Transcription Machinery Anchors ecDNAs to Mitotic Chromosomes for Segregation

Yipeng Xie[1], Jun Yi Stanley Lim[1], Wenyue Liu[2], Collin Gilbreath[1], Yoon Jung Kim[1*], Sihan Wu[1*]

[1] Children's Medical Center Research Institute, University of Texas Southwestern Medical Center, Dallas, TX, USA.

[2] Department of Cell Biology, University of Texas Southwestern Medical Center, Dallas, TX, USA.

* Corresponding authors.

Abstract

Extrachromosomal DNA (ecDNA) is a prevalent driver of cancer, whose random segregation promotes aggressive tumors. Acentric ecDNAs attach to chromosomes during mitosis for segregation. However, the molecular mechanism governing ecDNA-chromosome mitotic interactions remains poorly understood. This study shows that ecDNAs attach to histone 3 lysine 27 acetylation (H3K27ac)-marked chromatin during mitosis. H3K27ac depletion resulted in ecDNA detachment from mitotic chromosomes. Diverse bromodomain proteins, which are known readers of H3K27ac, stabilize ecDNAs' mitotic interaction, exhibiting context-dependent and mutually complementary roles. Furthermore, disruptions of the Mediator complex and RNA polymerase II transcription activity both dissociate ecDNAs from mitotic chromosomes, suggesting that the transcription machinery mediates ecDNA segregation. Mis-segregated ecDNAs were expelled into the cytosol and degraded, leading to diminished oncogene expression and a reversal of therapy resistance. Our research provides new insights into the interplay between RNA transcription and acentric ecDNA inheritance in cancer, offering a novel avenue for disrupting ecDNA-driven oncogenesis.

Introduction

DNA transmission to daughter cells during cell division is a fundamental process in inheritance, ensuring the stability of genetic information across generations.[1] In eukaryotes, chromosomal inheritance involves spindle fiber attachment to the kinetochore at the centromere, which facilitates the equal distribution of chromosomes between two daughter cells.[2,3] However, the inheritance mechanism for acentric extrachromosomal DNA (ecDNA), a prevalent oncogene carrier in aggressive tumors, remains unclear.

ecDNA is chromatinized circular DNA specifically found in cancer with a typical size ranging from 50-kb to 5-Mb.[4] It is present in nearly half of all human cancer types and up to one-third of cancer patients throughout their disease.[5-7] ecDNA carries diverse oncogenes, immunoregulatory genes, and associated enhancers.[8,9] Owing to high copy numbers and hyper-accessible chromatin, ecDNA can drive massive oncogene expression.[10] More importantly, a lack of functional centromeres cause ecDNAs to segregate randomly during cancer cell division, similar to plasmid inheritance in bacteria.[11-14] This random distribution generates a heterogeneous pool of cancer cells with varying oncogene copy numbers in every cell cycle. In several cancer types, including small cell lung cancer, glioblastoma, and medulloblastoma, ecDNA's asymmetric segregation has been shown to promote rapid tumor evolution, stress adaptation, and therapy resistance.[15-17] In addition, a recent study has demonstrated that distinct ecDNA species within a single cell can co-segregate into daughter cells.[18] Such behavior further enables ecDNA to evade the Mendelian inheritance principles and foster tumor aggressiveness. Thus, revealing

the molecular mechanism mediating ecDNA segregation is critical for understanding cancer genome maintenance and developing effective therapeutic strategies for ecDNA-driven cancers.

How do ecDNAs segregate during mitosis? Historically, it was proposed that ecDNAs attach to chromosomes for segregation as early as 1978.[19] Subsequent imaging studies have confirmed this finding, showing that ecDNAs hitchhike on mitotic chromosomes during cell division.[13,20,21] However, the intricate molecular mechanism underlying such mitotic interaction between ecDNAs and chromosomes has not been elucidated.

The tethering of ecDNAs to mitotic chromosomes represents a unique form of chromatin-chromatin interaction. The negatively charged DNA backbone, due to its phosphate groups, suggests that local chromatin modifications and binding proteins are necessary to mediate ecDNA-chromosome interactions during mitosis, overcoming the inherent electrostatic repulsion between DNA molecules. The present study aims to investigate the histone modifications and protein complexes that facilitate ecDNA segregation, thereby providing new insights into the mechanism of oncogenic inheritance in cancer.

Results

1. ecDNA trans-interaction sites on mitotic chromosomes are enriched with H3K27ac and H3K4me3 chromatin

We previously demonstrated that, even during metaphase, ecDNA chromatin is enriched with active histone modifications (Figure S1A), including H3K27ac and H3K4 tri-methylation (H3K4me3), and a paucity of repressive histone marks.[10] In addition, ecDNAs may interact with chromosomes via their active chromatin in an enhancer-promoter contact fashion.[22] This prompted us to investigate whether H3K27ac and H3K4me3, which mark active enhancers and promoters, are required for ecDNA segregation. We used the MSTO211H lung cancer cell line as our model system and performed *in situ* HiC to profile ecDNA trans-interaction sites during mitosis and correlated them with H3K27ac and H3K4me3 CUT&RUN data (Figure 1A, Figure S1B). Mitotic cells were enriched with nocodazole treatment and sorted for the phosphorylated MPM2-positive and 4N DNA content fraction.[23] The MPM2-negative, 2N DNA content fraction representing the G1 phase cells was sorted as control (Figure 1A). The MSTO211H cell line carries *MYC* ecDNAs made of a simple structure originating from a 500-kb DNA segment of chromosome 8, enabling us to distinguish ecDNA trans-interaction from DNA translocation (Figure 1B, Figure S1C).

Over 600 million valid HiC interaction pairs per library were obtained, with high reproducibility between replicates (Figure S1D-E). Compared to the G1 phase, topologically associating domains were largely reduced in agreement with previous reports.[24,25] ecDNA-derived global trans-interactions were also detected as previously observed but notably decreased at the M

phase (Figure 1C-D), suggesting fewer chromatins from mitotic chromosomes remained
accessible for ecDNA to interact with.

Next, we interrogated the association of ecDNA trans-interaction sites with active histone marks.
To maximize the resolution, we merged replicates for each cell cycle fraction and identified trans-
interactions at a 10-kb resolution. Significant trans-interactions were defined as the top 0.1% of
ecDNA contacts with non-ecDNA-originated chromosomes, excluding chromosome 8, where
MYC ecDNAs originated (Figure S1F), yielding 584 significant ecDNA trans-interaction sites
during mitosis. Compared to 1,000 randomly selected 10-kb genomic intervals, ecDNA trans-
interaction sites during mitosis were enriched with H3K27ac and H3K4me3 marks, as evidenced
by higher sequencing coverage and read counts of these histone marks within the ecDNA trans-
interaction sites (Figure 1E-F, Figure S1G). These data suggest that ecDNAs may be
preferentially associated with active chromatin regions during segregation.

