I ISX-9 manipulates endocrine progenitor fate revealing conserved intestinal

2 lineages in mouse and human.

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18 Abstract

19 Enteroendocrine cells (EECs) survey the gut luminal environment and co-ordinate hormonal, 20 immune and neuronal responses to it. They exhibit well characterised physiological roles ranging from 21 the control of local gut function to whole body metabolism, but little is known regarding the regulatory 22 networks controlling their differentiation, especially in human gut.

23 The small molecule Isoxazole-9 (ISX-9) stimulates neuronal and pancreatic beta-cell differentiation, both closely related to EEC differentiation. We used ISX-9 as a tool to explore EEC 24 specification in mouse and human intestinal organoids. ISX-9 increased the number of neurogenin3 25 (Nan3) positive endocrine progenitor cells and upregulated NeuroD1 and Pax4, transcription factors 26 which play roles in mouse EEC specification. Single cell analysis revealed induction of *Pax4* expression 27 28 in a developmentally late $Nqn3^+$ population of cells and potentiation of genes associated with progenitors biased towards serotonin-producing enterochromaffin (EC) cells. This coincided with 29 enrichment of organoids with functional EC cells which was partly dependent on stimulation of 30 31 calcium signalling in a population of cells residing outside the crypt base. Inducible Pax4 32 overexpression, in ileal organoids, uncovered its importance as a component of early human

endocrine specification and highlighted the potential existence of two major endocrine lineages, the
 early appearing enterochromaffin lineage and the later developing peptidergic lineage which contains
 classical gut hormone cell types.

4 Our data provide proof-of-concept for the controlled manipulation of specific endocrine 5 lineages with small molecules, whilst also shedding new light on human EEC differentiation and its 6 similarity to mouse. Given their diverse roles, understanding endocrine lineage plasticity and its 7 control could have multiple therapeutic implications.

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9 Introduction

10 The intestinal epithelium is a key interface with our external environment. It renews itself 11 every 4-5 days and is composed of 5 terminally differentiated cell types; the absorptive enterocytes and the secretory Paneth, goblet, tuft and enteroendocrine cells (Gehart and Clevers, 2019). These 12 13 cells are constitutively generated by cycling Lgr5⁺ crypt stem cells and together they orchestrate the 14 epithelium's major functions, nutrient absorption and defence. Despite representing only 1% of the epithelium, the enteroendocrine cells (EECs) constitute the largest hormone producing tissue and 15 have been described as the gut's sentinels. They sample the luminal, circulating and local tissue 16 17 environments and co-ordinate an appropriate response from the epithelium, immune and nervous systems (Gribble and Reimann, 2016). For example, they play a key role in controlling the response to 18 19 a meal, fine tuning physiology to ensure optimal fuel absorption, use and storage (Sam et al., 2012). Gut hormones exhibit actions ranging from the local control of gut motility, absorption and secretion, 20 21 to the regulation of whole-body metabolism (Melvin et al., 2016). Whilst there is a large body of 22 evidence describing the functional roles of gut hormones comparatively little is known about the 23 factors which control EEC differentiation and assign subset identity.

24 EECs were originally classified by immunostaining according to their dominant hormone product; 25 Glucagon-like peptide 1 (GLP-1), Glucagon-like peptide 2 (GLP-2) and Peptide YY (PYY) are secreted by L cells, Glucose-dependent insulinotrophic polypeptide (GIP) by K cells, Somatostatin (SST) by D cells, 26 27 Cholecystokinin (CCK) by I cells, Secretin (SCT) by S cells, Gastrin (GAST) by G cells, Serotonin by 28 enterochromaffin (EC) cells, and Neurotensin (NTS) by N cells. Recent use of fluorescent reporter mice and transcriptomics has revealed EEC subsets maybe less well defined (Adriaenssens et al., 2015; 29 30 Engelstoft et al., 2015; Habib et al., 2012; Knudsen et al., 2015). The hormonal repertoire of an EEC is 31 a function of its differentiation trajectory, its location within the gut and its height in the crypt-villus 32 axis, which dictates differential exposure to Wnt and BMP signalling gradients (Basak et al., 2017; 33 Beumer et al., 2018). Mouse lineage tracing studies have identified a handful of transcription factors 34 (TFs) regulating EEC differentiation. Cells exiting the stem cell compartment are fated to be secretory

cells by Notch inhibition, followed by Atoh1 expression (Zecchini et al., 2005) (Fre et al., 2005; Stanger 1 2 et al., 2005). Atoh⁺ cells are then designated to the endocrine lineage by expression of the bHLH TF 3 neurogenin3 (Ngn3) (Li et al., 2011). In mouse, TFs downstream of Ngn3 known to be necessary for subset specification include Insm1 (substance P, NTS) (Gradwohl et al., 2000), neurogenic 4 differentiation 1 (NeuroD1) (SCT, CCK) (Mutoh et al., 1997; Mutoh et al., 1998; Naya et al., 1997), 5 6 Nkx2.2 (CCK, GAST, GIP and SST) (Desai et al., 2008), Pax4 (5-HT, SCT, GIP, PYY, CCK) (Beucher et al., 2012) Pax6, Foxa1 and Foxa2 (Preproglucagon and its products GLP-1 and 2) (Ye and Kaestner, 2009), 7 8 Arx (GLP-1, GIP, CCK, SCT, GAST and GHRL) (Beucher et al., 2012), and Lmx1A (5-HT) (Gross et al., 9 2016). Nevertheless, the regulatory networks controlling EEC identity have remained largely unknown, until a recent sophisticated study described a time resolved transcriptional road map of mouse EEC 10 11 fate trajectories (Gehart et al., 2019). It now appears classical TFs are more promiscuous than lineage tracing implied. Furthermore, there is a paucity of knowledge regarding EEC specification in human 12 13 intestinal epithelium due to lack of tractable model systems, although, several of the classical TFs are 14 upregulated in response to a NGN3 pulse in intestinal organoids derived from human pluripotent stem cells (Sinagoga et al., 2018; Spence et al., 2011). Understanding the factors which control gut 15 endocrine pedigree has implications for several clinical conditions including diabetes, obesity, gut 16 17 inflammatory disorders and perhaps cognitive disorders including depression and anxiety. Deciphering how to manipulate EECs may open novel treatment avenues and offer a clearer 18 19 understanding of epithelial homeostasis.

20 To identify a candidate molecule which might influence EEC fate we drew parallels from other endocrine tissues. Gut endocrine specification is strikingly like that in the pancreas and both bear close 21 22 resemblance to neuronal differentiation. The small molecule isoxazole-9, (N-cyclopropyl-5-23 (thiophen-2-yl)isoxazole-3-carboxamide (ISX-9), was uncovered in a chemical screen for drivers of neuronal differentiation (Schneider et al., 2008). It activates NeuroD1 and has also been used to 24 25 investigate pancreatic beta-cell differentiation (Dioum et al., 2011; Kalwat et al., 2016). We explored the effects of ISX-9 on EEC identity in organoids derived from mouse and human tissue resident stem 26 27 cells. Our data demonstrate proof-of-concept that specific EEC populations can be manipulated with 28 a small molecule, highlight the similarities between mouse and human EEC differentiation and provide 29 a tool to study human enterochromaffin cells in vitro.

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31 Results

32 ISX-9 increases the expression of transcription factors associated with EEC differentiation.

ISX-9, increases expression of *NeuroD1* and induces differentiation of neuronal (Schneider et
 al., 2008), cardiac (Sadek et al., 2008) and islet endocrine progenitors (Dioum et al., 2011). We

wondered if these properties could be harnessed to manipulate gut endocrine differentiation. Mouse 1 2 small intestinal organoids exposed to increasing doses of ISX-9 (48-hr treatment) had increased 3 expression of transcription factors known to be important for endocrine specification (Fig. 1A-F). As 4 expected, ISX-9 dose-dependently increased NeuroD1, mimicking its role in other tissues (Fig. 1A). 5 Interestingly, Ngn3, a transcription factor usually associated with the earliest identifiable endocrine 6 progenitor cell (Li et al., 2011) and thought of being upstream of NeuroD1, was also increased (Fig. 1B). Other downstream TFs were differentially affected by ISX-9, with Pax4 being increased whilst Arx 7 8 was unaffected (Fig. 1C and D). Atoh1 expression was inhibited at 40 and 80 µM but there was little 9 effect on *Hes1* expression at any dose, an indirect measure of Notch signalling (Fig. 1E and F). Notch and Atoh1 control the gate between the secretory and absorptive lineages (Li et al., 2011). These data 10 suggest ISX-9 may act downstream of this node and could favour the differentiation of specific EEC 11 subsets based on its opposing effects on *Pax4* and *Arx*. 12

13 We chose to use the 40 μ M dose in further experiments since at higher doses ISX-9 strongly 14 inhibited Atoh1 and did not significantly increase NeuroD1. To explore the effect of ISX-9 on gut epithelial homeostasis and EEC specification we designed the following protocol. After passage, 15 intestinal organoid cultures were maintained in stem cell growth media (WENR) for 3 days to create a 16 17 stem cell enriched baseline. We then switched to differentiation media (ENR) and exposed cultures to ISX-9 for up to 4 days, the previously reported timeframe for maturation of EECs in intestinal organoids 18 19 (Petersen et al., 2014). ISX-9 increased the expression of Ngn3 and NeuroD1 at 24, 48 and 96 hrs but only increased chromogranin A (Chga), a gene selectively expressed in terminal differentiated EECs 20 (Engelstoft et al., 2015), at 96 hrs (Fig. 1G-I). This was highly reflective of the known differentiation 21 22 trajectory of the EEC lineage. We next refined our paradigm to consist of a 48-hr pulse of ISX-9 at the 23 beginning of the 4-day differentiation period, on day 3 of the protocol (Fig. 1J). This removed a direct 24 effect of ISX-9 as a confounding factor and ensured measurements made at the end of the protocol 25 could be more easily attributed to altered cell fate. In this paradigm Ngn3 expression was unchanged whilst NeuroD1, which is expressed in all early to late EEC subsets, remained elevated at 96 hrs 26 27 indicating the ISX-9 pulse increased EEC specification in mouse intestinal organoids (Fig. 1K).

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ISX-9 specifically enriches markers of EC cells and does not affect organoid growth.

30 Having established a paradigm in which ISX-9 appeared to increase EEC differentiation, there was a need to determine if this was authentic manipulation of cell fate or a consequence of increasing 31 general organoid growth. We measured the morphological characteristics of organoids at different 32 time points during our protocol; day 3 at baseline, day 5 immediately following the ISX-9 pulse, and 33 34 day 7, the end of the differentiation period. There were no obvious differences between ISX-9-treated

and control organoids in their general appearance or growth rates (Fig. 2A). Equally, we found no 1 2 difference between treatment and control in either surface area or perimeter of the organoids (Fig. 3 2B and C). We noted a trend for a reduction in the proportion of very budded ISX-9-treated organoids 4 (those with greater than 5 buds) at day 7 (Fig. 2D). This could suggest a reduction in stem cell 5 proliferative capacity. However, in accordance with the surface area and perimeter observations, the 6 number of EdU⁺ cells (a marker of cells in S-phase and therefore undergoing proliferation) did not differ between treatments immediately post ISX-9 treatment or at the end of the study (Fig. 2E and 7 8 F). These results expand our evidence that ISX-9 alters cell fate and increases the EEC lineage 9 independently of organoid growth.

