The bromodomain inhibitor JQ1 is a molecular glue targeting centromeres.

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Centromeres are the position on each chromosome that orchestrates the accurate partitioning of the genome during cell division. Centromere-dependent cell-cycle checkpoints are maintained by cancer cells to prevent catastrophic chromosome segregation defects in dividing cells[1,2], making centromeric chromatin a valuable target for anti-cancer therapeutics. However, no compounds have been identified that specifically target centromeric chromatin using standard drug discovery approaches. Here we develop a big-data approach to identify the protein composition of repetitive DNA loci, including centromeres, and screen candidate small molecules that act on centromeric chromatin composition. We discover that the BET bromodomain protein BRD4 localises to centromeres and regulates centromeric cohesion. We further show that the bromodomain inhibitor JQ1 affects centromeric BRD4 by stabilising a direct interaction between BRD4 and Centromere Protein B (CENP-B), acting as a molecular-glue that promotes centromere cohesion in a CENP-B-dependent manner. Strikingly, CENP-B transitions from a non-essential protein in JQ1-sensitive cells to the most significant determinant of cell-proliferation in JQ1-resistant cells. Our observations demonstrate a completely overlooked role for BRD4 and JQ1 in directly targeting the centromere, with important consequences for JQ1-derivatives currently entering clinical use[3].

Human centromeres have long been considered an enigmatic and challenging region of the

genome to study using sequencing-based approaches, due to the highly repetitive nature of their

DNA (Fig. 1a)[4]. The function of centromeric loci is to ensure the accurate partitioning of the

genome during cell-division by assembling the multi-subunit kinetochore complex, which

attaches chromosomes to the spindle microtubules[5,6]. Defects in centromere structure and

function are key drivers of aneuploidy, tumour heterogeneity and cancer progression[7,8]. Such

diverse roles indicate that centromeric proteins are an attractive target for anti-cancer

therapeutics, but there are no known inhibitors that specifically target components of

centromeric chromatin. A major barrier to progress in human centromere biology has been the

lack of studies mapping chromatin proteins to highly-repetitive DNA regions[9], and for the

most-part our understanding of centromeric chromatin remains in the pre-genomic era.

In contrast to centromeres, our understanding of chromatin within unique-sequence regions has

been revolutionised thanks to the broad application of genome-wide chromatin mapping

approaches, which have significantly improved our understanding of the molecular

mechanisms of transcription factors[10], regulatory elements[11], 3D genome organisation[12],

chromatin-associated disease[13,14] and specific classes of small-molecule inhibitors targeting

chromatin components[13]. In these published studies centromeric loci were excluded from the

analysis, either through the use of a genome-build in which centromeric repeats are absent or

because standard pipelines exclude repetitive DNA[4], but the raw experimental data containing

this information is publicly accessible through the Sequence Read Archive (SRA)[15]. We took

advantage of this vast resource and developed an approach called Reanalysis of Every Dataset

at Positions Of INTerest (REDPOINT) that utilised published chromatin-mapping datasets to

identify the protein composition of any locus. The objective of our study was to identify

inhibitors that target the protein composition of centromeres. To achieve this, we first analysed

the proteins present at centromeric chromatin and then conducted a focused investigation on a

subset of REDPOINT data that included small-molecule treatments.

Our analysis included 40,733 chromatin immunoprecipitation sequencing (ChIP-seq)

experiments that identified the genomic distribution of more than 1200 human chromatin

proteins and post-translational modifications (Fig. 1b). The workflow included the following

steps: 1) download 100,000 reads per ChIP-seq sample from the SRA, 2) align to a human

genome build which includes information for repetitive loci[4], 3) retain repetitive regions and

identify the percentage of reads aligned to the centromere compared to the whole genome, 4)

repeat for each dataset, 5) annotate and analyse the data. We observe a striking enrichment of

proteins previously identified at the centromere-core which is the site of kinetochore formation

and microtubule attachment during chromosome segregation[16] (CENP-A, CENP-B, CENP-C,

CENP-T), pericentromeric heterochromatin which supports centromere-core function[17]

(HP1α, HP1β, DNMT1, DNMT3A, ATRX) and other proteins with centromeric roles

(LRWD1, TRF2, DDX11, TOP2α, HIRA, RAC3, SMAD3, BCL6) (Fig. 1a, c). We also

identified 19 high confidence new centromere protein candidates, which met one or both of the

following criteria: 1) more than two-fold enriched compared to corresponding control, 2) in the

top 500 samples by percent of reads aligned to the centromere. Within the new centromere

candidates was BRD4, a key protein in the organization of super-enhancers, transcription

elongation and interphase genome organization[18–20].

By analysing a particular subset of the REDPOINT data that contained ChIP-seq samples

acquired post-exposure to diverse small-molecule inhibitors, and focusing specifically on 50

protein-inhibitor pairs that were examined in multiple studies, we identified that BRD4-JQ1 is

the sole protein-inhibitor pairing that exhibits a highly significant alteration in protein

abundance at the centromeric regions across all studies that were analysed (Fig. 1d). JQ1 is a

small-molecule BET bromodomain inhibitor that prevents BRD4 from binding its acetyl-

chromatin substrate[21], so the canonical mechanism-of-action predicts that JQ1 treatment

decreases BRD4 levels at its chromatin binding sites. Unexpectedly, we observe that JQ1

treatment consistently increases BRD4 occupancy at centromeres.

The discovery of the presence and JQ1-induced increase of BRD4 at centromeres is

remarkable. Typically, BRD4 is considered as a regulator of genes and enhancers[19], but

centromeric regions lack these elements and are mostly transcriptionally inactive[9,22]. Recent

studies have revealed that BRD4 also plays a role in the organisation of the interphase genome

by promoting cohesin loading at TAD boundaries, indicating a role in contemporary theories

of genome organisation through chromatin loop extrusion[12,18,23]. However, a link between

BRD4 and centromeric cohesion has not previously been proposed, which led us to investigate

the role of BRD4 and the inhibitor JQ1 at centromeres.

BRD4 regulates centromere cohesion

To visualise the relationship between BRD4 and centromeres in greater detail we mapped BRD4 ChIP-seq reads from diverse cell types onto the telomere-to-telomere (T2T) build of chromosome 8[24]. BRD4 is enriched at many sites, including at centromeric loci defined by the co-localisation with CENP-A and HP1 (Fig. 2a). Immunofluorescence in HeLa cells with antibodies targeting BRD4 and CENP-A revealed a clear co-localisation of these proteins as puncta within the DAPI dense heterochromatin at the periphery of nucleoli (Fig. 2b), indicating that BRD4 is a centromere-core protein not enriched in adjacent pericentromeric heterochromatin.

