Screening of PCRP transcription factor antibodies in biochemical assays

William K. M. Lai[1,2], Luca Mariani[3], Gerson Rothschild[5], Edwin R. Smith[6], Bryan J. Venters[7], Thomas R. Blanda[1], Prashant K. Kuntala[1], Kylie Bocklund[1], Joshua Mairose[1], Sarah N Dweikat[1], Katelyn Mistretta[1], Matthew J. Rossi[1], Daniela James[1], James T. Anderson[3], Sabrina K. Phanor[3], Wanwei Zhang[5], Avani P. Shaw[6], Katherine Novitzky[7], Eileen McAnarney[7], Michael-C. Keogh[7]*, Ali Shilatifard[6]*, Uttiya Basu[5]*, Martha L. Bulyk[3,4]*, B. Franklin Pugh[1,2]*

[1]Center for Eukaryotic Gene Regulation, Department of Biochemistry and Molecular Biology, The Pennsylvania State University, University Park, Pennsylvania 16802, USA
[2]Department of Molecular Biology and Genetics, Cornell University, Ithaca, NY 14853
[3]Division of Genetics, Department of Medicine; Brigham and Women's Hospital and Harvard Medical School, Boston, MA 02115.
[4]Department of Pathology; Brigham and Women's Hospital and Harvard Medical School, Boston, MA 02115.
[5]Department of Microbiology and Immunology, Vagelos College of Physicians and Surgeons, Columbia University, New York.
[6]Simpson Querrey Center for Epigenetics and the Department of Biochemistry and Molecular Genetics, Northwestern University Feinberg School of Medicine, 303 East Superior Street, Chicago, IL 60611, USA
[7]EpiCypher Inc., Durham NC 27709

*Co-corresponding authors

Contact Information:
William KM Lai <wkl29@cornell.edu>
Luca Mariani <lucamariani77@gmail.com>
Gerson Rothschild <ger2@cumc.columbia.edu>
Edwin R. Smith <edwinsmith@northwestern.edu>
Bryan J. Venters <bventers@epicypher.com>
Thomas R Blanda <trb5344@psu.edu>
Prashant K Kuntala <pxk284@psu.edu>
Kylie Bocklund <kxb357@psu.edu>
Joshua Mairose <josh.mairose@gmail.com>
Sarah N Dweikat <szd41@psu.edu>
Katelyn Mistretta <katelynsmistretta@gmail.com>
Matthew J. Rossi <mjr26@psu.edu>
Daniela James <daniela.james@psu.edu>
James T. Anderson <jamesanderson12358@gmail.com>
Sabrina K. Phanor <sphanor@bwh.harvard.edu>
Wanwei Zhang <wz2370@cumc.columbia.edu>
Avani P. Shaw <avani.shah1@northwestern.edu>
Katherine Novitzky <knovitzky@epicypher.com>
Eileen McAnarney <emcanarney@epicypher.com>

46   Michael-C. Keogh <mkeogh@epicypher.com>
47   Ali Shilatifard <ash@northwestern.edu>
48   Uttiya Basu <ub2121@cumc.columbia.edu>
49   Martha L. Bulyk <mlbulyk@genetics.med.harvard.edu>
50   B. Franklin Pugh <fp265@cornell.edu>

Abstract

Antibodies offer a powerful means to interrogate specific proteins in a complex milieu, and where epitope tagging is impractical. However, antibody availability and reliability are problematic. The Protein Capture Reagents Program (PCRP) generated over a thousand renewable monoclonal antibodies against human-presumptive chromatin proteins in an effort to improve reliability. However, these reagents have not been widely field-tested. We therefore screened their ability in a variety of assays. 887 unique antibodies against 681 unique chromatin proteins, of which 605 are putative sequence-specific transcription factors (TFs), were assayed by ChIP-exo. Subsets were further tested in ChIP-seq, CUT&RUN, STORM super-resolution microscopy, immunoblots, and protein binding microarray (PBM) experiments. At least 6% of the tested antibodies were validated for use in ChIP-based assays by the most stringent of our criteria. An additional 34% produced data suggesting they warranted further testing for clearer validation. We demonstrate and discuss the metrics and limitations to antibody validation in chromatin-based assays.

Introduction

Antibodies are a critical component of a wide variety of biochemical assays. They serve as protein-specific affinity-capture and detection reagents, useful *in vivo* and *in vitro*. Example assays include chromatin immunoprecipitation (ChIP) of protein-DNA interactions, immunofluorescence, immunoblotting, ELISA, purification of cells and proteins, protein binding microarray (PBM) experiments, and targeted in vivo delivery of effector molecules[1-6]. One advantage of antibodies is their ability to recognize proteins without their targets having an engineered affinity tag. The human proteome contains tens of thousands of distinct proteins, each requiring a different antibody for specific detection. The usage of a large variety of antibodies to diverse targets has been a critical component of large NIH-funded consortium projects such as the ENCODE and Roadmap Epigenomics Mapping[7, 8]. However, broad profiling of the genomic targets of human transcription factors (TFs) has been limited by the availability of 'ChIP-grade' antibodies.

Overall, there has been an acute lack of antibodies that effectively distinguish the many thousands of different chromatin proteins, and an inconsistency inherent in how many immunoreagents are produced and perform[9-11]. Polyclonal antibodies, being a mixed product of many antibody genes, have the advantage of recognizing multiple epitopes on a protein, thereby producing robust target detection[12]. However, their production is finite and variable from one animal source to another[13], which hampers reproducibility.

The NIH Protein Capture Reagent Program (PCRP) was initiated through the NIH Common Fund with the stated goal of testing the feasibility of producing low-cost, renewable, and reliable protein affinity reagents in a manner that can be scaled ultimately to the entire human proteome (PA-16-287) (https://proteincapture.org/)[14]. With an initial focus on putative TFs, this endeavor reported the production of 1,406 mouse monoclonal antibodies (mAb) against 737 chromatin protein targets[15]. This included two parallel production approaches: mouse hybridomas that release mAb into growth medium supernatant ("supernate"), and recombinant antibodies produced in *E. coli*. The advantages of these two approaches over polyclonal antibodies are, in principle, a renewable and consistent supply. Since mAb are produced from a single set of genes in an immortalized hybridoma or bacterial cells, they recognize only a single epitope[16-18]. To accommodate the potential shortcoming of a hybridoma recognizing a single

non-viable epitope, an effort by the NIH PCRP was made to generate at least two independent
clones for each target.
Antibody validation is critical to their utility. Validation exists at many levels ranging
from whether an antibody recognizes its intended target to whether it consistently performs
successfully in a particular assay. Each publicly available PCRP-generated antibody was
previously validated for its target recognition by *in vitro* human protein (HuProt) microarray
screening[15]. Whether the antibodies work in particular biochemical assays has been described for
a limited set in a limited number of approaches, including immunoblotting, immunoprecipitation,
immunohistochemistry, and ChIP-seq[15]. Previous work has reported that 46 of 305 mAb against
36 of 176 targets passed ENCODE ChIP-seq standards[15]. "Browser shots" of selected loci were
available for ~40 datasets against 31 targets. However, antibody validation is not credible when
using single-locus examples ("browser shots") of enrichment over background as the sole
criteria. Chromatin fragmentation and extraction may generate localized variation in yield that
varies from prep to prep (active promoters, enhancers, etc.) Numerous replicates (target and
control) are often needed to ensure against false-positives at a few individual loci due to
sampling variation. Furthermore, the datasets from Venkataraman et al. are not in the public
domain, and so we were unable to independently analyze them. As broader community use of the
PCRP-generated se antibodies will likely benefit from a wider survey, we conducted additional
tests of these reagents.
Since evaluating each of ~1,400 antibodies in a wide variety of assays is not practical, we
instead opted for broad coverage by ChIP-exo as a broad-screening assay, combined with
expanded capability testing of a limited number in one or more distinct experimental
approaches. Overall, we tested 950 antibodies, of which 642 targeted putative TFs, which
allowed computational validation through the enrichment of their cognate motifs. The antibodies
and assays were chosen to cover a wide range of end-user applications, with specific TFs chosen
in part based on the scientific interests of the investigators and a set of objective criteria. With a
deep dive on a single assay (ChIP-exo), we explored end-user practical issues related to antibody
sourcing, reproducibility and validation metrics, and specificity for cell types and states. More
limited evaluations in a subset of assays (ChIP-Seq, CUT&RUN, super-resolution cellular
microscopy, Western blots, and protein binding microarray experiments) resulted in 174
antibodies assayed by at least two independent methods.
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Results
Screening PCRP mAb by ChIP-exo
We used the massively parallel ChIP-exo version of ChIP-seq to screen PCRP Abs in 96-
well plate format for their ability to recognize their putative protein targets in a chromatinized,
cellular context[19, 20]. Briefly, proteins were crosslinked to DNA and each other within cells using
formaldehyde. Chromatin was then isolated, fragmented, and immunoprecipitated. While on the
beads, the fragmented DNA was trimmed with a strand-specific 5'-3' exonuclease up to the point
of crosslinking (i.e. protection), which was then mapped by DNA sequencing. For many proteins
this provides single-bp resolution in genome-wide detection[21].
Technical reproducibility of ChIP-exo with PCRP antibodies was evaluated with 43
independent replicates performed on the sequence-specific TF USF1, which also served as a
positive control in each cohort of 46 mAb assayed in K562, MCF7, HepG2, and human tissue.
From this and IgG negative controls, we defined a set of ~152,000 associated E-box motif
instances associated with a USF1 peak in at least one replicate ChIP-exo experiment. This

