Suppression of interferon gene expression overcomes
 resistance to MEK inhibition in *KRAS*-mutant colorectal
 cancer

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36 Abstract

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38 Despite showing clinical activity in BRAF-mutant melanoma, the MEK inhibitor (MEKi) 39 trametinib has failed to show clinical benefit in KRAS-mutant colorectal cancer. To identify 40 mechanisms of resistance to MEKi we employed a pharmacogenomic analysis of MEKi-41 sensitive versus MEKi-resistant colorectal cancer cell lines. Strikingly, interferon- and 42 inflammatory-related gene sets were enriched in cell lines exhibiting intrinsic and acquired 43 resistance to MEK inhibition. The bromodomain inhibitor JQ1 suppressed interferon-44 stimulated gene (ISG) expression and in combination with MEK inhibitors displayed 45 synergistic effects and induced apoptosis in MEKi-resistant colorectal cancer cell lines. ISG 46 expression was confirmed in patient-derived organoid models which displayed resistance to 47 trametinib and were resensitized by JQ1 co-treatment. In in vivo models of colorectal cancer 48 combination treatment significantly suppressed tumor growth. Our findings provide a novel 49 explanation for the limited response to MEK inhibitors in KRAS-mutant colorectal cancer, 50 known for its inflammatory nature. Moreover, the high expression of ISGs was associated 51 with significantly reduced survival of colorectal cancer patients. Excitingly, we have identified 52 novel therapeutic opportunities to overcome intrinsic and acquired resistance to MEK 53 inhibition in colorectal cancer.

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56 Introduction

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58 Common genetic alterations responsible for the development and progression of 59 colorectal cancer (CRC) include inactivation of the tumor suppressors APC and TP53 and 60 mutational activation of KRAS (1, 2). A recently described model of inducible Apc and Trp53 loss and Kras<sup>G12D</sup> expression in colonic intestinal epithelial cells demonstrated this by 61 recapitulating the progression from adenoma to carcinoma, with a key role of *Kras<sup>G12D</sup>* being 62 63 to accelerate tumorigenesis and increase the incidence of metastatic disease (3). Importantly, extinction of Kras<sup>G12D</sup> in tumors caused them to revert to adenomas, 64 65 underscoring their continued dependence on mutant Kras and providing further confirmation 66 that Kras signaling remains an important driver of late-stage disease. Increasing evidence 67 implicates oncogenic Ras in the modulation of the tumor microenvironment to support tumor 68 growth (4, 5). This is achieved by paracrine signaling from tumor cells to the stroma via 69 secretion of cytokines such as IL-6 and IL-8 (CXCL8) which promote invasion, 70 neovascularization and inflammatory responses (6, 7). Notably, genetic or pharmacological 71 approaches to target cytokines or their receptors have shown promising signs of anti-tumor 72 activity (6, 8, 9). However, there remain concerns that targeting individual cytokines or their 73 receptors may be insufficient and that broader blockade of cytokine networks may be 74 required for therapeutic efficacy.

75 Current approved targeted therapies for colorectal cancer include anti-angiogenic 76 drugs such as bevacizumab and regorafenib as well as epidermal growth factor receptor 77 inhibitors cetuximab and panitumumab for KRAS wildtype cancer (10-13). The demonstration 78 that oncogenic KRAS prompted activation of the MAPK pathway prompted concerted efforts 79 to develop inhibitors of MEK, a key intermediary of KRAS signaling (14). This work 80 culminated in the FDA approval of the MEK inhibitor trametinib for BRAF-mutant melanoma 81 (15). However, trametinib failed to demonstrate significant clinical activity in other RAS-82 mutant cancers, including colorectal cancer (16).

83 Resistance to MEK inhibitors has been attributed to mutation of the drug-binding site 84 of MEK (17), or through suppression of negative feedback regulation of receptor tyrosine 85 kinases such as ERBB3 and FGFR1 (18, 19) and CRAF-mediated reactivation of MEK (20). 86 Our study has focussed on identifying pre-existing transcriptional states associated with 87 resistance that may not have been elucidated by the kinome-focussed, RNA interference 88 screens used in prior studies (18-20). We hypothesised that cell lines exhibiting intrinsic 89 resistance to MEK inhibition may have distinct transcriptional profiles which render them 90 indifferent to MAPK pathway inhibition. To this end we utilized a pharmacogenomics analysis 91 of KRAS-mutant colorectal cancer cell lines with differing sensitivity to pharmacologic MEK 92 inhibition and identified transcriptional states associated with resistance. We demonstrate a 93 striking enrichment of interferon- and inflammation-regulated genes in MEK inhibitor-resistant 94 cell lines and importantly, we further associate these transcriptional states to the 95 development of acquired resistance to MEK inhibition. Moreover, we describe in colorectal 96 cell lines, organoids from metastatic patient samples and in xenograft and syngeneic models, 97 a therapeutic strategy to suppress inflammatory gene expression, restore sensitivity to MEK 98 inhibition and forestall the emergence of drug-resistant populations.

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101 **Results** 

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### 103 Elevated expression of inflammatory/interferon-stimulated genes is associated with

- 104 resistance to MEK inhibition
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106 We set out to identify gene expression differences between KRAS-mutant, colorectal 107 cancer cell lines that were either sensitive or resistant to MEK inhibition. Utilizing the Cancer 108 Cell Line Encyclopaedia (CCLE), we classified the 13 cell lines based on their GI<sub>50</sub> to the 109 second generation MEK inhibitor PD0325901 (21). 4 cell lines were classified resistant, 110  $(GI_{50}>8 \mu mol/L)$  and 9 were classified as sensitive  $(GI_{50}<250 nmol/L)$ . We used comparative 111 marker selection to identify genes that were differentially expressed between the two groups 112 and focussed on the 140 genes that showed increased expression in the resistant cell lines 113 by a factor of 2-fold or greater (Figure 1A). We confirmed that the mRNA expression of 114 USP18, CXCL10, MX1 and IFIT1 was significantly increased in resistant cell lines (Figure 115 1B). Unbiased gene-set enrichment analysis (GSEA) demonstrated that interferon- and 116 inflammation-related gene-sets were enriched in the resistant cells (Figure 1C) and the three 117 top-ranking gene sets were characteristic of responses to interferon alpha and beta (Figure 118 1D).

119 Recently, the MEK inhibitor trametinib was approved for the treatment of BRAF-120 mutant melanoma. However, trametinib failed to show any activity in BRAF or KRAS-mutant 121 colorectal cancer (16). Based on our data above and the findings that inflammation can drive 122 the development of colorectal cancer, that oncogenic KRAS is known to induce an 123 inflammatory environment in the colon, and that chemotherapies also cause increased 124 inflammation in the colon, we hypothesized that intrinsic or chemotherapy-induced 125 inflammation may result in a tumor microenvironment that renders cells resistant to 126 trametinib (22-24). Therefore, we firstly confirmed that cell lines known to be resistant to 127 PD0325901 also displayed resistance to trametinib (GI<sub>50</sub>>10 nmol/L) (Figure S1). We

128 assessed the expression of some of the genes identified above at the protein level and found 129 that IFIT1, MX1 and USP18 were more abundant in MEKi-resistant cell lines T84 and LS123, 130 whereas ISG15 showed more variable expression (Figure 1E, Fig S2). SNUC2A cells did 131 not express MX1 or USP18 but did show greater expression of IFIT1 compared to untreated. 132 sensitive cell lines. In the resistant T84 and LS123 cell lines treatment with trametinib had 133 little effect on the (already high) expression of MX1, IFIT1 and USP18, but induced the 134 expression of IFIT1 in the sensitive cell lines and in the SNUC2A cells (Figure 1E). We also 135 observed a trend for higher levels of NFκB phosphorylation in the MEK-inhibitor resistant cell 136 lines. Consistent with our data, we found evidence for increased expression of various ISGs 137 in MEK-inhibitor resistant T84 and LS123 cells in a recently published proteomics dataset 138 (25)(Figure S3A). GSEA analysis of the proteomics data confirmed significant enrichment of 139 interferon gene sets in the resistant cell lines (Figure S3B). Overall, these data suggested 140 that increased ISG expression is not only associated with intrinsic resistance to MEK 141 inhibition but can be induced by treatment in sensitive cell lines.

