YAP engages RIF1 to dampen replication stress in squamous cell carcinoma.

Jodie Bojko[1], Benjamin Flynn[1,2], Bertram Aschenbrenner[3], Alexander Howard[1], Emily Lay[1],

Natalia Krajic[3], Emma Bailey[4], Sandra Catalan[1], Kelli Gallacher[1], Elodie Sins[2], Jun Wang[4],

Ute Jungwirth[1,5], Beate M. Lichtenberger[3], Gernot Walko[1,2,*]

[1]Department of Life Sciences, University of Bath, Bath, UK.

[2]Centre for Oral Immunobiology and Regenerative Medicine, Institute of Dentistry, Queen Mary

University of London, London, UK.

[3]Department of Dermatology, Medical University of Vienna, Vienna, Austria.

[4]Barts Cancer Institute, Queen Mary University of London, London, UK.

[5]Cancer Research Horizons Therapeutic Innovation, Newcastle Drug Discovery Group, Translational

and Clinical Research Institute, Newcastle University, Newcastle, UK.

Word count: Abstract, 175; remaining manuscript text (excluding references,)

Abstract

Squamous cancers are the most frequently diagnosed solid tumours world-wide. The closely

related transcriptional co-regulators YAP and TAZ(WWTR1) have emerged as important drivers

of tumour initiation and progression in various types of squamous cell carcinoma. How YAP

and TAZ execute their oncogenic functions in squamous cancers is still not fully understood.

Here, we report that in addition to controlling transcriptional programmes that determine the

balance between proliferation and terminal differentiation, YAP also engages with RIF1, a key

regulator of DNA replication timing and protector of stalled replication forks under replication

stress. YAP modulates gene expression of RIF1 via TEAD transcription factors, and also

stabilizes RIF1 protein on the chromatin. YAP-RIF1 complex formation increases in response to

exogenous replication stress, and treatment with hydroxyurea to induce replication fork

stalling acts synergistically with YAP depletion to impair cell proliferation. Our results thus

demonstrate that YAP's oncogenic functions in squamous cell carcinoma involve both

transcriptional and non-transcriptional mechanisms, and that RIF1 is key for squamous cell

carcinoma cells to survive with their high levels of endogenous replication stress.

Introduction

Squamous cancers develop in squamous (also called 'stratified') epithelia and are by far the

most frequently diagnosed solid tumours globally, with incidences continuing to rise (Dotto &

Rustgi, 2016). Common risk factors for developing squamous cell carcinoma (SCC) are

smoking, alcohol, and viral infections (human papilloma virus and Epstein-Barr virus)(Dotto &

Rustgi, 2016). SCC of the skin epidermis (cutaneous SCC; cSCC) is the most common type of

squamous cancer, and a significant burden to health care systems world-wide due to its very

high incidence (Winge *et al*, 2023). The major risk factor for cSCC development is life-long

chronic exposure to UV radiation in sunlight (Dotto & Rustgi, 2016; Winge *et al.*, 2023). In

contrast, SCCs originating in the head and neck region (HNSCC), which include squamous

cancers of the oral cavity, oropharynx, nasopharynx, hypopharynx, and larynx, are less

common, but are associated with a far higher mortality rate (Johnson *et al*, 2020). This is due

to their aggressiveness and high risk of progression to metastatic disease (Johnson *et al.*,

2020). There is ample evidence that the cells of origin of SCCs are the stem and progenitor

cells which are located in the deepest tissue layers and maintain and repair squamous

epithelia during the life course (Sanchez-Danes & Blanpain, 2018). Tissue homeostasis of the

highly proliferative squamous epithelial tissues is maintained by a tightly controlled balance

of cell proliferation and terminal differentiation (Flora & Ezhkova, 2020). Proliferating cells that

have committed to undergoing terminal differentiation withdraw from the cell cycle and

undergo a programmed series of biochemical and morphological changes whilst moving

towards the epithelial surface (Blanpain & Fuchs, 2009). In well differentiated SCCs the

terminal differentiation programme continues to be executed to some extent, often giving rise

to regions with concentric layers of differentiated cancer cells called 'keratin pearls' (Dotto &

Rustgi, 2016; Yanofsky *et al*, 2011). It is widely understood that the ability of SCC cells to

undergo terminal differentiation acts as a 'brake' to tumour progression (Dotto & Rustgi, 2016;

Johnson *et al.*, 2020; Winge *et al.*, 2023). Accordingly, in poorly differentiated SCCs the cancer

cells have lost the ability to undergo terminal differentiation, which contributes to the rapid

growth and increased aggressiveness of such tumours (Johnson *et al.*, 2020; Winge *et al.*,

2023). Lung squamous cell carcinoma (LUSC) is a form of non-small cell lung cancer, and

contrary to other types of SCC, develops through acquisition of a squamous differentiation

programme of the basal stem/progenitor cells in the otherwise pseudo-stratified epithelium

covering the trachea and the airways, or by trans-differentiation of a lung adenocarcinoma

into a LUSC (Hou *et al*, 2017; Lau *et al*, 2022).

Like other cancers, SCC arises from genetic alterations that invariably lead to dysregulated

transcriptional programmes (Dotto & Rustgi, 2016; Johnson *et al.*, 2020; Ratushny *et al*, 2012;

Winge *et al.*, 2023). These dysregulated programmes can cause cancer cells to become highly

dependent on certain regulators of gene expression (Bradner *et al*, 2017). Such transcriptional

dependencies are not typically identified by cancer genome sequencing but arise through

focused mechanistic studies of gene control programmes operating in both normal and

neoplastic cells (Bradner *et al.*, 2017). The closely related transcriptional co-regulators Yes-

associated protein (YAP; gene symbol: *YAP1*) and transcriptional co-activator with PDZ-

binding motif (TAZ, also called WW Domain Containing Transcription Regulator 1 (*WWTR1*))

have surfaced as essential drivers of cancer initiation, progression and metastasis in many

tumour types, including SCC (Franklin *et al*, 2023; Howard *et al*, 2022; Maehama *et al*, 2021;

Piccolo *et al*, 2023). YAP/TAZ do not bind DNA directly, but rely on the interaction with

different transcription factors (TFs; predominantly those of the TEAD family (Battilana *et al*,

2021; Franklin *et al.*, 2023; Piccolo *et al.*, 2023)) and associated cofactors (e.g. bromodomain-

containing protein 4 (BRD4) (Zanconato *et al*, 2018) and the BRG1- or BRM-associated factors

(BAF)-type SWItch/Sucrose Non-Fermentable (SWI/SNF) chromatin regulation complex

(Chang *et al*, 2021)) to bind to enhancer and super-enhancer elements (large chromatin

domains bountiful in cell-type specific TF binding motifs that enable cooperative binding of

TFs) to drive the execution of transcriptional programmes that promote proliferation,

chemoresistance, epithelial-to-mesenchymal transition (EMT), and metastasis (Dey *et al*,

2020; Franklin *et al.*, 2023; Piccolo *et al.*, 2023). YAP/TAZ can operate as both transcriptional

co-activators and co-repressors (Hillmer & Link, 2019). Although YAP/TAZ are classified as

oncoproteins (http://ongene.bioinfo-minzhao.org/browse_gene.html), activating mutations

of YAP/TAZ are rarely identified (Zhang *et al*, 2019). Instead, activation of YAP/TAZ occurs

through de-regulation of upstream inhibitory signalling pathways, leading to increased

nuclear YAP/TAZ accumulation and consequently, chromatin binding and downstream

signalling (Battilana *et al.*, 2021; Dey *et al.*, 2020; Franklin *et al.*, 2023; Piccolo *et al.*, 2023). In

addition to the well documented transcriptional functions of YAP/TAZ, evidence for non-

transcriptional roles has also begun to emerge (Bui *et al*, 2016; Chow *et al*, 2023). Intriguingly,

a recent study demonstrated that YAP regulates DNA replication during early stages of

Xenopus development, when transcription is still largely absent (Melendez Garcia *et al*, 2022).

Studies in mice have demonstrated an absolute requirement of YAP/TAZ for initiation and

progression of both cSCC and HNSCC (Debaugnies *et al*, 2018; Omori *et al*, 2020; Vincent-

Mistiaen *et al*, 2018; Zanconato *et al*, 2015), while YAP/TAZ appear to be largely dispensable

for normal squamous epithelial tissue homeostasis (Elbediwy *et al*, 2016; Omori *et al.*, 2020;

Zanconato *et al.*, 2015). This highlights the possibility that targeting YAP/TAZ in SCC may

display a large therapeutic window (Howard *et al.*, 2022; Maehama *et al.*, 2021).

One of the hallmarks of cancer cells is their ability to sustain chronic proliferation (Hanahan &

Weinberg, 2011). Since oncogene expression drives cancer cell proliferation by interfering

with the regulatory pathways of cell cycle progression control, cancer cells usually experience

replication stress, which occurs when DNA replication fork progression in S phase slows or

stalls (da Costa *et al*, 2023; Gaillard *et al*, 2015). This leads to the collapse of forks into DNA

double-strand breaks (DSBs), as well as incomplete sister chromatid separation in the

following mitosis, and ultimately genomic instability (da Costa *et al.*, 2023; Gaillard *et al.*,

2015). In addition to de-regulated cell cycle control, another source of replication stress is the

upregulation of transcription, which can cause direct collisions or torsional stress between the transcriptional and replication machineries as well as collisions with RNA-DNA hybrids (R loops) (Bowry *et al*, 2021; Gaillard *et al.*, 2015). As endogenous replication stress is higher in cancer cells, they depend on replication stress response and DNA damage response (DDR) pathways for survival (Ashley *et al*, 2014; da Costa *et al.*, 2023; Liu *et al*, 2012). Markers of endogenous replication stress have been found in tumour samples and cells expressing active oncogenes (Bartkova *et al*, 2006; Burrell *et al*, 2013; Takahashi *et al*, 2022). Of note, the stem and progenitor cells in healthy human epidermis already have high levels of endogenous replication stress due to their high proliferation rates, and the resulting activation of DDR pathways directly couples replication stress to polyploidisation and terminal differentiation as a homeostatic mechanism (Contreras *et al*, 2024; Molinuevo *et al*, 2020). This mechanism is mediated by G2 and mitotic checkpoints that determine the fate of epidermal stem/progenitor cells towards differentiation or apoptosis (de Pedro *et al*, 2021; Freije *et al*, 2012; Freije *et al*, 2014). Importantly, the same mechanism operates to eliminate pre-cancerous cells in the epidermis in response to activation of oncogenic signalling ('oncogene-induced differentiation' (Gandarillas, 2012)), such as overexpression of MYC or Cyclin E (*CCNE1*) (Freije *et al.*, 2012; Gandarillas *et al*, 2000), or inactivation of TP53 (Freije *et al.*, 2014). The key cell cycle regulator p21 (*CDKN1A*) is a transcriptional target of TP53, but squamous epithelial cells (keratinocytes) also express a pool of p21 that is regulated in a TP53-independent fashion (de Pedro *et al.*, 2021; Freije *et al.*, 2014). Interestingly, depletion of this TP53-independent pool of p21 was shown to alleviate the differentiation response caused by knockdown of TP53, allowing DNA-damaged keratinocytes to escape differentiation and continue to proliferate (de Pedro *et al.*, 2021). Intriguingly, several studies have reported that reduced p21 expression inversely correlates with cell proliferation and invasion in HNSCC

patient samples (Li *et al*, 2015a; Xie *et al*, 2002), suggesting that suppression of p21 may be

an important step in human SCC progression similar to what was reported in mice (Topley *et*

al, 1999). While YAP plays an essential role in stimulating proliferation of human epidermal

stem cells in response to tissue injury (De Rosa *et al*, 2019; Walko *et al*, 2017), overexpression

of an oncogenic, hyperactive YAP variant in these cells was found to induce rapid senescence

(De Rosa *et al.*, 2019). It is likely that this oncogene-induced senescence mechanism is linked

to YAP-driven transcription and the resulting replication stress, similar to what was reported

in neuronal progenitors upon YAP/TAZ activation (Lavado *et al*, 2018).

How YAP/TAZ control oncogenic signalling in SCC at the molecular level, and how SCC cells

deal with YAP/TAZ hyperactivation-induced replication stress remains poorly understood.

Here, by characterising the YAP-controlled transcriptome and the protein interactome of

chromatin-associated YAP, we have identified transcriptional and non-transcriptional

mechanisms that underly YAP's oncogenic functions in SCC, including engagement of the DNA

replication and damage repair factor RIF1 to dampen replication stress.

Results

The protein interactome of chromatin-associated YAP in squamous cell carcinoma cells.

To characterise the protein interactome of transcriptionally engaged, chromatin-associated

YAP in SCC cells, we chose SCC13 as a relevant cell model. SCC13 cells are a widely used human

cSCC cell line and are derived from the rapid recurrence of a cSCC (T2N0) in a patient's facial

epidermis following radiotherapy (Rheinwald & Beckett, 1981; Weichselbaum *et al*, 1984). As

is typical for cSCC, SCC13 cells carry an inactivating mutation in *TP53* (p.Glu258Lys (c.772G>A)

(Burns *et al*, 1993; Nappi *et al*, 2023). SCC13 are representative of a subclass of cSCC with

reduced expression of αE-catenin (Schlegelmilch *et al*, 2011; Walko *et al.*, 2017), which likely

explains the constitutive nuclear localisation of YAP/TAZ in these cells and their strong YAP-

dependency (Walko *et al.*, 2017). Like most cSCC cell lines, SCC13 require feeder layer support

for optimal growth in culture (Hassan *et al*, 2019; Rheinwald & Beckett, 1981).

Rapid immunoprecipitation mass spectrometry of endogenous protein (RIME) analysis

(Mohammed *et al*, 2016) was performed on two independent cultures of SCC13 cells and

normal human epidermal keratinocytes (NHK, strain Km), using a knockdown-validated YAP-

specific antibody that does not recognise TAZ (Supplementary Figs. 1A and 2D) and isotype-

matched IgG as control. Low passage cells were cultured on a mitotically inactivated fibroblast

feeder layer to maintain the stem cell state of NHKs characterised by predominantly nuclear

localisation of YAP (Supplementary Fig. 1B) (De Rosa *et al.*, 2019; Walko *et al.*, 2017). YAP

immunoprecipitation (IP) was performed on formaldehyde-fixed chromatin fractions of SCC13

and NHK cells. IP efficiency was consistently high across all YAP-RIME replicates, with high YAP

peptide coverage (63-65%) detected by mass spectrometry analysis (Supplementary Fig. 1C),

and with zero spectral counts (MS/MS events, total number of spectra associated to a single

protein or protein group) for YAP in the IgG-control IPs (Supplementary Dataset 1). Proteins

detected by mass spectrometry in the YAP IPs (Supplementary Dataset 1 – Table 1) were

stringently filtered (see Materials and Methods, and Supplementary Dataset 1 – Tables 2–7)

to remove potential false positive hits and to compile a list of high confidence interactors of

chromatin-associated YAP in SCC13 and NHK cells (Supplementary Dataset 1 – Tables 6, 7).

YAP-RIME enabled identification of 48 high confidence YAP-interacting proteins in SCC13 cells

(Fig. 1A, Supplementary Dataset 1 – Table 6) and 15 high confidence YAP-interacting proteins

in NHK cells (including the bait protein YAP in both cases) (Supplementary Fig. 2A,

Supplementary Dataset 1 – Table 7). Using the 'Compartments' database

(https://compartments.jensenlab.org/Search), most identified proteins had a high confidence

score (≥4) for nuclear localization (Supplementary Dataset 1 – Tables 6, 7). Moreover,

significantly enriched gene ontology terms for molecular functions (GO MF) and biological

processes (GO BP) in both protein interactomes were all related to processes occurring in the

nucleus (Fig. 1B, Supplementary Fig. 2B). This confirms that, as expected, the YAP-RIME

predominantly identified protein interactions of YAP on the chromatin.

STRING analysis was used to identify known interactions occurring between the YAP-

interacting proteins in SCC13 (Fig. 1A) and NHK (Supplementary Fig. 2A) cells, and proteins

were manually grouped by cellular function (Szklarczyk *et al*, 2019). Because our aim was to

identify proteins that facilitate YAP's functions in squamous cancers, we focused on the

protein interactome of chromatin-associated YAP in SCC13 cells. Among these YAP-interacting

proteins were several known regulators of YAP, including Neurofibromatosis type (NF2, also

called Merlin) (Zhang *et al*, 2010), Angiomiotin-like 1 (AMOTL1), PPP1CB, one the catalytic

subunits of protein phosphatase 1 (PP1) (Wang *et al*, 2011), and Prolyl 4-Hydroxylase subunit

alpha 2 (P4HA2). The identification of NF2 in the interactome of chromatin-bound YAP was, at

first look, at odds with the established dogma that the canonical Hippo signalling pathway

operates in the cytoplasm. However, nuclear localization of NF2 has been widely documented

(Beltrami *et al*, 2013), and nucleocytoplasmic shuttling of NF2 has been implicated in YAP

regulation (Furukawa *et al*, 2017; Li *et al*, 2014; Moleirinho *et al*, 2017). AMOTL1, a member

of the Motin protein family (Amirifar & Kissil, 2023), was previously shown to enhance YAP

stability and to help translocate YAP into the nucleus (Ragni *et al*, 2017; Zhou *et al*, 2020).

P4HA2 was shown to hydroxylate YAP at multiple proline residues, with implications in cell

migration and invasion (Zhu *et al*, 2021). Consistent with the results from a previous study

which used a similar YAP chromatin-IP/mass spectrometry approach (Chang *et al*, 2018), our

YAP-RIME also identified five subunits of the BAF-type SWI/SNF chromatin remodelling

complex (Mittal & Roberts, 2020) in the interactome of chromatin-associated YAP in SCC13

cells. These included the YAP binding partner AT-rich interactive domain-containing protein

1A (ARID1A), and SWI/SNF-related matrix-associated actin-dependent regulator of chromatin

(SMARC) subfamily A member 4 (SMARCA4, also called BRG1), subfamily E member 1

(SMARCE1), subfamily D member 2 (SMARCD2), and subfamily C member 1 (SMARCC1) (Fig.

1A). Two key components of the NuRD chromatin remodelling complex, Chromodomain-

helicase-DNA-binding protein 4 (CHD4) and Metastasis Associated 1 Family Member 2

(MTA2), were also identified as interactors of chromatin-bound YAP in SCC13 cells. Of note,

the NuRD complex was previously implicated in mediating co-repressor functions of YAP (Kim

et al, 2015). While key components of the general transcriptional machinery (POLR2A,

POLR2B, GTF21, TOP1) were present in the SCC13 YAP interactome, TEAD TFs were notably

absent (Fig. 1A). A closer inspection of our mass spectrometry data revealed that TEADs, as

well as other known YAP-interacting transcription factors, such as JunB and TP63 (He *et al*,

2021; Ning *et al*, 2023), had been identified but did not pass our stringent bioinformatics

filtering criteria (Supplementary Dataset 1 – Table 4). The overall poor identification of TFs by

our YAP-RIME was likely due to their insufficient crosslinking to the DNA by formaldehyde

alone, as previously observed for the highly dynamic transcription factor NFκB (Nowak *et al*,

2005).

To identify physiologically relevant interactions, the YAP-interacting proteins identified by

RIME in SCC13 were also compared to candidate positive and negative regulators of cell

proliferation and survival identified in a genome-wide RNA interference screen that had

previously been performed in the same cell lines (Walko *et al.*, 2017). This revealed that 22

out of the 47 high confidence YAP-interacting proteins in SCC13 cells were likely relevant for

cell proliferation and/or survival (Fig. 1A, Supplementary Dataset 1 – Table 8).