2. H3K27ac is essential for ecDNA tethering to mitotic chromosomes

H3K27ac is mainly enriched at active enhancers and promoters.[26] We first used A485, an acetyl-
CoA competitive CBP/P300 inhibitor,[27] to deplete H3K27ac and study whether ecDNAs were
detached from mitotic chromosomes (Figure 2A-B). When H3K27ac was globally decreased as
measured by CUT&RUN in MSTO211H cells, *MYC* ecDNAs were significantly detached from
chromosomes during metaphase (Figure 2C-E). This observation was independently verified in
SNU16 stomach cancer cells with *MYC* and *FGFR2* ecDNAs and COLO320DM colon cancer
cells with *MYC* ecDNAs (Figure S2A-F), suggesting that H3K27ac is commonly required for
ecDNA interaction with mitotic chromosomes.

We employed two strategies to further validate the involvement of H3K27ac. First, we used a
histone deacetylase inhibitor, SAHA,[28] to counteract the effect of A485. When MSTO211H cells
were treated with SAHA and A485, H3K27ac modification was rescued similarly to the control
level (Figure 2C, Figure S2G-H). In the meantime, *MYC* ecDNAs' association with mitotic
chromosomes was also recovered (Figure 2D-E). Next, we used RNAi to knockdown CBP and
P300, the writers of H3K27ac,[29] and observed the same ecDNA detachment phenotype as the
A485 treatment (Figure 2F-H). These data collectively show that H3K27ac is an essential histone
modification for ecDNA segregation.

We then tested whether H3K4me3, which marks active promoters,[30] is required for ecDNA-
chromosome mitotic interaction. H3K4 methylation is deposited by the COMPASS complex,
which contains diverse methyltransferases from the SET1 and MLL family and shared subunits,
including DPY30 and RBBP5.[31,32] Global H3K4me3 level was downregulated when DPY30 and
RBBP5 were knocked down by RNAi (Figure S2I). However, neither *MYC* nor *FGFR2* ecDNAs
were detached from mitotic chromosomes in SNU16 cells (Figure S2J-K), suggesting that
H3K4me3 does not mediate ecDNA segregation.

3. Diverse bromodomain proteins anchor ecDNAs to mitotic chromosomes

While H3K27ac is shown to facilitate ecDNA segregation, it does not fully explain why ecDNA-chromosome interaction becomes feasible because the acetyl group is not sufficient to neutralize the negative charge of the DNA backbone. Thus, we hypothesized that proteins bound to H3K27ac chromatin are necessary to mediate ecDNA mitotic interaction with chromosomes.

Bromodomain-containing proteins are well-known as readers of H3K27ac chromatin.[33] We analyzed the RNA expression levels of all 40 human bromodomain proteins in common ecDNA-containing cancer cell lines, using RNA-seq data from DepMap and other public datasets.[10,34] The most highly expressed genes belong to two families, the bromodomain and extraterminal (BET) protein family, including BRD2, BRD3, and BRD4, and the SWI/SNF complexes, including SMARCA2/4 and BRD7/9 (Figure 3A, Figure S3A). This prompted us to study whether BET or SWI/SNF proteins are involved in ecDNA segregation.

When BET proteins in SNU16 cells were degraded by a PROTAC molecule dBET6, which comprises a JQ1 structure conjugated to a cereblon E3 ubiquitin ligase ligand,[35] both *MYC* and *FGFR2* ecDNAs were effectively detached from mitotic chromosomes (Figure 3B-C, Figure S3B). Pan-BET protein degradation achieved a similar effect in COLO320DM cells, in which *MYC* ecDNAs were also detached during metaphase (Figure S3C-E).

However, when individual BET genes were knocked down, including highly expressed BRD2 and BRD4 and relatively lower abundant BRD3, we did not observe a significant dissociation of *MYC* or *FGFR2* ecDNAs from mitotic chromosomes in SNU16 cells, even though over 75% transcripts were depleted (Figure S3F-H). Among all BET proteins, BRD4 is a known regulator for *MYC* ecDNA hub formation and gene expression in COLO320DM cells.[36] However, when the BRD4 protein was effectively degraded by dTAGv1 through an endogenously knock-in FKBP12^{F36V} degron, we did not observe a significant *MYC* ecDNA detachment in COLO320DM cells (Figure S3I-K). These data suggest that BET proteins act collaboratively in an interchangeable fashion.

The interchangeability of bromodomain proteins motivated us to investigate whether BET proteins serve as a universal factor in anchoring ecDNAs to mitotic chromosomes. In MSTO211H cells, treatment with dBET6 resulted in the effective degradation of BET proteins, as exemplified by BRD4 depletion. However, *MYC* ecDNAs remained associated with chromosomes during metaphase (Figure 3D-F). Similarly, the treatment with a SMARCA2/4 PROTAC molecule AU15330[37] did not detach ecDNAs (Figure 3D-F). In contrast, concurrent inhibition of both BET proteins and SWI/SNF complex via treatment with dBET6 and AU15330 resulted in a significant dissociation of *MYC* ecDNAs with mitotic chromosomes in MSTO211H cells (Figure 3G-H). Collectively, these results indicate that various bromodomain proteins participate in the segregation of ecDNA, functioning in a context-dependent and interchangeable way.

4. Mediator complex is required for ecDNA segregation

BET and SWI/SNF proteins have been established as critical regulators of enhancer-promoter interactions, facilitating the assembly of the transcription machinery through their interactions with the Mediator complex.[38,39] We then investigated whether the Mediator is also involved in ecDNA segregation.

The core Mediator is a large, multi-subunit complex whose functional activity is regulated by its kinase module, which includes cyclin-dependent kinases, notably CDK8 (Figure 4A).[40] When CDK8 was knocked down by RNAi, ecDNAs in MSTO211H and SNU16 cells were significantly detached from mitotic chromosomes (Figure 4B-D, Figure S4A-C). This finding suggests a pivotal role for the Mediator complex in the segregation of ecDNAs during cell division. Furthermore, the dependence of this mechanism on CDK8's kinase activity was confirmed by the results of Cyclin C knockdown, an essential regulator for CDK8 activation, which similarly resulted in the detachment of ecDNAs in both cell lines (Figure 4E-F, Figure S4A-C).

Next, we interrogated whether CDK8 regulates ecDNA segregation through the Mediator complex. The core Mediator complex lacks transcriptional competence when associated with the kinase module.[38,41] The degradation of MED13, another subunit of the kinase module, liberates the CDK8-containing kinase module from the core Mediator complex, thereby facilitating the interaction between the Mediator and the RNA polymerase II preinitiation complex, which is essential for transcription initiation.[42,43] Based on this understanding, we hypothesized that the absence of MED13 would enable ecDNAs to interact with mitotic chromosomes independently of CDK8. Upon the knockdown of *MED13*, we observed a significant rescue of ecDNA dissociation caused by CDK8 knockdown (Figure 4G-I). Collectively, these results indicate that the Mediator complex is crucial for the tethering of ecDNAs to mitotic chromosomes.

