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Codebook: sequence specificity and genomic binding of poorly-characterized human transcription factors

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SUMMARY

Gene expression is regulated by transcription factors (TFs), which recognize specific

DNA sequence motifs. Several hundred putative human TFs, identified mainly by an

apparent DNA-binding domain, lack known binding motifs[1], and even for well-

characterized TFs, it remains controversial to what degree motifs accurately reflect

binding sites in living cells[2,3]. Here, we describe a systematic effort ("Codebook") to

determine the sequence specificity of 332 putative and poorly characterized human

TFs. Over 4,000 independent experiments, encompassing multiple *in vitro* and *in vivo*

assays, produced motifs for just over half (177, or 53%), of which most are unique to a

single protein, thereby extending the vocabulary of sequence recognition encoded by

human TFs by ~100 distinct motifs. Moreover, binding motifs identified *in vitro* are

strongly enriched within cellular binding sites. Collectively, the data reveal tens of

thousands of previously unknown, conserved, and direct TF binding sites across the

human genome. These sites are concentrated in promoter regions, and are predictive of

gene expression, illustrating that this new data atlas provides an important step forward

in decoding the human genome.

KEYWORDS: Transcription factor, TF, ChIP-seq, HT-SELEX, GHT-SELEX, SELEX,

SMiLE-seq, Motif, DNA-binding specificity, PWM, PBM, Codebook

Introduction and motivations

A 2018 survey of putative human transcription factors (TFs) concluded that over a
quarter of the estimated ~1,600 possible TFs lacked established binding motifs[1]. This is
a striking deficit given that most of the conserved DNA in the human genome is
noncoding[4], and that a primary hypothesis for the function of noncoding DNA is gene
regulation[5]. Moreover, most of the uncharacterized and putative TFs are not close
paralogs of any established TF. Thus, despite possessing either literature evidence of
DNA-binding or protein domains that would typically bind DNA, their binding motifs
cannot be readily inferred, although it also cannot be excluded that these putative TFs
lack DNA sequence specificity entirely.

TF DNA-binding motifs are commonly modelled as Position Weight Matrices (PWMs),
which describe the relative preference of a TF for each nucleotide base pair in the
binding site[6,7], and can be visualized as a sequence logo[8]. Different methods for
measuring TF binding, and for deriving PWMs from the resultant data, have different
inherent limitations and biases[6]. There is also long-standing controversy regarding the
contribution of a TF's inherent sequence specificity to its cellular binding, relative to the
influence of chromatin and cofactors[2]. These uncertainties represent fundamental
hurdles for the analysis of gene regulation, as well as a myriad of related tasks in
genome analysis, including the interpretation of conserved genomic elements and
sequence variants.

To address these issues, we analyzed a large majority of the poorly characterized
human TFs[1] (defined here as having no confidently known binding motif), as well as
several dozen previously studied control TFs[9,10], using a panel of assays that provide
different perspectives on DNA sequence specificity. We refer to this international
collaborative project as the "Codebook/GRECO-BIT Collaboration": the reagent set and
laboratory experiments were initiated as the "Codebook Project", alluding to the fact that
TFs decode individual "words" in the genome, and the Gene REgulation COnsortium
Benchmarking IniTiative, GRECO-BIT rooted in GRECO[11], was then engaged for much
of the data analysis and benchmarking.

In this paper, we present an overview of the Codebook data, major outcomes and
findings of the study, and examples of prevalent phenomena and applications. These
include:

• Just over half of the 332 putative (i.e., "Codebook") TFs (177) display DNA
sequence specificity, most with the same motifs observed *in vitro* and in living
cells.
• The resulting 177 motifs are largely different from one another, and from the
motifs of previously-studied human TFs.
• Tens of thousands of genomic binding sites for these TFs display evidence of
purifying selection at the motif matches, indicating that they are functional.
• These conserved binding sites are abundant in the promoters of coding genes,
and promoter binding sites of the Codebook TFs are predictive of gene
expression across tissues and cell types.

• Many TFs bind to genomic dark matter, such as transposons, or are derived from
transposons, suggesting they may have had roles in adaptive evolution.

We also introduce web resources that can be used to access the primary and
processed data, including the PWMs. Accompanying manuscripts and SI provide
greater technical detail and depth, including biological findings, new assays, and
intriguing TF families, as well as methods for identifying and benchmarking PWMs[12-15].

Overview of the Codebook project

Fig. 1 provides a schematic of the Codebook project. We analyzed 393 proteins (332
putative "Codebook" TFs, and 61 control TFs) (**Supplementary Table 1**) using up to
five different assays encompassing both *in vitro* and living cellular contexts: HT-SELEX,
SMiLE-seq, Protein Binding Microarrays (PBMs), ChIP-seq (with inducible tagged
transgenes in HEK293 cells), and GHT-SELEX, a novel variant of HT-SELEX in which
the selections are performed using fragmented genomic DNA[12], instead of random
sequences. The GHT-SELEX, SMiLE-seq, and ChIP-seq data yielded significant and
extensive biological insight on their own that is detailed in accompanying
manuscripts[12,13,15], with highlights and joint conclusions summarized here. Different
assays accommodate different protein tags and expression systems, and many TFs
were analyzed using multiple constructs (e.g., full-length and DNA-binding
domain(DBD)(s)) and multiple expression systems, leading to variable numbers of
constructs analyzed and experiments per protein. The study employed 622 and 93
protein-coding inserts cloned into 1267 and 118 protein expression constructs for the
Codebook TFs and controls, respectively (**Supplementary Table 2** and
Supplementary Table 3). In total, we performed 4,804 experiments, 4,377 for
Codebook proteins and 427 for control TFs (**Supplementary Table 4**).

Because the Codebook proteins had no known motif, the process of determining which
experiments were successful was, by necessity, coupled to the process of deriving
motifs from each of the data sets, as described in detail in a separate manuscript[14].
Briefly, if we obtained similar motifs for the same protein from two or more different
experimental platforms, and these motifs were predictive of data across platforms, then
we considered the experiments producing these motifs to be successful. In total, 1,073
experiments for Codebook proteins and 280 for controls were deemed successful (i.e.,
produced a motif that was reproducible across experiments) (**Supplementary Table 4**).
In total, we obtained motifs for 177/332 Codebook proteins and 58/61 control TFs using
the same process, suggesting a low overall false-negative rate. The number of
Codebook proteins successful in a particular assay was 130 for ChIP-seq (41% of those
tested), 144 for HT-SELEX (44% of those tested), 139 for GHT-SELEX (42% of those
tested), 64 for SMiLE-seq (23% of those tested), and 39 for PBMs (27% of those tested)
(**Extended Data Fig. 1a**,**b**, **Supplementary Table 1**). For each of the proteins, we
selected a single representative PWM that scored highly across data types, for use in
subsequent analyses (see **Methods**, **Supplementary Table 5**).

The 177 successful Codebook TFs are dominated by the large and diverse C2H2 zinc
finger (C2H2-zf) class, for which 67% (121/180) produced motifs. C2H2-zf proteins can

bind RNA, protein, or other ligands[16-18]; this outcome indicates that most of the
Codebook C2H2-zf proteins are DNA-binding proteins, although it does not exclude
other functions. Among the Codebook TFs with other DBD types, roughly half (49%,
50/103) also produced motifs. The Codebook TFs also encompassed 49 proteins that
lack a well-established DBD, which were included due to literature evidence for DNA
sequence specificity. Among these, only six (12%) yielded motifs. Upon closer
inspection, all six do, in fact, contain plausible DNA-binding regions or domains (see
Supplementary Discussion). For example, DACH1 and DACH2, which recognize the
same motif, are homologs of Drosophila *Dachshund*, sharing the SKI/SNO/DAC
domain. There is prior evidence of DNA-binding by SKI/SNO/DAC domains[19,20],
although it is also known to have other functions[21]. Subsequent to the main Codebook
study, we tested all five additional human SKI/SNO/DAC domain-containing proteins
with HT-SELEX, and identified a motif for one, SKIDA1, providing further support for
SKI/SNO/DAC acting as a DNA-binding domain (**Extended Data Fig. 2a-c** and
Supplementary Discussion).

Nearly half of the Codebook proteins did not yield motifs (PWMs) that passed our
success criteria. False negatives could arise from the lack of an obligate binding
partner, a requirement for epigenetically modified DNA, lack of requisite post-
translational modification in our experiments, or other limitations of the methods. We
manually re-assessed each of the failed proteins, and deemed that the majority (83/155)
likely represent true negatives. C2H2-zf proteins with a single C2H2-zf domain, or
composed only of unusual C2H2-zf domains, typically failed in our assays, as did those
that lack the canonical spacing of C2H2-zf domains that supports binding of tandem
C2H2-zf arrays to longer sites[22] (see **Supplementary Discussion**, **Extended Data Fig.
3**, **Supplementary Table 6**, and **Supplementary Document 1** for discussion of the
unsuccessful proteins), suggesting that these C2H2-zf domains may have roles other
than DNA-binding. Some subtypes of other bona fide DBD classes also lack sequence
specificity (e.g., HMG); we found almost two dozen such cases. In addition, the 155
putative TFs that did not yield a motif in any assay are enriched for those with no known
DBD (of which 43/49 failed); among these, 33 have no evidence for DNA binding
beyond a single study, most of which were published over two decades ago.

