The bromodomain inhibitor JQ1 is a molecular glue targeting centromeres.

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One sentence summary

The inhibitor JQ1 links BRD4 and CENP-B as a molecular glue and reveals a function in centromere cohesion and JQ1 resistance

Abstract

Centromeres are essential for cell proliferation and a promising target for anti-cancer therapies, yet no drugs have been identified that specifically target centromeric chromatin. To identify candidates, we analysed chromatin proteins at repetitive loci using a novel big-data approach and discovered the bromodomain protein BRD4 localises to centromeres, a localisation enhanced by the bromodomain inhibitor JQ1. While bromodomain inhibitors typically prevent BRD4 from binding chromatin, we found that JQ1 stabilises an interaction between BRD4 and the centromere protein CENP-B. Degradation of BRD4 caused centromere cohesion defects, whereas JQ1-treatment preserved centromere structure in a CENP-B dependent manner. Strikingly, JQ1-resistant cells became reliant on CENP-B for proliferation. Our results identify a non-canonical role for BRD4 in centromere cohesion and establish JQ1 as a molecular-glue targeting centromeric chromatin.

Introduction

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)[1]. 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 in mitosis[2,3]. Defects in centromere structure and function are key drivers of aneuploidy, tumour heterogeneity and cancer progression[4,5]. Furthermore, the centromere-dependent spindle assembly checkpoint, which prevents catastrophic chromosome segregation errors, is often the last checkpoint preserved in aneuploid cells which makes many cancers exceptionally sensitive to inhibitors of mitotic components[6,7]. Such diverse roles indicate that centromeric proteins are an attractive target for anti-cancer therapeutics, but there are no known drugs 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[8], 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 wide-scale application of genome-wide chromatin mapping approaches, which have significantly improved our understanding of the molecular mechanisms of transcription factors[9], regulatory elements[10], 3D genome organisation[11], chromatin-associated disease[12,13] and specific classes of small-molecule inhibitors targeting chromatin components[12]. 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[1], but the raw experimental data containing this information is publicly accessible through the Sequence Read Archive (SRA)[14]. We took advantage of this vast resource and developed an approach that utilises published chromatin-mapping datasets to identify the protein composition of any locus, with a focus on centromeric chromatin. Utilising tens-of-thousands of samples we were able to identify established and novel proteins associated with different loci-of-interest. We then characterised a sub-set of this data in which drug-treatments were performed, aiming to identify drugs that affect the protein composition of centromeres.

In this study we identify an unexpected enrichment of the BET bromodomain protein BRD4[15] at centromeres and demonstrate a new function for this protein in the regulation of centromeric

cohesion[16]. We then demonstrate that the BET bromodomain inhibitor JQ1[17] further recruits

BRD4 to the centromere, in contrast to its canonical mechanism antagonising the association

of BRD4 with chromatin[18]. We show that JQ1 stabilises a protein-protein interaction between

BRD4 and the centromere DNA binding protein CENP-B[19], identifying the first case of a drug

directly targeting centromeric chromatin. Drugs that stabilise protein-protein interactions,

called molecular-glues, often accentuate one particular function of a protein[20,21]. CENP-B

removal reveals that JQ1 treatment stabilises centromere cohesion, demonstrating a direct

effect of the BRD4-JQ1-CENP-B interaction on centromeric cohesion. Finally, we observe in

a pre-clinical model of JQ1-resistance that CENP-B transitions from non-essential in parental

cells to the most significant determinant of cell-proliferation in JQ1-resistant cells, suggesting

that our newly discovered mechanism-of-action has important clinical implications.

REDPOINT reveals the presence of BRD4 at centromeric chromatin

To identify chromatin proteins at specific loci, and how they change upon various drug

treatments, we developed an approach called Reanalysis of Every Dataset at Positions Of

INTerest (REDPOINT). Our analysis includes 40,733 chromatin immunoprecipitation

sequencing (ChIP-seq) experiments that identify 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[1], 3) retain

repetitive regions and identify the percentage of reads at each locus of interest compared to the

whole genome, 4) repeat for each dataset, 5) annotate and analyse the data. As a proof-of-

principle we considered a selection of biologically interesting sequences, including different

repetitive regions (e.g. centromeres, rDNA), selected Topological Associated Domain (TAD)

boundaries and gene promoters. The top hits for selected loci contain well-characterized locus-

specific proteins and proteins that have only recently been identified in association with

specific loci, such as NIPBL and RNA polymerase II for rDNA[22,23], and GTF2I and BRD4 for

TAD boundaries[24,25] (Fig. 1c and 1d). This shows that REDPOINT accurately characterizes the

chromatin composition at DNA sequences varying from 500 bp to 60 Mbp, e.g. over five orders

of magnitude. Most importantly, we identify new candidate proteins at each locus.