Centromeres have unique chromatin properties that differ markedly from gene-rich regions, including low levels of histone acetylation and transcription[22,25,26], indicating a non-canonical role for BRD4 at centromeric chromatin. We first confirmed that centromeric BRD4 enrichment does not correspond to an enrichment in H3K27ac or RNA polymerase II (Fig. 2a, c). Next we completely depleted BRD4 from cells using MZ1, a proteolysis-targeted chimera (PROTAC) small-molecule that selectively degrades BRD4 when compared to BET bromodomains paralogs BRD2 and BRD3[27]. Unlike the bromodomain inhibitors PFI1 and the racemic mixture of (±)-JQ1 (referred to as JQ1), MZ1 treatment leads to the complete loss of BRD4 protein from the cell (Fig. 2d), including at the centromere core (Fig. 2e, f). We then quantified the effect of BRD4 degradation on centromere cohesion defects in metaphase chromosomes prepared from HEK293T and Hela cells, using a scale ranging from partial centromere defect to complete cohesion failure (Fig. 2g). This revealed that MZ1 treatment led to a highly significant increase in centromere cohesion defects (Fig. 2h). These results identify a previously uncharacterised role for BRD4 in the organisation of centromere cohesion and demonstrate that PROTAC inhibitors targeting BRD4 strongly disrupt metaphase chromosome architecture in different cell types (Fig. 2i).

JQ1 promotes BRD4 at centromeres

To understand why JQ1 promotes BRD4 localisation to centromeres (Fig. 1d) we investigated in more detail data from 15 different studies with 26 different cell-lines (Fig. 3a, b). In all studies and in 25 of 26 cell-lines BRD4 increased at the centromere following JQ1, with the JQ1-resistant cell-line SUM149R being the only exception. This recruitment was specific to BRD4 and to centromeres, since other bromodomain proteins did not show the same level of

centromere accumulation (Extended Data Fig. 1a) and BRD4 was not enriched at abundant

LINE2 repetitive DNA elements following JQ1 treatment (Extended Data Fig. 1a, b). To

confirm this specificity, we plotted the fold-change in BRD4 localisation following JQ1

treatment on a T2T genome and observed that the centromere is the principle locus gaining

BRD4 association in different cell lines (Fig. 3c). Importantly, JQ1 treatment did not

significantly increase H3K27ac, RNA polymerase II or centromeric transcription ruling out a

JQ1-dependent switch to the canonical functions of acetylation-dependent transcriptional

control at centromeres (Fig. 3c, d, Extended Data Fig. 1a, c).

To consider non-canonical effects of JQ1 treatment we again quantified centromere cohesion

defects in metaphase chromosomes prepared from HEK293T and Hela cells. In contrast to

PROTAC-based degradation, JQ1 treatment identified fewer centromere cohesion defects (Fig.

3e). HEK293T cells show a significant transition towards milder defects ('mixed' phenotype).

More strikingly, the proportion of HeLa cells with chromosome defects following JQ1

treatment was comparable to DMSO (Fig. 2h, 3e), suggesting the possibility that BRD4

recruitment stabilises centromeric chromatid cohesion (Fig. 3f).

JQ1 stabilises an interaction between BRD4 and CENP-B

To further characterise the effect of JQ1 treatment on BRD4 at centromeres we performed

immunofluorescence and observed no large-scale reorientation of BRD4 towards centromeric

loci (Extended Data Fig. 2a, b), reflecting the subtle yet significant change in BRD4 observed

by REDPOINT (Fig. 3b) and highlighting the higher sensitivity of our approach to determine

novel chromatin interactions than can be achieved by microscopy-based screens.

To investigate at the molecular scale how BRD4 is further recruited to and maintained at the

centromere upon JQ1 treatment we analysed published co-IP mass spectrometry (coIP-MS)

data identifying the proteins which specifically interact with BRD4 following JQ1

treatment[28,29]. JQ1 treatment consistently induced a strong, and previously overlooked,

association between BRD4 and key centromere proteins (Fig. 4a, Extended Data Fig. 2c, d).

Across all four cell-types assayed, and in as little as 10 minutes following JQ1 addition, a new

top interaction between BRD4 and the constitutive centromere protein CENP-B formed (Fig.

4a, Extended Data Fig. 2c, d). Co-IP MS for other BET proteins show a low-affinity (BRD3)

or no (BRD2) interaction with CENP-B following JQ1 (Extended Data Fig 2e). Members of

the MIS18 complex (MIS18A, MIS18B and MIS18BP1), which binds the centromere for a few

minutes each anaphase to licence the deposition of CENP-A[30], were also highly enriched in

coIP-MS experiments but considered unlikely to be the major factor recruiting BRD4 to the

centromere due to the transient nature of this interaction.

CENP-B is the only well characterised centromere-specific DNA binding protein, and binds

throughout the cell-cycle to a 17 base-pair CENP-B box DNA sequence found on every

centromere except the Y-chromosome[31]. We observe a strong positive correlation between the

level of CENP-B binding at a centromere and the recruitment of BRD4 following JQ1

treatment (Extended Data Fig. 3a). In fact, JQ1 treatment recruits BRD4 to all centromeres

except the Y chromosome (4 out of 5 male cell-lines investigated) (Fig. 4b, Extended Data Fig.

3b, c). No correlation was found between CENP-B and RNA polymerase II following JQ1

treatment, or BRD4 following degradation with the PROTAC inhibitor dBET6 (Extended Data

Fig. 3d). Together, these observations strongly support CENP-B as the key protein mediating

the JQ1-dependent recruitment of BRD4 to centromeres.

We independently confirmed a strong and specific JQ1-dependent interaction between BRD4

and CENP-B in HeLa and HEK293T cells by co-IP western blot (Fig. 4c, Extended Data Fig.

4a, b), which was not observed in co-IP following treatment with the negative enantiomer (−)-

JQ1[32] or the BET bromodomain inhibitor PFI1[33] which has a different chemical structure

(Extended Data Fig. 4c).

To identify whether the JQ1-dependent interplay between BRD4 and CENP-B is direct, we

reconstituted the interaction *in vitro* using full-length CENP-B and the bromodomains of BRD4

(BRD4[bromo]) (Fig. 4d). We observed that CENP-B protein was strongly associated with the

CENP-B box DNA sequence when compared to a shuffled version of the same sequence (Fig.

4 e, f). The addition of (+)-JQ1 or (−)-JQ1 enantiomer to CENP-B alone did not change the

level of interaction with the CENP-B box DNA sequence, indicating that these small-molecules

have no effect on CENP-B-DNA interactions alone. BRD4[bromo] was enriched in the presence

of CENP-B bound CENP-B box DNA compared to shuffled DNA, even with the (−)-JQ1

enantiomer, indicating that a low-affinity complex between BRD4 and CENP-B occurs

independently of the BRD4-JQ1 association *in vitro*. However, with the addition of the (+)-

JQ1 enantiomer, BRD4[bromo] and CENP-B became significantly more enriched, indicating that

(+)-JQ1 stabilises the BRD4-JQ1-CENP-B-DNA complex *in vitro*. The stabilisation of a low-

affinity interaction is one of the defining properties of a rare class of inhibitors called

molecular-glues, which enable gain-of-function interactions that can target previously

undruggable pathways[34,35], and our evidence suggests that (+)-JQ1 is the first centromere-
targeting small-molecule via this mechanism-of-action.