reflects an overly relaxed criterion, with a high level of false positives, for the purposes of
evaluating the gradient from true binding through nonspecific background at genomic E-boxes
(expected where a peak location occurred in only a small fraction of datasets). Greater stringency
on the number of replicates in which the same peak was found, resulted in peaks with higher
occupancy (not shown). 41 of the 43 USF1 datasets (>95%) produced a USF1-specific aligned
read pattern (*Supplementary Fig. 1*, vertical blue and red stripes in the heat maps and single-bp
peaks in the composite plots). These, but not IgG controls, were Pearson-pairwise correlated
(*Supplementary Fig. 2*). This level of reproducibility indicated that ChIP-exo was suitable for
screening and evaluating PCRP antibodies in ChIP.

Supplementary Fig. 1 Technical robustness of the USF1 PCRP mAb in the ChIP-exo assay. Heatmap and row-averaged composite plots for 43 USF1 ChIP-exo experiments with the indicated project sample ID were performed in K562 (black), MCF7 (blue), HepG2 (green), human liver (pink), kidney (orange), placenta (cyan), and breast (purple). The 5' end of aligned sequence reads for each replicate were plotted against their distance from cognate USF1 motifs (E-boxes). These motifs were present in the union of called peaks across all 43 USF1 datasets for a total of 151,728 peaks that intersected with an E-box motif. Reads are strand-separated (blue = motif strand, red = opposite strand). Rows are linked across samples and sorted based on their combined rank-order average in a 500 bp bin around each motif midpoint. Matching IgG or No-Antibody control experiments for each cell type are shown. Samples 18659 and 28435 are outlined in red and represent experiments which failed to show enrichment at USF1 peaks.

Supplementary Fig. 2 Correlation matrix of USF1 technical replicates. Pearson correlation was calculated between technical replicates and negative controls using the sum of tags in a 500 bp window centered around the motif midpoint for all 151,728 potential USF1 binding events. Samples are labelled and colored as defined in *Supplementary Fig. 1*.

We initiated our ChIP antibody survey by first considering the practicality of producing a
large number of antibody preparations from recombinant *E. coli* or mouse hybridomas.
Purification from *E. coli* included transformation of expressing plasmids, cell growth, followed
by protein induction, and purification. After multiple attempts we determined that high
throughput parallelized rAb production was not practical within the scope of this project, due to a
need to optimize the protocol in our hands, particularly in comparison to the hybridoma
approach. We therefore opted to pursue hybridoma-based mAb.
We tested NRF1, USF1, and YY1 PCRP mAb from two sources: DSHB and CDI. The
former as hybridoma culture supernates (10-80 ug/ml antibody), and the latter as concentrates
(**Figure 1a**). In general, we found that while antibodies from both sources specifically detect
NRF1 and USF1, DSHB hybridoma supernates detected more binding events at cognate motifs
compared to CDI concentrates, when assayed at the same reported antibody amounts (3 ug). The

improved performance, simplicity and lower cost of using hybridoma supernates led us to source
from DSHB for the remainder of this study.
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Figure 1 Assessment of antibody source (DSHB and CDI). (**a**) DNA-sequence 4-color plots (left), heatmaps (middle), and composites (right) were generated for the indicated targets, number of bound motifs, and antibody source, tested in K562 cells. The 5' end of aligned sequence reads for each set of experiments were plotted against distance from cognate motif, present in the union of all called peaks between the datasets for each indicated target. Reads are strand-separated (blue = motif strand, red = reverse strand). Rows are linked across samples and sorted based on their combined average in a 100 bp bin around each motif midpoint. (**b**) Pie chart shows the cell/tissue type of biological material used for 1,261 ChIP-exo datasets.

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We assayed all 887 available hybridoma supernates, containing mAbs to 681 non-
redundant targets. Testing was initially performed in K562 (1,009 samples), MCF7 (134
samples), and HepG2 (96 samples) cells, based on reported target mRNA expression levels.
Testing defaulted to K562 if there was no substantial difference or the TF was not expressed at
appreciable levels in any of these three lines due to practical considerations including the ability
to grow K562 at scale (liquid culture) (*Supplementary Fig. 3*). Some targets had multiple
independent hybridoma clones, which were individually tested. In total, 887 mAb against 681
unique targets were assayed by ChIP-exo, some as replicates in the same or different cell types,
resulting in 1,261 datasets (**Figure 1b**). It was not feasible from a cost perspective to perform

replicates, deep sequencing, and antibody titrations for all mAbs, and so replicates were largely
limited to those that passed certain validation criteria (see below).
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Supplementary Fig. 3 Workflow schematic of bulk PCRP antibody testing in the ChIP-exo assay. If possible, targets were assigned a primary cell line based on positive expression from RNA-seq[7]. Samples were processed in cohorts of 46 plus a USF1 positive control and an IgG or "No Antibody" negative control. After high-throughput sequencing, samples were automatically processed through a bioinformatics quality control pipeline. Sample were examined for sequencing depth, library complexity (% PCR duplication), and the ability to generate significant peaks. Peaks and raw tags were then examined to identify enriched sequence motifs, localization to annotated chromatin and sequence regions, and specific enrichment at genomic features such as transcription start sites.

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As exemplified by NRF1, USF1, YY1, and an IgG control (**Figure 2**), the finding that
ChIP-exo peaks were enriched at a very precise distance from cognate but not noncognate motifs
provided support for detection of specifically bound target TF. We also compared independently
constructed hybridomas, exemplified by heat shock factor 1 (HSF1), as an alternative
independent validation. Both gave nearly identical ChIP-exo aligned read patterns around the
same set of features (heat shock elements, *Supplementary Fig. 4a*), thereby demonstrating
reproducibility of ChIP-exo profiles across independent PCRP antibodies. This is particularly
important where validation by motif enrichment is not applicable. However, two other HSF1
mAb clones failed (*Supplementary Fig. 4b*), indicating that independent PCRP Ab clones can
have different capabilities. Therefore, if one mAb clone fails, it may be productive to check
additional clones.
Protein targets that interact with each other or with the same sites may also provide cross-
validation for determining enrichment specificity. For example, in the case of USF1 and USF2
interaction partners and homologs[22], the two cross-validated (*Supplementary Fig. 4c*). However,

in this particular case we cannot exclude cross-reactivity of the mAb with the two homologs
(always a potential concern with target-specific antibodies). Additional validation may occur
with corresponding ChIP datasets in the public domain that use different antibodies (*e.g.*,
ENCODE, *Supplementary Fig. 5*).
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Figure 2. Comparison of ChIP-exo data at cognate vs non-cognate motifs. ChIP-exo heatmap, composite, and DNA-sequence 4-color plots were generated for NRF1, USF1, YY1, and IgG ChIP-exo datasets against the complete matrix of bound motifs from **Figure 1**. The 5' end of aligned sequence reads for each set of experiments were plotted relative to distance from cognate motif for each indicated target. Reads are strand-separated (blue = motif strand, red = opposite strand). Rows are linked across samples and sorted based on their combined average rank-order in a 100 bp bin around each motif midpoint. High levels of background result in a more uniform distribution of reads across the genome as in the IgG control.

Supplementary Fig. 4. Independent hybridoma clones and target interaction partners as antibody validation criteria. ChIP-exo heatmap, composite, and DNA-sequence 4-color plots are shown for the indicated number and type of bound motifs for (**a,b**) the indicated antibody hybridoma clones or (**c**) interaction partners, tested in K562 cells. The 5' end of aligned sequence reads for each set of experiments were plotted against distance from cognate motif, present in the union of all called peaks between the datasets for each indicated target. Reads are strand-separated (blue = motif strand, red = opposite strand). Rows are linked across samples and sorted based on their combined average rank-order in a 100 bp bin around each motif midpoint.