Focusing on centromeric DNA 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[26] (CENP-A, CENP-B, CENP-C, CENP-T),

pericentromeric heterochromatin which supports centromere-core function[27] (HP1α, HP1β,

DNMT1, DNMT3A, ATRX) and other proteins with centromeric roles (LRWD1, TRF2,

DDX11, TOP2α, HIRA, RAC3, SMAD3, BCL6) (Fig. 1a and 1d). 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[15,25,28].

Next, we aimed to discover one or more drugs that specifically target centromeric chromatin.

REDPOINT contains ChIP-seq samples for proteins in cells treated with 96 different small-

molecule compounds, including 50 protein-drug pairs investigated across multiple studies.

Focussing on this subset, we identify that BRD4-JQ1 stands out as the only protein-drug

combination that highly significantly changes protein abundance at the centromere across

different studies (Fig. 1e). JQ1 is a small-molecule BET bromodomain inhibitor that prevents

BRD4 from binding its acetyl-chromatin substrate[18], so the canonical mechanism-of-action

would predict that JQ1-treatment decreases BRD4 levels at its chromatin binding sites.

Unexpectedly, we observe that JQ1 treatment consistently increases BRD4 occupancy at

centromeric loci across multiple studies.

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

remarkable. Typically, BRD4 is considered as a regulator of genes and enhancers[15], but

centromeric regions lack these elements and are mostly transcriptionally inactive[8,29]. 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. However, the cohesin complex was

originally characterised with respect to its role in centromere structure, where it maintains sister

chromatid cohesion to regulate accurate chromosome segregation. While prior studies have not

suggested a role for BRD4 in centromeric cohesion, our observations have led us to investigate

the role of BRD4 and the inhibitor JQ1 at centromeric loci.

BRD4 plays a non-canonical role in centromere chromatid cohesion

To confirm that BRD4 is specifically enriched at centromeres we took advantage of a recently

released Telomere-to-Telomere (T2T) genome build which, by using long reads sequencing,

identified the precise linear mapping of the genome including megabase-sized regions of highly

repetitive DNA at centromeres[8,30]. Aligning ChIP-seq samples from diverse cell types we

observed BRD4 at many sites along the chromosome, including at centromeric loci defined by

the co-localisation with CENP-A and HP1 (Fig. 2a).

To identify the specific chromatin sub-domain that BRD4 associates with within centromeric

DNA, we performed immunofluorescence in HeLa cells with antibodies targeting BRD4 and

CENP-A (Fig. 2b). The overall distribution of BRD4 was consistent with previous studies,

being highly enriched in euchromatin regions with low DAPI density and mostly excluded

from DAPI-dense heterochromatin at the periphery of the nucleus and nucleoli[31]. Focusing on

the core-centromere, we observe a clear co-localisation between BRD4 and CENP-A. Within

the heterochromatin surrounding nucleoli CENP-A and BRD4 are enriched together at clear

puncta, demonstrating that BRD4 is confined to the core-centromere and is absent from the

surrounding pericentromeric heterochromatin. This observation confirms that BRD4 is a

centromere protein that localises to the centromere-core region.

The canonical role of BRD4 is to bind acetylated chromatin and recruit the transcription

machinery[15], but centromeres have well-characterised depletions of acetylated chromatin and

are considered the archetypal locus for transcriptionally repressed heterochromatin[27,32]. We

confirmed that centromeric BRD4 enrichment does not correspond to an enrichment in

H3K27ac or RNA polymerase II at the centromere (Fig. 2a and 2c), indicating that BRD4 may

act through a non-canonical mechanism.

Recent work has identified a non-canonical role for BRD4 upstream of cohesin loading[25,33,34].