5. ecDNA segregation is coupled with mitotic transcription activity

The involvement of bromodomain proteins and the Mediator complex suggests that the transcription machinery may engage in the ecDNA segregation process. Therefore, we used various transcription inhibitors to study whether mitotic transcription activity is required for tethering ecDNAs to chromosomes during mitosis (Figure 5A-B).

A 6-hour treatment of triptolide, actinomycin D, or α-amanitin successfully inhibited RNA polymerase II transcription activity, as exemplified by the decrease of total polymerase II protein abundance and its phosphorylation on the serine 2/5 residues (Figure S5A). Using qPCR to measure the level of *MYC* mRNA, whose half-life was reported to be only 10-30 min,[44] we also found a dramatic reduction in the transcription activity after inhibitor treatments (Figure S5B).

And when the transcription activity was suppressed, *MYC* ecDNAs in MSTO211H cells were
profoundly detached from mitotic chromosomes (Figure 5C-E).

This phenomenon was not confounded by the deficit of other proteins necessary to tether
ecDNAs because of transcription inhibition. First, critical ecDNA segregation proteins, such as
SMARCA4 and CDK8, did not markedly decrease under such dosage and duration of
transcription inhibitor treatments in MSTO211H cells (Figure S5C); only BRD4 was partially
affected, which was not sufficient to cause ecDNA detachment in this cell line, as shown above
(Figure 3D-F). Second, when protein synthesis was inhibited during mitosis with a 2-hour
cycloheximide treatment, which effectively abolished nascent protein production, *MYC* ecDNAs'
interaction with mitotic chromosomes was maintained (Figure S5D-F). Taken together, these
data clearly support that mitotic transcription is essential for ecDNA segregation.

6. Mis-segregated ecDNAs are expelled to the cytosol

We further explored the outcomes of mis-segregated ecDNAs. We took advantage of an
engineered COLO320DM cell line with TetO array inserted into their *MYC* ecDNA, which can be
visualized with TetR-mNeonGreen using time-lapse live-cell microscopy.[36] When these cells
were treated with dBET6 to degrade BET proteins and induce ecDNA detachment from mitotic
chromosomes, mis-segregated ecDNAs were excluded from the primary nuclei in the following
cell cycle, forming micronuclei in the cytosol (Figure 6A). This phenomenon was independently
validated in SNU16 cells by fixed-cell imaging. When cells were treated with A485 to inhibit
H3K27ac and FISH for ecDNAs after one cell cycle, we found a significant increase in cytosolic
FISH signals, suggesting that mis-segregated ecDNAs were expelled to the cytosol of interphase
cells in the next cell cycle (Figure S6A-B).

ecDNA mis-segregation led to its depletion. A long-term A485 treatment in MSTO211H gradually
eliminated the number of ecDNA over 3 weeks and, eventually, diminished the expression of
ecDNA-borne oncogenes, such as *MYC* (Figure 6B-C, Figure S6C). We then asked whether
ecDNA depletion could inhibit cancer aggressiveness, such as therapy resistance. We employed
the HeLa-ecDHFR model, in which *DHFR* ecDNAs were induced and maintained by long-term
exposure to methotrexate.[45] Degradation of BET proteins by dBET6 also induced *DHFR* ecDNA
mis-segregation (Figure 6D-E, Figure S6D). While the removal of methotrexate decreased
DHFR ecDNAs in agreement with previous studies,[46] dBET6 treatment accelerated the loss of
DHFR ecDNAs (Figure 6F). Consequently, ecDNA-depleted HeLa cells were re-sensitized to
methotrexate (Figure 6G).

In summary, these data show that mis-segregated ecDNAs were expelled into the cytosol,
resulting in the loss of ecDNAs. Depletion of ecDNAs decreases ecDNA-borne oncogene
expression and can re-sensitize cancer cells to therapy, whose resistance is driven by ecDNA.

Discussion

The random segregation of acentric ecDNAs represents a crucial driver of tumor evolution.[15–17] This process leads to the unequal distribution of ecDNA particles among daughter cells during cell division, thereby fostering tumor heterogeneity. As a result, a diverse pool of cancer cells emerges, each processing varied oncogene copy numbers that facilitate rapid adaptation to the dynamic tumor microenvironment, particularly under therapeutic pressure.[13]

While previous research has suggested that chromosome hitchhiking mediates ecDNA segregation, the precise molecular mechanism governing the interaction between ecDNAs and chromosomes during mitosis remains poorly characterized. We propose a model in which ecDNAs attach to mitotic chromosomes via H3K27ac-marked active chromatin interaction. This interaction is mediated by the transcription machinery comprising bromodomain proteins, the Mediator complex, and RNA polymerase II. While half of the chromatin-bound RNA polymerase II is dissociated from chromosomes during mitosis as compared to interphase,[47] ecDNAs remain transcriptionally active during mitosis as shown by nascent RNA FISH, which is required for ecDNA aggregation and co-segregation into daughter cells.[18] These findings collectively suggest that the inheritance of ecDNA is intrinsically linked to its transcription.

Our finding further emphasizes that mis-segregated ecDNAs are expelled into the cytosol and gradually depleted, leading to the loss of oncogene expression and therapy resistance. This finding opens a new avenue for treating ecDNA-driven cancer by targeting ecDNA segregation. Within the ecDNA segregation machinery, many targets are considered actionable. For example, small molecules targeting histone lysine acetyltransferases, bromodomain proteins, and CDK8 are currently under investigation in clinical trials.[48–51] Future studies should aim to elucidate whether patients with ecDNA-containing tumors will derive therapeutic benefit from these strategies.

Moreover, our study identifies H3K27ac, the Mediator complex, and RNA polymerase II as universal adapters that anchor ecDNAs to mitotic chromosomes. However, we also observe that bromodomain proteins exhibit mutually complementary roles, contingent upon the specific cancer model examined. Notably, in the MSTO211H cancer cell with *MYC* ecDNAs, the degradation of both BET and SWI/SNF proteins was necessary to disrupt ecDNA segregation. This finding raises a critical question regarding whether the segregation of ecDNA is influenced by the specific bromodomain proteins that regulate the expression of its cargo gene.