Supplementary Fig. 5. Overlay of ENCODE data at motifs defined by PCRP mAbs ChIP-exo. ChIP-seq heatmap, composite, and DNA-sequence 4-color plots at the bound motifs defined in **Figure 1** for the indicated targets in K562. The 5' end of aligned sequence reads for each set of experiments were plotted against distance from cognate motif of target. Reads are strand-separated (blue = motif strand, red = opposite strand). Rows are linked across samples and sorted as in **Figure 1**.

Assessment by ChIP-seq

Since ChIP-seq is a widely used assay (and related to ChIP-exo), we performed the assay in HCT116 cells with 137 PCRP hybridomas corresponding to 70 targets associated with chromatin binding / modification, enhancer function, or transcriptional elongation. We found 19 (14%) produced peaks (see Methods) (*Supplementary Table 1*). To provide highly stringent validation for NRF1, NRF1 expression was knocked down in HCT116 cells by RNAi, and detected NRF1 peaks were concomitantly diminished (**Figure 3a**), thereby demonstrating specificity of the PCRP mAbs 3D4 and 3H1for this target.

Three hybridomas -- JAZF1-1C2, FOS-1A7, SMAD2-1B10 -- gave unexpected ChIP-seq patterns for their intended targets; namely enrichment at transcription start sites (TSS in **Figure 3b**). Since JAZF1 is not expressed in HCT116 cells[23], JAZF1-1C2 mAb may have had off-target interactions in ChIP-seq. This was not observed with a second mAb, JAZF1-1C1 (ChIP-seq and ChIP-exo). SMAD2[24] and FOS are expected to be at enhancers. However, both ChIP-seq and ChIP-exo showed enrichment at TSS, rather than at enhancers (see also online data). Deeper biochemical validation (such as RNAi) will be needed to verify their specificity.

Figure 3. (**a**) Heatmaps and composite plots displaying the global loss of NRF1-3D4 and NRF1-3H1 ChIP-seq signal after NRF1 RNAi. ChIP-seq in HCT116 cells treated with non-targeting (sh Control) or two different NRF1-directed shRNAs (shRNA 1 and shRNA 2). (**b**) Composite plots of FOS-1A7, SMAD2-1B10, and JAZF1-1C1. Read counts are plotted along a linear x-axis, except between the TSS and TES (transcript end site) of gene bodies (N=7,309 genes).

Validation through feature enrichment

Thus far we have established the utility of three independent validation strategies inherent to ChIP-analysis: 1) enrichment and patterning at a cognate motif; 2) correlation with an independent mAb clone; and 3) co-localization with an interacting partner. In our large-scale evaluation of mAbs, validation was often not attainable by all three approaches. We therefore looked for additional criteria that might be useful where the preferred validation approaches were inconclusive. The ChExMix algorithm was used to identify significant modes of protein binding and *de novo* motif detection through a combination of DNA sequence enrichment and alternative ChIP-exo patterns[25, 26]. Discovered motifs were identified using TOMTOM and the JASPAR database[27, 28]. Relative enrichment in annotated genomic regions (e.g. promoters, enhancers, and insulators) may be suggestive of function. These included chromHMM and Segway genome segmentations (*Supplementary Fig. 3*)[29]. We also considered a low stringency test that did not require peak-oriented statistical enrichment. Composite plots were generated around well-defined general features like transcription start sites and CTCF binding sites and the average tag enrichment was examined relative to a negative control (IgG) background.

These additional validation strategies generally offered less confidence compared to *a priori* cognate motif validation because many of the defined chromatin states are relatively abundant in the genome. Nevertheless, they provide a useful screening step for pursuing additional validation and optimization. As examples, Rfx3 was enriched at HepG2 promoters and enhancers, despite lacking *de novo* discovery of a motif; CTBP1 was primarily enriched in K562 heterochromatin; ZNF438 was enriched around K562 transcriptional start sites (TSS). Validation metrics and analyses for each tested antibody can be found at www.PCRPvalidation.org and *Supplementary Table 2*.

Validation through motif analysis.

To further evaluate the ChIP-exo and ChIP-seq data for evidence of TF genomic occupancy (direct or indirect), we analyzed 259 ChIP-exo and 21 ChIP-seq peak files for: (a) motif enrichment by an AUROC metric in which ChIP 'bound' regions are compared to a background set of unbound sequences, and (b) motif distance to the peak summit, where centering indicates the motif of a directly bound putative TF (supporting primarily direct binding to DNA by the profiled TF) or that of another putative TF (suggesting indirect binding to DNA via a tethering TF)[30-33] (**Figure 4a,b**). We used a collection of 100 nonredundant position weight matrices (PWMs) representative of the known repertoire of human TF binding specificity[32]. These approaches identified 23 PCRP antibodies, corresponding to 19 sequence-specific putative TFs, for which their cognate DNA motif was both enriched and centered within the ChIP peaks ("Direct Binding" in *Supplementary Table 3*).

Figure 4. Motif enrichment analysis of ChIP-exo and ChIP-Seq datasets. **(a)** Cartoons depict models for direct binding via the cognate motif of the target TF or indirect binding via a sequence-specific tethering TF ("TTF"). Box plots of TPM expression values of target TFs associated to antibodies stratified by AUROC value. Results from analysis of 99 putative TF binding motifs within each ChIP-exo dataset with >500 peaks (259 datasets in total). We assigned to each ChIP-exo dataset the PWM with the highest AUROC ("Top Motif") and quantified its centering as the mean distance of the PWM match from the peak's summit. In the scatter plot, each point represents the enrichment/centering of the top motif in one of the 259 putative TF ChIP-exo datasets. Colors indicate the expression level (RNA-seq TPM value[7]; unavailable values are shown in gray) of the gene specific for the antibody used in the ChIP assay. Point sizes indicate the number of ChIP-exo peaks in the dataset. Top motifs with AUROC >0.6 (dashed line) and TPM values from duplicate RNA-seq experiments are indicated. **(b)** Results from enrichment analysis of 99 TF binding motifs within each of 21 differential ChIP-seq datasets. Points are formatted as in (**a**). Top right inset: dotplots were generated as in (**a**).

Of the analyzed datasets, an additional 28 PCRP mAbs enriched for motifs that did not
match a cognate motif of the targeted TFs ("Indirect Binding" in *Supplementary Table 3*). For 17
of these TFs (ATAD2, DCP2, DRAP1, HMGB1, MXD3, NMI, PPP1R10, SIRT2, THAP5,
TCEAL8, WHSC1, ZNF550, ZNF98, ZNF212, ZNF385B, ZNF550, ZZZ3) there are (to our
knowledge) no reported DNA binding motifs[34]; our results provide support for their genomic
occupancy being mediated at least in part via a putative tethering TF. For example, the
enrichment of the GATA motif within ChIP-exo peaks for TCEAL8 in K562 cells agrees with
the known role of GATA1/2 TFs as lineage specifiers that recruit additional factors to their
bound regions[31]. Similarly, the enrichment of CTCF (in DRAP1 and HMGB1 peaks), RUNX (in
NMI and DDIT peaks), YY1 (in DCP2 peaks), NRF1 (in SMARCC1 peaks), bHLH (in WHSC1
peaks), bZIP (in SMARCC2 peaks) and ETS (in PPP1R10 peaks) motifs are consistent with an
indirect recruitment mechanism. Each are associated with well-expressed TFs in the underlying
cell lines (see color-coding for RNA-seq TPM values in **Figure 4a,b**). Indirect binding could
also explain the observed noncognate motif enrichment for some of the 13 mAbs raised against
sequence-specific TFs. For example, the enrichment and the centering of the FOX motif within
GATA4 peaks in HepG2 cells agrees with the known role of FOXA1/2 as lineage specifiers.
Similarly, the enrichment and centering of the bZIP motif (*e.g.*, AP1) in STAT3 peaks, CTCF
motif in SIX5 peaks, and ZNF143 motif in KLF16 peaks is consistent with tethering mechanisms
for binding by these factors in K562 cells, which would be a novel finding for SIX5 and KLF16.
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ChIP assessment in multiple cell states and types
Any number of targets may be sequestered in a state that prevents their interaction with
chromatin (and thus detection by ChIP), unless activated by specific signaling: i.e. a change in
cell state. We addressed this with HSF1, which is rapidly induced to bind in the nucleus upon
heat shock to activate heat shock response genes[35]. HSF1 was bound to cognate motifs at
relatively low levels under non-stressed conditions, but increased in binding upon treatment of
cells with hydrogen peroxide (0.3 mM) for 3 min and 30 min. (*Supplementary Fig. 6a*), or upon
heat shock (shift from 37˚C to 42˚C for 1 hr) (*Supplementary Fig. 6b*).
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Supplementary Fig. 6. Validation of HSF1 mAb in a cell state change (stress). (**a**) ChIP-exo heatmap, composite, and DNA-sequence 4-color plots are shown for the indicated number of bound motifs for the indicated mAb in response to hydrogen peroxide treatment (0.3mM); where binding increases with treatment time) in K562 cells. The 5' end of aligned sequence reads for each set of experiments were plotted against distance from cognate motif, present in the union of all called peaks between the datasets for each indicated target. Reads are strand-separated (blue = motif strand, red = opposite strand). Rows are linked across samples and sorted based on their combined average in a 100 bp bin around each motif midpoint. (**b**) ChIP-seq heatmap and composite plot are shown for the indicated number of bound loci for the indicated antibody hybridoma clone and input in HCT116 cells in response to 1 hr. of heat shock (42°C) or mock (37°C).

