Mutational order and epistasis determine the consequences of *FBXW7*

mutations during colorectal cancer evolution

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Running title: *FBXW7* and mutational order in CRC evolution

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Abstract

Somatic driver mutations, in genes such as *FBXW7,* have been discovered in phenotypically normal

colonic tissue, however their role in cancer initiation remains elusive. Here, using patient-derived

human colon organoids as models of early tumour evolution we investigate the consequences of

FBXW7 mutations in normal and gene-edited organoids. We observed that *FBXW7* mutations exert an

epistatic effect where the transcriptional consequences of the mutation are dependent on the

background mutational makeup of the cell. Specifically, we found the timing of acquiring an *FBXW7*

mutation relative to *APC* mutation, led to profound differences. When *FBXW7* was mutated before

APC, repression of the *APC* transcriptional response and maintenance of near-normal cell state was

seen. However, when *APC* was mutated before *FBXW7*, cells acquired classic cancer-stem cell

features. Single-cell RNA sequencing revealed that *FBXW7* mutations in normal tissue also function

by subtly reordering stem cell hierarchies and priming a fetal/regenerative phenotype through

upregulation of YAP/TAZ signaling. Further analysis using transposase-accessible chromatin

sequencing found this cellular plasticity was driven by changes in the chromatin accessibility of 36

transcriptional start site regions associated with TEAD1/TEAD2 motifs, which in turn upregulated

YAP. Taken together, we demonstrate a critical role of *FBXW7* mutations in preventing the initiation

of colorectal cancer, and provide exemplar evidence for the importance of epistasis and mutational

order in cancer biology.

Introduction

Somatic mutations have been detected in a range of normal human tissues, including the liver [1], esophagus [2], skin [3], and endometrium [4]. Similarly, a catalogue of somatic mutations in normal human colonic epithelium has been uncovered using whole genome sequencing of two thousand crypts, strikingly finding mutated cancer genes in phenotypically normal colonic epithelium; here termed 'normal drivers' [5, 6]. Within this list of normal drivers is the gene of interest in this study, *FBXW7*. In the normal colon, normal drivers form a distinct category from cancer drivers such as *TP53* or *APC*, which are ubiquitously found in colorectal cancer. Instead, normal drivers possess a hitherto unknown role in cancer initiation. FBXW7 is a key component of the Skp1-Cdc53/Cullin-F-box-protein complex (SCF/β-TrCP), an E3 ubiquitin ligase responsible for marking proteins by ubiquitination, targeting them for proteasomal degradation [7]. Substrates of FBXW7 are key regulators of cellular gene transcription, cell cycle progression or activators of signaling pathways, thus making *FBXW7* a key tumour suppressor gene. The significance of *FBXW7* mutations in the context of normal tissues however remains uncharacterized. Given normal driver genes such as *FBXW7* acquire mutations before the acquisition of accepted initiating mutations associated with colorectal cancer such as *APC*, *TP53*, *SMAD4* or *KRAS*, raises the possibility that normal driver mutations could be anticipated to play a critical role in early cancer evolution. Furthermore, the timing of the *FBXW7* mutation preceding known cancer drivers suggests that the order of mutation acquisition may have important effects on phenotype.

Recently, there has also been significant interest in the effects of epigenetic plasticity in cancer evolution. In models of early pancreatic cancer, *KRAS*-mutant cells were shown to demonstrate distinct chromatin accessibility patterns which could predict divergence into either a benign or malignant fate [8]. In colorectal cancer, the impact of epigenetic changes on tumour initiation are beginning to be uncovered. Johnstone et al. highlighted the importance of the three-dimensional architecture, in the form of chromatin loops, topologically activating domains and large-scale compartments, of DNA in restricting malignant progression [9]. A more recent study by Heide et al.

found chromatin modifier genes are actively mutated in the early initiation of colorectal cancer, and

can result in the accumulation of further genetic mutations which herald carcinogenesis [10].

In this study, we used adult human colonic organoids and CRISPR-Cas9 gene editing to explore the

cell autonomous and gene-interactive effects of an *FBXW7* mutation. Combining gene editing with

organoid culture fashions a powerful tool ideal for studying the functional consequences of driver

mutations in normal tissue for it allows specific mutations to be introduced into tissue devoid of

genetic perturbation. By sequentially introducing multiple distinct mutations in the same cell, we also

aimed to determine relationships arising between cells with an *FBXW7* mutation and the acquisition

of subsequent cancer driver mutations. We found that cells with an *FBXW7* mutation were

transcriptionally similar to wildtype cells but subtly primed towards a foetal/YAP-active state. Further,

we observed that an initial *FBXW7* mutation dampened the transcriptional effect of a subsequent *APC*

mutation also resulting in retention of a near-wildtype phenotype. Whereas when we reversed this

order of mutations, despite identical genotype, we generated *bona fide* cancer organoids. We

uncovered this profound mutational order-based cellular plasticity to be driven by epigenetic

differences in both global and local chromatin accessibility. Here we provide the first direct

eukaryotic evidence for the existence of epistasis, and that order of mutations, as much as the

mutations themselves, are key in determining their effect.

Results

Mutant $FBXW7^{-/-}$ recapitulate known effects on downstream targets

Patient-derived adult stem cell wildtype organoids (W) were generated from phenotypically normal

colon tissue of patients undergoing surgery for colorectal cancer. CRISPR-Cas9 editing was used to

generate $FBXW7^{-/-}$ organoids (F) [11]. Our gene editing strategy utilizes three sgRNAs to introduce

large deletions at exon 2 of the *FBXW7* gene. F and W organoids possessed similar morphology (Fig.

1a). We validated knockout of the *FBXW7* gene using western blot (Fig. 1b), as well as

immunofluorescence using anti-FBXW7 antibodies (Fig. 1c). We performed western blot on the

substrate targets of FBXW7: p-c-Jun, cyclin E, p-c-Myc, and Notch intracellular domain (NCID) and

showed upregulation of all protein substrates on knockout of FBXW7 (Fig. 1d).

To characterise transcriptional differences between F and W organoids, we performed bulk-RNA

sequencing (RNA-seq) on both organoid types (Fig. 1e). Using a cut-off of $log_2FC \leq -1.5$ or ≥ 1.5, and

adjusted p-value < 0.05, F and W were transcriptionally similar with only two genes found

differentially expressed.