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# Acquired resistance to MEK inhibition results in ISG expression and subtype-switching

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146 Given that IFIT1 expression was induced in sensitive cell lines following 72 h 147 treatment with trametinib, we hypothesized that an adaptive response to MEK inhibition 148 would be to upregulate ISGs and this might contribute towards acquired resistance to 149 trametinib. Therefore, we treated HCT116 human colon cancer cells with increasing 150 concentrations of trametinib over 2 months. Drug-resistant clones emerged and were 151 cultured in the presence of 30 nmol/L trametinib. These cells exhibited a greater than 10-fold 152 increase in the Gl<sub>50</sub> for trametinib compared to the parental cell line (Figure 2A). RNA-seq of 153 the resistant clone HCT116 R4 versus the parental cells identified many of the ISGs that we 154 previously identified to be overexpressed in the intrinsically-resistant cell lines (Figure 2B).

155 We confirmed increased expression of some of these immune-related genes, including TNF $\alpha$ 156 and IL1 $\alpha$  by RT-qPCR in additional, trametinib-resistant clones (Figure S4A). Moreover, 157 addition of recombinant TNF $\alpha$ , or IL1 $\alpha$  to the culture medium of HCT116 cells was sufficient 158 to confer resistance to trametinib (Figure S4B), alongside activation of NFkB (Figure S4C). 159 GSEA of the RNA-seq data revealed that inflammatory/interferon-related gene sets including 160 TNF $\alpha$  signaling, NF $\kappa$ B target genes and interferon-response genes were ranked in the top 6 161 gene sets (Figure 2C, Table S1). Furthermore, a significant enrichment of inflammatory 162 marker genes that signify the inflammatory subtype of colorectal cancer was present in the 163 HCT116 R4 cell line (Figure 2D). This suggests that the trametinib-resistant HCT116 colon 164 cancer cells may have transitioned from the stem-like subtype to the inflammatory subtype, 165 as defined by Sadanadam et al. (26). Given the increase in NF $\kappa$ B target genes, as 166 highlighted by the RNA-seg data, the activation state of NFkB was verified by Western 167 blotting. In the parental HCT116 cell line, treatment with trametinib induced NFKB p65 168 phosphorylation and increased the expression of IFIT1. In the resistant HCT116 R4 cells, 169 basal NF<sub>k</sub>B phosphorylation and expression was notably higher, relative to the parental 170 cells, and basal IFIT1 expression was also elevated (Figure 2E, Figure S5). Altered 171 expression of USP18 and MX1 was not detected (data not shown). Taken together, these 172 data support our hypothesis that an interferon/inflammatory gene expression program 173 operates both in intrinsically MEKi-resistant colon cancer cells and in those that acquire 174 resistance to trametinib.

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176 Inhibition of bromodomain proteins suppresses inflammatory gene expression and
 177 restores sensitivity to trametinib

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Given that inflammatory gene expression appeared to associate with resistance to MEK inhibition, we hypothesized that its suppression may restore sensitivity to trametinib in resistant cell lines. The bromodomain inhibitor JQ1 inhibits inflammatory gene expression by

182 the suppression of inflammatory gene super enhancers and via inhibition of NF<sub>KB</sub> p65 183 (RELA) and NFkB-driven super enhancers (27, 28). Therefore, we tested the effect of 184 combined trametinib and JQ1 treatment on MEK inhibitor-resistant cell lines. Treatment of 185 T84, SNUC2A and LS123 cells with either trametinib or JQ1 alone had only modest effects 186 on cell proliferation, whereas the combination of both compounds resulted in a reduction of 187 cell proliferation, including a net loss of cells relative to the number prior to treatment for T84 188 and SNUC2A cell lines (Figure 3A). Notably, the proliferation rate of CCD841CoN colorectal 189 normal epithelial cells was reduced by JQ1 alone and the combination of trametinib and JQ1 190 but not to the same extent as the cancer cell lines. A significantly increased apoptotic 191 population was observed with the drug combination versus DMSO or single-agent treatment, 192 as determined by annexin V staining (Figure 3B) and PARP cleavage (Figure 3C). Only a 193 modest increase in annexin V staining and PARP cleavage was observed in CCD841CoN 194 cells, which appeared to be mainly in response to JQ1 treatment. In colony assays, 195 trametinib and JQ1 had little effect on their own but their combination robustly inhibited 196 proliferation of the cancer cell lines. However, in the CCD841CoN epithelial cells JQ1 197 treatment alone did significantly reduce cell proliferation and consequently no additional 198 benefit of the combination was observed (Figure 3D, Figure S6). We employed the Bliss 199 independence model to assess the combination of trametinib and JQ1 and observed synergy 200 across a matrix of concentrations for each agent (Figure 3E). In agreement with the above, 201 only slight synergy was observed in the CCD841CoN colon epithelial cells.

202 Consistent with best practice for the use of chemical probes (29), we used a second, 203 chemically distinct bromodomain inhibitor, I-BET-151, also shown to suppress inflammatory 204 gene expression (30), and confirmed that it too could sensitize cells to trametinib (**Figure** 205 **4A**). In addition, we used siRNAs against BRD4 or NF $\kappa$ B p65 to achieve robust decreases in 206 BRD4 or NF $\kappa$ B p65 protein expression (**Figure 4B**). Increased antiproliferative activity of 207 trametinib was observed with the combination of BRD4 or NF $\kappa$ B knockdown (**Figure 4C**). 208 Furthermore, knockdown of IFIT1 or MYC, a known BRD4 target gene (31) (**Figure 4B**), also

209 sensitized the cells to trametinib (Figure 4C). Notably, knockdown of BRD4 also led to a 210 decrease in the expression of IFIT1 (but not MYC) providing further evidence for regulation of 211 IFIT1 by BRD4 and suggesting it may be necessary to target multiple BET family proteins to 212 suppress MYC expression (Figure 4B). Therefore, genetic suppression of BRD4, NFκB, 213 IFIT1 or MYC sensitises cells to MEK inhibition, raising confidence that suppression of 214 BRD4, NF $\kappa$ B, IFIT1 and MYC may contribute to the effect of JQ1. To investigate this at the 215 level of transcriptional regulation, we performed RNA-seq of T84 cells treated for 24 h with 216 DMSO, trametinib, JQ1 or the combination of trametinib and JQ1. Treatment with trametinib 217 resulted in increased expression of inflammatory genes, with GSEA analysis again showing 218 inflammation- and interferon-regulated gene sets to be highly enriched under these 219 conditions (Figure 5A&B). Treatment with JQ1, either alone or in the presence of trametinib 220 resulted in a marked reduction of inflammatory/interferon-regulated genes with the gene sets 221 we had previously associated with resistance being ranked as the most depleted (Figure 222 **5A&B**). Furthermore, by examining the expression of the 140 genes initially identified in the 223 CCLE dataset as being upregulated in MEK inhibitor-resistant cell lines, a cluster of JQ1-224 sensitive inflammatory/interferon genes emerged. These genes were mostly induced by 225 trametinib treatment and were repressed by JQ1, either alone or in combination with 226 trametinib (Figure 5C, Table S2). We confirmed the suppression of inflammatory proteins by 227 JQ1 in T84, SNUC2A and LS123 colon cancer cells treated with trametinib, JQ1, or both 228 agents combined for 72 h (Figure 5D). The expression of MX1, IFIT1, ISG15 and MYC was 229 reduced by JQ1, either alone or in combination with trametinib. The combination treatment 230 also led to slightly greater inhibition of ERK1/2 phosphorylation compared to either agent 231 alone.