Motifs identified *in vitro* are highly enriched at cellular binding sites and predict
differential binding to SNVs

The Codebook project generated technically successful ChIP-seq data for 130 of the
177 successful Codebook TFs[13], allowing us to gauge utilization of the motif in a cellular
context. There is clear enrichment of motif matches within ChIP-seq peaks, indicating
that the intrinsic sequence specificities of the TFs are used in the selection of cellular
binding sites (**Fig. 2**). Some TFs display motif enrichment in a wide region around the
peak summit due to multiple repeated motif matches; this phenomenon is particularly
common at CpG island promoters (discussed below). An accompanying manuscript[12]
demonstrates that genomic binding *in vitro* and *in vivo* are more similar than generally
believed. This conclusion could only be reached by a combination of GHT-SELEX and
ChIP-seq data coupled with optimization of PWM derivation and scanning methods.

The Codebook project was conducted over a period of nearly six years, and during this
time, several large-scale studies aimed at systematic ChIP-seq analysis of human TFs
(e.g., ENCODE) were published, mainly employing cell lines other than HEK293[23-25].
Peaks from these external datasets overlap only partially with the Codebook ChIP-seq
peaks for the same TF, which is expected because chromatin and cofactors can impact
site accessibility and selection (**Extended Data Fig. 4a-d**, **Supplementary Table 7**).
Nonetheless, Codebook PWMs were generally able to discriminate between binding
sites in these other ChIP-seq experiments and random sequences (median AUROC of
0.71 on HEK293, and slightly lower on other cell types), illustrating that the motifs are
predictive across studies and cell types (**Extended Data Fig. 4e**).

Sequence variants can disrupt TF binding sites, impacting gene regulation[26]. We
examined allelic read imbalance[27] in ChIP-seq and GHT-SELEX peak sets (**Extended**
Data Fig. 5, **Supplementary Table 8**), detecting a total of 12,060 apparent allele-
specific binding (ASB) events at 10,009 common single-nucleotide polymorphisms
(SNPs) for 190 individual TFs at 5% FDR. Importantly, for highly motif-disrupting
variants (with at least two-fold difference in P-values between PWM predictions for the
reference and the alternative alleles), the allelic preference of ASBs was concordant
with PWM predictions for 1,682 out of 2,260 (74%) of ASBs. Thus, while the specific
ASBs detected experimentally are limited to SNPs present in HEK293 cells, the
Codebook motifs can be applied to predict differential TF binding to any other sequence
variants. Considering aggregated ASBs across all tested TFs and experiments (see
Methods), the corresponding SNPs were enriched for previously characterized ASBs[28]
(2.4 odds-ratio, P-value 3.90e-162), disease-associated SNPs[29] (1.35 odds-ratio, P-
value 3.79e-18,), and GTEx eQTLs[30] (1.34 odds-ratio, P-value 1.77e-41) (two-sided
Fisher's exact test) (**Supplementary Table 9**).

Most of the Codebook TF motifs are unique, and many require degeneracy for
highest motif performance

The Codebook protein sequences are typically not closely related to each other or to
those of known TFs, suggesting that their DNA sequence preferences may also differ[1].
Fig. 3 shows an overview of similarity[31] among the representative Codebook PWMs,
illustrating that most of the Codebook TF motifs are indeed unique. The majority are
also dissimilar to any other known PWM[14] (**Extended Data Fig. 6**). This result is partly
explained by the large number of C2H2-zf proteins, which differ in their DNA-contacting
"specificity residues"[32]. Small clusters along the diagonal in **Fig. 3** mostly correspond to
the handful of paralogs analyzed (e.g., TIGD4 and 5, SP140 and SP140L, DACH1 and
2, CAMTA1 and 2, and ZXDA, B, and C). In addition, the middle of **Fig. 3** contains a set
of eight TFs for which the motif is dominated by a single CG sequence. Five of them
(CXXC4, FBXL1, TET3, MBD1, and KDM2A) contain CXXC-zf domains, which are
expected to bind clusters of unmethylated CpGs[33]. Similarly, in the lower right is a group
of five AT-hook proteins that prefer A/T containing sequences. Overall, however, the
177 Codebook TFs encompass 129 distinct motifs (**Fig. 3**, **Methods**). When we
performed motif clustering jointly with previously-catalogued, representative motifs for
1,211 human TFs, we obtained only 4.75-fold more distinct motif clusters (613), of

which 92 (15%) contained only Codebook proteins (**Extended Data Fig. 6**,
Supplementary Table 10). These numbers are robust to methodology: utilization of a
different public motif database, a different similarity metric and a different clustering
procedure led to a similar outcome, with a total of 653 motif clusters, 135 (21%) of
which contained only Codebook motifs (**Supplementary Table 11, Methods**). Thus, the
Codebook data expands the lexicon of human TFs by at least 15%, providing ~100
previously unknown motifs.

For dozens of TFs, the representative PWM, selected for highest accuracy across data
sets, had a degenerate quality, i.e. there were few or no positions at which a specific
base is absolutely required (**Extended Data Fig. 7a**). Artificially increasing the
information content (IC) (i.e., "unflattening" the sequence logo, and thus increasing the
apparent "specificity" of the low-IC representative PWMs) almost universally reduced
motif performance (**Extended Data Fig. 7b,c**), indicating that the degeneracy is
required for accuracy across data types. We also found that, overall, IC is not predictive
of motif performance[14]. It is counterintuitive that degeneracy (i.e., lower apparent
specificity) would lead to better predictive capacity, but similar findings by others
support the validity of the result[34-36]. The degeneracy may be a consequence of forcing
a single PWM to represent the specificity of TFs that, in reality, recognize multiple
related motifs[14]. It is also conceivable that TFs having the ability to tolerate mutations in
binding sites is beneficial for evolution[37].

Codebook TF binding sites suggest functions for tens of thousands of conserved
elements, which often co-occur in promoters

Together, the Codebook assays and PWMs pinpoint genomic loci that are bound
directly by each TF *in vivo* (i.e., in ChIP-seq), by identifying sites that are also bound *in*
vitro (i.e., GHT-SELEX), and that contain a PWM match, thus allowing base-level
resolution. We refer to these as "triple overlap" (TOP) sites, which are taken as the
overlap of the three sets (ChIP-seq, GHT-SELEX, and PWM matches) after applying
optimized score thresholds for each (see **Methods** for details). To further gauge
functionality of the TOP sites, we examined whether the pattern of per-nucleotide
conservation[38] at each site is consistent with the TF's sequence preference driving local
sequence constraint. To do this, we tested whether the motif matches at TOPs are more
highly conserved than neighboring sequence, and whether the degree of conservation
at each position within the motif match correlates with the contribution of that base to
predicted relative affinity (see **Methods** for details). **Fig. 4a** shows several examples
illustrating apparent conservation of PWM matches, for both control and Codebook TFs.
Overall, 85 of the 101 Codebook TFs (as well as 31/36 controls) with successful GHT-
SELEX and ChIP-seq data displayed conservation of at least one TOP site (FDR < 0.1).
In total we identified 113,577 such conserved TOP sites ("CTOP" sites) (82,760 for
Codebook TFs and 30,817 for controls), encompassing 1,394,530 bases within the
human genome. These results provide strong support for the functional importance of
Codebook TF binding sites in the genome.

Many of the CTOP sites were either overlapping or adjacent to other CTOP sites for the
same or different TFs, suggesting that these sites may be part of the same regulatory
element. We therefore grouped the CTOPs that were within 100bp from each other,
yielding 41,529 CTOP clusters (of which 24,733 are singletons and 16,796 contain
multiple CTOPs). The majority (35,583, or 85.7%) overlapped with the UCSC
PhastCons track. Thus, binding of these TFs presents a likely biochemical function for
these previously-identified conserved elements. The remaining 5,946 CTOPs appear to
represent new functional annotations that were not readily detected by comparative
genomics alone. It is known that TF binding motifs can provide additional functional
information (e.g., degenerate positions within motif matches) that can explain complex
conservation patterns[39].

Codebook TFs with the largest number of CTOP sites were typically located within
promoters (36.9% of all CTOP clusters) and/or CpG islands (47.3% of CTOP clusters)
(**Fig. 4b**). The majority of CpG islands that are within protein-coding genes (60.4%,
8,111/13,427) contained CTOP sites, with an average of 4.55 CTOP sites per CpG
island. Moreover, 56/101 of Codebook TFs analyzed had at least one CTOP site within
a CpG island. An example CTOP that overlaps a CpG island is shown in **Fig. 4c**. The
extent of specific, conserved, and intrinsic occupancy of CpG islands by many TFs of
diverse classes is surprising: CpG islands are known to be enriched for binding sites for
specific TFs (SP1, NRF1, E2F, and ETS classes), which we do observe (**Fig. 4c-e**), but
CpG islands typically have little long-range conservation[40]. The CXXC proteins are
known to specifically recognize unmethylated CG dinucleotides and to modulate
chromatin at promoters[41], and we do observe that the CXXC proteins KDM2A, CXXC4,
FBXL19, and TET3 predominantly bind CpG islands. The abundance of CG
dinucleotides in CpG islands has been attributed primarily to their lack of methylation in
the germline, however, rather than primary sequence constraint or binding to TFs[42]. The
Codebook data thus provide a new lens for study of CpG islands. Intriguingly, many of
the Codebook TFs with CTOP sites in CpG islands recognize elaborate C/G rich motifs,
often with degenerate positions and long gaps between invariant bases (**Fig. 4c**).

