Cross-talk between Hippo and Wnt signalling pathways in intestinal crypts: insights

from an agent-based model.

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Abstract

Intestinal crypts are responsible for the total cell renewal of the lining of the intestines, occurring

every 4-7 days in humans. This rapid turnover is governed by the complex interplay between

signalling pathways and the cell cycle within individual cells in the crypts. The role of Wnt signalling

in governing cell proliferation and differentiation in the intestinal crypt has been extensively studied,

with increased signalling found towards the lower regions of the crypt. Recent studies have shown

that the Wnt signalling gradient found within the crypt may arise as a result of division-based

spreading from a Wnt 'reservoir' at the crypt base. The discovery of the Hippo pathway's

involvement in maintaining crypt homeostasis is more recent; a mechanistic understanding of Hippo

pathway dynamics, and its possible cross-talk with the Wnt pathway, remains lacking. To explore

how the interplay between these pathways may control crypt homeostasis and dysplasia we developed

and analysed a mathematical model coupling an ordinary differential equation description of Wnt and

Hippo signalling with a cell-based description of cell movement, proliferation and contact inhibition.

Furthermore, we compared an imposed Wnt gradient with a division-based Wnt gradient model. Our

results suggest that Hippo signalling affects the Wnt pathway by reducing the presence of free

cytoplasmic β-catenin, causing cell cycle arrest. This process slows the rate of crypt turnover,

previously attributed only to mutations in Wnt pathway components commonly observed in colorectal

cancers. We also show that a division-based spreading of Wnt can form a Wnt gradient, resulting in

proliferative dynamics comparable to imposed-gradient models. This suggests that imposed-gradient

models are a reasonable approximation of experimentally observed Wnt gradients, however they

provide little insight into the source of Wnt. Finally, a simulated APC double mutant, with

misregulated Wnt and Hippo signalling activity, is predicted to be capable of completing a more rapid

monoclonal conversion of the crypt than a Wnt-only mutant.

Author summary

Colorectal cancer is the fourth leading cause of cancer death worldwide. It is generally established

that colorectal cancer occurs upon disruption of the dynamics of crypts, tubular indentations lining the

walls of the gastrointestinal tract that are responsible for renewal of the intestinal epithelium. Thus,

understanding the mechanisms that regulate intestinal crypt dynamics is instrumental to understand

how colorectal cancer can emerge. We used mathematical modelling to explore how crypt dynamics

emerge from the interactions across several biological scales, including mutations that cause an

abnormal cell response to changes at the cell or tissue level, cell proliferation and motility within the

crypt. Our model describes, in each cell within the crypt, levels and dynamics of genes involved in

two signalling pathways – the canonical Wnt and Hippo pathways – relevant for cell proliferation and

adhesion. In simulations, we predict how the crosstalk between these pathways affects crypt dynamics

in both healthy and dysplastic cases. Furthermore, our simulations match recent biological evidence of

a novel mechanism, based on cell division, causing heterogeneous and graded localisation of different

cell types (dividing or not) within the crypt. Our results suggest the possibility of combined disease

treatment, targeting both the Wnt and Hippo pathways.

Introduction

Colorectal cancer is the third most common malignant cancer, and the fourth leading cause of

cancer death worldwide, accounting for roughly 1.4 million new cases and approximately 700,000

deaths in 2012 (1). Although the overall mortality rate for colorectal cancer has been declining by

roughly 2% per year between 1997 and 2007 in the EU, from 19.7 to 17.4/100,000 men and from 12.5

to 10.5/100,000 women (2), mainly due to improved early diagnosis and/or an improved lifestyle,

colorectal cancer still affects a significant number of people worldwide. Improvement of these

statistics (through, for example, new diagnostics and treatment) will depend on a better understanding

of the cellular mechanisms that are responsible for the disease. It has been suggested that there are

specific cancer stem cells that develop and propagate colorectal cancer (3) . Within the intestine, stem

cells reside within crypts, tubular indentations lining the walls of the gastrointestinal tract (4) that are

responsible for the total cell renewal of the intestine lining every 4-7 days in humans (5-7) (more

rapidly in mice (8)). In a healthy crypt, regulatory networks tightly control individual cell and crypt

homeostasis, through multi-level processes such as proliferation, cell adhesion, growth factors and

production of other secreted molecules. Changes to these underlying regulatory networks due to

mutations can disrupt crypt dynamics and eventually result in tumorigenesis. Of particular

significance are the Wingless/Int (Wnt) and Hippo signalling pathways.