FBXW7$^{-/-}$ mutants do not exhibit a competitive proliferative advantage over wildtype organoids

Given the transcriptional similarities between W and F organoids, we interrogated the possibility of a

competitive or cooperative effect by co-culturing F organoids with W organoids. This follows from

our earlier work in CRC cell lines where we had shown DNA damage via an AKAP8-mediated

mechanism in wildtype cells adjacent to *FBXW7$^{-/-}$* cells [12]. Similarly, murine *Apc$^{-/-}$* intestinal

organoids co-cultured with wildtype organoids have been shown to demonstrate increased

proliferation as a result of a supercompetitor effect driven by secretion of the Wnt-antagonist

NOTUM from *Apc$^{-/-}$* organoids [13]. As a positive control for our co-culture model, we therefore

generated human *APC$^{-/-}$* organoids (A) and performed lentiviral transduction of A organoids with

pCDH-CMV-mCherry-T2A-Puro (Addgene #72264). W organoids underwent lentiviral transduction

with pCDH-EF1-copGFP-T2A-Puro (Addgene #72263). A and W organoids were co-cultured in equal

proportion, and fluorescent imaging was performed on days 1, 3, 5 and 7 (Extended data figure 1a). In

A and W co-cultured organoids, mCherry-labelled A organoids demonstrated a significant

proliferative advantage in concordance with previously described results performed in murine

organoids (Extended data figure 1c and d). F organoids were co-cultured with W organoids in a

similar fashion. F organoids underwent lentiviral transduction with pCDH-CMV-mCherry-T2A-Puro

(Addgene #72264). In F and W co-cultured organoids, proliferation in both F and W organoids did not

exhibit any differences (Extended data figure 1b, e and f). This was confirmed by an EdU

proliferation assay which showed no difference in EdU positive cells between F and W organoids

grown separately (Extended data figure 1g).

We sought to determine whether F mutants exerted a transcriptional effect on co-cultured W

organoids. In F and W co-cultured organoids, we performed fluorescent activated cell sorting (FACS)

to isolate GFP and mCherry positive cells, representing W and F cells respectively. Sorted cells were

submitted for bulk-RNAseq, and the transcriptome compared to non-co-cultured cells. Again, we

observed that transcriptomes between co-cultured W and non-co-cultured W (Extended data figure

1h), and co-cultured F and non-co-cultured F organoids (Extended data figure 1i) exhibited minimal

differences. Taken collectively, our findings suggest that there is minimal effect of F organoids on

neighbouring W cells, in contrast to our earlier findings in cell lines [12].

FBXW7 mutation provides evidence of epistasis

In light of the lack of a cooperative/competitive interaction with wildtype cells, and building on our

earlier finding that F organoids were transcriptionally similar to W organoids, we generated an

organoid model mirroring the polypoidal and cancerous phases of CRC carcinogenesis (Figure 2a).

An $APC^{-/-}$ mutation introduced into W organoids generated A organoids, representing the polypoidal,

precancerous phase, while a $TP53^{-/-}$ mutation introduced into A organoids, therefore possessing a

double knockout $APC^{-/-}$ / $TP53^{-/-}$ mutation, generated AT organoids and representing the cancerous

phase. On each of these A and AT organoids, an *FBXW7* mutation was then introduced, generating AF

and ATF organoids respectively (Figure 2b).

As previously described, A organoids were morphologically distinct from W organoids [14, 15]. A

organoids grew large and cystic. The subsequent acquisition of a *TP53* mutation preserved this

phenotype. Importantly, an additional *FBXW7* mutation on both the A and AT organoids also

maintained this cystic morphology. To further characterise transcriptional differences between these

different organoids, A, AF, AT and ATF organoids were submitted for bulk-RNAseq. A organoids were

compared with AF organoids, while AT organoids were compared with ATF organoids. We observed

an epistatic effect of the *FBXW7* mutation in our comparison of various groups. Together with our

earlier comparison between F and W organoids which saw only 2 differentially expressed genes, we

observed 87 differentially expressed genes between A and AF, and 294 between AT and ATF (Figure

2c, and Extended data figure 2a and 2b). Hierarchical clustering of these different groups showed that

F and W organoids clustered together, while A, AF and ATF organoids formed separate clusters

(Figure 2d). These results demonstrate that the same *FBXW7* mutation can have varying effects

depending on its mutational background. More importantly, it suggests that an *FBXW7* mutation may

have different cellular effects depending on when the mutation was acquired, and that an early

mutation will have fewer effects compared with a later mutation.

To ensure observations were not an artifact of repeated iterations of gene editing, we targeted the

AAVS1 safe harbour locus three times to replicate the triple-mutant ATF organoids. Morphologically,

AAVS1-targetted organoids resembled wildtype organoids (Extended data figure 3a). Bulk-RNAseq of

AAVS1-targetted organoids compared with W organoids showed only two differentially expressed

genes with a cut-off of $\log_2 FC \leq -1.5$ or ≥ 1.5, and adjusted p-value < 0.05 (Extended data figure 3b),

greatly differing from the 493 differentially expressed genes between ATF and W organoids

(Extended data figure 3c). These findings confirm that epistatic effects described earlier were not

simply a function of repeated iterations of CRISPR-Cas9 gene editing.

Order of *FBXW7* mutation determines its transcriptional effect

To ascertain the transcriptional effect of the order of mutation, we designed an experiment in which

organoids possessed the same mutations, but differed in the sequence in which the mutations were

introduced. As previously described, AF organoids possessed an *APC* mutation, followed by an

FBXW7 mutation. We generated FA organoids, which acquired an *FBXW7* mutation prior to the *APC*

mutation (Fig. 3a). Morphologically, FA organoids did not acquire the cystic phenotype characteristic

of A or AF organoids (Fig. 3b). We submitted AF and FA organoids for bulk-RNAseq. Principal

component analyses of AF and FA organoids gene expression, together with W, A and F organoids

revealed that FA organoids did not cluster with AF organoids (Fig. 3c). Instead, FA organoids

clustered with F and W organoids, while AF organoids clustered with A organoids. To further analyse

the transcriptional effect of changing the order of mutations, we used a cut-off of $\log_2$FC $\leq$ -0.7 or $\geq$

0.7 to identify differentially expressed genes when AF and FA organoids groups were compared with

wildtype organoids. This cut-off selected for 3335 genes in the AF group and 861 genes in the FA

group (Figure 3d). As expected, there was significant overlap in the genes which were differentially

expressed in both groups. In the FA group, 628 (72.9%) genes were also differentially expressed in the