CTOP clusters were also found in non-CpG island protein-coding promoters (**Fig. 4b**)
(678/6,606 such promoters, defined as -1000 to +500 relative to TSS). These clusters
are not dominated by any specific TFs, although some TFs are more prevalent than
others (e.g. controls ELF3 and CTCF, and Codebook TF ZNF648) (**Fig. 4d**). **Fig. 4e**
shows an example of a CTOP cluster in a non-CpG promoter, occurring early in the first
intron of the *TSPAN31* gene, which exhibits apparent conserved spacing and
orientation of multiple Codebook TF binding sites. In contrast, CTOP clusters outside of
promoters and CpG islands often contain just one or two CTOP sites (**Fig. 4b**). One
example is a very strongly conserved ZNF689 binding site found in a lncRNA intron and
overlapping an L1M4 transposon (**Fig. 4f**).

CTOP clusters also overlapped with known and putative enhancers: 1,825 overlap with
HEK293 enhancers (defined by ChromHMM[13]), and 4,057 are found in the extensive
GeneHancer annotation set[43]. These lower numbers, relative to promoters, could be
attributed to the relatively rapid evolution of enhancers[44], lack of complete knowledge of
enhancer identities, depletion of enhancer-related functions among the Codebook TFs,

or to other, non-enhancer functions of these conserved sites, such as control of
heterochromatin or other aspects of chromosome architecture.

Codebook TF motifs predict gene expression levels across tissues and cell types

Conservation of TF binding sites is a strong indicator that they are functional elements,
but it does not inherently reveal their biological purpose, i.e. in what conditions they are
active, and what processes they regulate. To link Codebook motifs to biological
functions, we employed Motif Activity Response Analysis (MARA)[45,46], a framework that
identifies relationships between the promoter motif occurrences and gene expression in
different biological samples. For MARA, we chose a representative motif from each of
the 653 motif clusters (**Supplementary Table 11**), scanned the FANTOM5 promoters[47]
with the representative motifs, and used the resulting scores to predict the promoter
activity (normalized CAGE tag counts) in 583 biological samples (tissues, primary cells,
and cell lines) using a linear model (**See Methods, Extended Data Fig. 8a,**
Supplementary Table 12). Next, for each motif cluster, we calculated the Pearson
correlation between the predicted motif activity and the total expression of the
corresponding TFs across all samples. The distribution of resulting correlation
coefficients for 135 motif clusters containing only Codebook motifs is similar to that of
motif clusters for previously known TFs (**Extended Data Fig. 8b**), supporting the notion
that the Codebook proteins are bona fide regulatory factors.

To explore the cellular functions the Codebook TFs might regulate, we examined the 25
Codebook-only motif clusters with the highest variance in activity across the FANTOM5
samples. Bi-clustering activities yielded four major TF groups (**Fig. 5**): (**1**) TFs targeting
genes that are preferentially expressed in immune cells, including transcriptional
repressors ZBTB8A[48] and ZFTA, whose targets are specifically repressed in the brain,
and are often activated in ependymomas caused by ZFTA fusion with RELA[49]; (**2**) TFs
active in both immune cells and cancer, including proteins that bind unmethylated CG-
containing motifs (CGGBP1, CXXC4, and SP140), the transcriptional activator
ZNF131[50], and MBD1; (**3**) TFs with target genes specifically expressed in nervous
tissues, including neuron maturation regulators CAMTA1[51] and ZNF292[52],
neurogenesis-associated repressors MBD3[53] and DNTTIP1[54], as well as MYRFL, the
paralog of myelin regulatory factor (MYRF), critical for central nervous system
myelination[55], exclusively active in the adult nervous tissues; (**4**) TFs mostly restricted to
mesodermal primary cells, including rRNA transcription regulator TTF1[56] and zinc finger
and BTB domain-containing proteins ZBTB41 and ZBTB5, which were found to
stimulate cell proliferation[57,58].

We obtained similar outcomes when we analyzed the global patterns of activity among
all 135 Codebook-only motif clusters and FANTOM5 samples using PCA: the first
component mainly separates nervous system from all other samples, while the second
one separates the developing nervous systems from adult (**Extended Data Fig. 8c**).
Taken together, the motif activities of Codebook TFs distinguish FANTOM5 tissues and
cell types, and provide many candidates for new transcriptional regulators of genes
involved in the inflammatory response, cell cycle control, and nervous system
development.

Codebook TFs and the dark matter genome

TF binding sites in promoters and enhancers are easily rationalized as likely being involved in the regulation of adjacent genes. A principal result of the Codebook project is that dozens of Codebook TFs instead bind preferentially to other regions of the genome[13]. An accompanying manuscript[13] focuses on the finding that roughly half of the examined TFs bind predominantly outside of promoters and enhancers in ChIP-seq, with most TFs having a very distinct set of binding sites that are supported by both GHT-SELEX and motif matches. Among these TFs are KRAB-containing C2H2 zinc fingers (KZNFs), which are best known for binding to specific classes of endogenous retroelements and nucleate regions of H3K9 trimethylation[59]. Until now, it has not been proven that the precise binding of KZNFs to specific retroelement subtypes is defined entirely by the sequence specificity of the KZNFs alone[60], but the Codebook GHT-SELEX data abundantly demonstrate that this is indeed the case[12].

The Codebook data also underscore the fact that transposons contribute to the TF repertoire itself[61]. Sixteen of the Codebook TFs (and two controls) that successfully yielded motifs possess a DBD that has itself been derived from a DNA transposase. These include CGGBP1[62], six proteins containing BED-zf domains[63], six with the related CENBP or Brinker domains[64], three with transposon-derived Myb/SANT/MADF domains[65], and FLYWCH1[66]. The PWMs obtained for CENPB/Brinker TFs are often long and information-rich, consistent with their presumed ancestral role in binding specifically to the transposons within a large genome (**Extended Data Fig. 9a, Supplementary Discussion**). A striking example is JRK, a TF that is found broadly in mammals[67] and derived from an ancient domesticated Tigger DNA transposon[68]. All DNA transposons, including Tigger, have been transpositionally inactive in the human lineage for over 40 million years, and are presumably "fossils"[69]. Genomic binding of JRK is enriched for the same family of Tigger elements from which it appears to be derived (**Supplementary Discussion**). The consensus sequence for this Tigger element family has PWM-predicted binding sites for JRK in the terminal repeats (**Extended Data Fig. 9b**), consistent with its presumed ancestral role in transposition. To our knowledge, it is only the second human protein known to retain this quality (the other is SETMAR[70]). These cases apparently represent the simultaneous introduction of a multitude of *cis*-regulatory elements, and the TF that binds them, by the same transposon.

Completing the human TF codebook

The primary purpose of Codebook was to assess 332 uncharacterized and putative human TFs for sequence-specific DNA binding activity, and produce trustworthy motifs for them, in order to assemble a complete human TF motif collection. This goal was mostly achieved. Codebook alone succeeded for slightly more than half of the tested TFs, and there is reason to believe that many of the unsuccessful putative TFs are likely not DNA-binding proteins or bind DNA with little or no sequence specificity (see

Supplementary Discussion and **Supplementary Document 1**). As noted above, a
subset of the Codebook TFs, as well as other poorly characterized TFs, have also been
analyzed by others since our study began. To evaluate the current scope of known
human TF specificities, we surveyed other databases for PWMs for putative TFs that
were not included in this study or were not found among the 177 Codebook successes.
A conservative manual curation identifies 33 additional human TFs (i.e., beyond the 177
that were successful in Codebook) that have at least one plausible motif available in
datasets that have been released since our 2018 TF census[1] (**Supplementary Table
13**), leading to a new total of 1,421 human TFs with characterized sequence
specificities (**Fig. 6** and **Supplementary Table 14**). **Supplementary Data 1** contains
representative PWMs for all 1,421 TFs (see **Supplementary Table 10** for motif details).

This enumeration leaves 175 proteins, mostly with conventional DBDs, that lack known
sequence specificity. Not all proteins with such domains are necessarily TFs, as noted
above, and our re-curation of TFs that were unsuccessful in our assays suggests that
83 of these – nearly half – appear unlikely to be bona fide TFs (**Supplementary
Document 1**). At the same time, new DBD classes continue to be identified (e.g.
WH[71,72]). In addition, some TFs may bind only to methylated DNA, a possibility we
explored in a separate manuscript in this collection[15]. Ongoing advances in the
prediction of protein and protein-DNA structures[73] have the potential to identify
additional candidates for sequence-specific DNA binding. Thus, while completion of the
objective to obtain a motif for every human TF now appears much closer, the list of
likely human TFs continues to evolve.

