Title

Intestinal transit amplifying cells require METTL3 for growth factor signaling, KRAS expression, and cell survival

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Abstract

Intestinal epithelial transit amplifying cells are essential stem progenitors required for intestinal homeostasis, but their rapid proliferation renders them vulnerable to DNA damage from radiation and chemotherapy. Despite their critical roles in intestinal homeostasis and disease, few studies have described genes that are essential to transit amplifying cell function. We report that the RNA methyltransferase, METTL3, is required for survival of transit amplifying cells in the murine small intestine. Transit amplifying cell death after METTL3 deletion was associated with crypt and villus atrophy, loss of absorptive enterocytes, and uniform wasting and death in METTL3-depleted mice. Ribosome profiling and sequencing of methylated RNAs in enteroids and *in vivo* demonstrated decreased translation of hundreds of unique methylated transcripts after METTL3 deletion, particularly transcripts involved in growth factor signal transduction such as *Kras*. Further investigation confirmed a novel relationship between METTL3 and *Kras* methylation and protein levels *in vivo*. Our study identifies METTL3 as an essential factor supporting the homeostasis of small intestinal tissue via direct maintenance of transit amplifying cell survival. We highlight the crucial role of RNA modifications in regulating growth factor signaling in the intestine, with important implications for both homeostatic tissue renewal and epithelial regeneration.

MAIN TEXT

Introduction

The intestinal epithelium digests and absorbs nutrients, protects against pathogen invasion, and regulates interactions between mucosal immune cells and the gut lumen (1). These essential functions are made possible by the continuous renewal of differentiated intestinal epithelial cells (2). Epithelial renewal begins at the intestinal crypt base, where intestinal stem cells expressing the Wnt target gene, LGR5, initiate differentiation and migrate up the crypt wall. As they move up the crypt wall, LGR5+ stem cells differentiate into intestinal stem progenitors known as transit amplifying (TA) cells (2). TA cells rapidly undergo successive cycles of proliferation to generate the bulk of intestinal epithelium. While existing research emphasizes the role of LGR5+ stem cells in tissue renewal, TA cells are the primary site of intestinal

epithelial proliferation and differentiation, and they produce the majority of differentiated epithelium (3, 4).

Rapid proliferation is the central defining feature of TA cells, and it renders them particularly vulnerable to

DNA damaging agents such as chemotherapeutics and radiation therapy (5–7). These routine cancer

treatments cause chemotherapy-induced gastrointestinal toxicity (CIGT) and radiation induced

gastrointestinal syndrome (GIS). CIGT and GIS together affect >80% of cancer patients. They are

debilitating pathologies with limited treatment options (8–10). One potential therapeutic avenue would be

the development of drugs that protect the TA cells preferentially damaged by these common cancer

therapies. However, despite their critical roles in intestinal homeostasis and disease, factors that maintain

survival and proliferation of TA cells remain inadequately defined compared to the extensive study of

LGR5+ stem cells.

Novel approaches are needed to identify factors that specifically regulate TA cell function. While

numerous studies have defined transcriptional control of intestinal stem cells, post-transcriptional regulation

of intestinal epithelial homeostasis is only beginning to be understood. Recent research points to important

roles for the RNA modification, N6-methyladenosine (m^6A), in intestinal crypts (11–15). N6-

methyladenosine is the most common covalent modification of RNA, occurring on approximately 25% of

mRNA transcripts (16, 17). It acts by recruiting RNA-binding proteins that affect mRNA fate, predominantly

stability and translation. (18). Global m^6A methylation patterns in the epithelium can shift with microbial and

nutrient contents of the gut and m^6A-binding proteins have been implicated in intestinal regeneration and

the pathogenesis of inflammatory bowel disease (IBD) (11, 13, 15, 19, 20). These studies suggest critical

roles for m^6A in integrating environmental cues with homeostatic and regenerative processes in the

intestinal epithelium.

Despite advances in the study of m^6A in the gut, the effect of global depletion of m^6A in the intestinal

epithelium remains unclear and contradictory. A highly conserved m^6A "writer" complex installs m^6A co-

transcriptionally in the nucleus of eukaryotic cells. At the core of this complex are the writer proteins

Methyltransferase-like 3 and 14 (METTL3 and METTL14) (18). Although METTL3 is the catalytic subunit,

both METTL3 and METTL14 are thought to be essential for the methylating activity of the complex (21, 22),

and both METTL proteins are deleted interchangeably to define the role of m^6A in specific tissue or cell

types. Recent studies reported essential functions for METTL14 in the survival of LGR5+ stem cells in the

colon, but not the small intestine (23, 24). In contrast, another study found that METTL3 deletion caused

defects in LGR5+ stem cells in the small intestine (25). However, in the case of METTL3 deletion, rescue

of LGR5+ stem cell survival could not rescue tissue homeostasis. Therefore, the primary defect in METTL3-

depleted epithelium remains unclear.

In contrast to previous reports emphasizing dysfunction of LGR5+ stem cells, we found that

METTL3 deletion induced profound cell death predominantly in small intestinal transit amplifying cells.

Disruption of the TA zone was associated with crypt and villus atrophy and widespread reduction in

absorptive enterocytes, ultimately resulting in the death of METTL3-depleted mice. Sequencing of m^6A-

modified RNA *in vivo* and ribosome profiling in METTL3-depleted enteroids revealed decreased translation

efficiency of methylated transcripts critical to growth factor signaling, including master growth regulator and

proto-oncogene, *Kras*. Additional investigation confirmed a novel link between METTL3 and *Kras*

methylation and protein expression. Our data identify METTL3 as an essential regulator of intestinal transit

amplifying cell survival via direct support of growth factor signaling and KRAS expression. By identifying

epitranscriptomic regulation as an indispensable process within TA cells, we highlight a novel gene

regulatory mechanism in this critical but poorly understood cell type.

Results

Intestinal epithelial METTL3 deletion results in complete growth failure and mortality

To determine the role of METTL3 in intestinal epithelial development and homeostasis, we paired

Mettl3$^{flox/flox}$ mice with the pan-intestinal-epithelial *Villin*-Cre (*Mettl3*$^{VilCreΔ/Δ}$) or its tamoxifen inducible

counterpart, *Villin-CreERT2* (inducible *Mettl3*$^{VilCreERΔ/Δ}$). First, we examined *Mettl3*$^{VilCreΔ/Δ}$ mice, which had

constitutive Cre activation in the small intestinal and colonic epithelium beginning at embryonic day 12.5

(26). These mice were born with Mendelian distribution (X^2 n=79 p>0.85) and appeared grossly normal at

postnatal day 14, as previously described (27). However, from postnatal day 21 to 28, *Mettl3*$^{VilCreΔ/Δ}$ mice

lost ~20% starting body weight while controls gained ~40% (Figure 1A). Body condition and weight loss in

Mettl3$^{VilCreΔ/Δ}$ mice required euthanasia of 70% of mice between postnatal day 16-29 (Figure 1, B-D). To

determine whether this phenotype was development-specific, we next examined inducible *Mettl3$^{VilCreERΔ/Δ}$*

mice injected with tamoxifen at 8 weeks of age (Figure 2A). After their final tamoxifen injection, inducible

Mettl3$^{VilCreERΔ/Δ}$ mice exhibited an average daily weight loss of ~2.5% (Figure 2B). Within 10 days, almost

all mice experienced critical (>20%) weight loss requiring euthanasia (Figure 2, B and C). These data

demonstrate a requirement of METTL3 for growth and survival during the postnatal period and adulthood.

METTL3 deletion induces small intestinal crypt and villus atrophy

We next examined the intestinal pathology of *Mettl3$^{VilCreΔ/Δ}$* and inducible *Mettl3$^{VilCreERΔ/Δ}$* mice to

determine the cause of their severe growth failure and mortality. Western blot, *in situ* staining, and m^{6}A dot

blot confirmed depletion of METTL3 and m^{6}A in the intestinal epithelium (Supplemental Figure 1, A-C, and

Supplemental Figure 2, A and B). Using a composite histopathological score in both METTL3 knockout

models, we noted severe small intestinal defects defined by widespread crypt atrophy alongside villus

shortening (Figure 1, E-G, and Figure 2, D-F). We also noted occasional hypertrophic regenerative crypts

(Figure 1E and Figure 2D). Although defects were most severe in the distal small intestine, we observed

histological changes from the proximal small intestine to the proximal colon. The distal colon was relatively

spared (Figure 1, H and I, and Figure 2, G-I). Since METTL3 and METTL14 knockouts are generally

considered equivalent, our findings were striking and unexpected given previous studies indicating

METTL14 deletion induces severe distal colonic defects but spares the small intestine (23, 24). These data

demonstrate that intestinal epithelial METTL3 is required for both the postnatal development and adult

maintenance of full-length crypt and villus structures, particularly in the distal small intestine.