The role of the canonical Wnt signalling pathway (i.e. the Wnt/β-catenin pathway, hereinafter

referred to as Wnt pathway) in regulating the expression of target genes linked to proliferation and

differentiation has been extensively studied, both experimentally and theoretically (9-12). Within the

gastrointestinal tract, it is known that Wnt signalling governs proliferative dynamics specific to the

lower regions of intestinal crypts (13). The importance of the Wnt pathway in maintaining a healthy

cell turnover is clear from studies reporting consequences of Wnt signalling dysfunction (13-16), with

the development of intestinal tumours and polyps linked to mutations in the signalling pathway

cascade, and approximately 80% of all human colon tumours reported to show mutations that

inactivate the APC gene (17). The main cellular effect of activation of the Wnt signalling pathway is

to alter the subcellular localisation of β-catenin (9, 15). In the absence of a Wnt signal ('Wnt-Off'),

cytoplasmic β-catenin is rapidly degraded by the destruction complex formed by APC, Axin, Ser/Thr

kinases GSK-3 and CK1 (9). In the presence of a Wnt signal ('Wnt-On'), extracellular Wnt ligands

bind to Frizzled cell surface receptors, causing inhibition of the destruction complex via sequestration

of β-catenin. This leads to the accumulation of unphosphorylated β-catenin in the cytoplasm and thus

increased shuttling of β-catenin to the nucleus, where it binds to TCF/LEF transcription factors and

activates expression of Wnt target genes, many of which regulate cell proliferative dynamics (10).

Typically, malignant transformations of cells within the crypt involve mutations in the APC gene

(18), causing aberrant build-up of β-catenin and expression of Wnt target genes (10, 11, 14, 19). Cell

proliferation occurs predominantly in the bottom third of the crypt (20), with a low level of

extracellular Wnt detected at the crypt orifice and a maximal level at the base (14, 15, 21). Previous

studies have suggested that such a Wnt gradient helps maintain crypt homeostasis (specifically,

constancy in the numbers of different cell types, and overall crypt size), determines subcellular β-

catenin localisation and kinetics and, ultimately, regulates cell-cycle dynamics (22, 23). Indeed, many

theoretical models of crypt dynamics have linked an imposed Wnt gradient directly to cell-cycle

duration (5, 24-26). However, more recent experimental data suggest that the Wnt gradient results

from a cellular division-based spreading of Wnt from the base of the crypt, where there is an effective

reservoir of Wnt, and consequent Wnt dilution throughout the crypt (27).

Aside from Wnt signalling, other processes and signalling pathways also play important roles

in crypt homeostasis. For example, contact inhibition (CI) of cell proliferation is defined as the

cessation of cell-cycle progression due to contact with other cells, leading to a transition to a dense

monolayer of epithelial cells (28). Increased CI can be due to forced reduction in cell volume,

externally applied stress, or increase in the cell density, with solid stress shown to inhibit the growth

of cell spheroids *in vitro*, regardless of differentiation state (29). Overcrowding can also induce live

cell extrusion from the monolayer (30), however, with regards to crypt homeostasis, this appears to

occur towards the crypt orifice, thus beyond the region we would expect proliferative cells to reside.

We consider CI in our investigation, as the precise nature of the mechanisms driving it, possibly

including the interplay of signalling pathways regulating crypt homeostasis, are not well understood

(31, 32).

It has been suggested that the Hippo signalling pathway, which is deregulated in multiple

cancers (33, 34), plays a role in preventing cell proliferation due to CI (35), with signalling linked to

the volume of a cell and the overall stress applied to it (35-37). The Hippo pathway negatively

regulates Yes-associated protein (YAP) and the transcriptional co-activator PDZ-binding motif

(TAZ); the activation of YAP and TAZ promotes cell proliferation and inhibits cell death (28, 32).

The Hippo pathway restricts the availability and functionality of YAP in the nucleus by altering its

level and distribution (31, 38). Over-expression of YAP or its over-activation by Hippo pathway

mutations have been shown to counter the effects of CI *in vitro* and organ size control *in vivo*,

promoting tissue overgrowth and cancer development (32, 33). The Hippo signalling pathway, unlike

other signalling cascades, does not appear to have its own dedicated extracellular peptides and

receptors, but instead relies on regulation by a network of upstream components and mechanisms,

such as cell polarity complexes and adherens junctions (39). It has been suggested that the Hippo

pathway is regulated by the cellular architecture and the mechanical properties of cell environment,

possibly serving as a sensor for tissue structure and mechanical tension (36, 40, 41).

Cross-talk between the Hippo and Wnt signalling pathways has been shown to play a key role

in mediating cell proliferation (35), by reducing nuclear β-catenin levels and, consequently, the

expression of Wnt target genes that control cell-cycle progression. In a Hippo 'off' state, the level of

YAP-P remains stable within the cell, and the YAP-P/β-catenin complex remains at minimal levels in

the cytoplasm. Conversely, in a Hippo 'on' state there is an increase in YAP-P, which binds to free β-

catenin in the cytoplasm creating a YAP-P/β-catenin complex that is unable to localise to the nucleus

of the cell, whilst maintaining its membrane bound activities. These results motivate our development

of a mathematical model able to capture the mechanisms linking Wnt and Hippo signalling and CI,

extending a previously proposed kinetic model of β-catenin within an individual cell (42).

Mathematical modelling has been used to explore crypt dynamics in health and disease, and

to better understand how colorectal cancer can emerge from the interactions across several scales of

biological processes, such as mutations that cause an abnormal intracellular response to changes at

either the cell or tissue levels, and cell proliferation, motility and adhesion (43). Existing

mathematical models of crypt dynamics have focussed on Wnt signalling, including its role in

monoclonal conversion (the process by which a crypt is populated in its entirety by the progeny of a

single ancestor cell (24, 44)), and the effects on subcellular β-catenin localisation on the cell cycle

(25). Recently, the possible effects of cell-cycle cessation caused by contact-dependent factors have

been investigated by modelling CI as cell-cycle cessation linked to cell volume (5). In all these

models, Wnt is assumed to act on cells via an imposed and external gradient. Earlier models assumed

that Wnt affects cell-cycle progression dynamically, while a more recent work suggests that cell-cycle

duration is dependent on the Wnt signal available immediately after mitosis (5).