An important technical demonstration of the Codebook project is that the simultaneous
application of multiple experimental strategies and multiple motif-derivation and motif-
scoring strategies was highly beneficial, with no method either dominating or
dispensable[14], consistent with previous benchmarking efforts[36,74]. As a result, many of
the Codebook TFs are now among the best characterized human DNA-binding proteins
in terms of their sequence specificity. In particular, obtaining *in vivo* and *in vitro* genomic
binding profiles, together with assessing binding to randomly-generated artificial
sequences, is advantageous in several ways: it facilitates disentanglement of direct and
indirect binding, the contribution of the cellular environment, and the highly non-random
nature of the genome sequence. Only for a small handful of the 1,000+ previously
characterized TFs is there such a rich combination of data types. A much better
perspective on human gene regulation and genome function, and evolution could
presumably be obtained from the generation of such data for all human TFs.

METHODS

Plasmids and inserts. Sequences and accompanying information are given in **Supplementary Tables 2**, **3**, and **4**. Briefly, we selected Codebook TFs (and their DNA-binding domains) from information accompanying Lambert 2018[1] and posted at https://humantfs.ccbr.utoronto.ca. Inserts named with an "-FL" suffix correspond to the full-length ORF of a representative isoform of the protein. Those with a "-DBD" suffix contain all of the predicted DBDs in the protein flanked by either 50 amino acids, or up to the N or C-terminus of the protein. Those with a "-DBD1", "-DBD2" or "-DBD3" suffix contain a subset of the DBDs present in the proteins; these were designed manually, mainly for large C2H2-zf arrays. Inserts were obtained as recoded synthetic ORFs (BioBasic, US) flanked by AscI and SbfI sites, and subcloned into up to three plasmids: (i) pTH13195, a tetracycline-inducible, N-terminal eGFP-tagged expression vector with FLiP-in recombinase sites[10]; (ii) pTH6838, a T7-promoter driven, N-terminal GST-tagged bacterial expression vector[75], and (iii) pTH16500 (pF3A-ResEnz-egfp), an SP6-promoter driven, N-terminal eGFP-tagged bacterial expression vector, modified from pF3A–eGFP[9] to contain the two restriction sites after the eGFP.

Protein production. Each experiment used a protein expressed from one of the following systems: (a) FLiP-in HEK293 cells (catalog number: R78007), induced with Doxycycline for 24 hours, used for inserts in pTH13195; (b) PURExpress T7 recombinant IVT system (NEB Cat.#E6800L), for inserts in pTH6838; or (c) SP6-driven wheat germ extract-based IVT (Promega Cat#L3260), for inserts in pTH16500.

DNA binding assays. We followed previously-described protocols for ChIP-seq[10], PBMs[36], and SMiLE-seq[9]. Detailed descriptions of GHT-SELEX, HT-SELEX, ChIP-seq, and SMiLE-seq data collection and initial analysis are provided in the accompanying papers[14,15,76,77]. For PBMs, we analyzed proteins on two different PBM arrays (HK and ME), with differing probe sequences[78].

Data processing and motif derivation. The accompanying paper[14] describes motif derivation and evaluation in detail. Briefly, after initial preprocessing, we obtained a set of 'true positive' (likely bound) sequences for each individual experiment. (721 / 4,873) experiments were removed at this step, due to a low number of peaks, or other technical issues, as documented in **Supplementary Table 4**. We then applied a suite of tools (listed in **Supplementary Table 15**) to a training subset of the data from each experiment, and tested the resulting motifs on a test subset of the data from the same experiment, and also on the independent data for the same TF (i.e. the test sets from all other experiments done for the same TF). We employed a binary classification regime for all experiments and all motifs, and scored the motifs by a variety of criteria such as the areas under the receiver operating characteristic (AUROC) or the precision-recall curve (AUPRC).

Systematic filtering of artefactual motifs. While curating the datasets and assembling a reliable motif collection, we accounted for enrichment of similar artifact motifs. These recurrent DNA patterns were detected due to systematic experimental noise or peculiarities of particular motif discovery tools. For example, in HT-SELEX experiments

the "ACGACG" motif is often enriched. The sequence matches the constant flanking region of the ligand and likely abundant due to selective pressure for partially single-stranded DNA. In experiments with cell lysates, motifs of abundant native proteins in HEK293 cells were sometimes enriched (e.g., NFI, YY1, ETS-family TFs). To minimize the influence of these artifacts, we (**1**) manually compiled a list of known artifact motifs (**Supplementary Table 16**), (**2**) scanned the entire motif collection with MACRO-APE[79], and removed motifs that were highly similar to those in our catalog of artifacts. Additionally, we removed motifs that matched the constant, non-variable regions of the DNA used in HT-SELEX, GHT-SELEX, and SMiLE-Seq. We did not filter out ETS-related motifs for ETS-family positive controls, such as ELF3, FLI1, and GABPA. Subsequent to the expert curation, we confirmed that enriched k-mers in HT-SELEX experiments did not correspond to potential artifacts associated with individual expression systems[76].

Motif discovery success rate evaluation. To estimate the success rate of different motif discovery tools across different platforms, we started with the successful experiments and TFs. For each combination of a platform X (e.g. ChIP-seq) and a motif discovery tool Y (e.g. Autoseed), we computed the number of experiments (**Extended Data Fig. 1c**) or TFs (**Extended Data Fig. 1d**) that yielded a highly similar motif to the reference motif (i.e. manually curated) in that combination. For that, for a specific experiment or TF, we took the whole set of candidate motifs generated by that combination of platform X and tool Y, and checked whether any of those motifs pass the similarity threshold using a one-pass scan of MACRO-APE[79] ScanCollection command with the following parameters: -c 0.05 --rough-discretization 10 --precise 100500. Note that prior to comparison, the motifs were converted to log-odds PWMs (as in [14]).

Experiment evaluation by expert curation. To gauge the success of individual experiments, we employed an "expert curation" workflow with an initial voting scheme in which a committee of annotators gauged whether individual experiments should be "successful", i.e. included in subsequent analyses. All experiments were examined by at least three annotators. A subcommittee (AJ, IVK, and TRH) jointly resolved all cases of disagreement among initial annotators (~300 experiments) and then reviewed all successful experiments. Annotators had available an early version of the MEX portal (https://mex.autosome.org, described in [14]) containing results of all PWMs scored against all experiments, and were tasked with gauging whether the experiments yielded PWMs that were similar across experiments, or scored highly across experiments. Annotators also considered whether the motif was consistent with those for other members of their protein family (e.g. BHLHA9 yielded an E-box-like motif, CAnCTG), and/or similar between closely related paralogs (e.g. ZXDA, ZXDB, and ZXDC all yielded similar motifs). We also considered whether (and how many) "peaks" were obtained from ChIP-seq or GHT-SELEX, and whether these peaks were common to independent experiments (e.g. both ChIP-seq and GHT-SELEX). Annotators were further given a measure of similarity between Codebook PWMs and any PWMs in the public domain, as well as enrichment of known or suspected common contaminant motifs in any experiment.

Post-evaluation peak processing. After identification of successful experiments, we re-derived peak sets for ChIP-seq and GHT-SELEX experiments in order to obtain a

single peak set for each TF, as described in the accompanying papers[12,13]. Briefly, for
ChIP-seq we repeated the peak calling using MACS2 and experiment-specific
background sets, using a procedure previously described[10], then merged the peak sets
for replicates of the same TF with BEDTools merge[80] (see accompanying manuscript[13]:
"ChIP peak replicate analysis and merging"). We derived GHT-SELEX peaks using a
novel method, MAGIX, that calculates enrichment of reads in each cycle, and treats
different experiments as independent statistical samples in order to obtain a single
enrichment coefficient per peak[12].

Expert motif curation. For this study, to identify a single representative PWM for each
TF, we first compiled a set of the highest-scoring candidate PWMs for each TF (as
summarized above and elsewhere[14]), then ran additional tests with them, utilizing the
reprocessed peak data, and manually evaluated the outputs. We started with the union
of three sets of 20 PWMs for each TF: the 20 PWMs with the highest AUROC (as
calculated elsewhere[14]) on (i) any successful ChIP-seq experiment for the given TF, (ii)
any successful GHT-SELEX experiment for the given TF, and (iii) any successful HT-
SELEX experiment for the given TF. These PWMs were selected regardless of the data
set from which they were derived. We then reassessed these PWMs against ChIP-seq
and GHT-SELEX data with two parallel methodologies. First, we recalculated AUROC
for each of the candidate top PWMs on the merged, thresholded sets of ChIP-seq
peaks ($P < 10^{-10}$)[13] using AffiMX[31] to score each peak. We generated negative sets
using BEDTools shuffle[80] with the *-noOverlapping* option to create sets of random
genomic regions with the same number of peaks, and the same peak width distribution
as the corresponding ChIP peak sets. We used the same technique to calculate
AUROC values for GHT-SELEX, with thresholded peak sets (using a "kneedle"[81]
specificity value of 30 in the sorted enrichment values[13]). In parallel, we calculated the
Jaccard index to measure the overlap between PWM matches (identified by MOODS[82]
with -p 0.001) vs. ChIP-seq peaks and GHT-SELEX peaks, as two separate
measures. The overlap in each case was maximized by applying different thresholds on
the peak sets and choosing the cutoff at which the Jaccard index was the highest[12]. We
then applied expert curation (by a committee consisting of AJ, TRH, KUL, AF, RR, MA,
and IY) to choose a single representative PWM with high performance on all compiled
scores that, all else equal, also reflected reasonable expectation from the DBD class
(including recognition-code predicted motifs, see accompanying manuscript[12]) and did
not have low information content.