METTL3 is required for intestinal epithelial proliferation and survival

To determine the origins of crypt and villus atrophy, we next evaluated proliferation and apoptosis

in *Mettl3$^{VilCreΔ/Δ}$* and inducible *Mettl3$^{VilCreERΔ/Δ}$* mice. Since histological changes were most severe in the distal

small intestine, we focused on Ki67 and TUNEL staining in this tissue. In METTL3 knockout epithelium,

atrophied crypts previously observed by H&E exhibited drastically reduced Ki67 staining. Where control

crypts had an average of ~30 Ki67+ cells/crypt, METTL3 depleted crypts often exhibited fewer than 10

Ki67+ cells (Figure 1, J and K, and Figure 2, N and O). We also observed some hyperproliferative crypts in

both deletion models (>45 Ki67+ cells), although in inducible $Mettl3^{VilCreER\Delta/\Delta}$ mice, these were frequently

METTL3+ by immunofluorescence (Supplemental Figure 2C). We also identified a >10-fold increase in the

mean number of TUNEL positive cells in both $Mettl3^{VilCre\Delta/\Delta}$ and inducible $Mettl3^{VilCreER\Delta/\Delta}$ mice,

demonstrating extensive cell death throughout the villus and crypt (Figure 1L and Figure 2P). These data

suggest that both disrupted proliferation and cell survival contributed to epithelial defects in $Mettl3^{VilCre\Delta/\Delta}$

and inducible $Mettl3^{VilCreER\Delta/\Delta}$ mice.

METTL3 is required for absorptive enterocyte maturation

To evaluate etiologies of weight loss and epithelial distortion in METTL3 knockout mice, we

examined the distribution of differentiated epithelial cells. The differentiated intestinal epithelium comprises

secretory and absorptive lineages, which both play essential roles in intestinal homeostasis. Secretory cell

depletion can promote epithelial defects due to important roles in producing mucus, antimicrobial

compounds, and stem cell niche factors (28, 29). However, even in areas of severe epithelial distortion, we

observed maintenance of MUC2+ goblet cells with only minor, inconsistent reductions in LYZ+ Paneth cells

and CHGA+ enteroendocrine cells (Figure 1, M-O, and Figure 2, J-L). Alcian blue staining corroborated

these findings by indicating mucus production was also maintained in the small intestine, though we did

observe reductions in mucus in the proximal colon (Supplemental Figures 1D and 2D). In contrast to modest

changes in secretory lineages, we observed a ~50% decrease in alkaline phosphatase staining in the distal

small intestine of both $Mettl3^{VilCre\Delta/\Delta}$ mice and inducible $Mettl3^{VilCreER\Delta/\Delta}$ mice compared to controls,

suggesting dramatic loss of absorptive enterocytes (Figure 1P and Figure 2M). This effect was strongest in

areas of severe villus shortening, where we observed almost no alkaline phosphatase staining. Taken

together, we find general maintenance of secretory cells but a dramatic reduction in mature absorptive

enterocytes in $Mettl3^{VilCre\Delta/\Delta}$ mice and inducible $Mettl3^{VilCreER\Delta/\Delta}$ mice. We propose that the resulting loss of

absorptive capacity may underlie wasting in these knockout mice.

Alternative METTL3 deletion recapitulates small intestinal defects

We performed the above experiments in inducible *Mettl3^VilCreERΔ/Δ* mice using *loxP* sites spanning

nine exons of the *Mettl3* locus (Supplemental Figure 3A) (30). This large deletion resulted in some reduction

of recombination efficiency in the distal colon and to a lesser degree, the small intestine (Supplemental

Figure 2, B and C). We were also surprised to identify a small intestinal defect after METTL3 deletion

because previously described METTL14 deletion produces no small intestinal phenotype (23, 24). To

address these concerns, we tested a second METTL3 deletion model with *LoxP* sites spanning only exon

4 (*Mettl3^VilCreERΔ2/Δ2*, Supplemental Figure 3B) (31). Inducible *Mettl3^VilCreERΔ2/Δ2* mice demonstrated efficient

deletion of METTL3 in all targeted tissues (Supplemental Figure 3C). In this additional model, we confirmed

rapid weight loss and mortality, hypo- and hyper-plastic crypts, preservation of secretory goblet and Paneth

cells, and absent distal colonic defects (Supplemental Figure 3, D to G). These data further support the

conclusion that METTL3 is essential for small intestinal homeostasis.

Intestinal defects with METTL3 deletion are independent of intestinal microbiota

Microbial translocation and inflammatory activation are common causes of morbidity and mortality

in mice with intestinal epithelial defects. We therefore examined sera of inducible *Mettl3^VilCreERΔ/Δ* mice for

elevated inflammatory cytokines. Intriguingly, there was no significant difference in serum cytokine markers

TNF-α, IL-6, IL-1α, IL-1β, IL-10, IL-12 or IFN-γ in *Mettl3^VilCreERΔ/Δ* mice compared to controls (Figure 3A).

Additionally, spleen size—often positively correlated with degree of whole-body inflammation—was

reduced (Figure 3B), and small intestine and colon lengths—often reduced in inflammatory conditions—

were unchanged (Figure 3, C and D). Taken together, these data suggested a non-inflammatory etiology

to morbidity and mortality in *Mettl3^VilCreERΔ/Δ* mice.

Despite no overt inflammatory pathology, the contribution of facility-specific microbiota is a common

concern in the evaluation of intestinal phenotypes. We also questioned whether the microbiota contributed

to the surprising difference in small intestinal phenotypes between METTL3 and previously described

METTL14 knockout intestinal epithelium (23, 24). Therefore, we depleted the microbiota in *Mettl3*[VilCreERΔ/Δ]

mice by adding an antibiotic cocktail to their drinking water beginning one week before tamoxifen injection

(Figure 3E). Quantitative PCR of genomic 16s rRNA confirmed ~1000-fold depletion of luminal bacteria

(Figure 3F). There was no change in weight loss or mortality in microbiota depleted *Mettl3*[VilCreERΔ/Δ] mice

compared to those on normal drinking water (Figure 3, G and H). Histological abnormalities also persisted

in microbiota depleted *Mettl3*[VilCreERΔ/Δ] mice (Figure 3I). Taken together, these data suggest minimal

contribution of inflammation or microbiota to the gross and histological defects seen in *Mettl3*[VilCreERΔ/Δ] mice.

Rather, they further support a model in which loss of absorptive enterocytes diminishes digestive capacity

leading to weight loss and mortality in these mice.

METTL3 deletion immediately triggers transit amplifying cell death

Inducible *Mettl3*[VilCreERΔ/Δ] mice displayed a complex set of histological phenotypes, including

adjacent hypertrophic and atrophic crypts and scattered villus and crypt cell death. Some of these changes

may be reactive, secondary changes rather than immediately downstream of METTL3 depletion. We

therefore examined inducible *Mettl3*[VilCreERΔ/Δ] mice two days after the final tamoxifen injection- the earliest

timepoint at which we confirmed METTL3 deletion by immunoblot and *in situ* staining (Figure 4A and

Supplemental Figure 2, A and B). At this early deletion timepoint, *Mettl3*[VilCreERΔ/Δ] mice demonstrated a ~30%

increase in crypt height in the small intestine (Figure 4B). This change was associated with increased

numbers of Ki67+ cells (Figure 4C) and increased expression of transcripts associated with stem cells and

stem progenitors, including key stem cell marker *Lgr5* (Figure 4D). In contrast, we observed profound TA

cell death in inducible *Mettl3*[VilCreERΔ/Δ] mice at this same early timepoint. The mean number of TUNEL+ foci

per crypt was elevated >20-fold in *Mettl3*[VilCreERΔ/Δ] crypts compared to controls (Figure 4E). Strikingly, almost

all TUNEL+ foci in *Mettl3*[VilCreERΔ/Δ] small intestine were in the TA zone, located between the crypt base and

the crypt-villus junction. We quantified TUNEL+ staining in the crypt base, TA zone, and villus epithelium

and found 3-fold higher cell death rates in the TA zone compared to the crypt base (Figure 4F). These data

suggest that the initial defect in inducible *Mettl3*[VilCreERΔ/Δ] mice is widespread transit amplifying cell death.