AF organoids. Further analyses of the gene expression changes for these 628 genes suggested a

dampening effect of an earlier *FBXW7* mutation, such that the magnitude of the transcriptional

perturbation was rendered less positive or negative (Figure 3e). Using GSEA, we also observed that

some key signaling pathways involved in carcinogenesis such as the EMT pathway were significantly

more active in FA compared with AF organoids (Normalised enrichment score (NES) 2.21, adjusted

p-value= 1.70 x 10^{-10}). Collectively, these findings promulgate our observation that mutational

background affects the transcriptional effect of a mutation. Moreover, our findings also suggest that

FBXW7 mutations in normal tissue may protect against the future effect of an *APC* mutation, and by

extension, could be protective against the initiation of CRC.

scRNAseq data suggests dedifferentiation towards a fetal state in *FBXW7* mutant organoids

We endeavored to explain our finding that an *FBXW7* mutation was protective to consequences of a

later acquisition of an *APC* mutation, considering our observation that mutational order affects

transcriptomic expression. We hypothesized that subtle transcriptomic changes could be present in F

organoids in small subpopulations of cells which might be masked by bulking during RNAseq. To

overcome this, we performed single-cell RNA sequencing (scRNAseq) on F and W organoids.

Clustering by Uniform Manifold Approximation and Projection (UMAP) showed 14 clusters (Fig.

4a). Notably cluster 13 was unique to *FBXW7* mutant cells (Fig. 4b). This cluster was marked by

genes such as *KRT17* ($\log_2$FC= -1.65, *p*= 2.52 x 10^{-35}), *TAGLN* ($\log_2$FC= -1.33, *p*= 2.81 x 10^{-35}), and

MMP7 ($\log_2$FC= -1.47, *p*= 7.70 x 10^{-34}) and an EMT signature (Extended data figure 4). Importantly,

we observed that wildtype cells expressed *FBXW7*, indicating that this gene is expressed in normal

epithelium (Fig. 4c). Analysis by RNA velocity indicated that cluster 13 was an important terminal

differentiation state, which could only have occurred in *FBXW7* mutant cells (Fig. 4d). As expected,

quantitative analysis between UMAP plots from F and W organoids demonstrated a statistically

significant upregulation of the FA_up gene signature in F organoids relative to W organoids (Fig. 4e).

We also observed increased expression of fetal gene signature [16] (Fig. 4f), and the YAP pathway

gene signature [17] (Fig. 4g) in F organoids. There was also a decreased expression of the intestinal

stem cell signature (ISC) [18] (Fig. 4h), and decreased expression of the crypt-based columnar (CBC)

stem cell signature [19] (Fig. 4i) in F organoids. We re-analysed bulk RNAseq data comparing F and

W organoids using gene set enrichment analysis and found that fetal (Extended data figure 5a) and

YAP (Extended data figure 5b) signatures correlated with our scRNAseq results. We observed a

downregulation of the ISC (Extended data figure 5c) and CBC (Extended data figure 5d) signatures in

bulk RNAseq as in scRNAseq, though this did not achieve statistical significance. In contrast, we did

not observe an FA_up gene signature in our bulk RNAseq comparison of F versus W (Extended data

figure 5e), which could be a function of minimal transcriptional perturbation observed in F organoids

compared with W organoids. To further explore the YAP pathway, we performed additional GSEA on

FA vs W and AF vs W organoids. Intriguingly, this showed greater enrichment of the YAP signature in

FA vs W (ES= 0.58) (Extended data figure 6a) compared to AF vs W (ES= 0.36) (Extended data

figure 6b). Taken together, these findings point towards a reordering of the stem cell hierarchy,

favouring pathways which recall a fetal regenerative/YAP active cell state.

Transcriptional effects of mutational order are driven by local and global changes in chromatin

accessibility

We then sought to uncover the mechanism which resulted in FA and AF organoids exhibiting such

profound transcriptional differences despite identical genotypes. We hypothesized that changes in

chromatin accessibility induced by the earlier acquisition of an *FBXW7* mutation could influence the

effects of a subsequent *APC* mutation. To interrogate this, we performed assay for transposase-

accessible chromatin with sequencing (ATACseq) on W, FA and AF organoids. In total, 14 543 peaks

differed between AF and W organoids, 16 990 peaks differed between FA and W organoids, and 2 156

peaks differed between AF and FA organoids. Reassuringly, these findings suggest that there was

much similarity in the effect of mutational order on chromosome accessibility between AF and FA.

More importantly, we noted that the overall accessibility of the whole genome was reduced in FA vs

W organoids compared with AF vs W organoids (Figure 5a). Concordant with scRNAseq analysis

between F and W organoids, we observed that there was increased accessibility to genes in the CBC

signature in AF vs W organoids compared with FA vs W organoids (Figure 5b). We performed *de*

novo transcriptional factor motif scan using the GADEM algorithm on ATAC-seq peaks from AF vs

W and FA vs W organoids. Two de novo motifs found enriched in the FA vs W organoid comparison

included "nCwGCmCwGn" (Figure 5c) and "rGCAGGTGn" (Figure 5d). The top 3 closest matches

to each of these motifs as per JASPAR database, were *ZNF449*, *TEAD2*, and *TEAD1* and *SNAI1*,

SCRT2, and *CTCFL* respectively. Intriguingly, TEAD1 and TEAD2 motifs were more accessible in

FA vs W organoids relative to AF vs W organoids (Figure 5e). The TEAD transcriptional factor is the

main regulatory factor for the Hippo signaling pathway [20], which in turn activates YAP and TAZ.

This concurs with our scRNAseq analysis of F organoids which showed an upregulation of YAP

pathway gene signature. We also observed increased chromatin accessibility of FA vs W organoids

compared with AF vs W organoids at the SNAI1 transcription factor motif (Figure 5f), which

mediates EMT by repressing E-cadherin expression, therefore concurring with results observed in

bulk RNAseq and scRNAseq analysis of differentially expressed pathways. Taken together, our

findings strongly implicate an epigenetic mechanism in which an early *FBXW7* mutation results in

transcriptional quiescence, and represses the effect of a later *APC* mutation.