BRD4-JQ1-CENP-B stabilises centromere cohesion

If the BRD4-JQ1-CENP-B complex stabilises the centromere cohesion role of BRD4,
removing CENP-B and treating cells with JQ1 should give centromere cohesion defects
comparable to MZ1 treatment (Fig. 4g). To test this hypothesis, we generated HEK293T and
HeLa cells lacking CENP-B through a CRISPR knock-out (CENP-B KO) approach (Fig. 4h,
Extended Data Fig. 5a). In HEK293T CENP-B KO cells we observed a marginal enhancement
of the already apparent cohesion defect following JQ1 treatment (Extended Data Fig. 5b).
However, in HeLa CENP-B KO cells we observed a massive increase in centromere cohesion
defects compared to control cells, comparable to the degradation of BRD4 and consistent with
our proposed model (Fig. 4i). These observations indicate that JQ1 has a cell-type variable role
in targeting centromere structure and function, through a novel complex between CENP-B and
BRD4.

Interestingly, among the 26 different cell lines analysed in this study, only the JQ1-resistant
cell-line SUM149R[28,36] did not show an increase in centromere localised BRD4 following JQ1
treatment (Fig. 3b). SUM149R cells were selected in increasing concentrations of JQ1 and now
grow more rapidly in the presence of JQ1 than in DMSO[36]. To determine whether the
mechanism of resistance is SUM149R cells is linked to CENP-B, we analysed a published
CRISPR-KO screen in parental and resistant cells treated with DMSO or JQ1[28]. CENP-B is a
non-essential protein in SUM149 (wild-type) cells treated with DMSO or JQ1 because knock-
out does not significantly alter cellular proliferation, consistent with published observations
including viable CENP-B KO mice[37]. In contrast, SUM149R (JQ1 resistant) cells are highly
sensitive to the loss of CENP-B protein (Fig. 4j). In rapidly growing SUM149R-JQ1 cells,
CENP-B KO reduces cell proliferation, whereas in slowly growing SUM149R-DMSO cells,
CENP-B KO gives the most significant increase in cell proliferation out of 18,461 proteins
tested. We identified no other protein with a similar response amongst BET bromodomain
proteins, transcription elongation components, cohesin complex components or components of
centromeric chromatin (Extended Data Fig. 5c). These observations suggest that CENP-B
specifically regulates cell proliferation in a cellular model of JQ1 resistance and indicates that
the BRD4-JQ1-CENP-B complex is critical in establishing JQ1 resistance.

Discussion

In summary, our study identified a previously overlooked role for BRD4 and the bromodomain inhibitor JQ1 in centromere cohesion. We demonstrated JQ1 as the first small-molecule directly targeting centromeric chromatin, through a molecular-glue mechanism-of-action that stabilises a link between BRD4 and CENP-B. The identification of molecular glues is rare, but each new example opens up the possibility of targeting previously undruggable pathways[34,35]. Future optimisation of JQ1 structure could form the basis of a new class of centromere drugs targeting chromosome segregation, a process which is important only in dividing cells. We showed that the BRD4-JQ1-CENP-B interaction stabilises centromere cohesion in mitosis, supporting a direct role for BRD4 in centromere cohesion and complementing recent observations that identified a role for BRD4 in regulating TADs by acting upstream of cohesin loading[18,38]. Finally, we show that CENP-B transitions from non-essential in JQ1-sensitive cells to the most significant determinant of cell proliferation in JQ1-resistant cells. A significant challenge in employing BET bromodomain inhibitors for cancer treatment is the swift emergence of resistance[3,39], and our observations show that this resistance can occur via mechanisms independent of gene-regulation. Future bromodomain inhibitors developed for clinical use must consider this centromere role, in order to better target cancer-cell pathways and avoid mechanisms of resistance linked to CENP-B.

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Fig. 1 │ BRD4 is a centromere protein which is further enriched by the bromodomain inhibitor JQ1. a, Overview of human centromeric DNA organisation and the subdomains of centromeric chromatin displayed on metaphase chromosomes. Length of DNA repeat motifs given in base-pairs (bp) and Megabases (Mb). **b**, Summary of the REDPOINT workflow for centromeric loci. **c**, REDPOINT identifies 35 high confidence centromere proteins including known and novel candidates. Protein categories were determined from published data and Uniprot information. *CENP-B was identified using the same pipeline to analyse a published CUT&RUN dataset PRJNA546288. **d**, Focused analysis of 50 different protein-inhibitor pairs investigated in multiple studies and identified through the REDPOINT approach. The x-axis is the statistical significance from a paired-sample t-test comparing centromeric protein abundance in inhibitor treatment to control across multiple studies, with the vertical dotted line signifying a p-value of 0.05. The y-axis is the fold-change in protein abundance at the centromere following inhibitor treatment, with a positive fold change indicating more protein at the centromere and a negative fold change indicating less protein at the centromere.

Fig. 2│BRD4 degradation disrupts mitotic centromere cohesion. a, Telomere-to-telomere distribution of BRD4, CENP-A, HP1 and H3K27ac on chromosome 8. Data displays the ratio of ChIP reads compared to a matched input from the same study. Datasets: CENP-A (HeLa) PRJNA183936, BRD4 and HP1 (HEK293) PRJNA171165, H3K27ac and BRD4 (SUM149) PRJNA268319, BRD4 (adipocyte) PRJNA270506. **b**, Immunofluorescence imaging of BRD4 (magenta) and CENP-A (cyan) in HeLa cells treated for 24 hours with DMSO. **c**, Centromere enrichment of all BRD4, H3K27ac and RNA polymerase II (Pol2) ChIP-seq samples in the REDPOINT dataset compared to the corresponding control from the same study. Statistical analysis t-test between BRD4 and H3K27ac/Pol2 (*** p<0.001). **d**, Western blot analysis of BRD4, CENP-A and CENP-B following 24 hours treatment with two bromodomain inhibitors ((±)-JQ1 and PFI1) and the BRD4-specific PROTAC MZ1. **e**, Quantification of BRD4 signal

intensity at the core-centromere in HeLa cells following 24 hours DMSO or MZ1 treatment. Values are the intensity of BRD4 signal overlapping with foci of CENP-A. DMSO (n=3707 centromeres), MZ1 (n=3505 centromeres). Whiskers = boxplot standard in R (1.5x IQR). Statistical analysis t-test (*** p<0.001). **f**, Immunofluorescence imaging of BRD4 (magenta) and CENP-A (cyan) in HeLa cells treat following 24 hours MZ1 treatment. Brightness/contrast settings the same as Fig. 1b. **g**, Representative mitotic chromosomes from HeLa and HEK293T cells with normal morphology and increasing severity of centromere cohesion defect. Identifier for subsequent quantifications in inset boxes. **h**, Quantification of mitotic chromosome defects following 24 hours MZ1 treatment in HEK293T and HeLa cells. Error bars = standard error of the mean. Statistical analysis based on triplicate experiments, t-test (** p < 0.01). **i**, Model outlining the effect of BRD4 degradation on mitotic chromosome structure.