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While ChIP-exo antibody validation was primarily performed in K562 cells (see above)
any number of the targets may only interact with chromatin in other cell types. An example of
cell-type specific expression was observed with the breast cancer factor GRHL2, where binding
was detected in MCF7 cells but not in other cell types (*Supplementary Fig. 7a*). Other targets
like USF1 and NRF1 did not appear to possess obvious cell type-specific binding, although we
do not exclude selective cell-type enrichment at subsets of sites (*Supplementary Fig. 7b*).

Supplementary Fig. 7. Cell line comparison of antibody performance. (**a**,**b**) ChIP-exo heatmap, composite, and DNA-sequence 4-color plots are shown for the indicated number of bound motifs for the indicated targets, in the indicated cell types. The 5' end of aligned sequence reads for each set of experiments were plotted against distance from cognate motif, present in the union of all called peaks between the datasets for each indicated target. Reads are strand-separated (blue = motif strand, red = opposite strand). Rows are linked across samples and sorted based on their combined average in a 100 bp bin around each motif midpoint.

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We next examined the capability of some mAb for clinical specimens (donated organs).
ChIP-exo was performed using PCRP mAbs against USF1, YY1, and GABPA in chromatin
from human liver (2 different specimens), kidney, placenta, and breast tissue (*Supplementary*
Fig. 8). Largely consistent with the cell line ChIP's, enrichment and aligned read patterning was
observed with all three mAb's for the liver and kidney, that was diminished in placenta and not
detectable in breast. While we suspect technical differences in chromatin yields from different

tissue types drove these differences, we cannot rule out effects of tissue specificity for these at
this point. Nonetheless, these findings demonstrate the utility of at least some PCRP mAb in
epigenomic profiling of human clinical specimens.
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Supplementary Fig. 8. Application of ChIP-exo using renewable mAbs in human tissue. ChIP-exo heatmap, composite, and DNA-sequence 4-color plots are shown for the indicated number and type of bound motifs for the indicated targets, in the indicated organ types (liver includes two donors). The 5' end of aligned sequence reads for each set of experiments were plotted against distance from cognate motif, present in the union of all called peaks between the datasets for each indicated target. Reads are strand-separated (blue = motif strand, red = opposite strand). Rows are linked across samples and sorted based on their combined average in a 100 bp bin around each motif midpoint.

Validation using CUT&RUN.

CUT&RUN uses a tethering approach: antibodies are added to permeabilized cells or nuclei, where they bind their targets and recruit antibody-binding pAG-MNase to cleave DNA in the locality. The result is a selective release of chromatin from the otherwise insoluble nucleus, where genomic enrichment can then be identified by sequencing. We tested ~40 PCRP antibodies in K562 by native CUT&RUN of which only 25 had some level of enrichment previously detected by ChIP-exo (see Methods). Upon examination, USF2-1A11 worked the best out of the tested PCRP mAbs, as shown with its tag enrichment at previously defined ChIP-exo bound motifs. (**Figure 5a**). In the same way, we also examined NRF1, USF1, and YY1 antibodies by CUT&RUN (**Figure 5b**). While we identified a robust USF1 CUT&RUN footprint, we did not observe enrichment of NRF1 or YY1 relative to the IgG control. As all three antibodies had performed well in alternate assays, this likely reflects a need for additional assay optimization. Of note a DNA-accessibility footprint was observed with the IgG negative control in these CUT&RUN experiments, indicating background cleavage by pAG-MNase at open (i.e. TF-bound) locations. Thus, specificity in most cases could not be established. All CUT&RUN samples were processed through the ChIP-exo bioinformatic pipeline (*Supplementary Fig. 3*) and individual sample results are available in *Supplementary Table 4*.

Figure 5. Enrichment validation of ChIP-exo using CUT&RUN. (**a**) CUT&RUN heatmap, composite, and DNA-sequence 4-color plots are shown relative to the peaks defined and sorted in **Figure 2**. The 5' end of aligned sequence reads for each set of experiments were plotted against distance from cognate motif. Reads are strand-separated (blue = motif strand, red = opposite strand) for ChIP-exo and combined (black) for CUT&RUN. (**b**) CUT&RUN heatmap, composite, and DNA-sequence 4-color plots were generated relative to the peaks defined in **Figure 2** for NRF1, USF1, YY1, and IgG datasets. Reads are aligned as above.

Utility of PCRP mAb in STORM

Super-resolution microscopy has permitted the visualization of cellular structures and processes at nanometer resolution[36]. Such visualization involves the use of fluorescently conjugated antibodies that bind to specific structures. In Stochastic Optical Reconstruction Microscopy (STORM), the fluorophores conjugated to the antibodies are sequentially activated and imaged in a time-resolved manner. Centroid positions of individually detected photons provide 2-20 nanometer-scale resolution. This contrasts with conventional confocal microscopy, which loses resolution below 200 nm. To evaluate PCRP mAbs in STORM we processed a subset of 41 in K562 cells, having relatively high validation scores by ChIP-exo (*Supplementary Fig. 9*). Briefly, cells were plated on glass dishes, fixed, and anti-MTR4 used to (stain the nucleus and cytoplasm), providing a robust positive control[37]. The process was then repeated on the same set of cells with individual PCRP mAbs. Samples were then visualized by STORM.

Supplementary Figure 9. Workflow of processing hybridoma supernates for imaging.

Of the 41 antibodies analyzed, only three produced images with substantial nuclear localization, and undetectable in the cytoplasm, as would be expected for active TFs (*Supplementary Table 5*). A key positive control is MED4, a component of the Mediator transcription co-factor, which has been demonstrated to form nuclear puncta[38]. As in **Figure 6a**, both Mtr4 and MED4 were detected in the nucleus of K562 cells. In contrast, PCRP antibodies against other factors (e.g., Mdx4) showed cytoplasmic staining (**Figure 6b**). This may be due to Mdx4 being cytoplasmic, or alternatively that the Mdx4 PCRP mAb is not specific in these experiments. The low validation rate indicates that care should be taken in evaluating their general usage for STORM.

Figure 6. Example of STORM capabilities employing three different fluorescence channels examining one K562 cell for nuclear localization. (**a**) Upper left: DAPI (405nm) to localize the nucleus. Lower left: Staining of cell with concentrated PCRP supernatant (Med4, clone 1A6), with secondary antibody conjugated to Alexa-488 (green). As the mediator complex (Med4) interacts with DNA-binding gene-specific TFs to modulate transcription by RNA polymerase II it would be expected to be found in the nucleus. Lower right: Staining of cell with commercial anti-Mtr4 (a helicase; expected to be found in the nucleus and used as a standard STORM positive control[37]. Secondary anti-rabbit conjugated to Alexa-647 (red). Upper right: merged image. Far right: Zoom-in on merged image, demonstrating ability of STORM to spatially resolve the localization of individual molecules at sub-light microscopy resolution. (**b**) STORM with possibly non-specific antibody staining. Upper left: staining of K562 cell with DAPI for nuclear localization. Lower left. Stain with commercial anti-Mtr4 antibody Secondary antibody is coupled to Alexa 488 (green). Upper right: stain of cell with anti-Mdx4 (Max dimerization 4 protein). Secondary antibody is conjugated to Alexa 647 (red). Note that the antibody staining forms a ring at the periphery of the nucleus, possibly indicating non-specific binding. Lower right: merged image.

Utility of PCRP mAb in detecting recombinant protein in Western blots

Recombinant proteins are often expressed with an epitope tag for in-depth biochemical

analysis. A common means of detecting specific proteins in a complex mixture is through size

separation using denaturing gel electrophoresis (SDS-PAGE), followed by immunoblotting.