A fraction of chromatin-associated YAP interacts with RIF1.

Our attention was drawn to RIF1, a key regulator of DNA replication timing and DDR (Alver *et*

al, 2017; Buonomo *et al*, 2009; Cornacchia *et al*, 2012; Foti *et al*, 2016; Gnan *et al*, 2021; Hiraga

et al, 2017; Moiseeva *et al*, 2019; Mukherjee *et al*, 2019; Yamazaki *et al*, 2012). An involvement

of RIF1 in transcription regulation has been reported previously (Liu *et al*, 2023; Yoshizawa-

Sugata *et al*, 2021). RIF1 was detected as a YAP-interacting protein in both the SCC13 and NHK

YAP-RIME experiments (Fig. 1A; Supplementary Fig. 2A) with a much stronger enrichment in

the SCC13 cells (Supplementary Fig. 2C, Supplementary Dataset 1 – Tables 6, 7). Of note,

PPP1CB, one of the three catalytic subunits of PP1—a key effector of RIF1 (Alver *et al.*, 2017;

Gnan *et al.*, 2021; Hiraga *et al.*, 2017; Moiseeva *et al.*, 2019), was also present in the SCC13

YAP-RIME (Fig. 1A; Supplementary Dataset 1 – Table 6). Like YAP, RIF1 featured among the

positive regulators of cell proliferation and survival of SCC13 cells identified in a genome-wide

RNA interference screen (Walko *et al.*, 2017)(Fig. 1A; Supplementary Dataset 1 – Table 8). As

expected, YAP and RIF1 were both localised in the nucleus of SCC13 cells (Fig. 1C) and were

present in chromatin fractions (Supplementary Fig. 2D), confirming their chromatin-

association. To biochemically validate the YAP-RIF1 interaction identified by RIME, co-IP

experiments were performed under native non-cross-linking conditions using a different YAP-

specific antibody that also does not detect TAZ (Supplementary Fig. 3A). Indeed, RIF1 could be

immunoprecipitated together with YAP from both, whole-cell detergent extracts and nuclei-

enriched fractions (Fig. 1D, E). Further validating our RIME results, CHD4 and ARID1A also co-

immunoprecipitated with YAP under native conditions. We also found that under these

conditions, TEAD transcription factors could be immunoprecipitated together with YAP (Fig.

1E). Of note, compared to the TEADs, smaller amounts of RIF1, ARID1A, and CHD4 co-

immunoprecipitated with YAP from nuclei-enriched fractions, possibly indicating weaker

interactions of these proteins with YAP. Indeed, significantly more RIF1 co-

immunoprecipitated with YAP under milder lysis conditions (Fig. 1D). In-situ proximity ligation

assays (PLA) confirmed YAP-RIF1 interactions in the nucleus of SCC13 cells (Fig. 1F). The YAP-

RIF1 PLA signal was significantly decreased upon YAP/TAZ knockdown. To achieve a sufficient

knockdown of both YAP and TAZ we combined our doxycycline-inducible YAP-targeting shRNAs

with an siRNA pool targeting YAP and TAZ (Fig. 1F, Supplementary Fig. 3B). Consistent with our

co-IP results, YAP was also found in very close proximity to TEAD1 in the nucleus of SCC13 cells

by PLA (Fig. 1G). The YAP-RIF1 PLA signal was completely absent when either both or one of

the two primary antibodies were omitted during the experiments (Supplementary Fig. 3C, D),

and was also largely absent from mitotic chromosomes (Supplementary Fig. 3E). To test if the

YAP-RIF1 interaction also occurred in other types of SCC, we used the lung SCC cell line HARA

(Liu *et al*, 2020). YAP and RIF1 co-expression in HARA cell nuclei was confirmed by

immunofluorescence microscopy (Supplementary Fig. 3F). Co-IP was performed with nuclei-

enriched HARA cell fractions treated with Benzonase nuclease to enzymatically digest DNA

and RNA (Supplementary Fig. 3G, H), demonstrating that YAP and RIF1 interact on the

chromatin and are not co-immunoprecipitated because of a DNA bridge between the two

proteins. In summary, our results show that RIF1 is a binding partner of chromatin-associated

YAP in NHKs and cutaneous and lung SCC cells.

YAP/TAZ-mediated oncogenic signalling controls the balance between proliferation and

differentiation and contributes to replication stress in squamous cell carcinoma cells.

In normal epidermal keratinocytes, but also in basal cell carcinoma (BCC) cells, YAP/TAZ control

the transcription of genes driving cell proliferation and survival through TEAD transcription

factors and suppress the expression of genes promoting terminal differentiation through

TEAD-independent mechanisms (Yuan *et al*, 2020; Yuan *et al*, 2021). To test if YAP/TAZ execute

similar transcriptional programmes in cSCC, and to investigate a potential involvement of RIF1

in YAP/TAZ-mediated transcriptional regulation, we performed bulk RNAseq analysis on

samples of SCC13 cells with acute (48 hours) siRNA-mediated knockdown of either YAP/TAZ

or RIF1 (siY/T, siRIF1; Fig. 2A, Fig. 3A). We were unable to robustly deplete TAZ(WWTR1) (Fig.

2A), but the TAZ-targeting siRNA pool was able to block compensatory upregulation of TAZ in

response to YAP knockdown (Supplementary Fig. 3B) (Walko *et al.*, 2017). DESeq2 analysis

revealed a large number of differentially expressed genes (DEGs) upon siY/T treatment (977

DEGs downregulated, 2,209 DEGs upregulated; p<0.05, FC>1.5; Supplementary Dataset 2 -

Tables 1–3). Gene set enrichment analysis (GSEA) revealed significant enrichment of pathways

associated with cell cycle regulation, DNA replication, and mitosis among the downregulated

DEGs, and of pathways associated with keratinization, cornification, extracellular matrix (ECM)

remodelling, and immunoregulation among the upregulated DEGs upon siY/T treatment (Fig.

2C; Supplementary Fig. 4A, B; Supplementary Dataset 2 - Tables 4–6). DEGs downregulated

upon siY/T comprised both, genes known to be positively regulated by YAP/TAZ in cooperation

with TEADs (Zanconato *et al.*, 2015), as well as genes known to be regulated by YAP/TAZ in

cooperation with the Myb-MuB (MMB) complex (Jessen *et al*, 2024; Pattschull *et al*, 2019)

(Supplementary Fig. 4C; Supplementary Dataset 2 – Tables 10, 11). YAP/TAZ knockdown in

SCC13 also led to increased terminal differentiation which was evident from (i) enrichment of

an epidermal terminal differentiation gene signature (Lopez-Pajares *et al*, 2015) in the

upregulated DEGs and of an epidermal progenitor cell signature (Lopez-Pajares *et al.*, 2015)

in the downregulated DEGs (Supplementary Fig. 4D), and (ii), upregulation of genes belonging to the epidermal differentiation complex (EDC) (Kypriotou *et al*, 2012), as well as transcriptional regulators of terminal differentiation (Fig. 2C; Supplementary Dataset 2 – Tables 13, 14). These data suggest that YAP/TAZ regulate terminal differentiation indirectly by supressing the transcription of key regulators of the terminal differentiation programme, and that this function is conserved between normal keratinocytes and neoplastic keratinocytes of both BCC (Yuan *et al.*, 2021) and cSCC. In accordance with the detected transcriptomic changes, we observed that cell proliferation was impacted in SCC13 cells upon expression of doxycycline-inducible YAP-targeting shRNAs (shYAP) (Fig. 2C). This was evident from reduced levels of Ser10-phosphorylated histone H3, a marker of mitotic cells, and strong upregulation of p21 (Fig. 2D). Consistent with the reduced expression of several key regulators of DNA replication (Supplementary Fig. 4C; Supplementary Dataset 2 – Table 15), shYAP SCC13 cells arrested in G1 and progressed much slower through S phase (Fig. 2E). Compromised cell cycle progression and increased terminal differentiation led to reduced clonal growth of shYAP SCC13 cells (Fig. 2F).

Reduced activation of the replication stress checkpoint (phosphorylation of CHK1 on Ser317; (Ashley *et al.*, 2014; Liu *et al.*, 2012)) was evident in SCC13 cells upon induction of shYAP (Fig. 2G), while depletion of either YAP or TAZ in SCC13 cells reduced accumulation of replication stress-induced DNA DSBs, marked by decreased γH2Ax expression (de Pedro *et al.*, 2021; Freije *et al.*, 2014; Liu *et al.*, 2012; Molinuevo *et al.*, 2020) (Fig. 2G). Furthermore, using mRNA expression data from the DepMap project (https://depmap.org/portal/), we discovered a strong correlation between the expression of a replication stress signature (Takahashi *et al.*, 2022) and an in-house generated SCC-specific YAP/TAZ activity signature comprising 10 YAP/TAZ target genes (Supplementary Dataset 2 – Table 16) from our SCC13 RNAseq dataset

in a panel of 64 HNSCC cell lines (Supplementary Fig. 5A–D). Together, these findings

indicated that YAP/TAZ-driven oncogenic signalling contributed to the endogenous

replication stress of SCC cells.

Of note, reduced cell proliferation was reversible upon doxycycline withdrawal

(Supplementary Fig. 6), demonstrating that YAP knockdown slows down cell cycle progression,

but does not cause permanent growth arrest. The effects of shTAZ on SCC13 proliferation were

less dramatic (Fig. 2D, F). We conclude that, like in NHKs, YAP/TAZ regulate the balance

between proliferation and terminal differentiation also in cSCC cells, thereby promoting a

highly proliferative and undifferentiated cell state.

We next used the YAP/TAZ target gene expression signature derived from our RNA-seq data to

perform gene set variation analysis (GSVA; see materials and methods) on one of the largest

bulk RNA-seq datasets from patients with cSCC (237 patients) (Wang *et al*, 2023). This revealed

that genes that are positively regulated by YAP/TAZ in SCC13 cells are expressed significantly

higher in cSCC tumours (as well as their perilesional skin tissue) that have progressed to

metastatic disease, compared to those cSCC tumours that have not (Supplementary Fig. 7A).

Genes that were positively regulated by YAP/TAZ in SCC13 cells were also highly expressed in

cSCC metastases (Supplementary Fig. 7A). Conversely, genes that were negatively regulated

by YAP/TAZ in SCC13 cells displayed significantly reduced expression in cSCC metastases

(Supplementary Fig. 7B). This finding provides intriguing evidence for the involvement of

YAP/TAZ in the metastatic progression of human cSCC.

RIF1 is not directly involved in YAP/TAZ-controlled transcription.

Compared to siY/T treatment, knockdown of RIF1 affected the expression of a smaller number

of genes (Fig. 3A). 165 DEGs (of which 33 are protein-coding) were downregulated, and 942

DEGs (of which 749 are protein-coding) were upregulated (p<0.05, FC>1.5; Fig. 3A, Supplementary Dataset 2 - Tables 1–3). GSEA revealed that theses DEGs were predominantly involved in cell cycle regulation, although the statistical significance of pathway enrichment was generally quite low (Supplementary Fig. 8A–C; Supplementary Dataset 2 - Tables 7–9). Interestingly, 710 out the 782 differentially expressed protein-encoding genes upon siRIF1 knockdown appeared to be co-regulated by YAP/TAZ, since the observed expression changes were going into the same direction in both siRIF1 and siY/T experiments (Fig. 3B). However, GSEA did not reveal any significantly enriched pathways (data not shown) among these putative RIF1 and YAP/TAZ co-regulated genes. This is reminiscent of findings in mouse embryonic stem cells, where limited gene expression changes in response to *Rif1* knockout could neither be linked to any specific functions/pathways nor to the genome-wide distribution of Rif1 on the chromatin (Foti *et al.*, 2016). Instead, the gene expression changes in response to *Rif1* knockout were suggested to be effects that are secondary to changes in DNA replication timing (Cornacchia *et al.*, 2012; Foti *et al.*, 2016). Accordingly, an intriguing possibility is that the observed expression changes of those genes that appear to be co-regulated by YAP/TAZ and RIF1 in SCC13 cells are the consequence of altered replication timing (Fig. 6 and text below) and changes to YAP/TAZ chromatin accessibility, and not of a direct involvement of RIF1 in YAP/TAZ-regulated transcription.

YAP modulates RIF1 transcription and promotes RIF1 protein stability.

Our RNAseq analysis revealed that *RIF1* mRNA expression was moderately downregulated in response to siY/T knockdown (Fig. 2A), and a similar trend could be confirmed in independent siY/T samples by RT-qPCR analysis (Fig. 3C). Accordingly, RIF1 protein expression was slightly lower in siY/T compared to siNTC SCC13 cells (Fig. 3D) and was more strongly reduced in

shYAP and shTAZ cells with a more prominent depletion of YAP or TAZ protein (Fig. 3E). Lowest

RIF1 protein levels were observed in shYAP and shTAZ cells where compensatory upregulation

of the other paralogue was only moderate (shYAP-2, shTAZ-1; Fig. 3E). Analysis of published

RNAseq data of siY/T in N/TERT-2G immortalized human keratinocytes (Yuan *et al.*, 2020)

revealed that this relationship was conserved also in NHKs (Fig. 3F). Moreover, we observed

a significant correlation between *RIF1* mRNA expression and single-sample enrichment scores

of a generic Hippo/YAP/TAZ pathway gene signature in a panel of 64 HNSCC cell lines using

the DepMap portal (https://depmap.org/portal/) (Dempster *et al*, 2019) (Fig. 3G). An even

stronger correlation was observed when we used our in-house generated SCC-specific YAP

activity signature (Supplementary Dataset 2 – Table 16, Supplementary Fig. 5C, F).

Summarized, RIF1 expression closely correlates with YAP/TAZ transcriptional activity in both

normal and neoplastic human keratinocytes.

Combined siRNA-mediated knockdown of TEAD1, 3, and 4 (siTEAD1/3/4) in SCC13 cells

reduced RIF1 protein to levels similar to those observed in siY/T cells (Fig. 3H), indicating that

YAP modulates *RIF1* transcription through TEADs. Since our biochemical experiments had

revealed direct binding of YAP and RIF1 proteins, we also tested if this interaction additionally

stabilizes RIF1 protein. Indeed, by combining shYAP with cycloheximide treatment to stop

protein translation, we could reduce RIF1 protein expression in SCC13 cells to levels below

the detection limit of our chemiluminescence imaging system (Fig. 3I). Interestingly, YAP

protein levels remained stable during the treatment time course and were even upregulated

during the first 4 hours of cycloheximide treatment. This suggests that YAP protein

homeostasis is precisely fine-tuned in SCC cells. We conclude that YAP modulates *RIF1*

transcription trough TEADs, but additionally stabilizes RIF1 protein on the chromatin through

a direct interaction.

Increased association of YAP with RIF1 in response to replication stress.

Our discovery of RIF1 as a YAP interaction partner in NHK and SCC cell lines raised the exciting

possibility that in normal and cancerous squamous epithelial tissues YAP could have dual,

transcriptional and non-transcriptional roles. In _Xenopus laevis_ embryo*s,* the YAP-RIF1

complex was previously shown to control the dynamics of DNA replication by limiting

replication origin firing (Melendez Garcia _et al._, 2022). Using _Xenopus_ egg extracts, a classical

model for studying DNA replication, Melendez Garcia et al. (Melendez Garcia _et al._, 2022)

showed that _Xenopus_ YAP became recruited onto the chromatin upon S phase induction,

following the formation of the pre-replication complex and in parallel with PCNA (proliferating

cell nuclear antigen) loading (Melendez Garcia _et al._, 2022). Here, we used a double thymidine

block to arrest human SCC13 cells at the G1/S phase boundary (Yamazaki _et al._, 2012) and

assessed the levels of YAP on the chromatin upon S phase entry following thymidine washout.

We noticed an increase in the amount of chromatin-bound YAP as SCC13 cells where entering

S phase that correlated with the increased loading of PCNA (Fig. 4A). Consistent with the

reduced expression of key DNA replication regulators in siY/T cells (Supplementary Fig. 4C;

Supplementary Dataset 2 – Table 15) and the slowed S phase progression of shYAP cells (Fig.

2E), PCNA loading onto the chromatin was reduced in shYAP cells (Fig. 4A). Only a very limited

number of YAP-RIF1 PLA speckles overlapped with replication foci, marked by DNA

incorporation of EdU during a 1-hour pulse (Fig. 4B), suggesting that YAP is not associated

with nascent chromatin behind the replication fork. Moreover, only very few YAP-RIF1 PLA

speckles were present on the DNA of mitotic cells (Fig. 4C), consistent with the absence of

RIF1 from mitotic chromosomes (Atemin _et al_, 2024; Yamazaki _et al._, 2012).

In addition to controlling origin firing and DNA replication timing, another key function of RIF1 is the protection of stalled replication forks from resection by nucleases in response to replication stress and the promotion of replication restart (Alver *et al.*, 2017; Buonomo *et al.*, 2009; Garzon *et al*, 2019; Lebdy *et al*, 2023; Mukherjee *et al.*, 2019). To test if YAP might be recruited to either stalled or collapsed replication forks, we treated SCC13 cells with 4 mM hydroxyurea (HU) (Dungrawala *et al*, 2015; Petermann *et al*, 2010) for periods of up to 24 hours. As shown in Fig. 4D, this triggered strong activation of the replication stress checkpoint (phosphorylation of CHK1 on Ser317; (Ashley *et al.*, 2014; Liu *et al.*, 2012)) and accumulation of DNA DSBs, marked by γH2Ax expression (de Pedro *et al.*, 2021; Freije *et al.*, 2014; Molinuevo *et al.*, 2020). Persisting γH2Ax expression following washout of HU indicated accumulation of DNA damage at stalled and subsequently inactivated replication forks upon 24 hours of HU treatment (Petermann *et al.*, 2010) (Fig. 4D). While the YAP-RIF1 PLA signal remained unchanged upon short-term HU treatment, it increased significantly after long-term (24 hours) HU treatment (Fig. 4E). Moreover, upon long-term HU treatment, more YAP molecules were found in close vicinity of γH2Ax by in-situ PLA (Fig. 4F), indicating that YAP associates with RIF1 preferentially near DNA DSBs at insctivated replication forks. Summarized, these data provided evidence that in SCC cells, a fraction of YAP is involved in RIF1-mediated DDR at replication forks.

RIF1 is highly expressed in several types of squamous cell carcinoma and upregulated during tumour progression.

The strong effect of YAP depletion on the cell cycle-regulatory transcriptome (Fig. 2, Supplementary Fig. 4) and the resulting cell cycle exit and commitment to terminal differentiation (Fig. 2B–F) precluded a further in-depth analysis of non-transcriptional YAP

functions specific to DNA replication. Consequently, we focused on RIF1 itself, given its

regulation by YAP (Fig. 3) and the previously unknown function(s) of RIF1 in SCC.

We first assessed RIF1 protein expression levels in a panel of human cSCC cell lines, which

also included an isogenic cSCC progression series (Proby *et al*, 2000). Increased expression of

RIF1 protein was notable in all cSCC cell lines when compared to NHKs, including a cell line

derived from a pre-malignant cSCC precursor lesion (PM1) (Proby *et al.*, 2000) (Fig. 5A).