METTL3 deletion causes growth arrest and death in intestinal enteroids

We next wanted to establish an epithelial-specific model for examining the kinetics and mechanism of cell death in *Mettl3$^{VilCreER\Delta/\Delta}$* mice. We therefore generated 3D organoids from small intestinal crypts (enteroids) and colonic crypts (colonoids) of *Mettl3$^{VilCreER\Delta/\Delta}$* and *Mettl3$^{flox/flox}$* mice and treated with 4-hydroxytamoxifen (4-OHT) *in vitro* to induce METTL3 deletion (32). We first monitored gross cell death in enteroids and colonoids. We defined dead organoids as those with a complete opaque appearance, leaking of dead cell debris, and absent growth over the subsequent 24 hours. Nearly all *Mettl3$^{VilCreER\Delta/\Delta}$* enteroids and proximal colonoids died within 5 days post 4-OHT withdrawal (Figure 5, B and C). Only distal colonoids from *Mettl3$^{VilCreER\Delta/\Delta}$* mice survived 4-OHT treatment, where immunoblotting confirmed deletion of METTL3 (Figure 5D). To map the chronology of enteroid growth and survival after METTL3 deletion, we measured ileal enteroid size and death daily after 4-OHT treatment of *Mettl3$^{VilCreER\Delta/\Delta}$* and control *Villin-CreERT2* enteroids. Enteroids appeared grossly normal in the first two days after 4-OHT withdrawal. At day 3, *Mettl3$^{VilCreER\Delta/\Delta}$* enteroids exhibited growth arrest concurrent with increased death, ultimately resulting in complete death by five days post 4-OHT (Figure 5, E-G). In summary, *Mettl3$^{VilCreER\Delta/\Delta}$* enteroids and colonoids recapitulated tissue-region-specific cell death phenotypes observed *in vivo*. These data confirmed that cell death phenotypes after METTL3 deletion were epithelial-cell-autonomous; they also established enteroids as an effective model of *in vivo* pathologies for further mechanistic investigation.

Catalytic inactive METTL3 does not rescue death of METTL3 depleted enteroids

Given that METTL3 deletion led to small intestinal epithelial death *in vivo* and *in vitro*, but depletion of the essential methyltransferase co-factor METTL14 has been previously reported to have no effect on small intestinal homeostasis (23, 24), we hypothesized that METTL3 might support intestinal epithelial survival through a non-catalytic mechanism. We reintroduced a non-catalytic METTL3 (DPPW$^{395-398}$ to APPA$^{395-398}$) (33) to *Mettl3$^{VilCreER\Delta/\Delta}$* ileal enteroids using a lentiviral construct (METTL3$^{\Delta cat}$). Western and dot blot confirmed rescue of METTL3 expression and depletion of m^{6}A in these enteroids (Supplemental Figure 4, A and B). Compared to *Mettl3$^{VilCreER\Delta/\Delta}$*, *Mettl3$^{VilCreER\Delta/\Delta}$* + METTL3$^{\Delta cat}$ enteroids demonstrated

delayed cell death through the 4th day post 4-OHT, but still died by day 5 and did not survive to subsequent

passages (Supplemental Figure 4, C-E). Previous reports indicated that METTL3 may act independently of

METTL14 as a non-catalytic cytoplasmic regulator of protein translation (34–36). However, we observed

exclusively nuclear staining of endogenous METTL3 in ileal enteroids, likely precluding this possibility

(Supplemental Figure 4F). These data suggest that small intestinal epithelium requires the nuclear, catalytic

activity of METTL3 for homeostatic function.

METTL3 deletion triggers global downregulation of translational efficiency

Previous studies indicate that m^{6}A induces global changes in mRNA abundance and translational

efficiency (13, 37, 38). To identify METTL3 targets that may mediate phenotypes observed *in vivo* and *in*

vitro, we sequenced total RNA and ribosome-protected RNA fragments to assay global changes in RNA

abundance and translation after METTL3 deletion. Since METTL3 modifies thousands of transcripts with

pleiotropic effects, we elected to analyze *Mettl3$^{VilCreER\Delta/\Delta}$* ileal enteroids 72 hours after 4-OHT treatment to

detect the changes most proximal to METTL3 deletion but prior to widespread cell death. Comparing the

approximately 25,000 transcripts detected in both data sets, METTL3 deletion impacted more transcripts

at the level of RNA translation than abundance. We found 6,101 transcripts exclusively altered at the level

of ribosome protected fragments, 3,004 with changes only in RNA abundance, and 1,374 with changes in

both (Figure 6A and Data S1). We next compared the ratio of ribosome protected fragments to mRNA

abundance for each transcript to generate the translational efficiency ("TE") of each transcript (11, 39).

Averaging all 2,124 transcripts with significant changes in TE, the predominant effect of METTL3 deletion

was reduced TE, with 1,747 transcripts exhibiting reduced TE and 377 with increased TE. Taken together,

there was a mean decrease in TE of 39% across all differentially translated transcripts in *Mettl3$^{VilCreER\Delta/\Delta}$*

enteroids compared to controls (Figure 6B). These data suggest a novel role for METTL3 in broadly

supporting translation in the small intestinal epithelium.

METTL3 deletion downregulates translation of methylated transcripts regulating growth factor

signaling

We next performed m^{6}A immunoprecipitation and sequencing (m^{6}A-seq) in wildtype mouse crypts

in vivo to define putative direct targets of METTL3 (16, 17, 40). m^{6}A-seq yielded 13,763 m^{6}A peaks within

7,882 unique transcripts (Data S2). Peaks were distributed across the coding sequence and 3' untranslated

region, with the highest accumulation at the stop codon, consistent with previous reports (Supplemental

Figure 5A) (16, 17). We also saw expected patterns of m^{6}A enrichment in positive and negative control

transcripts (Supplemental Figure 5B). We superimposed m^{6}A-seq data onto ribosome profiling data and

found that of the 1,747 transcripts with decreased TE after METTL3 deletion, 363 transcripts contained at

least one m^{6}A peak (Figure 6, C and D). We conducted pathway enrichment analysis on these 363

transcripts using Gene Ontology Biological Process (GOBP) gene sets. We observed the most significant

enrichment in transcripts associated with growth factor signaling cascades (Figure 6E). Amongst these

transcripts, the largest magnitude reduction in mean TE was for *Kras*, an essential intestinal proto-

oncogene that promotes intestinal epithelial proliferation and survival (Figure 6F) (41). Taken together, our

ribosome profiling and m^{6}A-seq data indicate that METTL3 deletion downregulates translation of

methylated transcripts supporting growth factor signaling, including *Kras*.

METTL3 deletion reduces *Kras* methylation and protein levels and induces cellular senescence

We further explored the putative relationship between METTL3 and KRAS expression by examining

m^{6}A modification of the *Kras* transcript. Our m^{6}A-seq data indicated enriched m^{6}A density across the *Kras*

gene body, including both UTRs (Figure 7A). To verify m^{6}A-seq peaks on the *Kras* transcript and determine

their dependence on METTL3 expression, we performed m^{6}A-RNA-immunoprecipitation-qPCR (m^{6}A-RIP-

qPCR) in crypt-enriched lysates from *Mettl3$^{flox/flox}$* and *Mettl3$^{VilCreER\Delta/\Delta}$* mice three days after final tamoxifen

injection. Using qPCR probes targeting both the *Kras* 5' and 3' UTR we found significant enrichment of both

transcript regions in m^{6}A-RIP fractions. However, only m^{6}A enrichment in the 3' UTR appeared dependent

on METTL3 expression. The 5' UTR peak may represent N6,2′-O-dimethyladenosine (m^{6}Am), a terminal

modification added to the mRNA cap by the methyltransferase PCIF1; m^{6}Am is an established off-target of

m[6]A antibodies (Figure 7, B and C) (42). These data support the novel finding that METTL3 methylates

Kras at the 3'UTR.

We next examined how methylation of *Kras* impacts its expression *in vivo*. Although METTL3

deletion did not significantly impact *Kras* transcript abundance via qPCR, we observed a decrease in KRAS

protein in crypt-enriched lysates from *Mettl3$^{VilCreER\Delta/\Delta}$* mice compared to controls (Figure 7, D and E). To

further validate our Ribo-seq data *in vivo*, we also examined protein expression levels of other top

downregulated genes of interest. We confirmed decreases in YES1 (src family kinase and proto-oncogene)

and SEC13 (member of the nuclear pore complex implicated in mRNA export) but not UBE1 (primary

enzyme in conjugation of ubiquitin) (43–45) (Figure 7E). Taken together, these data suggest that METTL3

promotes KRAS expression without impacting *Kras* transcript levels, providing further mechanistic support

for METTL3 as a post-transcriptional regulator of *Kras*.

KRAS is a key mediator of epidermal growth factor (EGF) signaling in epithelial cells (41). Loss of

mitogenic signals such as EGF induces cell cycle arrest and senescence in proliferative cells (46). EGF

signaling has also been implicated in maintaining genomic integrity in hematopoietic stem cells (47). We

therefore assessed senescence and double-stranded DNA breaks in inducible *Mettl3$^{VilCreER\Delta/\Delta}$* epithelium

by staining for p21 and γ-H2AX two days after final tamoxifen injection. *Mettl3$^{VilCreER\Delta/\Delta}$* crypts demonstrated

elevated p21 and γ-H2AX compared to controls, particularly in the TA zone (Figure 7F and 7G). One

potential caveat to this finding is the possibility of toxic combined effects of CreERT2 and tamoxifen in

intestinal stem cells within a week of tamoxifen exposure (48). To address this, we evaluated p21 and γ-

H2AX in tamoxifen-treated *Villin-CreERT2* control mice at the same timepoint. Both p21 and γ-H2AX were

significantly increased in *Mettl3$^{VilCreER\Delta/\Delta}$* mice compared to *Villin-CreERT2* controls (Supplemental Figure

6, A and B). Taken together, these data support the hypothesis that loss of growth factor and KRAS

signaling after METTL3 deletion triggers cellular senescence and DNA damage in the crypt TA zone.