In what follows, we consider two Wnt models in the multicellular context: the first assumes

that Wnt exists as an externally-imposed gradient, with variants as described above, where the Wnt

level received by each cell either changes throughout its cell cycle or is updated at the point of each

cell division. The second model considers the Wnt level to be an intrinsic property of each individual

cell, instead of being prescribed only externally, and hence allows us to test the hypothesis of an

emergent Wnt gradient in the crypt. In this second model, Wnt is distributed between the daughter

cells following each cell division, with a Wnt source 'reservoir' region located at the base of the crypt.

In the case of the small intestine this is akin to the region of Paneth cells that can transfer Wnt to

neighbouring cells, although this diffusion has been shown to be limited to 1-2 neighbour cells (27,

45). A more recent study has suggested an additional source of Wnt proteins in FOXL1+ telocytes,

which form a subepithelial plexus extending from the stomach to the colon, again localised towards

the base of the crypt (46).

More fundamentally, models of crypt dynamics that explicitly include the Hippo signalling

pathway are lacking, preventing a thorough analysis of the effects of Wnt/Hippo crosstalk. To address

this, we propose a new model that describes both Hippo and Wnt signalling pathway dynamics, which

links their activity to cellular proliferation and CI. We initially consider the effects of Hippo and Wnt

at the single-cell level, and analyse their combined role in cell-cycle cessation. Moving to a

multicellular framework, we show that crypt dynamics remain fundamentally unaltered upon

incorporation of CI via Hippo signalling; the latter, however, plays a crucial role in the monoclonal

conversion probabilities upon mutations in Wnt pathway genes.

Results

Intracellular modelling of Wnt/β-catenin and Hippo signalling pathways

We developed an ordinary differential equation (ODE)-based kinetic model to capture the

combined effects of Wnt/β-catenin and Hippo signalling on intracellular dynamics. Our model builds

on the formalism proposed by van Leeuwen *et al*. (42), which distinguishes adhesive and

transcriptional functions of β-catenin. Although alternative models of Wnt signalling exist (47-50),

the van Leeuwen formalism was chosen as it incorporates important mechanistic features of the

canonical Wnt pathway (including sequestration of β-catenin by the destruction complex, and

activation/inactivation of the destruction complex) and couples β-catenin localisation with cell-cycle

progression (22). Specifically, when β-catenin localises at the cell membrane, it regulates the

formation of E-cadherin-dependent cell-cell contacts, connecting adherens junction proteins to the

actin cytoskeleton (42). Accumulation of β-catenin within the cytosol results in its nuclear

translocation, activating the transcription of target genes linked to cell-cycle progression and cell-

survival. Thus, cytoplasmic β-catenin can either: (a) be sequestered by molecules linked to Wnt gene

transcription to form transcriptional complexes, (b) form adhesive complexes at adherens junctions, or

(c) undergo Wnt-mediated degradation.

We extended the model to include the effect of Hippo on Wnt signalling, to implement cell

volume-dependent CI. As postulated by Imajo *et al*. (35), we modelled the Hippo signalling-governed

concentration of cytoplasmic phosphorylated YAP to cause a reduction in the levels of nuclear β-

catenin. This is in line with experiments showing that Hippo signalling causes increased

phosphorylation of YAP, combined with the formation of YAP-P/β-catenin complexes within the cell

but constrained to the cytoplasm (31, 34, 35). We assumed that the mechanism of CI is a reduction of

cell volume below the equilibrium volume of a typical crypt epithelial cell, as this should correlate

with an increase in surface stress due to cellular crowding in an epithelial monolayer, as well as an

increase in cell density (29). We therefore altered the kinetic model to include a volume-dependent

nuclear sequestration rate of β-catenin, $\hat{p}_H$ (35), which describes how volume-dependent Hippo

signalling decreases the nuclear localisation of β-catenin (thus increasing its cytoplasmic presence

without altering its total cellular concentration) and, consequently, cell proliferation dynamics. When

the cell volume drops below a threshold the rate $\hat{p}_H$ increases linearly within the range indicated in

Table S1.

Figure 1a shows schematically the interplay between Wnt and Hippo signalling in our model,

that is the basis for the kinetic diagram in Figure 1b, representing interactions between free axin (X),

adhesive molecules (A), the active destruction complex (D), the β-catenin/YAP-P complex (C_H), four

molecular forms of β-catenin (C_i, i = A, C, T and U, corresponding to β-catenin contained in the

adhesive junction, cytoplasm, transcriptional complexes, and marked for ubiquitination/degradation,

respectively), transcriptional molecules (T), and the Wnt target protein (Y).