Fig. 3 | **JQ1 promotes a non-canonical cohesion function of BRD4 at centromeres. a**, Analysis of 15 different ChIP-seq datasets from studies comparing BRD4 distribution in control and JQ1 treated cells. Paired t-test p value < 0.05. **b**, BRD4 is more enriched following JQ1 treatment in 25 out of 26 analysed cell lines. Statistical analysis paired-sample t-test (p=0.003). **c**, BRD4, RNA polymerase II and H3K27ac enrichment following JQ1 compared to DMSO treatment aligned to the T2T genome of chromosome 8. LX2 data from PRJNA253142, SUM149 data from PRJNA542646. **d**, Meta-analysis of RNA-seq datasets comparing DMSO and JQ1 treatment from 12 studies. **e**, Quantification of mitotic chromosome defects following 24 hours MZ1 or (±)-JQ1 treatment in control HEK293T and HeLa cells. Indicator as outlined in Fig. 2g. Error bars = standard error of the mean. Statistical analysis based on triplicate experiments, t-test (ns 'not significant', * p<0.05, ** p<0.01). **f**, Model outlining the rescue of centromere cohesion defects in JQ1-treated cells that recruit BRD4 to the centromere.

Fig. 4 | JQ1 is a molecular glue that retains BRD4 at centromeres through CENP-B. a, Co-IP MS identifying the change in proteins interacting with BRD4 following JQ1 treatment, with key proteins for centromere identity and BRD4-mediated transcription regulation highlighted. Data from Shu et al. (2020)[28]. **b**, ChIP-seq analysis of centromeres ranked by BRD4 enrichment following JQ1 treatment in male cells. Enrichment was calculated by identifying the percentage of centromeric BRD4 at each chromosome in a sample, and then calculating the ratio of JQ1 treated sample compared to DMSO treated sample. The dotted lines indicate a 2x change in the abundance of a BRD4 at a centromere, the blue square highlights the Y chromosome. Data from: PRJNA253142. **c**, Co-IP for BRD4 following DMSO or (±)-JQ1 treatment for 1 hour in HeLa cells, followed by western blot for BRD4 and CENP-B. **d**,

Model outlining an *in vitro* reconstitution pull-down experiment to determine whether a direct interaction occurs between BRD4^{bromo}, (+)-JQ1 and CENP-B, with control experiments containing (−)-JQ1 or shuffled DNA sequence. **e**, Example *in vitro* reconstitution pull-down experiment result comprised of western blots of BRD4 and CENP-B. BRD4 is at 10x molar excess compared to CENP-B. 'Input' is 10% of the total sample and 'flow through'/'wash' is 10% of the total. 'complex' is 100% of the bead bound protein. **f**, Quantification of independent *in vitro* reconstitution pull-down experiments. To account for the ten-fold molar excess of BRD4 the 'Bead bound protein (% input)' for BRD4 was multiplied by ten to give the 'Normalized bead bound protein (%)'. Statistical tests are paired-sample t-test (* $p<0.05$, ** $p<0.01$). **g**, Model outlining the predicted outcome of CENP-B loss on JQ1-linked centromere cohesion. **h**, Western blot of control (WT) and CENP-B KO HeLa cells probed with anti-CENP-B antibodies and β-actin as loading control. **i**, Quantification of cohesion defects in 24 hours (±)-JQ1 treated HeLa control and CENP-B KO cells. Error bars = standard error of the mean. Statistical analysis based on triplicate experiments t-test (* $p<0.05$). **j**, CRISPR KO screen comparing the effect of CENP-B KO relative to 18,460 other proteins on cellular proliferation in JQ1-sensitive and -resistance SUM149 breast cancer cells. Data from Shu et al. (2020).

Methods

Candidate identification with REDPOINT

Dataset curation for analysis by REDPOINT

A list of human ChIP-seq accession numbers, which allow dataset recovery from the Sequence Read Archive (SRA)[1], were obtained using the 'advanced search' feature of the European Nucleotide Archive (ENA) (https://www.ebi.ac.uk/ena/browser/advanced-search) with the search parameters: Data type = 'Raw reads', Taxon name = 'Homo sapiens', Library Strategy = 'ChIP-seq', and the field parameters: 'experiment accession' and 'sample accession'. The 'sample accession' enabled each dataset to be downloaded from the SRA, and the 'experiment accession' allowed the samples from the same study to be grouped in downstream analyses. The state of sample annotation within the SRA, ENA or the Gene Expression Omnibus (GEO) did not allow for automated annotation of key features for our study, including whether the sample was from a ChIP-seq experiment or corresponding input/control, the protein enriched by the ChIP-seq experiment, the tissue/cell-line investigated, whether the sample was treated with a drug or other experimental perturbation, and the associated PubMed ID. To enable detailed downstream analysis of protein enrichment relative to corresponding input/control, the influence of cell/tissue type, and the effect of perturbations including drug treatment, the first 21,462 samples from 1,234 studies were annotated by hand using the relevant parameters included with the samples GEO submission.

Genomic positions investigated by REDPOINT

We used the hg38 genome build, which contains the entire human genome including representative maps of repetitive regions, from which we extracted centromeric and LINE2 alignment information[2].

Detailed description of centromeric loci

Centromeric repeats, are annotated in the hg38 genome and in recently published T2T genomes[2–4]. In hg38 centromeric DNA is divided into different classes of satellite repeat, including the dominant α-satellite repeat found at the centromere on every chromosome and low abundance satellite classes which are each found at a small number of centromeres (GSAT,

GSATII, GSATX, HSAT4, SST1). The CENP-A-containing core centromere has only been
shown to form on the dominant α-satellite DNA[3]. α-satellite is highly divergent and has
different Higher Order Repeats (HORs) on different chromosomes[3]. In hg38 the centromeric
α-satellite repeats are sub-divided into different chromosomes based on the abundance of
different HORs, which allows the chromosome-specific abundance of centromeric proteins to
be determined from ChIP-seq data and demonstrates the detailed nature of the centromeric
annotation in this genome build. Recently, telomere-to-telomere (T2T) builds of the human
genome, with the centromeric sequence in the correct linear order across the entire domain for
an individual pseudo-haploid genome, have been published[3,4]. Between cell-
lines/chromosomes/individuals there is a strong divergence in the position and abundance of
different α-satellite HORs, as well as different epi-allele positioning of key centromere proteins
including CENP-A within the α-satellite DNA, and mapping short-read ChIP-seq data from a
diversity of sources to the complete T2T genome provides little extra positional information
compared to the hg38 genome. We therefore identified candidate proteins using the hg38
genome, some of which we validate by aligning to a T2T genome.