Motif similarity analysis. We took two different approaches to determine the number
of distinct motifs represented by the Codebook TFs, and the number of novel motifs
added to the human TF repertoire. In the first approach, we identified the similarity
between 1,582 PWMs representing the Codebook TFs (177 PWMs, 177 TFs) and TFs
with previously known specificities (1,405 PWMs, 1,211 TFs). The Codebook TF PWM
set is the set of representative PWMs for the 177 Codebook proteins with identified
motifs. For TFs with previously known specificities, the set of PWMs identified as the
"best" in Lambert et al. 2018[1] was used, except for two TFs (MTF2 and PHF1) that did
not have an assigned PWM. For these two TFs, the PWMs were retrieved from CisBP[83].
We used the correlation between pairwise affinities to 150,000 random sequences of
length 100, as calculated by MoSBAT[31], as the metric for PWM similarity. We then

clustered the 177 Codebook TFs based on these PWM similarities with Pearson
correlation and average linkage and identified the ideal number of clusters (129) by
determining the optimal silhouette value[84], which corresponded to splitting PWMs into
clusters at a distance of 0.76. We then clustered the full set of 1,582 motifs and used
the same distance to split the PWMs into clusters, resulting in 613 clusters, 92 of which
contained only Codebook TFs. The set of motifs used in the clustering and their cluster
membership are provided in **Supplementary Table 10**.

Independently, and to obtain a non-redundant set of motifs for MARA analysis, we
followed the procedure as in[85] with the addition of Codebook motifs. First, we merged
HOCOMOCO[38] v12 motifs with those evaluated in Codebook, preferably selecting those
built with ChIPMunk and ranking high in benchmarking[14] to maintain consistency with
HOCOMOCO v12, which was fully built with ChIPMunk. Having the joint motif collection,
we estimated the motif similarities with MACRO-APE[79] at the motif P-value cutoff of
0.0005 and a default matrix discretization parameter (-d) of 1 (increased to 10 for
improved precision only for motif pairs with the Jaccard similarity over 0.01 at -d 1).
Next, using the pairwise motif similarity matrix, we performed agglomerative clustering
('average' linkage) with sklearn. The number of clusters was taken to maximize the
silhouette score. Clusters of low-quality motifs (HOCOMOCO 'D') were discarded.
Finally, for each cluster, a single representative motif was taken according to the
highest average similarity to all other motifs in the cluster (**Supplementary Table 11**).
The non-redundant set of representative motifs is available for download from Zenodo
(https://zenodo.org/records/17307845) [doi:10.5281/zenodo.17307845], and the motif
clusters annotation is available in **Supplementary Table 11.**

Motif degeneracy analysis. To explore if low information content (IC) is an intrinsic
feature of some binding motifs, we adjusted the IC of PWMs and tested prediction
accuracy of ChIP-seq and GHT-SELEX binding sites. PWM IC was adjusted on a per-
base-pair basis, by iteratively scaling probabilities for each base at each position until
the PWM reached an average IC of 1 bit per base pair. The script, "logo_rescale.pl", is
available at https://gitlab.sib.swiss/EPD/pwmscan.

Comparison to external peak sets and PWMs. For comparison, we downloaded
ChIP-seq peak sets from GTRD[86] and ENCODE (4.12.2023)[87], for all Codebook TFs.
We then divided these data into four categories corresponding to the cell type:
HEK293/HEK293T, HepG2, K562, and other cells. We preferentially selected the peak
sets from GTRD, because it contained more diverse peak sets: since GTRD has
processed the majority of ENCODE consortium experiments, together with many non-
ENCODE experiments. When multiple experiments were available for a TF in a cell type
category, we selected the experiment with higher peak counts. If multiple computational
methods had been used to derive peak sets for the selected experiment, we chose the
peak set using a preferential order MACS, GEM, SISSRS, PICS and PEAKZILLA. See
Supplementary Table 7 for identifiers and metadata of the reference datasets.

For PWM scoring, the external peak sets were used as downloaded, with the exception
of peak sets that were generated with the GEM peak caller, which have a peak width of
1 (summit only), and were therefore expanded 250 bases in both directions. For

Codebook data, we used the merged and thresholded Codebook ChIP peak sets as in
"Expert motif curation". We generated negative peak sets for each ChIP-seq peak set
using BEDTools shuffle[80] with the *-noOverlapping* option to create sets of random
genomic regions with the same number of peaks and the same peak width distribution
as the corresponding ChIP peak sets. We downloaded PWMs for all Codebook TFs
from JASPAR[88] (2024 version), HOCOMOCO[38] (v12) and Factorbook[89] (downloaded
15.12.2023) (**Supplementary Table 13**). We scanned Codebook and external peak
sets (and corresponding negative sets) with the representative (i.e., expert-curated)
Codebook motifs (PWMs) using AffiMX[31], and calculated AUROC values. Additionally,
for the 19 Codebook TFs with a successful Codebook ChIP-seq experiment, a
Codebook PWM, an external ChIP-seq experiment, and an external PWM, we
compared the performance of PWMs across the different peak sets as follows. We first
selected a single external PWM for each of the 20 TFs by scanning each PWM for
a given TF on each external peak set for the same TF and identifying the PWM that
produced the highest AUROC. We then used these highest scoring PWMs to scan the
corresponding Codebook data and calculate AUROC values.

Curation of external motifs for previously uncharacterized TFs. For this analysis we
considered all proteins that were annotated as putative TFs in Lambert et al. 2018[1] but
did not then have a credible motif. We downloaded all motifs for these TFs from
JASPAR[88] (2024 version), HOCOMOCO[38] (v12) and Factorbook[89] (downloaded
15.12.2023), resulting in a set of 484 PWMs, that were then assessed manually by AJ
considering: 1) Whether similar motifs were obtained for the protein from multiple
independent datasets; 2) If the motif was consistent with the structural class of the TF
and; 3) If the motif was likely to describe inherent specificity of the protein and not, for
example, reflect a target site of another TF or a likely artifact. The curated motifs are
listed in **Supplementary Table 13** with more details in **Supplementary Table 10**. The
PWMs themselves are available in **Supplementary Data 1**, and examples of artifactual
and correct external motifs are shown in **Extended Data Fig. 10**.

Motif activity response analysis (MARA). The promoter locations and activity data
were taken from FANTOM5[47]. After filtering (see **Supplementary Methods**), the set
comprised 209,374 individual promoters and 1,020 samples (including replicates),
belonging to 583 unique samples (142 tissues, 187 primary cells, and 254 cell lines, see
Supplementary Table 12 and Zenodo [https://zenodo.org/records/17307845]). The
sum-occupancy scores[90] were computed in [250 bp upstream; 10 bp downstream]
regions relative to the FANTOM5 TSS locations by scanning with a subset of 632 non-
redundant motifs representing TFs with expression detectable in the FANTOM5 data.
We employed MARADONER (MARA-done-right) v 0.13, a command-line Python
reimplementation of MARA available in PyPI (pip install maradoner). Conceptually,
MARADONER extends the original logic of MARA[45,46] to model the promoter activity in
each sample as a linear function of the motifs' scores and sample-specific motif
activities, where each motif represents a set of TFs with shared binding specificity.
Compared to the classical MARA, MARADONER explicitly models sample and motif
means (see **Supplementary Methods** for more details**)**.

TOP (Triple Overlap) and CTOP (Conserved Triple Overlap) peak set analyses. To obtain the TOP sites, we first identified thresholds for ChIP-seq peaks, GHT-SELEX peaks, and PWM-derived "peaks" (see below) that maximize the three-way Jaccard metric (overlap/union) of the three sets, with the thresholds calculated for each TF independently. We converted PWM matches (derived from MOODS[82] using a P-value cut-off of 0.001) into peaks by merging neighboring matches with a distance less than 200 bp and re-scoring them using the sum-occupancy for clusters. We then identified TOPs as peaks exceeding these thresholds in all three sets and overlap in all three. To obtain the CTOP sites, we then extracted PhyloP scores for each base at each TOP site (and 100 flanking bases) from the Zoonomia consortium[91], removed sites overlapping the ENCODE Blacklist[92] or protein coding sequences (due to the skew in phyloP scores caused by codons), and applied three different statistical tests for significance of phyloP scores over the PWM match: two that tested correlation between the IC and the phyloP value at each base position of the PWM (using either Pearson correlation or linear regression), and one that tested for higher phyloP scores over the PWM match (Wilcoxon test). Greater detail on these specific operations is given in the accompanying manuscripts[12,13].