The temporal Wnt/Hippo dynamics within a single cell were modelled as a system of 10

Ordinary Differential Equations (ODEs, Figure S1); they describe the aforementioned effects of

Hippo signalling via the phosphorylated YAP/β-catenin complex, as well as CI effects (details in

Supplementary Information). The Wnt/Hippo model is mainly based on mass-action and Hill kinetics

(51); it was derived from the original publication (25), and, as such, the parameters were left

unchanged in Equations 1-9 where used previously (Figure S1, Table S1). As an extension to the

original model, we described the dynamics of the β-catenin/YAP-P complex (C_H, Equation 10, Figure

S1) to account for the effects of Hippo signalling on β-catenin localisation; we used again Hill terms,

similarly to those in Equations 2 and 7 (Figure S1). The interplay between the Wnt/Hippo signalling

and the cell-cycle is governed by the amount of transcriptional β-catenin (C_T); the latter links the

signalling ODE model (Figure S1) to the cell-cycle model (ODEs in Figure S2, unchanged from the

original work in (25); further details in Supplementary Information).

To explore the effect of Hippo signalling on cell-cycle duration and fix the new parameters in

the Wnt/Hippo model (Equation 10, Figure S1), we performed a parameter sensitivity analysis,

varying the YAP-P/β-catenin complex binding rate ($\hat{p}_H$) and dissociation constant (K_H); these

parameters govern the effectiveness of the inhibition of nuclear β-catenin localisation and,

consequently, CI. A description of this single-cell analysis is included in the Supplementary

Information. The results, shown in Figure 2a, suggest that the saturation coefficient (K_H) has some

effect on cell-cycle duration but, more significantly, alters the effective range over which the binding

rate ($\hat{p}_H$) controls cell-cycle duration, with changes in the binding rate having the largest effect on

delaying and eventually stopping proliferation. We therefore assigned a value to the saturation

coefficient K_H (Table S1) which, when combined with Wnt signalling effects on β-catenin

localisation, did not cause premature cessation of the cell cycle.

We then investigated how the cross-talk between the Hippo and Wnt pathways affects the

duration of the cell cycle (*i.e* the time taken for the levels of E2F1 -Equation 2, Figure S2- to surpass

the threshold for initiating the transition from the G_1 to the S phase of the cell cycle, as in Swat *et al*

(22)). Setting the saturation term K_H to 100nM, to allow for an appropriately sized range over which to

vary the binding rate, a concurrent increase in the YAP-P/β-catenin complex binding rate ($\hat{p}_H$), and

decrease in Wnt signalling, cause a delay and eventual cessation of the cell cycle (Figure 2b).

These results suggest that cells experiencing lower Wnt concentrations are more susceptible

to inhibition of proliferation by Hippo signalling as there is less free β-catenin localised in the

cytoplasm. This single-cell analysis suggests that the reduction in cytoplasmic β-catenin levels caused

by Hippo signalling is able to prevent the progression through the cell cycle, thus inhibiting

proliferation.

Multiscale modelling of the intestinal crypt

We incorporated the subcellular Hippo/Wnt ODE model described above into a multiscale

model of the intestinal crypt, implemented in Chaste (52, 53), a computational platform previously

used to simulate colonic crypt dynamics (5, 24, 25, 44, 54), amongst other multicellular systems (55,

56). The modelling of the epithelial cells that make up the intestinal crypt is organised into three

interconnected modules: 1. the mechanical model, governing the cell-cell interactions and cell

movement; 2. the cell-cycle model, describing how each cell progresses through the G1, S, G2 and M

phases, and eventually divides; and 3. a subcellular model, describing the Hippo/Wnt signalling

pathway kinetics as in the previous section.

We modelled the geometry of the crypt as a cylinder lined with epithelial cells, unrolled to a

planar domain with periodic boundary conditions (Figure 2c). We coupled the cell-cycle model to the

Wnt/Hippo ODE model (Supplementary Information) to account for CI effects: the YAP-P/β-catenin

complex is able to cease cell-cycle progression by decreasing the level of Wnt signalling. To

accomplish this, the Hippo signalling module in each cell (i.e. agent) is volume-dependent, and

effectively reduces the level of free β-catenin able to localise into the nucleus, activate target genes

and ultimately promote cell-cycle progression (Supplementary Information). This mechanism causes a

competition between the two pathways: an increase in Wnt shortens the cell cycle, while increasing

Hippo signalling lengthens it.

We consider two different Wnt models. The first (labelled M1) includes Wnt as an externally-

imposed gradient, and has two variants: static (model M1a), in which each cell reads its Wnt signal at

birth (5), and dynamic (model M1b), in which each cell continuously updates its Wnt level, as in

previous models (24, 25). In the second Wnt model (labelled M2), each cell contains an independent

level of Wnt, split with each cell division event between the two daughter cells.

The effects of Hippo and Wnt signalling on wild-type crypt homeostasis

Wnt Model M1: externally-imposed Wnt gradient, with static (M1a) or dynamic (M1b)

updating

We investigated, under physiological conditions (i.e. wild type cells), how crypt renewal

dynamics are affected by CI and by cross-talk between the Wnt (prescribed as an external gradient;

models M1a and M1b) and Hippo pathways by measuring both the mitotic index (i.e., the percentage

of cells undergoing mitosis at any given point in time), as a proxy for the proliferative capacity of

cells, and the distribution of cell velocities throughout the crypt, to provide a snapshot of crypt

motility (Figure 3). We varied two relevant parameters: the CI threshold, and the Wnt level within the

crypt. The CI threshold — defined as the cell volume below which the YAP-P/β-catenin complex

prevents progression through the cell cycle — is defined as a percentage of the equilibrium cell

volume enabling proliferation, and was set to either 60% or 90%; in the latter case, more cells are

affected by CI. The Wnt level — defined as the position in the crypt at which the external Wnt

gradient reaches its minimum value — is set to either 40% or 100% of the height of the crypt (Figure

2c, right panel), as an attempt to account for the proliferative differences of crypts within the small (7,

16) and large intestine (8), respectively.