Consistent with our findings that YAP controls RIF1 expression (Fig. 3), the protein levels of

RIF1 were highest in SCC13 cells featuring constitutively nuclear YAP (Supplementary Fig. 1B)

(Walko *et al.*, 2017) (as also indicated by a low ratio of S127-YAP to total YAP, Fig. 5A). All cSCC

lines in our panel, as well as the PM1 cells, displayed higher levels of γH2Ax compared to

NHKs, indicating elevated endogenous replication stress (Fig. 5A).

To investigate if increased RIF1 expression was a general hallmark of cancers originating from

epidermal keratinocytes, we next quantified the nuclear abundance of RIF1 protein in a tissue

array comprising cSCCs of different differentiation grades, as well as different types of BCCs

(Fig. 5B, C). There were increased number of RIF1-expressing cells within the keratin-positive

tumour cell masses of both BCC and cSCC compared to normal skin epidermis, in particular

within the more aggressive tumour types of infiltrative BCC and poorly differentiated cSCC

(Fig. 5B, C). The pattern of RIF1 expression in cSCC correlated well with the known localisation

of cycling cells, which are located at the periphery in well-differentiated tumours, but diffusely

distributed throughout the tumour mass in moderately/poorly-differentiated tumours (Al-

Hazmi *et al*, 2018; Stojkovic-Filipovic *et al*, 2018). By examining publicly available

immunohistochemistry data from the Human Protein Atlas (https://www.proteinatlas.org/),

we also observed increased numbers of RIF1-expressing tumour cells in HNSCC and cervical

SCC (CeSCC) (Supplementary Fig. 9A–C). To obtain a pan-cancer overview of RIF1 protein

expression levels, we used the UALCAN portal (https://ualcan.path.uab.edu/) (Chandrashekar

et al, 2022) to access protein expression data from the Clinical Proteomic Tumour Analysis

Consortium (CPTAC) (Zhang *et al*, 2022). This revealed increased RIF1 protein expression in

several cancer types (Supplementary Fig. 9D). Importantly, in HNSCC, RIF1 protein expression

increased with tumour grade (Fig. 5D). The UALCAN portal also allows assessment of the

impact of somatic alterations (small mutations or copy number alterations) in several

signalling pathways on the cancer proteome (Chandrashekar *et al.*, 2022; Zhang *et al.*, 2022).

The CPTAC data include somatic alterations in *NF2*/Merlin, *WWC1*, and *SAV1* as a proxy for

Hippo pathway alterations (Zhang *et al.*, 2022). WWC1 expression was previously shown to

strongly correlate with YAP activity in HNSCC (Saladi *et al*, 2017), and knockout of the Hippo

pathway scaffold proteins Sav1 or Mob1a/b in mice caused rapid YAP-driven squamous

carcinogenesis (Lee *et al*, 2008; Nishio *et al*, 2012; Omori *et al.*, 2020). *NF2* mutations have

been discovered in various types of SCC, with frequencies varying between 2.6% and 17%,

depending on study and cancer context (Chakravarthy *et al*, 2022; Ghias *et al*, 2019; Li *et al*,

2015b; Shin & Kim, 2020; Winer *et al*, 2006). Of note, a distinct tumour subtype with

alterations in Hippo pathway genes exists in CeSCC that also displays increased expression of

YAP/TAZ target genes (Chakravarthy *et al.*, 2022). Thus, in the context of human squamous

cancers, somatic alterations in *NF2*, *WWC1*, and *SAV1* can serve as reasonable indicators of

Hippo pathway activity status. We found that in both HNSCC (Fig. 5E) and LSCC

(Supplementary Fig. 9E) increased RIF1 protein expression predominantly correlated with

somatic Hippo pathway alterations in contrast to alterations in other signalling pathways,

implying altered Hippo pathway activity in the regulation of RIF1 expression. This agrees with

our finding that RIF1 is regulated by YAP at both the transcriptional and post-translational

levels (Fig. 3). Interestingly, in other cancer types, alterations in pathways other than Hippo

signalling also had a strong impact on increased tumour expression of RIF1 (Supplementary

Fig. 9F, G). Collectively, our multi-omics analysis confirmed a close relationship between

Hippo/YAP/TAZ signalling, replication stress, and RIF1 expression, and pointed towards a role

of RIF1 in squamous cell carcinogenesis.

Depletion of RIF1 causes increased origin firing in early S phase and accelerated S phase

progression of squamous cell carcinoma cells.

A highly conserved role of RIF1 is the genome-wide orchestration of DNA replication timing

(Cornacchia *et al.*, 2012; Gnan *et al.*, 2021; Klein *et al*, 2021; Melendez Garcia *et al.*, 2022;

Yamazaki *et al.*, 2012). Although the precise mechanisms are still not fully understood,

multiple pieces of evidence point to a scenario where RIF1 serves as a molecular hub that co-

regulates spatiotemporal replication patterns and nuclear architecture. Through its abilities

to bind multiple molecules of DNA and to interact with the nuclear lamina, RIF1 organizes

higher order chromatin structure into zones of coordinated DNA replication (RIF1-associated

domains) (Foti *et al.*, 2016; Gnan *et al.*, 2021; Klein *et al.*, 2021; Moriyama *et al*, 2018;

Yamazaki *et al.*, 2012). In addition, through its interaction with PP1, RIF1 was shown to

suppress the firing of late replicating origins within RIF1-associated domains by preventing

MCM subunit phosphorylation through Dbf4-dependent kinase (DDK; composed of Cdc7

kinase and its activator, Dbf4; MCM, minichromosome maintenance complex, core of the

replicative helicase containing six subunits MCM2-7), thereby antagonizing the activation of

the CMG (Cdc45–MCM–GINS) helicase complex (Alver *et al.*, 2017; Hiraga *et al.*, 2017;

Moiseeva *et al.*, 2019; Yamazaki *et al.*, 2012).

Consistent with a role of RIF1 in controlling S phase progression of SCC cells, we observed that

on release from a double thymidine block, shRIF1 SCC13 cells progressed more rapidly

through S phase (Fig. 6A). The phosphorylation levels of MCM2 and MCM4 proteins, targets

of the Cdc7 kinase (Alver *et al.*, 2017; Yamazaki *et al.*, 2012), were increased in RIF1-depleted

SCC13 cells in a RIF1 dosage-dependent manner (Fig. 6B), particularly in early S phase (Fig.

6C), indicating alterations in the dynamics of origin firing (Alver *et al.*, 2017; Hiraga *et al.*,

2017; Moiseeva *et al.*, 2019; Yamazaki *et al.*, 2012). Accordingly, chromatin loading of PCNA,

which is required for DNA replication after the action of Cdc7, was also increased during the

early S phase of shRIF1 SCC13 cells (Fig. 6C). Therefore, the faster progression of SCC13 cells

through S phase after RIF1 depletion likely reflects an increase in DNA replication initiation

events in early S phase (Alver *et al.*, 2017; Yamazaki *et al.*, 2012), suggestive of an altered

replication timing programme. This could also explain the changes in gene expression

observed upon siRIF1 in SCC13 cells (Fig. 3A).

RIF1 protects against endogenous and exogenous replication stress in squamous cell

carcinoma cells.

Since a key function of RIF1 is the protection of stalled replication forks and the promotion of

replication restart (Alver *et al.*, 2017; Buonomo *et al.*, 2009; Garzon *et al.*, 2019; Lebdy *et al.*,

2023; Mukherjee *et al.*, 2019), increased expression of RIF1 in SCC cells could therefore

indicate a role for RIF1 in enabling cells to deal with high levels of endogenous replication

stress. Indeed, there was a strong correlation between the expression of *RIF1* and a

replication stress signature (Takahashi *et al.*, 2022) in HNSCC cell lines (Supplementary Fig.

5A, E). Knockdown of RIF1 in SCC13 cells increased their endogenous replication stress, as

evident from increased levels of pS4/8-RPA32 (indicating accumulation of single stranded

DNA at replication forks and recruitment and activation of the replication stress kinases

ATR/ATM/DNA-PK) as well as increased levels of γH2Ax (indicating accumulation of DNA

DSBs) (Fig. 7A). In contrast to the strong activation of the replication stress checkpoint

(phosphorylation of CHK1 on Ser317; (Ashley *et al.*, 2014; Liu *et al.*, 2012)) observed upon HU

treatment, the elevated endogenous replication stress in shRIF1 SCC13 cells did not translate

into robust CHK1 activation (Fig. 7A). Consequently, asynchronously proliferating shRIF1 cells

displayed no dramatic alterations to their cell cycle profiles (Fig. 7B). However, the

accumulation of DNA damage in cultures of shRIF1 SCC13 cells became more accentuated

after a few passages, when cells had undergone multiple rounds of cell division (Fig. 7C),

resulting in reduced clonal colony growth (Fig. 7D). Together, our results are thus consistent

with a scenario where SCC cells depend on elevated RIF1 expression to deal with high levels

of endogenous replication stress that are, at least in part, controlled by YAP-driven oncogenic

mechanisms.

Since we found that depletion of YAP reduced RIF1 protein levels (Fig. 3), we hypothesised

that shYAP SCC13 cells should therefore be more sensitive to exogenous replication stress

induced by treatment with HU (Fig. 7A). Indeed, we observed a synergistic effect of YAP

depletion and low doses of HU on SCC13 clonal colony growth (Fig. 7E, F).

Discussion

Our findings provide a novel insight into the oncogenic mechanisms of hyperactive YAP/TAZ

in SCC. While YAP/TAZ promote proliferation by regulating transcriptional programmes that

drive cell cycle progression, they also suppress commitment to terminal differentiation. Thus,

the functions of YAP/TAZ appear to be highly conserved within the epidermal lineage, as both

normal epidermal stem cells (De Rosa *et al.*, 2019; Walko *et al.*, 2017; Yuan *et al.*, 2020) and

neoplastic keratinocytes in BCC (Yuan *et al.*, 2021) and cSCC (this study) show strong

dependency on YAP/TAZ signalling for cell proliferation. This suggests that cancers originating

from epidermal stem/progenitor cells 'hijack' the tissue regeneration-promoting functions of

YAP/TAZ to fuel their high rates of proliferation while remaining in an undifferentiated cell

state. The increased expression of genes that are positively regulated by YAP/TAZ in both non-

lesional and tumour tissue of human cSCCs that underwent metastatic progression

(Supplementary Fig. 7) provides strong support for this idea. Our RIME experiments revealed

that the transcriptional co-regulator functions of YAP/TAZ are likely mediated by the BAF-type

SWI/SNF and the NuRD chromatin remodelling complexes. Indeed, in HNSCC cells, BAF-type

SWI/SNF and YAP-TEAD complexes were shown to be co-dependent for chromatin binding,

whereby they create a positive-feedback mechanism to maintain open chromatin for

transcription (Chang *et al.*, 2021). In contrast, recruitment of the NuRD complex (Kim *et al.*,

2015) could be involved in the observed co-repressor functions of YAP/TAZ.

We found that the cyclin-dependent kinase inhibitor p21/CDKN1A became strongly

upregulated in response to YAP depletion, suggesting that suppression of p21 is a key function

of YAP in squamous cancers. Of note, p21 was shown to act as an important brake to SCC

development (Cardinali *et al*, 1998; Topley *et al.*, 1999). Previous studies have also noted that

keratinocytes express a pool of p21 that is regulated in a TP53-independent fashion (de Pedro

et al., 2021; Freije *et al.*, 2014). YAP/TAZ thus appear to serve as an extra control layer for p21

expression in keratinocytes. In future work, it will be important to establish if *CDKN1A* is direct

transcriptional target of YAP-TEAD. A previous study which employed a transgenic mouse

model where cSCC development was driven by expression of oncogenic *Kras*^{G12D} and knock-

out of *Tp53* in epidermal stem cells (Debaugnies *et al.*, 2018), that simultaneous activation of

Kras^{G12D} and YAP/TAZ knock-down induces apoptosis. In our human cSCC cell line-focused

study we found that YAP/TAZ depletion has cytostatic- and differentiation-promoting, rather

than cytotoxic effects. It is worth noting that activating mutations in the *RAS* proto-oncogenes

are not very frequent in human cSCC (Winge *et al.*, 2023), with some tumours (~10%) actually

showing copy number loss of *HRAS* (Inman *et al*, 2018). Induction of apoptosis in response to

YAP/TAZ depletion might thus be specific only to cSCCs expressing oncogenic RAS (Debaugnies

et al., 2018).

A major finding of this study was the identification of a complex functional relationship

between YAP and RIF1, whereby YAP modulates *RIF1* gene expression via TEAD TFs, but also

forms a complex with RIF1 on the chromatin. We found that the key functions of RIF1

(regulation of DNA replication dynamics (Alver *et al.*, 2017; Cornacchia *et al.*, 2012; Klein *et*

al., 2021; Yamazaki *et al.*, 2012) and protection of replication forks under replication stress

(Buonomo *et al.*, 2009; Garzon *et al.*, 2019; Lebdy *et al.*, 2023; Mukherjee *et al.*, 2019)) are

conserved in squamous cancers. RIF1 enables SCC cells to deal with their high levels of

endogenous replication stress, since RIF1 depletion leads to accumulation of DNA damage,

which ultimately reduces clonal colony growth. Increased formation of the YAP-RIF1 complex

in response to HU treatment suggested a specific role of YAP in enabling RIF1's functions at

stalled and deactivated replication forks (Garzon *et al.*, 2019; Mukherjee *et al.*, 2019). Indeed,

we found that YAP depletion and the concomitant reduction in RIF1 expression sensitised cSCC

cells to HU treatment. Of note, HU is sometimes used in chemoradiotherapy for HNSCC

patients (Li *et al*, 2023). RIF1 protein is subject to proteolytic degradation (Wang *et al*, 2009;

Yoshizawa-Sugata *et al.*, 2021). We thus speculate that the interaction with YAP on the

chromatin stabilizes RIF1 and enables its proper functions for DDR. This scenario is supported

by our observation that the combination of YAP knockdown and inhibition of protein synthesis

caused a much stronger depletion of RIF1 protein than shYAP alone. Our findings thus provide

evidence for a non-canonical role of YAP in SCC, whereby it engages RIF1 to dampen the high

levels of endogenous replication stress in these cancers, which are—at least in part—caused

by YAP's oncogenic functions itself. Since normal human epidermal keratinocytes respond to

expression of constitutively nuclear YAP with oncogene-induced senescence (De Rosa *et al.*,

2019), upregulation and stabilization of RIF1 expression in cSCC cells through YAP-TEAD serves

as an elegant mechanism whereby cancer cells with hyperactivated YAP are able to escape

senescence.

Materials and Methods

Human tissues

All human tissue work was performed in the lab of Dr Beate Lichtenberger at the Medical

University of Vienna, Austria. Written informed patient consent was obtained before tissue

collection in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki. The study was approved by the

Institutional Review Board under the ethical permits EK#1695/2021 and EK#1783/2020.

Cell culture

All cell lines were routinely (quarterly test intervals) confirmed to be free of mycoplasma

infection using PCR LookOut® Mycoplasma PCR Detection Kit (Merck, UK).

Mouse 3T3 embryonic fibroblasts (subclone J2), originally established from random-bred

Swiss mice (Todaro *et al*, 1965), were used to provide optimal clonal growth support to normal

and neoplastic human epidermal keratinocytes grown in co-culture (Rheinwald & Green,

1975). Stocks were kindly provided by Prof Fiona Watt (Centre for Gene Therapy and

Regenerative Medicine, King's College London, UK; EMBL, Heidelberg, Germany; not

authenticated), or were purchased from Kerafast (Catalogue #EF3003). 3T3-J2 fibroblasts

were routinely cultured in high-glucose DMEM (Merck) supplemented with 10% (v/v) bovine

serum (Fisher Scientific), 100 IU/mL penicillin and 100 µg/mL streptomycin (Merck), and 2 mM

L-glutamine (Merck) (complete fibroblast medium) at 37°C, 5% CO_2. Fibroblast cultures were

not allowed to grow to confluence and were not grown beyond passage 12 to prevent

senescence or spontaneous transformation. To prepare feeder cell layers, 3T3-J2 fibroblasts

were treated for 3 hours with 4 µg/mL mitomycin C (Merck) at 37°C, 5% CO_2, to irreversibly

stall the cell cycle (Rheinwald, 1980).

Stock cultures of primary normal human keratinocytes (NHKs, strain km) were obtained from

surgically discarded foreskin (Walko *et al.*, 2017). SCC13 cells are a cell line established from a

recurring cutaneous SCC (cSCC) of facial epidermis and were obtained from Dr James

Rheinwald (Department of Dermatology, Harvard Skin Research Centre, USA), not

authenticated (Rheinwald & Beckett, 1981). To study the progression of human cSCC, we used

four isogenic human cell lines that were isolated from skin biopsies from a immune-

suppressed patient at progressive disease stages: PM1 cells were derived from a pre-

malignant dysplastic lesion on the patient's head, MET1 was derived from a primary invasive

cSCC growing on the patient's right hand, MET2 was established from a rapid local recurrence

after surgical removal of the primary tumour, and MET4 was established from an axillary

lymph node metastasis that developed from the primary cSCC (Proby *et al.*, 2000). The

progression series cell lines were purchased from Ximbio (PM1 #153571, MET1 #153539,

MET2 #153569, MET4 #153570), and were last re-authenticated in Autumn of 2023. SCC-NR

cells were isolated by Dr Nicholas Rabey at Addenbrooke's Hospital (Cambridge, UK) from a

portion of a surgically excised cutaneous SCC from the back of the hand of an elderly male

patient and were used in all experiments at passages 3 or 4 (Walko *et al.*, 2017). All other cell

lines were used at passages 2–8. NHKs and cSCC cells were grown in FAD medium (1 part high

glucose DMEM GlutaMAX™ supplemented with pyruvate (Fisher Scientific) plus 3 parts Ham's

F12 GlutaMAX™ (Fisher Scientific), supplemented with 1.8×10^{-4} M adenine (Merck), 10% (v/v)

foetal bovine serum (Fisher Scientific, batch-tested for optimal clonal growth support), 5

µg/ml insulin (Merck), 0.5 µg/ml hydrocortisone (Merck), 10 ng/mL epidermal growth factor

(Peprotech), 8.5 ng/mL cholera toxin (Merck), 2 nM T3 supplement (3,3',5-triiodo-l-thyronine

sodium salt) (Merck), and 100 IU/mL penicillin and 100 µg/mL streptomycin (Merck) on a

feeder layer of mitotically inactivated 3T3-J2 cells, and grown at 37°C at 5% CO_2, as previously

described (Walko *et al.*, 2017).

HARA lung SCC cells (Ichinose *et al*, 1993) were purchased from the National Institutes of

Biomedical Innovation, Health, and Nutrition (NIBIOHN) JCRB Cell Bank, Japan (catalogue

#JCRB1080.0), and were re-authenticated in August 2024. HARA cells were cultured in

complete RPMI medium (10% (v/v) fetal bovine serum, 100 IU/mL penicillin and 100 µg/mL

streptomycin (Merck), and 2 mM L-glutamine (Merck).

Generation of stable shRNA-expressing cell lines

SCC13 cells, cultured on feeder cells to ~70% confluence, were disaggregated in trypsin/EDTA

and cells (2.5×10^5) were seeded into 6-well cell culture plates (Corning™ Costar™, UK) and

cultured for 24 h in FAD medium. Medium was then changed to Opti-MEM (Fisher Scientific).