10 To probe the effect of ISX-9 on epithelial lineages and EEC subset differentiation we analysed the expression of markers of individual cell types at the end of the differentiation protocol. In line with 11 the growth data, expression of villin (Vil1), a general epithelial marker, was unaltered between groups, 12 13 as was the marker for goblet cells mucin 2 (Muc2) (Fig. 2G). The marker for stem cells, leucine-rich 14 repeat-containing G-protein-coupled receptor 5 (Lgr5), was slightly increased but not significantly, whilst the enterocyte marker, alkaline phosphatase (Alpi) and the Paneth cell marker, lysozyme (Lyz1), 15 were significantly reduced (Fig. 2G). Within the EEC lineage ISX-9 increased markers of I cells (Cck) and 16 17 enterochromaffin cells (Tachykinin Precursor 1 (*Tac1*), tryptophan hydroxylase 1 (*Tph1*) and chromogranin A, (ChqA)) (Fig. 2H). TPH1 is the rate limiting enzyme for peripheral serotonin (5-HT) 18 19 production and enterochromaffin (EC) cells are the most numerous gut endocrine cell type, producing 20 90% of the body's peripheral serotonin (Gross et al., 2016). Expression of L cell markers were unchanged (Pyy) or reduced (Gcq), as was the marker for K cells (Gip) (Fig. 2H). The markers for D cells 21 22 (Sst), N Cells (Nts), X cells (Ghrl) and the promiscuous marker secretin (Sct) were all unchanged in 23 response to ISX-9 (Fig. 2H). Together, these data imply ISX-9 specifically increases the EEC lineage and 24 drives cells to be fated towards enterochromaffin cells and *Cck* expressing cells rather than other 25 mature EEC subtypes.

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27 ISX-9 increases *Ngn3* endocrine fated populations.

To determine if we were observing specific alterations in EEC cell fate, we used lineage tracing, fluorescent activated cell sorting, single cell RNA-seq and immunostaining. First, we generated small intestinal organoids from Tg(Ngn3-RFP) mice which mark the Ngn3 progenitor pool with turbo RFP (Kim et al., 2015). We saw a 5-fold increase in the percentage of $Ngn3^+$ cells immediately after ISX-9 treatment, using flow cytometry, corroborating our expression data (Fig.3A).

To uncover the effect of ISX-9 on sub-populations of *Ngn3*⁺ cells and to attempt to identify its key regulatory mechanisms we employed single cell RNA-seq on sorted RFP⁺ cells immediately after

the ISX-9 treatment. Unsupervised clustering of conserved markers between control and ISX-9 treated 1 2 cells identified 9 clusters split into two major branches, endocrine and non-endocrine (Fig. 3B and C). 3 The endocrine lineage contained 5 clusters; Early-Ngn3 (Hi Ngn3, Sox4), Late-Ngn3 (Hi Ngn3, Cnot6l, 4 Nkx2-2, Neurod1, Pax4, Runxlt1), Endocrine progenitor (Tac1, Chqb, Hmqn3, Cited2), EC (Chqa, Tph1, 5 Lmx1a, Req4) and EEC (Pyy, CCK, Gcq, Nts) (Fig. 3B, Suppl. Fig. 1A). The EC and EEC clusters are 6 consistent with recent reports of two major branches of endocrine development, one containing EC cells and the other containing peptidergic gut hormone producing cell types (Gehart et al., 2019; Julie 7 8 Piccand, 2019). The non-endocrine branch consisted of four clusters. One we designated as Goblet 9 progenitors which exhibited strong goblet cell marker expression (eg. Spink4, Muc2, Tff3) but also contained Paneth cell markers (eg. Lyz1, Defa24). Two other clusters were identified as enterocyte 10 11 progenitors on account of their expression of *Cftr and Krt19*, these clusters were distinguished from one another by one cluster expressing markers of proliferation (*Top2A, Mik67*) (Fig. 3B, Suppl. Fig. 1A). 12 13 An additional hard to define cluster was designated as non-endocrine progenitors (Fryl, Plac8, Stat1, 14 Grk4).

15 Examination of the cluster distributions by treatment revealed an increased proportion of cells in the developmentally early endocrine clusters, Early-Nan3 and Late-Nan3, in response to ISX-9 (Fig. 16 17 3D). Coincidentally there was a reduction in the number of cells in the non-endocrine branch (Fig. 3D). Given the increased expression of EC markers and the I cell marker Cck in our original experiments, 18 19 ISX-9 plausibly biases endocrine lineage cells towards these pedigrees. However, a closer examination of *Cck* expression demonstrated a low level of promiscuous expression throughout the endocrine 20 21 branch in contrast to other classical gut hormones which were restricted to the EEC cluster (Fig. 3B). 22 We explored possible mechanisms of EC bias by examining TFs known to regulate endocrine 23 differentiation. ISX-9 increased the expression of Nan3 and NeuroD1 in the Late-Ngn3 cluster but notably increased both the expression and percentage of cells expressing Pax4 in this cluster (Fig. 3E-24 25 G). Strikingly, ISX-9 increased the expression of genes associated with EC progenitor bias (Rfx6, Fev, Prdm16 and Hmgn3) whilst reducing genes associated with EEC bias (Isl1, Arx and Cdkn1a) (Fig. 3E and 26 27 F, Suppl. Fig. 1B) (Gehart et al., 2019).

Together these data suggest ISX-9 increases the flux of cells through the endocrine branch in part at the expense of the non-endocrine route and increases the expression of an EC biased genetic program in these endocrine progenitors. In addition, the powerful increase in both *Pax4* expression and the percentage of *Pax4*⁺ cells in the late Ngn3 cluster highlights a potentially novel mechanism of early EC bias in response to ISX-9 (Fig. 3E and G).

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1 ISX-9 increases the Ngn3 lineage and enriches it with functional EC cells.

2 Next, we took advantage of a Tg(Ngn3-cre)C1Able/J::R26-loxSTOPlox-tdRFP (Ngn3-Cre-RFP) 3 reporter transgenic line to examine the whole endocrine lineage including the Nan3⁺ progenitor pool and all daughter cell types (Fig. 4A) (Luche et al., 2007; Schonhoff et al., 2004b). A 48-hr ISX-9 pulse 4 increased the percentage of tdRFP⁺ cells analysed by flow cytometry (Fig. 4B) and doubled the number 5 6 of tdRFP+ cells per organoid (Fig. 4C). Expression analysis of sorted populations confirmed our earlier findings, with Ngn3 and NeuroD1 being increased immediately after 48-hr ISX-9 treatment whilst Lyz1 7 8 (Paneth) was reduced and Muc2 (goblet) and ChgA (EC cell) were unaltered (Suppl. Fig. 2A). Forty-9 eight hours later, after removal of ISX-9, Nan3 was normalised, Muc2 was unchanged, Lyz1 remained reduced, *NeuroD1* remained elevated and as expected *ChqA* was 3-fold increased (Fig. 4D), providing 10 evidence that ISX-9 increases the endocrine progenitor pool and biases a proportion of these cells to 11 become specific EC cells. 12

13 To further substantiate the expression data and demonstrate the programming of specific 14 EEC subsets we generated organoids from a CCK-iCre::R26-loxSTOPlox-eYFP reporter mouse (CCK-CreeYFP) (D'Agostino et al., 2016; Flak et al., 2014). ISX-9 increased the number of eYFP⁺ cells per organoid 15 by almost 3-fold (Suppl. Fig. 2B-C) and produced a similar increase in the percentage of eYFP⁺ cells by 16 17 flow cytometry analysis (Suppl. Fig. 2D). In lieu of the availability of reporter mice for either chromogranin A or serotonin we used immunocytochemistry to measure the effect of ISX-9 on the EC 18 19 cell lineage. Double staining of whole organoids revealed 3 cell populations: singly labelled 5-HT⁺ and CHGA⁺ cells, and cells which co-localised these antigens (Fig. 4E). ISX-9 increased the total number of 20 5-HT⁺ cells by 2-fold and CHGA⁺ cells by 4-fold (Fig. 4F and G). Analysis of the proportion of single 21 22 versus co-localised cells revealed the increase to be driven mainly by cells expressing both 5-HT and 23 CHGA, which are likely endocrine EC cells (Fig. 4H). ISX-9 increased organoid 5-HT content and these 24 newly generated cells were functional, releasing measurable 5-HT in response to stimulus (Fig. 41). ISX-25 9 did not alter GLP-1⁺ immunofluorescent cell number (Fig. 4K) despite Gcg expression being reduced, underpinning the selectivity of ISX-9's effect. 26

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28 Enterochromaffin cell enrichment is partly dependent on ISX-9 induced calcium signalling.

Mechanistically, ISX-9 promotes neuronal differentiation by stimulating intracellular calcium signalling (Schneider et al., 2008), it therefore seemed logical to consider if this was also true of ISX-9's actions on EEC differentiation. To explore this, we used calcium fluorometry in Fura-2 AM loaded mouse organoids. ISX-9 induced a long and slow (approx. 15min) increase in mean basal to peak calcium response in 40% of cells examined (Fig. 5A and Suppl. Fig. 3A-C). All cells including those which did not respond to ISX-9, produced the expected fast spike in calcium following administration of the positive control ATP (Fig. 5A). Positionally, responders were never found at the base of the crypt buds,
 where Lgr5⁺ stem cells reside, but were present in various positions around and above the +4 position,
 and likely within the nominal transit amplifying zone (Suppl. Fig. 3D-F).

4 In neuronal progenitors ISX-9 increases calcium from both extra- and intra- cellular calcium 5 sources (Schneider et al., 2008). We therefore chose to pharmacologically block ISX-9 induced calcium 6 responses in organoids using the Calcium Calmodulin Kinase II enzyme inhibitor KN93. CamKII is an important intracellular calcium signalling node. Interestingly, our single cell data demonstrated the 7 8 majority of Camk2b expressing cells were restricted to the late Ngn3 and endocrine progenitor cell 9 populations and showed a high degree of co-localisation with Pax4, particularly in the Late Ngn3 progenitors (Suppl. Fig. 3G). When given in conjunction with ISX-9, KN93 dose dependently inhibited 10 11 induction of Nan3, NeuroD1 and Pax4 whilst KN93's inactive analogue, KN92, did not (Fig. 5B). Blocking CamKII signalling reduced the effect of ISX-9 on EEC differentiation. The expansion of Ngn3⁺ and Cck⁺ 12 13 cells was reduced by approximately 30-40% when KN93 was present (Fig. 5C). KN92 did not affect the 14 expansion of Cck^+ cells driven by ISX-9 (Suppl. Fig. 3H). KN93 also attenuated the increase in total 15 CHGA⁺ cells by 50% and mildly but not significantly reduced the total number of 5-HT⁺ cells (Fig. 5D-H). As expected KN93 had little effect on the singly labelled populations of 5-HT⁺ and CHGA⁺ (Fig. 5E 16 17 and F), but inhibited ISX-9 induced expansion of the co-localised population representing endocrine EC cells (Fig. 5G and H). These data reveal ISX-9 manipulates EEC differentiation in part by producing 18 19 a calcium signal, likely in a population of early endocrine destined progenitors.