Effects of our observed timing of mutation are recapitulated in patient data

To perform patient validation of our findings, we turned towards two datasets to infer the

transcriptional impact of the timing of a mutation. From the TCGA-COAD cohort [21], we identified

48 samples which were *FBXW7^{mut}* and 272 samples which were *FBXW7^{WT}*. We performed single-

sample gene set enrichment analysis (ssGSEA) on each of these samples against our FA_up gene

signature (Figure 6a). Intriguingly, we observed a negative association between our FA_up gene

signature (NES= -1.88, p-value= 2.22 x 10^{-7}), and a positive association between our FA_down gene

signature (NES= 2.10, p-value= 2.12 x 10^{-8}) in a comparison of $FBXW7^{mut}$ vs $FBXW7^{WT}$. As we were

not able to determine when the acquisition of an $FBXW7$ mutation occurred in cancers from the

TCGA-COAD cohort, we can only surmise that $FBXW7$ mutations occurred when the cancer was

already at an advanced stage and therefore did not possess transcriptomic features in keeping with our

FA organoids. In addition, ssGSEA of samples showed there was an inverse relationship between our

FA_up and FA_down gene signatures (correlation score: -0.55, $p<$ 2.2 x 10^{-16}) (Figure 6b).

Reassuringly, this suggests that our FA_up gene signature represents a novel fetal regenerative/YAP

active geneset to identify cancer cells in this state.

We further analysed transcriptional data from the recently published EPICC dataset [10]. Here, the

authors had performed single-gland RNAseq on a number of phenotypically normal glands. We

analysed transcriptional data from phenotypically normal glands, and performed principal component

analysis (PCA) on these glands (Figure 6c). Notably, one gland had an $FBXW7$ mutation in the

absence of an APC mutation, while another gland had an APC mutation in the absence of an $FBXW7$

mutation. Two glands possessed an $FBXW7$ as well as an APC mutation, though it was not possible to

conclusively determine which mutation was acquired first. Intriguingly, the gland with an APC

mutation alone was located on the PCA diagram apart from all other glands. Notably, the two glands

which had both APC and $FBXW7$ mutations also clustered closer to the wildtype and $FBXW7$ mutant

gland, suggesting that these two glands could have acquired the $FBXW7$ mutation prior to the APC

mutation, and therefore could explain why the glands still retained phenotypic normality. We

acknowledge that these inferences have been drawn based on a limited number of glands, but are

encouraged that existing patient-derived transcriptional data demonstrates concordance with our

findings.

Discussion

Recent work has uncovered that molecular background in intestinal tumours influences a complex

interplay between regenerative and homeostatic stem cell populations [19]. Whether similar

processes play a role in pre-neoplasia and how this changes temporally remain unexplored. Using

FBXW7 as an exemplar, our analyses demonstrate that epigenetics underlie the context-specific

cellular response to somatic driver mutations, advancing the notion that tumour genotype alone does

not equate to phenotype.

In our study, we found introducing an *FBXW7* mutation in normal colon organoids generated little

transcriptional response and organoids remained broadly 'wildtype' although primed towards a

foetal/YAP-active state. These findings are compatible with the observation *in vivo* that *FBXW7*

mutations are found in histologically normal crypts but fails to explain why *FBXW7* mutations are

drivers in established CRC. In answer to this we found an epistatic effect of the mutation when

acquired on increasingly complex mutational backgrounds. Historically, epistatic phenomena have

been described in yeast biology and population genetics, but little explored in cancer due to

complexity in modelling.

Building on our demonstration of epistasis we tested whether simply re-ordering mutations generated

similar results. To our surprise not only were FA mutants distinct phenotypically from AF mutants but

transcriptionally they also remained near wildtype despite having lost two major tumour suppressor

genes. Mutational order effects have been described only once before in a *JAK2/TET2* mutant

haematological malignancy [22]. In a highly analogous manner, the authors found these blood

cancers with switched orders had alterations in stem cell hierarchies and transcriptional response.

To understand the link between mutation order, epistasis and stem cell hierarchies we tested whether

an epigenetic mechanism could underly our data. Chromatin accessibility analyses showed that whilst

both FA and AF organoids possessed more permissive chromatin than wildtype, broadly FA chromatin

was less accessible than AF accounting for the general repression in the transcriptional consequences

of an *APC* mutation. However, we found FA organoids did have increased accessibility to TEAD1

and TEAD2 motifs. These data explain the foetal/YAP active state seen with F and FA mutations.

Two very recent studies have explored chromatin landscapes in foetal and adult intestinal organoids

[23, 24]. In highly supportive findings, these studies show similar TEAD-family accessibility in foetal

organoids and *FBXW7* to be a top target in a CRISPR screen for regulators of the foetal intestinal

state. Ultimately, the mechanism by which *FBXW7* effects changes in chromatin accessibility remains

cryptic, though a similar observation has been observed previously [25]. Given FBXW7's important

role in the E3 ubiquitin ligase complex, we speculate that decreased substrate degradation of one or a

number of FBXW7 targets could result in this change in chromatin accessibility, though further work

to elucidate this mechanism will need to be performed.

Overall, our study explains the basis for why *FBXW7* mutations in normal colonic epithelia fail to

induce malignant transformation and provide the rationale for testing the translational impact of

mutational order across a wider mutational spectrum and different cancers.

Methods

Human material for organoid cultures

Ethics approval for the retrieval of human colon specimens was accorded by the University of Oxford

– Translation Gastroenterology Unit (16/YH/0247). Written consent was obtained from all patients.

Organoid culture

Colonic tissue was obtained from adult patients who were undergoing surgery for colorectal cancer. A

1 x 1 cm piece of colon from a region at least 5cm distant from the tumour, and appearing

phenotypically normal was resected. Organoids were derived based on a previously published

protocol [11]. Organoid culture growth media consists of advanced DMEM/F12 (Gibco), and

supplemented with penicillin/streptomycin (Gibco), 10mM HEPES buffer solution (Gibco), 2mM

GlutaMAX (Gibco), 50% Wnt3a conditioned medium (produced from ATCC CRL-2647 cell line),

25% R-spondin conditioned medium (produced from Cultrex HA-R-Spondin1-Fc 293T cells), 1X B-

27 plus supplement (Gibco), 10μM SB 202190 (Tocris), 0.5μM SB 431542 (Tocris), 1μM

prostaglandin E2 (Tocris), 50ng/ml Noggin (Peprotech), 50ng/ml EGF (Peprotech), 10mM

nicotinamide (Sigma-Aldrich), and 1.25mM N-acetylcysteine (Sigma-Aldrich). For selection of APC

mutants, Wnt3a and R-spondin conditioned media were withdrawn from the growth media for at least

3 weeks. For selection of TP53 mutants, growth media was supplemented with 10μM of Nutlin-3 for

at least 1 month (Sigma-Aldrich).