To investigate this role, we first set out to completely deplete BRD4 from cells, including

centromeres. We utilised MZ1, a proteolysis-targeted chimera (PROTAC) small molecule that

selectively degrades BRD4 when compared to BET bromodomains paralogs BRD2 and

BRD3[35]. Unlike the bromodomain inhibitors JQ1 and PFI1, MZ1 treatment leads to the

complete removal of BRD4 protein from the cell (Fig. 2d). To ensure that BRD4 was

completely removed from centromeres, we performed immunofluorescence for BRD4 and

CENP-A in HeLa cells following MZ1 treatment and confirmed the global loss of BRD4 signal,

including at the centromere-core (Fig. 2e and 2f).

To determine if BRD4 is necessary for the cohesion of centromeres we quantified cohesion
defects in metaphase chromosome following MZ1 treatment. We used a scale, ranging from
partial centromere defect to complete cohesion failure, in chromosome spreads prepared from
HEK293T and HeLa cells (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 the cohesion function of BRD4 at centromeres

Focusing on studies exploring the effect of JQ1 on BRD4 localisation, we observed an increase
in centromeric BRD4 in all 15 studies we investigated (Fig. 3a), and in 25 out of 26 different
cell-lines within these studies (Fig. 3b). Only the JQ1-resistant cell-line SUM149R[36,37] did not
show an increase in centromere localised BRD4 following JQ1 treatment. JQ1 binds with lower
affinity to the bromodomains of BRD2 and BRD3[17], and analysis of matched ChIP-seq
experiments confirms BRD4 as the dominant protein recruited to centromeres upon JQ1
treatment (Fig. S1a). Plotting the change in BRD4 localisation between JQ1 and DMSO-treated
cells onto the T2T genome shows that the centromere is the principle locus gaining BRD4
association in different cell lines (Fig. 3c). We observed no change in BRD4 abundance
following JQ1 at LINE2 repeat-elements, indicating that our observations are not an artefact of
aligning to highly repetitive DNA (Fig. S1a and S1b). At genes and enhancer elements BRD4
is recruited by histone acetylation and recruits RNA polymerase II, but no increase in H3K27ac
or consistent changes in RNA polymerase II level were observed at centromeres following JQ1
treatment (Fig. 3c, Fig. S1a and S1c). Furthermore, meta-analysis of RNA-seq datasets from
12 studies does not identify a significant change in centromeric transcription following JQ1
treatment (Fig. 3d). This indicates that the JQ1-dependent recruitment of BRD4 to centromeres
is not linked to the proteins canonical function in transcription regulation.

One striking implication of our observations is that JQ1-treatment should affect centromere
function differently compared to PROTAC degradation of BRD4. Defects in centromeric
chromatin can activate cell-cycle checkpoints, leading to an accumulation of cells in G2/M, or
override the spindle-assembly checkpoint, promoting the transition to G1[6,38,39] (Fig. 3e). One
previous study directly compared cell-cycle profiles for cells treated with MZ1 and JQ1,

identifying that BRD4-degradation led to an accumulation of cells before mitosis whereas JQ1

treatment enriched for cells in G1[40]. To identify if this is a general observation across cell types

we consulted 94 studies with FACS data. We observed a similar trend when comparing BET-

degrading (e.g. dBET6) and BET inhibiting compounds (Fig. 3f, Fig. S1d). This suggests that

JQ1 has a distinct mechanism of action that can promote the transition of cells through mitosis.

To determine whether the non-canonical role for BRD4 in chromatin cohesion is affected by

the JQ1-dependent enrichment of BRD4 at centromeres, we quantified cohesion defects in

metaphase chromosome spreads prepared from JQ1-treated HEK293T and HeLa cells. In

contrast to PROTAC-based degradation, JQ1 treatment identified fewer centromere cohesion

defects (Fig. 3g). The total proportion of defects in HEK293T cells was similar between JQ1

and MZ1, but with a significant shift towards milder defects composed principally of the

'mixed' phenotype. More strikingly, in HeLa cells the proportion of cells with chromosome

defects is significantly lower following JQ1 treatment compared to MZ1 treatment, with levels

comparable to DMSO (Fig. 2h), suggesting the possibility that BRD4 recruitment stabilises

centromeric chromatid cohesion (Fig. 3h).

JQ1 is a molecular glue stabilising an interaction between BRD4 and CENP-B

To identify whether JQ1 causes a total reorientation of BRD4 towards centromeric chromatin

we performed immunofluorescence on HeLa cells following JQ1 treatment, and observed no

significant change in the overall abundance of BRD4 at centromeric regions (Fig. S2a and S2b).