The effect of varying Wnt level on mitotic activity (Figure 3a and b) is that, for maximal Wnt

level (Figure 3a), the proliferative 'niche' extends further up the crypt than for lower Wnt (Figure 3b);

in the latter case, there is a rapid drop-off of mitotic index at approximately 30% of the crypt height.

The main difference between the static (M1a) and dynamic (M1b) Wnt models (Figures 3a and b,

solid and dashed lines, respectively) is a more rapid drop-off in the mitotic index using the latter

approach. This is because updating Wnt level dynamically causes cells to react instantly to changes in

the external Wnt level as they move up the crypt, resulting in a more rapid cell-cycle cessation.

Varying the threshold volume at which cells are contact-inhibited (Figures 3a and b, red and

blue lines corresponding to 60% and 90% of CI threshold, respectively) has a greater effect when cells

reach the top of the proliferative niche where the Wnt signal decreases. This result shows that the

volume-dependent prevention of β-catenin nuclear localisation, and hence the reduction in mitotic

proportion, are more pronounced when there is less free β-catenin to be sequestered. These results

match our single-cell simulations, which suggested that the region over which CI is active is reduced

with a lower Wnt signal. Also, our crypt simulations indicate that inhibiting the cells at 90% of their

equilibrium volume results in a reduction in mitotic activity of approximately 15% at the base of the

crypt and of over 40% towards the top of the proliferative 'niche'. This suggests that CI within the

crypt is as capable of affecting the proliferative activity of the crypt cells as changing the method of

Wnt signalling within the crypt.

We checked that our new model, introducing CI, does not dramatically affect the proliferative

dynamics in a wild-type crypt when compared to previous models (5, 24, 25). This is confirmed by

the results (Figures 3a and b), which suggest that the differential effects of Wnt on proliferation

dynamics are greater than those of increasing CI effects.

Varying the threshold volume at which cells are contact inhibited from 60% (Figures 3c and

d, red boxes) to 90% (Figures 3c and d, blue boxes) of equilibrium volume, results in a reduction in

mean crypt velocity of 33%, whilst decreasing the threshold for Wnt from 100% of the crypt to 40%

of the crypt (Figures 3c and d, respectively) results in a reduction in mean crypt velocity of 38%. This

qualitative similarity is due to the limited effect of CI in a wild type crypt where cells are not, in

general, significantly smaller than their expected equilibrium volume.

Overall, these agent-based simulations suggest that Wnt signalling levels are the main

regulator of cell proliferation within the crypt. Hippo signalling also plays an important role, as

Hippo-dependent CI reduces proliferative activity within the crypt, with the largest effects seen in the

100% Wnt case, due to the larger number of proliferative cells affected by CI. Considering the two

Wnt hypotheses for this externally-imposed Wnt model — static (M1a) and dynamic (M1b) — the

reduced mitotic activity in the M1b crypt is not in line with the mitotic activity seen experimentally

(6), which suggests that the static (M1a) modelling hypothesis is more physiologically plausible.

Wnt Model M2: cell division-based Wnt

A prescribed and fixed external gradient of Wnt is a feature of existing computational models

of crypt dynamics, effectively prescribing a spatial proliferation threshold (5, 24, 25). We modified

our model to account for the aforementioned recent experimental results suggesting an alternative,

division-based Wnt process (27), and investigated whether this approach could result in an emergent

Wnt gradient in the crypt. We therefore set only cells at the base of the crypt to receive a maximal

Wnt signal, forming a Wnt reservoir, whose size (as a proportion of the height of the crypt) is a model

parameter. It has been shown experimentally that Wnt does not readily diffuse into surrounding

cells (27), and we therefore neglected diffusion-based spreading of Wnt. Instead, Wnt is shared

stochastically between daughter cells, so that daughter cells contain a proportion $0.5\pm\xi$ of the mother

cell's Wnt level at each division (57), where ξ is a sample from a Normally distributed random

variable with zero mean and standard deviation σ (set as a model parameter), appropriately truncated

to ensure the proportion remains in the interval [0,1].

Initial simulations, carried out with noiseless Wnt allocation on division (i.e. $\sigma = 0$), resulted in

emergent Wnt gradients over the crypt domain (Figures 4a, b). Increasing the size of the Wnt

reservoir from 10% to 20% of the crypt height reduces the steepness of the resultant Wnt gradient,

without affecting the mean Wnt density at the top of the crypt, so that it more closely resembles the

imposed linear Wnt gradient of previous models.