To generate stable SCC13 cell lines expressing RIF1-targeting shRNAs, SCC13 cells were

infected with MISSION® lentiviral particles (Merck, the sequences of the shRNAs can be found

in (Supplementary Table 1A) at a multiplicity of infection (MOI) of 2–3 in the presence of

5 µg/ml polybrene (Hexadimethrine bromide, Merck). For creating stable SCC13 cell lines

expressing YAP- or TAZ-targeting shRNAs, the SMARTvector™ inducible lentiviral platform was

used, which implements a microRNA-scaffolded Tet-On 3G bipartite induction system (Horizon Discovery-Dharmacon™, the sequences of the shRNAs can be found in Supplementary Table 1B). The lentiviral vector included a puromycin resistance element (PuroR) for selection post-infection, as well as a 2A self-cleaving peptide which allowed for PuroR and Tet-On 3G expression from a single mCMV promoter that was selected for negligible basal expression and strong activation when induced (data not shown). A doxycycline-inducible TRE3G promoter was driving expression of the shRNA as well as a fluorescent turbo-RFP reporter. After 24 h incubation with viral particles, medium was changed to FAD medium, and shRNA-expressing cells were selected for 7 days using puromycin (2.5 µg/ml, Merck) in co-culture with puromycin-resistant 3T3-J2 fibroblasts (kindly provided by Prof Fiona Watt, Centre for Gene Therapy and Regenerative Medicine, King's College London, UK; EMBL, Heidelberg, Germany). For experiments using the stable SCC13 cell lines with doxycycline inducible shRNAs, cells were incubated with FAD medium supplemented with 5 µg/mL doxycycline (Tocris) for 48 hours before trypsinisation and seeding for downstream experiments.

siRNA transfection

24 hours after seeding, cells were transfected with 10-20 nM of ON-TARGET plus SMARTpool siRNAs (Horizon Discovery, Supplementary Table 1C) using INTERFERin® transfection reagent (Polyplus, VWR) in Opti-MEM (|Fisher Scientific) for 5 hours, then washed with PBS and grown in FAD medium for up to 72 hours.

Colony Formation Assay

1x10^3 cells per well were seeded in triplicate technical replicates into 6-well cell culture

plates (Corning™ Costar™, UK) without feeder cells and were cultured for 10-14 days with

frequent (every 2–3 days) media changes, then fixed in 4% PFA for 30 minutes at room

temperature. In case of treatment with hydroxyurea, different drug concentrations were

added 24 hours after seeding and fresh drug was added with each medium change. Colonies

were stained using crystal violet solution (2% (w/v) crystal violet (Merck, UK) dissolved in 20%

(v/v) methanol) for one hour at room temperature, and then washed extensively in deionised

water and air-dried. Colonies were either imaged using a transilluminator and cell phone

camera or were scanned using a flat-bed scanner. Quantification of culture area covered by

colonies were performed using ImageJ.

Cell synchronisation by double thymidine block

Cells were seeded in FAD medium and treated with 2.5 mM thymidine (Merck, UK) for 24

hours at 37°C, 5% CO_2. Cells were then washed with FAD medium (without thymidine), fresh

FAD medium (without thymidine) was added, and cells were incubated for 15 hours before

the medium was supplemented again with 2.5 mM thymidine for a further 24 hours. Following

thymidine washout, cells were grown in FAD medium.

Cell cycle analysis by flow cytometry

Prior to trypsinization, Click-iT™ EdU (Fisher Scientific, UK) was added to the cell culture

medium to a final concentration of 10 µM, and cells were incubated for 30 minutes at 37°C.

Trypsinized cells were then centrifuged at 500 x g for 3 minutes (RT), the supernatant was

removed, and the pellet resuspended in 3 mL PBS, followed by another centrifugation at 500

x g (RT) for 5 minutes. Pelleted cells were next resuspended in 100 µl 0.9% (w/v) NaCl and

added dropwise to 1.8 ml ice cold 70% (v/v) ethanol for fixation and stored at -20°C for a

minimum of 2 hours before being centrifuged again for 5 minutes at 400 x g (4°C). The cell

pellet was then resuspended in 0.5 ml PBS and transferred to a clean tube, and cells were

centrifuged for 5 minutes at 400 x g (4°C). This cell pellet was then resuspended in 100 µl Click-

iT™ cell reaction buffer (Fisher Scientific, UK) and incubated at RT in the dark for 30 minutes.

EdU-labelled cells were then centrifuged for 5 minutes at 400 x g (4°C), cell pellets were

resuspended in 500 µl 1% (w/v) BSA in PBS and centrifuged for 5 minutes at 400 x g (4°C), then

resuspended in 500 µl PBS. RNase (Merck) was added to a final concentration of 0.5 µg/ml

and the sample was incubated on a heat block at 37°C for 15 minutes. Propidium iodide

(Merck) was added to a final concentration of 20 µg/ml and the sample was incubated on ice

for 20 minutes in the dark before a minimum of 20,000 cells were analysed on a FACS Canto™

cell sorter (BBD Biosciences). Data were analysed using FCS Express™, De Novo Software

(version 7.14.0020).

Rapid immunoprecipitation mass spectrometry of endogenous proteins (RIME)

NHK and SCC13 cells were seeded at clonal density (500,000 cells) into 15 cm dishes

containing a mitotically inhibited 3T3-J2 fibroblast feeder layer and cultured for 4 days. This

enabled the formation of small colonies with predominantly nuclear YAP/TAZ expression

(Supplementary Fig. 1B). Two independent cultures (=independent experiments, starting from

separate cell stocks) were grown for each cell type. Following removal of the feeder layer on

day 4 of culture, cells were grown in complete FAD medium (conditioned by mitotically

inhibited 3T3-J2 fibroblast cells) for a further 24 hours. Cells were fixed with 1% (v/v)

methanol-free formaldehyde for 8 min at RT and the fixation reaction was subsequently

rapidly quenched with 0.125 M glycine for 5 min. Fixed cells were gently scraped into ice-cold

washing buffer (0.5% (v/v) IGEPAL CA-630, 100 µm PMSF, in PBS, pH 7.4) and were washed

three times by centrifugation (800 x g, 10 minutes, 4°C) and resuspension. The final cell pellets

(containing between 2×10^7 and 7×10^7 cells) were stored at -80°C and shipped to Active Motif

(USA) on dry ice.

RIME was performed by Active Motif (USA). Chromatin was isolated from formaldehyde-fixed

cell pellets by the addition of lysis buffer (custom, proprietary to Active Motif), followed by

cell disruption with a Dounce homogenizer (15 ml volume with tight-fitting pestle) to release

nuclei. Nuclei were sonicated on ice in ChIP buffer (custom, proprietary to Active Motif) using

an EpiShear Probe Sonicator (68% pulsed sonication: 30sec on/30sec off, 10 minutes total

sonication time) to lyse the cells and shear the DNA to an average fragment length of 300-500

bp. Genomic DNA for chromatin quantification was prepared by treating aliquots of chromatin

with RNase (Merck), proteinase K (Merck) and heat treatment (65°C overnight) for de-

crosslinking, followed by ethanol precipitation. Pellets were resuspended in 1/5 volume Tris-

EDTA buffer, and the DNA concentration was quantified on a NanoDrop 2000 (Fisher Scientific,

USA) spectrophotometer. An aliquot of sheared chromatin (150 ug) was precleared with

protein G agarose beads (Invitrogen). For each chromatin preparation, YAP RIME was

performed in technical replicates. Control RIME was performed using isotype-matched IgG,

and for each independent experiment, the two replicate IgG control immunoprecipitations

were pooled for mass spectrometry analysis. YAP chromatin immunoprecipitation was

performed using 15 µg of purified rabbit polyclonal YAP-specific antibody (US Biologicals,

Y1200-01D) or isotype-matched rabbit IgG (control) and protein G magnetic beads (Active

Motif). Immunoprecipitated chromatin-protein complexes were washed extensively with RIPA

buffer (1x, Active Motif) and then with 100 mM ammonium bicarbonate (Merck, USA). On-

bead proteolytic digestion was performed using trypsin (Worthington Biochemical, USA; 10

ng/µl). Protein digests were separated from the beads using a magnetic rack, and digested

peptide mixtures were desalted by solid-phase separation using a C18 spin column (Harvard

Apparatus, USA). The eluted peptides were vacuum dried using a speedvac.

Digested peptides were reconstituted in 5% (v/v) acetonitrile and 0.1% (v/v) trifluoroacetic

acid and analysed by LC-MS/MS on a Thermo Scientific Q Exactive Orbitrap Mass spectrometer

linked to Dionex Ultimate 3000 HPLC (Thermo Scientific, USA) and a nanospray Flex^{TM} ion

source. The digested and desalted peptides were loaded directly onto the separation column

(Waters BEH C18, 75 µm x 100 mm, 130Å 1.7u particle size). Peptides were eluted using a 120-

minute gradient with a flow rate of 323 nl/min. The gradient was formed using

increasing/decreasing concentrations of buffer B (0.1% formic acid in acetonitrile); (1)

increase to 5% (v/v) B over 12 min, (1) gradual increase to 25% (v/v) B until the 90 min mark,

(3) gradual increase to 95% (v/v) B for 5 min, (4) 95% (v/v) B for another 4 min, (5) gradual

decrease to 5% (v/v) B over 20 min. An MS survey scan was obtained for the m/z range 340-

1600; MS/MS spectra were acquired using a top 15 method, where the top 15 ions in the MS

spectra were subjected to HCD (High Energy Collisional Dissociation). An isolation mass

window of 1.6 m/z was set for precursor ion selection, and normalized collision energy of 27%

was used for fragmentation. A 20-second duration was used for the dynamic exclusion.

Tandem mass spectra were extracted and analysed by PEAKS Studio (version X+,

Bioinformatics Solutions Inc., Canada). Charge state deconvolution and de-isotoping were not

performed. Reference databases consisted of the UniProtKB/Swiss-Prot database (version

180508; 71,771 curated entries) and the cRAP database of common laboratory contaminants

(www.thegpm.org/crap; 114 entries). Databases were searched with a mass tolerance of 0.02

Da for fragment ions in MS/MS mode, and a parent ion tolerance of 10 PPM in MS mode. Post-

translational protein modifications allowed were methionine oxidation, asparagine and

glutamine deamidation, which were searched as variable modifications.

PEAKS Studio software built-in decoy sequencing and FDR determination was used to validate

MS/MS-based peptides. PEAKS Studio uses the "Decoy Fused Method" when calculating FDR

where the default cut-off is set to -10logP > 20 to ensure high-quality peptide spectrum

matches and to increase confidence in the proteins list obtained. Protein identifications were

accepted if they could pass the -10logP of > 20 and contained at least 1 identified unique

peptide. FDR for peptide spectrum matches was set at <1%. Proteins that contained similar

peptides and could not be differentiated based on MS/MS analysis alone were grouped to

satisfy the principles of parsimony. Proteins sharing significant peptide evidence were

grouped into protein groups.

Semiquantitative analysis of RIME proteomics data by spectral counting

The following filtering criteria were applied to the protein data obtained in PEAKS studio for

each cell type (Supplementary Dataset 1). (1) Identified proteins with <2 unique peptides were

removed. (2) We then filtered out proteins with a spectral count average >2 in the IgG

immunoprecipitation controls for experiments 1 and 2 combined, and proteins with a spectral

count average of <4 in any of the two YAP RIME experiments. (3) Proteins matched to

commonly identified IgG contaminant proteins (data downloaded from the contaminant

repository for affinity purification (CRAPome, Crapome.org, accessed November 2019)) and

to mitochondrial proteins were excluded from further analysis. (4) Proteins displaying a fold

change <4 of mean spectral counts in YAP immunoprecipitations vs spectral counts in the

respective IgG control immunoprecipitation in any of the two independent experiments were

removed to eliminate low confidence hits that were not considerably more represented in the

YAP immunoprecipitation than the IgG immunoprecipitation. High confidence YAP-interacting

proteins were further screened for potential physiological significance by filtering against lists

of candidate genes positively and negatively regulating clonal growth of NHK and SCC-13 cells

(Walko et al., 2017). Interaction networks were created using Cytoscape version 3.9.1 and

using the Cytoscape STRING app version 1.7.1, and manually curated into functional groups

using input from Gene Ontology Enrichment Analysis performed using gprofiler

(https://biit.cs.ut.ee/gprofiler/gost) functional profiling tool with electronic GO annotations

unselected (Reimand et al., 2019) and visualised using EnrichmentMap (Cytoscape app

version: 3.3.4) in Cytoscape (version:3.9.1).

Immunofluorescence Microscopy

Cells were seeded onto acid-washed and UV-sterilized glass coverslips coated with rat tail

collagen I (10 μg/ml; Fisher Scientific, UK) and fixed using 4% (v/v) paraformaldehyde (PFA)

for 30 minutes at RT. Immunostaining was performed in a PBS-humidified chamber. Cells were

permeabilised with 0.1% (v/v) Triton-X100 (Merck, UK) for 25 minutes then blocked in 10%

(v/v) BSA (Merck, UK) + 0.1% (v/v) Triton-X100. Primary antibodies (Supplementary Table 2)

were diluted in antibody diluent buffer (2% (v/v) BSA + 0.1% (v/v) Triton-X100) and incubated

overnight at 4°C. Coverslips were washed thoroughly with PBS, secondary antibodies

(Supplementary Table 2), diluted in antibody diluent, were added, and the samples incubated

for 1 hour at RT in the dark, then washed multiple times with PBS and once with MilliQ water.

Coverslips were mounted onto glass microscope slides using ProLong Gold™ anti-fade

mounting medium with DAPI (Fisher Scientific, UK,) or alternatively, incubated with 2 μg/ml

Hoechst 33342 (Fisher Scientific, UK) in PBS for 5 minutes, washed once with PBS, and

mounted with ProLong Gold™ anti-fade glass mounting medium without DAPI (Fisher

Scientific, UK). For confocal microscopy, images were acquired using a ZEISS LSM 880 laser

scanning confocal microscope using 40x/1.3 Oil DIC UV-IR M27 or 63x/1.4 Oil DIC UV-IR M27

objectives at 16 Bit depth, 0.5 µm optical Sections for Z-stacks, and 2048x2048 pixel

resolution. Images were processed using ImageJ (https://imagej.nih.gov/ij/) or ZEN blue

(Zeiss) with maximal orthogonal projection of Z-stacks. Quantification was performed using

CellProfiler (version 4.0.7). Immunofluorescence images in Supplementary Figure 1B were

obtained on a ZOE® Fluorescent Cell Imager (Bio Rad) using standard setup (20x objective)

and digital zoom. Minimal processing (changes in brightness and contrast) was applied equally

across entire images and applied equally to controls.

Quantification of RIF1 expression in human tissues

Immunofluorescence staining was performed on 4 µm human FFPE sections according to

standard protocols. Antigen retrieval was conducted in Dako Target Retrieval Solution, pH 9.0

(Agilent Technologies, Santa Clara, California, USA), and 3% (w/v) BSA in PBS containing 0.05%

(v/v) Tween 20 (PBS-T) was used for blocking. Primary antibodies against Keratin 14 (chicken

pAb (Poly9060), BioLegend Cat# 906004, RRID:AB_2616962; 1:250) and RIF1 (rabbit mAb

(D2F2M), Cell Signalling Technology Cat# 95558, RRID:AB_2800249; 1:50) were diluted in 1%

(w/v) BSA in PBS-T and incubated overnight. Fluorescently labelled donkey anti-chicken (IgY

(H+L) highly cross adsorbed, Alexa Fluor™ 594, Fisher Scientific, catalogue # A78951, RRID

AB_2921073; 1:500,) and donkey anti-rabbit (IgG (H+L) highly cross-adsorbed secondary

antibody, Alexa Fluor™ 488, Fisher Scientific, catalogue # A-21206, RRID AB_2535792; 1:500,)

secondary antibodies were incubated for 90 minutes at ambient temperature. DAPI was used

for nuclear counter-staining. Images were captured using the Vectra Polaris™ imaging system,

and image analysis was conducted with the HALO® image analysis platform v3.6.4134. The

HighPlex FL v4.2.14 plugin was employed for image analysis, with signal intensity thresholds

set for the Opal620 (AF594) channel to differentiate positive from negative cells. The

DenseNet V2 (Halo AI) classifier was trained and applied to differentiate between tumour and

stroma regions. Depending on the size of the tissue, between 2-13 regions of interest with an

area of 1 mm^2, representing the tumour were analyzed. Data analysis was performed using

GraphPad Prism version 8.0.0 for Windows (GraphPad Software, San Diego, California USA,

www.graphpad.com).

Additional images of human squamous cell carcinoma samples were obtained by datamining

the www.proteinatlas.org database (Ponten *et al*, 2008; Uhlen *et al*, 2015).

Proximity Ligation Assay

Cells were fixed and permeabilised as described above. Coverslips were blocked in Proximity

Ligation Assay (Duolink®, Sigma) blocking buffer, and primary antibodies (Supplementary

Table 2), diluted in Duolink® antibody diluent, were added overnight. Proximity ligation assay

reactions were performed as per the manufacturer's instructions. Coverslips were mounted

onto glass slides using Duolink® PLA mounting medium with DAPI and sealed with clear nail

polish. Images were acquired on a Zeiss LSM-880 confocal microscope using a 40x/1.3 Oil DIC

UV-IR M27 objective. All images belonging to the same experimental repeat were acquired in

one imaging session at 16-Bit depth using a Z-stack (0.5 μm slice interval) and a 2048x2048

pixels dimension. Images were analysed on ZEN blue version 3.3.89.0000 and processed using

a maximal frontal orthogonal projection including all Z-stack slices. Background fluorescence

was removed using the same parameters for each image belonging to the same image set (=

experimental repeat). Image quantifications were performed using CellProfiler version 4.0.7.

Nuclei were defined as parent objects using the 'IdentifyPrimaryObjects' module based on

DAPI fluorescence signal and intensity of PLA signal per nucleus was quantified within the

defined nuclear area using the 'MeasureIntensity' module. To account for differences in YAP-

RIF1 and YAP-TEAD fluorescence signal intensities between different experimental repeats

(Figure 1), mean nuclear PLA signal fluorescence intensity in shYAP/TAZ cells was normalized

to that in shNTC cells (Melendez Garcia *et al.*, 2022). A one sample two-tailed t test was then

used to test for statistical significance (Melendez Garcia *et al.*, 2022). Statistical significance

between the mean PLA signal intensities in the shNTC and shY/T cell populations (assessed by

Mann-Whitney test) was high ($p < 0.0001$) for each individual experiment (not shown).

Preparation of protein extracts for immunoblotting

RIPA buffer (1x) (Cell Signalling Technologies) or Cell Lysis buffer (1x; Cell Signalling

Technologies, #9803; for co-immunoprecipitation experiments), supplemented with protease

inhibitors (cOmplete™ ULTRA, EDTA-free, Merck, UK) and phosphatase inhibitors (PhosStop,

Merck, UK), was added to cell culture plates and cells were lysed on ice for 15 minutes. Cell

remnants were then scraped into the lysis buffer, the lysate was transferred into a tube and

sonicated in an ice bath using an MSE Soniprep 150 plus sonicator at 12 Amp for 15 minutes

with shaking. Lysates were centrifuged at 16,000 x g for 10 minutes (4°C). For co-

immunoprecipitation experiments, sample sonication was not performed. The supernatant

was collected, and BCA assay was performed to measure protein concentration using Pierce

BCA Protein Assay Kit (Thermo Fisher, UK).