Here, we used coupled-in vitro transcription / translation (IVT) to produce 33 TFs as N-term
GST-fusion proteins (*Supplementary Table 6*), which we then used to assay a corresponding set
of 46 PCRP mAbs by immunoblotting. 31 of the 46 (67%) PCRP Abs detected a band of the
expected molecular weight (*Supplementary Fig. 10*). As a positive control, anti-GST antibody
detected all 33 GST-fusion TFs. Thus, despite limitations inherent in cell-based assays, the
majority of the PCRP mAbs are expected to be active in recognizing their target proteins as
GST-fusions in Western blots.

Supplementary Fig. 10. Immunoblots with PCRP mAb. The indicated full-length GST-tagged targets were synthesized by *in vitro* transcription and translation (IVT), resolved by SDS-PAGE, electroblotted to a membrane, and probed with hybridoma supernatant from the indicated PCRP hybridoma clone ID or with anti-GST (positive control). The red boxes indicate the correct bands corresponding to the sizes of the full-length TFs. The blue dot indicates cross-reactivity of the secondary antibody with the 1-Step Human Coupled IVT Kit. The expected molecular weight of each target is indicated above each immunoblot. Species located below the full-length protein may be protein degradation or incomplete synthesis.

Protein binding microarrays (PBMs) are a high-throughput technology to assay the DNA
binding specificities of proteins or protein complexes[39-41]. Proteins used in PBMs are typically
expressed as epitope tag-fusions, which permits detection on the array with a fluorescent anti-tag
antibody. Broader availability of TF-specific antibodies would increase the toolkit of reagents for
protein detection in PBMs. Furthermore, a possible explanation for why some antibodies may
fail to work in ChIP experiments is that their target epitope may become inaccessible when the
TF is bound to an accessory protein / DNA and/or subjected to modification by formaldehyde.
Therefore, for a set of 31 TFs that were of interest or performed well in ChIP, we used PBMs to
test 44 PCRP mAb for their ability to recognize their DNA-bound target TF. Briefly, we
expressed the relevant TFs by IVT and used each in universal PBM experiments, where all 10-bp
sequences were represented within ~44,000 60-bp probes on double-stranded Agilent

oligonucleotide arrays[39]. For 20 of these 44 PCRP Abs (45%), the PBM experiments
successfully identified a DNA binding motif consistent with the known or anticipated element
(**Figure 7,** *Supplementary Fig. 11*). Of the 20 PCRP antibodies that successfully yielded the
expected motif in PBMs, 11 had at least some validation support by ChIP.
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Figure 7. Examples of TF binding motifs derived from PBM experiments performed using anti-GST or PCRP antibodies. Transcription factors were assayed with their PCRP mAbs to compare their motif against their corresponding motif derived from an anti-GST PBM experiment and/or expected motif from the CIS-BP database[42]. NRF1, USF1, YY1, and ESR1 assayed with Alexa488-conjugated anti-GST antibody or, separately, with the indicated PCRP mAbs, yielded DNA binding motifs consistent with those from CIS-BP. For display of sequence motifs, probability matrices were trimmed from left and right until 2 consecutive positions with information content of 0.3 or greater were encountered, and logos were generated from the resulting trimmed matrices using enoLOGOS (DOI: 10.1093/nar/gki439)

Supplementary Fig. 11. TF binding motifs derived from PBM experiments performed using anti-GST or PCRP antibodies. Each full-length TF was assayed with its PCRP mAb(s) and compared against its corresponding motif derived from an anti-GST PBM experiment and anticipated motif from the UniPROBE or CIS-BP databases. The TFs from UniPROBE or CIS-BP were assayed as extended DNA binding domains. For display of sequence motifs, probability matrices were trimmed from left and right until 2 consecutive positions with information content of 0.3 or greater were encountered, and logos were generated from the resulting trimmed matrices using enoLOGOS (DOI: 10.1093/nar/gki439)

Discussion

The ability to interrogate the diverse human proteome is often dependent on the use and
specificity of affinity capture reagents, of which antibodies are the most widely used. PCRP was
intended to be a pilot project for the entire human proteome, but with a focus on nuclear proteins.
To this end, nearly all PCRP mAb against ~700 putative chromatin targets or TFs were assayed
genome-wide by ChIP-exo. A smaller subset was analyzed by other genome-wide location
assays (ChIP-seq, CUT&RUN), by super-resolution microscopy (STORM), and in detection of
recombinant target protein in Western blots and bound to DNA in PBMs. The purpose of this
antibody screen is to present a technical assessment of these reagents and to provide a 'first-pass'
assessment of those that demonstrate utility in one or more biochemical or cellular assays. To
this end, we report those for which we obtained successful assay outcomes either "as is" as
hybridoma supernates or after further processing (see Methods).
A large number of antibodies did not validate by the assays and criteria we employed in
this study. However, proteins lacking known or putative DNA binding specificities may not have
been accommodated within our discovery framework. For example, a target protein may bind a
class of DNA sequences that was not captured by current motif discovery algorithms, or
alternatively may interact with a genomic target sites that contain a wide range of different DNA

sequence motifs, and are not restricted to a small number of motifs, as is typically observed for
sequence-specific DNA binding proteins. Another possible scenario is that a target protein might
only bind genomic regions that form an as-yet undiscovered chromatin class. We often found
motifs that were long, simple, semi-repetitive, and highly degenerate (See online). These are not
typical properties of sequence-specific DNA binding proteins and the ChIP-exo patterns at these
motifs were often quite distinct from well-validated targets. Historically, some of these locations
may have been set aside as within so-called "black-listed" regions. Whether these regions are
artifactual or have some unknown biology remains to be determined. While we accepted these
motifs as evidence of enrichment, we urge caution when interpreting such atypical binding
events.
We believe that some mAbs that produced data classed as marginal or with unconvincing
evidence of specificity might perform better with assay optimization, a different cell type, or
through a different metric or threshold of validity. Notably, many of the TFs whose
corresponding PCRP mAbs were screened by ChIP-exo in K562 cells, are not expressed at
appreciable levels, if at all, in this cell type. However as shown in *Supplementary Fig. 6*, even
where a target is abundantly expressed, it may not interact with chromatin (and thus escape
detection) unless activated to do so. Therefore, knowledge of the underlying biology of the target
can be critical in how ChIP quality is assessed.
It was not practical in our high-throughput ChIP-exo screen to profile each PCRP mAb
in a wide range of cell types. However, in future studies, such PCRP Abs will need to be assayed
in cells in which their associated TFs are expressed at higher levels, in order to make a more
definitive statement of their capability. Furthermore, some targets may simply not be crosslinked
to chromatin in the assayed cell type (or any cell type), making ChIP an inappropriate assay for
their antibody validation (or indeed use). Conversely, in the case of CUT&RUN, the addition of
cross-linking (versus the native approach used) may stabilize the association of TFs with their
DNA motifs through early sample processing steps. Other explanations for poor performance
may include epitope inaccessibility, either due to the presence of an interfering ligand (protein or
nucleic acid), or epitope modification (by enzymes or formaldehyde). Furthermore, unlike
engineered epitope tags, each target-specific antibody may have a substantially different affinity
for its cognate target. Therefore, we cannot rule out that at least some low- or non-performing
antibodies could perform better under different immunoprecipitation conditions. Still other
potential reasons for antibody non-performance may be due to lot expiration or mis-identification
along the supply chain.
In total, 950 unique hybridoma clones were tested in at least one of the assays. We
identified 57 clones (6%) that worked with high confidence in at least one assay. However, only
a very small portion of the validation spectrum has been explored. Using relaxed criteria, that
may reflect significant but off-target or unknown behavior, we find 40% (380/950) of the tested
PCRP mAb had at least some evidence in at least one assay. However, such marginal validation
requires deeper biochemical validation such as target depletion/deletion or negative control cell
lines for a more robust validation. Our analysis identifies suitable candidates. A detailed
summary of each assay's results along with all of the measured quality control metrics is
available in **Table 1,** along with an interactive searchable web-interface online at
www.PCRPvalidation.org.
We have described here a principled strategy in evaluating antibody performance across
various assays . This strategy may be useful in evaluating other antibodies in ChIP or other
experimental formats.
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Methods
ChIP protocols

Antibodies. 1,308 TF hybridomas were reported through the PCRP portal at the start of this study (September, 2017). Hybridoma supernates were purchased from Developmental Studies Hybridoma Bank (DSHB, U. Iowa, IA) as 1 ml aliquots. Monoclonal antibody (mAb) concentration (average 36 ug/ml ELISA-quantified antibody) and preparation dates were provided. Concentrated mAbs and their concentration were generously provided by CDI laboratories (Mayaguez, PR).

