The Hippo pathway terminal effector TAZ/WWTR1 mediates oxaliplatin sensitivity in

HCT116 colon cancer cells

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SUMMARY

YAP and TAZ, the Hippo pathway terminal transcriptional activators, are frequently

upregulated in cancers. In tumor cells, they have been mainly associated with increased

tumorigenesis controlling different aspects from cell cycle regulation, stemness, or resistance

to chemotherapies. In fewer cases, they have also been shown to oppose cancer progression,

including by promoting cell death through the action of the P73/YAP transcriptional complex,

in particular after chemotherapeutic drug exposure. We show here that oxaliplatin treatment on

colorectal cancer HCT116 cells led to a dramatic core Hippo pathway down-regulation and

nuclear accumulation of TAZ. We further show that TAZ was required for the increased

sensitivity of HCT116 cells to oxaliplatin, an effect that appeared independent of P73, but

which required the nuclear relocalization of TAZ. Our results support thus an early action of

TAZ to sensitize cells to oxaliplatin, consistent with a model in which nuclear TAZ in the

context of DNA damage and P53 activity pushes cells towards apoptosis.

INTRODUCTION

Colorectal cancer (CRC) is the third leading cause of cancer-related death worldwide (Rawla et al., 2019). 30% of patients present synchronous metastases and 50-60% will develop metastases that will require chemotherapy. The current management of advanced or metastatic CRC is based on fluoropyrimidine (5-FU), oxaliplatin and irinotecan as single agents or more often in combination (e.g. FOLFOX, FOLFIRI, or FOLFIRINOX; Xie et al., 2020). Chemotherapy is combined with targeted therapy including monoclonal antibodies against EGFR (e.g. cetuximab and panitumumab) or VEGF (bevacizumab), tyrosine kinase inhibitors (e.g. regorafenib), and immune checkpoint blockade agents for patients with MSI-High tumors (e.g. pembrolizumab; Xie et al., 2020).

Oxaliplatin is a third-generation platinum antitumor compound with a 1,2-diaminocyclohexane (DACH) ligand (Chaney, 1995; Raymond et al., 1998). It induces mainly intra-strand crosslinks, but also inter-strand crosslinks and DNA-protein crosslinks that stop DNA replication and transcription, leading to apoptotic cell death (Perego and Robert, 2016; Woynarowski et al., 2000, 1998). Oxaliplatin exerts its anti-tumor effect also by inducing immunogenic cell death (Tesniere et al., 2010). Resistance to oxaliplatin can be either intrinsic (primary resistance) or acquired (secondary resistance), and is usually tackled by combining drugs to expose tumoral cells weaknesses or inhibit alternative survival pathways (Vasan et al., 2019). Despite intense research efforts in this field, more information on the molecular mechanisms underlying oxaliplatin mechanism of action are needed to develop new treatment strategies and improve the therapeutic response rate.

The Hippo signaling pathway represents an evolutionarily highly conserved growth control pathway. First discovered through genetic screens in *Drosophila*, it consists of a central cascade of core kinases: MST1/2 and LATS1/2 (homologues of *Drosophila* Hippo and Warts; Heng et al., 2021; Pocaterra et al., 2020; Zheng and Pan, 2019). When activated, LATS1/2 phosphorylate YAP and WWTR1/TAZ (homologues of *Drosophila* Yki), two partly redundant transcriptional co-activators which represent the terminal effector of the Hippo pathway (Reggiani et al., 2021). Phosphorylated YAP and TAZ are retained in the cytoplasm through binding to 14-3-3 proteins, and sent for proteasomal degradation. When the Hippo pathway is not activated, hypo-phosphorylated YAP/TAZ enter the nucleus and bind to specific transcription factors (TFs) to turn on the transcription of target genes. The best characterized TF partners for YAP and TAZ are the TEADs (TEAD1-4, homologues of *Drosophila* Scalloped; Heng et al., 2021; Pocaterra et al., 2020; Zheng and Pan, 2019). While depending

on cell type, the classic target genes include genes involved in proliferation, resistance to
apoptosis, cytoskeletal remodeling, or stemness (Rosenbluh et al., 2012; Tapon et al., 2002;
Totaro et al., 2018). But YAP/TAZ nucleo-cytoplasmic localization (and activity) is also
controlled by mechanical cues relayed by the actin cytoskeleton, or by cytoplasmic trapping
proteins such as AMOTs (Heng et al., 2021; Pocaterra et al., 2020; Zheng and Pan, 2019).
Importantly, the nuclear retention of YAP and TAZ is favored by tyrosine phosphorylation by
different kinases, and in particular SRC and YES (Byun et al., 2017; Ege et al., 2018; Li et al.,
2016).

The Hippo pathway has been primarily described as a tumor suppressive pathway in a wide
variety of solid tumors (Kim and Kim, 2017; Li and Guan, 2022; Nguyen and Yi, 2019;
Thompson, 2020; Zheng and Pan, 2019) preventing the pro-tumoral effect of YAP/TAZ.
However, in CRCs the role of the Hippo pathway and of YAP and TAZ appears more complex.
Several studies point towards a classic pro-tumoral role for YAP and TAZ. In CRC patients
tumor samples, high expression and nuclear localizations of YAP correlated strongly with
disease evolution and bad prognosis (Ling et al., 2017; Steinhardt et al., 2008), or with
resistance to treatments such as 5FU or cetuximab (Kim and Kim, 2017; Lee et al., 2015; Touil
et al., 2014). Furthermore, invalidating YAP could blunt tumorigenic behaviors both in mice
CRC models (Shao et al., 2014) or in the metastatic HCT116 CRC cell line (Konsavage et al.,
2012). However, YAP could exhibit a tumor suppressive role in CRCs. Studies in genetic
mouse models have shown that YAP/TAZ restricts canonical Wnt/β-Catenin signaling thus
preventing intestinal stem cells amplification, and could act as tumor suppressors in CRCs
(Azzolin et al., 2014, 2012; Barry et al., 2013). Similarly, the loss of core Hippo kinases
(LATS/MST) was recently shown to inhibit tumor progression in Apc mutant mouse models
and in patients-derived xenografts models (Cheung et al., 2020; Li et al., 2020).