CRISPR/Cas9 gene editing of human organoids

sgRNAs were designed using Synthego's CRISPR Design Tool (Supplementary Table 1). For

FBXW7, a multiguide approach utilising three different guide RNAs in equal concentration was used.

This increased the targeting efficacy given the lack of a selecting agent which can be used to enrich

for *FBXW7* mutants. The AAVS1 site is a commonly used safe harbour locus which served as a

control to ensure studied effects were not a function of CRISPR gene editing.

Our protocol for gene editing human organoids has been described previously [11]. An

electroporation-based approach was used to maximise gene editing efficacy. Cells were first

dissociated into a single-cell suspension using TrypLe (Gibco) by incubating in a 37°C water bath for

10min. triturating at regular intervals. Organoids were then palleted with centrifugation at 400g for 6

min. Palleted organoids were resuspended in advanced DMEM, triturated and palleted by

centrifugation once more. A ribonucleoprotein (RNP) complex comprising Cas9 (Sigma-Aldrich) and

guide RNA in a molar ratio of 1:4 was resuspended in Buffer R (Invitrogen) and left to stand at room

temperature for 10min. Palleted organoids were resuspended in Buffer T (Invitrogen). The RNP

complex and resuspended organoids were then mixed. Electroporation was performed using a Neon

Transfection System (ThermoFisher) with the following settings – voltage 1350V, width 20ms, and

pulses 2. After electroporation, organoids are transferred into advanced DMEM and left to recover for

10min. Centrifugation was performed to pallet organoids, which were then resuspended in BME and

transferred to cell culture plates as described above. Following electroporation, organoids were

incubated for one week and allowed to expand. Primers which generated amplicons of approximately

500bp in length were designed on Benchling (Supplementary Table 1). Amplicons were Sanger

sequenced by an external vendor (Genewiz).

Protein lysates and western blot

Proteins were harvested using RIPA (ThermoFisher) with addition of protease and phosphatase inhibitor cocktails (Sigma-Aldrich). Quantification of protein concentration was performed using BCA assay (ThermoFisher).

For western blot, 30μg of protein was used for each lane. Proteins were separated using a NuPage 4 – 12% Bis-Tris gel (Invitrogen) and transferred onto a 0.45μm nitrocellulose membrane. For phosphorylated proteins, 5% BSA was used. For non-phosphorylated proteins, 5% low-fat milk was used. The membrane was blocked for 1 hour before overnight incubation with primary antibodies at 4°C. Rabbit anti-human FBXW7 antibody (1:2500, BS-8394R, Bioss, USA), rabbit anti-human phosphor-CJUN antibody (1:2500, PA5-40193, Invitrogen, USA), rabbit anti-human CJUN antibody (1:2500, ab40766, Abcam, USA), rabbit anti-human phosphor-CCNE1 antibody (1:2500, ab52195, Abcam, USA), rabbit anti-human CCNE1 antibody (1:2500, ab33911, Abcam, USA), rabbit anti-human phosphor-CMYC (1:2500, ab185655 and ab185656, Abcam, USA), rabbit anti-human CMYC (1:2500, ab32072, Abcam, USA), rabbit anti-human NICD (1:2500, #4147, Cell signalling technologies, USA), rabbit anti-human NOTCH1 (1:2500, ab52627, Abcam, USA), and rabbit anti-human GAPDH (1:2500, ab52627, Abcam, USA) was used. The membrane was then incubated with goat anti-rabbit antibody (1:5000, ab6721, Abcam, USA) at room temperature for 1 hour. The membranes were then imaged with a ChemiDoc XRS+ system (Bio-Rad).

Immunofluorescence and imaging

IF for organoids was previously described in our protocol [11]. Briefly, media from the wells of organoids was removed and fixation with 2% paraformaldehyde was performed. This was incubated at room temperature for 30min. Organoids were then washed with ice-cold DPBS gently, and allowed to settle by gravity. The supernatant was then removed, and blocked with Organoid Blocking Solution comprising DPBS supplemented with 3% BSA, 1% Triton X-100, 1% saponin and 1% secondary antibody animal serum. Blocking was performed for 3 hours at room temperature. Organoids were again allowed to settle by gravity, and the supernatant was removed. Primary antibody diluted in

organoid blocking solution was then added to the organoids for 24 hours at 4°C. Organoids were then

washed with DPBS supplemented with 3% BSA, 1% Triton X-100, and 1% saponin. Secondary

antibody diluted in the organoid washing solution was then added to the organoids for 2 hours at 4°C.

After 2 hours, organoids were again washed with organoid washing solution. Phalloidin stain was

added to the organoids for 60min, before DAPI stain was added to the organoids for 5min. Imaging

was performed with the Andor Dragonfly High-Speed Confocal Microscope Systems (Oxford

Instruments). Antibodies used were mouse anti-human FBXW7 antibody (1:100, H00055294-M02.

Novus Biologicals, USA), goat anti-mouse IgG H&L (Dylight 550) (1:500, ab96872, Abcam, USA),

Phalloidin iFluor 647 (1:400, ab176759, Abcam, USA), and DAPI (300nM, D1306, Invitrogen, USA).

Co-culture of organoids

Transduction of organoids was performed to achieve stable expression of GFP or mCherry

fluorescence. Lentiviral particles were first generated by transfection of HEK293T cells with

pMDLg/pRRE, pRSV-Rev, pSF-CMV-VSVG (Sigma-Aldrich) and either pCDH-EF1-copGFP-T2A-

Puro for GFP fluorescence or pCDH-EF1-copGFP-T2A-Puro for mCherry fluorescence.

pMDLg/pRRE, and pRSV-Rev were gifts from Didier Trono (Addgene plasmid # 12251;

http://n2t.net/addgene:12251 ; RRID:Addgene_12251) [26], pCDH-EF1-copGFP-T2A-Puro and

pCDH-CMV-mCherry-T2A-Puro were gifts from Kazuhiro Oka (Addgene plasmid # 72263 ;

http://n2t.net/addgene:72263 ; RRID:Addgene_72263).

