice. Endocrinology 2017;158:2113–2123.

6. Fothergill LJ, Furness JB. Diversity of enteroendocrine cells investigated at cellular and
subcellular levels: the need for a new classification scheme. Histochem Cell Biol 2018;150:693–
702.

7. Beumer J, Gehart H, Clevers H. Enteroendocrine dynamics – New tools reveal hormonal
plasticity in the gut. Endocr Rev 2020;41:bnaa018-.

8. Yan KS, Gevaert O, Zheng GXY, et al. Intestinal Enteroendocrine Lineage Cells Possess
Homeostatic and Injury-Inducible Stem Cell Activity. Cell Stem Cell 2017;21:78-90.e6.

9. Parikh K, Antanaviciute A, Fawkner-Corbett D, et al. Colonic epithelial cell diversity in health
and inflammatory bowel disease. Nature 2019;567:49–55.

10. Birchenough GMH, Nyström EEL, Johansson MEV, et al. A sentinel goblet cell guards the
colonic crypt by triggering Nlrp6-dependent Muc2 secretion. Science 2016;352:1535–1542.

11. Nyström EEL, Martinez-Abad B, Arike L, et al. An intercrypt subpopulation of goblet cells
is essential for colonic mucus barrier function. Science 2021;372:eabb1590.

12. McCauley HA, Guasch G. Three cheers for the goblet cell: maintaining homeostasis in
mucosal epithelia. Trends Mol Med 2015;21:492–503.

13. Birchenough GMH, Johansson ME, Gustafsson JK, et al. New developments in goblet cell
mucus secretion and function. Mucosal Immunol 2015;8:712–719.

14. Worthington JJ, Reimann F, Gribble FM. Enteroendocrine cells-sensory sentinels of the
intestinal environment and orchestrators of mucosal immunity. Mucosal Immunol 2018;11:3–20.

15. Holst JJ. Enteroendocrine secretion of gut hormones in diabetes, obesity and after bariatric
surgery. Curr Opin Pharmacol 2013;13:983–988.

16. Skibicka KP, Dickson SL. Enteroendocrine hormones—central effects on behavior. Curr
Opin Pharmacol 2013;13:977–982.

17. Yamane S, Inagaki N. Control of intestinal stem cell fate: A novel approach to treating
diabetes. J Diabetes Invest 2016;7:166–168.

18. Aliluev A, Tritschler S, Sterr M, et al. Diet-induced alteration of intestinal stem cell function
underlies obesity and prediabetes in mice. Nat Metabolism 2021;3:1202–1216.

19. Yu Y, Yang W, Li Y, et al. Enteroendocrine Cells: Sensing Gut Microbiota and Regulating
Inflammatory Bowel Diseases. Inflamm Bowel Dis 2019;26:11–20.

20. Kanke M, Kennedy MM, Connelly S, et al. Single-cell analysis of colonic epithelium reveals
unexpected shifts in cellular composition and molecular phenotype in treatment-naïve adult
Crohn's disease. Biorxiv 2021:2021.01.13.426602.

21. Murata K, Jadhav U, Madha S, et al. Ascl2-Dependent Cell Dedifferentiation Drives
Regeneration of Ablated Intestinal Stem Cells. Cell Stem Cell 2020;26:377-390.e6.

22. Jadhav U, Saxena M, O'Neill NK, et al. Dynamic Reorganization of Chromatin Accessibility
Signatures during Dedifferentiation of Secretory Precursors into Lgr5+ Intestinal Stem Cells.
Cell Stem Cell 2017;21:65-77.e5.

23. Liu Y, Chen Y-G. Intestinal epithelial plasticity and regeneration via cell dedifferentiation.
Cell Regen 2020;9:14.

24. Chen B, McKinley ET, Simmons AJ, et al. Human colorectal pre-cancer atlas identifies
distinct molecular programs underlying two major subclasses of pre-malignant tumors. Biorxiv
2021:2021.01.11.426044.

25. Steinauer N, Guo C, Zhang J. Emerging Roles of MTG16 in Cell-Fate Control of
Hematopoietic Stem Cells and Cancer. Stem Cells Int 2017;2017:1--12. Available at:
https://www.hindawi.com/journals/sci/2017/6301385/.

26. Chyla BJ, Moreno-Miralles I, Steapleton MA, et al. Deletion of Mtg16, a Target of t(16;21),
Alters Hematopoietic Progenitor Cell Proliferation and Lineage Allocation ▿ †. Mol Cell Biol
2008;28:6234–6247.