Cell material. Cell stocks were obtained by the Pugh laboratory from ATCC. K562 were grown in suspension using IMDM media and periodically checked for mycoplasma contamination. HepG2 and MCF7 were grown as adherent cells in DMEM media. MCF7 cells were additionally grown in phenol red-free DMEM and treated with Beta-estradiol 30 min prior to cell harvest. Cells were pelleted, re-suspended in PBS, crosslinked with 1% formaldehyde for 10 min, and then quenched with a molar excess of glycine. Donated human organs were obtained from NDRI (Philadelphia, PA) and then cryoground to fine powder using the SPEX cryomill cyrogrinder. Frozen tissue powder was re-suspended in room-temperature PBS containing formaldehyde to a final concentration of 1% and quenched with a molar excess of glycine. All cells and tissue for ChIP-exo then proceeded through standard lysis and sonication protocol described below after crosslink quenching. HCT116 cells (ATCC CCL-247) were grown in the Shilatifard laboratory in DMEM supplemented with 10% FBS (Fisher Scientific, 35-015-CV). 70%–80% confluent HCT116 cells were heat shocked for 1 hr by adding pre-heated conditioned media pre-heated to 42°C[37]. Heat shock and non-heat shock HCT116 cells were washed with PBS before fixing with 1% formaldehyde (Sigma, 252549) in PBS for 15 minutes and processing for ChIP-seq.

ChIP-exo testing was initially prioritized in K562, MCF7, and HepG2, using gene expression values (FPKM in RNA-seq) generated from the ENCODE project as the basis for the cell type used[7, 43]. Targets were assigned to the cell type most likely to express the protein of interest. If no cell line had a clear high expression for a specific target (>25% FPKM relative to all other considered cell lines), testing defaulted to K562. K562 was selected as the default due to its status as a Tier 1 ENCODE cell line and the plethora of existing genomic data that could orthogonally support any findings. Samples were processed in batches of 48 in 96 well plate format. The PCRP-derived USF1 or NRF1 antibody served as a positive control for every processed cohort as well as an IgG or "No Antibody" mock ChIP negative control. Crosslinked sonicated chromatin from ~7 million cells was incubated with antibody-bound beads, then subjected to the ChIP-exo 5.0 assay[20].

ChIP-exo 5.0 assay. Chromatin for ChIP-exo was prepared by resuspending crosslinked and quenched chromatin in Farnham cell lysis buffer at a ratio of 25 million cells to 1 mL of buffer for 20 min at 4°C. At the 10 min mark, cells were pushed through a 25G needle 5 times to enhance cellular lysis. Nuclei were then isolated by pelleting at 2,500g for 5min. Nuclei were resuspended in RIPA buffer (25 million cells to 1 mL of buffer) for an additional 20 min at 4°C and then pelleted again at 2,500g for 5 min. Disrupted nuclei were then finally resuspended in 1X PBS (25 million cells to 1 mL of buffer) and sonicated for 10 cycles (30on/30off) in a Diagenode Pico. Solubilized chromatin was then processed through ChIP-exo. Production-scale ChIP-exo 5.0 was generally performed in batches of 48 in a 96-well plate, alternating every column to reduce risk of cross-contamination[18]. Briefly, solubilized chromatin was incubated with Protein A/G Dynabeads, preloaded with 3 ug of antibody, overnight then sequentially

processed through A-tailing, 1st adapter ligation, Phi29 Fill-in, Lambda exonuclease digestion, cross-link reversal, 2nd adapter ligation, and PCR for final high-throughput sequencing. Equal proportions of ChIP samples were barcoded, pooled, and sequenced. Illumina paired-end read (40 bp Read 1 and 36 bp Read 2) sequencing was performed on a NextSeq 500 and 550. While, on average, we sought ~10 million total paired-end reads per ChIP, we accepted less if there was strong evidence of target enrichment. Otherwise, we performed an additional round of sequencing. The 5' end of Read_1 corresponded to the exonuclease stop site, located ~6 bp upstream of a protein-DNA crosslink. Read_2 served two indirect functions: to provide added specificity to genome-wide mapping, and to remove PCR duplicates.

ChIP-seq. 1×10^8 cells were fixed in 1% formaldehyde (Sigma, 252549) in PBS for 15-20 min at room temperature and quenched with 1/10th volume of 1.25 M glycine for 5 minutes at room temperature. Cells were collected at 1,000xg for 5 minutes, washed in PBS, pelleted at 1,000xg for 5 min and pellets were flash frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at -80°C until use. Pellets were thawed on ice and resuspended in 10 ml lysis buffer 1 (50 mM HEPES, pH 7.5, 140 mM NaCl, 1 mM EDTA, 10% glycerol, 0.5% IGEPAL CA-630, 0.25% Triton X-100 with 5μl/ml Sigma 8340 protease inhibitor cocktail incubated on ice 10 minutes, pelleted 1,500xg and subsequently washed in lysis buffer 2 (10 mM Tris-HCl pH 8.0, 200 mM NaCl, 1 mM EDTA, 0.5 mM EGTA and 5ul /ml protease inhibitor) as with lysis buffer 1 before resuspending in 1 ml lysis buffer 3 (10 mM tris-HCl pH 8.0, 1 mM EDTA, 0.1% SDS and 5 ul/ml protease inhibitors) for sonication as previously described[44]. Chromatin was sheared in a 1 ml milliTUBE with AFA fiber on a Covaris E220 using 10% duty factor for 2 min. The sheared chromatin concentration was estimated with Nanodrop at OD 260 and diluted to 1 mg/ml in ChIP Dilution Buffer (10% Triton X-100, 1M NaCl and 1% Sodium deoxycholate). 1 mg chromatin was combined with 4 μg hybridoma tissue culture supernatant and rotated overnight at 4°C. 40 μl protein A/G Dynabeads was added and incubated for 2-4 hr rotating at 4°C. Samples were washed 5 times with 1 ml RIPA buffer, 2 times with TE with 50 mM NaCl. Chromatin was eluted with 800 μl elution buffer (50 mM Tris pH 8.0, 1 mM EDTA, 0.1% SDS) for 30 min at 65°C shaking at 1,500 rpm in a ThermoMixer (Eppendorf). Supernatants were collected, digested with 20 μl of 20 mg/ml Proteinase K and incubated overnight at 65°C. DNA was purified with phenol chloroform extraction. 500 μl of the aqueous phase was precipitated with 20 μl 5M NaCl, 1.5 μg glycogen and 1 ml EtOH on ice for 1 hr or at -20°C overnight.

Sequencing libraries were prepared with the KAPA HTP library prep kit (Roche) using 1-10 ng DNA and libraries were size selected with AMPure XP beads (Beckman Coulter). Illumina 50 bp single-end read sequencing was performed on a NextSeq 500 or NovaSeq 6000. Reads were aligned to hg19 with Bowtie 1.1.2[45], keeping only uniquely mapped reads, allowing up to two mismatches.

Peaks were called with MACS2 2.1.0[46]. For coverage tracks, reads were extended to 150 bp and coverage was normalized to total mapped reads (reads per million). Heatmaps and metaplots were made with deepTools[47]. For metagene plots, the Ensembl version 75 transcripts with the highest total coverage from the annotated TSS to 200 nt downstream and were at least 2 kb long, and 1 kb away from the nearest gene.

RNAi. Lentiviruses were packaged in HEK293T cells transfected with 1 μg pME-VSVG, 2 μg PAX2 and 4 μg shRNA in pLKO.1 backbone using Lipofectamine 3000 (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA) according to the manufacturer's instructions. The virus particles were then harvested 24 to 48 hours later by passing through a 0.45 μm syringe filter (Thermo Scientific). Viruses were mixed with an equal volume of fresh media supplemented with 10%

528 FBS and polybrene was added at a final concentration of 5 μg/mL to increase infection
529 efficiency. The medium was changed 6 hours after infection. Cells were selected with 2 μg/ml
530 puromycin for three days before Western blotting and ChIP-seq experiments. The following
531 shRNA sequences were used:

shNRF1-F2	CCGGCCTCATGTATTTGAGTCTAATCTCGAGATTAGACTCAAATACATGAGGTTTTTG
shNRF1-R2	AATTCAAAAACCTCATGTATTTGAGTCTAATCTCGAGATTAGACTCAAATACATGAGG
shNRF1-F3	CCGGCCGTTGCCCAAGTGAATTATTCTCGAGAATAATTCACTTGGGCAACGGTTTTTG
shNRF1-R3	AATTCAAAAACCGTTGCCCAAGTGAATTATTCTCGAGAATAATTCACTTGGGCAACGG