The tumor suppressive role of YAP in CRC is further supported by its reported role in response
to DNA damage inducer drugs. Studies have shown that, in different cell lines including CRC
lines, cell death in response to cisplatin, doxorubicin, or etoposide, is mediated by P73, a
protein related to the tumor-suppressor P53. Following treatments, a YAP/P73 complex
accumulates in the nucleus, and triggers the transcription of P73 target genes involved in cell
death (Lapi et al., 2008; Strano et al., 2005, 2001). The direct interaction between YAP and
P73 is proposed to prevent P73 destabilization by the E3-Ubiquitin Ligase ITCH (Levy et al.,
2007; Strano et al., 2005). This pro-apoptotic role of YAP is reminiscent to a similar role of
Yki in *Drosophila* (a Yki/p53 complex; (Di Cara et al., 2015). Importantly, this appears specific

to YAP, since TAZ cannot bind to P73, further suggesting that YAP and TAZ, while
performing redundant roles, also possess specific activities (Reggiani et al., 2021).

Given that oxaliplatin constitute one of the most used drugs in the treatment of CRCs, it is
important to evaluate its effects with respect to the Hippo pathway and to YAP/TAZ which can
elicit conflicting roles to oppose or promote CRC tumorigenesis. We show here that upon
treatment with oxaliplatin, the core Hippo pathway was inhibited in HCT116 cells leading to
TAZ accumulation and nuclear re-localization. We further show that TAZ was required for
early sensitivity of HCT116 to oxaliplatin. Interestingly, the nuclear localisation of TAZ was
important, and drugs preventing this such as Dasatinib antagonized the effect of oxaliplatin.
These results support an early anti-tumoral role of YAP and TAZ in response to oxaliplatin
suggesting particular attention to sequence of treatments and drug combinations should be paid
when considering potential future drugging of YAP/TAZ signaling in the treatment of CRCs.

RESULTS and DISCUSSION

Oxaliplatin treatment triggers an early cell death program

Oxaliplatin is a third generation platinum compound widely used as part of the first line of treatment for colon cancer patients in the FOLFOX regimen (Chaney, 1995; Raymond et al., 1998; Xie et al., 2020). Inside cells, oxaliplatin binds DNA, generating adducts which ultimately lead to DNA breaks and replicative stress in proliferating cells. When used on proliferating cancer cells, oxaliplatin treatment resulted in concentration-dependent cell death. We measured the IC50 of oxaliplatin on HCT116 colon cancer cells at 0.5µM (Supplemental Figure 1A). This dose reduced the amount of cells by 50% after 4 days of treatment. This dose was about 10 fold lower than the oxaliplatin concentration reported in the blood of treated patients (between 3.7 and 7µM; Graham et al., 2000). The oxaliplatin dose used in this study was thus compatible with the dose that could be ultimately found at the level of tumors in a clinical setting, and did not represent an acute high concentration treatment, highlighting its relevance for studying cellular responses to oxaliplatin.

When treated with oxaliplatin at IC50, HCT116 cells exhibited clear signs of DNA damage such as accumulation of γH2AX, and 53BP1 puncta in the nuclei (Figure 1A&B). Consistently, P53, which has been shown to control a specific cell death program in response to severe DNA damage (for recent reviews, (Abuetabh et al., 2022; Panatta et al., 2021), accumulated strongly 24h after treatment (Figure 1C). Intriguingly, the P53 related protein P73, previously reported to accumulate and to mediate cell death in response to DNA-damage inducing drugs such as cisplatin, doxorubicin or etoposide, including in HCT116 cells (Lapi et al., 2008; Strano et al., 2005), was destabilized upon oxaliplatin treatment. P63, the third member of the P53 protein family, was not expressed in HCT116, even upon treatment (Figure 1C).

To better understand the cellular responses to oxaliplatin we profiled the changes in gene expression after 24h of exposure at IC 50. This analysis revealed that the expression of only a limited number of genes were affected (fold change >1.5, adjusted p-value < 0.05): 253 up-regulated and 111 down-regulated (Figure 1D; Supplemental Table 1). Gene ontology enrichment approaches using the g:profiler online tool (Supplemental Table 2; Raudvere et al., 2019) highlighted that amongst the main cellular processes controlled by the upregulated genes were DNA damage response (GO:0044819 mitotic G1/S transition checkpoint signaling; GO:0000077 DNA damage checkpoint signaling…), apoptosis and cell death (GO:0045569 TRAIL binding; GO:0008219 cell death; GO:0012501 programmed cell death; GO:0006915 apoptotic process …), and p53 response (GO:0072331 signal transduction by p53 class

mediator), consistent with the known role of oxaliplatin generating adducts on the DNA.

Indeed, many genes up-regulated have previously been associated with p53 signaling, and

represent p53 canonical target genes such as CDKN1A/P21, P53I3, BAX, or TIGAR

(REAC:R-HSA-3700989 Transcriptional Regulation by P53; WP:WP4963 p53 transcriptional

gene network). While up-regulated genes controlled mainly cell death programs, the down-

regulated genes were involved in DNA replication (GO:0006260) and cell cycle (GO:0007049)

consistent with the well documented effect of DNA damage on blocking cell cycle and

proliferation (Abuetabh et al., 2022).