Intersection of TOPs/CTOPs and genomic features. We first clustered all CTOPs using BEDTools merge[80], with a max distance of 100 bp, then intersected with the following genomic feature sets: basic canonical protein coding promoters from GENCODE v44[93], defined as 1000 bp upstream and 500 bp downstream of the canonical TSS; the "Unmasked CpG Island" track, PhastCons Conserved Elements from the Multiz 470 Mammalian alignment, and RepeatMasker track from UCSC[94]; ChromHMM HEK293 enhancers[13]. We classified promoters as CpG island or non-CpG island based on the GENCODE basic TSS being within +/- 50 bp of a CpG island from the unmasked track. We classified the CTOP clusters as associated with a single type of genomic feature in the following order of priority: CpG island associated with a protein coding promoter; other CpG islands; a non-CpG island-associated protein-coding promoter; an enhancer; clusters containing a CTCF binding site but not overlapping a CpG island, promoter or enhancer; overlapping a transposable element and none of the previous categories; overlapping a non-TE repeat and none of the prior categories; and "Other" for CTOP clusters not intersecting any examined features.

Analysis of allele-specific binding. The ASB analysis was performed as in Buyan et al.[27]. Briefly, we performed SNP calling with bcftools[95], corrected mapping bias with *WASP*[96], generated the maps of background allelic dosage with *BABACHI*[97] (Abstract O3), called ASBs with *MIXALIME*[27], and performed PWM scoring with *PERFECTOS-APE*[98], see **Supplementary Methods** for details. To obtain the non-redundant set of ASB-SNPs across Codebook data for intersecting with existing regulatory SNP databases (GTEx v.8[30], ADASTRA v.6.1[28], and EBI GWAS Catalog v1 e115_r2025-12-03_full)[29], we performed a joint aggregation of the allelic imbalance P-values over all processed datasets (ChIP-Seq and GHT-SELEX combined).

DATA AVAILABILITY

The sequencing raw data for the ChIP-seq, GHT-SELEX, and HT-SELEX experiments have been deposited into the SRA database under identifiers PRJEB78913 (ChIP-seq), PRJEB76622 (GHT-SELEX), and PRJEB61115 (HT-SELEX). Genomic interval information generated for ChIP-seq and GHT-SELEX have been deposited into GEO under accessions GSE280248 (ChIP-seq) and GSE278858 (GHT-SELEX). PWMs can be browsed at https://mex.autosome.org and downloaded at from Zenodo (https://zenodo.org/records/15667805) [doi:10.5281/zenodo.15667805]. An updated list of human TFs is available at https://humantfs.ccbr.utoronto.ca. The final motifs generated in this study are available in build 3.0 of the CisBP database[99]. Information on constructs, experiments, analyses, processed data, comparison tracks, and browsable pages with information and results for each TF is available at https://codebook.ccbr.utoronto.ca. SNP calls and ASBs are available at Zenodo (https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.18224872) [doi:10.5281/zenodo.18224871]. The data underlying MARA are available at Zenodo https://zenodo.org/records/17307845.

CODE AVAILABILITY

The script for adjusting PWM information content, logo_rescale.pl, is available at https://gitlab.sib.swiss/EPD/pwmscan, the code for the identification of TOPs and cTOPs is available at https://github.com/imyellan/Codebook_CTOP_scripts. The code used for the SNP-centric analysis is available at GitHub: https://github.com/autosome-ru/perspectives-on-codebook-allele-specificity, the MIXALIME is available on GitHub: https://github.com/autosome-ru/mixalime. MARADONER is available on GitHub: https://github.com/autosome-ru/MARADONER.

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AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

T.R.H. conceived of the Codebook Consortium. T.R.H. and B.D. directed the laboratory work. I.V.K. led the GRECO-BIT data analysis team. A.J., O.F., V.J.M., J.G., I.G., P.B., B.D., I.V.K., and T.R.H. oversaw the data analysis. Experiments were performed by: A.J. and A.W.H.Y (HT- and GHT-SELEX); A.W.H.Y (PBM); R.R., A.Bo., A.Br., H.Z., and M.B (ChIP-seq), and A.J.G, J.F.K.S., S.I, A.W.H.Y., and B.D. (SMiLE-seq). J.G., P.B., O.F., V.J.M., I.G., I.K., I.V.K., K.U.L., A.F., S.A., A.Br., A.Bo., J.F.K.S., A.J.G., M.A., M.T.W., I.V., and the Codebook Consortium members contributed to PWM derivation and motif analysis. All authors contributed to the initial assessment of experiments. I.V.K., A.J., and T.R.H. performed the secondary assessment of experiments. K.U.L, A.F., I.Y, V.N., A.B., G.M., and A.J. performed statistical analysis and created illustrations. The paper was drafted and finalized by T.R.H., A.J., K.U.L., A.F., I.Y., V.N., A.B., V.J.M., P.B., and I.V.K. All authors contributed to data analysis and reviewed the manuscript.

DECLARATION OF COMPETING INTERESTS

O.F. is employed by Roche.

FIGURES & LEGENDS

Figure 1. Codebook project overview. *Top*, Categories of 393 TFs assayed and their
associated constructs. ***Middle***, Graphical summary of assays employed. ***Bottom left***,
Example of performance (as AUROC) of the best performing PWM for TPRX1, for each
combination of experiment type – one for PWM derivation (rows), and one for PWM
testing (columns). ***Bottom right***, Heatmap shows successful experiments for all 393
TFs across all experiment types. AUROC: area under precision-recall curve, PWM:
position weight matrix, TF: transcription factor, C2H2-zfs: C2H2 zinc finger proteins, IP:
immunoprecipitation, DBD: DNA-binding domain, IVT: in vitro transcription/translation

Figure 2

Figure 2. Motif enrichment at ChIP-seq binding sites. Heatmap displays the
standardized count of representative PWM matches at each base +/-500 bp from the
TF's ChIP-seq peak summits. PWM matches were identified with MOODS (P-value <
0.001) and aggregated for each TF at each base position. For visualization, counts were
standardized (z-score across all base positions) for each TF. PWM information content
and the number of ChIP-seq peaks for each TF are indicated on the left. Control and
Codebook TFs are separated and grouped by DBD type. PWM: position weight matrix,
DBD: DNA-binding domain, ChIP: chromatin immunoprecipitation, TF: transcription
factor

Figure 3

Figure 3. Similarity of Codebook TF motifs. Symmetric heatmap displays the
similarity between representative PWMs for Codebook TFs, clustered by Pearson
correlation with average linkage. PWM similarity is the correlation between pairwise
affinities to 150,000 random sequences of length 100, as calculated by MoSBAT[31]. The
red line across the dendrogram indicates the clustering threshold determined by the
optimal silhouette value[84]. Pullouts and labels illustrate specific points in the main text.
TF: transcription factor, PWM: position weight matrix

Figure 4. Conservation of Codebook TF binding sites and association with
genomic features. a, Heatmaps of FDR-corrected phyloP scores over the PWM match
and 50 bp flanking for TOP sites for four TFs (two controls and two Codebook TFs).
Statistical test results (see main text and **Methods**) are indicated at right. **b,** *Left,* Donut
plot displays the proportion and number of clusters of conserved TOP (CTOP) sites that
overlap the genomic features indicated. *Middle,* Bar plot displays the mean # of
individual CTOPs contained within clusters that overlap the examined genomic regions.
c, A 1,420-base, CpG-island-overlapping CTOP cluster (chr12:120368293-120369713).
Zoonomia 241-mammal phyloP scores and Multiz 471 Mammal alignment PhastCons
Conserved Elements are shown. **d,** Bar plot of the frequency of TFs with CTOPs that
occur most frequently in CTOP clusters that overlap CpG and non-CpG protein coding
promoters, respectively. **e,** CTOP cluster overlapping the non-CpG promoter at
chr12:57,745,278-57,745,396. **f,** CTOP site for the KRAB-C2H2-zf protein ZNF689,
overlapping an L1M4-type L1 element located at chr5:106949666-106949692. TF:
transcription factor, TOP: triple-overlap, CTOP: conserved triple-overlap

Figure 5

Figure 5. Motif activity response analysis highlights the Codebook motifs'
functionality. Heatmap of bi-clustered MARA-predicted motif activities. X-axis: 583
FANTOM5 samples, clusters are labeled manually according to the predominant cell
and tissue types. Y-axis: TFs representing 25 Codebook motif clusters with the most
significant differential activity across FANTOM5 samples. Additional columns, left-to-
right: DNA-binding domain of the representative motif and the correlation between TF
expression and motif activity. Extra rows, top-to-bottom: FANTOM5 ontology-based
sample classification using the selected groups from disease state (DOID:4), cell type
(CL:0000003), organ (UBERON:0000062), and tissue (UBERON:0000479) terms,
clusters are colored by the predominant term if assigned to at least 40% of the samples.
PCC: Pearson correlation coefficient, TF: transcription factor

Figure 6. Motif coverage of human TFs by DBD family. TFs are categorized into
structural classes from Lambert et al.[1]. See **Supplementary Table 14** for underlying
information. TF: transcription factor, DBD: DNA-binding domain