An intriguing aspect of our findings is that, even with no perturbations, ecDNA segregation is "leaky" in a few cells, where certain ecDNA particles are not consistently attached to mitotic chromosomes. This phenomenon may lead to the accumulation of cytosolic DNA in ecDNA-driven cancer, which may trigger innate immunity sensing pathways, such as the cGAS/STING

pathway.[52] Although many cancers have evolved mechanisms to silence the expression of cGAS
or STING, the relationship between the deactivation of these pathways and ecDNA pathogenesis
warrants further investigation.[53] Alternatively, it is also important to understand whether cancer
may hijack this pathway for chronic STING activation and promote its growth and metastasis.[1]

One limitation of this study regards the dynamic alteration of H3K27ac during mitosis and its
potential impact on the HDAC of the transcription machinery. H3K27ac is significantly diminished
at promoters and enhancers during prometaphase and quickly re-emerged during anaphase and
telophase.[54,55] However, certain regions retain H3K27ac during mitosis, including the promoters
of housekeeping genes and enhancers associated with cell identity genes in stem cells.[56] This
phenomenon of mitotic bookmarking is essential for transcriptional memory across cell
division.[57,58] Future studies should explore whether ecDNAs interact with these bookmarking
gene loci to facilitate their segregation, which may yield further insights into the complexities of
ecDNA behavior during mitosis.

Methods

Cell culture

MSTO211H, SNU16, and COLO320DM cells were obtained from ATCC. All cells were cultured
in Dulbecco's Modified Eagle's Medium/F12 (DMEM/F12; Corning) supplemented with 10%
Fetal Bovine Serum (FBS; Corning) and 1× Penicillin-Streptomycin (Corning), maintained at
37°C in a humidified incubator with 5% CO_2, and regularly tested for mycoplasma. The HeLa-
ecDHFR cell line was a gift from Dr. Roel Verhaak, which carries artificially induced *DHFR*
ecDNA by long-term exposure to methotrexate. To maintain *DHFR* ecDNAs, 20 µM methotrexate
was added to the cell culture media. The COLO320DM TetO-MYC TetR-mNeonGreen cell line[36]
was a gift from Dr. Paul Mischel, with its ecDNA inserted with a TetO array and labeled with
stably expressed TetR-mNeonGreen. The COLO320DM-BRD4::FKBP12^{F36V} cell line was
generated by inserting the FKBP12^{F36V} sequence into the C-terminus of the *BRD4* endogenous
locus using CRISPR-Cas9.

Enrichment of metaphase and anaphase cells

Cells were seeded overnight on glass coverslips coated with Poly-D-Lysine (PDL; Sigma-
Aldrich). Prophase and prometaphase cells were arrested with 100 ng/ml nocodazole (Sigma-
Aldrich) for 12-16 hr at 37°C. After arrest, cells were washed 3× with pre-warmed PBS and
released in growth media for 40-50 min at 37°C, allowing them to progress to metaphase and
anaphase. The following compounds were added before or during the nocodazole treatment,
whose dosage and timing were indicated in the corresponding main figures: A485 (Selleck
Chemicals); dBET6 (Selleck Chemicals); AU-15330 (Medchemexpress); Actinomycin D (Selleck

Chemicals); Triptolide (Selleck Chemicals); α-amanitin (Santa Cruz Biotechnology);
Cycloheximide (Selleck Chemicals).

Flow cytometry and sorting

Single-cell suspensions were cross-linked with 2% formaldehyde (Sigma-Aldrich) for 10 min,
quenched with 0.3 M glycine (Sigma-Aldrich) for 10 min, and permeabilized with 0.1% saponin
(Thermo Scientific) in PBS for 10 min. After blocking with 1% FBS + 0.1% saponin for 30 min,
the anti-MPM2 (Sigma-Aldrich 05-368, 1:1,000) primary antibody was added to the blocking
solution and incubated for 1 hr. Cells were then washed 3× with PBS containing 0.1% saponin
before AlexaFluor-conjugated secondary antibodies (Invitrogen) staining for another 1 hr. After
another 3x washes, DNA was stained with 1 µg mL^{-1} DAPI for 5 min. Finally, cells were sorted
using the FACSAria Fusion (BD Biosciences) for G1 (2N DNA, MPM2-negative) and M phase
(4N DNA, MPM2-positive). All procedures were performed at room temperature (RT).

***In situ* HiC**

In situ HiC libraries for G1 and M phases sorted cells were prepared with the Arima HiC kit (Arima
Genomics) following the manufacturer's instructions. In brief, one million sorted cells, which were
cross-linked with 2% formaldehyde before sorting, were digested with two restriction enzymes,
followed by end filling, biotin labeling, and proximal ligation. Next, 1.5 µg ligated DNA was
fragmentized by the Covaris ME220 (peak power: 75W; duty factor, 20%; cycles per burst: 200;
treatment time, 3.5 minutes) for 300-bp size selection with DNA purification beads. Biotin-labeled
DNA was then enriched with streptavidin beads for sequencing library preparation using the
Arima library prep module. HiC libraries were then pooled and sequenced with the paired-end
150 mode.

Adapter sequences were trimmed by the fastp software (v0.22.0). Trimmed reads were then
processed through the HiC-Pro pipeline (v3.1.0) with hg38 as the reference genome. The
reproducibility of HiC libraries was analyzed by the HiCRep software (v0.2.6). HiC interaction
was detected by the FitHiC2 software (v2.0.8).

CUT&RUN sequencing

CUT&RUN libraries were generated with the CUTANA ChIC/CUT&RUN kit version 4 (EpiCypher,
12-1048) and the CUT&RUN library prep kit (EpiCypher, 14-1001&14-1002) according to their
instructions. MSTO211H cells were cultured and treated as described above in 10-cm plates.
Cells were harvested by trypsinization and counted with Countess 3 Automated Cell counter
(Invitrogen). For one CUT&RUN sample preparation, 0.5 million cells were used to isolate nuclei
using the CUTANA Pre-Nuclei Extraction Buffer (EpiCypher, 21-1026a). Nuclei were then bound
to beads and incubated with 0.5 µg antibodies overnight. The following antibodies were used:
IgG (EpiCypher 13-0042), H3K4me3 (EpiCypher 13-0041), and H3K27ac (EpiCypher 13-0059).

Target DNAs bound by antibody were digested with pAG-MNase for 2 hours at 4°C and extracted
by incubating with stop master mix containing 0.5 ng of E. coli Spike-in DNA at 37°C.

CUT&RUN sequencing data were analyzed as previously described.[59] In brief, sequencing data
were aligned to the hg38 human genome. Unmapped and discordant read pairs were removed.
The coverage was normalized with the spike-in control, which was determined by the abundance
of reads aligned to the *Escherichia coli* genome.

RNA interference

Forty nanomolar respective siRNAs were mixed with Lipofectamine RNAiMAX Transfection
Reagent (Invitrogen) following the manufacturer's instructions and incubated for 10 min at RT to
form siRNA-lipid complexes. siRNA-lipid complexes were added dropwise into cell culture and
gene knockdown was determined 48 hr after transfection. Information on siRNAs is provided in
Supplementary Table S1.