Discussion

Our collective findings examining METTL3 deletion in the intestinal epithelium *in vivo* and *in vitro* support a model in which METTL3 methylates the *Kras* transcript and other transcripts involved in growth factor signal transduction. Methylation promotes translation of these transcripts, maintaining responsiveness to extracellular growth factors and thus maintaining proliferation and survival in the transit amplifying cells of the crypt. In the absence of METTL3, loss of growth factor pathway members such as KRAS leads to cellular senescence and genomic instability. Pathological effects of METTL3 deletion manifest strongest in the TA zone because rapid proliferation demands the expression of proteins involved in transducing growth factor signals. Ultimately, loss of transit amplification reduces crypt and villus size and diminishes absorptive cell maturation without impacting secretory cells (Figure 8).

We originally expected that METTL3 deletion would have no overt effect on the small intestinal epithelium because previous reports showed that METTL14 was dispensable in the small intestine (23, 24). While our study does not directly compare METTL3 and METTL14, discrepancies between the present study and previously described METTL14 knockout studies could be due to facility-specific differences (e.g., microbiota). Several factors minimize this possibility. First, two independent groups from the US and China reported colonic but not small intestinal phenotypes with METTL14 knockout, demonstrating persistent phenotypes across mouse facilities. Furthermore, we found small intestinal phenotypes followed METTL3 deletion when testing both constitutive and inducible Cre-drivers, two *Mettl3-floxed* lines, microbiota-depleted mice, and mouse-derived enteroids. The consistency of small intestinal phenotypes spanning numerous orthogonal modes of METTL3 deletion strongly suggests that METTL3 and METTL14 act independently in the small intestine. This unexpected finding suggests novel divergent roles for METTL3 and METTL14 in the gut and underscores the value of examining m^{6}A writer proteins in their native context.

Despite their critical role in maintaining homeostatic renewal of the intestinal epithelium, transit amplifying cell dynamics remain poorly understood. We propose that METTL3 is essential for both differentiation and renewal in the transit amplifying zone of the small intestinal crypt. As the site of stem progenitor differentiation, transit amplifying cells are critical to the process of lineage commitment in the

cell (2). We observed general maintenance of secretory cells adjacent to areas of atrophic crypts in

Mettl3^VilCre and *Mettl3^VilCreERΔ/Δ* mice. In contrast, these histologically affected areas demonstrated little to

no absorptive cell staining. Since mature absorptive cells make up most of the villus surface, transit

amplification in the crypt is essential for the production of adequate numbers of absorptive progenitors

rather than secretory cells (49). Consistent with our data showing decreased enterocyte maturation

concurrent with loss of transit amplifying cells, a recent study suggested a causal relationship between

decreased TA proliferation and an increase in the ratio of secretory to absorptive cells (4). Therefore, we

propose that METTL3 promotes the production of absorptive cells by maintaining TA cell proliferation.

Inducible METTL3 deletion was also associated with a >20-fold increase in the rate of cell death

in the small intestinal crypt, especially in cells of the TA zone. TA cell death immediately followed deletion

of METTL3, exceeded rates of cell death in the crypt base 3-fold, and occurred at a timepoint when

markers of crypt base stem cells (*e.g., Lgr5*) were preserved or even increased. Therefore, we conclude

that the primary, initiating defect in METTL3 depleted epithelium is the death of transit amplifying cells. A

recent study posited that TA cells regulate the proliferation of LGR5+ stem cells by controlling the

secretion of R-spondins (50). Thus, an initial defect in the TA zone could precipitate the loss of LGR5+

stem cells observed by other groups (25). We also noted increased crypt proliferation at this time of

profound proliferative cell death, which initially seemed paradoxical. However, we hypothesize that this

increased proliferation represents a regenerative response to increased cell death. Ultimately, the

extreme rate of TA cell death appeared to overcome this hyperproliferative response, since most affected

crypts exhibited severely diminished proliferation 1-2 weeks after initiating METTL3 deletion. Thus, we

conclude that METTL3 specifically regulates the survival of intestinal transit amplifying cells.

Rapid proliferation in the TA zone suggests enhanced dependence on mitogenic factors in these

cells. Consistent with this hypothesis, METTL3 deletion downregulated translation of multiple methylated

transcripts involved in growth factor signaling, including: growth factor receptor *Fgfr4* (51), src family

kinase *Yes1* (43), guanine nucleotide exchange factor *Tiam1* (52), and *Kras*. KRAS is a target of

particular interest due to its role as an oncogene in the gut (41), where up to 50% of colorectal cancers

harbor a KRAS mutation (53). KRAS binds to guanosine 5'-triphosphate (GTP) in response to

extracellular signals such as epidermal growth factor receptor (EGFR) activation. Activated KRAS-GTP

then upregulates growth factor targets such as PI3K-Akt, RAF-MEK-ERK, and the GLUT1 glucose

transporter (41). Although frequently dysregulated in cancer, these pathways are also essential for

homeostatic proliferation, differentiation, and survival (54). Our data support a novel direct relationship

between METTL3, *Kras* m^{6}A-methylation, and KRAS protein levels. We posit that widescale depletion of

growth factor signaling—including but not limited to KRAS—overwhelms cells of the TA zone and leads to

cell death with METTL3 deletion.

In summary, we identify METTL3 as an essential post-transcriptional regulator of growth factor

signaling and TA cell survival. Our work defines a novel mode of epi-transcriptomic gene regulation in this

critical but understudied cell type. This paves the way for future investigation of therapeutic targets that

preserve TA cells in the face of DNA damaging agents such as chemotherapeutics and irradiation.

Materials and Methods

Animals

Mettl3$^{VilCre\Delta/\Delta}$ and *Mettl3$^{VilCreER\Delta/\Delta}$* were generated by crossing *Vil-Cre 1000* mice (JAX #021504) or *Villin-*

CreERT2 mice (JAX #020282) to previously described *Mettl3$^{flox/flox}$* mice (30) kindly provided by Dr.

Richard Flavell (Yale). *Mettl3$^{VilCreER\Delta2/\Delta2}$* were generated by crossing *Villin-CreERT2* mice to previously

described *Mettl3$^{flox2/flox2}$* mice (31), kindly provided by Dr. Federica Accornero (Ohio State). For the m^{6}A-

seq experiment, wildtype mice were used (JAX #000664). All mice were C57BL/6J strain and both male

and female mice were used. Mice were housed in a temperature-controlled room with 12-hour light and

dark cycles and continuous access to food and water.

Tamoxifen injection, euthanasia criteria, and survival curves

Mice aged 8-9 weeks were injected four times with 50 mg/kg tamoxifen at 10 mg/mL in corn oil at 24-hour

intervals. Mice were euthanized once they had reached humane endpoints defined by the IACUC

protocol, including: >20% body weight loss, hunched posture, emaciated body condition, or non-

responsiveness to stimuli. Survival curves were determined by the number of mice reaching a humane

endpoint on each day after tamoxifen injection.

Microbial depletion

Mettl3^flox/flox and *Mettl3^VilCreERΔ/Δ* mice were moved to new cages at 7 weeks of age and given sterile DI

water supplemented with 0.5g/L Ampicillin (Sigma A9518), 0.5g/L Neomycin (MP Biomedicals 180610),

0.5g/L Gentamicin (Sigma G1914-5G), 0.25g/L Vancomycin (VWR 0990), 0.25g/L Metronidazole (Thermo

210340050), and 4g/L Splenda to enhance taste. After seven days, mice were injected with tamoxifen for

four days as described above and stool collected on the final day of injection. Stool from *Mettl3^flox/flox* and

Mettl3^VilCreERΔ/Δ mice on normal drinking water was used as controls. DNA was extracted from stool using

the QIAamp Fast DNA Stool Mini Kit (Qiagen 51604) and quantitative PCR was performed as described

in the qPCR methods section using primer Ba04230899_s1. qPCR quantification was normalized to stool

weight.

Serum cytokine quantification

Serum supernatant was isolated from the inferior vena cava of euthanized mice and cytokines measured

using the Cytometric Bead Array (BD Biosciences) with the amount of capture beads, detection reagents,

and sample volumes scaled down tenfold from manufacturer's protocol. Data was collected on an

LSRFortessa flow cytometer (BD Biosciences) with FACSDiva v9.0 (BD Biosciences) and analyzed with

FlowJo v10 (BD Biosciences). Statistical outliers were removed in GraphPad Prism v9.3 using ROUT

method (Q=1%). Cytokine used were mouse TNFα (BD 558299), mouse IL-6 (BD 558301), mouse IL-1α

(BD 560157), mouse IL-1β (BD 560232), mouse IL-10 (BD 558300), mouse IL-12/IL-23p40 (BD 560151),

and mouse IFN-γ (BD 558296) with Mouse/Rat Soluble Protein Master Buffer Kit (BD 558266).