Amongst the genes mis-regulated were also genes related to inflammation and immune cell

recruitment (e.g. the upregulated genes CXCR2, EBI3/IL-27, or NLRP1, and the

downregulated gene IL17RB) consistent with the previously reported role of oxaliplatin during

immune cell death (Tesniere et al., 2010).

Finally, these analyses also highlighted several genes involved in cell architecture, namely

cytoskeleton and junctional complexes. Amongst the most striking features were changes in

the expression of integrin and extracellular matrix proteins engaging Integrins and Focal

Adhesions: collagens COL5A1 and COL12A1, as well as laminins LAMA3, LAMB3, and

LAMC1 and integrin ITGA3. These observations suggest that treated cells might remodel their

extracellular matrix, their Focal Adhesions, and the signaling pathways associated. The RNA-

Seq analyses revealed also many changes to the cytoskeleton, including an upregulation of

several keratin-based intermediate filaments (KRT15/19/32) and associated factors (KRTAP2-

3 and SFN). Several genes controlling the actin cytoskeleton were also affected such as the

branched actin regulators WDR63, CYFIP2, or WASF3, or different genes predicted to control

RHO activity (up: RHOD, EZR, and RAP2; down: ARHGAP18).

Taken together, these results suggest that upon oxaliplatin treatment, HCT116 cells implement

an early cell death program, which is likely mediated by the elevated P53 levels, and many

"bona-fide" P53 direct target genes involved in cell death are upregulated. Unlike other

treatments such as cisplatin, doxorubicin, and etoposide (Lapi et al., 2008; Strano et al., 2005),

oxaliplatin is unlikely to mobilize the p73 anti-tumoral response since P73 levels are decreased

upon oxaliplatin treatment. The difference is striking when considering closely related

platinum compounds such as cisplatin and oxaliplatin. This difference is unlikely due to timing

as we could not observe any P73 up-regulation after oxaliplatin treatment even after shorter or

longer exposures. Even though dose comparisons between different compounds is tricky, we

note that the cisplatin dose was 50 times higher than that of oxaliplatin. Alternatively, while

both are thought to act primarily as generators of lethal amounts of DNA breaks, their
difference in mobilizing either P73 (cisplatin) or P53 (oxaliplatin) might arise from different
alternative cellular effects independent of DNA damage.
189

Oxaliplatin treatment triggers YAP and TAZ nuclear accumulation

Having established a regimen for treating HCT116 cells with oxaliplatin, and given the
complex reported roles of YAP/TAZ in CRCs (see Introduction), we investigated whether
YAP/TAZ could be affected, and thus monitored TEAD, YAP, and TAZ expressions and
localizations following oxaliplatin treatment.
After 24h (or 48h) of oxaliplatin treatment at the IC50, we did not observe any change in the
total levels or in the nuclear localization of TEAD4, the main TEAD paralogue in colon cells
(Figure 2A). However, TAZ and YAP nuclear localizations increased following oxaliplatin
treatment in our culture conditions: the TAZ and YAP nuclear staining increased by 60% and
55% respectively when compared to untreated cells (Figure 2A). TAZ nuclear accumulation
was further confirmed by fractionation experiments (Figure 2C; see Materials and Methods).
This increase in TAZ nuclear localization was reflected by an increase in total TAZ levels by
western blot analysis (Figure 2B). However, YAP total levels, and more importantly the levels
of YAP phosphorylation on Serine 127 (S127) were unchanged (Figure 2B).
The YAP S127 phosphorylation is deposited by the LATS1/2 Hippo pathway terminal kinases
and mediate the cytoplasmic retention of YAP by the 14-3-3 proteins and later targeting for
proteasomal degradation (Heng et al., 2021; Pocaterra et al., 2020; Zheng and Pan, 2019).
Western-blot analyses on total protein extracts showed that several key proteins in the core
Hippo pathway were hypo-phosphorylated (p-MST1/2, p-MOB1) indicating a general lower
activity of the core Hippo pathway (Figure 2B). Total protein levels were also lower after
treatment, further suggesting a lower Hippo pathway activity in response to oxaliplatin,
consistent with the increased TAZ levels and increased nuclear TAZ localization (Figure
2A&C). However, given that levels of phospho-YAP and total YAP remained unchanged, how
the Hippo pathway down-regulation could have differing effects on YAP and TAZ remains to
be explored. YAP and TAZ appear only partly redundant, and YAP and TAZ specific
regulations have been reported (Reggiani et al., 2021). It is noteworthy that an additional
phospho-degron is present in TAZ, making it more sensitive to degradation than YAP. This
increased sensitivity might magnify TAZ level changes when the Hippo pathway is inhibited
by oxaliplatin (Azzolin et al., 2012). The decreased protein levels of different Hippo pathway
components in response to oxaliplatin were unlikely due to reduced mRNA abundance, since

we did not observe any change in our RNA-Seq, suggesting that it might be a consequence of
reduced translation and/or increased protein degradation. Indeed, previous studies have shown
that core Hippo pathway components can be regulated by ubiquitination such as LATS1 or
MOB1 (Ho et al., 2011; Lignitto et al., 2013; Salah et al., 2011). Whether oxaliplatin treatment
triggers a specific ubiquitin-mediated destabilization of the core Hippo pathway remains
however to be studied.
226