DNA FISH

Cells on coverslips were rinsed with PBS and fixed using fresh Carnoy's fixative (3:1
methanol:acetic acid) for 10 min. Fixed cells were air-dried for 2 hr at room temperature or
overnight at 4°C. Samples were equilibrated with 2× SSC and dehydrated in 70%, 85% and 100%
ethanol for 2 min each. FISH probes (Empire Genomics) diluted in hybridization buffer (1:10)
were applied to coverslips and mounted onto glass slides. Slides were denatured for 2 min at
75°C and hybridized overnight at 37°C in a humidified chamber. After removing from slides,
coverslips were washed 2× in 0.4× SSC with 0.3% IGEPAL for 5 min, followed by another wash
in 2× SSC with 0.1% IGEPAL for 5 min. DNA was counterstained with 1 µg mL^{-1} DAPI in 2× SSC
for 5 min and washed 2× with 2× SSC for 5 min. Coverslips were mounted onto glass slides with
VECTASHIELD antifade mounting medium (Vector Laboratories) and sealed for imaging. All
procedures were performed at RT unless indicated otherwise.

Cytospin and immunofluorescence

Cells were arrested to metaphase with 33 ng/ul KaryoMAX colcemid (Gibco) overnight at 37°C
and pelleted in hypotonic buffer (10 mM Tris-Cl (pH 7.5) + 20 mM NaCl + 5 mM KCl + 1 mM
CaCl$_2$ + 0.5 mM MgCl$_2$ + 40 mM glycerol) for 15 min on ice. 0.1% Tween-20 was then added to
the hypotonic buffer to permeabilize cells. Cells were deposited onto glass slides using Cytospin
4 Cytocentrifuge (Epredia) at 500 RPM for 10 min. Slides were aged overnight at 4°C and
blocked with Renaissance background reducing diluent (Biocare Medical) for 10 min at RT. The
following primary antibodies were diluted in the diluent and incubated for 1 hr at RT: anti-
H3K27ac 1:100 (Cell Signaling Technology 8173S) and anti-H3K4me3 1:100 (Cell Signaling
Technology 9751S). Slides were washed 3× with the diluent containing 0.1% Tween-20 for 5 min
before AlexaFluor-conjugated secondary antibody staining (Invitrogen) for 1 hr at RT. Following
another 3× washes as above, 1 µg mL^{-1} DAPI in the diluent was applied for DNA counterstaining.

Cells were then fixed with 4% formaldehyde for 15 min at RT before being mounted with VECTASHIELD antifade mounting medium and sealed for imaging.

Protein synthesis assay

Cells on coverslips were treated with 5 µg/mL cycloheximide (Selleck Chemicals) for 2 hr. Nascent protein synthesis was detected using the Click-&-Go Plus OPP protein synthesis assay kit (Vector Laboratories) following the manufacturer's instructions. In brief, cells were labeled with O-propargyl-puromycin (OPP) reagent after cycloheximide treatment. Cells were then fixed with formaldehyde and permeabilized with 0.5% Triton X-100. After washing, the samples were incubated with the reaction cocktail prepared according to the instructions and stained with 5 µg/mL Hoechst 33342. The slides were then mounted and imaged.

Fluorescence microscopy

DNA FISH, immunofluorescence, and protein synthesis assays were imaged on the Zeiss Axio Observer 7 microscope equipped with the Apotome 3 optical sectioning module. Images were acquired with a 63× Plan-Apochromat 1.40 NA oil objective and processed using ZEN software (v3.4, Zeiss). At least five z-stacks were taken with an interval of 1 µm.

For live-cell imaging, COLO320DM TetO-MYC TetR-mNeonGreen cells were seeded in 35-mm glass bottom dishes and treated with dBET6. Culture media were replaced with warm FluoroBrite DMEM (Gibco) before imaging. Images were acquired with the Zeiss LSM 980 microscope through a 63× oil objective. Three slices per 1 µm interval were recorded.

Immunoblotting

Cells were lysed in RIPA buffer supplemented with 1× protease inhibitor cocktail (Sigma-Aldrich) and 1× phosphatase inhibitor cocktail (Sigma-Aldrich). To improve histone extraction efficiency, lysates were added with 100 units µL^{-1} of Micrococcal Nuclease (New England Biolabs) and 1 mM calcium chloride and incubated for 15 min at RT. Lysates were then cleared by centrifugation (17000 RCF for 15 min at 4°C) and quantified using Pierce Rapid Gold BCA Protein Assay Kit (Thermo Scientific). Samples were resolved by SDS polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis and transferred onto 0.2 µm nitrocellulose membranes (Bio-Rad). Membranes were blocked with 2% Bovine Serum Albumin (BSA) in TBST (0.1% Tween-20 in TBS) for 1 hr at RT. The following primary antibodies were diluted in 2% BSA in TBST and incubated with membranes overnight at 4°C: anti-BRD2 1:1,000 (Bethyl Laboratories A302-583A), anti-BRD3 1:1,000 (Bethyl Laboratories A700-069), anti-BRD4 1:1,000 (Bethyl Laboratories A301-985A), anti-SMARCA4 1:1,000 (Cell Signaling Technology 49360S), anti-H3K27ac 1:1,000 (Cell Signaling Technology 8173S), anti-H3K4me3 1:1,000 (Cell Signaling Technology 9751S), anti-RPB1 1:1,000 (Cell Signaling Technology 2629S), anti-phospho-RPB1 Ser2/5 1:1,000 (Cell Signaling Technology 13546S), anti-c-MYC 1:2,000 (Abcam ab32072), anti-HA tag 1:2,000 (Cell Signaling Technology 3724S), and anti-GAPDH 1:10,000 (Proteintech 60004-1-Ig). After primary antibody incubation,

membranes were washed 3× with TBST and incubated with HRP-conjugated secondary
antibodies (Cell Signaling Technology) diluted to 1:5,000 with 2% BSA in TBST for 1 hr at RT.
Membranes were washed 3× with TBST, developed using SuperSignal West Pico PLUS
Chemiluminescent Substrate (Thermo Scientific), and imaged using ImageQuant 800
(Amersham).

qPCR

For mRNA reverse transcription qPCR, RNA was extracted using the Quick-RNA Miniprep Plus
Kit (Zymo Research) and quantified by NanoDrop (Thermo Scientific). 1 µg RNA was reverse
transcribed to cDNA using the Maxima H Mirus reverse transcriptase (Thermo Scientific). 10 ng
cDNA was added with 1× SYBR Green qPCR Master Mix (Selleck Chemicals) and 400 nM
respective forward and reverse primers for qPCR on CFX Opus 96 System (Bio-Rad). The
relative RNA level was calculated by the ddCt method. The *TBP* transcript was used as a control
for most assays, except for the transcription inhibitor assessment, in which the long half-life
RPL13A transcript was used.

For DNA copy number qPCR, genomic DNA was extracted using the Quick-DNA Miniprep Plus
Kit (Zymo Research) and quantified by the Qubit assay (Thermo Scientific). 10 ng DNA was
added with 1× SYBR Green qPCR Master Mix (Selleck Chemicals) and 400 nM respective
forward and reverse primers for qPCR on CFX Opus 96 System. The gene copy number was
determined using *HBB* as a diploid control. Primer sequences are listed in Supplementary Table
S1.