27. Cai Y, Xu Z, Xie J, et al. Eto2/MTG16 and MTGR1 are heteromeric corepressors of the
TAL1/SCL transcription factor in murine erythroid progenitors. Biochem Bioph Res Co
2009;390:295--301. Available at: http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/19799863
http://www.pubmedcentral.nih.gov/articlerender.fcgi?artid=PMC2774815
http://linkinghub.elsevier.com/retrieve/pii/S0006291X09019287.

28. Ghosh HS, Liu K, Hiebert S, et al. Eto2/MTG16 Regulates E-Protein Activity and Subset
Specification in Dendritic Cell Development. Blood 2012;120:1229–1229.

29. Engel ME, Nguyen HN, Mariotti J, et al. Myeloid translocation gene 16 (MTG16) interacts
with Notch transcription complex components to integrate Notch signaling in hematopoietic cell
fate specification. Mol Cell Biol 2010;30:1852--63. Available at:
http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/20123979
http://www.pubmedcentral.nih.gov/articlerender.fcgi?artid=PMC2838074.

30. Gelmetti V, Zhang J, Fanelli M, et al. Aberrant recruitment of the nuclear receptor
corepressor-histone deacetylase complex by the acute myeloid leukemia fusion partner ETO.
Mol Cell Biol 1998;18:7185--91. Available at: http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/9819405
http://www.pubmedcentral.nih.gov/articlerender.fcgi?artid=PMC109300.

31. Wang J, Hoshino T, Redner RL, et al. ETO, fusion partner in t(8;21) acute myeloid leukemia,
represses transcription by interaction with the human N-CoR/mSin3/HDAC1 complex. Proc
National Acad Sci 1998;95:10860--10865. Available at:
http://www.pnas.org/cgi/doi/10.1073/pnas.95.18.10860.

32. Moore AC, Amann JM, Williams CS, et al. Myeloid Translocation Gene Family Members
Associate with T-Cell Factors (TCFs) and Influence TCF-Dependent Transcription. Mol Cell
Biol 2007;28:977–987. Available at: http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/18039847
http://www.pubmedcentral.nih.gov/articlerender.fcgi?artid=PMC2223385.

33. Baulies A, Angelis N, Foglizzo V, et al. The Transcription co-Repressors MTG8 and MTG16
Regulate Exit of Intestinal Stem Cells From Their Niche and Differentiation into Enterocyte vs
Secretory Lineages. Gastroenterology 2020;159:1328-1341.e3.

34. Williams CS, Bradley AM, Chaturvedi R, et al. MTG16 contributes to colonic epithelial
integrity in experimental colitis. Gut 2013;62:1446--55. Available at:
http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/22833394
http://www.pubmedcentral.nih.gov/articlerender.fcgi?artid=PMC3663894.

35. McDonough EM, Barrett CW, Parang B, et al. MTG16 is a tumor suppressor in colitis-
associated carcinoma. Jci Insight 2017;2. Available at:
http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/28814670
http://www.pubmedcentral.nih.gov/articlerender.fcgi?artid=PMC5621889.

36. Short SP, Barrett CW, Stengel KR, et al. Kaiso is required for MTG16-dependent effects on
colitis-associated carcinoma. Oncogene 2019;38:5091–5106.

37. Hunt A, Fischer M, Engel ME, et al. Mtg16/Eto2 contributes to murine T-cell development.
Mol Cell Biol 2011;31:2544--51. Available at: http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/21536648
http://www.pubmedcentral.nih.gov/articlerender.fcgi?artid=PMC3133377.

38. Acharya P, Sampathi S, Flaherty DK, et al. Mtg16-dependent repression of E protein activity
is required for early lymphopoiesis. Biorxiv 2020:2020.07.24.220525.

39. Ghosh HS, Ceribelli M, Matos I, et al. ETO family protein Mtg16 regulates the balance of
dendritic cell subsets by repressing Id2. J Exp Medicine 2014;211:1623--35. Available at:
http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/24980046
http://www.pubmedcentral.nih.gov/articlerender.fcgi?artid=PMC4113936.

40. Wang L-H, Baker NE. E Proteins and ID Proteins: Helix-Loop-Helix Partners in
Development and Disease. Dev Cell 2015;35:269--280. Available at:
https://linkinghub.elsevier.com/retrieve/pii/S153458071500684X.