YAP is dispensable for Oxaliplatin-mediated cell death
Performing pathway analyses on the mis-regulated genes highlighted a strong activation of p53
signaling (Supplemental Table S2). Motif enrichment analyses suggested that the p53 family
of transcription factors were the main controllers of the up-regulated genes. With the exception
of Axl, none of the "classic" YAP/TAZ target genes such as CTGF, CYR61/CCN1, or BIRC2
(or genes involved in cell cycle progression, cytoskeleton regulation, or drug resistance;
(Pocaterra et al., 2020; Totaro et al., 2018) were up-regulated after oxaliplatin treatment. We
thus wondered what would be the role of YAP and TAZ in the response to oxaliplatin treatment.
Indeed, other anti-cancer drugs such as cisplatin have been shown to promote cell death in part
through the implementation of a P73/YAP-dependent cell death program. Mechanistically, it
has been proposed that DNA damage induced by cisplatin stabilizes YAP which then binds
and protects P73 from ITCH-mediated degradation (Levy et al., 2007); the P73/YAP complex
accumulates in the nucleus to turn on the expression of P73 target genes involved in cell death
(Lapi et al., 2008; Strano et al., 2005, 2001). We thus wondered whether the accumulation of
TAZ (and the moderate accumulation of YAP) in the nucleus could also participate in the cell
death induced by oxaliplatin.
To test the requirement of YAP and TAZ, we invalidated YAP and TAZ by RNA interference.
The sole invalidation of YAP by shRNA led to a very modest reduction in oxaliplatin
sensitivity (IC50 in *shYAP* was determined at 0.62 compared to 0.52 in *shLuc* controls) (Figure
3A&C). It is noteworthy that, under the culture conditions used, YAP appeared dispensable for
HCT116 cells since the shRNA led to a knock-down efficiency >90%. These results suggest
that the cell death in response to oxaliplatin might not be dependent (or only marginally) on
the YAP/P73 complex as previously reported for other DNA-damage inducing compounds
(Lapi et al., 2008; Levy et al., 2007; Strano et al., 2005), but depends on alternative
mechanisms.
252

TAZ promotes cell death in response to oxaliplatin, independently of P73

We then investigated the role of TAZ. Strikingly, while the depletion of YAP had hardly any

effect, the combined knock-down of both YAP (shYAP) and TAZ (siTAZ), resulted in a clear

increase in resistance to oxaliplatin, where the IC50 reached 0.91μM in *shYAP/siTAZ* HCT116

cells compared to 0.58μM in *shLuc/siScrambled* HCT116 control cells (Figure 3B&C),

highlighting that TAZ participates to cell death in response to oxaliplatin. We then wondered

whether the increased sensitivity promoted by TAZ could be dependent on P73, in a similar

mechanism as proposed for cisplatin. However, while P53 accumulated in response to

oxaliplatin in HCT116, P73 levels were decreased, undermining the role of P73 in response to

this drug (Figure 1C). This absence of P73 stabilization, is consistent with the absence of

increased YAP levels after oxaliplatin treatment (Figure 2B). These results highlight that,

although overexpressed YAP could bind and stabilize endogenous P73 (Supplemental Figure

2; (Levy et al., 2007; Strano et al., 2005, 2001), oxaliplatin treatments at the clinically relevant

doses used, do not lead to YAP and P73 stabilization. We then confirmed that TAZ cannot bind

P73 (Supplemental Figure 2), ruling out that the elevated nuclear TAZ following oxaliplatin

could act through a transcriptional complex with P73 to enhance cell death. A recent study

reported a direct interaction between TAZ and P53 in MCF7 and HCT116 cells, which resulted

in the inhibition of P53 activity towards senescence (Miyajima et al., 2020). However, when

we performed co-immunoprecipitation experiments, we were unable to document any

interaction between over-expressed YAP or overexpressed TAZ with endogenous P53 in

normal or oxaliplatin treated HCT116 cells (Supplemental Figure 2). Furthermore, the

increased oxaliplatin resistance of cells upon *YAP/TAZ* knockdown supports strongly that TAZ

acts to promote cell death and thus cooperates with P53 rather than antagonizes its activity as

suggested before (Miyajima et al., 2020). Taken together, these results suggest that the

sensitivity of HCT116 cells to oxaliplatin mediated by YAP and TAZ is not mediated by the

direct interaction of YAP or TAZ to P53 or P73.

Increased resistance to oxaliplatin upon YAP/TAZ activity blockade

The sh/siRNA interference results suggested that TAZ was required for sensitivity to

oxaliplatin. To validate independently the knock-down experiments, we used a

pharmacological approach with drugs targeting YAP/TAZ activity and monitored their action

in combination with oxaliplatin. We performed 2D matrices co-treatment analyses in which

cells were treated with increasing amounts of oxaliplatin and of the YAP/TAZ inhibitors

verteporfin or CA3 (Figure 3D and Supplemental Figure 1B &C; Liu-Chittenden et al., 2012;

Song et al., 2018). In both cases, the co-treatments led to a marked increase in the HCT116