We hypothesised that treatment with JQ1 would suppress the emergence of acquired resistance to trametinib. When cultured in the presence of 30 nmol/L trametinib, HCT116 cells initially responded but by 4 weeks of treatment cells became resistant to trametinib and formed viable colonies. Treatment with 300 nmol/L JQ1 alone had a modest effect on cell

236 proliferation but the combination of both agents robustly suppressed the emergence of 237 resistant colonies (Figure S7A). We further confirmed this in HCT116 cells grown as 238 spheroids (Figure S7B). We next assessed whether cells that had acquired resistance to 239 trametinib could be challenged successfully with JQ1 at a later point in time. Compared to 240 the parental cell line, the trametinib-resistant clones were up to 5-fold more sensitive to JQ1 241 (Figure S7C). Notably, compared to the parental line, the HCT116 R4 cell line was 242 dramatically more susceptible to long-term treatment with JQ1, either in the presence or 243 absence of trametinib, as shown by colony formation assay (Figure S7D). Notably, 244 proliferation of the HCT116\_R4 clone was impaired when trametinib was washed out, 245 suggesting the cells had adapted to proliferate in the presence of trametinib. JQ1 treatment 246 suppressed trametinib-induced IFIT1 expression in the HCT116 cells and reduced both basal 247 and trametinib-induced IFIT1 expression in the HCT116\_R4 cells (Figure S7E). Taken 248 together, these data demonstrate that ISG expression is observed in cell lines exhibiting 249 intrinsic or acquired resistance to trametinib and that suppression of ISG expression restores 250 sensitivity to trametinib and suppresses the emergence of acquired resistance.

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## Patient-derived colorectal cancer organoids express inflammatory genes, are resistant to trametinib but are sensitive to dual JQ1/trametinib treatment

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255 To test the hypothesis that KRAS-mutant colorectal cancers display high expression 256 of inflammatory genes, which may predispose them to be resistant to MEK inhibition, we 257 made use of a panel of patient-derived organoid (PDO) cultures from KRAS-mutant 258 colorectal cancers (32). Compared to the trametinib-sensitive cell line SW620, and in 259 common with the T84 and SNUC2A trametinib-resistant cell lines, the PDOs exhibited 260 elevated expression of inflammatory genes such as MX1, IFI44L, IL1 $\alpha$ , IL2 and TNF $\alpha$ 261 (Figure 6A). Furthermore, all but one of the PDO cultures (R-011 BL, which has a gain of 262 BRAF) were classified as resistant to trametinib with GI<sub>50</sub> values in excess of 10 nmol/L 263 (**Figure 6B**). Excitingly, in those PDOs that were most resistant to trametinib we found that

264 sensitivity could be restored by co-treatment with JQ1 and that this combination was highly 265 synergistic in 5/7 PDO cultures (Figure 6C). Trametinib treatment increased CXCL10, MX1 266 and  $TNF\alpha$  mRNA expression but their expression and that of IL1 $\alpha$ , IFIT1 and IL6 was 267 reduced to basal levels or less by JQ1 treatment (Figure 6D). Notably, the combination of 268 trametinib and JQ1 did lead to more complete suppression of genes that reflect the resistant 269 state eq. MX1, IL1 $\alpha$ , IL6 and MYC expression. Inhibition of MX1, IFIT1 and MYC protein 270 expression was observed with combined treatment (Figure 6E, Figure S8). These data 271 therefore provide key, clinically relevant support to our hypothesis that colorectal cancers 272 may be influenced by inflammatory environments or may engage inflammatory pathways or transcriptional programs that promote resistance to trametinib, and that the rational 273 274 combination of bromodomain inhibitors and trametinib is a potential therapeutic strategy.

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## The combination of trametinib and JQ1 suppresses the growth of *KRAS*-driven tumors *in vivo*

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279 We wished to confirm that our therapeutic approach of inhibiting bromodomain 280 proteins to overcome resistance to MEK inhibition is tolerated and efficacious in animal 281 models and established the KRAS-mutant, T84 cell line as a xenograft model of intrinsic 282 resistance to MEK inhibition in NCr nude mice. Once tumors were established, we treated 283 mice with vehicle, trametinib, JQ1 or the combination of trametinib and JQ1 (Figure 7A). JQ1 284 alone had little effect on tumor growth, whereas trametinib slowed tumor growth by ~50%. 285 However, the combination of both agents resulted in near-complete suppression of tumor 286 growth during the 28 d dosing period. This dosing schedule was well tolerated and any 287 weight loss was within acceptable limits (Figure 7B). On termination of treatment, tumor 288 growth resumed in the trametinib and combination groups (Figure S9A), with only the 289 combination group significantly inhibiting tumor growth out to 42 d. The combination led to an 290 improved median survival of 74.5 d which approached significance (p=0.0512), versus 52.5 d

291 with trametinib alone, 42 d with JQ1 alone (both not significant) when compared to 44.5 d 292 with vehicle (Figure S9B). The combination treatment gave a significantly improved survival 293 compared to JQ1 treatment alone (p=0.0131) but this was not significantly better than 294 trametinib alone (p=0.4357). To confirm the efficacy of this combination in an 295 immunocompetent model, we used the Kras-mutant, CT26 mouse syngeneic model in 296 BALB/C mice. Whereas trametinib and JQ1 failed to slow tumor growth, the combination of 297 both agents markedly suppressed tumor growth over 14 d (Figure 7C) and was well 298 tolerated by the mice (Figure 7D).

299 Given the potential of trametinib and JQ1 to alter the tumor immune cell landscape by 300 modulating inflammatory gene expression (as described herein) or by direct effects on 301 immune cells, we assessed immune cell populations within the CT26 tumors by multi-color 302 flow-cytometry following 14 d of dosing (see Figure S10 for gating strategy). We identified an 303 increase in tumor-associated CD8+ cells following trametinib treatment that was reversed by 304 co-treatment with JQ1 (Figure 7E). Trametinib alone and the combination of JQ1 and 305 trametinib also caused a significant increase in CD4+ T cells (Figure 7E). Notably, the 306 number of Tregs was increased by trametinib treatment and the combination of JQ1 and 307 trametinib (Figure 7E). JQ1 treatment alone and when combined with trametinib resulted in 308 increased PD-1 expression on CD8+ cells, indicative of T cell exhaustion (Figure 7F).

309 Hypothesising that increased expression of inflammatory genes may associate with 310 more aggressive disease in the clinic, we identified a panel of 66 genes that associated with 311 MEK inhibitor resistance in the CCLE dataset and were suppressed by JQ1 treatment in T84 312 cells (**Table S2**). Colorectal cancer patients with amplification or increased mRNA expression 313 of these genes exhibited a significantly reduced overall survival in the TCGA/cBioPortal 314 dataset (33, 34) (**Figure 7G**).

