### **SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIALS**

Materials and Methods Figures S1-S13 Tables S1-S3 References 37-63

### **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

#### **Genomic DNaseI Footprinting**

41 of the cell types used in this study were analyzed in Neph et al 2012, and 40 are novel to this study. These 40 novel diverse human cell types were subjected to DNaseI digestion and high-throughput sequencing, following previous methods (*37*–*39*) (**Table S1**). To generate genomewide per-nucleotide DNaseI cleavage profiles tags were aligned to the reference genome, build GRCh37/hg19 using Bowtie (*40*), version 0.12.7 with parameters: *--mm -n 3 -v 3 -k 2*, and *--phred33- quals* for Illumina HiSeq sequencer runs or *--phred64-quals* for Illumina GAII sequencer runs and the 5' ends of the aligned sequencing tags at each position along the genome were summed. Data from additional cell types were utilized from Neph et al. 2012 (*13*) (**Table S1**). FDR 1% DNase I footprints were identified in each cell type as previously described (*13*). DNaseI footprints found in any of the 81 cell types were identified using the BEDOPS command *bedops -m* on each of the individual cell-type DNaseI footprint files (*41*).

#### **Targeted exome footprinting**

The two cell types HMF and AG10803 were DNaseI digested and proceeded on to Illumina PE library construction following the previous methods described above for DNaseI footprinting. The DNaseI libraries was amplified by PCR following the Exon Capture SureSelect protocol recommendations with minimal amount of PCR cycles and then purified using Agencourt AMPure XP beads (Beckman Coulter Genomics). Five hundred nanograms of each library was hybridized to Agilent SureSelect Human All Exon Kit (50 Mb) for 24 h at 65 C. The biotinylated probe/target hybrids were captured on DynalMyOne Streptavidin T1 (Invitrogen), washed, eluted, and desalted and purified on a MinElute PCR column (Qiagen) as described in the SureSelect protocol. The eluted captured library was amplified by PCR with minimal amount of PCR cycles. Amplified exon captured libraries were purified using AngencourtAMPure XP beads the samples were then quantified by QubitdsDNA assay (Invitrogen). Samples were diluted to a working concentration of 10 nM. Cluster generation was performed for each sample and loaded on to single lane of an Illumina HiSeq flowcell. Paired end sequencing was performed for 36 cycles according to manufacturer's instructions.

#### **Overlap of DNaseI footprints with coding sequence**

Genomic regions annotated as coding were identified using the Consensus CDS (CCDS) (Release 6) (*42*). Each transcript within this database having two or more exons was utilized to identify first, internal and final coding exons, with first coding exons, by definition, always containing the methionine start codon, and final coding exons, by definition, always containing the stop codon. The density of footprints within exons was computed by first calculating the number of DNaseI footprints within a cell type that overlap coding sequence by at least 50% and dividing that by the total number of mappable bases within the coding sequence. The density of DNaseI footprints surrounding splice acceptor sites, splice donor sites, start codons and stop codons was calculated by summing the number of DNaseI footprints that overlap each base surrounding these genomic features in each of the 81 cell types.

### **Generation and analysis of genome-wide methylation patterns**

Whole genome methylation data was collected on fetal small intestine, as previously described. Alignment and methylation calling of bisulfite-seq reads was performed using Bismark (*43*). Methylation calls from Bismark were converted to BED format for subsequent comparisons using the BEDOPS tools (*41*). The methylation level of each genomic CpG was calculated as the number of distinct fragments representing an unconverted cytosine on either strand, divided by the total number of distinct fragments overlapping the CpG.