41. Slattery C, Ryan MP, McMorrow T. E2A proteins: Regulators of cell phenotype in normal
physiology and disease. Int J Biochem Cell Biology 2008;40:1431–1436.

42. Peng V, Georgescu C, Bakowska A, et al. E proteins orchestrate dynamic transcriptional
cascades implicated in the suppression of the differentiation of group 2 innate lymphoid cells. J
Biol Chem 2020;295:14866–14877.

43. Zhuang Y, Cheng P, Weintraub H. B-lymphocyte development is regulated by the combined
dosage of three basic helix-loop-helix genes, E2A, E2-2, and HEB. Mol Cell Biol 1996;16:2898–
2905.

44. Cisse B, Caton ML, Lehner M, et al. Transcription Factor E2-2 Is an Essential and Specific
Regulator of Plasmacytoid Dendritic Cell Development. Cell 2008;135:37–48.

45. Beck K, Peak MM, Ota T, et al. Distinct roles for E12 and E47 in B cell specification and the
sequential rearrangement of immunoglobulin light chain loci. J Exp Med 2009;206:2271–2284.

46. Bhattacharya A, Baker NE. A Network of Broadly Expressed HLH Genes Regulates Tissue-
Specific Cell Fates. Cell 2011;147:881–892.

47. Dréau GL, Escalona R, Fueyo R, et al. E proteins sharpen neurogenesis by modulating
proneural bHLH transcription factors' activity in an E-box-dependent manner. Elife
2018;7:e37267.

48. Bouderlique T, Peña-Pérez L, Kharazi S, et al. The Concerted Action of E2-2 and HEB Is
Critical for Early Lymphoid Specification. Front Immunol 2019;10:455.

49. Rao C, Malaguti M, Mason JO, et al. The transcription factor E2A drives neural
differentiation in pluripotent cells. Development 2020;147:dev.184093.

50. Rozenblatt-Rosen O, Regev A, Oberdoerffer P, et al. The Human Tumor Atlas Network:
Charting Tumor Transitions across Space and Time at Single-Cell Resolution. Cell
2020;181:236–249.

51. Herring CA, Banerjee A, McKinley ET, et al. Unsupervised Trajectory Analysis of Single-
Cell RNA-Seq and Imaging Data Reveals Alternative Tuft Cell Origins in the Gut. Cell Syst
2018;6:37-51.e9.

52. Liu Q, Herring CA, Sheng Q, et al. Quantitative assessment of cell population diversity in
single-cell landscapes. Plos Biol 2018;16:e2006687.

53. Banerjee A, Herring CA, Chen B, et al. Succinate Produced by Intestinal Microbes Promotes
Specification of Tuft Cells to Suppress Ileal Inflammation. Gastroenterology 2020;159:2101-
2115.e5.

54. Edgar R, Domrachev M, Lash AE. Gene Expression Omnibus: NCBI gene expression and
hybridization array data repository. Nucleic Acids Res 2002;30:207–210.

55. Barrett T, Wilhite SE, Ledoux P, et al. NCBI GEO: archive for functional genomics data
sets—update. Nucleic Acids Res 2013;41:D991–D995.

56. Wang F, Flanagan J, Su N, et al. Technical Advance RNAscope A Novel in Situ RNA
Analysis Platform for Formalin-Fixed, Paraffin-Embedded Tissues. J Mol Diagnostics
2012;14:22--29. Available at:
https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC3338343/pdf/main.pdf.

57. Whittem CG, Williams AD, Williams CS. Murine Colitis Modeling using Dextran Sulfate
Sodium (DSS). J Vis Exp Jove 2010:1652.

58. Faustino-Rocha A, Oliveira PA, Pinho-Oliveira J, et al. Estimation of rat mammary tumor
volume using caliper and ultrasonography measurements. Lab Animal 2013;42:217–224.

59. Boivin GP, Washington K, Yang K, et al. Pathology of mouse models of intestinal cancer:
Consensus report and recommendations. Gastroenterology 2003;124:762–777.

60. Chen S, Zhou Y, Chen Y, et al. fastp: an ultra-fast all-in-one FASTQ preprocessor.
Bioinformatics 2018;34:i884–i890.

61. Patro R, Duggal G, Love MI, et al. Salmon: fast and bias-aware quantification of transcript
expression using dual-phase inference. Nat Methods 2017;14:417–419.

62. Frankish A, Diekhans M, Ferreira A-M, et al. GENCODE reference annotation for the
human and mouse genomes. Nucleic Acids Res 2018;47:gky955-.