To transduce organoids with the lentivirus particle, the organoids were first dissociated into single-

cells by TrypLe for 10min in a 37°C water bath, with trituration at regular intervals. Single-cells were

centrifuged at 400g for 6 min to pallet cells, which were then passed through a 50μm filter. The

number of cells was then counted using a hemocytometer, and the required number of cells was

aspirated, centrifuged and then palleted. These cells were then resuspended in organoid growth media,

and viral particles were added to achieve a multiplicity of infection (MOI) of 20. Cells were infiltrated

over wells which had been overlaid with a pre-polymerised BME layer and left in a humidified 37°C

incubator for 24 hours. After 24 hours, dead cells were found floating above the BME, while live cells

would have become embedded in the BME. The media and dead cells were aspirated and fresh

organoid growth media was added. Fluorescence was checked using an EVOS M5000 cell imaging

system (ThermoFisher) after 72 hours.

For the co-culture of organoids, a GFP-labelled population was co-cultured with an mCherry-labelled

population in equal amounts to ascertain differences in proliferation. Cell culture wells were imaged

on day 0, 1, 3, 5 and 7 using an EVOS M5000 cell imaging system (ThermoFisher). ImageJ was used

to determine fluorescent intensity on each of these days.

Bulk RNA sequencing and analysis

Extraction of total RNA was performed using the RNeasy Mini Kit (Qiagen) as per manufacturer's

protocol. The quantity and quality of the RNA was ascertained using the Agilent 2100 Bioanalyzer.

Sequencing was performed by the Oxford Genomics Centre, Oxford using an Illumina NextSeq500

instrument using the standard paired-end protocol with a read length of 150bp. Fastq reads were

processed to clip low quality leading and trailing edges and to remove any adapter content using

Cutadapt (v.3.5). Quality checked FASTQ reads were aligned to the GRCh38 human genome and

gene annotation (Ensembl release 105) using STAR aligner (v.2.7.3a) two-pass mode to generate

gene-level quantification. Raw counts were processed in R (v.4.1.3) for all statistical testing and

plotting purposes. Normalisation and differential expression were performed using limma (v.3.50.3).

This included the generation of heatmaps using gplots (v.3.1.1) , volcano plots using ggplot2 (v3.3.5)

and PCA plots using ggfortify (v.0.4.14). Gene set enrichment analysis was performed using fgsea

(v.1.20.0) and GSVA (v.1.42.0).

Single-cell RNA sequencing and analysis

RNA extraction was performed as per bulk RNAseq. ScRNA-seq was conducted using a 5' scRNA-

seq gene expression workflow (10x Genomics). Cells were loaded onto a 10x Chromium Controller

for GEM generation followed by single cell library construction using 10x Chromium Next GEM

Single Cell 5' Library and gel bead kit v1.1 following manufacturer's instructions. Size profiles of

amplified cDNA and final libraries for sequencing were verified by electrophoresis (Agilent 2100

Bioanalyzer system, High Sensitivity DNA Kit), and the concentration of final libraries was measured

with Qubit (Thermo Fisher Scientific). Libraries were sequenced on an Illumina NextSeq 2000 (26

cycles read 1, 8 cycles i7 index, 98 cycles read 2), achieving a mean of 39,412 reads per cell. Gene by

cell barcode quantification matrix were obtained using Cell Ranger (v.7.0.1) and Seurat (v.4.2.0) was

used to perform normalisation and UMAP based cluster assignment of pass cells. Single sample gene

set enrichment analyses (ssgsea) method from GSVA (v.1.42.0) was used on a custom list of gene

signature sets defined by editing the MSigDb (v.7.5.1) pathways to leave out SPERMATOGENSIS,

MYOGENESIS and PANCREAS_BETA_CELLS, and replacing the default

WNT_BETA_CATENIN_SIGNALING set by WNT_SIGNALING gene set (MSigDb systematic

name M5493), as per Househam et al. [27]. Additional gene sets included were – genes up- or down-

regulated in bulk RNA-seq comparison of 'FBXW7-APC' versus 'APC-FBXW7' organoids (adjusted

p-value < 0.05 and logFC >= |1.5|; n= 248 up- and n= 166 down-regulated genes), mouse foetal

gastric epithelium gene set from Vallone et al. 2016 (n= 122 human homologues), intestinal stem cell

signature from Merlos-Suárez et al. 2011 (n= 74), YAP pathway signature from Gregorieff et al. 2015

(n= 213 human homologues), crypt-base columnar (CBC) and regenerative stem cell (RSC) signature

sets from Vazquez et al. 2022 (n= 340 and 206 human homologues respectively)(Supplementary table

3). Enrichment scores obtained per gene set was z-score transformed, and cells with scores greater

than 3rd quartile or less than 1st quartile of the score distribution were termed as enriched or depleted

respectively, for that gene set. To assess statistical enrichment or depletion of a given gene set in

FBXW7 mutant versus wildtype categories, chi-square test was applied on contingency table for cell

counts from enriched or depleted classes. Pearson residuals were visualised using mosaic plot from R

package vcd (v.1.4-11). For RNA velocity analysis, separate count matrices for spliced and unspliced

transcripts were created using Kallisto-Bustools (v.0.27.3) with the La Manno et al. 2018 strategy,

while using the same reference annotation from Cell Ranger (GRCh38, v.2020-A). Spliced/ unspliced

count data were combined with Seurat based UMAP clustering using scVelo (v.0.2.5) under python

v.3.10.6. RNA velocity graph computed was overlaid on UMAP cluster embeddings to infer trajectory

direction.

Assay for transposase-accessible chromatin sequencing (ATACseq) and analysis

Library preparation for ATACseq was performed using the ATAC-Seq Kit (Active Motif) as per the

manufacturer's instructions. Multiplexing was performed using unique i7 and i5 indexed primers. The

quantity and quality of DNA was assessed using the Agilent High Sensitivity DNA Kit, ensuring that

transposed DNA fragments were between 200 and 1000bp, with a periodicity of ~200bp. Sequencing

was performed by the Oxford Genomics Centre, Oxford using an Illumina NextSeq2000 instrument.