### **Allelic chromatin imbalance measurements**

Allelic chromatin imbalance was calculated as previously described (*13*). Briefly, known autosomal single nucleotide variants (SNVs) were downloaded from the 1000 Genomes Project and SNVs mapping within 36 bases of each other were removed. DNaseI-seq reads overlapping a SNV were counted only if they contained no more than one mismatch, excluding the SNV, and duplicate DNaseIseq reads were removed from this analysis. To test for allelic chromatin imbalance we first combined DNaseI cleavage reads overlapping a particular SNV in all cell types heterozygous at that SNV. The difference in DNaseI cleavage reads containing each of the two alleles was tested using a two-sided binomial test, with SNVs having  $P < 0.01$  considered as showing significant chromatin allelic imbalance. To test whether two sets of SNVs significantly differed in the proportion showing allelic imbalance, a read depth distribution was derived from each set, and the intersection was determined to generate a read-depth-matched random sample as large as possible. At each particular read depth, all sites from the set with fewer instances of that depth were included, and a random sample without replacement was taken from the set with more instances. Finally, we counted sites in each set showing allelic imbalance with two-sided binomial test  $P < 0.01$ . The difference between these counts was tested for significance with a one-sided Fisher's exact test. The SIFT (*44*) and PolyPhen-2 (*45*) scores at each nonsynonymous SNV were determined using Ensembl's Variant Effect Predictor(*46*).

#### **Distribution of common disease- and trait-associated lead SNPs within DNaseI footprints**

Using HapMap CEU SNPs for a null model, we found the GWAS SNPs to be significantly enriched in both coding ( $P < 10^{\lambda}$ -11, binomial) and noncoding ( $P < 10^{\lambda}$ -26, binomial) regions of DNase I footprints. For these calculations, we used release 27 of HapMap (*47*), which contained 4,029,798 SNPs. 5,873 of these lie within coding regions of footprints, while 34 of the 5,386 unique GWAS SNPs lie in these regions. We used the R function pbinom(*x*; *n*, *p*), which returns Prob( $X > x$ ), to compute the P-value; because we want Prob( $X > =$ *x*), we used pbinom with  $x = 33$ ,  $n = 5,386$ , and  $p = 5,873/4,029,798$ . 373,006 HapMap CEU SNPs lie within noncoding regions of footprints, as do 744 GWAS SNPs. For the corresponding P-value, we used pbinom with *x* = 743, *n* = 5,386, and *p* = 373,006/4,029,798.

### **Transcription factor occupancy at SNPs in linkage with rs495337**

Genome wide association study (GWAS) lead SNPs were downloaded from Maurano et al 2012 (*48*). The synonymous coding variant rs495337, which is associated with Psoriasis (*49*, *50*), was identified as overlapping DNaseI footprints in NB4 cells using BEDOPS (*41*). To identify other SNPs linked with rs495337 that may also be contributing to the psoriasis association signal we utilized whole genome sequencing data from 267 individuals of Northern and Western European (CEPH), Finnish (FIN) and English and Scottish (GBR) ancestry (*51*), corresponding to the geographic regions used in the original GWAS studies. The 98 SNPs with a genotype R-squared greater than 0.8 were used for further analysis. The allele at each of these SNPs in linkage with the rs495337 psoriasis risk allele (G allele) was also determined using the whole genome sequencing data from these 267 individuals. Of these 99 SNPs (including rs495337), 14 overlapped a DNaseI footprint in at least one of the 81 cell types (**Table S3**). In total three of these SNPs were associated with allelic chromatin imbalance at the overlapping DNaseI footprints (rs495337 in NB4 cells; rs492702 in NB4 cells; and rs2281217 in RPMI cells) and two of these were synonymous coding variants (rs495337 and rs492702).

#### **Distribution of DNaseI footprinted TF recognition sequences**

Human genome build hg19 was scanned for predicted TRANSFAC (*52*), JASPAR Core (*53*) and UniPROBE (*54*) motif-binding sites using FIMO (*55*), version 4.6.1, with a maximum p value threshold of  $10^{\circ}$ -5 and defaults for other parameters. We marked a putative binding site as being occupied within a cell type if it overlapped a DNaseI footprint within that cell types by at least 3 nt, as previously described in (*13*). The distribution of DNaseI footprinted TF binding elements within and surrounding coding exons was computed by calculating the distance of the mid-point of the TF binding element to the beginning of the overlapping or neighboring coding exon, relative to the length of that coding exon. TF recognition sequence motif logos were generated using Weblogo 3 and all of the exonic binding sites for that TF (*56*). Start codon, stop codon, splice acceptor site and splice donor site motifs were generated by aligning all relevant genomic elements using CCDS coding sequence annotations and calculating base enrichments using Weblogo 3 (*56*).