resistance to oxaliplatin. The mode of action of verteporfin remains unclear and might involve
increased retention in the cytoplasm of YAP and TAZ, or their degradation, preventing them
from complexing in the nucleus with their transcription factor partners (Wang et al., 2016). A
recent study showed that CA3 reduced the transcriptional activity mediated by YAP/TAZ-
TEAD (reduction in target genes expression), with only minor effects on YAP protein levels
(Morice et al., 2020). Even though the exact mode of action of verteporfin and CA3 remain
unclear, the increased resistance to oxaliplatin observed by co-treating cells with YAP/TAZ
pharmacological inhibitors, confirms the results obtained with the genetic knock-down, and
supports a model where increased TAZ activity participate in the sensitivity of HCT116 cells
to oxaliplatin.
298
Src inhibition by Dasatinib reduces HCT116 cells sensitivity to oxaliplatin
The results suggest thus that preventing TAZ signaling in the early phases of oxaliplatin
treatment would represent a counter-productive approach, leading to reduced efficacy of
oxaliplatin to induce cell death. Besides the canonical Hippo signaling pathway, the nucleo-
cytoplasmic shuttling of YAP and TAZ is under the control of many other inputs. In particular,
YAP and TAZ retention in the nucleus is promoted by the action of different tyrosine kinases,
such as ABL or SFKs (Src Family Kinases) which phosphorylate the C-termini of YAP and
TAZ (Y357 or Y316 respectively; Byun et al., 2017; Ege et al., 2018; Guégan et al., 2022;
Kedan et al., 2018; Lamar et al., 2019; Li et al., 2016). Due to its high relevance for colon
cancer, we focused our analysis on SRC, frequently activated in colon carcinoma (Sirvent et
al., 2020). An earlier study showed that depending on the colon cancer cell line considered,
SRC could be activated, inhibited, or not affected following oxaliplatin treatment (Kopetz et
al., 2009). We could replicate that SRC was not activated after 24h of oxaliplatin treatment in
HCT116 cells (as measured by phosphorylation on Y416; Figure 4A). Working with HCT116,
we are thus in a position to test the contribution of SRC to YAP/TAZ shuttling during
oxaliplatin treatment without the complications arising from treatment-induced acute SRC
activation. Previous reports suggested that the classic SRC kinase inhibitor Dasatinib could be
used as a drug to prevent YAP/TAZ signaling (Rosenbluh et al., 2012). Indeed, combining
Dasatinib with oxaliplatin treatment, prevented the nuclear accumulation of TAZ (Figure 4B).
The addition of Dasatinib to oxaliplatin treated cells led to a dramatic reduction of the TAZ
nuclear staining when compared to oxaliplatin alone (95% reduction; see Materials and
Methods). It should be noted however, that Dasatinib treatment at 50nM reduced slightly the
elevated global TAZ levels observed in response to oxaliplatin (Figure 4A). Nevertheless, even

though TAZ appeared a bit more unstable in presence of Dasatinib, its nucleo-cytoplasmic ratio

was still profoundly affected by Dasatinib, preventing nuclear accumulation (Figure 4B).

We thus asked what would be the combined effect of Dasatinib treatment and oxaliplatin in

HCT116 cells. We thus performed 2D matrices co-treatment analyses in which cells were

treated with increasing amounts of oxaliplatin and of Dasatinib using drug ranges

encompassing their respective IC50 (0.5µM for oxaliplatin and 8µM for Dasatinib;

Supplemental Figure 1A&D). Strikingly combining both drugs showed clear regions of

antagonism, suggesting that Dasatinib treatment reduced HCT116 cells sensitivity to

oxaliplatin (Figure 4C). These results further support a model in which the nuclear

relocalization of TAZ in response to oxaliplatin treatment sensitizes cells, and caution the use

of Dasatinib in combination to oxaliplatin.

YAP/TAZ promote cell death in the early response to chemotherapeutic agents

Taken together the results presented here show that oxaliplatin promotes the fast nuclear

relocalization of TAZ which then participates to the cells sensitivity to oxaliplatin. Given that

we could not find any interaction between TAZ and P53 family members, but that the nuclear

localization of TAZ is required for its effect, we could envision several models:

i) either the TAZ/TEAD transcription complex, in the context of DNA damage and P53

activation, promotes the transcription of specific early response genes promoting cell death;

ii) or the slight increase at the transcriptional level of "classic" YAP/TAZ/TEAD targets

involved in proliferation sensitizes cells to DNA damage and replicative stress;

iii) or alternatively, TAZ acts through a new complex involved in cell death, independently of

TEAD.

More studies should help to distinguish between these potential models.

YAP and TAZ, have been implicated in the resistance to various chemotherapies or targeted

therapies in different cancers (Kim and Kim, 2017; Nguyen and Yi, 2019; Zeng and Dong,

2021). It should be noted that the current study focuses on the immediate effects of oxaliplatin

within the first hours after exposure. Whether YAP and TAZ are later important for the

maintenance of the resistance acquired by the surviving clones is not addressed in this study.

Hints towards this later role of YAP/TAZ, are suggested by the elevated YAP levels reported

in many cancer cells following resistant clone selection (our own unpublished results, and Kim

and Kim, 2017; Nguyen and Yi, 2019; Zeng and Dong, 2021). Functional studies impairing

YAP demonstrated that YAP is indeed required for the tumorigenicity of resistant cells

(Yoshikawa et al., 2015). Furthermore, elevated YAP and TAZ nuclear staining is frequently

observed in patients tumor samples, including in CRCs (Li and Guan, 2022; Ling et al., 2017;

Steinhardt et al., 2008; Thompson, 2020). In advanced cancers, almost all patients undergo one

or more rounds of treatment before surgery, if surgery is possible. It is thus unclear whether

the increased YAP/TAZ nuclear levels observed in tumor samples reflect primary response to

treatment (as suggested by the current study), or whether they represent a secondary state that

might have been selected in the cells resistant to treatment.