Cell viability assay

5,000 cells/well HeLa-ecDHFR were seeded into 96-well plates. Cells were treated with
methotrexate for 4 days.10 µL CCK-8 reagents (Apexbio Technology) were added and incubated
at 37°C for 2 hr. Cell viability was determined as the absorbance at 450 nm using a plate reader.

Statistics

All statistical methods are indicated in the corresponding figure legends. Student's t-test or one-
way ANOVA was applied for normally distributed, homoscedastic data. Otherwise, the Wilcoxon
or Kruskal-Wallis test was used. All statistical tests were two-sided. P values from multi-
comparison tests were adjusted using the false discovery rate (FDR) method. Bar plots are
shown as mean ± SD. Box plots are shown as median and upper/lower quartiles, with whiskers
showing the 1.5× interquartile range. Each point in the dot plot represents a single cell or a
replicate. A density plot displaying the data distribution of each group is shown when applicable.

Data availability

HiC and CUT&RUN data will be uploaded to the NIH Sequence Read Archive (SRA) and made
publicly accessible upon the acceptance of the manuscript.

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Author contributions

Y. Xie and S. Wu conceptualized the research. Y. Xie, J.Y.S. Lim, and S. Wu developed the methodology and analyzed data. Y. Xie, J.Y.S. Lim, W. Liu, C. Gilbreath, and Y.J. Kim performed experiments. Y. Xie and S. Wu wrote the manuscript. Y.J. Kim and S. Wu supervised this research.

Declaration of interests

S. Wu is a member of the scientific advisory board of Dimension Genomics Inc. All other authors declare no competing interests.

Figure legends

Figure 1. Characterization of ecDNA interaction sites during mitosis. (A) Illustration of profiling ecDNA trans-interaction sites between G1 and M phases. **(B)** Representative *MYC* DNA FISH image on MSTO211H cells at metaphase showing *MYC* ecDNAs (scale bar: 5 µm). **(C)** HiC contact heatmap showing *MYC* ecDNA interactions between G1 and M phases. The *MYC* ecDNA locus is highlighted. **(D)** HiC contact heatmap showing decreased *MYC* ecDNA trans-interactions with chromosome 1 in the M phase compared to the G1 phase. **(E)** H3K27ac and H3K4me3 coverage profiles between ecDNA trans-interaction sites and 1,000 randomly selected 10-kb genomic intervals. **(F)** H3K27ac and H3K4me3 read counts between ecDNA trans-interaction sites and 1,000 randomly selected sites with 10-kb genomic intervals (two-sided Wilcoxon test).

Figure 2. Epigenetic regulators of ecDNA segregation. (A) Illustration depicting the writers of H3K27ac and H3K4me3 histone modifications. **(B)** Workflow showing the imaging approach to study ecDNA interaction with chromosomes during metaphase. A 12-16 hours nocodazole treatment was applied to enrich prophase and prometaphase cells after drug treatment or RNAi transfection, followed by a washout to release the cell cycle into the metaphase and anaphase. **(C)** H3K27ac CUT&RUN coverage profiles in DMSO, 5 µM A485, and 5 µM A485 +2 µM SAHA treated MSTO211H cells. TSS: Transcription start site; TES: Transcription end site. **(D)** Representative *MYC* ecDNA FISH on MSTO211H metaphase cells (scale bar: 5 µm). **(E)** Increased number of detached *MYC* ecDNAs per MSTO211H metaphase cell after 5 µM A485 treatment and rescued by 2 µM SAHA treatment (Kruskal-Wallis test with post-hoc Dunn test, two-sided). **(F)** Western blot showing decreased H3K27ac abundance in MSTO211H cells after CBP/P300 RNAi knockdown. **(G)** Representative *MYC* ecDNA FISH on MSTO211H metaphase cells after CBP/P300 knockdown (scale bar: 5 µm). **(H)** Elevated number of detached *MYC* ecDNAs per MSTO211H metaphase cell after CBP/P300 knockdown (two-sided Wilcoxon test).

Figure 3. Bromodomain proteins anchor ecDNAs to mitotic chromosomes. (A) Illustration of major bromodomain-containing proteins as the readers of H3K27ac histone modification. **(B)** Representative *MYC* and *FGFR2* ecDNA FISH on 100 nM dBET6 treated SNU16 metaphase cells (scale bar: 5 µm). **(C)** Increased number of detached *MYC* and *FGFR2* ecDNAs per SNU16 metaphase cells after dBET6 treatment (two-sided Wilcoxon test). **(D)** Western blot showing dose-responding degradation of BRD4 or SMARCA4 after dBET6 or AU15330 treatment in SNU16 cells. **(E)** Representative *MYC* ecDNA FISH on 200 nM dBET6 or 1000 nM AU15330 treated MSTO211H metaphase cells (scale bar: 5 µm). **(F)** The number of detached *MYC* ecDNAs per MSTO211H metaphase cell after dBET6 or AU15330 treatment (Kruskal-Wallis test with post-hoc Dunn test). **(G)** Representative *MYC* ecDNA FISH on 200 nM dBET6 and 1000 nM AU15330 treated MSTO211H metaphase cells (scale bar: 5 µm). **(H)** Increased number of detached *MYC* ecDNAs per MSTO211H metaphase cell after dBET6+AU15330 treatment (two-sided Wilcoxon test).

Figure 4. The kinase module of the Mediator complex regulates ecDNA segregation. (A) Illustration depicting the Mediator complex components. **(B)** *CDK8* or Cyclin C RNAi knockdown efficiency measured by mRNA qPCR in MSTO211H cells (two-sided Student's t-test). **(C)** Representative *MYC* ecDNA FISH on MSTO211H metaphase cells after *CDK8* knockdown (scale bar: 5 μm). **(D)** The number of detached *MYC* ecDNAs per MSTO211H metaphase cell after *CDK8* RNAi knockdown (two-sided Wilcoxon test). **(E)** Representative *MYC* ecDNA FISH on MSTO211H metaphase cells after Cyclin C knockdown (scale bar: 5 μm). **(F)** The number of detached *MYC* ecDNAs per MSTO211H metaphase cell after Cyclin C RNAi knockdown (two-sided Wilcoxon test). **(G)** *MED13* RNAi knockdown efficiency assessed by qPCR in MSTO211H cells (two-sided Student's t-test). **(H)** Representative *MYC* ecDNA FISH images showing the rescue effect of *MED13* knockdown in ecDNA attachment to mitotic chromosomes (scale bar: 5 μm). **(I)** Quantification of the number of detached *MYC* ecDNAs per MSTO211H metaphase cell after *CDK8* and *MED13* RNAi knockdown (Kruskal-Wallis test with post-hoc Dunn test).