63. Anon. RNA-seq workflow: gene-level exploratory analysis and differential expression.
Available at:
https://www.bioconductor.org/packages/devel/workflows/vignettes/rnaseqGene/inst/doc/rnaseqG
ene.html [Accessed February 5, 2021].

64. Love MI, Soneson C, Hickey PF, et al. Tximeta: Reference sequence checksums for
provenance identification in RNA-seq. Plos Comput Biol 2020;16:e1007664.

65. Love MI, Huber W, Anders S. Moderated estimation of fold change and dispersion for RNA-
seq data with DESeq2. Genome Biol 2014;15:550.

66. H P, M C, S F, et al. Bioconductor - AnnotationDbi. AnnotationDbi: Manipulation of
SQLite-based annotations in Bioconductor R package version 1541 2021. Available at:
https://bioconductor.org/packages/release/bioc/html/AnnotationDbi.

67. Subramanian A, Tamayo P, Mootha VK, et al. Gene set enrichment analysis: A knowledge-
based approach for interpreting genome-wide expression profiles. P Natl Acad Sci Usa
2005;102:15545–15550.

68. Liberzon A, Subramanian A, Pinchback R, et al. Molecular signatures database (MSigDB)
3.0. Bioinformatics 2011;27:1739–1740.

69. Thorvaldsdóttir H, Robinson JT, Mesirov JP. Integrative Genomics Viewer (IGV): high-
performance genomics data visualization and exploration. Brief Bioinform 2013;14:178–192.

70. Hyams JS, Thomas SD, Gotman N, et al. Clinical and biological predictors of response to
standardised paediatric colitis therapy (PROTECT): a multicentre inception cohort study. Lancet
2019;393:1708–1720.

71. Haberman Y, Karns R, Dexheimer PJ, et al. Ulcerative colitis mucosal transcriptomes reveal
mitochondriopathy and personalized mechanisms underlying disease severity and treatment
response. Nat Commun 2019;10:38.

72. Fenton CG, Taman H, Florholmen J, et al. Transcriptional Signatures That Define Ulcerative
Colitis in Remission. Inflamm Bowel Dis 2020;27:94–105.

73. Carey R, Jurickova I, Ballard E, et al. Activation of an IL-6:STAT3-dependent transcriptome
in pediatric-onset inflammatory bowel disease. Inflamm Bowel Dis 2008;14:446–457.

74. Chang K, Creighton CJ, Davis C, et al. The Cancer Genome Atlas Pan-Cancer analysis
project. Nat Genet 2013;45:1113–1120.

75. Hoadley KA, Yau C, Hinoue T, et al. Cell-of-Origin Patterns Dominate the Molecular
Classification of 10,000 Tumors from 33 Types of Cancer. Cell 2018;173:291-304.e6.

76. Rahman M, Jackson LK, Johnson WE, et al. Alternative preprocessing of RNA-Sequencing
data in The Cancer Genome Atlas leads to improved analysis results. Bioinformatics
2015;31:3666–3672.

77. Rajamäki K, Taira A, Katainen R, et al. Genetic and epigenetic characteristics of
inflammatory bowel disease associated colorectal cancer. Gastroenterology 2021.

78. Ritchie ME, Phipson B, Wu D, et al. limma powers differential expression analyses for
RNA-sequencing and microarray studies. Nucleic Acids Res 2015;43:e47–e47.

79. Goardon N, Lambert JA, Rodriguez P, et al. ETO2 coordinates cellular proliferation and
differentiation during erythropoiesis. Embo J 2006;25:357–366.

80. Steinauer N, Guo C, Zhang J. The transcriptional corepressor CBFA2T3 inhibits all-trans-
retinoic acid–induced myeloid gene expression and differentiation in acute myeloid leukemia
EDITORS' PICK: CBFA2T3 inhibits ATRA-mediated myeloid maturation. J Biol Chem
2020;295:8887–8900.

81. Poindexter SV, Reddy VK, Mittal MK, et al. Transcriptional corepressor MTG16 regulates
small intestinal crypt proliferation and crypt regeneration after radiation-induced injury. Am J
Physiol-gastr L 2015;308:G562--71. Available at:
http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/25573176
http://www.pubmedcentral.nih.gov/articlerender.fcgi?artid=PMC4360050.

82. Gunawardene AR, Corfe BM, Staton CA. Classification and functions of enteroendocrine
cells of the lower gastrointestinal tract. Int J Exp Pathol 2011;92:219–231.