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21 Enterochromaffin cell enrichment is replicated in human terminal ileal organoids.

Historically our understanding of mouse EEC differentiation has been based on knockout and lineage tracing *in vivo* studies, which were low throughput but provided key information regarding transcriptional regulation of EEC specification. The advent of organoid and single cell technologies has rapidly expanded our knowledge in this area (Gehart et al., 2019). However, there is a deficit in our understanding of human epithelial EEC differentiation. Our mouse data identified ISX-9 as a useful tool to explore features of human EEC differentiation.

We began by validating a differentiation protocol in organoids generated from terminal ileal (TI) biopsies. Organoids were stimulated to differentiate by reducing Wnt signalling for 7 days. This protocol led to reduced *LGR5* and *LYZ1* but increased *ALPI*, *VIL1* and *MUC2* (Suppl. Fig. 4). As expected, we observed strong increases in the expression of EEC markers, *NGN3*, *NEUROD1*, *CHGA*, *TPH1*, *GCG*, *PYY*, *SST*, *GHRL* and *NTS*, suggesting a broad augmentation of the lineage. Interestingly, *CCK* and *TAC1* were not increased during the differentiation protocol (Suppl. Fig. 4). Next, we designed an ISX-9 protocol for human TI that closely matched our mouse protocol. This consisted of a 3-day baseline

period using stem cell media (WENRAS) followed by 7 days in differentiation media. A 48-hr ISX-9 1 2 pulse was delivered on day 6 (Fig. 6A). The human TI transcriptional response was remarkably similar to the mouse. NGN3, NEUROD1 and PAX4 expression were increased after 48-hr exposure to ISX-9 3 (Fig. 6B). At the end of the differentiation protocol, ALPI, MUC2 and LYZ1 expression were reduced 4 whilst LGR5 was increased (Fig. 6C). Examination of endocrine markers following the same protocol 5 6 revealed that the response to ISX-9 in human intestinal organoids mirrored the mouse. TAC1, TPH1, CHGA and CCK were increased, suggesting enrichment for EC and Cck⁺ cells, whilst markers of L cells 7 8 (PYY, GCG), X cell (GHRL) and D cells (SST) were downregulated (Fig. 6C and D). Immunofluorescent 9 staining confirmed EC cell enrichment, driven mainly by an expansion of cells expressing both 5-HT⁺ 10 and CHGA⁺ (Fig. 6E-G). These new cells were functional, secreting 5-HT into the media following 11 stimulation (Fig. 6H).

12 Overall our data point to ISX-9 programming endocrine progenitors towards an EC cell fate, 13 prompting us to speculate whether combining ISX-9 with known stimulators of the whole EEC lineage would amplify the enrichment of EC cells. To do this, we compared the EEC transcriptional response 14 between ISX-9; a combination of NOTCH inhibition (iNotch) and MEK inhibition (iMEK); and all three 15 16 together. These inhibitors have been shown to drive EEC differentiation by inducing stem cell quiescence (Basak et al., 2017). ISX-9 and the iNotch, iMEK combination produced differential 17 transcriptional responses. The inhibitor combination reduced LGR5 and LYZ1 expression and as 18 19 expected increased ALPI, MUC2, NGN3, NEUROD1, CHGA, TPH1, TAC1 and CCK expression (Suppl. Fig. 5). In comparison the ISX-9 response was characterised by increased LGR5 and reduced LYZ1 and ALPI. 20 ISX-9 was equally effective as iNotch and iMEK at increasing NEUROD1 and CCK but produced stronger 21 22 increases in NGN3, CHGA, TPH1 and TAC1, which was expected given its propensity for inducing EC cell enrichment. In combination the two protocols powerfully and synergistically enriched organoids 23 24 for markers of EC cells. Immunofluorescence staining confirmed a dramatic (100-fold) enrichment for 25 endocrine EC cells (Fig. 6I-K), providing further evidence that ISX-9 programmes early progenitors to 26 become EC cells.

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Overexpression of *Pax4* in human ileal organoids partially mimics the effect of ISX-9 on EEC differentiation.

In our original experiments *Ngn3*, *NeuroD1* and *Pax4* were identified as important transcription factors responding to ISX-9. Furthermore, at the single cell level our data highlighted a potential important role of *Pax4* in the Late-Ngn3 and endocrine progenitors which may bias cells towards an EC cell fate. To explore the role of *Pax4* we generated human TI organoids with a doxycycline (Dox) inducible *Pax4* overexpressing transgene *Tg(tetO-mPax4-IRES-mCherry)::Tg(CMV-* *rtTA),* using a piggyBAC system (Fig. 7A). We overexpressed mouse *Pax4*, which is 85% homologous to
 human *PAX4*, so that we could distinguish between endogenous and transgenic PAX4.

3 Dox treatment induced RFP expression within 24 hours (Suppl. Fig. 6A, Suppl. Movie 1) correlating with a 120-fold increase in mouse Pax4 expression, further increasing by 500-fold after 48 4 hours ($Pax4^{HI}$) (Suppl. Fig. 6B). Doxycycline inducible transgenes have been documented to be mildly 5 6 leaky (Zhu et al., 2001). Indeed, our transgenic untreated organoids exhibited a low but significant level of *Pax4* expression (3-fold) (*Pax4*^{Lo}) compared to genetically identical wild-type controls 7 8 maintained at the same passage. Fortuitously, the level of leaky expression was similar in magnitude 9 to the induction by ISX-9 (Fig. 5B). This afforded us the opportunity to examine *Pax4* gene dosage on EEC differentiation. We mirrored our ISX-9 protocol by using a 3-day baseline followed by a 7-day 10 differentiation period and gave a pulse of Dox for 48 hours on day 6. Selected transcriptional markers 11 of epithelial cell types and EEC markers were analysed on day 10 (48 hrs after removal of Dox) (Fig. 12 13 7B). In parallel with transgenic Pax4 expression, endogenous PAX4 expression was also increased, 3-14 fold in untreated and 100-fold in Dox treated organoids, suggesting the existence of Pax4 self-15 regulating pathways.

Pax4^{Lo} had no effect on LGR5, LYZ1, VIL1 or ALPI expression but significantly increased MUC2 16 17 expression compared to the wild type control suggesting increased goblet differentiation (Suppl. Fig. 6C). NGN3 and NEUROD1 expression were both significantly increased as were CHGA and TPH1 (EC 18 19 cells), CCK (I cells), PYY (L cells), NTS (N cells), GHRL (G cells) and SST (D cells) whilst GCG (L cells), TAC1 (early EC cells), GIP (K cells) were unchanged compared to wild type (Fig. 7B and Suppl. Fig. 7A), 20 21 suggesting low levels of *Pax4* overexpression induced selective specification of particular EEC subtypes 22 including EC cells, partly mimicking the effect of ISX-9, but also inducing markers of N (NTS), D (SST) 23 and X (GHRL) cells.

Pax4^{Hi} significantly increased LGR5, LYZ1 and VIL1 whilst reducing ALPI and having no effect on MUC2 (Suppl. Fig. 6C). Unexpectedly, compared to Dox negative transgenic controls, Pax4^{Hi} did not enhance EEC specification, despite a 13-fold increase in NGN3 expression (Fig. 7B). In fact, the opposite was evident; all other EEC markers (NEUROD1, CHGA, TPH1, NTS, PYY, CCK, GHRL, GCG, SST and GIP) were either strongly reduced or undetectable (Fig. 7B and Suppl. Fig. 7A), except for TAC1 which was increased by 2-fold (Fig. 7B).

This suggested EEC differentiation was stalled by high expression of *Pax4*. To investigate this further, we measured transcriptional markers on day 12 of our protocol, 96 hrs following removal of Dox. At this time point, *Pax4*^{Hi} expression was reduced from 94-fold to a 3-fold induction (Fig. 7C). Accordingly, endogenous *PAX4* induction was halved in the *Pax4* Hi group, demonstrating *Pax4* expression was rapidly induced by Dox but was relatively slow to down-regulate following Dox

removal. Elevated NGN3 expression was reduced from 13-fold to 2-fold and NEUROD1 was no longer 1 2 suppressed (Fig. 7C). This was associated with normalisation of TAC1 expression and a disinhibition of 3 EC cell markers (CHGA and TPH1) (Fig. 7C). All other endocrine markers (CCK, SST, NTS, GHRL, GCG, 4 PYY and GIP) remained supressed (Fig. 7C and Suppl. Fig. 7B). These data suggest low levels of Pax4 5 expression enhance EEC specification but high levels trap EECs in an early progenitor state with an 6 enterochromaffin cell bias. As Pax4 expression normalises, endocrine differentiation proceeds with the appearance of EC cells. This helps explain ISX-9's effects on EC cell enrichment and suggest 7 8 upregulation of *PAX4* and *TAC1* are important.

9

10 Discussion

Enteroendocrine cells respond to diverse signals in the luminal environment including nutrients, 11 microbial metabolites and pathogens. They play a central role in integrating these complex signals and 12 13 altering physiology by modulating epithelial, immune, neuronal and hormonal functions. These 14 features make the enteroendocrine system a potential target for treating multiple conditions, notably attention has focused on metabolic diseases (Sam et al., 2012). An increasingly important feature of 15 EECs is their plasticity, which hypothetically could be appropriated to alter their density and/or 16 17 functional characteristics for therapeutic gain (Tsakmaki A, 2017). This is exemplified by two studies, which increased the secretory lineage in vivo using either a Notch or Rho-associated coiled-coil-18 19 containing protein kinase (ROCK) inhibitor (Petersen et al., 2018; Petersen et al., 2015). The increased 20 EEC density included GLP-1-producing L cells, promoting glucose control and reducing hyperglycaemia in models of diabetes. The caveat to these proof of principle studies is their broad effect across the 21 22 secretory lineage. Targeting specific EEC differentiation pathways might be a more suitable approach 23 but requires a deeper understanding of the regulatory networks controlling EEC specification, 24 particularly in the human epithelium, which had been difficult to study before the advent of organoid 25 technology.