Preparation of chromatin-bound protein fractions

Chromatin fractions were prepared as described (Alver *et al.*, 2017). Briefly, cytoskeleton

buffer (300 mM sucrose, 3 mM $MgCl_2$, 100 mM NaCl, 0.5% (v/v) Triton X-100, 10 mM HEPES

(pH 7.4)) supplemented with protease inhibitors (cOmplete™ ULTRA Tablets, EDTA-free,

Merck, UK) and phosphatase inhibitors (PhosStop, Merck, UK) was added to cells growing in

cell culture dishes, and these were incubated on ice for 5 minutes. Cells were then scraped

into the buffer and the extract was transferred to a microcentrifuge tube and incubated on ice

for further 10 minutes. Samples were then centrifuged at 500 x g for 5 minutes at 4°C, and the

supernatant was removed and discarded. Chromatin pellets were washed twice in

cytoskeleton buffer without Triton-X100 and resuspended in 50 µl RIPA buffer (Cell Signalling

Technologies, UK) containing protease and phosphatase inhibitors, and incubated on ice for 5

minutes. 50 units Benzonase® Nuclease (Merck, UK) and $MgCl_2$ (Sigma, UK, final

concentration: 3 mM) were added, and the chromatin fraction was incubated on ice for 20

minutes until it had visibly reduced viscosity. The chromatin fraction was then centrifuged at

16,000 x g for 10 minutes at 4°C, and the supernatant was recovered for immunoblotting

analysis.

Co-immunoprecipitation from nuclei-enriched fractions

Cells were grown to ~70% confluency and were washed twice with ice-cold PBS before

incubation on ice for 15 minutes with nuclear extraction buffer (50 mM KCl, 2 mM $MgCl_2$, 1

mM EDTA, 1 mM DTT, 0.1% (v/v) IGEPAL CA-630, 10 mM HEPES (pH 7.4)), supplemented with

protease inhibitors (cOmplete™ ULTRA, EDTA-free, Merck, UK) and phosphatase inhibitors

(PhosStop, Merck, UK)). Cell remnants were then scraped into the buffer, the suspension was

collected into pre-cooled microcentrifuge tubes, vortexed for 10 seconds, and centrifuged at

750 x g for 5 minutes (4°C) to pellet nuclei. The cytoplasmic fraction was removed and the

nuclear pellet was washed once in ice-cold PBS, resuspended in ice-cold nuclear lysis buffer

(450 mM NaCl, 0.1 mM EDTA, 3 mM $MgCl_2$, 0.1% Triton X-100, 1% (v/v) IGEPAL CA-630, 1 mM

DTT, 20 mM HEPES (pH 7.4)) supplemented with protease inhibitors (cOmplete™ ULTRA, EDTA-free, Merck, UK) and phosphatase inhibitors (PhosStop, Merck, UK), transferred to a clean pre-cooled micro-centrifuge tube, and incubated on ice for 15 minutes. Chromatin was then sheared either by passaging 10 times through a 27G needle attached to a 1 ml syringe or by the addition of Benzonase® Nuclease (Merck, UK). Needle-sheared nuclear fractions were centrifuged at 13,000 x g for 10 minutes (4°C) and the supernatant was diluted (1:3) to a final concentration of 150 mM NaCl using nuclear lysis buffer without NaCl. For Benzonase®-treatment of nuclear fractions, chromatin suspension in nuclear lysis buffer was similarly adjusted to 150 mM NaCl using nuclear lysis buffer. Benzonase® was then added, and the chromatin suspension was incubated on ice for 15 minutes with intermittent vortexing. EDTA was added to a 1 mM final concentration and samples were centrifuged at 13,000 x g for 10 minutes (4°C).

BCA assay was performed to measure protein concentration, and agarose gel electrophoresis of DNA was used to validate the Benzonase digest. To this end, a 1% (w/v) agarose (Sigma, UK) gel was prepared using 1x Tris-acetate-EDTA buffer (Fisher Scientific, UK) and GelRed® Nucleic Acid Stain (Merck, UK). 10 µl of sample was incubated with 1 µl proteinase K for 1 hour at 65C and then diluted with TriTrack DNA loading dye (Fisher Scientific, UK) and run for 1-2 hours at 100V in parallel with GeneRuler1 kb Plus DNA Ladder (Thermo Fisher, UK). Gels were imaged using a Syngene Gel Doc system.

Nuclear protein samples (containing 2 mg/ml protein) were incubated with 0.07 ug anti-YAP (D8H1X, Lot 4, Cell Signalling Technology) antibody or 0.07 ug of isotype-matched IgG control antibody (Supplementary Table 2) and DTT (1 mM) in micro-centrifuge tubes overnight at 4°C with constant rotation. Protein G Dynabeads™ (Thermo Fisher, UK) were washed four times in

PBS supplemented with 0.05% (v/v) Tween-20 (PBS-T, IP wash buffer) using a DynaMag™

magnetic rack (Thermo Fisher, UK), transferred to a new tube and washed once in IP wash

buffer. Protein G Dynabeads were then resuspended in 50 µL IP-buffer and added to IP

reactions, which were then incubated with the beads for 4 hours at 4°C with constant rotation.

To pellet the beads, samples were then placed on the DynaMag™ magnetic rack, the

supernatant was removed, bead-bound protein complexes were washed 3 times in PBS-T,

transferred to a fresh micro-centrifuge tube, resuspended in 20 µl 50 mM glycine (pH 2.8) and

10 µl 3x Laemmli buffer (BioRad, UK) + β-mercaptoethanol (elution buffer), and incubated for

10 minutes at 95°C. Beads were removed using the DynaMag™ magnetic rack and the eluted

proteins were analysed by SDS-PAGE (alongside 10 ug (1%) of input lysate) and

immunoblotting.

Immunoblotting analysis

Protein samples were denatured and reduced in Laemmli buffer (BioRad, UK) containing 10%

(v/v) β-mercaptoethanol for 5 minutes at 95°C and loaded onto precast 4-20% or 4-15%

polyacrylamide mini-PROTEAN Tris-Glycine eXtended (TGX) gels (BioRad, UK). Proteins were

transferred onto either 0.2 µm pore-size Nitrocellulose membranes or methanol-activated

0.45 µm pore-size PVDF membranes (BioRad, USA), using either the Trans-Blot Turbo Transfer

System (BioRad, UK) or tank (wet) transfer depending on protein molecular mass. Large

proteins were transferred by wet transfer in wet transfer buffer (3.05 g/l Tris-base, 14.4 g/l

glycine) either overnight at 25V (4°C) or for 60 minutes with extensive cooling in wet transfer

buffer containing 20% (v/v) methanol at 300 mA. Membranes were blocked in 5% (w/v) BSA

dissolved in Tris-buffered saline (TBS) containing 0.1% (v/v) Tween 20 (TBS-T)(=blocking

buffer) for 1 hour at RT and primary antibodies (Supplementary Table 2), diluted in blocking

buffer, were incubated with the membranes overnight at 4°C with agitation. Membranes were

washed three times for 10 minutes with TBS-T and then incubated with secondary horseradish

peroxidase (HRP)-conjugated antibodies. Clarity western ECL substrate reagent (BioRad, UK)

was used to image immunoblots using a Fusion Solo chemiluminescence imager (Vilber

Lourmat, UK). Where possible, over-saturated images were avoided and exposures within the

dynamic range were selected. Band intensities were quantified based on pixel volume of the

bands using Fusion software (Vilber Lourmat, UK) or Image software (Bio Rad).

1002

RNA preparation and Illumina sequencing

RNA was extracted from cells using the RNeasy Plus Mini kit (Qiagen, UK) and the QIAshredder

shredding system (Qiagen, UK) as per the manufacturer's instructions. RNA yield and purity

were analysed using the Quant-iT™ Qubit RNA BR Assay Kit (Thermo Fisher, UK) in Qubit™

Assay Tubes (Thermo Fisher, UK) on a Qubit 4 Fluorometer (Thermo Fisher, UK). RNA

sequencing was outsourced to Novogene Ltd. (UK). Messenger RNA was purified from total

RNA by poly-A enrichment method using poly-T oligo-attached magnetic beads. RNA library

preparation was performed using the Novogene in-house kit NGS RNA Library Prep Set

(PT042) for the preparation of a 250~300 bp insert cDNA library (unstranded). The library was

checked with Qubit and real-time PCR for quantification and bioanalyzer for size distribution

detection. Paired end PE150 sequencing was performed on Novaseq6000 short-read

sequencing machine (6Gb raw data per sample) platform. Base calling was performed by

Novogene using RTA (Real Time Analysis) software. All samples had a Phred score >30.

1016

RNA sequencing data analysis

Paired reads were aligned to Ensembl GRCh38.105 2.7.4a (Harrison *et al*, 2024) using bowtie2

(v2.4.4)(Langmead & Salzberg, 2012) default settings, sorted and indexed with Samtools

(v1.2)(Li *et al*, 2009), and unstranded exonic read pairs were counted using FeatureCounts

(v2.0.7)(Liao *et al*, 2014) using a slightly modified Ensembl gtf with 'chr' prefix nomenclature.

DESeq2 (v1.44.0)(Love *et al*, 2014) was used in R (v4.4.2) to assess features with >10 reads

across conditions and differential expression of transcripts with a fold change >1.5 and FDR

<0.05. All other results were given the value 0 and genes with no differential expression were

removed from the final data frame for visualisation purposes only.

1026

Pathway analysis

Gene Set Enrichment Analysis (Subramanian *et al*, 2005) was performed in R, using

clusterProfiler (v4.12.6)(Xu *et al*, 2024) on all genes annotated with Entrez IDs using

AnnotationDbi (v1.66.0) and org.Hs.eg.db.Hs (v3.19.1) packages. GO Biological Processes

(Ashburner *et al*, 2000; Gene Ontology *et al*, 2023), Hallmark (Liberzon *et al*, 2015) and

Reactome (Milacic *et al*, 2024) pathway gene sets were downloaded from the Molecular

Signature Database (https://www.gsea-msigdb.org/gsea/msigdb) using msigdbr (v7.5.1).

Specific sets of genes defining progenitor cell populations, early differentiation and late

(terminal) differentiation have been experimentally validated using organotypic models

(Lopez-Pajares *et al.*, 2015). 'set.seed' in R (v4.4.2) was set to '1234' and Benjamini-Hochberg

correction (adjusted p-value <0.05) was used for multiple comparison corrections.

1038

Gene Set Variation Analysis

A more stringent p-value threshold ($<1\times10^{-8}$) was applied to the SCC13 siYAP/TAZ RNA-

seq dataset to reduce the gene set size to <500, as recommended for robust gene set

variation analysis (GSVA) (Hanzelmann *et al*, 2013). This yielded 486 upregulated and 250

downregulated DEGs in siYAP/TAZ compared to siNTC SCC13 cells. GSVA was performed

using the GSVA function (GSVA R package v1.52.3) with default settings. The input comprised

the selected SCC13 RNA-seq gene sets and an expression matrix from 237 cSCC patients with

known clinical outcome (Wang *et al.*, 2023), covering primary cSCC (metastatic and non-

metastatic), perilesional normal skin and metastasis where available. GSVA enrichment scores

were calculated for each sample, and boxplots were used to visualize differential pathway

activity across tissue types. T-tests were applied to assess significant differences in enrichment

scores between groups.

1051

RT-qPCR

mRNA was converted to cDNA (including the removal of genomic DNA) using the QuantiTect

Reverse Transcription Kit (Qiagen, UK) as per the manufacturers' instructions. For the

Comparative C_T method, qPCR reactions were set up using 50 ng cDNA, 10 µL 2x TaqMan™

Fast Advanced Master Mix (Applied Biosystems™, Fisher Scientific, UK), 1 µL 20x TaqMan™

Gene Expression Assay (FAM) (Fisher Scientific, UK) (Supplementary Table 1D) and nuclease-

free water. Reactions were performed in technical triplicates in MicroAmp® Fast 96-Well

reaction plates (Applied Biosystems™, Fisher Scientific, UK)) and run on a StepOnePlus™ Real-

Time PCR System (Fisher Scientific, UK) for 40 cycles; 20 seconds at 95°C, 1 second at 95°C, 20

seconds at 60°C. Relative gene expression was analysed by the $2^{(-\Delta\Delta C_T)}$ method. GAPDH was

used as housekeeping gene for normalization.

1063

Reproducibility of experiments

RIME was performed on two independent cell cultures for each cell type, starting from freshly

thawed cell stocks. For each fixed cell pellet prepared from the independent cell cultures, YAP

RIME was then performed in technical replicates. Control RIME was performed using isotype-

matched IgG, and for each independent experiment, the two replicate IgG control

immunoprecipitations were pooled for mass spectrometry analysis. For RNA-seq analysis, two

independent cell cultures, starting from freshly thawed cell stocks were separately transfected

with siRNA SMARTpools. For co-immunoprecipitations two to three independent experiments

were performed with similar results. For immunostainings of cells, representative images from

one out of three experiments are shown. Western blots are representative of at least two

independent experiments. Cell cycle analysis was performed on two to four independent

experiments. For clonal growth assays at least three independent experiments were

performed with three technical replicates per condition. RT-qPCR analysis was performed on

three independent experiments with three technical replicates.

1078

Statistical analysis and data presentation

Statistical analyses were performed with GraphPad Prism software (version 10.3) or R (v7.5.1).

No statistical method was used to predetermine sample size. Statistical tests used to

determine p-values are specified in Figure Legends. Sample size is indicated in Figure Legends,

Data sets with sufficient *n* numbers were first analysed for normal distribution. In cases where

the data were not found to be normally distributed, they were subsequently analysed using

appropriate non-parametric tests (specified in Figure Legends), provided that the variance was

comparable between the groups analysed. In some figures, superplots (Lord *et al*, 2020) were

used to communicate both the cell-level variability and the experimental reproducibility. The

investigators analysing the data were not blind to the identity of the samples. Further R

(v7.5.1) data manipulation packages included genefilter (v1.86.0), dplyr (v1.1.4), tibble

(v3.2.1), reshape2 (v1.4.4), plyr (v1.8.9), gage (v2.54.0), gageData (v2.42.0), and rrvgo

(v1.16.0), and data were visualised in R using gplots (v3.2.0), ggplot2 (v3.5.1), viridis (v0.6.5),

DOSE (v3.30.5), pheatmap (v1.0.12), RColorBrewer (v1.1-3), eulerr (7.0.2), and ggrepel

(v0.9.6) packages.

1094

Funding Information

This work was supported by the UK Research & Innovation (UKRI) Biotechnology and

Biological Sciences Research Council (BBSRC, grant BB/T012978/1 to Gernot Walko), the

Academy of Medical Sciences (grant SBF005\1005 to Gernot Walko), the British Skin

Foundation (grants 036/S/18 and 011_SG_22 to Gernot Walko), the Royal Society (grant

RGS\R1\191087 to Gernot Walko), the LEO Foundation (grant LF-AW_EMEA-21-400116 to

Beate Lichtenberger), the City of Vienna Fund for Innovative Interdisciplinary Cancer Research

(grant 22059 to Beate Lichtenberger), and the Austrian Science Fund (FWF) (grant 36368-B to

Beate Lichtenberger). Gernot Walko also acknowledges financial support from the Barts

Charity (UK) through the Barts Centre for Squamous Cancer (Centre grant 'A Centre of

Excellence for Squamous Cancer.', grant G-002030).

1106

1107 **Acknowledgements**

1108 We wish to thank our colleagues from the Barts Centre for Squamous Cancer at Queen Mary

1109 University of London for critical feedback on our draft manuscript.

1110

1111 **Data availability**

The authors declare that all data supporting the findings of this study are available within the paper and its supplementary information files. Raw Illumina sequencing data have been deposited in the Gene Expression Omnibus (GEO) under the accession number GSE284725.

Author contributions

Jodie Bojko: Data Curation, Formal Analysis, Investigation, Methodology, Visualization, Writing: Original Draft Preparation; Benjamin Flynn: Data Curation, Formal Analysis, Investigation, Methodology, Software, Supervision, Validation, Visualization; Bertram Aschenbrenner: Data Curation, Formal Analysis, Investigation, Methodology, Software, Visualization; Alexander Howard: Formal Analysis, Investigation, Methodology; Emily Lay: Formal Analysis, Investigation, Methodology; Natalia Krajic: Investigation, Methodology.

Emma Bailey:

Ute Jungwirth: Formal Analysis, Validation, Visualization, Writing: Original Draft Preparation.

Beate Lichtenberger: Funding acquisition, Resources, Supervision, Validation, Writing: Original Draft Preparation.

Gernot Walko: Conceptualization, Data Curation, Formal Analysis, Funding acquisition, Methodology, Project Administration, Resources, Supervision, Validation, Visualization, Writing: Original Draft Preparation, Writing: Review &Editing.