The current study investigates the early response to oxaliplatin, supporting an early tumor

suppressive role of YAP/TAZ in response to treatment, in which, in the context of detrimental

DNA damage, YAP/TAZ activity promotes cell death. Is this role general or is it specific to

CRCs and oxaliplatin? Independently of the mechanism involved (YAP/P73 complex as

previously reported or alternative TAZ-mediated mechanisms as shown here), different breast

and colon cancer cell lines mobilize YAP or TAZ to promote cell death in response to many

different DNA damaging agents (Basu et al., 2003; Lapi et al., 2008; Levy et al., 2007; Strano

et al., 2005, 2001). This anti-tumoral role appears evolutionarily conserved and in *Drosophila*

the YAP/TAZ homologue Yki promotes cell death in response to different stress inducing

agents (Di Cara et al., 2015), further suggesting that YAP/TAZ might promote cell death in

response to chemotherapeutic agents in other cancers beside CRCs and breast cancers. When

considering drugging YAP/TAZ signaling in the treatment of CRCs and other cancers, special

attention should thus be given to drug combinations, and importantly the sequence in which

they will be used.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

shRNA construction

shRNA directed against human *YAP*, *TAZ*, or the non-relevant *Luciferase* gene were designed by adding to the selected targeted sequences, overhangs corresponding to BamHI and EcoRI cloning sites at the 5'end of forward and reverse strand, respectively. Resulting oligos were then annealed together and cloned into the pSIREN-RetroQ vector (TaKaRa) according to the manufacturer's protocol between BamHI and EcoRI cloning sites.

Targeted sequences:

shRNA-YAP(3619): CAATCACTGTGTTGTATAT

shRNA-TAZ(1417): CCCTTTCTAACCTGGCTGT

shRNA-Luciferase: CGTACGCGGAATACTTCGA

Cell culture and cell transfections

Human HCT116 colorectal cancer cell line (ATCC 2017) was cultured in RPMI1640 supplemented with 10% FBS at 37°C in a humidified atmosphere with 5% CO_2. No antibiotics were used to avoid any cross-reaction with the Oxaliplatin treatment.

HCT116 cells expressing shRNA against *YAP*, *TAZ* , or *Luciferase* (Luc; control) were obtained by retroviral gene transduction of the corresponding pSIREN vectors. Retroviral particles were produced in HEK293 cells and subsequently used to infect HCT116 cells. Positive clones were selected with 1 μg/mL puromycin and pooled together.

HCT116-*shYAP/siTAZ* cells were created by transfecting 100nM of *TAZ siRNA* (Dharmacon siGENOME SMARTpool #M-016083-00-0005) into HCT116-*shYAP* cells using Lipofectamine 2000 (Invitrogen) according to manufacturer's protocol. As a negative control, 100nM of *siScrambled* (D-001206-13) was transfected into HCT116-*shLuc* cells.

RNA-Seq

HCT116 cells were plated to reach 60 to 70% of confluence and treated with 0.5 μM Oxaliplatin (IC_{50}) for 24 hours. RNA was extracted using RNeasy plus mini kit (Qiagen), quantified and analyzed for its integrity number (RIN) using a Bioanalyzer (Agilent 2100 at the IRMB: https://irmb-montpellier.fr/single-service/transcriptome-ngs/). RNA (1 μg) with RIN between 8 and 10 were sent for RNA-Sequencing analysis to Fasteris biotechnology company (http://www.fasteris.com). After library preparation, sequencing was performed on the Illumina NovaSeq 6000 platform (S1 2x100 full FC). Mapping on the human genome

GRCh38 was performed using the protocol STAR 2.7.5b leading to 80-100 Millions reads per

condition. Normalization and pairwise differential expression analyses were performed using

the R package DESeq2 (2.13) (Anders and Huber, 2010).

RNA-Seq data has been deposited in NCBI's Gene Expression Omnibus under accession

number GSE227315.

Western blotting

Proteins issued from transfected untreated and treated HCT116 cells were extracted, analyzed

by SDS-PAGE. Dilutions and antibodies' references are listed below.

Flag M2 (1/2000; Sigma-Aldrich #F1804)

GAPDH (1/3000; Proteintech #60004)

Histone H3 (1/1000; Cell Signaling Technology CST #4499)

LATS1 (1/1000; CST #3477)

MOB1 (1/1000; CST #13730)

p-MOB1 (1/1000; CST #8699)

MST1 (1/1000; CST #3682)

p-MST1/2 (1/1000; CST #49332)

NF2 antibody (Proteintech #26686-1-AP)

P53 (1/5000; Proteintech #10442-1-AP)

P63 (1/250; Santa Cruz #sc25268)

P73 (1/1000; CST #14620)

p-SRC Y416(1/1000; CST #2105)

TAZ (1/1000; CST #4883)

TEAD4 (1/250; Santa Cruz #sc101184)

Tubulin (1/10000; Sigma-Aldrich #T6074)

YAP (1/1000; CST #14074)

p-YAP S127 (1/1000; CST #13008)

Immunoprecipitation and co-immunoprecipitation

Protein extracts were prepared in lysis buffer (NaCl 150 mM, Tris pH 7.4 10 mM, EDTA 1

mM, Triton X-100 1%, NP-40 0.5%, cOmplete, EDTA-free protease inhibitors (Roche

#11873580001) for 30 min on ice before centrifugation. Immunoprecipitations were performed

overnight at 4°C on a rocking wheel using mouse EZview Red anti-Flag M2 affinity gel

(Sigma-Aldrich #F1804) after transfections of either p2xFlag CMV2 (empty vector), p2xFlag

CMV2-YAP2 (YAP1; Addgene #19045) or p2xFlag CMV2-WWTR1 (TAZ). After Flag
immunoprecipitation, washes in lysis buffer were performed, followed by protein elution by
competition with 3XFLAG peptide (150 ng/µL final concentration) during 1 hour at 4°C. The
different immunoprecipitates were then subjected to Western blotting for detection of protein
complexes.
450