Histology and immunofluorescent staining

Intestines were Swiss-rolled and fixed overnight in 4% paraformaldehyde at 4°C prior to processing and

embedding. Sections were blocked with Blocking Buffer (1% BSA and 10% donkey serum in PBS) for 1

hour, 25°C, before staining with primary antibodies (Supplemental Table 1) at 1:200 overnight at 4°C

followed by washing with PBS and staining with secondary antibodies at 25°C for 25 minutes. Finally,

nuclei were counterstained with 1:10,000 DAPI and coverslips mounted with Prolong® Gold Antifade

Reagent. Duodenum, jejunum, and ileum were defined as the proximal, middle, and distal third of the small intestine. Proximal colon was defined as the proximal 4cm of the large intestine, and distal colon as the distal 4cm. For alkaline phosphatase staining, we used the Vector® Red Substrate Kit, Alkaline Phosphatase (Vector Laboratories SK-5100) on deparaffinized slides as described in the manufacturer's protocol. TUNEL was detected using the Click-iT™ Plus TUNEL Assay for In Situ Apoptosis Detection, Alexa Fluor™ 594 dye (Thermo Scientific C10618). All stains were imaged on the Keyence BZ-X100.

Histopathology and appearance scoring

Histopathological scoring was performed by blinded anatomical pathologist Dr. Benjamin Wilkins based on previously published criteria with an additional score for villus damage for small intestine (Supplemental Table 2) (55). For each category, the recorded score reflects the most severe finding. For percent involvement, the recorded score reflects the length of bowel that was involved by any of the scored processes. Scores were summed for each mouse to generate a separate composite score for small intestine and colon. Mouse appearance/behavior was scored according to a previously described rubric (56).

Intestinal epithelial organoid cultures

Intestinal sections were splayed open, rinsed in PBS, and rotated at 4°C for 45 minutes in Hank's Buffered Saline Solution with 10 mM EDTA and 1 mM N-Acetyl-L-cysteine (Sigma A9165). Crypts were isolated by scraping with a glass coverslip followed by vortexing and filtering through a 70 uM (small intestine) or 100 uM (colon) cell strainer. Crypt-enriched suspensions were centrifuged at 500xG, 25°C for 5 minutes, washed in PBS, and pelleted again at 500xG, 25°C for 5 minutes. Crypts were plated in Matrigel droplets (Corning 354234) and unless stated otherwise, overlaid with the following "ENR" medium: advanced DMEM/F12 media (Thermo 12634028) containing 1X GlutaMAX (Thermo 35050061), 10 mM HEPES (Thermo 15-630-080), 1X Antibiotic Antimycotic (Thermo 15240062), 1X N-2 Supplement (Thermo 17502048), 1X B-27 Supplement (Thermo 17504044), 5 µM CHIR99021 (Cayman 13122), 1 mM N-Acetyl-L-cysteine (Sigma A9165), 50 ng/mL mEGF (PeproTech 315-09), 5% Noggin/R-spondin conditioned medium (generated using protocol from (32)), and 10 µM Y-27632 (LC Labs Y-5301). Colonic

epithelial cultures were fed 50% WRN CM media (57). Passage-matched enteroids/colonoids were used

for all experiments. For induction of CreERT2, enteroids/colonoids were given 1 µM 4-OHT in 100%

ethanol at 48 and 24 hours before the start of the time course then mechanically passaged at day 0.

Whole mount staining in enteroids

Enteroids were dissociated to single cells using Accutase (STEMCELL Technologies 07920),

resuspended in ENR supplemented with 10 µM Y-27632, and plated on chamber slides pretreated with

10% Matrigel in Advanced DMEM/F12. The next day, slides were incubated in 4% PFA at room

temperature for 20 minutes and blocked in 10% goat serum in PBS for 30 minutes at 25°C. 1:200 rabbit

monoclonal anti-METTL3 (abcam ab195352) and 1:200 goat polyclonal anti-E-Cadherin (R&D Systems

AF748) were used at 37°C for 30 minutes, followed by 1:600 Alexa Fluor 488 AffiniPure Bovine Anti-goat

IgG (Jackson 805-545-180) and Cy3 AffiniPure Donkey Anti-Rabbit IgG (Jackson 711-165-152) in PBS

supplemented with 1:5000 DAPI. Chambers were detached from the chamber slide and coverslips

mounted with Prolong® Gold Antifade Reagent.

qRT-PCR

RNA was isolated using the Quick-RNA Miniprep Kit (Zymo R1054). RNA was reverse transcribed using

MultiScribe™ Reverse Transcriptase (Thermo Scientific 4311235) with random hexamer primers.

Quantitative PCR was performed using the Applied Biosystems TaqMan Fast Advanced Master Mix

(Thermo Scientific 4444556) with TaqMan™ Gene Expression Assay (FAM) primers (Supplemental Table

3**)** on an Applied Biosystems QuantStudio 3.

Western blotting

Cells were lysed using RIPA buffer (CST 9806S) supplemented with 1:100 protease phosphatase

inhibitor (CST 5872S) and protein concentration was measured using the Pierce™ BCA Protein Assay Kit

(Thermo 23225). Lysates were boiled for 5 minutes with 100 mM DTT and 1X LDS buffer (GenScript

M00676) and run on NuPAGE 4-12% Bis-Tris gels (Thermo NP0335BOX) in 1X MOPS-SDS buffer

(BioWorld 10530007-2) or 1X MES-SDS buffer (Thermo NP0002, use for low MW proteins). Gels were

transferred onto PVDF transfer membrane in 2X NuPAGE transfer buffer (Thermo NP006) and

membranes blocked for 1 hr in 5% milk in TBS-T (TBS, 0.1% Tween-20), and then placed in 1:1000

primary antibody (Supplementary Table 1) overnight in 5% milk in TBS-T at 4°C. Blots were washed in

TBS-T and placed in 1:2000 secondary antibody (Supplementary Table 1) for 1-2 hours at 25°C. Blots

were then subjected to Supersignal® West Femto Maximum Sensitivity Chemiluminescent Substrate and

imaged on the Biorad Gel Doc XR.

520   m^{6}A dot blot

mRNA was isolated using the Dynabeads™ mRNA DIRECT™ Purification Kit (Thermo 61011). >30 ng of

mRNA was heated to 65°C for 2 minutes, placed on ice for >5 minutes, and then pipetted onto a Hybond

N+ nitrocellulose membrane and exposed to 254 nm UV light for 5 minutes. The nitrocellulose membrane

was then washed in TBS-T (TBS, 0.1% Tween-20). Blots were then incubated in primary and secondary

antibody and developed as described in the section on Western blotting. We detected m^{6}A using anti-m^{6}A

primary antibody CST 56593. Total blotted mRNA was stained using 0.04% Methylene Blue (LabChem

LC168508) in 0.5M sodium acetate.

529   RNA-seq and Ribo-seq

Ileal enteroids were expanded in Matrigel in 50% WRN media until 8 to 10 million cells per replicate was

achieved. Passage separated replicates from the same enteroid line were used. Media was

supplemented with 2 uM 4-OHT 72 hours prior to collection. Enteroids were collected by mechanical

dissociation, pelleted, and snap frozen in liquid nitrogen. Frozen enteroid pellets were resuspended in ice-

cold lysis buffer containing 20mM Tris-HCl pH 7.4, 150mM MgCl2, 150mM NaCl, 100ug/ml

cycloheximide, 1% v/v Triton X-100, 1mM DTT, 1U/ul SUPERase·IN RNase inhibitor (ThermoFisher),

25U/ml Turbo DNase1 (ThermoFisher), and 1X EDTA-free protease inhibitor cocktail (Roche). Cells were

lysed by trituration through a 26-gauge needle 10 times. Samples were processed and libraries prepared

as previously described (39) with the following modifications. First, we performed sucrose cushion to

pellet the ribosome-associated mRNAs and proceeded with RNAse I digestion (10 U/µl by the Epicentre

definition) for 30ug of RNA. Samples were incubated at room temperature for 45 minutes with gentle

agitation, and the digestion was quenched by adding 200 units of SUPERase·IN. Then, we directly

extracted the ribosome-protected fragments (RPF) using the TRIzol reagent and performed gel size

selection of the RPFs of 15-35 nucleotides in length. Second, we performed rRNA depletion using

RiboCop for Human/Mouse/Rat kit (Lexogen). Once the rRNA-depleted RPF fragments were obtained,

they were pooled together, and the libraries prepared with Unique molecular identifiers (UMIs) for

deduplication. The multiplexed library was then sequenced on Illumina HiSeq 4000 with PE150 runs