315

316 Discussion

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318 Intrinsic and acquired drug resistance are significant hurdles to overcome to 319 maximise the utility of precision medicine. Our study focussed on understanding why the 320 MEK inhibitor trametinib, despite showing good clinical activity in BRAF-mutant melanoma, 321 failed to show any clinical response in KRAS-mutant colorectal cancer (16). Our data 322 describe a transcriptional state associated with resistance to selective MEK inhibitors, 323 defined by interferon and inflammation-mediated responses and involving NF  $\kappa$ B activation, 324 constitutively activated in a high proportion of colorectal cancers (35). To our knowledge this 325 is the first report to implicate an interferon/inflammatory transcriptional signature in intrinsic or 326 acquired resistance to MEK inhibition. Given the highly inflammatory, cytokine-rich, 327 environment of the colon, as observed in colitis-associated cancer and in heavily pre-treated 328 cancer patients, we propose that inflammation may have rendered tumors resistant to 329 trametinib (16, 36, 37).

330 JQ1 in combination with trametinib synergistically inhibits the proliferation of MEK 331 inhibitor-resistant cell lines and induces apoptosis. Transcriptional profiling implicates the 332 expression of inflammatory genes in MEK inhibitor resistance, both abrogated by JQ1. 333 Notably, MEK inhibition was recently shown to overcome resistance to BRD4 inhibition in 334 colorectal cancer through suppression of MYC (38). In our RNA-seg analysis of the KRAS-335 mutant, MEK inhibitor-resistant T84 cell line, a MYC gene signature suppressed by JQ1 336 treatment was ranked 13<sup>th</sup>, with 7 of the top 12 gene sets representing signatures of TNF, 337 interferon and other cytokine-mediated gene expression. However, enrichment of MYC gene 338 expression signatures was not observed in our model of acquired resistance to trametinib. 339 Nevertheless, knockdown of MYC by siRNA did sensitize cells to MEK inhibition so is likely 340 to contribute to the antiproliferative effects observed. Overall, our data link interferon and 341 inflammatory gene expression to both mechanisms of intrinsic and acquired resistance to 342 MEK inhibition.

343 Importantly, we provide evidence that the combination of trametinib and JQ1 is 344 efficacious in PDOs and *in vivo* using models that display resistance to trametinib. Notably, 345 the PDO cultures did express relatively high levels of cytokines and ISGs that we have

346 implicated in resistance to trametinib. This suggests they are reflective of a more 347 inflammatory state, possibly a consequence of tumor-induced inflammation or in response to 348 prior chemotherapies. Despite the observed antiproliferative activity of JQ1 towards normal 349 colon epithelial cells in the colony formation assays, our in vivo studies demonstrate that the 350 combination of JQ1 and trametinib was tolerated by the mice. However, this does raise 351 concerns that chronic dosing of JQ1 could have undesirable gastrointestinal toxicities in 352 patients that could limit the therapeutic window of this approach. Nevertheless, recent clinical 353 studies have also demonstrated that the first-in-class bromodomain inhibitor birabresib is 354 tolerated by cancer patients with manageable toxicities (39, 40). The adoption of intermittent 355 dosing strategies may have the potential to limit such effects and emerging bromodomain 356 inhibitors with differing selectivity profiles could conceivably exhibit different toxicity profiles 357 than birabresib. Long-term dosing would likely be required as we have shown that withdrawal 358 of treatment does eventually lead to regrowth of the tumor. Nevertheless, the combination 359 group maintained a significant inhibition of tumor growth relative to the vehicle control out to 360 at least 42 d, which was not observed with the single agent groups. The immunocompetent 361 CT26 syngeneic model enabled assessment of the immune cell population within the tumor. 362 The increase in tumor-associated CD4+ cells following trametinib treatment, raises the 363 possibility that Th1-polarised CD4+ T cells may contribute to the antitumor activity observed 364 (41). However, as antitumor activity is only observed in combination with JQ1, an increase in 365 CD4+ cells alone is insufficient to drive efficacy. The combination treatment also significantly 366 increased the number of Tregs, possibly suggestive of an immuno-suppressive mechanism. 367 Finally, increased PD-1 expression on CD8+ cells induced by JQ1, which was further 368 increased when in combination with trametinib, indicates higher levels of T cell activity and T 369 cell exhaustion. We speculate this could be due to increased antigen release from dying 370 tumor cells or as yet undiscovered direct effects on immune cells. Overall, given that synergy 371 between trametinib and JQ1 is observed in vitro and in the NCr nude mouse model, where 372 the immune system is either absent or substantially impaired, together with the suppressive

effects of JQ1 on immune cell infiltrates in the CT26 syngeneic model, it is likely that synergyarises mainly through direct effects on the tumor cells.

375 Our association of a 66-gene signature with poor survival in colorectal cancer patients 376 is suggestive of the potential clinical relevance of this study and supports the investigation of 377 combinatorial strategies to counter the intrinsic resistance to MEK inhibitors observed in 378 colorectal cancer (16). Inflammatory cytokines such as  $IL1\beta$ , CXCL1 and CXCL8 (IL8) have 379 been linked to cetuximab resistance in colorectal cancer (42). Combining MEK inhibitors with 380 clinical stage antagonists of cytokine receptors such as anakinra which blocks the IL1 381 receptor, infliximab which binds TNF $\alpha$  and MABp1 which binds IL1 $\alpha$  may yield novel 382 therapeutic strategies to suppress cytokine-mediated resistance (43-45). However, targeting 383 individual components may conceivably be inferior to a broader blockade. Thus, bromodomain inhibitors may overcome multiple mechanisms of resistance to targeted 384 385 therapy. Recently, bromodomain inhibition has been shown to suppress enhancer 386 remodelling induced by trametinib and overcome resistance in breast cancer (46). Moreover, 387 JQ1 treatment has shown synergistic activity with trametinib in MPNSTs driven by NF1 388 mutation and PRC2 loss (47), suggesting further utility of this therapeutic approach in other 389 tumor types. Our data support the continued development of bromodomain inhibitors and 390 further investigation of their utility in combinatorial therapeutic strategies for KRAS-mutant 391 colorectal cancer, to maximise response to targeted agents and suppress mechanisms of 392 intrinsic and acquired resistance.

393

#### 394 Materials and methods

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396 Cell culture and reagents

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398 Human and mouse cancer cell lines were obtained from the American Type Culture 399 Collection (Teddington, UK) or the Deutsche Sammlung von Mikroorganismen und

Zellkulturen (Braunschweig, Germany) and grown in the recommended culture medium, supplemented with 10% FBS, at 37°C and an atmosphere of 5% CO<sub>2</sub>. Cell lines were routinely tested for mycoplasma and not cultured for longer than 20 passages. Patient derived organoids (PDOs) and their culture conditions have been previously described (32). *KRAS* mutations in PDOs and matching parental tissue were confirmed by targeted Next Generation Sequencing (NGS) (32). Inhibitors were purchased from Stratech Scientific Ltd. (Ely, UK). Recombinant cytokines were purchased from Peprotech (London, UK).

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#### 408 Immunoblotting

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410 Cell lysis and immunoblotting techniques were as previously described (48, 49). The 411 antibodies used against specific proteins and their concentrations for immunoblotting in this 412 study are listed in the **Table S3**.

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#### 414 **Cell proliferation assays**

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416 Cell proliferation assays were as previously described and quantified using CellTiter-417 Blue (Promega, Southampton, UK) (49). The drug response assay used for PDOs has been 418 described in detail (32). Colony formation assays were conducted as previously described 419 (49). Where cell counting was used to assay cell proliferation, cells were seeded into 6 well 420 plates in triplicate per condition and treated with compounds for 72 h. Viable cell number was 421 determined by trypan blue staining and normalized to the cell number prior to treatment. For 422 3D spheroid culture, cells were seeded into 96 well ultra-low attachment plates (Corning, 423 Amsterdam, The Netherlands) and allowed to establish for 48 h prior to treatment. Spheroid 424 diameter was measured over time using imaging cytometry (Celigo, Nexcelom, Manchester, 425 UK).