Extended Data Figure 1. Motif discovery success rates. a, **b**, Proportion of control
(**a**) and Codebook (**b**) TFs for which a motif was successfully identified across
experiment types. GHT-SELEX and HT-SELEX experiments are separated according to
protein expression system. The proportion of untested TFs is also indicated. **c, d**, Rate
of successful motif discovery across experiment types and motif discovery tools.
Numerator in each cell represents the number of successes (cases of correctly
identified motifs), and denominator represents the number of experiments (**c**) or TFs (**d**)
for a particular combination of a tool and an assay. The first column in **c** and **d** displays
the joint estimates across all tools. IVT: in vitro transcription, TF: transcription factor

a

c

d

f

SLC2A4RG

b

e

Extended Data Figure 2. Undercharacterized DNA-binding domains. Overview of new motifs for undercharacterized TF families. **a,** Number of DACH1 and DACH2 orthologs (union of one-to-one and one-to-many) across Ensembl v111 vertebrates and selected invertebrates. Species order reflects the Ensembl species tree. **b,** Sequence logos (from the main Codebook project, and follow-up study described in the **Supplementary Discussion**) and sequence relationships of human and representative animal SKI/SNO/DAC domains. All motifs from successful HT-SELEX assays are shown, and a representative set of the DBDs tested is included in the phylogenetic tree. Tree is an unrooted maximum-likelihood phylogram from IQTree[100] using parameters -- alrt 1000 -B 1000 (1000 replicates to compute SH-aLRT (a branch support value from 0-100%), 1000 replicates for ultrafast bootstrap), and automatic best-fit model selection with ModelFinder. Branch values are SH-aLRT/ultrafast bootstrap. **c,** AlphaFold3-predicted structure of the DACH1 SKI/SNO/DAC region (residues 130 – 390) bound to an HT-SELEX ligand sequence with a high-scoring PWM match. **d,** Number of orthologs (same counting process as **a**) for human C-clamp proteins. **e**, Sequence logos (from the main Codebook project and follow-up study) and sequence relationships of human and representative animal C-Clamp domains (*ZNF704 motif from [101]). The tree was produced identically to the tree in **b**. **f,** AlphaFold3-predicted structure of two full-length SLC2A4RG proteins bound to a CTOP sequence with flanking sequences (chr17:48,048,369-48,048,401), and four Zn^{2+} ions (grey). The remainder of the proteins (beyond the C-clamp and C2H2-zf domains) are hidden, for visual simplicity. DBD: DNA-binding domain

Extended Data Figure 3. Description and re-assessment of unsuccessful proteins.
a, Number of successful and unsuccessful Codebook proteins by category. **b,** Number
of successful and unsuccessful C2H2-zf proteins categorized based on: whether a
protein has an array of at least two DBDs separated by 3-10 AA; has multiple C2H2-zf
domains but with other kinds of spacings; has only a single domain; or if it has a
potential C2H2-zf domain based on literature but none are predicted by our standard
HMM based prediction. **c,** Summary of re-assessment (see **Supplementary Table 6**
and **Supplementary Document 1** for details) of unsuccessful proteins by structural
class or category. Colors indicate if the protein is still assessed as a potential TF (red)
and is therefore a potential false negative, or if it is now assessed as an unlikely TF
(gray). **d**, shows a comparison of the CASZ1 "para-ZNF" domain[102] zinc fingers 1 and 2
against an example of canonical C2H2-zf domain of (GLI2, PDB:2GLI), with the
predicted C2H2-zf region CASZ1 DBD2 structurally aligned to DBD4 of GLI2. TF:
transcription factor, DBD: DNA-binding domain, HMM: hidden Markov model

Extended Data Figure 4. Comparison of Codebook ChIP-seq datasets and PWMs
to external ChIP-seq datasets and PWMs. a-d, Histograms of optimized Jaccard
indices measuring the overlap between ChIP-seq peak sets for the same TF: **a,**
Codebook ChIP-seq replicates; **b, c, d**: Codebook ChIP-seq vs. external ChIP-seq
performed in HEK293 cells (**b**), HepG2 cells (**c**), or K562 cells (**d**). Control TFs are not
included. **e,** AUROC values for expert-curated Codebook PWMs (columns),
discriminating ChIP-seq peaks vs. random genomic background loci. Rows show
different cell types. **f, g,** comparison of Codebook and external PWMs at the task of
discriminating ChIP-seq peak sets from random sequences (as in **e**), for the 20 TFs that
have Codebook ChIP-seq data, a Codebook PWM, external ChIP-seq data, and an
external PWM. **f**, Performance of Codebook PWM vs. the best performing external
PWM on Codebook ChIP-seq data. **g**, Performance of Codebook PWM vs. the best
performing external PWM on external ChIP-seq data. The four TFs with an AUROC of <
0.5 on either axis of either plot are highlighted. **h,** Sequence logos for the four TFs
highlighted in **f** and **g**. All expert-curated Codebook PWMs displayed are supported by
ChIP-seq, GHT-SELEX, HT-SELEX, and SMiLE-seq data. PWM: position weight matrix,
TF: transcription factor, AUROC: area under the receiver operating characteristic

Extended Data Figure 5

Extended Data Figure 5. Identifying allele-specific TF binding sites in Codebook ChIP-seq and GHT-SELEX data. a, Principal scheme of the allele-specific analysis. **b,** Distribution of PWM score P-value ratio (fold change), $|\log_2 FC|$, between alleles for non-ASBs (FDR ≥ 5%), ASBs (FDR < 5%) in peaks, and ASBs in TOPs (FDR < 5%). *Left*, 36 positive control TFs; *Right*, 100 Codebook TFs. P-values: Mann-Whitney U test. **c,** Motif concordance of Codebook ASBs. X-axis: ASB allelic preference and significance (-$\log_{10}$ FDR), *left*: preference for the reference allele (Ref), *right*: preference for the alternative allele (Alt). Y-axis: PWM score P-value ratio ($\log_2$ FC) between Alt and Ref. The plot shows only ASBs with $|\log_2 FC| > 1$. **d,** Genotype quality (GQ) of SNPs called from ChIP-Seq (top) and GHT-SELEX (bottom) data. X-axis: GQ, Y-axis: number of SNPs or ASBs. Red dashed line at 20 is the default GQ threshold used to filter SNP calls. The majority of candidate SNPs and ASBs have GQ much higher than the default threshold. **e,** The number of SNP-supporting ChIP-Seq or GHT-SELEX datasets for ASB and non-ASB SNPs. The majority of ASB SNPs are supported by two or more datasets. ASB: allele-specific binding site, FC: fold change, SNP: single-nucleotide polymorphism, TOP: triple-overlap

Motif similarity
Correlation of affinities to
random sequences

Codebook TF

<=0 0.2 0.4 0.6 0.8 1.0

Extended Data Figure 6. Similarity of TF motifs. Symmetric heatmap displays the
similarity between 1,582 PWMs clustered by Pearson correlation with average linkage.
The PWM set is composed of the 177 representative PWMs for Codebook TFs, and
1,405 PWMs for 1,211 TFs with previously identified binding specificities. The set of
PWMs for non-Codebook TFs was retrieved from Lambert et al. 2018[1]. PWM similarity
is the correlation between pairwise affinities to 150,000 random sequences of length
100 bp, as calculated by MoSBAT[31]. The red line across the dendrogram indicates the
clustering threshold (see **Fig. 3**, **Methods**) determined by the optimal silhouette value[84].
PWMs and cluster membership are in **Supplementary Table 10**. PWM: position weight
matrix, TF: transcription factor

Extended Data Figure 7. Motif degeneracy analysis. a, Histogram displays the maximum IC for any position within the representative PWM for all Codebook and control TFs. Logos are shown for TFs at various maximum positional IC values, for illustration. Red dashed line indicates an IC of 1.4. **b,** and **c,** comparison of original PWMs to IC-increased PWMs for the 52 TF PWMs for which no base position exceeded an IC of 1.4. **b,** AUROC values for original vs. IC-increased PWMs, discriminating ChIP-seq or GHT-SELEX peaks vs. random genomic background loci. **c,** Maximum Jaccard index for ChIP-seq or GHT-SELEX peak sets; using the approach described for optimized TOPs in **Methods**, for original vs. IC-increased PWMs. PWM: position weight matrix, IC: information content, TOP: triple-overlap regions, AUROC: area under the receiver operating characteristic

Extended Data Figure 8

a

b

c

Extended Data Figure 8. Motif activity response analysis highlights the relevance of Codebook motifs. a, MARA was conducted in five consecutive steps. (1) TF binding motifs from Codebook and HOCOMOCO[38] (v12) were clustered, yielding 653 clusters, 135 of which consisted solely of Codebook motifs. (2) Motif clusters were filtered based on the total $\log_2$TPM of member TFs, resulting in 632 clusters of expressed TF motifs. (3) Representative motifs for each cluster were used to scan 209,374 genomic regions of 260 bp (250 bp upstream and 10 bp downstream relative to the representative TSS position of each promoter). (4) The sum-occupancy scores were used to perform the motif activity response analysis with the MARADONER Python package; (5) Pearson correlation coefficients were calculated for each representative motif by comparing the total TF expression against motif activities from MARA. **b,** Correlation between the TF expression ($\log_2$ TPM) and the activity of Codebook-specific (left) and known (right) motifs, the top 2 activators and inhibitors are labeled. Center line: median; box limits: upper and lower quartiles; whiskers: minimum and maximum values within the 1.5x interquartile range; dots: values outside the 1.5x interquartile range. **c,** Principal component analysis of FANTOM5 data for 142 human tissues using motif activities of 130 Codebook (left) and 471 known (right) representative motifs. X- and Y-axes: the first two principal components. Marker color: tissue groups, marker shape: nervous tissue development stage. TF: transcription factor, TPM: CAGE tags per million, CAGE: cap analysis of gene expression, TSS: transcription start site