### **Protein domain architecture overlapping TF binding sites**

The position of NRSF binding sites (JASPAR Core model MA0138.2) relative to the codon frame within the first exon was analyzed using Consensus CDS (CCDS) database gene models (Release 6). Possible alignments included; (1) the first frame of the coding strand; (2) the second frame of the coding strand; (3) the third frame of the coding strand; (4) the first frame of the template strand; (5) the second frame of the template strand; and (6) the third frame of the template strand. Of the 382 footprinted NRSF recognition sequences within the first exon, 253 were found aligned with the third frame of the coding strand. The protein domain architecture overlapping these binding elements were analyzed using; (1) signal peptide domain predictions from the SignalP 4.1 Server (*57*); (2) transmembrane domain predictions from the TMHMM Server v. 2.0 (*58*); (3) leucine-rich nuclear export signal predictions from the NetNES 1.1 Server (*59*); and (4) the Superfamily database of structural and functional protein domain annotations (*60*). Logos of the frequency of amino acids overlapping TF recognition sequences were generated using Weblogo 3 (*56*).

For calculation of CTCF splice acceptor site conservation, we calculated the average phyloP score at the 10 bases immediately upstream (relative to reading frame) of all internal exons, or internal exons with splice acceptor sites overlapping footprinted CTCF binding elements. To test if the differences in average phyloP conservation scores for those splice sites overlapping a footprinted CTCF binding element were likely to be observed by sampling error alone, we ran the same calculation on sets of randomly-selected splice sites one million times. On each trial, the same number of splice sites as were observed actually overlapping a footprinted CTCF binding element were drawn randomly without replacement from the total set of splice sites, and the average phyloP score of bases within those sampled sites was calculated. If the absolute difference between this sample mean and the mean phyloP score for all splice sites exceeded the difference observed on real overlaps, a trial was counted as a hit. The number of such random hits divided by the total number of trials estimates the probability that we could have observed differences of at least that magnitude if there were no relationship between footprinted binding elements and conservation within splice sites. For SREBP1 occupied splice donor sites a similar strategy was used except it focused only on the 10 bases immediately downstream (relative to reading frame) of all first coding exons, as well as first coding exons with splice donor sites overlapping footprinted SREBP1 binding elements.

#### **Evolutionary constraint at footprinted coding sequences**

Evolutionary constraint at TF binding sites was calculated using phyloP evolutionary conservation scores (*61*) . 4-fold degenerate bases were identified based on the sequence features of each codon (e.g. the third position of the following codons: CTA, CTT, CTG, CTC, GTA, GTT, GTG, GTC, TCA, TCT, TCG, TCC, CCA, CCT, CCG, CCC, ACA, ACT, ACG, ACC, GCA, GCT, GCG, GCC, CGA, CGT, CGG, CGC, GGA, GGT, GGG, GGC). Non-degenerate bases were identified based on the sequence features of each codon (e.g. the first and second position of every codon except TTA, TTG, CTA, CTT, CTG, CTC, AGT, AGC, TCA, TCT, TCG, TCC, AGA, AGG, CGA, CGT, CGG, CGC. And the second position of TTA, TTG, CTA, CTT, CTG, CTC, AGA, AGG, CGA, CGT, CGG, CGC). To generate the conservation profile of a TF within exons, we calculated the average phyloP at all 4-fold degenerate bases, or nondegenerate bases, overlapping each position within the TF binding element. Only TFs with 20 or more data points contributing to each position within the binding element were used for further analysis. The number of bases contributing to each position within the binding element is shown in **Fig. S7**. To generate the conservation profile of a TF within promoters, a similar process was performed for all bases overlapping TF binding elements within non-coding promoter regions. Pearson correlations were calculated to determine the similarity of the conservation profile of a TF at promoter elements and coding 4-fold degenerate and coding non-degenerate sites.

#### **Mutational age at footprinted coding sequences**

Exome sequences were obtained from 6,515 individuals (4,298 of European American ancestry and 2,217 of African American ancestry) (*21*). Coding variants, specifically synonymous variants and nonsynonymous variants, were classified according to whether they overlapped a DNaseI footprint in any of the 81 tested cell types. Average mutation age for each category was calculated as previously described (*21*). Briefly, mutation age was estimated based on a derivation of Griffiths and Tavare(*62*) by generating a series of coalescent trees under a specified demographic model for European and African American populations (*63*). Average mutation age across variants for each category was defined as a weighted average of mutation age, where the weights are calculated according to the site-frequency-spectrum (SFS) in this category. Average mutation age in different categories was compared through permutations to identify significant differences (*21*).