Bioinformatic protocols

Technical performance. A series of modular bioinformatic analyses were implemented to
evaluate technical success of ChIP-exo library construction and sequencing, independent of
whether the antibody found its target or not. 1) Sequencing depth (standard is 8-10M), which is
the total number of sequencing reads having a target-specific barcode. 2) Adapter dimers
(standard is <2%), which is the fraction of reads that contain the sequencing adapters but lack a
genomic insert. 3) Alignment (standard is 70-90%), which is the percent of reads that map to the
reference human genome after removing adapter dimers. 4) PCR duplicates (standard is <40%),
which are expected to have identically mapped Read_1 and Read_2 5' ends. Since PCR
duplicates are not a direct product of ChIP, they add no value to enrichment metrics. High PCR
duplicates, at normal sequencing depths, often means technical loss of material during library
construction prior to PCR.
Peak calling. We utilized two distinct algorithms for ChIP-exo peak-calling. The first
algorithm was GeneTrack which used a gaussian kernel to call strand-separated peaks at the 5'
ends of reads[25]. The reads were then paired across strands and the tag occupancy was normalized
using the NCIS approach[48]. Peak significance was called using either the binomial or poisson test
(taking whichever p-value was higher) with Benjamini-Hochberg correction and a q-value cutoff
of q<0.01. The other peak-caller used was the ChExMix algorithm, which is a high-resolution
peak-caller designed to simultaneously identify enriched sequence motifs and distinct sub-types
of binding using a combination of clustering and hierarchical mixture modeling[26]. ChExMix was
designed to take advantage of ChIP-exo's ability to identify protein co-factors through indirect
crosslinking events by modeling detected tag distributions in ChIP-exo data and using tree-
clustering based approaches to determine the significant peak subtypes that exist with ChIP-exo
data.
Motif enrichment via ChExMix. De novo motif discovery was performed by ChExMix.
Each motif was compared against the JASPAR database using TOMTOM with default
parameters to identify similarity to known motifs[28, 49]. Heatmaps and composite plots were
generated of sequence reads aligned relative to motif midpoints of all peaks containing an
enriched motif. For samples with high background, low complexity, and/or low sequencing
depth, it is possible the antibody is valid, but that standard de novo motif discovery may fail. We
developed an orthogonal method for motif detection. By first identifying all non-redundant motif
classes[50] in the genome, we then overlap low-threshold ChExMix peaks and determined which
motif class possesses overlapping peaks above background (>2 $\log_2$).
Motif enrichment and centering analysis. For ChIP-exo data generated from K562,
HepG2 and MCF-7 cells, narrowpeak data were called using ChExMix[26]; we restricted our motif
enrichment analysis to narrowpeak datasets that contained more than 500 peaks. For ChIP-seq
data generated from HCT116 and K562 cells, we did not require the presence of more than 500
peaks due to the smaller number of datasets available. Motif enrichment analysis of ChIP-exo

and ChIP-seq peaks was then performed as described previously[31]. Briefly, we trimmed each
peak to 200 bp centered around the peak summit. We generated background sequences for the
trimmed peaks using GENRE software with the default human setting, to ensure the same level
of promoter overlap, repeat overlap, GC content and CpG dinucleotide frequency between each
peak and its associated background sequence[31]. We manually curated a collection of 99 position
weight matrices (PWMs), primarily from biochemical TF DNA binding assays (*i.e.*, PB or HT-
SELEX), from the UniPROBE and CisBP databases, as a representative repertoire of human
sequence-specific TF binding motifs[34, 42, 51]. We scored each sequence for matches to each of the
motifs using the function "matchPWM" from the "Biostrings" R package. Motif enrichment was
quantified using an established AUROC metric that assesses the presence of a motif among the
500 highest confidence peaks (foreground set) as compared to the corresponding background set
of sequences using publicly available tools for analysis of TF ChIP-seq data[31]. We also assessed
each motif for its enrichment towards the centers of each ChIP-exo or ChIP-Seq peak set as
described previously[31]. Briefly, we first identified the PWM score threshold that maximized the
difference between foreground and corresponding background sets in the number of sequences
containing at least one PWM match (*Optimal PWM Match Score*). If a sequence had multiple
PWM matches, we considered only the highest score site. We then calculated the distance from
each of these sites to the corresponding peak summits, and used the mean of these distances in
the foreground or background set to quantify the motif enrichment towards the centers of ChIP
peaks. The *P*-values associated with motif enrichment (*i.e.*, AUROC value) and enrichment
towards the peak summits (*i.e.*, mean motif distance to peak summit) were both calculated by
using a Wilcoxon signed-rank test comparing their scores (PWM match score and PWM match
distance to distance to peak summit, respectively) for foreground and background sequences
when the PWM threshold was set to the optimal PWM match score. We then adjusted the *P*-
values across the PWM collection with a false discovery rate test for multiple hypothesis testing.
To test the significance of the difference in the TPM distributions between ChIP datasets with
enriched versus non-enriched motifs, we calculated the *P*-value by a Wilcoxon test using the
function wilcox.test in R.
Genome annotation enrichment. Only a small fraction of DNA-interacting factors binds
sequence-specific motifs. In the case of targets with either no expected motif or no known
function, determining peak enrichments at annotated regions of the genome can provide evidence
of ChIP success. The relative frequency of peaks occurring in different functional genomic
regions as defined by chromHMM[52] was calculated for each target, an IgG negative control, and
for random expectation. The log2 frequency enrichment of sample over IgG control was used to
identify regions of enrichment, as well as significant areas of de-enrichment (regions that
selectively avoid the target).
Significant peaks were intersected with chromHMM and Segway states to generate
frequency histograms for overlap with predicted chromatin states[52, 53]. Peaks derived from the
matched negative control dataset were also intersected with annotated states. The log2 ratio of
sample state frequency over control state frequency was then calculated in order to identify
general state enrichment of the sample throughout the genome.
Positional enrichment at promoters and insulators. In order to identify enrichment in
well-characterized promoter regions, sequence reads for the target, a matched "No Antibody"
control, and an IgG were aligned relative to annotated transcription start sites (TSS). Heatmaps
of all genes and composite plots of the top 1,000 TSS by gene expression (RNA-seq FPKM)
were generated from the data[7].

Heatmaps, composite plots, and 4color sequence plots. All heatmaps, composite plots,
and 4 color sequence plots were generated using ScriptManager v0.12
(https://github.com/CEGRcode/scriptmanager). ScriptManager is a Java-based GUI tool that
contains a series of interactive wizards that guide the user through transforming aligned BAM
files into publication-ready figures.
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CUT&RUN protocols
Antibody sourcing and concentration. Antibody hybridoma supernatants, name, clone ID,
and lot) were from DSHB. mAbs were concentrated using Amicon Ultra-4 Centrifugal Filter
Units with a 50 kDa cut-off (Millipore Sigma Cat # UFC805024) following manufacturer's
recommendations. All centrifugation steps (including 3x 4ml washes with 1X Tris buffered
Saline [TBS]) were performed at 4,000 x g for 15 minutes at room temperature. Final
concentrations for recovered mAbs (stored at 4ºC in [TBS, 0.1% BSA, 0.09% Sodium Azide])
were assumed based on initial concentrations / final recovery volumes and 1 µg used per
CUT&RUN experiment.
CUT&RUN. CUT&RUN was performed on 500k native nuclei extracted from K562 cells
using CUTANA® protocol v1.5.1 [http://www.epicypher.com] which is an optimized version of
that previously described[54]. For each sample, nuclei were extracted by incubating cells on ice for
10 min in Nuclei Extraction buffer (NE: 20 mM HEPES–KOH, pH 7.9; 10 mM KCl; 0.1%
Triton X-100; 20% Glycerol; 0.5mM spermidine; 1x complete protease inhibitor [*Roche* #
11836170001]), collecting by centrifugation (600 g, 3 min, 4ºC), discarding the supernatant, and
resuspending at [100 µl / 500K nuclei] sample in NE buffer. For each target 500K nuclei were
immobilized onto Concanavalin-A beads (*EpiCypher* #21-1401) and incubated overnight (4ºC
with gentle rocking) with 1 µg of antibody (40x PCRP as above ; IgG (*EpiCypher* 13-0042, lot
20036001-52) ; CTCF (*Millipore* 07-729, lot 3205452).
Modified CUT&RUN library prep. Illumina sequencing libraries were prepared from 1ng
to 10ng of purified CUT&RUN DNA using NEBNext Ultra II DNA Library Prep Kit (*New
England Biolabs* # E7645) as previously[55] with the following modifications to preserve and
enrich smaller DNA fragments (20-70 bp). Briefly, during end repair the cycling time was
decreased to 30 mins at 50ºC. After adapter ligation, to purify fragments >50bp, 1.75x volumes
of Agencourt AMPure XP beads (*Beckman Coulter* #A63881) were added for the first bead
clean-up before amplification following manufacturer's recommendations. PCR amplification
cycling parameters were as described[54]. Post-PCR, two rounds of DNA size selection were
performed. For the first selection, 0.8x volume of AMPure XP beads was added to the PCR
reaction to remove products >350bp. The supernatant, containing fragments <350bp, was moved
forward to a second round of size selection using 1.2x volumes of AMPure XP beads, to remove
products <150 bp. Libraries were quantified using Qubit Fluorometer (*Invitrogen*) and checked
for size distribution with a Bioanalyzer (*Agilent*).
CUT&RUN library sequencing and data analysis. Libraries were sequenced on the
Illumina NextSeq 550, obtaining ~5 million paired-end reads (75 x 75 nucleotides) on average.
Paired-end FASTQ files were aligned to the hg19 reference genome using the ChIP-exo pipeline.
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STORM protocols
Supernatant concentration. 3 milliliters of PCRP supernatant were concentrated using the
Amicon® Pro Affinity Concentration Kit Protein G with 10kDa Amicon® Ultra-0.5 Device