Quality checked fastq reads were aligned to the human genome (GRCh38) using bwa aligner

(v.0.7.17). Alignment output (BAM files) were filtered, and TA (Tag Alignment) format data created

using samtools (v.1.14), picard (v.2.6.0) and bedtools (v.2.30.0). Further, MACS3 (v.3.0.0b2) was

used to perform peak calling which were then annotated using ChIPseeker (v.1.30.3). MACS3

identified peaks for the 'AF vs W' and 'FA vs W' comparisons were thresholded to select those with

score (i.e., -10*log(q-value)) >median of the respective distribution, overlapping regions merged and

the 50bp span from the centre of the peak region were extracted as input for *de novo* transcription

factor motif enrichment analysis using rGADEM (v.2.46.0). Identified motifs were plotted using

TFBSTools (v.1.36.0) and annotated for the closest matching core human transcription factors using

JASPAR2020 (v.0.99.0). Gene/ motif-set level visualisation of ATAC-seq signal enrichment was

performed using deeptools (v.3.5.2). Comparative bigwig files were created for 'AF vs W', 'FA vs W'

and 'FA vs AF' with BPM (Bins per million) normalisation, non-covered regions skipped, ENCODE

blacklist regions filtered out and effective genome size adjusted to reflect the filtering. The bigwig

files were then profiled for ATAC-seq signal enrichment with reference-point at the TSS

(Transcription Start Site) and upstream/ downstream 5kb region. Signal enrichments were profiled for

each of these sets –all genes in the genome (gencode v.38; 'Whole Genome'), the CBC gene signature

set ('CBC') and the 50bp genomic regions where de novo motif search identified TEAD1/2 motifs

(542 regions; 'TEAD1/2 motif') or, SNAI1 motifs (491 regions; 'SNAI1 motif').

Validation of results in published datasets

Two independent and published datasets were used to validate our findings. Somatic mutation and

gene expression for the TCGA-COAD cohort were obtained from NCI-GDC data portal [21], to

create a dataset of colon adenocarcinoma cases only from 320 unique patients of whom 48 were

mutated and remaining wild-type for FBXW7. Differential gene-expression between $FBXW7^{mut.}$ and

$FBXW7^{WT}$ samples was performed and the GSEA score for the FA up- and down-regulated gene sets

was evaluated using fgsea (v.1.20.0). Per-sample enrichment scores for the gene sets was calculated

using 'ssgsea' method in GSVA (v.1.42.0). The second validation made use of transcriptomic results

derived from the EPICC dataset [10]. Here, individual gland-level transcriptomic results were

obtained. Generation of heatmaps was performed using gplots (v.3.1.1) and PCA plots using ggplot2

(v3.3.5).

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Author contributions

D.K.H.C. performed the experiments and wrote the initial draft of the manuscript, and was supervised

by S.J.A.B. A.M. performed bioinformatic analysis for the project. S.D.C. assisted with

immunofluorescence of organoids. Y. Z. assisted with generation of plasmids for lentiviral labelling of

organoids. R.O. and X.L. assisted with scRNAseq. J.H. and T.G. contributed the EPICC dataset and

assisted with its analysis. S.J.A.B. was overall in-charge of the project. All authors contributed to

drafting and final approval of the manuscript.

Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

Materials and correspondence

Raw sequence data would be made available via the European Genome-Phenome Archive (EGA), on

publication of the manuscript. Please relay correspondence to Simon Buczacki.

Inclusion and ethics in global research

Research was conducted in accordance with principles of inclusion and good ethics in global research.

Code availability

All relevant scripts to replicate the analysis would be made available on Github on publication of the

manuscript

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Figure legends

Figure 1: Characterisation of W and F organoids. a. Brightfield microscopy of W and F organoids

revealed no observable phenotypic differences. Scale bars represent 500μm. b. Western blot validation

showing loss of FBXW7 protein in F organoids. c. Immunofluorescence of W and F organoids with

DAPI nuclear stain (blue), F-actin (red), FBXW7 (orange). Scale bars represent 100μm. d. FBXW7

targets the phosphorylated substrates and ubiquitinates these substrates for proteasomal degradation.

This included phosphorylated cJun, phosphorylated CCNE1, phosphosylated cMyc, and notch

intracellular domain (NICD). The non-phosphorylated substrates were affected to varying degrees.

While upregulation of cJun, was observed, there was no change in the quantities of CCNE1, cMYC

and NOTCH. e. Volcano plot from bulk RNAseq of F vs W organoids revealed minimal differential

expression of genes. Only *HLA-DQB1* was found to be significantly downregulated, and *GSTM1*

significantly upregulated in F organoids. All experiments were performed with N = 3 biological

replicates.

Figure 2: Effect of *FBXW7* mutation is dependent on the mutational background. a. Schematic

showing the organoid models used in this analysis. W, A and AT organoids were generated to reflect

normal, adenomatous and carcinomatous lesions. On each of these organoid types, an *FBXW7*

mutation was introduced to generate F, AF and ATF organoids respectively. b. Brightfield microscope

of A, AF, AT and ATF organoids. A organoids adopt a cystic phenotype which is representative of

increased proliferation. AF organoids appear smaller in size compared with A organoids. AT organoids

also recapitulate the cystic appearance of A organoids. ATF organoids appear less cystic than AT

organoids. c. The number of differentially expressed genes on the addition of an *FBXW7* mutation

changes based on the mutational background. While 2 genes were differentially expressed between W

and F, 87 and 294 genes were differentially expressed between A and AF, and AT and ATF

respectively. d. Hierarchical clustering of the different organoid types showed that W and F organoids

clustered most similarly together. All experiments were performed with N = 3 biological replicates.

Figure 3: Effect of *FBXW7* mutation is dependent on the order of mutation. a. Schematic showing the

organoid models used in this analysis. A and F organoids were generated separately. On the A

organoid, an *FBXW7* mutation was introduced, generating AF organoids. On the F organoid, an *APC*

mutation was introduced, generating FA organoids. AF and FA organoids possessed the same

mutations but acquired the mutations in an inverse order. b. Brightfield microscope of A, AF, F and

FA organoids. Although FA organoids acquired an *APC* mutation, this did not recapitulate the cystic

phenotype observed in A or AF organoids. c. Principle-component analysis (PCA) showed not only

that FA organoids clustered separately from AF organoids, FA organoids clustered together with W

and F organoids, while AF organoids clustered closer to A organoids. d. Venn diagram depicting the

overlap of differentially expressed genes at cut-off log2FC $\leq$ -0.7 or $\geq$ 0.7 between AF vs W and FA

vs W comparisons. 628 genes were differentially expressed in both AF and FA organoids. e. Analysis

of these 628 genes showed there was a reduction in the magnitude by which the genes were

differentially expressed, suggesting a dampening effect of changing the order of mutation on the

transcriptome. All experiments were performed with N = 3 biological replicates.