This could be explained by the fact that the observed change in centromeric BRD4 abundance

using ChIP-seq is subtle and yet significant, suggesting that REDPOINT has a higher

sensitivity to determine novel chromatin interactions than could be achieved by a microscopy-

based screen.

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[36,41]. In all available datasets JQ1 treatment induced a strong, and previously

overlooked, association between BRD4 and key centromere proteins (Fig. 4a, Fig. S2c and

S2d). For example, in data from SUM149 breast cancer cells, JQ1 treatment leads to a gain of

interaction between BRD4 and centromere-core proteins including CENP-B, CENP-C, CENP-

H and MIS18BP1. Across all four cell-types assayed, and in as little as 10 minutes following

JQ1 addition, a top new interaction was observed between BRD4 and CENP-B, a centromeric

protein that binds the CENP-B box sequence within α-satellite DNA[19] (Fig. 4a, Fig. S2c and

S2d). 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[42], were also

highly enriched in different coIP-MS experiments but were considered unlikely to be the major

factor recruiting BRD4 due to the transient interaction with centromeres.

CENP-B is a component of centromeric chromatin and binds constitutively to the 17bp CENP-

B box DNA sequence found on every centromere except the Y-chromosome[19]. Consistent with

a central role for CENP-B in BRD4 recruitment to the centromeres, JQ1 recruits BRD4 only

to α-satellite DNA and not to other centromeric DNA repeats without CENP-B boxes (Fig.

S3a) and to all centromeres except for the Y chromosome (4 out of 5 male cell-lines

investigated) (Fig. 4b, Fig. S3b). Analysis of the proportion of CENP-B CUT&RUN aligned

to each centromere also confirms a strong positive correlation with the enrichment of BRD4

following JQ1 (Fig S3c), but not with RNA polymerase II following JQ1, or BRD4 following

PROTAC degradation with dBET6 (Fig. S3d). Together, these observations strongly support

CENP-B as the key protein mediating the JQ1-dependent recruitment of BRD4 to centromeres.

To independently confirm that BRD4 and CENP-B interact in cells following JQ1 addition, we

performed coIP-western blot in HeLa and HEK293T cells (Fig. 4c, Fig. S4a). We observe a

strong JQ1-dependent interaction between BRD4 and CENP-B, but not between BRD4 and

CENP-A or CENP-C (Fig. S4b) This interaction was not observed in co-IP following treatment

with the (-) enantiomer of JQ1[17] or the BET bromodomain inhibitor PFI1[43], which has a

different chemical structure (Fig. S4c). In addition to BRD4 JQ1 has a lower affinity for the

other BET bromodomain proteins BRD2 and BRD3[17]. By analysing published coIP-MS of

these proteins we identify a weak (BRD3) or no (BRD2) JQ1-dependent interaction with

CENP-B (Fig. S4d), suggesting that CENP-B principally interacts with BRD4 following JQ1.

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

reconstituted the interaction *in vitro* including biotinylated oligos containing the CENP-B box

DNA sequence or a 'shuffled' control version of the same sequence, purified full-length CENP-

B protein, purified bromodomains of BRD4 (BRD4[bromo]), and (+)-JQ1 or control (-)-JQ1

enantiomers (Fig. 4d). We observed that CENP-B protein is strongly associated with the

CENP-B box DNA sequence when compared to a shuffled version (Fig. 4 e to f). The addition

of (+)-JQ1 or (-)-JQ1 enantiomer to CENP-B alone did not change the level of interaction with

the CENP-B box, indicating that these small-molecules have no effect on CENP-B alone.

BRD4[bromo] is 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. However,

with the addition of the (+)-JQ1 enantiomer, BRD4[bromo] and CENP-B become 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 drugs called molecular-glues, which enable gain-of-function interactions that can target

previously undruggable pathways[20,21], and our evidence suggests that JQ1 is the first

centromere-targeting drug via this mechanism-of-action.

The BRD4-JQ1-CENP-B complex can stabilise centromere cohesion

If the BRD4-JQ1-CENP-B complex stabilises the centromere cohesion role of BRD4,

removing CENP-B should have 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, Fig. S5a). In HEK293T CENP-

B KO cells we observed a marginal enhancement of the already well-established cohesion

defect following JQ1 treatment (Fig. S5b). 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[36,37] 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[37]. 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 treat with DMSO or JQ1[36]. 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[44]. 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 identify no other protein with a similar response amongst BET bromodomain
proteins, transcription elongation components, cohesin complex components or components of
centromeric chromatin (Fig. S5c). These observations suggest that CENP-B specifically
regulates cell proliferation in a model of JQ1 resistance and indicates that the BRD4-JQ1-
CENP-B complex is critical in establishing JQ1 resistance.