Extended Data Figure 9. Transcription factors co-opted from DNA transposons. a,
Motif logos of human TFs that are derived from the domestication of *Tigger* and *Pogo*
DNA transposons and have previously known DNA binding motifs. Phylogenetic tree
was derived from DBD sequence alignments produced with MAFFT L-INS-I[103], and
produced using the same method described in the **Extended Data Fig. 2e** legend. The
tree is rooted on POGK, which is derived from a more distantly related family of
Pogo/Tigger-like elements relative to the other proteins[104,105]. Sequence logos are
Codebook-derived, except for CENPB, from the liturature[106]. **b,** average per-base read
count over Tigger15a TOPs in the human genome, for JRK ChIP-seq (orange) and
GHT-SELEX (purple), with peak sequences aligned to the Tigger15a consensus
sequence. JRK PWM scores at each base of the Tigger15a consensus sequence are
shown in black (plus strand) and grey (minus strand). **c,** Sequence logos of Codebook
human TFs that are derived from the domestication of DBDs from *hAT* superfamily DNA
transposons. Phylogenetic tree was derived from DBD sequence alignments produced
with MAFFT L-INS-I[103], although for ZBED4 the third of its four BED-zf domains was
used. The tree was produced using the same method as described in the **Extended**
Data Fig. 2e legend. **d,** Sequence logos of TFs derived from domestication of *Mutator*
and *PIF-Harbinger* DNA transposons. **e**, Alphafold3 structure of the five FLYWCH-type
zinc-fingers of FLYWCH1, and a TOP sequence from chr10:42167256-42167276 with
5bp flanks. Zinc finger domains are numbered according to their order in FLYWCH1
from the N-terminus to the C-terminus. Long linkers and terminal extensions are hidden
for simplicity. DBD: DNA-binding domain, PWM: position weight matrix.

a

TF	Source	Motif ID	Motif logo
ARID1	Factorbook	ENCSR491EBY	
CTCF	CisBP	M03082_3.00	
KDM5B	Factorbook	ENCSR000AQA	
YY1	CisBP	M04611_3.00	
DRAP1	Factorbook	ENCSR765MKZ	
NFYA	CisBP	M10141_3.00	
GATAD2A	Factorbook	ENCSR925BFV	
CEBPA	CisBP	M08710_3.00	
GATAD2A	Factorbook	ENCSR925BFV	
FOXO1	CisBP	M03226_3.00	
MBD1	Factorbook	ENCSR396QWK	
REST	CisBP	M08305_3.00	

b

TF	Source	Motif ID	Motif logo
GATAD2A	Factorbook	ENCSR160QYK	
GATAD2A	Codebook	PWM000707	
ZBED2	Jaspar	MA1971.1	
ZBED2	Codebook	PWM100759	
ZNF623	Jaspar	UN0210.1	
ZNF623	Codebook	PWM004913	

c

TF	Source	Motif ID	Motif logo	Notes
ZNF592	Factorbook	ENCSR701AQS		No result in codebook, validated in multiple cells
ZNF577	HOCOMOCO	ZN577.H12CORE.0.P.B		Not tested in Codebook, specific and consistent for a C2H2-zf
GATAD2B	Factorbook	ENCSR547LKC		No result in codebook, consistent with orthologs

Extended Data Figure 10. Examples of evaluation of external PWMs. a, Cases in
which the external PWM matches the PWM of a well-studied TF that is a frequent
"contaminant" motif in ChIP-seq[107]. In each example, the top sequence logo represents
the external PWM, and the bottom sequence logo represents a highly similar CisBP
PWM for a "contaminant" motif. **b,** Cases in which the external PWM (top in each
example) is consistent with the Codebook PWM for the same TF (bottom in each
example). **c,** External PWM sequence logos that cannot be explained as known
contaminants or artifacts, some of which are supported by multiple lines of evidence
and thus appear accurate. PWM: position weight matrix

SUPPLEMENTARY INFORMATION

Supplementary Table 1. List of tested proteins and assay successes. Table lists the Codebook proteins and positive control TFs that were analyzed in the Codebook studies and provides metadata and information on whether they showed sequence-specific DNA binding activities in different types of experiments, together with the ID of the representative PWM selected in this study, if any.

Supplementary Table 2. Inserts used in this study. Table provides the amino acid sequence and type (full-length or DBD) for the 716 inserts used in the Codebook studies.

Supplementary Table 3. Plasmids used in this study. Table lists the plasmid backbone and insert for each of the 1,387 plasmids used in the Codebook studies.

Supplementary Table 4. Experiments performed in this study. Table lists the 4,805 experiments performed on Codebook and control TFs, along with 20 additional GFP control experiments, as well as 43 experiments from Schmitges et al. 2016[10] and 25 experiments from Isakova et al. 2017[9] that were reanalyzed. The experiment ID, experiment type, TF assayed, expert curation result, and plasmid ID are listed for each experiment. Each experiment is mapped to its ID in an accompanying manuscript[14], and 9 additional experiments used only in an accompanying manuscript[14] are explicitly marked.

Supplementary Table 5. Representative PWMs. Table displays logo representations for the PWMs that were manually selected as the representative for each of the TFs (i.e. the expert-curated motifs).

Supplementary Table 6. Re-assessment of unsuccessful proteins. Table summarizes the re-assessment outcomes for the unsuccessful proteins. A detailed description can be found in **Supplementary Document 1.**

Supplementary Table 7. External ChIP-seq datasets. Table lists external ChIP-seq datasets obtained from the GTRD database and ENCODE consortium for Codebook and control TFs as well as other putative TFs that were not tested in Codebook.

Supplementary Table 8. TF-wise allele-specific binding sites. This table contains transcription factor allele-specific binding sites (ASBs) identified using Codebook data at 5% FDR. Each entry represents an allele specific interaction between a TF and its DNA binding site in the vicinity of or directly encompassing the single-nucleotide variant, for which the allelic imbalance of read counts was observed between the reference and the alternative alleles.

Supplementary Table 9. Aggregated allele-specific binding sites. This table contains the joint set of allele-specific binding sites (FDR 5%) aggregated across all Codebook data (all transcription factors and experiment types), eQTL associated phenotypes (EBI GWAS Catalog), and known ASB annotations of the respective single-

nucleotide variants. Each entry corresponds to the allele-specific binding of one or more
TFs. The aggregated statistics combine evidence from multiple TFs and experiments
(ChIP-Seq and multiple cycles of GHT-SELEX).

Supplementary Table 10. Representative motifs for all human TFs. Table lists
representative motifs for Codebook TFs, TFs with previously known specificities, and
motifs for 33 uncharacterized TFs curated from other publications (see "**Curation of**
new external motifs for previously uncharacterized TFs"). Motif cluster membership
is also indicated (**Extended Data Fig. 6**). The PWMs can be found in **Supplementary**
Data 1.

Supplementary Table 11. MARA motif clusters and representative motifs. Details
for the 653 motif clusters generated for the motif activity response analysis using
FANTOM5 data.

Supplementary Table 12. MARA results. Table contains the MARA-predicted motif
activity estimates across FANTOM5 samples for each motif cluster, their Pearson
correlations with the expression of corresponding TFs in 583 samples used for the
MARA analysis, ANOVA statistics, and significance estimates.

Supplementary Table 13. External PWMs. Table lists PWM identifiers, manual
curation and other metadata for external motifs available from the JASPAR,
HOCOMOCO and Factorbook databases.

Supplementary Table 14. Updated census of human transcription factors and
their motif coverage. Table is modified from Lambert et al. 2018[1] to display an
updated motif coverage of human TFs and indicates the IDs of the representative motifs
(see **Supplementary Table 10**).

Supplementary Table 15. Motif derivation tools. The table describes which methods
were used for analyzing the main experiment types and summarizes the numbers of
TFs and experiments that the methods were applied to, as well as the outcomes of motif
analyses.

Supplementary Table 16. Common artifact motifs. Table contains PWMs that
represent artifact or false positive signals that were commonly observed in the
Codebook experiments.

Supplementary Data 1. Representative motifs for all Human TFs. The archive
contains representative PWMs for all 1,421 TFs with a known binding specificity. Motif
annotation is provided in **Supplementary Table 10**.

Supplementary Document 1. Case-by-case re-assessment of unsuccessful
Codebook proteins. This document contains detailed case-by-case manual
assessments for the proteins that did not yield successful experiments. The proteins are
organized by DNA binding domain composition and the result of the re-assessment.
The objective of the re-assessment was to determine whether manual examination of

existing knowledge, and in some cases the Codebook data itself, suggest that they are
more likely than not to be potential sequence specific TFs (i.e., false negatives in the
scope of the Codebook project), or whether the available evidence instead supports
them being true negatives..

Supplementary Discussion. Additional discussion of undercharacterized DNA-binding
domains (particularly the SKI/SNO/DAC and C-Clamp domains), potential reasons for
the failure of experiments for some proteins to yield motifs, and transposon-derived TFs.

Supplementary Methods. Expanded methods sections related to the allele-specific
binding (ASB) analysis and Motif Activity Response Analysis (MARA).

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