We then introduced noise in the allocation of Wnt and repeated the wild type crypt *in silico*

experiments with 5% ($\sigma=0.05$) and 10% ($\sigma=0.1$) noise, in both the 10% and 20% Wnt reservoir crypts

(Figures 4c, d). The mean Wnt gradient is not strongly affected by the introduction of this division

noise, as expected as the mean of the noise added is zero. Mitotic index results (Figures 4c and d)

show that, considering division-based spreading of Wnt with no noise (blue lines), there is a reduction

followed by a sharp increase in mitotic activity in the region where the first cell division occurs (at

approximately 20%/40% of the total height of the crypt, in case of a 10%/20% Wnt reservoir,

respectively). When introducing noise in Wnt allocation upon division (Figures 4c and d, red and

green lines), this reduction and subsequent increase in mitotic activity is smoothed, better capturing

the mitotic activity recorded experimentally (6). The latter results suggest that the distribution of Wnt

between daughter cells upon cell division might not be purely symmetric, which has been suggested

in a previous study (57). A comparison of externally imposed versus division-based Wnt model

simulations (Figures 3a, b and Figures 4c, d, respectively) suggests that a crypt with a 10% Wnt

reservoir is representative of a colonic crypt, while a 20% Wnt reservoir can resemble small intestinal

crypt dynamics (6, 7). The presence of Paneth cells in the small intestinal crypt could account for this

larger required Wnt reservoir that we see in our experiments; conversely, an external Wnt signal that

does not extend for the full height of the crypt would also suffice in explaining this larger Wnt

presence.

Introducing mutations in both Wnt and Hippo signalling in the crypt

Finally, we investigated the effects of CI on a dysplastic crypt; in this case, there can be a significant increase in cell number due to over-proliferation of mutant cells, resulting in a decrease in cell volume, at which point the effects of CI may play a more significant role. We considered a possible APC double-mutant (58), where there is total disruption of the β-catenin destruction complex (18, 26) as well as disruption to Hippo signalling within the cell (35); as a result, APC double-mutant cells hyper-proliferate throughout the crypt. The mutant has proliferative dynamics independent of both Wnt signal and cell volume. In what follows, we consider only the most realistic imposed external Wnt model (M1a) and the cell division-based Wnt model (M2). We conducted *in silico* experiments, varying the threshold volume at which Hippo signalling is active in the healthy cells, together with the size of the Wnt gradient (in M1a) and of the Wnt reservoir (M2); Figure 5 shows mutant cell washout probabilities (i.e. the likelihood of healthy cells being able to remove the mutant from the crypt) upon insertion in the crypt of one APC double-mutant cell.

In the imposed Wnt gradient crypt (M1a, Figure 5a), an increase of the Wnt signal from 40% to 100% of the crypt (Figure 5a, red and blue lines respectively) resulted in only a small change to the washout probability at low levels of CI. Conversely, at the maximal CI volume threshold (90% of equilibrium volume), the washout probability increases from approximately 45% in the 100% Wnt case to 70% in the 40% Wnt case, as the advantage of the mutant cell is reduced due to increase of proliferating healthy cells; recall that only wild type cells are affected by CI, and that mutant cells proliferate independent of cell volume and Wnt level. The increase in level of CI (from 60% to 90% of equilibrium volume) reduces the washout probability by nearly half in the 40% Wnt crypt (Figure 5a, red line). It is in this case where the advantage gained by a mutant cell from the combination of its increased proliferative capacity and CI is most significant. The reduction in washout probability is also comparable with previous models, where additional advantage was predicted to be gained by the mutant cell through its increased adhesion to the crypt substrate and to the surrounding cells (24). Of note, we did not model the altered adhesion of mutant cells, to specifically focus on signalling- and volume-dependent CI.

In the division-based Wnt model (M2, Figure 5b), simulations of the same mutant takeover

show that, for maximal CI volume (90% of equilibrium volume), an increase in the size of the Wnt

reservoir from 10% to 20% of the height of the crypt (Figure 5b, red and blue lines respectively)

results in a large increase in the relative washout probability (from approximately 45% to 70%).

Decreasing the volume threshold for CI resulted in a smaller decrease in the washout probability of

that in the imposed-Wnt-gradient crypt with high Wnt (Figure 5, blue lines), but similar behaviour for

low-Wnt (Figure 5, red lines).

Overall, the simulated dysplastic dynamics qualitatively match those predicted by the

imposed Wnt gradient model, with a reduction in washout probability resulting from a stronger level

of CI, and an increase in washout probability in response to a higher level of Wnt in the crypt.

Discussion

Although the role of the Wnt signalling pathway in governing the proliferative dynamics of

cells within intestinal crypts has been extensively studied, a comprehensive understanding of the

mechanisms linking Wnt signalling to other relevant pathways, cell mechanical properties, and cell -

cycle progression in health and disease is still lacking.

In this work, we considered how two variations of a previously-proposed Wnt model affect

the proliferative dynamics of intestinal crypts. We developed a new multiscale computational model

of crypt dynamics, which showed that linking Wnt signalling at the point of cell division (static Wnt),

as opposed to continually updating Wnt levels over the cell lifetime (dynamic Wnt), provides a more

realistic representation of cell proliferation.