Discussion

In this study, we utilised human ChIP-seq samples to identify novel centromere proteins and
the BET bromodomain inhibitor JQ1 as the first drug that directly targets centromere chromatin
composition. A molecular-glue mechanism-of-action enables JQ1 to stabilises a direct protein-
protein interaction between BRD4 and the centromere DNA binding protein CENP-B. The
identification of molecular-glues is rare, but each new example opens up the possibility of
targeting previously undruggable pathways[20,21]. 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 show that the BRD4-JQ1-CENP-B interaction
stabilises centromere cohesion in mitosis, supporting a direct role for BRD4 in centromere
cohesion. This result complements recent findings in the interphase genome, where BRD4 has
been shown to regulate the structure of TADs by acting upstream of cohesin loading[25,34].

One of the significant challenges in employing current BET bromodomain inhibitors for cancer
treatment is the swift emergence of resistance[45,46]. We observed, in a preclinical model of JQ1-
resistance, a shift in the functional importance of CENP-B from being non-essential in JQ1-
sensitive cells to becoming the most significant determinant of cell proliferation in JQ1-
resistance cells. This finding underscores the need for future advances in bromodomain
inhibitors intended for clinical use to account for the centromere-linked role of JQ1 and BRD4,
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 proteins associated with chromatin loci ranging
from 500bp to 60Mbp in size. The top 12 proteins enriched compared to their corresponding
input at rDNA and a single TAD boundary on chromosome 8 are presented, with bold proteins
being novel factors. At the 500bp region of the ACTB promoter the top 4 candidates are shown.
D) 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. E) Focused analysis of 50 different protein-drug 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 drug 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 drug 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 represents 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 treat 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.

BRD4 signal intensity overlapping CENP-A foci. DMSO (n=3707 centromeres), MZ1

(n=3505 centromeres). 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. G) Representative mitotic chromosomes from HeLa and HEK293T cells with

normal morphology and increasing severity of centromere cohesion defect. Key for subsequent

quantifications in inset boxes. H) Quantification of mitotic chromosome defects following 24

hours MZ1 treatment in HEK293T and HeLa cells. 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 cohesin 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) Model outlining the predicted cell-
cycle profile following treatment with BRD4 degrading compounds or JQ1. F) Meta-analysis

of cell cycle profiling following treatment with the BRD4 PROTAC dBET6 or JQ1 taken from

FACS data derived from 72 published studies. Complete data for these and other

inhibitors/degraders from 94 studies in Supplementary Table 20. G) Quantification of mitotic

chromosome defects following 24 hours MZ1 or JQ1 treatment in control HEK293T and HeLa

cells. Key as outlined in Fig. 2G. Statistical analysis based on triplicate experiments, t-test (ns

'not significant', * $p<0.05$, ** $p<0.01$) H) 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). 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. The tenfold molar excess of BRD4

means that for every BRD4-CENP-B dimer there will be 9 unbound BRD4 molecules. To

account for this 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 a loading control. I) Quantification of cohesion

defects in 24 hours JQ1-treated HeLa control and CENP-B KO cells. 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).

Materials and 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)[14], 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[1]. We performed REDPOINT on rDNA and centromeres, and at non-repetitive loci including active gene promoters identified by analysis of data from the FANTOM5 consortium[47] and Topological Associated Domain (TAD) boundaries previously identified at kilobase resolution[48].

Detailed description of centromeric loci

Centromeric repeats, are annotated in the hg38 genome and in recently published T2T genomes[1,8,30]. 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[8]. α-satellite is highly divergent and has

different Higher Order Repeats (HORs) on different chromosomes[8]. 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[8,30]. 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[49] (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[50]. This information was recorded

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

Quality control of ranked protein enriched at different loci

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, rDNA, TAD

boundaries and gene promoter regions. 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. For smaller loci including the 500bp

surrounding promoters we were only able to focus on the ranked data because fold-enrichment

is not possible when only analysing 100,000 reads per sample. Using this subset for a 500bp

locus identifies enriched ChIP-seq samples but gives insufficient coverage for input or control

samples. Investigation of 500bp regions using fold-change over corresponding input would

necessitate at least 10 million reads analysed per sample, but was not the focus of this study

and the ranked analysis of gene promoters was sufficient for a proof-of-principle.