References

Al-Hazmi N, Alhazzazi T, Williams G, Stoeber K, Al-Dabbagh R (2018) DNA replication licensing factor MCM2, geminin, and Ki67 define proliferative state and are linked with survival in oral squamous cell carcinoma. *Eur J Oral Sci* 126: 186-196
Alver RC, Chadha GS, Gillespie PJ, Blow JJ (2017) Reversal of DDK-Mediated MCM Phosphorylation by Rif1-PP1 Regulates Replication Initiation and Replisome Stability Independently of ATR/Chk1. *Cell Rep* 18: 2508-2520
Amirifar P, Kissil J (2023) The role of Motin family proteins in tumorigenesis-an update. *Oncogene* 42: 1265-1271

Ashburner M, Ball CA, Blake JA, Botstein D, Butler H, Cherry JM, Davis AP, Dolinski K, Dwight SS, Eppig JT *et al* (2000) Gene ontology: tool for the unification of biology. The Gene Ontology Consortium. *Nat Genet* 25: 25-29

Ashley AK, Shrivastav M, Nie J, Amerin C, Troksa K, Glanzer JG, Liu S, Opiyo SO, Dimitrova DD, Le P *et al* (2014) DNA-PK phosphorylation of RPA32 Ser4/Ser8 regulates replication stress checkpoint activation, fork restart, homologous recombination and mitotic catastrophe. *DNA Repair (Amst)* 21: 131-139

Atemin A, Ivanova A, Kanev PB, Uzunova S, Nedelcheva-Veleva M, Stoynov S (2024) Dynamics of Replication-Associated Protein Levels through the Cell Cycle. *Int J Mol Sci* 25

Bartkova J, Rezaei N, Liontos M, Karakaidos P, Kletsas D, Issaeva N, Vassiliou LV, Kolettas E, Niforou K, Zoumpourlis VC *et al* (2006) Oncogene-induced senescence is part of the tumorigenesis barrier imposed by DNA damage checkpoints. *Nature* 444: 633-637

Battilana G, Zanconato F, Piccolo S (2021) Mechanisms of YAP/TAZ transcriptional control. *Cell Stress* 5: 167-172

Beltrami S, Kim R, Gordon J (2013) Neurofibromatosis type 2 protein, NF2: an unconventional cell cycle regulator. *Anticancer Res* 33: 1-11

Blanpain C, Fuchs E (2009) Epidermal homeostasis: a balancing act of stem cells in the skin. *Nat Rev Mol Cell Biol* 10: 207-217

Bowry A, Kelly RDW, Petermann E (2021) Hypertranscription and replication stress in cancer. *Trends Cancer* 7: 863-877

Bradner JE, Hnisz D, Young RA (2017) Transcriptional Addiction in Cancer. *Cell* 168: 629-643

Bui DA, Lee W, White AE, Harper JW, Schackmann RC, Overholtzer M, Selfors LM, Brugge JS (2016) Cytokinesis involves a nontranscriptional function of the Hippo pathway effector YAP. *Sci Signal* 9: ra23

Buonomo SB, Wu Y, Ferguson D, de Lange T (2009) Mammalian Rif1 contributes to replication stress survival and homology-directed repair. *J Cell Biol* 187: 385-398

Burns JE, Baird MC, Clark LJ, Burns PA, Edington K, Chapman C, Mitchell R, Robertson G, Soutar D, Parkinson EK (1993) Gene mutations and increased levels of p53 protein in human squamous cell carcinomas and their cell lines. *Br J Cancer* 67: 1274-1284

Burrell RA, McClelland SE, Endesfelder D, Groth P, Weller MC, Shaikh N, Domingo E, Kanu N, Dewhurst SM, Gronroos E *et al* (2013) Replication stress links structural and numerical cancer chromosomal instability. *Nature* 494: 492-496

Cardinali M, Jakus J, Shah S, Ensley JF, Robbins KC, Yeudall WA (1998) p21(WAF1/Cip1) retards the growth of human squamous cell carcinomas in vivo. *Oral Oncol* 34: 211-218

Chakravarthy A, Reddin I, Henderson S, Dong C, Kirkwood N, Jeyakumar M, Rodriguez DR, Martinez NG, McDermott J, Su X *et al* (2022) Integrated analysis of cervical squamous cell carcinoma cohorts from three continents reveals conserved subtypes of prognostic significance. *Nat Commun* 13: 5818

Chandrashekar DS, Karthikeyan SK, Korla PK, Patel H, Shovon AR, Athar M, Netto GJ, Qin ZS, Kumar S, Manne U *et al* (2022) UALCAN: An update to the integrated cancer data analysis platform. *Neoplasia* 25: 18-27

Chang CY, Shipony Z, Lin SG, Kuo A, Xiong X, Loh KM, Greenleaf WJ, Crabtree GR (2021) Increased ACTL6A occupancy within mSWI/SNF chromatin remodelers drives human squamous cell carcinoma. *Mol Cell* 81: 4964-4978 e4968

Chang L, Azzolin L, Di Biagio D, Zanconato F, Battilana G, Lucon Xiccato R, Aragona M, Giulitti S, Panciera T, Gandin A *et al* (2018) The SWI/SNF complex is a mechanoregulated inhibitor of YAP and TAZ. *Nature* 563: 265-269

Chow SE, Hsu CC, Yang CT, Meir YJ (2023) YAP co-localizes with the mitotic spindle and midbody to safeguard mitotic division in lung-cancer cells. *FEBS J* 290: 5704-5719

Contreras L, Garcia-Gaipo L, Casar B, Gandarillas A (2024) DNA damage signalling histone H2AX is required for tumour growth. *Cell Death Discov* 10: 99

Cornacchia D, Dileep V, Quivy JP, Foti R, Tili F, Santarella-Mellwig R, Antony C, Almouzni G, Gilbert DM, Buonomo SB (2012) Mouse Rif1 is a key regulator of the replication-timing programme in mammalian cells. *EMBO J* 31: 3678-3690

da Costa A, Chowdhury D, Shapiro GI, D'Andrea AD, Konstantinopoulos PA (2023) Targeting replication stress in cancer therapy. *Nat Rev Drug Discov* 22: 38-58

de Pedro I, Galan-Vidal J, Freije A, de Diego E, Gandarillas A (2021) p21CIP1 controls the squamous differentiation response to replication stress. *Oncogene* 40: 152-162

De Rosa L, Secone Seconetti A, De Santis G, Pellacani G, Hirsch T, Rothoeft T, Teig N, Pellegrini G, Bauer JW, De Luca M (2019) Laminin 332-Dependent YAP Dysregulation Depletes Epidermal Stem Cells in Junctional Epidermolysis Bullosa. *Cell Rep* 27: 2036-2049 e2036

Debaugnies M, Sanchez-Danes A, Rorive S, Raphael M, Liagre M, Parent MA, Brisebarre A, Salmon I, Blanpain C (2018) YAP and TAZ are essential for basal and squamous cell carcinoma initiation. *EMBO Rep*

Dempster JM, Pacini C, Pantel S, Behan FM, Green T, Krill-Burger J, Beaver CM, Younger ST, Zhivich V, Najgebauer H *et al* (2019) Agreement between two large pan-cancer CRISPR-Cas9 gene dependency data sets. *Nat Commun* 10: 5817

Dey A, Varelas X, Guan KL (2020) Targeting the Hippo pathway in cancer, fibrosis, wound healing and regenerative medicine. *Nat Rev Drug Discov* 19: 480-494

Dotto GP, Rustgi AK (2016) Squamous Cell Cancers: A Unified Perspective on Biology and Genetics. *Cancer Cell* 29: 622-637

Dungrawala H, Rose KL, Bhat KP, Mohni KN, Glick GG, Couch FB, Cortez D (2015) The Replication Checkpoint Prevents Two Types of Fork Collapse without Regulating Replisome Stability. *Mol Cell* 59: 998-1010

Elbediwy A, Vincent-Mistiaen ZI, Spencer-Dene B, Stone RK, Boeing S, Wculek SK, Cordero J, Tan EH, Ridgway R, Brunton VG *et al* (2016) Integrin signalling regulates YAP and TAZ to control skin homeostasis. *Development* 143: 1674-1687

Flora P, Ezhkova E (2020) Regulatory mechanisms governing epidermal stem cell function during development and homeostasis. *Development* 147

Foti R, Gnan S, Cornacchia D, Dileep V, Bulut-Karslioglu A, Diehl S, Buness A, Klein FA, Huber W, Johnstone E *et al* (2016) Nuclear Architecture Organized by Rif1 Underpins the Replication-Timing Program. *Mol Cell* 61: 260-273

Franklin JM, Wu Z, Guan KL (2023) Insights into recent findings and clinical application of YAP and TAZ in cancer. *Nat Rev Cancer* 23: 512-525

Freije A, Ceballos L, Coisy M, Barnes L, Rosa M, De Diego E, Blanchard JM, Gandarillas A (2012) Cyclin E drives human keratinocyte growth into differentiation. *Oncogene* 31: 5180-5192

Freije A, Molinuevo R, Ceballos L, Cagigas M, Alonso-Lecue P, Rodriguez R, Menendez P, Aberdam D, De Diego E, Gandarillas A (2014) Inactivation of p53 in Human Keratinocytes Leads to Squamous Differentiation and Shedding via Replication Stress and Mitotic Slippage. *Cell Rep* 9: 1349-1360

Furukawa KT, Yamashita K, Sakurai N, Ohno S (2017) The Epithelial Circumferential Actin Belt Regulates YAP/TAZ through Nucleocytoplasmic Shuttling of Merlin. *Cell Rep* 20: 1435-1447

Gaillard H, Garcia-Muse T, Aguilera A (2015) Replication stress and cancer. *Nat Rev Cancer* 15: 276-289

Gandarillas A (2012) The mysterious human epidermal cell cycle, or an oncogene-induced differentiation checkpoint. *Cell Cycle* 11: 4507-4516

Gandarillas A, Davies D, Blanchard JM (2000) Normal and c-Myc-promoted human keratinocyte differentiation both occur via a novel cell cycle involving cellular growth and endoreplication. *Oncogene* 19: 3278-3289

Garzon J, Ursich S, Lopes M, Hiraga SI, Donaldson AD (2019) Human RIF1-Protein Phosphatase 1 Prevents Degradation and Breakage of Nascent DNA on Replication Stalling. *Cell Rep* 27: 2558-2566 e2554

Gene Ontology C, Aleksander SA, Balhoff J, Carbon S, Cherry JM, Drabkin HJ, Ebert D, Feuermann
M, Gaudet P, Harris NL *et al* (2023) The Gene Ontology knowledgebase in 2023. *Genetics* 224
Ghias K, Rehmani SS, Razzak SA, Madhani S, Azim MK, Ahmed R, Khan MJ (2019) Mutational
landscape of head and neck squamous cell carcinomas in a South Asian population. *Genet Mol*
Biol 4242: 526-542
Gnan S, Flyamer IM, Klein KN, Castelli E, Rapp A, Maiser A, Chen N, Weber P, Enervald E, Cardoso
MC *et al* (2021) Nuclear organisation and replication timing are coupled through RIF1-PP1
interaction. *Nat Commun* 12: 2910
Hanahan D, Weinberg RA (2011) Hallmarks of cancer: the next generation. *Cell* 144: 646-674
Hanzelmann S, Castelo R, Guinney J (2013) GSVA: gene set variation analysis for microarray and
RNA-seq data. *BMC Bioinformatics* 14: 7
Harrison PW, Amode MR, Austine-Orimoloye O, Azov AG, Barba M, Barnes I, Becker A, Bennett R,
Berry A, Bhai J *et al* (2024) Ensembl 2024. *Nucleic Acids Res* 52: D891-D899
Hassan S, Purdie KJ, Wang J, Harwood CA, Proby CM, Pourreyron C, Mladkova N, Nagano A,
Dhayade S, Athineos D *et al* (2019) A Unique Panel of Patient-Derived Cutaneous Squamous Cell
Carcinoma Cell Lines Provides a Preclinical Pathway for Therapeutic Testing. *Int J Mol Sci* 20
He L, Pratt H, Gao M, Wei F, Weng Z, Struhl K (2021) YAP and TAZ are transcriptional co-activators
of AP-1 proteins and STAT3 during breast cellular transformation. *Elife* 10
Hillmer RE, Link BA (2019) The Roles of Hippo Signaling Transducers Yap and Taz in Chromatin
Remodeling. *Cells* 8
Hiraga SI, Ly T, Garzon J, Horejsi Z, Ohkubo YN, Endo A, Obuse C, Boulton SJ, Lamond AI,
Donaldson AD (2017) Human RIF1 and protein phosphatase 1 stimulate DNA replication origin
licensing but suppress origin activation. *EMBO Rep* 18: 403-419
Hou S, Zhou S, Qin Z, Yang L, Han X, Yao S, Ji H (2017) Evidence, Mechanism, and Clinical
Relevance of the Transdifferentiation from Lung Adenocarcinoma to Squamous Cell Carcinoma.
Am J Pathol 187: 954-962
Howard A, Bojko J, Flynn B, Bowen S, Jungwirth U, Walko G (2022) Targeting the Hippo/YAP/TAZ
signalling pathway: Novel opportunities for therapeutic interventions into skin cancers. *Exp*
Dermatol 31: 1477-1499
Ichinose Y, Iguchi H, Ohta M, Katakami H (1993) Establishment of lung cancer cell line producing
parathyroid hormone-related protein. *Cancer Lett* 74: 119-124
Inman GJ, Wang J, Nagano A, Alexandrov LB, Purdie KJ, Taylor RG, Sherwood V, Thomson J, Hogan
S, Spender LC *et al* (2018) The genomic landscape of cutaneous SCC reveals drivers and a novel
azathioprine associated mutational signature. *Nat Commun* 9: 3667
Jessen M, Gertzmann D, Liss F, Zenk F, Bahner L, Schoffler V, Schulte C, Maric HM, Ade CP, von
Eyss B *et al* (2024) Inhibition of the YAP-MMB interaction and targeting NEK2 as potential
therapeutic strategies for YAP-driven cancers. *Oncogene* 43: 578-593
Johnson DE, Burtness B, Leemans CR, Lui VWY, Bauman JE, Grandis JR (2020) Head and neck
squamous cell carcinoma. *Nat Rev Dis Primers* 6: 92
Kim M, Kim T, Johnson RL, Lim DS (2015) Transcriptional co-repressor function of the hippo
pathway transducers YAP and TAZ. *Cell Rep* 11: 270-282
Klein KN, Zhao PA, Lyu X, Sasaki T, Bartlett DA, Singh AM, Tasan I, Zhang M, Watts LP, Hiraga SI *et*
al (2021) Replication timing maintains the global epigenetic state in human cells. *Science* 372:
371-378
Kypriotou M, Huber M, Hohl D (2012) The human epidermal differentiation complex: cornified
envelope precursors, S100 proteins and the 'fused genes' family. *Exp Dermatol* 21: 643-649
Langmead B, Salzberg SL (2012) Fast gapped-read alignment with Bowtie 2. *Nat Methods* 9: 357-
359
Lau SCM, Pan Y, Velcheti V, Wong KK (2022) Squamous cell lung cancer: Current landscape and
future therapeutic options. *Cancer Cell* 40: 1279-1293

Lavado A, Park JY, Pare J, Finkelstein D, Pan H, Xu B, Fan Y, Kumar RP, Neale G, Kwak YD *et al* (2018) The Hippo Pathway Prevents YAP/TAZ-Driven Hypertranscription and Controls Neural Progenitor Number. *Dev Cell* 47: 576-591 e578

Lebdy R, Patouillard J, Larroque M, Urbach S, Abou Merhi R, Larroque C, Ribeyre C (2023) The organizer of chromatin topology RIF1 ensures cellular resilience to DNA replication stress. *Life Sci Alliance* 6

Lee JH, Kim TS, Yang TH, Koo BK, Oh SP, Lee KP, Oh HJ, Lee SH, Kong YY, Kim JM *et al* (2008) A crucial role of WW45 in developing epithelial tissues in the mouse. *EMBO J* 27: 1231-1242

Li H, Handsaker B, Wysoker A, Fennell T, Ruan J, Homer N, Marth G, Abecasis G, Durbin R, Genome Project Data Processing S (2009) The Sequence Alignment/Map format and SAMtools. *Bioinformatics* 25: 2078-2079

Li Q, Tie Y, Alu A, Ma X, Shi H (2023) Targeted therapy for head and neck cancer: signaling pathways and clinical studies. *Signal Transduct Target Ther* 8: 31

Li W, Cooper J, Zhou L, Yang C, Erdjument-Bromage H, Zagzag D, Snuderl M, Ladanyi M, Hanemann CO, Zhou P *et al* (2014) Merlin/NF2 loss-driven tumorigenesis linked to CRL4(DCAF1)-mediated inhibition of the hippo pathway kinases Lats1 and 2 in the nucleus. *Cancer Cell* 26: 48-60

Li Y, Li B, Xu B, Han B, Xia H, Chen QM, Li LJ (2015a) Expression of p53, p21(CIP1/WAF1) and eIF4E in the adjacent tissues of oral squamous cell carcinoma: establishing the molecular boundary and a cancer progression model. *Int J Oral Sci* 7: 161-168

Li YY, Hanna GJ, Laga AC, Haddad RI, Lorch JH, Hammerman PS (2015b) Genomic analysis of metastatic cutaneous squamous cell carcinoma. *Clin Cancer Res* 21: 1447-1456

Liao Y, Smyth GK, Shi W (2014) featureCounts: an efficient general purpose program for assigning sequence reads to genomic features. *Bioinformatics* 30: 923-930

Liberzon A, Birger C, Thorvaldsdottir H, Ghandi M, Mesirov JP, Tamayo P (2015) The Molecular Signatures Database (MSigDB) hallmark gene set collection. *Cell Syst* 1: 417-425

Liu C, Yu P, Ren Z, Yao F, Wang L, Hu G, Li P, Zhao Q (2023) Rif1 Regulates Self-Renewal and Impedes Mesendodermal Differentiation of Mouse Embryonic Stem Cells. *Stem Cell Rev Rep* 19: 1540-1553

Liu S, Opiyo SO, Manthey K, Glanzer JG, Ashley AK, Amerin C, Troksa K, Shrivastav M, Nickoloff JA, Oakley GG (2012) Distinct roles for DNA-PK, ATM and ATR in RPA phosphorylation and checkpoint activation in response to replication stress. *Nucleic Acids Res* 40: 10780-10794

Liu Y, Guo B, Aguilera-Jimenez E, Chu VS, Zhou J, Wu Z, Francis JM, Yang X, Choi PS, Bailey SD *et al* (2020) Chromatin Looping Shapes KLF5-Dependent Transcriptional Programs in Human Epithelial Cancers. *Cancer Res* 80: 5464-5477

Lopez-Pajares V, Qu K, Zhang J, Webster DE, Barajas BC, Siprashvili Z, Zarnegar BJ, Boxer LD, Rios EJ, Tao S *et al* (2015) A LncRNA-MAF:MAFB transcription factor network regulates epidermal differentiation. *Dev Cell* 32: 693-706

Lord SJ, Velle KB, Mullins RD, Fritz-Laylin LK (2020) SuperPlots: Communicating reproducibility and variability in cell biology. *J Cell Biol* 219

Love MI, Huber W, Anders S (2014) Moderated estimation of fold change and dispersion for RNA-seq data with DESeq2. *Genome Biol* 15: 550

Maehama T, Nishio M, Otani J, Mak TW, Suzuki A (2021) The role of Hippo-YAP signaling in squamous cell carcinomas. *Cancer Sci* 112: 51-60

Melendez Garcia R, Haccard O, Chesneau A, Narassimprakash H, Roger J, Perron M, Marheineke K, Bronchain O (2022) A non-transcriptional function of Yap regulates the DNA replication program in Xenopus laevis. *Elife* 11

Milacic M, Beavers D, Conley P, Gong C, Gillespie M, Griss J, Haw R, Jassal B, Matthews L, May B *et al* (2024) The Reactome Pathway Knowledgebase 2024. *Nucleic Acids Res* 52: D672-D678

Mittal P, Roberts CWM (2020) The SWI/SNF complex in cancer - biology, biomarkers and therapy. *Nat Rev Clin Oncol* 17: 435-448

Mohammed H, Taylor C, Brown GD, Papachristou EK, Carroll JS, D'Santos CS (2016) Rapid immunoprecipitation mass spectrometry of endogenous proteins (RIME) for analysis of chromatin complexes. *Nat Protoc* 11: 316-326

Moiseeva TN, Yin Y, Calderon MJ, Qian C, Schamus-Haynes S, Sugitani N, Osmanbeyoglu HU, Rothenberg E, Watkins SC, Bakkenist CJ (2019) An ATR and CHK1 kinase signaling mechanism that limits origin firing during unperturbed DNA replication. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 116: 13374-13383

Moleirinho S, Hoxha S, Mandati V, Curtale G, Troutman S, Ehmer U, Kissil JL (2017) Regulation of localization and function of the transcriptional co-activator YAP by angiomotin. *Elife* 6

Molinuevo R, Freije A, Contreras L, Sanz JR, Gandarillas A (2020) The DNA damage response links human squamous proliferation with differentiation. *J Cell Biol* 219

Moriyama K, Yoshizawa-Sugata N, Masai H (2018) Oligomer formation and G-quadruplex binding by purified murine Rif1 protein, a key organizer of higher-order chromatin architecture. *J Biol Chem* 293: 3607-3624

Mukherjee C, Tripathi V, Manolika EM, Heijink AM, Ricci G, Merzouk S, de Boer HR, Demmers J, van Vugt M, Ray Chaudhuri A (2019) RIF1 promotes replication fork protection and efficient restart to maintain genome stability. *Nat Commun* 10: 3287

Nappi A, Miro C, Pezone A, Tramontano A, Di Cicco E, Sagliocchi S, Cicatiello AG, Murolo M, Torabinejad S, Abbotto E *et al* (2023) Loss of p53 activates thyroid hormone via type 2 deiodinase and enhances DNA damage. *Nat Commun* 14: 1244

Negri VA, Logtenberg MEW, Renz LM, Oules B, Walko G, Watt FM (2019) Delta-like 1-mediated cis-inhibition of Jagged1/2 signalling inhibits differentiation of human epidermal cells in culture. *Sci Rep* 9: 10825