We used ISX-9, a small molecule activator of NeuroD1, to further investigate EEC 26 27 differentiation in mouse and human intestinal organoids. In the gut, *NeuroD1* is downstream of Ngn3 28 in endocrine progenitors and its deletion reduces the number of CCK and secretin cells in mice (Schonhoff et al., 2004a), potentially offering the opportunity to modulate specific EEC cell fates using 29 30 ISX-9. Indeed, in our initial experiments ISX-9 strongly increased classical TFs known to be key members of the regulator network controlling EEC differentiation (Ngn3, NeuroD1 and Pax4), but did 31 not affect Arx, suggesting specificity. Analysis of organoids derived from transgenic reporter mice or 32 immunostained for serotonin, revealed ISX-9 increased markers of endocrine progenitor development 33 34 and demonstrated an enrichment of functional terminally differentiated EC cells. At single cell

resolution we were able to corroborate the presence of two major developmental endocrine 1 2 trajectories, peptidergic (gut hormone) versus enterochromaffin and identify developmentally earlier 3 endocrine clusters. Analysis of ISX-9 treated cells provided evidence of increased cells in the endocrine 4 branch at the expense of the non-endocrine goblet/enterocyte lineages. A notable increase of Pax4 5 expression in the Late-Ngn3 population coupled with an activation of a genetic program biased 6 towards EC differentiation could explain the enrichment in functional EC cells. Importantly, this appeared to be a genuine manipulation of lineage fate and not an alteration in organoid growth. 7 8 Equally, organoid proliferation and Lgr5 expression were unaltered, in contrast to a previously 9 published paradigm which promotes EEC lineage differentiation by inducing Lgr5 stem cell quiescence using NOTCH and MEK inhibitors (Basak et al., 2017). 10

The triggering of neuronal differentiation by ISX-9 is calcium dependent (Schneider et al., 11 2008). Similarly, its effect on the endocrine lineage was partly dependent on calcium signalling. 12 13 Inhibition of the intracellular calcium signalling node, CamKII, attenuated EC and Cck⁺ cell enrichment 14 and blocked induction of Nan3, NeuroD1 and Pax4 expression. This chimes with recent data in Drosophila, showing activation of the mechanosensitive receptor Piezo in a population of mid-gut 15 endocrine progenitor cells increases EEC differentiation through cytosolic Ca²⁺ (He et al., 2018). In 16 17 mice, Piezo2 is found in a sub-population of EC cells which release serotonin in response to stretch (Alcaino et al., 2018). Future work will be aimed at identifying in which cells ISX-9 stimulates calcium 18 19 and whether calcium signalling is an important regulator of homeostatic endocrine differentiation in the gut. 20

21 Most data relating to EEC differentiation has been gathered in mice or using mouse tissues. 22 Comparatively little is known about the networks controlling endocrine cell fate in the human gut 23 epithelium, but they are assumed to be conserved to some degree, stemming largely from the study 24 of patients with mutations in NGN3 who exhibit intractable malabsorptive diarrhoea due to loss of 25 EECs and a handful of recent studies in organoids (German-Diaz et al., 2017; Pinney et al., 2011; Rubio-Cabezas et al., 2011). In these in vitro studies, a pulse of transgenic NGN3 in iPSCs-derived human 26 27 organoids mostly recapitulated the predicted endocrine repertoire (Sinagoga et al., 2018). The same 28 transgenic construct has been deployed in organoids derived from tissue resident stem cells and similarly promoted EEC differentiation (Chang-Graham et al., 2019). Our data shed further light on 29 30 human EEC differentiation and its similarity to mouse. Notably, ISX-9 produced identical effects on the EEC lineage between species. NGN3, NEUROD1 and PAX4 up-regulation was associated with 31 selective increases in CCK, CHGA, TPH1 and TAC1. Whole organoid immunostaining confirmed 32 enrichment for EC cells double positive for 5-HT and CHGA and these cells functionally released 5-HT. 33 34 Our data have several implications; they highlight how similar EEC specification is between mouse and

human and that ISX-9 alone or in combination with iNotch and iMEK can be used to enrich human
organoids with EC cells allowing functional exploration of these rare and difficult to study cells. EC cells
modulate GI motility, bone formation, hepatic gluconeogenesis, thermogenesis, insulin resistance,
and regulation of fat mass (Yabut et al., 2019). Understanding how these cells function in the human
has important implications.

6 Our data highlighted the potential importance of *Pax4*, its induction in the late Ngn3 population seemed to offer a developmentally early mechanistic explanation for EC cell enrichment 7 8 by ISX-9. However, low level constitutive expression produced a generalised increase in EEC lineage 9 markers, notable exceptions were GCG and GIP. We also observed a surprising and powerful upregulation of NGN3, suggesting reciprocal regulation between PAX4 and NGN3. The upregulation 10 11 of MUC2 and LYZ1 might also be explained by this NGN3 upregulation, as 15% of goblet and 40% of Paneth cells are derived from Ngn3 progenitors (Schonhoff et al., 2004b). Strikingly, induction of high 12 13 levels of Pax4 expression completely inhibited endocrine differentiation, trapping EEC differentiation 14 at an early stage. Unexpectedly, induced transgenic Pax4 was persistent remaining upregulated by 3fold 96 hours after doxycycline removal, although this was reduced from a peak induction of 94-fold. 15 Interestingly, at this time point all markers of peptidergic EECs (CCK, SST, NTS, GHRL, GCG and PYY) 16 17 remained supressed, but markers of mature EC cells (CHGA and TPH1) were now disinhibited, and TAC1, an early EC cell marker, was no longer upregulated. We drew several conclusions from this. 18 19 Firstly, our data are consistent with the existence of two major lineages of EECs in the human, as recently described in the mouse and corroborated by our single cell data (Gehart et al., 2019; Julie 20 Piccand, 2019). One lineage giving rise to an early appearing EC cell population and the other to 21 22 peptidergic producing cells, which generally appear later than EC cells. Secondly, PAX4, as in the 23 mouse, is upstream of *NEUROD1* and likely marks an early endocrine progenitor cell. Thirdly, understanding the network of TFs controlling EEC differentiation is complicated by their promiscuity 24 25 and the need to appreciate the timing and level of expression. Lastly, it seems plausible that ISX-9 enriches the ECC lineage in part by its effects on PAX4 expression which may represent an increase in 26 27 the endocrine pool biased towards an EC cell fate.

Finally, our data add to a handful of studies suggesting small molecules could be found to selectively control EEC cell fate/specification with a view to treat various clinical conditions. However, our data also highlight the difficulties this approach faces. Understanding to what degree the targeted lineage creates a deficit in another and whether this induces unwanted physiological effects, is of key importance. This seems a likely event when intervening downstream of *NGN3*, where one EEC type may be enriched at the expense of another. This could be mitigated by combining selective EEC

targeting with a more generalised EEC lineage activator. Realising this potential will require a much 1 2 deeper understanding of human EEC lineage specification aided by the organoid platform. 3 Acknowledgements 4 For providing us with intestinal tissues from transgenic animals for the generation of small intestinal 5 6 organoids we would like to thank Prof Anne Grappin-Botton (Neurog3-RFP mice), Dr Mathieu Latreille (Tg(Neurog3-cre)C1Able/J::R26-loxSTOPlox-tdRFP mice) and Dr Giuseppe D'Agostino (CCK-iCre::R26-7 8 *loxSTOPlox-eYFP* mice). We would also like to thank Dr Calvin Kuo and Dr Hans Clever for providing us 9 with R-Sponding1-producing cell line and L-Wnt3A cells, respectively, and Dr Bon-Kyoung Koo for supplying the piggyBAC system for the generation of doxycycline induced Pax4/RFP overexpressing 10 11 human ileal organoids. Finally, we would like to thank the staff in the Nikon Imaging Centre and in BRC Flow cytometry core at King's College London for all their help. 12 13 14 **Conflict of interests** 15 The authors have no conflict of interest to disclose 16 17 **Author contributions** A. T. and P. F. P. helped in the design of experiments, collected data and contributed to the writing of 18 19 the manuscript. P.P and B.H.H provided human biopsies for the isolation of crypts. G. A. B. wrote the 20 manuscript and managed the project. 21 22 **Figure Legends** 23 Figure 1: Effects of ISX-9 on the expression of transcription factors associated with EEC 24 25 differentiation. (A-F) Expression of NeuroD1 (A), Ngn3 (B), Pax4 (C), Arx (D), Atoh1 (E) and Hes1 (F) in mouse intestinal organoids cultured in the presence of increasing doses of ISX-9 (2 μ M-80 μ M) for 48 26 27 hrs. (G-I) Expression of Nan3 (G), NeuroD1 (H) and ChaA (I) in mouse organoids after 24 hrs, 48 hrs 28 and 96 hrs continuous exposure to 40 μ M ISX-9. (J) Schematic diagram explaining our experimental paradigm (K) Expression of Nan3 and NeuroD1 in mouse intestinal organoids following our 29 30 experimental paradigm. Data are represented as mean ± SEM. One-way ANOVA with Dunnett post hoc test (A-F), unpaired two-tailed Student's t test (G-I, K). 31 32 Figure 2: ISX-9 does not affect mouse intestinal organoid growth and specifically enriches markers 33 34 of EC cells. (A) Representative brightfield images of mouse small intestinal organoids following the 48-

hr ISX-9 pulse protocol. Surface area (B), perimeter (C) and number of buds (D) per control and treated 1 2 organoids. (E-F) Proliferating cells in control and ISX-9 treated organoids were visualized by the incorporation of 5-ethynyl-2'-deoxyuridine (EdU) (white) and counterstain with Hoechst (blue) (E). 3 Number of Edu⁺ cells were counted for control and ISX-9 treated organoids on day 5 (at the end of 48-4 hr ISX-9 treatment) and on day 7 (48 hrs after removal of ISX-9) (F). (G-H) gPCR analysis of lineage 5 6 markers (G) and enteroendocrine specific markers (H) in control and 48-hr ISX-9 pulse treated organoids. Brightfield images are shown as one middle plain field of the organoid. 7 8 Immunofluorescence images are shown as maximum intensity projections of a z-stack through the 9 organoid. Scale bar: 50µm. Data are represented as mean ± SEM, except in violin plots, where data are presented as median and quartiles. Unpaired two-tailed Student's t test (B, C, F), one way-ANOVA 10 with Holms-Sidak multiple comparisons post hoc test (G and H). Kruskal-Wallis test with Dunn's post 11 hoc test (D). 12

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14 Figure 3: ISX-9 increases *Ngn3* endocrine fated populations with a bias toward EC cells.

15 Intestinal organoids derived from Ngn3-RFP had a 48-hr ISX-9 treatment or left untreated. Immediately after treatment fluorescently labelled cells were sorted for further analysis. (A) Flow 16 17 cytometric scatter plots of control vs. treatment and percentage of RFP⁺ cells recovered (Unpaired two-tailed Student's t test). (B) Combined expression heatmap of top 10 conserved marker genes 18 19 between control and treated cells for each cluster. (C) UMAP projection depicting clusters identified 20 by conserved marker expression between control and treatment. (D) UMAP projection of clusters split 21 by treatment. (E) Dot plot of transcription factors known to influence endocrine and EC cell fate 22 comparing control versus treatment across clusters. Size of dot represents percentage of cells positive 23 for gene within cluster, intensity of dot represents average expression of gene within cluster. (F) Violin plots of average Neurog3, Pax4, Fev, Hmgn3 expression by cluster and treatment. (G) UMAP 24 25 projections of Pax4 expression comparing control vs. treatment. * = adj. p value for Neurog3 (0.01), *Pax4* (late Ngn3 = 0.04, Endocrine prog = 0.0015), *Fev* (0.015), *Hmgn3* (0.03). 26

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Figure 4: ISX-9 increases the number of Ngn3⁺ endocrine progenitors and enriches mouse intestinal organoids with and functional enterochromaffin cells. (A) Experimental design schematic. The number of RFP⁺ cells in Ngn3-Cre-RFP mouse intestinal organoids treated with a 48-hr ISX-9 pulse, was increased in comparison with controls as shown by flow cytometric analysis (B) and by counting from live-imaging (n=26) (C). (D) Expression levels of *Ngn3*, *NeuroD1*, *Muc2*, *Lyz1* and *ChgA* in RFP⁺ cells sorted from Ngn3-Cre-RFP mouse intestinal organoids. (E) Confocal images of double immunofluorescent staining of for CHGA (green) and 5-HT (red). (F-H) Quantification of singly labelled CHGA+ and 5-HT+ cells (F and G), and cells which co-localised these antigens (H) (n=53-58). (I) 5-HT content and release measured by enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA)(n=8). (K) Quantification of GLP-1⁺ cells (n=18). Live-cell images are shown as one middle plain for brightfield and as maximum intensity projections of a z-stack for RFP. Immunofluorescence images are shown as maximum intensity projections of a z-stack. Scale bar: 50µm. All data are represented as mean ± SEM, except in violin plots where data are presented as median and quartiles. Unpaired two-tailed Student's t test.