83. Akiyama S, Mochizuki W, Nibe Y, et al. CCN3 Expression Marks a Sulfomucin-
nonproducing Unique Subset of Colonic Goblet Cells in Mice. Acta Histochem Cytoc
2017;50:17027.

84. Billing LJ, Larraufie P, Lewis J, et al. Single cell transcriptomic profiling of large intestinal
enteroendocrine cells in mice – Identification of selective stimuli for insulin-like peptide-5 and
glucagon-like peptide-1 co-expressing cells. Mol Metab 2019;29:158–169.

85. Schaum N, Karkanias J, Neff NF, et al. Single-cell transcriptomics of 20 mouse organs
creates a Tabula Muris. Nature 2018;562:367–372.

86. Gehart H, Es JH van, Hamer K, et al. Identification of Enteroendocrine Regulators by Real-
Time Single-Cell Differentiation Mapping. Cell 2019;176:1158-1173.e16.

87. Flier LG van der, Gijn ME van, Hatzis P, et al. Transcription Factor Achaete Scute-Like 2
Controls Intestinal Stem Cell Fate. Cell 2009;136:903–912.

88. Wice BM, Gordon JI. Forced Expression of Id-1 in the Adult Mouse Small Intestinal
Epithelium Is Associated with Development of Adenomas*. J Biol Chem 1998;273:25310–
25319.

89. O'Brien CA, Kreso A, Ryan P, et al. ID1 and ID3 Regulate the Self-Renewal Capacity
of Human Colon Cancer-Initiating Cells through p21. Cancer Cell 2012;21:777–792.

90. Zhang N, Yantiss RK, Nam H, et al. ID1 Is a Functional Marker for Intestinal Stem and
Progenitor Cells Required for Normal Response to Injury. Stem Cell Rep 2014;3:716–724.

91. Biyajima K, Kakizaki F, Shen X, et al. Id2 deletion attenuates Apc-deficient ileal tumor
formation. Biol Open 2015;4:993–1001.

92. Zhang N, Subbaramaiah K, Yantiss RK, et al. Id1 Deficiency Protects against Tumor
Formation in ApcMin/+ Mice but Not in a Mouse Model of Colitis-Associated Colon Cancer.
Cancer Prev Res 2015;8:303–311.

93. Rockman SP, Currie SA, Ciavarella M, et al. Id2 Is a Target of the β-Catenin/T Cell Factor
Pathway in Colon Carcinoma*. J Biol Chem 2001;276:45113–45119.

94. Khaloian S, Rath E, Hammoudi N, et al. Mitochondrial impairment drives intestinal stem cell
transition into dysfunctional Paneth cells predicting Crohn's disease recurrence. Gut
2020;69:1939–1951.

95. Gersemann M, Becker S, Kübler I, et al. Differences in goblet cell differentiation between
Crohn's disease and ulcerative colitis. Differentiation 2009;77:84–94.

96. Sünderhauf A, Hicken M, Schlichting H, et al. Loss of mucosal p32/gC1qR/HABP1 triggers
energy deficiency and impairs goblet cell differentiation in ulcerative colitis. Cell Mol
Gastroenterology Hepatology 2021.

97. Treveil A, Sudhakar P, Matthews ZJ, et al. Regulatory network analysis of Paneth cell and
goblet cell enriched gut organoids using transcriptomics approaches. Mol Omics 2019;16:39–58.

98. Perse M, Cerar A. Dextran Sodium Sulphate Colitis Mouse Model: Traps and Tricks. J
Biomed Biotechnol 2012;2012:1--13. Available at:
http://www.hindawi.com/journals/bmri/2012/718617/.

99. Dieleman, Palmen, Akol, et al. Chronic experimental colitis induced by dextran sulphate
sodium (DSS) is characterized by Th1 and Th2 cytokines. Clin Exp Immunol 1998;114:385–391.

100. Rajamäki K, Taira A, Katainen R, et al. Genetic and epigenetic characteristics of
inflammatory bowel disease associated colorectal cancer. Gastroenterology 2021.

101. Andrews N, Serviss JT, Geyer N, et al. An unsupervised method for physical cell
interaction profiling of complex tissues. Nat Methods 2021;18:912–920.

102. Schonhoff SE, Giel-Moloney M, Leiter AB. Neurogenin 3-expressing progenitor cells in the
gastrointestinal tract differentiate into both endocrine and non-endocrine cell types. Dev Biol
2004;270:443–454.