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#### 427 Apoptosis assay

429 Cells were treated with either DMSO or the indicated compounds. After 72 h cells 430 were stained with annexin V and propidium iodide using the Annexin V Apoptosis Detection 431 Kit (eBioscience, Renfrew, UK) and analyzed by flow cytometry (LSRII, BD Biosciences, 432 Wokingham, UK).

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434 Quantitative real-time PCR

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436 Total RNA was extracted from cells using the miRNeasy Mini Kit (Qiagen, 437 Manchester, UK) and reverse-transcribed using the high capacity cDNA reverse-transcription 438 kit (Applied Biosystems, Renfrew, UK). The PCR was performed using the Fast SYBR Green 439 Master Mix (Applied Biosystems) on a ViiA 7 Real-Time PCR System (Applied Biosystems). 440 Primer combinations were designed usina the Harvard Primer Bank 441 (http://pga.mgh.harvard.edu/primerbank) (Table S4).

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#### 443 **RNA-sequencing**

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445 Total RNA was isolated using the miRNeasy kit (Qiagen, Manchester, UK). RNA 446 samples were quality controlled and sequenced by the Tumour Profiling Unit of the Institute 447 of Cancer Research (ICR, London). NEB (Hitchin, UK) polyA kit was used to select the 448 mRNA. Strand specific libraries were generated from the mRNA using the NEB ultra 449 directional kit. Illumina paired-end libraries were sequenced on a HiSeq2500 (Illumina, Little 450 Chesterford, UK) using v4 chemistry acquiring 2 x 100 bp reads. Bcl2fastq software (v1.8.4, 451 Illumina) was used for converting the raw base calls to fastqs and to further demultiplex the 452 sequencing data. The paired-end fastg files were used for further analysis. Tophat2 spliced 453 alignment software was used to align reads to the reference genome (GRCH37) in 454 combination with Bowtie2. Once the reads were aligned, HTSeq-count was used to count the 455 number of reads mapping unambiguously to genomic features in each sample. Differential expression analysis of the count data was done in R using the DESeq2 Bioconductor package. The lists of up- and down-regulated differentially expressed genes were then tested for enrichment of gene sets uniquely defining the previously defined CRC subtypes (26) using the Gage Bioconductor package (50). RNAseq data were deposited at the Gene Expression Omnibus database: GSE118490 for the parental HCT116 cells and HCT116\_R4 clone and GSE118548 for the T84 trametinib/JQ1 combination experiment.

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#### 463 siRNA assays

464

siRNAs targeting *BRD4* (L-004937-00-0005), *NFkB p65* (L-003533-00-0005), *IFIT1*(L-019616-00-0005) and *MYC* (L-003282-02-005) (ON-TARGET plus SMARTpool,
Dharmacon, Cambridge, UK) and a non-targeting siNT-control (D-001810-01-05) were preincubated with Lipofectamine RNAiMAX (ThermoFisher, Renfrew, UK) and Opti-MEM culture
medium (Gibco, Renfrew, UK) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Cells were
reverse-transfected with the siRNA-lipid complexes and incubated at 37 °C for the indicated
time points until further analysis.

472

#### 473 In vivo studies

474

475 T84 tumors were established by subcutaneous injection of 5 x  $10^6$  cells into the right 476 flank of female NCr mice and randomly allocated into treatment groups. Treatment using 477 published, efficacious schedules was initiated when tumors reached a mean diameter of ~6 478 0). mm (indicated as day Control mice (n=10) received vehicle (1% 479 Hydroxypropylbetacyclodextrin (2-hydroxypropyl)-β-cyclodextrin) po, 10% DMSO in 10% w/v 480 Hydroxypropylbetacyclodextrin ip), and treated mice (n=10) were given 1 mg/kg trametinib 481 orally or 50 mg/kg JQ1 administrated by intraperitoneal injection or the combination of both 482 drugs daily for of 28 d (51, 52). Tumor volumes, using formula 4.91 x (1st diameter/4 + 2<sup>nd</sup> 483 diameter/4)<sup>3</sup>, and body weights were determined three times weekly. A dosing holiday was

given to all groups on day 21 to aid tolerability. CT26 tumors were established by injection of 5 x  $10^5$  cells into the right flank of female BALB/C mice and treated as above. All animal studies were approved by the local research ethics committee and carried out in accordance with the UK Animals (Scientific Procedures) Act 1986 and national guidelines (53). Appropriate group sizes were determined by power analyses (G\*Power ver 3.1.5) and are guided by extensive experience in running such studies. No blinding of groups was done.

490

#### 491 **Tumor dissociation**

492

Tumors were dissociated into a single-cell suspension using a gentleMACS Octo Dissociator with Heaters (Miltenyi Biotec, Bisley, UK) and the Mouse Tumor Dissociation Kit (Miltenyi Biotec). Samples were run on the 37C\_m\_TDK\_1 program, applied to a 70 µm MACS SmartStrainer and washed in PBS. Erythrocytes were removed from samples by suspension in red blood cell lysis buffer for 5 minutes at room temperature. Samples were resuspended in PBS for flow cytometry staining.

499

#### 500 Flow cytometry

501

502 Cells were stained with a fixable viability dye (Thermo Fisher Scientific) and blocked 503 with an anti-mouse CD16/CD32 antibody (Thermo Fisher Scientific). A panel of fluorescence-504 conjugated antibodies was added to cell suspensions at specified dilutions (Table S5) and 505 incubated at 4°C for 30 minutes. Intracellular staining was performed using the 506 Foxp3/Transcription factor staining buffer set (Thermo Fisher Scientific). Cells were fixed in 507 4% paraformaldehyde solution. Finally, cells were resuspended in PBA, counting beads were 508 added and samples were analyzed on a BD LSR II flow cytometer. Data analysis was 509 performed using FlowJo software (Tree Star Inc., Ashland, Oregon, USA). Gating strategies 510 are shown in Figure S9. Absolute cell counts were calculated as follows: absolute count 511 (cells/µL) = (cell count x counting bead volume) / (counting bead count x cell volume) x

512 counting bead concentration. Cell counts were normalised by dividing the cell count obtained513 using counting beads by tumor volumes.

514

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526

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532

#### 533 Supplementary Data

534 Supplementary data are available at Oncogene's website.

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681

683 Figure legends

684

Figure 1. Multiple inflammatory gene expression signatures are enriched in MEK
 inhibitor-resistant colorectal cancer cell lines.

A. Differential expression analysis (comparative marker selection, Morpheus, The Broad
Institute) of basal gene expression profiles for *KRAS*-mutant colorectal cancer cell lines
identified genes that were differentially over-expressed in cells resistant to the MEK inhibitor
PD0325901 (top 50 genes shown).

B. Box and whisker plots representing the expression of candidate resistance genes in MEK
inhibitor-sensitive versus MEK inhibitor-resistant cell lines. Box indicates the 25-75%
percentiles and whiskers are the minimum to maximum values.

694 C. Gene Set Enrichment Analysis (GSEA) of the rank-ordered, differentially expressed genes
695 in MEK inhibitor-resistant cell lines identifies an enrichment of multiple inflammation-related
696 gene sets.

D. GSEA identified interferon response genes to be significantly enriched in the resistant celllines (FDR<0.001, p<0.001).</li>

E. Cells were treated with DMSO or 30 nmol/L trametinib for 3 d and cell lysates analyzed byWestern blotting for the indicated proteins.

701

Figure 2. Acquired resistance to trametinib is associated with inflammatory gene
 expression and NFκB activation.

A. Trametinib-resistant HCT116 subclones were derived through chronic exposure to the compound over 4-8 weeks. These clones demonstrated a >10-fold increase in the  $GI_{50}$  for trametinib compared to the parental control. Mean cell proliferation values shown as a percentage of control cells is plotted, with error bars representing standard error (n=3).