Figure 5. Mitotic transcription is required for ecDNA segregation. (A) Illustration of transcription or translation inhibitors in this study. **(B)** Workflow showing the imaging approach to study ecDNA attachment with mitotic chromosomes during metaphase. A 12-hr nocodazole treatment was first applied to enrich prophase and prometaphase cells. Two or six hours before the nocodazole treatment endpoint, a transcription or translation inhibitor was added to cell culture, before washing out to release cells into metaphase and anaphase for fixation and imaging. **(C)** Representative *MYC* ecDNA FISH on MSTO211H metaphase cells after 2 μM actinomycin D or 2 μM triptolide treatment (scale bar: 5 μm). **(D)** Representative *MYC* ecDNA FISH on MSTO211H metaphase cells after 100 μg mL^{-1} α-amanitin treatment (scale bar: 5 μm). **(E)** The number of detached *MYC* ecDNAs per MSTO211H metaphase cell after actinomycin D, triptolide (Kruskal-Wallis test with post-hoc Dunn test), or α-amanitin treatment (two-sided Wilcoxon test). **(F)** Proposed molecular machinery anchoring ecDNAs to mitotic chromosomes for segregation.

Figure 6. The consequence of mis-segregated ecDNAs. (A) Live-cell imaging with COLO320DM TetO-MYC TetR-mNeonGreen cell line under the treatment with 1000 nM dBET6 (scale bar: 5 μm. White arrow: Detached ecDNA. Yellow arrow: Micronuclei-like morphology). **(B)** Workflow showing the long-term dBET6 or A485 treatment for functional assessments. ecDNA copy number was quantified by qPCR every week after treatment. dBET6 was washed out at least 24 hours before cell viability assessment by CCK8 assays. **(C)** qPCR results showing continuously decreased *MYC* ecDNA copy number in MSTO211H cells after 1-3 weeks of A485 treatment (one-way ANNOVA with post-hoc Dunnett test). **(D)** Representative *DHFR* ecDNA FISH on HeLa-ecDHFR metaphase cells after 50 nM dBET6 treatment (scale bar: 5 μm). **(E)** Increased number of detached *DHFR* ecDNAs per HeLa-ecDHFR metaphase cell after dBET6 treatment (two-sided Wilcoxon test). **(F)** qPCR results for *DHFR* ecDNA copy number in HeLa-ecDHFR cells after 1-4 weeks of dBET6 treatment (two-sided Student's t-test). **(G)** Methotrexate-

522   cell viability dose-response curves for HeLa-ecDHFR cells comparing cells pre-treated with

523   DMSO or dBET6 for 4 weeks.

Supplementary figure legends

Figure S1. HiC analysis to identify the epigenetic features of ecDNA trans-interaction sites during mitosis. (A) Abundant H3K27ac and H3K4me3 are present on ecDNAs at metaphase, determined by immunofluorescence. Arrows indicate ecDNAs (scale bar: 5 µm). **(B)** Workflow of integrative analysis of HiC and CUT&RUN data. Two HiC replicates from G1 and M phases sorted cell fraction were processed by the HiC-Pro pipeline to obtain contact maps. After the reproducibility check, replicates from the same cell cycle fraction were merged for trans-interaction analysis. Top interaction loci were extracted for subsequent CUT&RUN coverage analysis. **(C)** WGS track of MSTO211H cells showing the *MYC* ecDNA locus. **(D)** Number of valid pairs of each HiC library. **(E)** Stratum-adjusted correlation coefficient matrix among HiC libraries. **(F)** Density distribution of ecDNA trans-interaction contact counts in G1 and M phases. The top 0.1% ecDNA-derived trans-interactions were defined as significant interaction sites. **(G)** Representative H3K27ac and H3K4me3 coverage tracks of the ecDNA interaction sites.

Figure S2. Histone modifications facilitating ecDNA segregation. (A) Western blot showing a dose-response of H3K27ac downregulation after A485 treatment in SNU16 cells. **(B)** Representative *MYC* and *FGFR2* ecDNA FISH on 10 µM A485 treated SNU16 metaphase cells (scale bar: 5 µm). **(C)** The number of detached *MYC* and *FGFR2* ecDNA per SNU16 metaphase cell after A485 treatment (two-sided Wilcoxon test). **(D)** Dose-responding H3K27ac downregulation after A485 treatment in COLO320DM cells measured with Western blot. **(E)** Representative *MYC* ecDNA FISH on A485 treated COLO320DM metaphase cells (scale bar: 5 µm). **(F)** Elevated number of detached *MYC* ecDNAs per COLO320DM metaphase cell after A485 treatment (two-sided Wilcoxon test). **(G)** Western blot for H3K27ac in MSTO211H cells after A485 and SAHA treatment. **(H)** Representative CUT&RUN coverage tracks for H3K27ac after 5 µM A485 and 2 µM SAHA treatment in MSTO211H cells. **(I)** Western blot showing decreased H3K4me3 after *DPY30* and *RBBP5* RNAi knockdown in SNU16 cells. **(J)** Representative *MYC* and *FGFR2* ecDNA FISH on SNU16 metaphase cells after *DPY30* and *RBBP5* knockdown (scale bar: 5 µm). **(K)** The number of detached *MYC* and *FGFR2* ecDNA per SNU16 metaphase cell after *DPY30* and *RBBP5* RNAi knockdown (two-sided Wilcoxon test).

Figure S3. BET proteins in ecDNA segregation. (A) Heatmap for the mRNA expression level of all human bromodomain-containing proteins in ecDNA cancer cell lines. Data were obtained from public RNAseq. TPM: transcripts per million. **(B)** Western blot for BRD2, BRD3, and BRD4 in SNU16 cells after dBET6 treatment for 24 hours. **(C)** Western blot showing BRD4 degradation after dBET6 treatment for 24 hours in COLO320DM cells. **(D)** Representative *MYC* ecDNA FISH on 1000 nM dBET6 treated COLO320DM metaphase cells (scale bar: 5 µm). **(E)** The number of detached *MYC* ecDNA per COLO320DM metaphase cell after dBET6 treatment (two-sided Wilcoxon test). **(F)** RNAi knockdown efficiency of *BRD2*, *BRD3*, and *BRD4* quantified using qPCR (two-sided Student's t-test). **(G)** Representative *MYC* and *FGFR2* ecDNA FISH in SNU16 metaphase cells after *BRD2*, *BRD3*, or *BRD4* RNAi knockdown (scale bar: 5 µm). **(H)** The

number of detached *MYC* and *FGFR2* ecDNAs per SNU16 metaphase cell after *BRD2*, *BRD3*,
or *BRD4* RNAi knockdown (Kruskal-Wallis test with post-hoc Dunn test). **(I)** Western blot for
BRD4 and HA tag in COLO320DM-BRD4::FKBP12^{F36V} cells after dTAGv1 treatment. **(J)**
Representative *MYC* ecDNA FISH on COLO320DM-BRD4::FKBP12^{F36V} metaphase cells after
500 nM dTAGv1 treatment (scale bar: 5 µm). **(K)** The number of detached *MYC* ecDNA per
COLO320DM-BRD4::FKBP12^{F36V} metaphase cell after dTAGv1 treatment (two-sided Wilcoxon
test).