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Figure 5: Enterochromaffin cell enrichment is partly dependent on ISX-9 induced calcium signalling. 9 10 (A) Live-cell imaging of intracellular calcium in mouse small intestinal organoids using fluorescent indicator Fura-2 AM. Representative temporal plots of [Ca²⁺]i changes are shown, expressed as 11 12 F340/380, in responsive cells (left) and non-responsive cells (middle) upon exposure to 40 µM ISX-9, 13 followed by 100 μ M ATP. Pie chart (right) shows the proportions of cells responsive to 40 μ M ISX-9 (2 14 individual experiments). (B) Expression of Nan3, NeuroD1 and Pax4 in mouse organoids after 48-hr 15 exposure to 40 µM ISX-9 in the presence of increasing doses of KN93 (top panel) or (KN92) (bottom 16 panel). (C) Flow cytometric analysis of Ngn3⁺ and CCK⁺ cells from Ngn3-Cre-RFP and CCK-Cre-eYFP organoids respectively, in the presence or absence of ISX-9, KN93, or combination of both, for 48 hrs. 17 Data are representative of a single experiment with n=3. (D) Images of double immunofluorescent 18 19 staining of control and ISX-9, KN93 or combination of both treated organoids for CHGA (green) and 5-20 HT (red). (E-G) Quantification of total 5-HT⁺ (E), total CHGA⁺ cells (F), and cells which co-localised these 21 antigens (G) in control and ISX-9 and KN93 treated organoids. (H) Quantification of singly labelled 5-HT⁺, CHGA⁺ cells and co-localised cells (n=59-64). All confocal images are shown as maximum intensity 22 projection of a z-stack. Scale bar: 50µm.Data are represented as mean ± SEM, except in violin plots 23 24 where data are presented as median and quartiles. One-way ANOVA with Sidak's post hoc test. (H) 25 CHGA - CON vs ISX-9, p=0.1574; ISX-9 vs ISX-9+KN93, p=0.3217; CON vs ISX-9+KN93, p=0.9714. 5-HT -CON vs ISX-9, p=0.9878; ISX-9 vs ISX-9+KN93, p=0.1733; CON vs ISX-9+KN93, p=0.0913. Co-localisation 26 27 - CON vs ISX-9, p<0.0001; ISX-9 vs ISX-9+KN93, p=0.0118; CON vs ISX-9+KN93, p<0.0001.

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Figure 6: Effects of ISX-9 on human terminal ileal organoids. (A) Schematic diagram explaining the experimental paradigm of 48-hr ISX-9 pulse in human TI organoids. (B) Expression of *NGN3*, *NEUROD1* and *PAX4* in human TI organoids after 48 hrs exposure to 40 μM ISX-9. qPCR analysis of lineage markers (C) and enteroendocrine specific markers (D) in control and 48-hr ISX-9 pulse treated human TI organoids. (E) Confocal images of double immunofluorescent staining human TI organoids for CHGA (green) and 5-HT (red). (F) Quantification of total 5-HT⁺ and total CHGA⁺ cells. (G) Quantification of singly labelled 5-HT⁺ cells and CHGA⁺ cells and cells which co-localise these antigens human organoids

(n=25). (H) 5-HT release from human TI organoids as measured by ELISA. (I) Quantification of total 5-1 2 HT⁺ and total CHGA⁺ cells in control human TI organoids and in organoids treated with ISX-9, a 3 combination of iNotch and iMEK, and all three together. (J) Quantification of singly labelled 5-HT⁺ cells, 4 CHGA⁺ cells and cells which co-localised these antigens (n=15-21). (K) Confocal images of double immunofluorescent staining of human TI organoids for CHGA (green) and 5-HT (red). All confocal 5 6 images are shown as maximum intensity projections of a z-stack. Scale bar: 50µm. Data are represented as mean ± SEM, except in violin plots where data are presented as median and quartiles. 7 8 Unpaired two-tailed Student's t test (F- H). One way-ANOVA with Holms-Sidak multiple comparisons 9 post hoc test (B-D, I and J): (J) CHGA – CON vs ISX-9, p=0.4473, ISX-9 vs iN+iM, pp=0.1062; CON vs iN+iM, p=0.0027; iN+iM vs iN+iM+ISX-9, p<0.0001. 5-HT - CON vs ISX-9, p=0.9216, ISX-9 vs iN+iM, 10 11 pp=0.0006; CON vs iN+iM, p=0.0035; iN+iM vs iN+iM+ISX-9, p=0.1079. Co-localisation - CON vs ISX-9, p=0.0213, ISX-9 vs iN+iM, pp=0.9683; CON vs iN+iM, p=0.0597; iN+iM vs iN+iM+ISX-9, p<0.0001. 12

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14 Figure 7: Overexpression of Pax4 in human ileal organoids. (A) Schematic describing the production pipeline for the generation of Pax4 overexpressing human ileal organoids. (B-C) Expression of mouse 15 Pax4, human PAX4, NGN3, NEUROD1, EC cell (CHGA, TPH1, TAC1) and I cell (CCK) markers in wild type 16 17 untreated organoids (WT), wild type organoids induced for 48 hrs with $1 \mu g/ml$ Doxycycline (WT + Dox), transgenic untreated Pax4 human intestinal organoids (Pax4 OX) and transgenic Pax4 human 18 19 intestinal organoids induced for 48 hrs with 1 μ g/ml Doxycycline (Pax4 OX + Dox) that collected for 20 RNA extraction 48 hrs (B) or 96 hrs (C) after removal of Dox. One-way ANOVA with Tukey's post hoc 21 test.

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Supplementary Figure 1: Extended single cell analysis, Related to Figure 3. (A) Violin plots of
 archetypal gene expression for the 9 clusters identified in Fig. 3C. (B) Average gene expression for
 transcription factors involved in EEC differentiation (*NeuroD1, Nkx2.2, Rfx6, Prdm16, Isl1, Arx*) focusing
 on endocrine clusters and split by treatment (CON, 40 µM ISX-9).

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Supplementary Figure 2: ISX-9 increases the number of Ngn3⁺ endocrine progenitors and enriches mouse intestinal organoids with CCK-expressing cells, Related to Figure 4. (A) Expression levels of *Ngn3, NeuroD1, Muc2, Lyz1* and *ChgA* in RFP⁺ cells sorted from Ngn3-Cre-RFP mouse intestinal organoids treated with or without ISX-9 for 48 hrs. 48-hr ISX-9 pulse increased the number of eYFP⁺ cells in CCK-Cre-eYFP intestinal organoids as shown by live-cell imaging (B-C) and by flow cytometry (D). (B) Live-cell fluorescence microscopy images of control and ISX-9 treated CCK-Cre-eYFP intestinal organoids. eYFP labels CCK⁺ cells (I cell) (n=24). (C) quantification of (B). Live-cell images are shown as

one middle plain for brightfield and as maximum intensity projections of a z-stack for eYFP. Scale bar:
 50µm. All data are represented as mean ± SEM, except in violin plots where data are presented as
 median and quartiles. Unpaired two-tailed Student's t test.

4

Supplementary Figure 3: Enterochromaffin cell enrichment is partly dependent on ISX-9 induced 5 6 calcium signalling, Related to Figure 5. (A) Live-cell imaging of intracellular calcium in mouse small intestinal organoids using fluorescent indicator Fura-2 AM. Representative temporal plots of [Ca2+]i 7 8 changes (expressed as F340/380) in 8 regions of interest corresponding to responsive cells (A) and 23 9 regions of interest corresponding to non-responsive cells (B) upon exposure to 40 µM ISX-9, followed by 100 μ M ATP. (C) Mean peak amplitude of cells responsive and non-responsive to 40 μ M ISX-9 10 11 (Unpaired two-tailed Student's t test). (D) Image of Fura-2 AM ratio (F340/380) shown in pseudocolour, before start of experiment. (E) Regions of interest selected on bud 1. (F) Regions of 12 13 interested selected on bud 2. (G) UMAP projections showing Pax4- (blue), CamK2b- (red) expressing 14 cells and co-localised cells (purple) preferentially expressed in the late Ngn3 and endocrine progenitor clusters. (H) Flow cytometric analysis of CCK⁺ cells from CCK-Cre-eYFP organoids treated with ISX-9, 15 KN92 or combination of both 48 hrs. Data are representative of a single experiment with n=3. All flow 16 17 plots show the gating and present both positive and negative sorted populations (One-way ANOVA with Sidak's post hoc test). 18

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Supplementary Figure 4: Characterization of human TI organoids. Expression of lineage markers (*LGR5*-marker for stem cells, *LYZ1*-marker for Paneth cells, *VIL1*-a general epithelial marker, *ALPI*marker of enterocytes, *MUC2* -marker for goblet cells), enteroendocrine specific markers (*CCK*-marker for I cells, (*CHGA*, *TPH1*, *TAC1*)-markers for EC cells, (*PYY*, *GCG*)-markers of L cells, *GIP*-marker of K cells, *GHRL*-marker of X cells, *NTS*-marker of N cells, *SST*-marker of D cells) and the TFs, *NGN3* and *NEUROD1*, in human TI organoids cultured in stem cell and differentiation medium. Unpaired two-tailed Student's t test.

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Supplementary Figure 5: Transcriptional responses of ISX-9 combined with iNotch and iMEK in human terminal ileal organoids, Related to Figure 6. qPCR analysis of lineage markers (*VIL1, LGR5, LYZ1, ALPI, MUC2*), TFs (*NGN3, NEUROD1*) and EC cell (*CHGA, TPH1, TAC1*) and I cell (*CCK*) markers in human TI organoids treated with 40 µM ISX-9, a combination of 500 nM PD0325901 (inhibition of MEK signalling-iMEK) and 10 µM DAPT (inhibition of Notch signalling-iNotch), or a combination of all three (ISX9+ iNotch iMEK) for a 48-hr pulse. One-way ANOVA with Sidak's post hoc test.

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1 Supplementary Figure 6: Further characterization of human ileal organoids overexpressing Pax4,

2 related to Figure 7. (A) Time-lapse video showing the induction of RFP expression in transgenic Pax4 3 human intestinal organoids with 1 μ g/ml Doxycycline within 24 hours (left) which correlated with a 4 120-fold increase in mouse Pax4 expression (right). (B) Quantification of mouse Pax4 expression after treatment with 1 µg/ml Doxycycline for 48h (C) qPCR analysis of lineage markers (LGR5, LYZ1, VIL1, 5 6 ALPI, MUC2) in wild type untreated organoids (WT), wild type organoids induced for 48 hrs with 1 µg/ml Doxycycline (WT + Dox), transgenic untreated Pax4 human intestinal organoids (Pax4 OX) and 7 8 transgenic Pax4 human intestinal organoids induced for 48 hrs with 1 μ g/ml Doxycycline (Pax4 OX + 9 Dox). Samples were collected for RNA extraction 48 hrs after removal of Dox. One-way ANOVA with 10 Sidak's post hoc test.

