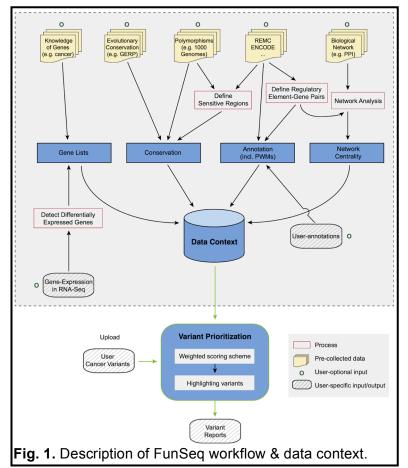
- experience in annotating We have noncoding regions of the genome, including both TF-binding sites and noncoding RNAs. We have experience in noncoding genome annotation, as part of our 10-year history with the ENCODE and modENCODE projects. Our TF work includes the development of methods to define the binding peaks of TFs¹, prediction of a TF's target genes², and new machine learning techniques³. Furthermore, we methods that integrate ChIP-seg. chromatin, conservation, sequence and gene annotation data to identify gene-distal enhancers⁴, which we have partially validated⁵. We also constructed linear and non-linear models that utilize TF binding and histone modification signals to accurately predict the transcriptional output of a gene in different cell types of several organisms including yeast, worm, fly, and human⁶⁻¹⁰. We have also constructed regulatory networks for human and model organisms^{11,12}, and completed many analyses on them^{5,7,11,13-26}.
- 2. We have experience in allelic analyses. A specific class of regulatory variants is one that is related to allele-specific events. These are variants that are associated with allele-specific binding (ASB), particularly for transcription factors or DNA-binding proteins, and allele-



specific expression (ASE)^{27,28}. We have previously developed a tool, AlleleSeq,²⁴ for the detection of candidate variants associated with ASB and ASE. Using this we have generated comprehensive lists of allelic variants for ENCODE and 1000 Genomes and found that allelic variants are under differential selection from non-allelic ones^{11,22,29}. By constructing regulatory networks based on ASB of TFs and ASE of their target genes, we further revealed substantial coordination between allele-specific binding and expression¹¹. Furthermore, we have constructed a personal diploid genome and transcriptome of NA12878³⁰.

- **3.** We have experience in relating annotation to variation: the FunSeq pipeline. We have extensively analyzed patterns of variation in noncoding regions, along with their coding targets^{5,11,31}. In recent studies^{22,32}, we have integrated and extended these methods to develop a prioritization pipeline called FunSeq (**Fig. 1**). It identifies sensitive and ultra-sensitive regions (i.e., those annotations under strong selective pressure, as determined using genomes from many individuals from diverse populations). FunSeq links each noncoding mutation to target genes, and prioritizes such variants based on scaled network connectivity. It identifies deleterious variants in many noncoding functional elements, including TF binding sites, enhancer elements, and regions of open chromatin corresponding to DNase I hypersensitive sites. Integrating large-scale data from various resources (including ENCODE and The 1000 Genomes Project) with cancer genomics data, our method is able to prioritize the known TERT promoter driver mutations. Using FunSeq, we identified ~100 noncoding candidate drivers in ~90 WGS medulloblastoma, breast and prostate cancer samples²². Drawing on this experience, we are currently co-leading the ICGC PCAWG-2 (analysis of mutations in regulatory regions) group.
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