103. Wang Y, Song W, Wang J, et al. Single-cell transcriptome analysis reveals differential
nutrient absorption functions in human intestine. J Exp Med 2019;217:e20191130.

104. Jenny M, Uhl C, Roche C, et al. Neurogenin3 is differentially required for endocrine cell
fate specification in the intestinal and gastric epithelium. Embo J 2002;21:6338–6347.

105. López-Díaz L, Jain RN, Keeley TM, et al. Intestinal Neurogenin 3 directs differentiation of
a bipotential secretory progenitor to endocrine cell rather than goblet cell fate. Dev Biol
2007;309:298–305.

106. Li HJ, Ray SK, Kucukural A, et al. Reduced Neurog3 Gene Dosage Shifts Enteroendocrine
Progenitor Towards Goblet Cell Lineage in the Mouse Intestine. Cell Mol Gastroenterology
Hepatology 2020.

107. Li HJ, Ray SK, Singh NK, et al. Basic helix-loop-helix transcription factors and
enteroendocrine cell differentiation. Diabetes Obes Metabolism 2011;13:5–12.

108. Hartenstein V, Takashima S, Hartenstein P, et al. bHLH proneural genes as cell fate
determinants of entero-endocrine cells, an evolutionarily conserved lineage sharing a common
root with sensory neurons. Dev Biol 2017;431:36–47.

109. Huang H-P, Liu M, El-Hodiri HM, et al. Regulation of the Pancreatic Islet-Specific
GeneBETA2 (neuroD) by Neurogenin 3. Mol Cell Biol 2000;20:3292–3307.

110. Longo A, Guanga GP, Rose RB. Crystal Structure of E47−NeuroD1/Beta2 bHLH
Domain−DNA Complex: Heterodimer Selectivity and DNA Recognition † , ‡. Biochemistry-us
2008;47:218–229.

111. Fujiwara T, O'Geen H, Keles S, et al. Discovering Hematopoietic Mechanisms through
Genome-wide Analysis of GATA Factor Chromatin Occupancy. Mol Cell 2009;36:667–681.

112. Yang Y, Mlodzik M. Wnt-Frizzled/Planar Cell Polarity Signaling: Cellular Orientation by
Facing the Wind (Wnt). Annu Rev Cell Dev Bi 2015;31:623–646.

113. Böttcher A, Büttner M, Tritschler S, et al. Non-canonical Wnt/PCP signalling regulates
intestinal stem cell lineage priming towards enteroendocrine and Paneth cell fates. Nat Cell Biol
2021;23:23–31.

114. Rees WD, Tandun R, Yau E, et al. Regenerative Intestinal Stem Cells Induced by Acute and
Chronic Injury: The Saving Grace of the Epithelium? Frontiers Cell Dev Biology
2020;8:583919.

115. Shivdasani RA, Clevers H, Sauvage FJ de. Tissue regeneration: Reserve or reverse? Science
2021;371:784–786.

116. Ayyaz A, Kumar S, Sangiorgi B, et al. Single-cell transcriptomes of the regenerating
intestine reveal a revival stem cell. Nature 2019;569:121–125.

117. Beumer J, Clevers H. Regulation and plasticity of intestinal stem cells during homeostasis
and regeneration. Development 2016;143:3639–3649.

118. Vega PN, Lau KS, Goldenring JR. Not All Insults Are Created Equal for Awakening
Dormant Stem Cell Abilities. Cell Mol Gastroenterology Hepatology 2019;7:619–621.

119. Leedham SJ. Reserving the Right to Change the Intestinal Stem Cell Model. Cell Stem Cell
2020;26:301–302.

120. Yui S, Azzolin L, Maimets M, et al. YAP/TAZ-Dependent Reprogramming of Colonic
Epithelium Links ECM Remodeling to Tissue Regeneration. Cell Stem Cell 2018;22:35-49.e7.

121. Qu M, Xiong L, Lyu Y, et al. Establishment of intestinal organoid cultures modeling injury-
associated epithelial regeneration. Cell Res 2021:1–13.

122. Lee C-C, Chen W-S, Chen C-C, et al. TCF12 Protein Functions as Transcriptional
Repressor of E-cadherin, and Its Overexpression Is Correlated with Metastasis of Colorectal
Cancer*. J Biol Chem 2012;287:2798–2809.

123. Zhao H, Huang A, Li P, et al. E2A suppresses invasion and migration by targeting YAP in
colorectal cancer cells. J Transl Med 2013;11:317.