#### **Codon usage biases and TF footprint trinucleotide frequencies**

Coding usage biases were obtained using CCDS gene annotations downloaded from the UCSC genome browser, corresponding to human build GRCh37/hg19 or mouse build

NCBI37/mm9. Individual codon locations were parsed into BED format, excluding start codons and any codons overlapping a splice site or that were ambiguous due to overlapping annotations in different reading frames. Coding annotations containing one or more internal stops in the reference sequence were also excluded. Overlaps of codon locations with footprint calls were determined using BEDOPS. Codons that partially overlapped a footprint were excluded. Noncoding trinucleotide frequencies were obtained using the genomic space uniquely mappable by 36-mer sequencing tags. CCDS coding exons, as well as RepeatMasker annotations also downloaded from the UCSC genome browser, were then subtracted from this space using BEDOPS, and the remaining regions divided by overlap with footprint calls. Finally, all reference-strand genomic 3-mers in the footprint or non-footprint space were tabulated separately.

## **SUPPLEMENTARY FIGURES**

**Figure S1. Genomic distribution of DNaseI footprints (A)** Shown is the average genomic distribution of DNaseI footprints across all 81 cell types. **(B)** Histogram showing for each coding base along the genome the number of cell types in which that base overlaps a DNaseI footprint. Y-axis is log-10 scale. **(C)** The proportion of genes containing DNaseI footprints in each of the 81 cell types studied, or in any of the cell types studied. **(D)** Histogram showing the number of coding DNaseI footprints per gene. **(E)** The percentage of coding bases occupied by DNaseI footprints from conventional and targeted DNaseI footprinting.

**Figure S2. DNaseI footprints identified using additional cell types** Total number of coding bases overlapping DNaseI footprints identified using the published datasets.

**Figure S3. Sensitivity of coding DNaseI footprints using capture DNaseI-seq. (A)** Summary of Capture DNaseI-seq method. **(B)** Per-nucleotide vertebrate conservation as well as pernucleotide DNaseI-seq and capture DNaseIseq cleavage patterns at coding binding elements for NFIC, CTCF, REST, YY1 and NRF1. **(C-D)** *Capture DNaseI-seq enables extensive DNaseI footprint identification and superior quantification.* (C) The average number of sequenced DNaseI cleavages surrounding DNaseI footprints using DNaseIseq and Capture DNaseI-seq data. (D) The average depth of DNaseI footprints using DNaseI-seq and Capture DNaseI-seq data. Note that Capture DNaseI-seq enables the more precise quantification of DNaseI footprints.

**Figure S4. TFs preferentially occupy coding bases from expressed genes. (A)** The average density of DNaseI footprints within coding sequence and outside of coding sequence. **(B)** *Long genes contain more TF footprints than short genes.* Box-and-whisker plots showing the association of coding gene length with the number of DNaseI footprints within that coding sequence. R-squared and p-values are from a linear regression of coding gene length vs. the number of DNaseI footprints within that coding sequence. **(C-D)** *Transcription factors preferentially populate highly expressed genes.* (C) Shown is a box-andwhiskers plot of the gene expression in HMVEC dBlNeo cells for genes with 0, 1-4 and  $5+$  coding DNaseI footprints. (D) Shown is the correlation of exonic footprints count with gene expression in 47 cell types with DNaseI footprint calls and gene expression data.