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Supplementary Figure 7: Further characterization of human ileal organoids overexpressing *Pax4*, Related to Figure 7. Expression of EEC markers *SST*, *NTS*, *GHRL*, *GCG*, *PYY*, and *GIP* in wild type untreated organoids (WT), wild type organoids induced for 48 hrs with 1 µg/ml Doxycycline (WT + Dox), transgenic untreated Pax4 human intestinal organoids (Pax4 OX) and transgenic Pax4 human intestinal organoids induced for 48 hrs with 1 µg/ml Doxycycline (Pax4 OX + Dox), collected for RNA extraction 48 hrs (A) or 96 hrs (B) after removal of Dox. One-way ANOVA with Sidak's post hoc test.

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- 27
- 28
- 29

1 Key resources table:

2

Reagent or resource	Source	Identifier
Antibodies		
rabbit anti-Chromogranin A	Abcam	ab15160
Goat anti- serotonin	Immunostar	20079
Alexa Fluor [®] 488-AffiniPure Donkey		
anti-Rabbit IgG (H+L)	Jackson ImmunoResearch	711-545-152-JIR-0.5mg
Alexa Fluor 594-AffiniPure Donkey		
, anti-goat IgG (H+L)	Jackson ImmunoResearch	705-585-803
Chemicals, Peptides, and Recombination	ant Proteins	•
Advanced DMEM/F-12	Gibco	12634010
GlutaMAX	Gibco	11574466
HEPES	Gibco	15630049
Penicillin/Streptomycin	Sigma-Aldrich	P4333
Wnt3a conditioned medium	In-house production	-
R-spondin 1 conditioned medium	In-house production	-
Recombinant murine Noggin	Peprotech	250-38-100
B27 Supplement	Gibco	17504044
N2 Supplement	Gibco	17502048
N-Acetylcysteine	Sigma-Aldrich	A9165
EGF Recombinant Mouse Protein	Gibco	PMG8041
Nicotinamide	Sigma-Aldrich	N0636
Gastrin	Sigma-Aldrich	G9145
A 83-01	Tocris	2939
SB-202190	Sigma-Aldrich	S7067
Y-27632	Sigma-Aldrich	Y0503
CHIR99021	Sigma-Aldrich	SML1046
EDTA	Invitrogen	15575-038
DTT	Sigma-Aldrich	10197777001
Matrigel	Corning	356231
BME	Amsbio	3533-010-02
10x Tryple Select	Gibco	12563011
DMSO	Sigma-Aldrich	D8419
DAPT	Sigma-Aldrich	D5942
PD0325901	Sigma-Aldrich	PZ0162
ISX-9	Tocris Bioscience	4439
Opti-MEM	Gibco	31985062
BTX Molecular Delivery Systems [™]	Fisher Scientific	15417350
Electroporation Reagent		1341/330
TRI Reagent LS	Sigma-Aldrich	T3934
Bovine deoxyribonuclease I	Sigma-Aldrich	D5025-15KU
Ultra-pure glycogen	Invitrogen	10814-010
Isopropanol	Sigma	19516
Cell Recovery Solution	Corning	354253
RNase-Free DNase Set	Qiagen	79254
QuantiFast SYBR Green	Qiagen	204056
Formaldehyde solution >34.5%	Sigma-Aldrich	15512
Hoechst 33342	Invitrogen	H1399

Bovine Serum Albumin	Sigma-Aldrich	A7906
Triton-X 100	Sigma-Aldrich	X100
Donkey serum	Sigma-Aldrich	D9663
Vectashield Vibrance Antifade	Signa-Aldrich	25003
Mounting Medium	Vector Laboratories	H-1700-2
Fura 2AM	Sigma-Aldrich	F0888
Pluronic F-127	Invitrogen	P-3000MP
Probenecid	Tocris	4107/50
Xhol restriction enzyme	Promega	R6161
Spel restriction enzyme	Promega	R6591
Hygromycin	Cambridge Bioscience	H007
Doxycycline	Cambridge Bioscience	D006
· ·		
Kits		
RNeasy Mini Kit	Qiagen	74104
High-Capacity cDNA reverse	Applied Biosystems	4368813
Transcription Kit	Applied Biosystems	4300013
Click-iT™ EdU Cell Proliferation Kit	Invitrogen	C10340
for Imaging, Alexa Fluor™ 647 dye	Invitiogen	010340
5-HT ELISA	Aviva System Biology	OKEH02558
GenElute™ Gel Extraction Kit	Sigma	NA1111
In-Fusion HD Cloning kit	Clonetech	638909
Experimental Models: Cell Lines		
HEK293T-HA-Rspol-Fc cell line	Dr Calvin Kuo	(Kim et al., 2005)
L-Wnt3A cell line	Dr Hans Clever	(Farin et al., 2012)
Human small intestinal organoids	This study	
Human small intestinal organoids	This study	
overexpressing Pax4	, 	
For a start and a large of the start of the		
Experimental Models: Organisms/St		(Kins at al. 2015)
Tg(Neurog3-RFP) (Ngn3-RFP)	Prof Anne Grapin-Botton	(Kim et al., 2015)
Tg(Neurog3-Cre)C1Able/J::R26-	Dr Mathieu Latreille	
loxSTOPlox-tdRFP (Ngn3-Cre-RFP) CCK-iCre::R26-loxSTOPlox-eYFP		(D'Agostino et al., 2016; Flak et
(CCK-Cre-Rosa-eYFP)	Dr Giuseppe D'Agostino	al., 2014)
(CCK-CTE-ROSa-ETFF)		
Oligonucleotides		
QuantiTect Primer Assays	Qiagen	204056
Qualititeet timet Assays		5' - CAA AGA ATT CCT CGA ATG
Pax4 cDNA-F	IDT	CAG CAG GAC GGA CT - 3'
		5' - AGG CCA TGG CAC TAG
Pax4 cDNA-R	IDT	TTA TGG CCA GTT TGA GCA
		ATG GGT TGA - 3'
Recombinant DNA		
pPB-tetO-MCS-IRES-mCherry	Dr Bon Kyoung Koo	Gift
plasmid	Dr Bon-Kyoung Koo	Giit
pPB-CAG-rtTA-IRES-Hygro plasmid	Dr Bon-Kyoung Koo	Gift

pCAG-PBase plasmid	Dr Bon-Kyoung Koo	Gift
Software and algorithms		
MetaFluor v7.7.8.0	Molecular Devices LLC	N/A
Graph Pad Prism Version 8.1.2	Graphpad Software	N/A
Fiji-ImageJ	Open Source	N/A
FlowJo	Treestar	N/A
Equipment		
LightCycler [®] 480	Roche Life Sciences	05015278001
LightCycler [®] 96	Roche Life Sciences	05815916001
BD FACS Aria™ II	Beckton Dickinson	N/A
BD FACS Canto™ II	Beckton Dickinson	N/A
BD Fortessa™ cell analyser	Beckton Dickinson	N/A
EOS 600D camera	Canon	N/A
A1 inverted confocal microscope	Nikon	N/A
BioStation IM-Q	Nikon	N/A
NEPA21 Electroporator	Nepagene	N/A
Axiovert 135 microscope	Zeiss	N/A
TMS Inverted Microscope	Nikon	N/A

1

2 Crypt isolation and mouse intestinal organoid culture

Mouse small intestines were harvested and cleaned with cold PBS and separated into 2 parts: 3 4 duodenum (proximal 5cm), jejunum and ileum. Each part was cut longitudinally, and villi were 5 scrapped with a glass slide. The tissue was cut with scissors into 2x2 mm pieces and repeatedly 6 washed. Subsequently, the tissue pieces were incubated with 2 mM EDTA in PBS for 45min, in a rotator 7 at 4 °C. After removal of EDTA, vigorous shaking in cold PBS lead to release of crypts. Crypts were further washed in PBS, passed through a 40 μ m cell strainer, pelleted and resuspended in BME. Crypts 8 9 were plated in 48-well plates, with 200 crypts per 25 μ l of BME. The BME was polymerized for 15 min 10 at 37°C and stem cell growth medium (WENR) supplemented with 10 μ M Y-27632 was overlaid. WENR medium consists of Advanced DMEM/F12, 2 mM GlutaMAX, 10mM HEPES, 100 units/mL 11 12 penicillin/streptomycin, 50 ng/mL EGF, 1x B27, 1x N2 supplements (all from Gibco), 1.25 mM N-Acetylcysteine (Sigma-Aldrich), 100 ng/ml Noggin (Peprotech), 50% Wnt3A conditioned medium and 13 14 10% R-spondin-1 conditioned medium (both in house production). Three days later, medium was 15 changed into differentiation media (ENR) with no Wnt3A or Y-27632. Organoids were passaged once 16 a week by mechanical dissociation, at a 1:3 split ratio. Plated organoids were maintained in a CO2 incubator with 5% CO2 and the media were changed every other day. 17

18 Treatment of mouse small intestine organoids with ISX-9 started 3 days after passaging. For dose-19 response experiments organoids were treated with 2 μ M, 20 μ M, 40 μ M and 80 μ M ISX-9 (Tocris 20 Bioscience) for 48 hrs. For time-course experiments, organoids were treated with 40 μ M ISX-9 for 24 21 hrs, 48 hrs, and 96 hrs and samples were collected for RNA extraction at the end of each timepoint.

- Treatment with 10 μM KN93 or 10 μM KN92 (an inactive analogue of KN93) in the presence or absence
 of ISX-9 was also performed for 48 hrs. For the rest of the experiment's organoids were treated with
 40 μM ISX-9 for 48 hrs and then ISX-9 was removed for another 48 hrs (48-hr ISX-9 pulse).
- 4

5 Generation and culture of human terminal ileal organoids

6 Human terminal ileum crypts were isolated from biopsies acquired from patients undergoing colonoscopy at Guy's and St Thomas' NHS Foundation Trust with their informed consent. Biopsies 7 8 were washed in cold PBS until the supernatant was clear. Following 10 minutes incubation at room 9 temperature with 10 mM DTT, the biopsies were incubated with 8 mM EDTA in PBS, and placed in a 10 rotator for 1 hr at 4 °C. At the end on the incubation, EDTA was removed and crypts were released 11 with vigorous shaking in cold PBS. Crypts were further washed in PBS, pelleted and resuspended in Matrigel, in the same density as mouse crypts. Human intestinal crypts embedded in Matrigel were 12 13 overlaid with stem cell growth medium (WENRAS) supplemented with 10 μ M Y-27632 and 5 μ M 14 CHIR99021. Human stem cell growth medium in comparison with the mouse one described above, additionally contained 10 nM gastrin (Sigma-Aldrich), 500 nM A83-01 (Bio-techne), 10 µM SB202190 15 16 (Sigma-Aldrich) and 10 mM Nicotinamide (Sigma-Aldrich). 3 days after isolation or splitting, Y-27632 17 and CHIR99221 were removed from the medium and organoids were either maintained in WENRAS or transferred into differentiation medium for setting up experiments. For differentiation of human 18 19 ileal organoids Wnt3A conditioned medium was reduced from 50% to 15% and SB202190 and nicotinamide were withdrawn from the medium. Differentiation medium was used for 7 days, keeping 20 the organoids in culture for 10 days. 5 days after passaging, human terminal ileal organoids were 21 treated with 40 μ M ISX-9 for 48 hrs and then ISX-9 was removed for another 48 hrs (48-hr ISX-9 pulse), 22 except if it is stated differently. MEK signalling was inhibited with 500 nM PD0325901 (Sigma-Aldrich), 23 and Notch signalling with 10 µM DAPT (Sigma-Aldrich). Combination of both inhibitors with ISX-9 was 24 25 given in a 48-hr pulse. All control organoids were treated with vehicle.