Ning B, Tilston-Lunel AM, Simonetti J, Hicks-Berthet J, Matschulat A, Pfefferkorn R, Spira A, Edwards M, Mazzilli S, Lenburg ME *et al* (2023) Convergence of YAP/TAZ, TEAD and TP63 activity is associated with bronchial premalignant severity and progression. *J Exp Clin Cancer Res* 42: 116

Nishio M, Hamada K, Kawahara K, Sasaki M, Noguchi F, Chiba S, Mizuno K, Suzuki SO, Dong Y, Tokuda M *et al* (2012) Cancer susceptibility and embryonic lethality in Mob1a/1b double-mutant mice. *J Clin Invest* 122: 4505-4518

Nowak DE, Tian B, Brasier AR (2005) Two-step cross-linking method for identification of NF-kappaB gene network by chromatin immunoprecipitation. *Biotechniques* 39: 715-725

Omori H, Nishio M, Masuda M, Miyachi Y, Ueda F, Nakano T, Sato K, Mimori K, Taguchi K, Hikasa H *et al* (2020) YAP1 is a potent driver of the onset and progression of oral squamous cell carcinoma. *Sci Adv* 6: eaay3324

Pattschull G, Walz S, Grundl M, Schwab M, Ruhl E, Baluapuri A, Cindric-Vranesic A, Kneitz S, Wolf E, Ade CP *et al* (2019) The Myb-MuvB Complex Is Required for YAP-Dependent Transcription of Mitotic Genes. *Cell Rep* 27: 3533-3546 e3537

Petermann E, Orta ML, Issaeva N, Schultz N, Helleday T (2010) Hydroxyurea-stalled replication forks become progressively inactivated and require two different RAD51-mediated pathways for restart and repair. *Mol Cell* 37: 492-502

Piccolo S, Panciera T, Contessotto P, Cordenonsi M (2023) YAP/TAZ as master regulators in cancer: modulation, function and therapeutic approaches. *Nat Cancer* 4: 9-26

Ponten F, Jirstrom K, Uhlen M (2008) The Human Protein Atlas--a tool for pathology. *J Pathol* 216: 387-393

Proby CM, Purdie KJ, Sexton CJ, Purkis P, Navsaria HA, Stables JN, Leigh IM (2000) Spontaneous keratinocyte cell lines representing early and advanced stages of malignant transformation of the epidermis. *Exp Dermatol* 9: 104-117

Ragni CV, Diguet N, Le Garrec JF, Novotova M, Resende TP, Pop S, Charon N, Guillemot L, Kitasato L, Badouel C *et al* (2017) Amotl1 mediates sequestration of the Hippo effector Yap1 downstream of Fat4 to restrict heart growth. *Nat Commun* 8: 14582

Ratushny V, Gober MD, Hick R, Ridky TW, Seykora JT (2012) From keratinocyte to cancer: the
pathogenesis and modeling of cutaneous squamous cell carcinoma. *J Clin Invest* 122: 464-472
Rheinwald JG (1980) Serial cultivation of normal human epidermal keratinocytes. *Methods Cell*
Biol 21A: 229-254
Rheinwald JG, Beckett MA (1981) Tumorigenic keratinocyte lines requiring anchorage and
fibroblast support cultured from human squamous cell carcinomas. *Cancer Res* 41: 1657-1663
Rheinwald JG, Green H (1975) Serial cultivation of strains of human epidermal keratinocytes: the
formation of keratinizing colonies from single cells. *Cell* 6: 331-343
Saladi SV, Ross K, Karaayvaz M, Tata PR, Mou H, Rajagopal J, Ramaswamy S, Ellisen LW (2017)
ACTL6A Is Co-Amplified with p63 in Squamous Cell Carcinoma to Drive YAP Activation,
Regenerative Proliferation, and Poor Prognosis. *Cancer Cell* 31: 35-49
Sanchez-Danes A, Blanpain C (2018) Deciphering the cells of origin of squamous cell
carcinomas. *Nat Rev Cancer* 18: 549-561
Schlegelmilch K, Mohseni M, Kirak O, Pruszak J, Rodriguez JR, Zhou D, Kreger BT, Vasioukhin V,
Avruch J, Brummelkamp TR *et al* (2011) Yap1 acts downstream of alpha-catenin to control
epidermal proliferation. *Cell* 144: 782-795
Shin E, Kim J (2020) The potential role of YAP in head and neck squamous cell carcinoma. *Exp Mol*
Med 52: 1264-1274
Stojkovic-Filipovic J, Brasanac D, Bosic M, Boricic N, Lekic B (2018) Expression of
Minichromosome Maintenance Proteins in Actinic Keratosis and Squamous Cell Carcinoma.
Appl Immunohistochem Mol Morphol 26: 165-172
Subramanian A, Tamayo P, Mootha VK, Mukherjee S, Ebert BL, Gillette MA, Paulovich A, Pomeroy
SL, Golub TR, Lander ES *et al* (2005) Gene set enrichment analysis: a knowledge-based approach
for interpreting genome-wide expression profiles. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 102: 15545-15550
Szklarczyk D, Gable AL, Lyon D, Junge A, Wyder S, Huerta-Cepas J, Simonovic M, Doncheva NT,
Morris JH, Bork P (2019) STRING v11: protein–protein association networks with increased
coverage, supporting functional discovery in genome-wide experimental datasets. *Nucleic acids*
research 47: D607-D613
Takahashi N, Kim S, Schultz CW, Rajapakse VN, Zhang Y, Redon CE, Fu H, Pongor L, Kumar S,
Pommier Y *et al* (2022) Replication stress defines distinct molecular subtypes across cancers.
Cancer Res Commun 2: 503-517
Todaro GJ, Lazar GK, Green H (1965) The initiation of cell division in a contact-inhibited
mammalian cell line. *J Cell Physiol* 66: 325-333
Topley GI, Okuyama R, Gonzales JG, Conti C, Dotto GP (1999) p21(WAF1/Cip1) functions as a
suppressor of malignant skin tumor formation and a determinant of keratinocyte stem-cell
potential. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 96: 9089-9094
Uhlen M, Fagerberg L, Hallstrom BM, Lindskog C, Oksvold P, Mardinoglu A, Sivertsson A, Kampf
C, Sjostedt E, Asplund A *et al* (2015) Proteomics. Tissue-based map of the human proteome.
Science 347: 1260419
Vincent-Mistiaen Z, Elbediwy A, Vanyai H, Cotton J, Stamp G, Nye E, Spencer-Dene B, Thomas GJ,
Mao J, Thompson B (2018) YAP drives cutaneous squamous cell carcinoma formation and
progression. *Elife* 7
Walko G, Woodhouse S, Pisco AO, Rognoni E, Liakath-Ali K, Lichtenberger BM, Mishra A, Telerman
SB, Viswanathan P, Logtenberg M *et al* (2017) A genome-wide screen identifies YAP/WBP2
interplay conferring growth advantage on human epidermal stem cells. *Nat Commun* 8: 14744
Wang H, Zhao A, Chen L, Zhong X, Liao J, Gao M, Cai M, Lee DH, Li J, Chowdhury D *et al* (2009)
Human RIF1 encodes an anti-apoptotic factor required for DNA repair. *Carcinogenesis* 30: 1314-
1319
Wang J, Harwood CA, Bailey E, Bewicke-Copley F, Anene CA, Thomson J, Qamar MJ, Laban R,
Nourse C, Schoenherr C *et al* (2023) Transcriptomic analysis of cutaneous squamous cell

carcinoma reveals a multigene prognostic signature associated with metastasis. *J Am Acad Dermatol* 89: 1159-1166

Wang P, Bai Y, Song B, Wang Y, Liu D, Lai Y, Bi X, Yuan Z (2011) PP1A-mediated dephosphorylation positively regulates YAP2 activity. *PLoS One* 6: e24288

Weichselbaum R, Dahlberg W, Little JB, Ervin TJ, Miller D, Hellman S, Rheinwald JG (1984) Cellular X-ray repair parameters of early passage squamous cell carcinoma lines derived from patients with known responses to radiotherapy. *Br J Cancer* 49: 595-601

Winer D, Alsaad KO, Bray P, Smith R, Ghazarian D (2006) Early onset cutaneous squamous cell carcinoma associated with neurofibromatosis type 2 (NF2). *Eur J Dermatol* 16: 448-449

Winge MCG, Kellman LN, Guo K, Tang JY, Swetter SM, Aasi SZ, Sarin KY, Chang ALS, Khavari PA (2023) Advances in cutaneous squamous cell carcinoma. *Nat Rev Cancer* 23: 430-449

Xie X, Clausen OP, Boysen M (2002) Prognostic significance of p21WAF1/CIP1 expression in tongue squamous cell carcinomas. *Arch Otolaryngol Head Neck Surg* 128: 897-902

Xu S, Hu E, Cai Y, Xie Z, Luo X, Zhan L, Tang W, Wang Q, Liu B, Wang R *et al* (2024) Using clusterProfiler to characterize multiomics data. *Nat Protoc* 19: 3292-3320

Yamazaki S, Ishii A, Kanoh Y, Oda M, Nishito Y, Masai H (2012) Rif1 regulates the replication timing domains on the human genome. *EMBO J* 31: 3667-3677

Yanofsky VR, Mercer SE, Phelps RG (2011) Histopathological variants of cutaneous squamous cell carcinoma: a review. *J Skin Cancer* 2011: 210813

Yoshizawa-Sugata N, Yamazaki S, Mita-Yoshida K, Ono T, Nishito Y, Masai H (2021) Loss of full-length DNA replication regulator Rif1 in two-cell embryos is associated with zygotic transcriptional activation. *J Biol Chem* 297: 101367

Yuan Y, Park J, Feng A, Awasthi P, Wang Z, Chen Q, Iglesias-Bartolome R (2020) YAP1/TAZ-TEAD transcriptional networks maintain skin homeostasis by regulating cell proliferation and limiting KLF4 activity. *Nat Commun* 11: 1472

Yuan Y, Salinas Parra N, Chen Q, Iglesias-Bartolome R (2021) Oncogenic Hedgehog-smoothened signaling depends on YAP1-TAZ/TEAD transcription to restrain differentiation in basal cell carcinoma. *J Invest Dermatol*

Zanconato F, Battilana G, Forcato M, Filippi L, Azzolin L, Manfrin A, Quaranta E, Di Biagio D, Sigismondo G, Guzzardo V *et al* (2018) Transcriptional addiction in cancer cells is mediated by YAP/TAZ through BRD4. *Nat Med* 24: 1599-1610

Zanconato F, Forcato M, Battilana G, Azzolin L, Quaranta E, Bodega B, Rosato A, Bicciato S, Cordenonsi M, Piccolo S (2015) Genome-wide association between YAP/TAZ/TEAD and AP-1 at enhancers drives oncogenic growth. *Nat Cell Biol* 17: 1218-1227

Zhang N, Bai H, David KK, Dong J, Zheng Y, Cai J, Giovannini M, Liu P, Anders RA, Pan D (2010) The Merlin/NF2 tumor suppressor functions through the YAP oncoprotein to regulate tissue homeostasis in mammals. *Dev Cell* 19: 27-38

Zhang X, Tang JZ, Vergara IA, Zhang Y, Szeto P, Yang L, Mintoff C, Colebatch A, McIntosh L, Mitchell KA *et al* (2019) Somatic Hypermutation of the YAP Oncogene in a Human Cutaneous Melanoma. *Molecular cancer research : MCR* 17: 1435-1449

Zhang Y, Chen F, Chandrashekar DS, Varambally S, Creighton CJ (2022) Proteogenomic characterization of 2002 human cancers reveals pan-cancer molecular subtypes and associated pathways. *Nat Commun* 13: 2669

Zhou Y, Zhang J, Li H, Huang T, Wong CC, Wu F, Wu M, Weng N, Liu L, Cheng ASL *et al* (2020) AMOTL1 enhances YAP1 stability and promotes YAP1-driven gastric oncogenesis. *Oncogene* 39: 4375-4389

Zhu M, Peng R, Liang X, Lan Z, Tang M, Hou P, Song JH, Mak CSL, Park J, Zheng SE *et al* (2021) P4HA2-induced prolyl hydroxylation suppresses YAP1-mediated prostate cancer cell migration, invasion, and metastasis. *Oncogene* 40: 6049-6056

Figure legends

Figure 1. RIME identifies RIF1 as an interactor of chromatin-associated YAP in squamous cell

carcinoma cells.

(**A**) Interaction network of YAP protein interactors identified by RIME in SCC13 cells. Oval

nodes indicate proteins that were previously identified as candidate regulators of SCC13 cell

proliferation and/or survival in a genome wide RNA-interference (RNAi) screen (hit:

'Yes')(Walko *et al.*, 2017), while rectangular shaped nodes indicate proteins that were not

identified in the RNAi screen (hit: 'No'). Red connecting lines (edges) show previously

identified YAP interactions according to the STRING Homo sapiens database, and nodes with

red borders indicate known YAP interactors (manually curated from STRING and literature

search); dashed red lines show manually curated known YAP interactions that were not yet

present in the STRING database. Proteins were manually grouped based on function (gene

names displayed, generated in Cytoscape 3.9.1 using STRING app 1.7.1). (**B**) Gene ontology

terms ('molecular functions' and 'biological process') enriched within the high-confidence

YAP-interacting proteins identified by RIME. (**C**) Confocal fluorescence images (z-projections)

of YAP (green) and RIF1 (red) nuclear localisation in SCC13 cells. DNA was counterstained with

Hoechst dye DAPI (blue). Scale bar, 10 μm. (**D**, **E**) Immunoblotting analysis of YAP and IgG-

control immunoprecipitates and respective inputs from SCC13 (D) whole cell extracts and (E)

and nuclei-enriched fractions using the indicated antibodies. Blots from one representative

experiment out of two (D) and three (E) are shown. (**F**, **G**) Representative confocal microscopy

images (z-projections) and image quantifications of (F) YAP-RIF1 and (G) YAP-TEAD1 in-situ PLA

in control (siNTC/shNTC) and YAP/TAZ knockdown (siYAP&TAZ/shYAP) cells (PLA signal, green;

DNA (DAPI) blue; n >250 cells (YAP-RIF1), n >500 cells (YAP-TEAD1) per condition in n-3

independent experiments). Scale bars, 5 μm. Datapoints show fold decrease in mean nuclear

PLA signal intensity in siYAP&TAZ/shYAP cells compared to siNTC/shNTC cells. Lines show

means from all three experiments, error bars show SD. Exact p-values are shown, one sample

two-tailed *t* test.

1519

Figure 2. YAP/TAZ-mediated oncogenic transcriptional programmes control the balance

between proliferation and differentiation in squamous cell carcinoma.

(**A**,) Significantly enriched or depleted RNAs in siYAP/TAZ SCC13 cells identified by RNA-Seq

analysis using DESeq2. Volcano plot shows statistical significance (-log 10 (p-value)) versus

relative RNA abundance (log2 -fold change) in siYAP/TAZ compared to siNTC cells. The vertical

dotted grey lines identify the log2-fold change cut-off (0.58, 1.5-fold change). The horizontal

grey dotted lines identify the cut-off for statistical significance (p<0.05). (**B**) Heatmaps show

the log2-fold change of selected genes relating to cell cycle control, the epidermal

differentiation complex, and transcriptional regulators of terminal differentiation. Black colour

indicates that the gene is not differentially regulated in the pairwise comparison. (**C**)

Photograph shows lack of medium acidification by doxycycline-induced shYAP SCC13 cells

compared to shNTC cells during a 4-day culture period indicative of decreased proliferation.

(**D**) Immunoblot analysis of SCC13 cells expressing doxycycline-induced shYAP, shTAZ, or

shNTC, using the indicated antibodies. Actin and cyclophilin B (CBP) were used as loading

controls. (**E**) Cell cycle analysis by propidium iodide (PI) labelling of asynchronous populations

of shNTC and shYAP SCC13 cells (grey profiles) and of cells synchronised at the G1/S boundary

by double thymidine block (dTb) at indicated time points. Note that the doxycycline treatment

required for induction of shRNA expression slightly reduces cell proliferation (compare with

Fig. 6A). One out of n=2 independent experiments is shown. (**F**) Colony formation assays were

quantified by measuring the percentage of well area occupied by colonies. Bars show the

means from n=3 independent experiments (performed with 3 technical replicates), individual

data points show the means from each experiment, error bars show SD. Exact p-values are

shown, RM one way ANOVA with Geisser-Greenhouse correction and Dunnett's multiple

comparison test. (**G**) Immunoblot analysis of shNTC, shYAP, and shTAZ SCC13 cells using the

indicated antibodies. Tubulin was used as loading control.

1545

Figure 3. YAP modulates RIF1 transcription and promotes RIF1 protein stability.

(**A**,) Significantly enriched or depleted RNAs in siRIF1 SCC13 cells identified by RNA-Seq

analysis using DESeq2. Volcano plot shows statistical significance (-log 10 (p-value)) versus

relative RNA abundance (log2 -fold change) in siRIF1 compared to siNTC cells. The vertical

dotted grey lines identify the log2-fold change cut-off (0.58, 1.5-fold change). The horizontal

grey dotted lines identify the cut-off for statistical significance (p<0.05). (**B**) Scatter plot shows

correlations between the 710 genes that were found to be differentially expressed in both

siYAP/TAZ and siRIF1 SCC13 cell datasets. (**C**) qRT-PCR analysis of *RIF1* mRNA expression in

SCC13 cells transfected with an siRNA SMARTpool targeting YAP/TAZ (siY/T) or siNTC. Data

shown are from n=3 independent experiments performed with three technical replicates.

Individual data points represent the mean fold change in mRNA abundance (normalized to

GAPDH) compared to siNTC in each experiment. Bars represent the means from all

experiments, error bars represent SD. Exact p-values are shown, paired *t* test. (**D**, **E**)

Immunoblot analysis of SCC13 cells transfected with (D) an siRNA SMARTpool targeting

YAP/TAZ (siY/T) or an siNTC SMARTpool or (E) expressing different doxycycline-induced shYAP,

shTAZ, or shNTC, using the indicated antibodies. Tubulin or cyclophilin B (CBP) were used as

loading controls. In (D) numbers below lanes represent protein ratios relative to an arbitrary

level of 1.0 set for siNTC. (**F**) Log2-fold change in *YAP1* and *RIF1* mRNA abundances (based on

RNA-seq analysis performed in (Yuan *et al.*, 2020)) in N/TERT-2G immortalised NHKs transfected with YAP/TAZ-targeting siRNAs (siY/T) compared N/TERT-2G cells transfected with siNTC. (**G**) Correlation analysis between the single sample GSEA scores for the MSigDB GO:Hippo_Signalling gene set and *RIF1* mRNA expression levels (batch corrected, 24Q2 release) in a panel of 64 HNSCC cell lines. Spearman correlation coefficient and statistical significance are indicated. (**H**) Immunoblot analysis of RIF1 protein levels in SCC13 cells transfected with siRNA SMARTpools targeting TEAD1, TEAD3, TEAD4, or YAP/TAZ (siY/T), or an siNTC SMARTpool. Cyclophilin B (CBP) was used as loading control. Lower panel, quantification of RIF1 protein expression. Individual data points show fold change in RIF1 protein levels (normalised to tubulin) in siTEAD1, siTEAD3, siTEAD4, siTEAD1/3/4, and siY/T compared to siNTC in n=3 different experiments, bars show the mean, error bars show SD. (**I**) Immunoblot analysis, using the indicated antibodies, of SCC13 cells expressing a doxycycline-induced shYAP or a shNTC, treated for the indicated times with cycloheximide (CHX, 100 µg/ml). Cyclophilin B (CBP) was used as loading control.