Previous models have assumed the existence of a fixed and externally-imposed gradient of

Wnt within the crypt, with a maximal amount of Wnt found at the base, decreasing linearly with

height. Based on recent experimental observations, we developed a model that assumes Wnt is

internally held by each cell, supplied initially only to cells in a reservoir at the base of the crypt. We

showed that subsequent division events create an emergent gradient of Wnt similar to that imposed by

existing Wnt models. Noise in the Wnt allocation to daughter cells following mitosis does not

significantly affect the overall Wnt gradient, but does smooth the distribution of mitotic activity

within the crypt. Increasing the size of the Wnt reservoir controlled the properties of the Wnt gradient,

in terms of its steepness and linearity. Furthermore, our results suggest that the spatial localisation of

the Wnt reservoir can affect the crypt's dynamics, both wild-type and dysplastic, as much as the total

amount of Wnt available.

In order to elucidate the mechanisms underpinning cellular CI within the crypt, we extended a

Wnt regulatory network model to additionally include the role of Hippo signalling in phosphorylating

YAP/TAZ; the latter has been suggested to trap β-catenin within the cytoplasm and at the

extracellular matrix, preventing nuclear accumulation and subsequent expression of Wnt target genes

linked to cell-cycle progression (59). Our extended regulatory network is sensitive to a reduction in

nuclear accumulation of β-catenin; single-cell model simulations showed that Hippo signalling can

reduce nuclear β-catenin accumulation, and cause the rapid cessation of the cell cycle, matching

experimental observations (35). Agent-based simulations including the Wnt/Hippo signalling

coupling, with the levels of Hippo signalling further linked to cell volume, validated the single-cell

analysis: the length of the cell cycle increases, and eventually proliferation ceases, as the cell volume

decreases. Cells with low Wnt levels are more susceptible to CI; as the level of unphosphorylated β-

catenin within the cell is reduced, the amount needed to bind to YAP-P to prevent nuclear

accumulation and subsequent transcription of target genes linked to proliferation is reduced.

To investigate the effect of mutations within the crypt, we performed agent-based simulations

(using both an external-gradient Wnt model with static Wnt, and the internal division-based Wnt

model) with an APC double-mutant cell introduced into the crypt. The simulated mutation causes

altered destruction complex kinetics in the Wnt signalling, as well as disruption of the Hippo

signalling module. Increasing the amount of Wnt within the crypt did not affect the washout

probability of the mutant cells at low levels of CI, with the advantage of the mutant cells not

significantly reduced by the increase in proliferation caused by Wnt upregulation. The main

difference arose from increasing the volume threshold for CI in the cells, with the largest decrease in

the washout probability seen at a volume threshold of 90% of the healthy cell equilibrium. The effect

on washout probability and cell velocity of this mutant was similar to that of increased adhesion

observed previously (44). Critically, moving from the external-gradient to the internally held and

division-based Wnt model did not qualitatively affect the increased mutant advantage, further

suggesting cell division as a plausible mechanism for the experimentally-observed Wnt gradient (27,

46).

The results of our study suggest the possibility of combined disease treatment, targeting both

the Wnt and Hippo pathways. There are also several possible avenues for further study, to better

understand the dynamics of the crypt. In the division-based Wnt model, we assumed a reservoir at the

base of the crypt within which cells can uptake Wnt, as a simplification of the presence of Wnt

secreting cells at the crypt base. A more detailed model should explicitly consider such cells, and Wnt

secretion, in addition to possible uptake from an external reservoir. Our model also simplifies the

Hippo-based sequestration of β-catenin within the cell; one worthwhile extension would be to explore

the extent to which Hippo signalling either traps β-catenin within the cytoplasm or actively transports

it to the extracellular matrix, in turn causing changes to the adhesive behaviour of the cells. Aside

from Wnt and Hippo signalling, other processes also play important roles in crypt homeostasis, and

would be valuable additions to a more detailed model. For example, the Notch signalling pathway

coordinates cell fate specification via interaction with the Wnt pathway (60). More fundamentally,

intestinal organoids represent a significant opportunity to investigate crypts *in vitro*; while

computational models exist in the literature (43, 47-50), they do not all contain the level of detail

described here. By introducing Wnt-secreting cells, and combining them with signalling network

dependent cell-cycle models, it could be possible to create a self-sustaining organoid growth model

which mimics the *in vivo* dynamics of intestinal crypts.

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476   Author Contribution

477   DW, AGF, MH and LM designed this research; DW implemented the mathematical models,

478   generated simulations, analysed results and prepared the figures; AGF supported agent-based

479   simulations; DW, AGF, MH and LM wrote the manuscript; MH and LM supervised the project. All

480   authors read and approved the final manuscript.

482   Competing interests

483   The authors have declared that no competing interests exist.

485   Methods

The single-cell model combines the subcellular Wnt/Hippo signalling model, as described by a set of

10 Ordinary Differential Equations (ODEs, Figure S1) and the cell-cycle model, which is described

by 5 additional ODEs (Figure S2). The signalling model adapts a formalism previously proposed (25,

42) to describe the dynamics of β-catenin and the effects of signalling (Wnt) on the cell-cycle, to

further include Hippo-signalling-dependent complex (β-catenin/YAP-P, Equation 10, Figure S1) and

its effect on free β-catenin. The cell-cycle model used (both equations and parameters) is as in Swat

et. al. (22).

The agent-based model was implemented within the Chaste (v. 3.3) modelling framework (52, 53).