26

27 RNA extraction and real time quantitative PCR

Total RNA was isolated from organoids (released from Matrigel or BME with Cell Recovery solution (Corning)) using RNeasy Mini Kit (Qiagen) according to manufacturer's instructions. On-column DNase digestion was performed for removing any residual genomic DNA (Qiagen). RNA extraction from sorted cells was performed using TRI Reagent LS according to manufacturer's instruction. cDNA was generated using the High-Capacity cDNA reverse Transcription Kit (Applied Biosystems). Real time qPCR was performed using QuantiTect primers and QuantiFast SybrGreen PCR kit (both from Qiagen) on a LightCycler 480 or LightCycler 96 (Roche). Relative gene expression levels were calculated by

averaging the Ct values of technical duplicates for each biological sample and normalizing to the
 expression of the housekeeping gene Beta-2-Microglobulin.

3

4 Evaluation of mouse small intestinal organoid growth

Growth and convolutedness of organoids was evaluated by collecting brightfield images of control and
ISX-9 treated organoids with EOS 600D Nikon camera on an TMS inverted microscope (Nikon) on day
3, 5 and 7 in culture. Surface area, perimeter and number of buds were measured using ImageJ
software.

9

10 Immunofluorescent staining of organoids

Mouse or human small intestine organoids were fixed for 45 min in 4% formalin and then washed with 11 2% BSA in PBS. Subsequently, organoids were blocked with blocking buffer consisting of 2% BSA and 12 13 5% donkey serum, and permeabilized with 0.5% Triton-X for one hour at room temperature. Primary antibody incubation was done in a rotor overnight at 4°C with primary antibodies diluted in blocking 14 buffer. Primary antibody used were rabbit polyclonal anti-Chromogranin A (1:800: Abcam) and goat 15 16 polyclonal anti-serotonin (1:100; Immunostar). The next day, organoids were washed and incubated with secondary antibodies; Alexa Fluor 488 Donkey Anti-Rabbit or Alexa Fluor 594- Donkey anti-goat 17 (1:500; Jackson ImmunoResearch) for 1 hour at room temperature. Nuclear counterstaining was 18 19 performed in parallel with the secondary antibody incubation using Hoechst 33342 (1:2000; Invitrogen). After washing, organoids were mounted with Vectashield Vibrance Antifade Mounting 20 21 Medium (Vector Laboratories).

The fraction of proliferating cells in control and ISX-9 treated mouse intestinal organoids was determined using the Click-iT Edu Cell proliferation kit, Alexa Fluor™ 647 dye (Invitrogen). Organoids were pre-incubated for 1 hr with 10 µM EdU, then fixed and permeabilized, and Edu positive nuclei were labelled according to manufacturer's instructions.

26

27 Immunofluorescent imaging

Live-cell fluorescence imaging was carried out in control and ISX-9 treated Ngn3-RFP, Ngn3-Cre-RFP, and CCK-Cre-Rosa-eYFP organoids. A continuous z dimension stack of RFP or eYFP fluorescence and brightfield images was obtained, while organoids were still embedded on BME, using an A1 inverted confocal microscope (Nikon). Images of whole-mount organoids stained for chromograninA and serotonin, were also capture with an A1 inverted confocal microscope (Nikon). Image analysis was performed using either Nikon Elements or Image J software. Time-lapse fluorescent microscopy of

1 induced with Dox human intestinal organoids for overexpression of *Pax4*, was performed with a

2 BioStation IM-Q (Nikon).

3

4 Flow cytometry analysis and fluorescent activated cell sorting (FACS)

Control and ISX-9 treated Ngn3-RFP, Ngn3-Cre-RFP and CCK-Cre-Rosa-eYFP organoids were 5 6 dissociated into single cells with mechanical disruption after 5 min incubation with TryplE Express (Gibco) at 37°C. After washes with PBS the cells were passed through a 40 µm cell strainer and 7 8 resuspended in Advanced DMEM/F12 medium with 4 μ g/mL DNase, 10 μ M Y-27632 and 2 mM EDTA. 9 1μ g/ml DAPI was added to the cell suspension to label dead cells. Viable cells were analysed in a BD FACS Canto[™] II (Beckton Dickinson). For RNA extraction of Ngn3⁺ cells from control and ISX-9 treated 10 11 Ngn3-Cre-RFP organoids, organoids were first dissociated into single cells as described above and immediately sorted using a BD FACS Aria[™] II (Beckton Dickinson). 12

13

14 Sample preparation for scRNA-seq

Ngn3-Cre-RFP organoids were treated with ISX-9 for 48 hrs, collected and processed for fluorescent 15 activated cell sorting as described above. DAPI was added just before sorting. RFP-positive, DAPI-16 17 negative cells were sorted into 384-well plates containing 384 unique molecular identifier (UMI) barcode primer-sets using a FACS Aria™ II (Beckton Dickinson). Samples in plates were centrifuged and 18 19 stored at -80° C. Samples were then processed by Single Cell Discoveries B.V. according the SORT-seq method (Muraro et al., 2016) (Muraro et al., 2016). Briefly, first and second strand synthesis 20 (Invitrogen) was performed and all wells of a single plate were pooled. After in vitro transcription 21 22 (Ambion), the amplified RNA was reverse transcribed and amplified for 10-12 cycles with Illumina 23 Truseq primers. Finally, libraries were analyzed on an Illumina NextSeq500 using 75-bp pair-end 24 sequencing.

25 Analysis single-Cell mRNA Sequencing

26 Unique molecular identifier (UMI) count matrices were imported into R Studio and processed with the 27 R package Seurat (version 3.1) (Stuart et al., 2019). For QC, we quantified the proportions of UMIs mapped to the mitochondrial genome. All the cells with mitochondrial reads > 10% were excluded. 28 29 We further filtered cells with >7500 unique features in all 206 control and 216 ISX cells were passed to analysis. ERCC92 spike-ins as well as genes associated with clustering artefacts (Rn45s, Malat1, 30 31 Kcnq1ot1, A630089N07Rik) were also excluded from the final dataset. Control and treated data sets 32 were merged after QC filtering and then split by treatment for normalisation using the SCTransform 33 wrapper and percent mitochondrial variations regressed. We calculated a subset of 3000 features to 34 integrate using the SelectIntegrationFeatures and ensured all pearson residuals were calculated using

PrepSCTIntegration. The data sets were then integrated using the FindIntegrationAnchors and the 1 2 IntegrateData functions. We then ran an integrated analysis on all cells in the experiment using the 3 standard workflow using default parameters: linear dimensional reduction using RunPCA, non-linear 4 dimensional reduction using RunUMAP. A K-nearest neighbour's graph was constructed with the 5 FindNeighbors function using the first 25 principle components before clustering using the 6 FindClusters function with a resolution of 1.8. Differential gene analysis for cluster definition was run using the FindConservedMarkers which reports the top markers conserved between the control and 7 8 treated groups.

9

10 Serotonin release from mouse and human small intestine organoids

Serotonin secretion in control and ISX-9 treated mouse organoids was measured after 7 days in culture 11 and in human organoids after 10 days in culture. A 48-hr ISX-9 pulse was given to both mouse and 12 13 human organoids as described above. At the end of the culture period organoids were released from 14 BME and Matrigel with Cell Recovery solution (Corning), were washed with PBS and incubated with HEPES saline buffer (of 4.5 mM KCl, 138 mM NaCl, 4.2 mM NaHCO₃, 1.2mM NaH₂PO₄.2H₂O, 2.6mM 15 CaCl₂, 1.2mM MgCl₂ and 10mM HEPES (pH7.4)) with 0.5% BSA for 2 hrs. Serotonin secretion was 16 stimulated with 10 μ M IBMX and 10 μ M Forskolin in the presence of 1 μ M fluoxetine (for blocking 17 potential serotonin reuptake via SERT) for 1 hr. Supernatant and organoid lysates were collected for 18 19 measuring secretion and content, respectively. Serotonin concentration was measured using an ELISA kit according to manufacturer's instructions. 20

21

22 Calcium imaging

30mm petri dishes were coated with BME diluted in Advanced DMEM/F12 (1:100) and left to set at 23 24 37 °C for 1 hr. Mouse small intestine organoids were collected and washed 3 times with cold PBS to dissolve BME and re-seeded in BME-coated petri dishes with ENR medium. After 2 hrs, organoids were 25 loaded with 7μ M Fura 2-AM in HEPES saline buffer containing 0.01% pluronic F127 and 2 mM 26 probenecid, and incubated for 30 min at 37 °C. Organoids were washed 3 times with HEPES buffer and 27 images were recorded with an Axiovert 135 Ca²⁺ imaging system (Zeiss), at 20x magnification every 80 28 29 milliseconds. Cells were excited at 340 nm and 380 nm and emitted light was acquired at 510 nm. Calcium concentration was calculated by 340/380 fluorescence ratio using a MetaFluor software. ATP 30 (100µM) was used as positive control. Imaging experiments were performed at least 3 times and 31 32 representative time course is presented in manuscript.

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1 Genetic engineering of human terminal ileal organoids

2 For overexpression of Pax4 in human terminal ileal organoids, mouse Pax4 cDNA was cloned into the pPB-tetO-MCS-IRES-mCherry vector. Briefly, pPB-tetO-MCS-IRES-mCherry vector was first linearized 3 following sequential digestion with XhoI and SpeI restriction enzymes and gel purified using 4 GenElute[™] Gel Extraction Kit (Sigma). PCR primers for mouse *Pax4* were designed with 15 bp 5 6 extensions that are complementary to the ends of the pPB-tetO-MCS-IRES-mCherry linearized vector. The 15bp extension were required for directional cloning using the In-Fusion HD cloning kit 7 8 (Clonetech). From this point on, manufacturer instructions were followed. Pax4 was amplified using 9 as template cDNA generated from mouse intestinal organoids. The generated plasmid was named pPB-tetO-Pax4-IRES-mCherry. The simultaneous co-transfection of 3 different plasmid is required for 10 11 the generation of inducible overexpressing Pax4 human terminal ileal organoids. These plasmids are: pPB-tetO-Pax4-IRES-mCherry, pPB-CAG-rtTA-IRES-Hygro 12 and pCAG-PBase plasmid. For 13 electroporation of the 3 plasmids into human terminal ileal cells we followed the protocol from Fujii 14 et al (Fujii et al., 2015). DNA was transfected at 7.2 µg for the two piggyBac vectors, and at 5 µg for the transposase vector. 5 days post-electroporation cells were selected with 100 µg/ml hygromycin. 15 Gene expression was induced using $1 \mu g/ml$ of Doxycycline. 16

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18 Statistics

For cell counting experiments, "n" represents the number of individual organoids assessed. For RNA experiments, "n" represents the number of biological replicates. All data are presented as mean ± standard error of the mean (SEM), except violin plots in which data is presented as median and quartiles. Each "n" is presented as a dot in graphs. Relevant tests described in figure legends. All statistical analyses were performed using Graph Pad Prism Version 8.1.2 (GraphPad Software) for Windows or Mac except for RNA-seq where statistics were calculated using Seurat.