REDPOINT analysis

The REDPOINT pipeline utilises standard bioinformatic tools for data acquisition, genome
alignment and genomic position investigation. Briefly, 1.) For each sample, as determined by
the SRA 'sample accession', we downloaded a sub-set of 100,000 reads using 'fastq-dump'
from NCBI SRA Tools (parallel-fastq-dump -sra-id SAMPLE_ID --threads 4 --outdir out/ --
split -3 --gzip). The -3 split argument automatically differentiates between single-end and
paired-end sequencing. For consistency across the analysis, and because our analysis focuses
on highly repetitive DNA, we only utilised the first read of paired-end sequencing in
downstream analysis. We selected reads starting at read 10,000 to avoid observed problems at
the start of a file and obtain a random assortment of reads
(https://edwards.flinders.edu.au/fastq-dump/). In all cases where we compared a sample sub-
set aligned to the complete sequencing run we observed an exact correspondence in the
percentage of reads at the centromere, indicating that 100,000 reads are sufficient to identify
protein enrichment for a locus comprising 2.15% of the genome without generating sampling
bias. 2) We used Bowtie2[5] (ver.2.3.0) to align reads to the hg38 build of the human genome
using default settings. 3) We identified the percentage of reads at each genomic position (e.g.

centromeric loci, ACTB gene promoter, etc.) using HTseq[6]. This information was recorded and

then the loop re-set to begin the next ChIP-seq dataset.

Quality control of ranked protein enrichment

The first method utilised for identifying the proteins associated with different loci of interest

was to rank samples based on the percentage of ChIP-seq reads associated with each locus.

This allowed the use of the full 40,734 samples analysed in the REDPOINT approach and

identified well characterised proteins associated with centromeric chromatin. We also noted

many examples of artefact proteins enriched via this approach. For example, there were

samples which were very highly enriched at centromeric loci, comparable to key CENP

proteins, but upon further inspection showed no enrichment compared to control samples

within the same study – indicative of a problem with the entire study rather than a new

centromeric protein. This suggested to us that the 'ranked data' approach was sufficient to

identify candidate proteins, but could be improved upon by comparing samples to

corresponding input/control.

Quality control of fold-enriched proteins

The second method for identifying the proteins associated with different loci of interest had a

number of quality control steps which take advantage of the 21,462 annotated ChIP-seq

samples. Input and control samples provided an invaluable quality control metric, firstly to

exclude problematic datasets and secondly to benchmark the proportion of centromeric DNA

identified in the samples within a study, which varied by around four-fold from around 1% to

around 4% for the majority of samples. Analysis of genomic DNA samples in the same cell

line across multiple studies suggested that these differences reflects inter-study variability,

rather than biological variability, which may be linked to differential PCR efficiency of highly

repetitive loci or variability in the loss of highly compact centromeric chromatin dependent on

the methodology used for genomic DNA or control preparation[7]. Many studies did not include

a genomic input sample, IgG pull-down or other corresponding control and we excluded these,

retaining 11,881 samples from 887 studies. Focussing on the genomic DNA or control samples

in these studies, we noted that a sub-set of these samples contained virtually no DNA which

aligned to centromeric loci. This is not biologically possible and suggests a technical problem

with these samples, which may reflect experimental issues or mistakes in data handling. We

removed all studies with fewer than 1% of the reads aligned to centromeric DNA which left us

with 9,764 samples from 780 studies, i.e. 63% of the annotated studies. For each of these

samples we calculated the fold-enrichment for each ChIP-seq sample compared to the inputs

or controls in the same cell type from within the same study. This data was then ranked from

most enriched protein to least enriched protein.

We first looked at the most enriched proteins for each locus and performed a number of quality

control checks based on technical and biological expectations. We looked at all of the samples

within a study containing an enriched protein, as we observed that problematic samples were

often contained within problematic studies. In most cases there was no reason for concern, but

examples where enriched-proteins would be excluded include studies with unusually low

input/control samples which gave spurious enrichment to all samples in the study, including

for proteins which are consistently not enriched in other studies. We also looked at instances

of a 'top hit protein' in other studies, and noted whether the protein had previously been

observed at centromeres in published manuscripts or whether the protein was a new candidate

locus-specific protein. We identified the most robust top-hit proteins by focussing on examples

that were strongly supported within single studies (i.e. enriched compared to other proteins

assayed) and/or across multiple studies.

REDPOINT validation using published datasets

The BioProject accession number (PRJNA######) for each relevant study is included in the

figure legend or supplementary tables associated with each observation.

Confirming the centromere localisation of top-hit proteins identified by REDPOINT

To confirm the localisation of the top-hit centromere proteins we repeated the analysis using

the complete sequencing run. Each ChIP-seq sample was downloaded using 'fastq-dump' from

NCBI SRA Tools or directly from the SRA Explorer website (https://sra-explorer.info/). The

technical quality of each sample was assessed using FastQC. Each sample was then aligned to

the hg38 version of the human genome using Bowtie2 (ver.2.3.0), converted to .bam file using

samtools (ver.1.3.1) and to .bed file using BEDTools (ver.2.26). Aligned files were intersected

with a table of centromeric regions extracted from the hg38 genome build using the 'intersect'

function in BEDTools. The total number of aligned reads and the proportion aligned to different
repetitive regions, including centromeres, was calculated using custom bash scripts and
processed for visualisation in R using ggplot2.

Visualising BRD4 as a centromere protein on a T2T genome

To plot BRD4 and other centromere proteins across a complete chromosome we utilised the
recently published T2T genome build of human chromosome 8[4]. We followed the same
mapping strategy as outlined in the T2T publication[4], which utilises samtools (ver.1.3.1) and
the alignment package bwa (ver.0.7.17)[8] with the following parameters (bwa mem -k 50 -c
100000 PATH/CHM13.chr8.fasta FILE.fastq > FILE.sam). To convert .sam files to .bam we
used samtools sort with the following parameters (samtools sort FILE.sam -o FILE.bam) and
samtools index (samtools index FILE.bam). To plot the genomic distribution of BRD4 or other
centromeric proteins compared to corresponding input we utilised the bamCompare function
in BEDTools (ver.2.30.0) with the following parameters (bamCompare -b1 SAMPLE.bam -b2
INPUT.bam --scaleFactorsMethod SES --operation ratio --binSize 1000 --samFlagExclude
2308 --outFileFormat bedgraph -o NAME.bedGraph). The bedGraph files were uploaded to
the UCSC genome browser (https://genome.ucsc.edu/) and the 'mean' signal visualised with
smoothing set to 10.

Identification and validation of JQ1-dependent increase in centromeric BRD4

To validate BRD4-JQ1 as the most prominent hit we included additional ChIP-seq datasets
investigating BRD4 following JQ1 treatment which were missed in our annotated REDPOINT
data, giving a total of 15 analysed datasets. We followed the same approach outlined above to
confirm the centromere localisation using the hg38 and T2T genome. To visualise the fold
change in BRD4 localisation following JQ1 treatment on the T2T genome we utilised the
bamCompare function in BEDTools (ver.2.30.0) with the following parameters (bamCompare
-b1 JQ1_sample.bam -b2 DMSO_sample.bam --scaleFactorsMethod SES --operation log2 --
binSize 1000 --samFlagExclude 2308 --outFileFormat bedgraph -o NAME.bedGraph). The
bedGraph files were uploaded to the UCSC genome browser (https://genome.ucsc.edu/) and
the 'mean' signal visualised with smoothing set to 5. To further characterise the effect of JQ1

treatment on centromeric H3K27ac, RNA polymerase II and transcription we analysed ChIP-

seq and RNA-seq datasets using the same approaches.