(paired end reading of 150 bases), with a sequencing depth of 60 million raw reads/sample. For each

sample, one-tenth (150ul) of the lysate was saved for RNA-seq. For RNA-seq, total RNA was extracted

using TRIzol LS reagent (Ambion) and purified using Quick-RNA Microprep kit (Zymo) following the

manufacturer's protocol. Libraries were prepared from total RNA using the Smarter® Stranded Total

RNA-Seq Kit v2 - Pico Input Mammalian (Takara Bio 634411) and sequenced on a Novaseq 6000, SP

Reagent Kit 1.5 (100 cycles). Raw sequencing data were demultiplexed, adaptors were removed using

cutadapt (58), contaminant sequences (rRNA and tRNA) were depleted, and reads were deduplicated

(umi_tools dedup). Reads were aligned to all transcripts on the mouse reference chromosomes (Gencode

version M31, GRCm39) using Kallisto (59). Translation efficiency (TE) was calculated by dividing the TPM

in the total RNA library by the TPM in the RPF library for each individual transcript and sample. Pathway

enrichment analysis was performed using mouse gene symbols orthology-mapped to the human genome

and tested against Gene Ontology Biological Process (GOBP) gene sets with the Molecular Signatures

Database (gsea-msigdb.org).

m^{6}A-seq

Three wildtype C57BL/6J mice (Jax #000664, 2 male 1 female) aged 8 weeks were used. Crypts were

isolated from the distal half of the small intestine as described above and dissociated in 10% FBS in 1X

PBS supplemented with 20 µg/mL Liberase TH (Roche 05401135001), and 35 µg/ml DNaseI (Roche

10104159001) for 20 minutes at 37°C with frequent agitation. Cell suspensions were then stained with

1:200 PE-EpCAM (BioLegend 118205), 1:200 FITC-CD45 (BioLegend 103107), and 1:1000 DRAQ7

(Thermo Scientific D15106) on ice for 30 minutes in the dark. ~800K live epithelial cells per mouse were

then isolated by flow cytometry by sorting for DRAQ7- CD45- PE+ cells directly into Trizol LS (Ambion 10-

296-010) on a FACSJazz Sorter. RNA was isolated from Trizol LS using the Direct-zol RNA Microprep Kit

(Zymo R2062). RIP-seq was performed according to the "Refined RIP-seq" protocol for low input material

(40) with the following specifications: 2 μg anti-m^{6}A antibody (Synaptic Systems 202 003) was conjugated

to magnetic beads and incubated with 6 ug total RNA that was previously fragmented to ~300 nt

fragments with 10 mM ZnCl2 in 10 mM Tris-HCl for 4 minutes at 70°C (5% of fragmented RNA was set

aside as input). After 2 hours immunoprecipitation at 4°C, RNA-bead complexes were washed in high and

low salt buffer and RNA was eluted from the RNA-bead complexes using the Qiagen RNeasy Plus Micro

Kit (Qiagen 74034). Isolated m^{6}A-enriched RNA was immunoprecipitated a second time using 2 μg of a

second anti-m^{6}A antibody (Abcam ab151230). Final cDNA Libraries were prepared from twice

immunoprecipitated RNA and fragmented input total RNA using the Smarter® Stranded Total RNA-Seq

Kit v2 - Pico Input Mammalian (Takara Bio 634411) and sequenced on a Novaseq 6000, SP Reagent Kit

1.5 (100 cycles). Raw reads were aligned to mm10 (gencode_M23_GRCm38.p6) using STAR aligner

(2.7.9a). N6-methyladenosine peaks were identified using exomePeak2 (version 1.2.0), followed by a

metagene analysis using the bioconductor packages Guitar_2.10.0 and

TxDb.Mmusculus.UCSC.mm10.knownGene_3.10.0.

m^{6}A-RIP-qPCR

For m^{6}A-RIP-qPCR, four *Mettl3$^{flox/flox}$* and four *Mettl3$^{VilCreERΔ/Δ}$* mice aged 8 weeks were used (2 male, 2

female mice per genotype). Intestinal crypts were isolated from the distal half of the small intestine as

described above but without digestion to single cells. Whole crypts were pelleted, resuspended in TRI

Reagent (Sigma 93289), and RNA was isolated using the Direct-zol RNA Miniprep Kit (Zymo R2050).

Next, 20 μg of total RNA was fragmented and immunoprecipitated twice according to the "Refined RIP-

seq protocol" as described above. Immunoprecipitated RNA and fragmented input total RNA was reverse

transcribed using the High-Capacity cDNA Reverse Transcription Kit (Thermo 4368814) and qPCR was

performed as described in the "qRT-PCR" section. For calculation of m^{6}A enrichment, first we calculated

the %input for every target in every RIP sample as 2^-(Ct of target gene in RIP – Ct of target gene in input

sample). Then we calculated m^{6}A enrichment relative to *Gapdh* by dividing the %input of the target of

interest (e.g., *Kras 5' or 3'UTR)* by the %input of *Gapdh* for each sample.

Lentiviral constructs and transduction

Accutase-digested (STEMCELL Technologies 07920) enteroids were resuspended in ENR with 1:4

lentivirus solution, TransDux MAX Lentivirus Transduction Enhancer (System Biosciences LV860A-1),

and 10 uM Y-27632 and plated as monolayers on Collagen I (Advanced Biomatrix 5010). Lentiviral

constructs and prepared virus were generated by VectorBuilder. The transfer vector for catalytic inactive

METTL3 expression contained a CMV-EGFP:T2A:Puro selection cassette and the mPGK promoter

upstream of the *Mus musculus Mettl3* ORF edited at positions 1183-1194 from GACCCACCTTGG to

GCCCCACCTGCG yielding DPPW -> APPA synonymous mutation in the catalytic site as previously

described (33). The "GFP" control vector contained a CMV-mCherry:T2A:Puro selection cassette and the

EGFP ORF under control of the CMV promoter. After overnight incubation with lentivirus, enteroid

monolayers were mechanically dissociated and replated as 3D enteroids in Matrigel and selected for

antibiotic resistance genes after 48 hours.

Quantification and statistical analysis

Unless otherwise noted, quantification of immunofluorescent staining was performed using three

representative images taken per mouse using a 20X objective. Images were taken in three areas of most

severe histological distortion (defined as a high-powered field with greatest changes in crypt and/or villus

morphology) in distal half of the small intestine of tested mice. Three representative sections were chosen

from matching regions of the distal half of the small intestine in control mice. Quantification was

performed by individuals blinded to mouse genotype. Unless otherwise noted, each graphed data point is

the mean of three quantified representative images per mouse. P values were calculated with the

unpaired parametric Student's t test in GraphPad Prism. P values for survival curves were calculated

using the Log-rank Mantel-Cox test in GraphPad Prism.

Study approval

Mouse experiments and handling were approved under IACUC protocol 001278 at the Children's Hospital

of Philadelphia.

Data and materials availability:

All data needed to evaluate the conclusions in the paper are present in the paper and/or the

Supplementary Materials. Raw sequencing data are uploaded to Dryad at

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663
664
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666
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Figures

Figure 1. Constitutive METTL3 deletion leads to growth retardation and small intestinal epithelial distortion. (A) Growth curves from postnatal day 15 to 29. **(B)** Gross appearance at postnatal day 29. **(C)** Composite appearance and behavior score at postnatal day 29. **(D)** Kaplan-Meier survival curves through postnatal day 29; p value corresponds to Log-rank (Mantel-Cox) test. **(E)** Representative small intestine H&E images. "R" indicates regenerative crypt. "A" indicates atrophic crypt. **(F)** Quantification of jejunal villus lengths, n=4 mice per genotype. **(G)** Composite histological score for small intestine **(H)** Representative colon H&E images. "N" denotes neutrophil invasion. **(I)** Composite histological score for colon **(J)** Representative images of Ki67 in distal small intestine **(K)** Number of hypo-proliferative crypts (<10 Ki67+ cells) crypts per 1 mm distal half small intestine **(L)** Representative images and quantification of TUNEL

staining **(M, N, O)** Representative images and quantification of intestinal secretory markers MUC2, LYZ, and CHGA **(P)** Representative images and quantification of alkaline phosphatase. Unless otherwise noted, each data point is the mean of three representative sections imaged per mouse with bar at median value and p value represents unpaired parametric Student's t test. Immunofluorescence staining and quantification performed in distal half small intestine.