Figure 4: scRNAseq of W and F organoids demonstrated differences on gene signature and pathway

analysis. a. Uniform manifold approximation and projection (UMAP) analysis from scRNAseq of W

and F organoids yielded 14 clusters. b. Cluster 13 was unique to F organoids. c. *FBXW7* is actively

expressed in wildtype organoids. d. RNA velocity analysis demonstrated that clusters 1, 8 and 13 were

terminally differentiating subpopulations. Chi-square analysis of W and F organoids demonstrated

that F organoids were enriched for (e) FA_up gene signature (p< 2.22 x 10^{-16}), (f) fetal signature (p=

9.4754 x 10^{-11}), (g) YAP pathway signature (p= 3.2134 x 10^{-7}), and depleted for (h) intestinal stem cell

signature (p= 1.4887 x 10^{-6}) and (i) crypt-based columnar stem cell signature (p< 2.22 x 10^{-16}). All

experiments were performed with N = 3 biological replicates.

Figure 5: ATACseq analysis suggested cell state changes are due to alterations in chromatin

accessibility. a. Chromatin accessibility of the whole genome was decreased in FA vs W organoids

compared with AF vs W organoids, which could account for the dampened transcriptional impact of

FA vs AF organoids. b. Chromatin accessibility of CBC signature genes was increased in AF vs W

organoids compared with FA vs W organoids, in concordance with expression of the CBC signature

observed on scRNAseq. Motif plots of the two *de novo* motifs found enriched in the FA vs W

organoid comparison were (c) "nCwGCmCwGn" and (d) "rGCAGGTGn". Chromatin accessibility of

TEAD1/2 (e) and SNAI1 (f) motifs were upregulated in FA vs W organoids compared with AF vs W

organoids. All experiments were performed with N = 3 biological replicates.

Figure 6: Validation of results in patient data. a. Using TCGA-COAD data, single-sample gene set

enrichment analysis (ssGSEA) of 48 samples which were $FBXW7^{Mut}$ and 272 samples which were

$FBXW7^{WT}$ demonstrated a negative association with the FA_up gene set, and a positive association

with the FA_down gene set in a comparison between $FBXW7^{Mut}$ and $FBXW7^{WT}$. b. Moreover, there

was an inverse relationship between the enrichment score for the FA up- and down-regulated gene sets

(derived from FA vs AF organoids) across the 320 samples in the TCGA-COAD (correlation score: -

0.55, $p < 2.2 \times 10^{-16}$). Together, these suggest that our FA_up gene signature represents a novel fetal

regenerative/YAP active geneset to identify cells in this state. c. PCA of phenotypically normal

intestinal glands from a recently published EPICC dataset [10] showed that a gland with both an *APC*

and *FBXW7* mutation clustered closer to the *FBXW7*-mutant gland and apart from the *APC* gland,

which could account for its phenotypic appearance.

Extended data figure 1: $FBXW7^{-/-}$ organoids do not influence growth of neighbouring wildtype

organoids. $APC^{-/-}$ cells act as supercompetitors which suppress the growth of neighbouring wildtype

cells, evidenced by proliferative advantage of A organoids over neighboring W organoids (a, c, d). A

similar effect was not seen in F organoids co-cultured with W organoids (b, e, f). g. EdU assay for W

and F organoids showed no significant differences in proliferation rate. Volcano plot of co-cultured W

versus non-co-cultured W (h) and co-cultured F versus non-co-cultured F (i) organoids showed that

the effect of co-culture did not significantly influence the transcriptome. The values in this figure are

mean ± sd, and statistical significance was measured by unpaired t-test. All experiments were

performed with N = 3 biological replicates.

Extended data figure 2: Mutational background influences the transcriptomic effect of an *FBXW7*

mutation. a. Volcano plot of AF vs A organoids. b. Volcano plot of ATF vs AT organoids. All

experiments were performed with N = 3 biological replicates.

Extended data figure 3: Effect of epistasis not an artefact of CRISPR/Cas9 gene editing. a. Brightfield

microscopy of organoids which had been gene edited at the AAVS1 loci three times to mimic triple-

mutant ATF organoids. AAVS1 organoids did not adopt a cystic phenotype. b. Volcano plot of AAVS1

vs W organoids. c. Volcano plot of ATF vs W organoids. All experiments were performed with N = 3

biological replicates.

Extended data figure 4: Cluster 13 in F organoids was marked by EMT signature.

Extended data figure 5: GSEA of bulk RNAseq data of F vs W organoids using key pathways derived

from scRNAseq analysis. There was a significant upregulation of the fetal signature [16] (a), and YAP

pathway (b) in F organoids compared with W organoids. There was a negative association in ISC (c)

and CBC (d) signatures though this did not reach statistical significance. We however observed that

our FA gene set was negatively correlated in F organoids (e).

Extended data figure 6: GSEA of bulk RNAseq data of FA vs W and AF vs W for the YAP pathway

signature. There was a stronger association between a. FA vs W organoids, than b. AF vs W organoids

for the YAP pathway signature.

Supplementary Table 1: Guide RNA sequences for CRISPR/Cas9 gene editing with primer sequences

for validation

Supplementary Table 2: Comparison of differentially expressed genes from all bulk RNAseq

experiments

Supplementary Table 3: Gene sets

a

WT   *FBXW7* ⁻/⁻

b

	WT	Mut	Mw
FBXW7			- 66
GAPDH			- 36

c

DAPI	F-actin	FBXW7	Merge

WT

FBXW7 ⁻/⁻

d

	WT	*FBXW7* ⁻/⁻	Mw
pc-Jun - T239			- 43
c-Jun			
pCCNE1 - T395			- 47
CCNE1			
pcMYC - T58			
pcMYC - S62			- 57
cMyc			
NICD			- 30
NOTCH1			- 125
GAPDH			- 36

e

$-\text{Log}_{10}P$

HLA−DQB1

GSTM1

Log_2 fold change

a

b FBXW7⁻ᐟ⁻   WT

c WT

d

e FA signature
FBXW7⁻ᐟ⁻   WT

f Fetal signature
FBXW7⁻ᐟ⁻   WT

g YAP pathway signature
FBXW7⁻ᐟ⁻   WT

h Intestinal stem cell signature
FBXW7⁻ᐟ⁻   WT

i Crypt-base columnar stem cell signature
FBXW7⁻ᐟ⁻   WT

EMT signature