following the manufacturer's recommendations. Supernatant was quantitated by
spectrophotometer for rough approximation of concentration.
Cellular preparation and staining. K562 cells obtained from the ATCC (cat number
CCL243) were grown in a humidified 5% CO2 incubator. 3-5x10^5 cells were centrifuged at
1,500 rpm for 5 minutes, washed with PBS, and plated on MatTek-brand glass bottom dishes
(P35-G.1) prepared appropriately (washes with increasing concentrations of ethanol, followed by
coating with poly-L-Lysine (Sigma P4707) for 5 minutes and subsequent washes with water and
airdrying for 2h.) After plating, the cells were allowed to adhere for 2h and then washed with
PBS. For fixation, 1ml of 4% paraformaldehyde and 0.1% glutaraldehyde in PBS were added
for 10 minutes at room temperature with gentle rocking followed by blocking and
permeabilization in 2% normal goat serum/1% Triton X-100 in PBS for 1h at room temperature
with gentle shaking. Immunostaining was performed with anti-MTR4 antibody (Abcam 70551)
at a dilution of 1:250 in 0.1% normal goat serum, 0.05% Triton X-100 overnight at 4 degrees C.
The next morning cells were incubated with the secondary antibody (conjugated to Alexa-Fluor
647 (Life Technologies)) at a 1:1000 dilution in 0.1% normal goat serum in PBS and incubated
for 2h at room temperature followed by washes in PBS. This material was then subjected to
immunostaining with PCRP antibodies, by repeating the above procedure. PCRP mAb
hybridoma supernatant (3 ml) was first concentrated 30-100 fold since raw supernatants were
unsuccessful in both confocal microscopy and STORM (data not shown). The secondary
antibody was conjugated to Alexa-Fluor 488 (Life Technologies). At the end of the application
of the second secondary antibody, the cells were washed 3x with PBS and DAPI (Sigma D8542)
at a concentration of 1:500 in 0.1% normal goat serum in 1x PBS was applied for 10 minutes at
room temperature. The cells were washed 3x with PBS and finally 4% paraformaldehyde/0.1%
glutaraldehyde in PBS was applied for 10 minutes at RT before 3 washes in 1x PBS were
performed and dishes stored at 4 degrees until microscopy could be performed.
Microscopy. Cells were brought to the imaging facility and OXEA buffer was applied (50
mM Cysteimine, 3% v/v Oxyfluor, 20% v/v sodium DL Lactate, with pH adjusted to
approximately 8.5, as necessary.) The two colors (Alexa fluor 488 and Alexa fluor 647) were
imaged sequentially. Imaging buffer helped to keep dye molecules in a transient dark state.
Subsequently, individual dye molecules were excited stochastically with high laser power at their
excitation wavelength (488 nm for Alexa fluor 488 or 647 nm for Alexa fluor 647, respectively)
to induce blinking on millisecond timescales. STORM images and the correlated high-power
confocal stacks were acquired via a CFI Apo TIRF 100 × objective (1.49 NA) on a Nikon Ti-E
inverted microscope equipped with a Nikon N-STORM system, an Agilent laser launch system,
an Andor iXon Ultra 897 EMCCD (with a cylindrical lens for astigmatic 3D-STORM imaging)
camera, and an NSTORM Quad cube (Chroma). This setup was controlled by Nikon NIS-
Element AR software with N-STORM module. To obtain images, the field of view was selected
based on the live EMCCD image under 488-nm illumination. 3D STORM datasets of 50,000
frames were collected. Lateral drift between frames was corrected by tracking 488, 561, and 647
fluorescent beads (TetraSpeck, Life Technologies). STORM images were processed to acquire
coordinates of localization points using the N-STORM module in NIS-Elements AR software.
Identical settings were used for every image. Each localization is depicted in the STORM image
as a Gaussian peak, the width of which is determined by the number of photons detected[36]. All of
the 3D STORM imaging was performed on a minimum of two different K562 cells.
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TF cloning, protein expression, western blots, and PBM protocols

        Full-length TFs were either obtained from the hORFeome clone collection or synthesized as gBlocks (Integrated DNA Technologies) (**Supplementary Table 7**), full-length sequence-verified, and transferred by Gateway recombinational cloning into either the pDEST15 (ThermoFisher Scientific) or pT7CFE1-NHIS-GST (ThermoFisher) vectors for expression as N-terminal GST fusion proteins[56]. TFs were expressed by a coupled *in vitro* transcription and translation kit according to the manufacturer's protocols (**Supplementary Table 6**). Protein concentrations were approximated by an anti-GST western blot as described previously[39]. PCRP antibodies were used at a final concentration of 40 ng/mL in western blots. 8X60K GSE 'all 10-mer universal' oligonucleotide arrays (AMADID #030236; Agilent Technologies, Inc.) were double-stranded and used in PBM experiments essentially as described previously, with minor modifications as described below[39, 57, 58]. GST-tagged TFs assayed in PBMs were detected either with Alexa488-conjugated anti-GST antibody (Invitrogen A-11131), or with a TF-specific PCRP antibody, followed by washes and detection with Alexa488-conjugated goat anti-mouse IgG(H+L) Cross-Adsorbed Secondary Antibody (Invitrogen A-11001), essentially as described previously[41] (**Supplementary Table 6**). All PCRP Abs were used undiluted in PBM experiments; a subset of the PCRP Abs were also tested at a 1:5 or 1:20 dilution (**Supplementary Table 6**). All PBM experiments using PCRP antibodies were performed using fresh arrays or arrays that had been stripped once, as described previously[39, 57]. PBMs were scanned in a GenePix 4400A Microarray Scanner and raw data files were quantified and processed using the Universal PBM Analysis Suite[39, 57].

Code Availability

Our automated bioinformatic ChIP-exo analysis pipeline can be found at (https://github.com/CEGRcode/PCRPpipeline).

Data Availability

Raw ChIP-exo sequencing files are available at NCBI GEO archive (GSE151287). PBM data will be available via the UniPROBE database (accession ID: LAI20A) upon publication. CUT&RUN data has been deposited at GEO: Accession GSE151326 [(5.27.20) NCBI tracking system #20907832].

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Author Contributions

In the Basu lab, G.R. performed STORM experiments; W.Z. performed required bioinformatics analyses of STORM data; U.B. analyzed data, provided oversight and co-wrote the manuscript. In the Bulyk lab, J.T.A. and S.K.P. performed cloning, protein expression, western blots, PBM experiments, and PBM analysis; L.M. performed analysis of motif enrichment and centering; S.K.P. and L.M. prepared figures and Supplementary Tables; M.L.B. supervised research; and S.K.P., L.M., and M.L.B. co-wrote the manuscript. In the Pugh lab, TRB, KB, JM, SND, and KM performed ChIP-exo assays. PK designed and implemented the web portal. MJR and DJ performed ChIP-exo library quantitation and sequencing. WKML directed the ChIP-exo experiments, processed and analyzed the ChIP-exo, and co-wrote the manuscript writing. BFP provided oversight for ChIP-exo and co-wrote the manuscript. In the Shilatifard lab, A.P.S. conducted experiments. E.R.S. analyzed ChIP-seq data. E.R.S. and A.S. provided oversight and co-wrote the manuscript. From EpiCypher, B.J.V., K.N. and E.M. performed CUT&RUN studies, and M-C.K. provided oversight and co-wrote the manuscript.

Competing Interests

M.L.B. is a co-inventor on U.S. patent #8,530,638 on universal PBM technology. BFP has a financial interest in Peconic, LLC, which utilizes the ChIP-exo technology implemented in this study and could potentially benefit from the outcomes of this research. EpiCypher is a commercial developer of reagents to support CUTANA® CUT&RUN. The authors in the Basu and Shilatifard labs declare no competing financial interests.

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