Chromosome specificity of BRD4 centromere recruitment by JQ1

We analysed the enrichment of BRD4 following JQ1 at different annotated repeats within the

centromere to identify evidence for a central role of CENP-B in recruiting BRD4. We first set

out to determine if α-satellite DNA, which is the only centromeric satellite that contains the

CENP-B box DNA sequence, is the most enriched repeat class. To do this we aligned matched

BRD4-JQ1 and BRD4-DMSO samples to the hg38 genome build, intersected with the table of

repetitive regions extracted from hg38, and quantified the percentage of reads aligned to each

class of centromeric repeat. Next, we used the same data to focus on the chromosome-specific

breakdown of centromeric repeats that recruit BRD4 following JQ1 treatment. We calculated

the percentage of centromeric reads aligned to the centromere of each chromosome in each

sample. We then determined the ratio of JQ1 compared to DMSO for each centromere in

matched JQ1/DMSO pairs to focus on the relative change in BRD4-association across

centromeres, independent of centromere length or changes in the total level of BRD4 across all

centromeres. Finally, we compared the relative abundance of CENP-B on each centromere to

the enrichment of BRD4 following JQ1, using published CENP-B CUT&RUN and BRD4

ChIP-seq data. Enriched chromosomes contain more BRD4 and/or CENP-B than would be

expected based on the size of the centromere. The CENP-B data was generated in HeLa, a

female cell-line, therefore we cannot assay the Y-chromosome. As negative controls, we

compared centromeric CENP-B enrichment to RNA polymerase II JQ1/DMSO treatment and

BRD4 following degradation of BRD4 with a PROTAC inhibitor (dBET6/DMSO).

Immunoprecipitation mass spectrometry analysis

Processed BRD4 co-immunoprecipitation mass spectrometry (coIP-MS) data was obtained

from the supplementary information of two articles[9,10]. For SUM149/R cells the ratio of JQ1

to DMSO was calculated from the peptide level in the 'RIME filtered list' in Supplementary

Table S3, and our observations are consistent with data presented in Figure 1E of this study[10].

Data from HEK293T and K562 cells were calculated from Supplementary Table S2G and S2H

based on the fold-enrichment of each protein in the pull-down vs control[9]. The ratio of the JQ1

enrichment over the DMSO enrichment was used to identify the proteins most enriched upon

JQ1 treatment. Co-IP MS data from this study was also analysed for BRD2 and BRD3 to

determine the specificity of the identified drug-dependent protein complexes.

Analysis of published CRISPR KO screen in SUM149/R cells

Processed CRISPR KO screen data for SUM149 and JQ1-resistant SUM149R cells in the

presence DMSO or JQ1 were obtained from the Supplementary Information of a recent

resource article[10]. This data contained the p-values for the enrichment of cells containing each

protein-targeting sgRNA compared to control sgRNAs. Enriched sgRNAs have a positive

value and highlight proteins whose knock-out promotes cell proliferation, depleted sgRNAs

have a negative value and highlight proteins whose knock-out decreases cell proliferation. Our

analysis is broadly similar to Figure 1a in the source publication[10], and uses the same cut-off

of $p>0.001$ for candidate hits but focused on pathways which were not considered or

highlighted in the original publication, including proteins involved in centromere function, the

spindle assembly checkpoint and sister chromatid cohesion

Producing Figures

All data processing and presentation in boxplots, bar charts, line graphs and other forms of

graphical analysis was performed in R using standard tools and ggplot2. All

immunofluorescence, metaphase spread and western blot images were processed in ImageJ by

changing the brightness/contrast only. All figures were assembled in Affinity Designer.

Statistical analyses

All statistical analysis was performed in R or Excel and each test and p-value is outlined in the

associated legend for each figure.

Experimental procedures used in validation of REDPOINT results

Cell Culture

Human cell lines HEK293T originally obtained from the American Type Culture Collection

(ATCC) and HeLa SNAP CENPA (referred to as HeLa cells) were obtained from the Fachinetti

lab (Institut Curie). Cells were cultured in DMEM (Gibco #61965-026) supplemented with

10% Foetal Bovine Serum (Capricorn scientific FBS-12A), 1% penicillin/streptomycin

(Capricorn scientific PS-B) and sodium pyruvate at a final concentration of 1mM.

Bromodomain inhibitor treatment

HEK293T and HeLa cells were treated with 0.25% DMSO (Sigma D8418) or bromodomain

inhibitors dissolved in DMSO to give a final concentration of 0.25% DMSO plus inhibitor.

Cells were treated for 1 hour or 24 hours, stated in the figure legends, with 500nM JQ1 (Sigma

SML0974), 500nM JQ1 (+) or (-) enantiomers (Millipore 500586) or 5μM PFI1 (Torris 4445),

a bromodomain inhibitor with a distinct structure and mechanism of action to JQ1 that requires

10x higher concentration for the same reduction in cell growth[11]. In addition, BRD4

degradation was achieved by 24 hours incubation with the PROTAC Inhibitor 500nM MZ1

(provided by Boehringer Ingelheim opnMe portal).

Immunofluorescence

HEK293T or HeLa cells were seeded on coverslips in 6-well plates and incubated at least

overnight to enable cells to settle and grow on the surface. Cover slips were washed gently

once in PBS followed by 7 minutes fixation in 4% PFA, 3x 5-minutes wash in PBS,

permeabilization in 0.3% Triton X-100 for 7 minutes and 3x 5-minutes PBS wash. Fixed cells

were blocked in 1% BSA in PBS for 30 minutes at room temperature before overnight

incubation at 4°C in primary antibodies: α-mouse CENP-A (1:1000 Abcam ab13939

(discontinued) or 1:1500 Enzo ADI-KAM-CC006-E) and α-rabbit BRD4 (1:900 Abcam

ab128874). The following day fixed cells were washed 3x 10-minutes in PBS and then

incubated 1 hour in secondary antibodies (Alexa Fluor 488, 546 or 647) before 3x 10-minute

wash in PBS, 5 minutes incubation in DAPI solution to stain the DNA, 1x PBS wash and mount

slide/coverslip with Aqua Poly Mount (Polysciences Inc. 18606-20). Imaging was performed

on a Zeiss AiryScan2 LSM900 confocal microscope using the 'airyscan mode' and following

standard operating procedures[12].

BRD4 co-IP

HEK293T or HeLa cells were split into 1x 10cm dish per IP and allowed to grow overnight

before treatment with DMSO, 500nM JQ1 or 5μM PFI1 for 1 hour. We utilised the Active

Motif Nuclear Complex Co-IP kit (#54001) following the manufacturer's instructions with the

following variations: we incubated the 'enzyme shearing cocktail' for 2 minutes at 37°C, we

used the 'gentle IP buffer' to wash samples. The immunoprecipitation antibody was α-rabbit

BRD4 (Bethyl A301-985-A-M).