## **Figure S5. TF binding elements impart evolutionary constraint on coding sequence.**

**(A)** The percentage of 4-fold degenerate bases above a minimum phyloP conservation level that overlap DNaseI footprints. **(B)** Average phyloP conservation at 4-fold degenerate (left) and nondegenerate (right) exonic bases within DNaseI footprints found any of the 81 cell types, and within exons harboring DNaseI footprints in any of the 81 cell types, yet outside of the actual DNaseI footprint. P-values were calculated using Wilcoxon rank sum two-sided tests. **(C)** 4,298 sequenced exomes from individuals of European ancestry were utilized to identify SNVs overlapping DNaseI footprints in any of the 81 cell types. **(D)** 2,217 sequenced exomes from individuals of African American ancestry were utilized to identify SNVs overlapping DNaseI footprints in any of the 81 cell types. **(E)** The average mutational age at all (grey), synonymous (brown) and nonsynonymous (red) African American coding SNVs identified within and outside of DNaseI footprints. Mutational ages and p-values were calculated as before (*21*).

**Figure S6. Transcription factors influence codon choice. (A-B)** Per-nucleotide phyloP vertebrate conservation and DNaseI cleavage plots at (A) a non-coding and (B) a coding NFIC regulatory element. Note that NFIC imparts a stereotyped pattern of evolutionary constraint when bound at non-coding regulatory elements. **(C)** Average per-nucleotide conservation profile at footprinted binding elements for ZNF219 (left), REST (second), NFKB (third), CTCF (fourth) and MYF (right) overlapping non-coding bases within promoters (blue), 4-fold degenerate coding bases (brown) and non-degenerate coding bases (red). Pearson correlation values (r) between conservation profiles at promoter bases and 4-fold degenerate bases (top) or nondegenerate bases (bottom) are shown in the upper right corner of each plot.

**Figure S7. 4-fold degenerate and non-degenerate bases overlapping DNaseI footprinted TF elements. (A-G)** Shown are the number of bases overlapping different positions within footprinted (A) KLF4, (B) NFKB, (C) CTCF, (D) MYF, (E) NFIC, (F) ZNF291, and (G) REST binding elements in any of the 81 cell types. Bases overlapping binding elements are broken into; (left/blue) promoter element bases; (middle/brown) 4-fold degenerate bases; and (right/red) nondegenerate bases.

**Figure S8. TF sequence preferences and codon usage biases in** *M. musculus***. (A)**  Comparison of global codon usage preferences in *H. sapiens* and *M. musculus*. **(B)** Comparison of the TF trinucleotide preferences in *H. sapiens* and *M. musculus*. *H. sapiens* tri nucleotide preferences are derived from trinucleotides preferentially localized within non-coding DNaseI footprints in *H. sapiens* B-cells. *M. musculus* trinucleotide preferences are derived from trinucleotides preferentially localized within non-coding DNaseI footprints in *M. musculus* Bcells.

**Figure S9. TFs are influenced by and can exploit coding features of exons (A)** *NFYA, AP2 and SP1 preferentially avoid binding within coding sequence, start codons and splice junctions.*  The density of (top) NFYA, (middle) AP2 and (bottom) SP1 DNaseI footprints relative to first, middle and final coding exons. Coding sequence is colored in purple. **(B)** *NRSF binding elements preferentially align to the coding strand at the third frame of the codon and exploit start codons.*  (top) The density of NRSF DNaseI footprints relative to first coding exons. (bottom-left) Shown is the NRSF motif model as well as a logo of the amino acid sequence at all occupied coding strand NRSF binding elements that overlap a start codon. (bottom-right) Shown is the number of NSRF binding elements within first coding exons that align to the three different coding positions along either the coding or template strand. **(C)** Average evolutionary constraint (phyloP) at 4-fold degenerate bases within first coding exon transmembrane (TM) domains that either overlap (top), or do not overlap (bottom) a footprinted NSRF binding element (p-value calculated using Wilcoxon rank sum two-sided tests).