Further details about model assumptions, equations, parameters, and simulation settings, can be found

in Supplementary Information.

The Chaste project folder for reproducing all agent-based simulations is available at

https://figshare.com/s/5bfa5b61396b29e4641f

     Figure Legends

Figure 1. Wnt/Hippo signalling network

(a) Schematic showing β-catenin cellular localisation, dependent on Wnt and Hippo signalling. β-

catenin exists either in the cytosol or in the nucleus, with its localisation directly affecting cell-cycle

progression. In the Wnt-Off state (left panel), β-catenin is degraded in the cytosol by a complex

comprised of APC, Axin and GSK3, preventing β-catenin nuclear localisation. In the Wnt-On state

(right panel), the destruction complex is disrupted by Disheveled (Dsh), resulting in increased β-

catenin concentration and its nuclear localisation. This causes the displacement of Groucho in the

nucleus and transcription of Wnt target genes linked to proliferation and cell-cycle progression. Hippo

signalling causes the phosphorylation of YAP/TAZ within the cytosol. Phosphorylated YAP/TAZ

binds to cytosolic β-catenin, preventing its nuclear accumulation and, in turn, transcription of Wnt

target genes and cell-cycle progression. **(b)** Network diagram resulting from the schematic in (a) and

describing the kinetics within the cell. C_A, C_C, C_T, and C_U are the levels of adhesive-linked β-catenin

at the cell surface, cytosolic β-catenin, transcriptional nuclear β-catenin, and β-catenin marked for

degradation, respectively. A, T, and D denote the concentrations of molecular species forming

complexes with β-catenin at the cell surface (forming adhesive complexes at the adherens junction),

within the nucleus, and within the destruction complex, respectively. X and Y denote the

concentrations of Axin and transcribed Wnt target proteins, respectively. C_H denotes the concentration

of β-catenin/YAP complex formed due to Hippo signalling in the cell. Signalling-dependent rates are

indicated by the coloured arrows (yellow for Wnt dependence, pink for Hippo dependence).

Figure 2. Single-cell ODE model of Hippo/Wnt signalling network

(a) Single-cell sensitivity analysis of the Hippo signalling module; parameters $\hat{p}_H$ and K_H represent

the binding and dissociation rates of phosphorylated YAP/β-catenin and its complex, respectively.

The coloured region shows the length of the cell cycle, and the white region represents cell-cycle

cessation. **(b)** Single-cell sensitivity analysis of the Hippo-dependent cell cycle as a function of (static

input) Wnt level and $\hat{p}_H$. **(c)** Schematic diagram of the 3D to 2D projection method, 'unrolling' the

cylindrical crypt to a planar domain with periodic boundary conditions. The right panel illustrates the

imposed-gradient Wnt model M1, in the two considered cases of minimum Wnt level at 40% and

100% of the height of the crypt, and the resultant effect on cell proliferation region.

Figure 3. Multiscale dynamics of Hippo and Wnt signalling, and Hippo-dependent contact-

inhibition (CI), in wild type crypt with imposed Wnt gradient (M1)

(a, b) Effects of Hippo signalling-based CI on Wnt signalling-dependent cell cycle measuring mitotic

indices (proportion of cells undergoing mitosis as a function of position in the crypt). We considered

both static (M1a, solid lines) and dynamic (M2a, dashed lines) Wnt cell models (Wnt assigned at birth

or continually updated, respectively), with Wnt signalling affecting 100% (a) or 40% (b) of the crypt.

The different volumes at which cells undergo CI are indicated by red lines (CI at 60% of equilibrium

volume) and blue lines (CI at 90% of equilibrium volume). **(c, d)** Velocity whisker plots for a crypt

cell population using the static (M1a) Wnt model, and Wnt signalling affecting 100% (c) or 40% (d)

of the crypt. The box plots indicate the median velocity of the cells at increasing heights up the crypt,

with the box representing the 25th and 75th percentiles respectively. The whiskers extend to the most

extreme velocities recorded over the course of the 150 repeated experiments**.**

Figure 4. Multiscale crypt dynamics using a cell division-based Wnt model (M2)

540   **(a, b)** Wnt gradient through the crypt for the cell division-based Wnt model (M2), with (a) 10%, and

541   (b) 20% crypt-height Wnt reservoir. **(c, d)** Mitotic activity, with asymmetric division of Wnt between

542   daughter cells in crypts with (c) 10% and (d) 20% crypt-height Wnt reservoir; blue, red and green

543   lines represent symmetric division, 5% and 10% noise, respectively. The shaded regions show the

544   resultant standard deviation across the repeated experiments.

Figure 5. Washout probabilities upon mis-regulated Wnt and Hippo signalling activity

(a, b) Washout probabilities for APC double-mutant crypt, starting from a single mutant cell

introduced at the base of the crypt using (a) externally-imposed gradient (M1a) or (b) cell-division

based (M2) Wnt models. Red and blue lines represent the low (40% Wnt threshold/10% Wnt

reservoir) and high (100% Wnt threshold/20% Wnt reservoir) Wnt cases, respectively. Increasing the

threshold for CI reduces the probability of mutant washout. Shaded regions represent 95% confidence

intervals.

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Figure 1.

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