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Figure 1

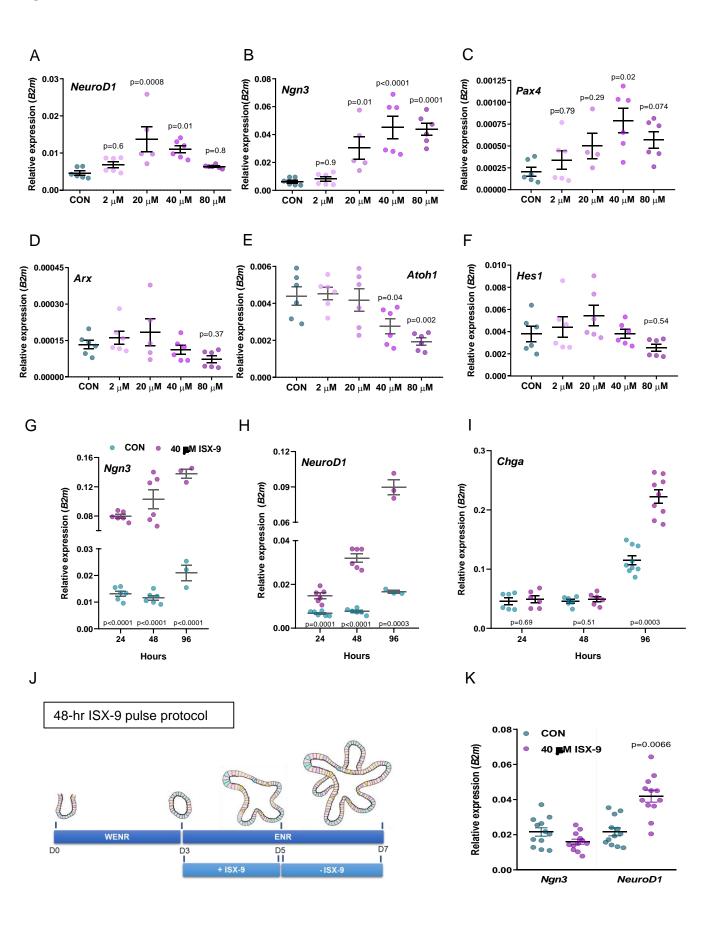


Figure 2

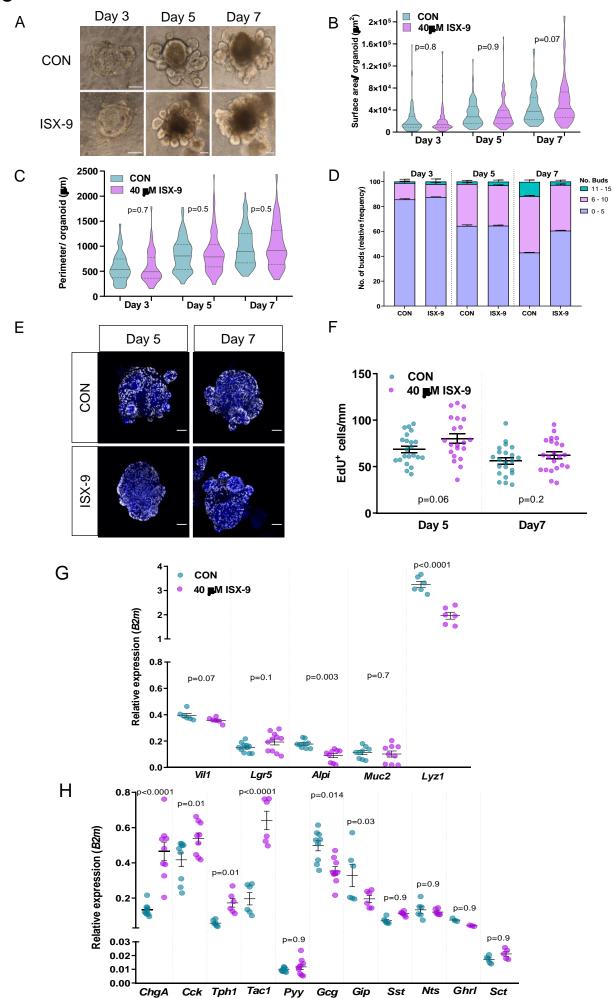


Figure 3

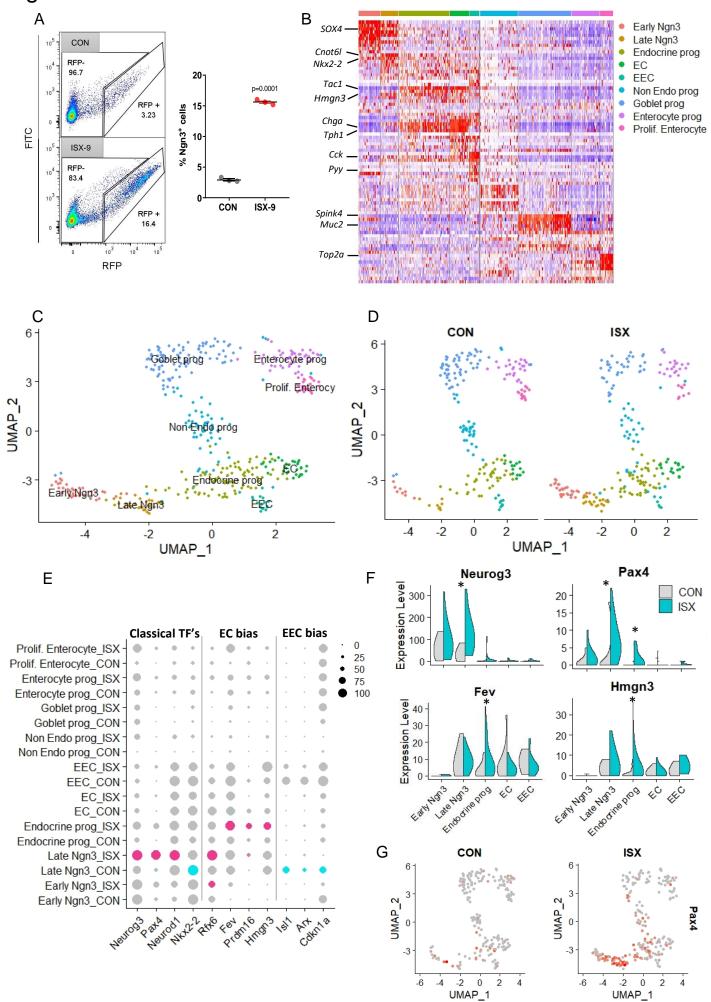


Figure 4

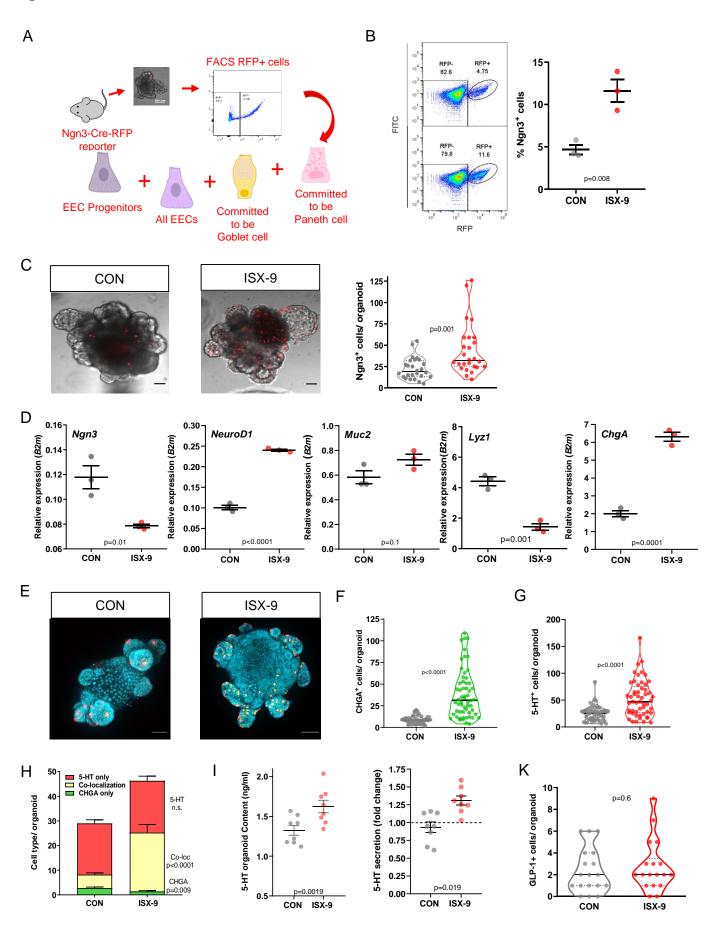


Figure 5

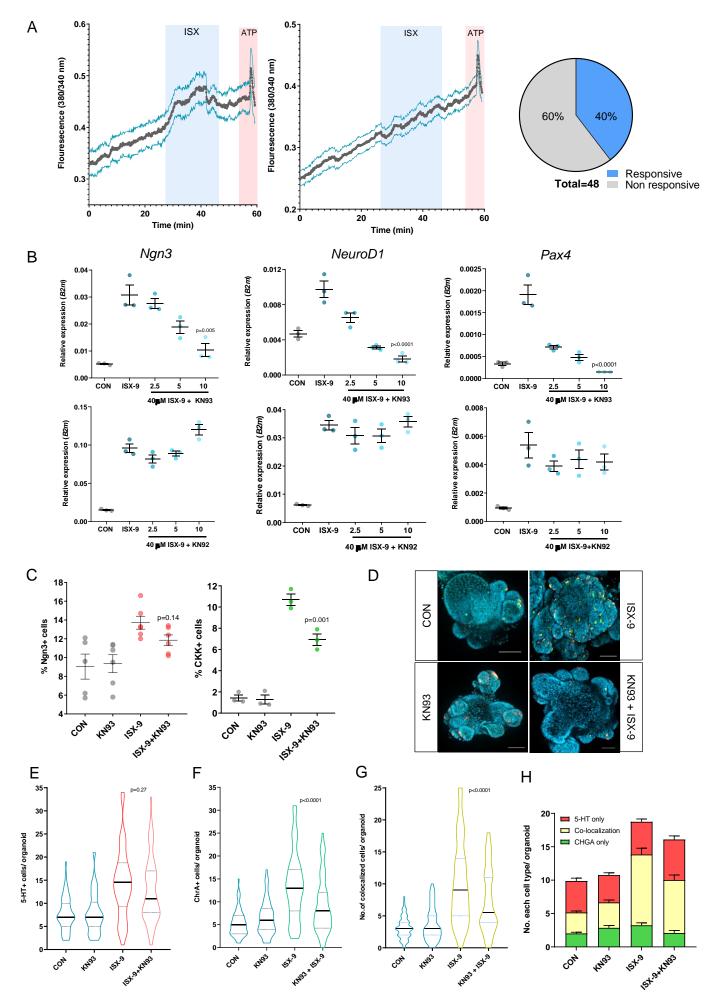


Figure 6