Quality control of fold-enriched proteins at different loci

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[51]. 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. For
example, it is conceivable that some samples were aligned to an older genome build and then
converted back into a file format that was uploaded as the 'raw data' when in fact it was
partially processed in a manner that lost centromeric reads. 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 for each locus of interest from most
enriched protein to least enriched protein.

We first looked at the most enriched proteins for each locus (with the exception of gene
promoters as discussed above). Focussing on rDNA, a single TAD boundary on chromosome
8 and the centromere we 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 the locus 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.

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 custom table of repetitive regions extracted from the hg38 genome build, or with a table

of unique sequence regions including gene promoters and TAD boundaries, 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[30]. We followed the same

mapping strategy as outlined in the T2T publication[30], which utilises samtools (ver.1.3.1) and

the alignment package bwa (ver.0.7.17)[52] 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 custom

table of repetitive regions, 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[36,41]. 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[36].

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[41]. 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 FACS data

More than 1800 publications identified in PubMed with the search term 'BRD4' were screened

for studies that identified the cell-cycle distribution of drug-treated cells using FACS analysis,

identifying 94 relevant studies. In each of these studies we identified from the text which

inhibitor or siRNA treatment used and the associated cell-cycle defect observed.

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[36]. This data contained the p-values for the enrichment of each protein-targeting

sgRNA compared to control sgRNAs. Enriched sgRNAs have a positive value and highlight

proteins that are toxic in the cell-line/drug-treatment, and those that are depleted have negative

values and are essential for cell proliferation in the cell-line/drug-treatment. Our analysis is

broadly similar to Figure 1a in the source publication[36], 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 and statistical 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.

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 throughout 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[43]. 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[53].

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[54] (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[56]. This process produces

high resolution metaphase chromosome features, but under these fixation conditions

centromeric antibodies do not detect their epitope[57], 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 make chromosome spreads 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 a 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[58]

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

Purified BRD4[bromo] and CENP-B, together with JQ1 enantiomers, were incubated with

biotinylated dsDNA made by annealing oligos containing a CENP-B box motif (F primer –

GGCCTTCGTTGGAAACGGGATTT) or a shuffled version of the same sequence as a

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

the biotin moiety linked to the 5' end of the forward primer. 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 [60] 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).

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Fig. S1. BRD4 is specifically enriched at centromeres following JQ1 treatment, but does not recruit RNA polymerase II. A) BRD4 is more enriched at centromeric DNA following JQ1 than BRD2 or BRD3, POL2 shows no change in centromere abundance. LINE2 elements show no change in the level of BRD2, BRD3, BRD4 or POL2 following JQ1. Data from: PRJNA253142. B) BRD4 is significantly enriched at centromeres following JQ1 in a dataset with triplicate samples, whereas BRD4 levels at LINE2 elements do not change. Data from PRJNA482365. C) RNA polymerase 2 level at centromeres is not consistently affected by JQ1 treatment. Total pol2 – 12 studies, pol2 ser2 – 4 studies, pol2 ser5 – 3 studies. D) Meta-analysis of cell cycle profiling following treatment with BRD4 inhibitor compounds or BRD4 degrading compounds, taken from FACS data derived from 94 published studies.

A

B

C

Fig. S2. 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). D) BRD4 co-IP MS in HEK293T cells comparing proteins enriched in JQ1 compared to DMSO after 10 minutes or one-hour drug treatment. Data from Lambert *et al.* 2019.

Fig. S3. BRD4 is specifically enriched at CENP-B binding sites following JQ1 treatment.
A) Quantifying the percentage of reads aligning to each class of centromeric DNA repeat.
Data in LX2 cells from data from PRJNA253142. B) 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. C) Relationship between
CENP-B enrichment at each centromere and BRD4 recruitment following JQ1. CENP-B
CUT&RUN data from PRJNA546288, BRD4 datasets as outlined above. 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.

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Fig. S4. 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. D) 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.

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Fig. S5. 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. 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). Toxic proteins are those in which KO promotes growth, essential proteins
are those where KO reduces growth.