B. RNA-seq of the HCT116 and HCT116\_R4 cell lines was used to profile transcriptionalchanges in the trametinib resistant clone. Increased expression of various inflammatory

genes identified in Figure 1A was observed (mean log<sub>2</sub> values shown, n=3 replicates per
condition).

712 C. GSEA of RNA-seq data identified an enrichment of inflammatory gene signatures in the 713 HCT116\_R4 clone, with TNF $\alpha$  and NF $\kappa$ B gene sets being the most highly ranked 714 (FDR<0.001, p<0.001).

D. Significant enrichment of genes associated with the inflammatory molecular subtype,
indicates potential change of the parental HCT116 stem-like subtype to the inflammatory
subtype with an increased set of inflammatory-specific genes.

E. HCT116 and HCT116\_R4 cells were treated with 30 nmol/L trametinib for 72 h andlysates were analyzed by Western blotting for the indicated proteins.

720

Figure 3. Synchronous inhibition of MEK and bromodomain-containing proteins
 inhibits cell proliferation and induces cell death in colon cancer cell lines.

A. MEK-inhibitor resistant human colon cell lines, T84, SNUC2A and LS123 or the normal
colon epithelial cell line CCD841CoN were treated with 30 nmol/L trametinib or 1 µmol/L JQ1
for 72 h. Cell proliferation was determined by cell counting and expressed as a percentage of
the cell number prior to treatment. Mean values are presented, ± standard error (n=3).
Statistical significance was determined using a one-way ANOVA \*p<0.05, \*\*p<0.01,</li>
\*\*\*p<0.001, \*\*\*\*p<0.0001.</li>

B. Cells were treated as in A and then analyzed for annexin V positivity by flow-cytometry.
The mean percentage of annexin V-positive cells relative to DMSO controls is shown, ±
standard error (n=3).

C. Cells were treated as in A and cell lysates were analyzed by Western blotting for theindicated proteins.

D. T84, SNUC2A and LS123 cells, or the normal colon epithelial cell line CCD841CoN were
treated with 30 nmol/L trametinib, 1 µmol/L JQ1 or the combination of both compounds for 14
d and cell proliferation was assessed by colony formation assay.

E. T84, SNUC2A and LS123 cells, or the normal colon epithelial cell line CCD841CoN were treated with a matrix of trametinib and JQ1 for 4 d, and cell proliferation was assessed by the CellTiter-Blue assay (decrease in proliferation is shown by a shift from blue to red). Synergy was determined by the Bliss independence model (the excess above bliss score is indicated, with red indicating synergy).

742

#### Figure 4. Inhibition of BRD4 via I-BET-151 or siRNA enhances sensitivity to trametinib.

A. T84 and SNUC2A cells were treated with a matrix of trametinib and I-BET-151 for 4 d and cell proliferation was quantified by the CellTiter-Blue assay. Inhibition of cell proliferation is indicated by a shift from blue to red, and synergy, as determined by the Bliss independence model, is indicated by a shift from green to red.

B. T84 cells were reverse-transfected with 100 nM of an siRNA Smart Pools targeting BRD4,

749 NF $\kappa$ B, IFIT1, MYC or a non-targeting control for 7 d and cell lysates were analyzed by 750 Western blotting for the indicated proteins (n=3).

C. Cells were treated as in B in the presence of DMSO or 30 nmol/L trametinib and cell
 proliferation was determined by the CellTiter-Blue assay. Mean values are presented, ±
 standard error (n=6). Statistical significance was determined using a one-way ANOVA
 \*\*\*\*p<0.0001.</li>

755

#### 756 **Figure 5. Inhibition of inflammatory gene expression by JQ1.**

A. T84 cells were treated with DMSO, 30 nmol/L trametinib, 1 µmol/L JQ1, or their combination for 24 h and analyzed by RNA-seq in triplicate. GSEA showed the enrichment of inflammatory-related gene sets following trametinib exposure, and their subsequent depletion following treatment with JQ1 or the combination of JQ1 and trametinib. Gene sets are ordered by the normalised enrichment score for the trametinib-treated condition. Gene sets unaffected in the JQ1 or JQ1 and trametinib conditions were excluded from the data.

B. GSEA plots of specific gene sets enriched in MEK inhibitor-resistant cell lines, previously
identified in the CCLE dataset. Enrichment is further enhanced by trametinib-treatment;

however, following treatment with JQ1, or JQ1 and trametinib combination, these genes setsare among the most significantly depleted gene sets.

C. Data for the 140 genes implicated in resistance to PD0325901 in the CCLE dataset were
 extracted from the RNA-seq analysis of T84 cells treated as in A. Hierarchical clustering was
 used to group genes according to their pattern of expression across the different treatments.

A cluster of 66 genes that was induced by trametinib and suppressed by JQ1 or JQ1 and

- trametinib combinatorial treatment was apparent.
- D. T84, SNUC2A and LS123 cells were treated with DMSO, 30 nmol/L trametinib, 1 µmol/L
- JQ1, or their combination for 72 h. Cell lysates were analyzed for the indicated proteins.
- 774

## Figure 6. The combination of trametinib and JQ1 is efficacious in patient-derived organoid models of *KRAS*-mutant colorectal cancer.

A. Patient-derived organoid cultures generated from *KRAS*-mutant colorectal cancer biopsies
were profiled for mRNA expression of the indicated genes by qRT-PCR. Values are
expressed relative to the MEK-inhibitor sensitive SW620 cell line.

B. Organoid cultures were treated with a titration of trametinib for 7 d and proliferation was
assessed by the CellTiter-Blue assay. Data are presented as percentage of DMSO-treated
organoids (n=3).

C. 7 different organoid cultures were treated with a matrix of trametinib and JQ1 for 7 d. Organoid proliferation was assessed as in B; a shift from blue to red indicates reduced proliferation. Synergy was determined using the Bliss independence model; a shift from green to red indicates an excess above bliss, indicative of synergy (n=3).

D. RT-qPCR was performed on the C-003 organoid culture treated with either DMSO, 10 nM
trametinib, 100 nM JQ1, or their combination for 24 h for expression of the indicated genes.
Mean values are relative to DMSO-treated control, normalised to *GUSB* expression; error
bars represent standard error (n=2-3).

E. The C-003 organoid culture was treated as described in D for 48 h and protein lysateswere analyzed for the indicated proteins.

793

## Figure 7. The combination of trametinib and JQ1 is efficacious in MEK-inhibitor resistant animal models.

A. Human T84 cells (5x10<sup>6</sup>/mouse) were inoculated subcutaneously into the flank of NCr mice, n=10 mice per group. Mice were treated with either vehicle, 1 mg/kg/d po trametinib, 50 mg/kg/d ip JQ1, or the combination of trametinib and JQ1 for up to 28 d. Dosing on day 21 was withheld from all groups to aid tolerability. Tumor volume was measured by callipers every 3-5 d, and the mean volume per group was expressed as a percentage relative to day 0; error bars represent standard error. Statistical significance was determined using a twotailed t-test of relative tumor volumes after 28 d of dosing.

B. The body weight of the mice from each group in A was measured and the mean per group
was expressed as a percentage change from day 0; error bars represent standard error.

C. Mouse CT26 cells (5x10<sup>5</sup>/mouse) were inoculated subcutaneously into the flank of BALB/c mice. When tumors reached approximately 100 mm<sup>3</sup> mice were treated with 1 mg/kg/d po trametinib, 50 mg/kg/d ip JQ1, or the combination of both compounds (n=7-8 mice/group). Tumor volume was measured by callipers every 3-5 d, and the mean volume per group was expressed as a percentage relative to day 0; error bars represent standard error. Statistical significance was determined using a two-tailed t-test of relative tumor volumes after 14 d of dosing.