Immunofluorescence
Cells seeded on glass coverslips were fixed 10 min in paraformaldehyde (4 %), before being
permeabilized in PBS / 0.1% TritonX-100 for 10 min. After blocking in PBS / 0.5% BSA, cells
were incubated with primary antibodies overnight at 4C. Primary antibodies used are listed
below. Secondary Alexa Fluor Antibodies (1/600; Invitrogen) were used as described
previously (Kantar et al., 2021) for 1 hour at room temperature before mounting the coverslips
with Vectashield (Vector Laboratories #H-1200) and imaging on Zeiss Apotome or Leica
Thunder microscopes.
Antibodies used were rabbit anti-53BP1 (1/100; CST #4937), mouse anti-phospho-Histone
H2AX clone JBW301 (1/200; Millipore #05-636), anti-TAZ (1/100; CST #4883), mouse anti-
TEAD4 (1/50; Santa Cruz #sc101184), and rabbit anti-YAP (1/100; CST #14074).
462

Nuclear staining quantifications in HCT116 cells
Quantification was performed using ImageJ. Binary mask corresponding to the cell nuclei was
based on DAPI staining. Two nuclei touching each other (and therefore recognized as one on
binary mask) were manually separated by drawing a 2-pixel line between them. All incomplete
nuclei on the edge of the image as well as those that were in mitosis or mechanically damaged
were excluded from the analysis. The total signal was calculated as "corrected total cell
fluorescence" (CTCF) according to the following formula:
*CTCF = Integrated Density – (Area of selected cell * Mean fluorescence of the background)*
Background fluorescence was measured on three different spots (roughly the size of cell
nucleus) outside of the cell. In case of 53BP1 and g-H2AX staining, the whole area covered by
the nuclear mask was quantified as one. For YAP and TAZ nuclear staining, each cell was
quantified separately using particle analysis tool. Cytoplasmic levels of YAP and TAZ were
not quantified due to the small size of the cytoplasm in HCT116 cells.
476

IC50 calculation and cytotoxicity

Cell growth inhibition and cell viability after incubation with Oxaliplatin (Sigma Aldrich
#O9512), Verteporfin (Sigma Aldrich #SML0534), CA3 (CIL56, Selleckchem, #S8661) or
Dasatinib (Selleckchem #S1021) were assessed using the sulforhodamine B (SRB) assay.
Exponentially growing cells (750 cells/well) were seeded in 96-well plates in RPMI-1640
medium supplemented with 10% FCS. After 24 hours, serial dilutions of the tested drugs were
added and each concentration was tested in triplicate. After 96 hours, cells were fixed with
10% trichloroacetic acid and stained with 0.4% SRB in 1% acetic acid. SRB-fixed cells were
dissolved in 10 mmol/L Tris–HCl and absorbance at 540 nm was read using an MRX plate
reader (Dynex, Inc., Vienna, VA, USA). IC50 was determined graphically from the
cytotoxicity curves.
For HCT116-*shYAP/siTAZ*, cells were transfected in 6 well plates 24h before starting the cell
growth and cytotoxicity assays.
490

Quantification of the interaction effect
The interaction between the drugs tested *in vitro* was investigated with a concentration matrix
test, in which increasing concentration of each single drug were assessed with all possible
combinations of the other drugs. For each combination, the percentage of expected growing
cells in the case of effect independence was calculated according to the Bliss equation (Greco
et al., 1995):

$$fu_c = fu_A fu_B$$

where fu_c is the expected fraction of cells unaffected by the drug combination in the case of
effect independence, and fu_A and fu_B are the fractions of cells unaffected by treatment *A* and *B,*
respectively. The difference between the fu_c value and the fraction of living cells in the
cytotoxicity test was considered as an estimation of the interaction effect, with positive values
indicating synergism and negative values antagonism.
503
504

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AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

VS, LHM, LJ, and DK performed experiments. CG and AD designed the experiments. VS,

LHM, MR, DK, CG and AD analyzed the data. VS, LHM, DT, LB, CG, and AD interpreted

the data. CG and AD wrote the manuscript.

COMPETING INTERESTS

All authors declare no competing interest

 FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure 1. Oxaliplatin treatment induces DNA damage

A. Immunofluorescence experiments performed on HCT116 cells treated, or not, with

oxaliplatin (0.5 µM) monitoring γ-H2AX (yellow). DAPI (blue) was used to stain DNA and

the nuclei. Quantification of the staining is shown on the right side and is represented as the

corrected nuclear fluorescence. Data are represented as the mean ± SEM. (n=3). Unpaired two-

tailed Student's t-test; ** $p<0.01$.

B. Immunofluorescence experiments performed on HCT116 cells treated, or not, with

oxaliplatin (0.5 µM) monitoring 53BP1 (grey). DAPI (blue) was used to stain DNA and the

nuclei. Quantification of the staining is shown on the right side and is represented as the

corrected nuclear fluorescence. Data are represented as the mean ± SEM. (n=3). Unpaired two-

tailed Student's t-test; *** $p<0.001$.

C. Western blot analysis showing protein expression of TEAD4 and p53 family of proteins in

HCT116 treated (Oxa), or not (NT) with oxaliplatin (0.5 µM). GAPDH was used as a loading

control (n=3).

D. Heat map corresponding to the genes differentially expressed in HCT116 cells after 24h of

oxaliplatin treatment at IC50 (see Supplemental Table 1). The three replicates for the non-

treated (NT) and treated (Oxa) are shown.

Figure 2. Oxaliplatin treatment triggers YAP and TAZ nuclear accumulation

A. Immunofluorescence experiments performed on HCT116 cells treated, or not, with

oxaliplatin (0.5 µM) monitoring TEAD4 (top panels), YAP (middle panels), and TAZ (bottom

panels) nuclear localization (red). DAPI (blue) was used to stain DNA and the nuclei.