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Figure 2. METTL3 is required for survival and small intestinal epithelial homeostasis in adult mice.
(A) Experimental schematic depicting timing of tamoxifen injection. **(B)** Weight curves through nine days post tamoxifen injection, mean +/- SD. **(C)** Kaplain-Meier survival curves through 22 days post final tamoxifen injection, p value corresponds to Log-rank (Mantel-Cox) test. **(D)** Representative small intestine H&E images. "R" indicates regenerative crypt. "A" indicates atrophic crypt. **(E)** Quantification of shortest villus lengths in three representative jejunal sections in *Mettl3^{flox/flox}* (n=4) and *Mettl3^{VilCreERΔ/Δ}* (n=6) mice. **(F)** Composite histological score for small intestine. **(G)** Representative colon H&E images. **(H)** Composite histological score for colon. **(I)** Greatest percent involvement for histological score depicted in F or H. **(J, K, L)** Representative images and quantification of intestinal secretory markers MUC2, LYZ, and CHGA. **(M).** Representative images and quantification of alkaline phosphatase activity. **(N)** Representative images of Ki67 **(O)** Number of hypo-proliferative (<10 Ki67+ cells) crypts per 1mm intestine **(P)** Representative images

826   and quantification of TUNEL staining. Unless otherwise noted, each data point is the mean of three
827   representative sections per mouse with bar at median value and p value represents unpaired parametric
828   Student's t test. Immunofluorescence staining and quantification performed in distal half small intestine.
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Figure 3. Intestinal distortion and mortality after METTL3 deletion is microbiota independent. (A)
Log$_2$ fold change in serum cytokines in mice nine days post final tamoxifen injection, ns indicates p > 0.05
for all. **(B)** Spleen weight nine days post final tamoxifen injection. **(C, D)** Small intestine and colon length
nine days post final tamoxifen injection. **(E)** Experimental schematic for antibiotic (abx) treatment. **(F)** Log$_2$
fold change in 16S rRNA amplified from fecal bacterial DNA on final day of tamoxifen injection in antibiotic-
treated or water vehicle mice. **(G, H)** Kaplain-Meier survival curve and weight change post final tamoxifen
injection in antibiotic treated mice. P-value in (G) represents Log-rank (Mantel-Cox) test. Data in (H)
presented as mean +/- SD **(I)** Representative H&E images from matched sections of distal small intestine
in n=3 antibiotic treated mice per genotype. Unless otherwise noted, each data point represents a single
mouse with bar at median value and p denotes value of unpaired parametric Student's t test.
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Figure 4. METTL3 deletion rapidly induces death of transit amplifying cells. (A) Experimental schematic. **(B)** Representative images and quantification of crypt height. **(C)** Representative images and quantification of Ki67 staining. **(D)** Log$_2$ fold change in qPCR quantification of indicated genes normalized to the mean of *Mettl3$^{flox/flox}$* controls and *Actb*. Data from crypt enriched lysates. **(E)** Representative images and quantification of TUNEL staining **(F)** Representative image and quantification of distribution of TUNEL staining in villus, transit amplifying (TA) zone, and crypt base. Unless otherwise noted, each data point is the mean of three representative sections per mouse with bar at median value and p denotes value of unpaired parametric Student's t test. Scale bar 100 µM. All data from distal small intestine of mice two days post final tamoxifen injection.

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Figure 5. METTL3 deletion triggers growth arrest and death in intestinal epithelial enteroids and
colonoids. (A) Intestinal epithelial enteroids or colonoids were treated with 1 μm 4-OHT 48 and 24 hours
before beginning of time course and analyzed at days 1 through 5. **(B)** Percent live enteroids or colonoids
from indicated tissue regions at 5 days post 4-OHT treatment. Each point represents n=9 technical
replicates across n=3 passage separated biological replicates per genotype. Bar height at median value
with error bars as +/- SD. **(C)** Representative images at 5 days post 4-OHT treatment corresponding to
quantification in (B). **(D)** Western blot for METTL3 in surviving $Mettl3^{VilCreERΔ/Δ}$ distal colonoids six days after
4-OHT treatment. **(E)** Representative images of ileal enteroids in the five days post 4-OHT treatment. **(F,**
G) ImageJ quantification of average ileal enteroid 2D area and percent live enteroids in the five days post
4-OHT treatment of $Villin$-$CreERT2$ (VilCreERT2) and $Mettl3^{VilCreERΔ/Δ}$ enteroids. N=3 passage separated
replicates. Data presented as mean +/- SD. P-value represents unpaired parametric Student's t test at day
3 and day 5.

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Figure 6. METTL3 deletion leads to a global decrease in mRNA translational efficiency with impacts
on growth factor signaling. (A) Scatter plot of $\log_2$ fold change in ribosome footprint and total transcript
abundance for all transcripts detected in RNA-seq and Ribo-seq of *Mettl3^flox/flox* (CTRL) and *Mettl3^VilCreERΔ/Δ*
(KO) ileal enteroids 72 hours post initiation of 4-OHT treatment. Log2 fold change cut off >0.5 or <-0.5. Red
marks transcripts increased in RNA or ribosome footprint abundance only. Blue marks decreases in RNA
or ribosome footprint abundance only. Grey marks transcripts changed in both. **(B)** Volcano plot of all
transcripts with $\log_2$ fold change in translational efficiency (TE) >0.5 or <-0.5 and $-\log_{10}$ p value >1. Red
marks all transcripts with increased TE and blue marks all transcripts with decreased TE. **(C)** Venn diagram
depicting fraction of transcripts with changes in TE and at least one m^6A peak as determined by m^6A-seq
of wildtype mouse small intestinal crypt epithelium. Yellow circle is all m^6A-methylated transcripts detected
by m^6A-seq. Blue circle is all transcripts with decreased TE from (B). Red circle is all transcripts with
increased TE from (B). **(D)** Volcano plot of all transcripts displayed in (B), now filtered for transcripts

containing at least one m^{6}A peak. **(E)** Pathway enrichment analysis comparing transcripts with
downregulated TE (log$_2$FC < -1) and at least one m^{6}A peak against Gene Ontology Biological Process
(GOBP) gene sets. Circle color and size both scale with number of genes overlapping between the tested
gene set and the GOBP gene set. **(F)** Heat map depicting Z-scores for TE in three *Mettl3$^{flox/flox}$* (CTRL) and
three *Mettl3$^{VilCreERΔ/Δ}$* (KO) replicates 72 hours post initiation of 4-OHT treatment. Genes presented are all
42 genes from the four most significantly enriched pathways in (E). Genes are presented in order of greatest
decrease in mean TE to smallest. All data from RNA-seq and Ribo-seq of *Mettl3$^{flox/flox}$* (CTRL) and
Mettl3$^{VilCreERΔ/Δ}$ (KO) ileal enteroids 72 hours post initiation of 4-OHT treatment.
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Figure 7. METTL3 deletion downregulates KRAS and induces cellular senescence. (A) Integrated
Genomics Viewer depiction of read density for m^{6}A-RIP (red) and input RNA (blue) for the *Kras* transcript
as determined by m^{6}A-seq in distal small intestinal crypts of n=3 wildtype mice. **(B, C)** m^{6}A-enrichment
determined by m^{6}A-RIP-qPCR with primers targeting *Kras* 5' and 3' UTR in crypt enriched lysates from
Mettl3$^{flox/flox}$ and *Mettl3$^{VilCreERΔ/Δ}$* mice 3 days post-tamoxifen (n=2M, 2F per genotype). The m^{6}A enrichment
score is the result of dividing the ratio of the target-of-interest in RIP compared to RIP input by the ratio of
Gapdh (negative control) in RIP compared to RIP input. Data presented as median +/- SD. P-value
represents unpaired parametric Student's t test. **(D)** qPCR for *Kras* transcript in crypt enriched lysates from
Mettl3$^{flox/flox}$ and *Mettl3$^{VilCreERΔ/Δ}$* mice 3 days post-tamoxifen (n= 2M, 2F per genotype). Data normalized to
Actb and the mean of *Mettl3$^{flox/flox}$* controls. Data presented as median +/- SD. P-value represents unpaired
parametric Student's t test. **(E)** Western blot for top targets with downregulated TE in crypts of *Mettl3$^{flox/flox}$*
and *Mettl3$^{VilCreERΔ/Δ}$* mice two days post final tamoxifen injection (n=2 mice per genotype). **(F, G)**
Representative images and quantification of p21 and γH2AX staining in distal half small intestine of
Mettl3$^{flox/flox}$ and *Mettl3$^{VilCreERΔ/Δ}$* mice two days post final tamoxifen injection. Images and quantification from
areas of most severe histological distortion in distal small intestine of mice two days post final tamoxifen
injection. Each data point is the mean of three representative sections imaged per mouse with bar at median
value and p denotes value of unpaired parametric Student's t test. Scale bar 100 µM.
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Figure 8. METTL3 maintains growth factor signaling and survival in intestinal transit amplifying
cells. Proposed model. METTL3 methylates *Kras* and other transcripts involved in transducing growth
factor signaling. Methylation promotes translation of these transcripts, enhancing proliferation and survival
in transit amplifying (TA) cells downstream of external growth factors. In the absence of METTL3, a
decreased response to extracellular growth factors in METTL3 knockout TA cells leads to cellular
senescence and death. Loss of transit amplification results in reduced crypt and villus size and
diminished production of absorptive cells. ECM, extra cellular matrix. RTK, receptor tyrosine kinase.
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Supplementary Materials for

Intestinal transit amplifying cells require METTL3 for growth factor signaling, KRAS expression, and cell survival

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This PDF file includes:

Supplemental Figures 1-5

Supplemental Tables 1-3

Other Supplementary Materials for this manuscript include the following:

Supplemental Data 1-2

Supplemental Figure 1. Verification and additional intestinal phenotypes in *Mettl3^{VilCreΔ/Δ}* mice. (A)
Western blot for METTL3 and METTL14 in epithelial crypt enriched lysates from distal half of small intestine and colon. **(B)** Immunofluorescent staining of METTL3 in jejunum. **(C)** m⁶A dot blot in isolated crypts of distal half of small intestine and colon. **(D)** Representative Alcian blue staining in small intestine and colon. All data from postnatal day 29.