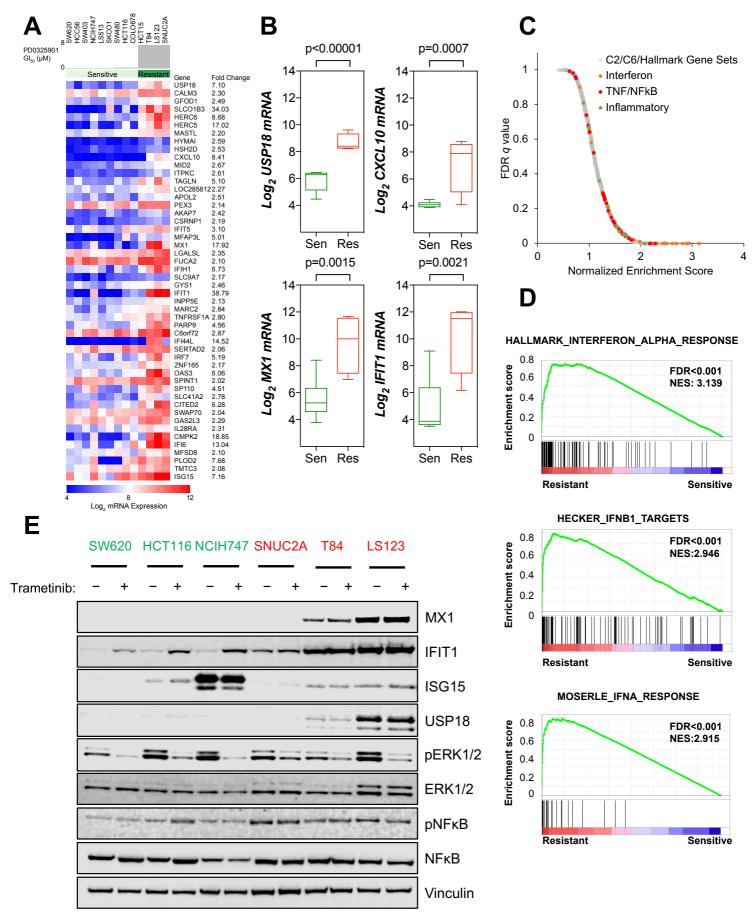
D. The body weight of the mice from each group in C was measured and the mean per group
was expressed as a percentage change from day 0; error bars represent standard error.

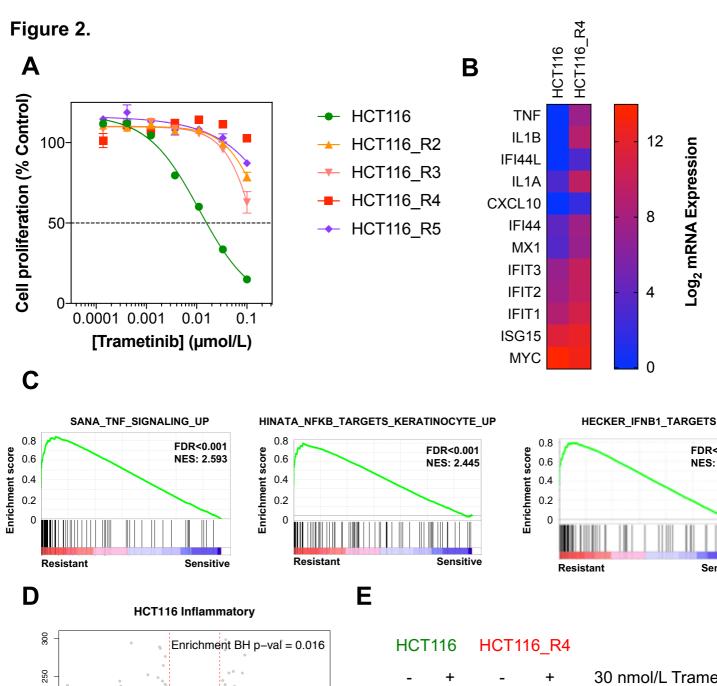
E. Quantification of T cell populations (CD8+, CD4+, Tregs) in CT26 tumors from C, assessed by multi-colour flow-cytometry. Cell numbers are expressed as the number of cells per cm<sup>3</sup> of tumor, presented in the box and whisker plot. Statistical significance was determined using a one-way ANOVA, n=6 mice per group, \*p<0.05, \*\*p<0.01, \*\*\*p<0.001.

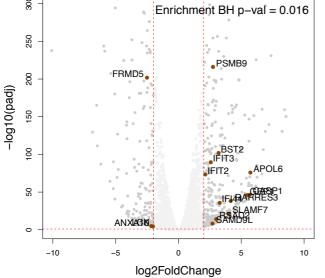
F. The expression of PD-1 was determined by flow-cytometry in CD8+ T cells isolated from
CT26 tumors from C. An example histogram is shown for each condition and aggregate data

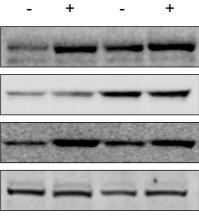
- 820 is presented in the box and whisker plot. Statistical significance was determined using a one-
- 821 way ANOVA, n=6 mice per group, \*p<0.05, \*\*p<0.01, \*\*\*p<0.001.
- 822 G. Overall survival of 379 colorectal cancer patients with high expression (mRNA z-score >2)
- 823 of 66 genes identified in **Figure 5C** (cBioportal). Significance was determined by Log-rank
- 824 (Mantel-Cox) test.
- 825

### Figure 1.









30 nmol/L Trametinib pNFkB p65 NFkB p65 IFIT1 Vinculin

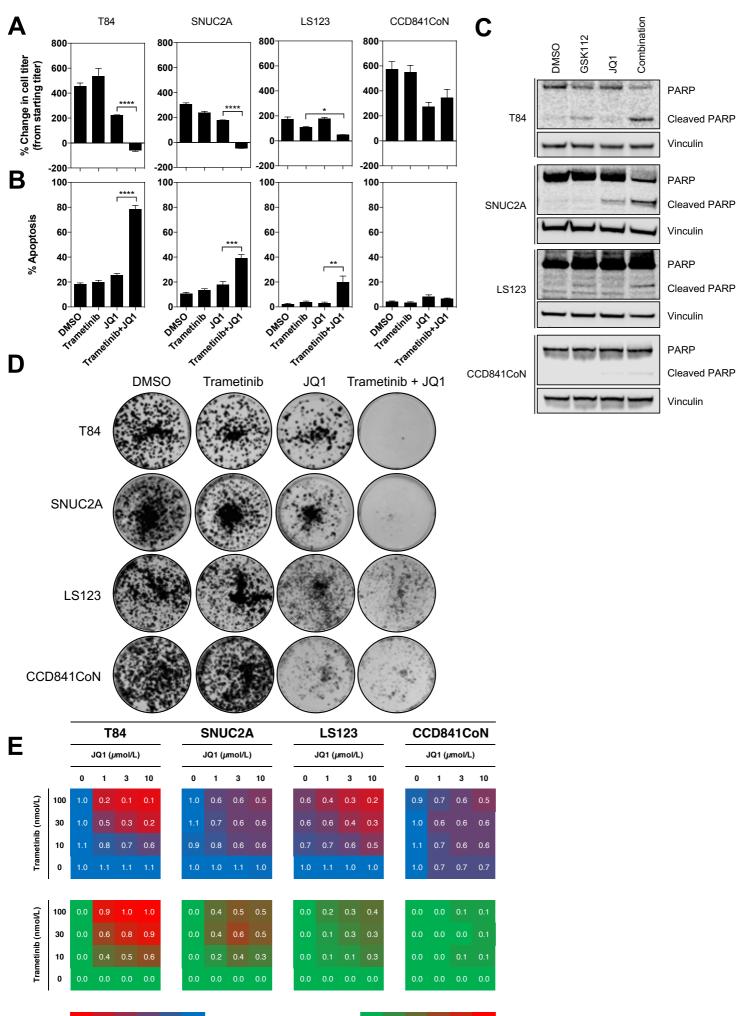
Log<sub>2</sub> mRNA Expression

FDR<0.001

NES: 2.373

Sensitive

Figure 3.