Figure S4. The kinase module of the Mediator complex regulates ecDNA segregation in
SNU16 cells. (A) qPCR results for Cyclin C and *CDK8* mRNA level in SNU16 cells after
corresponding RNAi knockdown (two-sided Student's t-test). **(B)** Representative *MYC* and
FGFR2 ecDNA FISH in SNU16 metaphase cells after Cyclin C or *CDK8* RNAi knockdown (scale
bar: 5 µm). **(C)** The number of detached *MYC* and *FGFR2* ecDNA per SNU16 metaphase cell
after Cyclin C or *CDK8* RNAi knockdown (Kruskal-Wallis test with post-hoc Dunn test).

Figure S5. Mitotic transcription and translation dependency for ecDNA segregation. (A)
Western blot for total and phospho-RPB1 Ser2/5 in MSTO211H cells after transcription inhibitors
treatment. **(B)** qPCR results for *MYC* mRNA level in MSTO211H cells after transcription inhibitors
treatment. The long half-life *RPL13A* transcript was used for normalization (one-way ANNOVA
with post-hoc Dunnett test). **(C)** Western blot for BRD4, SMARCA4, and CDK8 in MSTO211H
cells after transcription inhibitors treatment, showing limited impact on their protein levels after
short-term inhibition of transcription. **(D)** Representative images for O-propargyl-puromycin
signal, which represents nascent protein synthesis, in MSTO211H cells after 5 µg mL^{-1}
cycloheximide treatment (scale bar: 5 µm). **(E)** Representative *MYC* ecDNA FISH in MSTO211H
metaphase cells after 2 µM triptolide or 5µg mL^{-1} cycloheximide treatment (scale bar: 5 µm). The
2-hour triptolide treatment served as the positive control (scale bar: 5 µm). **(F)** The number of
detached *MYC* ecDNA per MSTO211H metaphase cell after triptolide or cycloheximide treatment
(Kruskal-Wallis test with post-hoc Dunn test).

Figure S6. Mis-segregated ecDNAs reduces oncogenicity. (A) Representative *MYC* and
FGFR2 ecDNA FISH in SNU16 interphase cells. Cells were treated with 10 µM A485 with a
nocodazole arrest and were subsequently released to the next cell cycle (scale bar: 5 µm). **(B)**
Cytosolic *MYC* and *FGFR2* ecDNAs per SNU16 interphase cell as measured by square pixel of
FISH signal outside of the main nucleus (two-sided Wilcoxon test). **(C)** Western blot for MYC in
MSTO211H cells after 2 weeks of A485 treatment. **(D)** Western blot for BRD4 in HeLa-ecDHFR
cells after dBET6 treatment.

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Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3

Figure 4

Figure 5

A

Transcription ⊣ Triptolide
                Actinomycin D
                α-Amanitin

Translation ⊣ Cycloheximide

B

Nocodazole arrest (12 hr)

2 µM Triptolide (6 hr)
2 µM Actinomycin D (6 hr)
100 µg/mL α-Amanitin (6 hr)
5 µg/mL Cycloheximide (2 hr)

Wash out & release (40 min)

Fix & FISH

Asynchronous   Prophase   Metaphase
                 Prometaphase   Anaphase

C

Merge   *MYC*   DAPI

DMSO

Triptolide

Actinomycin D

MSTO211H

D

Merge   *MYC*   DAPI

H$_2$O

α-Amanitin

MSTO211H

E

Detached MYC ecDNA

p = 2.45e-07
p = 9.25e-09
p=3.00e-13

DMSO   Triptolide   Actinomycin D   H$_2$O   α-Amanitin

F

Mediator complex
RNA polymerase II
Bromodomain proteins
H3K27ac

Figure 6

A Merge / H2B / ecDNA

00:00:00 00:08:00 00:12:00 01:44:00 02:04:00

B A485 or dBET6 1-4 weeks | Wash out & recover (24 hr) | MTX treatment (96 hr) | Cell viability test

Copy number quantification

C Copy number vs Week — DMSO, 1 μM, 2 μM, 5 μM

D Merge / DHFR / DAPI — DMSO, dBET6 — HeLa-ecDHFR

E Detached DHFR ecDNA — DMSO, dBET6 — p = 3.346e-07

F Copy number vs Week — DMSO, dBET6

G Cell viability vs Methotrexate (nM) — DMSO, dBET6

Figure S1

Figure S2

Figure S3

A Bromodomain genes TPM in ecDNA cell lines

B SNU16 — 24 hours

dBET6 (nM): 0 50 100 200 500 1000

BRD4 — 220 kDa
BRD3 — 100 kDa
BRD2 — 110 kDa
GAPDH — 37 kDa

C COLO320DM — 24 hours

dBET6 (nM): 0 50 100 200 500 1000

BRD4 — 220 kDa
GAPDH — 37 kDa

D Merge / *MYC* / DAPI — DMSO, dBET6 — COLO320DM

E p = 7.87e-04 — Detached MYC ecDNA — DMSO, dBET6

F Normalized expression — siControl/siBRD2, siControl/siBRD3, siControl/siBRD4

G Merge / *MYC* / *FGFR2* / DAPI — siControl, siBRD2, siBRD3, siBRD4 — SNU16

H Detached MYC ecDNA — p = 0.07, p = 0.70, p = 0.42 — siControl, siBRD2, siBRD3, siBRD4

Detached FGFR2 ecDNA — p = 1.00, p = 1.00, p = 0.80 — siControl, siBRD2, siBRD3, siBRD4

I COLO320DM-BRD4::FKBP12^F36V — 24 hours

dTAGv1 (nM): 0 100 250 500 1000

BRD4 — 220 kDa
HA — 220 kDa
GAPDH — 37 kDa

J Merge / *MYC* / DAPI — DMSO, dTAGv1 — COLO320DM-BRD4::FKBP12^F36V

K p = 0.068 — Detached MYC ecDNA — DMSO, dTAGv1

Figure S4

Figure S5

Figure S6

A

	DMSO	A485
Merge		
MYC		
FGFR2		
DAPI		

SNU16

B

p = 5.771e-09

Cytosolic MYC ecDNA — DMSO, A485

p = 8.472e-07

Cytosolic FGFR2 ecDNA — DMSO, A485

C

MSTO211H — 2 weeks

A485 (µM)   0   1   2   5

MYC — 62 kDa

GAPDH — 37 kDa

D

HeLa ecDHFR — 48 hours

dBET6 (nM)   0   1   5   10   20   50

BRD4 — 220 kDa

GAPDH — 37 kDa