**Figure S10. TF occupancy at stop codons and splice sites reflects global evolution in TF preferences (A)** *CTCF binding elements exploit splice acceptor sites.* (top) The density of CTCF DNaseI footprints relative to middle coding exons. (bottom) Shown is the CTCF motif model in comparison with the splice acceptor site motif model. **(B)** *SREBP1 binding elements exploit splice donor sites.* (top) The density of SREBP1 DNaseI footprints relative to first coding exons. (bottom) Shown is the SREBP1 motif model in comparison with the splice acceptor site motif model. **(C)** Average evolutionary constraint (phyloP) of the 10 bp non-coding portion of splice acceptor sites for internal exons, as well as those that overlap footprinted CTCF binding elements (p-value empirically calculated by resampling 1 million times). **(D)** Average evolutionary constraint (phyloP) of the 10 bp non-coding portion of splice donor sites for internal exons, as well as those that overlap footprinted SREBP1 binding elements (p-value empirically calculated by resampling 1 million times). **(E-F)** *Transcription factors preferentially avoid occupying splice sites and stop codons.* (E) Shown is the density of DNaseI footprints surrounding start codons, splice donor sites, splice acceptor sites and stop codons. Sequence features of these elements are displayed as motif models and coding sequence is colored in purple. (F) The frequency of the stop codon trinucleotides TAA, TAG and TGA within and outside of non-coding DNaseI footprints.

**Figure S11. TF occupancy within coding sequence is modeled by CpG methylation (A)** The difference in the percentage of annotated coding and non-coding transcription factor binding elements overlapping a DNaseI footprint in each cell type. Positive values indicate that a greater fraction of coding binding elements are occupied as compared to non-coding elements. **(B)** The difference in the percentage of CpGs methylated within annotated coding and non-coding transcription factor binding elements in each cell type. Positive values indicate that a greater fraction of CpGs are unmethylated in coding binding elements as compared to CpGs in noncoding elements. **(C)** Shown is a scatter plot of the preference of 232 TFs for occupying coding vs. non-coding binding elements (y-axis) and being CpG methylated at coding vs. non-coding binding elements (x-axis). Pearson correlation and p-value of a linear regression are shown in the upper right corner.

**Figure S12. Coding DNaseI footprints are enriched in variants associated with allelespecific chromatin states** Heterozygous coding SNVs associated with allele-specific occupancy are significantly enriched inside DNaseI footprints ( $P < 1x10-8$ , Fisher's exact test using tag normalized datasets).

**Figure S13. Coding variants linked to disease susceptibility can also influence chromatin state (A)** Shown is the proportion of coding GWAS variants linked to disease susceptibility that overlap DNaseI footprints in one of the 81 tested cell types. **(B-F)***Synonymous coding variants linked to psoriasis susceptibility are associated with chromatin state changes selectively within transformed hematopoietic cells.* (B) SNPs in tight linkage with the psoriasis associated synonymous coding variant (rs495337) were identified using whole genome sequencing data from 267 individuals of Northern and Western European (CEPH), Finnish (FIN) and English and Scottish (GBR) ancestry, corresponding to the geographic regions used in the original GWAS studies. Of the 98 SNPs with a genotype R-squared greater than 0.8 (red points), 14 overlap DNaseI footprints in at least 1 cell type and 3 are associated with allelically imbalanced chromatin state, including the initial lead SNP (rs495337, rs492702 and rs2281217). (C) DNaseI cleavage density profiles surrounding two of the psoriasis linked variants that are associated with allelically imbalanced chromatin state (rs495337 and rs492702) for 16 human cells potentially involved in psoriasis pathogenesis. The genotypes of each cell type at rs495337 and rs492702 are indicated to the right of the plot. (D) DNaseI cleavage pattern surrounding the synonymous SNP rs492702 (left) and the synonymous SNP rs495337 (right) in NB4 cells. Binding elements overlapping DNaseI footprints are indicated below. (E) Shown is the chromatin accessibility associated with either the psoriasis risk or non-risk allele of rs492702 (left) and rs495337 (right) within NB4 cells (P < 1x10-5, Fisher's exact test). (F) (top) DNaseI cleavage pattern surrounding the psoriasis-linked non-coding SNP rs2281217 in Melanoma cells (RPMI\_7951). (bottom) Shown is the chromatin accessibility associated with either the psoriasis risk or non-risk allele of rs2281217 within Melanoma cells (RPMI\_7951) ( $P < 1x10-2$ , Fisher's exact test).

## **Table S1. Sample information for the different cell types used in this study**

## **Table S2. Overlap of different codons with DNaseI footprints**

**Table S3. Regulatory information of SNPs in linkage with rs495337** 



























# **Supplemental Table 1**



# **Supplemental Table 1 (continued)**



# **Supplemental Table 2**



# **Supplemental Table 2 (continued)**



# **Supplemental Table 3**