Western blot analysis

Standard western blot procedures were followed for the quantification of protein abundance in

a variety of samples including following BRD4 co-IP. Briefly protein samples were prepared

from experimental samples or cell pellets by resuspending in 1x final concentration Laemmli

solution, followed by water bath sonication (Diagenode Bioruptor Plus) to reduce sample

viscosity and a 5-minute incubation at 95°C to ensure complete protein denaturation. Samples

were loaded on a 4-15% gradient gel (Bio-Rad 4561083) and run at 150v for 1 hour (Bio-Rad

system). The protein was transferred to PVDF membrane (Amersham 10600022) using semi-

dry transfer apparatus using the 'mixed MW' setting (Bio-Rad trans blot turbo). Membranes

were blocked for 1 hour in 5% powdered milk in TBS-T, followed by overnight primary

antibody incubation at 4°C. Primary antibodies used: α-mouse CENP-A (1:1000 Abcam

ab13939 (discontinued) or 1:1500 Enzo ADI-KAM-CC006-E), α-rabbit CENP-B (1:500

Abcam ab25734), α-rabbit CENP-C (1:50 Abcam ab193661), β-actin (Sigma A3854) and α-

rabbit BRD4 (1:500 Bethyl A301-985-A-M). Following overnight incubation membranes were

washed 3x 10-minutes in TBS-T, then incubated in α-mouse-HRP (Sigma A9044) or α-rabbit-

HRP (Sigma A0545) in 5% milk for 1 hour at room temperature. Membranes were then washed

3x 10-minutes in TBS-T followed by a brief incubation in ECL reagent. Chemiluminescence

was detected using chemiluminescent substrate (Thermo 34095 or 34575).

Generating CENP-B CRISPR KO cell lines

CRISPR KO cell lines and matched 'safe guide' controls were generated in HEK293T and
HeLa cells using lentivirus-mediated gene KO. HEK293T cells were also used to produce the
lentivirus. The first step towards generating CENP-B KO cell lines was to establish CAS9
stable cell lines for HEK293T and HeLa cells. Cell lines were transduced with lentiCas9-
Blast[13] (Addgene, #52962) and selected with 20 µg/ml blasticidin to generate stable CAS9-
expressing cell lines. sgRNA for CRISPR KO were designed using the Sanjana lab tool
(http://guides.sanjanalab .org/) and cloned as previously described[5,16]. Briefly, sgRNAs were
cloned by annealing two DNA oligos and ligating into a BsmB1-digested pLKO1-puro-U6-
sgRNA-eGFP. This construct was transformed into Stbl3 bacteria. For virus production 1
million HEK293T cells were transfected with 3 µg of the pLKO1-puro-U6-sgRNA-eGFP
plasmid and two helper vectors (2.5 µg psPAX2 and 0.9 µg VSV-G). Packaging cells were
transfected using polyethyleneimine (Polysciences, 23966-2) by mixing with DNA in a 3:1
ratio. 48 hours post-transfection viral supernatants were collected, filtered through a 0.45 µm
filter and supplemented with 4 µg /ml of polybrene (Sigma) before adding to target cells.
Downstream experiments using sgRNA KO were performed on the pool after at least 10 days,
or on single-cell clones that were isolated from the pool.

Quantifying centromere cohesion defects on metaphase spreads

Metaphase spreads were prepared using a standard method for karyotype analysis using
Carnoy's fixative and dropping the sample onto a microscope slide[15]. This process produces
high resolution metaphase chromosome features, but under these fixation conditions
centromeric antibodies do not detect their epitope[16], which prevents fluorescence microscopy.
Briefly, 1 well of a 6-well plate per sample was seeded two days prior to metaphase
chromosome preparation. 24 hours prior to metaphase chromosome preparation cells were
treated with DMSO or BET bromodomain inhibitors (JQ1, MZ1). 2 hours prior to metaphase
chromosome preparation cells were treated with 1µg/ml colcemid. Cells were then harvested,
combining the media, wash and cells into a single 15ml Falcon tube. To swell cells were
resuspended in 5ml 75mM KCl for 10-minutes at room temperature. Cells were pelleted by
centrifugation and resuspended in 10ml Carnoy's fixative (3-parts methanol to 1-part acetic
acid) and incubated for 10 minutes at room temperature. This pelleting, resuspending and
incubation was repeated twice more and samples were then placed at -20°C at least over-night,

and maintained at -20°C for long term storage. To prepare slides of metaphase chromosomes,

samples were recovered from -20°C storage, cells pelleted by centrifugation, resuspended in

10ml room temperature Carnoy's fixative, incubated for 10 minutes at room temperature,

pelleted and resuspended in a small amount of Carnoy's fixative dependent on the pellet size.

To drop the slides we took 20 μL of the sample, hydrated the surface of a positively charged

microscope slide (Hecht 42409110) with a gentle open mouthed blow, and quickly dropped the

sample from a height of approximately 10 cm. Slides were allowed to dry overnight in a dark

drawer. The following day slides were rehydrated for 5 minutes in PBS, incubated in DAPI

and mounted using Aqua Poly Mount. Imaging was performed on an Zeiss AiryScan2 LSM900

confocal microscope using the 'airyscan mode' and following standard operating procedures.

Metaphase imaging and analysis was performed blind and the categorisation of centromere

defects was based on published observations[17]

In vitro reconstitution of the BRD4-JQ1-CENP-B-DNA interaction

To identify whether the BRD4-JQ1-CENP-B-DNA interaction can be reconstituted *in vitro* we

purchased or purified each component of the complex. We purchased custom pairs of oligos

(Sigma) that can be annealed to form double stranded DNA, and with a 5' biotin on the forward

oligo, for a sequence that has been previously characterised to bind CENP-B *in vitro*[18] (F primer

– GGCCTTCGTTGGAAACGGGATTT) and a shuffled version of the same sequence as a

negative control for CENP-B binding (F primer – GTTAGCGATTTGAATTCCGGGGC).

Full-length purified CENP-B was purchased from Active Motif (No. 81201) and JQ1 (+) or (-

) enantiomers were purchased from Sigma (SML1524 & SML1525).

Sumo tagged BRD4[bromo] (44-460 aa) was expressed in BL21 *E. coli* after induction with IPTG

overnight at 15°C and purified using an ÄKTA pure first with a nickel column (Cytivia HisTrap

HP 17524701), followed by a buffer exchange (Cytivia HiTrap Desalting 17140801), Ulp1

cleavage [19] and a second round of nickel chromatography to remove the SUMO tag. Protein

purity was determined by Coomassie stained SDS PAGE and aliquots flash frozen in liquid

nitrogen.

To prepare the magnetic beads, 15μl Dynabeads MyOne Streptavidin T1 beads (Invitrogen

65601) were resuspended in 100μl Binding and Wash (BW) Buffer (5mM Tris-HCl pH7.5,

0.5mM EDTA, 1M NaCl). A magnetic rack was used to separate the beads and the supernatant

was discarded. Beads were washed 3x in BW buffer, using the rack to separate the beads and discarding the supernatant each time.