Quantification of both stainings are shown on the right side of the figures and are represented

as the corrected nuclear fluorescence. Data are represented as the mean ± SEM (n=3). Unpaired

two-tailed Student's t-test; **** $p < 0.0001$.

B. Western blot analysis showing protein expression and/or activation of Hippo pathway

components in HCT116 cells treated (Oxa), or not (NT) with oxaliplatin (0.5 µM). GAPDH

was used as a loading control (n=3).

C. Western blot analysis after subcellular fractionation showing the relative amount of YAP

and TAZ protein in the nuclear fraction of HCT116 cells treated (Oxa), or not (NT) with

oxaliplatin (0.5 µM). Histone H3 was used as a nuclear loading control for the fractionation

(n=3).

Figure 3. YAP and TAZ are required for oxaliplatin-mediated cell death

A. HCT116-*shYAP* and HCT116-*shLuc* cell lines were treated with increasing doses of oxaliplatin for 96h. Cell viability analysis was then assessed using SRB assay and the IC50 of oxaliplatin was calculated as the concentration needed to kill 50% of the cells (shown in the inset). Paired two-tailed Student's t-test ,* p<0.05.

B. HCT116-*shYAP-siTAZ* and HCT116-*shLuc-siCtl* (control) cell lines were treated with increasing doses of oxaliplatin for 96h. Cell viability analysis was then assessed using SRB assay and the IC50 of oxaliplatin was calculated as the concentration needed to kill 50% of the cells (shown in the inset). Paired two-tailed Student's t-test, ** p<0.01.

C. Western blot analysis showing protein expression of TAZ and YAP in HCT116-*shLuc*, -*siTAZ*, -*shYAP* and both -*shYAP-siTAZ* used in panel A and B. Tubulin was used as a loading control (n=3).

D. HCT116 cells were incubated with increasing concentrations of oxaliplatin and either Verteporfin or CA3. Cell viability was assessed with the SRB assay in 2D to obtain the viability matrix. Drug concentrations were as follows: Verteporfin (from 0.437 to 7 µM), CA3 (from 0.004 to 0.75 µM) and oxaliplatin (from 0.0185 to 1.2 µM). The synergy matrices were calculated as described in Materials and Methods.

Figure 4. Src inhibition by Dasatinib reduces HCT116 cells sensitivity to oxaliplatin

A. Western blot analysis showing protein expression of YAP and TAZ in HCT116 treated, or not, with oxaliplatin (0.5 µM) and/or Dasatinib (50 nM and 100 nM). Phopsho-SRC blotting was used to evaluate the inhibition of SRC activity using Dasatinib. GAPDH was used as a loading control (n=3). Quantification of the blots (performed using Image J software) is shown on the right side of the figure.

B. Immunofluorescence experiments performed in HCT116 cells treated, or not, with oxaliplatin (0.5 µM) and/or Dasatinib (50 nM) monitoring YAP (top panels) and TAZ (bottom panels) nuclear localization (red). DAPI (blue) was used to stain DNA and the nuclei. Quantification of both stainings are shown on the right side of the figures and are represented as the corrected nuclear fluorescence. Data are represented as the mean ± SEM (n=3). Unpaired two-tailed Student's t-test; ****p < 0.0001.

C. HCT116 colorectal cancer cell lines were incubated with increasing concentrations of oxaliplatin and Dasatinib. Cell viability was assessed with the SRB assay in 2D to obtain the viability matrix. Drug concentrations were as follows: Dasatinib (from 1 to 16 µM) and

oxaliplatin (from 0.0185 to 1.2 μM). The synergy matrix was calculated as described in

Materials and Methods.

SUPPLEMENTAL FIGURE LEGENDS

Supplemental Figure 1. Cell viability in response to drugs

Cells were treated with increasing doses of oxaliplatin (**A**), Verteporfin (**B**), CA3 (**C**) and

Dasatinib (**D**) for 96h. Cell viability analysis was then assessed using SRB assay and the IC50

of each drug could be calculated as the concentration that reduced cell numbers by 50% (shown

in the insets).

Supplemental Figure 2. Interaction between YAP/TAZ and P53 protein family members

in HCT116 cells

Western blot analysis of Flag (YAP or TAZ) immunoprecipitates on protein extracts from

HCT116 treated (Oxa), or not (NT) showing an interaction between YAP and p73 (n=3).

Supplemental Table 1. Differentially expressed genes in HCT116 cells after oxaliplatin

treatment for 24h at IC50

Only differentially expressed genes with an adjusted p-value< 0.05 are shown. Columns are:

test_id: position and description of the feature tested

ENSG_ID: Ensemble gene ID

symbol: gene symbol

sample_1: first group in the comparison; untreated cells

sample_2: second group in the comparison; cells treated with oxaliplatin

mean_1: mean of normalized count for the first group in the comparison

mean_2: mean of normalized count for the second group in the comparison

log2FoldChange: log2 fold change estimates

pvalue: pvalue

padj: pvalue adjusted for multiple testing with the Benjamini-Hochberg procedure, which

controls false discovery rate (FDR)

Supplemental Table 2. g:profiler functional enrichment analyses

Columns are :

GO_ID: Gene Ontology

KEGG_ID: KEGG pathways

REAC_ID: Reactome pathways

WP_ID: WikiPathways

TF_ID: regulatory motif matches from TRANSFAC

MIRNA_ID: miRNA targets from miRTarBase

CORUM_ID: protein complexes from CORUM

HPA_ID: tissue specificity from Human Protein Atlas

HP_ID: human disease phenotypes from Human Phenotype Ontology

Description: description of the functional group

p.Val: p-value

FDR: false discovery rate

Genes: genes found in the intersection