Figure 4. Increased association of YAP with RIF1 in response to replication stress.

(**A**) Immunoblot analysis of chromatin fractions from SCC13 cells expressing a doxycycline-induced shYAP or shNTC, using the indicated antibodies. Cells were synchronised at the G1/S boundary by double thymidine block (dTB) and released into the S phase. Samples were taken at the indicated timepoints. Histone H3 (HH3) was used as loading control. Blots from one representative experiment out of two are shown. (**B**, **C**) Representative confocal microscopy images of (B) z-projection and (C); orthogonal projection of YAP-RIF1 in-situ PLA in SCC13 cells (PLA signal, green; DNA (DAPI) blue). In (B) cells were labelled with a 1-hour EdU pulse prior to fixation (EdU signal, red). Arrows in (C) indicate cells completing mitosis. Scale bars, 5 µm.

(**D**) Immunoblot analysis of SCC13 control cells and cells exposed to 4 mM hydroxyurea (HU) for 24 hours, using the indicated antibodies. Washout, medium removal and replacement with fresh medium. Tubulin and cyclophilin B (CBP) were used as loading controls. (**E**, **F**) Image quantifications of (E) YAP-RIF1 and (F) YAP-γH2AX in-situ PLA in SCC13 cells treated with 4 mM HU for the indicated times. >200 cells were measured per experimental condition in n=3 independent experiments. Superplots show nuclear PLA signal intensity per cell (grey datapoints), mean nuclear PLA signal intensity of the respective cell populations in each of n=3 experiments (black datapoints), and mean nuclear PLA signal intensity from all three experiments (lines). Error bars show SD from all three experiments. Exact p-values are shown. (E) Brown-Forsythe and Welsh ANOVA test with Dunett's multiple comparison test, (F) unpaired *t* test.

Figure 5. Increased expression of RIF1 in squamous cell carcinoma.

(**A**) Immunoblot analysis of normal human epidermal keratinocytes (NHKs), keratinocytes isolated from a pre-malignant dysplastic skin lesion (PM1), various cell lines isolated from primary cutaneous SCCs (cSCC; SCC13, SCC-NR, MET1), a recurrent cSCC (MET2), and a lymph node metastasis (MET4), using the indicated antibodies. Actin was used as loading control. (**B**, **C**) Quantification (B) and representative images (C) of RIF1 expression in healthy adult human skin (HS), nodular (Nod) and (Inf) infiltrative basal cell carcinoma (BCC), and well-differentiated (WD) and poorly differentiated (PD) cSCC. Tissue sections were immunolabelled with antibodies against RIF1 (green), and keratin 14 (Krt14, blue) to identify normal and neoplastic epidermal keratinocytes. White dotted line demarcates dermal–epidermal boundary in HS. Scale bar, 50 μm. Superplots in (B) show percentage of RIF1-positive keratinocytes in different areas of the same tumour (coloured symbols), mean percentage of RIF1-positive keratinocytes

in 3–5 different patient samples (black datapoints), and mean percentage of RIF1-positive

keratinocytes in each sample group (lines). Error bars show SD from each sample group.

*p < 0.05, Brown-Forsythe and Welsh ANOVA test with Dunett's multiple comparison test. (**D**,

E) RIF1 protein expression in HNSCC samples from the Clinical Proteomic Tumour Analysis

Consortium (CPTAC), stratified according to (D) tumour stage, or (E) presence of alterations

in the Hippo pathway or other signalling pathways. Jitter plots (overlayed onto box plots) show

Z-values (standard deviations from the median across samples for the given sample type) from

individual samples. Box plots indicate the median (middle line), 25th percentile (bottom line),

75th percentile (top line), and minimum and maximum (whiskers). Log2 spectral count ratio

values from CPTAC were first normalized within each sample profile, then normalized across

samples. Graphs were downloaded from the UALCAN database

(https://ualcan.path.uab.edu/). (D) p < 0.05 for all pairwise comparisons. In (E) exact p-values

are shown.

1625

Figure 6. Depletion of RIF1 in squamous cell carcinoma cells affect DNA replication dynamics.

(**A**) Cell cycle analysis by PI labelling of asynchronous populations of shNTC and shRIF1 (shRIF1-

017, see (B)) SCC13 cells (grey profiles) and of cells synchronised at the G1/S boundary by

double thymidine block (dTb) and released into S-phase (T=hours post thymidine release,

coloured profiles). One of n=2 experiments is shown. (**B**, **C**) Immunoblot analysis of (B) cell

extracts and (C) chromatin fractions from shNTC and shRIF1 SCC13 cells, using the indicated

antibodies. In (C) cells were synchronised at the G1/S boundary by double thymidine block

(dTB) and released into the S phase. Samples were taken at the indicated timepoints. Note

that DDK-induced phosphorylation of MCM4 results in a band shift. Cyclophilin B (CPB),

tubulin, and histone H3 (HH3) were used as loading controls. shRIF1-017 was used in

experiments shown in (A, C).

1637

Figure 7. RIF1 protects against endogenous and exogenous replication stress.

(**A**) Immunoblott analysis of cell extracts from SCC13 cells expressing shNTC or different

shRIF1, using the indicated antibodies. Cyclophilin B (CPB), and tubulin were used as loading

controls. Cells treated for 24 hours with 4 mM HU served as positive controls for severe

replication stress. The position of the RPA32 band is indicated with an arrow. (**B**)

Representative cell cycle profile (PI labelling following a 30-minute EdU pulse) of

unsynchronised shNTC and shRIF1 SCC13 cells. Gates used for quantification and percentages

of cells in different cell cycle phases are indicated. One out of n=4 independent experiments

is shown. (**C**) Immunoblot analysis of cell extracts from SCC13 cells expressing shNTC or

different shRIF1, using the indicated antibodies. Tubulin was used as loading control. (**D**)

Representative images of colony formation efficiency of shNTC and shRIF1 SCC13 cells. Cells

in triplicate wells were stained with crystal violet. Colony formation assays were quantified by

measuring the percentage of well area occupied by colonies. Bars show the means from n=3

independent experiments (performed with 3 technical replicates), individual data points show

the means from each experiment, error bars show SD. Exact p-values are shown, RM one way

ANOVA with Geisser-Greenhouse correction and Dunnett's multiple comparison test. (**E, F**)

Synergism of YAP depletion (shYAP) and HU treatment on clonal colony growth was quantified

by measuring the percentage of well area occupied by colonies after 10 days in culture. In (F)

values have been normalized to controls (no HU treatment) for shYAP and shNTC. Bars show

the means from n=3 independent experiments (performed with 3 technical replicates),

individual data points show the means from each experiment, error bars show SD. p-values

are shown for multiple comparisons, RM two-way ANOVA with Geisser-Greenhouse correction (matched values both stacked and spread across rows) and Šidak's multiple comparison test. $*p<0.05$, $**p<0.01$, $***p<0.001$. Sources of variation in (E): HU concentration, $p=0.04$; shRNA, $p=0.002$; HU concentration x shRNA, $p<0.001$. Sources of variation in (F): HU concentration, $p=0.008$; shRNA, $p=0.02$; HU concentration x shRNA, $p=0.007$.

Supplementary Figure 1. Validation of YAP antibody and cell culture conditions for RIME.

(**A**) Immunoblot analysis of cell extracts from SCC13 cells expressing a non-targeting control shRNA (shNTC), two different shRNAs targeting YAP (shYAP-1, shYAP-2), or two different shRNAs targeting TAZ (shTAZ-1, shTAZ-2) using the indicated antibodies. Note that the rabbit anti-human YAP antibody used for RIME (Y1200-01D, US Biologicals) did not recognize TAZ. Tubulin was used as loading control. (**B**) Representative wide-field microscopy images of YAP/TAZ (monoclonal anti-YAP/TAZ antibody, clone 63.7, Santa Cruz) nuclear localisation in NHK and SCC13 cells prior to RIME experiments. F-actin was counterstained with phalloidin. Scale bar, 100 μm. (**C**) Coverage of bait protein YAP across both experiments and all technical replicates. Regions shown in blue represent peptides detected by mass spectrometry. Km5 = NHK cells, strain km, passage 5.

Supplementary Figure 2. RIME identifies RIF1 as an interactor of chromatin-associated YAP in normal human keratinocytes.

(**A**) Interaction network of YAP protein interactors identified by RIME in NHKs. Red connecting lines (edges) show previously identified YAP interactions according to the STRING Homo sapiens database, and nodes with red borders indicate known YAP interactors (manually

1683 curated from STRING and literature search); dashed red lines show manually curated known

1684 YAP interactions that were not yet present in the STRING database. Proteins were manually

1685 grouped based on function (gene names displayed, generated in Cytoscape 3.9.1 using STRING

1686 app 1.7.1). (**B**) Gene ontology terms ('molecular functions' and 'biological process') enriched

1687 within the high-confidence YAP-interacting proteins identified by RIME in NHKs. (**C**) Mean

1688 spectral counts (total number of identified peptide spectra per protein) for YAP and RIF1 in

1689 the YAP-RIME from the two independently performed experiments in SCC13 and NHK cells.

1690 (**D**) Immunoblot analysis of chromatin fractions from NHK and SCC13 cells, using the indicated

1691 antibodies. Similar amounts of total chromatin-associated proteins were loaded on SDS-PAGE,

1692 as validated by Coomassie staining.

1693

1694 ***Supplementary Figure 3. Validation of YAP/TAZ knockdown efficiency and antibody***

1695 ***specificity for in-situ PLA experiments, and confirmation of YAP-RIF1 interaction in HARA***

1696 ***lung squamous cell carcinoma cells.***

1697 (**A**) Immunoblot analysis of YAP (rabbit monoclonal anti-YAP antibody; D8H1X, Cell Signalling))

1698 and IgG-control immunoprecipitates and respective inputs from SCC13 cell extracts using the

1699 indicated antibodies. (**B**) Immunoblot analysis of lysates from cells used in in-situ PLA

1700 experiments shown in Fig. 1F and 1G. To achieve the strongest YAP/TAZ depletion possible,

1701 SCC13 cells expressing inducible shNTC or shYAP were treated with doxycycline for 72 hours

1702 and were in parallel also transfected with non-targeting control or YAP/TAZ-targeting siRNA

1703 SMARTpools, respectively. Tubulin was used as loading control. (**C**, **D**) Representative confocal

1704 microscopy images (z-projections) of in-situ PLA (PLA signal, green; DNA (DAPI)) blue) in cells

1705 labelled with (C) no primary antibodies or (D) only one of the two primary antibodies. Scale

1706 bars, 5 µm. (**E**) Representative confocal microscopy images (z-projections) of YAP-RIF1 in-situ

PLA (PLA signal, green; DNA (DAPI)) blue in miotic cells. Scale bars, 5 μm. (**F**) Confocal

fluorescence image (z-projection) of YAP (green) and RIF1 (red) nuclear localisation in HARA

cells. DNA was counterstained with Hoechst dye (DAPI, blue). Scale bar, 10 μm. (**G**)

Immunoblot analysis of YAP and IgG-control immunoprecipitates and respective inputs from

HARA cell nuclei-enriched fractions (treated with Benzonase® nuclease) using the indicated

antibodies. (**H**) Agarose gel electrophoresis of DNA extracts from Benzonase®-treated and

untreated HARA cells shows efficient DNA degradation upon Benzonase® treatment. Left lane:

Thermo Scientific™ GeneRuler 1 kb Plus DNA Ladder (Fisher, UK).

1715

Supplementary Figure 4. Gene set enrichment analysis in differentially expressed genes

upon YAP/TAZ knockdown in SCC13 cells.

(**A**, **B**) Bubble plots show results of gene set enrichment analysis (GSEA) on RNA-seq data from

siYAP/TAZ SCC13 cells. The top 10 downregulated (suppressed) or upregulated (activated)

pathways in siYAP/TAZ SCC13 cells are shown. (**C**) Heatmaps show the log2-fold change of

selected genes representing high confidence YAP/TAZ-TEAD target genes, YAP-MMB target

genes, and genes directly involved in DNA replication, in the indicated pairwise comparisons.

Black colour indicates that the gene is not differentially regulated in that pairwise comparison.

(**D**) GSEA showing enrichment of epidermal late differentiation (upper panel) and progenitor

cell (lower panel) signatures (Lopez-Pajares *et al.*, 2015) among the differentially expressed

genes in siYAP/TAZ (siY/T) versus siNTC SCC13 cells.

1727

1728 *Supplementary Figure 5. Correlation analysis of YAP/TAZ target genes, replication stress-*

1729 *associated genes, and RIF1 in HNSCC cell lines.*

(**A**–**C**) Correlation heatmaps of the indicated genes (mean mRNA expression) distinguished by (A, C) 64 HNSCC or (B) 5 cSCC cell lines. Graphs were exported from the DepMap portal. (**D**–**F**) Correlation analysis between the expression of replication stress-associated genes and (D) YAP/TAZ target genes or (E) *RIF1* mRNA expression levels (expression public 24Q2 release), and (F) correlation of YAP/TAZ target genes and *RIF1* mRNA expression levels in a panel of 64 HNSCC cell lines. Spearman correlation coefficient and statistical significance are indicated. Data were accessed using the DepMap portal (https://depmap.org/portal/).

Supplementary Figure 6. Cell cycle withdrawal and terminal differentiation commitment of SCC cells upon conditional YAP depletion are reversible.

Phase contrast images show morphological appearance of shNTC and shYAP SCC13 cells growing in the presence of doxycycline (dox), and at the indicated timepoint after doxycycline withdrawal. Note reduced density, impaired colony formation, and elongated and flattened shape (indicative of terminal differentiation (Negri *et al*, 2019)) of shYAP cells in the presence of doxycycline, and rapid recovery of normal cell morphology and growth behaviour upon doxycycline withdrawal leading to re-expression of YAP.

Supplementary Figure 7. Involvement of YAP/TAZ target genes in human cSCC progression.

Boxplots show the distribution of Gene Set Variation Analysis (GSVA) scores for differentially expressed genes (DEGs) that were (**A**) downregulated or (**B**) upregulated in siYAP/TAZ SCC13 cells across different cSCC patient samples (Wang *et al.*, 2023). Norm_no_met / tum_no_met: perilesional normal skin and primary cSCC tissue from patients with no metastasis over 3 years; norm_with_met / tum_with_met: perilesional normal skin and primary cSCC tissue from patients with metastasis during 3 years follow-up; met: tissue from metastasis. Pairwise

1754 comparisons between sample groups were conducted using a *t* test. The p-values from these

1755 comparisons are indicated above the boxplots with brackets linking the compared groups. The

1756 significance levels are denoted as follows: *: p <= 0.05; **: p <= 0.01; ***: p <= 0.001; ****: p

1757 <= 0.0001.

1758

1759 ***Supplementary Figure 8. Gene set enrichment analysis in differentially expressed genes***

1760 ***upon RIF1 knockdown in SCC13 cells.***

1761 (**A–C**) Bubble plots show results of gene set enrichment analysis (GSEA) on RNA-seq data from

1762 siRIF1 SCC13 cells. The top 10 downregulated (suppressed) or upregulated (activated)

1763 pathways in siRIF1 SCC13 cells are shown.

1764

Supplementary Figure 9. RIF1 expression in different types of squamous cancers.

(**A–C**) Representative RIF1 immunohistochemistry (anti-RIF1 rabbit polyclonal antibody

HPA036887, Atlas Antibodies) of normal tissue and squamous cell carcinoma tissue from (A)

skin, (B) oral cavity and (C) cervix, exported from the Human Protein Atlas database. NS,

normal skin; cSCC-IS, cutaneous squamous cell carcinoma in-situ; WD cSCC, well differentiated

cSCC; PD cSCC, poorly differentiated cSCC; NOM, normal oral mucosa; WD OSCC, well

differentiated oral SCC; PD, poorly differentiated oral SCC; NC, normal cervix; CeSCC, cervical

SCC. (**D**) RIF1 protein expression across different cancers, with tumour (red) and normal (blue)

samples, from the Clinical Proteomic Tumour Analysis Consortium (CPTAC). Box plots indicate

median Z-values (middle line), 25th percentile (bottom line), 75th percentile (top line), and

minimum and maximum (whiskers). Log2 spectral count ratio values from CPTAC were first

normalized within each sample profile, then normalized across samples. Graphs were

downloaded from the UALCAN database (https://ualcan.path.uab.edu/). BRCA, breast cancer

(18 normal and 125 tumour samples); COAD, colon adenocarcinoma (100 normal and 97

tumour samples); OV, ovarian serous cystadenocarcinoma (25 normal and 100 tumour

samples); KIRC, kidney renal clear cell carcinoma (84 normal and 110 tumour samples); UCEC,

uterine corpus endometrial carcinoma (31 normal and 100 tumour samples); LUAD, lung

adenocarcinoma (111 normal and 111 tumour samples); PAAD, pancreatic adenocarcinoma

(74 normal and 137 tumour samples); HNSCC, head and neck squamous cell carcinoma (71

normal and 108 tumour samples); GBM, glioblastoma multiforme (10 normal and 99 tumour

samples); LIHC, liver hepatocellular carcinoma (165 normal and 165 tumour samples). (**E**–**G**)

RIF1 protein expression in (E) lung SCC, (F) GMB, and (G) OV samples from the Clinical

Proteomic Tumour Analysis Consortium (CPTAC), stratified according to presence of

alterations in the Hippo pathway or other signalling pathways. Jitter plots (overlayed onto box

plots) show Z-values (standard deviations from the median across samples for the given

sample type) from individual samples. Box plots indicate the median (middle line), 25th

percentile (bottom line), 75th percentile (top line), and minimum and maximum (whiskers).

Log2 spectral count ratio values from CPTAC were first normalized within each sample profile,

then normalized across samples. Graphs were downloaded from the UALCAN database

(https://ualcan.path.uab.edu/). Exact p-values are shown.

1795

Figure 2_Bojko et al.

Figure 3_Bojko et al.

Figure 4_Bojko et al.

A

Mw [kDa]   NHK SCC13 SCC-NR PM1 MET1 MET2 MET4

250 —   RIF1

70 —   pS127-YAP

70 —   YAP

15 —   γH2Ax

50 —   Actin

B

RIF1 expression in keratinocyte cancers

% RIF1-positive cells

HS   Nod BCC   INF BCC   WD cSCC   PD cSCC

C

HS   Nodular BCC   Infiltrative BCC   WD cSCC   PD cSCC

RIF1

RIF1/DAPI

D

RIF1 expression in HNSCC

Z value

Normal (n=71)   Grade 1 (n=20)   Grade 2 (n=77)   Grade 3 (n=11)

RIF1

E

Z value

p<1.6E-10

p<1.6E-18

p<6.0E-07

Normal (n=71)   Hippo altered (n=48)   Other alterations (n=60)

RIF1

Figure 5_Bojko et al.

Figure 6_Bojko et al.

Figure 7_Bojko et al.

Figure S3_Bojko et al.

Figure S4_Bojko et al.

Figure S5_Bojko et al.

A

Continuous growth with Dox   120h post-dox withdrawal   196h post-dox withdrawal

shNTC

shYAP-1

Figure S7_Bojko et al.

A

B

C

Figure S8_Bojko et al.

Figure S9_Bojko et al.