Double stranded DNA was prepared by resuspending complementary oligonucleotides in annealing buffer (5mM Tris-HCl pH6.8, 1mM EDTA, 50mM KCl, 0.01% triton X-100), heating to 95°C for 5 minutes followed by cooling the samples at 1°C per minute until 4°C. 30pmol of dsDNA was resuspended in Binding and Wash (BW) Buffer (5mM Tris-HCl pH7.5, 0.5mM EDTA, 1M NaCl) to a total volume of 100μl. This DNA was added to the pre-washed streptavidin beads and incubated for 30 minutes at 24°C with gentle shaking to immobilise the biotinylated dsDNA on the beads. The beads were then washed one time in BW Buffer and twice in Binding Buffer (20mM HEPES pH7.6, 10% glycerol, 1mM EDTA, 3mM DTT, 0.05% NP40, 150mM NaCl). Following the final wash beads were resuspended in 30μl Binding Buffer containing 2.5 pmol CENP-B, 25 pmol BRD4^{bromo} and 50 pmol (+)-JQ1 or (-)-JQ1. An Input sample 3μl (10%) aliquot was taken and frozen, the remainder of the sample was incubated overnight at 4°C rotating at 20rpm. The following day Binding Buffer was added to a final volume of 300μl, the tube incubated on a magnetic rack, as a Flow Through sample a 30μl (10%) aliquot was taken and frozen, and the remaining supernatant was discarded. The beads were then washed three more times in 300μl Binding Buffer, with a 30μl (10%) aliquot of the Final Wash taken and frozen. After the final wash 30μl 1x Laemmli buffer was added to the beads to give the Complex sample. Each of the Input samples was made up to 30μl in Binding Buffer and 10μl of 4x Laemmli buffer was added to the Input, Flow Through and Final Wash samples. All of the samples were boiled at 95°C for 5 minutes, centrifuged and loaded on 10% SDS PAGE gels for Western Blot. Western blot was performed as outlined previously with primary antibodies to BRD4 (Abcam ab128874) and CENP-B (Abcam ab25734).

Data and code availability: All data are available in the main text or the supplementary materials. REDPOINT approach utilizes standard analysis tools as described in methods, code available on request.

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Extended Data Fig. 1 │**BRD4 is specifically enriched at centromeres following JQ1 treatment, but does not recruit RNA polymerase II. a**, Centromeric alignment level of BRD2, BRD3, BRD4 and POL2 at centromeres and LINE2 elements following DMSO or JQ1 treatment. Data from: PRJNA253142. **b**, Centromeric alignment level of BRD4 at centromeres and LINE2 elements in a dataset with quadruplicate samples following DMSO or JQ1 treatment. Error bars = standard error of the mean. Statistical analysis t-test (ns 'not significant', ** p<0.01). Data from PRJNA482365. **c**, Centromeric alignment of RNA polymerase II following DMSO or JQ1 treatment from multiple studies. Total pol2 – 12 studies, pol2 ser2 – 4 studies, pol2 ser5 – 3 studies. For full data see Supplementary Table 13.

Extended Data Fig. 2 ⎪JQ1 stabilises a complex containing BRD4 and centromeric

proteins. a, Immunofluorescence imaging of BRD4 (green) and CENP-A (red) in HeLa cells

following 24 hours DMSO or (±)-JQ1 treatment. BRD4/DAPI inset images highlight the

nuclear periphery (x and x') and the nucleolar periphery (y and y'). BRD4 and BRD4/CENP-

A inset images (1, 1', 2 and 2') highlight core-centromere locations (CENP-A enriched). **b**,

Quantification of the percentage of total nuclear BRD4 signal which co-localises with CENP-

A in DMSO or (±)-JQ1 treated HeLa cells. Statistical test is a t-test (n=90 cells for DMSO and

90 cells for JQ1). **c**, BRD4 co-IP MS in SUM149R cells comparing proteins enriched in JQ1

compared to DMSO, with key proteins for centromere identity and BRD4-mediated

transcription regulation highlighted. Data from Shu et al. (2020)[28]. **d**, BRD4 co-IP MS in

HEK293T cells comparing proteins enriched in JQ1 compared to DMSO after 10 minutes or

one-hour inhibitor treatment. Data from Lambert *et al*. 2019. **e**, BRD3 co-IP MS in HEK293T

cells comparing proteins enriched in JQ1 compared to DMSO after 10 minutes or one-hour

treatment. Data from Lambert *et al*. 2019[29].

a

b   **c**

d

Extended Data Fig. 3 | BRD4 is specifically enriched at CENP-B binding sites following
JQ1 treatment. a, Relationship between CENP-B enrichment at each centromere and BRD4
recruitment following JQ1. CENP-B CUT&RUN data from PRJNA546288. BRD4 data: LX2
PRJNA253142, JLAT PRJNA391180, MOLT4 PRJNA315416. **b**, Quantifying the percentage
of reads aligning to each class of centromeric DNA repeat. Whiskers = boxplot standard in R
(1.5x IQR). Data in LX2 cells from data from PRJNA253142. **c**, ChIP-seq analysis of
centromeres ranked by BRD4 enrichment following JQ1 treatment in male cell lines.
Enrichment was calculated by identifying the percentage of centromeric BRD4 at each
chromosome in a sample, and then calculating the ratio of JQ1 treated sample compared to
DMSO treated sample. The arrow indicates the Y chromosome. Data: JLAT PRJNA391180,
RAJI PRJNA306758, MOLT4 PRJNA315416, Gen2.2 PRJNA306431. **d**, Correlation
between CENP-B enrichment at each centromere and RNA polymerase II following JQ1 or
BRD4 following BRD4 degradation with dBET6. Data: pol2 PRJNA253142, dBET6
PRJNA315416.

Extended Data Fig. 4 │ A specific interaction occurs between BRD4 and CENP-B. a, Co-
IP for BRD4 following DMSO or (±)-JQ1 treatment for 1 hour in HEK293T cells, followed by
western blot for BRD4 and CENP-B. **b,** Co-IP for BRD4 following DMSO or (±)-JQ1
treatment for 1 hour in HeLa cells, followed by western blot for BRD4 and CENP-A or CENP-
C. **c,** Co-IP for BRD4 following DMSO, (+)-JQ1, (–)-JQ1 or PFI1 treatment for 1 hour in HeLa
cells, followed by western blot for BRD4 and CENP-B.

Extended Data Fig. 5│CENP-B has a key role in JQ1-resistance. a, Western blot confirming
CENP-B depletion in CENP-B KO in HEK293T cells. **b**, Quantification of cohesion defects
following 24 hours (±)-JQ1 treatment in HEK293T control (WT) and CENP-B KO cells. Error
bars = standard error of the mean. Statistical analysis based on triplicate experiments t-test (ns
'not significant'). **c**, CRISPR KO screen comparing the effect of different BET bromodomain
proteins, transcription elongation proteins, cohesin proteins and centromeric proteins relative
to 18,460 other proteins on cellular proliferation in JQ1-sensitive and -resistance SUM149
breast cancer cells. Data from Shu et al. (2020)[28]. Toxic proteins are those in which KO
promotes growth, essential proteins are those where KO reduces growth.