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Supplemental Figure 2. Validation and additional characterization of inducible *Mettl3$^{VilCreER\Delta/\Delta}$* mice.
(A) Western blot for METTL3 and METTL14 in epithelial crypt enriched lysates from distal half of small
intestine and colon in mice two days post final tamoxifen injection. **(B)** Immunofluorescent staining of
METTL3 in jejunum and colon two days post final tamoxifen injection. **(C)** METTL3 staining in hypertrophic
small intestinal crypts in a *Mettl3$^{VilCreER\Delta/\Delta}$* mouse nine days post final tamoxifen injection. **(D)** Representative
Alcian blue staining nine days post final tamoxifen injection.
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Supplemental Figure 3. A second *Mettl3* deletion model recapitulates intestinal phenotypes. (A, B)
Schematic depicting *loxP* sites in the *Mettl3* gene*. (C)* METTL3 staining in jejunum and distal colon. "B"
indicates presumed off-target luminal bacterial staining with anti-METTL3 antibody. **(D)** Weight loss post
final tamoxifen injection in *Mettl3^flox2/flox2* (n=2) and *Mettl3^VilCreERΔ2/Δ2* (n=4) mice. Each individual point
represents one mouse. **(E)** Kaplain-Meier survival curve post final tamoxifen injection in *Mettl3^flox2/flox2* (n=2)
and *Mettl3^VilCreERΔ2/Δ2* (n=4) mice. **(F)** Representative H&E images from small intestine and colon. "Hypo"
indicates hypoplastic crypts. "Hyper" indicates hyperplastic crypts. "P" indicates crypts dominated by Paneth
cell granules. **(G)** Representative Alcian blue staining of ileum. Images from areas of most severe
histological distortion in distal small intestine of mice meeting euthanasia criteria or littermate, tamoxifen-
injected controls.
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Supplemental Figure 4. Catalytic inactive METTL3 does not rescue death of *Mettl3^VilCreERΔ/Δ*
enteroids. (A) Western for METTL3 two days post 4-OHT. **(B)** m6A dot blot in enteroids three days post 4-
OHT. Each dot is 35 ng isolated mRNA. **(C)** Representative images of enteroid appearance in the five days
post 4-OHT treatment. Individual enteroids are highlighted in yellow insets. **(D)** ImageJ quantification of
average enteroid 2D area at each day post 4-OHT treatment from (C). Each point represents n=3 passage-
separated biological replicates. Data presented as mean +/- SD. **(E)** Percent live enteroids at each day post
4-OHT treatment in enteroids from (C). Each point represents n=3 passage-separated biological replicates.
Data presented as mean +/- SD. For D & E, P-value represents unpaired parametric Student's t test on
days 3, 4, 5. P-values shown are for the comparison between *Mettl3^VilCreERΔ/Δ* + GFP vs *Mettl3^VilCreERΔ/Δ* +
METTL3^Δcat. **(F)** Whole mount staining of METTL3 in intestinal epithelial monolayers two days post 4-OHT
treatment.

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985 **Supplemental Figure 5. Quality control for m⁶A-seq. (A)** Metagene density plot depicting distribution of
986 m⁶A peaks called by Exomepeak2 within m⁶A-seq data from wildtype mouse small intestinal crypt
987 epithelium. **(B)** m⁶A-seq read density (red) compared to input RNA read density (blue) for positive control
988 (*Myc)* and negative control (*Gapdh*) transcripts as seen in Integrated Genomics Viewer.
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Supplemental Figure 6. Increases in senescence and genomic instability after METTL3 deletion are
significant compared to *Villin-CreERT2* controls. (A and B) Representative images and quantification
of p21 (n=3,4) and γH2AX (n=3, 6) staining in distal half small intestine of *Villin-CreERT2* and
Mettl3$^{VilCreERΔ/Δ}$ mice two days post final tamoxifen injection. Images and quantification from areas of most
severe histological distortion in distal small intestine of mice two days post final tamoxifen injection. Each
data point is the mean of three representative sections imaged per mouse with bar at median value and p
denotes value of unpaired parametric Student's t test. Scale bars 100 μM.
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Primary antibody- IF	Catalog number	Antigen retrieval condition (if applicable)
Rabbit anti-METTL3	abcam ab195352	Tris-EDTA pH 9.0
Rabbit anti-p21	Proteintech 28248-1-AP	Tris-EDTA pH 9.0
Rabbit anti-Phosphorylated-Histone H2A.X (Ser139)	CST 9718	Tris-EDTA pH 9.0
Rabbit anti-SP-1 Chromogranin A	Immunostar 20085	Tris-EDTA pH 9.0
Rabbit anti-LYZ1	Dako A0099	Citric Acid pH 6.0
Rabbit anti-MUC2	Genetex GTX100664	Citric Acid pH 6.0
Rabbit anti-Ki67	abcam ab16667	Citric Acid pH 6.0
Goat anti-E-Cadherin	R&D Systems AF748	Either antigen retrieval method
Mouse anti-beta-Actin	Sigma A5316	
Rabbit anti-METTL14	Sigma HPA038002	
Rabbit anti-UBE1	Proteintech 15912-1-AP	
Rabbit anti-SEC13	Proteintech 15397-1-AP	
Mouse anti-c-Yes	Santa Cruz sc-8403	
Rabbit anti-KRAS	Proteintech 12063-1-AP	
Secondary antibody- IF		
Alexa Fluor 488 Anti-goat IgG	Jackson 805-545-180	
Cy3 Anti-Rabbit IgG	Jackson 711-165-152	
Secondary antibody- Western		
Anti-rabbit HRP	CST 7074	
Anti-mouse HRP	Novus NBP1-75249	

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1002 **Supplemental Table 1.** Full list of primary and secondary antibodies used in this study.

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Feature graded	Grade	Description
Inflammation	0	None
	1	Slight
	2	Moderate
	3	Severe
Extent	0	None
	1	Mucosa
	2	Mucosa and submucosa
	3	Transmural
Regeneration	4	No tissue repair
	3	Surface epithelium not intact
	2	Regeneration with crypt depletion
	1	Almost complete regeneration
	0	Complete regeneration or normal tissue
Crypt damage	0	None
	1	Basal 1/3 damaged
	2	Basal 2/3 damaged
	3	Only surface epithelium intact
	4	Entire crypt and epithelium lost
Villus damage (SI only)	0	No change in villus height
	1	25% reduction in villus height
	2	50% reduction in villus height
	3	75% reduction in villus height
	4	Complete loss of villus
Percent involvement	1	1-25%
	2	26-50%
	3	51-75%
	4	76-100%

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1005 **Supplemental Table 2.** Histopathological scoring rubric adapted from (55) used for small intestine and
1006 colonic histopathological scoring, with scoring rules added for villus damage (villus damage only
1007 assessed in small intestine).
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Gene	Assay number
Actb	Mm02619580_g1
Olfm4	Mm01320260_m1
Bmi1	Mm03053308_g1
Clu	Mm01197002_m1
Lgr5	Mm00438890_m1
Ascl2	Mm01268891_g1
Cd44	Mm01277161_m1
Hopx	Mm00558630_m1
Kras 3' UTR (also used for total transcript)	Mm00517494_m1
Kras 5' UTR	Mm00517491_m1
Gapdh	Mm99999915_g1

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1010   **Supplemental Table 3.** Full list of Taqman qPCR primers used in this study.
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Supplemental Data 1. (separate file). RNA-seq and Ribo-seq in METTL3 KO enteroids.

Full results of RNA-seq and Ribo-seq from n=3 *Villin-CreERT2* (CTRL) and n=3 *Mettl3*$^{VilCreER\Delta/\Delta}$ (KO) enteroid biological replicates 72 hours after initiating 4-OHT treatment. Green columns and blue columns display transcripts per million (TPM) values output by Kallisto in total RNA and ribosome footprint RNA fractions, respectively. Light orange columns correspond to translational efficiency (TE) values for each transcript determined by dividing the TPM in the total RNA library by the TPM in the ribosome footprint library for each individual transcript and sample. P value refers to the comparison between mean TE of CTRL vs mean TE of KO replicates.

Supplemental Data 2. (separate file). m6A-seq in wildtype mouse crypt epithelium.
Full output of exomePeak2 analysis of m^{6}A-sequencing data produced in epithelial cells sorted from distal small intestinal crypts of n=3 adult wildtype mice.