Cell Proliferation

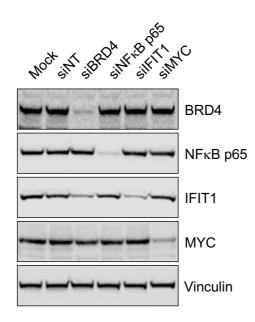
Excess above Bliss

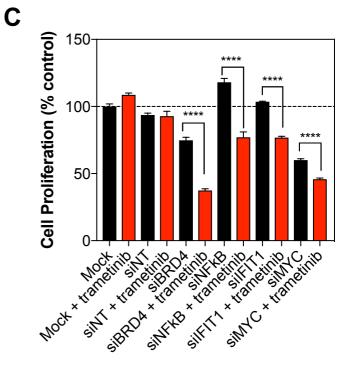
### Figure 4.

Α

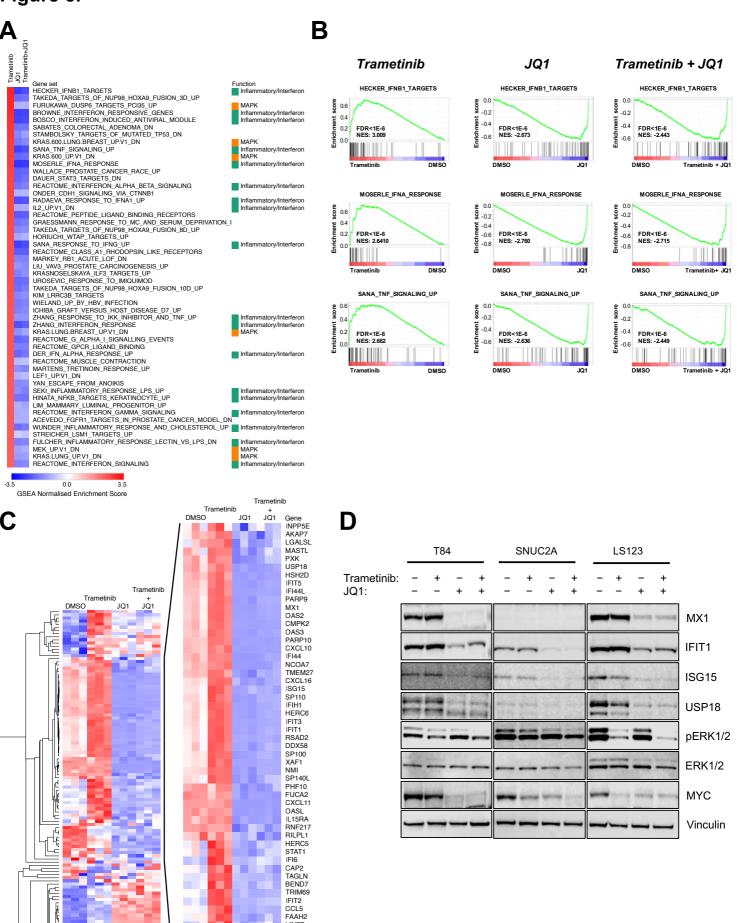
	<b>T8</b> 4									SNUC2A							
	I-BET-151 (µmol/L)								I-BET-151 (µmol/L)								
	0	0.03	0.1	0.3	1	3	10		0	0.03	0.1	0.3	1	3			
100	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.6	0.3	0.2	0.1		0.7	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.3	0.2			
30	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.8	0.5	0.3	0.2		0.7	0.6	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.3			
10	1.0	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.4	0.3		0.9	0.7	0.6	0.5	0.4	0.4			
3	1.0	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.6	0.4		0.8	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.4			
1	1.0	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.7	0.5		1.0	0.8	0.7	0.6	0.5	0.5			
0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	0.8	0.7	0.6		1.0	1.0	0.9	0.8	0.7	0.6			
100	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.2	0.4	0.4	0.4		0.0	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2			
30	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.3	0.4	0.4		0.0	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2			
											0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2			
10	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.3	0.3		0.0	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2			
10 3	0.0 0.0	0.1 0.1	0.0 0.0	0.1 0.1	0.0 -0.1	0.3 0.1	0.3 0.2										
									0.0	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2			
3	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.1	-0.1	0.1	0.2		0.0 0.0	0.2 0.2	0.3 0.2	0.2 0.1	0.2 0.1	0.2 0.1			
3	0.0 0.0	0.1 0.0	0.0 0.0	0.1 0.1	-0.1 0.0	0.1 0.0	0.2 0.1		0.0 0.0 0.0	0.2 0.2 0.1	0.3 0.2 0.2	0.2 0.1 0.1	0.2 0.1 0.1	0.2 0.1 0.1			
3 1	0.0 0.0	0.1 0.0	0.0 0.0	0.1 0.1	-0.1 0.0	0.1 0.0	0.2 0.1		0.0 0.0 0.0	0.2 0.2 0.1	0.3 0.2 0.2	0.2 0.1 0.1	0.2 0.1 0.1	0.2 0.1 0.1			







### Figure 5.



LIN7B SCARA3 TMEM56 XG GPR137C TNFRSF1A MFSD2A NCLN SLC01B3 MFSD8 KCTD1 NID2 DDA1 FGF2

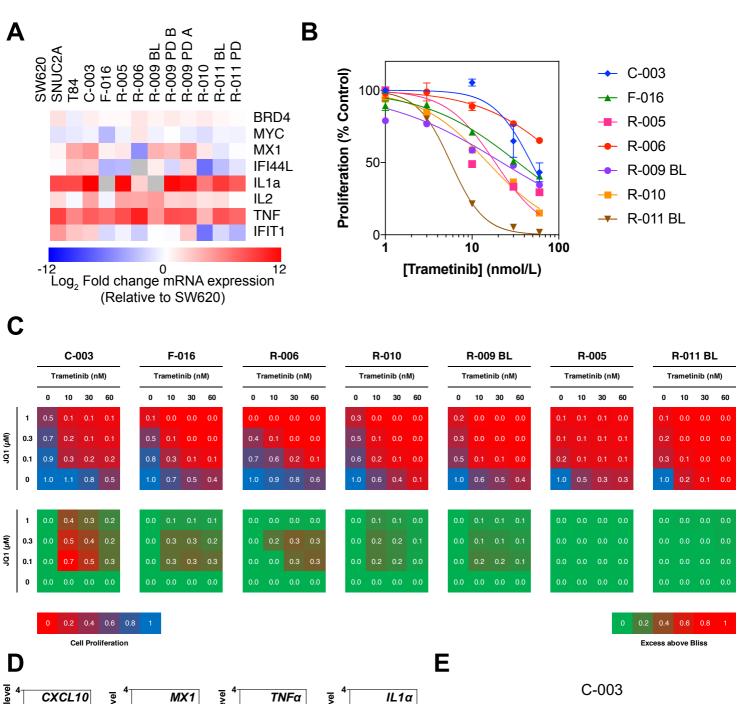
HSD17B6 CACNA2D1 UST

0.0 mRNA Expression (z-score)

-2.5

2.5

### Figure 6.



JQ1:

